"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.
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 "Divisions 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 author-
ity of great names; yet, as philosophers and moralists,
thelogians and politicians have resorted to the op-
inions, and concurrent testimony of distinguished indi-
viduals 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 ex-
pressed 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.
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.
Charles Spaulding, Principal of Union Academy, New Brunswick,
New Jersey.
L. S. Lownsbury, Principal of Village Academy, New York.
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 Classi-
cal 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.
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, Barnard O. Cavanagh,
J. Butler, John M'Clasky,
John H. M'Caffery, Edward Sourin,
James Carny, Edward Collins,
Mathew Taylor, 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 progress: 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 ingenuous; 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!
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, office, 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, *robber*.

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, *Grammar*.

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 whom 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 fell 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. Disyllable,
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 sentencic 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.
7. This fact is very well known.
8. Greyish blue cloth.
9. Those fine, beautiful, young, straight trees.
11. I am most completely disappointed.
12. Dark, cold nights.
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
2 in the beginning;
3 and the word was
4 with God;
5 and the word was God.

Minor Sections

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 antecedce 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 antecedce 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 of the eye, indicate the corresponding affections."

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

Prepared thus,

The eyes are 4.
3 of a fool
4 in the ends 5.
5 of the earth.
"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
which is emphatically called the countenance, with an energy which is communicated to no animal but man.

The rapid extension may be considered a direct proof of the Christian religion through the principal nations of the world, of the reality of the miracles of our Saviour, and of the miraculous powers with which the apostles themselves were endowed.

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

His forehead is extremely small and low.

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

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

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

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

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

Their eyebrows are very thick and their skin is olive.
Laplanders and other persons generally have broad faces, and broken, sunken noses, who inhabit the northern parts of the globe.

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

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

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

The features and proportions differ very much from the Hottentots from those properties of the Negro.

I must not use another's book when I have one of my own. They accomodate one another daily.

Give thou another apple to James.

The interest is not so dear of another person to me as my own interest is. I claim this one for my own property as another's property.

This day suits my interest; another day may suit another's interest better 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 ano-
    ther'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.)

c 2
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.

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 lan-
guage?
I have been told that this language comprises about seventy
thousand.

Well, James, how many of these words do you sup-
pose are the signs or names of ideas?
Why, I have always thought that all, the whole seventy thou-
sand, 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 scanning 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
[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.
Coal black cloth.

Strikingly green trees.

This fact is very well known.

Greyish blue cloth.

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

How very fast James walks.

I am most completely disappointed.

Cold, dark nights.

Marble ware house.

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.

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.
We shall have learned our lessons.

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.

I have not written letters.

He would not learn his lesson.

He planted a vineyard, and set a hedge.

[He is a lad] (whom you may not know.)

Idle children will not learn their books.

This large book has been written long since.

These boys have not been writing their copies.

We have been laughing.

You have been walking.

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:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RADICALS.</th>
<th>DERIVATIVE WORDS.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nouns.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Adjectives.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>my, mine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We</td>
<td>our</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thou</td>
<td>thy, thine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>your</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ye</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>his</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She</td>
<td>her</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It</td>
<td>its</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>their</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who</td>
<td>whose, whosoever</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One</td>
<td>one, one's, ones'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>other, other's, others', others.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Another</td>
<td>another, another's</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Which</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>That</td>
<td>those</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This</td>
<td>these</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**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.*)

1 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.
An agreeable entertainment.

He has shown this fact.

We now proceed.

Your books have been published.

A cluttering articulation produces a bad pronunciation.

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

Ingratitude is a base crime.

It is heroism.

Admonish thou thy friend.

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

[Party is the madness] (of many persons) (for the gain)

(of a few persons.)

Shining characters may be impure.

The web is woven.

How far the little candle throws its beams.

[They should speak language accurately,] (who profess

to write it grammatically.)

The cloud capt towers.

[The ice-house is full] (of ice.)
The glow worm is well known.

He teaches grammar.

Congress-men frequently fight wind-mills.

He can not bear far-fetched figures.

What thing is the Aurora-borealis?

What thing is the Ignis-fatuus?

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,

\[ \text{John is a good boy, They have written letters.} \]

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.
It is heroism.

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.

How far the little candle throws its beams.

[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.

He teaches Grammar.

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

Congress-men frequently fight wind-mills.

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, cloud-capt, ice-house, 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 impartiality 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 PARSENG.

[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 or 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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Action</th>
<th>Object</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Charles</td>
<td>saw</td>
<td>hats</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John</td>
<td>tore</td>
<td>coats</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peter</td>
<td>made</td>
<td>shoes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Samuel</td>
<td>cut</td>
<td>apples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lucy</td>
<td>knits</td>
<td>mittens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sally</td>
<td>makes</td>
<td>clothes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Julia</td>
<td>studies</td>
<td>books</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harriet</td>
<td>has read</td>
<td>books</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men</td>
<td>built</td>
<td>temples</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 1. Sentensic pro nouns.

- I
- Thou
- He
- She
- They
- We
- Ye
- Who

#### 2. Insentensic pro nouns.

- Me
- Thee
- Him
- Her
- Them
- Us
- 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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>We</th>
<th>rep.</th>
<th>dared</th>
<th>him</th>
<th>rep.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>rep.</td>
<td>had heard</td>
<td>us</td>
<td>rep.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who</td>
<td>rep.</td>
<td>feel</td>
<td>them</td>
<td>rep.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>rep.</td>
<td>bade</td>
<td>thee</td>
<td>rep.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>rep.</td>
<td>saw</td>
<td>them</td>
<td>rep.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>rep.</td>
<td>thought</td>
<td>him</td>
<td>rep.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ye</td>
<td>rep.</td>
<td>call</td>
<td>us</td>
<td>rep.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ye</td>
<td>rep.</td>
<td>taught</td>
<td>whom</td>
<td>rep.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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.
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. Lamina. - - - æ.
3. Families. - - - ies.
4. Two dozens of quills. - - s.
5. Men. - - - c.
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, ies.

