BONWICK'S
GRAMMAR
FOR
AUSTRALIAN YOUTH.

5/-

GRAMMAR

FOR

AUSTRALIAN YOUTH,

Permission is granted by Dr WYATT, Inspector of Schools in South Australia, for the publication of the following Testimonial :—

"The 'Grammar for Australian Youth' having been perused by the Inspector of Schools, he has been pleased to express his approbation of the Work, as being highly creditable to its author, and likely to be of very considerable utility, not only to the youth, but also to those of more advanced age in this and the neighbouring colonies."

Adelaide:
PRINTED FOR THE AUTHOR;
SOLD BY ALL AUSTRALIAN BOOKSELLERS.

1851.

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BY

JAMES BONWICK;

AUTHOR OF "GEOGRAPHY FOR AUSTRALIAN YOUTH."

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PREFACE.

It may be thought presumptuous to produce a Grammar now that several works of acknowledged worth are before the Public. But the Author has been induced to undertake this publication for the following reasons :—

Notwithstanding all that has been done to adapt the study of this science to the mind of youth, there are many teachers who yet complain of a want of simplicity and conciseness in those Grammars, in which the subject is treated philosophically, and the want of method and information in those of a more familiar character. An humble attempt is here made to unite suitability of style and arrangement with the communication of sound knowledge.

The present book also contains some hints upon English Composition, which will, it is hoped, be found particularly serviceable to those whose education may have been neglected in early life, and who are now anxious for mental improvement.

One peculiarity of the little work consists in the character of its exercises, which are made the means of conveying instruction upon various subjects.

The uncertainty attending the procuring of a regular supply of approved school books at this distance from England, taken in connexion with their want of adaptation to our southern position in many important particulars, appears to some teachers to render it expedient, if not necessary, to provide a Colonial Series of Educational Works for the use of our youth. In pursuance of this object, a Reading Book, of a decided Australian character, is in course of preparation.

The Author again takes an opportunity of expressing his deep sense of obligation to the Conductors of the Australian Press, and other friends to education, for the encouragement they have given to his efforts in the cause of Primary Instruction.

Hofwyl House School,
North Adelaide,
July 1, 1851.

GRAMMAR

FOR AUSTRALIAN YOUTH.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

GRAMMAR is that kind of knowledge which tells us about language or speech.

Grammar teaches us how to make a proper use of words.

The grammar of a language is according to the nature of that language.

English grammar teaches us the nature and forms of the English language.

Language is either written or spoken.

Sounds are represented by LETTERS.

There are twenty-six letters in the English alphabet.

Letters are usually divided into VOWELS and CONSONANTS.

A Vowel is a letter which has a full, open sound.

In sounding a vowel, the passage of the breath is not interrupted.

The vowels are—*a, e, i, o, u.*

The letters *w* and *y* are vowels when they begin a syllable, otherwise they are consonants.

The Consonants are those letters which do not allow the breath to pass freely in sounding them; as the letter *d*, in *dig*.

Capitals are always placed before a new passage, and at the beginning of each line of poetry.

Capitals always begin the names of nations, persons, and places; names of days and months; or any very important word.

I and *O*, when they form a word, are always capitals.

A SYLLABLE is a simple sound, and is generally formed of several letters put together.

A word of one syllable is called a *Monosyllable;* of two syllables, a *Dissyllable;* of three, a *Trissyllable;* of more than three, a *Polysyllable.*

The proper spelling of words is called ORTHOGRAPHY.

The orthography of words is not always according to the pronunciation or sound.

Rough and *ruff* agree in pronunciation, but not in orthography. *Tear*, from the eye, and *tear*, to rend in pieces, differ in pronunciation, but agree in orthography.

The pupil is required to name instances, or bring them written as exercises, in which the orthography may agree but not the pronunciation; and others, in which the pronunciation may agree but not the orthography.

The pupil should be expected not only to attend to the various exercises in the book, which should always be copied in a fair hand, but to bring illustrations of his own.

ETYMOLOGY.

ETYMOLOGY is that part of grammar which points out to us the different sorts of words, their origin, and their changes in form.

There are some thousands of words in the English language. These have been arranged into certain classes, called PARTS OF SPEECH.

Every word belongs to one or other of these classes of words; sometimes the same word may belong to more than one part of speech, according to the sense it bears in different connexions.

This arrangement of words has been made for the convenience of teaching and learning the grammar of a language.

Grammarians generally agree in having nine parts of speech; namely, *Noun, Adjective, Article, Pronoun, Verb, Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction,* and *Interjection.*

A word which stands for the name of a thing is a NOUN; as, *Australia, house, tree.*

A word which shews the quality of a noun is an ADJECTIVE; thus, *Beautiful, green, fresh,* are qualities of the noun *tree.*

A word that comes before a noun to distinguish one or several from the rest of the same kind is an ARTICLE; as, *The, that, each.*

A word used instead of a noun is a PRONOUN; thus, *He* and *she* are used instead of names of persons.

A word which expresses the action of a thing is a VERB; as, *Runs, eats, swims.*

A word which tells us the manner in which an action is done is an ADVERB; as, *Swiftly, bravely, well.*

A word which shows how one thing stands with regard to another is a PREPOSITION. *The boy is on the horse;—on* is the preposition.

A word which is used to join words or sentences together is a CONJUNCTION; as, *And, but, though.*

A word that we employ when excited by strong or sudden feeling is an INTERJECTION; as, *Ah! lo! hurrah!*

NOUN, or SUBSTANTIVE.

A NOUN is the name of a person, animal, place, or thing; as, *James, horse, Adelaide, pen.*

A noun is called PROPER when it points out one in particular from the rest of the same kind. *Hobart Town* is a proper noun, because all towns have not this name.

A noun is called COMMON when it applies to all of the same kind.

The word *boy* is a common noun, as all male children have the name *boy* common to them.

Names of persons and places are always proper nouns, and all other nouns are common.

Some nouns are names of objects of thought more than objects of sense. We have an idea of them, though we cannot see them nor touch them; as, *Sin, beauty, soul, knowledge.* These are called ABSTRACT NOUNS.

COLLECTIVE NOUNS stand for a number of persons or things of the same kind taken together; as, *Army, flock.*

EXERCISE.

Draw one line under the proper nouns, and two lines under the common:—

Grammar is very useful. John will see the use of grammar better when he is older. The opossum scratches the gum-tree. France was once peopled by the Gauls. The kind boy will meet with kindness. Cyrus the Persian conquered Babylon 2500 years ago. The first balloons were filled with smoke. The dingo, or wild dog, was brought by the Malays.

NUMBER.

Nouns undergo a change in spelling when they express more than one of the same kind of thing.

A noun meaning one is called a SINGULAR Noun; as, *Book*. But when it expresses more than one, it is a PLURAL Noun; as, *Books*.

Singular and Plural are called the NUMBERS of nouns.

All nouns do not form their plurals by adding *s* to the singular. Sometimes *es* is added, as in words ending in *sh, ch, x, o*. Thus, *Radish, radishes; crutch, crutches; box, boxes; hero, heroes.*

Should the singular end in *y*, with a consonant before it, the plural is generally formed by changing the *y* into *i*, and then adding the *es;* as, *Lady, ladies.*

When a noun ends in *f*, the plural is made by changing *f* into *v*, and adding *es*; as, *Loaf, loaves.* If ending in *fe*, the *f* is changed into *v*, and *s* added; as, *Life, lives.* Double *f* has its plural in the regular way; as, *Muff, muffs.*

Some nouns still follow an Anglo-Saxon or old English way of making the plural end in *en;* as, *Ox, oxen; man, men.*

Many nouns are irregular in forming their plurals; as, *Child, children; tooth, teeth; penny, pence.*

Names of things which are made double or plural have no singular; as, *Bellows, scissors.*

Several nouns have but one number; as, *Wheat, bread.* Others are plural in form, but singular or plural in sense; as, *Mathematics, optics, politics.* Some stand alike for singular or plural; as, *Deer, sheep.*

Words used by us which belong to other languages, form their plural according to the language to which they belong. These are a few :—

Sing.	*Plur.*
Amanuensis	Amanuenses
Animalculum	Animalcula
Apex	Apices
Appendix	Appendices
Axis	Axes
Bandit	Banditti
Basis	Bases
Beau	Beaux
Cherub	Cherubim
Conversazione	Conversazioni
Effluvium	Effluvia
Ellipsis	Ellipses
Erratum	Errata
Focus	Foci
Genius	Genii
Genus	Genera
Larva	Larvæ
Medium	Media
Memorandum	Memoranda
Miasma	Miasmata
Monsieur	Messieurs
Nebula	Nebulæ
Oasis	Oases
Phenomenon	Phenomena
Radius	Radii
Stimulus	Stimuli
Stratum	Strata
Vortex	Vortices

EXERCISE.

Write out the plural of the following words :—

Dunce, calf, child, monkey, beauty, negro, mouse, thief, comfort, wife, drunkard, fish, cuff, wrist, half, goose, woman, jewel, lawyer, brief, bomb, proof, girl, magpie, witch, broom.

The pupil to bring other exercises of the kind.

GENDERS.

Some nouns are names of those creatures that are males, and others of those that are females.

We have thus GENDERS, or distinctions of sex; MASCULINE or male, and FEMININE or female. *Man* is masculine; *mare* is feminine.

When a noun belongs to no sex, it is called a NEUTER Noun; as, *Stone.* The word *neuter* means *neither.*

Some nouns are of Either gender; as, *Children;* for such may be either boys or girls.

We sometimes distinguish the male from the female by the words put before them; as, *he-goat, she-goat; man-servant, maid-servant.*

LIST OF WORDS WITH GENDERS.

Masculine.	*Feminine.*
Beau	Belle
Buck	Doe
Colt	Filly
Czar	Czarina
Director	Directrix
Drake	Duck
Emperor	Empress
Friar	Nun
Gander	Goose
Hart	Roe
Hero	Heroine
Marquis	Marchioness
Nephew	Niece
Ram	Ewe

Masculine.	*Feminine.*
Stag	Hind
Sultan	Sultana
Tiger	Tigress
Traitor	Traitress
Widower	Widow
Wizard	Witch

CASE.

The relation of a noun to the rest of the sentence must be well considered.

John kicked the horse is very different from *The horse kicked John.* In the first instance, John was acting upon the horse; in the second, the horse was acting upon him.

To express this difference we use the word CASE.

When a noun is placed so as to show that the thing spoken of does something, we say that it is in the NOMINATIVE case. *John* was the nominative when the boy kicked the horse; but *horse* was nominative when the animal kicked John.

The nominative will answer to the question *Who* or *what? The dog is beaten.* What is beaten? The dog. The word *dog* is, therefore, nominative.

Another case is called the OBJECTIVE. A noun is objective, when it is the object or effect of something done.

The horse kicked John; John is here in the objective case.

The objective will answer to the question *Whom* or *what? The cow tossed the man.* Whom did the cow toss? The man. *Man* is the objective.

But there is another case in which a noun is sometimes placed, different from the two just mentioned.

This is John's hat. John is here neither nominative nor objective. The case in which John is put here, is to show us that he possesses something,—a hat; therefore, the word *John* is said to be in the POSSESSIVE case.

The lad's hoop runs well. The word *lad* is in the possessive case, and *hoop* is nominative to the verb *runs*.

The possessive answers to the question *Whose?* as, *The shark bit the sailor's* toe. Whose toe did the shark bite? The sailor's. *Sailor's* is in the possessive case.

It will be seen that to form the possessive case, we place an apostrophe and an *s* after the noun. An apostrophe is a comma above the line.

But this is done when the word is singular. When the plural noun shows possession, the apostrophe is added, but not the *s;* as, *A boys' school;* meaning, *A school for many boys.*

A hyphen between two nouns is used sometimes instead of the sign of the possessive case; as, *The horse-shoe;* meaning, *the horse's shoe.*

When the noun ends in *s, ss,* or *ce,* the possessive singular is sometimes formed by merely adding the apostrophe; as, *Moses' rod.*

When the noun plural does not end in *s,* the possessive is formed by adding the apostrophe and *s,* like the possessive singular; as, *Men's hats.*

Nouns then have three cases, the Nominative, the Objective, and the Possessive. The objective is spelt as the nominative.

EXERCISE.

Put *n* over for nom., *o* for obj., and *p* for poss.—

Jacob loved Joseph. Monkeys love fun and mischief. Howard's courage was greater than Alexander's. The butterflies' wings are beautiful. The oxen's stalls are built. A conqueror's victories cause much sorrow. Dampier saw the North Australian natives. Sydney was founded in 1788. Bullocks' skins make leather. South Australia contains some limestone biscuits. Confidence begets confidence.

Nouns are declined as in these examples:—

Singular.		*Plural.*
Nom.	Mother	Mothers
Poss.	Mother's	Mothers'
Obj.	Mother	Mothers.
Nom.	Church	Churches
Poss.	Church's	Churches'
Obj.	Church	Churches
Nom.	Life	Lives
Poss.	Life's	Lives'
Obj.	Life	Lives
Nom.	Duty	Duties
Poss.	Duty's	Duties'
Obj.	Duty	Duties
Nom.	Lass	Lasses
Poss.	Lass'	Lasses'
Obj.	Lass	Lasses
Nom.	Man	Men
Poss.	Man's	Mens'
Obj.	Man	Men
Nom.	George	———
Poss.	George's	———
Obj.	George	———

Decline the following nouns after the manner of the examples given:—*Father, navy, wife, joy, virtue, dwarf, echo, calf, James, coach, fish, puss.*

ADJECTIVE.

ADJECTIVES are those words which express the quality or character of things, and which are added to nouns. *A beautiful picture;*—the adjective *beautiful* describes the quality of the picture.

The noun is not always expressed with the adjective, but then it is understood to be connected with it. In speaking of some apples, we may remark, *they are good;* that is, *they are good apples.*

Adjectives have changes to express three degrees of comparison, namely,—POSITIVE, COMPARATIVE, and SUPERLATIVE.

In looking at a number of boys, we may notice one as short. Comparing him with another, we observe that he is shorter. Upon seeing a third boy, we decide that he is the shortest.

