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Stereotype Edition

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L.C.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR,

ADAPTED TO THE
Miss Addie
DIFFERENT CLASSES OF LEARNERS.

Murray

WITH

AN APPENDIX,

CONTAINING

RULES AND OBSERVATIONS

FOR ASSISTING THE MORE ADVANCED STUDENTS TO WRITE
WITH PERSPICUITY AND ACCURACY.

"They who are learning to compose and arrange their sentences with accuracy
and order, are learning, at the same time, to think with accuracy and order."

BLAIR.

BY LINDLEY MURRAY.



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INTRODUCTION.

WHEN the number and variety of English Grammars already published, and the ability with which some of them are written, are considered, little can be expected from a new compilation, besides a careful selection of the most useful matter, and some degree of improvement in the mode of adapting it to the understanding, and the gradual progress of learners. In these respects something, perhaps, may yet be done, for the ease and advantage of young persons.

IN books designed for the instruction of youth, there is a medium to be observed, between treating the subject in so extensive and minute a manner, as to embarrass and confuse their minds, by offering too much at once for their comprehension; and, on the other hand, conducting it by such short and general precepts and observations, as convey to them no clear and precise information. A distribution of the parts, which is either defective or irregular, has also a tendency to perplex the young understanding, and to retard its knowledge of the principles of literature. A distinct general view, or outline, of all the essential parts of the study in which they are engaged; a gradual and judicious supply of this outline; and a due arrangement of the divisions, according to their natural order and connexion, appear to be among the best means of enlightening the minds of youth, and of facilitating their acquisition of knowledge. The author of this work, at the same time that he has endeavoured to avoid a plan which may be too concise or too extensive, defective in its parts or irregular in their disposition, has studied to render his subject sufficiently easy, intelligible, and comprehensive. He does not presume to have completely-attained these objects. How far he has succeeded in the attempt, and wherein he has failed, must be referred to the determination of the judicious and candid reader.

THE method which he has adopted, of exhibiting the performance in characters of different sizes; will, he trusts, be conducive to the gradual and regular procedure, which is so favourable to the business of instruction. The more important rules, definitions, and observations, and which are therefore the most proper to be committed to memory, are printed with a larger type; whilst rules and remarks that are of less consequence, that extend or diversify the general idea, or that serve as explanations, are contained in the smaller letter: these, or the chief of them, will be perused by the student to the greatest advantage, if postponed till the general system be completed. The use of notes and observations, in the common and detached manner, at the bottom of the page, would not, it is imagined, be so likely to attract the perusal of youth, or admit of so ample and regular an illustration, as a continued and uniform order of the several subjects. In adopting this mode, care has been taken to adjust it so that the whole may be perused in a connected progress, or the part contained in the larger character read in order by itself. Many of the notes and

observations are intended, not only to explain the subjects, and to illustrate them by comparative views of the grammar of other languages, and of the various sentiments of English grammarians; but also to invite the ingenious student to inquiry and reflection, and to prompt to a more enlarged, critical, and philosophical research.

WITH respect to the definitions and rules, it may not be improper more particularly to observe, that in selecting and forming them, it has been the author's aim to render them as exact and comprehensive, and, at the same time, as intelligible to young minds, as the nature of the subject, and the difficulties attending it, would admit. He presumes that they are also calculated to be readily committed to memory, and easily retained. For this purpose, he has been solicitous to select terms that are smooth and voluble; to proportion the members of the sentences to one another; to avoid protracted periods; and to give the whole definition or rule, as much harmony of expression as he could devise.

FROM the sentiment generally admitted, that a proper selection of faulty composition is more instructive to the young grammarian, than any rules and examples of propriety that can be given, the Compiler has been induced to pay peculiar attention to this part of the subject; and though the instances of false grammar, under the rules of Syntax, are numerous, it is hoped they will not be found too many, when their variety and usefulness are considered.

In a work which professes itself to be a compilation, and which, from the nature and design of it, must consist chiefly of materials selected from the writings of others, it is scarcely necessary to apologize for the use which the Compiler has made of his predecessors' labours; or for omitting to insert their names. From the alterations which have been frequently made in the sentiments and the language, to suit the connexion, and to adapt them to the particular purposes for which they are introduced; and, in many instances, from the uncertainty to whom the passages originally belonged, the insertion of names could seldom be made with propriety. But if this could have been generally done, a work of this nature would derive no advantage from it equal to the inconvenience of crowding the pages with a repetition of names and references. It is, however, proper to acknowledge, in general terms, that the authors to whom the grammatical part of this compilation is principally indebted for its materials, are Harris, Johnson, Lowth, Priestly, Beattie, Sheridan, Walker, and Coote.

The Rules and Observations respecting Perspicuity, &c. contained in the Appendix, and which are, chiefly, extracted from the writings of Blair and Campbell, will, it is presumed, form a proper addition to the Grammar. The subjects are very nearly related; and the study of perspicuity and accuracy in writing, appears naturally to follow that of Grammar. A competent acquaintance with the principles of both, will prepare and qualify the students, for prosecuting those additional improvements in language, to which they may be properly directed.

On the utility and importance of the study of Grammar, and

the principles of Composition, much might be advanced for the encouragement of persons in early life to apply themselves to this branch of learning ; but as the limits of this Introduction will not allow of many observations on the subject, a few leading sentiments are all that can be admitted here with propriety. As words are the signs of our ideas, and the medium by which we perceive the sentiments of others, and communicate our own ; and as signs exhibit the things which they are intended to represent, more or less accurately, according as they real or established conformity to those things is more or less exact ; it is evident, that in proportion to our knowledge of the nature and properties of words, of their relation to each other, and of their established connexion with the ideas to which they are applied, will be the certainty and ease with which we transfuse our sentiments into the minds of one another ; and that, without a competent knowledge of this kind, we shall frequently be in hazard of misunderstanding others, and of being misunderstood ourselves. It may indeed be justly asserted, that many of the differences in opinion amongst men, with the disputes, contentions, and alienations of heart which have too often proceeded from such differences, have been occasioned by a want of proper skill in the connexion and meaning of words, and by a tenacious misapplication of language.)

ONE of the best supports which the recommendation of this study can receive, in small compass, may be derived from the following sentiments of an eminent and candid writer* on language and composition. “ All that regards the study of composition, merits the higher attention upon this account, that it is intimately connected with the improvement of our intellectual powers. For I must be allowed to say, that when we are employed, after a proper manner, in the study of composition, we are cultivating the understanding itself. The study of arranging and expressing our thoughts with propriety, teaches to think, as well as to speak accurately.”

BEFORE the close of this Introduction, it may not be superfluous to observe, that the author of the following work has no interest in it, but that which arises from the hope, that it will prove of some advantage to young persons, and relieve the labours of those employed in their education. He wishes to promote, in some degree, the cause of virtue, as well as of learning ; and, with this view, he has been studious, through the whole of the work, not only to avoid every example and illustration, which might have an improper effect on the minds of youth ; but also to introduce, on many occasions, such as have a moral and religious tendency. His attention to objects of so much importance will, he trusts, meet the approbation of every well-disposed reader. If they were faithfully regarded in all books of education, they would doubtless contribute very materially to the order and happiness of society, by guarding the innocence and cherishing the virtue of the rising generation.

Holdgate, near York, 1795.

* Blair.

ADVERTISEMENT

TO THE NINTH EDITION.

The eighth edition of this grammar received considerable alterations and additions : but works of this nature admit of repeated improvements ; and are, perhaps, never complete. The author, solicitous to render his book more worthy of the encouraging approbation bestowed on it by the public, has again revised the work with care and attention. The new edition, he hopes, will be found much improved. The additions, which are very considerable, are, chiefly, such as are calculated to expand the learner's views of the subject ; to obviate objections ; and to render the study of grammar both easy and interesting. This edition contains also a new and enlarged system of parsing ; copious lists of nouns, arranged according to their gender and number ; and many notes and observations, which serve to extend, or to explain, particular rules and positions.*

The writer is sensible that, after all his endeavours to elucidate the principles of the work, there are few of the divisions, arrangements, definitions, or rules, against which critical ingenuity cannot devise plausible objections. The subject is attended with so much intricacy, and admits of views so various, that it was not possible to render every part of it unexceptionable ; or to accommodate the work, in all respects, to the opinions and prepossessions of every grammarian and teacher. If the author has adopted that system which, on the whole, is best suited to the nature of the subject, and conformable to the sentiments of the most judicious grammarians ; if his reasonings and illustrations, respecting particular points, are founded on just principles, and the peculiarities of the English language ; he has, perhaps, done all that could reasonably be expected in a work of this nature ; and he may warrantably indulge a hope, that the book will be still more extensively approved and circulated.

* The author conceives that the occasional strictures, dispersed through the book, and intended to illustrate and support a number of important grammatical points, will not, to young persons of ingenuity, appear to be dry and useless discussions. He is persuaded that, by such persons, they will be read with attention. And he presumes that these strictures will gratify their curiosity, stimulate application, and give solidity and permanence to their grammatical knowledge. In the Octavo edition of the grammar, the reader will find many additional discussions of this nature.

Holdgate, near York, 1804.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR is the art of speaking and writing the English language with propriety.

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

This division may be rendered more intelligible to the student, by observing, in other words, that Grammar treats, *first*, of the form and sound of the letters, the combination of letters into syllables, and syllables into words; *secondly*, of the different sorts of words, their various modifications, and their derivation; *thirdly*, of the union and right order of words in the formation of a sentence; and *lastly*, of the just pronunciation, and poetical construction of sentences

PART I.

ORTHOGRAPHY

CHAPTER I.

OF THE LETTERS.

SECTION 1. *Of the nature of the letters, and of a perfect alphabet.*

Orthography teaches the nature and powers of letters, and the just method of spelling words.

A letter is the first principle, or least part, of a word.

The letters of the English language, called the English Alphabet, are twenty-six in number.

These letters are the representatives of certain articulate sounds, the elements of the language. An articulate sound, is the sound of the human voice, formed by the organs of speech.

The following is a list of the Roman, Italic, and Old English Characters.

Roman.		Italic.		Old English.		Name.
Cap.	Small.	Cap.	Small.	Cap.	Small.	
A	a	<i>A</i>	<i>a</i>	𐌆	a	ai.
B	b	<i>B</i>	<i>b</i>	𐌇	b	bee.
C	c	<i>C</i>	<i>c</i>	𐌈	c	see.
D	d	<i>D</i>	<i>d</i>	𐌉	d	dee.
E	e	<i>E</i>	<i>e</i>	𐌊	e	ee.
F	f	<i>F</i>	<i>f</i>	𐌋	f	ef.
G	g	<i>G</i>	<i>g</i>	𐌌	g	jee.
H	h	<i>H</i>	<i>h</i>	𐌍	h	aitch.
I	i	<i>I</i>	<i>i</i>	𐌎	i	i or eye.
J	j	<i>J</i>	<i>j</i>	𐌏	j	jay.
K	k	<i>K</i>	<i>k</i>	𐌐	k	kay.
L	l	<i>L</i>	<i>l</i>	𐌑	l	el.
M	m	<i>M</i>	<i>m</i>	𐌒	m	em.
N	n	<i>N</i>	<i>n</i>	𐌓	n	en.
O	o	<i>O</i>	<i>o</i>	𐌔	o	o.
P	p	<i>P</i>	<i>p</i>	𐌕	p	pee.
Q	q	<i>Q</i>	<i>q</i>	𐌖	q	cue.
R	r	<i>R</i>	<i>r</i>	𐌗	r	ar.
S	s	<i>S</i>	<i>s</i>	𐌘	s	ess.
T	t	<i>T</i>	<i>t</i>	𐌙	t	tee.
U	u	<i>U</i>	<i>u</i>	𐌚	u	u or you.
V	v	<i>V</i>	<i>v</i>	𐌛	v	vee.
W	w	<i>W</i>	<i>w</i>	𐌜	w	double u.
X	x	<i>X</i>	<i>x</i>	𐌝	x	eks.
Y	y	<i>Y</i>	<i>y</i>	𐌞	y	wy.
Z	z	<i>Z</i>	<i>z</i>	𐌟	z	zed.

A perfect alphabet of the English language, and, indeed, of every other language, would contain a number of letters, precisely equal to the number of simple articulate sounds belonging to the language. Every simple sound would have its distinct character; and that character be the representative of no other sound. But this is far from being the state of the English alphabet. It has more original sounds than distinct significant letters; and, consequently, some of these letters are made to represent, not one sound alone, but several sounds. This will appear by reflecting, that the sounds signified by the united letters *th*, *sh*, *ng*, are elementary, and have no single appropriate characters, in our alphabet: and that the letters *a* and *u* represent the different sounds heard in *hat*, *hate*, *hall*; and in *but*, *bull*, *mule*.

To explain this subject more fully to the learner, we shall set down the characters made use of to represent all the elementary articulate sounds of our language, as nearly in the manner and order of the present English alphabet, as the design of the subject will admit; and shall annex to each character the syllable or word, which contains its proper and distinct sound. And here it will be proper to begin with the vowels.

Letters denoting the simple sounds.

Words containing the simple sounds.

a	as heard in	fate
a	as in	fall
a	as in	fat
a	as in	far
e	as in	me
e	as in	met
i	as in	pine
i	as in	pin
o	as in	no
o	as in	not
o	as in	move
u	as in	mule
u	as in	tub
u	as in	bull

By this list it appears, that there are in the English language fourteen simple vowel sounds; but as *i* and *u*, when pronounced long, may be considered as diphthongs, or diphthongal vowels, our language, strictly speaking, contains but twelve simple vowel sounds; to represent which, we have only five distinct characters or letters. If *a* in *far*, is the same specific sound as *a* in *fat*; and *u* in *bull*, the same as *o* in *move*, which is the opinion of some grammarians; then, there are but ten original vowel sounds in the English language.

The following list denotes the sounds of the consonants being in number twenty-two.

Letters denoting the simple sounds.

Words containing the simple sounds.

b	as heard in	bay, tub
d	as in	day, sad
f	as in	off, for
v	as in	van, love
g	as in	egg, go
h*	as in	hop, ho
k	as in	kill, oak
l	as in	lap, all
m	as in	my, mum
n	as in	no, on
p	as in	pin, map
r	as in	rap, cry
s	as in	so, lass
z	as in	zed, buzz
t	as in	top, mat
w	as in	wo, will
y	as in	ye, yes
ng	as in	ing, sing
sh	as in	shy, ash
th	as in	thin, thick
th	as in	then, them
zh	as in	pleasure

Several letters marked in the English alphabet, as consonants, are either superfluous, or represent, not simple, but complex sounds. C, for instance, is superfluous in both its sounds; the one being expressed by *k*, and the other by *s*. G, in the soft pronunciation, is not a simple, but a complex sound; as *age* is pronounced *aidge*. J is unnecessary, because its sound, and that of the soft *g*, are in our language the same. Q, with its attendant *u*, is either complex, and resolvable into *kw*, as in *quality*; or unnecessary, because its sound is the same with *k*, as in *opaque*. X is compounded of *gs*, as in *example*; or of *ks*, as in *expect*.

From the preceding representation, it appears to be a point of considerable importance, that every learner of the English language should be taught to pronounce perfectly, and with facility, every original simple sound that belongs to it. By a timely and judicious care in this respect, the voice will be prepared to utter, with ease and accuracy, every combination of sounds; and taught to avoid that confused and im-

* Some grammarians suppose *h* to mark only an aspiration, or breathing; but it appears to be a distinct sound, and formed in a particular manner, by the organs of speech.

perfect manner of pronouncing words, which accompanies, through life, many persons who have not, in this respect, been properly instructed at an early period.

Letters are divided into Vowels and Consonants.

A Vowel is an articulate sound, that can be perfectly uttered by itself : as *a, e, o* ; which are formed without the help of any other sound.

A Consonant is an articulate sound, which cannot be perfectly uttered without the help of a vowel : as, *b, d, f, i* ; which require vowels to express them fully.

The vowels are, *a, e, i, o, u*, and sometimes *w* and *y*.

W and *y* are consonants when they begin a word or syllable ; but in every other situation they are vowels.

It is generally acknowledged by the best grammarians, that *w* and *y* are consonants when they begin a syllable or word, and vowels when they end one. That they are consonants, when used as initials, seems to be evident from their not admitting the article *an* before them, as it would be improper to say, an walnut, an yard, &c. ; and from their following a vowel without any hiatus or difficulty of utterance ; as, frosty winter, rosy youth. That they are vowels in other situations, appears from their regularly taking the sound of other vowels ; as, *w* has the exact sound of *u* in saw, few, now, &c. and *y* that of *i*, in hymn, fly, crystal, &c. See the letters *W* and *Y*, Sec. 2.*

We present the following as more exact and philosophical definitions of a vowel and consonant.

A vowel is a simple, articulate sound, perfect in itself, and formed by a continued effusion of the breath, and a certain conformation of the mouth, without any alteration in the position, or any motion in the organs of speech, from the moment the vocal sound commences, till it ends.

A consonant is a simple articulate sound, imperfect by itself, but which, joined with a vowel, forms a complete sound, by a particular motion or contact of the organs of speech.

Some grammarians subdivide vowels into the *simple* and the *compound*. But there does not appear to be any foundation for the distinction. Simplicity is essential to the nature of a vowel, which excludes every degree of mixed or compound sounds. It requires, according to the definition, but one conformation of the organs of speech, to form it, and no motion in the organs, whilst it is forming.

* The letters *w* and *y*, are of an ambiguous nature ; being consonants at the beginning of words, and vowels at the end. *Encyclopaedia Britannica.*

WALKER'S Critical Pronouncing Dictionary, page 24, third edition.

PERRY'S English Dictionary, Preface, page 7

Consonants are divided into mutes and semi-vowels.

The mutes cannot be sounded *at all*, without the aid of a vowel. They are *b, p, t, d, k*, and *c* and *g* hard.

The semi-vowels have an imperfect sound of themselves. They are *f, l, m, n, r, v, s, z, x*, and *c* and *g* soft.

Four of the semi-vowels, namely, *l, m, n, r*, are also distinguished by the name of *liquids*, from their readily uniting with other consonants, and flowing, as it were, into their sounds.

We have shown above, that it is essential to the nature of a consonant, that it cannot be fully uttered without the aid of a vowel. We may further observe, that even the *names* of the consonants, as they are pronounced in reciting the alphabet, require the help of vowels to express them. In pronouncing the names of the mutes, the assistant vowels *follow* the consonants: *as, be, pe, te, de, ka*. In pronouncing the names of the semi-vowels, the vowels generally *precede* the consonants: *as, ef, el, em, en, ar, es, ex*. The exceptions are, *ce, ge, ve, zed*.

This distinction between the *nature*, and the *name* of a consonant, is of great importance, and should be well explained to the pupil. They are frequently confounded by writers on grammar. Observations and reasonings on the name, are often applied to explain the nature, of a consonant: and, by this means, the student is led into error and perplexity, respecting these elements of language. It should be impressed on his mind, that the name of every consonant is a *complex* sound; but that the consonant itself, is always a *simple* sound.

Some writers have described the mutes and semi-vowels, with their subdivisions, nearly in the following manner.

The *mutes* are those consonants whose sounds cannot be protracted. The *semi-vowels*, such whose sounds can be continued at pleasure, partaking of the nature of vowels, from which they derive their name.

The mutes may be subdivided into *pure* and *impure*. The pure are those whose sounds cannot be at all prolonged: they are *k, p, t*. The impure, are those whose sounds may be continued, though for a very short space: they are *b, d, g*.

The semi-vowels may be subdivided into *vocal* and *aspirated*. The vocal are those which are formed by the voice; the aspirated, those formed by the breath. There are eleven vocal, and five aspirated. The vocal are *l, m, n, r, v, w, y, z, th flat, zh, ng*: the aspirated, *f, h, s, th sharp, sh*.

The vocal semi-vowels may be subdivided into *pure* and

impure. The pure are those which are formed entirely by the voice: the impure, such as have a mixture of breath with the voice. There are seven pure—*l, m, n, r, w, y, ng*; four impure—*v, z, th flat, zh*.

A diphthong is the union of two vowels, pronounced by a simple impulse of the voice; as *ea* in *beat*, *ou* in *sound*.

A triphthong is the union of three vowels, pronounced in like manner; as, *eau* in *beau*, *iew* in *view*.

A proper diphthong is that in which both the vowels are sounded; as, *oi* in *voice*, *ou* in *ounce*.

An improper diphthong has but one of the vowels sounded; as, *ea* in *eagle*, *oa* in *boat*.

Each of the diphthongal letters was, doubtless, originally heard in pronouncing the words which contain them. Though this is not the case at present, with respect to many of them, these combinations still retain the name of diphthongs; but, to distinguish them, they are marked by the term *improper*. As the diphthong derives its name and nature from its sound, and not from its letters, and properly denotes a double vowel sound, no union of two vowels, where one is silent, can, in strictness, be entitled to that appellation; and the single letters *i* and *u*, when pronounced long, must, in this view, be considered as diphthongs. The triphthongs, having at most but two sounds, are merely ocular, and are, therefore, by some grammarians, classed with the diphthongs.

SECTION 2. *General observations on the sounds of the letters.*

A

A has four sounds; the long or slender, the broad, the short or open, and the middle.

The long; as in *name, basin, creation*.

The broad; as in *call, wall, all*.

The short; as in *barrel, fancy, glass*.

The middle; as in *far, farm, father*.

The diphthong *aa* generally sounds like *a* short in proper names; as in *Balaam, Canaan, Isaac*; but not in *Baal, Gaal*.

Ae has the sound of long *e*. It is sometimes found in Latin words. Some authors retain this form; as, *ænigma, æquator, &c.*; but others have laid it aside, and write *enigma, Cesar, Eneas, &c.*

The diphthong *ai* has exactly the long slender sound of *a* as in *pail, tail, &c.*; pronounced *pale, tale, &c.*: except *plaid, again, raillery, fountain, Britain, and a few others*.

Au is generally sounded like the broad *a*: as in *taught, caught, &c.* Sometimes like the short or open *a*; as in *aunt,*

flaunt, gauntlet, &c. It has the sound of long *o* in hautboy and that of *o* short in laurel, laudanum, &c.

Aw has always the sound of broad *a* ; as in bawl, scrawl, crawl.

Ay, like its near relation *ai*, is pronounced like the long slender sound of *a* ; as in pay, day, delay.

B

B keeps one unvaried sound, at the beginning, middle, and end of words ; as in baker, number, rhubarb, &c.

In some words it is silent ; as in thumb, debtor, subtle, &c. In others, besides being silent, it lengthens the syllable ; as in climb, comb, tomb.

C

C has two different sounds.

A hard sound like *k*, before *a, o, u, r, l, t* ; as in cart, cottage, curious, craft, tract, cloth, &c. ; and when it ends a syllable ; as in victim, flaccid.

A soft sound like *s* before *e, i*, and *y*, generally ; as in centre, face, civil, cymbal, mercy, &c. It has sometimes the sound of *sh* ; as in ocean, social.

C is mute in czar, czarine, victuals, &c.

C, says Dr. Johnson, according to English orthography, never ends a word ; and therefore we find in our best dictionaries, stick, block, publick, politick, &c. But many writers of latter years omit the *k* in words of two or more syllables ; and this practice is gaining ground, though it is productive of irregularities ; such as writing mimic and mimickry ; traffic and trafficking.

Ch is commonly sounded like *tch* ; as in church, chin, chaff, charter : but in words derived from the Greek, has the sound of *k* ; as in chymist, scheme, chorus, chyle, distich ; and in foreign names ; as, Achish, Baruch, Enoch, &c.

Ch, in some words derived from the French, takes the sound of *sh* ; as in chaise, chagrin, chevalier, machine.

Ch in arch, before a vowel, sounds like *k* ; as in arch-angel, archives, Archipelago ; except in arched, archery, archer, and arch-enemy : but before a consonant it always sounds like *tch* ; as in archbishop, archduke, archpresbyter, &c. *Ch* is silent in schedule, schism, and yacht.

D

D keeps one uniform sound, at the beginning, middle, and end of words ; as in death, bandage, kindred ; unless it may be said to take the sound of *t*, in stuffed, tripped, &c. stuff, tript, &c.

E

E has three different sounds.

A long sound ; as in scheme, glebe, severe, pulley.

A short sound ; as in men, bed, clemency.

An obscure and scarcely perceptible sound ; as, open, lucre, participle.

It has sometimes the sound of middle *a* ; as in clerk, serjeant ; and sometimes that of short *i* ; as in England, yes, pretty.

E is always mute at the end of a word, except in monosyllables that have no other vowel ; as, me, he, she : or in substantives derived from the Greek ; as, catastrophe, epitome, Penelope. It is used to soften and modify the foregoing consonants ; as, force, rage, since, oblige : or to lengthen the preceding vowel ; as, can, cane ; pin, pine ; rob, robe.

The diphthong *ea* is generally sounded like *e* long ; as in appear, beaver, creature, &c. It has also the sound of short *e* ; as in breath, meadow, treasure. And it is sometimes pronounced like the long and slender *a* ; as in bear, break, great.

Eau has the sound of long *o* ; as in beau, flambeau, portmanteau. In beauty and its compounds, it has the sound of long *u*.

Ei, in general, sounds the same as long and slender *a* ; as in deign, vein, neighbour, &c. It has the sound of long *e* in seize, deceit, receive, either, neither, &c. It is sometimes pronounced like short *i* ; as in foreign, forfeit, sovereign, &c.

Eo is pronounced like *e* long ; as in people ; and sometimes like *e* short ; as in leopard, jeopardy. It has also the sound of short *u* ; as in dungeon, sturgeon, puncheon, &c.

Eu is always sounded like long *u* or *ew* ; as in feud, deuce.

Ew is almost always pronounced like long *u* ; as in few, new, dew.

Ey, when the accent is on it, is always pronounced like *a* long ; as in bey, grey, convey ; except in key, ley, where it is sounded like long *e*.

When this diphthong is unaccented, it takes the sound of *e* long ; as, alley, valley, barley.

F

F keeps one pure unvaried sound at the beginning, middle, and end of words ; as, fancy, muffin, mischief, &c. : except in *of*, in which it has the flat sound of *ov* ; but not in composition ; as, whereof, thereof, &c. We should not pronounce, a wife's jointure, a calve's head ; but a wife's jointure, a calf's head.

G

G has two sounds : one hard ; as in gay, go, gun : the other soft ; as in gem, giant.

At the end of a word it is always hard ; as in bag, snug, frog. It is hard before *a*, *o*, *u*, *l*, and *r* ; as, game, gone, gull, glory, grandeur

G before *c*, *i*, and *y*, is soft; as in genius, gesture, ginger, Egypt; except in get, gewgaw, finger, craggy, and some others.

G is mute before *n*; as in gnash, sign, foreign, &c.

Gn, at the end of a word, or syllable accented, gives the preceding vowel a long sound; as in resign, impugn, oppugn, impregn, impugned; pronounced impune, imprene, &c.

Gh, at the beginning of a word, has the sound of the hard *g*; as, ghost, ghastly: in the middle, and sometimes at the end, it is quite silent; as in right, high, plough, mighty.

At the end it has often the sound of *f*; as in laugh, cough, tough. Sometimes only the *g* is sounded; as in burgh, burgher.

H

The sound signified by this letter, is, as before observed, an articulate sound, and not merely an aspiration. It is heard in the words hat, horse, Hull. It is seldom mute at the beginning of a word. It is always silent after *r*; as, rhetoric, rheum, rhubarb.

H final, preceded by a vowel, is always silent; as, ah! hah! oh! foh! Sarah, Messiah.

From the faintness of the sound of this letter, in many words, and its total silence in others, added to the negligence of tutors, and the inattention of pupils, it has happened, that many persons have become almost incapable of acquiring its just and full pronunciation. It is, therefore, incumbent on teachers, to be particularly careful to inculcate a clear and distinct utterance of this sound.

I

I has a long sound; as in fine: and a short one; as in fin.

The long sound is always marked by the *e* final in monosyllables; as thin, thine; except give, live. Before *r* it is often sounded like a short *u*; as flirt, first. In some words it has the sound of *e* long; as in machine, bombazine, magazine.

The diphthong *ia* is frequently sounded like *ya*; as in christian, filial, poniard; pronounced christ-yan, &c. It has sometimes the sound of short *i*; as in carriage, marriage, parliament.

Ie sounds in general like *e* long; as in grief, thief, grenadier. It has also the sound of long *i*; as in die, pie, lie: and sometimes that of short *i*; as in sieve.

Ieu has the sound of long *u*; as in lieu, adieu, purlieu.

Io, when the accent is upon the first vowel, forms two distinct syllables; as, priory, violet, violent. The terminations *tion* and *sion*, are sounded exactly like the word shun;



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sound of *o* ; as boat, oat, coal : except in broad, abroad, groat, where it takes the sound of broad *a* ; as, brawd, &c.

Oe has the sound of single *e*. It is sometimes long ; as in *fœtus*, *Antœci* : and sometimes short ; as in *œconomics*, *œcumenical*. In *doe*, *foe*, *sloe*, *toe*, *throe*, *hoe*, and *bilboes*, it is sounded exactly like long *o*.

Oi has almost universally the double sound of *a* broad and *e* long united, as in *boy* ; as, *boil*, *toil*, *spoil*, *joint*, *point*, *anoint* : which should never be pronounced as if written *bile*, *spile*, *tile*, &c.

Oo almost always preserves its regular sound ; as in *moon*, *soon*, *food*. It has a shorter sound in *wool*, *good*, *foot*, and a few others. In *blood* and *flood* it sounds like short *u*. *Door* and *floor* should always be pronounced as if written *dore* and *flore*.

The diphthong *ou* has six different sounds. The first and proper sound is equivalent to *ow* in *down* ; as in *bound*, *found*, *surround*.

The second is that of short *u* ; as in *enough*, *trouble*, *journey*.

The third is that of *oo* ; as in *soup*, *youth*, *tournament*.

The fourth is that of long *o* ; as in *though*, *mourn*, *poultice*.

The fifth is that of short *o* ; as in *cough*, *trough*.

The sixth is that of *awe* ; as in *ought*, *brought*, *thought*.

Ow is generally sounded like *ou* in *thou* ; as in *brown*, *dowry*, *shower*. It has also the sound of long *o* ; as in *snow*, *grown*, *bestow*.

The diphthong *oy* is but another form for *oi*, and is pronounced exactly like it.

P

P has always the same sound, except, perhaps, in *cup-board*, where it sounds like *b*. It is sometimes mute ; as in *psalm*, *psalter*, *Ptolemy* : and between *m* and *t* ; as, *tempt*, *empty*, *presumptuous*.

Ph is generally pronounced like *f* ; as in *philosophy*, *philanthropy*, *Philip*.

In *nephew* and *Stephen*, it has the sound of *v*. In *apoplethegm*, *phthisis*, *phthisic*, and *phthisical*, both letters are entirely dropped.

Q

Q is always followed by *u* ; as *quadrant*, *queen*, *quire*.

Qu is sometimes sounded like *k* ; as, *conquer*, *liquor*, *risque*.

R

R has a rough sound ; as in *Rome*, *river*, *rage* : and a smooth one ; as in *bard*, *card*, *regard*.

Re at the end of many words, is pronounced like a weak *er* ; as in *theatre*, *sepulchre*, *massacre*.

S

S has two different sounds.

A soft and flat sound like *z* ; as, besom, nasal, dismal.

A sharp hissing sound ; as, saint, sister, cyprus.

It is always sharp at the beginning of words.

At the end of words it takes the soft sound ; as, his, was, trees, eyes ; except in the words this, thus, us, yes, rebus, surplus, &c. ; and in words terminating with *ous*.

It sounds like *z* before *ion*, if a vowel goes before ; as, intrusion ; but like *s* sharp, if it follows a consonant ; as, conversion. It also sounds like *z* before *e* mute ; as, amuse ; and before *y* final ; as, rosy ; and in the words, bosom, desire, wisdom, &c.

S is mute in isle, island, demesne, viscount.

T

T generally sounds, as in take, tempter. *T* before *u*, when the accent precedes, sounds like *tch* ; as, nature, virtue, are pronounced, natchure, virtchue. *Ti* before a vowel has the sound of *sh* ; as in salvation : except in such words as tierce, tiara, &c. and unless an *s* goes before ; as, question ; and excepting also derivatives from words ending in *ty* ; as, mighty, mightier.

Th has two sounds : the one soft and flat ; as, thus, whether, heathen : the other hard and sharp ; as, thing, think, breath.

Th, at the beginning of words, is sharp ; as in thank, thick, thunder : except in that, then, thus, thither, and some others. *Th* at the end of words, is also sharp ; as, death, breath, mouth : except in with, booth, beneath, &c.

Th, in the middle of words, is sharp ; as, panther, orthodox, misanthrope : except worthy, farthing, brethren, and a few others.

Th between two vowels, is generally flat in words purely English ; as, father, heathen, together, neither, mother.

Th, between two vowels, in words from the learned languages, is generally sharp ; as, apathy, sympathy, Athens, apothecary.

Th is sometimes pronounced like simple *t* ; as, Thomas, thyme, Thames, asthma.

U

U has three sounds, viz.

A long sound ; as in mule, tube, cubic.

A short sound ; as in dull, gull, custard.

An obtuse sound, like *oo* ; as in bull, full, bushel.

The strangest deviation of this letter from its natural

sound, is in the words busy, business, bury, and burial ; which are pronounced bizzy, bizness, berry, and berrial. .

A is now often used before words beginning with *u* long, and *an* always before those that begin with *u* short ; as, a union, a university, a useful book ; an uproar, an usher, an umbrella.

The diphthong *ua*, has sometimes the sound of *wa* ; as in assuage, persuade, antiquary. It has also the sound of middle *a* ; as in guàrd, guardian, guarantee.

Ue is often sounded like *we* ; as in quench, querist, conquest. It has also the sound of long *u* ; as in cue, hue, ague. In a few words, it is pronounced like *e* short ; as in guest, guess. In some words it is entirely sunk ; as in antique, oblique, prorogue, catalogue, dialogue, &c.

Ui is frequently pronounced *wi* ; as in languid, anguish, extinguish. It has sometimes the sound of *i* long ; as in guide, guile, disguise : and sometimes that of *i* short ; as in guilt, guinea, Guildhall. In some words it is sounded like long *u* ; as in juice, suit, pursuit : and after *r*, like *oo* ; as in bruise, fruit, recruit.

Uo is pronounced like *wo* ; as in quote, quorum, quondam.

Uy has the sound of long *e* ; as in obloquy, soliloquy ; pronounced obloquee, &c. ; except buy, and its derivatives.

V

V has the sound of flat *f* ; and bears the same relation to it, as *b* does to *p*, *d* to *t*, hard *g* to *k*, and *z* to *s*. It has also one uniform sound ; as, vain, vanity, love.

W

W, when a consonant, has nearly the sound of *oo* ; as water resembles the sound of *ooater* ; but that it has a stronger and quicker sound than *oo*, and has a formation essentially different, will appear to any person who pronounces, with attention, the words *wo*, *woo*, *beware* ; and who reflects that it will not admit the article *an* before it ; which *oo* would admit. In some words it is not sounded ; as in answer, sword, wholesome : it is always silent before *r* ; as in wrap, wreck, wrinkle, wrist, wrong, wry, bewray, &c.

W before *h* is pronounced as if it were after the *h* ; as, why, hwy ; when, hwen ; what, hwat.

W is often joined to *o* at the end of a syllable, without affecting the sound of that vowel ; as in crow, blow, grow, know, row, flow, &c.

When *w* is a vowel, and is distinguished in the pronunciation, it has exactly the same sound as *u* would have in the same situation ; as, draw, crew, view, now, sawyer, vowel, outlaw.

X

X has three sounds, viz.

It is sounded like *z* at the beginning of proper names of Greek original; as in Xanthus, Xenophon, Xerxes.

It has a sharp sound like *ks*, when it ends a syllable with the accent upon it; as, exit, exercise, excellence; or when the accent is on the next syllable, if it begins with a consonant; as, excuse, extent, expense.

It has, generally, a flat sound like *gz*, when the accent is not on it, and the following syllable begins with a vowel; as, exert, exist, example; pronounced, egzert, egzist, egzample.

Y

Y, when a consonant, has nearly the sound of *ee*; as, youth, York, resemble the sounds of *eeouth*, *eeork*; but that this is not its exact sound, will be clearly perceived, by pronouncing the words *ye*, *yes*, *new-year*, in which its just and proper sound is ascertained. It not only requires a stronger exertion of the organs of speech to pronounce it, than is required to pronounce *ee*; but its formation is essentially different. It will not admit of *an* before it, as *ee* will in the following example; an *eel*. The opinion that *y* and *w*, when they begin a word or syllable, take exactly the sound of *ee* and *oo*, has induced some grammarians to assert, that these letters are always vowels or diphthongs.

When *y* is a vowel, it has exactly the same sound as *i* would have in the same situation; as, rhyme, system, justify, pyramid, party, fancy, hungry.

Z

Z has the sound of an *s* uttered with a closer compression of the palate by the tongue: it is the flat *s*; as, freeze, frozen, brazen.

It may be proper to remark, that the sounds of the letters vary, as they are differently associated, and that the pronunciation of these associations depends upon the position of the accent. It may also be observed, that, in order to pronounce accurately, great attention must be paid to the vowels which are not accented. There is scarcely any thing which more distinguishes a person of a poor education, from a person of a good one, than the pronunciation of the *unaccented* vowels. When vowels are *under the accent*, the best speakers and the lowest of the people, with very few exceptions, pronounce them in the same manner; but the unaccented vowels in the mouths of the former, have a distinct, open, and specific sound, while the latter often totally sink them, or change them into some other sound.

SECTION 3. *The nature of articulation explained.*

A CONCISE account of the origin and formation of the sounds emitted by the human voice, may, perhaps, not improperly, be here introduced. It may gratify the ingenious student, and serve to explain more fully the nature of articulation, and the radical distinction between vowels and consonants.

Human voice is air sent out from the lungs, and so agitated or modified in its passage through the windpipe and larynx, as to become distinctly audible. The windpipe is that tube, which, on touching the forepart of our throat externally, we feel hard and uneven. It conveys air into the lungs for the purpose of breathing and speech. The top or upper part of the windpipe is called the *larynx*, consisting of four or five cartilages, that may be expanded or brought together, by the action of certain muscles which operate all at the same time. In the middle of the larynx there is a small opening, called the *glottis*, through which the breath and voice are conveyed. This opening is not wider than one tenth of an inch; and, therefore, the breath transmitted through it from the lungs, must pass with considerable velocity. The voice thus formed, is strengthened and softened by a reverberation from the palate and other hollow places in the inside of the mouth and nostrils; and as these are better or worse shaped for this reverberation, the voice is said to be more or less agreeable.

If we consider the many varieties of sound, which one and the same human voice is capable of uttering, together with the smallness of the diameter of the glottis; and reflect, that the same diameter must always produce the same tone, and consequently, that to every change of tone a correspondent change of diameter is necessary; we must be filled with admiration at the mechanism of these parts; and the fineness of the fibres that operate in producing effects so minute, so various, and in their proportions so exactly uniform. For it admits of proof, that the diameter of the human glottis is capable of more than sixty distinct degrees of contraction or enlargement, by each of which a different note is produced; and yet the greatest diameter of that aperture, as before observed, does not exceed one tenth of an inch.

Speech is made up of *articulate* voices; and what we call *articulation*, is performed, not by the lungs, windpipe, or larynx, but by the action of the throat, palate, teeth, tongue, lips, and nostrils. Articulation begins not, till the breath, or voice, has passed through the larynx.

The simplest articulate voices are those which proceed from an open mouth, and are by grammarians called *vowel* sounds. In transmitting these, the aperture of the mouth may be pretty large, or somewhat smaller, or very small; which is one cause of the variety of vowels; a particular sound being produced by each particular aperture. Moreover in passing through an open mouth, the voice may be *gently acted upon*, by the lips, or by the tongue and palate, or by the tongue and throat; whence another source of variety in vowel sounds.

Thus ten or twelve simple vowel sounds may be formed, agreeably to the plan in page 9; and the learners, by observing the position of their mouth, lips, tongue, &c. when they are uttering the sounds, will perceive that various operations of these organs of speech, are necessary to the production of the different vowel sounds; and that by minute variations they may all be distinctly pronounced.

