

## PARTICIPLES.

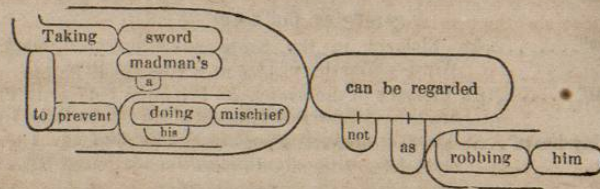
RULE 10.—A Participle has the same construction as the “part of speech” for which it is used.

## I. PARTICIPLES USED AS NOUNS.

NOTE I.—A Participle used as a Noun may be—

(1.) The Subject of a Sentence.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “The BEGINNING of strife is as when one letteth out water.”  
 2. “The PLOWING of the wicked is sin.”  
 3. “Taking a madman’s sword, to prevent his doing mischief, CAN NOT BE REGARDED as robbing him.”



(2.) The Object of a Verb.

- EXAMPLES.—4. “I doubted *his having been a soldier*.”  
 5. “While you strive to bear BEING LAUGHED AT.”  
*Young Ladies’ Friend.*  
 6. “Taking a madman’s sword to PREVENT *his doing mischief*, cannot be regarded as robbing him.”

(3.) The Object of a Preposition.

- EXAMPLES.—7. “In the BEGINNING.”  
 8. “Poverty turns our thoughts too much *upon the SUPPLYING of our wants: Riches, upon ENJOYING our superfluities*.”—*Addison.*  
 9. “Taking a madman’s sword to prevent his doing mischief, cannot be regarded as robbing *him*.”

NOTE II.—A Participle used as a *Noun*, i. e., as the name of an action, retains its Verbal character, and may be followed by an Object when it is the leader of a Participial Phrase.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “They could not avoid GIVING *offense*.”  
 2. “Its excesses may be restrained without DESTROYING *its existence*.”  
 3. RECEIVING *goods*, known to be stolen, is a criminal offense.  
 4. We have succeeded in MAKING a BEGINNING.

REM.—“Giving offense” is a Substantive Phrase—Object of the Verb “avoid.” “Giving” is the Leader of the Phrase: “Offense” is the Subsequent—Object of “giving.”

In Sentence (4), “Making a beginning” is a Substantive Phrase—Object of the Preposition “in.” “Making” is the Leader of the Participial Phrase; “beginning” is the Subsequent—Object of “making.”

(See also the preceding diagram.)

OBS. 1.—A Participle, being the Leader of a Participial Phrase, often has its Subject suppressed.

REM.—In Sentence (1), above, “they” is the *implied* agent of the action expressed by “giving.”

In Sentences (2) and (3), the agents of “destroying” and of “receiving” is neither expressed nor implied.

In Sentence (4), “we” is the implied Subject of “making.”

NOTE III.—The agent of an action expressed by a Participle, is sometimes expressed, and is generally in the *Possessive Form*.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “We have heard of *his GOING to the Falls*.”  
 2. “I doubted *his HAVING BEEN a soldier*.”  
 3. “Mr. Burton objected to his *son’s JOINING the army*.”

NOTE IV.—The sign of the Possessive Case of Nouns and Pronouns, used as the Logical Subjects of Participles, should not be omitted.

## EXAMPLES.

*Improper Construction.*—1. "A fair wind is the cause of a vessel sailing."

*Graham's Synonyms.*

2. He opposed *me* going to college.

*Corrected.*—1. A fair wind is the cause of a vessel's sailing.

2. He opposed *my* going to college.

OBS. 1.—The Logical Subject of a Participle may be in the Objective Case only as the Object of a Preposition.

EXAMPLES.—1. "The FLOWING of the *wicked* is sin."

2. "By the CROWING of the *cock*, we knew that morning was nigh."

REM.—"Cock" is the Object of the Preposition "of," and is therefore in the Objective Case. But it is also the Agent of the Action implied in the word "crowing;" and is, therefore, the Logical Subject of the Verbal Noun "crowing."

OBS. 2.—Phrases thus used as Adjuncts of Participles, are sometimes equivalent to Possessive Specifying Adjectives, and, therefore, are interchangeable.

EXAMPLES.—1. The *crowing* of the *cock*.—The *cock's* crowing.

2. "We listened to the *singing* of the *children*."

We listened to the *children's* singing.

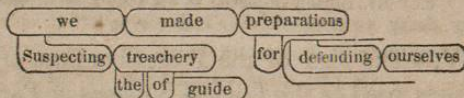
OBS. 3.—The Definitive, *the*, should be placed before a Verbal Noun whose Logical Subject is the Object of the Preposition *of*.