The adjective *short* is in the positive degree, *shorter* in the comparative, and *shortest* in the superlative degree.

The positive is the simple state of the quality. The comparative is an increasing of the quality, The superlative is an increasing of the quality to the highest amount.

The positive is a degree of comparison; as, *Cæsar was as great as Alexander.* The word *great* is used in the comparison of Cæsar with Alexander; but these are said to be equal in greatness.

If we say that *Alexander was great, but George Washington was greater,* we show in the comparison that one has more greatness than the other, and so we obtain the comparative of *great* in the word *greater.*

But when we declare that *John Howard is the greatest,* we affirm that he exceeds both George Washington and Alexander in greatness; and, therefore, *greatest* is the superlative of *great.*

Most adjectives form their comparatives by adding *er* to the positive, and the superlative by adding *est* to the positive; as, positive, *Strong;* comparative, *stronger;* superlative, *strongest.*

Should the adjective end in *y*, the *y* is changed into *i* in comparing it; as, *Happy, happier, happiest.*

When the word is long, it would not sound well to add *er* or *est.* We, therefore, put before the adjective the word *more* to signify the comparative, and *most* the superlative; as, *Beautiful, more beautiful, most beautiful.*

Some adjectives are compared irregularly; as,

Pos.	*Comp.*	*Super.*
Little	Less	Least
Many	More	Most
Far	Farther	Farthest

The positive is sometimes lessened in meaning by the termination *ish;* as, *Green, greenish.*

There are adjectives which are incapable of comparison; as, *True, omnipotent, triangular.* We cannot say *truer, more omnipotent, more triangular.*

EXERCISES.

Draw lines under the adjectives, and place *p* over the word for positive, *c* for comparative, and *s* for superlative:—

An industrious pupil. John is the taller of the two. The Illawarra is lovlier than Greece. The wonderful steam-engine is the strongest and most diligent of labourers. Sturt in the desert of Australia was braver than Napoleon at

Waterloo. Milton was a polished gentleman, a great scholar, a sincere patriot, and a sublime poet. Those who patiently endure evils, are more noble than those who resent them. John is the less boy of the two, but he is a better scholar than his brother. Hydrogen is the lightest of gases, and carbonic acid the heaviest. The holy religion of Jesus is most agreeable to reason, and most delightful to the feelings.

ARTICLE, or DEFINITIVE.

In some cases the noun can stand by itself without a word before it; as, *Man is fallen.* But we cannot say, *Lion is savage*; *table is broken.* We have need of some word before the noun in these instances, to make sense of the passage.

If we want to speak of one individual, that is, a single one of the class or kind, we must have another word before the noun; as, *A man.* The class or kind of beings mentioned here is *man*, and to separate one from the whole we say, *a man.*

A word thus coming before a noun to distinguish one or several from the rest of the same kind is called an ARTICLE, or a DEFINITIVE.

The Articles in most common use are *a* or *an*, and *the.*

When no particular object is referred to, the article *a* or *an* may be used; as, *Give me a candle;* meaning any candle. Hence *a* or *an* is called the INDEFINITE ARTICLE.

A is employed before a word beginning with a consonant, and *an* before one beginning with a vowel or silent *h*; as, *A fire, an apple, an hour.*

A is used before the letter *u* when it is pronounced long; as, *A union.*

If we wish to speak of a particular candle, we

say, *Bring us the candle.* *The* is, therefore, called the DEFINITE Article. *The* is placed before both singular and plural nouns.

There are, also, other words which are used as Articles or Definitives.

The definitive *this* applies to objects near, and *that* to things distant. The plural of *this* is *these*, and of *that* is *those*. They are by some named DEMONSTRATIVES.

Other definitives have been called DISTRIBUTIVES; as, *Each, every, either, neither.*

Any, all, such, some, several, many, few, both, only, one, other, another, are also definitives.

None, one, other, another, are often nouns. *Other,* when a noun, has a plural; as, *Others may do as they please.*

The Cardinal Numbers, *One, two, three,* &c., being used to express how many of the whole are meant, are definitives; as are also the Ordinal Numbers, *First, second, third,* &c.

Definitives are sometimes used without the noun to which they refer; as, *Several are wanting;* that is, *several things. These are good apples;* that is, *these apples.*

PRONOUNS.

A PRONOUN is a word used instead of a noun.

It is used when we do not know the names of persons or things, or when we do not wish to repeat those names.

In referring to some men whose names were unknown to me, I should use the pronoun *they.*

Instead of saying, *John told Ellen that John wanted Ellen,* we supply the place of nouns by

pronouns in declaring, *John told Ellen that he wanted her ;—he* and *her* are pronouns.

Pronouns are either PERSONAL, RELATIVE, or POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVE.

The Personal pronouns, or true pronouns, have case, gender, number, and person.

An individual speaking of *himself* employs the FIRST PERSON; as, *I.* When speaking *to another,* he employs the SECOND PERSON; as, *You,* When speaking *of another,* he employs the THIRD PERSON; as, *He.*

Pronouns have no inflexions, or changes, to express the genders of the first and second persons.

But we have the masculine *he,* feminine *she.* and neuter *it,* of the third person.

The personal pronouns are thus inflected :—

FIRST PERSON.

Singular.		*Plural.*
Nom.	I	We
Poss.	Mine	Ours
Obj.	Me	Us

SECOND PERSON.

Nom.	Thou	Ye, or You
Poss.	Thine	Yours
Obj.	Thee	You

THIRD PERSON MASCULINE.

Nom.	He	They
Poss.	His	Theirs
Obj.	Him	Them

THIRD PERSON FEMININE.

Nom.	She	They
Poss.	Hers	Theirs
Obj.	Her	Them

THIRD PERSON NEUTER.

Nom.	It	They
Poss.	Its	Theirs
Obj.	It	Them

General usage has caused the plural form of the second person to be used as singular. Instead of using *thou, thine, thee,* for singular, we have *you* and *yours* employed for both numbers.

There are Compound Personal Pronouns; as, *Himself, themselves.*

EXERCISE.

Underline the personal pronoun, and put *n, p,* or *o,* for case, and 1, 2, or 3, for persons over them:—

They are kind to her. Can we not help him? The ant shows us our duty. These books are his, but the flute is mine. Lovest thou me more than them? If you and I were attentive, she was equally so. We like this house of yours. He admires theirs as well as ours. Religion should be sought for the peace it gives to those who have it.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

A RELATIVE PRONOUN is one that relates to some word or sentence going before it.

The word or sentence to which the pronoun relates is called the ANTECEDENT. *The boy who ate the apple;* here the word *boy* is the antecedent to the relative pronoun *who.*

The relative pronouns are *Who, which, that, what,* and sometimes *as.*

Who is applied to human beings; *which* to other living creatures, and to things without life; and *that* is used instead of *who* or *which.*

We say *who* of a man, *which* of a dog or stone, and *that* for a man, a dog, or a stone.

What is used for *that which*; as, *This is what I like*; meaning, *this is that which I like.*

Who is nominative. The objective of *who* is *whom*; and the possessive is *whose*. *Which* becomes *whose* in the possessive, but remains *which* in the objective.

As is employed as a relative, instead of other relatives, when the antecedent has the word *such* before it. *Such boys as obey their teachers; as obey* means *who obey.*

The relative may relate to several words; as, *The branch broke which caused his fall.* The antecedent to *which* is—*the branch broke.*

Relatives are often used before a question; as, *Who is there? Which is it?* When so employed they are called INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

Whoever, whomsoever, &c., are COMPOUND RELATIVES.

EXERCISE.

Place one line under the Relatives and two lines under the Antecedent:—

He found the box which he had lost. Clarkson and Wilberforce were they who loved the poor negro. The boy of whom you speak scorns to tell a lie. That was the girl that so loved her mother. These are such trees as bear well. The boy whose character is admired is he who is kind and noble hearted. I like the animal which guards my door.

POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

These are so called because they unite the character of a pronoun and an adjective.

They are *My, thy, his, her, our, your, their, its,* and *own.*

Most of these and some personal pronouns take the word *self,* or *selves* after them and form

Compound Possessives: as, *Myself, thyself, ourselves, yourselves.* These are sometimes called RECIPROCAL Pronouns.

The difference between the possessives and the personal pronouns is this;—that the possessives cannot stand alone, but require some noun to come after them, while the personal pronouns can be used by themselves.

If I say, *This book is his,* the word *his* will be a personal pronoun; but in the phrase, *This is his book,* the word *his* will be a possessive adjective pronoun.

The personal pronouns *mine* and *thine* are sometimes employed in the Bible for possessives; as, *Mine eye, thine heart.*

EXERCISE.

Underline the possessive adjective pronouns:—

Your courage was proved in resisting his temptation. He carried her box for her. This apple is yours. Men carry the ore of the Chilian mines in baskets, on their backs. These are mine, and those are his. We love the place of our birth.

VERBS.

A VERB is a word which shows doing or being as, *The cat scratches, the cat is beaten.*

Here two things are said of the cat—that she scratches and that she is beaten; *scratches* and *is beaten* are verbs.

The bird sleeps; the verb *sleeps* denotes the condition or being of the bird.

Verbs are either TRANSITIVE or INTRANSITIVE; transitive means passing off.

When the action passes from the actor or doer to something else, it is called Transitive; as, *The man struck the stone. Struck* is a transitive verb, because the action of striking passed from the man to the stone.

When the action or state is confined to the person or thing, the verb is called Intransitive, or not transitive.

Thus, *The horse trots; trots* is an intransitive verb, as the action of trotting does not pass off from the horse.

The verbs, *To sit, to stand, to walk,* are Intransitives.

The Transitive verbs are usually called ACTIVE, and the Intransitive, NEUTER VERBS.

EXERCISE.

Put *a* under the active and *n* under the neuter verbs:—

Britannia rules the waves. The boy laughs loudly and sleeps soundly. The Russians burnt Moscow in 1812. Those who tease others get no love. John ate all the custards. The cave of Wellington Valley contains fossils. Byron swam well. Five million Mexican Indians died of the small pox. Tasman discovered New Zealand. Cook first trod upon the shores of New South Wales. The Platypus seeks the water's edge. The brave Moffatt laboured in Africa. The blood of Williams dyed the shore of Erromanga.

There are three different times in which a thing may be said to happen—present time, past time, and future time.

Most languages have changes in the verb itself to express these three TENSES, or times.

Two tenses only are provided for in the forms of English verbs—the present and past; as, *I sing to-day, I sang yesterday.*

The future tense is made by the word *shall* or *will* being put before the verb; as, *I shall sing to-morrow.*

Besides having tenses, verbs have NUMBER and PERSON.

The verb which will agree with a singular nominative will not always agree with a plural one. We can say, *The boy learns*; but we cannot say, *The boys learns.*

The verb which will agree with a nominative of one person will not always agree with that of another person. We can say, *He reads*; but we cannot say, *I reads.*

The verb, then, has changes for number and person.

Those verbs in which the pronoun is omitted are called IMPERSONAL Verbs; as, *It snows.*

The changes produced in a verb by different tense, number, and person, form what is called the Conjugation or Inflexion of a verb.

Thus:—

PRESENT TENSE.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1*st Per.*	I swim	We swim
2*nd Per.*	Thou swimest	You swim
3*rd Per.*	He swims	They swim

EXERCISE.

The pupil to write out the inflexion of the present tense of the verbs, *I work, I draw, I find.*

Verbs have MOODS.

The Moods or modes are the different ways of expressing an action; and there are in many

languages changes in the spelling of the verb to show this difference in sense.

English verbs do not change sufficiently to express these different moods, but have need of other verbs called Auxiliaries to be put before them.

When we simply speak of an action being done, the verb is said to be in the INDICATIVE Mood; as, *I walk. Lovest thou me?*

When one action is conditional, or dependent upon another action, the verb is in the CONDITIONAL or SUBJUNCTIVE Mood. *If I go, I will send him to you.* The sending of him depends upon my going; the verb *go*, therefore, is in the Conditional mood.

When we wish to show our liberty to do a thing, we use the word *may* before the verb; as, *I may walk.*

Ability to do a thing is shown by *can*; as, *I can walk.* This is the POTENTIAL Mood.

When the verb marks a command or request, it is IMPERATIVE; as, *Bring me the book.* The imperative is the same as the present tense of the verb.

In the INFINITIVE Mood the verb has the character of a noun; and that state is, therefore, sometimes known as the Substantive Mood.

There is no change in the English verb to make the infinitive, but it is formed by putting the word *to* before the verb; as, *To work.*

The Infinitive undergoes no changes for number and person.

It is often used as a noun; as, *To err is human, to forgive divine. To err* and *to forgive* are nouns. *To err* has the same meaning as *error, to forgive* as *forgiveness.*

Verbs admit of inflexions in forming the IMPERFECT and PERFECT PARTICIPLES.

The Imperfect Participle, sometimes called the PRESENT Participle, is formed by adding *ing* to the verb. It shows that the action or state is going on; as, *The girl is playing. Playing* is the imperfect participle of the verb *to play.*

The Perfect Participle, known sometimes as the PAST Participle, is either formed by a change in the verb itself, or by the addition of *d* or *ed* to the verb.

This participle shows that the action or state is finished; as, *The game is played; the work was done. Done* and *played* are the perfect participles of the verbs *to do* and *to play.*

The Imperfect Participle is often used as a noun; as, *The digging of copper is profitable; digging* is here a noun.

The participle has often much of the character of an adjective. *He lived beloved by his friends,* means, *He lived a beloved man by his friends.*

Verbs are either REGULAR, IRREGULAR, or DEFECTIVE.

They are Regular when the past tense and perfect participle are formed by adding *d* or *ed* to the present tense.

Verbs are Irregular when the past tense and perfect participle have not this addition of *d* or *ed.*

They are Defective when they want either one or two of these three parts,—Present tense, Past tense, Perfect participle.

To love is a regular verb; being thus inflected: present, *love;* past, *loved;* perfect participle, *loved.*

To write is an irregular verb; being, present, *write;* past, *wrote;* perfect participle, *written.*

May is a defective verb; having the present in *may,* the past in *might;* but having no perfect participle.

Can, must, quoth, shall, will, are defective verbs.