When the voice, in its passage through the mouth, is *totally intercepted*, or *strongly compressed*, there is formed a certain modification of articulate sound, which, as expressed by a character in writing, is called a *consonant*. Silence is the effect of total interception; and indistinct sound, of a strong compression; and therefore a consonant is not of itself a distinct articulate voice; and its influence in varying the tones of language is not clearly perceived, unless it be accompanied by an opening of the mouth, that is, by a vowel.

By making the experiment with attention, the student will perceive that each of the *mutes* is formed by the voice being *intercepted*, by the lips, by the tongue and palate, or by the tongue and throat; and that the *semi-vowels* are formed by the same organs *strongly compressing* the voice in its passage, but not totally intercepting it.

The elements of language, according to the different seats where they are formed, or the several organs of speech chiefly concerned in their pronunciation, are divided into several classes, and denominated as follows; those are called *labials*, which are formed by the lips; those *dentals*, that are formed with the teeth; *palatals*, that are formed with the palate; and *nasals*, that are formed by the nose.

The importance of obtaining, in early life, a clear, distinct, and accurate knowledge of the sounds of the first principles of language, and a wish to lead young minds to a further consideration of a subject so curious and useful, have induced the compiler to bestow particular attention on the preceding part of this work. Some writers think that these subjects do not properly constitute any part of grammar; and con-

sider them as the exclusive province of the spelling-book ; but if we reflect, that letters and their sounds are the constituent principles of that art, which teaches us to speak and write with propriety, and that in general, very little knowledge of their nature is acquired by the spelling-book, we must admit, that they properly belong to grammar ; and that a rational consideration of these elementary principles of language is an object that demands the attention of the young grammarian. The sentiments of a very judicious and eminent writer (Quintilian) respecting this part of grammar, may, perhaps, be properly introduced on the present occasion.

“ Let no person despise, as inconsiderable, the elements of grammar, because it may seem to them a matter of small consequence, to show the distinction between vowels and consonants, and to divide the latter into liquids and mutes. But they who penetrate into the innermost parts of this temple of science, will there discover such refinement and subtilty of matter, as are not only proper to sharpen the understandings of the young persons, but sufficient to give exercise for most profound knowledge and erudition.”

The elementary sounds, under their smallest combination, produce a *syllable* ; syllables properly combined produce a *word* ; words duly combined produce a *sentence* ; and sentences properly combined produce an *oration* or *discourse*. Thus it is, says HARRIS in his HERMES, that to principles apparently so trivial as a few plain elementary sounds, we owe that variety of articulate voices, which has been sufficient to explain the sentiments of so innumerable a multitude, as all the present and past generations of men.

CHAPTER II.

OF SYLLABLES, AND THE RULES FOR ARRANGING THEM.

A SYLLABLE is a sound, either simple or compounded, pronounced by a single impulse of the voice, and constituting a word, or part of a word : as, a, an, ant.

Spelling is the art of rightly dividing words into their syllables, or of expressing a word by its proper letters.

The following are the general rules for the division of words into syllables.

1. A single consonant between two vowels, must be joined to the latter syllable : as, de-light, bri-dal, re-source : except the letter x ; as, ex-ist, ex-amine : and except likewise words compounded ; as, up-on, un-even, dis-ease.



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There are many English words which, though compounds in other languages, are to us primitives: thus, circumspect, circumvent, circumstance, delude, concave, complicate, &c. primitive words in English; will be found derivatives, when traced in the Latin tongue.

The orthography of the English Language is attended with much uncertainty and perplexity. But a considerable part of this inconvenience may be remedied, by attending to the general laws of formation; and, for this end, the learner is presented with a view of such general maxims in spelling primitive and derivative words, as have been almost universally received.

RULE I.

Monosyllables ending with *f*, *l*, or *s*, preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant: as, staff, mill, pass, &c. The only exceptions are, of, if, as, is, has, was, yes, his, this, us, and thus.

RULE II.

Monosyllables ending with any consonant but *f*, *l*, or *s*, and preceded by a single vowel, never double the final consonant; excepting add, ebb, butt, egg, odd, err, inn, bunn, purr, and buzz.

RULE III.

Words ending with *y*, preceded by a consonant, form the plurals of nouns, the, persons of verbs, verbal nouns, past participles, comparatives, and superlatives, by changing *y* into *i*: as, spy, spies; I carry, thou carriest; he carrieth, or carries; carrier, carried; happy, happier, happiest.

The present participle in *ing*, retains the *y*, that *i* may not be doubled; as, carry, carrying; bury, burying, &c.

But *y*, preceded by a vowel, in such instances as the above, is not changed; as, boy, boys: I cloy, he cloy, cloyed &c.; except in lay, pay, and say; from which are formed, laid, paid, and said; and their compounds, unlaid, unpaid, unsaid, &c.

RULE IV.

Words ending with *y*, preceded by a consonant, upon assuming an additional syllable beginning with a consonant, commonly change *y*, into *i*; as, happy, happily, happiness. But when *y* is preceded by a vowel, it is very rarely changed in the additional syllable; as, coy, coyly; boy, boyish, boyhood: annoy, annoyer, annoyance; joy, joyless, joyful.

RULE V.

Monosyllables, and words accented on the last syllable, ending with a single consonant preceded by a single vowel double that consonant, when they take another syllable be-

ginning with a vowel, as, wit, witty; thin, thinnish; to abet, an abetter; to begin, a beginner.

But if a diphthong precedes, or the accent is on the preceding syllable, the consonant remains single: as, to toil, toiling to offer, and offering; maid, maiden, &c.

RULE VI.

Words ending with any double letter but *l*, and taking *ness*, *less*, *ly*, or *ful*, after them, preserve the letter double; as, harmlessness, carelessness, carelessly, stiffly, successful, distressful, &c. But those words which end with double *l*, and take *ness*, *less*, *ly*, or *ful*, after them, generally omit one *l*; as fulness, skilless, fully, skilful, &c.

RULE VII.

Ness, *less*, *ly*, and *ful*, added to words ending with silent *e*, do not cut it off; as, paleness, guileless, closely, peaceful; except in a few words; as, duly, truly, awful.

RULE VIII.

Ment, added to words ending with silent *e*, generally preserves the *e* from elision; as, abatement, chastisement, incitement, &c. The words judgment, abridgement, acknowledgement, are deviations from the rule.

Like other terminations, *ment* changes *y* into *i*, when preceded by a consonant; as, accompany, accompaniment; merry, merriment.

RULE IX.

Able and *ible*, when incorporated into words ending with silent *e*, almost always cut it off; as, blame, blamable; cure, curable; sense, sensible, &c.: but if *c* or *g* soft comes before *e* in the original word, the *e* is then preserved in words compounded with *able*: as, change, changeable; peace, peaceable, &c.

RULE X.

When *ing* or *ish* is added to words ending with silent *e*, the *e* is almost universally omitted: as, place, placing; lodge, lodging; slave, slavish; prude, prudish.

RULE XI.

Words taken into composition, often drop those letters which were superfluous in the simple words: as, handful, cunghil, withal, also, chilblain, foretel.

The orthography of a great number of English words is far from being uniform, even amongst writers of distinction. Thus, *honour* and *honor*, *inquire* and *enquire*, *negotiate* and *negociate*, *control* and *controul*, *expense* and *expence*, *allege* and *alledge*, *surprise* and *surprize*, *complete* and *compleat*, *connexion* and *connection*, *abridgment* and *abridgement*, and many other orthographical variations, are to be met with in

the best modern publications. Some authority for deciding differences of this nature, appears to be necessary: and where can we find one of equal pretensions with Dr. Johnson's Dictionary? though a few of his decisions do not appear to be warranted by the principles of etymology and analogy, the stable foundations of his improvements.—“As the weight of truth and reason (says Nares in his “Elements of Orthoepy”) is irresistible, Dr. Johnson's Dictionary has nearly fixed the external form of our language. Indeed, so convenient is it to have one acknowledged standard to recur to; so much preferable, in matters of this nature, is a trifling degree of irregularity, to a continual change, and fruitless pursuit of unattainable perfection; that it is earnestly to be hoped, that no author will henceforth, on light grounds, be tempted to innovate.”

This Dictionary, however, contains some orthographical inconsistencies, which ought to be rectified: such as, *immovable moveable, chastely chastness, fertileness fertility, sliñess slyly, fearlessly fearlesness, needlessness needlesly*. If these, and similar irregularities, were corrected by spelling the words analogically, according to the first word in each part of the series, and agreeably to the general rules of spelling, the Dictionary would doubtless, in these respects, be improved.

PART II.

ETYMOLOGY.

CHAPTER I.

A General View of the Parts of Speech.

The second part of grammar is ETYMOLOGY, which treats of the different sorts of words, their various modifications, and their derivation.

There are, in English, nine sorts of words, or, as they are commonly called, PARTS OF SPEECH; namely, the ARTICLE, the SUBSTANTIVE OR NOUN, the ADJECTIVE, the PRONOUN, the VERB, the ADVERB, the PREPOSITION, the CONJUNCTION, and the INTERJECTION.

1. An Article is a word prefixed to substantives, to point them out, and to show how far their signification extends: as, *a* garden, *an* eagle, *the* woman.

2. A Substantive or noun is the name of any thing that exists, or of which we have any notion: as, *London, man, virtue.*

A substantive may, in general, be distinguished by its taking an article before it, or by its making sense of itself: as, *a book, the sun, an apple; temperance, industry, chastity.*

3. An Adjective is a word added to a substantive, to express its quality: as, "An *industrious* man; a *virtuous* woman."

An Adjective may be known by its making sense with the addition of the word *thing*; as, a *good* thing; a *bad* thing; or of any particular substantive; as, a *sweet* apple, a *pleasant* prospect, a *lively* boy.

4. A Pronoun is a word used instead of a noun, to avoid the too frequent repetition of the same word: as, "The man is happy; *he* is benevolent: *he* is useful.

5. A Verb is a word which signifies to BE, to DO, or to SUFFER; as, "I *am*; I *rule*; I *am ruled*."

A Verb may generally be distinguished, by its making sense with any of the personal pronouns, or the word *to* before it: as, I *walk*, he *plays*, they *write*: or, *to walk*, *to play*, *to write*.

6. An adverb is a part of speech joined to a verb, an adjective, and sometimes to another adverb, to express some quality or circumstance respecting it: as, "He reads *well*; a *truly* good man; he writes *very correctly*."

An Adverb may be generally known, by its answering to the questions, How? how much? when? or where? as, in the phrase "He reads *correctly*, the answer to the question, How does he read? is, *correctly*.

7. Prepositions serve to connect words with one another, and to show the relation between them: as, "He went *from* London *to* York;" "she is *above* disguise;" "they are supported *by* industry."

A preposition may be known by its admitting after it a personal pronoun, in the objective case; as, *with, for, to, &c.* will allow the objective case after them; with *him*, for *her*, to *them*, &c.

8. A Conjunction is a part of speech that is chiefly used to connect sentences: so as, out of two or more sentences, to make but one: it sometimes connects only words: as, "Thou *and* he are happy, *because* you are good." "Two *and* three are five."

9. Interjections are words thrown in between the parts of a sentence, to express the passions or emotions of the speaker: as, "O virtue! how amiable thou art!"

The observations which have been made, to aid learners in distinguishing the parts of speech from one another, may afford them some small assistance; but it will certainly be much more instructive, to distinguish them by the definitions, and an accurate knowledge of their nature.

In the following passage, all the parts of speech are exemplified:

1 2 7 2 5 1 2 3 7 2 8
 The power of speech is a faculty peculiar to man, and
 5 5 7 4 7 4 3 2 7 1
 was bestowed on him by his beneficent Creator, for the
 3 8 6 3 2 8 9 6 6 5 4
 greatest and most excellent uses; but alas! how often do we
 5 4 7 1 3 7 2
 pervert it to the worst of purposes!

In the foregoing sentence, the words *the, a,* are articles; *power, speech, faculty, man, Creator, uses, purposes,* are substantives; *peculiar, beneficent, greatest, excellent, worst,* are adjectives; *him, his, we, it,* are pronouns; *is, was, bestowed, do, pervert,* are verbs; *most, how, often,* are adverbs; *of, to, on, by, for,* are prepositions; *and, but,* are conjunctions; and *alas* is an interjection.

The number of the different sorts of words, or of the parts of speech, has been variously reckoned by different grammarians. Some have enumerated ten, making the participle a distinct part: some eight, excluding the participle, and ranking the adjective under the noun; some four, and others only two, (the noun and the verb,) supposing the rest to be contained in the parts of their division. We have followed those authors, who appear to have given them the most natural and intelligible distribution. Some remarks on the division made by the learned Horne Tooke, are contained in the first section of the eleventh chapter of etymology.

The interjection, indeed, seems scarcely worthy of being considered as a part of artificial language or speech, being rather a branch of that natural language, which we possess in common with the brute creation, and by which we express the sudden emotions and passions that actuate our frame. But, as it is used in written as well as oral language, it may, in some measure, be deemed a part of speech. It is with us, a virtual sentence, in which the noun and verb are concealed under an imperfect or indigested word.—See this Chapter, in the OCTAVO Grammar.

CHAPTER II.

Of the Articles.

AN Article is a word prefixed to substantives, to point them out, and to show how far their signification extends; as, *a* garden, *an* eagle, *the* woman.

In English, there are but two articles, *a*, and *the*: *a* becomes *an* before a vowel,* and before a silent *h*; as, *an* acorn, *an* hour. But if the *h* be sounded, the *a* only is to be used; as, a hand, a heart, a highway.

The inattention of writers and printers to this necessary distinction, has occasioned the frequent use of *an* before *h* when it is to be pronounced; and this circumstance, more than any other, has probably contributed to that indistinct utterance, or total omission, of the sound signified by this letter, which very often occurs amongst readers and speakers. *An* horse, *an* husband, *an* herald, *an* heathen, and many similar associations, are frequently to be found in works of taste and merit. To remedy this evil, readers should be taught to omit, in all similar cases, the sound of the *n*, and to give the *h* its full pronunciation.

A or *an* is styled the indefinite article: it is used in a vague sense, to point out one single thing of the kind, in other respects indeterminate: as, "Give me *a* book;" "Bring me *an* apple."

The is called the definite article; because it ascertains what particular thing or things are meant: as, "Give me *the* book;" "Bring me *the* apples;" meaning some book, or apples, referred to.

A substantive without any article to limit it, is generally taken in its widest sense: as, "A candid temper is proper for man;" that is, for all mankind.

The peculiar use and importance of the articles will be seen in the following examples; "The son of a king—the son of the king—a son of the king." Each of these three phrases has an entirely different meaning, through the different application of the articles *a* and *the*.

"Thou art *a* man," is a very general and harmless position; but, "Thou art *the* man," (as Nathan said to David,) is an assertion capable of striking terror and remorse into the heart.

The article is omitted before nouns that imply the differ-

* *A* instead of *an* is now used before words beginning with *u* long. See page 19, letter *U*; It is also used before *one*; as many a one.

ent virtues, vices, passions, qualities, sciences, arts, metals, herbs, &c ; as, "prudence is commendable; falsehood is odious; anger ought to be avoided;" &c. It is not prefixed to a proper name; as, "Alexander," (because that of itself denotes a determinate individual or particular thing,) except for the sake of distinguishing a particular family: as, "He is *a* Howard, or of the family of the Howards;" or by way of eminence: as, "Every man is not *a* Newton;" "He has the courage of *an* Achilles:" or when some noun is understood; "He sailed down *the* (river) Thames, in *the* (ship) Britannia."

When an adjective is used with the noun to which the article relates, it is placed between the article and the noun; as, "a *good* man," "an *agreeable* woman," "the *best* friend." On some occasions, however, the adjective precedes *a* or *an*; as, "*such* a shame," "as *great* a man as Alexander," "too *careless* an author."

The indefinite article can be joined to substantives in the singular number only; the definite article may be joined also to plurals.

But there appears to be a remarkable exception to this rule, in the use of the adjectives *few* and *many* (the latter chiefly with the word *great* before it,) which, though joined with plural substantives, yet admit of the singular article *a*: as, *a few* men; *a great many* men.

The reason of it is manifest, from the effect which the article has in these phrases; it means a small or great number collectively taken, and therefore gives the idea of a whole; that is, of unity. Thus likewise, a dozen, a score, a hundred, or a thousand, is one whole number, an aggregate of many collectively taken; and therefore still retains the article *a*, though joined as an adjective to a plural substantive; as, *a* hundred years, &c.

The indefinite article is sometimes placed between the adjective *many*, and, singular noun: as,

"Full *many, a gem* of purest ray serene,
 "The dark unfathom'd caves of ocean bear:
 "Full *many a flow'r* is born to blush unseen,
 "And waste its sweetness on the desert air."

In these lines, the phrases, *many a gem* and *many a flower* refer to *many gems* and *many flowers*, separately, not collectively considered.

The definite article *the* is frequently applied to adverbs in the comparative and superlative degree; and its effect is, to mark the degree the more strongly, and to define it the more precisely: as, "*The* more I examine it *the* better I like it.



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*Fair usage policy applies

as, when we say of the sun, *he* is setting; and of a ship, *she* sails well.

Figuratively, in the English tongue, we commonly give the masculine gender to nouns which are conspicuous for the attributes of imparting or communicating, and which are by nature strong and efficacious. Those, again, are made feminine, which are conspicuous for the attributes of containing or bringing forth, or which are peculiarly beautiful or amiable. Upon these principles, the sun is said to be masculine, and the moon, being the receptacle of the sun's light, to be feminine. The earth is generally feminine. A ship, a country, a city, &c. are likewise made feminine, being receivers or containers. Time is always masculine, on account of its mighty efficacy. Virtue is feminine from its beauty, and its being the object of love. Fortune and the church are generally put in the feminine gender.) --

The English language has three methods of distinguishing the sex, viz.

1. By different words: as,

Male.	Female.	Male	Female.
Bachelor.	Maid.	Husband.	Wife.
Boar.	Sow.	King.	Queen.
Boy.	Girl.	Lad.	Lass.
Brother.	Sister.	Lord.	Lady.
Buck.	Doe.	Man.	Woman.
Bull.	Cow.	Master.	Mistress.
Bullock <i>or</i>	} Heifer.	Milster.	Spawner.
Steer.		Nephew.	Niece.
Cock.	Hen.	Ram.	Ewe.
Dog.	Bitch.	} Singer.	} Songstress <i>or</i>
Drake.	Duck.		
Earl.	Countess.	Sloven.	Daughter.
Father.	Mother.	Son.	Hind.
Friar.	Nun.	Stag.	Aunt.
Gander.	Goose.	Uncle.	Witch.
Hart.	Roe.	Wizard.	
Horse.	Mare.		

2. By a difference of termination: as,

Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
Abbot.	Abbess.	Landgrave.	Landgravine.
Actor.	Actress.	Lion.	Lioness.
Administrator.	Administratrix	Marqui.	Marchioness.
Adulterer.	Adultress.	Master.	Mistress.
Ambassador.	Ambadressess.	Mayor.	Mayoress..
Arbiter.	Arbitress.	Patron	Patroness.
Baron.	Baroness.	Peer.	Peeress.
Bridegroom.	Bride.	Poet.	Poetess.
Benefactor	Benefactress.	Priest.	Priestess.

Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
Caterer.	Cateress.	Prince.	Princess.
Chanter.	Chantress.	Prior.	Prioress.
Conductor.	Conductress.	Prophet.	Prophetess.
Count.	Countess.	Protector.	Protectress.
Deacon.	Deaconess.	Shepherd.	Shepherdess.
Duke.	Duchess.	Songster.	Songstress.
Elector.	Electress.	Sorcerer.	Sorceress.
Emperor.	Empress.	- Sultan.	} Sultanness.
Enchanter.	Enchantress.		} Sultana.
Executor.	Executrix.	Tiger.	Tigress.
Governor.	Governess.	Traitor.	Traitress.
Heir.	Heiress.	Tutor.	Tutoress.
Hero.	Heroine.	Viscount.	Viscountess.
Hunter.	Huntress.	Votary.	Votress.
Host.	Hostess.	Widower.	Widow.
Jew.	Jewess.		

3. By a noun, pronoun, or adjective, being *prefixed* to the substantive : as

A Cock-sparrow.

A man-servant.

A he-goat.

A he-bear.

A male child.

Male descendants.

A hen-sparrow.

A maid-servant

A she-goat.

A she-bear.

A female child.

Female descendants.

It sometimes happens, that the same noun is either, masculine or feminine. The words *parent*, *child*, *cousin*, *friend*, *neighbour*, *servant*, and several others, are used indifferently for males or females.

Nouns with variable terminations contribute to conciseness and perspicuity of expression. We have only a sufficient number of them to make us feel our want; for when we say of a woman; she is a philosopher, an astronomer, a builder, a weaver, we perceive an impropriety in the termination, which we cannot avoid; but we can say, that she is a botanist, a student, a witness, a scholar, an orphan, a companion, because these terminations have not annexed to them the notion of sex.

7

SECTION 3. *Of Number.*

NUMBER is the consideration of an object, as one or more.

Substantives are of two numbers, the singular and the plural.

The singular number expresses but one object; as, a chair, a table.

The plural number signifies more objects than one; as, chairs, tables.

Some nouns, from the nature of the things which they express, are used only in the singular form; as, wheat, pitch,

gold, sloth, pride, &c. ; others, only in the plural form ; as, bellows, scissors, lungs, riches, &c.

Some words are the same in both numbers ; as, deer, sheep, swine, &c.

The plural number of nouns is generally formed by adding *s* to the singular : as, dove, doves ; face, faces ; thought, thoughts. But when the substantive singular ends in *x*, *ch* soft, *sh*, *ss*, or *s*, we add *es* in the plural : as, box, boxes ; church, churches ; lash, lashes ; kiss, kisses ; rebus, rebusses. If the singular ends in *ch* hard, the plural is formed by adding *s* ; as, monarch, monarchs ; distich, distichs.

Nouns which end in *o*, have sometimes *es*, added to the plural ; as, cargo, echo, hero, negro, manifesto, potato, volcano, wo : and sometimes only *s* ; as, folio, nuncio, punctilio, seraglio.

Nouns ending in *f*, or *fe*, are rendered plural by the change of those terminations into *ves* : as, loaf, loaves ; half, halves ; wife, wives : except grief, relief, reproof, and several others, which form the plural by the addition of *s*. Those which end in *ff*, have the regular plural : as, ruff, ruffs ; except, staff, staves.

Nouns which have *y* in the singular, with no other vowel in the same syllable, change it into *ies* in the plural : as, beauty, beauties ; fly, flies. But the *y* is not changed, when there is another vowel in the syllable : as, key, keys ; delay, delays ; attorney, attorneys.

Some nouns become plural by changing the *a* of the singular into *e* : as, man, men ; woman, women ; alderman, aldermen. The words, ox and child, form oxen and children ; brother, makes either brothers, or brethren. Sometimes the diphthong *oo* is changed into *ee* in the plural : as, foot, feet ; goose, geese ; tooth, teeth. Louse and mouse make lice and mice. Penny makes pence, or pennies, when the coin is meant : die, dice (for play ;) die, dies (for coining.)

It is agreeable to analogy, and the practice of the generality of correct writers, to construe the following words as plural nouns ; *pains*, *riches*, *alms* : and also, *mathematics*, *metaphysics*, *politics*, *ethics*, *optics*, *pneumatics*, with other similar names of sciences.

Dr. Johnson says that the adjective *much* is sometimes a term of number, as well as of quantity. This may account for the instances we meet with of its associating with *pains* as a plural noun : as, “much pains.” The connexion, however, is not to be recommended.

The word *news* is now almost universally considered as belonging to the singular number.

The noun *means* is used both in the singular and the plural number.

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

Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
Cherub.	Cherubim.	Datum.	Data.
Seraph.	Seraphim.	Effluvium.	Effluvia.
Antithesis.	Antitheses	Encomium.	{ Encomia or
Automaton.	Automata.		{ Encomiums
Basis.	Bases.	Erratum.	Errata.
Crisis.	Crises.	Genius.	Genii.*
Criterion.	Criteria.	Genus.	Genera.
Diæresis.	Diæreses.	Index.	{ Indices or
Ellipsis.	Ellipses.		{ Indexes †
Emphasis.	Emphases.	Lamina.	Laminæ.
Hypothesis.	Hypotheses.	Medium.	Media.
Metamor-	{ Metamor-	Magus.	Magi.
phosis.	{ phoses.	Memoran-	{ Memoranda or
Phænomenon.	Phænomena.	dum.	{ Memorandums.
Appendix.	{ Appendices or	Radius.	Radii.
	{ Appendixes.	Stamen.	Stamina.
Arcanum.	Arcana.	Stratum.	Strata.
Axis.	Axes.	Vortex.	Vortices
Calx.	Calces.		

Some words, derived from the learned languages, are confined to the plural number ; as, antipodes, credenda, literati, minutia.

The following nouns being, in Latin, both singular and plural, are used in the same manner when adopted into our tongue : hiatus, apparatus, series, species.

SECTION 4. *Of Case.*

In English, substantives have three cases, the nominative, the possessive, and the objective. §

The nominative case simply expresses the name of a thing, or the subject of the verb : as, “ The boy plays ; ” “ The girls learn.”

The possessive case expresses the relation of property or possession ; and has an apostrophe with the letter *s* coming after it : as, “ The scholar’s duty ; ” “ My father’s house.”

When the plural ends in *s*, the other *s* is omitted, but the

* *Genii*, when denoting aerial spirits : *Gentuses*, when signifying persons or genius.

† *Indexes*, when it signifies pointers, or Tables of contents : *Indices*, when referring to Algebraic quantities.

§ The possessive is sometimes called the genitive case ; and the objective, the accusative.

apostrophe is retained: as, "On eagles' wings;" "The drapers' company."

Sometimes, also, when the singular terminates in *ss*, the apostrophic *s* is not added: as, "For goodness' sake;" "For righteousness' sake."

The objective case expresses the object of an action, or of a relation; and generally follows a verb active, or a preposition: as, "John assists Charles;" "They live in London."

English substantives are declined in the following manner:

	Singular.	Plural.
<i>Nominative Case.</i>	A mother.	Mothers.
<i>Possessive Case.</i>	A mother's	Mothers'
<i>Objective Case.</i>	A mother.	Mothers.
<i>Nominative Case.</i>	The man.	The men.
<i>Possessive Case.</i>	The man's.	The men's.
<i>Objective Case.</i>	The man.	The men.

The English language, to express different connexions and relations of one thing to another, uses, for the most part, prepositions. The Greek and Latin among the ancient, and some too among the modern languages, as the German, vary the termination or ending of the substantive, to answer the same purpose; an example of which, in the Latin, is inserted, as explanatory of the nature and use of cases, viz.

	Singular.	
<i>Nominative.</i>	DOMINUS,	A Lord.
<i>Genitive.</i>	DOMINI,	Lord's, of a Lord.
<i>Dative.</i>	DOMINO,	To a Lord.
<i>Accusative.</i>	DOMINUM,	A Lord.
<i>Vocative.</i>	DOMINE,	O Lord.
<i>Ablative.</i>	DOMINO,	By a Lord.
	Plural.	
<i>Nominative.</i>	DOMINI,	Lords.
<i>Genitive.</i>	DOMINORUM.	Lords', of Lords.
<i>Dative.</i>	DOMINIS,	To Lords.
<i>Accusative.</i>	DOMINOS,	Lords.
<i>Vocative.</i>	DOMINI,	O Lords.
<i>Ablative.</i>	DOMINIS,	By Lords.

Some writers think, that the relations signified by the addition of articles and prepositions to the noun, may properly be denominated cases, in English; and that, on this principle, there are, in our language, as many cases as in the Latin tongue. But to this mode of forming cases for our substantives, there are strong objections. It would, indeed, be a formal and useless arrangement of nouns, articles, and pre

positions. If an arrangement of this nature were to be considered as constituting cases, the English language would have a much greater number of them than the Greek and Latin tongues: for, as every preposition has its distinct meaning and effect, every combination of a preposition and article with the noun, would form a different relation, and would constitute a distinct case.—This would encumber our language with many new terms, and a heavy and useless load of distinctions.*

On the principle of imitating other languages in names and forms, without a correspondence in nature and idiom, we might adopt a number of declensions, as well as a variety of cases, for English substantives. Thus, five or six declensions, distinguished according to the various modes of forming the plural of substantives, with at least half a dozen cases to each declension, would furnish a complete arrangement of English nouns, in all their trappings. See on this subject, *the fifth and ninth sections of the sixth chapter of etymology.*

But though this variety of cases does not at all correspond with the idiom of our language, there seems to be great propriety in admitting a case in English substantives, which shall serve to denote the *objects* of active verbs and of prepositions; and which is, therefore, properly termed the *objective case*. The general idea of case doubtless has a reference to the termination of the noun: but there are many instances, both in Greek and Latin, in which the nominative and accusative cases have precisely the same form, and are distinguished only by the relation they bear to other words in the sentence. We are therefore warranted, by analogy, in applying this principle to our own language, as far as utility, and the idiom of it, will admit. Now it is obvious, that in English, a noun governed by an active verb, or a preposition, is very differently circumstanced, from a noun in the nominative, or in the possessive case; and that a comprehensive case, correspondent to that difference, must be useful and proper. The business of parsing, and of showing the connexion and dependence of words, will be most conveniently accomplished, by the adoption of such a case; and the irregularity of having our nouns sometimes placed in a situation, in which they cannot be said to be in any case at all, will be avoided.

* If cases are to be distinguished by the different significations of the noun, or by the different relations it may bear to the governing word, then we have in our language as many cases almost, as there are prepositions: and above a man, beneath a man, beyond a man, round about a man, within a man, without a man, &c. shall be cases, as well as, of a man, to a man, and with a man."

Dr. Beattie.

The author of this work long doubted the propriety of assigning to English substantives an objective case: but a renewed, critical examination of the subject; an examination to which he was prompted by the extensive and increasing demand for the grammar, has produced in his mind a full persuasion, that the nouns of our language are entitled to this comprehensive objective case.

When the thing to which another is said to belong, is expressed by a circumlocution, or by many terms, the sign of the possessive case is commonly added to the last term: as, "The king of Great Britain's dominions."

Sometimes, though rarely, two nouns in the possessive case immediately succeed each other, in the following form: "My friend's wife's sister;" a sense which would be better expressed by saying, "the sister of my friend's wife;" or, "my friend's sister-in-law." Some grammarians say, that in each of the following phrases, viz. "A book of my brother's," "A servant of the queen's;" "A soldier of the king's," there are two genitive cases; the first phrase implying, "one of the books of my brother," the next, "one of the servants of the queen;" and the last, "one of the soldiers of the king." But as the preposition governs the objective case; and as there are not, in each of these sentences, two apostrophes with the letter *s* coming after them, we cannot with propriety say, that there are two genitive cases.

CHAPTER IV.

Of Adjectives.

SECTION 1. *Of the nature of Adjectives, and the degrees of comparison.*

AN Adjective is a word added to a substantive, to express its quality; as, "An *industrious* man;" "A *virtuous* woman;" "A *benevolent* mind."

In English, the adjective is not varied on account of gender, number, or case. Thus we say, "A careless boy; careless girls."

The only variation which it admits, is that of the degrees of comparison.

There are commonly reckoned three degrees of comparison; the POSITIVE, the COMPARATIVE, and the SUPERLATIVE.

Grammarians have generally enumerated these three degrees of comparison; but the first of them has been thought



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late, later, latest or last ; old, older or elder, oldest or eldest ; and a few others.

An adjective put without a substantive, with the definite article before it, becomes a substantive in sense and meaning, and is written as a substantive ; as, " Providence rewards *the good*, and punishes *the bad*."

Various nouns placed before other nouns assume the nature of adjectives ; as, sea fish, wine vessel, corn field, meadow, ground, &c.

Numeral adjectives are either cardinal, or ordinal : cardinal, as, one, two, three, &c. ; ordinal, as, first, second, third, &c.

SECTION 2. *Remarks on the subject of Comparison.*

IF we consider the subject of comparison attentively, we shall perceive that the degrees of it are infinite in number, or at least indefinite.—A mountain is larger than a mite ;—by how many degrees ? How much bigger is the earth than a grain of sand ? By how many degrees was Socrates wiser than Alcibiades ? or by how many is snow whiter than this paper ? It is plain, that to these and the like questions, no *definite* answers can be returned.

In quantities, however, that may be *exactly* measured, the degrees of excess may be exactly ascertained. A foot is just twelve times as long as an inch ; and an hour is sixty times the length of a minute. But, in regard to *qualities*, and to those quantities which cannot be measured exactly, it is impossible to say how many degrees may be comprehended in the comparative excess.

But though these degrees are infinite or indefinite in fact, they cannot be so in language ; nor would it be convenient, if language were to express many of them. In regard to unmeasured quantities and qualities, the degrees of more and less, (besides those marked above,) may be expressed intelligibly, at least, if not accurately, by certain adverbs, or words of like import : as, " Socrates was *much* wiser than Alcibiades ;" " Snow is *a great deal* whiter than this paper ;" " Epaminondas was *by far* the most accomplished of the Thebans ;" " The evening star is a *very* splendid object, but the sun is *incomparably* more splendid ;" " The Deity is *infinitely* greater than the greatest of his creatures." The inaccuracy of these, and the like expressions, is not a material inconvenience ; and, if it were, it is unavoidable : for human speech can only express human thought ; and where thought is necessarily inaccurate, language must be so too.

When the word *very*, *exceedingly*, or any other of similar import, is put before the positive, it is called by some writers

the superlative of eminence, to distinguish it from the other superlative, which has been already mentioned, and is called the superlative of comparison. Thus, *very eloquent*, is termed the superlative of eminence ; *most eloquent*, the superlative of comparison. In the superlative of eminence, something of comparison is, however, remotely or indirectly intimated ; for we cannot reasonably call a man very eloquent, without comparing his eloquence with the eloquence of other men.

The comparative may be so employed, as to express the same pre-eminence or inferiority as the superlative. Thus, the sentence, “ Of all acquirements, virtue is the *most valuable*,” conveys the same sentiment as the following ; “ Virtue is *more valuable* than every other acquirement.”

CHAPTER V.

Of Pronouns.

A PRONOUN is a word used instead of a noun, to avoid the too frequent repetition of the same word : as, “ The man is happy ; *he* is benevolent ; *he* is useful.” There are three kinds of pronouns, viz. the PERSONAL, the RELATIVE, and the ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

SECTION 1. *Of the Personal Pronouns.*

There are five Personal Pronouns, viz. *I, thou, he, she, it* ; with their plurals, *we, ye, or you, they*.

Personal pronouns admit of person, number, gender, and case.

The persons of pronouns are three in each number, viz.

<i>I</i> , is the first person	} Singular.
<i>Thou</i> , is the second person	
<i>He, she, or it</i> , is the third person	

<i>We</i> , is the first person	} Plural.
<i>Ye or you</i> , is the second person	
<i>They</i> , is the third person	

This account of persons will be very intelligible, when we reflect, that there are three persons who may be the subject of any discourse :- first, the person who speaks, may speak of himself ; secondly, he may speak of the person to whom he addresses himself ; thirdly, he may speak of some other person : and as the speakers, the persons spoken to, and the other persons spoken of, may be many, so each of these persons must have the plural number.

The numbers of pronouns, like those of substantives, are two, the singular and the plural : as, *I, thou, he, we, ye or you, they*.

Gender has respect only to the third person singular of the

pronouns, *he, she, it*. *He* is masculine; *she* is feminine; *it* is neuter.

The persons speaking and spoken to, being at the same time the subjects of the discourse, are supposed to be present; from which, and other circumstances, their sex is commonly known, and needs not to be marked by a distinction of gender in the pronouns: but the third person or thing spoken of, being absent, and in many respects unknown, it is necessary that it should be marked by a distinction of gender; at least when some particular person or thing is spoken of; that ought to be more distinctly marked: accordingly the pronoun singular of the third person has the three genders, *he, she, it*.

Pronouns have three cases; the nominative, the possessive, and the objective.

The objective case of a pronoun has, in general, a form different from that of the nominative, or the possessive case.

The personal pronouns are thus declined:

Person.	Case.	Singular.	Plural.
<i>First.</i>	<i>Nom.</i>	I.	We.
	<i>Poss.</i>	Mine.	Ours.
	<i>Obj.</i>	Me.	Us.
<i>Second.</i>	<i>Nom.</i>	Thou.	Ye or you.
	<i>Poss.</i>	Thine.	Yours.
	<i>Obj.</i>	Thee.	You.
<i>Third. Mas.</i>	<i>Nom.</i>	He.	They.
	<i>Poss.</i>	His.	Theirs.
	<i>Obj.</i>	Him.	Them.
<i>Third. Fem.</i>	<i>Nom.</i>	She.	They.
	<i>Poss.</i>	Hers.	Theirs.
	<i>Obj.</i>	Her.	Them.
<i>Third. Neuter.</i>	<i>Nom.</i>	It.	They.
	<i>Poss.</i>	Its.	Theirs.
	<i>Obj.</i>	It.	Them.

SECTION 2. *Of the Relative Pronouns.*

RELATIVE Pronouns are such as relate, in general, to some word or phrase going before, which is thence called the antecedent; they are, *who, which, and that*: as, "The man is happy *who* lives virtuously†."

What is a kind of compound relative, including both the antecedent and the relative, and is mostly equivalent to *that which*: as, "This is *what* I wanted;" that is to say, "*the thing which* I wanted."

† The relative pronoun, when used interrogatively, relates to a word or phrase which is not *antecedent*, but *subsequent*, to the relative. See note under the VI. Rule of Syntax.

Who is applied to persons, *which* to animals and inanimate things : as, “ He is a *friend, who* is faithful in adversity ;” “ The *bird, which* sung so sweetly, is flown ;” “ This is the *tree, which* produces no fruit.”

That, as a relative, is often used to prevent the too frequent repetition of *who* and *which*. It is applied to both persons and things : as, “ *He that* acts wisely deserves praise ;” “ Modesty is a *quality that* highly adorns a woman.”

Who is of both numbers, and is thus declined :

Singular and Plural.

<i>Nominative.</i>	Who.
<i>Possessive.</i>	Whose.
<i>Objective.</i>	Whom.

Which, *that*, and *what*, are likewise of both numbers, but they do not vary their termination ; except that *whose* is sometimes used as the possessive case of *which* : as, “ Is there any other doctrine *whose* followers are punished ?”

————— “ And the fruit

Of that forbidden *tree whose* mortal taste
Brought death”

MILTON.

————— “ Pure the joy without allay,
Whose very rapture is tranquillity ”

YOUNG.

“ The lights and shades, *whose* well accorded strife
Gives all the strength and colour of our life.”

POPE.

“ This is one of the clearest characteristics of its being a religion *whose* origin is divine.”

BLAIR.

By the use of this license, one word is substituted for three : as, “ Philosophy, *whose* end is to instruct us in the knowledge of nature,” for, “ Philosophy, *the end of which* is to instruct us,” &c.

Who, *which*, and *what*, have sometimes the words *soever* and *ever* annexed to them ; as, “ *whosoever* or *whoever*, *whichever* or *whichever*, *whatsoever* or *whatever* :” but they are seldom used in modern style.

The word *that* is sometimes a relative, sometimes a demonstrative pronoun, and sometimes a conjunction. It is a relative, when it may be turned into *who* or *which* without destroying the sense : as, “ *They that* (who) reprove us, may be our best friends ;” “ From every thing *that* (which) you see, derive instruction.” It is a demonstrative pronoun when it is followed immediately by a substantive, to which it is either joined, or refers, and which it limits or qualifies : as, “ *That*

boy is industrious ;” “ *That* belongs to me ;” meaning, that book, that desk, &c. It is a conjunction, when it joins sentences together, and cannot be turned into *who* or *which*, without destroying the sense : as, “ Take care *that* every day be well employed.” “ I hope he will believe *that* I have not acted improperly.”

Who, *which*, and *what*, are called *Interrogatives*, when they are used in asking questions ; as, “ *Who* is he ?” “ *Which* is the book ?” “ *What* art thou doing ?”

