
LIBRARY OF CONGRESS
1800

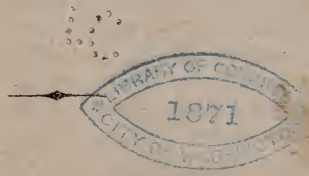
THE

AMERICAN GRAMMAR.

BY JAMES BROWN.

PREPARED FOR THE USE OF SCHOOLS BY THE AUTHOR.

"When a country so idolizes its old forms as to tremble at an appeal from their use, the avenues to improvement are closed; national reputation sickens; the expiring rattle is heard in the larynx of genius, and the cold sweat of death covers the public body—a republic must advance; or it must retrograde." *Appeal.*



Philadelphia:
PUBLISHED BY CLARK & RASER,
No. 60, Dock Street.
1831.

[*Entered by* JAMES BROWN, *and* CLARK & RASER, *in the Office of the Clerk of the Eastern District of Pennsylvania*, 1831, *according to Act of Congress.*]

Clark & Raser, Printers

ADVERTISEMENT.

NOTHING so effectually prevents improvement as a belief of present perfection. It is observed by Mr. Murray, that little improvement in English Grammar can be expected at so late a period. This gentleman may have exhausted the source whence he has derived his extensive compilations; but it does not follow that he has exhausted the principles of this science. The truth is, that Mr. Murray's Grammar is neither in accordance with sound sense, nor with the principles of our language—and to sustain this position, the author of the American Grammar has published AN APPEAL FROM THE BRITISH SYSTEM OF ENGLISH PHILOLOGY TO COMMON SENSE. The Appeal comprises about five hundred pages, and makes a full exposure of the *defects*, *errors* and *contradictions*, which pervade not only Mr. Murray's, but every other system that is founded upon the British principles of English Grammar.

About twelve years since, the author of this work began those investigations in English Philology, which have resulted in this system. He commenced by forming a *new nomenclature*, which, in his opinion, is absolutely necessary to a clear and satisfactory development of the *Grammar* of the language. About this time he printed his first work, which makes but two parts of speech; namely, PRIMARY and SECONDARY.

1. The *Primary* is a word which is *constructively independent;* as, *man*, *book*.

2. The *Secondary* is a word which is *constructively dependent;* as, "*a good* man *walks uprightly in all his* ways."

Since the time of the author's first publication, he has printed twenty works upon this science; these have been robbed by the herd of simplifiers, and made the foundation of those *overgrown pretensions* which have

disgusted the people, and disgraced their *modest* authors. It is unnecessary to enumerate the names of the whole family of these *plagiarists*, and *new modellers*—yet, out of compliment to those who have *recommended* the author's works by a *liberal* and *free* use of their principles, it seems a duty to mention a *Greenleaf*, an *Ingersoll*, a *Cardell*, a *Kirkham*, and a *Gould Brown!* That these writers are *dishonest authors*, the different works published by the author of the American Grammar, most clearly demonstrate; and that they are unsuccessful ones, *time*, which must give a faithful account of their *fate*, will, not far hence, place beyond *dispute*.

Since the author's first publication upon this science, he has printed others upon the same subject, in which he has restored the *old nomenclature*—but as these have not been so well received as the first, he has come to the resolution to make the second attempt at the introduction of a *new nomenclature*.

This work, like the first, makes but two parts of speech—but instead of PRIMARY and SECONDARY, they are NOUN and ADJECTIVE.

It is generally thought by those who have merely heard of the philological works of JOHN HORNE TOOKE, that this distinguished Grammarian has presented in his "*Diversions of Purley*," a system of English Grammar; and that this system makes but *two* parts of speech. But he has attempted to form no system of Grammar—nor does he pretend to say how many parts of speech there are in any language! He does assert, however, that all the Conjunctions, Prepositions, &c. in our language, have been derived from *nouns* or *verbs*. But he does not even intimate that the words derived from this source, should now be considered and called *nouns* and *verbs!* Perhaps no one but Mr. Cardell has ever attempted to class, and name words according to their source of derivation—a principle which would include *detract* and *detraction* in the same class; thus making *detraction* a verb!

The system here presented is so far from being a departure from the principles upon which the author's first attempts were made, that it is a very close conformity to them. Of the works which the author's

inceptive stages of investigation produced, most of the gentlemen whose names are here presented, spake in quite flattering terms—And, although the author does not rest the introduction of his system upon the authority of great names; yet, as philosophers and moralists, theologians and politicians have resorted to the opinions, and concurrent testimony of distinguished individuals to obtain a sanction for their doctrines and systems, he deems it proper to present to the public the opinions which eminent scholars and teachers have expressed of his work:

His Excellency, De Witt Clinton.
E. Nott, President of Union College.
Rev. John Findlay, A. M., Baltimore.
Rev. Samuel Blatchford, Lansingburg.
Prof. Yates, Union College.
Rev. John Chester, Albany.
Rev. C. G. Somers, New York.
W. A. Tweed Dale, Principal of the Lancasterian School, Albany.
Rev. D. H. Barnes, classical teacher, New York.
C. Schaeffer, Pastor of Christ Church, New York.
Rev. Solomon Brown, Principal of the Classical and Belles Lettres Academy, New York.
Rev. D. Parker, A. M. Principal of Broad-street Academy, New York.
Caroline M. Thayer, Preceptress of Philom. Academy, New York.
Charles Spaulding, Principal of Union Academy, New Brunswick, New Jersey.
L. S. Lownsbury, Principal of Village Academy, New York.
C. K. Gardner, A. M. Washington City.
Richard R. Fenner, teacher, Baltimore.
James Gould, teacher, Baltimore.
Mr. Stewart, teacher, Baltimore.
Rev. Thomas Wheat, Principal of the Academy appended to St. Paul's Church, Alexandria.
Benjamin Hallowell, *one* of the Principals of the Alexandria Classical and Mathematical Boarding School.
John R. Pierpont, Mechanic's Hall Academy, Alexandria.
Mr. Allison, A. M., Classical teacher, Alexandria.
Samuel Douglas, Esq., Harrisburg.
Dr. A. T. Dean, Harrisburg.
Roberts Vaux, Philadelphia.
C. J. Ingersoll, Philadelphia.
W. M. Meredith, Philadelphia.
D. P. Brown, Philadelphia.
Dr. W. C. Brinckle, Philadelphia.
Dr. A. Comstock, teacher, do.
Thomas A. Taylor, do. do.
Mr. Slack, do. do.
Mr. Goodfellow, do. do.

David Maclure, Philadelphia.
Thomas M. Raser, Philadelphia.
John M'Allison, Alexandria.
E. Fouse, Philadelphia.
S. H. Wilson, Philadelphia.
Thomas J. Harris, Chambersburg.
N. R. Smith, Pittsburg.
John N. M'Nivins, Pittsburg.
S. I. Anderson, Lt. U. S. Army, Minerva, Kentucky.
Benjamin F. Reeve, Minerva, Kentucky.
James H. Holton, Germantown, Kentucky.
John Erhart, Newport, Rhode Island.

N. B. The opinions of these gentlemen may be found at the close of the work.

The following names have been given by ten of the Professors in Mount St. Mary's Seminary, Emmettsburg.

James Lynch,
J. Butler,
John H. M'Caffery,
James Carny,
Mathew Taylor,
Barnard O. Cavanagh,
John M'Clasky,
Edward Sourin,
Edward Collins,
Thomas Butler.

The Proceedings of the Legislature of Pennsylvania, in reference to the American Grammar, being in the form of a recommendation, it may not be amiss to insert them in this place.

The fact is beyond doubt, that the subject of English Grammar has been in an unsettled state, from its commencement to the *present* period. And one of the many injurious results is that, schools are almost daily disturbed by the introduction of *new* Grammars. The people of the United States, feeling the bad effects of this course, must perceive that it proceeds from the defects of the British system of English philology: and they must also be satisfied that nothing can arrest the progress of this evil, but the *true* system! The citizens of Harrisburg, feeling the inconvenience and expense of this perpetual change in Grammars, and believing that it tends to retard the progress of youth in the study of this science, sent a petition to the Legislature of Pennsylvania, praying that body to investigate this subject; and to recommend a system of Grammar for the use of Schools. This petition, of course, was referred to the Committee on Education, who, after a delibe-

rate investigation, recommended "THE AMERICAN GRAMMAR."

The following is the report of the Committee, as published in the "HARRISBURG CHRONICLE."

"The Committee on Education, to whom was referred the petition of the citizens of Harrisburg, respecting the "AMERICAN GRAMMAR,"—Report:—

"That they have had the subject under consideration, and after mature deliberation, they are satisfied that the *American Grammar* is a work every way entitled to the patronage of an intelligent legislature.

"The English is a language which has been derived from various sources—hence it was long believed, among the learned, that it contained too many *irregularities* in structure, to admit a system of rules and definitions. This general impression prevented, for a long time, any attempts at the formation of a grammar for our language. At length, however, an attempt was made, and resulted in a mere translation of the Latin Grammar. This, of course, was found inapplicable to the true organization of the English language. Hence many attempts have been made to render the system, thus formed, more suitable to the singular structure of our vernacular tongue. But all these attempts have failed in a *great* degree,—so that even at the present day the old system but partially succeeds in reducing the grammar of the English language to a perfect set of rules and definitions. But the *American* system does, in the opinion of the Committee, accomplish this object.

"The Committee offer the following resolution:—

"*Resolved*, By the Senate and House of Representatives, &c. That the Secretary of the Commonwealth be, and he is hereby authorized and required to subscribe, on the part of the Commonwealth, for so many copies of Brown's *American* Grammar, as shall not exceed the amount of one thousand dollars."

The American Grammar, then, is recommended by this committee, as a system *perfectly* suited to the genius of our language—and so well were they satisfied of the importance of having it become the prevailing Gram-

mar in their own state, that they subjoined to the recommendation of the work, a resolution authorizing the Secretary of State to purchase copies to the amount of One Thousand Dollars for the encouragement of this system.

The work has since been abridged, and is in this form presented to Teachers for *experiment:* and it is confidently believed that they will find it to settle the subject of English Grammar both as to manner and matter.

The following, taken from the Carlisle Herald, will show the spirit of the proceedings of the Pennsylvania Legislature in relation to "The American Grammar."

The editor of that paper begins thus—"*Visit to Harrisburg.*"—"The editor was at Harrisburg part of the last two days of the session of the Legislature, and witnessed the last proceedings of that body." "There was a subject that excited considerable interest. Our readers will recollect that the Committee on Education reported a resolution in favour of 'Brown's American English Grammar,' requiring the Secretary of the Commonwealth to purchase $1000 worth of this work. This resolution was taken up on the evening of the 23d. A great degree of interest evidently existed in favour of Mr. Brown. And so bent on expressing their approbation of Mr. Brown's labours, were many in the house, that after the recess which the Legislature had, the following resolution was offered:"

"*Resolved*, That the Speaker be directed to draw his order on the State Treasurer for one hundred dollars, in favour of Mr. Brown, author of The American English Grammar, as a token of the estimation in which his services are held by this House."

PREFACE.

Even a superficial observer of human affairs, can but be satisfied that the *ease*, *accuracy*, *despatch* and *safety* with which the transactions of life are conducted, depend upon the degree of skill which men possess in the use of language. Who has not found that many of the difficulties which distract society by setting member against member, arise from a want of that skill in language, which is necessary to define the conditions of all those transactions that lie treasured up in words? It becomes every man and woman, therefore, to understand, critically, the language of their own country—and as an incentive to that careful attention which is necessary to such an understanding, let each one reflect upon the advantages of being able to use this instrument with ease, propriety and despatch.

In the business of life, language is invaluable; how important, then, is a knowledge of it. In social intercourse, language is dear to all; how desirable, then, is that skill which enables one to use it with all the ease with which he can move the fingers of his hands. In the higher walks of life, language holds an elevated rank; how important, then, to the lady and gentleman, is a refined acquaintance with it. And to parents, who should ever superintend the education of their children, a philosophic knowledge of language is a blessing indeed.

Nor is it of little importance to this *nation*, that her youth should be early and thoroughly instructed in the principles of the English tongue. Too little stress is laid upon the education of her children. Youth is the progressive state of both mind and body; and if either is neglected here, it never attains that height in excellence to which our species are capable of ascending. The proper nourishment for both, while in this state, is generous and constant action; and in exact proportion to the use of this, will be the strength of the body, and the capability of the soul. Children, as such, are passed by as of no real value to a nation—the fact, that from these young saplings are soon to be selected the pillars of the country, is rarely considered in its proper light, even by the American community.

Youth is the season designed by nature for the formation of the mind—the expansion of the soul. But man, mistaken man, has

contradicted this, and thus brought himself to a state so feeble that he can hardly secure his rights or enjoy his freedom! It is not pretended that American children are deprived of schools; but it is verily believed, that they nearly waste their precious childhood by a false system of teaching. Is it too late for *reform?* If not, let it be commenced in the primary schools—let the language be understood by the *teachers*, and by them thoroughly *taught* to their pupils. Let the institutions in which youth complete their education, give attention to their *own* tongue: too much time is devoted to other languages. American statesmen must be acquainted with their own language, or this republic is of short duration. Even the constitution of the *United States* cannot be understood by two impartial statesmen in the same way! The SENATE cannot determine by this instrument whether the Vice President should control the senatorial body, or whether this body should control him! Thousands have already been unsuccessfully expended to settle this point from the language of that instrument, which has been drawn by the united talents of the ablest men that have ever adorned the Union.

Nor is the senate disposed to agree with the distinguished gentleman who has recently left the chair of state, as to the power of the President to send certain ministers and other officers from this, to foreign countries.

Neither has the British parliament ever been able to comprehend its own acts, even when expressed by its own self, and in its own language!

Why, it may be asked, is this thing so? Can it be ascribed to any defect in the language? Is it to be attributed to the complexity of legal science, and the abstruseness of political philosophy? Certainly not—All will honestly ascribe these individual and national misfortunes to a *want* of *skill* in their own *vernacular tongue*. These sparrings, which exhaust a nation's wealth; these concussions in the political elements, which carry horror in their vibrations; these eddies which sometimes whirl in amazement, nation after nation; these adverse winds, that give being and energy to faction, are the storms which ambition directs by riding on the *clouds* of the *constitution!* It is in these clouds that ambition lurks; and it is from these that the thunder of eloquence will burst—it is from these that the lightning of genius will play, first to the consternation, then to the destruction of our political EDEN! This republic

is not to be saved from the attacks of ambition, by a Brutus brandishing the *crimson steel.* The guardian power of America must be found in the *intelligence* of her people; and as her language is the only instrument by which this can be acquired, let her schools begin the work which is to enlighten her as a people, and to preserve her an independent nation. If her systems are wrong, let her correct them: let America not tremble at innovation—let her continue to use the burnisher of genius till the glitter of her spires, ascending from her temples of science, shall light even her *mother to fame.*

To the man of circumscribed views, innovation seems to imply a contempt for all former systems, and a total want of respect for their authors. But, he who has seen the clouds of literary night dissipate before the sun of improvement, the region of science grow lighter and lighter, and the horizon of truth extend from time to time, by repeated innovation, will soon overcome his attachment to absurd forms, and gladly promote that species of innovation which tends to build system upon *truth and philosophy.*

The author of this work respects the various systems of English Grammar: he regards them as so many stepping stones by which the science has been brought to its present height of excellence. He respects their authors as men, and especially as the founders of so grand a commencement. He respects Mr. Murray, and tenders him thanks for the good he has done in the Republic of letters. So far from holding him in contempt, or his work in derision, he would fire his system with the sparks struck from the collision of its conflicting principles; he would deposit its ashes in a golden urn, and preserve them in memory of his worth.

The American Grammar, he is not insensible will oppose the *wisdom* of the learned, and the practice of years. But, it should be remembered that systems, the growth of ages, have been overturned, and that principles, grey with centuries, have been found a delusive chimera. *All* that relates to man, is matter of progression: we see the commencement of Christianity in mere rituals and symbols: we find its perfection in Calvary's Crimsoned Top.

Are you ready to reject this work because you have been brought up at the feet of Murray? remember him who was brought up at those of Gamaliel; listen to the cry of the Christians, and be reminded of Paul's journey to Damascus: education had drawn a film over his eyes; and a *miracle* was necessary to restore his sight.

From the dictatorial attitude of the English literati, this production may seem an infringement on the rights which they have so long claimed, and which this country has too long granted. It is remarked by European writers, that English literature should be the model for the literati in America, until this country produces a Newton, an Addison, &c. We confess a deep regard for the shades of these illustrious men; but we would sooner build sepulchres to England's ancient prophets, than believe in her living ones. Where can stronger claims be laid to philological legislation, than in a country, distinguished for *freedom* and *power* of speech?

In the British system of Grammar, the sense is either lost by the use of improper terms, or enveloped in arbitrary rules, definitions, and exceptions. Indeed, the whole system resembles a machine, hastily contrived, possessing a few grand movements, but too complicated, too feeble in most of its parts, and, in general, acting upon wrong principles. The author of this work, therefore, after mature examination of the European, has ventured to introduce NEW MATERIALS AND NEW PRINCIPLES; and to complete the remedy, he has extended his system to the relation of one assemblage of words to another assemblage. This work, therefore, is not only made a means for teaching the *mere child-like* relation of *one word* to another word, but an instrument for presenting that *manly, mental, subtle* coincidence, vibrating between the relative groups of the words which compose the sentence. This part of the American System is called CONSTRUING, and treats of words in their *collective* action, their *collective* bearing, and in their *collective* import—and, while it may be clearly comprehended even by the minds of children; it is not unworthy of the close attention of *men*, of *scholars*, of *philosophers*. CONSTRUING consists in dividing a sentence into sections or groups, ascertaining their true constructive relation, learning their exact significant characters, and referring the inferior sections to their respective superiors. This Exercise urges the pupil to trace out the precise connexion of the sections, by following the filaments which produce it; and thus fits him to discern the exact meaning of any writer whose language he may read. It prepares the pupil to read with an understanding which renders study easy, delightful and profitable to him. CONSTRUING gives the pupil such a knowledge of language as qualifies him to acquire the other branches of education with an expedition, ease and satisfaction, which render study advantageous and pleasing. Made fami-

liar with this process, the pupil's mind kindles into fervour; and he pursues his studies as much for the pleasure of the exercise as for the advantage of knowledge. And whether his eye is turned to the sign of the type, or his ear directed to the language of the tongue, he seizes the period with animation, moves along the *constructive* fibres which extend from section to section, works his passage through the entire sentence, and comes out with every thing which philosophy can glean or acuteness discern.

The author of this work is far from desiring to exhibit a *mere* independence of mind in the rejection of the British system of English Philology. Nor does he mention the excellence of the *American*, to institute an *invidious* comparison between the two—he does it to prevent an identity with those essays which have appeared within a few years, under the pretensions of improving the method of presenting the *erroneous* principles upon which the system of Murray has been founded. It differs much from *all* others.

The American Grammar is a laconic system of English Philology, founded upon principles entirely new, and highly important. It settles all points contested among teachers—resolves all the difficulties of the pupil, and relieves the mind of all its grammatical scruples. It sets aside all other systems—exposes their defects, demonstrates the little use of attending to them, and presents to the pupil, the unerring and only way to the Grammar of the English language. It urges the youthful mind to invention and thought—it undeceives the most accomplished Grammarian, and instructs the most profound Philologist: and it is, in a variety of ways and cases, the Clergyman's guide in scriptural exposition; the Lawyer's interpreter in juridical discussion; and the Magistrate's confirmation in legal decision.

Language is an emanation from God. It is the medium of communication from one finite mind to another, and a means of intercourse between man and his Maker. In construction it is ingenious; in purpose, noble; and in application to thought, wonderful. As a gift, it claims our gratitude; as a science, it demands our highest attention; and as a means of mental intercourse, it excites admiration and astonishment.

Language is the mind's hand; and, like that of the body, is employed by many who are ignorant of its beautiful symmetry. But they that use it without understanding its principles, lose as much as those who strengthen their bodies without relishing their food.

In tracing this hand through all its changes and modifications, in understanding their causes and effects, and in seeing it follow the discursive parts of the mind, fasten upon its curiously formed notions, and reach them to others, we are led to God as its ORIGIN.

It has long been a contested point whether language is a divine revelation, or a human production. But when we trace it from cause to effect, we see more than HUMAN calculation. Man consists of two parts, a body and a mind; *this* is journeying through life in *that*. Thus, the mind becomes a passenger; the body his chariot; ideas his baggage; the earth his inn; hope his food; and another world his destination. And such is the relation between the passengers while on the way; that they are compelled to interchange their ideas. For this purpose, either God has furnished them with language, a ready means for this exchange, or the PASSENGERS THEMSELVES have made this instrument. When we reflect upon the passenger's *connexion* with his chariot; when we see him drawing to himself, through organic avenues, the various objects which constantly surround it, we discover what we cannot comprehend—but, when we behold him ANALYSING these objects, forming CORRECT notions of their component parts, and, with vocal organs attached to his vehicle, converting the air into sounds for the communication of those notions, we dwindle away before the magnitude of the problem!

THE

AMERICAN GRAMMAR.

LANGUAGE is a mechanical instrument employed for the communication of ideas.

REMARK.

The word, *language*, is derived from *lingua*, the *Latin* name of the tongue—and from the importance of this organ in the formation of this instrument, the instrument itself is called language.

Printing and writing, properly speaking, are the notes of language, and bear the same vicarious relation to this instrument, which the notes in music bear to the real music. But as printing and writing communicate our ideas, they in function identify themselves with the great *Lingua instrument*—therefore these representatives have come to be called by the name of the thing represented —Hence we have the phrases, "*written language*, *printed language*, and *spoken language*." But language in the true, confined sense, is that instrument which is formed out of voice by a marvellous play of wonderful organs upon sounds which are first produced by the actions of the windpipe upon the air that proceeds from the lungs.

GRAMMAR.

GRAMMAR is the mere *mechanism* of language.

REMARKS.

The word, *Grammar*, is derived from the Greek *Gramma*, a letter. Hence this word has come to be the name of those principles which govern letters in their train from their alphabetical station, into words, and thence into sentences. A printed sentence is an instrument replete with thought, formed by a continued combination of letters; and grammar is the name of the various principles which regulate the mechanical process in this combination.

Grammar begins at the letters, *a* and *b*; as, *ab*. Grammar, properly so called, does not include figures of speech, purity of style, or elegance of diction.

GRAMMAR is universal and particular.

1. UNIVERSAL grammar is the mere mechanical philosophy of all languages.

2. Particular grammar is the mechanical principles

of a particular language; as, that of the English, Latin, Greek, French, &c.

English Grammar.

English grammar is a science comprising the *constructive* principles of the English Language.

REMARKS.

English Grammar is the Rule for employing either sounds or letters, in the formation of words, so as to give each word its just orthographical form—for employing these words in the formation of sentences, so as to give the words their proper deflections, and their right positions. Illustration.

1. *Fiber, acer, ofice, robur.*

In the first, there is an error in position—the *e* should follow the *r*—thus, *fibre.*

In the second, a similar error is committed, and may be corrected by placing the *r* before the *e*—thus, *acre.*

In the third, the error lies in a deficiency—another *f* is wanting —thus, *office.*

In the fourth, there is an error which may be corrected by doubling the *b*. There is also a mistake in the fourth instance, which may be rectified by substituting *e* for *u*—thus, rob*b*er.

2. *Gramer.*

In this word, there is an error as well as a mistake. The error lies in the want of another *m*—the mistake, in mistaking *e* for *a*. The error may be corrected, and the mistake rectified thus, Gram*m*ar.

The next part of grammar is the principle upon which words are formed into sentences. And in this one is liable to commit *grammatical* errors in two or three respects only. First, in the deflection of the word—secondly, in the position of it, and thirdly, in the position of whole clauses or sections—

Who does you speak *of?*

This example presents the three points to be illustrated. The error in deflection, lies in *who* and *does*—and that in position, in *of*. The errors which are here committed, are strictly errors in grammar. And when they are corrected, the position of *of* is changed, and the form of *who* and *does* is varied thus—*whom, do.*

Of who*m do* you speak?

In the following instance, the error lies in the position of a whole *clause* or *section.*

"What, another grammar of the English language! *says the man of letters upon the publication of this work.*"

The clause, "*says the man of letters upon the publication of this work,*" should be placed immediately after *what.*

What, *says the man of letters upon the publication of this work,* another grammar of the English language!

The wrongly using of one word for another, produces an error—but this is an error in *rhetoric*. For instance—

"I have no hesitation in expressing the surprise which I *received*."

The construction, or in other words, the *mechanism* of the sentence, is correct—but the *rhetoric* of it is bad—for we cannot properly say that we *receive* surprise. This rhetorical mistake may be rectified by substituting *felt* for *received*.

I have no hesitation in expressing the surprise which I *felt*, &c.

These errors, however, do not fall within the science of grammar.

Questions.

1. What is language?
2. From what is the word, *language*, derived?
3. Why has language received the name of the tongue?
4. What is grammar?
5. From what is the word, *grammar*, derived?
6. What is universal grammar?
7. What is particular grammar?
8. What is English grammar?

GRAMMAR is divided into four parts; viz. *Orthography, Etymology, Syntax, and Prosody.*

1. ORTHOGRAPHY shows the sounds of letters, and the manner of forming these characters into words.

2. ETYMOLOGY consists of the classification of words either collectively as sentences, sections, &c., or individually as parts of speech.

3. SYNTAX is the principle of forming words into sentences.

4. PROSODY consists of the true pronunciation of words, their poetic formation into sentences, and their figurative application either in prose or verse.

PART I.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

1. ORTHOGRAPHY shows the sounds of letters, and the manner of forming these characters into words.

A Letter is the representative of an articulate sound; as, *a*, *b*, *i*.

Letters are divided into Vowels and Consonants.

A Vowel is the representative of an articulate sound, which can be *perfectly* uttered by itself; as, *a*, *e*, *o*.

A Consonant represents an articulate sound, which cannot be uttered without *mixing* more or less with some Vowel sound; as, *b*, *d*, *f*, *l*.

The Vowels are, *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*, *y*.

W and *Y* are vowels, unless they *begin* a word or syllable.

The Consonants are, b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, w, x, y, z.

Consonants are divided into Mutes and Semi-vowels. The Mutes cannot be uttered, even in an imperfect manner, without the aid of a vowel sound; they are, *b*, *p*, *t*, *k*, with *c* and *g* hard.

The Semi-vowels are, *f*, *l*, *m*, *n*, *r*, *v*, *s*, *z*, *x*, with *c* and *g* soft. These may have an *imperfect* utterance without the aid of a vowel sound.

Four of the Semi-vowels, l, m, n, r, represent sounds which readily unite with the sounds expressed by other consonants; these, on this account, are called *liquids*.

Of Diphthongs and Triphthongs.

A Diphthong is the union of two vowels in the same syllable.

There are two kinds of Diphthongs; viz. *pure* and *impure*.

A pure Diphthong is one in which each vowel represents its distinct sound; as, *oi* in *voice*.

An impure Diphthong is one in which *both* vowels represent but one sound; as, *oa* in *boat*.

A Triphthong is the union of three vowels in the same syllable; as, *eau* in *beau*—*iew* in *view*.

A Triphthong never represents as many sounds as there are vowels in it; hence a Triphthong is *always* impure.

Of Words.

A word is a syllable, or a combination of syllables, sanctioned by custom, as the *name* or *sign* of an idea; as, *good*, *book*, *in*, *on*.

Words have three technical divisions under Orthography.

First, into 1. Monosyllable,
2. Dissyllable,
3. Trisyllable,
4. Polysyllable.

First Division.

1. *Monosyllable* is a word having but one syllable; as, *the*, *is*.

2. *Dissyllable* is a word having but two syllables; as, *hu-man*.

3. *Trisyllable* is a word having but three syllables; as, *gen-er-al*.

4. *Polysyllable* is a word having four or more syllables; as, *gen-er-al-ly*.

Second, into 1. Primitive,
2. Derivative.

A primitive word is that which cannot be reduced to any simpler word in the language; as, *man*, *good*, *content*, *York*.

A derivative word is that which may be reduced to another word in English of greater simplicity; as, *manful*, *goodness*, *contentment*.

Third, into 1. Simple,
2. Compound.

A simple word is one which cannot be divided into two entire words; as, *man*.

A compound is one which comprises two or more entire words; as, *man-kind*.

Of Spelling.

Spelling is the just representation of the syllables in a *vocal* word, by mechanical characters, called letters.

As spelling is seldom or ever taught from a grammar, it appears useless to give orthographical rules.

PART II.

ETYMOLOGY.

Etymology consists of the classification of words either collectively as sentences, sections, &c., or individually, as parts of speech.

A SENTENCE.

A sentence is an assemblage of words, which advances some fact or sentiment; as, "*God is omnipotent.*'

What fact is advanced here?
That God is *omnipotent*.

1. "John can write letters."

What fact is advanced here? Is it *power?*
No—power is not a fact. Is it the letters?
No—letters are not *facts.* Is it the action of writing them? No—actions are not *facts.* The fact advanced here is, that John *possesses* the power to write letters.

2. John went to school.

The fact which is here advanced, is that John went to school. Or, in other words—
The fact of John's having gone to school, is the *fact* advanced.

3. "*He is.*"

The fact of his existence, is the fact advanced—or in other words—
The fact advanced is *that he exists.*

4. "He is sick at home."

The fact advanced is *that he is sick at home.*

5. *Is he sick?*

The fact, whether he is sick or not, is here advanced. Or in other words, the problem to be solved, or question to be answered, is the fact which is advanced.

6. Can John walk?

The fact advanced lies in the question put, and consists of whether *John has the ability* to perform this action. In another form of this sentence, this very fact after which mere inquiry is here made, may be fully exhibited—

"John can walk."

The difference, then, between a declaration and a question, is this—the declaration presents the fact, while the interrogation merely inquires after it. After what fact do you inquire? I ask after the fact of his *having* power to walk.

7. "May you find your friends all well."

The fact advanced here, is that it is the speaker's wish that you may find all your friends well.

8. "Go to school, Charles."

The fact which is here advanced, is that Charles is commanded to go to school. Or,
Perhaps it may be said that even the command itself is the fact advanced.

9. "If John can walk, he must go to school."

The fact advanced in the first clause, is the *uncertainty* of John's

having the power to walk. That advanced in the second, is that John is compelled to walk.

The following instances advance no facts—hence they are not sentences—

1. Red cloths.
2. Very high houses.
3. A remarkably large field.

Let the pupil select all the sentences from the following assemblages of words, and settle in his own mind what fact each SENTENSIC *assemblage advances—*

Questions.

What is a sentence?
Does the assemblage of words, "*very good men,*" make a sentence?
Why not?

SPECIMEN FOR THE PUPIL.

"*Very much too cold weather*"—not a sentence—because the assemblage of words advances no fact.
"*The cherries are red*"—a sentence—because the assemblage of words advances a fact.

SENTENSIC EXERCISES.

1. Very much too cold weather.
2. Remarkably red cherries.
3. These apples are quite too small.
4. Ice cold water.
5. Coal black cloth.
6. Strikingly green trees.
7. This fact is very well known.
8. Greyish blue cloth.
9. Those fine, beautiful, young, straight trees.
10. How very fast James walks.
11. I am most completely disappointed.
12. Dark, cold nights.
13. Marble warehouse.
14. Cloud capt towers.
15. The tea is six pounds too heavy.
16. That wall is sixteen feet too high.
17. The tea is full six pounds too heavy.
18. The tea is very much too heavy.

Questions.

Is the first assemblage of words a sentence?
Why not?

CONSTRUING.

A Section.

A SECTION is that portion of a sentence which can be parsed without referring its members to any other portion of the sentence; as, ["*She writes well;*] (*and she scans the productions*) (*of others*) (*with much acuteness.*")

This sentence comprises four sections; each of which may be parsed by itself.

CONSTRUING respects the mechanical relation between the *sections* of a sentence.

SECTIONS are classed according to their mechanical dependence or independence. The section which is *mechanically* independent, is denominated the MAJOR SECTION; as, *the sun shines* upon all men.

The section which is *mechanically* dependent, is denominated a MINOR SECTION; as, the sun shines *upon all men.*

Sections are complete when all their words or members are expressed; as, [*He gave a book*] (*to John.*)

They are elliptical when one, or more of their members, are omitted, as, [he gave (, *John*) a book.]

SECTIONS are *sentensic* when they form or make a sentence; as, "*The sun shines* upon all men."

They are insentensic when they do not make a sentence; as, the sun shines *upon all men.*

MINOR SECTIONS are of the simple relation when they are added to but one other section; as, The sun shines *upon all men.*

They are of the compound or mixed relation when they refer to more than one other section; as, In the beginning was the word; *and the word was* with God, *and the word was God.*

The italic sections are minors of the compound relation.
But in order to give a clear view of this matter, something more must be done.

MAJOR SECTION—*The word was*

MINOR SECTIONS
- 2 *in the beginning;*
- 3 *and the word was*
- 4 *with God;*
- 5 *and the word was God.*

The second section is united by IN to the major section; as,

"The word was *in* the *beginning*."

The third, is united by AND to the major, and to the first minor; as,

"The word was *in* the beginning; *and* the word was."

AND means ADD—and, as it is the sense which points out the EXTENT of the relation, it is clear that AND's section is to be subjoined to the TWO that antecede it. AND—that is, ADD—but ADD WHAT? why, what follows AND—but to WHAT? why, to what precedes it.——

"The word was in the beginning; *and* the word was with God."

That is, add to the fact that the word was IN the beginning, this fact; namely the word was WITH God.

The clause which AND subjoins, is itself divided by WITH into two parts. The word, AND, in this, and various other places, is something like the shoulder joint—it unites the entire arm to the body—and WITH is something like the elbow joint, which divides the entire arm into two sections or parts, and unites the second to the first, or the inferior to the superior part.

The section which WITH unites, is of the simple relation—for it refers to but ONE section; as,

(*and* the word was) (*with* God.)

In the last section, AND occurs again—and as the intention is that ALL which follows AND, shall be added to the two minor sections which antecede it, AND's section is of the compound relation or reference; as,

"And the word was with God; *and* the word was God."

That is, add to the fact that the word was WITH God, the fact that the word WAS God.

The parsing of sections is denominated CONSTRUING, and consists in breaking a sentence into sections, enumerating their several properties, and in referring each *inferior* section to its true superior or superiors.

The major section is superior to all—it is the trunk or body of the sentence. The minors are the mere branches or limbs; and while all of them must be inferior to the trunk, many of them may be superior to others—for one branch may depend upon another branch.

As there is no exact way except the sense and manner of the frame-work of the sentence, for showing the superior minors from the inferior, the following general remark may be of some use—

The superior minors generally *antecede* the inferior.

Close Reading.

The *close reading* is an important part of CONSTRUING, and is performed as follows—

He saw his sister 4. 5. 6.
4. last Sabbath,
5. at church,
6. with her mother.

CLOSE READING—

He saw his sister 4. 4. on last Sabbath.
He saw his sister 5. 5. at church.
He saw his sister 6. 6. with her mother.

This should not be taken as a specimen of the UTILITY of *Close Reading*, but as one of the mere operation itself.

SPECIMEN OF CONSTRUING.

[A certain man planted a vineyard, and set a hedge (about it), and built a tower, and digged a place (for the wine-vat), and let it out (to husbandmen), and went] (into a far country.)

1. "*A certain man planted a vineyard, and set a hedge, and built a tower, and digged a place, and let it out, and went,*"

is a complete major section of the sentensic kind.*

2. "*about it,*"

is a complete minor section of the insentensic kind, simple relation, referring to its own part of its superior section.

CLOSE READING.—And set a hedge *about it.*

---

* Every sentence has one, and only one, major section—and this is always of the sentensic kind.

Its own part is that portion of the superior section with which the inferior makes sense.

Generally, however, the inferior section will make sense with the whole of the superior—and when it does, the construing should be performed in the usual phraseology; namely, "*referring to its superior section.*"

"*for the wine vat,*"

is a complete minor section of the insentensic kind, simple relation, referring to its own part of its superior section.

CLOSE READING.—And he digged a place *for the wine vat.*

"*to husbandmen,*"

is a complete minor section of the insentensic kind, simple relation, referring to its own part of its superior section.

CLOSE READING.—and let it out *to husbandmen.*

"*into a far country,*"

is a complete minor section of the insentensic kind, simple relation, referring to its own part of its superior section.

CLOSE READING.—And went *into a far country.*

PREPARED EXERCISES IN CONSTRUING.

Scheme.

1. Each paragraph forms a section.
2. The first line in every sentence, is the major section of the sentence.
3. Where there is but one figure on the left of the inferior section, it is of the simple relation; as, 5. But where there are two or more, the inferior is of the compound relation; as, 1, 2.

4. N. B. The close reading figure in the superior section is placed on the point of mechanical contact between the two sections.—Or it is placed where the inferior should be introduced when it is read with its superior section, or with its superior part—

"The penetrating glances 3. 3 *of the* eye, indicate the corresponding affections."

"The eyes of a fool are in the ends of the earth."

PREPARED THUS,

The eyes 3 are 4.
3 of a fool
4 in the ends 5.
5 of the earth.

CONSTRUED THUS,

"*The eyes are,*"

is a complete major section of the sentensic kind.

3. "*of a fool,*"

is a complete minor section of the insentensic kind, simple relation, referring to its superior section.

CLOSE READING.—The eyes 3. 3 *of a fool* are.

4. "*in the ends,*"

is a complete minor section of the insentensic kind, simple relation, referring to its superior section.

CLOSE READING.—The eyes are 4. 4 *in the ends.*

5. "*of the earth,*"

is a complete minor section of the insentensic kind, simple relation, referring to its superior section.