The irregular verbs are called STRONG VERBS, because they stand without any addition to them. The regular verbs are the WEAK VERBS.

There are about two hundred irregular verbs. The following are some of them:—

Present.	*Past.*	*Perfect part.*
Am	was	been
Arise	arose	arisen
Bear	bare	borne
Begin	began	begun
Blow	blew	blown
Break	broke	broken
Come	came	come
Drink	drank	drunk
Eat	ate	eaten
Fly	flew	flown
Freeze	froze	frozen
Go	went	gone
Grow	grew	grown
Lade	laded	laden
Lay	laid	laid
Lie	lay	lain
Lose	lost	lost
Mow	mowed	mown
Read	read	read
See	saw	seen
Seek	sought	sought
Shake	shook	shaken

Sing	sang	sung
Slay	slew	slain
Speak	spoke	spoken
Spit	spat	spitten
Strike	struck	struck or stricken
Teach	taught	taught
Tear	tore or tare	torn
Tread	trod	trodden
Wear	wore	worn

Most of the irregular verbs form their perfect participles in *n* or *en*, in the same way as all English verbs once did.

EXERCISE.

Put one line under the regular, and two lines under the irregular verbs :—

The satin bird warbles in our bush. He is awake. We rarely see chalk in the rocks of America and Australia. Declare the whole truth. That boy jumps well. You should not forget kindness. Hold fast that which is good. The Pterodactyl cleft the air before the chalk hills arose. Captain Sturt journeyed over the Stony Desert. Coal is found in hollow basins of the earth. The Swan flows past Perth.

We have spoken of *Auxiliary* or *Helping Verbs*, being put before other verbs to form our Potentials.

They are also placed before verbs to make the perfect participles; as, *The dog is admired: is* will be the auxiliary.

The use of the auxiliary is to produce modification, or change of sense, in the verb to which it is joined.

These auxiliaries are *May, might, can, could, will, would, shall, should, do, did, have, had, be, was, must,* &c.

The auxiliaries are sometimes called GENERIC verbs, as expressing action or being in general; while all other verbs are styled SPECIFIC, as expressing action or being in particular.

The auxiliaries are thus Inflected or Conjugated; that is, they undergo the following changes in the expression of manner, time, number, and person.

The Verb TO BE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.—PRESENT TENSE.

1*st per.*	I am	We are
2*nd per.*	Thou art	Ye or you are
3*rd per.*	He, she, or it is	They are

PAST.

1*st per.*	I was	We were
2*nd per.*	Thou wast	Ye or you were
3*rd per.*	He, she, or it was	They were

FUTURE TENSE.

1*st per.*	I shall or will be	We shall or will be
2*nd per.*	Thou shalt or wilt be	You shall or will be
3*rd per.*	He shall or will be	They shall or will be

CONDITIONAL OR SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

1*st per.*	If I be	If we be
2*nd per.*	If thou be	If you be
3*rd per.*	If he be	If they be

PAST TENSE.

1*st per.*	If I were	If we were
2*nd per.*	If thou were	If you were
3*rd per.*	If he were	If they were

FUTURE TENSE.

1*st per.*	If I shall be	If we shall be
2*nd per.*	If thou shalt be	If you shall be
3*rd per.*	If he shall be	If they shall be

INFINITIVE.

Present—To be.

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect—Being. *Perfect*—Been.

The verb *To Have* is inflected as the verb *To be*, except in the past tense of the conditional mood. The past tense is *had*. The participles are *having* and *had*.

I do. *Present*, I do, thou doest, &c.
Past, I did, thou didst, he did, &c.

May. *Present*, I may, thou mayst, &c.
Past, I might, thou mightst, he might.

Can. *Present*, I can, thou canst, he can, &c.
Past, I could, thou couldst, he could.

ACTIVE AND PASSIVE VOICES.

When an auxiliary is put before another verb, the whole forms a COMPOUND VERB; as, *Can write; am writing.*

When a transitive verb stands connected with an auxiliary, a Compound Transitive verb is produced.

The compound transitive verbs have two VOICES, or forms, in which they appear; the ACTIVE and the PASSIVE.

The verb is active when its nominative is the doer of an action; as, *James has eaten the tarts.*

James is here the nominative or actor; the verb *has eaten* is an active verb.

The verb is passive when its nominative, that is, the person or thing spoken of, is acted upon by something else. Thus, *James was punished.* James is nominative, and was here acted upon. The verb *was punished* is passive.

I have found is active; and *I have been found* is passive.

The active voice may be either simple or compound; as, *I love, I may love.* But the passive is always compound; as, *I am loved.*

To turn an active verb into a passive one, we must put some part of the verb *to be* before the perfect participle of the active verb. The active, *I strike,* becomes passive in *I am struck.*

The Intransitive or Neuter Verb can never be used in the passive voice. We cannot say, *I am sit; I was slept.*

But by adding a preposition to the neuter verb, we may form a PREPOSITION VERB, having the same power as the active verb, of being converted into the passive. *We laugh,* is neuter. *We laugh at,* is an active preposition verb. *We are laughed at,* is passive.

EXERCISES.

Place *p* under for passive, and *a* for active :—

She ought to have known her lesson. France has gained much influence in ruling fashion. The bower-bird is playing at home. Children should not be seen to fight. Those persons who love will be loved. Gunpowder may be employed with advantage in quarries and mines, but it is sadly misused in the field of battle. Paul manifested the spirit of a true hero.

Convert the following sentences into expres-

sions of the passive voice; as, *The dog swallowed the bone,* into the passive form of *The bone was swallowed by the dog.*

He has outdone the monkey in mischief. George should conquer his temper. Melanie killed the opossum. Fern trees ornament some Tasmanian glens. Lord de Rosse resolved into stars several nebulæ in 1846. The electric telegraph can carry a message at the rate of 250,000 miles in a second. The Scriptures have comforted many a sorrowing heart.

COMPOUND TENSES.

The Auxiliary or Generic verbs, when allied to other verbs, forming compound verbs, are the means of making many tenses, or varieties of time.

Naturally there are but three different tenses; the past, the present, and the future. But there are many things which affect the meaning of these, and cause a difference in the kinds of past, present, and future.

These changes are produced by the use of the auxiliary verbs, and are commonly called Compound tenses; names are given to some of them.

The auxiliary HAVE, though denoting possession, is employed to express an action recently finished; as, *I have written a letter.* Such a variation of time is called the PERFECT tense.

If the auxiliary SHALL or WILL be placed before HAVE, then is formed the FUTURE PERFECT tense; as, *I shall have written the letter before dinner.* The finishing of the action is here dependent upon some future time.

The auxiliaries MIGHT, COULD, WOULD, SHOULD, before HAVE, indicate a conditional meaning; as,

I should have written the letter had I not been ill.

Here the finishing of the action is dependent upon some other circumstance. The intention was to have written the letter, but illness prevented this being done at the time appointed.

The past tense of HAVE is HAD. This word forms another tense, called the PLUPERFECT. It is used to show that the action was finished before something else took place; as, *I had written the letter before he came.*

When HAVE comes before part of the verb *to be,* other tenses are formed, which are of the passive voice; as, *I have been punished.* The prefix of *shall have,* constitutes the FUTURE PERFECT of the passive.

When HAD comes before part of the verb *to be,* it shows that an action was going on before another was begun or finished.

It is important to notice, that the part of the verb which is joined to the auxiliary *to be* or *to have,* is always a participle; as, *it was spoken; it has flown.*

We will now conjugate a verb with the principal compound tenses :—

ACTIVE VOICE.

The Verb TO SPEAK.

INDICATIVE MOOD.—PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1*st per.* I speak	We speak
2*nd per.* Thou speakest	You speak
3*rd per.* He speaks	They speak

PAST.

1*st per.*	I spoke	We spoke
2*nd per.*	Thou spokest	You spoke
3*rd per.*	He spoke	They spoke

PERFECT.

1*st per.*	I have spoken	We have spoken
2*nd per.*	Thou hast spoken	You have spoken
3*rd per.*	He has spoken	They have spoken

PLUPERFECT.

1*st per.*	I had spoken	We had spoken
2*nd per.*	Thou hadst spoken	You had spoken
3*rd per.*	He had spoken	They had spoken

FUTURE.

1*st per.*	I shall speak	We shall speak
2*nd per.*	Thou shalt speak	You shall speak
3*rd per.*	He shall speak	They shall speak

FUTURE PERFECT.

1*st per.*	I shall have spoken	We shall have spoken
2*nd per.*	Thou shalt have spoken	You shall have spoken
3*rd per.*	He shall have spoken	They shall have spoken

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

PRESENT.

1*st per.*	If I speak	If we speak
2*nd per.*	If thou speak	If you speak
3*rd per.*	If he speak	If they speak

PAST.

1*st per.*	If I spoke	If we spoke
2*nd per.*	If thou spoke	If you spoke
3*rd per.*	If he spoke	If they spoke

The other tenses of this mood are as the Indicative.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

PRESENT.

1*st per.*	I may speak	We may speak
2*nd per.*	Thou mayst speak	You may speak
3*rd per.*	He may speak	Thou may speak

PAST.

1*st per.*	I might speak	We might speak
2*nd per.*	Thou mightst speak	You might speak
3*rd per.*	He might speak	They might speak

PERFECT.

1*st per.*	I may have spoken	We may have spoken
2*nd per.*	Thou mayst have spoken	You may have spoken
3*rd per.*	He may have spoken	They may have spoken

PLUPERFECT.

1*st per.*	I might, could, would, or should have spoken	We might have spoken
2*nd per.*	Thou mightst have spoken	You might have spoken
3*rd per.*	He might have spoken	They might have spoken

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Speak, or speak thou — Speak, or speak you

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present, To speak — *Perfect,* To have spoken

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect, Speaking — *Perfect,* Spoken

PASSIVE VOICE.

The Verb TO BE LOVED.

INDICATIVE MOOD.—PRESENT TENSE.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1*st per.*	I am loved	We are loved
2*nd per.*	Thou art loved	You are loved
3*rd per.*	He is loved	They are loved

PAST.

1*st per.*	I was loved	We were loved
2*nd per.*	Thou wast loved	You were loved
3*rd per.*	He was loved	They were loved

PERFECT.

1*st per.*	I have been loved	We have been loved
2*nd per.*	Thou hast been loved	You have been loved
3*rd per.*	He has been loved	They have been loved

PLUPERFECT.

1*st per.*	I had been loved	We had been loved
2*nd per.*	Thou hadst been loved	You had been loved
3*rd per.*	He had been loved	They had been loved

FUTURE.

1*st per.*	I shall be loved	We shall be loved
2*nd per.*	Thou shalt be loved	You shall be loved
3*rd per.*	He shall be loved	They shall be loved

FUTURE PERFECT.

1*st per.*	I shall have been loved	We shall have been loved
2*nd per.*	Thou shalt have been loved	You shall have been loved
3*rd per.*	He shall have been loved	They shall have been loved

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

PRESENT.

1*st per.*	If I be loved	If we be loved
2*nd per.*	If thou be loved	If you be loved
3*rd per.*	If he be loved	If they be loved

PAST.

1*st per.*	If I were loved	If we were loved
2*nd per.*	If thou wert loved	If you were loved
3*rd per.*	If he were loved	If they were loved

The other tenses as the indicative.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

PRESENT.

1*st per.*	I may be loved	We may be loved
2*nd per.*	Thou mayst be loved	You may be loved
3*rd per.*	He may be loved	They may be loved

PAST.

1*st per.*	I might be loved	We might be loved
2*nd per.*	Thou mightst be loved	You might be loved
3*rd per.*	He might be loved	They might be loved

PERFECT.

1*st per.*	I may have been loved	We may have been loved
2*nd per.*	Thou mayst have loved	You may have been loved
3*rd per.*	He may have been loved	They may have been loved

PLUPERFECT.

1*st per.*	I might have been loved	We might have been loved
2*nd per.*	Thou mightst have been loved	You might have been loved
3*rd per.*	He might have been loved	They might have been loved

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Be loved, or be thou loved	Be loved, or be you loved

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Pres. To be loved	*Perf.* To have been loved

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect. Being loved	*Perfect.* Been loved

EXERCISE.

Inflect the following verbs, either by writing them out at length, or repeating them, after the manner shewn:—*To write, to eat, to gain, to sleep, to laugh, to sing, to lay, to lie, to go, to be shaken, to be commanded, to be taught.*

LIST OF SOME TENSES FORMED BY AUXILIARIES.

INDICATIVE.

Present.	*Past or Imperfect.*
I love	I loved
I do love	I did love
I am loving	I was loving
I am loved	I was loved

Perfect.

I have loved
I have been loving
I have been loved

Pluperfect.

I had loved
I had been loving
I had been loved

Future.

I shall love
I shall be loving
I shall be loved
I will love
I will be loving
I will be loved

Future Perfect.

I shall have loved
I shall have been loving
I shall have been loved
I will have loved
I will have been loving
I will have been loved

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

If I love, if I loved, &c.
Unless I love, &c.
Though I love, &c.
However I love, &c.
Lest I love, &c.
Except I love, &c.
That I love, &c.
Ere I love, &c.
Although I love, &c.
Whether I love, &c.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present.

I may love
I may be loving
I may be loved
I can love
I can be loving
I can be loved

Perfect.

I may have loved
I may have been loving
I may have been loved
I can have loved, &c.

Imperfect.

I might love
I might be loving
I might be loved
I could, &c.; I would, &c.; I should, &c.

Pluperfect.

I might have loved
I might have been loving
I might have been loved
I could, &c., would, &c., should, &c.

The pupil may amuse himself, if he will, by writing out the rest of the persons in connexion with these and other varieties of tense.

As an aid to the memory of the pupil, the following simple arrangement of Verbs is submitted :—

ACTIVE VOICE.