Whether was formerly made use of to signify interrogation : as, “ *Whether* of these shall I choose ?” but it is now seldom used, the interrogative *which* being substituted for it. Some Graminarians think that the use of it should be revived, as, like *either* and *neither*, it points to the dual number ; and would contribute to render our expressions concise and definite.

Some writers have classed the interrogatives as a separate kind of pronouns ; but they are too nearly related to the relative pronouns, both in nature and form, to render such a division proper. They do not, in fact, lose the character of relatives, when they become interrogatives. The only difference is, that *without* interrogation, the relatives have reference to a subject which is antecedent, definite, and known ; *with* an interrogation, to a subject which is subsequent, indefinite, and unknown, and which it is expected that the *answer* should express and ascertain.

SECTION 3. *Of the Adjective Pronouns.*

Adjective Pronouns are of a mixed nature, participating the properties both of pronouns and adjectives.

The adjective pronouns may be subdivided into four sorts, namely, the *possessive*, the *distributive*, the *demonstrative*, and the *indefinite*.

1. The *possessive* are those which relate to possession or property. There are seven of them ; viz. *my*, *thy*, *his*, *her*, *our*, *your*, *their*.

Mine and *thine*, instead of *my* and *thy*, were formerly used before a substantive, or adjective, beginning with a vowel, or a silent *h* : as, “ Blot out all *mine* iniquities.”

The pronouns, *his*, *mine*, *thine*, have the same form, whether they are possessive pronouns, or the possessive cases of their respective personal pronouns. See note to Rule 10.

A few examples will probably assist the learner, to distinguish the possessive pronouns from the genitive cases of their correspondent personal pronouns.

The following sentences exemplify the possessive pro-

nouns.—“*My* lesson is finished ; *Thy* books are defaced ; He loves *his* studies ; She performs *her* duty ; We own *our* faults ; *Your* situation is distressing ; I admire *their* virtues.”

The following are examples of the possessive cases of the personal pronouns.—“This desk is *mine* ; the other is *thine* ; These trinkets are *his* ; those are *hers* ; This house is *ours*, and that is *yours* ; *Theirs* is very commodious.”

Some grammarians consider *its* as a possessive pronoun. The two words *own* and *self*, are used in conjunction with pronouns. *Own* is added to possessives, both singular and plural : as, “*My own* hand, *our own* house.” It is emphatical, and implies a silent contrariety or opposition : as, “I live in *my own* house,” that is, “not in a hired house.” *Self* is added to possessives : as, *myself*, *yourselves* ; and sometimes to personal pronouns ; as, *himself*, *itself*, *themselves*. It then, like *own*, expresses emphasis and opposition : as, “I did this *myself*,” that is, “not another ;” or it forms a reciprocal pronoun : as, “We hurt *ourselves* by vain rage.”

Himself, *themselves*, are now used in the nominative case, instead of *hissself*, *theirselves* ; as, “He came *himself* ;” “He *himself* shall do this ;” “They performed it *themselves*.”

2. The *distributive* are those which denote the persons or things that make up a number, as taken separately and singly. They are *each*, *every*, *either* : as, “*Each* of his brothers is in a favourable situation ;” “*Every* man must account for himself ;” “I have not seen *either* of them.”

Each relates to two or more persons or things, and signifies either of the two, or every one of any number taken separately.

Every relates to several persons or things, and signifies each one of them all taken separately. This pronoun was formerly used apart from its noun, but it is now constantly annexed to it, except in legal proceedings : as in the phrase, “all and *every* of them.”

Either relates to two persons or things taken separately, and signifies the one or the other. To say, “either of the three,” is therefore improper.

Neither imports “*not either* ;” that is, not one nor the other : as, “Neither of my friends was there.”

3. The *demonstrative* are those which precisely point out the subjects to which they relate : *this* and *that*, *these* and *those*, are of this class : as, “*This* is true charity ; *that* is only its image.”

This refers to the nearest person or thing, and *that* to

the most distant : as, “ *This* man is more intelligent than *that*.” *This* indicates the latter or last mentioned ; *that*, the former or first mentioned : as, “ Both wealth and poverty are temptations ; *that*, tends to excite pride, *this*, discontent.”

Perhaps the words *former* and *latter* may be properly ranked amongst the demonstrative pronouns, especially in many of their applications. The following sentence may serve as an example : “ It was happy for the state, that Fabius continued in the command with Minucius : the *former's* phlegm was a check upon the *latter's* vivacity.”

4. The *indefinite* are those which express their subjects in an indefinite or general manner. The following are of this kind : *some, other, any, one, all, such, &c.*

Of these pronouns, only the words *one* and *other* are varied. *One* has a possessive case, which it forms in the same manner as substantives : as, *one, one's*. This word has a general signification, meaning people at large ; and sometimes also a peculiar reference to the person who is speaking : as, “ *One* ought to pity the distresses of mankind.” “ *One* is apt to love *one's* self.” This word is often used, by good writers, in the plural number : as, “ The great *ones* of the world ;” “ The boy wounded the old bird, and stole the young *ones* ;” “ My wife and the little *ones* are in good health.”

Other is declined in the following manner :

	Singular.	Plural.
Nom.	<i>Other</i>	<i>Others</i>
Poss.	<i>Other's</i>	<i>Others.</i>
Obj.	<i>Other</i>	<i>Others.</i>

The plural *others* is only used when apart from the noun to which it refers, whether expressed or understood : as, “ When you have perused these papers, I will send you the *others*.” “ He pleases some, but he disgusts *others*.” When this pronoun is joined to nouns, either singular or plural, it has no variation : as, “ the other man,” “ the other men.”

The following phrases may serve to exemplify the indefinite pronouns. “ *Some* of you are wise and good ;” “ A few of them were idle, the *others* industrious ;” “ Neither is there *any* that is unexceptionable ;” “ *One* ought to know *one's* own mind ;” “ They were *all* present ;” “ *Such* is the state of man, that he is never at rest ;” “ *Some* are happy, while *others* are miserable.”

The word *another* is composed of the indefinite article prefixed to the word *other*.

None is used in both numbers : as. “ *None* is so deaf as he



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former, they include the personal and the relative ; under the latter, all the others. But this division, though a neat one, does not appear to be accurate. All the relative pronouns will not range under the substantive head.—We have distributed these parts of grammar, in the mode which we think most correct and intelligible : but, for the information of students, and to direct their inquiries on the subject, we state the different opinions of several judicious grammarians. See the Octavo Grammar on these points.

CHAPTER VI.

*Of Verbs.*SECTION 1. *Of the nature of Verbs in general.*

A VERB is a word which signifies to BE, to DO, or to SUFFER ; as, “ I am, I rule, I am ruled.”

Verbs are of three kinds ; ACTIVE, PASSIVE, and NEUTER. They are also divided into REGULAR, IRREGULAR, and DEFECTIVE.

A Verb Active expresses an action, and necessarily implies an agent, and an object acted upon : as, to love ; “ I love Penelope.”

A Verb Passive expresses a passion or a suffering, or the receiving of an action ; and necessarily implies an object acted upon, and an agent by which it is acted upon : as, to be loved ; “ Penelope is loved by me.”

A Verb Neuter expresses neither action nor passion, but being, or a state of being : as, “ I am, I sleep, I sit.”*

The verb active is also called *transitive*, because the action passes over to the object, or has an effect upon some other thing : as, “ The tutor instructs his pupils ; ” “ I esteem the man.”

Verbs neuter may properly be denominated *intransitives*, because the effect is confined within the subject, and does

*Verbs have been distinguished by some writers, into the following kinds.

1st. *Active-transitive*, or those which denote an action that passed from the agent to some object : as, Cesar conquered Pompey.

2d. *Active-intransitive*, or those which express that kind of action, which has no effect upon any thing beyond the agent himself : as, Cesar walked.

3d. *Passive*, or those which express, not action, but passion, whether pleasing or painful : as, Portia was loved ; Pompey was conquered.

4th. *Neuter*, or those which express an attribute that consists neither in action nor passion : as, Cesar stood.

This appears to be an orderly arrangement. But if the class of *active-intransitive* Verbs were admitted, it would rather perplex than assist the learner : for the difference between Verbs active and neuter, as transitive and intransitive, is easy and obvious ; but the difference between Verbs absolutely neuter and intransitively active, is not always clear. It is, indeed, often very difficult to be ascertained.

not pass over to any object : as, "I sit, he lives, they sleep."

Some of the verbs that are usually ranked among neuters, make a near approach to the nature of a verb active ; but they may be distinguished from it by their being intransitive : as, to run, to walk, to fly, &c. The rest are more obviously neuter, and more clearly expressive of a middle state between action and passion : as, to stand, to lie, to sleep, &c.

In English, many verbs are used both in an active and a neuter signification, the construction only determining of which kind they are : as, to flatten, signifying to make even or level, is a verb active ; but when it signifies to grow dull or insipid, it is a verb neuter.

A neuter verb, by the addition of a preposition, may become a compound active verb. *To smile* is a neuter verb ; it cannot, therefore, be followed by an objective case, nor be construed as a passive verb. We cannot say, *she smiled him*, or, *he was smiled*. But *to smile on* being a compound active verb, we properly say, *she smiled on him* ; *he was smiled on* by fortune in every undertaking.

Auxiliary or helping Verbs, are those by the help of which the English verbs are principally conjugated. They are, *do, be, have, shall, will, may, can*, with their variations ; and *let* and *must*, which have no variation.*

In our definition of the verb, as a part of speech which signifies *to be, to do, or to suffer, &c.* we have included every thing, either expressly or by necessary consequence, that is essential to its nature, and nothing that is not essential to it. This definition is warranted by the authority of Dr. Lowth, and of many other respectable writers on grammar. There are, however, some grammarians, who consider *assertion* as the essence of the verb. But, as the participle and the infinitive, if included in it, would prove insuperable objections to their scheme, they have, without hesitation, denied the former a place in the verb, and declared the latter to be merely an abstract noun. This appears to be going rather too far in support of an hypothesis. It seems to be incumbent on these grammarians, to reject also the imperative mood. What part of speech would they make the verbs in the following sentence ? "Depart instantly : improve your time : forgive us our sins." Will it be said, that the verbs in these phrases are assertions ?

In reply to these questions, it has been said, that "Depart instantly," is an expression equivalent to, "I desire you to

* *Let*, as a principal Verb, has *lettest* and *letteth* ; but as a helping Verb, it admits of no variation.

depart instantly ;” and that as the latter phrase implies affirmation or assertion, so does the former. But, supposing the phrases to be exactly alike in sense, the reasoning is not conclusive. 1st. In the latter phrase, the only part implying affirmation, is, “I desire.” The words “to depart,” are in the infinitive mood, and contain no assertion: they affirm nothing. 2d. The position is not tenable, that “Equivalence in sense implies similarity in grammatical nature.” It proves too much, and therefore nothing. This mode of reasoning would confound the acknowledged grammatical distinction of words. A pronoun, on this principle, may be proved to be a noun; a noun, a verb; an adverb, a noun and preposition; the superlative degree, the comparative; the imperative mood, the indicative; the future tense, the present; and so on: because they may respectively be resolved into similar meanings. Thus, in the sentence, “I desire you to depart,” the words *to depart*, may be called a noun, because they are equivalent in sense to the noun *departure*, in the following sentence, “I desire your departure.” The words “depart instantly,” may be proved to be, not the imperative mood, with an adverb, but the indicative and infinitive, with a noun and preposition; for they are equivalent to “I desire you to depart in an instant.” The *superlative* degree in this sentence, “Of all acquirements virtue is the most valuable,” may pass for the *comparative*, because it conveys the same sentiment as, “Virtue is more valuable than every other acquirement.”

We shall not pursue this subject any further, as the reader must be satisfied, that only the word *desire*, in the equivalent sentence, implies affirmation; and that one phrase may, in sense, be equivalent to another, though its grammatical nature is essentially different.

To verbs belong NUMBER, PERSON, MOOD, and TENSE.

SECTION 2. *Of Number and Person.*

Verbs have two numbers, the Singular and the Plural, as, “I run, we run,” &c.

In each number there are three persons; as,

	Singular.	Plural.
<i>First Person.</i>	I love.	We love.
<i>Second Person.</i>	Thou lovest.	Ye or you love.
<i>Third Person.</i>	He loves.	They love.

Thus the verb, in some parts of it, varies its endings, to express, or agree with, different persons of the same number: as, “I love, thou lovest; he loveth, or loves:” and also to express different numbers of the same person: as “thou lovest,

ye love ; he loveth, they love." In the plural number of the verb, there is no variation of ending to express the different persons ; and the verb, in the three persons plural, is the same as it is in the first person singular. Yet this scanty provision of terminations is sufficient for all the purposes of discourse, and no ambiguity arises from it : the verb being always attended, either with the noun expressing the subject acting or acted upon, or with the pronoun representing it. For this reason, the plural termination in *en, they loven, they weren*, formerly in use, was laid aside as unnecessary, and has long been obsolete.

SECTION 3. *Of Moods and Participles.*

Mood or Mode is a particular form of the verb, showing the manner in which the being, action, or passion, is represented.

The nature of a mood may be more intelligibly explained to the scholar, by observing, that it consists in the change which the verb undergoes, to signify various intentions of the mind, and various modifications and circumstances of action : which explanation, if compared with the following account and uses of the different moods, will be found to agree with and illustrate them.

There are five moods of verbs, the **INDICATIVE**, the **IMPERATIVE**, the **POTENTIAL**, the **SUBJUNCTIVE**, and the **INFINITIVE**.

The Indicative Mood simply indicates or declares a thing : as, "He loves, he is loved :" or it asks a question : as, "Does he love ?" "Is he loved ?"

The Imperative Mood is used for commanding, exhorting, entreating, or permitting : as, "Depart thou ; mind ye ; let us stay ; go in peace."

Though this mood derives its name from its intimation of command, it is used on occasions of a very opposite nature, even in the humblest supplications of an inferior being to one who is infinitely his superior : as, "Give us this day our daily bread ; and forgive us our trespasses."

The Potential Mood implies possibility or liberty, power, will, or obligation : as, "It may rain ; he may go or stay, I can ride ; he would walk ; they should learn."

The Subjunctive Mood represents a thing under a condition, motive, wish, supposition, &c. ; and is preceded by a conjunction, expressed or understood, and attended by another verb : as, "I will respect him, *though* he chide

me ;” “ Were he good, he would be happy :” that is, “ *if he were good.*” — See note 8 to Rule 19.

The Infinitive Mood expresses a thing in a general and unlimited manner, without any distinction of number or person ; as, “ to act, to speak, to be feared.”

The participle is a certain form of the verb, and derives its name from its participating, not only of the properties of a verb, but also of those of an adjective : as, “ I am desirous of *knowing him* ;” “ *admired and applauded*, he became vain ;” “ *Having finished* his work, he submitted it,” &c.

There are three participles, the Present or Active, the Perfect or Passive, and the Compound Perfect : as, “ *loving, loved, having loved.*”

Agreeably to the general practice of grammarians, we have represented the present participle, as active ; and the past, as passive : but they are not uniformly so : the present is sometimes passive ; and the past is frequently active. Thus, “ The youth *was consuming* by a slow malady ;” “ The Indian *was burning* by the cruelty of his enemies ;” appear to be instances of the present participle being used passively. “ He *has instructed* me ;” “ I *have gratefully repaid* his kindness ;” are examples of the past participle being applied in an active sense. We may also observe, that the present participle is sometimes associated with the past and future tenses of the verb ; and the past participle connected with the present and future tenses.—The most unexceptionable distinction which grammarians make between the participles, is, that the one points to the continuation of the action, passion, or state, denoted by the verb ; and the other, to the completion of it. Thus, the present participle signifies *imperfect* action, or action begun and not ended : as, “ I *am writing* a letter.” The past participle signifies action *perfected*, or finished : as, “ I *have written* a letter ;” “ The letter *is written.*” *

The participle is distinguished from the adjective, by the former's expressing the idea of time, and the latter's denoting only a quality. The phrases, “ *loving* to give as well as to receive,” “ *moving* in haste,” “ *heated* with liquor,” contain participles giving the idea of time ; but the epithets contained in the expressions, “ a *loving* child,” “ a *moving* spectacle,” “ a *heated* imagination,” mark simply the qualities referred to, without any regard to time ; and may properly be called participial adjectives.

* When this participle is joined to the verb *to have*, it is called *perfect* ; when it is joined to the verb *to be*, or understood with it, it is denominated *passive*.

Participles not only convey the notion of time ; but they also signify actions, and govern the cases of nouns and pronouns, in the same manner as verbs do ; and therefore should be comprehended in the general name of verbs. That they are mere modes of the verb, is manifest, if our definition of a verb be admitted : for they signify being, doing, or suffering, with the designation of time superadded. But if the essence of the verb be made to consist in affirmation or assertion, not only the participle will be excluded from its place in the verb, but the infinitive itself also ; which certain ancient grammarians of great authority held to be alone the genuine verb, simple and unconnected with persons and circumstances.

The following phrases, even when considered in themselves, show that participles include the idea of time : “The letter *being written*, or *having been written* ;” “Charles *being writing*, *having written*, or *having been writing*.” But when arranged in an entire sentence, which they must be to make a complete sense, they show it still more evidently : as, “Charles *having written* the letter, sealed and despatched it.”—The participle does indeed associate with different tenses of the verb : as, “I am writing,” “I was writing,” “I shall be writing :” but this forms no just objection to its denoting time. If the time of it is often relative time, this circumstance, far from disproving, supports our position. † See observations under Rule 13 of Syntax.

Participles sometimes perform the office of substantives, and are used as such ; as in the following instances : “The *beginning* ;” “a good *understanding* ;” “excellent *writing* ;” “The chancellor’s *being attached* to the king secured his crown :” “The general’s *having failed* in this enterprise occasioned his disgrace ;” “John’s *having been writing* a long time had wearied him.”

That the words in italics of the three latter examples, perform the office of substantives, and may be considered as such, will be evident, if we reflect, that the first of them has exactly the same meaning and construction as, “The chancellor’s attachment to the king, secured his crown ;” and that the other examples will bear a similar construction. The words, *being attached*, govern the word *chancellor’s* in the possessive case, in the one instance, as clearly as *attachment* governs it in that case, in the other : and it is only substan-

† From the very nature of time, an action may be *present now*, it may *have been present formerly*, or it may be *present at some future period*—yet who ever supposed, that the present of the indicative denotes no time ?

tives, or words and phrases which operate as substantives; that govern the genitive or possessive case.

The following sentence is not precisely the same as the above, either in sense or construction, though, except the genitive case, the words are the same; "The chancellor, being attached to the king, secured his crown." In the former, the words, *being attached*, form the nominative case to the verb, and are stated as the cause of the effect; in the latter, they are not the nominative case, and make only a circumstance to *chancellor*, which is the proper nominative. It may not be improper to add another form of this sentence, by which the learner may better understand the peculiar nature and form of each of these modes of expression: "The chancellor being attached to the king, his crown was secured." This constitutes what is properly called, the Case Absolute.

SECTION. 4. *Remarks on the Potential Mood.*

That the Potential Mood should be separated from the subjunctive, is evident, from the intricacy and confusion which are produced by their being blended together, and from the distinct nature of the two moods; the former of which may be expressed without any condition, supposition &c. as will appear from the following instances: "They *might* have done better;" "We *may* always act uprightly;" "He was generous, and *would* not take revenge;" "We *should* resist the allurements of vice;" "I *could* formerly indulge myself in things, of which I *cannot* now think but with pain."

Some grammarians have supposed that the Potential Mood, as distinguished above from the Subjunctive, coincides with the Indicative. But as the latter "simply indicates or declares a thing," it is manifest that the former, which modifies the declaration, and introduces an idea materially distinct from it, must be considerably different. "I *can* walk," "I *should* walk," appear to be so essentially distinct from the simplicity of, "I walk," "I walked," as to warrant a correspondent distinction of moods. The Imperative and Infinitive Moods, which are allowed to retain their rank, do not appear to contain such strong marks of discrimination from the Indicative, as are found in the Potential Mood.

There are other writers on this subject, who exclude the Potential Mood from their division, because it is formed, not by varying the principal verb, but by means of the auxiliary verbs *may, can, might, could, would, &c.*: but if we recollect, that moods are used "to signify various intentions of the mind, and various modifications and circumstances of action,"



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more accurately, it is made to consist of six variations, *viz.* the PRESENT, the IMPERFECT, the PERFECT, the PLUPERFECT, and the FIRST and SECOND FUTURE TENSES.

The Present Tense represents an action or event, as passing at the time in which it is mentioned: as, "I rule; I am ruled; I think; I fear."

The present tense likewise expresses a character, quality, &c. at present existing: as, "He is an able man;" "She is an amiable woman." It is also used in speaking of actions continued, with occasional intermissions, to the present time; as, "He frequently rides;" "He walks out every morning;" "He goes into the country every summer." We sometimes apply this tense even to persons long since dead: as, "Seneca reasons and moralizes well;" "Job speaks feelingly of his afflictions."

The present tense, preceded by the words, *when, before, after, as soon as, &c.* is sometimes used to point out the relative time of a future action: as, "When he arrives he will hear the news;" "He will hear the news *before* he arrives, or *as soon as* he arrives, or at farthest, *soon after* he arrives;" "The more she *improves*, the more amiable she will be."

In animated historical narrations, this tense is sometimes substituted for the imperfect tense: as, "He *enters* the territory of the peaceable inhabitants; he *fights* and *conquers*, *takes* an immense booty, which he *divides* amongst his soldiers, and *returns* home to enjoy an empty triumph."

The Imperfect Tense represents the action or event, either as past and finished, or as remaining unfinished at a certain time past: as, "I loved her for her modesty and virtue;" "They were travelling post when he met them."

The Perfect Tense not only refers to what is past, but also conveys an allusion to the present time: as, "I have finished my letter;" "I have seen the person that was recommended to me."

In the former example, it is signified that the finishing of the letter, though past, was at a period immediately, or very nearly, preceding the present time. In the latter instance, it is uncertain whether the person mentioned was seen by the speaker a long, or short time before. The meaning is, "I have seen him some time in the course of a period which includes, or comes to, the present time." When the particular time of any occurrence is specified, as prior to the present time, this tense is not used: for it would be improper to say, "I have seen him yesterday" or, "I have

finished my work last week." In these cases the imperfect is necessary, as, "I *saw* him yesterday;" "I *finished* my work last week." But when we speak indefinitely of any thing past, as happening or not happening in the day, year or age, in which we mention it, the perfect must be employed: as, "I *have been* there this morning;" "I *have travelled* much this year:" "We *have escaped* many dangers through life." In referring, however, to such a division of the day as is past before the time of our speaking, we use the imperfect: as, "They *came* home early this morning;" "He *was* with them at three o'clock this afternoon."

The perfect tense, and the imperfect tense, both denote a thing that is past; but the former denotes it in such a manner, that there is still actually remaining some part of the time to slide away, wherein we declare the thing has been done; whereas the imperfect denotes the thing or action past, in such a manner, that nothing remains of that time in which it was done. If we speak of the present century, we say "Philosophers *have made* great discoveries in the present century:" but if we speak of the last century, we say, "Philosophers *made* great discoveries in the last century." "He *has been* much afflicted this year;" "I *have* this week *read* the king's proclamation;" "I *have heard* great news this morning:" in these instances, "He *has been*," "I *have read*," and "I *heard*," denote things that are past; but they occurred in this year, in this week, and to-day; and still there remains a part of this year, week, and day, whereof I speak.

In general, the perfect tense may be applied wherever the action is connected with the present time, by the actual existence, either of the author, or of the work, though it may have been performed many centuries ago; but if neither the author nor the work now remains, it cannot be used. We may say, "Cicero *has written* orations:" but we cannot say, "Cicero *has written* poems:" because the orations are in being, but the poems are lost. Speaking of priests in general, we may say, "They *have* in all ages *claimed* great powers;" because the general order of the priesthood still exists: but if we speak of the Druids, as any particular order of priests, which does not now exist, we cannot use this tense. We cannot say, "The Druid priests *have claimed* great powers;" but must say, "The Druid priests *claimed* great powers;" because that order is now totally extinct. See PICKBURN on the *English Verb*.

The Pluperfect Tense represents a thing, not only as past, but also as prior to some other point of time specified

in the sentence : as, " I had finished my letter before he arrived."

The first Future Tense represents the action as yet to come, either with or without respect to the precise time : as, " The sun will rise to-morrow ;" " I shall see them again."

The Second Future intimates that the action will be fully accomplished, at or before the time of another future action or event : as, " I shall have dined at one o'clock ;" " The two houses will have finished their business, when the king comes to prorogue them." †

It is to be observed, that in the subjunctive mood, the event being spoken of under a condition or supposition, or in the form of a wish, and therefore as doubtful and contingent, the verb itself in the present, and the auxiliary both of the present and past imperfect times, often carry with them somewhat of a future sense : as, " If he come to-morrow, I may speak to him ;" " If he should, or would come to-morrow, I might, would, could, or should speak to him." Observe also, that the auxiliary *should* and *would*, in the imperfect times, are used to express the present and future as well as the past : as, " It is my desire, that he should, or would, come now, or to-morrow ;" as well as, " It was my desire, that he should or would come yesterday." So that in this mood the precise time of the verb is very much determined by the nature and drift of the sentence.

The present, past, and future tenses, may be used either *definitely* or *indefinitely*, both with respect to *time and action*. When they denote customs or habits, and not individual acts, they are applied indefinitely : as, " Virtue *promotes* happiness ;" " The old Romans *governed* by benefits more than by fear ;" " I *shall* hereafter *employ* my time more usefully." In these examples, the words, *promotes*, *governed*, and *shall employ*, are used indefinitely, both in regard to action and time ; for they are not confined to individual actions, nor to any precise points of present, past, or future time. When they are applied to signify particular actions, and to ascertain the precise points of time to which they are confined, they are used definitely ; as in the following instances, " My brother *is writing* ;" " He *built* the house last summer, but did not *inhabit* it till yesterday." " He *will write* another letter to-morrow."

The different tenses also represent an action as *complete* or

† See an account of the *simple and compound tenses*

perfect, or as *incomplete* or *imperfect*. In the phrases, "I am writing," "I was writing," "I shall be writing," imperfect, unfinished actions are signified. But the following examples, "I wrote," "I have written," "I had written," "I shall have written," all denote complete perfect action.

From the preceding representation of the different tenses, it appears, that each of them has its distinct and peculiar province; and that though some of them may sometimes be used promiscuously, or substituted one for another, in cases where great accuracy is not required, yet there is a real and essential difference in their meaning.—It is also evident, that the English language contains the six tenses which we have enumerated. Grammarians who limit the number to two, or at most to three, namely, the present, the imperfect, and the future, do not reflect that the English verb is mostly composed of principal and auxiliary; and that these several parts constitute one verb. Either the English language has no regular future tense, or its future is composed of the auxiliary and the principal verb. If the latter be admitted, then the auxiliary and principal united, constitute a tense, in one instance; and from reason and analogy, may doubtless do so, in others, in which minuter divisions of time are necessary, or useful. What reason can be assigned for not considering this case as other cases, in which a whole is regarded as composed of several parts, or of principal and adjuncts? There is nothing heterogeneous in the parts: and precedent, analogy, utility, and even necessity, authorize the union.

In support of this opinion, we have the authority of eminent grammarians; in particular, that of Dr. Beattie. "Some writers," says the doctor, "will not allow any thing to be a tense, but what in one inflected word, expresses an affirmation with time; for that those parts of the verb are not properly called tenses, which assume that appearance, by means of auxiliary words. At this rate, we should have, in English, two tenses only, the present and the past in the active verb, and in the passive no tenses at all. But this is a needless nicety; and, if adopted, would introduce confusion into the grammatical art. If *amaveram* be a tense, why should not *amatus fueram*? If *I heard* be a tense, *I did hear*, *I have heard*, and *I shall hear*, must be equally entitled to that appellation."

The proper form of a tense, in the Greek and Latin tongues, is certainly that which it has in the grammars of those languages. But in the Greek and Latin grammars, we uniformly find, that some of the tenses are formed by varia-

tions of the principal verb ; and others, by the addition of a helping verb. It is, therefore, indisputable, that the principal verb, or rather its participle, and an auxiliary, constitute a regular tense in the Greek and Latin languages. This point being established, we may, doubtless, apply it to English verbs ; and extend the principle as far as convenience, and the idiom of our language require.

If it should be said, that, on the same ground that a participle and auxiliary are allowed to form a tense, and the verb is to be conjugated accordingly, the English noun and pronoun ought to be declined at large, with articles and prepositions ; we must object to the inference. Such a mode of declension is not adapted to our language. This we think has been already proved.* It is also confessedly inapplicable to the learned languages. Where then is the grammatical inconsistency, or the want of conformity to the principles of analogy, in making some tenses of the English verb to consist of principal and auxiliary ; and the cases of English nouns, chiefly in their termination ? The argument from analogy, instead of militating against us, appears to confirm and establish our position.

We shall close these remarks on the tenses, with a few observations extracted from the *ENCYCLOPÆDIA BRITANNICA*. They are worth the student's attention, as a part of them applies, not only to our views of the tenses, but to many other parts of the work.—“ Harris (by way of hypothesis) has enumerated no fewer than twelve tenses. Of this enumeration we can by no means approve : for, without entering into a minute examination of it, nothing can be more obvious, than that his *inceptive present*, “ I am going to write,” is a future tense ; and his *completive present*, “ I have written,” a past tense. But, as was before observed of the classification of words, we cannot help being of opinion, that, to take the tenses as they are commonly received, and endeavour to ascertain their nature and their differences, is a much more useful exercise, as well as more proper for a work of this kind, than to raise, as might easily be raised, new theories on the subject.” †

* See page 38.

† The following criticism affords an additional support to the author's system of the tenses, &c.

“ Under the head of Etymology, the author of this grammar judiciously adheres to the natural simplicity of the English language, without embarrassing the learner with distinctions peculiar to the Latin tongue. The difficult subject of the Tenses, is clearly explained ; and with less encumbrance of technical phraseology, than in most other grammars.”

Analytical Review.

SECTION 6. *The Conjugation of the auxiliary verbs*

TO HAVE *and* TO BE.

The Conjugation of a verb, is the regular combination and arrangement of its several numbers, persons, moods, and tenses.

The Conjugation of an active verb, is styled the ACTIVE VOICE; and that of a passive verb, the PASSIVE VOICE.

The auxiliary and active verb TO HAVE, is conjugated in the following manner.

TO HAVE.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. <i>Pers.</i> I have.	1. We have.
2. <i>Pers.</i> Thou hast.	2. Ye <i>or</i> you have.
3. <i>Pers.</i> He, she, <i>or</i> it } hath <i>or</i> has.	3. They have.

*Imperfect Tense.**

Singular.	Plural.
1. I had	1. We had.
2. Thou hadst.	2. Ye <i>or</i> you had.
3. He, &c. had.	3. They had.

*Perfect Tense.**

Singular.	Plural.
1. I have had.	1. We have had.
2. Thou hast had.	2. Ye <i>or</i> you have had.
3. He has had.	3. They have had.

*Pluperfect Tense.**

Singular.	Plural.
1. I had had.	1. We had had.
2. Thou hadst had.	2. Ye <i>or</i> you had had.
3. He had had.	3. They had had.

* The terms which we have adopted, to designate the three past tenses, may not be exactly significant of their nature and distinctions. But as they are used by grammarians in general, and have an established authority; and, especially, as the meaning attached to each of them, and their different significations, have been carefully explained; we presume that no solid objection can be made to the use of terms so generally approved, and so explicitly defined. See page 62 and 64. We are supported in these sentiments, by the authority of Dr. Johnson. See the first note in his "Grammar of the English Tongue," prefixed to his dictionary. If, however, any teachers should think it warrantable to change the established names, they cannot perhaps find any more appropriate, than the terms *first preterit*, *second preterit*, and *third preterit*.—See the Octavo Grammar.

First Future Tense.

- | | |
|------------------------------------|---|
| Singular. | Plural. |
| 1. I shall <i>or</i> will have. | 1. We shall <i>or</i> will have |
| 2. Thou shalt <i>or</i> wilt have. | 2. Ye <i>or</i> you shall <i>or</i> will have |
| 3. He shall <i>or</i> will have. | 3. They shall <i>or</i> will have. |

Second Future Tense.

- | | |
|------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Singular. | Plural. |
| 1. I shall have had. | 1. We shall have had. |
| 2. Thou wilt have had. | 2. Ye <i>or</i> you will have had. |
| 3. He will have had. | 3. They will have had. |

Imperative Mood.

- | | |
|---|---|
| Singular. | Plural. |
| 1. Let me have. | 1. Let us have. |
| 2. Have, <i>or</i> have thou, <i>or</i> do thou have. | 2. Have, <i>or</i> have ye, <i>or</i> do ye <i>or</i> you have. |
| 3. Let him have. | 3. Let them have.* |

The imperative mood is not strictly entitled to *three* persons. The command is always addressed to the *second* person, not to the first or third. For when we say, "Let me have," "Let him, or let them have," the meaning and construction are, *do thou, or do ye, let me, him, or them have*. In philosophical strictness, both number and person might be entirely excluded from every verb. They are, in fact, the properties of substantives, not a part of the essence of a verb. Even the name of the *imperative* mood, does not always correspond to its nature: for it sometimes *petitions* as well as commands. But, with respect to all these points, the practice of our grammarians is so uniformly fixed, and so analogous to the languages, ancient and modern, which our youth have to study, that it would be an unwarrantable degree of innovation, to deviate from the established terms and arrangements. See the *advertisement* at the end of the Introduction; and the quotation from the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, page 62.

Potential Mood.

Present Tense.

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|---|
| Singular. | Plural. |
| 1. I may <i>or</i> can have. | 1. We may <i>or</i> can have. |
| 2. Thou mayst <i>or</i> canst have. | 2. Ye <i>or</i> you may <i>or</i> can have. |
| 3. He may <i>or</i> can have. | 3. They may <i>or</i> can have. |

Imperfect Tense.

- | | |
|--|---|
| Singular. | Plural. |
| 1. I might, could, would, <i>or</i> should have. | 1. We might, could, would, <i>or</i> should have. |

* If such sentences should be rigorously examined, the Imperative will appear to consist merely in the word *let*.



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As the subjunctive mood, in English, has no variation, in the form of the verb, from the indicative, (except in the present tense, and second future tense, of verbs generally, and the present and imperfect tenses of the verb *to be*,) it would be superfluous to conjugate it in this work, through every tense. But all the other moods and tenses of the verbs, both in the active and passive voices, are conjugated at large, that the learners may have no doubts or misapprehensions respecting their particular forms. They to whom the subject of grammar is entirely new, and young persons especially, are much more readily and effectually instructed, by seeing the parts of a subject so essential as the verb, unfolded and spread before them, in all their varieties, than by being generally and cursorily informed of the manner in which they may be exhibited. The time employed by the scholars, in consequence of this display of the verbs, is of small moment, compared with the advantages which they will probably derive from the plan.

It may not, however, be generally proper for young persons beginning the study of grammar, to commit to memory all the tenses of the verbs. If the *simple* tenses, namely, the *present* and the *imperfect*, together with the *first future tense*, should, in the first instance, be committed to memory, and the rest carefully perused and explained, the business will not be tedious to the scholars, and their progress will be rendered more obvious and pleasing. The general view of the subject, thus acquired and impressed, may afterwards be extended with ease and advantage.

It appears to be proper, for the information of the learners, to make a few observations in this place, on some of the tenses, &c. The first is, that, in the potential mood, some grammarians confound the present with the imperfect tense; and the perfect with the pluperfect. But that they are really distinct, and have an appropriate reference to time, correspondent to the definitions of those tenses, will appear from a few examples: "I wished him to stay, but he *would* not;" "I *could* not accomplish the business in time;" "It was my direction that he *should* submit;" "He was ill, but I thought he *might* live;" "I *may* have misunderstood him;" "He *cannot* have deceived me;" "He *might* have finished the work sooner, but he *could not* have done it better."—It must, however, be admitted, that, on some occasions, the auxiliaries *might*, *could*, *would*, and *should*, refer also to present and to future time.

The next remark is, that the auxiliary *will*, in the first person singular and plural of the second future tense; and the auxiliary *shall*, in the second and third persons of that tense,

in the indicative mood, appear to be incorrectly applied. The impropriety of such associations may be inferred from a few examples: "I *will* have had previous notice, whenever the event happens;" "Thou *shalt* have served thy apprenticeship before the end of the year;" "He *shall* have completed his business when the messenger arrives." "I *shall* have had; thou *wilt* have served; he *will* have completed," &c. would have been correct and applicable. The peculiar import of these auxiliaries, as explained under section 7, seems to account for their impropriety in the applications just mentioned.

Some writers on Grammar object to the propriety of admitting the second future, in both the indicative and subjunctive moods: but that this tense is applicable to both moods, will be manifest from the following examples. "John will have earned his wages the next new-year's day," is a simple declaration, and therefore in the indicative mood: "If he shall have finished his work when the bell rings, he will be entitled to the reward," is conditional and contingent, and is therefore in the subjunctive mood.

We shall conclude these detached observations, with one remark which may be useful to the young scholar, namely, that as the indicative mood is converted into the subjunctive, by the expression of a condition, motive, wish, supposition, &c. being superadded to it; so the potential mood may, in like manner, be turned into the subjunctive; as will be seen in the following examples: "If I could deceive him, I should abhor it;" "Though he should increase in wealth, he would not be charitable;" "Even in prosperity he would gain no esteem, unless he should conduct himself better."

The auxiliary and neuter verb *To be*, is conjugated as follows:

TO BE.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I am.	1. We are.
2. Thou art.	2. Ye or you are.
3. He, she, or it is.	3. They are.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I was.	1. We were.
2. Thou wast.	2. Ye or you were.
3. He was.	3. They were.

Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| Singular. | Plural. |
| 1. I have been. | 1. We have been. |
| 2. Thou hast been. | 2. Ye <i>or</i> you have been. |
| 3. He hath <i>or</i> has been. | 3. They have been. |

Pluperfect Tense.

- | | |
|---------------------|-------------------------------|
| Singular. | Plural. |
| 1. I had been. | 1. We had been. |
| 2. Thou hadst been. | 2. Ye <i>or</i> you had been. |
| 3. He had been. | 3. They had been. |

First Future Tense.

- | | |
|----------------------------------|--|
| Singular. | Plural. |
| 1. I shall <i>or</i> will be. | 1. We shall <i>or</i> will be. |
| 2. Thou shalt <i>or</i> wilt be. | 2. Ye <i>or</i> you shall <i>or</i> will be. |
| 3. He shall <i>or</i> will be. | 3. They shall <i>or</i> will be. |

Second Future Tense

- | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| Singular. | Plural. |
| 1. I shall have been. | 1. We shall have been. |
| 2. Thou wilt have been. | 2. Ye <i>or</i> you will have been. |
| 3. He will have been. | 3. They will have been. |

Imperative Mood.

- | | |
|----------------------------------|---|
| Singular. | Plural. |
| 1. Let me be. | 1. Let us be. |
| 2. Be thou <i>or</i> do thou be. | 2. Be ye <i>or</i> you, <i>or</i> do ye be. |
| 3. Let him be. | 3. Let them be. |

*Potential Mood.**Present Tense.*

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|---|
| Singular. | Plural. |
| 1. I may <i>or</i> can be. | 1. We may <i>or</i> can be. |
| 2. Thou mayst <i>or</i> canst be. | 2. Ye <i>or</i> you may <i>or</i> can be. |
| 3. He may <i>or</i> can be. | 3. They may <i>or</i> can be. |

Imperfect Tense.

- | | |
|---|---|
| Singular. | Plural. |
| 1. I might, could, would, <i>or</i> should be. | 1. We might, could, would, <i>or</i> should be. |
| 2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, <i>or</i> shouldst be. | 2. Ye <i>or</i> you might, could, would, <i>or</i> should be. |
| 3. He might, could, would, <i>or</i> should be. | 3. They might, could, would, <i>or</i> should be. |

Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|--|--|
| Singular. | Plural. |
| 1. I may <i>or</i> can have been. | 1. We may <i>or</i> can have been. |
| 2. Thou mayst <i>or</i> canst have been. | 2. Ye <i>or</i> you may <i>or</i> can have been. |
| 3. He may <i>or</i> can have been. | 3. They may <i>or</i> can have been. |

Pluperfect Tense.