EXAMPLE.—"The FLOWING of the *wicked* is sin."

OBS. 4.—The Definitive, *the*, should not be placed before a Verbal Noun whose Logical Subject is in the Possessive Case.

EXAMPLE.—"You object to *my* FLOWING the garden so early."

NOTE. V.—A Participle used to introduce a *Participial Phrase*, has the same construction as the Phrase which it introduces.



1 "Suspecting the treachery of our guide, WE MADE PREPARATIONS for defending ourselves from any hostile attacks."

Here "suspecting" and "defending" are Participles, each used to introduce a Participial Phrase; but

"Suspecting the treachery of our guide" shows a condition of "we." Hence, an Adjective Phrase.

"Suspecting" describes "we," by expressing incidentally, an act of "we." Hence, a Verbal Adjective.

"For defending ourselves" limits the action expressed by "PREPARATIONS." Hence, an Adjective Phrase.

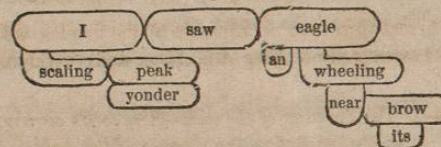
"Defending" is the name of an act, Object of the Preposition "for." Hence, a Verbal Noun.

2. *Suspicious* of the treachery of our guides, we made preparations for defense.

"Suspicious" describes "we," by expressing a condition or state of "we." Hence, an Adjective.

"Defense" is a name, Object of the Preposition "for." Hence, a Noun.

## II. PARTICIPLES USED AS ADJECTIVES.



NOTE VI.—A Participle used as an Adjective belongs to a Noun or a Pronoun which it describes; and may be modified by Adverbs.

EXAMPLES.—1.

\* Whose visages

Do cream and mantle like a STANDING pond."

2. "Scaling yonder peak, I saw an eagle

Wheeling near its brow."

3. "We saw it plunging 'mid the billowy strife,

And dashing madly on to fearful doom."

REM. 1.—"Scaling yonder peak" is a Phrase—Adjunct of "I"; hence, *Adjective*. "Wheeling near its brow" is a Participial Phrase—Adjunct of "eagle"; hence, *Adjective*. "Near its brow" is a Prepositional Phrase—Adjunct of "wheeling" hence, *Adverbial*.

In Sentence (3), "Mid the billowy strife" is an Adjunct of "plunging," "Madly," and "on" and "to fearful doom" are Adjuncts of "dashing" hence, are *Adverbs*.

Obs. 1.—The Participle, used as an Element in an Independent Phrase, may be suppressed when the sense is not thereby rendered obscure.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "Thus talking, hand [ ] in hand, alone they passed  
On to their blissful bower."—*Milton*.  
2. "Now, man to man and steel to steel,  
A chieftain's vengeance thou shalt feel."

REM. 2.—It should be remarked, that such omissions of Participles occur only when they have Adjuncts.

REM. 3.—In analysing and parsing such Adjuncts, it is necessary to restore the Participles to which they belong. Thus, "in hand" is a Phrase—Adjunct of *being*, understood; hence, an Adverbial Phrase. "To man" is an Adjunct of *being opposed*, understood.

### III. PARTICIPLES USED AS ADVERBS.

NOTE VII.—A Participle used Adverbially, belongs to Verbs, Adjectives, or Adverbs, which it modifies.

EXAMPLE.—'Tis strange! 'tis *PASSING* strange.

Obs. 2.—Participles are seldom used Adverbially without the termination *ly*.

EXAMPLE.—"He spoke *FEELINGLY* on that subject."

### IV. PARTICIPLES USED AS PREPOSITIONS.

NOTE VIII.—A Participle used as a Preposition, shows a relation of its object to the word which its Phrase qualifies.

EXAMPLE.—"He said nothing *CONCERNING* his temporal affairs."

Obs. 3.—The young scholar often finds it difficult to determine whether a Participle is used as a Preposition or an Adjective. His difficulties on this subject will vanish when he recollects that—

1. A Participle used as a Preposition, does not relate to a Noun or a Pronoun—it generally introduces an Adverbial Phrase.
2. A Participle used as an Adjective, always relates to a Noun or a Pronoun—it generally introduces an Adjective Phrase.

### V. PARTICIPLES USED IN PREDICATE WITH VERBS.

NOTE IX.—A Participle used in Predicate, asserts an act, being, or state, and may be modified by Adverbs,

EXAMPLE.—"We are *anxiously* expecting to hear from William."

NOTE X.—In the use of Participles in Predicate, the proper modification should be used.