Moods.	*Present.*	*Past.*	*Perfect.*	*Pluperfect.*	*Future.*	*Future Perfect.*
INDICATIVE	I love	I loved	I have loved	I had loved	I shall love	I shall have loved
CONDITIONAL	If I love	If I loved	If I have loved	If I had loved	If I shall love	If I shall have loved
POTENTIAL	I may love	I might love	I may have loved	I might have loved		
IMPERATIVE	Love					
INFINITIVE	To love		To have loved			
PARTICIPLES	Loving		Loved			

PASSIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE	I am loved	I was loved	I have been loved	I had been loved	I shall be loved	I shall have been loved
CONDITIONAL	If I be loved	If I were loved	If I have been loved	If I had been loved	If I shall be loved	If I shall have been loved
POTENTIAL	I may be loved	I might be loved	I may have been loved	I might have been loved		
IMPERATIVE	Be loved					
INFINITIVE	To be loved		To have been loved			
PARTICIPLES	Being loved		Been loved			

ADVERBS.

An Adverb is a word joined to a verb, an adjective, or another adverb, to qualify its meaning.

If I see a horse running, and wish to express something of the manner of his running, I must use an adverb.

The horse runs swiftly: the adverb *swiftly* qualifies the verb *runs.*

A most beautiful rose: the adverb *most* qualifies the adjective *beautiful.*

She sings very sweetly: the adverb *very* qualifies the adverb *sweetly.*

Most adverbs are formed by adding *ly* to an adjective; as, adjective *great;* adverb *greatly.*

Adverbs usually answer the question, *how?* How did you write? *Carefully, slowly, well;* these are adverbs.

Some adverbs are compared like adjectives; as, *Soon, sooner, soonest.*

The adverbs of Manner are, *Well, bravely,* &c.

The adverbs of Quality are, *Sweetly, bitterly, nobly,* &c.

The adverbs of Time are, *Now, then, after, while, afterwards, early, to-day, to-morrow.*

The adverbs of Place are, *There, where, here, above, below, near, forwards, to-and-fro,* &c.

The adverbs of Affirmation are, *Yea, yes.*

The adverbs of Negation are, *Nay, no, not.*

The adverbs of Interrogation are, *Why? when? how? where? whence?*

The adverbs of Degree are, *Very, so, almost, nearly, much, less, quite, enough.*

The adverbs of Number are, *Once, twice, again, secondly,* &c.

But, usually a conjunction, is an adverb when used for *only;* as, *He is but a boy.*

EXERCISES.

Underline the adverbs, and place a cross under the words they qualify :—

The hyena laughs hideously. The Maories rapidly learn mechanical arts. Time soon flies. The fern tree valleys of Mount Wellington are exceedingly romantic. The crab walks sideways. The gate swings backwards and forwards. Alfred was far greater than Charlemagne. Polycarp submitted to martyrdom quite willingly. Rome was once almost destroyed by the Gauls. Where did you go, then? This exercise is not much too long. Why are you so often later than your brother?

PREPOSITION.

A PREPOSITION is used to connect words, by showing the relation they bear to one another.

Prepositions are so called because they are put before a noun or pronoun in the objective case.

The book is under the table; the preposition *under,* shows the connexion or relation which is between the *book* and the *table.*

London is in England; the preposition *in* exhibits the relation *London* bears to *England.*

The Prepositions in common use are, *About, against, after, among, around, at, between, before, beside, below, by, down, for, from, in, near, of, on, over, since, up, until, towards, with, within.*

EXERCISE.

Underline the Prepositions, and place a cross under the nouns to which they relate.

Mercury is near the sun. We sit across the saddle. Mount

Gambier district is towards Portland Bay. Captain Sturt suffered much when rowing up the Murray. Never live beyond your means. The new planet Neptune goes round the sun in 160 years. Read during the holidays. An Earl is below a Duke. The brain is disordered by excitement. Coal exists throughout Eastern Tasmania. Bread has been made out of deal boards.

CONJUNCTION.

A CONJUNCTION is a word which joins words and sentences together; as, *Idleness and extravagance lead to poverty.* The conjunction *and* connects the words *idleness* and *extravagance.*

He was honest though he was poor. Here are two sentences; *He was honest, he was poor;* and they are connected by the conjunction *though.*

The principal Conjunctions are, *Also, and, as, because, but, else, except, for, if, likewise, nevertheless, nor, or, since, so, than, that, therefore, unless, whether. As well as,* forms a compound conjunction.

That, sometimes a definitive, and sometimes a relative pronoun, often merely connects words, and is then a conjunction. *The boy was so hungry that he ate all the pie; that* is here a conjunction.

Then, generally an adverb of time, is sometimes a conjunction, as in the sentence, *Idleness is sin, see then that you avoid it.*

Too, usually an adverb, is occasionally a conjunction supplying the place of *also;* as, *He went there too;* that is, *He went there also.*

As and *so,* often adverbs of degree, are sometimes conjunctions. *This day is as fine as I expected.* The first *as* is an adverb qualifying *fine,* the second a conjunction.

For, usually a preposition, is sometimes a conjunction, meaning the same as *because;* as, *The boy laughs, for he cannot help it;* that is, *because he cannot help it.*

Either and *neither*, are conjunctions when they do not come before nouns expressed or understood; as, in, *You may either go or stay.*

EXERCISE.

Underline the conjunctions :—

Riches and honour may please, but they will not satisfy. We know that true piety produces happiness. The Greek language is more copious than the Roman. Hungary will be free unless Russia assist Austria. The Scriptures are to be reverenced, because they come from God. Notwithstanding their poverty, the Icelanders are cheerful. Except he return soon, we shall believe Leichhardt lost. Though the climate of Australia is sometimes very hot, yet it is not unhealthy. Neither Greece nor Rome produced a Howard. The Victoria runs not to the Gulf; however, Sir T. Mitchell made great and important discoveries.

INTERJECTION.

An Interjection expresses a feeling of the mind in an exclamation; as, *Alas! O! Hurrah! O dear!*

Some words which are otherwise verbs, adjectives, &c., may be considered as interjections, when uttered in sudden exclamation; as, *Hail! Welcome! Wonderful!*

Interjections have always after them the stop called a Note of Admiration (!).

PARSING.

Parsing is the taking of sentences to pieces, and naming the class to which every word belongs,

and other particulars respecting it, according to the forms of grammar.

For the present the pupil is only required to parse, according to the knowledge he has acquired in the former part of this grammar. He cannot be expected to enter into the particulars of concord, government, &c., until he have learnt the Syntax of the language.

ILLUSTRATIONS OF PARSING.

That little girl holds her brother's hand, and walks slowly with him.

THAT—Article or definitive, defining the noun *girl.*

LITTLE—Adjective, positive degree, qualifying noun *girl.*

GIRL—Common noun, feminine gender, singular number, nominative case, being nominative to the verb *holds.*

HOLDS—Regular active verb, indicative mood, present tense, third person, singular number.

HER—Possessive adjective pronoun.

BROTHER'S—Common noun, masculine gender, singular number, possessive case.

HAND—Common noun, neuter gender, singular number, objective case, being object of the verb *holds.*

AND—Conjunction.

WALKS—Regular neuter verb, indicative mood, present tense, third person, singular number.

SLOWLY—Adverb, qualifying the verb *walks.*

WITH—Preposition.

HIM—Personal pronoun, third person, singular number, masculine gender, objective case,—object of preposition *with.*

The timid kangaroo, disturbed by an enemy coming to attack him, leaped quickly over the highest brush, and would have been saved, if he had not been struck down by some remarkably well-aimed shots, which, alas! did their intended work.

THE—Definite article, defining *kangaroo.*
TIMID—Adjective, positive degree, qualifying *kangaroo.*
KANGAROO—Common noun, masculine gender, singular number, nominative to the verb *leaped.*
DISTURBED—Perfect participle of the verb *to disturb.*
BY—Preposition.
AN—Indefinite article, defining *enemy.*
ENEMY—Common noun, masculine gender, singular number, object of the preposition *by.*
COMING—Imperfect participle of the verb *to come.*
TO ATTACK — Regular active verb, infinitive mood, present tense.
HIM — Personal pronoun, third person, singular number, masculine gender, object of the verb *to attack.*
LEAPED—Regular neuter verb, indicative mood, past tense, third person, singular number.
QUICKLY—Adverb, qualifying *leaped.*
OVER—Preposition.
THE—Definite article, defining *brush.*
HIGHEST — Adjective, superlative degree, qualifying *brush.*
BRUSH—Common noun, neuter gender, singular number, object of the preposition *over.*
AND—Conjunction.
WOULD HAVE BEEN SAVED — Regular passive

verb, potential mood, pluperfect tense, third person, singular number.

IF—Conjunction.

HE—Personal pronoun, third person, singular number, masculine gender, nominative to verb *had been struck down.*

HAD BEEN STRUCK DOWN—Irregular passive verb, conditional mood, pluperfect tense, third person, singular number.

NOT—Adverb, qualifying *had been struck down.*

BY—Preposition.

SOME—Article, defining *shots.*

REMARKABLY—Adverb, qualifying the adjective *well-aimed.*

WELL-AIMED—Compound adjective, positive degree, qualifying *shots.*

SHOTS — Common noun, neuter gender, plural number, object of preposition *by.*

WHICH—Relative pronoun, relating to *shots,* as its antecedent.

ALAS !—Interjection.

DID—Irregular active verb, indicative mood, past tense, third person, plural number.

THEIR—Possessive adjective pronoun.

INTENDED—Adjective, positive degree, qualifying *work.*

WORK—Common noun, neuter gender, singular number, object of the verb *did.*

SYNTAX.

SYNTAX teaches us how to make correct sentences.

A Sentence consists of a number of words placed together to make a statement.

A Compound sentence consists of two or more simple sentences joined together.

James is happy—is a simple sentence: *Alexander conquered many kingdoms, but he could not master himself*—is a compound sentence.

Every sentence must have a SUBJECT, which is the thing spoken of; and a PREDICATE, which is what is said of it.

The wombat burrows: here the subject is the noun, *wombat*, and the predicate is the verb *burrows*.

Sentences in most instances have also an OBJECT. *The English conquered India; English* is the subject, *conquered* the predicate, and *India* the object.

Other words in a sentence are called Adjuncts. *The warlike English gradually conquered rich India; warlike, gradually,* and *rich* are adjuncts.

Concord is the agreement which one word has with another.

One word governs another in a sentence when it causes it to be in some particular case or mood.

There are certain rules in Syntax by which we may be guided as to the correct speaking or writing of sentences.

RULES OF SYNTAX.

RULE I. The Subject of a verb is placed in the Nominative case : as, *I live here :* not *Me live here. Live* is the verb, and its subject *I* is nominative.

Remark.—The verb to which the subject belongs is sometimes not expressed, but understood. *You are as clever as he;* that is, *as he is :* the verb *is* is understood.

EXERCISES.

Correct the following exercises, and show how the rule is applied to the corrected sentence.

Us came to him. Her was not at school. Adams said him discovered the planet Neptune. Who is there? Me. Sir T. Mitchell and them saw the monster fossil kangaroo. Who went home? Her. Did Newton first think of gravitation? Yes, hisself. We should not hate those whom hate us. Them that strive will win. Him, being away, escaped the danger. Mehemet Ali, whom governed Egypt, was a tyrant. If as clever, you are not so kind as her. Who saw the waterfall? Not us.

RULE II. A verb agrees with its Subject or Nominative in number and person; as, *Solomon was wise.*

Solomon is the subject or nominative, and is in the third person, singular number; the verb *was* is in the same person and the same number.

Remark.—A noun or pronoun is said to be ABSOLUTE when it neither governs a word nor is governed by a word.

The NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE occurs when the

imperfect participle follows the noun or pronoun ; as, *The cart, being upset, the crockery was smashed*; *He, having repented, we pardoned him ; cart* and *he* are Nominatives Absolute.

EXERCISES.

Thou was very wrong. The suffering of the early Christians were great. Veins of granite runs often through other rocks. The number of people in Australia are above half a million. California under the Mexicans were almost unknown. The third ring of Saturn have been discovered. The expenses of Indian warfare is great. The islanders of Torres Straits wears wigs. Lodes of copper has been found alongside of tin lodes. The caverns of Mount Gambier is in limestone. Not one of the mighty conquerors have left a blessing behind them. The open plains in Western Tasmania was inaccessible, because of lofty ranges and dense scrub. In slate is found no fossils of animals or trees. What bounds Victoria to the east? The Australian Alps.

RULE III. The verb is Plural if its nominatives are connected by AND : as, *The Murray and the Darling are large rivers.*

The verb is Singular if its nominatives are singular, and of the third person, and are separated by OR or NOR; as, *The emu or the kangaroo was shot,*—not *were shot; Neither he nor she was ready,*—not *were ready.*

Remark.—When WITH connects nouns, the verb is plural or singular according to the sense intended to be conveyed. We can say, *The hen, with her chickens, has eaten the corn ;* or, *the hen, with her chickens, have eaten the corn.* In the first case, the chickens do not help in the eating ; in the second, they do.

It is correct to say, *She, with her needle, sews*

all day; the farmer, with his sons, have ploughed the section.

Caution.—It is better not to have OR or NOR between nominatives of different numbers or of different persons. Instead of, *The parrot or the cockatoos are in the tree,* say, *the parrot is in the tree, or the cockatoos are.* Instead of, *You or I am wrong,* say, *you are wrong or I am.*

EXERCISE.

Gilbert and Barker was murdered by the natives. Lake Torrens and the Coorong is salt. Milton or Shakspeare are the best English poet. Either Alexander or Darius were to give way. From the thoughtless proceedeth folly and mischief. In the playground of the bower-bird is found the delicate shell and the pretty pebble. The native with his boomerang knock down the laughing-jackass. Neither the philosopher nor the poet have been so honoured as the soldier. Strzelecki as well as McMillan claims the honor of discovering Gipps' Land. The enterprising merchant, the intrepid discoverer, or the prudent mechanic, are more valuable than the miser or the idler. Neither Nelson at Trafalgar, nor Wellington at Waterloo, appear to us so noble as Paul before Agrippa.

RULE IV. The verb is Singular or Plural when used with a Collective noun, or noun of multitude, according to the idea of number that noun is meant to convey.

We say, *The army is beaten,* not *are beaten,* as unity or oneness is associated with the word *army.* But we do not say, *The people is wise,* but *are wise,* because the word *people* conveys a plural idea to our minds, and, therefore, requires a plural verb.

EXERCISE.