- | | |
|--|---|
| <p>Singular.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I might, could, would, <i>or</i> should have been. 2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, <i>or</i> shouldst have been. 3. He might, could, would, <i>or</i> should have been. | <p>Plural.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. We might, could, would, <i>or</i> should have been. 2. Ye <i>or</i> you might, could, would, <i>or</i> should have been. 3. They might, could, would, <i>or</i> should have been. |
|--|---|

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Tense.

- | | |
|--|---|
| <p>Singular.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. If I be. 2. If thou be. 3. If he be. | <p>Plural.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. If we be. 2. If ye <i>or</i> you be. 3. If they be. |
|--|---|

Imperfect Tense.

- | | |
|--|--|
| <p>Singular.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. If I were. 2. If thou wert. 3. If he were. | <p>Plural.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. If we were. 2. If ye <i>or</i> you were 3. If they were. |
|--|--|

The remaining tenses of this mood are, in general, similar to the correspondent tenses of the Indicative mood. See pages 66, 76, 77, and the notes under the nineteenth rule of Syntax.

Infinitive Mood.

Present Tense. To be.

Perfect. To have been.

Participles.

Present. Being.

Perfect. Been.

Compound Perfect.

Having been.

SECTION 7. *The Auxiliary Verbs conjugated in their simple form ; with observations on their peculiar nature and force.*

THE learner will perceive that the preceding auxiliary verbs, *to have* and *to be*, could not be conjugated through all the moods and tenses, without the help of other auxiliary verbs ; namely, *may, can, will, shall*, and their variations. That auxiliary verbs, in their simple state, and unassisted by others, are of a very limited extent ; and that they are chiefly useful, in the aid which they afford in conjugating the principal verbs ; will clearly appear to the scholar, by a distinct conjugation of each of them, uncombined with any other. They are exhibited for his inspection ; not to be committed to memory.

TO HAVE.

Present Tense.

- | | | |
|--------------------------------|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| <p><i>Sing.</i> 1. I have.</p> | <p>2. Thou hast.</p> | <p>3. He hath <i>or</i> has.</p> |
| <p><i>Plur.</i> 1. We have</p> | <p>2. Ye <i>or</i> you have.</p> | <p>3. They have.</p> |

Imperfect Tense.

Sing. 1. I had. 2. Thou hadst. 3. He had.
Plur. 1. We had. 2. Ye or you had. 3. They had.

Perfect. I have had, &c. *Pluperfect.* I had had, &c.

Participles.

Present. Having. *Perfect.* Had.

TO BE.

Present Tense.

Sing. 1. I am. 2. Thou art. 3. He is.
Plur. 1. We are. 2. Ye or you are. 3. They are.

Imperfect Tense.

Sing. 1. I was. 2. Thou wast. 3. He was.
Plur. 1. We were. 2. Ye or you were. 3. They were.

Participles

Present. Being. *Perfect.* Been.

SHALL.

Present Tense.

Sing. 1. I shall.* 2. Thou shalt. 3. He shall.
Plur. 1. We shall. 2. Ye or you shall. 3. They shall.

Imperfect Tense

Sing. 1. I should. 2. Thou shouldst. 3. He should.
Plur. 1. We should. 2. Ye or you should. 3. They should.

WILL.

Present Tense.

Sing. 1. I will. 2. Thou wilt. 3. He will.
Plur. 1. We will. 2. Ye or you will. 3. They will.

Imperfect Tense.

Sing. 1. I would. 2. Thou wouldst. 3. He would.
Plur. 1. We would. 2. Ye or you would. 3. They would.

MAY.

Present Tense.

Sing. 1. I may. 2. Thou mayst. 3. He may.
Plur. 1. We may. 2. Ye or you may. 3. They may.

Imperfect Tense.

Sing. 1. I might. 2. Thou mightst. 3. He might.
Plur. 1. We might. 2. Ye or you might. 3. They might.

* *Shall* is here properly used in the present tense, having the same analogy to *should* that *can* has to *could*, *may* to *might*, and *will* to *would*.

CAN.

Present Tense.

<i>Sing.</i> 1. I can.	2. Thou canst.	3. He can.
<i>Plur.</i> 1. We can.	2. Ye or you can.	3. They can.

Imperfect Tense.

<i>Sing.</i> 1. I could.	2. Thou couldst.	3. He could.
<i>Plur.</i> 1. We could.	2. Ye or you could.	3. They could.

TO DO.

Present Tense.

<i>Sing.</i> 1. I do.	2. Thou dost.	3. He doth or does.
<i>Plur.</i> 1. We do.	2. Ye or you do.	3. They do.

Imperfect Tense.

<i>Sing.</i> 1. I did.	2. Thou didst.	3. He did.
<i>Plur.</i> 1. We did.	2. Ye or you did.	3. They did.

Participles.

<i>Present.</i>	Doing.	<i>Perfect.</i>	Done.
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The verbs *have*, *be*, *will*, and *do*, when they are unconnected with a principal verb, expressed or understood, are not auxiliaries, but principal verbs : as, “ We *have* enough ;” “ I *am* grateful ;” “ He *wills* it to be so ;” “ They *do* as they please.” In this view, they also have their auxiliaries : as, “ I *shall have* enough ;” “ I *will be* grateful,” &c.

The peculiar force of the several auxiliaries will appear from the following account of them.

Do and *did* mark the action itself, or the time of it, with greater energy and positiveness : as, “ I *do* speak truth ;” “ I *did* respect him ;” “ Here am I, for thou *didst* call me.” They are of great use in negative sentences : as, “ I *do not* fear ;” “ I *did not* write.” They are almost universally employed in asking questions : as, “ *Does* he learn ?” “ *Did* he not write ?” They sometimes also supply the place of another verb, and make the repetition of it, in the same, or a subsequent sentence, unnecessary : as, “ You attend not to your studies as he *does* ;” (i. e. as he attends, &c.) “ I shall come if I can ; but if I *do not*, please to excuse me ;” (i. e. if I come not.)

Let not only expresses permission, but entreating, exhorting, commanding : as, “ Let us know the truth :” “ Let me die the death of the righteous ;” “ Let not thy heart be too much elated with success ;” “ Let thy inclination submit to thy duty.”

May and *might* express the possibility or liberty of doing a thing ; *can* and *could*, the power : as, “ It *may* rain ;” “ I *may* write or read ;” “ He *might* have improved more than

he has ;” “He can write much better than he could last year.”

Must is sometimes called in for a helper, and denotes necessity : as, “We must speak the truth, whenever we do speak, and we must not prevaricate.”

Will, in the first person singular and plural, intimates resolution and promising ; in the second and third person, only foretels : as, “I will reward the good, and will punish the wicked ;” “We will remember benefits, and be grateful ;” “Thou wilt, or he will, repent of that folly ;” “You or they will have a pleasant walk.”

Shall, on the contrary, in the first person, simply foretels ; in the second and third persons, promises, commands, or threatens : as, “I shall go abroad ;” “We shall dine at home ;” “Thou shalt, or you shall, inherit the land :” “Ye shall do justice, and love mercy ;” “They shall account for their misconduct.” The following passage is not translated according to the distinct and proper meanings of the words *shall* and *will* : “Surely goodness and mercy shall follow me all the days of my life ; and I will dwell in the house of the Lord forever ;” it ought to be, “*Will* follow me,” and “*I shall* dwell.”—The foreigner who, as it is said, fell into the Thames, and cried out ; “*I will* be drowned, no body *shall* help me ;” made a sad misapplication of these auxiliaries.

These observations respecting the import of the verbs *will* and *shall*, must be understood of explicative sentences ; for when the sentence is interrogative, just the reverse, for the most part, takes place : thus, “*I shall* go ; you *will* go ;” express event only : but, “*will* you go ?” imports intention ; and, “*shall* I go ?” refers to the will of another. But, “He *shall* go,” and “*shall* he go ?” both imply will ; expressing or referring to a command.

When the verb is put in the subjunctive mood, the meaning of these auxiliaries likewise undergoes some alteration ; as the learners will readily perceive by a few examples : “He *shall* proceed,” “If he *shall* proceed ;” “You *shall* consent,” “If you *shall* consent.” These auxiliaries are sometimes interchanged, in the indicative and subjunctive moods, to convey the same meaning of the auxiliary : as, “He *will* not return,” “If he *shall* not return ;” “He *shall* not return,” “If he *will* not return.”

Would, primarily denotes inclination of will ; and *should*, obligation : but they both vary their import, and are often used to express simple event.



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Second Future Tense.

Singular.

1. I shall have loved.
2. Thou wilt have loved.
3. He will have loved.

Plural.

1. We shall have loved.
2. Ye or you will have loved.
3. They will have loved.

Those tenses are called simple tenses, which are formed of the principal, without an auxiliary verb: as, "I love, I loved." The compound tenses are such as cannot be formed without an auxiliary verb: as, "I *have* loved; I *had* loved; I *shall* or *will* love; I *may* love; I *may be* loved; I *may have been* loved;" &c. These compounds are, however, to be considered as only different forms of the same verb.

Imperative Mood.

Singular.

1. Let me love.
2. Love, or love thou, or do thou love.
3. Let him love.

Plural.

1. Let us love.
2. Love, or love ye or you, or do ye love.
3. Let them love.

*Potential Mood.**Present Tense.*

Singular.

1. I may or can love.
2. Thou mayst or canst love.
3. He may or can love.

Plural.

1. We may or can love.
2. Ye or you may or can love.
3. They may or can love.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.

1. I might, could, would, or should love.
2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst love.
3. He might, could, would, or should love.

Plural.

1. We might, could, would, or should love.
2. Ye or you might, could, would, or should love.
3. They might, could, would or should love.

Perfect Tense.

Singular.

1. I may or can have loved.
2. Thou mayst or canst have loved.
3. He may or can have loved.

Plural.

1. We may or can have loved.
2. Ye or you may or can have loved.
3. They may or can have loved.

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular.

1. I might, could, would, or should have loved.
2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst have loved.
3. He might, could, would or should have loved.

Plural.

1. We might, could, would, or should have loved.
2. Ye or you might, could, would, or should have loved.
3. They might, could, would, or should have loved.

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Tense.

- | | |
|--|--|
| <p>Singular.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. If I love. 2. If thou love. 3. If he love. | <p>Plural.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. If we love. 2. If ye or you love. 3. If they love. |
|--|--|

The remaining tenses of this mood, are, in general, similar to the correspondent tenses of the indicative mood.

It may be of use to the scholar, to remark, in this place, that though only the conjunction *if* is affixed to the verb, any other conjunction proper for the subjunctive mood, may, with equal propriety, be occasionally annexed. The instance given is sufficient to explain the subject: more would be tedious, and tend to embarrass the learner.

Infinitive Mood.

Present. To love. *Perfect.* To have loved.

Participles.

<p><i>Present.</i> Loving.</p> <p><i>Compound Perfect</i></p>	<p><i>Perfect.</i> Loved.</p> <p>Having loved.</p>
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The active verb may be conjugated differently, by adding its present or active participle to the auxiliary verb *to be*, through all its moods and tenses; as, instead of "I teach, thou teachest, he teaches," &c.; we may say, "I am teaching, thou art teaching, he is teaching," &c.: and instead of "I taught," &c. "I was teaching," &c. and so on, through all the variations of the auxiliary. This mode of conjugation has, on particular occasions, a peculiar propriety; and contributes to the harmony and precision of the language. These forms of expression are adapted to particular acts, not to general habits, or affections of the mind. They are very frequently applied to neuter verbs; as, "I am musing; he is sleeping."*

Some grammarians apply, what is called the *conjunctive termination*, to the persons of the principal verb, and to its auxiliaries, through all the tenses of the subjunctive mood. But this is certainly contrary to the practice of good writers. Johnson applies this termination to the present and perfect tenses only. Lowth restricts it entirely to the present tense; and Priestley confines it to the present and imperfect tenses. This difference of opinion amongst grammarians

* As the participle, in this mode of conjugation, performs the office of a verb, through all the moods and tenses; and as it implies the idea of time, and governs the objective case of nouns and pronouns, in the same manner as verbs do; is it not manifest, that it is a species or form of the Verb, and that it cannot be properly considered as a distinct part of speech?

rians of such eminence, may have contributed to that diversity of practice, so observable in the use of the subjunctive mood. Uniformity in this point is highly desirable. It would materially assist both teachers and learners; and would constitute a considerable improvement in our language. On this subject, we adopt the opinion of Dr. Lowth; and conceive we are fully warranted by his authority, and that of the most correct and elegant writers, in limiting the conjunctive termination of the principal verb, to the second and third persons singular of the *present tense*.

Grammarians have not only differed in opinion, respecting the extent and variations of the subjunctive mood; but a few of them have even doubted the existence of such a mood in the English language. These writers assert, that the verb has no variation from the indicative; and that a conjunction added to the verb, gives it no title to become a distinct mood; or, at most, no better than it would have, if any other particle were joined to it. To these observations it may be replied; 1st. It is evident, on inspection, that, in the subjunctive mood, the present tense of the principal verbs, the present and imperfect tenses of the verb *to be*, and the second and third persons, in both numbers, of the second future tense of all verbs;* require a variation from the forms which those tenses have in the indicative mood. So much difference in the form of the verb, would warrant a correspondent distinction of mood, though the remaining parts of the subjunctive were, in all respects, similar to those of the indicative. In other languages, a principle of this nature has been admitted, both in the conjugation of verbs, and the declension of nouns. 2d. There appears to be as much propriety, in giving a conjunction the power of assisting to form the subjunctive mood, as there is in allowing the particle *to* to have an effect in the formation of the infinitive mood.† 3d. A conjunction added to the verb, shows the manner of being, doing, or suffering, which other particles cannot show: they do not coalesce with the verb, and modify it, as conjunctions do. 4th. It may be said, "If contingency constitutes the subjunctive mood, then it is the sense of a phrase, and not a conjunction, that determines this mood." But a little reflection will show, that the contingent sense lies

* We think it has been proved, that the auxiliary is a constituent part of the verb to which it relates: that the principal and its auxiliary form but one verb.

† Conjunctions have an influence on the mood of the following verb.

Dr. Beattie.

Conjunctions have sometimes a government of moods.

Dr. Lowth.

in the meaning and force of the conjunction, expressed or understood.

This subject may be farther illustrated, by the following observations.—Moods have a foundation in nature. They show what is certain; what is possible; what is conditional; what is commanded. They express also other conceptions and volitions; all signifying the manner of being, doing, or suffering. But as it would tend to obscure, rather than elucidate the subject, if the moods were particularly enumerated, grammarians have very properly given them such combinations and arrangements, as serve to explain the nature of this part of language, and to render the knowledge of it easily attainable.

The grammars of some languages contain a greater number of the moods, than others, and exhibit them in different forms. The Greek and Roman tongues denote them, by particular variations in the verb itself. This form, however, was the effect of ingenuity and improvement: it is not essential to the nature of the subject. The moods may be as effectually designated by a plurality of words, as by a change in the appearance of a single word; because the same ideas are denoted, and the same ends accomplished, by either manner of expression.

On this ground, the moods of the English verb, as well as the tenses, are, with great propriety, formed partly by the principal verb itself, and partly by the assistance which that verb derives from other words.

PASSIVE.

(VERBS Passive are called regular, when they form their perfect participle by the addition of *d* or *ed*, to the verb: as, from the verb “To love,” is formed the passive, “I am loved, I was loved, I shall be loved,” &c.

A passive verb is conjugated by adding the perfect participle to the auxiliary *to be*, through all its changes of number, person, mood, and tense, in the following manner.

TO BE LOVED.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I am loved.
2. Thou art loved.
3. He is loved.

G 2

Plural.

1. We are loved.
2. Ye or you are loved.
3. They are loved.

Æ

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I was loved	1. We were loved.
2. Thou wast loved.	2. Ye or you were loved.
3. He was loved.	3. They were loved.

Perfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I have been loved	1. We have been loved.
2. Thou hast been loved.	2. Ye or you have been loved.
3. He hath or has been loved.	3. They have been loved.

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I had been loved.	1. We had been loved.
2. Thou hadst been loved.	2. Ye or you had been loved.
3. He had been loved.	3. They had been loved.

First Future Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I shall or will be loved.	1. We shall or will be loved.
2. Thou shalt or wilt be loved.	2. Ye or you shall or will be loved.
3. He shall or will be loved.	3. They shall or will be loved.

Second Future Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I shall have been loved.	1. We shall have been loved.
2. Thou wilt have been loved.	2. Ye or you will have been loved.
3. He will have been loved.	3. They will have been loved.

Imperative Mood.

Singular.	Plural.
1. Let me be loved.	1. Let us be loved.
2. Be thou loved, or do thou be loved.	2. Be ye or you loved, or do ye be loved.
3. Let him be loved.	3. Let them be loved.

*Potential Mood.**Present Tense.*

Singular.	Plural.
1. I may or can be loved.	1. We may or can be loved.
2. Thou mayst or canst be loved.	2. Ye or you may or can be loved.
3. He may or can be loved.	3. They may or can be loved.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I might, could, would, or should be loved.	1. We might, could, would, or should be loved.
2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst be loved.	2. Ye or you might, could, would, or should be loved.
3. He might, could, would, or should be loved.	3. They might, could, would, or should be loved.

Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|---|--|
| <p>Singular.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I may <i>or</i> can have been loved. 2. Thou mayst <i>or</i> canst have been loved 3. He may <i>or</i> can have been loved. | <p>Plural.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. We may <i>or</i> can have been loved 2. Ye <i>or</i> you may <i>or</i> can have been loved. 3. They may <i>or</i> can have been loved. |
|---|--|

Pluperfect Tense.

- | | |
|--|---|
| <p>Singular.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I might, could, would, <i>or</i> should have been loved. 2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, <i>or</i> shouldst have been loved. 3. He might, could, would, <i>or</i> should have been loved. | <p>Plural.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. We might, could, would, <i>or</i> should have been loved. 2. Ye <i>or</i> you might, could, would, <i>or</i> should have been loved. 3. They might, could, would, <i>or</i> should have been loved. |
|--|---|

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Tense.

- | | |
|--|--|
| <p>Singular.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. If I be loved. 2. If thou be loved. 3. If he be loved. | <p>Plural.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. If we be loved. 2. If ye <i>or</i> you be loved 3. If they be loved. |
|--|--|

Imperfect Tense.

- | | |
|--|---|
| <p>Singular.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. If I were loved. 2. if thou wert loved. 3. If he were loved. | <p>Plural.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. If we were loved. 2. If ye <i>or</i> you were loved. 3. If they were loved. |
|--|---|

The remaining tenses of this mood are, in general similar to the correspondent tenses of the indicative mood. See pages 66, 76, and the notes under the nineteenth rule of Syntax.

Infinitive Mood.

Present Tense.

To be loved.

Perfect.

To have been loved.

Participles.

Present.

Perfect or Passive

Compound Perfect.

Being loved.

Loved.

Having been loved.

When an auxiliary is joined to the participle of the principal verb, the auxiliary goes through all the variations of person and number, and the participle itself continues invariably the same. When there are two or more auxiliaries joined to the participle, the first of them only is varied according to person and number. The auxiliary *must* admits of no variation.

The neuter verb is conjugated like the active; but as it partakes somewhat of the nature of the passive, it admits, in many instances, of the passive form, retaining still the neuter signification: as, "I am arrived;" "I was gone;" "I am grown." The auxiliary verb, *am, was*. in this case, precisely defines the time of the action or event, but does not change the nature of it; the passive form still expressing, not properly a passion, but only a state or condition of being.

● SECTION 9. *Observations on Passive Verbs.*

Some writers on grammar assert, that there are no Passive Verbs in the English language, because we have no verbs of this kind with a peculiar termination, all of them being formed by the different tenses of the auxiliary *to be*, joined to the passive participle of the verb. This is, however, to mistake the true nature of the English verb; and to regulate it, not on the principles of our own tongue, but on those of foreign languages. The conjugation, or the variation, of the English verb, to answer all the purposes of verbs, is accomplished by the means of auxiliaries; and if it be alleged that we have no passive verbs, because we cannot exhibit them without having recourse to helping verbs, it may with equal truth be said, that we have no *perfect, pluperfect, or future tense*, in the indicative or subjunctive mood; since these, as well as some other parts of the verb active, are formed by auxiliaries.

Even the Greek and Latin passive verbs require an auxiliary to conjugate some of their tenses; namely, the former, in the preterit of the optative and subjunctive moods; and the latter, in the perfect and pluperfect of the indicative, the perfect, pluperfect, and future, of the subjunctive mood, and the perfect of the infinitive. The deponent verbs, in Latin, require also an auxiliary to conjugate several of their tenses. This statement abundantly proves that the conjugation of a verb in the learned languages does not consist solely in varying the form of the original verb. It proves that these languages, like our own language, sometimes conjugate with an auxiliary, and sometimes without it. There is, indeed, a difference. What the learned languages require to be done, in some instances, the peculiar genius of our own tongue obliges us to do, in active verbs, principally, and in passive ones, universally. In short, the variation of the verb, in Greek and Latin, is generally accomplished by prefixes, or terminations, added to the verb itself; in English, by the addition of auxiliaries.

The English tongue is, in many respects, materially different from the learned languages. It is, therefore, very possi-



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apologize for the extent of the Author's remarks on these subjects, both here and elsewhere, and for his solicitude to simplify and explain them.—He thinks it has been proved, that the idiom of our tongue demands the arrangement he has given to the English verb; and that, though the learned languages, with respect to voices, moods, and tenses, are, in general, differently constructed from the English tongue, yet, in some respects, they are so similar to it, as to warrant the principle which he has adopted.

SECTION 10. *Of Irregular Verbs.*

Irregular Verbs are those which do not form their imperfect tense, and their perfect participle, by the addition of *d* or *ed* to the verb: as,

Present.	Imperfect.	Perfect Part.
I begin,	I began,	begun.
I know,	I knew,	known.

Irregular Verbs are of various sorts.

1. Such as have the present and imperfect tenses, and perfect participle, the same: as,

Present.	Imperfect.	Perfect Part.
Cost,	cost,	cost.
Put,	put,	put.

2. Such as have the imperfect tense, and perfect participle, the same: as,

Present.	Imperfect.	Perfect Part.
Abide,	abode,	abode.
Sell,	sell,	sold.

3. Such as have the imperfect tense, and perfect participle, different: as,

Present.	Imperfect.	Perfect Part.
Arise,	arose,	arisen.
Blow,	blew,	blown.

Many verbs become irregular by contraction; as, "feed, fed; leave, left:" others by the termination *en*; as, "fall, fell, fallen:" others by the termination *ght*; as, "buy, bought; teach, taught," &c.

The following list of the irregular verbs will, it is presumed, be found both comprehensive and accurate.

Present.	Imperfect.	Perf. or Pass. Part.
Abide,	abode,	abode.
Am,	was,	been.
Arise,	arose,	arisen.
Awake,	awoke, <i>r.</i>	awaked.

Present	Imperfect.	Perf. or Pass Part.
Bear, <i>to bring forth,</i>	bare,	born.
Bear, <i>to carry,</i>	bore,	borne.
Beat,	beat,	beaten, beat.
Begin,	began,	begun.
Bend,	bent,	bent.
Bereave,	berest, R.	berest, R.
Beseec	besought,	besought.
Bid,	bid, bade,	bidden, bid.
Bind,	bound,	bound.
Bite,	bit,	bitten, bit.
Bleed,	bled,	bled.
Blow,	blew,	blown.
Break,	broke,	broken.
Breed,	bred,	bred.
Bring,	brought,	brought.
Build,	built,	built
Burst,	burst,	burst.
Buy,	bought,	bought.
Cast,	cast,	cast.
Catch,	caught, R.	caught, R.
Chide,	chid,	chidden, chid
Choose,	chose,	chosen.
Cleaye, <i>to stick or</i> <i>adhere,</i>	} REGULAR.	
Cleave, <i>to split,</i>		clove, or cleft,
Cling,	clung,	clung.
Clothe,	clothed,	clad, ' .
Come,	came,	come.
Cost,	cost,	cost.
Crow,	crew, r.	crowed.
Creep,	crept,	crept.
Cut,	cut,	cut.
Dare, <i>to venture,</i>	durst,	dared.
Dare, <i>r. to challenge.</i>		
Deal,	dealt, r.	dealt, r.
Dig,	dug, r.	dug, r.
Do,	did,	done.
Draw,	drew,	drawn.
Drive,	drove,	driven.
Drink,	drank,	drunk.
Dwell,	dwelt, r.	dwelt, r.
Eat,	eat, or ate,	eaten.
Fall,	fell,	fallen.
Feed,	fed,	fed.
Feel,	felt,	felt.
Fight,	fought,	fought.
Find,	found,	found.
Flee,	fled,	fled.
Fling,	flung,	flung.
Fly,	flew,	flown.
Forget,	forgot,	forgotten, forgot.

Present.	Imperfect.	Perf. or Pass. Part.
Forsake,	forsook,	forsaken.
Freeze,	froze,	frozen.
Get,	got,	got.*
Gild,	gilt, r.	gilt, r.
Gird,	girt, r.	girt, r.
Give,	gave,	given.
Go,	went,	gone.
Grave,	graved,	graven, r.
Grind,	ground,	ground.
Grow,	grew,	grown.
Have,	had,	had.
Hang,	hung, r.	hung, r.
Hear,	heard,	heard.
Hew,	hewed,	hewn, r.
Hide,	hid,	hidden, hid.
Hit,	hit,	hit.
Hold,	held,	held
Hurt,	hurt,	hurt.
Keep,	kept,	kept.
Knit,	knit, r.	knit, r.
Know	knew,	known.
Lade,	laded,	laden.
Lay,	laid,	laid.
Lead,	led,	led.
Leave,	left,	left.
Lend,	lent,	lent,
Let,	let,	let.
Lie, to lie down	lay,	lain.
Load,	loaded,	laden, r
Lose,	lost,	lost.
Make,	made,	made.
Meet,	met,	met.
Mow,	mowed,	mown, r.
Pay,	paid,	paid.
Put,	put,	put.
Read,	read,	read.
Rend,	rent,	rent.
Rid,	rid,	rid,
Ride,	rode,	rode, ridden.†
Ring.	rung, rang.	rung.
Rise,	rose,	cisen.
Rive,	rived,	riven
Run,	ran,	run.
Saw,	sawed,	sawn, r.
Say,	said,	said.
See,	saw,	seen,
Seek,	sought,	sought.
Sell,	sold,	sold.

* *Gotten* is nearly obsolete. Its compound *forgotten* is still in good use.

† *Ridden* is nearly obsolete.

Present	Imperfect.	Perf. or Pass. Part.
Send,	sent,	sent.
Set,	set,	set.
Shake,	shook,	shaken.
Shape,	shaped,	shaped, shapén.
Shave,	shaved,	shaven, <i>r.</i>
Shear,	sheared,	shorn.
Shed,	shed,	shed.
Shine,	shone, <i>r.</i>	shone, <i>r.</i>
Show,	showed	shown.
Shoe,	shod,	shod.
Shoot,	shot,	shot.
Shrink	shrunk,	shrunk.
Shred,	shred,	shred.
Shut,	shut,	shut.
Sing,	sung, sang,	sung.
Sink,	sunk, sank,	sunk.
Sit,	sat,	sat.
Slay,	slew,	slain.
Sleep,	slept,	slept.
Slide,	slid,	slidden.
Sling,	slung,	slung.
Slink,	slunk,	slunk.
Slit,	slit, <i>r.</i>	slit, <i>or</i> slitted.
Smite,	smote,	smitten.
Sow,	sowed,	sown, <i>r.</i>
Speak,	spoke,	spoken
Speed,	sped,	sped.
Spend,	spent,	spent,
Spill,	spilt, <i>r.</i>	spilt, <i>r.</i>
Spin,	spun,	spun.
Spit,	spit, spat,	spit, spitten.*
Split,	split,	split.
Spread	spread,	spread.
Spring,	sprung, sprang,	sprung.
Stand,	stood,	stood.
Steal,	stole,	stolen.
Stick,	stuck,	stuck.
Sting,	stung,	stung.
Stink,	stunk,	stunk.
Stride,	strode <i>or</i> strid,	stridden.
Strike,	struck,	struck <i>or</i> stricken.
String,	strung,	strung.
Strive,	strove,	striven.
Strow <i>or</i> strew,	strowed <i>or</i> strewed,	{ strown, strowed } strewed.
Swear,	swore,	sworn.
Sweat,	swet, <i>r.</i>	swet, <i>r.</i>
Swell,	swelled,	swollen; <i>r.</i>
Swim,	swum, swam,	swum.

* Spitten is nearly obsolete.

Present.	Imperfect.	Perf. or Pass. Part
Swing,	swung,	swung.
Take,	took,	taken.
Teach,	taught,	taught
Tear,	tore,	torn.
Tell,	told,	told.
Think,	thought,	thought.
Thrive,	throve, <i>r.</i>	thriven.
Throw,	threw,	thrown.
Thrust,	thrust,	thrust.
Tread,	trod,	trodden.
Wax,	waxed,	waxen, <i>r</i>
Wear,	wore,	worn.
Weave,	wove,	woven
Weep,	wept,	wept.
Win,	won,	won.
Wind,	wound,	wound.
Work,	wrought,	wrought <i>or</i> worked.
Wring,	wrung,	wrung.
Write,	wrote,	written.

In the preceding list, some of the verbs will be found to be conjugated regularly, as well as irregularly; and those which admit of the regular form are marked with an *r*. There is a preference to be given to some of these, which custom and judgment must determine. Those preterits and participles which are first mentioned in the list, seem to be most eligible. The Compiler has not inserted such verbs as are irregular only in familiar writing or discourse, and which are improperly terminated by *t*, instead of *ed*: as, learnt, spelt, spilt, &c. These should be avoided in every sort of composition. It is, however, proper to observe, that some contractions of *ed* into *t*, are unexceptionable: and others, the only established forms of expression: as crept, gilt, &c.: and lost, felt, slept, &c. These allowable and necessary contractions must therefore be carefully distinguished by the learner, from those that are exceptionable. The words which are obsolete have also been omitted, that the learner might not be induced to mistake them for words in present use. Such are, wreathen, drunken, holpen, molten, gotten, holden, bounden, &c.: and swang, wrang, slank, strawed, gat, brake, tare, ware, &c.

SECTION 11. *Of Defective Verbs; and of the different ways in which verbs are conjugated.*

DEFECTIVE VERBS are those which are used only in some of their moods and tenses.

The principal of them are these.

Present.	Imperfect.	Perf. or Pass. Part
Can,	could,	_____
May,	might,	_____
Shall,	should,	_____
Will,	would,	_____
Must,	must,	_____
Ought,	ought,	_____
_____	quoth,	_____

That the verbs *must* and *ought* have both a present and past signification, appears from the following sentences: "I must own that I am to blame;" "He must have been mistaken;" "Speaking things which they ought not;" "These ought ye to have done."

In most languages there are some verbs which are defective with respect to persons. These are denominated *impersonal* verbs. They are used only in the third person; because they refer to a subject peculiarly appropriated to that person; as, "It rains, it snows, it hails, it lightens, it thunders." But as the word *impersonal* implies a total absence of persons, it is improperly applied to those verbs which have a person: and hence it is manifest, that there is no such thing in English, nor indeed, in any language, as a sort of verbs really impersonal.

The whole number of verbs in the English language, regular and irregular, simple and compounded; taken together, is about 4300. The number of irregular verbs, the defective included, is about 177.*

Some Grammarians have thought that the English verbs, as well as those of the Greek, Latin, French, and other languages, might be classed into several conjugations; and that the three different terminations of the participle might be the distinguishing characteristics. They have accordingly proposed three conjugations; namely, the first to consist of verbs, the participles of which end in *ed*, or its contraction *t*; the second, of those ending in *ght*; and the third of those in *en*. But as the verbs of the first conjugation, would so greatly exceed in number those of both the others, as may be seen by the preceding account of them; and as those of the third conjugation are so various in their form, and incapable of being reduced to one plain rule; it seems better in practice, as Dr. Lowth justly observes, to consider the first in *ed* as the only regular form, and the other as deviations from it; after the example of the Saxon and German Grammarians.

* The whole number of words, in the English language, is about thirty-five thousand.

Before we close the account of the verbs, it may afford instruction to the learners, to be informed, more particularly than they have been, that different nations have made use of different contrivances for marking the tenses and moods of their verbs. The Greeks and Latins distinguish them, as well as the cases of their nouns, adjectives, and participles, by varying the termination, or otherwise changing the form of the word; retaining, however, those radical letters, which prove the inflection to be of the same kindred with its root. The modern tongues, particularly the English, abound in auxiliary words, which vary the meaning of the noun, or the verb, without requiring any considerable varieties of inflection. Thus, *I do love, I did love, I have loved, I had loved, I shall love,* have the same import with *amo, amabam, amavi, amaveram amabo.* It is obvious, that a language, like the Greek and Latin, which can thus comprehend in one word the meaning of two or three words, must have some advantages over those which are not so comprehensive. Perhaps, indeed, it may not be more perspicuous; but, in the arrangement of words, and consequently in harmony and energy, as well as in conciseness, it may be much more elegant.

CHAPTER VII.

Of Adverbs.

AN Adverb is a part of speech joined to a verb, an adjective, and sometimes to another adverb, to express some quality or circumstance respecting it: as, "He reads *well*;" "A *truly* good man;" "He writes *very correctly*."

Some adverbs are compared, thus; "Soon, sooner, soonest;" "often, oftener, oftenest." Those ending in *ly*, are compared by *more* and *most*: as, "Wisely, more wisely, most wisely."

Adverbs seem originally to have been contrived to express compendiously in one word, what must otherwise have required two or more: as, "He acted wisely," for, he acted with wisdom; "prudently," for with prudence; "He did it here," for, he did it in this place; "exceedingly," for, to a great degree; "often and seldom," for many, and for few times; "very," for, in an eminent degree, &c.

There are many words in the English language that are sometimes used as adjectives, and sometimes as adverbs: as, "More men than women were there;" or, "I am more diligent than he." In the former sentence *more* is evidently an adjective, and in the latter, an adverb. There are others that are sometimes used as substantives, and sometimes as ad-



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9. Of *negation*: as, "Nay, no, not, by no means, not at all, in no wise," &c.

10. Of *interrogation*: as, "How, why, wherefore, whether," &c.

11. Of *comparison*: as, "More, most, better, best, worse, worst, less, least, very, almost, little, alike," &c.

Besides the adverbs already mentioned, there are many which are formed by a combination of several of the prepositions with the adverbs of place *here, there, and where*: as, "Hereof, thereof, whereof; hereto, thereto, whereto; hereby, thereby, whereby; herewith, therewith, wherewith; herein, therein, wherein; therefore, (i. e. there for,) wherefore, (i. e. where for,) hereupon or hereon, thereupon or thereon, whereupon or whereon, &c. Except *therefore*, these are seldom used.

In some instances the preposition suffers no change, but becomes an adverb merely by its application: as when we say, "he rides *about*;" "he was *near* falling;" "but do not *after* lay the blame on me."

There are also some adverbs, which are composed of nouns, and the letter *a* used instead of *at, on, &c.*: as, "Aside, athirst, afoot, ahead, asleep, aboard, ashore, abed, aground, afloat," &c.

The words *when* and *where*, and all others of the same nature, such as, *whence, whither, whenever, wherever, &c.* may be properly called *adverbial conjunctions*, because they participate the nature both of adverbs and conjunctions: of conjunctions, as they conjoin sentences; of adverbs, as they denote the attributes either of *time* or of *place*.

It may be particularly observed with respect to the word *therefore*, that it is an adverb, when, without joining sentences, it only gives the sense of, *for that reason*. When it gives that sense, and also connects, it is a conjunction: as, "He is good, *therefore* he is happy." The same observation may be extended to the words *consequently, accordingly, and the like*. When these are subjoined to *and*, or joined to *if, since, &c.* they are adverbs, the connexion being made without their help: when they appear single, and unsupported by any other connective, they may be called conjunctions.

The inquisitive scholar may naturally ask, what necessity there is for *adverbs of time*, when verbs are provided with *tenses*, to show that circumstance. The answer is, though tenses may be sufficient to denote the greater distinctions of time, yet, to denote them all by the tenses would be a perplexity without end. What a variety of forms must be given to the verb, to denote *yesterday, to-day, to-morrow, formerly,*

lately, just now, now, immediately, presently, soon, hereafter, &c. It was this consideration that made the adverbs of time necessary, over and above, the tenses.

CHAPTER VIII.

Of Prepositions.

PREPOSITIONS serve to connect words with one another, and to show the relation between them. They are, for the most part, put before nouns and pronouns, as, “He went *from* London *to* York;” “She is *above* disguise;” “They are instructed *by* him.”

The following is a list of the principal prepositions :

Of	into	above	at	off
to	within	below	near	on <i>or</i> upon
for	without	between	up	among
by	over	beneath	down	after
with	under	from	before	about
in	through	beyond	behind	against

Verbs are often compounded of a verb and a preposition as, to uphold, to invest, to overlook: and this composition sometimes gives a new sense to the verb; as, to understand, to withdraw, to forgive. But in English, the preposition is more frequently placed after the verb, and separately from it, like an adverb, in which situation it is not less apt to affect the sense of it, and to give it a new meaning; and may still be considered as belonging to the verb, and as a part of it. As, *to cast*, is to throw; but *to cast up*, or to compute, *an account*, is quite a different thing: thus, to fall on, to bear out, to give over, &c. So that the meaning of the verb, and the propriety of the phrase, depend on the preposition subjoined.

In the composition of many words, there are certain syllables employed, which Grammarians have called inseparable prepositions: as, *be, con, mis, &c.* in *bedeck, conjoin, mistake*,: but as they are not words of any kind, they cannot properly be called a species of preposition.

One great use of prepositions, in English, is, to express those relations, which, in some languages, are chiefly marked by cases, or the different endings of nouns. See page 38. The necessity and use of them will appear from the following examples. If we say, “he writes a pen,” “they ran the river,” “the tower fell the Greeks,” “Lambeth is Westminster-abbey,” there is observable, in each of these expressions, either a total want of connexion, or such a connexion as produces falsehood or nonsense: and it is evident, that, before they can be turned into sense, the vacancy must be filled

up by some connecting word: as thus, "He writes *with* a pen;" "they ran *towards* the river;" "the tower fell *upon* the Greeks;" "Lambeth is *over against* Westminster-abbey." We see by these instances, how prepositions may be necessary to connect those words, which in their signification are not naturally connected.

Prepositions, in their original and literal acceptation, seem to have denoted relations of place; but they are now used *figuratively* to express other relations. For example, as they who are *above* have in several respects the advantage of such as are *below*, prepositions expressing high and low places are used for superiority and inferiority in general: as, "He is *above* disguise;" "we serve *under* a good master;" "he rules *over* a willing people;" "we should do nothing *beneath* our character."

The importance of the prepositions will be further perceived by the explanation of a few of them.

Of denotes possession or belonging, an effect or consequence, and other relations connected with these: as, "The house *of* my friend;" that is, "the house ¹belonging to my friend;" "He died *of* a fever;" that is, "in consequence of a fever."

To, or *unto*, is opposed to *from*; as, "He rode from Salisbury *to* Winchester."

For indicates the cause or motive of any action or circumstance, &c. as, "He loves her *for* (that is, on account of) her amiable qualities."

By is generally used with reference to the cause, agent, means, &c.; as, "He was killed *by* a fall:" that is, "a fall was the cause of his being killed;" "This house was built *by* him;" that is, "he was the builder of it."

With denotes the act of accompanying, uniting, &c.: as, "We will go *with* you;" "They are on good terms *with* each other."—*With* also alludes to the instrument or means; as, "He was cut *with* a knife."

In relates to time, place, the state or manner of being or acting, &c.: as, "He was born *in* (that is, during) the year 1720;" "He dwells *in* the city;" "She lives *in* affluence."

Into is used after verbs that imply motion of any kind: as, "He retired *into* the country;" "Copper is converted *into* brass."

Within, relates to something comprehended in any place or time: as, "They are *within* the house;" "He began and finished his work *within* the limited time."

The signification of *without* is opposite to that of *within*.

as, "She stands *without* the gate:" But it is more frequently opposed to *with*; as, "You may go *without* me."