(1.) When an action is to be predicated of the Subject, *i. e.*, when the Subject performs the act, the Active Participle should be used.

- EXAMPLES.—1. *Henry* is *RECITING* his lesson.  
2. People are building the church.

(2.) When the Subject is to be represented as receiving the action, the Passive Participle should be used.

- EXAMPLES.—1. *Henry's lesson* is *BEING* recited.  
2. The church is being built.

NOTE XI.—The Participial Phrase should not be employed when the use of the Infinitive Phrase would be more elegant.

EXAMPLES.—1. "If the case stands thus, 'tis dangerous *drinking*."  
*Collier*

*Better*.—If the case stands thus, 'tis dangerous *to drink*.

2. "It deserves *remarking*."—*Harris's Hermes*.

*Better*.—It deserves *to be remarked*.

3. "He refused *complying* with the regulations."

*Better*.—He refused *to comply* with the regulations.

NOTE XII.—The Participial Phrase should be used in preference to a Sentence, or any other more complicated construction, which would express the same idea.

#### EXAMPLES.

*Sentence*.—1. *As I was scaling yonder peak*, I saw an eagle, *which was wheeling near its brow*.

*Complex Prepositional Phrase*.—2. *On scaling yonder peak*, I saw an eagle *in the act of wheeling near its brow*.

*Participial Phrase*.—3. *Scaling yonder peak*, I saw an eagle *wheeling near its brow*.

REM.—These Sentences are all grammatically correct; but the last gives the sentiment fully, and has the advantage of being the most concise, and is therefore to be preferred.

Obs.—The Logical Subject of a Participle may be suppressed only when the construction is sufficiently clear without it.

## EXAMPLES.

- Incorrect.*—1. "Having resigned his commission, the company was disbanded."  
 2. "Counting the women and the children, the company was ascertained to be too large for the accommodations."  
*Correct*—1. (a) *He* having resigned his commission, the company was disbanded.  
 or (b) The captain having resigned his commission, the company was disbanded.  
 2. (c) On counting the women and the children, the company was found to be too large for the accommodations.  
 or (d) The women and the children being counted, the company was found to be too large for the accommodations.  
 or (e) Counting the women and the children, we found that the company was too large for the accommodations.

## EXERCISES IN REVIEW.

Let the *errors* in the following Sentences be corrected by a proper application of the NOTES and OBSERVATIONS under RULE 9.

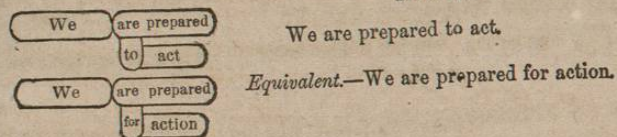
1. "It requires no nicety of ear as in the distinguishing of tones, or measuring time."—*Sheridan*.
2. "He mentions Newton's *writing of a commentary*."
3. "The cause of their salvation doth not so much arise from their embracing of mercy, as from God's exercising of it."  
*Pennington*.
4. "Those who accuse us of denying of it, belie us."—*Bently*.
5. "In the choice they had made of him for restoring of order."
6. "The Governor's veto was writing while the final vote was taking in the Senate."
7. "To prevent *it* bursting out with open violence."—*Robertson*.
8. "This must prevent any regular proportion of time being settled."  
*Sheridan*.
9. "The compiler proposed *publishing* that part by itself."—*Adams*
10. "Artaxerxes could not refuse pardoning him."—*Goldsmith*.
11. "They refused doing so."—*Harris*.
12. "Entering the cars, the seats were found to be all occupied."

## THE INFINITIVE VERB.

RULE 11.—A Verb in the Infinitive Mode, is the Object of the Preposition *to*, expressed or understood.

Obs. 1.—The Infinitive Verb partakes much of a Substantive character, generally expressing the *name* of an act, being, or state.

## EXAMPLES.



Obs. 2.—The Infinitive Verb is never used as a *grammatical* Predicate; hence, it has no grammatical Subject. But it is often the *logical* Predicate of a Noun or a Pronoun, which may be in the Nominative or the Objective form.

- EXAMPLES.—1. *We* love to study.  
 2. We requested *him* to speak.

REM.—"We," the *grammatical* Subject of "love," is also the *logical* Subject of "study."  
 "Him," the *grammatical* Object of "requested," is the *logical* Subject of "speak."

NOTE I.—Infinitive Verbs following the Verbs *bid*, *but*, *dare*, *feel*, *hear*, *let*, *make*, *need*, *see*, and sometimes *behold*, *have*, *help*, *know*, *observe*, *perceive*, and some others, do not require the Preposition *to*.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "I plunged in and *BADE* him follow."  
 2. "He *DARES* not touch a hair of Cataline."  
 3. "LET me hear thy voice awake."  
 4. "Clara *HELPED* me work that problem."  
 5. "I can not *BUT* suspect that she assisted Cora too."  
 6. "I would not *HAVE* you go to-day."  
 7. "Necessity *COMMANDS* me name myself."