The navy are large. All the clergy was present. The public is not to govern our opinion. The committee was

sitting. The regiment go to the barracks. The Persian multitude falls before the Grecian sword. The flock of geese pass here. Never were any nation more cruel than Carthage. The crew of the French flagship was blown up in the battle of the Nile. The Council of the Vatican consists of the Pope and the Cardinals. The New Zealand tribe sharpens their greenstone axes. The peasantry of Ireland has been reformed by Temperance Societies.

RULE V. The Object of a Transitive or active verb is put in the Objective case; as, *I love him*,—not *I love he*.

Remark.—Neuter verbs sometimes take an objective after them to complete the meaning of the verb, though not as an object of the verb; as, *Pharoah dreamed a dream.*

In expressing Time and Distance we sometimes use the Objective Absolute; as, *He swam two miles; he rode twelve hours. Miles and hours* are objectives absolute, as they cannot be governed by the neuter verbs *swam* and *rode.*

No English verb governs two objectives, unless both are names of the same object. *I teach you grammar*, means, *I teach grammar to you.*

EXERCISE.

The cat scratches she. Homer gave they songs for bread. The good will pity we when we are heedless of them. Most people like theirselves better than others. Leichhardt saw wild buffaloes in North Australia, and shot they for food. The knight ran at he in the tournament. The gondalier received the girl and rowed hers home. Let thou and I read together.

RULE VI.—The verb TO BE has the same case after it as before it; as, *I am he.* After *am*,

which is a part of the verb *to be*, the nominative *he* is used, because the nominative *I* is before that verb.

Remark.—When two nouns, or a noun and a pronoun, are related by a passive or a neuter verb coming between them, they are in the same case, and are, then, said to be in APPOSITION, because they refer to the same thing.

My dog is called Lion; dog and *Lion* being related, and having the passive verb *is called* between them, are of the same case. *They became my pupils; they* and *pupils* are in the same case.

EXERCISE.

It is her who is kind. Scipio was him who burnt Carthage. It is us who should live for the future. Was it them whom you know? Elizabeth Fry was her who was the prisoners' friend It is me who ought to study. Do you believe it to have been they or their friends? The Romans were them who destroyed Jerusalem. Whom do you consider to be the person? It may be either her or her brother.

RULE VII.—The Past or Perfect Participle is used after the verbs HAVE and BE; as, *You have written; it was given;*—not *have wrote;* not, *was gave.*

Remark.—The participle is sometimes employed Absolutely; as, *Generally speaking, the Chinese live on rice. Generally speaking* is here a PARTICIPLE ABSOLUTE.

EXERCISE.

Mercury is froze frequently in Canada. We were showed into Fingal's cave. The Hungarians have lately rose against the Austrians. Joshua driven out the wicked Canaanites.

The fossil iguanodon was first saw in any English quarry. To be well spoke of we must act nobly. The Governor's health was drank with applause. Cold has been knowed 90 degrees below the freezing point. The huge Cornish rocking stones might be shook with the finger. Let the truths of our religion be engraved upon our hearts.

RULE VIII.—The Imperfect Participle, when used as a noun, generally has THE before it, and OF after it; as, *The hallooing of the boys was heard.*

EXERCISE.

Getting of knowledge is useful. Trading of Sydney with Polynesia increases. Franklin became famous by the drawing lightning from the clouds. Sinking of Artesian wells is of great service. The maintaining truth requires courage and constancy. The exploring York Peninsula cost Kennedy his life.

RULE IX. When two verbs come together, the latter one is in the Infinitive mood; as, *I go to repeat my lesson.* The verb *to repeat* is infinitive after the verb *go.*

TO, the sign of the infinitive is not used after the verbs BID, DARE, NEED, MAKE, SEE, HEAR, FEEL, LET, KNOW, nor after the auxiliaries MAY, CAN, MUST, and SHALL: as, *We saw him do it,* not *to do it; You may go,* not *to go.*

When these words, BID, DARE, &c., are passive, the TO is used; as, *The Condor has been known to fly over the Andes.* The passive verb *been known* requires the TO after it.

Remark.—A noun or an adjective, as well as a verb, will govern the Infinitive mood: as, *It was*

Howard's happiness to visit homes of misery; It is easier to promise than to perform. The noun *happiness* and the adjective *easier* govern the infinitive mood.

Caution.—Never use FOR before the infinitive; *He wished to see me,*—not *for to see me.*

EXERCISE.

Most people like have their own way. His mother bid him to return early. The natives have been known devour human flesh. The Peace Society endeavours persuade nations to live without war. Some stars appear approach us and then recede. Cromwell was known say that he would make the name of an Englishman to be honoured as that of a Roman had been. William the Norman saw the English to submit. Sumbawa volcano was heard roar one thousand miles off.

RULE X. The following words, when they denote uncertainty, put the verb in the Conditional mood;—ALTHOUGH, ERE, EXCEPT, IF, HOWEVER, LEST, SO, THAT, THOUGH, TILL, UNLESS, WHATEVER, WHETHER: Thus,—*Except I be there he cannot be happy; Ere he arrive we shall be gone.*

When these words do not express uncertainty, they do not alter the verb from the Indicative: as, *Although he is here, we will go on with our work; If he calls it hot in Hobart Town, what would he call it in Adelaide.*

EXERCISE.

If he is well enough he will call to-morrow. Till he comes keep the kettle on the fire. If thou be master, act with decision. Whatever Macaulay write is beautifully written. Whatever course he takes he may not succeed. Though the American boasts of freedom, yet will the stain of slavery rest on him. O that the settler was more thoughtful of the aborigine! Though he come, I do not fear him. Until the

mine is knocked, a dividend will be paid. That a man prospers, he must labour and be prudent. Lest he drinks, take away the cup. Unless the section were ploughed, the corn could not grow.

RULE XI. The Order of Time is to be observed in the use of the different tenses.

Thus,—*When I ate my dinner I went to school*, should be—*when I had eaten my dinner*. The pluperfect tense, and not the past, should be employed, as the one action was finished before the other began.

Caution.—Use the present and not perfect infinitive after the past tense. *He wished to have sent to me*, should be *he wished to send.*

Caution.—Never confound the active verb *to lay*, with the neuter *to lie;* or the active *to set*, with the neuter *to sit*. We *lay* the cloth, and *lie* on the sofa. We *set* potatoes, but we *sit* upon a chair.

EXERCISE.

When Alexander took Tyre, he followed after Darius. At Christmas I shall be at school four years. The Tahitians would be glad if the French will let them alone. Napoleon expected to have conquered the world. I thought of him these many years. You were in the house all this day. They have done no more than they ought to have done. Mamma has given me a ball, but to-day she took it from me. He sets up till midnight, and lays in bed till noon.

RULE XII. When one noun is put with another noun to explain something about it, it is of the same case; as, *Cromwell the Protector died in peace. Cromwell* and *Protector* are both nominatives, and in apposition.

When two nouns meaning different things come together, one is governed by the other in the Possessive case; as, *The boy's hat; boy* is in the possessive case.

Remarks.—The possessive is sometimes expressed without the noun following; as, *Nelson's body was carried to St. Paul's;* meaning *St. Paul's Church.* The sense of the possessive may be expressed in the objective by the word OF; as, *The body of Nelson.*

When the possessive is described by several nouns, forming a complex noun, the last only has the sign of the possessive case; as, *Disher and Milne's store.* When the thing belongs to two or more, the sign is applied to each; as, *John's, Joseph's, and George's copybooks are finished.*

EXERCISE.

Miltons genius brightened with his troubles. Richard the Third character was not so bad as is represented. Day's and Martin's blacking manufactory. Three day's time will determine. Bunyans Pilgrims Progress. Parises conduct ruined Troy. The lasses bonnet is new. The planets orbits are irregular. The work is Scott, the novelist's. Luthers and Melancthons' writings awoke the attention of Europe. The Duke's of Wellington success. He got not only the Prince, but the Queen's favor.

RULE XIII. When two nouns are compared, the Comparative degree of the adjective is used; when more than two, the Superlative is used.

Remark.—An adjective follows a neuter verb when it qualifies the noun which goes before

it; as, *The house looks clean; clean* qualifies *house.*

Caution.—Do not employ double comparatives or double superlatives; as, *More fairer; most loveliest.*

EXERCISE.

You are best than I. The right hand is the strongest. The Athenians were the more polished of all the Greeks. Solon was wise, but Solomon was wisest. Newcastle coal is most bituminous than that of Port Arthur, but not cheap than it. My ball is rounder than yours. It is more untrue to say that piety destroys happiness. Cicero was the chiefest orator of Rome. The waratah is the most beautifullest flower of Australia. The Alhambra is the most perfect style of Moorish architecture.

RULE XIV. The Distributive Articles, EACH, EVERY, EITHER, NEITHER, refer to nouns of the Singular number, and, therefore, require the verb to be singular; as, *Each man was at his post.*

The article THE is put before an adjective used absolutely; as, *The good are scarce;—good* is absolute, and has the power of a noun.

Remark.—The article is often omitted before abstract nouns; before those standing for a whole species or kind; before names of arts, sciences, titles, &c.; as, *Beauty belongs to flowers; foxes are cunning; geology is useful; Barons are numerous.*

Caution.—Use not the demonstrative plural for singular; as, *These sort of apples,* for *this sort of apples.*

EXERCISE.

Either of the persons are sure to be within. Every nation look out for themselves. They admire those kind of books

most. The pneumatics teaches us the principles of the air-pump. Benevolent enjoy peace. Neither of the parties oppress the other. These selfish sort of people are avoided. The Astronomy was cultivated by the ancient Chaldeans and Egyptians. Each tribe of the Indians were driven back by the settlers. Sincere are respected, deceitful are despised.

RULE XV. Pronouns agree with the nouns for which they stand in gender, number and person; as, *Moodlong is a native; he is an intelligent lad,*—not *it is. Moodlong* is masculine, third person singular, and so is the pronoun *he.*

Remark.—In the position of pronouns in a sentence, the second person should go before the others, and the third person before the first; excepting in plural, when WE should be placed first; as, *He and I will go; We, you, and they are right.*

The pronoun IT stands for nouns of all genders and numbers; as, *It is I; it was the lady; it was the boys.*

EXERCISE.

James had the book but lost them. Here are the apples; take her away. Elizabeth was a great queen; we honor him for choosing wise counsellors. They and we love to gather flowers. Timour the Tartar took Bajazet the Turk, and she put it in a cage. The mind can do much, but we must not overwork him. I and you were ready. Mary had a sweeter temper than hers sister. I and the boy read together. The Swedes lost the whole of its army in Lapland by cold. Is there any man who can be sure they will live long? They were they who did the mischief.

RULE XVI. If no nominative come between the relative and the verb, the Relative is the

nominative to the verb; as, *Queen Dido, who was obliged to leave Tyre, founded the colony of Carthage; who* is nominative to the verb *was obliged.*

If a nominative come between the relative and the verb, the relative is objective when governed by a verb or preposition, and possessive when governed by a noun following: as, *The boy whom you saw is away; The man whose apples we took is near.* The verb *saw* governs *whom,* and the noun *apples* governs *whose.*

Caution.—Place the relative as near as possible to the antecedent. Instead of saying, *Peter the Great was opposed to Charles the Swede, who so improved the Russian people,* we should say, *Peter the Great, who so improved the Russian people, was opposed to Charles the Swede;*—because *who* relates properly to *Peter,* not to *Charles.*

EXERCISE.

Correct the sentences, and underline the antecedents.

The hunter whom came caught a native devil. Geology, who teaches the nature of rocks, is useful to miners. Macquarie favored the prisoners, whose was Governor of New South Wales. Xerxes, upon who trouble came, deserved it for his pride. The ten asteroids have been recently discovered by astronomers, who are between Jupiter and Mars. Flinders, whom boat's crew was lost near Port Lincoln, named places after the men. The Dutch sailors, who the New Zealanders killed, belonged to Tasman. Marco Polo, whom travels are so pleasing, lived 500 years ago. The donkey was beaten by the boys, who loves a sweet thistle.

RULE XVII. Prepositions should be placed before the relatives WHO and WHICH, and after

the relative THAT; as, *To whom do you go; In which house were they; The book that she went for.*

Remark.—When two antecedents of different persons come before a relative, it and the verb may agree with either antecedent, according to the sense intended to be conveyed.

It is correct to say, *I am the boy who eats the pies,* or, *I am the boy who eat the pies.* The verb *eats* agrees with *boy,* and *eat* with I; meaning, *The boy who eats the pies am I; I, who eat the pies, am the boy.*

Caution.—Do not say *than whom,* but, *than who;* as, *Cromwell, than who was no greater ruler in Europe;* meaning, *than he was,* not *than him was.*

EXERCISE.

The poems of Mackay, which I have a great esteem for. We saw Mount Koskiusko, which Strzelecki gave name to. The Seiks of India against that we fought. The Viennese, whose bravery when besieged by the Turks, we think highly of. The fossil kangaroo of that we spake was as high as an elephant. Epaminondas was he who Phillip of Macedon served under. Leichhardt and Mitchell, than whom were no greater travellers in North Australia. Melancthon the gentle who no one could quarrel with. The noble Maories whose gradual decrease we mourn on account of. The object after that Ross went was the South Magnetic Pole, and which he came near.

RULE XVIII. Adverbs are generally placed near the words they qualify; being *before* adjectives, *after* active and neuter verbs, and *between* the auxiliary and the participle. Thus, *A very great while; Tom eats and sleeps well; You were completely shaken.*

The adverb is before the adjective *great*, after the verbs *eats* and *sleeps*, and between the auxiliary *were* and the participle *shaken*.

Remark.—Two negatives have sometimes the meaning of an affirmative: *He is not unjust*, means, *he is just*.

Caution.—Do not use adverbs for adjectives, nor adjectives for adverbs: as, *The sweetly rose*, for *sweet rose; She plays delightful*, for *plays delightfully*. In poetry, however, this rule is occasionally broken.

EXERCISE.