The import and force of the remaining prepositions will be readily understood, without a particular detail of them. We shall, therefore, conclude this head with observing, that there is a peculiar propriety in distinguishing the use of the prepositions *by* and *with*; which is observable in sentences like the following: "He walks *with* a staff *by* moonlight;" "He was taken *by* stratagem, and killed *with* a sword." Put the one preposition for the other, and say, "he walks *by* a staff *with* moonlight;" "he was taken *with* stratagem, and killed *by* a sword;" and it will appear, that they differ in signification more than one, at first view, would be apt to imagine.

Some of the prepositions have the appearance and effect of conjunctions; as, "*After* their prisons were thrown open," &c. "*Before* I die;" "They made haste to be prepared *against* their friends arrived:" but if the noun *time*, which is understood, be added, they will lose their conjunctive form; as, "After [the time when] their prisons," &c.

The prepositions *after*, *before*, *above*, *beneath*, and several others, sometimes appear to be adverbs, and may be so considered: as, "They had their reward soon *after*;" "He died not long *before*;" "He dwells *above*:" but if the nouns *time* and *place* be added, they will lose their adverbial form; as, "He died not long *before that time*," &c.

CHAPTER IX.

Of Conjunctions.

A CONJUNCTION is a part of speech that is chiefly used to connect sentences; so as, out of two or more sentences, to make but one. It sometimes connects only words.

Conjunctions are principally divided into two sorts, the COPULATIVE and the DISJUNCTIVE.

The Conjunction Copulative serves to connect or to continue a sentence, by expressing an addition, a supposition, a cause, &c.: as, "He *and* his brother reside in London;" "I will go *if* he will accompany me:" "You are happy, *because* you are good."

The Conjunction Disjunctive serves, not only to connect and continue the sentence, but also to express opposition of meaning in different degrees: as, "*Though* he was frequently reprov'd, *yet* he did not reform;" "They came with her, *but* they went away without her."

The following is a list of the principal Conjunctions.

The *Copulative*. And, if, that, both, then, since, for, because, therefore, wherefore.

The *Disjunctive*. But, or, nor, as, than, lest, though, unless, either, neither, yet, notwithstanding.

The same word is occasionally used both as a conjunction and as an adverb; and sometimes, as a preposition. "I rest *then* upon this argument;" *then* is here a conjunction: in the following phrase, it is an adverb; "He arrived *then*, and not before." "I submitted; *for* it was vain to resist:" in this sentence, *for* is a conjunction; in the next, it is a preposition "He contended *for* victory only." In the first of the following sentences *since* is a conjunction; in the second, it is a preposition; and in the third, an adverb: "Since we must part, let us do it peaceably:" "I have not seen him *since* that time:" "Our friendship commenced long *since*."

Relative pronouns as well as conjunctions, serve to connect sentences: as, "Blessed is the man *who* feareth the Lord, *and* keepeth his commandments."

A relative pronoun possesses the force both of a pronoun and a connective. Nay, the union by relatives is rather closer, than that by mere conjunctions. The latter may form two or more sentences into one; but, by the former, several sentences may incorporate in one and the same *clause* of a sentence. Thus, "thou seest a man, *and* he is called Peter," is a sentence consisting of two distinct clauses, united by the copulative *and*: but, "the man *whom* thou seest is called Peter," is a sentence of one clause, and not less comprehensive than the other.

Conjunctions very often unite sentences, when they appear to unite only words; as in the following instances: "Duty *and* interest forbid vicious indulgences;" "Wisdom *or* folly governs us." Each of these forms of expression contains two sentences, namely; "Duty forbids vicious indulgences; interest forbids vicious indulgences;" "Wisdom governs us, or folly governs us."

Though the conjunction is commonly used to connect sentences together, yet, on some occasions, it merely connects words, not sentences; as, "The king *and* queen are an amiable pair;" where the affirmation cannot refer to each; it being absurd to say, that the *king* or the *queen* only is an amiable pair. So in the instances, "two *and* two are four;" "the fifth *and* sixth volumes will complete the set of books." Prepositions also, as before observed, connect words; but they do it to show the relation which the connected words have to each other: conjunctions, when they unite words

only, are designed to show the relations, which those words, so united, have to other parts of the sentence.

As there are many conjunctions and connective phrases appropriated to the coupling of sentences, that are never employed in joining the members of a sentence ; so there are several conjunctions appropriated to the latter use, which are never employed in the former ; and some that are equally adapted to both those purposes : *as, again, further, besides, &c.* of the first kind ; *than, lest, unless, that, so that, &c.* of the second ; and *but, and, for, therefore, &c.* of the last.

We shall close this chapter with a few observations on the peculiar use and advantage of the conjunctions ; a subject which will, doubtless, give pleasure to the ingenious student, and expand his views of the importance of his grammatical studies.

“Relatives are not so useful in language, as conjunctions. The former make speech more concise ; the latter make it more explicit. Relatives comprehend the meaning of a pronoun and conjunction *copulative* : conjunctions, while they *couple* sentences, may also express opposition, inference, and many other relations and dependences.

Till men began to think in a train, and to carry their reasonings to a considerable length, it is not probable that they would make much use of conjunctions, or of any other connectives. Ignorant people, and children, generally speak in short and separate sentences. The same thing is true of barbarous nations : and hence uncultivated languages are not well supplied with connecting particles. The Greeks were the greatest reasoners that ever appeared in the world ; and their language, accordingly, abounds more than any other in connectives.

Conjunctions are not equally necessary in all sorts of writing. In poetry, where great conciseness of phrase is required, and every appearance of formality avoided, many of them would have a bad effect. In passionate language too, it may be proper to omit them : because it is the nature of violent passion, to speak rather in disjointed sentences, than in the way of inference and argument. Books of aphorisms, like the Proverbs of Solomon, have few connectives ; because they instruct, not by reasoning, but in detached observations. And narrative will sometimes appear very graceful, when the circumstances are plainly told, with scarcely any other conjunction than the simple copulative *and* : which is frequently the case in the historical parts of Scripture. When narration is full of images or events, the omission of connectives may, by crowding the principal words upon one

another, give a sort of picture of hurry and tumult, and so heighten the vivacity of description. But when facts are to be traced down through their consequences, or upwards to their causes; when the complicated designs of mankind are to be laid open, or conjectures offered concerning them; when the historian argues either for the elucidation of truth, or in order to state the pleas and principles of contending parties; there will be occasion for every species of connective, as much as in philosophy itself. In fact, it is in argument, investigation, and science, that this part of speech is peculiarly and indispensably necessary.”

CHAPTER X.

Of Interjections.

INTERJECTIONS are words thrown in between the parts of a sentence, to express the passions or emotions of the speaker: as, “Oh! I have alienated my friend; alas! I fear for life:” “O virtue! how amiable thou art!”

The English Interjections, as well as those of other languages, are comprised within a small compass. They are of different sorts, according to the different passions which they serve to express. Those which intimate earnestness or grief, are, *O! oh! ah! alas!* Such as are expressive of contempt, are *pish! tush!* of wonder, *heigh! really! strange!* of calling, *hem! ho! soho!* of aversion or disgust, *foh! fie! away!* of a call of the attention, *lo! behold! hark!* of requesting silence, *hush! hist!* of salutation, *welcome! hail! all hail!* Besides these, several others, frequent in the mouths of the multitude, might be enumerated; but in a grammar of a cultivated tongue, it is unnecessary to expatiate on such expressions of passion, as are scarcely worthy of being ranked among the branches of artificial language.—See the *Octavo Grammar*.

CHAPTER XI.

Of Derivation.

SECTION 1. *Of the various ways in which words are derived from one another.*

HAVING treated of the different sorts of words, and their various modifications, which is the first part of Etymology, it is now proper to explain the methods by which one word is derived from another.

Words are derived from one another in various ways; *vis*



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added to substantives, it signifies similitude or tendency to a character : as, "Child, childish ; thief, thievish."

Some adjectives are formed from substantives or verbs, by adding the termination *able* ; and those adjectives signify capacity : as, "Answer, answerable ; to change, changeable."

4. Substantives are derived from adjectives, sometimes by adding the termination *ness* : as, "White, whiteness ; swift, swiftness : " sometimes by adding *th* or *t*, and making a small change in some of the letters : as, "Long, length ; high, height."

5. Adverbs of quality are derived from adjectives, by adding *ly*, or changing *le* into *ly* ; and denote the same quality as the adjectives from which they are derived : as, from "base," comes "basely ;" from "slow, slowly ;" from "able, ably."

There are so many other ways of deriving words from one another, that it would be extremely difficult, and nearly impossible, to enumerate them. The primitive words of any language are very few ; the derivatives form much the greater number. A few more instances only can be given here.

Some substantives are derived from other substantives, by adding the terminations *hood* or *head*, *ship*, *ery*, *wick*, *rick*, *dom*, *ian*, *ment*, and *age*.

Substantives ending in *hood* or *head*, are such as signify character or qualities : as, "Manhood, knighthood, falsehood," &c.

Substantives ending in *ship*, are those that signify office, employment, state, or condition : as, "Lordship, stewardship, partnership," &c. Some substantives in *ship*, are derived from adjectives : as, "Hard, hardship," &c.

Substantives which end in *ery*, signify action or habit : as, "Slavery, foolery, prudery," &c. Some substantives of this sort come from adjectives ; as, "Brave, bravery," &c.

Substantives ending in *wick*, *rick*, and *dom*, denote dominion, jurisdiction or condition : as, "Bailiwick, bishoprick, kingdom, dukedom, freedom," &c.

Substantives which end in *ian*, are those that signify profession ; as, "Physician, musician," &c. Those that end in *ment* and *age*, come generally from the French, and commonly signify the act or habit : as, "Commandment, usage."

Some substantives ending in *ard*, are derived from verbs or adjectives, and denote character or habit : as, "Drunk, drunkard ; dote, dotard."

Some substantives have the form of diminutives ; but these are not many. They are formed by adding the termin-

ations, *kin, ling, ing, ock, el*, and the like : as, “Lamb, lambkin ; goose, gosling : duck, duckling ; hill, hillock ; cock, cockerel,” &c.

That part of derivation which consists in tracing English words to the Saxon, Greek, Latin, French, and other languages, must be omitted, as the English scholar is not supposed to be acquainted with these languages. The best English dictionaries will, however, furnish some information on this head, to those who are desirous of obtaining it. The learned Horne Tooke, in his “*Diversions of Purley*,” has given an ingenious account of the derivation and meaning of many of the adverbs, conjunctions, and prepositions.

It is highly probable that the system of this acute grammarian, is founded in truth ; and that adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions, are corruptions or abbreviations of other parts of speech. But as many of them are derived from obsolete words in our own language, or from words in kindred languages, the radical meaning of which is, therefore, either obscure, or generally unknown ; as the system of this very able etymologist is not universally admitted ; and as, by long prescription, whatever may have been their origin, the words in question appear to have acquired a title to the rank of distinct species ; it seems proper to consider them as such, in an elementary treatise of grammar : especially as this plan coincides with that, by which other languages must be taught ; and will render the study of them less intricate. It is of small moment, by what names and classification we distinguish these words, provided their meaning and use are well understood. A philosophical consideration of the subject, may, with great propriety, be entered upon by the grammatical student, when his knowledge and judgment become more improved.

SECTION 2. *A sketch of the steps, by which the English Language has risen to its present state of refinement.*

BEFORE we conclude the subject of derivation, it will probably be gratifying to the curious scholar, to be informed of some particulars respecting the origin of the English language, and the various nations to which it is indebted for the copiousness, elegance, and refinement, which it has now attained.

“When the ancient Britons were so harrassed and oppressed by the invasions of their northern neighbours, the Scots and Picts, that their situation was truly miserable, they sent an embassy (about the middle of the fifth century) to the Saxons, a warlike people inhabiting the north of Germany,

with solicitations for speedy relief. The Saxons accordingly came over to Britain, and were successful in repelling the incursions of the Scots and Picts; but seeing the weak and defenceless state of the Britons, they resolved to take advantage of it; and at length established themselves in the greater part of South-Britain, after having dispossessed the original inhabitants.

“From these barbarians, who founded several petty kingdoms in this island, and introduced their own laws, language, and manners, is derived the groundwork of the English language; which, even in its present state of cultivation, and notwithstanding the successive augmentations and improvements, which it has received through various channels, displays very conspicuous traces of its Saxon original.

“The Saxons did not long remain in quiet possession of the kingdom; for before the middle of the ninth century, the Danes, a hardy and adventurous nation, who had long infested the northern seas with their piracies, began to ravage the English coasts. Their first attempts were, in general, attended with such success, that they were encouraged to a renewal of their ravages; till, at length, in the beginning of the eleventh century, they made themselves masters of the greater part of England.

“Though the period, during which these invaders occupied the English throne, was very short, not greatly exceeding half a century, it is highly probable that some change was introduced by them into the language spoken by those, whom they had subdued: but this change cannot be supposed to have been very considerable, as the Danish and Saxon languages arose from one common source, the Gothic being the parent of both.

“The next conquerors of this kingdom, after the Danes, were the Normans, who, in the year 1066, introduced their leader William to the possession of the English throne. This prince, soon after his accession, endeavoured to bring his own language (the Norman-French) into use among his new subjects; but his efforts were not very successful, as the Saxons entertained a great antipathy to these haughty foreigners. In process of time, however, many Norman words and phrases were incorporated into the Saxon language: but its general form and construction still remained the same.

“From the Conquest to the Reformation, the language continued to receive occasional accessions of foreign words, till it acquired such a degree of copiousness and strength, as to render it susceptible of that polish, which it has received from writers of taste and genius, in the last and present cen-



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An explicative sentence is when a thing is said to be or not to be, to do or not to do, to suffer or not to suffer, in a direct manner: as, "I am; thou writest; Thomas is loved." If the sentence be negative, the adverb *not* is placed after the auxiliary, or after the verb itself when it has no auxiliary: as, "I did not touch him;" or, "I touched him not."

In an interrogative sentence, or when a question is asked, the nominative case follows the principal verb or the auxiliary: as, "Was it he?" "Did Alexander conquer the Persians?"

In an imperative sentence, when a thing is commanded to be, to do, to suffer, or not, the nominative case likewise follows the verb or the auxiliary: as, "Go, thou traitor!" "Do thou go:" "Haste ye away:" unless the verb *let* be used; as, "Let us be gone."

A phrase is two or more words rightly put together, making sometimes part of a sentence, and sometimes a whole sentence.

The principal parts of a simple sentence are, the subject, the attribute, and the object.

The subject is the thing chiefly spoken of: the attribute is the thing or action affirmed or denied of it; and the object is the thing affected by such action.

The nominative denotes the subject, and usually goes before the verb or attribute; and the word or phrase, denoting the object, follows the verb; as, "A wise man governs his passions." Here, *a wise man* is the subject; *governs*, the attribute, or thing affirmed; and *his passions*, the object.

Syntax principally consists of two parts, *Concord* and *Government*.

Concord is the agreement which one word has with another, in gender, number, case, or person.

Government is that power which one part of speech has over another, in directing its mood, tense, or case.

To produce the agreement and right disposition of words in a sentence, the following rules and observations should be carefully studied.

RULE I.

A Verb must agree with its nominative case, in number and person: as, "I learn;" "Thou art improved." "The birds sing."

The following are a few instances of the violation of this rule. "What signifies good opinions, when our practice is bad?" "what *signify*." "There's two or three of us, who have seen the work:" "there *are*." "We may suppose there was more impostors than one:" "there *were* more." "I have considered what have been said on both sides in this controversy:" "what *has* been said." "If thou would be healthy, live temperately:" "if thou *wouldst*." "Thou sees how little has been done:" "thou *seest*." "Though thou cannot do much for the cause, thou may and should do something:" "*canst not, mayst, and shouldst*." "Full many a flower are born to blush unseen:" "*is* born." "A conformity of inclinations and qualities prepare us for friendship:" "*prepares* us." "A variety of blessings have been conferred upon us:" "*has* been." "In piety and virtue consists the happiness of man:" "*consists*." "To these precepts are subjoined a copious selection of rules and maxims:" "*is* subjoined."

* 1. The infinitive mood, or part of a sentence, is sometimes put as the nominative case to the verb: as, "To see the sun *is* pleasant;" "To be good *is* to be happy;" "A desire to excel others in learning and virtue *is* commendable;" "That warm climates should accelerate the growth of the human body, and shorten its duration, *is* very reasonable to believe;" "To be temperate in eating and drinking, to use exercise in the open air, and to preserve the mind free from tumultuous emotions, *are* the best preservatives of health."

2. Every verb, except in the infinitive mood, or the participle, ought to have a nominative case, either expressed or implied: as, "Awake; arise;" that is, "Awake ye; arise ye."

We shall here add some examples of inaccuracy, in the use of the verb without its nominative case. "As it hath pleased him of his goodness to give you safe deliverance, and hath preserved you in the great danger," &c. The verb "*hath preserved*," has here no nominative case, for it cannot be properly supplied by the preceding word, "*him*," which is in the objective case. It ought to be, "and as *he hath preserved* you;" or rather, "and *to preserve* you." "If the calm in which he was born, and lasted so long, had continued;" "and *which* lasted," &c. "These we have extracted from an historian of undoubted credit, and are the same that were practised," &c.; "and *they are* the same." "A man whose inclinations led him to be corrupt, and had great abilities to

* The chief practical notes under each Rule, are regularly numbered, in order to make them correspond to the examples in the volume of Exercises.

manage the business ;” “ and *who* had,” &c. “ A cloud gathering in the north ; which we have helped to raise, and may quickly break in a storm upon our heads ;” “ and *which* may quickly.”

3. Every nominative case, except the case absolute, and when an address is made to a person, should belong to some verb, either expressed or implied : as, “ Who wrote this book ?” “ James ;” that is, “ James wrote it.” “ To whom thus Adam,” that is, “ spoke.”

One or two instances of the improper use of the nominative case, without any verb, expressed or implied, to answer it, may be sufficient to illustrate the usefulness of the preceding observation.

“ *Which* rule, if it had been observed, a neighbouring prince would have wanted a great deal of that incense which hath been offered up to him.” The pronoun *it* is here the nominative case to the verb “ observed ;” and *which* rule, is left by itself, a nominative case without any verb following it. This form of expression, though improper, is very common. It ought to be, “ *If this* rule had been observed,” &c. “ *Man*, though he has great variety of thoughts, and such from which others as well as himself might receive profit and delight, yet they are all within his own breast.” In this sentence, the nominative *man* stands alone and unconnected with any verb, either expressed or implied. It should be, “ *Though man* has great variety,” &c.

4. When a verb comes between two nouns, either of which may be understood as the subject of the affirmation, it may agree with either of them : but some regard must be had to that which is more naturally the subject of it, as also to that which stands next to the verb : as, “ His meat *was* locusts and wild honey ;” “ A great cause of the low state of industry *were*, the restraints put upon it ;” “ The wages of sin *is* death.”

5. When the nominative case has no personal tense of a verb, but is put before a participle, independently on the rest of the sentence, it is called the case absolute : as, “ Shame being lost, all virtue is lost ;” “ That having been discussed long ago, there is no occasion to resume it.”

As in the use of the case absolute, the case is, in English, always the nominative, the following example is erroneous, in making it the objective. “ Solomon was of this mind ; and I have no doubt he made as wise and true proverbs, as any body has done since ; *him* only excepted, who was a much greater and wiser man than Solomon.” It should be, “ *he* only excepted.”



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following are nearly the arguments which were advanced ;” “The arguments advanced were nearly those which follow :” “It appears that the positions were incontrovertible ;” “That the positions were incontrovertible is apparent ;” “The positions were apparently incontrovertible.” See the Octavo Grammar ; the note under Rule I.

RULE II.

Two or more nouns, &c. in the singular number, joined together by a copulative conjunction, expressed or understood, must have verbs, nouns, and pronouns, agreeing with them in the plural number : as, “Socrates and Plato *were* wise : *they* were the most eminent philosophers of Greece :” “The sun that rolls over our heads, the food that we receive, the rest that we enjoy, daily *admonish* us of a superior and superintending Power.” †

This rule is often violated ; some instances of which are annexed. “And so was also James and John the sons of Zebedee, who were partners with Simon ;” “and so *were* also.” “All joy, tranquillity, and peace, even for ever and ever, doth dwell ;” “*dwell* for ever.” “By whose power all good and evil is distributed ;” “*are* distributed.” “Their love, and their hatred, and their envy, is now perished ;” “*are* perished.” “The thoughtless and intemperate enjoyment of pleasure, the criminal abuse of it, and the forgetfulness of our being accountable creatures, obliterates every serious thought of the proper business of life, and effaces the sense of religion and of God ;” It ought to be, “*obliterate*,” and “*efface*.”

1. When the nouns are nearly related, or scarcely distinguishable in sense, and sometimes even when they are very different, some authors have thought it allowable to put the verbs, nouns, and pronouns, in the singular number : as, “Tranquillity and peace *dwells* there ;” “Ignorance and negligence has produced the effect ;” “The discomfiture and slaughter *was* very great.” But it is evidently contrary to the first principles of grammar, to consider two distinct ideas as one, however nice may be their shades of difference : and if there be no difference, one of them must be superfluous, and ought to be rejected.

To support the above construction, it is said, that the verb may be understood as applied to each of the preceding terms ; as in the following example. “Sand, and salt, and a mass of iron, *is* easier to bear than a man without understanding.” But besides the confusion, and the latitude of application,

† See the exceptions to this rule, at p. 46 of the *Key* ; 12th edition.

which such a construction would introduce, it appears to be more proper and analogical, in cases where the verb is intended to be applied to any one of the terms, to make use of the disjunctive conjunction, which grammatically refers the verb to one or other of the preceding terms in a separate view. To preserve the distinctive uses of the copulative and disjunctive conjunctions, would render the rules precise, consistent, and intelligible. Dr. Blair very justly observes, that “two or more substantives, joined by a copulative, must *always* require the verb or pronoun to which they refer, to be placed in the plural number.”

2. In many complex sentences, it is difficult for learners to determine, whether one or more of the clauses are to be considered as the nominative case; and consequently, whether the verb should be in the singular or the plural number. We shall, therefore, set down a number of varied examples of this nature, which may serve as some government to the scholar, with respect to sentences of a similar construction. “Prosperity with humility, *renders* its possessor truly amiable.” “The ship, with all her furniture, *was* destroyed.” “Not only his estate, his reputation too *has* suffered by his misconduct.” “The general also, in conjunction with the officers, *has* applied for redress.” “He cannot be justified; for it is true, that the prince, as well as the people, *was* blameworthy.” “The king, with his life-guard, *has* just passed through the village.” “In the mutual influence of body and soul, there *is* a wisdom, a wonderful wisdom, which we cannot fathom.” “Virtue, honour, nay, even self-interest, *conspire* to recommend the measure.” “Patriotism, morality, every public and private consideration, *demand* our submission to just and lawful government.” “Nothing *delights* me so much as the works of nature.”

In support of such forms of expression as the following, we see the authority of Hume, Priestley, and other writers; and we annex them for the reader's consideration. “A long course of time, with a variety of accidents and circumstances, *are* requisite to produce those revolutions.” “The king, with the lords and commons, *form* an excellent frame of government.” “The side A, with the sides B and C, *compose* the triangle.” “The fire communicated itself to the bed, which, with the furniture of the room, and a valuable library, *were* all entirely consumed.” It is, however, proper to observe, that these modes of expression do not appear to be warranted by the just principles of construction. The words, “A long course of time,” “The king,” “The side A,” and “which,” are the true nominatives to the respective verbs

In the last example, the word *all* should be expunged. As the preposition *with* governs the *objective* case in English; and, if translated into Latin, would govern the *ablative* case, it is manifest, that the clauses following *with*, in the preceding sentences, cannot form any part of the *nominative* case. They cannot be at the same time in the objective and the nominative cases. The following sentence appears to be unexceptionable; and may serve to explain the others. "The lords and commons are essential branches of the British constitution: the king, with them, *forms* an excellent frame of government." *

3. If the singular nouns and pronouns, which are joined together by a copulative conjunction, be of several persons, in making the plural pronoun agree with them in person, the second person takes place of the third, and the first of both: as, "James, and thou, and I, *are* attached to *our* country." "Thou and he shared it between *you*." *

RULE III.

The conjunction disjunctive has an effect contrary to that of the conjunction copulative; for as the verb, noun, or pronoun, is referred to the preceding terms taken separately, it must be in the singular number: as, "Ignorance or negligence *has* caused this mistake;" "John, James, or Joseph, *intends* to accompany me;" "There *is*, in many minds, neither knowledge nor understanding."

The following sentences are variations from this rule: "A man may see a metaphor or an allegory in a picture, as well as read them in a description;" "read *it*." "Neither character nor dialogue were yet understood;" "*was* yet." "It must indeed be confessed, that a lampoon or a satire do not carry in them robbery or murder;" "*does* not carry in *it*." "Death, or some worse misfortune, soon divide them." It ought to be "*divides*."

1. When singular pronouns, or a noun and pronoun, of different persons, are disjunctively connected, the verb must agree with that person which is placed nearest to it: as, "I or thou *art* to blame;" "Thou or I *am* in fault;" "I, or thou, or he, *is* the author of it;" "George or I *am* the person." But it would be better to say; "Either I am to blame, or thou art," &c.

2. When a disjunctive occurs between a singular noun, or

* Though the construction will not admit of a plural verb, the sentence would certainly stand better thus: "The king, the lords, and the commons, *form* an excellent constitution."



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I hate ;” “ The king and the queen had put on *their* robes ;” “ The moon appears, and *she* shines, but the light is not *her* own.”

The relative is of the same person as the antecedent, and the verb agrees with it accordingly : as, “ Thou *who* lovest wisdom ;” “ I *who* speak from experience.”

Of this rule there are many violations to be met with ; a few of which may be sufficient to put the learner on his guard. “ Each of the sexes should keep within *its* particular bounds, and content *themselves* with the advantages of *their* particular districts ;” better thus : “ The sexes should keep within *their* particular bounds,” &c. “ Can any one, on their entrance into the world, be fully secure that they shall not be deceived ?” “ on *his* entrance,” and “ that *he* shall.” “ One should not think too favourably of ourselves ;” “ of *one's self*.” “ He had one acquaintance which poisoned his principles ;” “ *who* poisoned.”

Every relative must have an antecedent to which it refers, either expressed or implied : as, “ Who is fatal to others is so to himself ;” that is, “ *the man who* is fatal to others.”

Who, *which*, *what*, and the relative *that*, though in the objective case, are always placed before the verb ; as are also their compounds, *whoever*, *whosoever*, &c. ; as, “ He whom ye seek ;” “ This is what, of the thing which, or that you want ;” “ Whomsoever you please to appoint.”

What is sometimes applied, in a manner which appears to be exceptionable : as, “ All fevers, except what are called nervous,” &c. It would at least be better to say, “ except *those which* are called nervous.”

1. Personal pronouns being used to supply the place of the noun, are not employed in the same part of a sentence as the noun which they represent ; for it would be improper to say, “ The king *he* is just ;” “ I saw *her* the queen ;” “ The men *they* were there ;” “ Many words *they* darken speech ;” “ My banks *they* are furnished with bees.” These personals are superfluous, as there is not the least occasion for a substitute in the same part where the principal word is present. The nominative case *they*, in the following sentence, is also superfluous ; “ Who, instead of going about doing good, *they* are perpetually intent upon doing mischief.”

2. The pronoun *that* is frequently applied to persons as well as to things ; but after an adjective in the superlative degree, and after the pronominal adjective *same*, it is generally used in preference to *who* or *which* : as, “ Charles XII. king of Sweden. was one of the greatest madmen *that* the world

ever saw ;” “Catiline’s followers were the most profligate *that* could be found in any city.” “He is the same man *that* we saw before.” There are cases wherein we cannot conveniently dispense with this relative as applied to persons: as first, after *who* the interrogative; “Who *that* has any sense of religion, would have argued thus?” Secondly, when persons make but a part of the antecedent; “The woman, and the estate, *that* became his portion, were too much for his moderation.” In neither of these examples could any other relative have been used.

3. The pronouns *whichsoever*, *whosoever*, and the like, are elegantly divided by the interposition of the corresponding substantives: thus, “On *whichsoever* side the king cast his eyes;” would have sounded better, if written, “On *which* side soever,” &c.

4. Many persons are apt, in conversation, to put the objective case of the personal pronouns, in the place of *these* and *those*: as, “Give me *them* books;” instead of “*those* books.” We may sometimes find this fault even in writing: as, “Observe *them* three there.” We also frequently meet with *those* instead of *they*, at the beginning of a sentence, and where there is no particular reference to an antecedent; as, “*Those* that sow in tears, sometimes reap in joy.” *They* that, or *they* who sow in tears.

It is not, however, always easy to say, whether a personal pronoun or a demonstrative is preferable, in certain constructions. “We are not unacquainted with the calumny of *them* [or *those*] who openly make use of the warmest professions.”

5. In some dialects, the word *what* is improperly used for *that*, and sometimes we find it in this sense in writing: “They will never believe but *what* I have been entirely to blame.” “I am not satisfied but *what*,” &c. instead of “but *that*.” The word *somewhat*, in the following sentence, seems to be used improperly. “These punishments seem to have been exercised in somewhat an arbitrary manner.” Sometimes we read, “In somewhat of.” The meaning is, “in a manner which is in some respects arbitrary.”

6. The pronoun relative *who* is so much appropriated to persons, that there is generally harshness in the application of it, except to the proper names of persons, or the general terms *man*, *woman*, &c. A term which only implies the idea of persons, and expresses them by some circumstance or epithet, will hardly authorize the use of it: as, “That faction in England *who* most powerfully opposed his arbitrary pretensions,” “That faction *which*,” would have been better;

and the same remark will serve for the following examples : “ France, *who* was in alliance with Sweden.” “ The court, *who*,” &c. “ The cavalry *who*,” &c. “ The cities *who* aspired at liberty.” “ That party among us *who*,” &c. “ The family *whom* they consider as usurpers.”

In some cases it may be doubtful, whether this pronoun is properly applied or not : as, “ The number of substantial inhabitants with *whom* some cities abound.” For when a term directly and necessarily implies persons, it may in many cases claim the personal relative. “ None of the company *whom* he most affected, could cure him of the melancholy under which he laboured.” The word *acquaintance* may have the same construction.

7. We hardly consider little children as persons, because that term gives us the idea of reason and reflection : and therefore the application of the person relative *who*, in this case, seems to be harsh : “ A child *who*.” It is still more improperly applied to animals : “ A lake frequented by that fowl *whom* nature has taught to dip the wing in water.”

8. When the name of a person is used merely as a name, and it does not refer to the person, the pronoun *who* ought not to be applied. “ It is no wonder if such a man did not shine at the court of queen Elizabeth, *who* was but another name for prudence and economy.” Better thus ; “ whose name was but another word for prudence, &c.” The word *whose* begins likewise to be restricted to persons ; yet it is not done so generally, but that good writers, even in prose, use it when speaking of things. The construction is not, however, generally pleasing, as we may see in the following instances : “ Pleasure, *whose* nature, &c.” “ Call every production, *whose* parts and *whose* nature,” &c.

In one case, however, custom authorizes us to use *which*, with respect to persons ; and that is when we want to distinguish one person of two, or a particular person among a number of others. We should then say, “ *Which* of the two,” or “ *Which* of them, is he or she ?”

9. As the pronoun relative has no distinction of number, we sometimes find an ambiguity in the use of it : as when we say, “ The disciples of Christ, *whom* we imitate ;” we may mean the imitation either of Christ, or of his disciples. The accuracy and clearness of the sentence, depend very much upon the proper and determinate use of the relative, so that it may readily present its antecedent to the mind of the hearer or reader, without any obscurity or ambiguity.

10. *It is* and *it was*, are often, after the manner of the



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preposition ; in the third, it represents the possessor ; and in the fourth, the object of an action : and therefore it must be in the three different cases, correspondent to those offices.

When both the antecedent and relative become nominatives, each to different verbs, the relative is the nominative to the former, and the antecedent to the latter verb : as, “ *True philosophy, which is the ornament of our nature, consists more in the love of our duty, and the practice of virtue, than in great talents and extensive knowledge.*”

A few instances of erroneous construction, will illustrate both the branches of the sixth rule. The three following refer to the first part. “ How can we avoid being grateful to those whom, by repeated kind offices, have proved themselves our real friends !” “ These are the men whom, you might suppose, were the authors of the work :” “ If you were here, you would find three or four, whom you would say passed their time agreeably :” in all these places it should be *who* instead of *whom*. The two latter sentences contain a nominative between the relative and the verb ; and, therefore, seem to contravene the rule : but the student will reflect, that it is not the nominative of the verb with which the relative is connected. The remaining examples refer to the second part of the rule. “ Men of fine talents are not always the persons who we should esteem.” “ The persons who you dispute with, are precisely of your opinion.” “ Our tutors are our benefactors, who we owe obedience to, and who we ought to love.” In these sentences, *whom* should be used instead of *who*.

1: When the relative pronoun is of the interrogative kind, the noun or pronoun containing the answer, must be in the same case as that which contains the question : as, “ *Whose books are these? They are John's.*” “ *Who gave them to him? We.*” “ *Of whom did you buy them? Of a bookseller; him who lives at the Bible and Crown.*” “ *Whom did you see there? Both him and the shopman.*” The learner will readily comprehend this rule, by supplying the words which are understood in the answers.—Thus, to express the answers at large, we should say, “ They are John's books.” “ We gave them to him.” “ We bought them of him who lives, &c.” “ We saw both him and the shopman.”—As the relative pronoun, when used interrogatively, refers to the subsequent word or phrase containing the answer to the question, that word or phrase may properly be termed the *subsequent to the interrogative*.

RULE VII.

When the relative is preceded by two nominatives of different persons, the relative and verb may agree in person with either, according to the sense : as, "I am the man *who command* you ;" or, "I am the *man who commands* you."

The form of the first of the two preceding sentences, expresses the meaning rather obscurely. It would be more perspicuous to say ; "I, who command you, am the man." Perhaps the difference of meaning, produced by referring the relative to different antecedents, will be more evident to the learner, in the following sentences. "I am the general who *gives* the orders to-day ;" "I am the general, who *give* the orders to-day ;" that is, "I, who give the orders to-day, am the general."

When the relative and the verb have been determined to agree with either of the preceding nominatives, that agreement must be preserved throughout the sentence ; as in the following instance : "I am the Lord that *maketh* all things ; that *stretcheth* forth the heavens alone." *Isa.* xliv. 24. Thus far is consistent : The *Lord*, in the third person, is the antecedent, and the verb agrees with the relative in the third person : "I am *the Lord*, which Lord, or he that *maketh* all things." If *I* were made the antecedent, the relative and verb should agree with it in the first person : as, "I am the Lord, *that make* all things, *that stretch* forth the heavens alone." But should it follow ; "That *spreadeth* abroad the earth by myself ;" there would arise a confusion of persons, and a manifest solecism.

RULE VIII.

Every adjective, and every adjective pronoun, belongs to a substantive, expressed or understood : as, "He is a *good*, as well as a *wise man* ;" "Few are *happy* ;" that is, "*persons* :;" "This is a pleasant walk ;" that is, "*This walk is*," &c.

Adjective pronouns must agree, in number, with their substantives : as, "This book, these books ; that sort, those sorts ; another road, other roads."

1. ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

A few instances of the breach of this rule are here exhibited. "I have not travelled this twenty years ;" "*these* twenty." "I am not recommending these kind of sufferings ;"

“*this* kind.” “Those set of books was a valuable present ;”
 “*that* set.”

1. The word *means* in the singular number, and the phrases, “*By this means*,” “*By that means*,” are used by our best and most correct writers ; namely, Bacon, Tillotson Atterbury, Addison, Steele, Pope, &c.* They are, indeed, in so general and approved use, that it would appear awkward, it not affected, to apply the old singular form, and say, “*By this mean ; by that mean ; it was by a mean ;*” although it is more agreeable to the general analogy of the language. “The word *means* (says Priestley) belongs to the class of words, which do not change their termination on account of number for it is used alike in both numbers.”

The word *amends* is used in this manner, in the following sentences : “*Though he did not succeed, he gained the approbation of his country ; and with this amends he was content.*” “*Peace of mind is an honourable amends for the sacrifices of interest.*” “*In return, he received the thanks of his employers, and the present of a large estate : these were ample amends for all his labours.*” “*We have described the rewards of vice : the good man’s amends are of a different nature.*”

It can scarcely be doubted, that this word *amends* (like the word *means*) had formerly its correspondent form in the singular number, as it is derived from the French *amende*, though now it is exclusively established in the plural form. If, therefore, it be alleged that *mean* should be applied in the singular, because it is derived from the French *moyen*, the same kind of argument may be advanced in favour of the singular *amende* ; and the general analogy of the language may also be pleaded in support of it.

Campbell, in his “*Philosophy of Rhetoric*,” has the following remark on the subject before us : “*No persons of taste will, I presume, venture so far to violate the present usage,*

* “*By this means, he had them the more at vantage, being tired and harassed with a long march.*” Bacon.

“*By this means one great restraint from doing evil, would be taken away.*”—“*And this is an admirable means to improve men in virtue.*”—*By that means they have rendered their duty more difficult.*” Tillotson.

“*It renders us careless of approving ourselves to God, and by that means securing the continuance of his goodness.*”—“*A good character, when established, should not be rested in as an end, but employed as a means of doing still further good.*” Atterbury.

“*By this means they are happy in each other.*”—“*He by that means preserves his superiority.*” Addison.

“*Your vanity by this means will want its food.*” Steele.

“*By this means alone, their greatest obstacles will vanish.*” Pope.

“*Which custom has proved the most effectual means to ruin the nobles.*” Dean Swift.



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objection and due consideration. Every connexion and application of words and phrases, thus supported, must therefore be proper, and entitled to respect, if not exceptionable in a moral point of view.

.....“ Si volet usus

“ Quem penes arbitrium est, et jus, et norma loquendi.”

HOR.

On this principle, many forms of expression, not less deviating from the general analogy of the language, than those before mentioned, are to be considered as strictly proper and justifiable. Of this kind are the following. “None of them *are* varied to express the gender ;” and yet *none* originally signified *no one*. “He *himself* shall do the work :” here, what was at first appropriated to the objective, is now properly used as the nominative case. “You have behaved yourselves well :” in this example, the word *you* is put in the nominative case plural, with strict propriety ; though formerly it was confined to the objective case, and *ye* exclusively used for the nominative.

With respect to anomalies and variations of language, thus established, it is the grammarian’s business to submit, not to remonstrate. In pertinaciously opposing the decision of proper authority, and contending for obsolete modes of expression, he may, indeed, display learning and critical sagacity ; and, in some degree, obscure points that are sufficiently clear and decided ; but he cannot reasonably hope either to succeed in his aims, or to assist the learner, in discovering and respecting the true standard and principles of language.

Cases which custom has left dubious, are certainly within the grammarian’s province. Here, he may reason and remonstrate on the ground of derivation, analogy, and propriety ; and his reasonings may refine and improve the language : but when authority speaks out and decides the point, it were perpetually to unsettle the language, to admit of cavil and debate. Anomalies then, under the limitation mentioned, become the law, as clearly as the plainest analogies.

The reader will perceive that, in the following sentences, the use of the word *mean* in the old form has a very uncouth appearance : “By the *mean* of adversity we are often instructed.” “He preserved his health by *mean* of exercise.” “Frugality is one *mean* of acquiring a competency.” They should be, “By *means* of adversity,” &c. “By *means* of exercise,” &c. “Frugality is one *means* ;” &c.

Good writers do indeed make use of the substantive *mean* in the singular number, and in that number only, to signify mediocrity, middle rate, &c. as, “This is a *mean* between the two extremes.” But in the sense of instrumentality, it

has been long disused by the best authors, and by almost every writer.

This means and *that means* should be used only when they refer to what is singular; *these means* and *those means* when they respect plurals: as, "He lived temperately, and by *this means* preserved his health;" "The scholars were attentive, industrious, and obedient to their tutors; and by *these means* acquired knowledge."

We have enlarged on this article, that the young student may be led to reflect on a point so important, as that of ascertaining the standard of propriety in the use of language.