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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alms</td>
<td>Bellows</td>
<td>Deer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bread</td>
<td>Compasses</td>
<td>Sheep, &amp;c.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meat</td>
<td>Ethics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>News</td>
<td>Lungs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tobacco</td>
<td>Measles</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tresses</td>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tree</td>
<td>Metaphysics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trice</td>
<td>Means</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treble</td>
<td>Optics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nothing</td>
<td>Pains</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Politics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pneumatics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Riches</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Scissors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tongs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>Maid</td>
<td>Husband</td>
<td>Wife</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buck</td>
<td>Doe</td>
<td>King</td>
<td>Queen</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Genii, when denoting serial 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,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wizard</td>
<td>Witch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abbot</td>
<td>Abbess</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actor</td>
<td>Actress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrator</td>
<td>Administratrix</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Uncle</td>
<td>Aunt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Landgrave</td>
<td>Landgravine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lion</td>
<td>Lioness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marquis</td>
<td>Marchioness</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. By prefixing an adjective; as,

A man servant.  A maid servant.

**SPECIMEN OF PARSGING.**

["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 sentensis 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 sentencic—or it may not. In the first of the following instances, "*written*" is sentencic—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 sentencic adjectives in succession; as,

"he shall have been informed,"

the sentencic 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 sentencic from the possession of the sentencic power, but from the actual exercise of this power in forming the sentence character. *Have, been* and *informed* are sentencic, not from being actually engaged in the function of giving any assemblage of words the sentencic character, but from a capacity to act in this function whenever the exercise of their sentencic 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 insentencic 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 sentencic noun, third order, singular number, masculine gender.

*found*—is a sentencic adjective, referring to *John* and *book*. **Rule.**

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

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

*where*—is an insentencic adjective, referring to *found*. **Rule.**

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

*left*—is a sentencic adjective, referring to *he* and *it*. **Rule.**

*it*—is an insentencic pro noun, representing *book*, third order, singular number.
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 adjoined, a kind of mechanical affection which is clearly manifested in their inclination toward the part on which they rest. Hence this universal rule—

Every adjoined 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. 2. Insentensic pro nouns.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I</th>
<th>Me</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thou</td>
<td>Thee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>Him</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She</td>
<td>Her</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>Them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We</td>
<td>Us</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ye</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who</td>
<td>Whom</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
EXERCISES.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>We</th>
<th>rep.</th>
<th>dared</th>
<th>him</th>
<th>rep.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>rep.</td>
<td>had heard</td>
<td>us</td>
<td>rep.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who</td>
<td>rep.</td>
<td>feel</td>
<td>them</td>
<td>rep.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>rep.</td>
<td>bade</td>
<td>thee</td>
<td>rep.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>rep.</td>
<td>saw</td>
<td>them</td>
<td>rep.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>rep.</td>
<td>thought</td>
<td>him</td>
<td>rep.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ye</td>
<td>rep.</td>
<td>call</td>
<td>us</td>
<td>rep.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 reads Homer’s Iliad.
Men built Solomon’s temple.

TENSE.

Tense belongs to sentencic 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 sentencis 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 sentencis which distinctly mark future time.

**REGULAR AND IRREGULAR.**

Sentencis 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, loved, talk, talked.

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*—paid. 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, breded, holded, leaded, payed.

**CONJUNCTIVE FORM OF SENTENCES.**

The conjunctive form is that derivative modification which requires the word to be used in connexion with another sentence; 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 sentence noun for the plural, *are* is used instead of *am*, *art* and *is*; as,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sing.</th>
<th>Plu.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>I am.</em></td>
<td><em>We are.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thou <em>art.</em></td>
<td>Ye <em>are.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>He is.</em></td>
<td>They <em>are.</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*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,

\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text{Sing.} & \text{Plu.} \\
I \text{ was.} & \text{We were.} \\
\text{Thou wast.} & \text{Ye were.} \\
\text{He was.} & \text{They were.}
\end{array}
\]

**RULES.**

**Rule i.** For 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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sing.</th>
<th>Plu.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st or. I am</td>
<td>1st or. We are</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2d or. Thou art</td>
<td>2d or. You are</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3d or. He is</td>
<td>3d or. They are</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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


### Perfect Tense

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sing.</th>
<th>Plu.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I was</td>
<td>1. We were</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thou wast</td>
<td>2. Ye were</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. He was</td>
<td>3. They were</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


### Conjunctive Form

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sing.</th>
<th>Plu.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I have been</td>
<td>1. We have been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thou hast been</td>
<td>2. Ye have been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. He has been</td>
<td>3. They have been</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


### Prior Perfect Tense

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sing.</th>
<th>Plu.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I had been</td>
<td>1. We had been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thou hadst been</td>
<td>2. You had been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. She had been</td>
<td>3. They had been</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Conjunctive Form has ceased.