The ladies of Turkey are hidden thoroughly from the view of strangers. Many have been willing always to die for truth. Eyre in his overland route showed wonderful his courage. Strzelecki in the dense bush of the Australian Alps lost nearly his life. The Moss Troopers cleverly escaped by well knowing the secret paths. Bathurst near the Blue Mountains is remarkable healthy. Most uncivilized people will be observed ever to turn their toes inward. Kindly act to those who have hastened never to favor you. Some ancient exceedingly manuscripts have been found now in the strongly record room of Nineveh. I must not play no more. I cannot nor will not consent.

RULE XIX. Prepositions govern a noun or pronoun in the Objective case; as, *The horse fell on him*,—not *on he*.

Remark.—*In* is generally used before countries and chief towns; *at* before smaller places and after the verb *to be*. Thus, *He lived in Hobart Town and at Glenarchy, in Tasmania, and was afterwards at the Burra Burra*.

The preposition is sometimes *understood;* as, *Tell me his name;* that is, *tell to me.*

EXERCISE.

This was sent to thou. He gave more to her brother than to she. Get information from whoever you can. Sir John Franklin discovered much at the Polar Regions before he resided at Van Diemen's Land. The Romans of theirselves submitted to Cæsar. Hannibal governed at Spain before he passed the Alps and was in Capua. For who has so much been done as he? William thought he could do nothing of hisself. Fellenberg taught in Hofwyl at Switzerland. As to the dark openings of some solar spots, there would be room for the world to pass through they. William Penn deserved honor for his system of colonizing at America.

RULE XX. Certain words require to be followed by certain prepositions: we do not say, *Frown to him,* but *on him,* or, *at him.*

The following are instances of this rule:—

Abound in	Grieve at
Accuse of, by	Ignorant of
Adapt to	Independent of
Agreeable to	Indifferent to
Antipathy to, against	Inseparable from
Call on, upon	Overwhelmed with, by
Clear of, from	Prejudice against
Confer on, upon	Reflect upon, on
Confide in	Rejoice at
Convince of	Smile at, upon, on
Devolve on, upon	Sympathize with
Differ from	Thirst for, after
Dissent from, assent to	True to
Endowed with	Wait upon, on, at, for
Fawn upon, on	Want of
Greedy after, of	Worthy of

RULE XXI. Conjunctions connect the same Cases of nouns and pronouns, and the same Moods and Tenses of verbs; as, *He and she are at home; Mary smiles and frowns.* *He* and *she* are of the same case, and *smiles* and *frowns* of the same mood and tense.

Remark.—Some conjunctions answer to one another; as, *Though—yet; either—or; neither—nor; so—as* or *that; whether—or.* Thus, *Though I go, yet will I remember thee; whether at school or at home, be obedient.*

Caution.—Never use AS for THAT. Do not say, *Not as I recollect*; say, *Not that I recollect.*

EXERCISE.

William and me came. Read your book or may write your exercise. You read to him and I. The English should be so mindful of the aborigines, to consult their good. Professing one thing and to act another is dishonorable. Touissant was so ill treated as he died of a broken heart. If Haynau is a tyrant and love cruelty, men cannot honor him. Paul was as courageous as to face death by going up to Jerusalem. Neither Leipsic or Waterloo ruined Napoleon; the French saw that his army and him were opposed to their real welfare. Though gold is now found to be abundant in New South Wales, so the golden fleece must not be neglected.

SYNTACTICAL PARSING.

Australia is destined to become distinguished for wealth and power.

AUSTRALIA—proper noun, neuter, singular, nom. to verb *is destined.* IS DESTINED—regular passive verb, indicative, present, third person, sing., agreeing with its nom. Australia, according to the rule which says, "A verb agrees with its subject," &c. TO BECOME—an irregular neuter

verb, infinitive, governed in that mood by the verb *is destined*, according to the rule which says, "One verb governs," &c. DISTINGUISHED—adjective, positive, qualifying *country* (understood). FOR — preposition, governing *wealth*. WEALTH—common neuter noun, sing., objective of preposition *for*, according to the rule which says, "Prepositions govern," &c. AND — conjunction, connecting *wealth* with *power* in the objective. POWER—common neuter noun, sing., objective of *for*, and *also*, objective, according to the rule which says, "Conjunctions connect the same cases of nouns."

Want of space prevents further illustration of Syntactical parsing.

ORIGIN AND DERIVATION OF LANGUAGE.

Many ingenious conceptions have been formed as to the origin of Language. Those who suppose man to have been at first a rude savage, or, perhaps, the next in succession to a monkey in the order of progression, imagine him learning to speak as necessity might prompt. He would observe a horse and give it a name, and, afterwards, wishing to tell something about the animal, he would create verbs and other parts of speech.

But it is well known that the most ancient languages are the least imperfect in their construction, and the richest in material. This seems to present an argument against the gradual development of language by the mere agency of man; it leads one rather to believe that speech is the gift of God; subject, of course, to the changes of time and circumstances.

The notion that all languages are derived from the Hebrew is now abandoned. The known languages have been traced to three classes, essentially different from each other. The first has Monosyllabic roots, but these are incapable of being united. The second has Monosyllabic roots which are capable of being united. The third has Dissyllabic roots. The Chinese is an instance of the first; the ancient Sanscrit of India of the second; and the Arabic and Hebrew of the third.

It is certainly remarkable that the Sanscrit and the Chinese have been known as distinct, and very distinct, languages for nearly four thousand years. The same may be said of the Hebrew and other Semetic tongues, which are equally dissimilar from the two before mentioned.

The Primitive roots of the Chinese are 400 in number, though the written characters are many thousands. The language most opposed in nature to the Chinese is that of the American Indians; the words of which are often of extraordinary length, yet the syllables in their separated state have no meaning. The grammatical forms of the Indian dialects are most complicated and artificial.

In Japan are two languages, the Monosyllabic and the Polysyllabic. The dialects of Scandinavia, in Northern Europe, abound in prepositions and conjunctions, possess but few inflexions, and have a natural Syntax; on the whole they have as simple a form of speech as any in the world.

It is from the Sanscrit form of language that the English is derived. The Zend or Ancient

Persian was allied to the Sanscrit. The German is similar to the Persian. The Celtic of Ireland and Scotland, the Gothic of the ancient Germans, the Greek, and the Latin, are all of the Sanscrit family. The Russian is like the oldest Greek. The Latin is more ancient than the Greek. As these various nations extend from India to Ireland, this particular group of languages is known by the name of INDO-EUROPEAN. The Gipsy language is still spoken in Moultan, India.

The GERMAN or TEUTONIC branch of the Indo-European tribe is divided into the HIGH and LOW. The High consists of the Frank and Mœso-Gothic, and the Low of Anglo-Saxon and Old Saxon,—the parent languages of the English. The Low German is older than the High German.

The CELTIC is of two branches,—the Cambrian or Welsh, and the Gælic or Erse of Ireland and Scotland. The aborigines or first inhabitants of Italy and Greece were probably Erse or Low Celtic. The Lowland Scotch is a sister language to the Anglo-Saxon. The Manx of the Isle of Man spoke a Celtic dialect. The Slang, or Thieves talk, is mostly Anglo-Saxon.

The aborigines of Europe, that is, those before the Goths and other Indo-European tribes came, were driven chiefly to the North or to the Pyrenees; the former are the Lapps and Fins, the latter are the Basques of Spain. The language of the Basques appears to be of Phœnician or Semetic origin. The Russian, Polish, and other kindred tongues are called SCLAVONIAN.

The languages of Europe are, therefore, of

three families:--the TEUTONIC, the SCLAVONIC, and the CELTIC.

As an illustration of the identity of languages called the Indo-European, the following is given:—Sanscrit, *bhrater;* Greek, *phrator;* Latin, *frater;* Gothic, *brothar;* Old High German, *pruoder;* Celtic, *brathair;* English, *brother.*

The English language is now very different from that spoken by the Anglo-Saxon conquerors of our Fatherland. Not only have the original words been corrupted, but there has been a great acquisition of words from other languages. The Danes and Normans brought fresh words when they came.

Many French and other foreign words were gradually introduced. But a greater number are of Latin and Greek derivation, being introduced by writers, who studied these ancient languages at a time, about 300 or 400 years ago, when philosophy was only to be learnt from books written in those tongues.

Many terms employed in military affairs, in cooking, and in dress, are of French origin; appellations of arts and sciences are usually of Greek; those relating to the fine arts of Italian. A few Celtic words yet remain among us; as, *Basket, cradle, Ben Lomond.* There are some Danish; as, *Girl, Earl, flail.*

From the German and Dutch, we have technical terms employed in naval affairs; as, *Boom, ship, canvas, cable, yacht.* There are Norman words in *damsel, baron, bailiff;* Spanish in *cigar, admiral;* Portuguese in *alligator;* Arabian in *coffee, alcohol, cotton;* Persian in *rhubarb, bazaar, shrub;* Hindoo in *sofa, bamboo.*

There are about 40,000 words in the English language; although if all the proper names be included, the number would, probably, amount to 70,000.

The following prefixes are of Saxon origin :—*A*, in; as, a-bed;—*be*, about; as, besprinkle;—*mis*, wrong; as, mistaken;—*un*, not; as, untrue.

The following are of Latin origin :—*Ad*, to; as, adjoining;—*co*, *con*, *com*, *cor*, together; as, co-partner;—*de*, from; as, depart;—*ex*, out of; as, express;—*extra*, beyond; as, extraordinary;—*im*, *in*, *ig*, *il*, *ir*, not; as, ignoble, irreligious;—*post*, after; as, postscript;—*pro*, for; as, pronoun;—*re*, again; as, return;—*super*, above; as, superfine.

The following are of Greek origin :—*A*, without; as, apathy;—*anti*, against; as, antichristian;—*hyper*, over; *para*, near to; *syn*, with; as, synagogue.

The affixes *Ant*, *ard*, *art*, *ist*, *ive*, *er*, *ir*, *ster*, denote the doer of any thing; as, *Teacher*, *songster*. Some affixes, as *let*, *kin*, *ock*, mean *little*. Thus, stream, streamlet; hill, hillock.

The principal affixes of verbs are, *Ate*, *ite*, *ize*, *ify*, *ish*, *ble*, *le*, *en*, *er*; they signify *do* or *make*.

Most regular verbs are from the Latin. We have words to signify the same thing, both of Latin and of Saxon origin, as, Saxon, *building*; Latin, *edifice*; Saxon, *to see*; Latin, *to perceive*.

ORTHOEPIAL NOTICES.

Hieroglyphics, or pictures, were the earliest form of writing; as among the ancient Egyptians, Assyrians, and Mexicans. A rude sketch of a

bird represented the idea of a bird; afterwards a simpler sign was employed to express it. This eventually was followed by the invention of characters or letters. Of these the Sanscrit contains 48, the Hebrew 22, the Greek 24, the Runic of Scandinavia 16, the Phœnician 22, the Polynesian 15, and the English 26.

The Chinese language has no regular alphabet. The Saxon letters were copied from the Roman or Latin. The Latin alphabet was formerly Etruscan or Old Greek, but afterwards got modified. The Greeks at first wrote from right to left, as the Arabs do now. The alphabet of the Greeks was of Phœnician origin. There was neither *j* nor *k* in the Old English.

As we have about forty distinct sounds in our language, there should be that number of characters or letters to represent them. But our alphabet is imperfect, being deficient on the one hand, and redundant on the other.

We have no proper signs for the two sounds of *th*; as in the words *thin* and *thine;* nor for *sh*, in *shine;* nor for *ng*, in *king*. The letter *a* has four different sounds; as, in *father, fan, fame,* and *fall. O* has two sounds; as, in *box* and *bone.*

On the contrary, the same sound is in several instances twice represented. Thus, *c* and *k*, *c* and *s*, *j* and *g*, *s* and *z*, are used to express the same sounds. There are twelve vowel sounds in English, namely, the four vowel sounds of *a*; the two of *o*; *e* in *beg;* *i* in *bit;* *ee* in *peep;* *u* in *pull;* *oo* in *pool;* *u* in *plum.*

There are four Diphthongal sounds; *ou* in *mouse;* *ew* in *new;* *oi* in *oil;* and *i* in *pine.*

There are seventeen improper diphthongs. There are three improper triphthongs; namely, *eau*, *ieu*, *iew*. The science which treats of pronunciation is called ORTHOEPY.

ETYMOLOGICAL NOTICES.

NOUN.

Many languages, as the Sanscrit, Greek, Hebrew, Arabic, and Australian, have a DUAL number; that is, a change to express two things of the same kind. In Bengalee the plural is denoted by a separate word connected with the singular. The Anglo-Saxon had a dual of personal pronouns. The dual is found in the Old Norse and Icelandic.

Sex is a natural distinction, and gender is a grammatical one. Some languages, as the French, Spanish, and Italian, have no neuter. The Australian third person has no gender; the same word being used to express *he*, *she*, and *it*.

It is common to give gender to things which have no life; as, to call a ship by the feminine gender. We speak of the sun as masculine; but our forefathers, the Saxons, referred to it as feminine, and to the moon as masculine. Formerly our language had an inflexion of nouns to exhibit gender, but we have no such distinction now. The Saxon once had a feminine prefix, *str*; as, *Bakster*, a baking woman. *Spinster* is yet used by us.

The Sanscrit, Greek, Russian, Gothic, and Old English possessive case ended in *s*. The Latin has six cases,—the Nominative, Genitive, Dative,

Accusative, Vocative, and Ablative. The genitive is known by the sign *of*, the dative by *to* or *for*, the ablative by *with* or *from*. The vocative is employed in calling a person, and the accusative is the same as our objective when governed by an active verb.

ABSTRACT NOUNS are formed principally by the terminations *ness, dom, ship,* and *ery;* as, *fineness, freedom, friendship, finery.*

ADJECTIVE.

It is not the name of the quality itself which is the adjective, but of that quality when found in something. Thus, *sweetness* is a quality of sugar, and the word is a noun. But *sweet,* in *sweet sugar,* is an adjective. It is said that the Mohican Indians had no adjective. The Persians and Turks frequently use compound adjectives; as, *Rose cheeked lady.*

Some languages have no superlative degree of comparison. The Saxon degrees were, as *strang, strengre, strengest; eald, yldre, yldest; sceort, scyrtre, scyrtest.* The comparative termination *r* was originally *s* and *tr* in the Indo-European languages. The superlative is supposed to have been introduced into these tongues before the change of *s* into *r* of the comparative.