2. When two persons or things are spoken of in a sentence, and there is occasion to mention them again for the sake of distinction, *that* is used in reference to the former, and *this*, in reference to the latter: as, "Self-love, which is the spring of action in the soul, is ruled by reason: but for *that*, man would be inactive; and but for *this*, he would be active to no end."

3. The distributive adjective pronouns, *each*, *every*, *either*, agree with the nouns, pronouns, and verbs, of the singular number only: as, "The king of Israel, and Jehoshaphat, the king of Judah, sat *each* on *his* throne;" "*Every* tree is known by *its* fruit:" unless the plural noun convey a collective idea: as, "*Every* six months;" "*Every* hundred years."—The following phrases are exceptionable. "Let *each* esteem others better than themselves:" It ought to be "*himself*." "The language should be both perspicuous and correct: in proportion as *either* of these two qualities are wanting, the language is imperfect;" it should be, "*is* wanting." "*Every* one of the letters bear regular dates, and contain proofs of attachment:" "*bears* a regular date, and *contains*." "*Every* town and village were burned; *every* grove and *every* tree were cut down:" "*was* burned, and *was* cut down." See the *Key*, p. 16; and the *OCTAVO Grammar*, SECOND edition, volume 2, page 322.

Either is often used improperly, instead of *each*: as, "The king of Israel, and Jehoshaphat the king of Judah, sat *either* of them on his throne;" "Nadab and Abihu, the sons of Aaron, took *either* of them his censer." *Each* signifies both of them taken distinctly or separately; *either* properly signifies only the one or the other of them taken disjunctively.

In the course of this work, some examples will appear of erroneous translations from the Holy Scriptures, with respect to grammatical construction: but it may be proper to remark, that notwithstanding these verbal mistakes, the Bible, for the size of it is the most accurate grammatical

composition that we have in the English language. The authority of several eminent grammarians might be adduced in support of this assertion; but it may be sufficient to mention only that of Dr. Lowth, who says, "The present translation of the Bible, is the best standard of the English language."

II. ADJECTIVES.

4. Adjectives are sometimes improperly applied as adverbs: as, "indifferent honest; excellent well; miserable poor;" instead of "Indifferently honest; excellently well; miserably poor." "He behaved himself conformable to that great example;" "*conformably.*" "Endeavour to live hereafter suitable to a person in thy station;" "*suitably.*" "I can never think so very mean of him;" "*meanly.*" "He describes this river agreeable to the common reading:" "*agreeably.*" "Agreeable to my promise I now write:" "*agreeably.*" "Thy exceeding great reward:" When united to an adjective, or adverb not ending in *ly*, the word *exceeding* has *ly* added to it: as, "exceedingly dreadful, exceedingly great;" "exceedingly well, exceedingly more active:" but when it is joined to an adverb or adjective, having that termination, the *ly* is omitted: as, "Some men think exceeding clearly, and reason exceeding forcibly:" "She appeared, on this occasion, exceeding lovely." "He acted in this business *bolder* than was expected:" "They behaved the *noblest*, because they were disinterested." They should have been, "*more boldly; most nobly.*"—The adjective pronoun *such* is often misapplied: as, "He was such an extravagant young man, that he spent his whole patrimony in a few years:" it should be, "*so extravagant a young man.*" "I never before saw such large trees:" "*saw trees so large.*" (When we refer to the species or nature of a thing, the word *such* is properly applied: as, "Such a temper is seldom found:" but when degree is signified, we use the word *so*: as, "So bad a temper is seldom found.")

Adverbs are likewise improperly used as adjectives: as, "The tutor addressed him in terms rather warm, but suitably to his offence;" "*suitably.*"; "They were seen wandering about solitarily and distressed;" "*solitarily.*" "He lived in a manner agreeably to the dictates of reason and religion;" "*agreeably.*" "The study of syntax should be previously to that of punctuation;" "*previously.*"*

5. Double comparatives and superlatives should be avoided: such as, "A worsers conduct;" "On lesser hopes;" "A more serener temper;" "The most straitest sect;" "A more

* For the rule to determine whether an adjective or an adverb is to be used, see English Exercises *Sixteenth*, or any subsequent, edition. page 140.



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their substantives, even by words which modify their meaning, and make but one sense with them: as, "A large enough number surely." It should be, "A number large enough." "The lower sort of people are good enough judges of one not very distant from them."

The adjective is usually placed before its substantive: as "A *generous* man;" "How *amiable* a woman!" The instances in which it comes after the substantive, are the following.)

1st, When something depends upon the adjective; and when it gives a better sound, especially in poetry: as, "A man *generous* to his enemies;" "Feed me with food *convenient* for me;" "A tree three feet *thick*." "A body of troops fifty thousand *strong*;" "The torrent *tumbling* through rocks *abrupt*."

2d, When the adjective is emphatical: as, "Alexander the *Great*;" "Lewis the *Bold*;" "Goodness *infinite*;" "Wisdom *unsearchable*."

3d, When several adjectives belong to one substantive: as, "A man just, wise, and charitable;" "A woman modest, sensible, and virtuous."

4th, When the adjective is preceded by an adverb: as, "A boy *regularly* studious;" "A girl *unaffectedly* modest."

5th, When the verb *to be*, in any of its variations, comes between a substantive and an adjective, the adjective may frequently either precede or follow it: as, "The man is *happy*;" or, "*happy* is the man who makes virtue his choice;" "The interview was *delightful*;" or, "*delightful* was the interview."

6th, When the adjective expresses some circumstance of a substantive placed after an active verb: as, "Vanity often renders its possessor *despicable*." In an exclamatory sentence, the adjective generally precedes the substantive; as, "How *despicable* does vanity often render its possessor!"

There is sometimes great beauty, as well as force, in placing the adjective before the verb, and the substantive immediately after it: as, "Great is the Lord! just and true are thy ways, thou King of saints!"

Sometimes the word *all* is emphatically put after a number of particulars comprehended under it. "Ambition, interest, honour, *all* concurred." Sometimes a substantive, which likewise comprehends the preceding particulars, is used in conjunction with this adjective: as, "Royalists, re-

publicans, churchmen, sectaries, courtiers, patriots, *all parties*, concurred in the illusion."

An adjective pronoun, in the plural number, will sometimes properly associate with a singular noun: as, "Our desire, your intention, their resignation." This association applies rather to things of an intellectual nature, than to those which are corporeal. It forms an exception to the general rule.

A substantive with its adjective is reckoned as one compounded word, whence they often take another adjective, and sometimes a third, and so on: as, "An old man; a good old man; a very learned, judicious, good old man."

Though the adjective always relates to a substantive, it is, in many instances, put as if it were absolute; especially where the noun has been mentioned before, or is easily understood, though not expressed: as, "I often survey the green fields, as I am very fond of *green*;" "The wise, the virtuous, the honoured, famed, and great," that is, "persons;" "The twelve," that is, "apostles;" "Have compassion on the *poor*; be feet to the *lame*, and eyes to the *blind*."

Substantives are often used as adjectives. In this case, the word so used is sometimes unconnected with the substantive to which it relates; sometimes connected with it by a hyphen; and sometimes joined to it, so as to make the two words coalesce. The total separation is proper, when either of the two words is long, or when they cannot be fluently pronounced as one word: as, an adjective pronoun, a silver watch, a stone cistern: the hyphen is used, when both the words are short, and are readily pronounced as a single word: as, coal-mine, corn-mill, fruit-tree: the words coalesce, when they are readily pronounced together; have a long established association; and are in frequent use: as, honeycomb, ginger-bread, inkhorn, Yorkshire.

Sometimes the adjective becomes a substantive, and has another adjective joined to it: as, "The chief good;" "The vast immense of space."

When an adjective has a preposition before it, the substantive being understood, it takes the nature of an adverb, and is considered as an adverb: as, "In general, in particular, in haste," &c.; that is, "Generally, particularly, hastily."

Enow was formerly used as the plural of *enough*: but it is now obsolete.

RULE IX. ¶

The article *a* or *an* agrees with nouns in the singular number only, individually or collectively: as, "A chris-

tian, an infidel, a score, a thousand." The definite article *the* may agree with nouns in the singular and plural number: as, "The garden, the houses, the stars."

The articles are often properly omitted: when used, they should be justly applied, according to their distinct nature: as, "Gold is corrupting; the sea is green; a lion is bold."

It is of the nature of both the articles to determine or limit the thing spoken of. *A* determines it to be one single thing of the kind, leaving it still uncertain which: *the* determines which it is, or of many, which they are.

The following passage will serve as an example of the different uses of *a* and *the*, and of the force of the substantive without any article. "Man was made for society, and ought to extend his good will to all men: but *a man* will naturally entertain a more particular kindness for *the men*, with whom he has the most frequent intercourse; and enter into a still closer union with *the man* whose temper and disposition suit best with his own."

As the articles are sometimes misapplied, it may be of some use to exhibit a few instances: "And I persecuted this way unto *the death*." The apostle does not mean any particular sort of death, but death in general: the definite article therefore is improperly used: it ought to be "unto death," without any article.

"When he, the Spirit of Truth, is come, he will guide you into all truth;" that is, according to this translation, "into all truth whatsoever, into truth of all kinds;" very different from the meaning of the evangelist, and from the original, "into all *the truth*;" that is, "into all evangelical truth, all truth necessary for you to know."

"Who breaks a butterfly upon *a wheel*?" it ought to be "*the wheel*," used as an instrument for the particular purpose of torturing criminals. "The Almighty hath given reason to *a man* to be a light unto him:" it should rather be, "to *man*," in general. "This day is salvation come to this house, forasmuch as he also is *the son* of Abraham:" it ought to be, "*a son* of Abraham."

These remarks may serve to show the great importance of the proper use of the article, and the excellence of the English language in this respect; which, by means of its two articles, does most precisely determine the extent of signification of common names.

1. A nice distinction of the sense is sometimes made by the use or omission of the article *a*. If I say, "He behaved



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blood, which with the multitude is always a claim, *the* strongest, and *the* most easily comprehended." "They are not the men in the nation *the* most difficult to be replaced."

RULE X.

One substantive governs another, signifying a different thing, in the possessive or genitive case : as, "My father's house ;" "Man's happiness ;" "Virtue's reward."

When the annexed substantive signifies the same thing as the first, there is no-variation of case : as, "George, king of Great Britain, elector of Hanover," &c. ; "Pompey contended with Cæsar, the greatest general of his time ;" "Religion, the support of adversity, adorns prosperity." Nouns thus circumstanced are said to be *in apposition* to each other. The interposition of a relative and verb will sometimes break the construction : as, "Pompey, contended with Cæsar, *who was* the greatest general of his time." Here the word *general* is in the nominative case, governed by note 4, under RULE XI.

The preposition *of* joined to a substantive, is not always equivalent to the possessive case. It is only so, when the expression can be converted into the regular form of the possessive case. We can say, "The reward of virtue," and "Virtue's reward :;" but though it is proper to say, "A crown of gold," we cannot convert the expression into the possessive case, and say, "Gold's crown."

Substantives govern pronouns as well as nouns, in the possessive case : as, "Every tree is known by *its* fruit ;" "Goodness brings *its* reward ;" "That desk is *mine*."

The genitive *its* is often improperly used for *'tis* or *it is* as, "Its my book :;" instead of "It is my book."

The pronoun *his*, when detached from the noun to which it relates, is to be considered, not as a possessive pronoun, but as the genitive case of the personal pronoun : as, "This composition is *his*." "Whose book is that?" "*His*." If we used the noun itself, we should say, "This composition is John's." "Whose book is that?" "Eliza's." The position will be still more evident, when we consider that both the pronouns in the following sentences must have a similar construction : "Is it *her* or *his* honour that is tarnished?" "It is not *hers*, but *his*."

Sometimes a substantive in the genitive or possessive case stands alone, the latter one by which it is governed being understood : as, "I called at the bookseller's," that is, "at the bookseller's *shop*."

1. If several nouns come together in the genitive case, th

apostrophe with *s* is annexed to the last, and understood to the rest : as, "John and Eliza's books ;" "This was my father, mother, and uncle's advice." But when any words intervene, perhaps on account of the increased pause, the sign of the possessive should be annexed to each : as, "They are John's as well as Eliza's books ;" "I had the physician's, the surgeon's, and the apothecary's assistance."

2. In poetry, the additional *s* is frequently omitted, but the apostrophe retained, in the same manner as in substantives of the plural number ending in *s* : as, "The wrath of Peleus' son." This seems not so allowable in prose ; which the following erroneous examples will demonstrate : "Moses' minister ;" "Phinehas' wife ;" "Festus came into Felix' room." "These answers were made to the witness' questions." But in cases which would give too much of the hissing sound, or increase the difficulty of pronunciation, the omission takes place even in prose : as, "For righteousness' sake ;" "For conscience' sake."

3. Little explanatory circumstances are particularly awkward between a genitive case, and the word which usually follows it : as, "She began to extol the farmer's, as she called him, excellent understanding." It ought to be, "the excellent understanding of the farmer, as she called him."

4. When a sentence consists of terms signifying a name and an office, or of any expressions by which one part is descriptive or explanatory of the other, it may occasion some doubt to which of them the sign of the genitive case should be annexed ; or whether it should be subjoined to them both. Thus, some would say ; "I left the parcel at Smith's the bookseller ;" others, "at Smith the bookseller's ;" and perhaps others, "at Smith's the bookseller's." The first of these forms is most agreeable to the English idiom ; and if the addition consists of two or more words, the case seems to be less dubious : as, "I left the parcel at Smith's, the bookseller and stationer." But as this subject requires a little further explanation to make it intelligible to the learners, we shall add a few observations tending to unfold its principles.

A phrase in which the words are so connected and dependent, as to admit of no pause before the conclusion, necessarily requires the genitive sign at or near the end of the phrase : as, "Whose prerogative is it ? It is the king of Great Britain's," "That is the duke of Bridgewater's canal ;" "The bishop of Landaff's excellent book ;" "The lord mayor of London's authority ;" "The captain of the guard's house."

When words in apposition follow each other in quick succession, it seems also most agreeable to our idiom, to give

the sign of the genitive a similar situation; especially if the noun which governs the genitive be expressed: as, "The emperor Leopold's;" "Dionysius the tyrant's;" "For David my *servant's* sake;" "Give me John the *Baptist's* head;" "Paul the *apostle's* advice." But when a pause is proper, and the governing noun not expressed; and when the latter part of the sentence is extended; it appears to be requisite that the sign should be applied to the first genitive, and understood to the other; as, "I reside at lord Stormont's, my old patron and benefactor;" "Whose glory did he emulate? He emulated Cæsar's, the greatest general of antiquity." In the following sentences, it would be very awkward to place the sign, either at the end of each of the clauses, or at the end of the latter one alone: "These psalms are David's, the king, priest, and prophet of the Jewish people;" "We staid a month at lord Lyttleton's, the ornament of his country, and the friend of every virtue." (The sign of the genitive case may very properly be understood at the end of these members, an ellipsis at the latter part of sentences being a common construction in our language; as the learner will see by one or two examples: "They wished to submit, but he did not;" that is, "he did not *wish to submit*;" "He said it was their concern, but not his;" that is, "*not his concern*."

If we annex the sign of the genitive to the end of the last clause only, we shall perceive that a resting place is wanted, and that the connecting circumstance is placed too remotely, to be either perspicuous or agreeable: as, "Whose glory did he emulate?" "He emulated Cæsar, the greatest general of *antiquity's*;" "These psalms are David, the king, priest, and prophet of the Jewish *people's*." It is much better to say, "This is *Paul's* advice, the christian hero, and great apostle of the gentiles," than, "This is Paul the christian hero, and great apostle of the *gentiles'* advice." On the other hand, the application of the genitive sign to both or all of the nouns in apposition, would be generally harsh and displeasing, and perhaps in some cases incorrect: as, "The emperor's Leopold's;" "King's George's;" "Charles' the second's;" "The parcel was left at Smith's the bookseller's and stationer's." The rules which we have endeavoured to elucidate, will prevent the inconvenience of both these modes of expression; and they appear to be simple, perspicuous, and consistent with the idiom of the language.

5. The English genitive has often an unpleasant sound; so that we daily make more use of the particle *of* to express the same relation. There is something awkward in the following sentences, in which this method has not been taken.



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use of it altogether, and to give the sentiment another form of expression.

7. When an entire clause of a sentence, beginning with a participle of the present tense, is used as one name, or to express one idea or circumstance, the noun on which it depends may be put in the genitive case; thus, instead of saying, "What is the reason of this person dismissing his servant so hastily?" that is, "What is the reason of this person in dismissing his servant so hastily?" we may say, and perhaps ought to say, "What is the reason of this person's dismissing of his servant so hastily?" Just as we say, "What is the reason of this person's hasty dismissal of his servant?" So also, we say, "I remember it being reckoned a great exploit;" or more properly, "I remember its being reckoned," &c. The following sentence is correct and proper: "Much will depend on the *pupils composing*, but more on *his reading* frequently." It would not be accurate to say, "Much will depend on the *pupil composing*," &c. We also properly say; "This will be the effect of *the pupils composing* frequently;" instead of, "Of *the pupil composing* frequently."

RULE XI. / /

Active verbs govern the objective case: as, "Truth ennobles *her*;" "She comforts *me*;" "They support *us*;" "Virtue rewards *her followers*."

In English, the nominative case, denoting the subject, usually goes before the verb; and the objective case, denoting the object, follows the verb active; and it is the order that determines the case in *nouns*; as, "Alexander conquered the Persians." But the *pronoun* having a proper form for each of those cases, is sometimes, when it is in the objective case, placed before the verb; and, when it is in the nominative case, follows the object and verb; as, "Whom ye ignorantly worship, *him* declare I unto you."

This position of the pronoun sometimes occasions its proper case and government to be neglected: as in the following instances: "Who should I esteem more than the wise and good?" "By the character of those who you choose for your friends, your own is likely to be formed." "Those are the persons who he thought true to his interests." "Who should I see the other day but my old friend." "Whosoever the court favours." In all these places it ought to be *whom*, the relative being governed in the objective case by the verbs "esteem, choose, thought," &c. "He who under all proper circumstances, has the boldness to speak truth, choose for thy friend;" It should be "*him* who," &c.

Verbs neuter do not act upon, or govern, nouns and pronouns. "He *sleeps*; they *muse*," &c. are not transitive. They are, therefore, not followed by an objective case, specifying the object of an action. But when this case, or an object of action, comes after such verbs, though it may carry the appearance of being governed by them, it is affected by a preposition or some other word understood: as, "He resided many years [that is, *for* or *during* many years] in that street;" "He rode several miles [that is, *for* or *through* the space of several miles] on that day;" "He lay an hour [that is, *during* an hour] in great torture." In the phrases, "To dream a dream," "To live a virtuous life," "To run a race," "To walk the horse," "To dance the child," the verbs certainly assume a transitive form, and may not, in these cases, be improperly denominated transitive verbs.

1. Some writers, however, use certain neuter verbs as if they were transitive, putting after them the objective case, agreeably to the French construction of reciprocal verbs; but this custom is so foreign to the idiom of the English tongue, that it ought not to be adopted or imitated. The following are some instances of this practice. "*Repenting* him of his design." "The king soon found reason *to repent* him of his provoking such dangerous enemies." "The popular lords did not fail to *enlarge* themselves on the subject." "The nearer his successes *approached* him to the throne." "Go *flee* thee away into the land of Judah." "I think it by no means a fit and decent thing to *vie* charities," &c. "They have spent their whole time and pains to *agree* the sacred with the profane chronology."

2. Active verbs are sometimes as improperly made neuter; as, "I must *promise* with three circumstances." "Those that think to *ingratiate* with him by calumniating me."

3. The neuter verb is varied like the active; but, having in some degree the nature of the passive, it admits, in many instances, of the passive form, retaining still the neuter signification, chiefly in such verbs as signify some sort of motion, or change of place or condition: as, "I am come; I was gone; I am grown; I was fallen." The following examples, however, appear to be erroneous, in giving the neuter verbs a passive form, instead of an active one. "The rule of our holy religion, from which we *are* infinitely *swerved*." "The whole obligation of that law and covenant *was* also *ceased*." "Whose number *was* now *amounted* to three hundred." "This mareschal, upon some discontent, *was entered* into a conspiracy against his master." "At the end of a campaign, when

half the men *are deserted* or killed." It should be, "*have swerved, had ceased,*" &c.

4. The verb *to be*, through all its variations, has the same case after it, as that which next precedes it: "*I am he* whom they invited;" "*It may be* (or might have been) *he*, but, *it cannot be* (or could not have been) *I*;" "*It is impossible to be they*;" "*It seems to have been he*, who conducted himself so wisely;" "*It appeared to be she* that transacted the business;" "*I understood it to be him*;" "*I believe it to have been them*;" "*We at first took it to be her*; but were afterwards convinced that *it was not she*." "*He is not the person who it seemed he was*." "*He is really the person who he appeared to be*." "*She is not now the woman whom they represented her to have been*." "*Whom do you fancy him to be?*" By these examples, it appears that this substantive verb has no government of case, but serves, in all its forms, as a conductor to the cases; so that the two cases which, in the construction of the sentence, are the next before and after it, must always be alike. Perhaps this subject will be more intelligible to the learner, by observing, that the words in the cases preceding and following the verb *to be*, may be said to be *in apposition* to each other. Thus, in the sentence, "*I understood it to be him*," the words *it* and *him* are in apposition; that is, "*they refer to the same thing, and are in the same case*."

The following sentences contain deviations from the rule, and exhibit the pronoun in a wrong case: "*It might have been him*, but there is no proof of it;" "*Though I was blamed, it could not have been me*;" "*I saw one whom I took to be she*;" "*She is the person who I understood it to have been*;" "*Who do you think me to be?*" "*Whom do men say that I am?*" "*And whom think ye that I am?*"—See *the Octavo Grammar*.

Passive verbs which signify naming, &c. have the same case before and after them: as, "*He was called Cæsar*; *She was named Penelope*; *Homer is styled the prince of poets*; *James was created a duke*; *The general was saluted emperor*; *The professor was appointed tutor to the prince*."

5. The auxiliary *let* governs the objective case: as, "*Let him beware*;" "*Let us judge candidly*;" "*Let them not presume*;" "*Let George study his lesson*."

RULE XII.

One verb governs another that follows it, or depends upon it, in the infinitive mood: as, "*Cease to do evil*;



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“To proceed ;” “To conclude ;” that is, “That I may confess,” &c.

RULE XIII. / 3

In the use of words and phrases which, in point of time, relate to each other, a due regard to that relation should be observed. Instead of saying, “The Lord *hath given*, and the Lord *hath taken away* ;” we should say, “The Lord *gave*, and the Lord *hath taken away*.” Instead of, “I *remember* the family more than twenty years ;” it should be, “I *have remembered* the family more than twenty years.”

It is not easy to give particular rules for the management of the moods and tenses of verbs with respect to one another, so that they may be proper and consistent. The best rule that can be given, is this very general one : “To observe what the sense necessarily requires.” It may, however, be of use to give a few examples of irregular construction. “The last week I intended *to have written*,” is a very common phrase ; the infinitive being in the past time, as well as the verb which it follows. But it is certainly wrong ; for how long soever it now is since I thought of writing, “to write” was then present to me, and must still be considered as present, when I bring back that time, and the thoughts of it. It ought, therefore, to be, “The last week I intended *to write*.” The following sentences are also erroneous : “I cannot excuse the remissness of those whose business it should have been, as it certainly was their interest, *to have interposed* their good offices.” “There were two circumstances which made it necessary for them *to have lost* no time.” “History painters would have found it difficult *to have invented* such a species of beings.” They ought to be, “*to interpose, to lose, to invent*.” “On the morrow, because he should have known the certainty, wherefore he was accused of the Jews, he loosed him.” It ought to be, “because he *would know*,” or rather, “*being willing to know*.”

“The blind man said unto him, Lord, that I *might* receive my sight.” “If by any means I *might* attain unto the resurrection of the dead ;” “*may*,” in both places, would have been better. “From his biblical knowledge, he appears to study the Scriptures with great attention ;” “*to have studied*,” &c. “I feared that I should have lost it, before I arrived at the city ;” “*should lose it*.” “I had rather walk ;” It should be, “I *would* rather walk.” “It would have afforded me no satisfaction, if I could perform it :” it should be, “if I *could*

have performed it ;” or, “*It would afford me no satisfaction, if I could perform it.*”

To preserve consistency in the time of verbs, we must recollect that, in the subjunctive mood, the present and imperfect tenses often carry with them a future sense ; and that the auxiliaries *should* and *would*, in the imperfect times, are used to express the present and future as well as the past : for which see page 60.

1. It is proper further to observe, that verbs of the infinitive mood in the following form ; “to write,” “to be writing,” and “to be written,” always denote something *contemporary with* the time of the governing verb, or *subsequent to it* : but when verbs of that mood are expressed as follows ; “To have been writing,” “to have written,” and “to have been written,” they always denote something *antecedent* to the time of the governing verb. This remark is thought to be of importance ; for if duly attended to, it will, in most cases, be sufficient to direct us in the relative application of these tenses.

The following sentence is properly and analogically expressed : “I found him better than I expected to find him.” “Expected *to have found* him,” is irreconcilable alike to grammar and to sense. Indeed, all verbs expressive of hope, desire, intention, or command, must invariably be followed by the present, and not the perfect of the infinitive. Every person would perceive an error in this expression ; “It is long since I commanded him *to have done* it :” Yet “expected *to have found*,” is no better. It is as clear that the *finding* must be posterior to the expectation, as that the *obedience* must be posterior to the command.

In the sentence which follows, the verb is with propriety put in the perfect tense of the infinitive mood ; “It would have afforded me great pleasure, as often as I reflected upon it, *to have been* the messenger of such intelligence.” As the message, in this instance, was antecedent to the pleasure, and not contemporary with it, the verb expressive of the message must denote that antecedence, by being in the perfect of the infinitive. If the message and the pleasure had been referred to as contemporary, the subsequent verb would, with equal propriety, have been put in the present of the infinitive : as, “It would have afforded me great pleasure, *to be* the messenger of such intelligence.” In the former instance, the phrase in question is equivalent to these words ; “*If I had been* the messenger ;” in the latter instance, to this expression ; “*Being* the messenger.”—For a further discussion of this subject,

see the *Eleventh* edition of the Key to the Exercises, p. 60, and the Octavo Grammar, RULE XIII.

It is proper to inform the learner, that, in order to express the past time with the defective verb *ought*, the perfect of the infinitive must always be used: as, "He ought *to have done* it." When we use this verb, this is the only possible way to distinguish the past from the present.

In support of the positions advanced under this rule, we can produce the sentiments of eminent grammarians; amongst whom are Lowth and Campbell. But there are some writers on grammar, who strenuously maintain, that the governed verb in the infinitive ought to be in the past tense, when the verb which governs it, is in the past time. Though this cannot be admitted, in the instances which are controverted under this rule, or in any instances of a similar nature, yet there can be no doubt that, in many cases, in which the thing referred to preceded the governing verb, it would be proper and allowable. We may say; "From a conversation I once had with him, he *appeared to have studied* Homer with great care and judgment." It would be proper also to say, "From his conversation, he *appears to have studied* Homer with great care and judgment;" "That unhappy man *is supposed to have died* by violence." These examples are not only consistent with our rule, but they confirm and illustrate it. It is, the tense of the governing verb only, that marks what is called the absolute time; the tense of the verb governed, marks solely its relative time with respect to the other.

To assert, as some writers do, that verbs in the infinitive mood have no tenses, no relative distinctions of present, past, and future, is inconsistent with just grammatical views of the subject. That these verbs associate with verbs in all the tenses, is no proof of their having no peculiar time of their own. Whatever period the governing verb assumes, whether present, past, or future, the governed verb in the infinitive always respects that period, and its time is calculated from it. Thus, the time of the infinitive may be before, after, or the same as, the time of the governing verb, according as the thing signified by the infinitive is supposed to be before, after, or present with, the thing denoted by the governing verb. It is therefore, with great propriety, that tenses are assigned to verbs of the infinitive mood. The point of time from which they are computed, is of no consequence; since present, past, and future, are completely applicable to them.

We shall conclude our observations under this rule, by remarking, that though it is often proper to use the perfect of the infinitive after the governing verb, yet there are particu-



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ing our corrupt affections;" it should be, "by the continual mortifying *of*," or, "by continually mortifying our corrupt affections." "They laid out themselves towards *the* advancing and promoting the good of it;" "towards advancing and promoting the good." "It is *an* overvaluing ourselves, to reduce every thing to the narrow measure of our capacities;" "it is overvaluing ourselves," or, "*an* overvaluing *of* ourselves." "Keeping of one day in seven," &c. : it ought to be, "*the* keeping *of* one day;" or, "keeping one day."

A phrase in which the article precedes the present participle and the possessive preposition follows it, will not, in every instance, convey the same meaning as would be conveyed by the participle without the article and preposition. "He expressed the pleasure he had in the hearing of the philosopher," is capable of a different sense from, "He expressed *the* pleasure he had in hearing the philosopher." When, therefore, we wish, for the sake of harmony or variety, to substitute one of these phraseologies for the other, we should previously consider whether they are perfectly similar in the sentiments they convey.

2. The same observations which have been made respecting the effect of the article and participle, appear to be applicable to the pronoun and participle, when they are similarly associated: as, "Much depends on *their* observing *of* the rule, and error will be the consequence of *their* neglecting *of* it," instead of "*their* observing the rule, and *their* neglecting it." We shall perceive this more clearly, if we substitute a noun for the pronoun: as, "Much depends upon *Tyro's* observing *of* the rule," &c. But, as this construction sounds rather harshly, it would, in general, be better to express the sentiment in the following, or some other form: "Much depends on the *rule's* being observed; and error will be the consequence of *its* being neglected:" or—"on observing the rule; and—of neglecting it." This remark may be applied to several other modes of expression to be found in this work; which, though they are contended for as strictly correct, are not always the most eligible, on account of their unpleasant sound. See pages 39, 55, 127—130.

We sometimes meet with expressions like the following: "In forming *of* his sentences, he was very exact;" "From calling *of* names, he proceeded to blows." But this is incorrect language; for prepositions do not, like articles and pronouns, convert the participle itself into the nature of a substantive; as we have shown above in the phrase, "By observing which." And yet the participle with its adjuncts,

may be considered as a substantive phrase in the objective case, governed by the preposition or verb, expressed or understood: as, "By *promising much, and performing but little*, we become despicable." "He studied to avoid *expressing himself too severely*."

§. As the perfect participle and the imperfect tense are sometimes different in their form, care must be taken that they be not indiscriminately used. It is frequently said, "He *begun*," for "he began;" "he *run*," for "he ran;" "He *drunk*," for "he drank;" the participle being here used instead of the imperfect tense: and much more frequently the imperfect tense instead of the participle: as, "I had *wrote*," for "I had written:" "I was *chose*," for "I was chosen;" "I have *eat*," for, "I have eaten." "His words were *interwove* with sighs;" "were *interwoven*." "He would have *spoke*;" "*spoken*." "He hath bore witness to his faithful servants,;" "*borne*." "By this means he over-run his guide;" "*over-ran*." "The sun has *rose*;" "*risen*." "His constitution has been greatly *shook*, but his mind is too strong to be *shook* by such causes;" "*shaken*," in both places "They were verses *wrote* on glass;" "*written*." "Philosophers have often *mistook* the source of true happiness:" it ought to be "*mistaken*."

The participle ending in *ed* is often improperly contracted by changing *ed* into *t*; as, "In good behaviour, he is not *surpast* by any pupil of the school." "She was much *distrest*." They ought to be "*surpassed*," "*distressed*."

RULE XV.

"Adverbs, though they have no government of case, tense, &c. require an appropriate situation in the sentence, viz. for the most part, before adjectives, after verbs active or neuter, and frequently between the auxiliary and the verb: as, "He made a *very sensible* discourse; he *spoke unaffectedly* and *forcibly*, and *was attentively heard* by the whole assembly."

A few instances of erroneous positions of adverbs may serve to illustrate the rule. "He must not expect to find study agreeable *always*;" "*always* agreeable." "We always find them ready when we want them;" "we find them *always* ready," &c. "Dissertations on the prophecies which have remarkably been fulfilled;" "which have been *remarkably*." "Instead of looking contemptuously down on the crooked in mind or in body, we should look up thankfully to God, who hath made us better;" "instead of looking down

contemptuously, &c. we should *thankfully look up*," &c. "If thou art blessed naturally with a good memory, continually exercise it;" "*naturally blessed*," &c. "exercise it *continually*."

Sometimes the adverb is placed with propriety before the verb, or at some distance after it; sometimes between the two auxiliaries; and sometimes after them both; as in the following examples. "*Vice always* creeps by degrees, and *insensibly* twines around us those concealed fetters, by which we are at last *completely* bound." "He encouraged the English Barons to carry their opposition *farther*." "They compelled him to declare that he would abjure the realm *for ever*;" instead of, "to carry farther their opposition;" and "to abjure for ever the realm." "He has *generally* been reckoned an honest man." "The book may *always* be had at such a place;" in preference to "has been generally;" and "may be always." "These rules will be *clearly* understood, after they have been *diligently* studied," are preferable to, "These rules will *clearly* be understood, after they have *diligently* been studied."

From the preceding remarks and examples, it appears that no exact and determinate rule can be given for the placing of adverbs, on all occasions. The general rule may be of considerable use; but the easy flow and perspicuity of the phrase, are the things which ought to be chiefly regarded.

The adverb *there* is often used as an expletive, or as a word that adds nothing to the sense; in which case it precedes the verb and the nominative noun: as, "There is a person at the door;" "There are some thieves in the house;" which would be as well, or better, expressed by saying, "A person is at the door;" "Some thieves are in the house." Sometimes, it is made use of to give a small degree of emphasis to the sentence: as, "*There* was a man sent from God, whose name was John." When it is applied in its strict sense, it principally follows the verb and the nominative case: as, "The man stands *there*."

1. The adverb *never* generally precedes the verb: as, "I never was there;" "He never comes at a proper time." When an auxiliary is used, it is placed indifferently, either before or after this adverb: as, "He was never seen (or never was seen) to laugh from that time."

Never seems to be improperly used in the following passages. "Ask me never so much dowry and gift." "If I make my hands never so clean." "Charm he never so wisely." The word "*ever*" would be more suitable to the sense.



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Some writers have improperly employed two negatives instead of one ; as in the following instances : “ I never did repent of doing good, nor shall not now ;” “ *nor shall I now.*” “ Never no imitator grew up to his author :,” “ *never did any,*” &c. “ I cannot by no means allow him what his argument must prove ;” “ I cannot by *any* means,” &c. or, “ I *can* by no means.” “ Nor let no comforter approach me ;” “ nor let *any* comforter,” &c. “ Nor is danger ever apprehended in such a government, no more than we commonly apprehend danger from thunder or earthquakes :” it should be, “ *any* more.” “ Ariosto, Tasso, Galileo, *no* more than Raphael, were *not* born in republics.” “ Neither Ariosto, Tasso, nor Galileo, any more than Raphael, was born in a republic.”

RULE XVII. ()

Prepositions govern the objective case : as, “ I have heard a good character *of* her ;” “ *From* him that is needy turn not away ;” “ A word to the wise is sufficient *for* them ;” “ We may be good and happy *without* riches.”

The following are examples of the nominative case being used instead of the objective. “ Who servest thou under ?” “ Who do you speak to ?” “ We are still much at a loss who civil power belongs to :” “ Who dost thou ask for ?” “ Associate not with those who none can speak well of.” In all these places it ought to be “ *whom.*” See Note 1.

The prepositions *to* and *for* are often understood, chiefly before the pronouns : as, “ Give me the book ;” “ Get me some paper ;” that is, “ *to* me ; *for* me.” “ Wo is me ;” i. e. “ *to* me.” “ He was banished England ;” i. e. “ *from* England.”

1. The preposition is often separated from the relative which it governs : as, “ Whom wilt thou give it to ?” instead of, “ *To whom* wilt thou give it ?” “ He is an author whom I am much delighted with ;” “ The world is too polite to shock authors with a truth, which generally their booksellers are the first that inform them of.” This is an idiom to which our language is strongly inclined ; it prevails in common conversation, and suits very well with the familiar style in writing : but the placing of the preposition before the relative, is more graceful, as well as more perspicuous, and agrees much better with the solemn and elevated style.

2. Some writers separate the preposition from its noun ; in order to connect different prepositions with the same noun : as, “ To suppose the zodiac and planets to be efficient *of,* and antecedent *to,* themselves.” This, whether in

the familiar or the solemn style, is always inelegant, and should generally be avoided. In forms of law, and the like, where fulness and exactness of expression must take place of every other consideration, it may be admitted.

3. Different relations, and different senses, must be expressed by different prepositions, though in conjunction with the same verb or adjective. Thus we say, "to converse *with* a person, *upon* a subject, *in* a house, &c." We also say, "We are disappointed *of* a thing," when we cannot get it, "and disappointed *in* it," when we have it, and find it does not answer our expectations. But two different prepositions must be improper in the same construction, and in the same sentence: as, "The combat *between* thirty French *against* twenty English."

In some cases, it is difficult to say, to which of two prepositions the preference is to be given, as both are used promiscuously, and custom has not decided in favour of either of them. We say, "Expert *at*," and "expert *in* a thing." "Expert *at* finding a remedy for his mistakes;" "Expert *in* deception."

When prepositions are subjoined to nouns, they are generally the same that are subjoined to the verbs from which the nouns are derived: as, "A compliance *with*," "to comply *with*;" "A disposition *to* tyranny," "disposed *to* tyrannize."

4. As an accurate and appropriate use of the preposition is of great importance, we shall select a considerable number of examples of impropriety, in the application of this part of speech.

1st, With respect to the preposition *of*—"He is resolved of going to the Persian court;" "*on* going," &c. "He was totally dependant of the Papal crown;" "*on* the Papal," &c. "To call of a person," and "to wait of him," "*on* a person," &c. "He was eager of recommending it to his fellow citizens," "*in* recommending," &c. *Of* is sometimes omitted, and sometimes inserted, after *worthy*: as, "It is worthy observation," or, "of observation." But it would have been better omitted in the following sentences. "The emulation, who should serve their country best, no longer subsists among them, but *of* who should obtain the most lucrative command." "The rain hath been falling *of* a long time;" "falling a long time." "It is situation chiefly which decides of the fortune and characters of men:" "decides the fortune," or, "*concerning* the fortune." "He found the greatest difficulty of writing;" "*in* writing." "It might have given me a greater taste of its antiquities." A taste *of* a thing implies actual enjoyment of it: but a taste *for* it, implies only a capacity for enjoyment. "This had a much greater share of

inciting him, than any regard after his father's commands ;”
 “share *in* inciting,” and “regard *to* his father's,” &c.

2d, With respect to the prepositions *to* and *for*.—“You have bestowed your favours to the most deserving persons ;”
 “*upon* the most deserving,” &c. “He accused the ministers for betraying the Dutch :” “*of* having betrayed.” “His abhorrence to that superstitious figure ;” “*of* that,” &c. “A great change to the better ;” “*for* the better.” “Your prejudice to my cause ;” “*against*.” “The English were very different people then to what they are at present ;” “*from* what,” &c. “In compliance to the declaration ;” “*with*,” &c. “It is more than they thought for ;” “thought *of*.” “There is no need for it ;” “*of* it.” *For* is superfluous in the phrase, “More than he knows *for*.” “No discouragement for the authors to proceed ;” “*to* the authors,” &c. “It was perfectly in compliance to some persons ;” “*with*.” “The wisest princes need not think it any diminution to their greatness, or derogation to their sufficiency, to rely upon counsel ;” “diminution *of*,” and “derogation *from*.”

3d, With respect to the prepositions *with* and *upon*.—
 “Reconciling himself with the king.” “Those things which have the greatest resemblance with each other, frequently differ the most.” “That such rejection should be consonant with our common nature.” “Conformable with,” &c. “The history of Peter is agreeable with the sacred texts.” In all the above instances, it should be, “*to*,” instead of “*with*.” “It is a use that perhaps I should not have thought on ;” “thought *of*.” “A greater quantity may be taken from the heap, without making any sensible alteration upon it ;” “*in* it.” “Intrusted to persons on whom the parliament could confide ;” “*in* whom.” “He was made much on at Argos ;” “much *of*.” “If policy can prevail upon force ;” “*over* force.” “I do likewise dissent with the examiner ;” “*from*.”