The tense belongs to will and shall.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sing.</th>
<th>Plu.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I will be</td>
<td>1. We will be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thou wilt be</td>
<td>2. Ye will be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. It will be</td>
<td>3. They will be</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sing.</th>
<th>Plu.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I shall be</td>
<td>1. We shall be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thou shalt be</td>
<td>2. Ye shall be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. She shall be</td>
<td>3. They shall be</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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.**

1. I shall have been
2. Thou wilt have been
3. She will have been

**Plu.**

1. We shall have been
2. You will have been
3. They will have been

**PRESENT TENSE.**

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

**Sing.**

1. If I am
2. If thou art
3. If he is

**Plu.**

1. If we are
2. If ye are
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 sentencic 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.**

1. If I was there
2. If thou wast
3. If she was

**Plu.**

1. If we were there
2. If ye were
3. If they were

**Elliptical Future Tense.**

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

**Sing.**

1. If I be
2. If thou be
3. If he be

**Plu.**

1. whether we be
2. unless ye be
3. 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.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sing.</th>
<th>Plu.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Be thou, or do thou be</td>
<td>2 Be ye or you, or do ye or you be.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

The impartial construction permits the sentencic adjective to refer to the insentencic as well as the sentencic noun; as, am punishing.

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

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

**PRESENT TENSE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sing.</th>
<th>Plu.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I see</td>
<td>1. We see</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thou seest</td>
<td>2. You see</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. He sees</td>
<td>3. They see</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PERFECT TENSE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sing.</th>
<th>Plu.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I saw</td>
<td>1. We saw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thou sawest</td>
<td>2. Ye saw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. He saw</td>
<td>3. They saw</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**IMPERFECT TENSE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sing.</th>
<th>Plu.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I have seen</td>
<td>1. We have seen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thou hast seen</td>
<td>2. You have seen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. He has seen</td>
<td>3. They have seen</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
IMPERFECT TENSE.

Partial Construction.

Sing.
1. I have been seen
2. Thou hast been seen
3. He has been seen

Plu.
1. We have been seen
2. You have been seen
3. They have been seen

Impartial Construction.

Sing.
1. I have been seeing
2. Thou hast been seeing
3. He has been seeing

Plu.
1. We have been seeing
2. You have 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, art, been.
4. Ring—ring, rang, rung.
5. Know—know, knew, known.
7. Drawn—draw, drew, drawn.
11. Leave—leave, left.
12. May—may, might.
15. Spill—spill, spilled.
16. Feel—feel, felt.
17. Send—send, sent.
18. Be—be, was, been.
19. Am—am, was, been.
20. Art—art, art, been.
22. Show—show, show, shown.
23. Love—love, loved.
24. Has—has, had.
26. Have—have, had.
27. Work—work, worked.
28. Will—will, would.
29. Shall—shall, should.
30. Can—can, could.
32. Be—be, was, been.
33. Am—am, was, been. 33. Was—is, was, been.
34. Art—are, was, been. 39. Were—are, were, been.
35. Is—is, was, been. 40. Do—do, did, done.
36. Are—are, were, been. 41. Done—do, did, done.
37. Been—be, was, been. 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 Sentencisic Adjective.

PREPARED EXERCISES.

Page 69 is a Key to these Exercises.

2. Is . . N 18. Be . A N
6. Go . . 22. Show . E N

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

The following sentensics have no tense variations—hence defective.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Away</th>
<th>Forecast</th>
<th>Shred</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beset</td>
<td>Hit</td>
<td>Shut</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bet</td>
<td>Hurt</td>
<td>Slit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beware</td>
<td>Knit</td>
<td>Split</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Let</td>
<td>Spread</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bespread</td>
<td>Lo</td>
<td>Sweat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burst</td>
<td>Off</td>
<td>Thrust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cast</td>
<td>Ought</td>
<td>Up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chat</td>
<td>Put</td>
<td>Wet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost</td>
<td>Rid</td>
<td>Wist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cut</td>
<td>Set</td>
<td>Wit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disspread</td>
<td>Shed</td>
<td>Wot</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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.

The second step in the variation gives the perfect tense; as, writes,
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 illuminates 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
insentencics; as,

A beloved son, a loving child.

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

A son who was beloved.

Though in the expression, the man is learned, learned is an insen-
tentic 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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>And</th>
<th>although</th>
<th>as</th>
<th>as also</th>
<th>because</th>
<th>but</th>
<th>beside</th>
<th>besides</th>
<th>being</th>
<th>either</th>
<th>except</th>
<th>excepting</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>even</td>
<td>else</td>
<td>for</td>
<td>hence</td>
<td>however</td>
<td>howsoever</td>
<td>howbeit</td>
<td>if</td>
<td>inasmuch</td>
<td>instead</td>
<td>lest</td>
<td>likewise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moreover</td>
<td>not only</td>
<td>nevertheless</td>
<td>notwithstanding</td>
<td>now</td>
<td>neither</td>
<td>or, nor</td>
<td>otherwise</td>
<td>provided</td>
<td>save</td>
<td>so</td>
<td>since</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>so that</td>
<td>that</td>
<td>than</td>
<td>therefore</td>
<td>though</td>
<td>thence</td>
<td>unless</td>
<td>wherefore</td>
<td>whether</td>
<td>whereas</td>
<td>yet</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>above</th>
<th>about</th>
<th>across</th>
<th>after</th>
<th>against</th>
<th>among</th>
<th>amongst</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amid</td>
<td>amidst</td>
<td>around</td>
<td>as, at</td>
<td>athwart</td>
<td>atwixt</td>
<td>atween</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>before</td>
<td>below</td>
<td>beneath</td>
<td>between</td>
<td>betwixt</td>
<td>by, but</td>
<td>behind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>concerning</td>
<td>down</td>
<td>during</td>
<td>except</td>
<td>excepting</td>
<td>for</td>
<td>from</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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, strictness, &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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primitive state.</th>
<th>Comparative.</th>
<th>Superlative.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good,</td>
<td>Better,</td>
<td>Best,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad, evil, or ill</td>
<td>Worse,</td>
<td>Worst,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Little,</td>
<td>Less,</td>
<td>Least,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Much, or many,</td>
<td>More,</td>
<td>Most,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Late,</td>
<td>Later,</td>
<td>Latest, or last,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Near,</td>
<td>Nearer,</td>
<td>Nearest, or next,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Far,</td>
<td>Farther,</td>
<td>Farthest,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fore,</td>
<td>Former,</td>
<td>Foremost, or first.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TECHNICAL TERMS.