The adjectives are often formed by certain terminations; as, *Ful, like, en, ish, &c.* Thus, *Peaceful, warlike, oaken, waspish.*

ARTICLE, OR DEFINITIVE.

In early times numbers were employed as definitives. Our forefathers did not say *an ox,* but *ane ox,* meaning *one ox.* When the word

began with a consonant, they dropped the *n* of the word *ane;* as, *Ac man;* for it would sound rather harshly to say *ane man.*

The word *the* is derived from the demonstrative definitive *this* or *that,* in the same manner as *a* from *ane.* In Saxon we read, *Thas swyn,* for *the swine; thæt gode sæd,* for *the good seed. Tha* was the plural article. The words gradually changed into the definitive *the.*

The demonstrative idea is expressed by the letter *T* in the whole of the Indo-European languages. In Greek and some Gothic tongues, there is no indefinite article. No language in its early state appears to possess ideas of *a* and *the.* In Anglo-Saxon the definitive varied according to the gender of the noun.

This and *that* are said to be pronouns when they stand alone; as, *This is my pen; give me that.* But if we supply the ellipses, they will appear to be simply as definitives; *This pen is my pen; give me that pen.*

PRONOUNS.

The relative *which* means *who-like.* In the Gothic it is *huelih;* in Anglo-Saxon, *huilc;* in Old Frisian, *hwelik;* in Lowland Scotch, *whilk.*

VERBS.

In Anglo-Saxon we read, *Ic swam,* I swam; *we swammon,* we swam. The form of the Old English was as follows:—

Love	Lovest	Loveth
Loven	Loven	Loven

In Chinese the pronoun is always put with the verb; as, *Ngo ngaii,* I love; *ta ngaii,* he loves.

The ancient languages and the barbarous modern ones abound in verbal inflexions.

In the verb *to be*, the letter *m* is the sign of the first person in all Indo-European languages; being in English *am*, in Icelandic *em*, in Anglo-Saxon *eom*, in Moeso-Gothic *im*, in Latin *sum*, in Old Sclavonic *yesmy*, in Lithuanic *esmi*, in Greek *eime*, in Zend *ahmi*, and in Sanscrit *asmi*. The third person is as follows:—E. *is*, Ice. *er*, A.-S. *is*, Old S. *ist*, M.-G. *ist*, O. Scl. *yesty*, L. *esti*, Lat. *est*, Z. *ashti*, San. *asti*. In the Mexican and Peruvian the substantive verb was a regular one, as it was in the Gothic. There is a trace of five different verbs in the Saxon inflexions of this verb.

The infinitive is now like the present tense of the verb, but formerly there was a true infinitive, ending in *n*. In Bengalee, there is a great use made of auxiliaries; by their aid four moods and many tenses are formed. The Arabic has genders of verbs.

The imperfect participle in Anglo-Saxon terminated in *and*, and the perfect in *en*; they were declined like adjectives. In all languages having a full power of inflexion, the participle agrees with the noun to which it belongs in gender, number, and case.

Our Passive *I am loved*, should mean *I am one who has been loved*, not one in the act of being loved. In the Gothic there is the present and the past passive participle; one meaning, *I am in the act of being loved*; and another, *I am one who has been loved*. But we have lost the passive form, and the combination has now the sense of a present tense.

In Hindostanee the passive is formed by a redoubling of the verb *to be*. The Welsh expresses passives by particular terminations. The Breton of France, though Celtic, has not the same form as the Welsh. The Old Cornish is half-way between them, having the passive terminations of the Welsh, and the substantive verb of the Breton.

ADVERBS.

A PARTICLE is an uninflected word; as, an adverb, a preposition, a conjunction. The Scandinavian tongues are very rich in particles. There are 30 kinds of adverbs in Anglo-Saxon.

Most of the adverbs are derived from other words. *Adrift* is the participle of the Saxon *to drive; farewell* is the imperative of *faran* to go; the Dutch and Swedes say *farwal*. The affix of *wise* in the word *likewise*, means *guise*. *Thither* was *thider*, *to-day* was *a-day*, *to-night* was *a-night*.

PREPOSITIONS.

Prepositions are words invented to put before nouns, and they are often nouns or verbs, disguised by corruption. Thus, *By* is the imperative of *beon*, to be; *between*, the imperative of *to be two*; *beyond* is from *be* and *zeond* to pass; *athwart* is the perfect participle of the Saxon verb *to twist*; *instead* is from *onstede*, in place.

CONJUNCTIONS.

These like the prepositions and adverbs are derivatives, and fragments of words. *Since* is the participle of *seon*, to see; *yet* is the imperative of *gifan*, to give; *though* is from *thafian*, to allow; *and* is from *anad*, to join; *either* is from *ægther*, one of the two.

AUSTRALIAN GRAMMAR.

THOUGH there are many Australian dialects, yet do they afford internal evidence of one common origin; and that, most probably, a Malayan one. The points of resemblance between them are thus stated by Mr Moorhouse, Protector of the Aborigines of South Australia.

"They have suffixes, or particles, added to the terminal parts of words, to express relation; dual forms of substantives, adjectives, and pronouns; limited terms, being only five, for time, distance, and number; no sibilant, or hissing, sounds; no articles; no auxiliary verb; no relative pronoun; no prepositions; no distinctions in gender; no distinct form of the verb to express the passive voice."

It is imagined that the Aborigines first came to the north coast, and there separated in pairs, from the striking agreement of the two first persons. Some took the east route, and others the west and south. The Adelaide tribe evidently came from the Swan River side of the island, from the similarity of language. The Encounter Bay tribe, which meets the Adelaide at Yankalilla, came from the New South Wales side.

All the dialects seem to possess five vowels, and fifteen consonants. They want the *c*, *f*, *j*, *q*, *s*, *v*, *x*, and *z*; but they have the additional sounds of *ng*, and *ch* soft. In North Australia two-thirds of the words end in consonants, many in double consonants; *ng* is very common; the aspirate is wanting. The Adelaide dialect has only vowel terminating of words.

All the dialects have two nominatives—one inactive, and the other the nominative agent. Thus, *Ngatoa kuttan*, I am; *Bang buntan*, I strike; *ngatoa* being the first nominative, and *bang*, the second. The pronouns are particularly expressive. The following illustration is from the Adelaide tribe. The ablative is used for the active nominative.

N. Ngaii, I	Ngadli, we two	Ngadlu, we
G. Ngaityo, of me	Ngadliko, of us two	Ngadluko, of us
D. Ngaiinni, to me	Ngadlinni, to us two	Ngadlunni, to us
Ac. Ngaii, me	Ngadli, us two	Ngadlu, us
Ab. Ngatto, I, or by me		

N. Ninna, thou	Niwa, you two	Na, you
G. Ninko	Niwadluko	Naako
D. Ninnanni	Niwanni	Nanni
Ac. Ninna	Niwa	Na
Ab. Nindo		

N. Pa, he, she, or it	Purla, they two	Parna
G. Parnu	Purlako, of them two	Parnako
D. Panni	Purlanni	Parnanni
Ac. Pa	Purla	Parna
Ab. Padlo		

In the Swan River dialect there is the following distinction in the dual. *Ngalli*, we two; (friends) *Ngalla*, we two; (parent and child) *Ngannik*, we two (husband and wife.)

The following table shows the similarity of the dialects :—

	Swan River.	*Port Lincoln.*	*Adelaide.*
I,	Nganya	Ngaii	Ngaii
Thou,	Nginni	Ninna	Ninna
We two,	Ngalli	Ngadli	Ngadli
You two,	Newbal	Nuwulla	Niwa
We,	Ngannoel	Ngarrinyelbo	Ngadlu
You,	Nurang	Nuralli	Na

	Murray.	*Encounter Bay.*	*N. S. Wales.*
I,	Ngape	Ngape	Ngatoa
Thou,	Ngurru	Nginte	Ngintoa
We two,	Ngedlu	Ngele	Bali
You two,	Ngupul	Ngurle	Bula
We,	Ngennu	Ngane	Ngeen
You,	Ngunnu	Ngune	Nura

The third persons singular in these dialects are *Bal, Panna, Pa, Ninni, Kiyte, Niuwoa.*

Instead of relatives, they have compensations in repetitions and circumlocutions.

Among the Encounter Bay tribe the dual ends in *engk,* and plural in *ar.* In the Parnkalla language, spoken in Port Lincoln Peninsula, the dual ends in *lbelli,* and plural in *rri.*

The following from the Murray dialect will show the declensions of nouns :—

Nominatives.

Meru, man	Merakul, the two men	Mera, men

Active Nominative.

Merinnanna

Genitives.

Merining	Merinnimakul	Merinnarango

Datives.

Merininnanno	Merinnakullamanno	Merinnaramanno

Accusatives.

Meru	Merakul	Mera

Ablatives.

Merinni, with	Merinnakullamanno	Merinnaramanno
Merinnainmudl, from	Merinnakullamammudl	Merinnaramainmudl

The natives have a masculine appellative in *yerli,* and a feminine in *nganki.* Thus *Yerli meyu,* a man; *nganki meyu,* a woman. They would say, Is that cat *yerli* or *nganki?*

There is but a limited comparison of adjectives. At Encounter Bay, *ru* is added to make the comparative; by repeating the word, or prefixing the adverb *peke* (very), the superlative is obtained. The Adelaide natives have *karra*, high; *karra-intyerla*, higher or very high. The Murray natives say, *worpippi*, great; *worpippinni*, greater.

Threlkeld, in his New South Wales Native Grammar, refers to there being fifteen kinds of verbs; but Mr Moorhouse, in his Murray River Grammar reduces them to six, namely:—Neuter, Active, Reciprocal, Continuative, Causative, and Inchoative. The Inchoative denotes that the person or thing is about to be in another state; as, *Nantonendi*, to become a *nanto*, or kangaroo. The word *Parldkudleman*, to cause one to beat somebody, illustrates the Causative kind.

The verb is inflected by the prefixed pronoun; as *Ngape terrin*, I stand; *ngurru terrin*, thou standest; *ninni terrin*, he stands. Past tense, *Terra*; future, *terridla*; infinitive mood, *terrillappa*. In the Adelaide dialect the potential mood ends in *ma* in all persons, numbers, and tenses.

In New South Wales dialect there are two futures:—one definite, as, to-morrow morning; the other indefinite time. On the Hunter River they say *Kakillan*, are living together now; *Kakillaikeun*, were living, &c., this morning; *Kakillalla*, lived, &c., formerly; *Kakillallata*, had lived, &c.; *Kakillaikolang*, are going to live together now; *Kakillaikin*, are going, &c, to-morrow morning; *Kakillunnun*, are going, &c., hereafter.

The Passive is expressed by the verbal substantive; as, He is speared, *Lakk in ityan*,—a

spearing him there is. I am struck with a stone, would be, *Purri idlo ngai Kundatti,*—a stone struck me.

In Western Australia *Ngan ya in bu ma,*—I am beaten, means, some one beats me.

These dialects are particularly rich in adverbs. In South Australia the adverbs have degrees of comparison. Threlkeld asserts that in New South Wales it depends upon the use of a word, whether it should be called a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

There are no prepositions, but postfixes, as in Hebrew. Thus, *illa,* upon,—*kartakilla,* upon the shoulder; *un,* in,—*kawun,* in the house; *ityarnungo,* from,—*taiapparnalityarnungko,* from lips.

The conjunctions are very few. As the conditional mood connects there is little use for them. Instead of saying, *The emu and kangaroo are gone,* the natives express it in their language as, *Emu, kangaroo, they two gone.*

A few words are now given as illustrations.

New South Wales.—*Kongkorong,* emu; *porikumbai,* wife; *poribai,* husband; *yinal,* son; *yinalkun,* daughter; *yarringkulliko,* to laugh; *ngurrunborburrilliko,* to cry.

Murray.—*Kappekappangko,* a grumbler; *ngawur,* mother; *yurongpailtyerri,* dark spot in Milky Way.

Encounter Bay.—*Nape,* wife; *gringkari,* dead; *yinge,* bachelor; *kanokkatorauwe,* grasshopper.

Adelaide.—*Kakkababandi,* to court; *tinyara,* boy; *kanggallanggalla,* mother; *yurlopuiyopuiyori,* serious.

Western Australia.—*Gurrjyte,* river; *moolyanyetteyogow,* to sneeze; *gwabbalitch,* beautiful.

Van Diemen's Land.—Song of Ben Lomond tribe:—

Ne popila raina pogana
Naina thaipa raina pogana
Naara paara powella paara.

NEW ZEALAND GRAMMAR.

There is a strong affinity between the Maori language and that of the Malays. It is allied with the Australian on the one side and the Polynesian on the other.

There is a change of the initial letter throughout the dual and plural numbers, conveying important distinctions in the sense. Thus, *maua, we two,* relates to the party who is speaking and another who is absent; *taua, we two,* implies the one speaking and another who is present. *Tatou, we,* signifies myself with others including yourself to whom I am speaking; *matou, we,* myself and others without you. *Ki a matou* means *for us;* but, *ma matou* and *mo matou* have the same meaning.

Mr Wade, in his work on New Zealand, thus illustrates this subject. "Strange mistakes may sometimes arise by confounding the *o* and *a*. Suppose a party of natives have a pig baking in their oven, and I ask concerning some kumaras which are lying on the ground. 'Me pehea enei kumara, hei kinake pea *mo* te poaka?' What about these kumaras, are they perhaps a relish for (or to eat with) the pig? This would be correct. But if I had inadvertently said '*ma* te poaka,' they would all have laughed at me for asking if the kumaras were for the pig in the oven to eat."

The verbs are by no means so complex as the pronouns. The Maories have an odd way of converting a noun into a verb. The noun *trousers* is *tarautete.* If we wish to tell a native to put

on that article of dress, we must add *tia*, and say *tarautetetia*.

The New Zealand language is rich in words, especially those relating to natural history. It contains about 250 appellations for fish, 100 for parts of a canoe, 700 for trees and plants, 50 for winds, 300 for parts of the human body, 150 for heavenly bodies, and 300 for diseases.