4th, With respect to the prepositions *in*, *from*, &c.—“They should be informed in some parts of his character ;” “*about*,” or, “*concerning*.” “Upon such occasions as fell into their cognizance ;” “*under*.” “That variety of factions into which we are still engaged ;” “*in* which.” “To restore myself into the favour ;” “*to* the favour.” “Could he have profited from repeated experiences ;” “*by*.” *From* seems to be superfluous after *forbear* : as, “He could not forbear from appointing the pope,” &c. “A strict observance after times and fashions ;” “*of* times.” “The character which we may now value ourselves by drawing ;” “*upon* drawing.” “Neither of them shall make me swerve out of the path ;” “*from* the path.” “Ye blind guides, which strain *at* a gnat, and



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he." "He entreated us, my comrade and I, to live barmoniously ;" "comrade and *me*." "My sister and her were on good terms ;" "and *she*." "We often overlook the blessings which are in our possession, and are searching after those which are out of our reach : " it ought to be, "and *search* after."

1. Conjunctions are, indeed, frequently made to connect different moods and tenses of verbs: but in these instances the nominative must generally, if not always, be repeated, which is not necessary, though it may be done, under the construction to which the rule refers. We may say, "He *lives* temperately, *and* he should live temperately ;" "He *may* return, but he *will* not continue ;" "She *was* proud, though she *is* now humble:" but it is obvious, that in such cases, the nominative ought to be repeated ; and that, by this means, the latter members of these sentences are rendered not so strictly dependent on the preceding, as those are which come under the rule. When, in the progress of a sentence, we pass from the affirmative to the negative form, or from the negative to the affirmative, the subject or nominative is always resumed : as, "He is rich, but he is not respectable." "He is not rich, but he is respectable." There appears to be, in general, equal reason for repeating the nominative, and resuming the subject, when the course of the sentence is diverted by a change of the mood or tense. The following sentences may therefore be improved. "Anger glances into the breast of a wise man, but will rest only in the bosom of fools ;" "but *rests* only ;" or, "but *it will* rest only." "Virtue is praised by many, and would be desired also, if her worth were really known ;" "and *she* would." "The world begins to recede, and will soon disappear ;" "and *it* will." See the Octavo Grammar, RULE XVIII.

RULE XIX. / ?

Some conjunctions require the indicative, some the subjunctive mood, after them. It is a general rule, that when something contingent or doubtful is implied, the subjunctive ought to be used : as, "If *I were* to write, he would not regard it ;" "He will not be pardoned, *unless he* repent."

Conjunctions that are of a positive and absolute nature require the indicative mood. "As virtue *advances*, so vice *recedes* : " "He is healthy, *because* he is temperate."

The conjunctions, *if*, *though*, *unless*, *except*, *whether*, &c. generally require the subjunctive mood after them : as, "If

thou be afflicted, repine not ;” “ *Though* he slay me, yet will I trust in him ;” “ He cannot be clean, *unless* he wash himself ;” “ No power, *except* it were given from above ;” “ *Whether* it were I or they, so we preach.” But even these conjunctions, when the sentence does not imply doubt, admit of the indicative : as, “ *Though* he is poor, he is contented.”—See *subjunctive mood*, p. 54, and pages 151, 152.

The following example may, in some measure, serve to illustrate the distinction between the subjunctive and the indicative moods. “ *Though* he were divinely inspired, and spoke therefore as the oracles of God, with supreme authority ; *though* he were endued with supernatural powers, and could, therefore, have confirmed the truth of what he uttered, by miracles ; yet, in compliance with the way in which human nature and reasonable creatures are usually wrought upon, he reasoned.” That our Saviour was divinely inspired, and endued with supernatural powers, are positions that are here taken for granted, as not admitting the least doubt ; they would therefore have been better expressed in the indicative mood : “ *Though* he was divinely inspired ; *though* he was endued with supernatural powers.” The subjunctive is used in the like improper manner in the following example : “ *Though* he were a son, yet learned he obedience, by the things which he suffered.” But, in a similar passage, the indicative, with great propriety, is employed to the same purpose ; “ *Though* he was rich, yet for your sakes he became poor.”

1. *Lest*, and *that*, annexed to a command preceding, necessarily require the subjunctive mood : as, “ Love not sleep, *lest* thou come to poverty ;” “ Reprove not a scorner, *lest* he hate thee ;” “ Take heed *that* thou speak not to Jacob.”

If with *but* following it, when futurity is denoted, requires the subjunctive mood : as, “ *If* he do but touch the hills, they shall smoke ;” “ *If* he be but discreet, he will succeed.” But the indicative ought to be used, on this occasion, when future time is not signified : as, “ *If*, in this expression, he does but jest, no offence should be taken ;” “ *If* she is but sincere, I am happy.” The same distinction applies to the following forms of expression : “ *If* he do submit, it will be from necessity ;” “ *Though* he does submit, he is not convinced ;” “ *If* thou do not reward this service, he will be discouraged ;” “ *If* thou dost heartily forgive him, endeavour to forget the offence.”

2. In the following instances, the conjunction *that*, expressed or understood, seems to be improperly accompanied with the subjunctive mood. “ So much she dreaded his tyranny, *that* the fate of her friend she dare not lament.” “ He reasoned

so artfully that his friends would listen, and think [*that*] he were not wrong."

3. The same conjunction governing both the indicative and the subjunctive moods, in the same sentence, and in the same circumstances, seems to be a great impropriety : as in these instances. "If there *be* but one body of legislators, it is no better than a tyranny : if there *are* only two, there will want a casting voice." "If a man *have* a hundred sheep, and one of them *is* gone astray," &c.

4. Almost all the irregularities, in the construction of any language, have arisen from the ellipsis of some words, which were originally inserted in the sentence, and made it regular ; and it is probable, that this has generally been the case with respect to the conjunctive form of words, now in use ; which will appear from the following examples : "We shall overtake him though he *run* ;" that is, "though he *should* run ;" "Unless he *act* prudently, he will not accomplish his purpose ;" that is, "unless he *shall* act prudently." "If he *succeed* and *obtain* his end, he will not be the happier for it ;" that is, "If he *should* succeed and *should* obtain his end." These remarks and examples are designed to show the original of many of our present conjunctive forms of expression ; and to enable the student to examine the propriety of using them, by tracing the words in question to their proper origin and ancient connexions. But it is necessary to be more particular on this subject, and therefore we shall add a few observations respecting it.

That part of the verb which grammarians call the present tense of the subjunctive mood, has a future signification. This is effected by varying the terminations of the second and third persons singular of the indicative ; as will be evident from the following examples : "If thou *prosper*, thou shouldst be thankful ;" "Unless he *study* more closely, he will never be learned." Some writers however would express these sentiments without those variations ; "If thou *prosperest*," &c. "Unless he *studies*," &c. : and as there is great diversity of practice in this point, it is proper to offer the learners a few remarks, to assist them in distinguishing the right application of these different forms of expression. It may be considered as a rule, that the changes of termination are necessary, when these two circumstances concur : 1st, When the subject is of a dubious and contingent nature ; and 2d, When the verb has a reference to future time. In the following sentences, both these circumstances will be found to unite ; "If thou *injure* another, thou wilt hurt thyself ;" "He has a hard heart ; and if he *continue* impenitent, he must



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and formal: but when cases of this sort occur, it is better to give the expression a different turn, than to violate grammar for the sake of ease, or even of elegance. See *Rule 14. Note 2.*

5. On the form of the auxiliaries in the compound tenses of the subjunctive mood, it seems proper to make a few observations. Some writers express themselves in the perfect tense as follows: "If thou *have* determined, we must submit:" "Unless he *have* consented, the writing will be void:" but we believe that few authors of critical sagacity write in this manner. The proper form seems to be, "If thou *hast* determined; unless he *has* consented," &c. conformably to what we generally meet with in the Bible: "I have surnamed thee, though thou *hast* not known me." *Isaiah* xlv. 4, 5. "What is the hope of the hypocrite, though he *hath* gained," &c. *Job* xxvii. 8. See also *Acts* xxviii. 4.

6. In the pluperfect and future tenses, we sometimes meet with such expressions as these; "If thou *had* applied thyself diligently, thou wouldst have reaped the advantage;" "Unless thou *shall* speak the whole truth, we cannot determine;" "If thou *will* undertake the business, there is little doubt of success." This mode of expressing the auxiliaries does not appear to be warranted by the general practice of correct writers. They should be *hadst*, *shalt*, and *wilt*: and we find them used in this form, in the sacred Scriptures.

"If thou *hadst* known," &c. *Luke* xix. 47. "If thou *hadst* been here," &c. *John* xi. 21. "If thou *wilt*, thou canst make me clean," *Matt.* viii. 2. See also, *2 Sam.* ii. 27. *Matt.* xvii. 4.

7. The second person singular of the imperfect tense in the subjunctive mood, is also very frequently varied in its termination: as, "If thou *loved* him truly, thou wouldst obey him;" "Though thou *did* conform, thou hast gained nothing by it." This variation, however, appears to be improper. Our present version of the Scriptures, which we again refer to, as a good grammatical authority in points of this nature, decides against it. "If thou *knewest* the gift," &c. *John* iv. 10. "If thou *didst* receive it, why dost thou glory?" &c. *1 Cor.* iv. 7. See also *Dan.* v. 22. But it is proper to remark, that the form of the verb *to be*, when used subjunctively in the imperfect tense, is indeed very considerably and properly varied from that which it has in the imperfect of the indicative mood: as the learner will perceive by turning to the conjugation of that verb.

8. It may not be superfluous, also to observe, that the auxiliaries of the potential mood, when applied to the subjunctive, do not change the termination of the second person

singular. We properly say, "If thou *mayst* or *canst* go;" "Though thou *mightst* live;" "Unless thou *couldst* read;" "If thou *wouldst* learn;" and not "If thou *may* or *can* go," &c. It is sufficient, on this point, to adduce the authorities of Johnson and Lowth; "If thou *shouldst* go.;" *Johnson*. "If thou *mayst*, *mightst*, or *couldst* love;" *Lowth*. Some authors think, that when *that* expresses the motive or end, the termination of these auxiliaries should be varied: as, "I advise thee, *that* thou *may* beware;" "He checked thee, *that* thou *should* not presume:" but there does not appear to be any ground for this exception. If the expression of "condition, doubt, contingency," &c. does not warrant a change in the form of these auxiliaries, why should they have it, when a motive or end is expressed? The translators of the Scriptures do not appear to have made the distinction contended for. "Thou buildest the wall, *that* thou *mayst* be their king," *Neh.* vi. 6. "There is forgiveness with thee, *that* thou *mayst* be feared." *Psalms* cxxx. 4.

From the preceding observations under this rule, it appears, that with respect to what is termed the present tense of any verb, when the circumstances of contingency and futurity concur, it is proper to vary the terminations of the second and third persons singular; that without the concurrence of those circumstances, the terminations should not be altered; and that the verb and the auxiliaries of the three past tenses, and the auxiliaries of the first future, undergo no alterations whatever: except the *imperfect* of the verb *to be*, which, in cases denoting contingency, is varied in all the persons of the singular number. *See page 65. The Note.*

After perusing what has been advanced on this subject, it will be natural for the student to inquire, what is the extent of the subjunctive mood? Some grammarians think it extends only to what is called the present tense of verbs generally, under the circumstances of contingency and futurity; and to the imperfect tense of the verb *to be*, when it denotes contingency, &c.: because in these tenses only, the form of the verb admits of variation; and they suppose that it is variation merely which constitutes the distinction of moods. It is the opinion of other grammarians, (in which opinion we concur,) that, besides the two cases just mentioned, all verbs in the three past, and the two future tenses, are in the subjunctive mood, when they denote contingency or uncertainty, though they have not any change of termination; and that, when contingency is not signified, the verb, through all these five tenses, belongs to the indicative mood, whatever conjunction may attend it. They think, that the definition

and nature of the subjunctive mood, have no reference to change of termination, but that they refer merely to the manner of the being, action, or passion, signified by the verb; and that the subjunctive mood *assions* properly exist without a variation of the verb, as the infinitive mood, which has no terminations different from those of the indicative. The decision of this point may not, by some grammarians, be thought of much consequence. But the rules which ascertain the propriety of varying, or not varying, the terminations of the verb, will certainly be deemed important. These rules may be well observed, without a uniformity of sentiment respecting the nature and limits of the subjunctive mood. For further remarks on the subject, see pages 57, 61—63—75—77, 80—82.*

9. Some conjunctions have correspondent conjunctions belonging to them, either expressed or understood: as,

1st, *Though*,—*yet*, *nevertheless*: as “*Though* he was rich, *yet* for our sakes he became poor.” “*Though* powerful, he was meek.”

2d, *Whether*—*or*: as, “*Whether* he will go *or* not, I cannot tell.”

3d, *Either*—*or*: as, “I will *either* send it, *or* bring it myself.”

4th, *Neither*—*nor*: as, “*Neither* he *nor* I am able to compass it.”

5th, *As*—*as*: expressing a comparison of equality: as, “She is *as* amiable *as* her sister; and *as* much respected.”

6th, *As*—*so*: expressing a comparison of equality: as, “*As* the stars, *so* shall thy seed be.”

7th, *As*—*so*: expressing a comparison of quality: as, “*As* the one dieth, *so* dieth the other.” “*As* he reads, they read.”

* We have stated, for the student's information, the different opinions of grammarians, respecting the English Subjunctive Mood: *First*, that which supposes there is no such mood in our language; *Secondly*, that which extends it no farther than the variations of the verb extend; *Thirdly*, that which we have adopted, and explained at large; and which, in general, corresponds with the views of the most approved writers on English Grammar. We may add a *Fourth* opinion; which appears to possess, at least, much plausibility. This opinion admits the arrangement we have given, with one variation, namely, that of assigning to the first tense of the subjunctive, two forms: 1st, that which simply denotes contingency: as, “If he *desires* it, I will perform the operation:” that is, “If he *now* desires it;” 2dly, that which denotes both contingency and futurity; as, “If he *desire* it, I will perform the operation;” that is, “If he should *hereafter* desire it.” This last theory of the subjunctive mood, claims the merit of rendering the whole system of the moods consistent and regular; of being more conformable than any other, to the definition of the subjunctive; and of not referring to the indicative mood forms of expression, which ill accord with its simplicity and nature. Perhaps this theory will bear a strict examination.



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tion." The sentence in the common form would have read thus: "If the limitations on the prerogative had been, &c. his integrity would have made him regard," &c.

The particle *as*, when it is connected with the pronoun *such*, has the force of a relative pronoun: *as*, "Let *such as* presume to advise others, look well to their own conduct;" which is equivalent to, "Let *them who* presume," &c. But when used by itself, this particle is to be considered as a conjunction, or perhaps as an adverb. See the KEY.

Our language wants a conjunction adapted to familiar style, equivalent to *notwithstanding*. The words *for all that*, seem to be too low. "The word was in the mouth of every one, but, for all that, the subject may still be a secret."

In regard that is solemn and antiquated; *because* would do much better in the following sentence. "It cannot be otherwise, in regard that the French prosody differs from that of every other language."

The word *except* is far preferable to *other than*. "It admitted of no effectual cure other than amputation." *Except* is also to be preferred to *all but*. "They were happy all but the stranger."

In the two following phrases, the conjunction *as* is improperly omitted; "Which nobody presumes, or is so sanguine Δ to hope." "I must, however, be so just Δ to own."

The conjunction *that* is often properly omitted, and understood; *as*, "I beg you would come to me;" "See thou do it not;" instead of "that you would," "that thou do." But in the following and many similar phrases, this conjunction were much better inserted: "Yet it is reason the memory of their virtues remain to posterity." It should be, "yet it is *just that* the memory." &c.

RULE XX.

When the qualities of different things are compared, the latter noun or pronoun is not governed by the conjunction *than* or *as*, but agrees with the verb, or is governed by the verb or the preposition, expressed or understood: *as*, "Thou art wiser than I;" that is, "than I am." "They loved him more than me;" i. e. "more than they loved me." "The sentiment is well expressed by Plato, but much better by Solomon than him;" that is, "than by him."*

The propriety or impropriety of many phrases, in the preceding as well as in some other forms, may be discovered, by

* See the *Tenth*, or any subsequent, edition of the Key; Rule xx. The Note.

supplying the words that are not expressed; which will be evident from the following instances of erroneous construction. "He can read better than me." "He is as good as her." "Whether I be present or no." "Who did this? Me." By supplying the words understood in each of these phrases, their impropriety and governing rule will appear: as, "Better than I can read;" "As good as she is;" "Present or not present;" "I did it."

1. By not attending to this rule, many errors have been committed: a number of which is subjoined, as a further caution and direction to the learner. "Thou art a much greater loser than me by his death." "She suffers hourly more than me." "We contributed a third more than the Dutch, who were obliged to the same proportion more than us." "King Charles, and more than him, the duke and the popish faction, were at liberty to form new schemes." "The drift of all his sermons was, to prepare the Jews for the reception of a prophet mightier than him, and whose shoes he was not worthy to bear." "It was not the work of so eminent an author, as him to whom it was first imputed." "A stone is heavy, and the sand weighty; but a fool's wrath is heavier than them both." "If the king give us leave, we may perform the office as well as them that do." In these passages it ought to be, "*I, we, he, they*, respectively."

When the relative *who* immediately follows *than*, it seems to form an exception to the 20th rule; for in that connexion, the relative must be in the objective case; as, "Alfred, *than whom*, a greater king never reigned," &c. "Beelzebub, *than whom*, Satan excepted, none higher sat," &c. It is remarkable that in such instances, if the personal pronoun were used, it would be in the nominative case; as, "A greater king never reigned *than he*," that is, "*than he was*." "Beelzebub, *than he*," &c.; that is, "*than he sat*." The phrase *than whom*, is, however, avoided by the best modern writers.

RULE XXI.

To avoid disagreeable repetitions, and to express our ideas in few words, an ellipsis, or omission of some words, is frequently admitted. Instead of saying, "He was a learned man, he was a wise man, and he was a good man;" we make use of the ellipsis, and say, "He was a learned, wise, and good man."

When the omission of words would obscure the sentence, weaken its force, or be attended with an impropriety, they must be expressed. In the sentence, "We are

apt to love who love us," the word *them* should be supplied. "A beautiful field and trees," is not proper language. It should be, "Beautiful fields and trees;" or, "A beautiful field and fine trees."

Almost all compounded sentences are more or less elliptical; some examples of which may be seen under the different parts of speech.

1. The ellipsis of the *article* is thus used; "A man, woman, and child:" that is, "a man, a woman, and a child." "A house and garden;" that is, "a house and a garden." "The sun and moon;" that is, "the sun and the moon." "The day and hour;" that is, "the day and the hour." In all these instances, the article being once expressed, the repetition of it becomes unnecessary. There is, however, an exception to this observation, when some peculiar emphasis requires a repetition; as in the following sentence. "Not only the year, but the day and the hour." In this case, the ellipsis of the last article would be improper. When a different form of the article is requisite, the article is also properly repeated: as, "a house and *an* orchard;" instead of, "a house and orchard."

2. The *noun* is frequently omitted in the following manner. "The laws of God and man;" that is, "the laws of God and the laws of man." In some very emphatical expressions, the ellipsis should not be used: as, "Christ the power of God, and the wisdom of God;" which is more emphatical than, "Christ the power and wisdom of God."

3. The ellipsis of the *adjective* is used in the following manner. "A delightful garden and orchard;" that is, "a delightful garden and a delightful orchard;" "A little man and woman;" that is, "A little man and a little woman." In such elliptical expressions as these, the adjective ought to have exactly the same signification, and to be quite as proper, when joined to the latter substantive as to the former; otherwise the ellipsis should not be admitted.

Sometimes the ellipsis is improperly applied to nouns of different numbers: as: "A magnificent house and gardens." In this case it is better to use another adjective; as, "A magnificent house and fine gardens."

4. The following is the ellipsis of the *pronoun*. "I love and fear him;" that is, "I love him, and I fear him." "My house and lands;" that is, "my house and my lands." In these instances the ellipsis may take place with propriety; but if we would be more express and emphatical, it must not



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my service ;” that is, “ Thrice I went, and thrice I offered my service.”

7. The ellipsis of the *preposition*, as well as of the verb, is seen in the following instances : “ He went into the abbeys, halls, and public buildings ;” that is, “ he went into the abbeys, he went into the halls, and he went into the public buildings.” “ He also went through all the streets and lanes of the city ;” that is, “ Through all the streets, and through all the lanes,” &c. “ He spoke to every man and woman there,” that is, “ to every man and to every woman.” “ This day, next month, last year ;” that is, “ on this day, in the next month, in the last year ;” “ The Lord do that which seemeth him good ;” that is, “ which seemeth *to* him.”

8. The ellipsis of the *conjunction* is as follows : “ They confess the power, wisdom, goodness, and love, of their Creator ;” i. e. “ the power, and wisdom, and goodness, and love of.” &c. “ Though I love him, I do not flatter him,” that is, “ Though I love him, *yet* I do not flatter him.”

9. The ellipsis of the *interjection* is not very common ; it, however, is sometimes used : as, “ Oh ! pity and shame !” that is, “ Oh pity ! Oh shame !”

As the ellipsis occurs in almost every sentence in the English language, numerous examples of it might be given ; but only a few more can be admitted here.

In the following instance there is a very considerable one : “ He will often argue, that if this part of our trade were well cultivated, we should gain from one nation ; and if another, from another ;” that is, “ He will often argue, that if this part of our trade were well cultivated, we should gain from one nation, and if another part of our trade were well cultivated, we should gain from another nation.”

The following instances, though short, contain much of the ellipsis : “ Wo is me ;” i. e. “ wo is to me.” “ To let blood ;” i. e. “ to let out blood.” “ To let down ;” i. e. “ to let it fall or slide down.” “ To walk a mile ;” i. e. “ to walk through the space of a mile.” “ To sleep all night ;” i. e. “ To sleep through all the night.” “ To go a fishing ;” “ To go a hunting :” i. e. “ to go on a fishing voyage or business ;” “ to go on a hunting party.” “ I dine at two o’clock ;” i. e. “ at two of the clock.” “ By sea, by land, on shore :” i. e. “ By the sea, by the land, on the shore.”

10. The examples that follow are produced to show the impropriety of ellipsis in some particular cases. “ The land was always possessed, during pleasure, by those intrusted with the command ;” it should be, “ those *persons* ^s ;”
intru ted

or, "those *who were* intrusted." "If he had read further, he would have found several of his objections might have been spared:" that is, "he would have found *that* several of his objections," &c. "There is nothing men are more deficient in, than knowing their own characters." It ought to be, "nothing *in which* men;" and, "than *in* knowing." "I scarcely know any part of natural philosophy would yield more variety and use;" it should be, "*which* would yield," &c. "In the temper of mind he was then;" i. e. "*in which* he then was." "The little satisfaction and consistency, to be found in most of the systems of divinity I have met with, made me betake myself to the sole reading of the Scriptures:" it ought to be, "*which are* to be found," and "*which* I have met with." "He desired they might go to the altar together, and jointly return their thanks to whom only they were due;" i. e. "*to him* to whom," &c.

RULE XXII.

All the parts of a sentence should correspond to each other: a regular and dependent construction, throughout, should be carefully preserved. The following sentence is therefore inaccurate: "He was more beloved, but not so much admired, as Cinthio." It should be, "He was more beloved than Cinthio, but not so much admired."

The first example under this rule, presents a most irregular construction, namely, "He was more beloved *as* Cinthio." The words *more* and *so much*, are very improperly stated as having the same regimen. In correcting such sentences, it is not necessary to supply the latter ellipsis; because it cannot lead to any discordant or improper construction, and the supply would often be harsh or inelegant. See p. 153.

As the 22d Rule comprehends all the preceding rules, it may, at the first view, appear to be too general to be useful. But by ranging under it a number of sentences constructed, we shall perceive, that it is calculated particularly to maintain the true grammatical construction of many modes of expression, which none of the particular rules can sufficiently explain.

"This dedication may serve for almost any book, that has, is, or shall be published." It ought to be, "that has been, or shall be published." "He was guided by interests always different, sometimes contrary to, those of the community;" "different *from*;" or, "always different from those of the community, and sometimes contrary to them." "Will it be urged that these books are as old, or even older than tradi-

tion?" The words, "as old," and "older," cannot have a common regimen; it should be "as old as tradition, or even older." "It requires few talents to which most men are not born, or at least may not acquire;" "or which, at least they may not acquire." "The court of chancery frequently mitigates and breaks the teeth of the common law." In this construction, the first verb is said, "to mitigate the teeth of the common law," which is an evident solecism. "Mitigates the common law, and breaks the teeth of it," would have been grammatical.

"They presently grow into good humour, and good language towards the crown;" "grow into good language," is very improper. "There is never wanting a set of evil instruments, who either out of mad zeal, private hatred, or filthy lucre, are always ready," &c. We say properly, "A man acts out of mad zeal," or, "out of private hatred;" but we cannot say, if we would speak English, "he *acts* out of filthy lucre." "To double her kindness and caresses of me;" the word "kindness" requires to be followed by either *to* or *for*, and cannot be construed with the preposition *of*. "Never was man so teased, or suffered half the uneasiness, as I have done this evening:" the first and third clauses, viz. "Never was man so teased, as I have done this evening," cannot be joined without an impropriety; and to connect the second and third, the word *that* must be substituted for *as*; "Or suffered half the uneasiness that I have done;" or else, "half so much uneasiness as I have suffered."

The first part of the following sentence abounds with adverbs, and those such as are hardly consistent with one another: "*How much soever* the reformation of this degenerate age is *almost utterly* to be despaired of, we may yet have a more comfortable prospect of future times." The sentence would be more correct in the following form: "*Though* the reformation of this degenerate age is *nearly* to be despaired of," &c.

"Oh! shut not up my soul with the sinners, nor my life with the blood-thirsty; in whose hands is wickedness, and *their* right hand is full of gifts." As the passage, introduced by the copulative conjunction *and*, was not intended as a continuation of the principal and independent part of the sentence, but of the dependent part, the relative *whose* should have been used instead of the possessive *their*; viz. "and *whose* right-hand is full of gifts."

"Eye hath not seen, nor ear heard, neither *have* entered into the heart of man, the things which God hath prepared for them that love him." There seems to be an impropriety



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third person, the singular number, and in the nominative case. (*Decline the noun.*) *Ennobles* is a regular verb active, indicative mood, present tense, and the third person singular. (*Repeat the present tense, the imperfect tense, and the perfect participle.*†) *Us* is a personal pronoun, of the first person plural, and in the objective case. (*Decline it.*)

“ Goodness will be rewarded.”

Goodness is a common substantive, of the neuter gender, the third person, the singular number, and in the nominative case. (*Decline it.*) *Will be rewarded* is a regular verb, in the passive voice, the indicative mood, the first future tense, and the third person singular. (*Repeat the present tense, the imperfect tense, and the perfect participle.*)

“ Strive to improve.”

Strive is an irregular verb neuter, in the imperative mood, and of the second person singular. (*Repeat the present tense, &c.*) *To improve* is a regular verb neuter, and in the infinitive mood. (*Repeat the present tense, &c.*)

“ Time flies, O! how swiftly.”

Time is a common substantive, of the neuter gender, the third person, the singular number, and in the nominative case. (*Decline the noun.*) *Flies* is an irregular verb neuter, the indicative mood, present tense, and the third person singular. (*Repeat the present tense, &c.*) *O!* is an interjection. *How* and *swiftly* are adverbs.

“ Gratitude is a delightful emotion.”

Gratitude is a common substantive, of the neuter gender, the third person, the singular number, and in the nominative case. (*Decline it.*) *Is* is an irregular verb neuter, indicative mood, present tense, and the third person singular. (*Repeat the present tense, &c.*) *A* is the indefinite article. *Delightful* is an adjective in the positive state. (*Repeat the degrees of comparison.*) *Emotion* is a common substantive of the neuter gender, the third person, the singular number, and in the nominative case. (*Decline it.*)

“ They who forgive, act nobly.”

They is a personal pronoun, of the third person, the plural number, and in the nominative case. (*Decline it.*) *Who* is a relative pronoun, and the nominative case. (*Decline it.*) *Forgive* is an irregular verb active, indicative mood, present tense, and the third person plural. (*Repeat the present tense, &c.*) *Act* is a regular verb active, indicative mood, present

† The learner should occasionally repeat all the moods and tenses of the verb.

tense, and the third person plural. (*Repeat, &c.*) *Nobly* is an adverb of quality. (*Repeat the degrees of comparison.*)

“By living temperately, our health is promoted.”

By is a preposition. *Living* is the present participle of the regular neuter verb, “to live.” (*Repeat the participles.*) *Temperately* is an adverb of quality. *Our* is an adjective pronoun of the possessive kind. (*Decline it.*) *Health* is a common substantive, of the third person, the singular number, and in the nominative case. (*Decline it.*) *Is promoted* is a regular verb passive, indicative mood, present tense, and the third person singular. (*Repeat, &c.*)

“We should be kind to them, who are unkind to us.”

We is a personal pronoun, of the first person, the plural number, and in the nominative case. (*Decline it.*) *Should be* is an irregular verb neuter, in the potential mood, the imperfect tense, and the first person plural. (*Repeat the present tense, &c.*) *Kind* is an adjective, in the positive state. (*Repeat the degrees of comparison.*) *To* is a preposition. *Them* is a personal pronoun, of the third person, the plural number, and in the objective case. (*Decline it.*) *Who* is a relative pronoun, and in the nominative case. (*Decline it.*) *Are* is an irregular verb neuter, indicative mood, present tense, and the third person plural. (*Repeat, &c.*) *Unkind* is an adjective in the positive state. (*Repeat the degrees of comparison.*) *To* is a preposition. *Us* is a personal pronoun, of the first person, the plural number, and in the objective case. (*Decline it.*)

SECTION 2. *Specimens of syntactical parsing.*

“Vice produces misery.”

Vice is a common substantive, of the neuter gender, the third person, the singular number, and in the nominative case. *Produces* is a regular verb active, indicative mood, present tense, the third person singular, agreeing with its nominative “*vice*,” according to RULE I. which says; (*here repeat the rule.*) *Misery* is a common substantive, of the neuter gender, the third person, the singular number, and the objective case, governed by the active verb “*produces*,” according to Rule XI. which says, &c.

“Peace and joy are virtue’s crown.”

Peace is a common substantive. (*Repeat the gender, person, number, and case.*) *And* is a copulative conjunction. *Joy* is a common substantive. (*Repeat the person, number, and case.*) *Are* is an irregular verb neuter, indicative mood, present tense, and the third person plural, agreeing with the

nominative case "peace and joy," according to RULE II. which says; (*here repeat the rule.*) *Virtue's* is a common substantive, of the third person, the singular number, and in the possessive case, governed by the substantive "crown," agreeably to RULE X, which says, &c. *Crown* is a common substantive, of the neuter gender, the third person, the singular number, and in the nominative case, agreeably to the fourth note of RULE XI.

"Wisdom or folly governs us."

Wisdom is a common substantive. (*Repeat the gender, person, number, and case.*) *Or* is a disjunctive conjunction. *Folly* is a common substantive. (*Repeat the person, number, and case.*) *Governs* is a regular verb active, indicative mood, present tense, and the third person singular, agreeing with its nominative case "wisdom" or "folly," according to RULE III. which says, &c. *Us* is a personal pronoun, of the first person, plural number, and in the objective case, governed by the active verb "governs," agreeably to RULE XI. which says, &c.

"Every heart knows its sorrows."

Every is an adjective pronoun of the distributive kind, agreeing with its substantive "heart," according to Note 2 under RULE VIII. which says, &c. *Heart* is a common substantive. (*Repeat the gender, person, number, and case.*) *Knows* is an irregular verb active, indicative mood, present tense, third person singular, agreeing with its nominative case "heart," according to RULE I. which says, &c. *Its* is a personal pronoun, of the third person singular, and of the neuter gender, to agree with its substantive "heart," according to RULE V. which says, &c. it is in the possessive case, governed by the noun "sorrows," according to RULE X. which says, &c. *Sorrows* is a common substantive, of the third person, the plural number, and the objective case, governed by the active verb "knows," according to Rule XI. which says, &c.

"The man is happy who lives wisely."

The is the definite article. *Man* is a common substantive. (*Repeat the person, number, and case.*) *Is* is an irregular verb neuter, indicative mood, present tense, and the third person singular, agreeing with the nominative case "man," according to RULE I. which says, &c. *Happy* is an adjective in the positive state. *Who* is a relative pronoun, which has for its antecedent, "man," with which it agrees in gender and number, according to RULE V. which says, &c. *Lives* is a regular verb neuter, indicative mood, present tense, third person



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“thou” understood. *To assist* is a regular verb active, in the infinitive mood, governed by the preceding verb “remember,” according to RULE XII. which says, &c. *The* is the definite article. *Distressed* is an adjective put substantively.

“We are not unemployed.”

We is a personal pronoun. (*Repeat the person, number, and case.*) *Are* is an irregular verb neuter. (*Repeat the mood, tense, person, &c.*) *Not* is an adverb of negation. *Unemployed* is an adjective in the positive state. The two negatives *not* and *un*, form an affirmative, agreeably to RULE XVI. which says, &c.

“This bounty has relieved you and us; and has gratified the donor.”

This is an adjective pronoun of the demonstrative kind. *Bounty* is a common substantive. (*Repeat the person, number, and case.*) *Has relieved* is a regular verb active, indicative mood, perfect tense, third person singular, agreeing with its nominative “bounty,” according to Rule 1. which says, &c. *You* is a personal pronoun, of the second person plural, and in the objective case. (*Repeat the government and rule.*) *And* is a copulative conjunction. *Us* is a personal pronoun, in the objective case. *You* and *us* are put in the same case, according to RULE XVIII. which says, &c. *And* is a copulative conjunction. *Has gratified* is a regular verb active, indicative mood, perfect tense, and the third person singular, agreeing with its nominative “bounty,” understood. “*Has relieved*,” and “*Has gratified*,” are in the same mood and tense, according to RULE XVIII. which says, &c. *The* is the definite article. *Donor* is a common substantive, of the third person, the singular number, and the objective case, governed by the active verb “has gratified,” according to Rule XI. which says, &c. See the Octavo Grammar, on Gender.

“He will not be pardoned, unless he repent.”

He is a personal pronoun, of the third person, singular number, masculine gender, and in the nominative case. *Will be pardoned* is a regular passive verb, indicative mood, first future tense, and the third person singular, agreeing with its nominative “he,” according to RULE I. and composed of the auxiliaries “will be,” and the perfect participle “pardoned.” *Not* is a negative adverb. *Unless* is a disjunctive conjunction. *He* is a personal pronoun. (*Repeat the person, number, gender, and case.*) *Repent* is a regular verb neuter, in the subjunctive mood, the present tense, the third person singular, and agrees with its nominative case “he,” according to

Rule 1. which says, &c.) It is in the subjunctive mood, because it implies a future sense, and denotes uncertainty signified by the conjunction “unless,” agreeably to Rule 19, and the notes.

“Good works being neglected, devotion is false.”

Good works being neglected, being independent of the rest of the sentence, is the case absolute, according to the fifth note of Rule 1. *Devotion* is a common substantive. (*Repeat the number, person, and case.*) *Is* is an irregular verb neuter. (*Repeat the mood, tense, person, &c.*) *False* is an adjective in the positive state, and belongs to its substantive “devotion” understood, agreeably to Rule VIII. which says, &c.

“The emperor, Marcus Aurelius, was a wise and virtuous prince.”

The is the definite article. *Emperor* is a common substantive, of the masculine gender, the third person, the singular number, and in the nominative case. *Marcus Aurelius* is a proper name or substantive, and in the nominative case, because it is put in apposition with the substantive “emperor,” agreeably to the first note of Rule x. *Was* is an irregular verb neuter, indicative mood, imperfect tense, and the third person singular, agreeing with its nominative case “emperor.” *A* is the indefinite article. *Wise* is an adjective, and belongs to its substantive “prince.” *And* is a copulative conjunction. *Virtuous* is an adjective, and belongs, &c. *Prince* is a common substantive, and in the nominative case, agreeably to the fourth note of Rule xi.

“To err is human.”

To err, is the infinitive mood, and the nominative case to the verb “is.” *Is* is an irregular verb neuter, indicative mood, present tense, and the third person singular, agreeing with its nominative case “to err,” agreeably to note 1, under Rule the first. *Human* is an adjective, and belongs to its substantive “nature” understood, according to Rule 8. which says, &c.

“To countenance persons who are guilty of bad actions, is scarcely one remove from actually committing them.”

To countenance persons who are guilty of bad actions, is part of a sentence, which is the nominative case to the verb “is.” *Is* is an irregular verb neuter, &c. agreeing with the aforementioned part of a sentence, as its nominative case, agreeably to Note 1, under Rule the first. *Scarcely* is an adverb. *One* is a numeral adjective agreeing with its substan-

tive "remove." *Remove* is a common substantive, of the neuter gender, the third person, the singular number, and in the nominative case, agreeably to the fourth note of Rule xi. *From* is a preposition. *Committing* is the present participle of the regular active verb "to commit." *Them* is a personal pronoun, of the third person, the plural number, and in the objective case, governed by the participle "committing," agreeably to Rule xiv. which says, &c.

"Let me proceed."

This sentence, according to the statement of grammarians in general, is in the Imperative mood, of the first person, and the singular number. The sentence may, however, be analyzed in the following manner. *Let* is an irregular verb active, in the imperative mood, of the second person, the plural number, and agrees with its nominative case "you" understood: as, "do you let." *Me* is a personal pronoun, of the first person, the singular number, and in the objective case, governed by the active verb "let," agreeably to Rule xi. which says, &c. *Proceed* is a regular verb neuter, in the infinitive mood, governed by the preceding verb "let," according to Rule xii. which says, &c.

"Living expensively and luxuriously destroys health. By living frugally and temperately, health is preserved."

Living expensively and luxuriously, is the nominative case to the verb "destroyes," agreeably to Note 1, under Rule 1. *Living frugally and temperately*, is a substantive phrase in the objective case, governed by the preposition "by," according to Note 2, under Rule xiv.

The preceding specimens of parsing, if carefully studied by the learner, seem to be sufficiently explicit, to enable him to comprehend the nature of this employment; and sufficiently diversified, to qualify him, in other exercises, to point out and apply the remaining rules, both principal and subordinate.



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tice of some nations. But the English tongue has, for this purpose, adopted a mark of the easiest and simplest kind, which is called accent, and which effectually answers the end.

Every word in our language, of more than one syllable, has one of them distinguished from the rest in this manner; and some writers assert, that every monosyllable of two or more letters, has one of its letters thus distinguished.

Accent is either principal or secondary. The principal accent is that which necessarily distinguishes one syllable in a word from the rest. The secondary accent is that stress which we may occasionally place upon another syllable besides that which has the principal accent; in order to pronounce every part of the word more distinctly, forcibly, and harmoniously: thus, "Complaisant, caravan," and "violin," have frequently an accent on the first as well as on the last syllable, though a somewhat less forcible one. The same may be observed of "Repartee, referee, privateer, domineer," &c. But it must be observed, that though an accent is allowed on the first syllable of these words, it is by no means necessary; they may all be pronounced with one accent, and that on the last syllable, without the least deviation from propriety.

As emphasis evidently points out the most significant word in a sentence; so, where other reasons do not forbid, the accent always dwells with greatest force on that part of the word which, from its importance, the hearer has always the greatest occasion to observe: and this is necessarily the root or body of the word. But as harmony of termination frequently attracts the accent from the root to the branches of words, so the first and most natural law of accentuation seems to operate less in fixing the stress than any other. Our own Saxon terminations, indeed, with perfect uniformity, leave the principal part of the word in quiet possession of what seems its lawful property; but Latin and Greek terminations, of which our language is full, assume a right of preserving their original accent, and subject almost every word they bestow upon us to their own classical laws.