1. "Sentensic," when used alone, means the class of sentensic adjectives.
Where there is an assemblage of two or more sentencics, 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 sentenic?
James, will you parse the third?
Charles, parse the fourth sentenic.
John, what can you say of the first sentenic? The first sentenic carries the time of the event.

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

John, what is an insentenic?
An insentenic is a word which is added to another word, but which does not aid in the formation of the sentenic character, as, I am well.

"Impartial sentencics" "Partial sentencics," "Impartial insentencics," and "Partial insentencics" apply exclusively to adjectives; as, "writes" is an impartial sentenic of the irregular kind.

"On" is a partial insentenic.

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

Observation I.

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

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

The following insentencics are of the impartial kind, and generally refer to sentencics.

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 sentencic adjectives, it is sometimes difficult for the pupil to decide to which sentencic the insentencic refers. In these instances, the nature of the case must direct his decision. Insentencics of negation and affirmation refer to the first sentencic; as, he will not learn, they have been good, indeed.

The ideas which other insentencics denote rarely belong to the facts which the first sentencic expresses; hence the other insentencics generally refer to the last sentencic; 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 sentences, 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 sentensis section—*power, faculty and is*, are the sentensis words.

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

“(of speech)”—An insentensis section.

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

“(to man)”—An insentensis section.

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

“(and, was bestowed)”—A sentensis section—*it,*
*was* and *bestowed* are the sentensis words.

*and*—is a partial insentensis adjective, subjoining its own, to its superior section.

*it*—understood, a sentensis pro noun, representing *faculty,* third order, singular number.
*was, is, was, been*—a partial sentensis adjective, perfect tense, referring to *it.*

*bestowed*—bestows, bestowed, a partial sentensis 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 } are insentensic adjectives, referring to uses.
greatest } 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 insentencies 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 sentencic adjective, present tense, referring to she and sister.

return—return, returned, a partial sentencic adjective, referring to she and sister.

"or we can not have the goods."

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

or—a partial insentencic adjective, subjoining its own, to its superior section.

we—a sentencic pro noun, representing our names, first order, plural number.

can—can, could, a partial sentencic adjective, present tense, referring to we.

not—an impartial insentencic adjective, referring to can.

have—have, had, an impartial sentencic adjective, referring to we and goods.

goods—an insentencic noun, third order, plural number.

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

["An obedient son gives joy."]

A sentencic section—son and gives are the sentencic words.

An and obedient—are impartial insentencic adjectives, referring to son.

son—a sentencic noun, third order, singular number.

gives—gives, gave, given, an impartial sentencic adjective, present tense, referring to son and joy.

joy—an insentencic noun, third order, singular number.

"(to his father and mother.)"

An insentencic section.

to—a partial insentencic adjective, referring to father and mother.

his—an impartial insentencic adjective, representing son's, and referring to father and mother.

father—an insentencic noun, third order, singular number.

and—a partial insentencic adjective, subjoining mother to father.

mother—an insentencic 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—aiiartm.
certain—aiiartm.
man—a sntosn.
planted—. a isaprtm a v.
a—aiiart v.
vineyard—a intosn.
and—a piass t p.
set—aisaptrtma h.
a—aiiart h.
hedge—a intosn.
and—a pias bts.
built—. aisaptrtma t.
a—aiiart t.
tower—a intosn.
and—a piasdtt b.
digged—. aisaptrtmap.
a—aiiartp.
place—a intosn.
and—a piasl t d.
let—aisaptrtma i.
it—aipnrvtosn.
out—aiiart l.
and—a pias w t l.
went—. apsaptrt m.

"(about it.)"

An insentensic section.

about—apiart i.
it—aipnrvtosn.

("for the wine-vat."

An insentensic section.

for—apiart w.
the—aiiart w.
wine-vat—a intosn.
"(to husbandmen.)"

An insentensic section.

(to—a part h.
husbandmen—a into n.

"(into a far country.)"

An insentensic section.

into—a part c.
— a part c.
far—a part c.
country—a into 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 piasiotis verse (51st to 50th.)
he—a spnr jt osn.
suffered— ais ap tr t am.
no—a iar m.
man—a into n.
to—a iar g.
go—apsarth.
in—a iar g.
when—a iar g.

"(he came.)"

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

he—a spnr jt osn.
came—apsarth. (come, came, come.)

"(into the house.)"

An insentensic section.

into—a part h.
the—a part h.
house—a into n.

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

An insentensic section.

save—a part PJ J fam.
Peter—a into n.
and—apias J t P.
John—aintosn.
and—apias Ji J.
James—aintosn.
and—apiasft J.
the—a i i a r t f.
father—aintosn.
and—apiasm t f.
the—a i i a r t m.
mother—aintosn.

("of the maiden.")

An insentensic section.
of—a i i a r t m.
the—a i i a r t m.
maiden—aintosn.