CLOSE READING.—in the ends 5. 5 *of the earth.*

The eyes 3 are 4
3 of a fool
4 in the ends 5
5 of the earth.

The most powerful motives call 3. 4
3 on us
4 for those efforts 5
5 which our common country demands 6
6 of all her children.

Continued and deep thought very much contracts muscular structure.

Nature has so exquisitely modelled the human features 3.
3 that they are capable 4
4 of the expression 5
5 of the most secret emotions 6
6 of the soul.

The penetrating glances 3 indicate the corresponding affections 4
3 of the eye 5
4. 5 and that part 6 announces his moral character 7

6 which is emphatically called the countenance,
7 with an energy 8
8 which is communicated 9
9 to no animal 10
10 but man.

The rapid extension 3. 4 may be considered a direct proof 6
3 of the Christian religion
4 through the principal nations 5
5 of the world,
6 of the reality 7. 9
7 of the miracles 8
8 of our Saviour,
9 and of the miraculous powers 10
10 with which 11
11 the apostles themselves were endowed.

A man's attire, and excessive laughter and gait show what *man* 3
3 he is.

His forehead is extremely small and low.

His forehead is quite large and remarkably high 3
3 and his eyes very much enlivened 4
4 and his jaws are unusually long and broad 5
5 and his nose is exceedingly short 6
6 and his mouth is greatly depressed.

The Chinese have very small eyes and small eyelids 3
3 and they have quite small noses.

A Tartar's face is large, and wrinkled 3
3 even in youth.

Their noses are thick and short 3
3 and their cheeks are quite high.

The lower part 3 is very narrow 4
3 of their faces 5
4. 5 and their chins are long and prominent.

Their eyebrows are very thick 3
3 and their skin is olive.

Laplanders and other persons 3 generally have broad faces, and broken, sunken noses,
3 who inhabit the northern parts 4
4 of the globe.

Their eyebrows are drawn back 3. 4
3 towards the temples 5
4. 5 and their cheeks are very high; 6
6 and their mouths are large 7
7 and their lips are quite thick 8
8 and their hair is nearly jet black.

The inhabitants 3 are the handsomest, wisest and best formed , 4
3 of the temperate climates
4 of all the inhabitants 5
5 of the globe.

Let the pupil adjust the above sections according to the close-reading figures.

The features and proportions 3 differ very much 4
3 of the *Hottentots*
4 from those properties 5
5 of the Negro.

I must not use another's book when 4
4 I have one 2
2 of my own.

They accomodate one another daily.

Give *thou* another apple 1
1 to James.

The interest 1 is not so dear 2. 3
1 of another *person*
2 to me
3 as my own *interest is.*

I claim this one 1. 2
1 for my own *property* 3
2. 3 but another person claims it 4
4 as another's *property.*

This day suits my interest; 1
1 another *day* may suit another's *interest* better 3
3 than this *day suits it.*

Any interest is another's *interest* 1
1 except my own *interest*.

Here comes another *person* 1
1 and another's views are to be given 2. 6
2 of course
6 another's interest *is* to be taken 5. 7
5 into the affair 8
7. 8 (and another's whims, prejudices and opinions *are* to be nursed.)

Scheme.

The brackets [ ] enclose the major section; the parentheses ( ), the minor—and the commas denote the ellipses in the sections. While the number of words to be supplied to render the section complete, is denoted by the number of commas, the exact words which fill the ellipses, may be found in the preceding *exercise* which is a *key* to this.

EXERCISES.

[I must not use another's book when] (I have one) (of my own.)

[They accommodate one another daily.]

[Give , (, James) another apple.]

[The interest (of another ,) is not as dear] (to me) (as my own , , .)

[I claim this one] (for my own ,)—(but another , claims it) (as another's , .)

[This day suits my interest;] (another , may suit another's , better) (than this , , , .)

[Any interest, (except my own ,) is another's , .]

[Here comes another ,]; (and (of course) another's views are to be given); (another's interest , to be taken) (into the affair;) (and another's whims, prejudices and opinions , to be nursed.)

THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

There are two parts of speech; viz. *Noun* and *Adjective.*

1. A NOUN is an *independent* or unadded name; as,

Man,	*Ring*,
Virtue,	*Sun*,
Vice,	*Moon.*

2. An ADJECTIVE is a dependent or *added* name; as,

A man *was sick.*
Virtue *is commendable.*
Vice *is detestable.*
The sun *shone through the* clouds.
A golden ring *is bright.*

Man, *virtue*, *vice*, *ring*, *sun* and *moon* are nouns, because they are *independent.*

A, *was*, *sick*, *is*, *commendable*, *is*, *detestable*, *the*, *shone*, *through*, *the*, *a*, *golden*, *is*, and *bright* are adjectives, because they are *added.*

Remarks and Illustrations.

1. What is a noun, John?

A noun is an unadded or an *independent* name.

2. In what sense are nouns independent, John?

In construction or mechanism.

3. A noun, then, is a word which is mechanically or constructively independent, is it?

Yes.

4. Do you infer from this definition of a noun, that there are as many nouns as adjectives in our language?

I think that as no piece of mechanism has many *independent* parts, there cannot be as many nouns as adjectives in any language.

Now James, permit me to ask you a few questions upon this subject.

5. James, I have seen many persons who say that they cannot understand in what sense the word, *independent*, is used in this definition of a *Noun.* Do you understand in what particular sense this word is used in this definition?

Why, I think that the word explains itself! "A NOUN is an *independent* name." Now, we boys frequently construct *cob* houses,

and *stick* houses for our amusement—and, as that cob or stick which will stand in our *little building*, without resting upon another part, is mechanically independent, so that word which will stand in a sentence without depending upon another word, is constructively independent.

James, why is a noun like the trunk of a tree?

Because it is *independent* of its branches, in construction.

Well, why are the branches like adjectives?

Because they are *added* to the trunk.

What words do you think are *constructively* or *mechanically* dependent?

Those which cannot be used alone; or those which can be used alone without starting queries like these—

Red—Red What? Good—Good what? The—The what? Black—Black what? Write—Write what? See—See what?

What do you understand by the word, *construction?*

In grammar, it means the formation of the inferior words into their respective superiors; as, *green* trees, *very green* trees.

Are these words nouns which are so used as to be constructively independent?

They are.

Is *cloth*, in the following instance, a Noun?—"I purchased *cloth* of him."

It is.

Is *cloth*, in the following instance, a Noun?—"I purchased *cloth* shoes of him?"

It is not constructively independent—hence it is not a Noun. The word is here so used as to depend upon the noun, *shoes*, and is dependent in mechanism.

Is *detraction* a Noun?

Yes.

Is *deduce* a Noun?

No.

Why not?

Because it has no form which enables it to stand alone—it should have *tion;* as, *deduction.* For the moment we say *deduce*—the query is started—deduce *what?*

James, from your intelligence upon this subject, I presume that your faculties have not been benumbed

by any attention to the old British system of grammar. Pray permit me to give you a fair specimen of the principles of that system.

The following is the definition which the British grammarians have uniformly given of a noun—

"A Noun is the name of any person, place or thing."

I have taken this particular form of the British definition of a noun, from Mr. Smith's Grammar, which *he* says consists of *mental* exercises! Others say that—

"A noun is the name of any thing of which we have any notion; as, *London*, *man*, *virtue*, *vice*."

James, you have their definition of a Noun before you; will you examine it well, and then answer these questions by it—

1. How many nouns are there in the phrase—"*red cloth?*"

There are two nouns.

How do you know, James?

Red is the name of something which I can see, and of which I have a notion; and as a noun is the name of any thing of which one can have an idea, *red* is a noun.

Cloth is the name of something of which one can have an idea—hence a noun. Both words therefore are nouns!

How many nouns are there in the following sentence, James?

"John wrote letters accurately."

Why, as *John* is the name of a person of whom one can have a notion, it is a noun of course. "*Wrote*" being the name of an action of which one can have a notion, it is certainly a noun! And, as *accurately* is the name of the *manner* of writing, and as one can have as clear an idea of the *manner* of writing as of the writer himself, *accurately* is surely a noun! *Letters* is as clearly a noun as *accurately*—therefore, the sentence comprises as many nouns as it has words!!

James, what is *accuracy* in the following sentence?

"John writes letters with *accuracy*."

Why, I certainly think that *accuracy* is the name of the manner of writing—by virtue of the *British* definition of a noun, *accuracy* and *accurately* are both nouns—they have the same import. They differ in mechanism only—one is an *adjectived*, but the other is an *unadjectived* word.

James, shall I place before you four or five of the dif-

ferent forms in which the British definition of a noun, is given?

If you please—I should be glad to see them.

1. "A Noun or Substantive is the name of *any thing* that exists, or of which we have any notion; as, *London*, *virtue*, *vice*." MURRAY.

2. "A noun is the name of *any thing* that we can *see*, *hear*, *taste*, *smell*, *feel* or *discourse of;* as, *man*, *apple*, *vice*, *virtue*," &c. COMLY.

3. "A noun is the name of any person, place or thing; as, *man*, *Charleston*, *knowledge*." KIRKHAM.

4. "A name or noun is a word which expresses the idea of that which exists, whether material or immaterial; as, *man*, *horse*, *tree*, *table*, *faith*, *hope*, *love*." WEBSTER.

James, do you know the meaning of *from*, *through*, *to*, and *for?*

I believe *from* is synonymous with *beginning*, *through* with *door*, *to* with *end*, and *for* with *cause*.

From the above definitions, James, do you think that *from*, *through*, *to* and *for* are nouns?

Certainly—I think that they are as clearly nouns as are *beginning*, *door*, *end*, and *cause!*

James, do you understand the following sentences to express the same ideas?

1. John rode *from* Philadelphia, *through* New Jersey, *to* New York, *for* his brother.

2. John rode *beginning* Philadelphia, *door* New Jersey, *end* New York, *cause* his brother.

I understand both to mean the same thing.

James, what is the *mechanical* difference between these sentences?

Why, in the first, four of the ideas are expressed by *adjected* or *dependent* words—in the second, these four ideas are expressed by *unadded* or independent words.

James, what is the grammatical or mechanical difference between the words, *beginning*, *door*, *end* and *cause*, and *from*, *through*, *to* and *for?*

The first four are independent in construction, as much as is the trunk of a tree in reference to its branches. The second four are

adjected or dependent, as much so as are the branches of a tree in reference to their trunk.

James, what is the *significant* difference between these words?

There is no difference in this respect between them.

Which four fall under this definition, James?

A noun is an *independent* name.

The first four.

And which four fall under this definition, James?

An adjective is an added word or name.

The second—*from, through, to, for.*

James, what are words?

They are *articulated* or *jointed* sounds, used as the *signs* or *names* of our ideas.

James, how many words are there in the English language?

I have been told that this language comprises about seventy thousand.

Well, James, how many of these words do you suppose are the signs or names of ideas?

Why, I have always thought that all, the whole seventy thousand, are names or signs of ideas!

James, what do you mean by a *name?*

I mean a sign of an idea by it.

James, what is the difference between the following definitions of a noun?

1. A noun is the *sign* of any thing which we can see or taste, or of which we have an idea.
2. A noun is the *name* of any thing which we can see or taste, or of which we can have an idea.
3. A noun is an *independent* or an unadded sign of an idea.

The first two have the *same import*—and they obviously embrace *all* the words in the language!

The third differs from the other two in its excluding capacity—For, while it embraces all those words which are parsed as nouns, it excludes all others. Or, in other phraseology, it includes only those signs, names or words which are not added to other signs, names or words!

SCANNING.

SCANNING is a critical examination of the grammatical relation of the words in a section.

REMARKS.

AS CONSTRUING is a *critical* examination of the constructive relation between the *sections* of a sentence, so SCANNNING is a critical investigation of the constructive relation between the words of a section. And as the sections of a sentence may be classed under the technical names, *noun* and *adjective*, so the *words* of a section may all be classed under the terms, *major* and *minor*. The major section may with great propriety, be denominated a noun; as, *The sun shines* upon all men.

"*The sun shines*," is constructively independent—hence a noun.

The minor section may with the same degree of propriety, be denominated an adjective; as, The sun shines *upon all men.*

The section, *upon all men*, has the same constructive dependence upon the noun section, which every adjective *word* has upon the word to which it is added.

"The sun shines upon all men *who will receive his rays.*"

The sectional adjective, "*who will receive his rays*," is added to the sectional adjective, "*upon all men.*" And to the last sectional adjective, may be added the following sectional adjective—

"*which he sends.*"

And to this may be added the following:

"*from the heavens.*"

Thus—[The sun shines] (upon all men) (who will receive his rays) (which he sends) (from the heavens.)

Now, in this way may one adjective word be added to another; as, "*very cold weather.*"

The word, *weather*, is the noun word, and bears the same sustaining relation to *cold*, which the sectional noun, "*the sun shines*," bears to the sectional adjective, "*upon all men.*" The word, *cold*, bears the same *sustained* or dependent relation to *weather*, which the sectional noun, "*upon all men*," bears to the sectional noun, "*the sun shines.*" And, as "*who will receive his rays*," depends upon the sectional adjective, *upon all men*, so does *very* depend upon the adjective *word*, *cold.*

As the relation which exists between sections is the same as that existing between individual words, and as grammar respects this relation, it is obvious that the individual words of a section may be called by the names of the sections which compose the sentence. All words, then, may be divided into two classes; namely, MAJOR and MINOR.

A major word is an independent name or sign; as, the *sun* shines upon all *men.*

A minor word is an *added* or a *dependent* name or sign; as, "*The* sun *shines upon all* men."

In the following sentence, the major section is distinguished from the minors by brackets [ ]. The minor sections, from the major, by parentheses ( ). The major *words* are distinguished by the absence of figures—but the *minor* by the presence of figures—

1 1 1 1 1 1
[The sun shines] (upon all men) (who will receive

1 1 1 1
his rays) (which he sends) (from the heavens.)

Now, what the major section, "*the sun shines*," is to the whole sentence, the major *word*, *sun*, is to the major section. And what the major section is to the whole sentence, the major word, *men*, is to the minor section in which this word stands. And what the minor words, *upon* and *all*, are to the major word, *men*, the minor section, "*upon all men*," is to the major section, "*the sun shines*."

Minor sections, and minor words may be said to hold different ranks according to their near or remote relation to the noun section or noun word. A minor section, which holds a direct relation with the major section, is of the first rank; as, The sun shines *upon all men.*

A minor section which is added to a minor of the first rank, is of the second; as, the sun shines (upon all men1) *(who will receive his rays2.)*

A minor section which is added to a minor of the second rank, is of the third; as, The sun shines (upon all men1) (who will receive his rays2) *(which he sends3.)*

A minor section which depends upon a minor of the third rank, is of the fourth; as, the sun shines (upon all men1) (who will receive his rays2) (which he sends3) *(from the heavens4.)*

The rank of an adjective is well illustrated in the following scheme—

1
Cold weather.
2 1
Too cold weather.
3 2 1
Much too cold weather.
4 3 2 1
Very much too cold weather.

Although it is well to show that minor sections and adjectives hold these different ranks in the frame-work of a sentence; yet it is not important for the pupil to recognise or notice these ranks in CONSTRUING and SCANNING.

SCANNING RULES.

RULE I. Every adjective of the first rank, must refer to that noun with which it makes sense.

RULE II. Every adjective of the second rank, must refer to that adjective of the first with which it makes sense.

RULE III. Every adjective of the third rank, must refer to that of the second with which it makes sense.

RULE IV. Every adjective of the fourth rank, must refer to that of the third with which it makes sense.

RULE V. Every adjective of the fifth rank, must refer to that of the fourth with which it makes sense.

SPECIMEN OF SCANNING.

1 1 4 3 2 1
"The fire is very much too hot."

The—is an adjective, referring to fire. RULE I.

fire—is a noun.

is—is an adjective, referring to *fire*. RULE I.

very—is an adjective, referring to *much*. RULE IV.

much—is an adjective, referring to *too*. RULE III.

too—is an adjective, referring to *hot*. RULE II.

hot—is an adjective, referring to *fire*. RULE I.

PREPARED EXERCISES IN SCANNING.

Pay *close* attention to the above specimen.

The figures not only distinguish the adjectives from the nouns, but point out the *true* superior of each adjected word.

4 3 2 1
Very much too cold weather.

2 1
Remarkably red cherries.

1 1 3 2 1
These apples are quite too small.

2 1
Ice cold water.

2 1
Coal black cloth.

2 1
Strikingly green trees.

1 1 3 2 1
This fact is very well known.

2 1
Greyish blue cloth.

1 1 1 1 1 1
Those, fine, beautiful, young, green, straight trees

4 3 2 1
How very fast James walks.

1 3 2 1
I am most completely disappointed.

1 1
Cold, dark nights.

2 1
Marble ware house.

2 1
Cloud capt towers.

1 1 4 3 2 1
The tea is six pounds too heavy.

1 1 4 3 2 1
That wall is sixteen feet too high.

1 1 5 4 4 2 1
The tea is full six pounds too heavy.

1 1 4 3 2 1
The tea is very much too heavy.

1 1 5 4 3 2 1
That wall is nearly sixteen hands too high.

1 1 4 3 2 1
The army is ten thousand men strong.

1 1 4 3 2 1
The distance is very much too long.

THE RELATION OF ADJECTIVES.

RELATION, in grammar, respects the extent of the mechanical or constructive bearing of the *inferior*

words, to their respective *superiors*. This relation may be considered *simple*, or *compound*, according to its extent.

1. The SIMPLE RELATION. The relation of an adjective is simple, when it refers to but one other word; as,

1 1
Black cloth, *my* hat.

2. The COMPOUND RELATION. The relation is compound, where the adjective refers to two or more other words; as,

Black cloth *and* hats, *my* gloves *and* hat.

The *simple* relation in the following *exercises*, is marked by the erect posture of the figure; as,

1 1 2 1
Black hat, *my* glove, *very good* apples.

The compound relation is denoted by the *horizontal* posture of the figure; as,

Black cloth *and* hats. It *is* John.

SPECIMEN OF SCANNING.

1 2 1
He is not my brother.

He—is a noun.
is—is an adjective, referring to *he* and *brother*. RULE I.
not—is an adjective, referring to *is*. RULE II.
my—is an adjective, referring to *brother*. RULE I.
brother—is a noun.

PREPARED EXERCISES IN SCANNING.

We love them.

They are men.

1 **2**
Stars have been called suns.

1 **2** — 1
We shall have learned our lessons.

1 2 —
They can not write letters.

Every adjective of the second rank must refer to one of the *first;* hence where there are two of the *first*, the sense must decide to which of the two, the adjective of the second, relates. In the above example, there are two of the first, *can* and *write.* And the question is, to which of these two *not* refers. It is the province of *not* to deny the power or ability to do the act of *writing.* And to lead the mind of the reader to this sense of the expression, *not* has a figure over it corresponding in size to that over *can. Not* and *never* always refer to the word which falls on the *left* hand.

1 2 —
I have not written letters.

1 2 — 1
He would not learn his lesson.

— 1 **2** — 1
He planted a vineyard, and set a hedge.

— 1 **1 2** —
[He is a lad] (whom you may not know.)

1 **1 2** — 1
Idle children will not learn their books.

1 1 1 **2 1 3 2**
This large book has been written long since.

1 **1 2 2** — 1
These boys have not been writing their copies.

1 **2 1**
We have been laughing.

1 **2 1**
You have been walking.

1 3 **2 1**
We shall have been walking.

REPRESENTATIVE WORDS.

In English, there are about sixty words which have been made to represent other words; as, *him*, *she*, *it*, *his*.

The following table exhibits these words in their different forms:—

RADICALS.	DERIVATIVE WORDS.	
Nouns.	*Adjectives.*	*Nouns.*
I	my, mine	mine, myself, me.
We	our	ourselves, ours, us.
Thou	thy, thine	thyself, thee.
You	your	yourselves, yours.
Ye	——	——
He	his	himself, him.
She	her	herself, her.
It	its	itself.
They	their	themselves, theirs, them.
Who	whose, whosoever	whom, whosoever, whomsoever.
One	one, one's, ones'	ones,
Other	other, other's, others',	others.
Another	another, another's	——
Which	——	——
As	——	——
That	those	those.
This	these	these.

Scheme.

The following exercises should be carefully scanned according to the following specimen.

The brackets and parentheses break the sentence into sections; and, as the words in one section have no *mechanical* connexion with those in another, the pupil will be considerably aided by observing this sectional division. The brackets present the major section; the parentheses, the minors.

The *major* section should be scanned *first*.

The pupil should not undertake to scan these *exercises*, unless he has learned the *representative* words—nor should he be suffered to scan one of the *representative* words without naming what it represents. If there be no *definite* noun in the sentence, he should say, representing some word supposed; as, *John*, our *names*, my own *name*, thy *name*, his *name;* or something of this kind.

A catch word, *rep.* will be used to remind the learner that he should tell what the representative word represents.

SPECIMEN OF SCANNING.

rep. ‿ *rep.* 1
He is her brother.

He is a noun, representing *John.*
Is is an adjective, referring to *he* and *brother.* [RULE I.
Her is an adjective, representing *Jane,* and referring to *brother.*
Brother is a noun. [RULE I.

EXERCISES IN SCANNING.

1 1 4 3 2 1
The distance is very much too long.

rep 1 1 3 2 1
His father was so well pleased.

rep 1 1 1 2 1
[Your tree was considered remarkably fruitful;]

rep 1 1 2 1
(mine was considered remarkably barren.*)

4 3 2 1
Very much too cold weather.

1 1 4 3 2 1
The weather is very much too warm.

rep ‿ **2** 1 2 1
He is not a very learned man.

1 **2** ‿ 1 1
John will never be a good scholar.

1 ‿ 1
True religion promotes harmonious intercourse.

rep 1 ‿ 1
[They have given occasion] (for criticism.)

rep 1 1 1 1
[We are responsible] (for the rest.)

1
Rare effusions.

1
Pious thoughts.

1 1
A profuse admixture.

* *Mine* is a noun, representing the phrase, *my tree.*

1 1
An agreeable entertainment.

rep 1 ‾ 1
He has shown this fact.

rep 2 1
We now proceed.

rep 1 1 **2** **1**
Your books have been published.

1 1 ‾ 1 1
A cluttering articulation produces a bad pronunciation.

‾ 1 1 1
[Custom is the plague] (of wise men.)

‾ 1 1
Ingratitude is a base crime.

rep ‾
It is heroism.

‾ *rep* *rep* 1
Admonish *thou* thy friend.

1 1 1 1
[Man's evil manners live] (in brass.)

‾ 1 1 1 1 1
[Party is the madness] (of many *persons*) (for the gain)
1 **2** **1**
(of a few *persons*.)

1 1 1 1
Shining characters may be impure.

1 1 1
The web is woven.

3 **2** 1 1 ‾ *rep* 1
How far the little candle throws its beams.

rep 1 ‾ 2 *rep* 1
[They should speak *language* accurately,] (who profess
2 ‾ *rep* 2
to write *it* grammatically.)

1 2 1
The cloud capt towers.

1 1 1 1
[The ice-house is full] (of ice.)

1 1 1 **2** **1**
The glow worm is well known.

rep –
He teaches grammar.

1 1 1 1
[The watch-men were] (in Pearl street.)

2 –
Congress-men frequently fight wind-mills.

rep **1** **2** – 1
He can not bear far-fetched figures.

1 – 1
What *thing* is the Aurora-borealis?

1 – 1
What *thing* is the Ignis-fatuus?

1 1 1 1
The semi-vowels may be subdivided.

EXERCISES.

The prepared Exercises are a Key to these. (*P.* 37.)

Very much too cold weather.
Remarkably red cherries.
These apples are quite too small.
Ice cold water.
Coal black cloth.
Strikingly green trees.
This fact is very well known.
Greyish blue cloth.
Those fine, beautiful, young, straight trees.
How very fast James walks.
I am most completely disappointed.
Chilly, cold, freezing nights.
Marble warehouse.
Cloud capt towers.
The tea is six pounds too heavy.
That wall is sixteen feet too high.
The tea is full six pounds too heavy.
The tea is very much too heavy.
That wall is nearly sixteen hands too high.
The army is ten thousand men strong.
The distance is very much too long.

1. The words which are of the compound relation, are generally of the *first* rank.

2. Where there are two nouns in a section, one of the adjectives must be of the *compound* relation; and the sense must determine which; as,

1 1 1
John *is* a good boy, They have *written* letters.

3. Adjectives of the second rank may have the compound relation; as, He is good *and* wise.

EXERCISES.

The prepared Exercises are a Key to these. (*Page* 42.)

The distance is very much too long.
rep.
His father was so well pleased.
rep.
[Your tree was considered extremely fruitful.]
rep.
(mine was considered remarkably barren.)
Very much too cold weather.
The weather is very much too warm.
rep.
He is not a very learned man.
John will never be a good scholar.
True religion promotes harmonious intercourse.
rep.
[They have given occasion] (for criticism.)
rep.
[We are responsible] (for the rest.)
Rare effusions.
Pious thoughts.
A profuse admixture.
An agreeable entertainment.
rep.
He having shown this fact.
rep.
We now proceed.
rep.
Your books have been published.
A cluttering articulation produces a bad pronunciation.
[Custom is the plague] (of wise men.)
Ingratitude is a base crime.

rep.
It is heroism.
rep. *rep.*
Admonish , thy friend.
[Man's evil manners live] (in brass.)
[Party is the madness] (of many ,) (for the gain) (of a few , .)
Shining characters may be impure.
The web is woven.
3 *rep.*
How far the little candle throws its beams.
rep. *rep.*
[They should speak , accurately] (who profess) (to write , grammatically.)
The cloud capt* towers.
[The ice house is full] (of ice.)
The glow worm is well known.
rep.
He teaches Grammar.
[The watch-men were] (in Pearl street.)
Congress-men frequently fight wind-mills.
rep.
He cannot bear far-fetched figures.
What , is the Aurora-borealis?
What , is the Ignis-fatuus?
The semi-vowels may be subdivided.

CLASSIFICATION OF NOUNS.

There are three classes of nouns; namely, *Partial*, *Impartial*, and *Pro*.

1. A partial noun is one which applies only to a part of the class or race, family or tribe; as, *John*, *Sunday*, *Philadelphia*.

2. An impartial noun is one which applies to all the class or race, family or tribe; as, *man*, *day*, *city*.

* When simple words are united in orthography, they constitute but *one* part of speech; as, *cloudcapt*, *icehouse*, *watchmen*, *today*.

And when simple words are separate in orthography, but united by a *hyphen*, they constitute but one part of speech; as, *cloud-capt*, *ice-house*, *to-day*. But when simple words are not so united, each should be scanned as a distinct part of speech; as, *cloud capt* tower, *ice house*, *to day*.

The noun, *John*, does not apply to all human beings—hence it is partial.

Sunday does not include all days—hence this noun is partial in its application.

Philadelphia does not include all cities—hence this noun is partial.

The noun, *man*, applies to all the human race; it embraces every individual—hence it is impartial in its application.

The word, *day*, includes *all* days—it means one day as much as another—hence this noun is impartial.

The word, *city*, applies to *all* cities—hence this noun is impartial.

REMARKS.

When partial nouns are substituted for impartial ones, they lose their partiality of application; as,

The *Browns* were at church.

That is, the *family* of Browns.

He is the *Washington* of his age.

That is, he is the *general* of his age, as Washington was of his.

When partial nouns become impartial, they are generally preceded by *the*, *this*, *that*, *these*, *those*, or *a*; as, he is *the Cicero* of America, he is *a Cicero*.

But, as is intimated above by the use of *generally*, partial nouns may become impartial where no one of these adjectives precedes them; as, "he is *Cicero* himself!"

Nor do partial nouns in all instances become impartial even where one of the above adjectives is found; as, the *Mississippi* is a noble stream—the *Hudson* is a fine river.

It may be well to observe here that the *partiality* as well as the *impartiality* in the application of a noun, must, in general, be produced by the *noun itself*—and not by any adjectives which exert a restraining or an enlarging influence over the noun; as, John saw his brother.

The noun, *John*, has the attribute or inclination of partiality in itself. And the word, *brother*, has the attribute or inclination of impartiality in *itself*—for this noun includes all the class of beings that are called *brothers*. The word applies to one of the class as much as another—hence it is impartial. If the word, *brother*, however, is taken under the restraining influence of *his*, it becomes partial—for it applies to no one of this class except the brother of John. But as this inclination of partiality is no attribute of the noun, it would be quite improper to call *brother* a partial noun. *Partial* and *impartial* are applied to the *controlling* attribute which belongs to the nouns themselves.

3. A pro noun is the representative of another noun; as, John found his book where *he* left *it*.

SPECIMEN OF PARSING.

[John found his book where] (he left it.)
Ma. Section.—John found his book where
Mi. Section.—he left it.

RULE.—*Every adjective must refer to the noun or adjective with which it makes sense.*

John—is a partial noun.
found—is an adjective, referring to *John* and *book*. RULE.—Every, &c.
his—is an adjective, representing *John*, and referring to *book*. RULE.—Every, &c.
book—is an impartial noun.
where—is an adjective, referring to *found*. RULE.—Every, &c.
he—is a pronoun, representing *John*.
left—is an adjective, referring to *he* and *it*. RULE.—Every, &c.
it—is a pronoun, representing *book*.

EXERCISES.

These exercises should be parsed exactly according to the preceding specimens.

Charles	saw	John's	hat.
John	tore	Charles'	coat.
Peter	made	Samuel's	shoes.
Samuel	cut	Peter's	hand.
Lucy	knits	men's	mittens.
Sally	makes	ladies'	clothes.
Julia	studies	Murray's	works.
Harriet	read	Homer's	Iliad.
Men	built	Solomon's	temple.

We	*rep.**	dared	him	*rep.*
They	*rep.*	had heard	us	*rep.*
Who	*rep.*	feel	them	*rep.*
They	*rep.*	bade	thee	*rep.*
I	*rep.*	saw	them	*rep.*
They	*rep.*	thought	him	*rep.*
Ye	*rep.*	call	us	*rep.*
Ye	*rep.*	taught	whom	*rep.*
We	*rep.*	unfold	them	*rep.*

* The catch word, *rep*, is used to remind the pupil that he should tell, in the very form which is presented in the above specimen of parsing, what noun each pro noun represents. And, as there are no certain nouns in these exercises, which the pro nouns represent, the pupil may suppose any which are suited to the nature of the subject.

NOUNS are SENTENSIC and INSENTENSIC.

1. A SENTENSIC NOUN is one which presents the foundation of the sentence, and without which no sentence can be formed; as, "the *sun* shines upon all men."

2. AN INSENTENSIC NOUN is one which does *not* present the *foundation* of a sentence, and without which a sentence *can* be formed; as, all men are blessed with the *light* and *heat* of the *sun*.

In the instance,

"the *sun* shines upon all men,"

it is obvious that the sentence is founded upon the sun, as without it, the assemblage of words loses the character of a sentence—

"the shines upon all men."

But in the instance,

"All men are blessed with the *light* and *heat* of the *sun*,"

the mind has so disposed of the sun as not to found the sentence upon it; for *light*, *heat*, and *sun* may be omitted without diminishing in any degree the *sentensic* character of the assemblage of words.

"All men are blessed."

These words form a perfect sentence; and indeed so do the following:

"Men are."

SPECIMEN OF PARSING NOUNS.

"John went to church."

John—is a partial sentensic noun.
went—is an adjective, referring to *John*.
to—is an adjective, referring to *church*.
church—is an impartial insentensic noun.

EXERCISES

To be parsed according to the preceding specimen.

The sun shines very brightly
into the house.
Will the servant come soon?
To these deep waters.
Who created the world?

The omission of "*world*" does not destroy the *sentensic* character of this assemblage of words, for "*who created?*" is a perfect sentence. That is, "*who created?*" has all the sentensic principle

which any assemblage of words can have. But the omission of *who* deprives this assemblage of words of its sentensic character—

"created the world."

Hence *who* is a *sentensic* noun, and *world* an *insentensic* one.

God created the world
in six days.
He created it.

Here, by omitting *God* and *he* it will be seen that these are the sentensic nouns—

Created the world—created it.

And, by omitting *world* and *it*, it will be seen that *world* and *it* are *insentensic* nouns.

God created.
He created.

Both of these assemblages, as here abridged, have every *whit* of the sentence character.

Did John?
Can Joseph?
Will James?
Shall he?

In each of these instances, the sentence character is *completely formed*—as much so as it is in any of the following:—

Did John see the merchant? Can Joseph write accurately? Will James learn to do well? Shall he be rewarded for his trouble?

John did.
Joseph can.
James will.
He shall.
Trees grow quite high
in the fields.
Charles saw the merchant.
He obtained the goods from the merchant.

OBSERVATIONS.

I. The noun which can *not* be omitted without destroying the sentence character of the assemblage of words, is sentensic; as, *Charles* saw his brother.

II. The noun which *can* be omitted without destroying the sentence character of the assemblage of words, is insentensic; as, Charles saw his *brother*—

"*Charles saw.*"

EXERCISES.

Charles	saw	hats.
John	tore	coats.
Peter	made	shoes.
Samuel	cut	apples.
Lucy	knits	mittens.
Sally	makes	clothes.
Julia	studies	books.
Harriet	has read	books.
Men	built	temples.

1. *Sentensic pro nouns.*	2. *Insentensic pro nouns.*
I	Me
Thou	Thee
He	Him
She	Her
They	Them
We	Us
Ye	——
Who	Whom

QUESTIONS.

What is the sentensic of *me?*
What is the insentensic of *I?*
What is the sentensic of *thee?*
What is the insentensic of *thou?*
What is the sentensic of *him* and *her?*
What is the insentensic of *he* and *she?*
What is the sentensic of *us?*
What is the sentensic of *you?*
You is both sentensic and insentensic.
What is the insentensic of *ye?*
Ye has no insentensic except *you*, which is sentensic as well as insentensic.

EXERCISES.

We	*rep.*	dared	him	*rep.*
They	*rep.*	had heard	us	*rep.*
Who	*rep.*	feel	them	*rep.*
They	*rep.*	bade	thee	*rep.*
I	*rep.*	saw	them	*rep.*
They	*rep.*	thought	him	*rep.*
Ye	*rep.*	call	us	*rep.*
Ye	*rep.*	taught	whom	*rep.*

We	*rep.*	unfold	them	*rep.*
They	*rep.*	sang	them	*rep.*
Ye	*rep.*	smote	us	*rep.*
She	*rep.*	is	she	*rep.*
We	*rep.*	have learned	them	*rep.*
Ye	*rep.*	will have loved	them	*rep.*
We	*rep.*	clothe	thee	*rep.*
He	*rep.*	went	——	*rep.*

PROPERTIES OF NOUNS.

NOUNS have *Order*, *Number* and *Gender*.

Order respects the priority or posteriority of the different characters in a sentence.

There are three orders, first, second and third.

The first order respects the *priority* of the speaker; as, *I* saw thee at school, John.

The second order respects the *posteriority* of him spoken to; as, I saw *thee* at school, *John*.

The third order respects the *posteriority* of whatever is spoken of; as, I saw thee at *school*, John.

REMARKS.

These orders are illustrated in the manner in which language commenced and advanced, and may now be found in the methodical relation of the speaker, the person addressed, and the thing spoken of. Language began with the speaker—hence he is of the first order.

The next, or second step in the progress of language, introduced the person spoken to, or him who was addressed—for, as the speaker desired to communicate some ideas, it was natural, and perhaps necessary, that he should notify the person whose attention he desired to gain. Hence the person addressed is of the second order in the formation and application of language.

The third step in the progress and application of language, introduced the thing of which the speaker speaks—hence the person or thing spoken of, is of the third order. Now, all the persons and things that any sentence may name, must fall into one or another of these orders. For instance—"And *he* began to speak unto *them* by *parables*." MARK, xii. 1.

In this sentence, St. Mark is of the first order, the world or the public, or whoever reads, is of the second order—and *he*, *them*, and *parables* are of the third.

2. NUMBER.

The number of a noun represents that form or declension of the word, by which a distinction is made between unity and plurality.

Nouns have two numbers; viz. SINGULAR and PLURAL. The singular denotes but one thing, or but one company or assemblage; as,

1. *Pen.*
2. *Lamina.*
3. *Man.*
4. A *dozen* of quills.
5. A *family* of nine persons.
6. *Cherub.*

The plural denotes more than one thing or company; and is formed in a variety of ways; as,

1. *Pens.* - - - - - *s.*
2. *Laminæ.* - - - - *æ.*
3. *Families.* - - - - *ies.*
4. Two *dozens* of quills. - - *s.*
5. *Men.* - - - - - *e.*
6. *Cherubim.* - - - - *im.*

The following letters or parts of words, are used in forming the plural:

s, im, es, a, ves, i, ies, æ, ee, en, ren, ic, ice.

REMARK.

There are some nouns which are always *singular*. There are others which are always *plural*—and a few which are singular and plural in the same form.