Obs. 3.—The Infinitive Verb, with its Preposition, is often suppressed.

## EXAMPLES.

- Some deemed him 1. "Some deemed him wondrous wise."  
 x x wise  
 wondrous
2. "Intemperance makes a man [ ] a fool."

Obs. 4.—The Infinitive is sometimes elegantly used for other Modes

## EXAMPLES.

- I am 1. "I am to settle this business."  
 to settle business  
 this Arthur.
- I must settle business Equivalent.—I must settle this business.  
 this

## THE INFINITIVE PHRASE.

Obs. 5.—The Infinitive Verb with its Preposition constitutes an Infinitive Phrase, and may be construed as a *Substantive*, an *Adjective*, or an *Adverb*.

## EXAMPLES.

- To be contents desire 1. "To be, contents his natural desire."  
 his natural
- We should make efforts 2. We should make efforts to improve  
 to improve
- William was invited 3. William was invited to attend lectures.  
 to attend lectures

Obs. 6.—An Infinitive Phrase, used Substantively, may be—

- The *Subject* of a Sentence.  
 "To be able to read well, is a valuable accomplishment."
- The *Object* of a Preposition.  
 "We were ABOUT to retire."  
 "Be so kind as to place that in diagram."
- A *Logical Adjunct*.  
 "It is our duty to make good use of our time."

REM.—In the opinion of some grammarians, the Verbs *love*, *desire*, *wish*, *expect*, and some others, take Infinitive Phrases after them as *Objects*. (See pp. 213, 214.)

Obs. 7.—An Infinitive Phrase used Adjectively, may be the *Adjunct* of—

- The *Subject* of a Sentence.  
 "A constant purpose to excel marked his whole career."
- The *Object* of a Sentence.  
 William has made EFFORTS to improve in speaking.
- The *Object* of a Phrase.  
 "He arrived in time to give his vote."
- A *Substantive* in Predicate.  
 That is the BUSINESS next to be done.

Obs. 8.—An Infinitive Phrase used Adverbially, may be the *Adjunct* of—

- A *Verb* in Predicate.  
 William EXPECTS to obtain the prize.  
 Will you ALLOW me to place this in diagram?
- An *Adjective* in Predicate.  
 We are READY to depart.
- An *Adverb*.  
 We were too late to take the cars.

Obs. 9.—The Infinitive, like other Phrases, is sometimes independent in construction.

EXAMPLE.—And, to be plain with you, I think you the more unreasonable of the two.

Obs. 10.—The Infinitive Phrase often follows the Words *as* and *than*.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "An object so high as to be invisible."  
 2. "He said nothing farther than to give an apology for his vote."

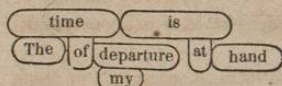
REM.—In the above and similar examples, *as* and *than* are to be regarded as Prepositions, having for their objects the Infinitive Phrases following. In like manner it sometimes follows other Prepositions.

EXAMPLE.—We are about to RECITE. (See Obs. 6 above.)

## PREPOSITIONS.

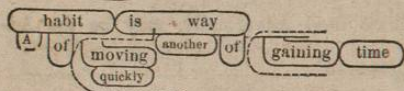
**RULE 12.**—A Preposition shows a relation of its Object to the word which its Phrase qualifies.

Obs. 1.—The Object of a Preposition may be—



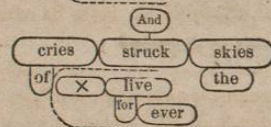
1. A Word.

"The time of my *departure* is *at hand*."



2. A Phrase.

"A habit of *moving quickly* is another way of *gaining time*."



"And cries of '*live for ever*' struck the skies."

Obs. 2.—A Word, a Phrase, or a Sentence, being the Object of a Preposition, is, in its office, *Substantive*.—(See "departure," "hand," "moving quickly," "gaining time," and "live for ever," in the Examples above.)

Obs. 3.—Words which follow Prepositions as their Objects of relation are Nouns or Pronouns, and commonly have the Objective form.

REM.—For Exceptions, see p. 172.

Obs. 4.—But Words commonly used as Adjectives or Adverbs, often become Objects of Prepositions, and are then properly parsed as Substantives, in the Objective Case.

EXAMPLES.—1. "He has faded from earth like a star from *on high*."