(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—aspnr J f osn.
say—. a is 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 spnr p t osn.
the—a i i a r t p u.
same—a i i a r t p u.
person, understood—a s n to s n.
Is—. . . a ps a p t r t h p t a r.
ad—. . . a p i a s r t t.
thief—a s n t o s n.
and—apias 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.
AMERICAN GRAMMAR.

“(unto you.)”

An insentensic section.

unto—apiarty.
you—ainpnrPsopn.

“(that entereth not.)”

An insentensic section.

that—as pnrktosn.
entereth—.apspapttrt.
not—aiiarte.

“(by the door.)”

An insentensic section.

by—apiartd.
the—aiiartd.
doorainto nsn.

(“into the sheepfold.”)

An insentensic section.

into—apiart s.
the—aiiart s.
sheepfold—ainto nsn.

“(but, climbeth up.)”

A sentensic section—that and climbeth are the senten-
sic words.

but—apisiotiss.
that, understood—as pnrktosn.
climbeth—.apspapttrt.
up—aiiartc.

(“, some other way.”)

An insentensic section.

by, understood—apiart w.
some—aiiart w.
other—aiiart w.
way—ainto nsn.

“[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.]

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.
"The English people showed that they were not insensible to what was passing in Ireland."

"[The English people showed that]"—ass s p as sat sw.

The—ai ai art p.
English—ai ai art p.
people—as nt op n.
showed.— ais apt rt p at.
that—ai p n rt en to sn.
"(they were not insensible,)"—ass s t a w at s w.

they—sp n r p to p n.
were.—aps ap tr t.
not—ai ai art w.
insensible—ai ai art t.
"(to what,)"—ais.

To—ai ai art t u.
what—ai ai art t u.
thing—u ai nt os n.
"(it was)"—understood ass i a i at sw.

it—as p n rt to sn.
was.—aps ap tr t i.
"(was passing)"—ass s w a w a t s w.

which—u as p n rt to sn.
was.—aps ap tr t w u.
passing—.aps a rt w u.
"(in Ireland)"—ais.
in—ai ai art I.

Ireland—ai nt os n.
[The more I read the book], (the better I like it.)

"[The more I read the book]" a s s l 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 l 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.

H 2
Of those impartial insentencic 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 insentencics 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.
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 insentencics 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:

\[ \text{[Jesus passed by as]} \text{ he saw a man.} \]

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 6 man 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 rational beings would be guilty of such faults as these. One book should be bound and the other book should be used in the form of a pamphlet. How much evil one sees which to shun in all the walks of life. Every street and alley are full of a populous city. As make a wise man cautious, a foolish one miserable, and a feeling one sad. That one was Perry on the lake. If ever any man subdued a powerful enemy. We should be kind to one another. How often does one feel the pangs of sin. He called one man and sent him to get an apple for the child. He got one. One 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 are such ones which you have as will please me. The boy's books are old. The one's books are new whom you teach. It is one individual of the twelve.
Ob. V.

Men should respect each other.
Each man should be at his post.
Each one is well informed of these men.
They saw each other at church on each Sabbath.

Ob. VI.

The book is far off that you see.
9. 7 the one is near by 8. 4
8 that I see
5. 4. 3. 9 hence that appears less than this appears.
Soul and body must separate
0 that will return to its maker; 7
6. 7 this will return 9
to its primitive dust.
That book is an old work; 9
9 this book is a new one.
That thing was that thing that that man said
8 that that man should say again.
That has four letters.
Did this man sin. 20.
9 Master,
or did his parents sin.
30 that he was born blind. 9
I must work the works of him
9 that sent me.
Then said the Jews
8 unto him
2 now we know that 10
10 thou hast a devil.
(Rep. cause.) It is thought to have been the gout that made him so very peevish and discontented with all the persons.
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 9 it was 9 which the son desired. What thing or book shall I get 8 for you? What man's able 8 to meet such misfortunes 3 3 as are these misfortunes? Shall he 9 submit 9. 3 what who is strong 3 to him 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 - -
AMERICAN GRAMMAR.

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 and 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 sentential adjective, it is a sentential pro noun; as, I have such apples as please me.

But when any word stands between as and the sentential, as is an insentential pro noun; as, I have such apples as he purchased.

2. It is a partial insentential 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 insentential 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 insentential 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, 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 apostrophical 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, 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 sentencis 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 sentencic 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 sentencic section becomes the superior, and stands as an engrossed sentencic noun to the inferior; as, To see his brother was delightful.

Observation XVIII.

In one construction the inferior part of the sentencic section becomes an inferior part of an insentencic 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 insentencic, referring to go. Go is a partial sentencic, referring to camel.

Construing Rules.

Rule I.—A new sentencic noun, or a repetition of a preceding one with a new sentencic 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 dug a place; and he built a tower; and he let it out; and he went.” 6 sections.

Here the sentencic noun, man, is repeated five times in he—and in each repetition there is a new sentencic 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 dug a place, and built a tower, and let it out, and went.

Rule II.—All the sentencic, and all the insentencic nouns to which the same sentencic 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 insentencic 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 sentencic words to enable the ing termination of a sentencic 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 sentencic 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 Caesar, saying that he himself is Christ, a king. (4 sections.)

I.—The word, that, is an insentencic pro noun, representing "he himself is Christ, a king."—(See observation upon that, page 103.)

II.—By supplying the sentencic words before the noun, "a 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 insentencic adjective is understood before the insentencic 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 insentencis 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 sentencis 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 sentences 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 sentencis, "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 sentencis nouns affix the s, es, th, t and st inflections to the sentencis 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 sentencics of the present, and imperfect tense only; as, He writes, He has written.