A syllable is often repeated in the same word, as in the following examples:—*toetoepainangamoho*, a grass; *hoa*, wife: *tahu*, husband; *ngungu*, hump-backed; *akengokengo*, to-morrow, *mutikukuwaewae*, toe-nail.

THE POLYNESIAN GRAMMAR.

The Polynesian dialects have a dual in pronouns and verbs. They have not more than fifteen letters in their alphabet. The consonants abound in proportion to nearness to the Malays. The Sandwich or Hawaiian is the softest dialect, and the Fijian the harshest.

There is no *b* in Hawaii; no *c*, *q*, *x*, or *z*, in New Zealand, Samoa, Fiji, Austral, Tahiti, and Hawaii; no *d* in N. Z. and Haw.; no *f* in Haw. Hervey, and Aus.; no *g* in Tah. and Haw; no *h* in S., Aus., and Her.; no *j* in any language but Her.; no *k* in Tah.; no *l* in N. Z and Tah.; no *ng* in Tah. and Haw.; no *r* in S. and Marquesan; no *s* in N. Z., Aus., Tah., Haw., but *s* in S.; no *v* in N. Z., Aus., and Haw.; no *w* in Fiji; no *y* in N. Z., S, Fiji, Tah., and Haw.

The following exhibits the construction of some of these:—

English.	*Tahitian.*	*Hawaii.*	*Marquesas.*	*Samoa.*
Man	Taata	Kanaka	Kanaka	Tangnata
Woman	Vahine	Wahine	Veine	Fafine
Bad	Ino	Ino	Haufau	Leanga
Canoe	Vaa	Waka	Vaka	Vaa
Moon	Marama	Mahina	Meama	Masina
To kill	Taparahi	Pepehi	Kukumi	Fasi

English.	*Hervey.*	*New Zealand.*	*Fiji.*
Man	Tangata	Tangata	Tamata
Woman	Vaine	Wahine	Leva
Bad	Kino	Kino	Iha
Canoe	Vaka	Waka	Vauka
Moon	Marama	Marama	Pula
To kill	Ta	Ta	Avita

Atua, a spirit, and *ipu*, a calabash, are the same in all dialects.

ENGLISH COMPOSITION.

Many rules of English Composition have been laid down, which are rather burdensome than useful. A natural system is always to be preferred to an artificial one.

The plan which the writer would propose to teachers is the following:—Relate a short, simple story to pupils. Desire two or three of them to repeat what they may remember of the tale. Let all then take their slates or exercise books, and write down the narrative in their own way. Request them in turn to read aloud what has been written. Observations may afterwards be made upon the most obvious errors, either by the teacher alone, or by the class, in answer to questions upon the same. As it is probable punctua-

tion will, at the beginning, receive no attention, the teacher should take one of the exercises and read aloud a portion as it is written, without regard to stops. It will be thus made apparent to the youngest child that there ought to be pauses.

Too many faults should not be pointed out at first. The orthography must, of course, be observed, and the use of commas, periods, and capitals explained.

After some proficiency has been acquired in the composing of simple, narrated stories, the pupils should be encouraged to write about some remarkable incident connected with their own history; as, a walk, a holiday, an accident, a dream, &c. It would afford some amusement to a class, were these various little compositions then read over; and the ingenuity of the young people might be exercised in kindly criticising the several papers. At the termination of this part of the lesson, the composers should return to their seats; and, upon a fresh piece of paper, or upon a clean side of their slates, endeavour to write out the story more correctly, with especial reference to the hints they have received. A second similar reading will give the timid or unpractised scholar increased confidence.

Some teachers may prefer revising the exercises themselves, in the presence of the individual composer only.

There is an old game which may be adopted with much advantage in junior classes:—A number of nouns is given out: as, *Boy, tooth, elephant, fossil.* It is required then that each pupil separately compose one or more sentences

containing these words; as, *A boy once picked up the fossil tooth of an elephant.* The several papers may then be read aloud by each in succession, and a few corrections made.

Another pleasing and profitable exercise consists in converting poetical phrases into prose ones; as,

> "Then, downward from the steep hill's edge
> They tracked the footmarks small."

"They tracked the small footmarks downward from the edge of the steep hill."

When a more difficult subject is proposed, the pupil should at first be requested to write down some of the leading ideas in connection with it, and afterwards introduce them into his composition.

Familiar letters, of a pupil's own unaided composition, should be early attempted. The directions of the tutor will be required as to the usual forms of epistolary writing.

Senior scholars may receive further instruction from the subjoined remarks.

A few hints will now be addressed to those who may not have had the advantage of early instruction, and who are desirous to supply the deficiency.

It is not to be supposed that one can become a graceful and judicious writer without exertion. Even if a genius, the reader must be reminded that the manuscripts of the brightest stars of literature, as, Pope, Byron, and Scott, exhibit no small number of corrections and amendments. That verse of poetry, which reads so smoothly, cost the

author much thought and trouble. Let the Self-Instructing young man, then, accustom himself to write his best whenever he may have occasion to express his thoughts on paper. And though this effort should involve considerable difficulty and patience, yet the ultimate attainment of a ready, an intelligible, and a powerful style of composition will amply repay the expended labor. With the view to assist such students, these remarks are submitted.

It is essential that there be a sound knowledge of the principles of our language. The rules of Syntax must be thoroughly understood, and ever ready at command. In the first attempts at composition, do not take up an abstruse subject, as, an Essay on Taste, but write down some simple story. When completed, read it aloud, that your ear may assist your eye in detecting inaccuracies and inelegancies. After the first criticism re-write it out fairly, with careful reference to improvement. Read it again, or, if possible, read it to a friend. Be not afraid of copying it once more. Cobbett tells us, that, if in the writing of his exercises, he committed an error, he would tear up the paper and begin anew. Those who wish to succeed in any important undertaking must not be afraid of work.

A brief narrative may be read, the book closed, and the pen repeat the tale. The memory will, probably, suggest some of the phrases of the book; but there is an advantage in that, as an increased command of words will be gained.

One prominent obstacle to the progress of many a youthful student lies in orthography. Decidedly the best mode of attaining correctness in

spelling is the use of copying. A page of a work may be written out, or particular words selected. The assistance of a friend in dictating words or sentences for writing is of great value. Of course a good Pronouncing and Etymological Dictionary should be beside every self-instructing student.

It is not well at commencement to attempt fine writing. Aim not too high at first. Be a ready and correct writer before thinking of being an accomplished one. Do not spend time in pruning and polishing your sentences as you go on. Seek to have a right perception of your subject, and then write on, as one thought suggests another in your progress. Afterwards, go carefully over the manuscript. Look well to Orthography and Syntax. See where there is an exuberance of language, and where an unseemly barrenness. Notice particularly if you say what you mean, all what you mean, and only what you mean. Perspicuity of style is the charm of composition. Avoid rough and vulgar words, as well as obsolete and unauthorized expressions. Use not foreign words and phrases when the sense can be expressed with equal force in English. Be on your guard against tautology. Neither your paragraphs nor your sentences should be too lengthy. Shenstone says, "Long sentences in a short composition are like large rooms in a little house." Employ Saxon words and strong verbs in preference to others.

A knowledge of words is essential. One ready means of obtaining this may be mentioned:—Take the work of a good author. Read a certain portion over attentively several times. Then take the pen and endeavour to convey the sense of

the passage in the same manner, and even in nearly the same language, as that employed in the book. Adopt the same course with the productions of other distinguished men. The object of this is to give you a command of suitable words, and to show the various forms of a proper and elegant arrangement of those words. Do not be so absurd as to be a blind imitator of the writings of another man in a composition of your own. That would be quite an anti-progress movement. One, speaking of Byron and his host of imitators, has this judicious remark:—"Byron," says he, "is a hero, disdaining to show his wounds; the others are beggars in the streets, who cry out, 'Please, Sir, look at these sores.'"

To have a thorough knowledge of English, it is necessary to study the SYNONYMES,—that is, those words which have nearly the same meaning as one another; as, *discover* and *invent*. *Flinders discovered South Australia; Wheatstone invented the electric telegraph.* We make *compensation* for injuries, and give *rewards* for good conduct. We speak of the man as *silent*, and the air as *still*.

The conversion of poetry into prose, before recommended, is an excellent exercise; thus,—

> "Slowly and sadly we laid him down
> From the field of his fame, fresh and gory."

"We took him fresh and gory from the field of his fame, and laid him down slowly and sadly." Or, "The victory was purchased with the life of the noble General, whose heroic deeds will ever live in the remembrance of the brave. The body, yet warm, but covered with blood, was carried slowly and mournfully to the grave."

With regard to punctuation, all that need be said is simply to employ stops according to the sense of your passage. When the conjunctions *therefore, then,* &c., occur between two sentences, commas should be placed before and after them. Semicolons, colons, dashes, parentheses, should be used sparingly, as they often interfere with conciseness and clearness.

When sitting down to write upon a set subject, as an essay, prepare your matter in the first place. Arrange your leading ideas upon a separate paper. When this is done, note down under each division the principal sentiments and facts which you wish to introduce. After this commence your essay, writing with a good heart and a clear head; and, like a judicious builder, so employ your materials, as to rear a superstructure that shall be satisfactory to yourself and pleasing to others.

A word as to adornment of composition. While some matter-of-fact people need a little more poetry of sentiment to enter into their lives and writings, there are not a few, especially among the young, whose ardour carries them too far into the imaginative. Let such bear in mind that the vine needs great pruning to produce good fruit.

If, however, any want imagination, let them feast their senses upon the grand and beautiful; as, the glowing landscape, romantic scenery, or the soul-entrancing melody of music. Judgment is required in the selection of figurative language, and taste in the employment of it. Never use fine imagery and high-sounding words in simple narrative. Do not say, "The Pegasus-winged horses, clothed with thunder, darted like avalanches through the village, overturning in

their insane career a feminine individual of the swine species, full of anxious, maternal solicitude for the welfare of her interesting and excited progeny,"—when you simply mean, that two horses bolted through the village, and ran over an old sow in the midst of her litter of pigs. Old Fuller used to say, "To clothe low, creeping matter with high-flown language is not fine fancy, but flat foolery." Yet after all, in these colonies, we are not so overburdened with romantic associations, elegant refinements, and impassioned sentiment, as to be in much danger of being too imaginative in our style.

As correct and appropriate thoughts, are not usually spontaneous, but the result of observation and reading, no young man should neglect to gain an acquaintance with the external world by the proper exercise of his perceptive faculties; nor should he omit to store his mind with well-chosen treasures from the works of the great and good. No book ought to be perused without the taking of brief notes of its contents, with some extracts from it. It is of no small service in after life to have a good bundle of such extracts, —a very portable, select, and come-at-able library.

History should be one of the earliest studies of every young person. Voyages and travels, when read with an open map, instruct as well as please. Light literature, unless the production of master minds, has a tendency to weaken the understanding, and relax mental and moral energy. Science, especially in our own day, has charms for all. Astronomy, geology, agricultural chemistry, and electricity, invite the student to behold their wonders, and acquaint himself with

their practical uses. For improvement in style of writing, the works of the following are recommended :—Shakspeare, Milton, Cowper, Byron, Addison, Johnson, Bishop Butler, Junius, Robert Hall, Chalmers, Channing, Macaulay, Scott, and Dickens. The Bible above all other books presents in its compositions the greatest variety of style, the choicest specimens of sublimity and beauty, and the most inimitable simplicity.

There are some evils into which the young composer is liable to fall, and of which he should be warned. The nominative is often lost sight of in the hurry of writing. Keep it always closely in view, that you may properly regulate your verb by it. By this means you avoid ambiguity of meaning. Thus, "Our forefathers punished theft with death, if above the value of twelvepence." The author ought to have said, "punished theft, if above the value of twelvepence, with death." Let the active verb be kept near the objective. It is not well to write, "Napoleon could not better manifest, than by the enormous sacrifice of his soldiers, his selfishness." Take care of the possessives. Do not say, "They came to Cæsar's palace, whom they murdered." Be careful of the little word IT in composition. Do not employ the words AND and SO too often, as is the custom of most beginners. When several nouns come together, some beginning with a vowel and others with a consonant, put the article to each of them; as, *We gathered an orange, a melon, a pear, and an apple.* If two or more adjectives come before a noun, place commas or conjunctions between them; as, *He is a clever, a kind, and an ingenuous lad.*

It is important to know the leading figures of speech, and their application in composition. A SIMILE is a comparison; as, *William grows like a young wattle.* A METAPHOR is a figure in which the name, quality, or action, of one thing is put for another; as, *Gustavus Adolphus was the lion of the north.* An ALLEGORY is a story of comparison: the 80th Psalm and Bunyan's Pilgrim's Progress are examples. A METONYMY is using the cause for the effect; as, *Grey hairs are respected*; that is, *old age.* SYNECDOCHE puts a whole for the part, or a part for the whole; as, *Twenty head of cattle.* HYPERBOLE represents things extravagantly; as, *He was stronger than an elephant.* MEIOSIS expresses less than is meant; as, *They are not very amiable,* meaning they are ill-tempered. IRONY means the contrary of what we say; as, in Elijah's address to the Prophets of Baal. PERSONIFICATION is the attributing to things the qualities of intelligent beings; as, *The breeze whispers in the grove.* ANTITHESIS is contrast for effect; as, *If some in poverty and sickness feel thankful, how ought those to feel who have health and plenty.* CLIMAX raises our opinion of a subject by successive statements of increasing interest; as, the message to Eli after the battle. APOSTROPHE is an address to some person or thing; as, *O Absolom, my son, my son.* PLEONASM is an excess of words; as, *I saw it with my own eyes.*

PROSODY has to do with metre, accent, quantity, and the like. QUANTITY is the time in pronouncing a syllable, long or short. MEASURE is an accented syllable and its accompanying unaccented one. METRE is the recurrence, within

certain intervals, of syllables similarly affected in respect to accent, quantity, and modulation of voice; as,

The way´ was long´, the night´ was cold´.

A knowledge of Prosody is necessary to the correct reading and writing of Poetry. None need, however, waste their time in attempts at versification who have no decidedly poetic genius.

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