2. John is a friend of *mine*.

3. "As *yet* the trembling year is unconfirmed."

Obs. 5.—Scholars often find it difficult to determine the Antecedent term of a relation expressed by a Preposition—examples sometimes occur in which the relation of the Object of a Preposition seems to exist, not to any word, but to the whole Sentence. Generally, however, this question can be settled by ascertaining *which word is qualified by the Phrase* introduced by a Preposition—that word is the Antecedent term of relation.

EXAMPLE.—"A *flood of glory bursts from* all the skies."

REM.—Here the Phrase "of glory" specifies "flood;" hence "flood" is the Antecedent term of the relative expressed by "of"; and the Phrase is Adjective.

"From all the skies" modifies "bursts"; hence "bursts" is the Antecedent term; and the Phrase is Adverbial.

Obs. 6.—Double Prepositions are sometimes allowed.

EXAMPLES.—1. "*Out of* every grove the voice of pleasure warbles."

2. "There can be no question *as to* which party must yield."

Obs. 7.—But two Prepositions should not be used, when one of them will fully express the sense intended.

EXAMPLES.—1. "*Near to* this dome is found a path so green."—*Shenstone*

2. "Not *for to* hide it in a hedge."—*Burns*.

Obs. 8.—POSITION.—The proper place for a Preposition is (as its name implies) before the Phrase which it introduces.

EXAMPLES.—1. "In *dread*, in *danger*, and *alone*,

Famished and chilled *through ways* unknown."

Obs. 9.—But, by the poets, it is often placed after its Object.

EXAMPLE.—"From peak to peak, the rattling *crags among*,  
Leaps the live thunder."

Obs. 10.—And sometimes in colloquial style.

EXAMPLE.—"You will have no mother or sister to *go to*."—*Abbott*.

REM.—This idiom is inelegant, and not to be recommended.

Obs. 11.—A Preposition commonly indicates the office of the Phrase which it introduces.

EXAMPLE.—See page 160.

Obs. 12.—Many words commonly used as Prepositions, are sometimes employed, not as Elements of Phrases, but as Word Elements in Sentences. These are commonly Adverbs.

EXAMPLES.—1. "Come *on*, my brave associates."

2. "Lift *up* thy voice like a trumpet."

3. "*Down, down*, the tempest plunges on the sea,

4. And the mad waves rise *up* to buffet it."

NOTE I.—Care should be exercised in the choice of Prepositions.

Obs. 13.—The particular Preposition proper to introduce a given Phrase depends—

1. Usually on the word which the Phrase is to qualify.

2. Sometimes on the Object of the Phrase.

## EXAMPLES.

Accommodate to.	Die by violence.	Abhorrence of
Accord with.	" of a disease.	Agreeable to.
Accuse of.	Differ from.	Compliance with.
Acquainted with.	Diminish from.	Conformable to.
Ask of a person.	Dissent from.	Difficulty in—with.
" for a thing.	Insist upon.	Eager in—for
Bestow upon.	Made of a thing.	Need of.
Boast of.	" by a person.	True to.
Concur with—in.	" in a place.	Value upon.
		Worthy of.

OBS. 14.—When the second term of a Comparison is expressed by a Phrase—

After a *Superlative*, the Preposition *of* is commonly used.

After a *Comparative*, the Preposition *than* is commonly used.

EXAMPLES.—Grammar is the most interesting of all my studies.

Grammar is more interesting than all my other studies.

OBS. 15.—When the second term of a Comparison of equality is a Noun or a Pronoun, the Preposition *as* is commonly used—sometimes *like* is used.

EXAMPLES.—1. "He hath died to redeem such a rebel as *me*."—*Wesley*

2. "An hour *like this*, may well display the emptiness of human grandeur."

OBS. 16.—Some writers improperly substitute the words *for* and *with* for *as*.

EXAMPLE.—"It implies government of the very *same kind with that* which a master exercises over his servants."—*Bp. Butler*.

OBS. 17.—A Preposition and its Subsequent constitute a Phrase, generally constituting an Adjective or an Adverbial Adjunct.

## EXAMPLES.

*Adjective Element*.—1. "The KING of *Shadows* loves a shining mark."

*Adverbial Element*.—2. "Time SLEPT on *flowers*, and LENT his glass to *Hope*."

REM. 1.—The Prepositional Phrase is rarely used as a Substantive Element in a Sentence.—(See CLARK'S ANALYSIS, p. 115.)

REM. 2.—In the analysis of a Sentence, a Phrase contained in it is to be parsed, first, as one distinct element in the structure of its Sentence; then the Phrase is to be analysed, and each of its distinct Elements pointed out. (See p. 185.)