The *t* and *st* run through all the tenses; as, Thou writest, Thou hast written, Thou hadst written, Thou wilt 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 sentencic nouns affix the sentensic inflections?
Do any sentencic nouns cut off the sentensic inflections?
Will you repeat the sentensic inflections?
Why are these affixes called *sentensic*?
Where there are two or more sentencics, 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 sentencics; 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.
and give the t or st inflection to all other senten-sics; as, Thou art, Thou wast, If thou art, If thou wast there, Was 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 sentencic 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 sentencics 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 sentencic noun of the first order singular, wert with the sentencic noun of the second order singular, and were with the sentencic 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 sentencic noun and the sentencic adjective. Nor is this use of these forms consistent with the custom of using other sentencic 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.
What 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 sentencies 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 sentencies 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 sententic 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 sententic 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 ami 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 adjecti- 

tive; 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 sentencis 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.
prior, 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 foretell 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 sentential 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 Moses 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, whate
er, 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 *superla
tive* 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 *insentencis*, should not be used sentencisally." 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 *insentencis*, 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 insentencis 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 insentencis 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.
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 *from*.
- **Averse** requires *upon*, not *on*.
- **Bestow** requires *of*, not *about*.
- **Boast** requires *of*, not *about*.
- **Brag** requires *into*, not *in*.
- **Broke** requires *on*, not *upon*.
- **Call** requires *in*, not *to*.
- **Confide** requires *in*, not *with*.
- **Conversant** requires *to*, not *with*.
- **Consonant** requires *to*, not *with*.
- **Correspondent** requires *to*, not *with*.
- **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 / 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 sentencis 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 sentencis noun is generally repeated; as, *He was once independent,* and *he* cannot forget it.

In such instances the partial insentencis subjoins, not a word, but a section.

**Note III.**—When the sentence takes some sudden turn, the sentencis noun in the inferior section is frequently understood; as, *That pupil has been instructed much;* but *he* 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 sentencisic 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 unequal 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—"
<p>| | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>James's glove,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>John's hat,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>A lady's ring,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>A child's tooth,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Children's teeth,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Teeth's position</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Charles's hand,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**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. | A mothers tenderness.  
Virtues reward. | A fathers care.  
A good mans heart. | Natures gifts.  
Helens beauty. | 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 astonishingly rudely.
He behaves uncommonly 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 sentencic, and the insentencic 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 insentencis 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.
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 sentencic adjective in the ing termination, is used as a noun, all the insentencics 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 sentencic 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 sentencic 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 insentences give to the thing that the insentensic section presents.

The different imports given to the insentensic sections by many of the partial insentencers, 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, 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 about after against among amid amidst around at athwart atween
across before behind beneath between betwixt by behind concerning down during
excepting for from in into of off on past respecting 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 Conjointive 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 insentencic 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 insentencic sections.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>of</td>
<td>of</td>
<td>of</td>
<td>of</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>of</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>by</td>
<td>by</td>
<td>by</td>
<td>by</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>by</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in</td>
<td>in</td>
<td>in</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>through</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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.
"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.

2 by grace

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

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 insentensive 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 insentencic, 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 sentencic 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 sentencic, 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 insentencic, 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 grammian, 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 insentencics, 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 and 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.)

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 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 circumstances;
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.
3. [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 Ro-
man,) (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.”)

[But he (that entereth in) (by the door) is the shep-
 herd] (of the sheep.)—John x. 2.

("If this man was not) (of God,) [he could do noth-
 ing.”]—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, em-
phasis, 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
, ; : . ? ! — ( ) ^ ¶ § “ ” []
15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26
\{ — ' “ ” * † ‡ ||
27

***
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>27</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**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, Grammar, 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,

\[I\text{ saw, the very, good, old man.}\]

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,

\["I\text{ saw the very man whom you saw."}\]

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,

\[John\text{ James went to church.}\]


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 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
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* (^) 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* ([F]) is used to point out any remarkable thing.
is used to connect words which have one common term, brace is used to denote a short syllable—the grave (‘) a long.

Acute accent (’) makes a short vowel or syllable; but the dash (—) a long.

Breve (―) is used when some letters are omitted; as, K—g, for king.

Ellipsis (——) renders a number of letters (triplets) indelicate; so (•••) Three or four dots indicate a pause.

Accent (ACCENT) is used to denote the sense; as, The accent is the laying of a greater force on one syllable of a word than on another; as, surmount.

The quantity of a syllable is that time which is occupied in pronouncing it. Quantity is either long or short; as, Consume.

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-
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.

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.  
Verse is of two kinds; namely, rhyme and blank verse.

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.**
- A trochee; as, lovely
- An iambus; bécáme
- A spondee; vain man
- A pyrrhic; ön á (bank)

**Trisyllables.**
- A dactyl; as probably
- An amphibrach; döméstic
- An anapaest; misimprove
- A tribrach; (com)förtably

The feet in most common use are Iambic, Trochaic 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,
   - With ráveis'd ears,
   - Thé môn-árch hears.

   It sometimes has an additional short syllable, making what is called a double ending; as,
   - Upon a móon-tain.
   - Béside-á foon-tain.

2. Of three iambics, or six syllables; as,
   - Aloft - in áw-fúl státe,
   - Thé gód - like hé-ró sät.

   Our hearts-nö lóng-ér láng-guish. An additional syllable.

3. Of eight syllables, or four iambic feet; as,
   - And may - át lást - my wéá-ry áge,
   - Find sút - thé péeace-fúl hér-mítáge.