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Both Numbers.*
Alms	Bellows	Deer
Bread	Compasses	Sheep, &c.
Meat	Ethics	———
News	Lungs	———
Tobacco	Measles	———
Tresses	Mathematics	———
Tree	Metaphysics	———
Trice	Means	———
Treble	Optics	———
Nothing	Pains	———
———	Politics	———
———	Pneumatics	———
———	Riches	———
———	Scissors	———
———	Tongs	———

The following words, which have been adopted from the Hebrew, Greek and Latin, are thus distinguished with respect to their number:

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Cherub	Cherubim	Effluvium	Effluvia
Seraph	Seraphim	Erratum	Errata
Antithesis	Antitheses	Genius	Genii*
Basis	Bases	Genus	Genera
Crisis	Crises	Index	Indices, or Indexes†
Criterion	Criteria		
Ellipsis	Ellipses	Lamina	Laminæ
Emphasis	Emphases	Medium	Media
Hypothesis	Hypotheses	Magus	Magi
Metamorphosis	Metamorphoses	Memorandum	Memoranda, or Memorandums
Appendix	Appendices, Appendixes	Radius	Radii
Axis	Axes	Stamen	Stamina
Calx	Calces	Stratum	Strata
Datum	Data	Vortex	Vortices

3. OF GENDER.

The Gender of a Noun respects its capacity to distinguish one sex from the other, to include both sexes at the same time, or a want of capacity to render it certain which is denoted.

There are four genders; viz:

1. Masculine. 2. Feminine. 3. Common. 4. Doubtful.

1. The Noun which distinguishes the male from the female, is of the Masculine gender; as, *John.*

2. The Noun which distinguishes the female from the male, is of the feminine gender; as, *Jane.*

3. The Noun which includes both sexes, is of the common gender; as, *persons, man.*‡

4. The Noun which leaves it uncertain as to which sex it alludes, is of the doubtful gender; as, a *person.*

The English language has three methods of distinguishing the sexes:

1. *By different words; as,*

Male.	*Female.*	*Male.*	*Female.*
Bachelor	Maid	Husband	Wife
Buck	Doe	King	Queen

---

* Genii, when denoting ærial spirits; Geniuses, when signifying men of genius.

† Indexes, when it signifies pointers, or tables of contents; Indices, when referring to algebraic quantities.

‡ All nouns which denote all races of beings that are made up of both sexes, are of the common gender; as, *man* is born to die. (*Males* and *females.*)

2. *By a different termination; as,*

Male.	*Female.*	*Male.*	*Female.*
Wizard	Witch	Uncle	Aunt
Abbot	Abbess	Landgrave	Landgravine
Actor	Actress	Lion	Lioness
Administrator	Administratrix	Marquis	Marchioness

3. *By prefixing an adjective; as,*

A *man* servant. A *maid* servant.

SPECIMEN OF PARSING.

[" John found his book where] (he left it.")

John—is a partial sentensic noun, third order, singular number, masculine gender.

found—is an adjective, referring to *John* and *book*. RULE.

his—is an adjective, representing *John's*, and referring to *book*. RULE.

*book**—is an impartial insentensic noun, third order, singular number.

where—is an adjective, referring to *found*. RULE.

he—is a sentensic pro noun, representing *John*, third order, singular number, masculine gender.

left—is an adjective, referring to *he* and *it*. RULE.

it—is an insentensic pro noun, representing *book*, third order, singular number.

" (In the beginning) [was the word] (and the word was) (with God;) *(and the word was God.)*"

N. B. The nouns, *word* and *God*, are both sentensic. " *God*" and " *word*" signify the same thing, consequently both present the *foundation* of the sentence: hence both are *sentensic*.

Nouns, however, may fall into the same section, and *appear* to denote the *same* person or thing; and yet one be *sentensic*, and the other *insentensic;* as,

" *John hurt himself.*"

" *John*" is *sentensic;* but " *himself*" is *insentensic*.

Here are two different characters; yet there is but *one* individual. There are two, inasmuch as one is presented in *two characters*. Under the word, *John*, this person is presented as the *actor;* but under the word *himself*, he is presented as the *recipient* or *receiver* of the action. This sentence, therefore, has two persons in it; it has the *actor* and the *receiver*.

The following sentence, however, has the actor only:

" *John himself* laughed."

* Where there is no sex, there can be no gender; hence " *book*" has no gender.

Here the person is presented by the word, *John*, as the actor, and as he is presented by the word "*himself*" in the same character, there is but one person or character in the sentence.

The same thing may be presented twice, or more times, in the same section; and if it is presented by each noun in the same character, there is but *one* thing in the sentence; as,

He is a good *man.*

Here "*he*" and "*man*" present the individual in the *same character;* "*he*" and "*man*" are *sentensic* nouns.

He hurt *himself.*

The person is here presented in *two* distinct characters—"*he*" presents the person as an *actor;* but "*himself*" presents him as one acted upon, or as the receiver.

EXERCISES.

This , is a fine lad.
He will be a good boy.
She will be a beautiful girl.
Nancy will make a good tayloress.
[Will Jane attend] (as a seamstress?)
Can they be masters (over men?)
Where is the Deacon?
Who is the Deaconess?
Is that man a Duke? He is an Emperor.
Is Jane an Empress?
I am no Enchanter.
Thou art a Duchess.
I am not an Enchantress,
Who is the Executor?
[The person (whom you see) is a Jewess.]
[There is no Jew] (in this company) (of men.)
Did you ever see a Tiger?
Mother, have you ever seen a Princess?
Which lady is the songstress?

ADJECTIVE.

An ADJECTIVE is a dependent or added name; as

A man *was sick.*
Virtue *is commendable.*
Vice *is detestable.*
The sun *shone through the* clouds.
A golden ring *is bright.*

Adjectives are SENTENSIC and INSENTENSIC.

1. The SENTENSIC adjective is one which has the power, when used in its *general* sense, to render an assemblage of words a sentence; as, the sun *shines* upon all men, The sun *will shine* upon all men, The sun *has shone* upon all men.

REMARKS.

That adjective which is used in its *general* sense, and *can* render an assemblage of words a *sentence*, is sentensic; as, "The sun *shines* very brightly," "The sun *shone* very brightly," The sun *will be shining* very brightly at 12 o'clock, The shining sun *is* an object of delight.

NOTE I. In the above assemblages of words, *shines*, *shone*, *will*, and *is* are the only adjectives which exert any influence in forming the sentensic character. This may be seen by an omission of these words—

"The sun very brightly."
"The sun very brightly."

If, however, these sentensic adjectives be restored, these assemblages of words, which are now completely deprived of their sentensic character, become sentences—

1. "The sun *shines* very brightly."
2. "The sun *shone* very brightly."

But, the omission of the other adjectives, does not destroy the sentensic character—

1. "Sun *shines*"
2. "Sun *shone*."

Nothing more is necessary, then, to form a *mere* sentence, than the sentensic noun, and the sentensic adjective; as, "*sun shines*," "*I am*."

I is a sentensic noun—and *sun* is a sentensic noun. *Shines* and *am*, are sentensic adjectives.

NOTE II. *Shining* before *sun*, is not used in its general sense—*shining*, after *be*, is used in its *general* sense; and as it *can* render an assemblage of words, a sentence, it is a *sentensic* adjective; as,

The sun *shone*, the sun *shines*.

The *general* sense of *shines* is to express the *action* of that which does shine: after *be*, *shining* expresses the mere *action* of the sun—but before *sun*, "*shining*" expresses that property or attribute which the sun acquires by shining.

So, *written* may be sentensic—or it may not. In the first of the following instances, "*written*" is sentensic—in the second, it is not.

1. "I have *written* letters to him."

2. "I have received a *written* circular upon the subject."

In the first, "*written*" is used in its general sense—for it there denotes the mere action of making letters with a pen. But in the second, "*written*" is used, not to denote the quality of *action*, but to express the attribute which the circular has received from the *action* of writing.

NOTE III. Where there are two or more sentensic adjectives in *succession*; as,

"he *shall have been informed*,"

the sentensic character is fully formed in this assemblage of words, by the *first*. Hence, "*he shall*" is as much a sentence, as is, "*he shall have been informed*."

The first adjective is not only sentensic from the possession of the sentensic *power*, but from the actual *exercise* of this power in forming the *sentence* character. *Have*, *been* and *informed* are sentensic, not from being actually engaged in the function of giving any assemblage of words the *sentensic character*, but from a *capacity* to act in this function whenever the exercise of their sentensic power is desired; as, "he *has* a book, he *has* written a book, *be* thou here in season, Charles, he *informed* me of this fact."

2. An insentensic adjective is one which has no power to render an assemblage of words a sentence; as, *the* sun shines *upon all men*.

SPECIMEN OF PARSING.

"[John found his book where] (he left it.)"

John—is a partial sentensic noun, third order, singular number, masculine gender.

found—is a sentensic adjective, referring to *John* and *book*. RULE.

his—is an insentensic adjective, representing *John's*, and referring to *book*. RULE.

book—is an impartial insentensic noun, third order, singular number.

where—is an insentensic adjective, referring to *found*. RULE.

he—is a sentensic pro noun, representing *John*, third order, singular number, masculine gender.

left—is a sentensic adjective, referring to *he* and *it*. RULE.

it—is an insentensic pro noun, representing *book*, third order, singular number.

EXERCISES.

These exercises should be parsed exactly according to the preceding specimen.

Charles	saw	John's	hat.
John	tore	Charles's	coat.
Peter	made	Samuel's	shoes.
Samuel	cut	Peter's	hand.
Lucy	knits	men's	mittens.
Sally	makes	ladies'	clothes.
Julia	studies	Murray's	works.
Harriet	read	Homer's	Iliad.
Men	built	Solomon's	temple.

Charles was taught.
Letters are written.
James taught Charles.
Charles has written letters.
Nancy is laughing.
John laughs.
Does David walk?

REMARKS.

NATURE and ART have divided the things, the formation of which, they respectively control, into two mechanical families. One of these families, is composed exclusively of the *added* parts; as, the *nails* of the *fingers*, the *fingers* of the palm, the *branches* of the trunk, the *buttons* and the other appendages of a garment.

The other is composed of the *unadded* parts; as, the *trunk* to which the branches are added, the *coat* to which the buttons are added, &c.

Now, all the added parts of any whole, have, from the very circumstance of a *mechanical dependence* upon the part to which they are adjected, a kind of *mechanical affection* which is clearly manifested in their inclination toward the part on which they rest. Hence this universal *rule*—

EVERY *adjected* part must incline to the part to which it is added.

The principle of this rule is universal—hence whenever we see the dependent part only, we, from the very circumstance of the mechanical affection or inclination toward its superior, are *naturally* led to inquire of ourselves for the part which supports or sustains this added one. Every added part is inferior in the frame work of the thing formed, to the part to which it is added. Hence the *colour* which is added to the leaf is, in a mechanical point of view, inferior to the leaf itself. And the leaf which is added to its branches

is, in relation to the branch, inferior to the branch. And the branch which is added to the trunk, is inferior to the trunk. The universal rule, then, is that every inferior part inclines to its own superior. In conformity to this principle, the ear does not leave the head for the *foot;* the finger nail does not leave the finger for the thumb, &c. Now, it is no less curious than useful, that this same mechanical philosophy follows us through the mechanism of language itself. For we find this same mechanical affection disposing the inferior words to move toward their respective superiors; as "*very green* leaf."

By what power is the word, *very*, moved to the word, *green*, and there *confined?* And by what power is *green* inserted into the noun, *leaf*, and there retained? It is by the power of this *mechanical affection* which disposes each inferior part to cleave to its own superior.

"*Very green* leaf."

Very and *green* seem to have almost the power of motion; they seem to *crawl* to their respective superiors.

Whence this power of approximation in these words? Surely from that principle of mechanical affection, which disposes each inferior part of the whole to cleave to its own superior!

Some of the adjective family, are quite *partial* in their *mechanical affection*, while others are quite *impartial*. Hence, while we find some adjectives refusing all society or connexion with certain members of the *noun* family, we find others which are social with all the members of this numerous and *fundamental* family.

The class of sentensic adjectives is divided into two species; namely, *partial* and *impartial*.

1. A partial sentensic adjective, is one which refers only to the sentensic noun; as, I *am* writing copies, He *laughs*, They *walk*, It *is* he.

2. An impartial sentensic adjective is one which refers to the insentensic, as well as the sentensic noun; as, I am *writing* letters, They *saw* me.

They *have been punished.*

NOTE I. Where the sentensic noun denotes the recipient of the action or quality denoted by the last sentensic adjective, the last sentensic is always partial; as, I am *punished* by Charles.

But where the insentensic noun denotes the recipient of the action, the same adjective is impartial; as, I have *punished* him, I *punished* him.

NOTE II. Some sentensic adjectives are always partial; as, *be, am, is, was, been, art, are, were, wast, wert, went, come.*

Others are partial or impartial, according to the particular sense in which they are used; as, *speak, laugh, walk, run, return.*

For instance—In the first of the following sentences, *return* is partial—in the second, it is impartial—

I *returned* home.
I *returned* your book.

The insentensic noun is very often understood; as, They drank. Now, as they must have drunk something, some insentensic noun must be supplied by the mind; as, They drank *water, cider, wine.*

SPECIMEN OF PARSING.

He saw me.

He—is a sentensic pro noun, representing *John*, third order, singular number, masculine gender.
saw—is an impartial sentensic adjective, referring to *he* and *me* RULE.
me—is an insentensic pro noun, representing my name, first order, singular number , gender.

It is she.

It—is a sentensic pro noun, representing *Jane*, third order, singular number, feminine gender.
is—is a partial sentensic adjective, referring to *it* and *she*. RULE.
she—is a sentensic pro noun, representing *Jane*, third order, singular number, feminine gender.

Here, *is* refers to *two* nouns—but, as both are *sentensic*, the adjective is partial—to be impartial, it must refer to both *kinds* of nouns—*sentensic* and *insentensic*.

Where there are two or more sentensic adjectives, none but the last can be partial; as, They have been *writing* them.

EXERCISES,

To be parsed according to the preceding specimen.

1. *Sentensic pro nouns.*

I
Thou
He
She
They
We
Ye
Who

2. *Insentensic pro nouns.*

Me
Thee
Him
Her
Them
Us
Whom

EXERCISES.

We	*rep.*	dared	him	*rep.*
They	*rep.*	had heard	us	*rep.*
Who	*rep.*	feel	them	*rep.*
They	*rep.*	bade	thee	*rep.*
I	*rep.*	saw	them	*rep.*
They	*rep.*	thought	him	*rep.*
Ye	*rep.*	call	us	*rep.*

Charles was taught.
Letters are written.
James taught Charles.
Charles has written letters.
Nancy is laughing.
John laughs.
Does David walk?

Charles	saw	John's	hat.
John	tore	Charles's	coat.
Peter	made	Samuel's	shoes.
Samuel	cut	Peter's	hand.
Lucy	knits	men's	mittens.
Sally	makes	ladies'	clothes.
Julia	studies	Murray's	works.
Harriet	read	Homer's	Iliad.
Men	built	Solomon's	temple.

TENSE.

Tense belongs to sentensic adjectives only.

Tense is a modification, form or *capacity*, which conveys some allusion to time.

There are five tenses; namely, *Present*, *Imperfect*, *Perfect*, *Prior Perfect*, and *Future*.

PRESENT TENSE.

1. The *Present tense* is such a form of the word, as conveys an allusion to the present moment, or to a period now passing under the mind as one *continuous* whole; as, *is*, *writes*, *write*, *writeth writest*, *am*, *are*—

1. He *is*, He *writes*, I *am*, I *ride* out daily.

The present time may include more or less, according to the nature of the subject; it may extend from a mere moment to years.

IMPERFECT TENSE.

2. The *Imperfect tense* is that form which shows that some of the time alluded to, still remains; as, *have*, *has*, *hath*, *hast*—

1. I *have* written a letter to-day.
2. Thou *hast* seen thy friend this week.

PERFECT TENSE.

It may be proper to observe here, that the perfect tense is generally formed from the present, by the use of the following letters—

A, D, E, I, O, T.

Other letters may be, and they sometimes are, used in forming the perfect tense—but the perfect tense can rarely, if *ever*, be formed without the use of one of the above tense letters.

3. The *Perfect tense* is that form which alludes to time, that is perfectly passed; as, *had*, *wrote*, *were*, *drank*, *flew*, *interested*—

1. I *was* there last year, I *wrote* a letter last week, I *had* a book last evening, which *interested* me much.

We cannot properly say—I *was* there *this* year, I *wrote* a letter *this* week, I *had* a book *this* evening, which *interested* me much.

PRIOR PERFECT.

4. The *Prior perfect tense*, is that form which alludes to a period of time that had passed off before some other period alluded to by the *perfect* tense; as, *had*—

FUTURE TENSE.

5. The *Future tense* is that *capacity*, not *form*, which a sentensic has to allude to future time; as, *will*, *shall*, *should*.

1. I *shall* return, he *will* read, they *will* have come at ten o'clock.

Will and *shall* are the only sentensics which distinctly mark future time.

REGULAR AND IRREGULAR.

Sentensic adjectives are called regular or irregular, according to their conformity or non-conformity to the common method of forming the *perfect* tense.

1. When the *perfect* tense is formed by affixing *d* or *ed* merely, to the present tense, the adjective is called regular; as, love, lov*ed*, talk, talk*ed*.

3. When the perfect tense is formed by any other letters, the adjective is called *irregular;* as, write, *wrote*—pay, *paid*.

In the word, *pay*, the perfect tense is formed by changing *y* into *i*, and affixing *d*—pa*id*.

This is an irregular way of forming the perfect tense—hence *pay* is irregular.

If in forming the perfect tense, any letter is necessarily changed or dropped, in order to affix the *d* or *ed*, the adjective is still irregular; as, *breed*, *bred*, *hold*, *held*, *lead*, *led*.

The regular way of forming the perfect tense of the above instances, would present the words in the following forms: breed, *breeded*, *holded*, *leaded*, *payed*.

CONJUNCTIVE FORM OF SENTENSICS.

The *conjunctive form* is that derivative modification which requires the word to be used in *connexion* with another sentensic; as, I have *written*, The bird has *flown*, He is *walking*, He has *been*.

Be has but three forms, namely *be*, *being*, and *been*. *Being* and *been* are conjunctive. It has been said, however, that *am*, *art*, *is*, *was*, *wast* and *were* are so many forms of *be*.

Am, *art*, &c. are not forms of *be*—for they are new and distinct words! These words are substitutes——*am* is a substitute for *be*—for in the order of conjugation, we leave *be* upon the introduction of *I;* as, *I am*—(not I *be*.)

In leaving *I* for *thou*, we do not say thou *am*—but thou *art*. Hence in the second step in conjugation, we substitute *art* for *am*—*art*, then, is a substitute for *am;* as, I *am*, thou *art*.

In the third step in conjugation, we substitute *is* for *art;* as, Thou *art*, He *is*.

In leaving the singular sentensic noun for the plural, *are* is used instead of *am*, *art* and *is;* as,

Sing.	Plu.
I *am*.	We *are*.
Thou *art*.	Ye *are*.
He *is*.	They *are*.

Are, then, is a substitute for *am*, *art* and *is*.

Having shown the vicarious relation of these substitutes, one to another, in the present tense, it may be useful to say a word or two upon the relation of the set of substitutes which are used in the perfect tense. This set consists of *was*, *wast* and *were*.

To denote past tense, we do not say, I *amed*—but we substitute *was* for *am;* as, I *am* now, I *was* then.

Nor do we, to denote past time, say, Thou *arted*—but substitute *wast;* as, Thou *art* now, Thou *wast* then.

And to form the perfect tense of *is*, we do not say *ised;* but we substitute *was* for *is*; as, He *is* now, He *was* then.

In the perfect tense, then, *was* is a substitute for *am*, *art* and *is*.

Now, as in passing from the present to the perfect tense, *was* is a substitute for *am*, *art* and *is*, so in leaving the singular sentensic noun for the plural, *were* is a substitute for *was;* as,

Sing.	*Plu.*
I *was*.	We *were*.
Thou *wast*.*	Ye *were*.
He *was*.	They *were*.

RULES.

RULE I. *I* or any other singular sentensic noun of the first order, substitutes *am* for *be*, in the present tense, and *was* for *am*, in the perfect; as, I *am*, I *was*.

RULE II. *Thou*, or any other singular sentensic noun, of the second order, substitutes *art* for *am* in the present, and *wast* for *art* in the perfect; as, Thou *art*, Thou *wast*.

RULE III. *He* or any other sentensic noun of the third order singular, substitutes *is* for *art*, in the present; and *was* for *is*, in the perfect; as, He *is*, He *was*.

RULE IV. Plural sentensic nouns substitute *are* for *am*, *art* or *is*, in the present, and *were* for *was* in the perfect; as, We *are*, We *were*.

CONJUGATION.

CONJUGATION is a systematic exhibition of the sentensic inflections, and tense modifications, or tense capacity of a sentensic adjective.

The following specimen of conjugation makes a practical application of the above *Rules*.

CONJUGATION OF *Be*.

To *be*.

CONJUNCTIVE FORM—

Being, have *been*.

---

* *Wast* is not a substitute for *was*—for the *t* inflection is a mere variation of *was*, which is produced by the order of *thou*.

PRESENT TENSE.

Sing.		*Plu.*	
1st or. I	am	1st or. We	are
2d or. Thou	art	2d or. You	are
3d or. He	is	3d or. They	are

She and *it*, are of the third order *singular*—*Ye* is of the second order *plural*, as well as *you*.

PERFECT TENSE.

Sing.		*Plu.*	
1. I	was	1. We	were
2. Thou	wast	2. Ye	were
3. He	was	3. They	were

CONJUNCTIVE FORM.

Here the tense is imperfect—but it belongs to *have*, not to *been*.

Sing.		*Plu.*	
1. I	have been	1. We	have been
2. Thou	hast been	2. Ye	have been
3. He	has been	3. They	have been

PRIOR PERFECT TENSE.

The tense here, too, belongs to had, not to *been*.

Sing.		*Plu.*	
1. I	had been	1. We	had been
2. Thou	hadst been	2. You	had been
3. She	had been	3. They	had been

The Conjunctive Form has ceased.

The tense belongs to *will* and *shall*.

Sing.		*Plu.*	
1. I	will be	1. We	will be
2. Thou	wilt be	2. Ye	will be
3. It	will be	3. They	will be

Sing.		*Plu.*	
1. I	shall be	1. We	shall be
2. Thou	shalt be	2. Ye	shall be
3. She	shall be	3. They	shall be

When it is desirable to fix the event within a period of future time, which will have passed off before some other specified future, *have* must follow *will* or *shall;* as, They will *have* returned to Boston before next March, I shall *have* learned my lesson before twelve o'clock.

CONJUNCTIVE FORM.

Sing.			*Plu.*		
1. I	shall	have been	1. We	shall	have been
2. Thou	wilt	have been	2. You	will	have been
3. She	will	have been	3. They	will	have been

PRESENT TENSE.

(*See the Notes under Rules* 3, 4, 6.)

Sing.		*Plu.*	
1. If I	am	1. If we	are
2. If thou	art	2. If ye	are
3. If he	is	3. If they	are

It may be here asked, how is it known that the time is present? We answer, by the form of the sentensic adjective. If it was future, it would be *be*; as, if I *be*. That is, if I *shall* be. But because it is *am*, *art*, *is* and *are*, no word, denoting futurity, can be employed.

CONJUGATION OF *See*.

To *see*. To have *seen*.

1. *Was* I well, we would attend.
2. *Wast* thou a good writer, I would employ thee.
3. I wish he *was* here.

Sing.	*Plu.*
1. If I *was* there	1. If we were *there*
2. If thou *wast*	2. If ye were
3. If she *was*	3. If they were

Elliptical Future Tense.

Where there are *doubt* and *futurity*, the sentensic *shall* or *should* may be omitted—yet it is better to express it.

Sing.			*Plu.*		
1. If I	,	be	*whether* we	,	be
2. If thou	,	be	*unless* ye	,	be
3. If he	,	be	*lest* they	,	be

Here *shall* or *should* is understood; as, If I *should* be there, I will perform the operation.

This elliptical state of the sentence, however, produces no beauty, nor any other good—it is, therefore, better to give the full expression; as, If thou *shouldst* be at my house next week, thou wilt find me at home.

PRESENT.

	Sing.		*Plu.*
1	—	1	—
2	*Be* thou, or *do* thou *be*	2	*Be* ye or you, or *do* ye or you be.
3	—	3	—

A few sentensic sections are partial or impartial from their very construction.

The partial construction inclines the sentensic adjective to refer exclusively to the sentensic noun; as, *am punished.*

The impartial construction permits the sentensic adjective to refer to the insentensic as well as the sentensic noun; as, *am punishing.*

The partial construction is produced by withholding *ing* from any naturally impartial sentensic which has *be* before it; as, I *am punished.*

The impartial construction is produced by affixing *ing* to any impartial sentensic which has *be* before it; as, I am punish*ing* him.

PRESENT TENSE.

Sing.		*Plu.*	
1. I	see	1. We	see
2. Thou	seest	2. You	see
3. He	sees	3. They	see

PERFECT TENSE.

Sing.		*Plu.*	
1. I	saw	1. We	saw
2. Thou	sawest	2. Ye	saw
3. He	saw	3. They	saw

IMPERFECT TENSE.

Sing.		*Plu.*	
1. I	have *seen*	1. We	have *seen*
2. Thou	hast *seen*	2. You	have *seen*
3. He	has *seen*	3. They	have *seen*

IMPERFECT TENSE.

Partial Construction.

Sing.				*Plu.*		
1. I	have been	*seen*		1. We	have been	*seen*
2. Thou	hast been	*seen*		2. You	have been	*seen*
3. He	has been	*seen*		3. They	have been	*seen*

Impartial Construction.

Sing.			*Plu.*		
1. I	have been	*seeing*	1. We	have been	*seeing*
2. Thou	hast been	*seeing*	2. You	have been	*seeing*
3. He	has been	*seeing*	3. They	have been	*seeing*

Conjunctive form—*seeing, seen, having seen.*

2. The second kind of terminations that belong to the sentensic adjectives, are those by which their tenses are formed; as, *write, wrote, written; is, was, been; love, loved; have, had.*

These are called *tense* variations—and are produced by the use of these letters: A, D, E, N, O, T, U.

A specimen of the Tense variations of the Sentensic Adjective.

The teacher should impress upon the mind of his pupil the importance of commencing the variation of the sentensic adjective, at the present tense—should he find the word printed in any other tense, he should begin his variations at the present; as, in wrote—he wrote to me—*write, wrote, written.*

1. Sing—*sing, sang, sung.*
2. Is—*is, was, been.*
3. Art—*art, wast, been.*
4. Ring—*ring, rang, rung.*
5. Know—*know, knew, known.*
6. Go—*go, went, gone.*
7. Drawn—*draw, drew, drawn.*
8. Fly—*fly, flew, flown.*
9. Drink—*drink, drank, drunk.*
10. Begin—*begin, began, begun.*
11. Leave—*leave, left.*
12. May—*may, might.*
13. Deal—*deal, dealt.*
14. Dwell—*dwell, dwelt.*
15. Spill—*spill, spilt.*
16. Feel—*feel, felt.*
17. Send—*send, sent.*
18. Be—*be, was, been.*
19. Am—*am, was, been.*
20. Art—*art, wast, been.*
21. Strow—*strew, strewed.*
22. Show—*show, shew, shown.*
23. Love—*love, loved.*
24. Has—*has, had.*
25. Hast—*hast, hadst.*
26. Have—*have, had.*
27. Work—*work, worked.*
28. Will—*will, would.*
29. Shall—*shall, should.*
30. Can—*can, could.*
31. Get—*get, got.*
32. Be—*be, was, been.*

33. Am—*am, was, been.*
34. Art—*are, was, been.*
35. Is—*is, was, been.*
36. Are—*are, were, been.*
37. Been—*be, was, been.*
38. Was—*is, was, been.*
39. Were—*are, were, been.*
40. Do—*do, did, done.*
41. Done—*do, did, done.*
42. Dare—*dare, dared.*

EXERCISES.

The words which are placed before the *tense* letters, are varied by the use of these letters. And the letter put first, is used in the first variation. The number of periods shows the number of variations which the same word may have.

METHOD.

Give—*give, gave, given,*—a Sentensic Adjective.

PREPARED EXERCISES.

Page 69 is a Key to these Exercises.

1. Sing	.	A	U	17. Send	.	.———	
2. Is	.	.	N	18. Be	.	A	N
3. Art	.	.	.	19. Am	.	.	
4. Ring	.	.	U	20. Art	.	.	
5. Know	.	E	N	21. Strew	.	D———	
6. Go	.	.	.	22. Show	.	E	N
7. Draw	.	.	.	23. Love	.	D———	
8. Fly	.	.	.	24. Has	.	.———	
9. Drink	.	A	U	25. Hast	.	.———	
10. Begin	.	.	.	26. Have	.	.———	
11. Leave	.	T———		27. Work	.	.———	
12. May	.	.———		28. Will	.	.———	
13. Deal	.	.———		29. Shall	.	.———	
14. Dwell	.	.———		30. Can	.	.———	
15. Spill	.	.———		31. Get	.	O	N
16. Feel	.	.———		32. Be	.	A	.

* Begin the variation of the word at the *present* tense in all cases; as, *is, was, been,* (not *been, was, is.*)

33. Am	.	38. Was	.
34. Art	.	39. Were	. E
35. Is	.	40. Do	. I
36. Are	. E	41. Done	.
37. Been*	. A		

TENSE DEFECTIVE SENTENSICS.

The following sentensics have no tense variations—hence *defective.*

Away	Forecast	Shred
Beset	Hit	Shut
Bet	Hurt	Slit
Beware	Knit	Split
	Let	Spread
Bespread	Lo	Sweat
Burst	Off	Thrust
Cast	Ought	Up
Chat	Put	Wet
Cost	Rid	Wist
Cut	Set	Wit
Dispread	Shed	Wot

It may not be amiss to give some instances in which *away*, *off*, and *up* are sentensics.

Away is a sentensic; as, "*away* with him," "*away*, go off."

"*Up*," is a sentensic; as, "*up*, let us be walking."

"*Off*" is a sentensic; as, "*off* with his head!"

Lo is a sentensic; as, *lo* here. That is, *see here.* Luke, xvii. 21.

SPECIMEN OF PARSING.

"They are a virtuous people."

They, is a sentensic pronoun, representing *Americans*, third order, plural number, common gender.

Are, *are*, *were*, *been*, is a partial sentensic adjective of the irregular kind, present tense, referring to *they* and *people.*

A, is an impartial adjective, referring to *people.*

Virtuous, is an impartial adjective, referring to *people.*

People, is an impartial sentensic noun, of the third order, plural number, common gender.

NOTE I.—It will not be necessary to vary more than the first sentensic.

NOTE II.—Pupils are much inclined to begin the variation at the *simple* tense form—as for instance, should they find "*laughs*" and "*runs*," they would be very apt to say—*laugh, laughed, run, ran.*

Whereas they should say—*laughs, laughed, runs, ran.*

Pupils who are permitted to begin the variation at the *simple* tense form, are very liable to conclude that the other *present* tense forms, ("*s, th,*") are indeed past tense forms. Thus they frequently deceive themselves, and perplex their teacher. All this, however, may be prevented by the teacher's attention in due time.

The form at which the variation is commenced, is the present tense; as, *write, writes, writeth, writest.*

1

The second step in the variation gives the perfect tense; as, *writes,*
2 1 2 1 2
wrote; is, was; love, loved.

The Punic war had . . closed.
The Roman legions were . . . conquered.
Oxygenated muriatic gas is . . . composed.
Reddish sky is . . . produced.
Blackish raspberries may . . be found.
Camphoric acids are . . . composed.
Metallic oxides may . . be obtained.
He produced . . a beautiful polish.
Flints are . . . concentric strata.
The aurora-borealis is . . . a dazzling phenomenon.
It illumines . . the frozen regions.
Sulphuretted hydrogen gas has . . sulphur.
Nitrous acid contains . . ,
A periodical flux has . . been observed.
European countries are . . . described.
The zodiacal light deserves . . our philosophic attention.
The terrestrial atmosphere may . . explain the zodiacal light.

When *ed*, and *ing* come before the noun, the words are generally insentensics; as,

A *beloved* son, a *loving* child.

But when they come after the noun, the words are generally sentensics; as,

A son who was *beloved.*

Though in the expression, the man is learned, *learned* is an insentensic adjective.

The clouds are . . . flying.
The flying clouds are . . . flying.
The learned men are . . . studious.
A written letter was . . . read.
A written letter was . . . written.
He is . . . making a writing table.
The Arian sect was . . . founded.
The argument is . . . logical.
The Doric, the Ionic, and the Corinthian architecture consisted . .
The Delphic Oracle was . . . beautiful.

There are two kinds of insentensic adjectives; namely, *partial* and *impartial.*

A partial insentensic adjective is one which refers only to assemblages of words or to insentensic nouns; as I went *to* church; *but* he remained *at* home; John is older *than* his brother.

A list of those partial insentensic adjectives which subjoin an assemblage of words.

And	even	moreover	so that
Although	else	not only	that
as	for	nevertheless	than
as also	hence	notwithstanding	then
as well as	however	now	therefore
because	howsoever	neither	though
but	howbeit	or, nor	thence
beside	if	otherwise	unless
besides	inasmuch	provided	wherefore
being	instead	save	whether
either	lest	so	whereas
except	likewise	since	yet
excepting			

A few of these adjectives may become *impartial;* as, He went *hence.* And a few may become sentensic; as, He *saves* the money which others would spend.

A list of those partial insentensic adjectives which refer to the insentensic nouns only.

above	amid	before	concerning
about	amidst	below	down
across	around	beneath	during
after	as, at	between	except
against	athwart	betwixt	excepting
among	atwixt	by, but	for
amongst	atween	behind	from

in	regarding	toward	underneath
into	respecting	towards	unto
of	save	through	upon, on
off	to	throughout	with, within
past	touching	under	without

Many of these adjectives may become impartial: as, he was spoken *to*.

An impartial insentensic adjective is one that has no grammatical preference, but refers to the insentensic as well as to the sentensic noun, and even to all adjectives where the sense requires; as, *a* man saw *a* man *very distinctly*. *The very* man whom *that* man saw is *now here*.

And, or, nor and *neither* to avoid supplying words, are sometimes *said* to subjoin a *single* word; as,

[The power of speech was bestowed] (on man) (for the greatest *and* most excellent uses.)

But these insentensics really subjoin an assemblage of words, in all instances, which will be made clear by rendering the sections complete; as,

[The power (of speech) was bestowed] (on man) (for the greatest uses) (and *it was bestowed*) (on him) (for the most excellent uses.)

Again—I saw John *and* James.

Here *and* is permitted to subjoin *James* to *John*. But this is done to avoid the trouble of rendering the second section complete. If it was rendered complete, *and* would stand, not before a *word*, but before a section which, properly speaking, it subjoins; as, I saw John, and *I saw* James.

When these insentensics are permitted to subjoin a single word to avoid supplying the elliptical words, the word subjoined must be of the same rank with that to which it is subjoined; as, for the *greatest* and most *excellent* uses.

Both words must be of the same part of speech—and both must be *sentensic* or both *insentensic* words.

PROPERTIES OF INSENTENSIC ADJECTIVES.

To IMPARTIAL INSENTENSICS belong DEGREES of comparison.

The degree of an Adjective is a variation to denote an increase or diminution of quality. The degrees are two, viz: COMPARATIVE and SUPERLATIVE.

The COMPARATIVE is a termination which indicates a comparison between two *individuals*, two *companies*, or *collections;* as, That is a *larger* class than this, That is a *larger* pupil than this.

The SUPERLATIVE is a termination which conveys an allusion to as many as three individuals or three collections, in one of which, it fixes superiority or inferiority; as, That is the *largest* class of the six, This is the *least* of the three.

The comparative, when the Adjective consists of one syllable, is formed by *r* or *er;* as, *brighter.*

The superlative, when the Adjective consists of one syllable, is formed by *est*, as, *brightest.*

REMARKS.

When the superior Adjective consists of more than one syllable the degrees are generally given to the inferior adjective; as, *more* or *most*, *less* or *least* righteous.

Dissyllables ending in *y*, change *y* into *i* before *er* and *est;* as, in *happy*, *happier*, *happiest.*

But if a vowel precedes, *y* is not changed into *i*, before *er* and *est;* as, *gay*, *gayer*, *gayest.*

When the Adjective ends with a single consonant, preceded by a single vowel, the consonant is doubled before *er* and *est;* as, *big*, *bigger*, *biggest.*

The degrees of some Adjectives, are made by affixing *most* to the radical state; as, *upper*, *uppermost.*

There are many properties which, from their nature, are incapable of increase or diminution; as, perfection, universality, straitness, &c. The Adjectives denoting these, have no degree of comparison; as, *perfect*, *extreme.* To this class may be referred, *this*, *that*, *all*, *&c.*

That adjective, which forms its degrees of comparison, by *r*, *er*, or *est*, is regular. All others are irregular.

Adjectives compared irregularly.

Primitive state.	*Comparative.*	*Superlative.*
Good,	Better,	Best,
Bad, evil, or ill,	Worse,	Worst,
Little,	Less,	Least,
Much, or many,	More,	Most,
Late,	Later,	Latest, or last,
Near,	Nearer,	Nearest, or next,
Far,	Farther,	Farthest,
Fore,	Former,	Foremost, or first.

TECHNICAL TERMS.

1. "*Sentensic*," when used alone, means the class of sentensic adjectives.

Where there is an assemblage of two or more sentensics, they are distinguished from one another by the order in which they stand; as, He *will have been taught.*

John, will you parse the *first* sentensic?
James, will you parse the third?
Charles, parse the fourth sentensic.
John, what can you say of the first sentensic?
The first sentensic carries the time of the event.

2. When "*insentensic*" is used alone, it means the class of insentensic adjectives.

John, what is an insentensic?

An insentensic is a word which is added to another word, but which does not aid in the formation of the sentensic character, as, I am *well.*

"*Impartial sentensics*" "*Partial sentensics,*" "*Impartial insentensics,*" and "*Partial insentensics*" apply exclusively to adjectives; as, "*writes*" is an impartial sentensic of the irregular kind.