## CONJUNCTIONS.

## RULE 13.—Conjunctions connect Words, Phrases, and Sentences.

## EXAMPLES.

Words....1. "In the beginning, God created the HEAVEN *and* the EARTH."

Phrases...2. "To GIVE GOOD GIFTS *and* TO BE BENEVOLENT, are often different things."

Sentences...3. "Thou art perched aloft on the beetling crag, *and* the waves are white below."

OBS. 1.—Words connected by Conjunctions have a similar construction.

EXAMPLES.—1. "God created the *heaven* *and* the *earth*."

2. "Time *slept* on flowers, *and* *lent* his glass to Hope."

3. "A *great* *and* *good* man has fallen."

REM.—"Heaven" and "earth" are alike Objects of "created."—"Slept" and "lent" are Predicates of "Time."—"Great" and "good" describe "man."

OBS. 2.—But they have not necessarily similar modifications.

EXAMPLE.—"Every teacher *has* *and* *must* have his own particular way of imparting knowledge."—*McElligott*.

REM.—"Has" and "must have" are Predicate of "teacher"—but they are not of the same Mode.

OBS. 3.—Phrases and Sentences used as Elements in the structure of a Principal Sentence, have a similar construction, when connected by Conjunctions.

EXAMPLES.—1. "He served his country *in the cabinet* *and* *in the field*."

2. "To eat *and* to sleep, constitute the sum of his employments."

3. "While I am his *and* he is mine, I'm ever safe from ill."

OBS. 4.—But Conjunctions may introduce Principal Sentences, without connecting them to any Word or Sentence in construction.

EXAMPLES.—1. "*And* who says this?"

2. "*That* I have taken this old man's daughter is most true."

3. "*And* I am glad *that* he has lived thus long."

OBS. 5.—Conjunctions introducing Adjunct Sentences, connect their Sentences to the Word modified by such Auxiliaries.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "And, if I sought,  
Think'st thou no other *could be brought?*"  
2. "As ye journey, sweetly *sing.*"  
3. "How *dear* to my heart *are* the scenes of my child-  
hood,  
WHEN fond recollection presents them to view."

(See Diagram, p. 000.)

OBS. 6.—But Auxiliary Substantive Sentences are simply introduced by Conjunctions.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "THAT all men are created equal, is a self-evident truth."  
2. "He knew not THAT *the chieftain lay*  
*Unconscious of his son.*"

(See Diagram, p. 229.)

OBS. 7.—The Position of Sentences often determines their connection, without the use of Conjunctions.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "The time may come *you need not run.*"—Thomson.  
2. "Milton! thou shouldst be living at this hour—  
[For] England hath need of thee."  
3. "But Brutus says, *he was ambitious.*"

OBS. 8.—Auxiliary Adjective Sentences are commonly introduced by Relative Pronouns and by Possessive Adjectives derived from them.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "He who *filches from me my good name,*  
*Robs me of that WHICH not enriches him.*"  
2. "Lo the poor Indian, *WHOSE untutored mind*  
*Sees God in clouds or hears him in the wind.*"  
3. "Thou hadst a voice *WHOSE sound was like the sea.*"  
4. "A voice, *from WHENCE I knew not, spake these words.*"

OBS. 9.—Conjunctions that introduce Auxiliary Adverbial Sentences, and some others, indicate the offices of the Sentences which they introduce.

*If, Unless, etc., indicate condition.—As, When, Before, etc., indicate time.—For, Hence, Therefore, etc., indicate an inference or cause.—But, Yet, Nevertheless, etc., indicate restriction or opposition.—Nor, Neither, etc., indicate a negation.*

- EXAMPLES.—1. "*If sinners entice thee, consent thou not.*"  
2. "Speak of me as *I am*—nothing extenuate,  
*Nor set down caught in malice.*"  
3. "Then, *when I AM THY CAPTIVE, talk of chains.*"  
4. "I go, *but I return.*"

OBS. 10.—Conjunctions may be omitted only when the connection is sufficiently clear without them.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "Unnumbered systems, [ ] suns, and worlds,  
Unite to worship thee;  
2. While thy majestic greatness fills  
Space, [ ] Time, [ ] Eternity."

OBS. 11.—The Adverb "how" is sometimes improperly used instead of the Conjunction "that."

- EXAMPLE.—"She tells me how, with eager speed,  
He flew to hear my vocal reed."—Shenstone.

OBS. 12.—Conjunctions sometimes introduce the remnant of a Sentence.

- EXAMPLE.—*Though* [ ] *afflicted, he is happy.*

OBS. 13.—POSITION.—The proper place for a Conjunction is before the Sentence which it introduces, and between the Words or Phrases which it connects.