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,

The stars - shall fade away, - the sun himself
Grow dim - with age, - and nature sink - in years.

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,

Für thee - the land - in fragrant flow'rs - is dreást:
Für thee - the ocean smiles, - and smooths - her wavy breast.

5. Of verses containing alternately four, and three feet; this is the measure commonly used in psalms and hymns; as,

Let saints - below, with sweet - accord,
Unite - with those - above,
In solemn lays, - to praise - their king,
And sing - his dying love.

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,

Tumult - cease,
Sink to - peace.

On the - mountain,
By a - fountain.

2. Of two feet or two trochees, with an additional long syllable; as,

In the - days of - old,
Storiés - plainly - told.

3. Of three trochees, or three, and an additional long syllable; as,

When our - hearts are - mourning,
Lovely - lasting - peace of - mind,
Sweet delight of - human kind.

4. Of four trochees or eight syllables; as,

Now the - dreadful - thundër's - roaring!

5. Of six trochees or twelve syllables; as,

On a - mountain, - stretch'd be - neath a - hoary - willow,
Lay a - shepherd - swain, and - view'd the - rolling - billow.

Those trochaic measures that are very uncommon, have been omitted.

ANAPAESTIC MEASURE.

1. Of two anapaests, or two and an unaccented syllable; as,

But his courage 'gan fail,
Für no arts could avail.

Or, Then his courage 'gan fail -- him,
For no arts - could avail -- him.

2. Of three anapaests, or nine syllables; as,

O ye woods - spread your branch-es apace,
Tō you deep-est recess-es I fly;
I would hide with the beasts, of the chase,
I would van-ish from every eye.
Sometimes a syllable is retrenched from the first foot; as,
Ye shëp-hérds sō chëer-fål ând gây,
Whöse flöcks - nëvër care-lëssly rôm.

3. Of four anapaests, or twelve syllables; as,
'Tis thë vòice - of thë sluggârd; I hëar hım compláin,
Yëu hâve wâk'd - më too soôn, - I mûst slûm-bër âgain.

Sometimes an additional short syllable is found at the end; as,
On thë wârm chëek of yóuth, - smîles ând rûs-ës âre blênd-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:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Time shakes - thë stâblë - tyrånný - òf thrônes, &amp;c.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whëre is - tô-môrrôw? - in ânôth-ër wôrld.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shë all - night lóng - hër âm-ôröüs dës-cânt sùng.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Innû-mërâblë - bëfore - th' Almîghty's throne.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thät ön - weak wings - fröm fâr - pûrsâtes - yôur flight.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**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,  
- Simile,  
- Metaphor,  
- Allegory,  
- Hy-per'bô-le,  
- Irony,  
- Metonymy,  
- Prospopopæia, 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 similë 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 hypér'bolë 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.

Sentencics are regular, irregular and common.

1. The sententis which forms its perfect tense by affixing d to e, or ed to the present tense, is regular; as, move, moved: laugh, laughed.

2. The sententis which forms its perfect tense, in any way which differs from the regular method, is irregular, as, is, was, go, went.

3. The sententis which forms its perfect tense in the regular, and in some irregular way also, is common; as, bend, bended, or bent, bent.

1. The pure conjunctive form belongs only to those sentencics 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 sentencics which have no conjunctive form but their present, or perfect tense; as, put, walked.—(See p. 71.)

FIRST CLASS OF IRREGULAR SENTENSICS.

Univocal kind.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Away</th>
<th>Burst</th>
<th>Dispread</th>
<th>Lo</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beset</td>
<td>Cast</td>
<td>Forecast</td>
<td>Must</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SECOND CLASS OF IRREGULAR SENTENCES.

Duplicate kind.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Tense</th>
<th>Perfect Tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abide</td>
<td>abode*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behold</td>
<td>beheld</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beseech</td>
<td>besought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bind</td>
<td>bound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bleed</td>
<td>bled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breed</td>
<td>bred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bring</td>
<td>brought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buy</td>
<td>bought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feed</td>
<td>fed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feel</td>
<td>felt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fight</td>
<td>fought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Find</td>
<td>found</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flee</td>
<td>fled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fling</td>
<td>flung</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Get</td>
<td>got</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grind</td>
<td>ground</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have</td>
<td>had</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hear</td>
<td>heard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hold</td>
<td>held</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keep</td>
<td>kept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lay</td>
<td>laid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lead</td>
<td>led</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leave</td>
<td>left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lend</td>
<td>lent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lose</td>
<td>lost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make</td>
<td>made</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>meant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meet</td>
<td>met</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pay</td>
<td>paid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Read</td>
<td>read</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rend</td>
<td>rent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ride</td>
<td>rode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Say</td>
<td>said</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seek</td>
<td>sought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sell</td>
<td>sold</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Send</td>
<td>sent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shoe</td>
<td>shod</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shoot</td>
<td>shot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shrink</td>
<td>shrunken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sink</td>
<td>sunk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sit</td>
<td>sat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sleep</td>
<td>slept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sling</td>
<td>slung</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slink</td>
<td>slunk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speed</td>
<td>sped</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spend</td>
<td>spent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spin</td>
<td>spun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spring</td>
<td>sprung</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stand</td>
<td>stood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stick</td>
<td>stuck</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sting</td>
<td>stung</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stink</td>
<td>stunk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>String</td>
<td>strung</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweep</td>
<td>swept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swing</td>
<td>swung</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teach</td>
<td>taught</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tell</td>
<td>told</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Think</td>
<td>thought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weep</td>
<td>wept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Win</td>
<td>won</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wind</td>
<td>wound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wring</td>
<td>wrung</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The sentencics of this class have the impure conjunctive form.
**THIRD CLASS OF IRREGULAR INSENTENSICS.**