"*On*" is a partial insentensic.

3. When nouns are meant, the expression should be full; as, "*John,*" in the expression *John* writes, is a sentensic *noun.*

OBSERVATION I.

Many of the impartial insentensics have forms when they refer to nouns, which differ from those which they possess when they refer to adjectives. The following are some of the forms which many of the impartial insentensics assume when they refer to nouns—*al, an, ate, ble, ed, en, ful, iar, id, in, inc, ish, ive, ing, ous, some, ty, ly, un, y, way, 's, s'.*

OBSERVATION II.

Many of the impartial insentensics when they refer to adjectives, take the *ly* termination; as, he writes *accurately,* It is *extremely* warm weather.

There are about a hundred nouns in our language, which may be converted into insentensic adjectives by prefixing *a;* as, *side, aside, head, ahead.*

The following insentensics are of the impartial kind, and generally refer to sentensics.

These adjectives, like nouns and other adjectives, denote *manner, positiveness, identity, conjunction, disjunction, interrogation, choice, similarity, dissimilarity, quantity, place, time, instrumentality, method, mode, negation, number, &c.*

MANNER—Correctly, softly, prudently, well, accordingly, badly, as, ill, side-wise, how, &c.
POSITIVENESS—Certainly, truly, undoubtedly, yes, verily, surely, indeed, positively, &c.
NEGATION—No, not, nay, never, not-at-all.
IDENTITY—Namely.
CONJUNCTION—Universally, together, generally, conjunctively.
DISJUNCTION—Off, separately, apart, asunder, singly, alone, apiece.
CAUSE—Why, &c.
CHOICE—Rather, sooner, chiefly, especially.
SIMILARITY—So, as, equally, thus, like.
DISSIMILARITY—Otherwise, else, differently, unlike.
QUANTITY—Almost, nearly, partially, partly, scarcely, hardly, sparingly, scantily, less, much, bountifully, liberally, &c.
PLACE—Here, there, where, away, whereon, wherein, in, at, on, thither, whither, hitherward, whitherward, hence, thence, wherever, out, forth, forthwith, of, to, ahead, behind, *to* and *fro*.
TIME—Now, when, then, whenever, after, as, afore, before, yet, hereafter, already, hitherto, lastly, afterwards, never, ever, aforetime, about, straightly, immediately, soon, primarily, previously, *at once*, *by* and *by*.
INSTRUMENTALITY—Whereby, wherewith, thereby.
METHOD—First, secondly, thirdly, &c.
NUMBER—Again, once, twice, &c.
PROBABILITY—Perhaps, peradventure, likely, possibly, &c.
NECESSITY—Needs, necessarily, &c.

WHERE there is a succession of sentensic adjectives, it is sometimes difficult for the pupil to decide to which sentensic the insentensic refers. In these instances, the nature of the case must direct his decision. Insentensics of negation and affirmation refer to the first sentensic; as, he *will not* learn, they *have* been good, *indeed*.

The ideas which other insentensics denote rarely belong to the facts which the first sentensic expresses; hence the other insentensics generally refer to the *last* sentensic; as, he has been *taught correctly*.

OBSERVATIONS.

In presenting any system of science, great care should be taken to make a distinction between those principles which should merely be explained and illustrated, and those which should not only be explained and illustrated, but kept constantly before the mind by a practical application of the technical language of the science. The division of nouns into *partial* and *impartial* is important in the the-

ory of the science of grammar; but perfectly unimportant in the practice of parsing. *Gender* is certainly a part of grammar, and should be defined, and illustrated—but in the English language, it is too readily understood to require any practice in parsing. Besides, in English, gender is founded entirely upon the *sex*, which renders it too indelicate a subject for that constant agitation which its recognition in parsing would produce.

The distinction of regular and irregular, which is made in the sentensics, is important as a distinction in the theory of a system of grammar—but unimportant in the *practical* part of the system.

The following specimen which is given as an exhibition of the application of the technical language of the system, is recommended as an exact guide to the teacher and pupil in parsing.

SPECIMEN OF PARSING.

[" The power (of speech) is a faculty peculiar] (to man); (and was bestowed) (on him) (by his beneficent Creator), (for the greatest and most excellent uses); (but (alas) how often do we pervert it) (to the worst) (of purposes!")

" [*The power is a faculty peculiar*]"—A sentensic section—*power*, *faculty* and *is*, are the sentensic words.

The—an impartial insentensic adjective, referring to *power*.
power—a sentensic noun, third order, singular number.
is—is, was, been,—a partial sentensic adjective, present tense, referring to *power* and *faculty*.
a—an impartial insentensic adjective, referring to *faculty*.
faculty—a sentensic noun, third order, singular number.
peculiar—an impartial insentensic adjective, referring to *faculty*.

" (*of speech*)"—An insentensic section.

of—a partial insentensic adjective, referring to *speech*.
speech—an insentensic noun, third order, singular number.

" (*to man*)"—An insentensic section.

to—a partial insentensic adjective, referring to *man*.
man—an insentensic noun, third order, singular number.

" (*and , was bestowed*)"—A sentensic section—*it*, *was* and *bestowed* are the sentensic words.

and—is a partial insentensic adjective, subjoining its own, to its superior section.
it—understood, a sentensic pro noun, representing *faculty*, third order, singular number.
was, is, was, been—a partial sentensic adjective, perfect tense, referring to *it*.
bestowed—bestows, bestowed, a partial sentensic adjective, referring to *it*.

"(*on him*)"—An insentensic section.

on—a partial insentensic adjective, referring to *him*.
him—an insentensic pro noun, representing *man*, third order, singular number.

"(*by his beneficent Creator*)"—An insentensic section.

by—a partial insentensic adjective, referring to *Creator*.
his—an impartial insentensic adjective, representing *man's*,* and referring to *Creator*.
beneficent—an impartial insentensic adjective, referring to *Creator*.
Creator—an insentensic noun, third order, singular number.

"(*for the greatest and most excellent uses*)—An insentensic section.

for—is a partial insentensic adjective, referring to *uses*.
the and *greatest* } are insentensic adjectives, referring to *uses*.
and—a partial insentensic adjective, subjoining *excellent* to *greatest*.
most—an impartial insentensic adjective, referring to *excellent*.
excellent—an impartial insentensic adjective, referring to *uses*.
uses—an insentensic noun, third order, singular number.

"(*but how often do we pervert it*)"—A sentensic section; *we*, *do* and *pervert* are the sentensic words.

but—a partial insentensic adjective, subjoining its own, to its superior section.
how—an impartial insentensic adjective, referring to *often*.
often—an impartial insentensic adjective, referring to *pervert*.
do, do, did, done—a partial sentensic adjective, present tense, referring to *we*.
we—a sentensic pro noun, representing *human beings*, first order, plural number.
pervert—pervert, perverted, an impartial sentensic adjective, referring to *we* and *it*.
it—an insentensic pro noun, representing *power*, third order, singular number.

"(*alas*)"—An insentensic section.

alas—an insentensic noun, third order, singular number.

"(*to the worst ,)*" An insentensic section.

to—a partial insentensic adjective, referring to *purpose*, understood.
the and *worst*—are impartial insentensic adjectives, referring to *purpose*, understood.

---

* The insentensic adjectives derived from pro nouns represent some insentensics derived from nouns; as, *his* represents *man's*.

purpose—understood is an insentensic noun, third order, singular number.

"(*of purposes*)"—An insentensic section.

of—a partial insentensic adjective, referring to *purposes*.
purposes—an insentensic noun, third order, plural number

2. [The industrious bee returns (to its hive) laden] (with honey and wax.)

"*The industrious bee returns laden.*"

A sentensic section—*bee*, *returns* and *laden* are the sentensic words.

The and *industrious*—are impartial insentensic adjectives, referring to *bee*.
bee—a sentensic noun, third order, singular number.
returns—returns, returned, a partial sentensic adjective, present tense, referring to *bee*.
laden—load, loaded or laden, a partial sentensic adjective, referring to *bee*.

"*to its hive.*"

An insentensic section.

to—a partial insentensic adjective, referring to *hive*.
its—an impartial insentensic adjective, representing *bee's*, and referring to *hive*.
hive—an insentensic noun, third order, singular number.

"*with honey and wax.*"

An insentensic section.

with—a partial insentensic adjective, referring to *honey* and *wax*.
honey—an insentensic noun, third order, singular number.
and—a partial insentensic adjective, subjoining *wax* to *honey*
wax—an insentensic noun, third order, singular number.

[Either she or her sister must return;] (or we can not have the goods.)

"*Either she or her sister must return.*"

A sentensic section—*she*, *sister*, *must* and *return* are the sentensic words.

Either—a partial insentensic adjective, subjoining its own, to its superior *sentence*, understood (not section.)
she—is a sentensic pro noun, representing *Jane*, third order, singular number.
or—a partial insentensic adjective, subjoining *sister* to *she*.
her—an impartial insentensic adjective, representing *Jane's*, and referring to *sister*.
sister—a sentensic noun, third order, singular number.

*must**—a partial sentensic adjective, present tense, referring to *she* and *sister*.
return—return, returned, a partial sentensic adjective, referring to *she* and *sister*.

"*or we can not have the goods.*"

A sentensic section—*we*, *can* and *have* are the sentensic words.

or—a partial insentensic adjective, subjoining its own, to its superior section.
we—a sentensic pro noun, representing our *names*, first order, plural number.
can—can, could, a partial sentensic adjective, present tense, referring to *we*.
not—an impartial insentensic adjective, referring to *can*.
have—have, had, an impartial sentensic adjective, referring to *we* and *goods*.
the—an impartial insentensic adjective, referring to *goods*.
goods—an insentensic noun, third order, plural number.

["An obedient son gives joy] (to his father and mother.")

["*An obedient son gives joy.*"]

A sentensic section—*son* and *gives* are the sentensic words.

An and *obedient*—are impartial insentensic adjectives, referring to *son*.
son—a sentensic noun, third order, singular number.
gives—gives, gave, given, an impartial sentensic adjective, present tense, referring to *son* and *joy*.
joy—an insentensic noun, third order, singular number.

"*(to his father and mother.)*"

An insentensic section.

to—a partial insentensic adjective, referring to *father* and *mother*.
his—an impartial insentensic adjective, representing *son's*, and referring to *father* and *mother*.
father—an insentensic noun, third order, singular number.
and—a partial insentensic adjective, subjoining *mother* to *father*.
mother—an insentensic noun, third order, singular number.

PREPARED EXERCISES.

Scheme.

The *first* letter of every word which is used in parsing, is presented in the successive order in which the word falls in the preceding specimen.

* *Must* is a tense defective word—hence it has no variation to mark different times.

[A certain man planted a vineyard, and set a hedge (about it), and built a tower, and digged a place (for the wine-vat), and let it out (to husbandmen,) and went] (into a far country.)

1. "*A certain man planted a vineyard, and set a hedge, and built a tower, and digged a place, and let it out, and went.*"

A sentensic section—*man*, *planted*, *set*, *built*, *digged*, *let* and *went* are the sentensic words.

A—a i i a r t *m*.
certain—a i i a r t *m*.
man—a s n t o s n.
planted—. . a i s a p t r t *m* a *v*.
a—a i i a r t *v*.
vineyard—a i n t o s n.
and—a p i a s *s* t *p*.
set—a i s a p t r t *m* a *h*.
a—a i i a r t *h*.
hedge—a i n t o s n.
and—a p i a s *b* t *s*.
built—. . a i s a p t r t *m* a *t*.
a—a i i a r t *t*.
tower—a i n t o s n.
and—a p i a s *d* t *b*.
digged—. . a i s a p t r t *m* a *p*.
a—a i i a r t *p*.
place—a i n t o s n.
and—a p i a s *l* t *d*.
let—a i s a p t r t *m* a *i*.
it—a i p n r *v* t o s n.
out—a i i a r t *l*.
and—a p i a s *w* t *l*.
went—. . . a p s a p t r t *m*.

"(*about it.*)"

An insentensic section.

about—a p i a r t *i*.
it—a i p n r *v* t o s n.

("*for the wine-vat.*)"

An insentensic section.

for—a p i a r t *w*.
the—a i i a r t *w*.
wine-vat—a i n t o s n.

"*(to husbandmen.)*"

An insentensic section.

to—a p i a r t *h.*
husbandmen—a i n t o p n.

"*(into a far country.)*"

An insentensic section.

into—a p i a r t *c.*
a—a i i a r t *c.*
far—a i i a r t *c.*
country—a i n t o s n.

[And when (he came) (into the house) he suffered no man to go in] (save Peter and John and James and the father and the mother) (of the maiden.) LUKE, viii. 51.

["*And he suffered no man to go in when*]"

A sentensic section—*he, suffered* and *go* are the sentensic words.

And—a p i a s i o t i s *verse* (51st to 50th.)
he—a s p n r *J* t o s n.
suffered—. . a i s a p t r t *h* a *m.*
no—a i i a r t *m.*
man—a i n t o s n.
to—a i i a r t *g.*
go—. . . a p s a r t *h.*
in—a i i a r t *g.*
when—a i i a r t *g.*

"*(he came.)*"

A sentensic section—*he* and *came* are the sentensic words.

he—a s p n r *J* t o s n.
came—. . a p s a p t r t *h.* (come, came, come.)

"*(into the house.)*"

An insentensic section.

into—a p i a r t *h.*
the—a i i a r t *h.*
house—a i n t o s n.

"*(save Peter and John and James and the father and the mother.)*"

An insentensic section.

save—a p i a r t *P J J f* a *m.*
Peter—a i n t o s n.

and—a p i a s *J* t *P*.
John—a i n t o s n.
and—a p i a s *J* i *J*.
James—a i n t o s n.
and—a p i a s *f* t *J*.
the—a i i a r t *f*.
father—a i n t o s n.
and—a p i a s *m* t *f*.
the—a i i a r t *m*.
mother—a i n t o s n.

(" *of the maiden.*")

An insentensic section.

of—a p i a r t *m*.
the—a i i a r t *m*.
maiden—a i n t o s n.

(Verily, verily, [I say] (unto you,) he (that entereth not) (by the door,) (into the sheepfold) (but climbeth up) (some other way) the same is a thief and robber.") JOHN X. 1.

"[*I say.*]"

A sentensic section—*I* and *say* are the sentensic words.

I—a s p n r *J* f o s n.
say—. . a i s a p t r t *I* a t engrossed noun.*

" *(Verily, verily he the same , is a thief and a robber.)*"

A sentensic section—*he, person, is, thief* and *robber* are the sentensic words.

Verily—a i i a r t *i*.
verily—a i i a r t *i*.
he—a s p n r *p* t o s n.
the—a i i a r t *p* u.
same—a i i a r t *p* u.
person, *understood*—a s n t o s n.
is—. . . a p s a p t r t *h p t* a *r*.
a—a i i a r t *t*.
thief—a s n t o s n.
and—a p i a s *r* t *t*.
a—a i i a r t *r*.
robber—a s n t o s n.

---

* He that entereth not by the door into the sheepfold, but climbeth up some other way, the same is a thief and robber.

" (unto you.)"

An insentensic section.

unto—a p i a r t *y.*
you—a i p n r *p* s o p n.

" (that entereth not.)"

An insentensic section.

that—a s p n r *h* t o s n.
entereth—. . a p s a p t r t *t.*
not—a i i a r t *e.*

" (by the door.)"

An insentensic section.

by—a p i a r t *d.*
the—a i i a r t *d.*
door—a i n t o s n.

(" into the sheepfold.")

An insentensic section.

into—a p i a r t *s.*
the—a i i a r t *s.*
sheepfold—a i n t o s n.

" (but , climbeth up.)"

A sentensic section—*that* and *climbeth* are the sentensic words.

but—a p i a s i o t i s *s.*
that, understood—a s p n r *h* t o s n.
climbeth—. . a p s a p t r t *h.*
up—a i i a r t *c.*

(" , some other way.")

An insentensic section.

by, understood—a p i a r t *w.*
some—a i i a r t *w.*
other—a i i a r t *w.*
way—a i n t o s n.

" [The power (of speech) is a faculty peculiar] (to man;) (and was bestowed) (on him) (by his beneficent Creator) (for the greatest and most excellent uses;) (but (alas!) how often do we pervert it) (to the worst) (of purposes!)"

"[*The power is a faculty peculiar.*]"—
a s s *p i* a *f* a t s w.

The—a i i a r t *p.*
power—a s n t o s n.
is—. . . a p s a p t r t *p* a *f.*
a—a i i a r t *f.*
faculty—a s n t o s n.
peculiar—a i i a r t *f.*

"(*of speech,*")—a i s.

of—a p i a r t *s.*
speech—a i n t o s n.

"(*to man,*)"—a i s.

to—a p i a r t *m.*
man—a i n t o s n.

"(and , was bestowed,)"—a s s *i w* a *b* a t s w.

and—a p i a s i o t i s s.
it—u a s p n r *p* t o s n.
was—. . . a p s a p t r t *i* u.
bestowed—. . a p s a r t *i* u.

"(*on him*)"—a i s.

on—a p i a r t *h.*
him—a i p n r *m* t o s n.

"(*by his beneficent Creator*)—a i s.

by—a p i a r t *C.*
his—a i i a r *m* a r t *C.*
beneficent—a i i a r t *C.*
Creator—a i n t o s n.

"(*for the greatest and most excellent uses*)"—a i s.

for—a p i a r t *u.*
the—a i i a r t *u.*
greatest—a i i a r t *u.*
and—a p i a s *e* t *g.*
most—a i i a r t *e.*
excellent—a i i a r t *u.*
uses—a i n t o p n.

"(*but how often do we pervert it*),"—a s s *w* *d* a *p* a t s w.

but—a p i a s i o t i s *s.*
how—a i i a r t *o.*
often—a i i a r t *p.*
do—. . . a p s a p t r t *w.*
we—a s p n f o p n.
pervert—. . a i s a r t *w* a *i.*

it—a i p n r *p* t o s n.

"(*alas*)"—a i s.

alas—a i n t o s n.

"(*to the worst* ,)"—a i s.

to—a p i a r t *p* u.
the—a i i a r t *p* u.
worst—a i i a r t *p* u.
purpose—u a i n t o s n.

"(*of purposes*)"—a i s.

of—a p i a r t *p*.
purposes—a i n t o p n.

"The English people showed that they were not insensible to what was passing in Ireland."

"[*The English people showed that*]"—a s s *p* a *s* a t s w.

The—a i i a r t *p*.
English—a i i a r t *p*.
people—a s n t o p n.
showed—. . a i s a p t r t *p* a *t*.
that—a i p n r *t e n* t o s n.

"(*they were not insensible,*)"—a s s *t* a *w* a t s w.

they—s p n r *p* t o p n.
were—. . . a p s a p t r t *t*.
not—a i i a r t *w*.
insensible—a i i a r t *t*.

"(*to what* ,)"—a i s.

To—a p i a r t *t* u.
what—a i i a r t *t* u.
thing—u a i n t o s n.

"(*it was*)"—understood a s s *i* a *i* a t s w.

it—a s p n r *t* t o s n.
was—. . . a p s a p t r t *i*.

"(, *was passing*)"—a s s *w* a *w* a t s w.

which—u a s p n r *t* t o s n.
was—. . . a p s a p t r t *w* u.
passing—. . a p s a r t *w* u.

"(*in Ireland*)"—a i s.

in—a p i a r t *I*.
Ireland—a i n t o s n.

[The more I read the book] , (the better I like it.)

"[*The more I read the book*]" a s s *I* a *r* a t s w.

The—a i i a r t *m*.
more—a i i a r t *r*.
I—a s p n r m *n* f o s n.
read—. . a i s a p t r t *I* a *b*.
the—a i i a r t *b*.
book—a i n t o s n.

"(*the better I like it.*)"—a s s *I* a *l* a t s w.

the—a i i a r t *b*.
better—a i i a r t *l*.
I—a s p n r *m n* f o s n.
like—. . a i s a p t r t *I* a *i*.
it—a i p n r *b* t o s n.

EXERCISES.

[Samuel hit Stephen] (with his cane.)
[Nathan calls his brother] (to recitation.)
[John saw his sister] (at church.)
[Jane taught (, the ladies) music and embroidery.]
[The scriptures unfold an immortal existence.]
[Paul and Silas sung praises] (to God.)
[Hope, (deceitful as it is,) carries us (through life) quite well enough.]
[We all complain] (of our memories;) (but few , (of us) complain) (of our judgments.)
[Interest speaks all languages, and acts all parts;] (even , , that ,) of the disinterested person.

QUESTIONS.

What is the sentensic noun of *hit?*
What is the insentensic noun of *hit?*
What is the insentensic noun of *calls?*
What is the sentensic noun of *saw?*
To what does *saw* refer?—*Saw* refers to *John* as its sentensic, and to *sister* as its insentensic noun.

Of those impartial insentensics which have no Adjective termination.

The impartial insentensics having no adjective terminations are quite numerous. They are:—*what, all,*

such, former, latter, little, much, either, neither, this, that, these, those, which, no, any, first, second, third, each, every, same, best, some, few, least, many, both, certain, other, one, another, above, none, and some others.

These Adjectives generally refer to some noun, *understood;* as, *some* of the people are sick.

That is, some *people* of the people are sick.

All are pupils.

Here *all* refers to some noun understood; as, *all* the *boys* are pupils.

When an impartial insentensic falls immediately before a sentensic, or before a *partial insentensic,* it must refer to some noun which is understood; as, many of the men were absent.

That is, many *men* of the men, were absent.

Many are disappointed.

That is, many *individuals* are disappointed.

SPECIMEN OF PARSING.

"Many , are rational *beings.*"

Many—an impartial insentensic adjective, referring to *beings* understood.

beings, understood—a sentensic noun, third order, singular number.

are— . . . a partial sentensic adjective, present tense, referring to *beings* and *beings.*

rational—an impartial insentensic adjective, referring to *beings.*

beings—a sentensic noun, third order, singular number.

EXERCISES.

1. Some , are . . . beautiful apples.
2. Either , is . . . a philosophic truth.
3. Many , will . . be taught.
4. Which , shall . . I call.
5. What , will . . they accomplish?
6. This , has . . been viewed.
7. These , are . . . logical arguments.
8. Those , are . . . fine lights.
9. That , is . . . a writing table.
10. These , are . . . written letters.
11. Such , are . . . gentlemen.

Of those impartial insentensic adjectives which form their adjective terminations by dropping noun terminations.

Of these, there are many. Among them may be enumerated—*good*, *bad*, *high*, *correct*, *new*, *old*, *fine*, *straight*, *crooked*, *white*, *red*, *blue*, *black*, *yellow*, *&c.*

The above adjectives as well as the whole class to which they belong, have other terminations; as, good, *goodness*, bad, *badness*, high, *height*, correct, *correctness*. The *ness* converts these adjectives into nouns.

These words may be converted into adjectives by *ly*; as, *badly*, *highly*, *&c.*

The noun termination of *red* is—*ness*.

The adjective termination is—*red* or *reddish*.

The noun termination of *accurate* is—*accuracy*.

The adjective terminations are *accurate* and *accurately*.

Of those impartial insentensics which are both nouns and adjectives under the same form or termination.

This class of adjectives is numerous—they might, were there any advantage to be derived from a distinction, be called defective adjectives. They might also be called *noun adjectives*—since they are adjectives in the noun form; as, *paper* curtains, *man* servant, *knife* case, *James* Brewster, *Nancy* Stevenson, *sea* water.

NOTE.—It is the practice with some teachers to call the first name of a person a noun; as, *Johnson* Brown.

With other teachers, it is the practice to call the two names a *compound* noun; as, *Johnson Brown* is a compound noun.

In regard to the first, we would remark that as the first name bears the same relation to the second, which any adjective bears to its noun, we cannot see any good reason for calling it a noun!

With respect to the calling of the two words a compound noun, we would observe that any adjective is as much entitled to be included with the noun as the first word in partial names, hence—

Black, *red* or *white* when joined to nouns, may be considered a part of the noun, and consequently embraced in the phrase "*compound noun!*"

1. *John Boston*—is a compound noun!
2. *Black cloth*—is a compound noun!
3. *The hat*—is a compound noun!
4. *To write well*—is a compound noun!

Now, *John*, is used to distinguish *what* Boston is intended. And *black* is employed to show what cloth is meant. What, then, is the difference?

EXERCISES.

Salt water contains . . some salt.
Stove pipes contain . . iron substance.
J. Monroe succeeded . . Mr. Madison.
George Washington was . . . a great man.
Joseph Boston saw . . . Nancy Joseph.
Brick houses comprise . . many bricks.
Country people prefer . . the country.
Leather shoes are . . . good.
Red leather is . . . dazzling.
A city life creates . . city fashions.
City people prefer . . the city.
Mountain trees may . . be high, or low.

CONSTRUING RESUMED.

Construing respects the mechanical relation between the sections of a sentence.

QUESTIONS.

1. What is a section?—*(See page 22.)*
2. How are sections divided?
3. When are sections called complete?
4. When are they called elliptical?
5. How many relations have sections?
6. When is the relation of a section simple?
7. What example is given to illustrate this definition?
8. When is the relation of a section compound?
9. What examples illustrate this definition?
10. What is said of the word *and*, in explaining this relation?

PREPARED EXERCISES IN CONSTRUING, *and a* KEY *to the* EXERCISES *appended to the different* OBSERVATIONS *upon those insentensics which are often used as nouns.*

OBSERVATIONS.

I.—The figures which are placed before and after the different sections are designed to aid in referring each inferior section to its own superior or superiors; they are called *close reading figures.*

The words which are in italic characters, are understood in the exercises to which these prepared ones are a KEY.

II.—The place of sectional contact is that where the inferior section is naturally constructed into its superior. This place is generally denoted by the position of the *close reading* figure.

III.—The major section is placed first, and the different minors are placed after the major and each other, according to their printed order in the subsequent *exercises*.

N. B. Where there is but one figure before the *inferior* section, the relation is simple.

OB. I.

I must not use another's book when 1
1 I have one 2
2 of my own.
They accommodate one another daily.
Give *thou* another apple 1
1 *to* James.
The interest 1 is not so dear 2. 3
1 of another *person*
2 to me
3 as my own *interest is.*
I claim this one 1. 2
1 for my own *property* 3
2. 3 but another person claims it 4
4 as another's *property.*
This day suits my interest; 1
1 another *day* may suit another's *interest* better 3
3 than this *day suits it.*
Any interest is another's *interest* 1
1 except my own *interest.*
Here comes another *person* 1
1 and another's views are to be given 2. 6*
2 of course
6 another's interest *is* to be taken 5. 7
5 into the affair 8
7. 8 (and another's whims, prejudices and opinions *are* to be nursed.)

OB. II.

Give *thou* such *cloth* 2 and as much *cloth* 1. 3. 7
1 *to* me 6
2 as I purchased 5
3 as I purchased; 4
7. 6. 5. 4 and I shall be satisfied.
Do *ye* the job 1
1 in such a manner 2. 3

* "*Another's views are*" is the superior part of the section—"*to be given*" is the inferior part.

5 as will please him; 4
3. 4 and he will give as many dollars 5. 6
5 *to* you
6 as will pay you well 7
7 for your trouble.
I will give such *things* 1. 2
1 as I have,
2 unto thee
No such things was ever declared 1
1 he seems as to recollect.
A little will answer 1
1 *for* much 2
2 as man desires.
He saw a man 3 as 1
1 Jesus passed by
3 that was blind 4
4 from his birth.

It sometimes happens that when the major section occupies the place of a minor, the pro noun and the other noun exchange places—an instance of this occurs in the above sentence. This may be explained in the following manner:

[*Jesus passed by as*] *he saw a man.*

I am the light 3 as long 1
1 as I am 2
2 in the world
3 of the world
He was good 1
1 as-well-as *he was* rich.

OB. III.

Men should respect each other.
Each man should be 5
5 at his post.
Each *man* 6 is well informed
6 of these men.

CLOSE READING, thus—*Each man of these men is well informed.*

They saw each other 4. 5
4 at church
5 *on* each sabbath.

OB. IV.

One is apt to think ill 7
7 of others;

But one would not think that 3
3 rational beings would be guilty 4
4 of such faults 5
5 as *are* these *faults*.
One book should be bound 1
1 the other *book* should be used 2
2 in the form 3
3 of a pamphlet.
How much *evil* one sees 1 *which* to shun 8
1 in all the walks 2. 6
2 of life
6. 8 every street and alley 9 are full 20
9 of a populous city
20 of such objects 30
30 as make a wise man cautious, a foolish one miserable, and a feeling one sad.
That one was Perry 5. 30
5 on the lake
30 if ever any man subdued a powerful enemy.
We should be kind 1
1 to one another.
How often does one feel the pangs 10
10 of sin.
He called one *man* 6 and sent him 7. 9
6 of his men
7 to get an apple 8. 3
8 for the child
9. 3 and he got one.
One 6 *apple* is mine.

CLOSE READING—

One apple of these apples is mine.

One's own interest leads one to do *deeds* or *acts* right.
The ones 6 are such ones 8
6 which you have
8 as will please me.
The boy's books are old 4. 8
4 whom I teach 8
3. 8 the one's books are new 9
9 whom you teach.
It is one *individual* 3
3 of the twelve.

OB. V.

Men should respect each other.
Each man should be 0
0 at his post.
Each *one* 6 is well informed
6 of these men.
They saw each other 8. 9
8 at church
9 *on* each Sabbath.

OB. VI.

The book is far off 6. 7. 9
6 that you see 7. 3
9. 7 the one is near by 8. 4
8 that I see 5
5. 4. 3. 9 hence that appears less 0
0 than this *appears*.
Soul and body must separate 0
0 that will return 5. 6
5 to its maker; 7
6. 7 this *will return* 9
9 to its primitive dust.
That *book* is an old work; 9
9 this *book* is a new one.
That thing 6 was that thing 8
6 that that man said
8 that that man should say again.
That has four letters.
9 Did this man sin 9. 20.
9 Master,
20 or *did* his parents *sin* 30
30 that he was born blind. 9
I must work the works 8
8 of him 9
9 that sent me.
Then said the Jews 8. 9
8 unto him
2 now we know that 10
10 thou hast a devil.
(Rep. *cause*.) It is thought to have been the gout 20
20 that made him so very peevish and discontented 4
4 with all the *persons* 30

30 that were 40
40 about him.
He is not worthy 8. 4
8 that loveth father or mother more 9
9 than *he loveth* me.
4 of me.
He 4 shall lose it 4
4 that findeth his life.
He receiveth me 5. 6
5 that receiveth you 7
6. 7 and he 8 receiveth him 9
8 that receiveth me
9 that sent me.
I say 8 that 8. 9
8 unto you
(Rep. *fate*) 9 it shall be more tolerable 20. 3
20 for the land 6
6 of Sodom
3 than *it shall be* 40
40 for you.
That *person* is the boy 60
60 that I saw.
That book is one 3
3 that I read.

OB. VII.

John has six books 3. 2
3 and his brother *has* seven *books* 4
2. 4 those make thirteen *books when* 9
9 they are added 8
8 to these.
Those books are newer 8
8 than these *books are.*
Those *persons* 6 should speak and tell why 8
6 of you
8 that would not have him to rule us.
We are entertained 8. 9. 30
8 in the city 40
9 by the works 20. 50
20 of man; 60
S in the country, 100
60. 50. 40. 30 we are entertained 10. S

10 by the works 2. A
1 of God: 6
100 this is the presence 200. R
200 of nature; 16
R. 16 that *is the presence* 3
3 of art;
S. A. 6 these astonish us; B
B those we comprehend.

Ob. VIII.

John has six books 8. 4
8 and his brother *has* seven *books*, A
A. 4 those make thirteen *books when* 6
6 they are added 9
9 to these.
My brother had some apples and cents 8
8 these he gave 9
9 for those.
Those books are newer 8
8 than these *books are.*
Those *persons* 6 should speak and tell why 9
6 of you
9 that would not have him to rule us.
We are entertained 1. 2
1 in the city 3. D
2 by the works 4. 5
4 of man; 6
9 in the country 50
(*but*) 1. 3. 5. 6 *we are entertained* 9. 10. S
50 by the works 19. R
19 of God; B
S. R. B. 50 this is the presence 60. 80. 90
60 of nature; 70. 90
80. 70. D * that *is the presence* 30. 90
30 of art; A
A. 90 * these astonish us; 40
40 those we comprehend.

The star * shows that *and* or *but* may be introduced in giving an illustration of the bearing of the inferior sections upon the superior ones; and, as *and* and *but* mean *add* or join, the question is, to how *many* sections the added one must be added, or subjoined.

OB. IX.

The parent obtained what *thing* 8
8 it *was* 9
9 *which* the son desired.
What *thing or book* shall I get 8
8 for you?
What man's able 8
8 to meet such misfortunes 3
3 as *are* these *misfortunes?*
8 Shall he 9 submit 9. 3
8 what
9 who is strong
3 to him 5
5 who is feeble?

(partly) *(partly)*
What and what they preserved their lives 8. 9
8 with the bread
9 with the wine.

Note.—[They preserved their lives *partly* (with the bread) and *partly*] (with the wine.)

Give *thou* what *thing* 8. 9. 3
8 to me, 2
9 *it is*, 5. 7
5 *which* I want 1
3. 2. 7. 1 and I will leave you 60
60 sir

Note.—Here it is clear that the section, "*I will leave you,*" is to be added to all the others, since it requires all the others to express the condition upon which I will leave you.

OB. X.

Which man shall return?
Have you the book *which* 9 to read
9 you wish
Give *thou* an apple 8. 9
8 to me
9 which is ripe.

OBSERVATIONS *upon the following words, which vary their grammatical characters and names according to their application in sentences.*

Another	-	-	another's.
As	-	-	———

Each - - -	———
One - - -	one's, ones', ones.
Other - -	other's, others', others.
That - -	those.
This - -	these.
What - -	———
Which - -	———

Observation I.

Another, may be a noun and an adjective.

1. It is a noun where it is used in a *reciprocal* sense; as, They saw one *another*.

2. It is an adjective, where it refers to some *noun* either expressed or understood; as, I have *another's* book, I wish *another* apple, I have taken two shares, and want *another* , .

3. It is an adjective where it refers to another adjective; as, I have *another* man's hat.

Exercises under Observation I.

Directions.

The first use which is to be made of these Exercises, is in CONSTRUING—and in this the preceding KEY will be of great service to both *teacher* and *pupil*. Every section there stands in a line by itself; the *close reading* is there pointed out by figures—and each *ellipsis* is there properly filled.

The next use which is to be made of these exercises, is in *parsing*. But before this exercise can be performed to advantage, the observations standing above the *exercises*, must be thoroughly studied.

The pupil should enable himself by means of his own *reflection* and the KEY, to supply every word which is *understood*, before he attempts to parse a sentence.

[I must not use another's book when] (I have one) (of my own.)

[They accommodate one another daily.]

[Give , (, James) another apple.]

[The interest (of another ,) is not as dear] (to me) (as my own , , .)

[I claim this one] (for my own ,)—(but another , claims it) (as another's , .)

[This day suits my interest;] (another , may suit another's , better) (than this , , , .)

[Any interest, (except my own ,) is another's , .]

(Ah,) [here comes another , ;] (and (of course) another's views are to be given;) (another's interest , to be taken) (into the affair;) (and another's whims, prejudices nnd opinions , to be nursed.)

Observation II.

As, may be a noun and an adjective.

1. It is a noun where it follows *such*, *much*, or *many;* as, he has such fruit *as* I desire.

When *as* stands next to a sentensic adjective, it is a sentensic pro noun; as, I have such apples *as* please me.

But when any word stands between *as* and the sentensic, *as* is an *insentensic* pro noun; as, I have such apples *as* he purchased.

2. It is a partial insentensic where it is used in the sense of *for;* or in the sense of the phrase—"*in the character of;*" as, he went *as* a soldier.

3. It is a partial insentensic when between two sections, denoting a comparison; or when used with *well as;* as, I am not so old *as* he is—he is good *as well as* bad.

4. It is an impartial insentensic where it denotes the time of the event; as, *as* he came in, I went out. That is, *when* he came in, I went out.

5. Also where it is used much in the sense of *so;* as, *As* far as I am able to judge. *So* far, &c.

Exercises under Observation II.

[Give , (, me) such , (as I purchased,) and as much ,] (as I purchased;) (and I shall be satisfied.)

[Do , the job] (in such a manner) (as will please him,) (and he will give, (, you) as many dollars) (as will pay you well) (for your trouble.)

[Such , (as I have,) I will give] (unto thee.)

[No such thing was ever declared] (as he seems to recollect.)

[, Much) (as man desires) [a little will answer.]

[As (Jesus passed by) he saw a man] (that was blind) (from his birth.)

[As long (as I am) (in the world,) I am the light] (of the world.)

[He was good] (as well as , , rich.)

[They came] (as pupils) (to my school.)

Observation III.

Each may be a noun and an adjective.

1. It is a noun where it is used in a reciprocal sense; as, they confide in *each* other.

2. It is an adjective where it is added to a noun either expressed or understood; as, he gave *each* man a dollar—He met ten lads, and gave *each* , a crown.

3. It is an adjective where it is added to another adjective; as, he saw *each* man's sword, He gave *each* pupil's book to the teacher.

Exercises under Observation III.

[Men should respect each other.]
[Each man should be] (at his post.)
[Each , (of these men) is well informed.]
[They saw each other] (at church) (, each sabbath.)
[Each man's hat is black.]
[They obtained a dollar] (for each one's knife.)

Observation IV.

One may be a noun and an adjective.