- EXAMPLES.—"And there lay the rider, *distorted AND pale,*  
With the *dew* on his brow AND the *rust* on his mail."

OBS. 14.—But in Complex Sentences, the Conjunction introducing the Principal Sentence is commonly placed first, and that introducing the Auxiliary Sentence immediately following.

- EXAMPLE.—"And *when its yellow luster smiled,*  
O'er mountains yet untrod,  
Each MOTHER HELD aloft her CHILD  
To bless the bow of God."

But to this rule there are exceptions.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "They kneeled *BEFORE they fought.*"  
2. "How vain are all these glories, all our pains,  
*UNLESS good sense preserve what beauty gains.*"—Pop



## CORRESPONDING CONJUNCTIONS.

Obs. 15.—Many Conjunctions correspond to Adverbs, to Prepositions, and to other Conjunctions.

As.....so.....“*As* is the mother, *so* is the daughter.”

So.....as.....“Mary is not *so* cheerful *as* usual.”

Both ...and ...“*Both* good *and* bad were gathered in one group.”

Either ...or.....“*Either* you mistake, *or* I was misinformed.”

Neither .nor.....“*Neither* Alice *nor* Caroline has been here to-day.”

Whether .or.....“I care not *whether* you go *or* stay.”

So.....that ....“He called *so* loud *that* all the hollow deep.”

Such. ....that ....“My engagements are *such that* I can not go.”

If ..... then.....“*If* you will take the right, *then* I will go to the left.”

Not only but also.“She was *not only* vain, *but also* extremely ignorant.”

Though .yet.....“*Though* man live a hundred years, *yet* is his life as vanity.”

Because .therefore.“*Therefore* doth my father love me, *because* I lay down my life.”

REM.—The Antecedent corresponding word is sometimes expletive.

Obs. 16.—Double Conjunctions are sometimes used.

EXAMPLES.—1. “*As though* he had not been anointed with oil.”

2. *And yet*, fair bow, no fabling dreams,

But words of the Most High

Have told why first thy robe of beams

Was woven in the sky.”

Obs. 17.—But they may not be used when one of them would fully express the connection.

EXAMPLE.—“There would be no doubt *but that* they would remain.”

The word “*but*” is unnecessary and improper.

## EXCLAMATIONS.

RULE 14.—Exclamations have no dependent construction.

Obs.—Exclamations may be followed by Words, Phrases, or Sentences.

EXAMPLES.—1. “O Scotia! my dear, my native soil!”

2. “Wo! wo! to the riders that trample thee down!”

3. “O that I could again recall

My early joys, companions all!”

## WORDS OF EUPHONY.

PRIN.—Words of Euphony are, in their offices, chiefly rhetorical.

REM.—The Principles of Euphony are much required in the structure of all languages; for Euphony, words are altered in form, position, and office—and they are, for Euphony, created or omitted.

Obs.—Euphony allows—

(1.) The Transposition of Words in a Sentence.

EXAMPLE.—“From peak to peak, the rattling crags *among*,  
Leaps the live thunder.”

(2.) The omission of a letter or syllable.

EXAMPLE.—“Hark! ’tis the breeze of twilight calling.”

(3.) The substitution of one letter for another.

EXAMPLES.—1. Collect, for *Conlect*.

2. Syllogism, “*Sunlogism*.”

3. Immigrant, “*Immigrant*.”

(4.) The addition of a letter, syllable, or word.

EXAMPLE.—“It was his bounden duty thus to act.”

(5.) A word to be separated into parts, and another word inserted between them.

EXAMPLE.—“*How much soever* we may feel their force.”

(6.) A word to be used not in its ordinary office.

EXAMPLES.—1. “And there lay the steed with his nostril *all wide*.”

2. “The more I see of this method, *the better* I like it.”

## POSITION.

NOTE.—Words of Euphony should be placed in their appropriate connection.

Obs. 1.—In the following examples, this principle is violated—

1. “To think of others, and not *only* of himself.”

Here “*only*” is used to render “*himself*” emphatic. A better position would be—“...and not of himself *only*.”

2. "Joyous Youth and manly Strength and stooping Age are *even* here."

Better—Joyous Youth and manly Strength and *even* STOOPIING AGE are here.

3. "When our hatred is violent, it sinks us *even* beneath those who hate."

Better—... it sinks us beneath *even* THOSE WHO HATE.

Obs. 2.—A Word *repeated* in the same connection is to be regarded as a word of Euphony.

EXAMPLES.—"Down! *down!* the tempest plunges on the sea."  
"For life! *for life,* their flight they ply."