**Triplicate kind.**

These have the pure conjunctive form.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Perfect</th>
<th>Pure conj. form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Am</td>
<td>was</td>
<td>has been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are</td>
<td>were</td>
<td>has been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arise</td>
<td>arose</td>
<td>had arisen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Art</td>
<td>wast</td>
<td>have been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awake</td>
<td>awoke</td>
<td>hath awaken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bear (to carry)</td>
<td>bore</td>
<td>is borne</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bear (to bring forth)</td>
<td>bare</td>
<td>was born</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Begin</td>
<td>began</td>
<td>had begun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be</td>
<td>was</td>
<td>has been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blow</td>
<td>blew</td>
<td>hath blown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Break</td>
<td>broke</td>
<td>had broken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Choose</td>
<td>chose</td>
<td>have chosen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Come</td>
<td>came</td>
<td>hath come</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do</td>
<td>did</td>
<td>was done</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Draw</td>
<td>drew</td>
<td>have drawn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drive</td>
<td>drove</td>
<td>has driven</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drink</td>
<td>drank</td>
<td>has drunk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fall</td>
<td>fell</td>
<td>have fallen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fly</td>
<td>flew</td>
<td>had flown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forbear</td>
<td>forebore</td>
<td>had foreborne</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forsake</td>
<td>forsook</td>
<td>had forsaken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Freeze</td>
<td>froze</td>
<td>had frozen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Give</td>
<td>gave</td>
<td>have given</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Go</td>
<td>went</td>
<td>have gone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grow</td>
<td>grew</td>
<td>have grown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Know</td>
<td>knew</td>
<td>has known</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is</td>
<td>was</td>
<td>has been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lade</td>
<td>laden</td>
<td>was laden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lie</td>
<td>lay</td>
<td>has lain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partake</td>
<td>partook</td>
<td>have partaken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rise</td>
<td>rose</td>
<td>have risen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Run</td>
<td>ran</td>
<td>have run</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>See</td>
<td>saw</td>
<td>have seen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shake</td>
<td>shook</td>
<td>have shaken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slay</td>
<td>slew</td>
<td>have slain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slide</td>
<td>slid</td>
<td>have slidden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smite</td>
<td>smote</td>
<td>have smitten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb</td>
<td>Present tense</td>
<td>Perfect tense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speak</td>
<td>spake</td>
<td>had spoken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Steal</td>
<td>stole</td>
<td>had stolen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stride</td>
<td>strode</td>
<td>have stridden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strive</td>
<td>strove</td>
<td>have striven</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swear</td>
<td>swore</td>
<td>have sworn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Take</td>
<td>took</td>
<td>is taken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tear</td>
<td>tore</td>
<td>was torn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Throw</td>
<td>threw</td>
<td>art thrown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tread</td>
<td>trod</td>
<td>are trodden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wear</td>
<td>wore</td>
<td>am worn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weave</td>
<td>wove</td>
<td>were woven</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Write</td>
<td>wrote</td>
<td>has written</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Perfect tense</th>
<th>C. Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beat</td>
<td>beat</td>
<td>have beaten, beat</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bid</td>
<td>bade, bid</td>
<td>have bidden, bid</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bite</td>
<td>bit</td>
<td>have bitten, bit</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleave (to split)</td>
<td>clove, cleft</td>
<td>have cleft, cloven</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chide</td>
<td>chid</td>
<td>have chidden, chid</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eat</td>
<td>eat, ate</td>
<td>have eaten</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forbid</td>
<td>forbade, forbid</td>
<td>have forbidden, forbid</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forget</td>
<td>forgot</td>
<td>is forbidden, forgot</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hide</td>
<td>hid,</td>
<td>was forgotten, forgot</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ring</td>
<td>rang, rung</td>
<td>had rung</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sing</td>
<td>sang, sung</td>
<td>are sung</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spit</td>
<td>spat, spit</td>
<td>have spat, spat</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spring</td>
<td>sprang, sprung</td>
<td>is sprung</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strike</td>
<td>struck</td>
<td>art struck, stricken</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swim</td>
<td>swam, swum</td>
<td>has swum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**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.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Perfect tense</th>
<th>C. Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bend</td>
<td>bent</td>
<td>is bent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Bereave - bereft
Build - built
Catch - caught
Clothe - clad
Crow - crew
Dare - durst
Deal - dealt
dig - dug
Dwell - dwelt
Engrave - engraved
Gild - gilt
Gird - girt
Grave - graved
Hang - hanged
Hew - hewed
Knit - knit
Load - loaded
Mow - mowed
Quit - quit
Rive - rived
Saw - sawed
Shape - shaped
Shave - shaved
Shear - sheared
Shine - shined
Show - shew
Slit - slit
Sow - sowed
Spill - spilt
Strow - strewn
Swell - swelled
Thrive - thrived
Wax - waxed
Work - wrought
Wring - wrung

is bereft has built
cought clad crowed dared*
dealt dug dwelt
engraven, p. c. gilt girt graven p. c.
hanged† hewn p. c. knif laden p. c.
mown p. c. quit riven p. c.
sawn p. c. shapen p. c.
shaven p. c. shorn p. c.
shone p. c. shown p. c. slit
sown p. c. spilt
strown p. c. swollen p. c.
thriven p. c. waxen p. c.
wrought 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.