1. It is a noun when in the plural form; as, these *ones* are ripe.

Also when it is used in a reciprocal sense; as, They saw *one* another.

When *one* is used in any other sense than that of unity or singleness, it is a pro noun; as, Will he pretend to vie with *one* like me? Where *one* heareth the word of the kingdom, and understandeth it not, then cometh the wicked *one*, and catcheth away that which was sown in his heart, "He will call *one* of these days, *One* should be kind and liberal in all things," "I will not use your book while I have *one* of my own," The *one* which you gave me, They met *one* another.

2. Where *one* means nothing but *unity*, as well as where it is used much in the sense of *single*, and refers to some noun, it is an *adjective;* as, there is but *one* God, He paid me but *one* dollar.

In the sense of *single;* as, if any *one* soldier ever subdued a powerful enemy, it was Perry on the lake.

One , of them must return,

That is, one *person* or *individual* of them, must return.

When *one* has the apostrophic form, whether in the singular or plural, it is an adjective; as *one's* mind should be improved, &c. These *ones'* books.

Exercises under Observation IV.

[One is apt to think ill] (of others.)

[But one would think that] (rational beings would not be guilty) (of such faults) (as , these , .)

[One book should be bound,] (the other , should be used) (in the form) (of a pamphlet.)

(In all the walks) (of life) [how much , one sees , to shun:] (every street and alley (of a populous city) are full) (of such objects) (as make a wise man cautious, a foolish one miserable, and a feeling one sad.

("If ever any one man subdued a powerful enemy,) [that one was Perry] (on the Lake.")

[We should be kind] (to one another.)

[How often does one feel the pangs] (of sin!)

[He called one , (of his men,) and sent him] (to get an apple) (for the child;) (and he got one.)

[One , (of these apples) is mine.]

[One's own interest leads one to do right.]

[The ones (which you have) are such ones] (as will please me.)

[The boys' books (whom I teach) are old]—(the ones' books (whom you teach) are new.)

[It is one ,] (of the twelve.)

Observation V.

Other may be a noun, and an adjective.

1. It is a noun where it is used in a reciprocal sense, and where it has the plural form; as, They heard of each *other*, His brothers and *others* were present.

2. *Others'* or *other*, when it refers to a noun, is an adjective; as, *Others'* books are not mine, He wishes *other* articles.

3. When *other* refers to an adjective, it is an adjective; as, *other* people's business should not concern me.

Other in the possessive form (*others'*) can never be added to another adjective. Nor can *other* be rendered possessive in the singular—for we cannot say *other's* books—Though we say with propriety, *another's* books.

Exercises under Observation V.

[Men should respect each other.]
[Each man should be] (at his post.)
[Each , (of these men) is well informed.]
[They saw each other] (at church.) (, each Sabbath.)
[One is apt to think ill] (of others.)

Observation VI.

That may be a noun, and an adjective.

1. It is a noun where it can be exchanged for *which*, *who*, or *whom;* as, he is the pupil *that* learns grammar —*who* learns. This is the book *that* I purchased—*which* I purchased.

2. *That*—is a noun where *that* and *this* are used in contrast, *that* denoting what is more distant, or what is first mentioned—*this* what is less distant, or what is last mentioned; as, Wednesday and Sunday were both fine days—though *that* was cold, but *this* quite warm. Which day was cold?

3. *That*—is a noun where it represents a following section, or all the following parts of a sentence; as, He said *that* he was in the city of London, in 1825.

I.—When *that* stands next to the sentensic adjective, it is a sentensic pro noun; as, he is the lad *that* came for the books.

But when any other word stands between *that* and the *sentensic* adjective, *that* is an *insentensic* pro noun; as, he has the book *that* he purchased.

II.—*That* is a noun when it represents a clause or section, and either by apposition or otherwise, stands connected with a sentensic or a *partial* insentensic adjective; as, it is said *that* he went, &c.

Here *that* is put by apposition with *it*. (*See the* Appeal, *page* 92.)

That—is an adjective where it refers to *a noun*—and can be exchanged for *the;* as, *that* book—*the* book.

That—is an adjective where it refers to an adjective and can be exchanged for *the;* as, I saw *that* man's house,—*the* man's.

Exercises under Observation VI.

[The book (that you see) is far off;] (the one (that I see) is near by;) (hence that appears less) (than this , .)

[Soul and body must separate;] (that will return) (to its Maker;) (this , ,) (to its primitive dust.)

[That , is an old work;] (this , is a new one.)

[That thing that (that man said) was that thing] (that that man should say again.)

[That has four letters.]

(Master,) [did this man sin] (or , his parents ,) (that he was born blind?)

[I must work the works] (of him) (that sent me.)

[Then said the Jews] (unto him), (now we know that) (thou hast a devil.)

That—is here a pro noun, representing the section—"*thou hast a devil.*"

[It is thought to have been the gout] (that made him so very peevish, and discontented) (with all , ,) (that were) (about him.)

[He (that loveth his father or mother more) (than , , me) is not worthy] (of me.)

[He (that findeth his life) shall lose it.]

[He (that receiveth you) receiveth me;] (and he (that receiveth me) receiveth him) (that sent me.)

[I say (unto you) that] (it shall be more tolerable) for the land) (of Sodom) (than , , ,) (for you.)

[That , is the lady] (that I saw.)

[That book is the one] (that I read.)

Observation VII.

This—may be a noun, and an adjective.

1. It is a noun where it is used in contrast with *that* or *those*, *that* or *those* denoting what is more distant or first mentioned—*this* what is less distant or last mentioned; as, Wednesday and Sunday were both fine days; though *that* was cold—but *this* warm.

2. *This*—is an adjective, where it is added to a noun either expressed or understood; as, *This* book is new, *that* , is old, [*This* , is the book which I desire to read.]

That is, this *book* is the book.

3. *This*—is an adjective where it refers to another adjective; as, *This* man's hat is new.

Exercises under Observation VII.

[John has six books] (and his brother , seven , ;) (those , (, , added) (to these) make thirteen , .)

[My brother had some apples and cents;] (these he (gave) (for those.)

[Those books are newer] (than these , , .)

[Those , (of you) (that would not have him to rule us,) should speak and tell why.]

(In the city) [we are entertained] (by the works) (of man;) (in the country) (, , ,) (by the works) (of God:) (this is the presence) (of nature;) (that , , ,) (of art;) (these astonish us;) (those we comprehend.)

Observation VIII.

Those—is the plural of *that*, and may be a noun, and an adjective.

1. *Those*—is a noun where it is used in contrast with *this* or *these*, *those* denoting things which are more distant, or first mentioned; and *this* or *these* denoting what is less distant or last mentioned; as, "I have two apples, and three plums—*those* I shall keep; *these* I shall give to you."

2. *Those*—is an adjective where it refers to a noun, either expressed or understood; as, *Those* children are idle, These pupils are studying; but *those* , are not.

3. *Those*—is an adjective, where it refers to another adjective; as, *those* men's gloves.

Observation IX.

These—is the plural of *this*, and may be a noun, and an adjective.

1. It is a *noun* where it is used in contrast with *those; those* denoting the things which are more distant either in time or space, and *these*, the things which are less distant in time or space; as, I have two apples and three plums—" those I shall keep—*these* I shall give to you."

2. *These*—is an adjective where it refers to a noun either expressed or understood; as, Those children are

idle; but *these* , are busy, *These* books are new; those , are old.

Exercises under Observations VIII. and IX.

[John has six books] (and his brother , seven ,) (those , (, , added) (to these) make thirteen , .)

[My brother had some apples and cents;] (these he gave) (for those.)

[Those books are newer] (than these , , .)

[Those , (of you) (that would not have him to rule us,) should speak and tell why.]

(In the city) [we are entertained] (by the works) (of man,) (in the country) (, , ,) (by the works) (of God:) (this is the presence) (of nature;) (that , , ,) (of art;) (these astonish us;) (those we comprehend.)

[Those men's goods are fine] (but these men's goods are coarse.)

Observation X.

What may be a noun, and an adjective.

1. It is a noun where it is used to express some surprise or sudden emotion; as, *What!* who comes there?

2. It is an adjective where it refers to a noun either expressed or understood; as, [The parent got *what* ,] (, ,) (, the son desired.)

The common practice is to omit WHAT in some instances. But surely none will say that this *omission* is a *solution* of the word! *That* and *which* take the place of *what*. These words are parsed, and *what* is thrown out! Now, if the parsing of *that* and *which* can be considered a parsing of *what*, the parsing of a word is sometimes entirely different from any thing of which I have had a conception. Let us take the true method, which, I believe, is the following:—

He got *what* he wanted.

That is, He got what *thing* it was *which* he wanted. The word *what* is an adjective, relating to *thing* understood. The calling of words COMPOUND RELATIVES, and then throwing them from the sentence, is certainly a *queer way of parsing* them!!!

3. *What* is an adjective where it refers to another adjective; as, *what* man's interest is safe in bad hands?

4. It is an adjective also where it is used in the sense of *partly;* as, *What* by magnifying, *what* by dimi-

nishing, *what* by distorting and disfiguring, he has in many places burlesqued the original.

That is, *partly* by magnifying, &c.

Exercises under Observation X.

[The parent obtained what ,] (, ,) (, the son desired.)

[What , shall I get] (for you?)

[What man is able to meet such misfortunes] (as these , .)

(What!) [shall he (who is strong) submit] (to him) (who is feeble?)

[What (with the bread,) and what (with the wine,) they preserved their lives.]

[Give , (, me) what ,] (, ,) (, I want;) (and I will leave you,) (sir.)

[What , is the hour,] (John?)

Observation XI.

Which may be a noun, and an adjective.

1. It is a *noun* where it is so used as not to refer to any noun after it; as, this is the book *which* I purchased.

2. It is an *adjective* where it is so used as to refer to a noun either *expressed* or *understood*, which follows it; as, *which* man shall I call? *Which* , of these books is mine? That is, *which* book of these books is mine?

3. It is an adjective where it refers to another adjective; as, *which* man's lot is the larger?

The words, *all, such, former, latter, little, much, some, any, few, many, &c.* are generally adjectives—and often refer to nouns, understood; as *all* of them came.

That is, all the *individuals* of them came. *(See pages* 88, 89.*)*

Observation XII.

When an impartial sentensic of the conjunctive form becomes a noun, *of* is either expressed or understood after it; as, The attributing to faculties that power which does not belong to them, has deceived many.

That is, the attributing of that power to faculties.

Exercises under Observation XII.

(By reading) (, good authors) [we improve our style.]
[My reading (, the book,) gave offence.]
[His writing (, the letter) displeased them.]
[The walking (of the lad) was slow.]
(By walking slowly) [we prolong our journey.]

Observation XIII.

When an adjective or pro noun bears the same relation to an *assemblage* of words, which it does to a noun, the *assemblage*, in relation to the adjective or pro noun, is a noun, and is sentensic or insentensic, according to the *manner* of construction.

specimen of parsing.

[" John has] (his arm shot off.")

John—is a sentensic noun, third order, singular number.
has— . . an impartial sentensic adjective, present tense, referring to *John* and the engrossed noun, *his arm shot off*.
his arm shot off—is an insentensic noun, third order, singular number.
his—is an impartial insentensic adjective, representing *John's*, and referring to *arm*.
arm—is a sentensic noun, third order, singular number.
shot— . . a partial sentensic adjective referring to *arm*.
off—is an impartial insentensic adjective, referring to *shot*.

exercises.

1. [He said, where art thou?]
" where art thou?"
2. [He said, they will reverence my son.]
" they will reverence my son."
3. [His disciples asked (of him) who did sin?]
" who did sin?"
4. [Jesus saith (to Simon Peter) lovest thou me?]
" lovest thou me?"
5. [And Peter said, (Lord) thou knowest all things.]
(" Lord) (thou knowest all things.")

Let the pupil parse the words in the noun which is made up of two or more words, in *every* instance. We shall no longer set this noun out from the other part of the sentence—the learner may now take the noun as it is first printed.

6. [" They answered, and said (unto him,) (Abraham is our father.")] [" Jesus said (unto them,) (if ye were Abraham's children,) (ye would do the works) (of Abraham.")]

7. [" But now ye seek (to kill me.")]

If we here ask what is sought, the answer is—"*to kill me.*" Suppose, then, the sentence read—*But now ye seek my death;* the word, *death,* would be parsed as the insentensic noun of *seek.*

[8. " He has some recollection] (of (his father's being) (, , ,) (, a judge."))

If we ask, what is the insentensic noun of *of,* the answer will be—"*his father's being a judge.*" In relation to *of,* then, this clause is a noun. *(See the Appeal, page* 63.*)*

9. [[To sing ,] is delightful.]

10. [[To eat food] is necessary] (to life.)

11. [It is important] (to be) (in good health.)

12. [An American would resent (his being denied) (, the use) (of his musket.")]

In relation to the pronoun *it,* the clause "*to be in good health,*" is a noun; the word *it* being the representative of this clause. It is important. What is important? "*to be in good health.*"

In relation to *resent,* the clause "*his being denied the use of his musket,*" is a noun. The clause is *mechanically* independent, because the words which constitute it, may be grammatically solved without including the others which are in the sentence.

Observation XIV.

The titles of books, which comprise two or more words, are nouns; as, "*Brown's Remains,*" "*Nelson's Devotion,*" "*Edwards on Redemption.*"

Observation XV.

Sometimes where *the* precedes the name of the quality, the Adjective becomes the name of the person or thing possessing the quality, hence should be parsed as a noun; as, "the *good* are happy."

exercises under observation XV.

1. [The good are always protected.]

2. [The wicked flee when] (no man pursueth them.)

3. [The rich are not so happy] (as many , think.)
4. [The learned must have been studious once.]
5. [The poor, (if , , content,) are as well off] (as the rich , .)

Observation XVI.

Generally, the sentensic section in which *to* is used, is made up of a superior, and an inferior assemblage of words. One introduces and sustains the other, and is called the superior part; as, "*He was delighted* to see his brother."

As the other portion of the section is introduced, and sustained by the superior part, it is denominated the inferior part; as, "He was delighted *to see his brother.*"

Observation XVII.

In one construction, the inferior part of the sentensic section becomes the superior, and stands as an engrossed sentensic noun to the inferior; as, *To see his brother* was delightful.

Observation XVIII.

In one construction the inferior part of the sentensic section becomes an inferior part of an insentensic section also; as, [It is easier (for a camel) *to go.*]

Close Reading—It is easier *to go.*
Close Reading—for a camel *to go.*

In this construction the inferior part has the compound relation, for it refers to the superior parts of both sections.

To is an impartial insentensic, referring to *go*. *Go* is a *partial* sentensic, referring to *camel*.

Construing Rules.

Rule I.—A new sentensic noun, or a repetition of a preceding one with a new sentensic adjective, forms a new section; as,

1. John reads; and Stephen writes. *(2 sections.)*

2. *A certain man planted a vineyard; and he set a hedge; and he digged a place; and he built a tower; and he let it out; and he went.*" 6 *sections.*

Here the sentensic noun, *man*, is repeated five times in *he*—and in each repetition there is a new sentensic adjective:—there are five new sections, or five minor sections, which, with the first or major, make the six sections which the sentence comprises.

This sentence, however, may be so formed as to constitute but *one* section; as,

A certain man planted a vineyard, and set a hedge, and digged a place, and built a tower, and let it out, and went.

RULE II.—All the sentensic, and all the insentensic nouns to which the same sentensic adjective refers, belong to the *same* section; as,

1. "*They took him, and killed him, and cast him out.*"

2. "*Peter and James and John and Andrew asked privately.*"

RULE III.—Every partial insentensic adjective, and every *repetition* of an adjective of this class, form a new *joint* in the sentence, and give a new section; as,

1. He walked *from* his house, *with* me, *to* the ship, *with* his cane. *(5 sections.)*

2. He walked *with* me, and *with* him. *(3 sections.)*

NOTE.—The omission of the second *with* destroys the third joint in the sentence; and thus forms the two *limbs* of the sentence into one branch; as,

"He walked *with* me and him." *(2 sections.)*

RULE IV.—When the writer omits *sentensic words* to enable the *ing* termination of a sentensic adjective to express the relation of one event to another, all the events must be included in the same section; as, "He cried, *saying*, have mercy on me."

NOTE.—Here the word *saying*, does not denote an act which is distinct from that denoted by *cried*—both words denote the same event; "*saying*," however, is a little more definite, and is used to express the exact meaning of the word, "*cried*." *Saying*, then, in the above instance, seems to bear an *explanatory* or an *illustrative* relation to *cried*.

RULE V.—When the writer employs the *sentensic words*, the relation of one event to another is expressed,

not by the *ing termination* of a *sentensic*, but by a distinct word, and the different events fall into distinct sections; as, "There is a wicked man who hangeth down his head sadly, and *who is* THUS casting down his countenance; and *who is* THEREBY making as if he heard not."

It is obvious that the act of *casting* down his countenance falls out of the act of *hanging* the head sadly. Nor is it less clear that the act of *making*, springs from that of *casting* down the countenance. The relation which the act of *casting* bears to that of *hanging*, is expressed by "*thus*"—and that which the act of *making* bears to that of *casting*, is expressed by *thereby*. But if the *sentensic words were omitted*, "*thus*" and "*thereby*" could be dispensed with, for the very relations which these words express, would then be denoted by the *ing* termination of the *sentensic*—

"There is a wicked man who hangeth down his head sadly, *casting* down his countenance, making as if he heard not."

As the sentence is here presented, the following portion of it falls under Rule IV., which requires that when the writer, &c—

"*Who hangeth down his head sadly, casting down his countenance, making.*"

RULE VI.—Where the supplying of the ellipsis produces a degree of identity which the writer does not intend to express, the partial sentensic of a conjunctive form, should be included in the superior section, and referred to the insentensic or the sentensic noun; as, I saw the bird *flying*.

Partial sentensics following *to*, either expressed or understood, may refer to insentensic nouns; as, I saw *him walk*.

SPECIMEN OF CONSTRUING.

[A certain man planted a vineyard, and set a hedge (about it), and built a tower, and digged a place (for the wine-vat), and let it out (to husband-men), and went] (into a far country.)

1. "*A certain man planted a vineyard, and set a hedge, and built a tower, and digged a place, and let it out and went,*"

is a complete major section of the sentensic kind.

2. *about it*,

is a complete minor section of the insentensic kind, simple relation, referring to its own part of its superior section.

CLOSE READING.—And set a hedge *about it.*

Its *own* part is that part of the superior section with which the inferior makes sense.

Generally, however, the inferior section will make sense with *all* the superior—and when it does, the construing should be performed in the usual phraseology; namely, "*referring to its superior section.*"

N. B. Let the pupil construe this verse, and all the following *Exercises*, according to the preceding specimen. *To aid him in the beginning, the first example is broken into sections.*

EXERCISES.

1. A certain man planted a vineyard, and set a hedge, and built a tower, and digged a place, and let it out, and went.

2. *about it*,
3. *for the wine-vat*.
4. *to husbandmen*.
5. *into a far country*.

1. Verily, verily, I say unto you, he that entereth not by the door into the sheepfold, but , climbeth up , some other way, the same is a thief and a robber.

1 [*I say*]
(Verily, verily he, the same is a thief and a robber)
(unto you,)
(that entereth not)
(by the door)
(into the *sheepfold,)*
(but that climbeth up,)
(by some other way.)

2. Mere system makers invariably rely upon the authority of great names, for the truth and value of their theories. *(5 sections.)*

Should *for* be repeated before *value*, the sentence would comprise *six* sections.

3. Nature has bestowed, on man, a bodily figure , , completely adapted to his mind. *(4 sections.)*

4. There is a generation—O, how lofty are their eyes —and their eye-lids are lifted up. *(4 sections.)*

5. "There is a wicked man that hangeth down his head sadly, casting down his countenance, and making as if he heard , not. *(3 sections.)*

"*There is a wicked man,*" is the major section.

"*That hangeth down his head sadly, casting down his countenance, and making,*" is a minor section.

"*Making*" is not impartial, but partial. This word is not used in this instance in its *own* sense; but in the *sense of appearing*.

LUKE XXIII.

1. And the whole multitude of them, arose and led him unto Pilate. *(3 sections.)*

2. And they began to accuse him, saying, we found this fellow perverting the nation, and forbidding to give tribute to Cæsar, saying that he himself is Christ, a king. *(4 sections.)*

I.—The word, *that*, is an insentensic pro noun, representing "*he himself is Christ, a king.*"—(See observation upon *that*, page 103.)

II.—By supplying the sentensic words before the noun, "*king*," another section might be formed; as, "*who is* a king."

But there is no good reason for this.

3. And Pilate asked him, saying, art thou the king of the Jews? and he answered him, and said, thou sayest it. *(5 sections.)*

It frequently happens that some partial insentensic adjective is understood before the insentensic pro noun which follows *answer*, *ask*, &c. But in the above instance, *asked* evidently refers to *him*. And Pilate *asked* him. That is, he *questioned* him, saying, art thou, &c.

However, the teacher who is of the opinion that *of* is understood before *him*, and that *asked* refers to the engrossed noun, "*art thou the king of the Jews,*" may make six sections. The major, will, then, be—

"And Pilate asked, saying."

N. B. The engrossed noun, *art thou the king of the Jews*, must not be included in construing—before the pupil comes to *parse* these EXERCISES, he will have learned what disposition to make of this kind of construction.

N. B. When the question is asked and the answer begins with a *capital*, the question is one sentence—and the answer another. But if the answer does not begin with a *capital*, both question and answer are included in one sentence, and of course there can be but one major section.

4. Then said Pilate to the chief priest, and *to* the people, I find no fault in this man. *(5 sections.)*

5. And they were the more fierce, saying, he stirreth up the people, teaching , throughout all Jewry, beginning from Galilee, to this place. *(5 sections.)*

6. When Pilate heard of Galilee, he asked, whether the man was a Galilean. *(4 sections.)*

The words, *he*, and Pilate have changed positions,—and in reading the major sections, *Pilate* should occupy the place where *he* now stands—

[Pilate asked when] (he heard) (of Galilee) (whether the man were a Galilean.)

The word—*when*, refers not to *heard*, but to *asked*. This may be rendered quite evident by the reference of the minor section, "*at the time*."

"*At the time*," Pilate heard of Galilee, he asked whether the man were a Galilean.

Now—does *at the time* refer to *Pilate heard* or to *he asked*? If it refers to *Pilate heard*, the sense is this—

Pilate heard of Galilee *at the time* he asked whether the man were a Galilean!!

But the meaning is retained, when *at the time* is referred to *asked*—

Pilate asked *at the time* he heard of Galilee, whether the man were a Galilean.

7. And as soon as he knew that he belonged unto Herod's jurisdiction, he sent him to Herod, who himself was also at Jerusalem at that time. *(8 sections.)*

The major section—And he sent him *as soon*.

As, in the major is an adjective, referring to *soon*—and *soon* is an adjective, referring to *sent*.

As, in the minor is a *partial insentensic*, subjoining its own, to its superior section.

8. And when Herod saw Jesus he was exceedingly glad; for he was desirous to see him for a long season, because he had heard many things of him; and he hoped to have some miracles done by him. *(8 sections.)*

NOTE.—Major section. And Herod was exceedingly glad when,

By grace are ye saved, (, ,) through faith *(4 sections)*.

For we know that if our earthly house of this tabernacle, was dissolved, we have a building (, , ,) of God, (, , an house) (, , not made with hands; , , , eternal in the heavens. (11 *sections.*)

For we walk by faith; , , , not , by sight. (4 *sections.*)

Wherefore we labour that, whether , , present or absent, we may be accepted of him. (4 *sections*).

The chief captain commanded him to be brought into the temple, and that, he should be examined by scourging. (4 *sections.*)

The major section—
"The chief captain commanded him to be brought, and that"

And the chief captain answered, with a great sum obtained I this freedom. (3 *sections.*)

Major section—
"*And the chief captain answered.*"

And as they bound him with thongs, Paul said unto the centurion who stood by , is it lawful for you to scourge a man that is a Roman, and , , uncondemned ? (11 *sections.*)

NOTE I.—The *insentensic* sections, which are founded upon *time*, *space*, or *distance*, are very frequently elliptical—and in such instances, *on*, *for*, *during*, *over* or *through* is understood; as, He went , *last week.*
That is, *on* last week.

NOTE II.—When the receiver is mentioned before the thing received, *for*, *to* or *unto* is generally understood; as, Give , me some water.
That is, *to* or *unto* me.

To, except in the partial construction, is understood before the sentensics which come after the superior part, that has either *bid*, *dare*, *make*, *see*, *hear*, *feel*, *let* in any form; as, I saw him walk.
That is, *to* walk.

Exercises under the preceding Notes.

He lived in London , a year. (2 *sections.*)
He remained at home , six years. (3 *sections.*
He travelled in the United States , three years. (3 *sections.*)

He returned , last evening. (2 *sections.*)
He studied grammar , six hours , each day. (3 *sections.*)
He wrought , every minute of his time. (3 *sections.*)
Will you give , me your opinion of the affair. (3 *sections.*)
He remained at home , six years. (3 *sections.*)
They travelled in the United States , two years. (3 *sections.*)
They returned , last Monday. (2 *sections.*)
Give , , him some paper. (2 *sections.*)
He will give , you a book. (2 *sections.*)
He gave , me some apples. (2 *sections.*)
I dared him , come to me. (2 *sections.*)
He had heard her , sing that tune. (1 *section.*)
I feel them , move among the leaves. (2 *sections.*)
He bade me , depart from him, to the house. (3 *sections.*)
I saw the lads , rush into that house. (2 *sections.*)
I thought that it was he, whom I saw , move. (3 *sections.*)
Him that is great , let him , be the younger. 2 *sections.*)
[Him *thou* let him to be the younger] (that is great.)
They think it to be me whom they had so much injured. (2 *sections.*)
The teacher bade him , *read his book.*
[Let , him , *hear*] (that hath an ear *to hear.*)

NOTE I.—*Thou*, *ye*, or *you* is generally understood after the sentensics in the imperative, and, in the petitionary section; as, Go , . Bring , the book. Forgive , our sins. Have , mercy on us.

NOTE II.—The name which makes the *mere* address, with its adjected words, forms a distinct section; as, *My good boy*, thou hast come too late.

Exercises under the preceding Notes.

Hearken , unto me, my people. (3 *sections.*)
Give , ear unto me, my nation. (3 *sections.*)
Jerusalem, awake , and stand up. (2 *sections.*)

Liberty, thou wast once delightful to every Swiss. (3 *sections.*)

My Lords, I am opposed to this bill. (3 *sections.*)

Gentlemen of the jury, I feel that I have much , to combat in advocating the cause of humble poverty against pampered oppression. (7 *sections.*)

Behold , the Lord's hand is not shortened that he cannot save , . (3 *sections.*)

Let , the words of my mouth, and the meditations of my heart , be acceptable in thy sight. (4 *sections.*)

PART III.

SYNTAX.

Syntax comprises the principles of constructing sentences from words. Syntax may be divided into *government*, *agreement* and *position*.

1. Government respects the influence which one word exerts over another in giving it some particular *form* or *character;* as, thou *writest* well.

"*Thou*" gives the sentensic, "*write*," the *st form.*

2. Agreement respects the exact correspondence in some of the properties of two or more words; as, "*those ladies* send *their* respects to you."

Those, *ladies* and *their* agree in *number;* all being plural.

3. Position respects the place of a word, or a *section*, in reference to another word, or another section; as, they rode for two days *together;* I will call, and pay you *again.*

By the position of "*together*," the days are represented as being together. And by the position of "*again*," the speaker is made to say, that he will *repeat* the payment. In the following construction, the above sentences are changed in meaning—"They rode *together* for two days," "I will call *again*, and pay you."

OBSERVATIONS.

Some of the sentensic nouns affix the *s*, *es*, *th*, *t* and *st* inflections to the sentensic adjectives; as, He *has* written, He *writes*, Thou *hast* written.

Others cut off these inflections; as, I *have* written, They *have* written, We *write.*

These affixes, *s*, *es*, *th*, *t* and *st*, are called sentensic inflections, first, because they are produced by the sentensic noun—secondly, because they belong to the sentensic adjectives.

The *s*, *es* and *th* inflections belong to sentensics of the present, and imperfect tense only; as, He write*s*, He ha*s* written.

The *t* and *st* run through all the tenses; as, Thou write*st*, Thou has*t* written, Thou had*st* written, Thou wil*t* write.

QUESTIONS.

What is Syntax?
Into how many parts is it divided?
What is the first part?
What is the second part?
What is the third part?
Do all sentensic nouns affix the sentensic inflections?
Do any sentensic nouns cut off the sentensic inflections?
Will you repeat the sentensic inflections?
Why are these affixes called *sentensic?*
Where there are two or more sentensics, are the sentensic inflections given to the first, second, third or fourth adjective?—Always to the *first*.

It may be well to observe here, that the old *British* Rule—"The Verb must agree with its Nominative case in NUMBER and PERSON," is intended for the regulation of the *sentensic inflections*. Had these inflections *never* existed, this Rule would never have had a place in *English* Grammars. This Rule, however, has not the least bearing upon these inflections—it is even applied where these affixes are not found; as, he WROTE! *(See Appeal, chap.* xi. *page* 307.)

RULE I.

I and the *sentensic* representatives* of *I* and *me*, require *am* or *was*, and cut off the inflections from all other sentensics; as, I *am*, I *was*, I *write*, [I (that *am* now weak) was once strong,] [When (the child saw me) who *am* its present protector,] &c.

QUESTIONS ON RULE I.

What is the first rule in Syntax?
What does *I* do?
What are the sentensic representatives of *I* and *me?*
What does *that* do when it represents *I* or *me?*
Can *which* properly represent *I* or *me?*

* *Who* and *that* are the only *proper* representatives of *I* and *me*. *Which* should never represent *I* or *me*—for, "I *which* am your pupil," is bad English.

Specimen of correcting bad English, in which there is an application of the first Rule.

"I laughs."

Improper—the error lies in the *s* inflection of *laugh*. The impropriety is a violation of Rule first which says, &c. (Here let the pupil repeat the Rule.)

Therefore it should be, I *laugh*.

REMARK.

The pupil should not say the error lies in *is*, *canst*, *&c.*, but in the *t*, *st*, *s*, *es* or *th* inflection, or in the *use* of *is* for *am*, &c.

Exercises to be corrected according to the preceding Specimen.

I sings very little.
I be in good health.
I canst read French.
I wilt return.
I wast.
I art.
I is.
I runs.
I believest.
Says I.
Thinks I to myself.
Says I, you can not return.
I gets up, and goes to my business.
[The child saw me] (who is its present protector.]
[They called me] (that speaks) (to you.)
[I (that reads so well) is now to declaim.]
[I (who art bad) must repent.]
[I (that art friendly) (to all) are glad to see thee.]
[I (who teaches thee) art thy brother.]

Rule II.

If there is no command or petition, *thou* and the *sentensic* representatives* of *thou* and *thee*, require *art* or

* *Who* and *that* are the only proper representatives of *thou* and *thee*.

As *which* is improperly applied to persons, it cannot be a proper representative of *thou* or *thee*—yet if any will incur the penalty of error in the use of this word, *which* must in such instances, be subject to Rule II.

wast, and give the *t* or *st* inflection to all other sentensics; as, Thou *art*, Thou *wast*, If thou *art*, If thou *wast* there, *Wast* thou there, Thou *couldst* see thy friend, [I saw thee] (who *didst* betray my friend.)

QUESTIONS ON RULE II.

What is the second rule in Syntax?
What does *thou* do where there is neither a command nor petition?
What are the sentensic representatives of *thou* and *thee*?
What does *that* do where it represents *thou*?
What does *that* do when it represents *thee*?
What does *who* do when it represents either *thou* or *thee*?

Specimen of correcting by Rule II.

I hope that thou *am* well.

Improper—the error lies in the use of *am* for *art*.
The impropriety is a violation of Rule second, which says, &c.
Therefore it should be I hope that thou *art* well.

EXERCISES.

Is thou reading, Charles?
Thou is my friend.
Perhaps thou be a teacher.
Thou smiles.
Thou are in error, Thomas.
Thou wrote too soon.
Thou am called a hasty man.
Why am thou not a philosopher?
Do thou love thy neighbour?
Thou loved thy brother too little.
Thou did not see him.
Thou has a fine book, Stephen.
Thou were at my house.
Thou saw him with me.
[The child saw thee] (who am its present protector.)
[They called thee] (that speaks) (to you.)
[Thou (that reads so well) am now to declaim.]
[Thou (who is bad) should repent.]

NOTE.—ALL SENTENSIC ADJECTIVES should remain in their *simple* state where there is a command or a petition without a declaration or question; as, *Give* me a

book, *Forgive* us our debts as we forgive our debtors, *Have* mercy upon us.*

Specimen of correcting by Rule II.

Gives me a book, John.

Improper—the error lies in the *s*, inflection of *give*.
The impropriety is a violation of Note first, which says, &c.
Therefore it should be *give* me a book, John.

EXERCISES.

Comes here, Charles, and read.
Writes these copies accurately, John.
Comes in, Sir.
Returns to me, John, immediately.
Forgives thou us our sins.
Has thou mercy upon us.

Rule III.

The singular sentensic noun of the third order, requires *is* or *was*, and, if the word *can* take,† gives the *s*, *es* or *th* inflection to all other sentensics of the present, and imperfect tense; as, He *is*, He *was*, He *has*,‡ or *hath* written, The jury *has*, or *hath* agreed.

OBSERVATIONS.

Good writers have long been in the constant practice of using *were*, in certain instances, with the sentensic noun of the *first* order *singular*, *wert* with the sentensic noun of the *second* order *singular*, and *were* with the sentensic noun of the *third* order singular; as, If I *were* there, If thou *wert* there, If he *were* there, *Were* I there, *Wert* thou there, *Were* he there, &c.

The use of these substitutes (*were*, *wert*) for *be*, is inconsistent with the nature of that relation which exists between the sentensic noun and the sentensic adjective. Nor is this use of these forms consistent with the custom of using other sentensic adjectives to accomplish the same object. The object is to mark present time by

* A command may be given in a declaratory form; as, Thou *shalt* not steal, Thou *shalt* return.

A petition may be made in the interrogative form; as, Will you give me a book, Charles?

† *May*, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *would*, *should*, *will*, *shall* and *ought* cannot take the *s*, *es* or *th* inflection.

‡ Every *name* of an assemblage or collective body, is singular unless it has the plural form; as, *Jury*, *Church*, *Committee*, *Congress*.

the *perfect tense form;* as, *Were* I well, I would attend; if I *were* there, I would inform him of his danger. That is, *were* I *now* well, If I were *now* there, &c.

But as *was* may express the present time with as much precision as *were*, why should *were* be preferred? That other sentensics are used in the *perfect tense* form, to mark *present* time without any peculiar modification, may be seen from the following instances—

1. If he *wrote* a good hand, he might be employed as clerk. *(Present tense.)*

2. *Did* he write well, I would employ him. *(Present tense.)*

3. *Had* he a book, he would learn Grammar. *(Present tense.)*

4. *Hadst* thou a teacher, thou couldst be taught.

Now, uniformity seems to require that *wrote*, *did*, *had* and *hadst* should be thrown into some peculiar form, when their *perfect tense inflections* are used to denote *present* time. But instead of seeking for uniformity in new forms for all sentensics in such instances, would it not be wiser to obtain it by abandoning *were* and *wert* by adopting *was* and *wast?*

1. *Was* I a good writer, he would employ me.

2. *Wast* thou a good scholar, thou couldst be employed in teaching.

3. If I *was* in Boston, I could see my friends.

4. If thou *wast* well, we would return.

These forms are also used in the perfect tense, when the sentensic nouns are singular; as,

If I *were* in Boston last week, he did not know it, If thou *wert* in Boston last week, I did not know it, If he *were* in Boston last week, I did not know it.

If *bad English* consists in a deviation in the use of any or of all the words of our language, from its true genius, the above use of *were* and *wert*, is certainly incorrect.

There are those, however, who will attempt to sanction this use —they will resort to the *subjunctive mode*. But as this *old subjunctive* mode is a mere *grammatical* dream, *ungrammatically* told, and beyond *interpretation*, no argument from this source, can sustain the use of these forms.

Rules I. II. and III., are founded upon the true relation which exists between *Be* and the sentensic nouns—and a conformity to these rules is recommended, not only by truth, but by simplicity and consistency.

Specimen of correcting by Rule III.

He write to his friend every week.

Improper—the error lies in the omission of the *s* inflection of *write*.
The impropriety is a violation of Rule III. which says, &c.
Therefore it should be, He *writes*.

EXERCISES.

He am with John.
Joseph art my brother.
She are his sister.
Stephen walk with me daily.
It rain quite fast.
She sing sweetly.
James have a new book.
He write his copies too fast.
John have returned.
She move gracefully.
He drink too much water.
The apple taste sweet.
The grass grow high.
He appear well.
Neither precept nor discipline are so forcible as example.
Either the boy or the girl were present.
Neither character nor dialogue were yet understood.
Either money or credit are necessary to all.
John or James write letters.
Were he or his mother at church?
There are enough already.
Parliament have at length dissolved.
The court have disagreed.
The jury are not unanimous in opinion.
The committee agree upon this point.
The meeting were well attended.
The flock are fed.
When the nation complain, its rulers should listen.
The regiment consist of a thousand men.
The crowd are so great that I cannot get through it.
The weight are* sixty pounds.
Sixty pounds is the weight.

* The *preceding* sentensic noun controls the sentensic adjective; as, The *wages* of sin *are* death, *Death is* the wages of sin

Rule IV.