#### GENERAL RULES.

1. In constructing a Sentence, such Words should be chosen as will most clearly convey the sense intended—regard being had also to variety and other principles of taste.

2. In expressing Complex ideas, judgment and taste are to be exercised in the use of Phrases and Sentences, when they may equally convey the sense.

3. That Modification of Words should be adopted which is in accordance with the most reputable usage.

4. The relative *Position* of Words, Phrases, and Sentences should be such as to leave no obscurity in the sense.

5. Involved Complex Sentences should not be used when Simple or Independent Sentences would better convey the sense.

#### RECAPITULATION OF THE RULES OF SYNTAX.

##### RULE 1.—THE SUBJECT OF A SENTENCE—NOUN OR PRONOUN.

The Subject of a Sentence must be in the Nominative Case.

##### RULE 2.—PREDICATE OF A SENTENCE—VERB.

A Verb must agree with its Subject in Person and Number.

##### RULE 3.—THE OBJECT OF A SENTENCE OR PHRASE—NOUN OR PRONOUN.

The object of an action or relation must be in the Objective Case.

##### RULE 4.—PRONOUNS.

A Pronoun must agree with its Antecedent in Gender, Person, and Number.

##### RULE 5.—ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

Adjective Pronouns are substituted for the Nouns which they qualify.

##### RULE 6.—INDEPENDENT CASE—NOUN OR PRONOUN.

A Noun or a Pronoun not dependent on any other word in construction, is in the Independent Case.

##### RULE 7.—ADJECTIVES.

Adjectives belong to Nouns and Pronouns which they describe.

##### RULE 8.—POSSESSIVE SPECIFYING ADJECTIVES.

A Noun or a Pronoun in the Possessive Case is used Adjectively.

##### RULE 9.—ADVERBS.

Adverbs belong to Verbs, Adjectives, and other Adverbs which they modify.

## RULE 10.—PARTICIPLES.

A Participle has the same construction as the "part of speech" for which it is used.

## RULE 11.—VERBS—INFINITIVE.

A Verb in the Infinitive Mode is the Object of the Preposition TO, expressed or understood.

## RULE 12.—PREPOSITIONS.

A Preposition shows a relation of its Object to the word which its Phrase qualifies.

## RULE 13.—CONJUNCTIONS.

Conjunctions introduce Sentences and connect Words and Phrases.

## RULE 14.—EXCLAMATIONS.

Exclamations have no dependent construction.

## ADDITIONAL EXAMPLES FOR PARSING.

1. "He was stirred  
With such an agony he sweat extremely."—*Henry VIII.*, ii. 2.
2. "But it is fit things be stated as they are considered—as they really are."—*Bp. Butler.*
3. "He whose soul  
Ponders this true equality, may walk  
The fields of earth with gratitude and hope."—*Wordsworth.*
4. "Before we passionately desire anything which another enjoys,  
we should examine into the happiness of its possessor."
5. "They say 'this shall be,' and it is,  
For ere they act, they think."—*Burns.*
6. "My heart is awed within me, when I think of the great miracle  
that still goes on in silence round me."
7. "Take good heed,  
Nor there be modest, where thou shouldst be proud."—*Young.*
8. "Ambition saw that stooping Rome could bear  
A master, nor had virtue to be free."—*Thomson.*

## PART IV.

DEF. 1.—That part of the Science of Language which treats of *utterance*, is called *Prosody*.

Obs.—Utterance is modified by *Pauses*, *Accent*, and the laws of *Versification*.

## PAUSES.

DEF. 2.—Pauses are cessations of the voice in reading or speaking.

Obs. 1.—Pauses are { Rhetorical and  
Grammatical.

Obs. 2.—Rhetorical Pauses are useful chiefly in arresting attention. They are generally made after or immediately before emphatic words. They are not indicated by marks.

EXAMPLES.—There is a calm for those who weep,  
A rest for weary pilgrims found.

Obs. 3.—Grammatical Pauses are useful—in addition to their Rhetorical effect—in determining the sense.

They are indicated by

## MARKS OF PUNCTUATION.

They are—

The Comma . . . . . ;	The Period . . . . . .
The Semicolon . . . . ;	The Interrogation . . ?
The Colon . . . . . :	The Exclamation . . . !
The Dash —	

Obs. 4.—In its Rhetorical office,  
The Comma requires a short pause in reading.  
The Semicolon, a pause longer than the Comma.  
The Colon, a pause longer than the Semicolon.  
The Period requires a full pause.  
The Dash, the Marks of Exclamation and Interrogation, require pauses corresponding with either of the other marks