Plural sentensic nouns or singular ones subjoined by *and*, cut off all the sentensic inflections, and, except in a command or a petition, require *are* or *were;* as, You *write*, Ye *are*, He and I *were*.

Specimen of correcting by Rule IV.

"We is well pleased."

Improper—The error lies in the use of *is* for *are*.
The impropriety is a violation of Rule IV. which says, &c.
Therefore it should be, We *are* well pleased.

EXERCISES.

They be fine apples.
You is good children, James and Nancy.
Ye art reading my part.
They was in Philadelphia.
They am not in this place now.
The gentlemen art all satisfied; and the ladies is much pleased.
These lads runs.
Hence comes wars.
What signifies good opinions?
Disappointments sinks the heart.
[Fifty pounds (of wheat) contains forty pounds] (of flour.)
Socrates and Plato was eminent philosophers.
The son and father meets together.
Life and death is in the power of the tongue.
The time and place was appointed.
Idleness and ignorance is the parent of many vices.
I, thou and he writes.
Wisdom, virtue and happiness dwells there.
Every plant, every flower and every drop of water abounds with living creatures.
Every desire of the heart, and every secret thought is known to him who made us.
Each day, and each hour brings some business that requires our attention.

It is observed by Mr. Comly, that "When the adjective *each*, *every* or *no* relates to two or more nouns of the singular number, the

verb must agree with each of them in the singular number; as, Every leaf, and *every* twig *teems* with life."

If the ground here taken is good, Mr. Comly should extend his list of adjectives—for the repetition of *the*, *a*, *this* and *that*, gives the same degree of emphasis and fulness which a repetition of *each*, *every* or *no* produces; as, The leaf, the twig, and the flower teem with life. If Mr. Comly is right, this principle should be required in the insentensic part of the sentensic section as well as in the sentence part—hence the sentensic adjective which refers to the first insentensic noun cannot refer to the *second;* as, I *saw* every leaf and every twig!

Now if *and* cannot subjoin *twig* to *leaf*, *saw* must be repeated; as, I saw every leaf, and *saw* every twig!

That Mr. Comly is opposed to grammatical consistency is not for us to assert; but that he is opposed to *himself* will appear evident from a perusal of the following quotation taken from the very page of his grammar, which presents the above rule given in the form of a note!

"*But in cases where the subjects convey different ideas, and the verb is intended to be applied to any one of them*, or to each of them separately, *they should be connected by the conjunction* or, *and come, under Rule 4th.*"

Note I.—When the sentensic nouns are singular, and of different *orders*, the last controls the sentensic adjective; as, I or thou *art* in error, Thou or I *am* in error.

EXERCISES.

Neither thou nor he wast present.
Neither he nor thou was present.

Note II.—When the sentensic nouns are of different numbers, the last controls the sentensic adjective; as, I or they *are* in error, They or I *am* in error.

EXERCISES.

Neither they nor he were present.
Neither he nor they was present.

Rule V.

Have and *be* through all their variations give the following sentensic a conjunctive form; as, I am *reading*, I have *begun*, I have *written*, The book is *written*, I am *writing*, Letters are *written*.

Specimen of correcting by Rule V.

I have did it.

Improper—The error lies in the want of the conjunctive form of *did*.

The impropriety is a violation of Rule V. which says, &c

Therefore it should be, I have *done* it.

EXERCISES.

I have came.
It was drank.
The birds have flew.
He has wrote his copy.
I would have wrote a letter.
He had mistook his true interest.
The coat had no seam, but was wove from the top throughout.
The French language is spoke in every kingdom in Europe.
His resolution was too strong to be shook by opposition.
The horse was stole.
They had chose the part of honour and virtue.
The Rhine was froze over.
She was invited into the drawing room.
My people have slid backward.
He has broke the bottle.
Some fell by the way side, and was trod down.
The price of cloth has lately rose very much.
The work was very well execute.
His vices have weaken his mind, and broke his health.

OBSERVATIONS.

The conjunctive forms of a sentensic are called pure and impure. The one which is so purely or entirely conjunctive that it can be used only in connection with another sentensic, is pure; as, I have *written*, The bird has *flown*, I am *saying* that he was there.

That which may be used either with, or without another sentensic, is impure; as, I have *walked*, I *walked*, He *cried*, *saying*, have mercy upon us.

The pure conjunctive form should never be used without *have* or *be* either expressed or understood; as, He *done* it yesterday, I *seen* him at church.

Rule VI.

When the time and event both exist at the period in which they are mentioned, with no other cessation than *occasional* intermission, the present tense should be used:

1. They frequently *call* on us.
2. He sometimes *purchases* of me.
3. They *are* now and then in the city.
4. Thou *payest* yearly.
5. He *goes* into the country daily.

The sentensic adjective frequently has the *present tense* form with a view to animate by bringing past events apparently into the present period; or to enliven and impress by seeming to *re-act* the scene; as, Gentlemen of the jury, he *plunges* the dagger into her vitals, and *takes* her life for no better reason than that of revenge.

Both time and event are supposed to have passed, but the speaker to make a deep impression uses the *present* tense.

Observation I.

The imperfect tense should be used where a portion of the time within which the event is placed, yet remains; as,

1. I *have* written a letter to-day.
2. I *have* seen him twice in my life.
3. I *have* never drunk better water.

A portion of my life yet remains—and as these events are placed within the period of my life, the imperfect tense must be used. He who has passed completely through; or he whose period of life is perfectly passed off, may look back through the perfect tense; as,

1. I *saw* him twice in my life!
2. I never *drank* better water in my life!

Specimen of correcting under Observation I.

"I wrote to my brother to day."

Improper—The error lies in the use of the perfect tense. The impropriety is a violation of Observation I. which says, &c. Therefore it should be, I *have* written to my brother to-day.

Exercises.

I saw my uncle Thomas in market this morning.

Mr. Jones made a thousand dollars this year.

John, did you do the job yet?

Did you see your sister since you have been in Philadelphia?

I purchased this book this evening.

I spoke with my brother since I went out.

Will you go, James? No, I concluded to remain at home.

Observation II.

When the period of time within which the event is placed, is *all* passed off, the perfect tense should be used; as,

1. I *wrote* a letter to my brother yesterday.
2. I *eat* better fruit when I was in New-York than I have eaten since.
3. I *drank* excellent wine in Boston last year.

Specimen of correcting bad English by Observation II.

I have made out very well last year.

Improper—The error lies in the use of the imperfect tense where the time is perfectly passed off. The impropriety is a violation of Observation II. which says, &c. Therefore it should be, I *made* out very well last year.

EXERCISES.

I have written to my brother a number of times while he was in Boston.

While I was writing this work I have prepared another for the press.

He has seen me last week in Philadelphia.

Observation III.

Where one event took place before another, the first section should have the prior perfect tense; as,

1. They *had* dined before I arrived.
2. I *had* concluded to return before I got my father's letter.

Specimen of correcting bad English by Observation III.

I returned before John came home.

Improper—the error lies in the use of the perfect tense for the *prior* perfect. The impropriety is a violation of Observation III., which says, &c. Therefore it should be, I *had* returned before John came home.

EXERCISES.

Joseph wrote his copies before school commenced.
Jane learned her lesson before she went to school.
God created the earth before he formed man.

I was in business a number of years before my brother's death.

They saw me twice at my own house before I called on them.

Observation IV.

When the superior part of the section is founded upon a *hope*, *command*, *desire* or *intention*, the inferior part should have the present tense; as,

1. They meant *to write* last week.
2. We desired *to find him* at home.
3. They bade* him *return the book.*
4. I told him *to bring the articles.*

This observation is clear and important—clear because the prior tense would denote that whatever is hoped for, commanded, desired or intended, had been realised before even the existence of the hope, command, desire or intention—

They meant to *have* written last week.
We desired to *have* found him at home.

Specimen of correcting by Observation IV.

I saw him to *have* drunk the wine.

Improper—the error lies in the use of the prior perfect tense for the present. The impropriety is a violation of Observation IV., which says, &c. Therefore it should be I saw him *drink* the wine.

EXERCISES.

The teacher told us to have done these sums.
They intended to have returned home.
We hoped to have seen all the family happy.
They desired us to have gone home with them.

Observation V.

Where the event expressed in the inferior part of the section, had happened before that expressed in the su-

* If *bid, dare, make, see, behold, hear, feel, need* or *have* is found in the superior part, *to*, except in the partial construction, should not be expressed in the inferior; as, I saw him , write this letter.

Dare forms an exception to this note when it signifies to *challenge.*

perior, the prior perfect tense should be used in the inferior; as,

1. I was delighted to *have* seen my brother.
2. He was glad to *have* paid the debt.

2. Here it is clear that the seeing had taken place before the delight was felt; as, He was delighted on Saturday to have seen his brother on Friday.

It is also obvious that the payment had been made before the gladness was felt.

Specimen of correcting by Observation V.

I was much pleased yesterday to see you the day before at my house.

Improper—the error lies in the use of the present tense for the prior perfect. The impropriety is a violation of Observation V., which says, &c. Therefore it should be, I was much pleased yesterday to *have* seen you the day before, at my house.

EXERCISES.

I was very sorry last evening to see you the night before, at a public house.

I have been happy to day to see you at church last Sabbath.

OBSERVATION VI.

When the events in both parts of the section happen at the same time, both parts should have the present tense, or the superior, the perfect; as,

1. I am delighted to see you.
2. I was delighted to see you last week.

Specimen of correcting by Observation VI.

I was delighted to have seen you.

Improper—the error lies in using the prior perfect tense for the present. The impropriety is a violation of Observation VI., which says, &c. Therefore it should be, I was delighted to *see* you.

EXERCISES.

I was pleased yesterday to have seen you yesterday.

I hope to have got a letter to-day.

I see you to have written the letter.

Observation VII.

When both events are future, and one is to take place before the other, *have* should follow *will* or *shall* in the superior section; as,

1. I shall *have* seen the merchant before you return.
2. He will *have* learned his lesson by 10 o'clock.

Specimen of correcting by Observation VII.

John will call before you set out for Boston.

Improper—the error lies in the omission of *have*, after *will*. The impropriety is a violation of Observation VII., which says, &c.

Therefore it should be, John will *have* called before you set out for Boston.

EXERCISES.

We shall get some news at 11 o'clock.
James will write you before next week.
He will send you the book before you want it.

Note.—*Will* in the second order, as well as *shall* in the second and third, is never followed by *have*, in a *declaratory* section; as,

1. I will *have* written, &c.
2. Thou shalt *have* written, &c.
3. He shall *have* written, &c.

There is an obvious absurdity in *promising* in such instances But to *foretel* is consistent; as,

I *shall* have written, &c.
Thou *wilt* have written, &c.
He *will* have written, &c.

Shall, in the first order, only foretells; as, I *shall* go to-morrow. In the second, and the third order, *shall* promises, commands, or threatens; as,

You or they *shall* be rewarded, Thou *shalt* not steal, The soul that sinneth, it *shall* die.

Will, in the first order, denotes a promise, or a resolve; as,

I *will* not let thee go.

In the second, and the third order, it generally foretells, as,

He *will* reward the righteous.

Rule VII.

The pro noun should agree in order, number and gender, with the nouns which it represents; as, Jane had seen James before *she* called *him*, The jury will remain out till *they* have agreed on a verdict.

Rule VIII.

Those adjectives which are made from pro nouns must agree in order, number and gender with the adjectives which they represent; as, John saw *his* brother, The jury will remain out till *its* members have agreed on a verdict.

Hitherto the subject of collective nouns or nouns of multitude, has not been well understood. That these nouns are not rendered *peculiar* from denoting bodies which are made up of different parts or members, is very obvious. Is the prototype of the word, *jury*, composed of many members or parts? So is the prototype of the noun, *hand!* A jury may comprise twelve men, or twenty-four men—a hand comprises *five nails*, four fingers, one thumb, many joints, many arteries, many veins, and many bones! If the word *jury*, then, is a noun of multitude because its prototype comprehends many parts or members, certainly the word, *hand*, is a noun of multitude!

"*Family*" is said to be a noun of multitude, while *book* is excluded from this class. Yet there are very few families that comprise as many members as a *book*.

It is hardly possible to find a family that is composed of more than thirty parts or members—yet it is equally hard to find a *book* which is made up of so few parts, members, or pages! A family is one thing made up of parts—a book is *one* thing made up of parts—a jury is *one* thing made up of parts—a tree is one thing made up of parts—a church is one thing made up of parts—a minute is one thing made up of parts. Is the church composed of sixty parts or members, so is the *minute*. The word, *minute*, then, is as much a noun of multitude as *church*.

It may be said that as the members of a jury, &c. are distinct individuals, it is hardly just to consider them as bearing the same relation to the jury which the fingers, &c. bear to the hand. True, John is a distinct whole; but he is also a mere part. John is a whole human being—but he is not a whole *jury*—he is a mere *part* of a jury. Every finger is a *whole*, abstractly considered; but in reference to the hand, every finger is a mere *part*. John is a *part* of a *jury*—a finger is a part of a hand!

It is bad *sense* to say,

The *jury* has *agreed*.

And it is bad sense, and bad English also, to say,

The jury *have* agreed.

It takes *two* to make an agreement! How, then, can *one* jury agree? But for brevity this form of expression is generally used. The correct construction, however, is

The *members* of the jury have agreed.

But as this has a prolixity which the erroneous one has not, the incorrect one has grown into general use. A similar case is found in the use of *you*, when applied to but one person: as,

John, how have *you* been?

The people have been disposed to sacrifice sense to *ease* in phraseology. Hence instead of saying—

"John, how hast thou been?"

they have adopted the substitute,

"John, how *have you* been?"

1. "The *jury* has *agreed.*"
2. "*John*, how have *you* been."

In both, there is a defect in sense. The defect in sense in the first, lies in asserting that *one* can make an agreement; or, in other words, in intimating that it does not require as many as two to make an agreement.

The defect in sense in the second, lies in naming, calling or addressing *two* or more when but *one* is desired.

The next point is, do expressions of this kind, stand condemned by the rules of grammar as well as by the laws of reason. The first one frequently does—the second one rarely if ever.

"The *jury have* agreed."

Now, as this noun denotes but *one* jury, we can as well say, *he have* agreed, as the *jury have* agreed!

"The jury will remain out till *they* have agreed on a verdict."

This is correct English—for the noun, *they*, does not represent the noun, *jury*, but the noun, *members*—

"The jury will remain out till its *members* have agreed on a verdict."

In order to be brief, we have fallen into error; and being *conscious* of this error, we embrace the first opportunity to correct it—hence we use *they* instead of *it*—

"The jury will remain out till *they* have agreed on a verdict."

Why is *they* used? because the *common sense* of the case confines the mind to the *members* of the jury. The noun, *they*, therefore, does not stand for the noun, *jury*, but for the noun, *members*, which is constantly in the mind.

The pro word which represents the word, *jury*, must be singular—

"The *jury* will remain out till *its* members have agreed on a verdict."

That is, the jury will remain out till the *jury's* members have agreed on a verdict.

But, it may be said, as the word, *jury*, is substituted for the noun, *members*, that *jury* should exert the same influence over the sentensic inflections, which *members* would—hence the expression—

"The jury *have* agreed,"

is no violation of any grammatical rule. This principle, however, cannot be adopted without *improper* innovation—it would compel us to say,

"John, how *hast* you been?" "John, *art* you well?"

The adoption of this principle would render the expressions which are now bad in sense only, bad in *grammar* also.

Specimen of correcting under Rules VII. and VIII.

Rebecca took goodly raiment and put them on Jacob.

Improper—The error lies in the use of *them* for *it*.

The impropriety is a violation of Rule VII. which says, &c.

Therefore it should be, Rebecca took goodly raiment, and put *it* on Jacob.

EXERCISES.

Take handfuls of ashes from the furnace, and let Mŏses sprinkle it to heaven.

Can any person on their entrance into life be fully secure that they shall not be deceived ?

The minds of men cannot be long without some food to nourish the activity of his thoughts.

Each of them in their turn receives the money to which they are entitled.

Each of the boys took their own book.

I gave him oats; but he would not eat it.

I gave him wheat; but he would not eat them.

I bought molasses, and put it into a pitcher.

He teaches mathematics with all its branches.

Carry the scissors to its place.

John and James have found his books.

Stephen or Joseph has returned their copy.

I have examined the subject of alms in all their consequences.

NOTE I.—When, for brevity the name of the assemblage or collective body, is used instead of the name of its constituent parts, the mind dissolves the body into

its several parts, and the pro word represents the name of these parts; as, the jury will remain out till *they* have agreed on *their* verdict.

EXERCISES.

The jury will continue out till it have agreed on a verdict.

The council was not unanimous, and it separated without coming to any determination.

The committee was divided in sentiment, and it referred the business to a general meeting.

The enemy was not able to support the charge; and he fled.

The defendant's counsel had a difficult task imposed upon it.

NOTE II.—When the name of the assemblage or collective body, is not used for the name of the constituent parts, the mind does not dissolve the body into its several parts—hence the pro noun represents the name of the collective body; as, A committee was appointed; and *it* made a report upon the subject.

EXERCISES.

The crowd is so great that I cannot get through them.

The company was very small at first; but they increased daily.

The school is quite large now; and they still grow larger.

The third flock of sheep is fed; but they are not watered.

The family is not so well pleased with its situation as they expected to be.

NOTE III.—When the pro noun runs into an adjective, it represents the *noun* of multitude, not some other noun understood, and should remain in its singular form; as, The committee published *its* proceedings. (Not *their* proceedings.)

EXERCISES.

When the nation complains, their rulers should listen.

This company conducts their business with accuracy and despatch.

The church will conduct their own business.

The family is very well, with the exception of two of their members.

The school must attend to their writing now.

The class has lost some of their members.

NOTE IV.—When the pro noun is preceded by two antecedents of different orders, it commonly takes the order, number, and gender of the nearer; as,

I am the *man who* commands you.

Did *who* represent *I*, *who* would then be of the first order; hence it would be, *who command?* (no *s*,) for *who*, by representing *I*, would become equal to *I* in *number*, *gender* and *order*: and you would not say I *commands*; but I *command*.

EXERCISES.

I am the man who command you.

I am the person who adopt that sentiment, and maintain it.

Thou art the person who possess bright parts; but who has cultivated them but little.

I am the man who speak but seldom.

Thou art the friend that has often relieved me; and that has not deserted me now in time of peculiar need.

We are the boys that writeth letters.

They are the girls that learns so fast.

You are the boys who picks my apples.

NOTE V.—A pro noun, uniformly *insentensic*, should never be used *sentensically*—nor should one uniformly *sentensic*, be used insentensically.

The uniformly sentensic pro nouns are *I*, *thou*, *he*, *she*, *who*, *whoever*, *whosoever*, *we*, *ye* and *they*.*

Those which are uniformly insentensic are, *me*, *thee*, *him*, *her*, *whom*, *whomsoever*, *us*, *them*.

Who, *that* and *as* relate to persons; *which*, *that* and *as*, to things; as, He is such a man *as* I desire to employ, He *that* is good, must be happy, Such fruit *as* I like.

That should be used after an adjective in the *superlative* degree; as, Washington was one of the *greatest*, and *best* men, *that* the world ever saw.

The Pro noun which begins the answer, should be of the same kind with that which commences the

* *Thou* and *ye* are insentensic when they merely make an address, and stand unconnected with a sentensic adjective; as, ye men of Galilee, &c.

question; as, *Who* is to inform this man? *I*, *Thou* or *She*. *Whom* have you seen? *Him*. That is, *I have seen him*.

Specimen of Correcting by Note V.

"Me came to bring alms to my nation."

Improper—the error lies in the use of *me* for *I*. The impropriety is a violation of NOTE V., under RULE VII., which says, "Pro nouns uniformly *insentensic*, should not be used sentensically." Therefore it should be, *I* came.

EXERCISES.

1. "For us have found he a pestilent fellow."

2. "Whom also hath gone about to profane the temple, who us took, and would have judged according to our law."

3. "But the chief captain came upon we, and took he away out of our hands, commanding his accusers to come upon thou; by examining of who, thyself mayest take knowledge of all these things whereof us accuse he."

4. Forasmuch as me know that thee hast been of many year, a judge unto this nation, me do the more cheerfully answer for myself."

5. "Because that thee mayest understand that there are yet but twelve days since me went up to Jerusalem to worship."

6. "And them neither found I in the temple, &c."

7. Certain Jews from Asia, found I purified in the temple.

8. "Whom ought to have been here before thou, and object, if them have aught against I."

9. "Except it is for this one voice, that me cried, standing among they, touching the resurrection of the dead, me am called in question by thou this day."

10. "But this me confess unto you, that after the way which them call heresy, so worship me the God of my fathers."

NOTE VI.—No pro noun which is uniformly *insentensic*, should follow *be* or any of its substitutes, in the *same* section; as,

I am *her*, it is *me*.

It should be, I am *she*, it is *I*.

The insentensic pro noun is sometimes placed after *be;* as,

I thought it to *be* him.

But *him* has no connexion with *be*. *Him* is a member of the superior part of the section, and may be seen thus,

[I thought *it him.*] (to be)

It is not easy for *beginners* to manage constructions like the following:

1. *Who* do people say that I am.
2. He is the person *whom* they say that Mr. Johnson taught.

But by breaking such sentences into sections, the pupil, and even many of our *translators* of the scriptures, may find some aid in correcting bad English:

1. THE MAJOR SECTION IS—[*Do people say that.*]
   THE MINOR IS—*(who I am.)*
2. THE MAJOR SECTION IS—[*He is the person.*]
   THE MINORS ARE— { *(whom Mr. Johnson taught.)* / *(they say that.)*

11. "Whom do the people say that I am."
12. "But whom sayest thee that me am."
13. [I took it (to be) he.]
14. [They thought that] (it was me.)
15. [We believe that] (it was them.)

NOTE VII.—Nouns which come in the same section, and are exactly synonymous in meaning, should all be sentensic or all insentensic; as, [That is the Liverpool *packet, she*] (which sailed) (in May last,) [We have heard] (from the Liverpool *packet, her*) (that sailed) (in June last.)

EXERCISES.

[He purchased his hat] (of Stephen Shepherd, he) (who lives) (in Broadway.)

[I went to see my brother, he] (who lives) (in London.)

[Their sister, her (who lives) (in New York,) is now] (in Philadelphia.)

NOTE VIII.—*Me* and *us* should follow nouns of exclamation; as, Ah! *me*, O! *us*.

These pro nouns, however, are not controlled by nouns of exclamation; but by some adjective which is understood; as, (Ah) *what has befallen* me, or, (Ah) *ruin* has overtaken *me*, or, will overtake *me*.

NOTE IX.—*Thou* follows nouns of exclamation; as, O! *thou* wretch.

That is, O! thou *art* a wretch.

Thou, then, is the sentensic noun to *art* understood—and *me* in the other note, the insentensic noun of *befallen* or *overtaken*, understood.

OBSERVATION.

Whom should not follow *than;* as, Washington, than *whom* a greater general has never lived.

That *who* is the proper form is made evident by rendering the sentence complete—

I will instance general Washington—and a better man has never lived than *he*.

That is, than he *is*.

But a desire for brevity has led to the omission of *and*, which has occasioned the introduction of *whom*, with the additional effect of changing the position of the noun; as, I will instance general Washington, than *whom* a greater general has never lived.

But as the use of *whom*, is improper, it should give place to *who*, which is the sentensic to *is* understood; as,

I will instance general Washington than *who* , a greater general never lived.

OBSERVATION.

Nouns which merely make an address, or simply express some sudden emotion of the mind, are insentensic, and stand independent of the sentensic, and of the partial insentensic adjective; as, *John*, thou art a good scholar, *Jane* and *Nancy*, ye were at church, *What*, who comes there! *O*, that I was liberated from these bonds, *Alas*, my child, you are ruined.

Thou contains an address; so also does *ye;* but *thou* is here introduced with a view to ascribe the good scholarship—*ye* is introduced in order to ascribe the persons addressed, to the church.

But *John*, *Jane* and *Nancy* are employed for no end except that of calling attention to what is to follow.

RULE IX.

Every partial insentensic which *refers*, requires the insentensic pro noun; as, John is *with them*. (Not with *they*.)

NOTE I.—The same partial insentensic which follows the primitive word, generally follows the *derivative;* as, *derive* FROM, *derivative* FROM—*friend* TO, *friendly* TO.

The following are among the exceptions to the above note—*Diminish* FROM, *diminution* OF—*Friend* OF, *friendly* TO.

It may be observed with respect to *of*, that it should never be used after "*friend*," where the relation is real affection or genuine friendship. When the word, "FRIEND," is used in the sense of "*acquaintance*," *of* should follow; as, he is a friend *of* mine. That is, an *acquaintance* of mine.

But if real affection is the relation which he bears to me, *to* should follow; as, he is a friend *to* me, he is a friend *to* his country.

NOTE II.—Two nouns, which will not admit the same partial insentensic to follow, should not be subjoined; as, *rule* and *guide* of his conduct.

Rule requires *of;* but *guide* demands *to;* as, a rule *of* his conduct —a guide *to* his conduct.

Easy requires, not *to*, but *for*.
Friend, according to the sense, requires *of* or *to*.

BETWEEN *and* BETWIXT—AMONG *and* AMONGST.

NOTE III.—BETWEEN and BETWIXT should be used when there are but two things; AMONG and AMONGST, where there are *more* than two; as, *between* these two, there is a great contention—*among* those three, there is great harmony.

IN *and* OF.

NOTE IV.—When we are disappointed in obtaining a thing, we use *of;* as, we have been disappointed *of* money.

But when we possess the thing, and the quality does not come up to our expectations, we say *in;* as, we are disappointed *in* these silks.

THROUGH *and* DURING.

Through is added to nouns of space or time; as, He went through the *field*, He continued *through* the year.

During is added to nouns of time; as, He studied at college during four *years*.

When the action, event or deed continues through all the period of time mentioned, *during* should be used; as he lived in America *during* forty years.

But when the action, event or deed does not continue through all the time, *in* or *within* should be used; as, I have seen him twice *in* my life, He has seen many afflictions *within* ten years.

When the act or event is finished, *during* should be used; as, He lived in America *during* sixty years.

But if the action or event is now in process, *for* is better; as, He has lived in America *for* sixty years.

IN *and* AT.

1st. IN is employed before the names of countries, cities, and large towns:

1. I live *in* (not *at*) New York.
2. They are *in* America.
3. They reside *in* Lancaster.

2d. AT is employed before the names of *foreign* cities, villages, (whether *foreign* or not,) and small towns:

1. They live *at* Rome.
2. She resides *at* Springfield.

3d. AT is employed, generally, after BE, when *be* is *literally* applied:

1. I shall *be at* church.
2. They have *been at* church.
3. They are *at* (not *to*) church.

A TABLE.

Accuse	requires	*of*, not *for* nor *with*.
Abhorrence	requires	*of*, not *at*.
Acquit	requires	*of*, not *from*.
Adapted	requires	*to*, not *for*.
Agreeable	requires	*to*, not *with*.
Averse	requires	*to*, not *from*.
Bestow	requires	*upon*, not *on*.
Boast	requires	*of*, not *about*.
Brag	requires	*of*, not *about*.
Broke	requires	*into*, not *in*.
Call	requires	*on*, not *upon*.
Confide	requires	*in*, not *to*.
Conversant	requires	*in*, not *with*.
Conformable	requires	*to*, not *with*.
Consonant	requires	*to*, not *with*.
Correspondent *Correspond, &c.*	requires	*to*, not *with*.

To *Correspond*, to keep up an intercourse with another by writing or letter, requires *with*, not *to*.

Correspondence, (intercourse by letter,	requires	*with* not *to*.
Compliance	requires	*with*, not *to*.
Cut	requires	*into*, not *in*.
Dependent	requires	*upon*, not *on*.
Derogation	requires	*from*, not *of*.
Differ to (*dispute*)	requires	*with*, not *from*.
Dissent	requires	*from*, not *with*.
Diminution	requires	*of*, not *from*.
Disappointed may have		*in* or *of*.

When we are disappointed in obtaining a thing, we use *of*—but when in the quality or character of the person or thing, we use *in*.

Discouragement, according to the *sense*, may have } *of*, *by*, *in*, or *with*.

Die, for noting the *cause*, *for*, or *of*, not *by* or *with*.

Glad, may have *of*, or *at*, but not *on*.

Difference *among*, *between*, or *betwixt*, but rarely *of*.

Failed, requires *in* or *of*, according to the sense; as, He *failed in* his business, because he failed *of* collecting his demands.

Invite, when the local section shows where the invitation is given, requires *in;* as, He invited me *in the street*, to call at his house.

Invite, when the local section shows to what place one is invited, requires *into* or *to;* as, He invited me *into his house*, They invited her *to* their house.

In, may be used as an *impartial* insentensic; as, He invited me *in*.

Put, when the local section shows where the act is done, requires *in;* as, He *put* his hand upon me, *in this room*.

Put, when the local section shows into what something is put, requires *into;* as, He put the dollar *into his pocket*.

Split, when the local section shows where something is split, requires *in;* as, He split the log *in the cellar*.

Split, when the local section shows the division itself of a thing, requires *into;* as, He split the log *into two*.

Took, requires *in* as an impartial insentensic; as, They took the stranger *in*.

Took, requires *into* as a partial insentensic; as, He took the book *into* his hands.

Walk, when the local section intimates the leaving of one place for another, requires *into;* as, He walked *into* the house.

Walk, when the local section shows where the action is done without intimating the leaving of one place for another, requires *in;* as, He walks *in his own room*.

Walk, requires *in* as an *impartial* insentensic; as, Will you walk *in*, Sir?

Key, when the insentensic section denotes a part of a thing, requires *of;* as, This is the key *of* that lock.

Key, when the thing mentioned is presented as a kind of guide or clue, requires *to;* as, This event furnishes a key *to* all the secrets in the case.

EXERCISES IN BAD ENGLISH.

Subtraction is a derivative of subtract.

The derivation of one word of another is a part of grammar.

Washington was a friend of his country.

He is a friend of me.

This is a rule and guide of his conduct.

Arithmetic made easy to the teacher and pupil.

He divided the apple between his few friends.
There should be no difficulty betwixt those three.
The property will be divided amongst those two.
This document which has just been printed, states that *during* the past year, 1,721,000 pages of tracts have been distributed in the city of New-York.
During my first visit to America.
On one occasion *during* the peninsular war, the same regiment came suddenly on the French army.
I had occasion *during* our preliminary remarks on knowledge, to insist much on the importance of *accurate* language.
The substance of the three first lectures which appear in the present volume, was first delivered in Cincinnati *during* the course of the last summer.
Conditions.—$2 00, if paid in advance; $2 50, if paid *during* the year.
He lives at New York.
He resides at Lancaster.
Our friends who live at Rome are at Philadelphia.
I was to the banking house last week.
I have been *to* church.
As soon as we arrived *to* New York.
This is the key *to* that lock.
This fact is a key *of* the true cause of this event.
These are the keys *to* that musical instrument.
He *put* his knife *in* his pocket.
He *took* the book *in* his own hands.
They *invited* him *in* the house.
Will you walk *in* this room?
He *broke* the dish *in* ten thousand pieces.
They *cut* the stick *in* two.
They *split* the log *in* two.
Let them be made *in* pairs.
He accused them with taking his book.
They were accused for slandering.
We all feel an abhorrence at such conduct.
He was acquitted from the charge.
He acted agreeably with his instructions.
We are averse from avarice.
He bestowed many favours on me.
They boast about their martial exploits.

He brags about his activity.
John called upon me for money.
They confide to each other.
James is conversant with Greek and Latin.
Jane acts conformably with her instructions.
It is consonant with my opinion.
It corresponds with the copy.
I have had no correspondence to him these three weeks.
Peter's compliance to their proposition ruined him.
Adjectives depend on nouns and adjectives.
Any derogation of his good name he will resent.
He was angry and differed from his brother.
I dissent with that gentleman's opinion.
Any diminution from this amount will displease them.
I was disappointed in money.
He was disappointed of these goods.
That book is not adapted for beginners.
He failed in collecting his money.

Rule X.

The subjoined word must agree in name and character with its antecedent; as, I have seen *him* and *her*, *John* and *I* write.

Note I.—The subjoined sentensic adjective may, in certain instances, differ in tense from the antecedent; as, I *am* here, and *shall* continue here.

Note II.—When the mode of expression varies from affirmative to negative, the sentensic noun is generally repeated; as, He was once independent; and *he* cannot forget it.

In such instances the partial insentensic subjoins, not a word, but a section.

Note III.—When the sentence takes some sudden turn, the sentensic noun in the inferior section is frequently understood; as, That pupil has been instructed much; *but* , is yet ignorant.

That is, but *he* is yet ignorant.

N. B. *But* never subjoins a single word.

Note IV.—The *partial construction* may be subjoined to any other; as, He *fell* and *was* taken up, and carried into the house.

The second *and* subjoins *carried* to *taken*. Or *was* understood to *was* expressed—and *was* carried, &c.

NOTE V.—*As well as* may subjoin a single word; as, Prosody comprises the true pronunciation of words, their poetic formation into sentences, *as well as* their figurative application in either prose or verse.
As well as subjoins *application* to *formation.*

NOTE VI.—*Whether* and *either* require *or;* as, he is good *or* bad, it is not known *whether* he is good *or* bad.

NOTE VII.—*Neither* requires *nor;* as, he would not do it *nor* permit me to do it.

NOTE VIII.—*Although* and *though* require *yet* or *nevertheless;* as, *Though* the house is small; *yet* it is very convenient: *Although* he was rich; *yet* for our sakes he became poor: *Though* he desires it; *nevertheless* I cannot yield.

NOTE IX.—*As,* in a comparison, requires *so;* as, As your day is, *so* it shall be unto you.

NOTE X.—*As,* where it refers to an adjective in a comparison of equality, requires *as;* as, I think Milton *as* great a poet *as* Virgil.

NOTE XI.—*So* where it refers to another adjective requires *that* or *as;* as, I was *so* tired *that* I fell asleep.

NOTE XII.—*Notwithstanding* should be so used as to admit of the use of a sentensic adjective, either expressed or understood; as, Notwithstanding the publications on English grammar are numerous, and the ability with which many of them have been written is highly respectable, it is a fact which I believe all *must* soon admit that no system has yet been formed which gives a true expression of the grammar of the English language.

And and *with.*

When equals are spoken of, *and* should be used; as,

1. Stephen *and* his partner rode by.
2. My father *and* mother are here.
3. His brother *and* sister came in.

When unequals are spoken of, or when one thing is instrumental or auxiliary to another, *with* should be used; as,

1. Stephenson *with* his clerk rode by.
2. My father *with* his servants is here.
3. His brother *with* my horse is lost.

QUESTIONS.

In what must the subjoined word agree?
What do you understand by the word *antecedent* as here used?

It means the word to which the subjoined word is subjoined; as, *John* and James.

Can the subjoined sentensic adjective ever differ in tense from the antecedent?
Where is the sentensic noun generally repeated?
In what instances does the partial insentensic subjoin, not a word, but a section?
When is the sentensic noun in the inferior section, understood?
Does *but* ever subjoin a single word?
What is said of the partial insentensics?
What is said of "*as well as*," considered as one word?
What is said of *whether?*
What is said of *neither?*
What is said of *although* and *though?*
What does *as* require in a comparison?
What does *as* require when it refers to another adjective in a comparison of equality?
What does *so* require when it refers to another adjective?
What is said of *notwithstanding?*
What is said of *and* and *with?*

EXERCISES.

I have read and wrote many books.
He saw me, and has satisfied me.
He saw me, and even had called me before you came up.
Is it possible that he is so tall as I?
There are no men so excellent as some foibles cannot be ascribed to them.
He thought Bolivar so great a general as Washington.
"Notwithstanding the numerous publications upon English grammar, and the ability with which many of them are written, it is a fact, which I believe few will deny, that this science has never been so simplified, as to render the study of it at once concise, easy, and inviting."

Rule XI.

The following noun renders the preceding one an adjective; as, *John's* hat, The *boy's* book.

Note I.—Singular nouns that have but one *s*, and nouns, whether singular or plural, having no *s* in their termination, become adjectives by affixing an apostrophe and *s;* as, *s*—'

1. *James's* glove, - - - - 's
2. *John's* hat, - - - - 's
3. A *lady's* ring, - - - - 's
4. A *child's* tooth, - - - - 's
5. *Children's teeth*, - - - - 's
6. *Teeth's* position - - - - 's
7. *Charles's* hand, - - - - 's

NOTE II.—Singular nouns terminating in *ss*, and plural terminating in *s*, become adjectives by affixing an apostrophe (') only; as,

1. For *holiness'* sake, - - - '
2. For *goodness'* sake, - - - '
3. *Bliss'* book, - - - - '
4. *Ladies'* hat, - - - - '
5. *Eagles'* wings, - - - '

REMARK I.

When the letter *s*, used as the sign of possession, will coalesce with the noun itself, the *s* is pronounced in the same syllable; as, John's hat.

But when the *s* does not harmonize, another syllable is added to the pronunciation; as, Thomas', Bliss'.
Pronounced, *Thomasis—Blissis.*

REMARK II.

Where several *apostrophic* adjectives fall in succession, it is deemed sufficient by some grammarians, to *express* the adjective sign to the last word only; as, *John, Jane, Stephen,* and *Chester's* book.

The adjective sign *'s*, is understood at *John, Jane* and *Stephen*—but it certainly should be expressed after each word; as, *John's, Jane's, Stephen's* and *Chester's* books.

This is "*Jane* books," is not English!

EXERCISES.

Pompeys pillar.
Virtues reward.
A good mans heart.
Helens beauty.
A mothers tenderness.
A fathers care.
Natures gifts.
Troys destruction.

RULE XII.

Those insentensics which refer to *sentensics*, and to other insentensics, should, if the word will take, have

the *ly* termination;* as, They conducted *modestly*, They write *accurately*, He conducted *extremely* modest.

NOTE I.—The *ly* inflection should not be given to the superior insentensic when the *inferior* can take it; as, She behaves *exceedingly* indiscreet.

But if the inferior can not take the *ly* inflection, and the superior can, this inflection must be given to the superior; as, She behaves very *discreetly*.

NOTE II.—In some few instances the quality is *expressed* as belonging to the event, but by *inference* carried to the thing; as, The grass appears *green*.

In such the insentensic should drop the *ly*. *Green* shows *how* the grass *appears*.

NOTE III.—There are some insentensics that represent the certain condition or state which the person or thing receives from the action denoted by the sentensic, which should drop the *ly*; as, He sinks *deep*, The purest clay burns *white*, The pupil should write slowly and *exact*.

Specimen of Correcting.

He writes correct.

Improper—the error lies in the want of the *ly* inflection of *correct*. The impropriety is a violation of Rule XII., which says, &c. Therefore it should be, He writes *correctly*.

EXERCISES.

She sings sweet.
Grammarians should speak accurate.
Sophia dances beautiful.
The ship moves smooth along.
The water runs rapid.
This is written very correct.
He conducts himself very upright.
It is remarkable fine weather.
They conducted agreeable to the rules of decency.
Go soft, John.
Considering his station, he conducted himself very unsuitable.

EXERCISES UNDER NOTES I., II. AND III.

They behaved exceeding rudely.
They write remarkable accurately.

* There are a few exceptions to this rule; for instance, a *new* fashioned hat, He is a *high* minded man.

He behaved astonishing rudely.
He behaves uncommon badly.
Drink deeply or taste not the Pierian spring.
Heaven opened widely her ever during gates.
The victory cost them dearly.
Thickly and more thickly the steely circle grows.
The cakes taste shortly and crisply.
John marched straitly up a steep ascent of steps which were cut closely and deeply into the rock.
It makes the plough go deeply and shallowly.
The sun shines brightly.
The water runs clearly.
The grass grows straightly.
He came firstly.

Rule XIII.

Two negative words should not be used in the same section or clause; as, I have *not* done *nothing*, He did *not* see *no* man come in, He will *never* do *nothing*. (*Any* man, *any* thing.)

EXERCISES.

Will you not give me no apples, Stephen?
I neither got nothing of John nor of James.
He will neither eat nothing nor drink nothing.
I can not help him no more.
He will not give him nothing for his trouble.

Rule XIV.

Where a *mere* preventive against the noun's widest application, is all that is desired, *a* should be used; as, *a* man called on me, and gave me *a* book.

A becomes *an* before a vowel or silent *h;* as, *an age, an hour.*
A is not changed into *an* before *u* long. This exception arises from the *u*'s having the power of initial *y* and *u;* as in *yew*, a *unit;* a *use*. *An* is used before words beginning with *h* sounded, when the accent is on the *second* syllable; as, *an* historical account.

Rule XV.

Where identity, either by an expressed, or an implied description, is obvious, and totality desirable, *the* should be used; as, give me *the* books which you hold in your right hand.

NOTE I.—Where emphasis is desired, *that* or *this* may be used instead of *the*.

NOTE II.—Where unity is the leading idea, *one* should be used instead of *a;* as, there was but *one* man lost, though many were in great danger.

NOTE III.—*The* may be repeated to give force and fulness of expression; as, *the* good, *the* wicked, *the* young, and *the* old, &c.

NOTE IV.—When the same individual is spoken of in reference to two or more of qualities or occupations, *a* should not be repeated; as, he is *a* better writer than reader, This is *a* better barn than house.

NOTE V.—When two or more individuals are spoken of in comparison, *a* must be repeated; as, he is *a* better writer than *a* reader , , This is *a* better barn than *a* house.

NOTE VI.—When two distinct individuals, or two collections are meant, *the* or *a* should be repeated—

1. He purchased *the* black, and *the* white ox.
2. I have *the* red, and *the* white cloth.
3. He saw *the* lad, or *the* pupil last evening.
4. *The* sentensic, and *the* insentensic noun.
5. *A* noun or *a* pro noun.

NOTE VII.—When but one individual, or but one assemblage is meant, *the* should *not* be repeated.

1. *The* black and white ox.
2. *The* red and white cloth or clothes.
3. He saw *the* lad or pupil last evening.

QUESTIONS.

When should *a* be used?
When does *a* become *an?*
When should *a* not be changed into *an?*
When the *h* is sounded, and the accent is on the second syllable, is *a* or *an* used?
When should *th* be used?
What is meant by *totality?*—

The whole, or all.

When may *that* and *this* be used for *the?*
When should *one* be used?
For what may *the* be repeated?
When should *a* not be repeated?
When should *a* be repeated?
When should *the* not be repeated?
When should *the* be repeated?

RULE XVI.

All adjectives which express number must agree with their nouns in number; as, He lives at the corner

of *Third*, and *Fourth* street, *This* man, *Each* man, *Two* men, *Either* man of the *two*, *That* man, *Those* men.

Specimen of Correcting under Rule XVI.

"It is believed that the *tenth* and *eleventh* editions have been greatly improved."—KIRKHAM'S GRAMMAR.

Improper—the error lies in the plural number of "*edition*." The impropriety is a violation of Rule XVI., which says, &c.

Therefore it should be, "It is believed that the tenth, and eleventh *edition* have been greatly improved."

EXERCISES.

His second and third daughters live in Philadelphia.

The third and fourth classes may go out.

NOTE.—When the plural form of the subjoined noun, makes too many of the same kind, the subjoined noun should remain singular, and the partial insentensic should be understood before it; as, He went to Arch , and Market *street*.

If it should be—Arch and Market *streets*, the expression would be inconsistent with truth—for there are not two *Arch* streets, nor are there two Market streets, in the *mind* of him who speaks.

REMARKS.

THIS and THAT, THESE and THOSE.—

This should be used in contrast with *that* or *those; that*, in contrast with *this* or *these;* these, in contrast with *that* or *those:* and *those* in contrast with *this* or *these;* as,

Give me *this* plate, and not *that;* give me *that* plate, and not *this:* give me *those* plates, and not *this;* give me *this*, and not *those*.

THIS, THAT, THESE, THOSE.

This, as well as *these*, refers to what is nearer by, as to time or space: *that*, as well as *those*, relates to what is further off either in time or space; as,

In the CITY, we are entertained by the *works* of man; in the *country* by the WORKS of God; *this* is the presence of nature, THAT of art; THESE astonish us, *those* we comprehend.

SUCH, EACH, EITHER and NEITHER.

NOTE I.—*Such* should be used in reference to things previously mentioned, only; as, I have sweet fruit—*such* you like.

NOTE II.—*Either* and *neither*, as impartial adjectives, refer to one of *two;* as, I will take *either* , of the two, *Neither* , of *the* two, suits me.

NOTE III.—*Each*, has respect to two or *more*, individually taken; as, *Each* , of the two; each , of the six.

NOTE IV.—Where the plural form of the subjoined noun makes too many of the same kind, the subjoined noun should remain singular, and the first set of adjectives be limited by the repetition of *the*, to the antecedent noun, understood; as, He teaches the Latin, and *the* Greek *language*, He found this doctrine in the new, and *the* old *testament*.

Specimen of Correcting under Note V.

"Mathematics, the Latin and Greek Languages, Natural Philosophy and Chemistry, as well as the usual branches of an English education, are taught, by Mr. ——."

Improper—the error lies in the plural form of "*Language*," which makes the writer assert that there are two or more Greek languages, and two or more Latin languages. The impropriety is a violation of Note V., which says, &c.

Therefore it should be, the Greek, and *the* Latin *Language*.

EXERCISES.

Who is a professor of the Latin, Greek and Hebrew languages?

He has studied the English and the French languages.

REMARKS.

When but one thing or collection is under consideration, the adjective should have the primitive state; as, *Red* bird, or birds.

When two things or collections are compared, the adjective should have the comparative degree; as, these birds are *redder* than those; this bird is *redder* than that.

When as many as three things or *collections* are compared, the adjective should have the superlative degree; as, this is the *reddest* of the four.

EXERCISES.

Riper cherry.	Redder berries.
A better apple.	Newer book.
Clearest sky.	Sweetest plum.

That bird is the reddest of the two.

Stephen has two sisters, the eldest of whom is the the best reader.

Which of these two kites is the highest.
He chose the last of the two.
This is the better pen of the three.
John is the better reader of the six.
Of all other schools this has the better regulations.

Observation I.

When the sentensic adjective in the *ing* termination, is used as a noun, all the insentensics which refer to it must have the same form as though they referred to it in its adjective character; as, He was praised for the *drawing* of the picture *accurately*.

Observation II.

Where *a* or *the* precedes the sentensic adjective in *ing*, which is used as a noun, *of* should generally be expressed after the noun; as, His station in life is well adapted to *the acquiring of* knowledge. *The* not *making of* a will is a culpable omission.

Observation III.

When my, his, her, or any other adjective of a similar import precedes the sentensic adjective which is used as a noun in the *ing* form, *of* may either be expressed or understood; as, John's buying the goods, caused him much trouble, or, John's buying *of* the goods caused him much trouble.

Positional Syntax.

Rule XVIII.

Every minor section must be placed as near its own superior section as possible, and on that side of it which perspicuity requires; as,

Yet, would the objector but consider that *actions* are qualities, he would be able to see that a verb is an adjective "*even by his own definition*" of an adjective.

The section in italics, is properly placed. In the following, however, it is so placed as to make the objector say what he does not intend, and to leave unexpressed, what he wishes to communicate—

Yet, would the objector but consider that *actions* are qualities, he would be able to see *by his own definition*, that a verb is an adjective.

In the first, the idea is that "*his own definition*" is the means by which a verb is made an adjective—
In the second, the idea is that *his own* definition is the means by which he can see that a verb is an adjective.

EXAMPLES,

Containing sections without Positional Syntax.

This is the pen (I write) (with which.)

"In presenting this abridgment of Conversations on English Grammar *to the public*, the author deems it proper to give an outline of his arrangement.

Corrected:

In presenting *to the public*, this abridgment of Conversations on English Grammar, the author deems it proper to give an outline of his arrangement.

Rule XIX.

Every Adjective must be placed as near its own superior as possible, and on that side of it, which perspicuity requires; as, I will call *again*, and pay you.

By a different position of *again*, the idea now expressed, would be lost, and a different one suggested; as, I will call and pay you *again*.

REMARK.

Perspicuity should never be rejected for *ease*, and *harmony* of expression. Sentences may be rendered *fuller* for the sake of force and *beauty* of construction; provided the fulness does not obscure the sense which the writer means to convey.

EXAMPLES,

Containing words without Positional Syntax.

The letters have *correctly* been written.
Whom have you obtained the book *of?*
This is the pen which I write *with.*

This collocation restores the positional Syntax.

The letters have *been correctly* written.
Of whom have you obtained the book?
This is the pen *with* which I write.

EXAMPLE,

Where the writer means that the beholder can discover nothing but BIRDS.

John can *only* see the birds.

Corrected:

John can see the birds *only*—or
John can see, *only* the birds.
Meant that none but John can see birds—
John can see birds *only*.
Corrected:
John *only*, can see birds.
Meant that none but John is a smith—
John *only*, is a smith.
Meant that John is nothing but a smith.—
John is *only* a smith; or John is a smith *only*.

EXERCISES,

Containing sections without Positional Syntax, to be corrected by the pupil.

But one would think that of such faults rational beings would not be guilty.

That one was Perry on the Lake, if ever any one man subdued a powerful enemy.

Of sin how often does one feel the pangs!

He called one, and sent him of his men to get a gun.

Of these apples one is mine.

Of him that sent me, I must work the works.

Of him I must work the works that sent me.

Of the twelve it is one.

At church on each Sabbath they saw one another.

That findeth his life he shall lose it.

That receiveth you, he receiveth me.

As these to meet such misfortunes, what man is able?

Each is well taught of these pupils.

Of others to think ill we are all too apt.

By the works in the city, we are entertained of man.

What and what they preserved their lives with the bread, with the wine.

EXERCISES,

Containing words without Positional Syntax.

John will come, perhaps.
They will thither come.
I hither must return.
Brother will come never.

Samuel will write the letters, indeed.
Sister will arrive, peradventure.
Twice they returned.
He is here not often.
"William nobly acted."
They may well read though they cannot see the print.
They presented their book which being not received they became humble then.
He and I shall part never.
So correctly a written letter must be pleasing to your teacher.
The women contributed all their mites willingly.
They were finished perfectly.
Him the boy saw.
Apples the children picked.
His notions have been founded *on* rather his own views, than on those of his friends.
John knew *himself*, that he could write the letter never.
I am walking *myself*.
They are drinking themselves.
Soon I shall *hither* come.
The lad well writes.

THE THIRD PART OF CONSTRUING.

In resuming the subject of CONSTRUING, it may be well to give it the second definition, and to show into how many parts it is properly divided.

CONSTRUING is breaking a sentence into sections, ascertaining their properties, and referring the *inferior* sections to their respective *superiors*.

CONSTRUING *consists of three parts;* namely, CONSTRUCTIVE, CHARACTERISTIC and SIGNIFICANT.

1. The first part respects the mere mechanical or anatomical division of a sentence into MAJOR and MINOR sections, and the referring of the minors to their respective superiors ; as,

In the beginning was the word ; and the word was with God ; and the word was God—

The word was 3, 4
3 *in the beginning;* 5
4, 5 *and the word was* 6, 7
6 *with God;* 8
7, 8 *and the word was God.*

2. The second part respects the character of the section as derived from its being or not being a *sentence;* as, *In the beginning* was the word, &c. (*See page* 22.)

3. The third part of construing, respects the *import* of the section as given by the particular influence of the partial insentensic adjectives; as, [He writes letters] (*on* the table) (*with* his pencil) (*for* his own amusement.)

On the table has a *local* import; *with his pencil*, an instrumental one; *for his own amusement*, a *causative* import.

REMARKS.

The significant part of Construing is founded upon the character of the fact which the sentensic section advances, and upon the character which the partial insentensics give to the thing that the insentensic section presents.

The different imports given to the *insentensic* sections by many of the partial insentensics, are an interesting theme, to one who desires to become thoroughly acquainted with the grammatical principles of the English language. But to him who has no desire to become deeply skilled in this science, these imports are mere colours to the *blind* man. To comprehend the *precise signification* of these sections and the exact manner in which they acquire these significations, demands a practice induced by a philological affection which nothing but the third part of *construing* can *beget, strengthen,* and *purify.* The richness and variety of this part of *construing*, however, cannot be presented in this limited work.

SENTENSIC SECTIONS.

Sentensic sections are, Affirmative, Interrogative, Imperative, Petitionary, Concessive, Contingent and Optative.

1. The Affirmative sentensic section is one which makes a declaration or affirmation; as, *John wrote letters, Can the blind see?*

2. The Interrogative sentensic section is one which interrogates or asks; as, *Can James read English?*

3. The Imperative sentensic section is one which commands; as, [*Go thou*] to school, Peter.

4. The Petitionary sentensic section is one which makes a petition; as, *Have mercy* upon us.

5. The Concessive sentensic section is one which leaves the mind to concede the fact or thing which it speaks; as, *When John returns*, we shall get some news.

6. The Contingent sentensic section is one which is expressive of some doubt without an affirmation; as, *If John should come*, we shall return.*

7. The Optative sentensic section is one which expresses a wish; as, *May your health continue good.*

SPECIMEN OF CONSTRUING.

[They say that] (he is a good scholar.)

"*They say that*"

is a complete major section of the sentensic affirmative kind.

"*he is a good scholar.*"

is a complete minor section of the sentensic affirmative kind, simple relation, referring to its superior section.

CLOSE READING—

They say that *he is a good scholar.*

EXERCISES.

If he should come, I would inform you.

Thou shalt not steal.

Perhaps I shall return to-morrow.

He says that he will bring his book.

He shall surely die if he eats thereof.

Shall you and I walk?

Keep back thy servant from presumptuous sins.

I must go to see whether I have a letter *in the office.*

Let , the words *(of my mouth)* , be acceptable in thy sight.

If the ship has arrived, we shall receive letters *from America.*

Give , (, *us*) (, *this* day) our daily bread.

May you find your friends all well.

* There may be doubt and a declaration; as, *Perhaps* he will come.

Here it is affirmed that the deed is possible or probable.

INSENTENSIC SECTIONS.

There are eight kinds of insentensic sections; namely,

INSENTENSIC { *Instrumental*, *Possessive*, *Local*, *Causative*, *Conjunctive*, *Detractive*, *Active*, *Characteristic*.

INSTRUMENTAL.

Of, by, in, with, through.

The *Instrumental* respects the instrument or means; as, he writes letters *with a pen.*

POSSESSIVE.

Of.

The *Possessive* respects the possessor or the thing possessed; as, He is the son *(of Johnson,)* The colour *(of the cloth.)*

LOCAL.

above	*atwixt*	*excepting*	*touching*
about	*across*	*for*	*toward*
after	*before*	*from*	*towards*
against	*behind*	*in*	*through*
among	*beneath*	*into*	*throughout*
amongst	*between*	*of*	*under*
amid	*betwixt*	*off*	*underneath*
amidst	*by*	*on*	*unto*
around	*behind*	*past*	*upon*
at	*concerning*	*regarding*	*within*
athwart	*down*	*respecting*	*without*
atween	*during*	*to*	

The *Local* respects place either in time or space; as, He travelled *(during a year) (in the United States.)*

CAUSATIVE.

Of, by, in, for.

The *Causative* respects a cause or an occasion; as, He died *(of a fever.)*

CONJUNCTIVE.

With.

The *Conjunctive* respects the thing subjoined by *with;* as, He has gone *(with his bundle.)*

DETRACTIVE.

Without, but, except, save, besides.

The *Detractive* respects the thing which is taken from something else; as, He has gone *(without his bundle.)*

ACTIVE.

Of, by.

The *Active* respects the actor in the insentensic section; as, The grass was injured *(by the frost.)*

CHARACTERISTIC.

As, for.

The *characteristic* kind respects the rank, station, or character, in which the person or thing acts or is acted on; as, John came (*as a prophet,*) I took it (*for good money.*)

TABLE.

This table presents those words in classes, which characterize the insentensic sections.

I.	*P.*	*L.*	*Cau.*	*Con.*	*D.*	*A.*	*Char.*
of	of	of	of	—	—	of	—
by	—	by	by	—	—	by	—
in	—	in	in	—	—	—	—
with	—	—	—	with	—	—	—
through	—	through	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	for	for	—	—	—	for
—	—	without	—	—	without	—	—
—	—	&c. &c.	—	—	—	—	as
—	—	—	—	—	but	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	except	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	save	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	besides	—	—

RULE I.

When the section is not founded upon the *actor*, and "*by the means of*" can be put for *with*, or *by* for *of, in* or *through*, as well as when *near* can not be put for *by*, the section is instrumental.

SPECIMEN OF CONSTRUING.

"By grace are ye saved through faith."

(By grace) [are ye saved] (, ,) (through faith.)

Ye are saved 1

a complete major section of the sentensic affirmative kind.

1 by grace 2

a complete minor section of the insentensic instrumental kind, simple relation, referring to its superior section.

CLOSE READING.—Ye are saved *by grace.*

2 which cometh 3

a complete minor section of the sentensic affirmative kind, simple relation, referring to its superior section.

CLOSE READING.—by grace *which cometh.*

3 through faith.

a complete minor section of the insentensic instrumental kind, simple relation, referring to its superior section.

CLOSE READING.—which cometh *through faith.*

[Ye are saved] (*of God*) (by grace) (which cometh) (through faith.)

NOTE. The section "*of God,*" presents the actor—hence "*of God*" is active.

The section, *by grace,* presents the instrument or means employed by this ACTOR.

Grace is the *instrument* in *saving* man; and *faith* is the means or *instrument* used in obtaining this grace.

1. By what actor are ye saved? by God.
2. By what *means* or *instrument* are ye saved? by *grace.*
3. By what means or *instrument* do you obtain this grace? by *faith.*

Specimen of Construing the Sections which are compounded of a Superior, and an Inferior Part.

1. [["He went] (to learn grammar")].

He went to learn grammar,

is—a compound major section of the sentensic affirmative kind.

[*He went*]

is the superior part of a sentensic section, of the sentensic affirmative kind.

"*to learn grammar,*"

is the inferior part of a sentensic section, of the insentensic kind, simple relation, referring to its superior part.

CLOSE READING.—He went *to learn grammar.*

2. [[To learn grammar] (is important)].

"*To learn grammar*" is important,

is a compound major section of the sentensic affirmative kind.

[*To learn grammar,*]

is the superior part of a sentensic section, of the insentensic kind, and the sentensic noun to *is.*

CLOSE READING.—*To learn grammar is*—

"*is important,*"

is the inferior part of a sentensic section, of the insentensic kind, simple relation, referring to its superior part.

CLOSE READING.—To learn grammar *is important.*

3. (In order) (, , *to become a grammarian*) [he must be taught].

["*for him* (to become) a grammarian,"]

is a *compound* minor section of the insentensic causative kind, simple relation, referring to its superior section.

CLOSE READING.—In order *for him to become a grammarian.*

"*to become*"

is the inferior part of an insentensic section, simple relation, referring to its superior part.

CLOSE READING.—For him a grammarian *to become.*

4. [[And they said] (unto him,) (Master,) [who did sin] (this man or his parents) (that he was born blind?)]

"*And they said, Master, who did sin, this man or his parents, that he was born blind,*"

is a compound major section of the sentensic affirmative kind.

"*And they said,*"

is the superior part of a sentensic section, of the sentensic affirmative kind.

"*Master,*" *who did sin, this man or his parents, that he was born blind,*

is the inferior part of a sentensic section, of the sentensic kind, and the *insentensic* noun of *said,* simple relation, referring to its superior part.

CLOSE READING.—[And they said,] (*Master,*) (*who did sin,*) (*this man*) (*or his parents,*) (*that he was born blind?*)

This engrossed insentensic noun consists of five minor sections which should be construed in the usual manner.

(Master,) (who did sin,) (, this man ,) (or , his parents ,) (that he was born blind?)

EXERCISES.

1. [They write letters] (*with* their pencils*).
2. [The birds fly] (through the air) (with great speed).
3. [He walks] (with much strength).
4. [These men are clothed] (with skins).
5. [The room was filled] (with the odour.)
6. [This view (of demons) is given] (by the scriptures themselves).
7. [These illustrious leaders were sent] (by the express command) (of God).

The skins and odour are the *materials*—not the instruments. One is the material or matter with which they are clad—the other the matter or material with which the room was filled. The instrument of working, and the material worked up, are very *different*.

Rule II.

When the noun before or after *of*, can be thrown into a possessive adjective, or the adjective before *of* into a noun, the section is possessive.

EXERCISES.

1. [They have half] (*of a dollar.*)
2. [The city (*of Hudson*) is not large.]
3. [I am] (*of opinion*) (that he will come.)
4. [He was refused] (, *admittance.*)
5. [A profile (*of my friend,*) is here.]
6. [The room is full] (*of smoke.*)
7. [The beauty (*of that hand*) is not great.]
8. [He is void] (*of sense.*)
9. [The boy is worthy] (*of praise.*)
10. [He is destitute] (*of money.*)
11. [He was denied] (, *his seat.*)
12. [He was offered] (, a dollar) (*for his hat.*)
13. [Give , (, me) a cup] (*of water.*)

* When *with* or *in* or *through* is used, in the sense of by, the section is instrumental.

1. The *possessive* section is always insentensic, and must be founded on the *possessor*, or the *thing possessed*. In the above instance, it is founded upon the possessor; the dollar is the possessor, and the *half* is that which the dollar possesses. It is a half belonging to a dollar, and not one belonging to an apple, peach, or pie or any other thing. Dollar's half.

From the use of the sentensic, *have*, in the above instance, some suppose that the persons denoted by *they*, are the possessors: it may not be amiss, therefore, to substitute some other sentensic, and repeat the example:

They *saw half* of a dollar.

That there is possession denoted by the word *have* is not disputed; but, as in construing, no possession is recognised, except that which is denoted by the partial insentensic, the import of *have* must not be noticed. Should it here be asked, why the possession denoted by *have* is thus slighted, we reply that as *have* is *always* possessive, there would be no advantage derived from a recognition of its character in construing. The object in construing is to follow up with an expressive technicality, the variety of meaning, which the *same* word has in different examples. In pursuance of this object, we are bound to notice the possessive character of *of*, and to slight that of *have: of* may be used not only in a possessive sense, but in a local, causative, an instrumental and active.

2. The relation between things is a subject upon which he, who desires to become a *correct* grammarian, should bestow much reflection. It is from a clear comprehension of this relation that one is able to write, speak and parse the language with ease and accuracy. The relations denoted by many of the partial insentensics, are of too *secret* and subtle a nature for the comprehension of him, who has not a *taste* which will excite him to attention. These relations are naturally divided into primary nnd *secondary;* and the secondary are always the result or consequence of the primary. For example—"the finger has two relations in reference to the palm of the hand:" The *primary* relation is a possessive one, the *secondary* is a *local* one. The primary relation is expressed by *of;* as, The finger *of* the hand.

The secondary is denoted by *on;* as, The fingers *on* the hand.

Now upon these relations, sections of different characters, may be formed. If the secondary relation is expressed, the primary relation must be inferred; as,

The fingers *on* his hand are familiar with deeds of charity.

Here, in making out the character of this section, two different arguments may be advanced: he who asserts that it is of the local kind, may say with much propriety that the fingers are *on* the hand; hence locality: the one who thinks the section *possessive*, may say with equal propriety, that the hand *has* or *possesses* the fingers, hence the possessive relation. Now, to settle the cases of this de-

scription, nothing more is necessary than to observe which relation is *expressed*: the character of the section must always be decided in favour of that relation which is *expressed*, and not of that which may be *inferred*. That there are two kinds of relation between the finger and the hand, is obvious; and that a sentence may be formed recognising either of these relations is no less clear—hence, if the *local* relation is *expressed*, the section is local; as,

The fingers *on his hand*, &c.

But, if the possessive relation is *expressed*, the local one is merely *inferred*: and consequently the section is *possessive*; as,

The fingers *of* his hand, &c.

The principles developed in the preceding part of this note, may be of some use in deciding the character of the section—

"Of Hudson."

It is evident that the city bears two relations to Hudson—first it *belongs* to Hudson; hence a possessive relation—secondly, it lies *within the* limits or boundaries of Hudson; hence a *local* relation.

The possessive relation, however, is the *expressed* one; hence, the section "*of Hudson*," is of the possessive kind.

But had the local relation which the city bears to Hudson, been *expressed*, and not the possessive, the section would be of the local kind; as,

The city is situated *within the limits* of Hudson, &c.

Finally, where there are different relations, the kind of the section may be always told by asking *which* relation is *expressed*.

3. That the section "*of opinion*," is *possessive*, is clear—but whether it is founded on the *possessor*, or the thing *possessed*, is not so obvious. The point for discussion is, whether from this construction *I* is the possessor, and *opinion* the thing possessed; or whether the opinion is the possessor and *I* the thing possessed. It appears that the opinion is taken as a rallying point to which individuals may resort, and belong. Or in other words, the opinion here is taken much in the sense of a party to which I represent myself as belonging.

This position may be illustrated when applied to something of a similar nature; as,

He is a merchant *of Boston*.

Here, he is represented as belonging to Boston—hence Boston is the possessor; and *he* the thing possessed.

Again—I am *of the other party*, I am *of a different persuasion*, I am *of a different opinion*.

Now, the argument against this position, arises, not from the construction or from the *import* of the words, but from the simple fact that this opinion *must* be *mine!* If the opinion was something which I could not possess, there would be no ground of arguing that *I* is

the *possessor*: hence this point would be as easily settled in this, I am "*of opinion*," as in this, He is a merchant "*of Boston*."

4. In many instances the possessive character of the section is quite concealed; in others it is quite apparent. For instance, in the first in the following sentence, it is easy to see the possessive character; but in the second it requires the closest investigation to discover this character—

The knife (*of John*) is worth (*a dollar.*)

The knife's value is the worth of what? What does this worth belong to which measures the value of the knife? It belongs to a dollar—it is the *worth of a dollar;* or it is a *dollar's worth.*

The knife (*of John*) is worthy (*of a dollar.*)

That is, the knife has the same worth which a dollar has. The worth then, belongs to both things at the same time.

He was denied (*of his seat.*)

Here the denial is the thing possessed by the seat. Here is a denial—a denial of what? a denial of a *seat.*

That is, this denial pertains to this seat.

I am deprived (*of a hat.*)

Here is a deprivation, and the question is to what it pertains or belongs. Is it a deprivation pertaining to liberty? no. Is it a deprivation belonging to health? It is a deprivation of a *hat.*

He is destitute (*of money.*)

Here is a destitution; and the point to be discussed in the mind is to what this destitution pertains. It is a destitution—of what? Of money. This destitution, then, is an absence of *money. John's* absence—*money's* absence.

The walking (*of John*) is slow.

That is, the walking which belongs to John. John's walking.

A subtraction (*of five*) from seven, leaves two.

That is, *five's* subtraction.

Rule III.

When *of* is used in the sense of *from, derived from, about* or *concerning; by* in the sense of *near; for,* in the sense of *during* or *through,* the section is local.

Exercises.

1. [A practical knowledge (*of his own language*) is, (*to the rational man*) an object] (of the first magnitude.)*

* The leading fact of this sentence is this—
A practical knowledge is an object of the first magnitude
But this declaration is under the condition of two circuumstances;

2. [There was a marriage] (*in Cana*) (of Galilee.)
3. [He stands] (*by the river.*)
4. [He lived] (*in London*) (*during a year.*)
5. [He remained] (*at home*) (, *six years.*)
6. [He travelled] (*in the United States*) (, *three years.*)
7. [He returned] (, *last evening.*)
8. (*On Friday last*) [we launched the ship.]
9. [He will be here] (*within two days.*)
10. (*On Saturday*) [our church was dedicated.]
11. [He studied] (, *sixteen hours*) (, a *day.*)
12. [He wrought] (, *every minute*) (of his time.)
13. [He went] (*from his teacher*) (*to his books.*)
14. [Will you give (, *me*) your opinion] (of this affair.)
15. [But every man hath his proper gift] (*of God.*)
16. [But our sufficiency is] (*of God.*)
17. [For whatsoever is more] (, cometh) (*of evil.*)
18. [They came out] (*of Egypt.*)
19. [They drank] (*of the living rock.*)
20. (*In rising to address this large and respectable audience,*) [I undertake a task] (which I am ill qualified to perform.)

Time is considered as divided into different portions, or parcels—and under this view it will be seen that the section, "*during a year,*" is local. The word, *year,* is a sort of knife, and carves from the entire body of time a *distinct portion,* which may be looked upon as a *block* of time. Now, in relation to this *block* of time, events may be differently located; for there are an *in,* an *on,* an *under,* a *from,* a *to,* a *within,* a *through,* an *at,* &c. to a portion of time as much as there are an *in,* an *on,* an *under,* &c. to a *block* of *wood.* Hence events may be located *in* a year, *on* a year, *at* a year, *within* a year.

And events may extend perfectly *through* a year; as,

---

namely, a place of derivation, or a place whence this knowledge is brought; and a place of deposit, or location to which this knowledge must be carried.

Whence, then, or from what place, must this knowledge be derived, and where must it be carried, in order that it may become an object of the *first* magnitude? This knowledge must be derived from *language,* and carried up to the *rational* man.

The section "*of the first magnitude,*" is clearly possessive—it is founded on the property or quality possessed by the object—an object (*of the* first magnitude.)

That is, an object *having* the first magnitude.

He travelled *through* that year with his brother.

But when the block which the event *perforates* consists of *time*, *during* is generally used; as,

He travelled *during* a year.

When the block, *perforated* by the event, consists of something tangible, *through* is used; as,

He saw him *through* the glass; he travelled *through* the snow.

He travelled in the United States *during* a year.

The word, "*during*," is equal to *from* and *to*: and as these words express ideas of locality, or place, *during* must also express such.

He travelled *during* a year.

That is, he travelled *from* the beginning *to* the termination of a year.

He travelled *through* the snow.

The section, *through the snow*, is local, because it presents the place where this event happened.

We would not be understood, however, as conveying the idea that snow is a *place;* snow is an object in reference to which, there may be various places; as, *in* the snow, *on* the snow, *under* the snow, *over* the snow, *through* the snow.

It is thus seen that there is a place pertaining to snow, which may be called *in*, and that there is one which may be called *on*, and one which may be called *through*. Now, the question is, in which of these various places is this event of travelling placed, or located. This event is put into the place pointed out by *through*.

He travelled "*during a year*."

The section, "*during a year*," is local: *during* shows where this event is placed in reference to this block of time. It is not pretended that the word, *year*, denotes any thing like a *place:* we mean to say that a year is an object *in which* a *place* is designated by the word, "*during*," and that this event of travelling is strewed along *in* this place.

Again, he sailed *on* Monday.

Now, Monday is no place; but a block of time, about which many places may be found—and *on* points out one of the many, as being the *place* in reference to this block of time, where the event of sailing is put or located.

Finally, these events are located in reference to distinct periods of time as much as they are in respect to things; and he that cannot comprehend the fact from a slight glance, should go to the pains of *reflecting* upon the subject.

Rule IV.

When *of*, *in* or *for*, is used in the sense of *on account of* or *because of*, the section is causative.

EXERCISES.

1. [Beware ye] (*of the leaven**) (of the Pharisees.]
2. [Though he was rich] (*for our sakes*) (he became poor.)
3. [He digged a place] (*for the wine vat.*)
4. [He went] (*instead of me.*)
5. [Why hast thou come] (*for me?*)
6. [They died] (*of a fever.*)
7. [I am glad] (*of the coming*) (of Stephen.)
8. [He went (*in order*) to find his friend.]
9. (In , viewing) (, the sun) [he injured his eyes.]

Rule V.

When *with* is not used in the sense of *by* or *the means of*, the section is conjunctive.

EXERCISES.

1. [Make , (, me) a coat] (*with ten buttons.*)
2. "[The little birds have ceased their warbling]: (they are asleep) (on the boughs) (each , ,) (with his head) (behind his wing.")
3. [He was presented] (*with a sword.*)
4. [He walks] (*with great speed.*)
5. [He went] (*with me.*)

The term, *with*, under its primitive application, was the name of a young tree or sapling, employed by fence makers as instruments or means for *binding* one stake to another.—From signifying the *band* or *instrument* with which the stakes are bound one to another, the word has come to denote the *act* of *attaching* one thing to another—hence when we desire to add or join one thing to another, we sometimes use *with;* as, make me a coat *with* ten buttons, Or, give me the child *with* its gloves, Or, John went *with* the child for its gloves.

With is also used in the instrumental section; as, "*with a cane.*" The instrumental character of *with*, has been derived from the

* Beware ye of the leaven of the Pharisees.
That is: *because* of the leaven.

fact that it formerly was the name of the sapling under its instrumental relation to the stakes. *With*, then, sustains two characters —*conjunctive* and *instrumental*. The first is derived from the *act* performed with the thing of which *with* was the name. The second is derived from the *relation* of this thing to the stakes themselves.

Rule VI.

When the thing in the insentensic section is taken from that in the sentensic, the section in which *without*, *but*, *except*, *save* or *besides* occurs, is detractive.

EXERCISES.

1. [He went] (*without me.*)
2. [He still remains] (*without hope.*)
3. [He stood] (*without company*), (*without the gate.*)
4. [He brought the horse] (*without the gig.*)
5. [All went] (*but him.*)
6. [I will give (, you) all the books] (*except one.*)
7. [He suffered none to go] (*save John and James.*)
8. [There were three men lost] (*besides John.*)

That is—even without John, there were three.
There are six besides me.
That is—when I am taken from the number, there are six.
There are six without me.

Rule VII.

When the noun denotes the actual performer of the action, the section in which *of* or *by* occurs, is active.

EXERCISES.

1. [Every good man is taught] (*of God.*)
2. [He was despised] (*of men.*)
3. [He was called] (*of the Spirit.*)

REMARK.

Where one is not the real doer of the act, but is merely instrumental in having it done by another, the section is not active, but instrumental; as, [*Many houses have been built*] (*by Stephen Girard.*)
That is, he superintended the labourers who were the real actors or builders.
But when it is meant that Stephen Girard himself performed the labour, the section is *active;* as, [this house was built] (*by Stephen Girard*) without the aid of any person.

The same remarks which are here made in reference to the section in which *by* is used, apply to that in which *of* is employed; as, [he was led up] (*of the spirit.*)

The meaning here expressed is obviously this; the spirit was *instrumental*, inasmuch as he tempted our Saviour to *go* up into the mountain.

But if the meaning was that the spirit actually carried our Saviour up into the mountain as a person might carry or lead a child, then the section, "*of the spirit*," would be *active*.

The meaning is evidently that, Christ went up into the mountain through the temptation which was offered by the spirit.

Rule VIII.

Where *as* or *for* introduces an insentensic section to show the character, calling or rank of a person or thing in a superior section, the section is characteristic.

EXERCISES.

1. [Let her go] *(for a wretch.)*
2. [I address you] (*as his friend.*
3. [As John listed] (*as a soldier,*) (he went) (into the field) (of blood.)
4. [I meet you] (*as a friend.*)
5. [I used this stick] (*as a pen.*)
6. [John came] (*as a prophet.*)

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES.

1. (By grace) [are ye saved] (, ,) (through faith.)

2. [For we know that] (if our earthly house (of this tabernacle) was dissolved,) (we have a building) (, , ,) (*of God,*) (, , an house) (, , not made) (with hands,) (, , , eternal) (in the heavens.)—2 *Cor.* v. 1.

2. [For we walk] (by faith;) (, , , not ,) (by sight.)—2 *Cor.* v. 7.

4. [Wherefore we labour] (that (whether , , present or absent), we may be accepted) (of him.)—2 *Cor.* v. 9.

5. [The chief captain commanded him to be brought (into the temple,) and that] (he should be examined) (by scourging.)—*Acts* xxii. 28.

6. [And the chief captain answered,] (with a great sum,) (obtained I this freedom.)—*Acts* xxii. 24.

7. [And as (they bound him) (with thongs,) Paul said] (unto the Centurion) (that stood) (by ,), (is it lawful) (for you to scourge a man) (that is a Roman,) (and , , uncondemned.)—*Acts* xxii. 25.

["Wheresoever this Gospel shall be preached] (in the whole world) (there shall also this , (that this woman hath done) be told) (for a memorial) (of her.")—*Matt.* xxvi. 13.

[But he (that entereth in) (by the door) is the shepherd] (of the sheep.)—*John* x. 2.

("If this man was not) (of God,) [he could do nothing."]—*John* ix. 33.

(Verily verily, [I say] (unto you,) He (that entereth not) (by the door) (into the sheepfold,) (but , climbeth up) (- , some other way,) the same is a thief and a robber.")—*John* x. 1.

For further exercises, see page 22.

PART IV.

PROSODY.

Prosody is that part of Grammar which divides a book into its several parts by certain fixed characters, and which teaches pronunciation, accent, quantity, emphasis, pause, tone and poetic measure with the figures of speech.

PUNCTUATION.

Punctuation is the art of dividing a book into its several parts, and of expressing or denying a relation between those two which stand together on the paper.

As a house is divided into several rooms or compartments, so is a book divided into several relative parts.

The following Characters divide a Book into Parts, and express the kind and degree of Relation, that the Parts bear to one another:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
-	,	;	:	.	?	!	—	( )	ʌ	¶	§	" "	[ ]

15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27
☞	{	—	′	ˋ	˘	—	..	*	†	‡	‖	***

1	2	3	4	5	6
Hyphen.	*Comma.*	*Semicolon.*	*Colon.*	*Period.*	*Interrogation.*
7	8	9	10	11	12
Exclamation.	*Dash.*	*Parenthesis.*	*Caret.*	*Paragraph.*	*Section.*
13	14	15	16	17	18
Quotation.	*Brackets.*	*Index.*	*Brace.*	*Ellipsis.*	*Acute accent.*
19	20	21	22	23	24
Grave accent.	*Breve.*	*Dash.*	*Diæresis.*	*Asterisk.*	*Obelisk.*
25	26	27			
Double dagger.	*Parallel.*	*Asterisks.*			

Rule I.

The *Hyphen* (-) intimates that the rest of the word begins the next line, connects compound words, and occasionally divides words into syllables; as, Gram-mar, Tea-pot, Con-tem-pla-tion.

2. comma.

1. The comma is employed to mark the omission of a word or section.
2. It is used to deny the relation of one word or one section to another.
3. It is used to mark some irregularity in the position of a word or a sentence.
4. It is often used merely to mark a pause.

Observation I.

When the words of a section which stand together, are not connected in *construction* and *sense*, the want of this relation *may* in all instances, be expressed by a comma; as, "The, good, old man."

As *the* is added to *man*, it has no relation with *good*—hence a comma *may* be placed after *the*.

As *good* is added to *man*, it has no relation with *old;* hence a comma *may* be placed after *good*. But as *old* is added to *man*, a comma should not be placed after it.

Observation II.

When the nature of the case permits the words of the same section to connect themselves contrary to the author's intention, the *obtrusive* relation *must* be denied by a comma; as,

1. I saw the very, old man.
2. John, James went to church.

3. A certain man planted a vineyard, and set a hedge, and digged a place, and built a tower, and let it out, and went.

As *saw* is added to *I*, a comma must not be put before it, and as from the nature of the case, *saw* and *the* can have no relation, there is no necessity for a comma between them. Yet a comma *may* be put between these words, for one holds no relation with the other; as,

I saw, the very, good, old man.

But it may be said that the comma after *saw*, may cut off *saw's* relation from *man*. Of this, there can be no danger, for a comma exerts no influence *beyond* the two words or two sections between which it is placed.

As there is no relation between *the* and *very*, a comma *may* be put after *the*—but, as the nature of the case is a sure preventive against any obtrusive relation between these adjectives, there is no necessity for a comma. As the nature of the case favours an obtrusive relation between *very* and *good*, a comma *must* be used as a preventive against it. For we have taken it as conceded that the writer's intention is, not to increase the *goodness* by adding *very* to *good*, but to point out identity by adding *very* to *man*; as,

"I saw the *very* man whom you saw."

2. "John, James went to church."

The nature of this case is favourable to an obtrusive relation—for nothing is more natural than for the word, *John*, to cleave to the word, *James;* as,

John James went to church.

What James went? *John* James.

The comma, therefore, *must* be used after *John;* or an unintended relation obtrudes, and destroys the address which the writer wishes to make.

3. "A certain man planted a vineyard, and set a hedge, and digged a place, and built a tower, and let it out, and went.

1. *Where the Commas may be put.*

1. A, certain man planted, a vineyard, and set, a hedge, and digged, a place, and built, a tower, and let it, out, and went.

2. *Where the Commas should be put.*

2. A certain man planted a vineyard, and set a hedge, and digged a place, and built a tower, and let it out, and went.

Each comma is put between parts of speech, which are very often related one to the other; and as these parts are not related here, and as the sense is not sufficiently clear to teach many readers this want of connexion, the comma is important. That *and* and *vineyard* are not related is evident to the *grammarian*, from the fact that, *and* subjoins *set*, not to *vineyard*, but to *planted*.

But for the sake of him who is not skilled in grammar, the danger of obscurity without the comma, seems to demand its use.

In the first of the following sentences no comma can be used. In the second, one may be used—

1. Man lives and grows and dies and *lives* again.
2. Man lives and grows old, and dies and *lives* again.

As *old* refers to *grows*, no comma can be admitted between *old* and *grows;* but as *and* and *old* have no connexion one with the other, a comma may be put between them.

Observation III.

When the sections of a sentence, which stand together, are not connected in *sense* and *construction*, the want of this relation may be expressed by a comma; as, He walked with me, with his cane, to the ship, from his house.

Here the subject is so clear that no comma is necessary—yet as no minor section refers to another minor section, three commas are admissible. But between the major and the first minor section, a comma can not be used—for *with me* is as closely connected with *He walked*, as the ear is with the head.

Observation IV.

When the nature of the case *permits* the sections of a sentence to connect themselves *contrary* to the writer's intention, this obtrusive relation must be denied by a comma; as,

1. I eat a piece of an apple, *which he gave* me.
2. Send me twenty men that I have designated, *from the company*.
3. He began, by parables to speak unto them.

Now, it is as possible and as probable that I should eat a whole apple as it is that I should eat a mere part of one. As the nature of the case, then, is not a rule of decision, we must resort to other means for deciding whether I eat a *piece* of an apple, or a *whole* one. And, as where neither the *nature* of the subject, nor the *punctuation* decides, the *approximate* or local relation must, it is obvious that unless the comma is inserted between the sections, (*of an apple*,) and (*which he gave*,) I assert, whether I intend to or not, that I eat the *whole apple*—

I eat a piece *of an apple which he gave* me.

Now, "*which he gave*" is an inferior section, and, as where neither the *sense* nor punctuation prevents, we have a right to presume that the writer has followed this general and natural principle, "*place every inferior member as near its own superior as the nature of the construction and subject will permit*," we are justified in saying that the Close Reading of "*which he gave*," gives "*which he gave*" a direct relation with "*of an apple*."

"Of an apple *which he gave*."

But when the nature of the case or punctuation acts as a preventive against referring the inferior section to the nearest one as its superior, the same sections, printed in the same order, may make a very different sentence in point of fact; as,

I eat a piece of an apple, *which he gave me.*
Close Reading—I eat a piece *which he gave me.*

Rule II.

Where the nature of the case favours a wrong relation, contiguous words or contiguous sections must be separated by a comma; as, Send me twenty men that I have designated, *from the company*, Send me twenty men from the company, *that I have designated*, I saw the *very*, *old* man whom you called.

The comma in the first example, is used to prevent an instantaneous connexion which the mind might form without it, between the sections, "*I have designated*" and "*from the company.*" This obtrusive relation being denied by the comma after *designated*, the mind refers the inferior section, "*from* the *company*," immediately to the major section—

[Send twenty men] *(from the company.)*

In the second sentence, the comma is put after *company*, to prevent the mind from connecting *(that I have designated)* with *(from the company.)*

EXERCISES ON THE COMMA.

QUESTIONS.

Does the first sentence *demand* a comma to render the writer's intention clear?
Does the second sentence require a comma?
Does the third?
Does the fourth?
Does the fifth?
Does the sixth?
Did he read the books or the titles?

1. The titles of books which comprise two or more words, are nouns.

2. I eat the piece of an apple which he gave me.

3. I took this note from the page of his book which publishes it to the world.

4. I took this note from the very page of that book which presents it.

5. I saw the titles of books which he read over.

6. He gave me the titles of the books which he read to my brother.

He studies *diligently*, and, *certainly* makes great progress.

Why are the commas employed in this sentence?

To separate *and* from *diligently* and *certainly*. *And* subjoins *makes* to *studies*—He *studies* and *makes* rapid progress.

The foundation is vast and solid—*and*, though it has been hastily laid, *it is durable.*

Why is the comma put after *and?*

To show that *and* has no connexion with the intervening section. *And* begins a section, which, "*though it has been hastily laid*" interrupts.

The sentence without this interruption would require no comma; as,

The foundation is vast and solid—*and it is durable;* though it has been hastily laid.

"We have, *within ourselves*, all the elements of national greatness."

Why are *two* commas used?

For no good reason—one is sufficient—and neither is absolutely necessary.

1. We have *within ourselves*, all the elements of national greatness.

2. We have *within ourselves* all the elements of national greatness.

3. We have all the elements of national greatness *within ourselves.*

Observation I.

When the inferior section is placed before its superior, the comma *may* be used; as, *When the child re-*

turns, the parents will rejoice, He began, *by parables* to speak unto them.

Observation II.

Generally, when a word or section is omitted, the omission should be marked by a comma; as, He teaches the Latin, and the Greek language.

But if *Latin* and *Greek* are taken as nouns, the comma should be omitted; as,

He teaches the Latin and Greek.

Observation III.

Couplets should be separated; as, *Truth is fair and artless, simple and sincere, uniform and consistent.*

Observation IV.

Commas may be used to denote a pause; as, Every leaf, and every twig, teem with life.

Observations.

Before attempting to say any thing definite upon the semicolon, colon and period, it may be proper to make a few remarks upon those relations which these characters express. It is not expected, however, that these remarks, brief and crude as they are, will do any thing more than throw the mind of the pupil into a thoughtful posture upon this subject.

A book is a series of writing or printing, founded on a mass of kindred things. The entire mass is divided into lesser masses, and these again into lesser still; and so on until we come down to individuals, the constituent parts of the least mass in the grand one.

The first divisions of the entire mass, are represented by chapters; the second, by paragraphs; the third, by sentences; and the fourth, by the sections or clauses of a sentence.

That part of the entire mass, which forms the subject of this note, is the mass of which a sentence is predicated.

To know what, or how much is comprised in this mass, a little attention must be given to the relations which connect the individuals in it.

There are three kinds of relation, which bring things into this part of the grand mass; and these relations are the boundaries or limits of a sentence. The relations are the *constituent*, the *incidental*, and *suggestive*.

The constituent. Whatever has a being, either in fancy or reality, exists under the character of grand, major, and minor whole. The whole, with all its minute properties, is the grand one; as, A

man. The principal or primary whole in the grand one, is the major: as, The body or trunk. The secondary wholes are the minors: as, The arm, hand, finger.

The major whole is the basis on which the minors are erected, and the bearing which the major and minors have on each other, in constituting the grand whole, is the constituent relation. This relation is close and deep, and justifies the including of the wholes between which it is found, in the same sentence.

An example. The fingers of the hand of the arm of the body of that man, are strong.

It is next to be shown in what way two or more grand wholes become so related that each can be treated of in the same sentence. The major and minor wholes derive their relation from their entering into, and constituting the grand whole. And the grand one derives the relation which it has with the major and minors, from being constituted by them. But the grand wholes are distinct in their creation. They do not form a part of each other: a man is a grand whole: and it is easy to see that the parts or different wholes of which he is made up, have such a relation as requires *all* the parts, spoken of, to be brought within the same sentence.

But now two *grand* wholes, (for instance two men) can be included in the same sentence, is yet to be discussed. To treat of two or more grand wholes, in the same sentence, which have no relation, is in no way warrantable. The force of this position will be felt from the following attempt:—

Ships move John is a pupil I am here New York market is much improved.

The grand wholes are brought to bear upon each other, through the incidents or circumstances which constantly attend them: such as interest, arising in various ways; location, instrumentality, cause, effect, association, &c.

These bearings are styled incidental; and the relation which they produce, though not so close as the constituent, justifies the including of the grand wholes between which it is found, in the same sentence.

The following sentence comprises four grand wholes, and presents three incidents which produce a relation between them. The words, representing the wholes, begin with capitals; those, marking the incidents, are in italic.

The Eagle flew *from* the Pine, *over* the Beech, *to* the Oak.

The suggestive relation is not so close as either of the others. But even this is not very often so slight that the things between which it is found, can be treated of in distinct sentences.

This relation arises from a variety of causes, and much in the way, signified by its name. First, it arises from a known capacity in one, to supply or give what the condition of another demands: as,

I am needy: Howard is benevolent: The lads are cold: yonder is a fire.

Secondly, the suggestive relation is derived from a resemblance, either in situation, quality or disposition; as,

As wood is to fire; so is a contentious man to the production of strife. He is rich; so am I.

The third cause of the suggestive relation is a contrary extreme or striking difference: as,

They are rich; but we are poor. He is good; and, although we have his example, yet we are bad.

The next branch of this note treats of the descent of sentences—Sentences are productive. This generative or productive power arises from the relations which the things treated of in one sentence have with other things. There is a relation; but it is not so *close* as to justify the including of *all* in the *same* sentence. Hence, the first sentence gives rise to the second, the second to the third, and the third to the fourth. The addition of sentences is continued in this manner as long as the relation of the things which the writer has in view, is *direct*. But whenever the relation between them becomes *indirect;* or in other words, whenever the writer turns aside to include something not *immediately* related to what has gone before, the line of descent between sentences ceases, and that between paragraphs commences. That is, as soon as the relation becomes *indirect*, one *sentence* no longer produces another *sentence;* but one *paragraph* produces another *paragraph*.

There are six kinds of relation which should be observed in dividing a book or a discourse into its several parts. Three of the six have already been explained; namely, the constituent, incidental and suggestive.

The others remain for present discussion. They are styled direct, partially direct and indirect.

The direct relation is an immediate bearing or connexion, though it may be slight, of *all* the things in view.

An example. Samuel Booth is a ship-owner, and resides near the finest harbour in the world. Of this person, my father purchased that schooner.

The partially direct is a *direct* relation between only some of the things in view.

An example. Nathaniel Booth is a ship-owner, and resides near the finest harbour in the world.

My father is Samuel Pollard; and he purchased that schooner of Mr. Booth.

The fact that "Samuel Pollard is my father," has no *direct* bearing on the fact that "Nathaniel Booth is a ship-owner, and resides near the finest harbour in the world."

But the fact that Samuel Pollard is my father, has a direct bearing on the fact that he purchased this schooner of Mr. Booth.

This relation is denoted by an indented position of the sentence.

The *partially* direct relation is good ground for a new paragraph.

The first of the following exhibitions of the preceding instances, includes both examples in the same paragraph. But the second exhibition makes two paragraphs—

Nathaniel Booth is a ship-owner, and resides near the finest harbour in the world. And my father purchased that schooner of him.

Nathaniel Booth is a ship-owner, and resides near the finest harbor in the world.

Samuel Pollard is my father; and he purchased that schooner of Mr. Booth.

The indirect relation is that which takes place when the things treated of, have a remote bearing on those which precede them.

For instance: Things disconnected in themselves, may receive a slight bearing on each other, from relating to the *same* person. Thus a man's deeds in public, and his transactions in private, may have a remote relation on the ground that both the public, and private scenes relate, not to each other, but to the *same* person.

The indirect relation is authority for the commencement of a new chapter. Thus end the gradations of the relation, existing between the kindred masses which constitute the grand mass or entire book.

The semicolon (;) sustains no negative character. It is the province of this point to denote that the relation, existing between the sections where it is placed, is one degree in closeness or depth, less than that denied by the comma (,).

The highest or first degree in relation, is that which proceeds from a *close* incidental, or constituent bearing of the things which make the foundation of the sentence.

The second is that which originates from a medium incidental bearing, or from a close suggestive one; as,

The good will be happy; but the bad will be miserable.

The third is the result of a slight incidental or suggestive bearing. This degree is marked by a colon; as,

Nature felt her inability to extricate herself from the consequences of guilt: the gospel reveals the plan of divine interposition and aid.

The fourth degree in the closeness of the relation, comes from the most *slight* incidental bearing, existing among the minor masses of the entire mass on which the sentence is founded.

This relation is marked by the period (.) or interrogation point (?); as,

Nathaniel Booth is a ship-owner, and resides near the finest harbour in the world. And, of his friend, my father purchased this schooner.

The fifth degree comes from a bearing which is but partially direct. This is signified by the paragraph (¶), or by an indented position of the next sentence; as,

¶Nathaniel Booth is a ship-owner, and resides near the finest harbour in the world.
Samuel Pollard is my father, and he purchased this schooner of Mr. Booth.

Rule III.

The *relation* between the sections of a sentence, should be expressed by the colon or semicolon—

Crafty men contemn studies: simple men admire them: wise men use them.

Rule IV.

When the relation is quite slight, the sentence is closed, and the *Period* (.) is placed at the end.

Interrogation (?) is used when a question is asked.
Admiration or *Exclamation* (!) is used to express some emotion of the mind.
Dash (—) is used to denote abruptness—a significant pause—suspension of the sense—or that the *first* clause is *common* to all the rest.
Parenthesis ( ) is used to enclose some necessary remark in the body of another sentence:—Commas are sometimes used instead of Parentheses.
Apostrophe (') is used in place of a letter left out; as, lov'd, for loved.
Caret (ʌ) is used to show that some word is either omitted or interlined.
Paragraph (¶) is used at the commencement of a new paragraph.
Section (§) is used to divide a discourse or chapter into portions.
Quotation (" ") is used to show that a passage is quoted in the author's own words.
Crotchets or *Brackets* ([]) is to enclose a word or sentence which is to be explained in a note, or the explanation itself, or to correct a mistake, or supply some deficiency.
Index (☞) is used to point out any remarkable thing.

Brace { is used to connect words which have one common term, or three lines in poetry, having the *same* rhyme, called a triplet.

Ellipsis (——) is used when some letters are omitted; as, K——g, for king.

Acute accent (′) is used to denote a *short* syllable—the *grave* (`) a *long*.

Breve (˘) makes a *short* vowel or syllable; but the *dash* (–) a *long*.

Diæresis (¨) is used to divide a diphthong into two syllables; as aërial.

Asterisk (*) *Obelisk* (†) *Double dagger* (‡) *Parallel* (‖) and *small letters* and figures refer to some note on the margin or at the bottom of the page.

(* * *) Two or three asterisks denote the omission of some letters in some bold or indelicate expression.

OF CAPITALS.

1. The first word of every book, or any other piece of writing, must begin with a capital letter.
2. The first word after a period, and the answer to a question, must begin with capitals.
3. Partial nouns, that is, names of persons, places, ships, &c.
4. The pronoun *I*, and the interjection *O*, are written in capitals.
5. The first word of every line in poetry.
6. The appellation of the Deity; as, God, Most High, &c.
7. Adjectives derived from the proper names of places; as, Grecian, Roman, English, &c.
8. The first word of a quotation, introduced after a colon; as, Always remember this ancient maxim; "Know thyself."
9. Common nouns, when personified; as, Come, gentle *Spring*.

ACCENT.

Accent is the laying of a greater force on one syllable of a word than on another; as, sur*mount*.

The *quantity* of a syllable is that time which is occupied in pronouncing it. Quantity is either long or short; as, *Cōnsūme*.

Emphasis is a remarkable stress laid upon certain words in a sentence, to distinguish them from the rest, by making the meaning more apparent; as, Apply yourself more to *acquire* knowledge than to *show* it.*

A *pause* is either a total cessation, or a short suspension of the voice, during a perceptible space of time; as, Reading—makes a full man;—conference—a ready—man;—and writing—an exact—man.

Tone is a particular modulation or inflection of the voice, suited to the sense; as, How bright these glorious spirits shine!†

---

* *Emphasis* should be made rather by *suspending* the voice a little *after* the emphatic word, than by striking it very forcibly, which is disagreeable to a good ear. A very short pause *before* it, would render it still more emphatical; as, Reading makes a *full*—man.

† Accent and quantity respect the pronunciation of words; em-

VERSIFICATION.

Prose is language not restrained to harmonic sounds, or to a set number of syllables.

Verse or *poetry*, is language restrained to a certain number of long, and short syllables in every line.

Verse is of *two kinds;* namely, *rhyme* and *blank* verse. When the last syllable of every two lines has the same sound, it is called *rhyme;* but when this is not the case, it is called *blank verse.*

*Feet** are parts into which a verse is divided, to see whether it has its just number of syllables.

Scanning is the measuring or dividing of a verse† into the several feet of which it is composed.

All feet consist either of *two* or *three* syllables, and are reducible to eight kinds; four of two syllables, and four of three, as follows:

Dissyllables.	*Trisyllables.*
A trōchēe; as, lōvely‡	A dactyl; as prōbably
An īambus; bĕcāme	An amphibrach: dōmēstic
A spondee; vāin mān	An anapaēst; mĭsĭmprove
A pyrrhic; ŏn ă (bank)	A tribrach; (com)fŏrtably

The feet in most common use are Iambic, Trochāic and Anapaestic.

IAMBIC MEASURE.

Iambic measure is adapted to serious subjects, and comprises verses of several kinds; such as,

1. *Of four syllables, or two feet; as,*

Wĭth rāv-ĭsh'd ēars,
Thĕ mōn-ărch hēars.

It sometimes has an additional short syllable, making what is called a double ending; as,

Upōn a mōūn-*tăĭn.*
Bĕsīde-ă fōūn-*tăĭn.*

2. *Of three iambics, or six syllables; as,*

Alōft - ĭn ăw-fŭl stāte,
Thĕ gōd - lĭke hē-rŏ săt.

Oūr heārts-nŏ lōng-ĕr lān-*guish.* An additional syllable.

3. *Of eight syllables, or four iambic feet; as,*

And māy - ăt lāst - m*y* wēa-r*y* āge,
Fĭnd ōūt - thĕ pēace-fŭl hēr-mĭtāge.

---

phasis and pause the meaning of the sentence, while *tone* refers to the feeling of the speaker.

* So called from the resemblance which the movement of the tongue, in reading verse, bears to the motion of the feet in walking.

† A single line is called a verse. In *rhyme*, two lines are called a *couplet;* and three ending with the same sound, a *triplet.*

‡ The *marks* over the vowels show, that a *trochee* consists of a *long* and a *short* syllable, i. e. the first syllable is *accented*, and the last *unaccented.* The *iambic* has the first syllable short, and the last long, &c.

4. *Of ten syllables, or five feet; called hexameter, heroic or tragic verse; as,*

Thĕ stārs - shăll fāde ăwāy, - thĕ sūn hĭmsĕlf
Grŏw dĭm - wĭth āge, - ănd nā-tūre sĭnk - ĭn yēars.

Sometimes the last line of a couplet is stretched out to twelve syllables, or six feet, and then it is called an Alexandrine verse; as

Fŏr thēē - thĕ lānd - ĭn frā-grănt flōw'rs - is drēst:
Fŏr thēē - thĕ ō-ceăn smīles, - ănd smōōths - hĕr wā-*vy* brēast.

5. *Of verses containing alternately four, and three feet; this is the measure commonly used in psalms and hymns; as,*

Lĕt sāints - bĕlōw, wĭth swēēt - ăccōrd,
Unīte - wĭth thōse - ăbōve,
In sōl-ĕmn lāys, - tŏ prāise - thĕir kĭng,
And sĭng-hĭs *dy*-ĭng lōve.

Verses of this kind were anciently written in two lines, each containing fourteen syllables.

TROCHAIC MEASURE.

This measure is quick and lively, and comprises verses.

Some of one trochee, and a long syllable, and some of two trochees; as,

Tūmŭlt - cēase,	On thĕ - mōūntaĭn,
Sĭnk tŏ - pēace.	By ă - fōūntaĭn.

2. *Of two feet or two trochees, with an additional long syllable; as,*

In thĕ - dāys ŏf – ōld,
Stōriĕs - plāinly – tōld.

3. *Of three trochees, or three, and an additional long syllable; as,*

Whēn ŏur - heārts ăre - mōurnĭng,
Lōvely - lāstĭng - pēace ŏf -- mīnd,
Swēēt dĕ-lĭght ŏf - hūmăn - kĭnd.

4. *Of four trochees or eight syllables; as,*

Nōw thĕ - drēadfŭl - thūndĕr's - rōarĭng!

5. *Of six trochees or twelve syllables; as,*

On ă - mōūntaĭn, - strētch'd bĕ - nēath ă - hōary - wīllŏw,
Lāy ă - shēphĕrd - swāin, ănd - viēw'd thĕ - rōllĭng - bīllŏw.

Those trochaic measures that are very uncommon, have been omitted.

ANAPAESTIC MEASURE.

1. *Of two anapaests, or two and an unaccented syllable; as,*

Bŭt hĭs coūr-ăge 'găn fāil,
Fŏr nŏ ārts coŭld āvāil.

Or, Then his cour-age 'gan fail -- hĭm,
For no arts - could avail -- hĭm.

2. *Of three anapaests, or nine syllables; as,*

O yĕ wōōds - spрĕad yoŭr brānch-ĕs ăpāce,
Tŏ yŏur dēēp-ĕst rĕcēss-ĕs I *fly*;
I wŏuld hīde with thĕ bēasts, ŏf thĕ chāse,
I wŏuld vān-ĭsh from ēvĕr*y* eye.

Sometimes a syllable is retrenched from the first foot; as,

Yĕ shēp-hĕrds sŏ chēēr-fŭl ănd gāy,
Whŏse flōcks - nĕvĕr cāre-lĕssly rōam.

3. *Of four anapaests, or twelve syllables; as,*

'Tĭs thĕ vōĭce - ŏf thĕ slūg-gărd; I hēar hĭm complāin,
Yŏu hăve wāk'd - mĕ toŏ sōōn, - I mŭst slūm-bĕr ăgāin.

Sometimes an additional short syllable is found at the end; as,

On thĕ wărm chĕek ŏf yoūth, - smĭles ănd rōs-ĕs ăre blĕnd-*ing*.

The preceding are the different kinds of the *principal** feet, in their more simple forms; but they are susceptible of numerous variations, by mixing them with one another, and with the *secondary* feet. The following lines may serve as an example:—

Spon. *Amph.* *Dact.* *Iam.*
Tīme shākes - thĕ stāblĕ - tyrănny - ŏf thrōnes, &c.
Whēre ĭs - tŏ-mōrrŏw? - ĭn ănōth-ĕr wōrld.
Shē āll - nīght lōng - hĕr ām-ŏroŭs dēs-cănt sūng.
Innū-mĕrăblĕ - bĕfōre - th' Almīghty's thrōne.
Thăt ōn - wēak wīngs - frŏm fār - pūrsŭes - yoŭr flīght.

FIGURES OF SPEECH.

A *Figure of Speech* is a mode of speaking, in which a word or sentence is to be understood in a sense different from its most common and literal meaning.

The principal Figures of Speech are,

Personification,	Sy-nec'do-chē,
Similē,	Antithesis,
Metaphor,	Climax,
Allegory,	Exclamation,
Hy-per'bō-lē,	Interrogation,
Irony,	Apostrophē,
Metonomy,	Pleonasm.

Prosopopœia, or *Personification*, is that figure of speech by which we attribute life and action to inanimate objects; as, *The sea saw it and fled.*

A *similĕ* expresses the resemblance that one object bears to another; as, *He shall be* like *a tree planted by the rivers of water.*

A *metaphor* is a simile without the *sign*, (like, or as, &c.) of comparison; as, *He shall be a tree planted by, &c.*

An *allegory* is a continuation of several metaphors, so connected in sense, as to form a kind of parable or fable; thus, The people of Israel are represented under the image of a vine; *Thou hast brought a vine out of Egypt, &c.* Ps. lxxx. 8 to 17.

An *hypĕr'bolē* is a figure that represents things as greater or less, better or worse, than they really are; as, When David says of Saul and Jonathan, *They were swifter than eagles, they were stronger than lions.*

---

* *Iambus, trochee,* and *anapaest,* may be denominated *principal* feet: because pieces of poetry may be wholly, or chiefly formed of any of them. The others may be termed *secondary* feet; because their chief use is to diversify the numbers and to improve the verses.

Irony is a figure by which we mean quite the contrary of what we say; as, When Elijah said to the worshippers of Baal; *Cry aloud, for he is a god, &c.*

Metonomy is the substitution of one word for another by a figure of speech; as, He died by the *steel*, The *kettle* boils, The *house* has come to order.

Synecdoche is the putting of a part for the whole, or the whole for a part; as, A *man* should be just.

Antithesis is a figure of speech which presents one thing in contrast with another; as, Think ye that he would desire his brother to *live* and yet administer poison?

Climax is a figure of speech which carries us regularly up to the highest point of the subject; as, The boy despises the infant; the man, the boy; the philosopher, the man; and the christian, all!

Exclamation is a figure of speech expressive of some sudden or strong emotion; as, *O Liberty*, thou wast once delightful to every Swiss!

Interrogation is a figure of speech in which we boldly and forcibly declare or deny in the form of an interrogation; as, Am I not free? Can the blind see?

Apostrophe is a figure of speech in which we address things and absent persons; as, O, balmy *sleep*, thou like the world, thy ready visit pay'st, where fortune smiles.

Pleonasm is a figure of speech by which more words are used than are necessary for the expression of the ideas; as, He returned *back*.

APPENDIX TO SENTENSICS.

Sentensics are *regular*, *irregular* and *common*.

1. The sentensic which forms its perfect tense by affixing *d* to *e*, or *ed* to the present tense, is regular; as, move, move*d*: laugh, laugh*ed*.

2. The sentensic which forms its perfect tense, in any way which differs from the *regular* method, is irregular, as, is, *was*, go, *went*.

3. The sentensic which forms its perfect tense in the regular, and in some irregular way also, is common; as, bend, bend*ed*, or bent, *bent*.

1. The *pure* conjunctive form belongs only to those sentensics which have three tense variations; or more properly speaking, which have a conjunctive form in addition to two tense ones; as, write, wrote, *written*.

2. The *impure* conjunctive form belongs exclusively to those sentensics which have no conjunctive form but their *present*, or *perfect* tense; as, *put*, *walked*.—(See p. 71.)

FIRST CLASS OF IRREGULAR SENTENSICS.

Univocal kind.

Away	Burst	Dispread	Lo
Beset	Cast	Forecast	Must

Bet	Chat	Hit	Off
Beware	Cost	Hurt	Ought
Bespread	Cut	Let	Put
Rid	Shut	Thrust	Wist
Set	Split	Up	Wit
Shed	Spread	We	Wot
Shred	Sweat		

SECOND CLASS OF IRREGULAR SENTENSICS.

Duplicate kind.

Present Tense.	*Perfect Tense.*	*Present Tense.*	*Perfect Tense.*
Abide	abode*	Ride	rode
Behold	beheld	Say	said
Beseech	besought	Seek	sought
Bind	bound	Sell	sold
Bleed	bled	Send	sent
Breed	bred	Shoe	shod
Bring	brought	Shoot	shot
Buy	bought	Shrink	shrunk
Feed	fed	Sink	sunk
Feel	felt	Sit	sat
Fight	fought	Sleep	slept
Find	found	Sling	slung
Flee	fled	Slink	slunk
Fling	flung	Speed	sped
Get	got	Spend	spent
Grind	ground	Spin	spun
Have	had	Spring	sprung
Hear	heard	Stand	stood
Hold	held	Stick	stuck
Keep	kept	Sting	stung
Lay	laid	Stink	stunk
Lead	led	String	strung
Leave	left	Sweep	swept
Lend	lent	Swing	swung
Lose	lost	Teach	taught
Make	made	Tell	told
Mean	meant	Think	thought
Meet	met	Weep	wept
Pay	paid	Win	won
Read	read	Wind	wound
Rend	rent	Wring	wrung.

* *The sentensics of this class have the impure conjunctive form.*

THIRD CLASS OF IRREGULAR INSENTENSICS.

Triplicate kind.

These have the pure conjunctive form.

Present.	*Perfect.*	*Pure conj. form.*
Am	was	*has* been
Are	were	*has* been
Arise	arose	*had* arisen
Art	wast	*have* been
Awake	awoke	*hath* awaken
Bear (*to carry*)	bore	*is* borne
Bear (*to bring forth*)	bare	*was* born
Begin	began	*had* begun
Be	was	*has* been
Blow	blew	*hath* blown
Break	broke	*had* broken
Choose	chose	*have* chosen
Come	came	*hath* come
Do	did	*was* done
Draw	drew	*have* drawn
Drive	drove	*has* driven
Drink	drank	*has* drunk
Fall	fell	*have* fallen
Fly	flew	*had* flown
Forbear	forebore	*had* foreborne
Forsake	forsook	*had* forsaken
Freeze	froze	*had* frozen
Give	gave	*have* given
Go	went	*have* gone
Grow	grew	*have* grown
Know	knew	*has* known
Is	was	*has* been
Lade	laden	*was* laden
Lie	lay	*has* lain
Partake	partook	*have* partaken
Rise	rose	*have* risen
Run	ran	*have* run
See	saw	*have* seen
Shake	shook	*have* shaken
Slay	slew	*have* slain
Slide	slid	*have* slidden
Smite	smote	*have* smitten

Speak	spake	*had* spoken
Steal	stole	*had* stolen
Stride	strode	*have* stridden
Strive	strove	*have* striven
Swear	swore	*have* sworn
Take	took	*is* taken
Tear	tore	*was* torn
Throw	threw	*art* thrown
Tread	trod	*are* trodden
Wear	wore	*am* worn
Weave	wove	*were* woven
Write	wrote	*has* written

FOURTH CLASS OF IRREGULAR SENTENSICS.

Optional kind.

As the pure conjunctive form of the sentensics of this class, has begun to grow obsolescent, it is optional with the writer and speaker to use this form after *be* and *have*, or the imperfect tense, which, in the absence of the *pure conjunctive*, becomes the impure conjunctive form of these words; as, I have *chid*, or I have *chidden*.

Beat	beat	*have* beaten, beat
Bid	bade, bid	*have* bidden, bid
Bite	bit	*have* bitten, bit
Cleave (*to split*)	clove, cleft	*have* cleft, cloven
Chide	chid	*have* chidden, chid
Eat	eat, ate	*have* eaten
Forbid	forbade, forbid	*have* forbidden, forbid
Forget	forgot	*is* forgotten, forgot
Hide	hid,	*was* hidden, hid
Ring	rang, rung	*had* rung
Sing	sang, sung	*are* sung
Spit	spat, spit	*have* spitten, spat
Spring	sprang, sprung	*is* sprung
Strike	struck	*art* struck, stricken
Swim	swam, swum	*has* swum.

FIFTH CLASS OF SENTENSICS.

Second class of the optional kind.

COMMON KIND.

They are both *regular* and *irregular*; as, I *built* a house, I *builded* a house.

Present tense.	*Perfect tense.*	*C. Form.*
Bend	bent	*is* bent

Bereave	bereft	*is* bereft
Build	built	*has* built
Catch	caught	caught
Clothe	clad	clad
Crow	crew	crowed
Dare	durst	dared*
Deal	dealt	dealt
Dig	dug	dug
Dwell	dwelt	dwelt
Engrave	engraved	engraven, *p. c.*
Gild	gilt	gilt
Gird	girt	girt
Grave	graved	graven *p. c.*
Hang	hanged	hanged†
Hew	hewed	hewn *p. c.*
Knit	knit	knit
Load	loaded	laden *p. c.*
Mow	mowed	mown *p. c.*
Quit	quit	quit
Rive	rived	riven *p. c.*
Saw	sawed	sawn *p. c.*
Shape	shaped	shapen *p. c.*
Shave	shaved	shaven *p. c.*
Shear	sheared	shorn *p. c.*
Shine	shined	shone *p. c.*
Show	shew	shown *p. c.*
Slit	slit	slit
Sow	sowed	sown *p. c.*
Spill	spilt	spilt
Strow	strew	strown *p. c.*
Swell	swelled	swollen *p. c.*
Thrive	thrived	thriven *p. c.*
Wax	waxed	waxen *p. c.*
Work	wrought	wrought
Wring	wrung	wrung

* *Dare*, to challenge, is always regular.

† *Hang*, to take away life by hanging, is regular; as, the robber was *hanged*: but the gown was *hung* up.

THE END.