Accent, therefore, seems to be regulated in a great measure by etymology. In words from the Saxon, the accent is generally on the root; in words from the learned languages, it is generally on the termination; and if to these we add the different accent we lay on some words, to distinguish them from others, we seem to have the three great principles of accentuation; namely, the *radical*, the *terminational*, and the *distinctive*. The radical: as, "Lóve, lóvely, lóveliness;" the

terminational : as, "Hármony, harmónious;" the distinctive: as, "Cónvert, to convért."

ACCENT ON DISSYLLABLES.

Words of two syllables have necessarily one of them accented, and but one. It is true, for the sake of emphasis, we sometimes lay an equal stress upon two successive syllables : as, "Dí-réct, sóme-tímes;" but when these words are pronounced alone, they have never more than one accent. The word "á-mén," is the only word which is pronounced with two accents when alone.

Of dissyllables, formed by affixing a termination, the former syllable is commonly accented : as, "Chíldish, kíngdom, áctest, ácted, tóilsome, lóver, scóffer, fáirer, fóremost, zéalous, fúlness, meékly, ártist."

Dissyllables formed by prefixing a syllable to the radical word, have commonly the accent on the latter : as, "To be-seém, to bestów, to retúrn."

Of dissyllables, which are at once nouns and verbs, the verb has commonly the accent on the latter, and the noun on the former syllable : as, "To cemént, a cément ; to contráct, a cóntract ; to preságe, a présage."

This rule has many exceptions. Though verbs seldom have their accent on the former, yet nouns often have it on the latter syllable : as, "Delíght, perfúme." Those nouns which, in the common order of language, must have preceded the verbs, often transmit their accent to the verbs they form, and inversely. Thus, the noun "wáter" must have preceded the verb "to wáter," as the verb "to correspónd," must have preceded the noun "correspóndent:" and "to pursúe" claims priority to "pursúit." So that we may conclude, wherever verbs deviate from the rule, it is seldom by chance, and generally in those words only where a superior law of accent takes place.

All dissyllables ending in *y, our, ow, le, ish, ck, ter, age, en, et* : as, "Cránný, lábour, wíllow, wállow;" except "allów, avów, endów, belów, bestów;" "báttle, bánísh, cámblic, báter, cóurage, fásten, quíet;" accent the former syllable.

Dissyllable nouns in *er*, as, "Cánker, bútter," have the accent on the former syllable.

Dissyllable verbs, terminating in a consonant and *e* final, as, "Comprise, escápe;" or having a diphthong in the last syllable, as, "Appéase, revéal;" or ending in two consonants; as, "Atténd;" have the accents on the latter syllable.

Dissyllable nouns, having a diphthong in the latter syllable, have commonly their accent on the latter syllable ; as, "Ap-

pláuse ;" except some words in *ain* : as, "Villain, cúrtain, móuntain."

Dissyllables that have two vowels, which are separated in the pronunciation, have always the accent on the first syllable : as, "Líon, riot, quiet, liar, rúin ;" except "create."

ACCENT ON TRISYLLABLES.

Trisyllables formed by adding a termination, or prefixing a syllable, retain the accent of the radical word : as, "Loveli-ness, ténderness, contémner, wágoner, phýsical, bespátter, cómmenting, comménding, assúrance."

Trisyllables ending in *ous, al, ion* : as, "árduous, cápital, méntion," accent the first.

Trisyllables ending in *ce, ent, and ate*, accent the first syllable : as, "Cóúntenance, cóntinence, ármament, imminent, élegant, própagate ;" unless they are derived from words having the accent on the last : as, "Connivance, acquáint-ance ;" and unless the middle syllable has a vowel before two consonants : as, "Promúlgate."

Trisyllables ending in *y*, as, "éntity, spécify, liberty, vieto-ry, súbsidy," commonly accent the first syllable.

Trisyllables ending in *re* or *le*, accent the first syllable : as, "Légible, théâtre ;" except "Disciple," and some words which have a preposition : as, "Exámple, indénture."

Trisyllables ending in *ude*, commonly accent the first syl-
lable : as, "Plénitude, hábitude, réctitude."

Trisyllables ending in *ator*, have the accent on the middle syllable ; as, "Spectátor, créator," &c. : except "órador, sén-ator, hárrator, légator."

Trisyllables which have in the middle syllable a diphthong, as, "Endéavour ;" or a vowel before two consonants ; as, "Doméstic ;" accent the middle syllable.

Trisyllables that have their accent on the last syllable, are commonly French : as, "Acquiesce, repartee, magazine ;" or they are words formed by prefixing one or two syllables to a long syllable : as, "Immatúre, overchárge."

ACCENT ON POLYSYLLABLES.

Polysyllables, or words of more than three syllables, generally follow the accent of the words from which they are derived : as, "árrogating, cóntinency, incóntinently, com-méndable, commúnicableness."

Words ending in *ator* have the accent generally on the penultimate, or last syllable but one : as, "Emendátor, gladiá-tor. equivocátor, prevaricátor."

Words ending in *le* commonly have the accent on the first



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bóldnëss, sinnër." But to this rule there are many exceptions : as, "álsō, éxile, gánggrēne, úmpire, fóretāste," &c.

When the accent is on a consonant, the syllable is often more or less short, as it ends with a single consonant, or with more than one : as, "Sádly, róbber ; persist, máchless."

When the accent is on a semi-vowel, the time of the syllable may be protracted, by dwelling upon the semi-vowel : as, "Cur', can', fulfil' :" but when the accent falls on a mute, the syllable cannot be lengthened in the same manner : as, "Búbble, cáptain, tótter."

The quantity of vowels has, in some measure, been considered under the first part of grammar, which treats of the different sounds of the letters ; and therefore we shall dismiss this subject with a few general rules and observations.

1st, All vowels under the principal accent, before the terminations *ia*, *io*, and *ion*, preceded by a single consonant, are pronounced long : as, Regalia, folio, adhesion, explosion, confusion : " except the vowel *i*, which in that situation is short : as, " Militia, punctilio, decision, contrition." The only exceptions to this rule seem to be " Discretion, battalion, gladiator, national, and rational."

2d, All vowels that immediately precede the terminations *ity* and *ety*, are pronounced long : as, " Deity, piety, spontaneity." But if one consonant precedes these terminations, every preceding accented vowel is short : except *u*, and the *a* in " scarcity," and " rarity ;" as, " Polarity, severity, divinity, curiosity ;—impunity." Even *u* before two consonants contracts itself : as, " Curvity, taciturnity," &c.

3d, Vowels under the principal accent, before the terminations *ic* and *ical*, preceded by a single consonant, are pronounced short ; thus, " Satanic, pathetic, elliptic, harmonic," have the vowel short ; while " Tunic, runic, cubic," have the accented vowel long : and " Fanatical, poetical, levitical, canonical," have the vowel short ; but " Cubical, musical," &c. have the *u* long.

4th, The vowel in the antepenultimate syllable of words, with the following terminations, is always pronounced short.

loquy ; as, obloquy.
strophe ; as, apostrophe.
meter ; as, barometer.
gonal ; as, diagonal.
vorous ; as, carnivorous.
ferous ; as, somniferous.
fluos ; as, superfluous.
fluent ; as mellifluent.

parous ; as, oviparous.
cracy ; as, aristocracy.
gony ; as, cosmogony.
phony ; as, symphony.
nomy ; as, astronomy.
tomy ; as, anatomy.
pathy ; as, antipathy.

As no utterance which is void of proportion, can be agreeable to the ear; and as quantity, or proportion of time in utterance, greatly depends on a due attention to the accent; it is absolutely necessary for every person who would attain a just and pleasing delivery, to be master of that point. See *this section in the Octavo Grammar.*

SECTION 3. *Of Emphasis.*

By emphasis is meant a stronger and fuller sound of voice, by which we distinguish some word or words on which we design to lay particular stress, and to show how they affect the rest of the sentence. Sometimes the emphatic words must be distinguished by a particular tone of voice, as well as by a greater stress.

On the right management of the emphasis depends the life of pronunciation. If no emphasis be placed on any words, not only will discourse be rendered heavy and lifeless, but the meaning often left ambiguous. If the emphasis be placed wrong, we shall pervert and confound the meaning wholly. To give a common instance: such a simple question as this, "Do you ride to town to-day?" is capable of no fewer than four different acceptations, according as the emphasis is differently placed on the words. If it be pronounced thus: "Do *you* ride to town to-day?" the answer may naturally be, "No, we send a servant in our stead." If thus: "Do you *ride* to town to-day?" answer, "No, we intend to walk." "Do you ride *to town* to-day?" "No, we ride into the country." "Do you ride to town *to-day*?" "No, but we shall to-morrow." In like manner, in solemn discourse, the whole force and beauty of an expression often depend on the emphatic word; and we may present to the hearers quite different views of the same sentiment, by placing the emphasis differently. In the following words of our Saviour, observe in what different lights the thought is placed, according as the words are pronounced. "Judas, betrayest thou the son of man with a kiss?" "*Betrayest* thou," makes the reproach turn on the infamy of treachery. "*Betrayest thou,*" makes it rest upon Judas's connexion with his master. "*Betrayest thou the son of man,*" rests it upon our Saviour's personal character and eminence. "*Betrayest thou the son of man with a kiss?*" turns it upon his prostituting the signal of peace and friendship to the purpose of destruction.

The emphasis often lies on the word that asks a question: as, "*Who* said so?" "*When* will he come?" "*What* shall I do?" "*Whither* shall I go?" "*Why* dost thou weep?"

And when two words are set in contrast, or in opposition to one another, they are both emphatic; as, "He is the *tyrant*, not the *father*, of his people;" "His subjects *fear* him, but they do not *love* him."

Some sentences are so full and comprehensive, that almost every word is emphatical: as, "Ye hills and dales, ye rivers, woods, and plains:" or, as that pathetic expostulation in the prophecy of Ezekiel, "Why will ye die!" In the latter short sentence, every word is emphatical; and on which ever word we lay the emphasis, whether on the first, second, third, or fourth, it strikes out a different sense, and opens a new subject of moving expostulation.

As accent dignifies the syllable on which it is laid, and makes it more distinguished by the ear than the rest; so emphasis ennobles the word to which it belongs, and presents it in a stronger light to the understanding. Were there no accents, words would be resolved into their original syllables: were there no emphasis, sentences would be resolved into their original words; and, in this case, the hearer would be under the painful necessity, first, of making out the words, and afterwards, their meaning.

Emphasis is of two kinds, simple and complex. Simple, when it serves to point out only the plain meaning of any proposition; complex, when, besides the meaning, it marks also some affection or emotion of the mind; or gives a meaning to words, which they would not have in their usual acceptation. In the former case, emphasis is scarcely more than a stronger accent, with little or no change of tone; when it is complex, besides force, there is always superadded a manifest change of tone.

The following sentence contains an example of simple emphasis: "And Nathan said to David, *Thou* art the man." The emphasis on *thou*, serves only to point out the meaning of the speaker. But in the sentence which follows, we perceive an emotion of the speaker superadded to the simple meaning: "Why will ye die!"

As the emphasis often falls on words in different parts of the same sentence, so it is frequently required to be continued, with a little variation, on two, and sometimes three words together. The following sentence exemplifies both the parts of this position: "If you seek to make one *rich*, study not to *increase his stores*, but to *diminish his desires*." Emphasis may be further distinguished, into the weaker and the stronger emphasis. In the sentence, "Exercise and temperance strengthen the constitution;" we perceive more force on the word *strengthen*, than on any other; though it is



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obtains a long quantity. And though it is impossible to prolong the sound of this word, as it ends in a pure mute, yet in this, as in all similar instances, the additional quantity is to be made out by a rest of the voice, proportioned to the importance of the word. In this instance, we may also observe, that the word *shalt*, repeated in the second part of the line, is reduced again to a short quantity.

In the fourth instance, the word *hear* placed in opposition to the word *behold*, in the latter part of the line, obtains from the sense the chief emphasis, and a proportionate length. The words *thou* and *shalt*, are again reduced to short quantities; and the word *pleas'd* lends some of the time which it possessed, to the more important word *hear*.

From these instances, it is evident, that the quantity of our syllables is not fixed; but governed by emphasis.—To observe a due measurement of time, on all occasions, is doubtless very difficult; but by instruction, attention, and practice, the difficulty may be overcome.

Emphasis changes, not only the quantity of words and syllables, but also, in particular cases, the seat of the accent: This is demonstrable from the following examples.

“He shall *increase*, but I shall *decrease*.” “There is a difference between giving and *forgiving*.” “In this species of composition, *plausibility* is much more essential than *probability*.” In these examples, the emphasis requires the accent to be placed on syllables, to which it does not commonly belong.

In order to acquire the proper management of the emphasis, the great rule, and indeed the only rule possible to be given, is, that the speaker or reader study to attain a just conception of the force and spirit of the sentiments which he is to pronounce. For to lay the emphasis with exact propriety, is a constant exercise of good sense and attention. It is far from being an inconsiderable attainment. It is one of the greatest trials of a true and just taste; and must arise from feeling delicately ourselves, and from judging accurately, of what is fittest to strike the feelings of others.

There is one error, against which it is particularly proper to caution the learner; namely, that of multiplying emphatical words too much. It is only by a prudent reserve in the use of them, that we can give them any weight. If they recur too often; if a speaker or reader attempts to render every thing which he expresses of high importance, by a multitude of strong emphases, we soon learn to pay little regard to them. To crowd every sentence with emphatical words, is like crowding all the pages of a book with Italic characters,

which as to the effect, is just the same as to use no such distinctions at all.

SECTION 4. *Of Pauses.*

PAUSES or rests, in speaking and reading, are a total cessation of the voice, during a perceptible, and, in many cases, a measurable space of time.

Pauses are equally necessary to the speaker, and the hearer. To the speaker, that he may take breath, without which he cannot proceed far in delivery; and that he may, by these temporary rests, relieve the organs of speech, which otherwise would be soon tired by continued action: to the hearer, that the ear also may be relieved from the fatigue, which it would otherwise endure from a continuity of sound; and that the understanding may have sufficient time to mark the distinction of sentences, and their several members.

There are two kinds of pauses: first, emphatical pauses; and next, such as mark the distinctions of the sense. An emphatical pause is made, after something has been said of peculiar moment, and on which we desire to fix the hearer's attention. Sometimes, before such a thing is said, we usher it in with a pause of this nature. Such pauses have the same effect as a strong emphasis; and are subject to the same rules; especially to the caution just now given, of not repeating them too frequently. For as they excite uncommon attention, and of course raise expectation, if the importance of the matter is not fully answerable to such expectation, they occasion disappointment and disgust.

But the most frequent and the principal use of pauses, is, to mark the divisions of the sense, and at the same time to allow the speaker to draw his breath; and the proper and delicate adjustment of such pauses, is one of the most nice and difficult articles of delivery. In all reading, and public speaking, the management of the breath requires a good deal of care, so as not to oblige us to divide words from one another, which have so intimate a connexion, that they ought to be pronounced with the same breath, and without the least separation. Many sentences are miserably mangled, and the force of the emphasis totally lost, by the divisions being made in the wrong place. To avoid this, every one, while he is speaking or reading, should be very careful to provide a full supply of breath for what he is to utter. It is a great mistake to imagine, that the breath must be drawn only at the end of a period, when the voice is allowed to fall. It may easily be gathered at the intervals of the period, when the voice is only suspended for a moment; and, by this

management, one may always have a sufficient stock for carrying on the longest sentence, without improper interruptions.

Pauses in reading, and public discourse, must be formed upon the manner in which we utter ourselves in ordinary, sensible conversation; and not upon the stiff artificial manner which we acquire, from reading books according to the common punctuation. It will by no means be sufficient to attend to the points used in printing; for these are far from marking *all* the pauses which ought to be made in speaking. A mechanical attention to these resting-places has perhaps been one cause of monotony, by leading the reader to a similar tone at every stop, and a uniform cadence at every period. The primary use of points is, to assist the reader in discerning the grammatical construction; and it is only as a secondary object, that they regulate his pronunciation.

To render pauses pleasing and expressive, they must not only be made in the right place, but also accompanied with a proper tone of voice, by which the nature of these pauses is intimated; much more than by the length of them, which can seldom be exactly measured. Sometimes it is only a slight and simple suspension of voice that is proper; sometimes a degree of cadence in the voice is required; and sometimes that peculiar tone and cadence which denote the sentence to be finished. In all these cases, we are to regulate ourselves, by attending to the manner in which nature teaches us to speak, when engaged in real and earnest discourse with others.

It is a general rule, that the suspending pause should be used when the sense is incomplete; and the closing pause, when it is finished. But there are phrases, in which, though the sense is not completed, the voice takes the closing, rather than the suspending pause; and others, in which the sentence finishes by the pause of suspension.

The closing pause must not be confounded with that fall of the voice, or *cadence*, with which many readers uniformly finish a sentence. Nothing is more destructive of propriety and energy than this habit. The tones and inflections of the voice at the close of a sentence, ought to be diversified, according to the general nature of the discourse, and the particular construction and meaning of the sentence. In plain narrative, and especially in argumentation, a small attention to the manner in which we relate a fact, or maintain an argument, in conversation, will show, that it is frequently more proper to raise the voice, than to let it fall, at the end of a sentence. Some sentences are so constructed, that the last



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these tones, that the life, spirit, beauty, and harmony of delivery consist.

An extract from the beautiful lamentation of David over Saul and Jonathan, may serve as an example of what has been said on this subject. "The beauty of Israel is slain upon thy high places. How are the mighty fallen! Tell it not in Gath; publish it not in the streets of Askelon: lest the daughters of the Philistines rejoice; lest the daughters of the uncircumcised triumph. Ye mountains of Gilboa, let there be no dew, nor rain upon you, nor fields of offerings; for there the shield of the mighty was vilely cast away; the shield of Saul, as though he had not been anointed with oil!" The first of these divisions expresses sorrow and lamentation; therefore the note is low. The next contains a spirited command, and should be pronounced much higher. The other sentence, in which he makes a pathetic address to the mountains where his friends were slain, must be expressed in a note quite different from the two former; not so low as the first, nor so high as the second, in a manly, firm, and yet plaintive tone.*

This correct and natural language of the emotions, is not so difficult to be attained, as most readers seem to imagine. If we enter into the spirit of the author's sentiments, as well as into the meaning of his words, we shall not fail to deliver the words in properly varied tones. For there are few people, who speak English without a provincial tone, that have not an accurate use of emphasis, pauses, and tones, when they utter their sentiments in earnest discourse: and the reason that they have not the same use of them, in reading aloud, the sentiments of others, may be traced to the very defective and erroneous method, in which the art of reading is taught; whereby all the various, natural, expressive tones of speech, are suppressed, and a few artificial, unmeaning, reading notes, are substituted for them.

But when we recommend to readers an attention to the tone and language of emotions, we must be understood to do it with proper limitation. Moderation is necessary in this point, as it is in other things. For when reading becomes strictly imitative, it assumes a theatrical manner, and must be highly improper, as well as give offence to the hearers; because it is inconsistent with that delicacy and modesty, which, on all occasions, are indispensable.

CHAPTER II.

OF VERSIFICATION.

As there are few persons who do not sometimes read: po-

* *harries.*

etical composition, it seems necessary to give the student some idea of that part of grammar, which explains the principles of versification ; that, in reading poetry, he may be the better able to judge of its correctness, and relish its beauties. When this lively mode of exhibiting nature and sentiment, is perfectly chaste, it is often found to be highly interesting and instructive.

VERSIFICATION is the arrangement of a certain number and variety of syllables, according to certain laws.

Rhyme is the correspondence of the last sound of one verse, to the last sound or syllable of another.

Feet and pauses are the constituent parts of verse. We shall consider these separately.

OF POETICAL FEET.

A certain number of syllables connected, form a foot. They are called *feet*, because it is by their aid that the voice, as it were, steps along through the verse, in a measured pace ; and it is necessary that the syllables which mark this regular movement of the voice, should, in some manner, be distinguished from the others. This distinction was made among the ancient Romans, by dividing their syllables into long and short, and ascertaining their quantity by an exact proportion of time in sounding them ; the long being to the short, as two to one ; and the long syllables, being thus the more important, marked the movement. In English, syllables are divided into accented and unaccented ; and the accented syllables being as strongly distinguished from the unaccented, by the peculiar stress of the voice upon them, are equally capable of marking the movement, and pointing out the regular paces of the voice, as the long syllables were by their quantity, among the Romans.

When the feet are formed by an accent on vowels, they are exactly of the same nature as the ancient feet, and have the same just quantity in their syllables. So that, in this respect, we have all that the ancients had, and something which they had not. We have in fact duplicates of each foot, yet with such a difference, as to fit them for different purposes, to be applied at our pleasure.

Every foot has, from nature, powers peculiar to itself ; and it is upon the knowledge and right application of these powers, that the pleasure and effect of numbers chiefly depend.

All feet used in poetry consist either of two, or of three syllables ; and are reducible to eight kinds ; four of two syllables, and four of three, as follows :

DISSYLLABLE.

A Trochee — ∪
 An Iambus ∪ —
 A Spondee — —
 A Pyrrhic ∪ ∪

TRISYLLABLE.

A Dactyl — ∪ ∪
 An Amphibrach ∪ — ∪
 An Anapæst ∪ ∪ —
 A Tribrah ∪ ∪ ∪

A Trochee has the first syllable accented, and the last unaccented: as, “Hātefŭl, péttish.”

An Iambus has the first syllable unaccented, and the last accented: as, “Bětrāy, consist.”

A Spondee has both the words or syllables accented: as, “The pāle mōōn.”

A Pyrrhic has both the words or syllables unaccented: as, “ōn thě tall tree.”

A Dactyl has the first syllable accented, and the two latter unaccented: as; “Lābōurěr, pōssible.”

An Amphibrach has the first and last syllables unaccented; and the middle one accented: as, “Dělightfŭl, doméstic.”

An Anapæst has the two first syllables unaccented, and the last accented: as, “Cōntrāvēne, acquiésce.”

A Tribrah has all its syllables unaccented: as, “Nūmērāblě, cónquerable.”

Some of these feet may be denominated *principal* feet; as pieces of poetry may be wholly, or chiefly formed of any of them. Such are the Iambus, Trochee, Dactyl, and Anapæst. The others may be termed *secondary* feet; because their chief use is to diversify the numbers, and to improve the verse.

We shall first explain the nature of the principal feet.

IAMBIC verses may be divided into several species, according to the number of feet or syllables of which they are composed.

1. The shortest form of the English Iambic consists of an Iambus, with an additional short syllable: as,

Disdāinīng,
 Complaining,
 Consenting,
 Repenting.

We have no poem of this measure, but it may be met with in stanzas. The Iambus, with this addition, coincides with the Amphibrach.

2. The second form of our Iambic is also too short to be continued through any great number of lines. It consists of *two* Iambuses.

Whāt plāce is hère!
 What scenes appear!



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This was anciently written in one line ; but it is now broken into two ; the first containing four feet, and the second three :

Whēn āll thŷ mērciēs, Ō mŷ Gōd !
 My rising soul surveys,
 Transported with the view, I'm lost
 In wonder, love, and praise.

In all these measures, the accents are to be placed on even syllables ; and every line considered by itself, is, in general, more melodious, as this rule is more strictly observed.

TROCHAIC verse is of several kinds.

1. The shortest Trochaic verse in our language, consists of one Trochee and a long syllable.

Tūmūlt cēase,
 Sink to peace.

This measure is defective in dignity, and can seldom be used on serious occasions.

2. The second English form of the Trochaic consists of two feet ; and is likewise so brief, that it is rarely used for any very serious purpose.

Ōn thē mōuntāin
 By a fountain.

It sometimes contains two feet or trochees, with an additional long syllable : as,

Īn thē dāys ōf ōld,
 Fables plainly told.

3. The third species consists of three trochees : as,
 Whēn ōur hēarts āre mōurnīng :

or of three trochees, with an additional long syllable : as,
 Rēstlēss mōrtāls tōit fōr nōught ;
 Bliss in vain from earth is sought ;
 Bliss, a native of the sky,
 Never wanders. Mortals, try ;
 There you cannot seek in vain ;
 For to seek her is to gain.

4. The fourth Trochaic species consists of four trochees : as,

Rōund ūs rōars thē tēmpēst lōudēr.

This form may take an additional long syllable, as follows :

Īdlē āftēr dinnēr īn hīs chāir,
 Sat a farmer, ruddy, fat, and fair.

But this measure is very uncommon.

5. The fifth Trochaic species is likewise uncommon. It is composed of five trochees.

All thät wälk òn fōot òr ride ìn chariòts,
All that dwell in palāces, or garrets.

6. The sixth form of the English Trochaic consists of six trochees: as,

On ā mōuntāin, strētch'd bēneāth ā bōarÿ willōw,
Lay a shepherd swain, and view'd the rolling billōw.

This seems to be the longest Trochaic line that our language admits.

In all these Trochaic measures, the accent is to be placed on the odd syllables.

The DACTYLIC measure being very uncommon, we shall give only one example of one species of it:

Frōm thē lōw plēasūres òf this fällēn nātūre,
Rise we to higher, &c.

ANAPÆSTIC verses are divided into several species.

1. The shortest anapæstic verse must be a *single* anapæst: as,

Büt ìn vāin,
They complain.

This measure is, however, ambiguous; for, by laying the stress of the voice on the first and third syllables, we might make a trochaic. And therefore the first and simplest form of our genuine Anapæstic verse, is made up of *two* Anapæsts: as,

Büt hīs cōurāge 'gān fāil,
For no arts could avail.

This form admits of an additional short syllable.

Thēn hīs cōurāge 'gān fāil hīm,
For no arts could avail him.

2. The second species consists of *three* Anapæsts.

Ō yē wōods, sprēad yōur brānchēs āpāce;
To your deepest recesses I fly;
I would hide with the beasts of the chace;
I would vanish from every eye.

This is a very pleasing measure, and much used, both in solemn and cheerful subjects.

3. The third kind of the English Anapæstic, consists of *four* Anapæsts.

Māy I gōvērñ mÿ pāssions wìth ābsölūte swāy;
And grow wiser and better as life wears away.

This measure will admit of a short syllable at the end: as,

Ōn thē wārm chēek òf yōuth, smīles ānd rōsēs āre blēndīng.

The preceding are the different kinds of the principal feet, in their more simple forms. They are capable of numerous

variations, by the intermixture of those feet with each other ; and by the admission of the secondary feet.

We have observed, that English verse is composed of feet formed by accent ; and that when the accent falls on vowels, the feet are equivalent to those formed by quantity. That the student may clearly perceive this difference, we shall produce a specimen of each kind.

O'ēr hēaps ōf rūns stālk'd thē tātely hīnd.

Here we see the accent is upon the vowel in each second syllable. In the following line, we shall find the same Iambic movement, but formed by accent on consonants, except the last syllable.

Then rūstling, crāckling, crāshing thūnder dōwn.

Here the time of the short accented syllables, is compensated by a short pause, at the end of each word to which they belong.

We now proceed to show the manner in which poetry is varied and improved, by the admission of secondary feet into its composition.

Mūrmuring, and with him fled the shades of night.

The first foot here is a Dactyl ; the rest are Iambics.

O'er māny ā frōzen, māny a fiery Alp.

This line contains three Amphibrachs mixed with Iambics.

Innūmērāblē before th' Almighty's throne.

Here, in the second foot, we find a Tribrach.

Sēe thē bōld yōuth strāin ūp the thrēat'ning stēep.

In this line, the first foot is a Trochee ; the second a genuine Spondee by quantity ; the third a Spondee by accent.

In the following line, the first foot is a Pyrrhic, the second a Spondee.

Thāt ōn wēak wings from far pursues your flight.

FROM the preceding view of English versification, we may see what a copious stock of materials it possesses. For we are not only allowed the use of all the ancient poetic feet, in our heroic measure, but we have, as before observed, duplicates of each, agreeing in movement, though differing in measure,* and which make different impressions on the ear ; an opulence peculiar to our language, and which may be the source of a boundless variety.

OF POETICAL PAUSES.

There are two sorts of pauses, one for sense, and one for

* Movement and measure are thus distinguished. *Movement* expresses the progressive order of sounds, whether from strong to weak, from long to short, or *vice versa*. *Measure* signifies the proportion of time, both in sounds and pauses.



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composed in verse, if in reading his lines, we suppress his numbers, by omitting the final pause; and degrade them, by our pronunciation, into mere prose?

The Cæsura is commonly on the fourth, fifth, or sixth syllable of heroic verse.

On the fourth syllable, or at the end of the second foot: as,

The silver eel'' in shining volumes roll'd,
The yellow carp'' in scales bedropp'd with gold.

On the fifth syllable, or in the middle of the third foot: as,

Round broken columns'' clasping ivy twin'd,
O'er heaps of ruin'' stalk'd the stately hind.

On the sixth syllable, or at the end of the third foot: as,

Oh say what stranger cause'' yet unexplor'd,
Could make a gentle belle'' reject a lord.

A line may be divided into three portions, by two cæsuras: as,

Outstretch'd he lay'' on the cold ground'' and oft''
Look'd up to heav'n.

There is another mode of dividing lines, well suited to the nature of the couplet, by introducing semi-pauses which divide the line into four pauses. This semi-pause may be called a *demi-cæsura*.

The following lines admit of, and exemplify it.

Glow's' while he reads'' but trembles' as he writes.
Reason' the card'' but passion' is the gale.
Rides' in the whirlwind'' and directs' the storm.

OF MELODY, HARMONY, AND EXPRESSION.

Having shown the general nature of feet and pauses, the constituent parts of verse, we shall now point out, more particularly, their use and importance.

Melody, harmony, and expression, are the three great objects of poetic numbers. By melody, is meant, a pleasing effect produced on the ear, from an apt arrangement of the constituent parts of verse, according to the laws of measure and movement. By harmony, an effect produced by an action of the mind, in comparing the different members of a verse with each other, and perceiving a due and beautiful proportion between them. By expression, such a choice and arrangement of the constituent parts of verse, as serve to enforce and illustrate the thought or the sentiment.

We shall consider each of these three objects in versification, both with respect to the feet and the pauses.

1st. With regard to melody.

From the examples which we have given of verses composed in all the principal feet, it is evident that a considerable portion of melody is found in each of them, though in different degrees. Verses made up of pure Iambics have an excellent melody.

That the final and cæsural pauses contribute to melody, cannot be doubted by any person who reviews the instances which we have already given of those pauses. To form lines of the first melody, the cæsura must be at the end of the second, or of the third foot, or in the middle of the third.

2d, With respect to harmony.

Verses composed of Iambics have indeed a fine harmony; but as the stress of the voice, in repeating such verses, is always in the same places, that is, on every second syllable, such a uniformity would disgust the ear in a long succession; and therefore such changes were sought for, as might introduce the pleasure of variety, without prejudice to melody; or which might even contribute to its improvement. Of this nature was the introduction of the Trochee, to form the first foot of an heroic verse: as,

Fāvoũrs tō nōne, tō āll shē smīles ěxtēnds,
O'ft she rejècts, but never once offēnds.

Each of these lines begins with a Trochee; the remaining feet are in the Iambic movement. In the following line of the same movement, the fourth foot is a Trochee.

■ All thēse ōur nōtiōns vāin, sēes ānd dērides.

The next change admitted for the sake of variety, without prejudice to melody, is the intermixture of Pyrrhics and Spondees; in which, two impressions in the one foot make up for the want of one in the other; and two long syllables compensate two short ones, so as to make the sum of the quantity of the two feet, equal to two Iambics.

Ōn thē grēen bānk tō lōok intō thē clēar
Smōoth lāke thāt tō mē seēm'd another sky.
Stōod rūi'd stōod vāst infīnitūde cōnfīn'd.

The next variety admitted is that of the Amphibrach.

Which maný ā bārd hād cháuntēd máný ā dāy.

In this line, we find that two of the feet are Amphibrachs; and three, Iambics.

We have before shown that the cæsura improves the melody of verse; and we shall now speak of its other more important office, that of being the chief source of harmony in numbers.

The first and lowest perception of harmony, by means of the cæsura, arises from comparing two members of the same line with each other, divided in the manner to be seen in the instances before mentioned ; because the beauty of proportion in the members, according to each of these divisions, is founded in nature ; being as one to two—two to three—or three to two.

The next degree arises from comparing the members of a couplet, or two contiguous lines : as,

See the bold youth'' strain up the threat'ning steep,
Rush thro' the thickets'' down the valleys sweep.

Here we find the cæsura of the first line, at the end of the second foot ; and in the middle of the third foot, in the last line.

Hang o'er their coursers' heads'' with eager speed,
And earth rolls back'' beneath the flying steed.

In this couplet, the cæsura is at the end of the third foot, in the first line ; and of the second in the latter line.

gr
tion of the couplets to each other, in point of similarity and diversity, as :

Thy forests Windsor'' and thy green retreats,
At once the monarch's'' and the muse's seats,
Invite my lays.'' Be present Sylvan maids,
Unlock your springs'' and open all your shades.
Not half so swift'' the trembling doves can fly,
When the fierce eagle'' cleaves the liquid sky ;
Not half so swiftly'' the fierce eagle moves,
When through the clouds'' he drives the trembling
doves.

In this way, the comparison of lines variously apportioned by the different seats of the three cæsuras, may be the source of a great variety of harmony, consistent with the finest melody. This is still increased by the introduction of two cæsuras, and much more by that of semi-pauses. The semi-pauses double every where the terms of comparison ; give a more distinct view of the whole and the parts ; afford new proportions of measurement, and an ampler scope for diversity and equality, those sources of beauty in harmony.

Warms' in the sun'' refreshes' in the breeze,
Glows' in the stars'' and blossoms' in the trees ;
Lives' through all life'' extends' through all extent,
Spreads' undivided'' operates' unspent.



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expectedly, and forcibly impresses the imagination with the greatness of the author's loss, the loss of sight.

No sooner had th' Almighty ceas'd, but all
The multitude of angels, with a shout
Loud'' as from numbers without number'' sweet
As from blest voices uttering joy.—

There is something very striking in this uncommon cæsura, which suddenly stops the reader, to reflect on the importance of a particular word.

We shall close the subject, with an example containing the united powers of many of the principles which have been explained.

Dire wās the tóssing'' dēep the grōans'' Dēspair''
Tēnded the sick'' búsiest from couč to couč''
And ōvēr thēm triúmphant deāth'' hīs dārt''
Shook'' büt dēlāy'd tō strike.

Many of the rules and observations respecting Prosody, are taken from "Sheridan's Art of Reading;" to which book the Compiler refers the ingenious student, for more extensive information on the subject.

PUNCTUATION.*

PUNCTUATION is the art of dividing a written composition into sentences, or parts of sentences, by points or stops, for the purpose of marking the different pauses which the sense, and an accurate pronounciation require.

The Comma represents the shortest pause; the Semicolon, a pause double that of the comma; the Colon, double that of the semicolon; and the Period, double that of the colon.

The precise quantity or duration of each pause, cannot be defined; for it varies with the time of the whole. The same composition may be rehearsed in a quicker or a slower time; but the proportion between the pauses should be ever invariable.

In order more clearly to determiné the proper application

* As punctuation is intended to aid both the sense, and the pronounciation of a sentence, it could not have been exclusively discussed under the part of Syntax, or Prosody. The nature of the subject, its extent and Importance, and the grammatical knowledge which it presupposes, have induced us to make it a distinct and subsequent article.

of the points, we must distinguish between an *imperfect phrase*, a *simple sentence*, and a *compound sentence*.

An imperfect phrase contains no assertion, or does not amount to a proposition or sentence : as, "Therefore ; in haste ; studious of praise."

A simple sentence has but one subject, and one finite verb, expressed or implied : as, "Temperance preserves health."

A compound sentence has more than one subject, or one finite verb, either expressed or understood ; or it consists of two or more simple sentences connected together : as, "Good nature mends and beautifies all objects ;" "Virtue refines the affections, but vice debases them."

In a sentence, the subject and the verb, or either of them, may be accompanied with several adjuncts : as, the object, the end, the circumstance of time, place, manner, and the like : and the subject or verb may be either immediately connected with them, or mediately ; that is, by being connected with something which is connected with some other, and so on : as, "The mind, unoccupied with useful knowledge, becomes a magazine of trifles and follies."

Members of sentences may be divided into simple and compound members. See page 101.

CHAPTER I.

OF THE COMMA

The Comma usually separates those parts of a sentence, which, though very closely connected in sense and construction, require a pause between them.

RULE I. With respect to a simple sentence, the several words of which it consists have so near a relation to each other, that in general, no points are requisite, except a full stop at the end of it : as, "The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom." "Every part of matter swarms with living creatures."

A simple sentence, however, when it is a long one, and the nominative case is accompanied with inseparable adjuncts, may admit of a pause immediately before the verb : as, "The good taste of the present age, has not allowed us to neglect the cultivation of the English language:" "To be totally indifferent to praise or censure, is a real defect in character."

RULE II. When the connexion of the different parts of a simple sentence is interrupted by an imperfect phrase, a comma is usually introduced before the beginning, and at the end of this phrase : as, "I remember, *with gratitude*, his goodness to me:" "His work is, *in many respects*, very im

perfect. It is, *therefore*, not much approved." But when these interruptions are slight and unimportant, the comma is better omitted: as, "Flattery is *certainly* pernicious;" "There is *surely* a pleasure in beneficence."

In the generality of compound sentences, there is frequent occasion for commas. This will appear from the following rules; some of which apply to simple, as well as to compound sentences.

RULE III. When two or more nouns occur in the same construction, they are parted by a comma: as, "Reason, virtue, answer one great aim:" "The husband, wife, and children, suffered extremely:"* "They took away their furniture, clothes, and stock in trade?" "He is alternately supported by his father, his uncle, and his elder brother."

From this rule there is mostly an exception, with regard to two nouns closely connected by a conjunction: as, "Virtue *and* vice form a strong contrast to each other:" "Liber-tines call religion bigotry *or* superstition;" "There is a natural difference between merit *and* demerit, virtue *and* vice, wisdom *and* folly." But if the parts connected are not short, a comma may be inserted, though the conjunction is expressed: as, "Romances may be said to be miserable rhapsodies, *or* dangerous incentives to evil;" "Intemperance destroys the strength of our bodies, *and* the vigour of our minds."

RULE IV. Two or more adjectives belonging to the same substantive are likewise separated by commas: as, "Plain, honest truth, wants no artificial covering;" "David was a brave, wise, and pious man;" "A woman, gentle, sensible, well-educated, and religious;" "The most innocent pleasures are the sweetest, the most rational, the most affecting, and the most lasting."

But two adjectives, immediately connected by a conjunction, are not separated by a comma: as, "True worth is modest *and* retired;" "Truth is fair *and* artless, simple *and* sincere, uniform *and* consistent." "We must be wise *or* foolish; there is no medium."

RULE V. Two or more verbs, having the same nominative case, and immediately following one another, are also separated by commas: as, "Virtue supports in adversity, moderates in prosperity:" "In a letter, we may advise, exhort, comfort, request, and discuss."

* As a considerable pause in pronunciation, is necessary between the last noun and the verb, a comma should be inserted to denote it. But as no pause is allowable between the last adjective and the noun, under Rule IV. the comma is there properly omitted. See WALKER'S *Elements of Elocution*.



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But if such nouns are single, or only form a proper name, they are not divided: as, "Paul the apostle;" "The emperor Antoninus wrote an excellent book."

RULE XII. Simple members of sentences connected by comparatives, are for the most part distinguished by a comma: as, "*As* the hart panteth after the water brooks, so doth my soul pant after thee;" "*Better* is a dinner of herbs with love, *than* a stalled ox and hatred with it."

If the members in comparative sentences are short, the comma is, in general, better omitted: as, "How much *better* is it to get wisdom *than* gold!" "Mankind act *oftener* from caprice *than* reason."

RULE XIII. When words are placed in opposition to each other, or with some marked variety, they require to be distinguished by a comma: as,

"Tho' deep, yet clear; tho' gentle, yet not dull;

Strong, without rage, without o'erflowing, full."

"Good men, in this frail, imperfect state, are often found, not only in union *with*, but in opposition *to*, the views and conduct of one another."

Sometimes when the word with which the last preposition agrees, is single, it is better to omit the comma before it: as, "Many states were in alliance *with*, and under the protection *of* Rome."

The same rule and restrictions must be applied when two or more nouns refer to the same preposition: as, "He was composed both under the threatening, and at the approach, *of* a cruel and lingering death;" "He was not only the king, but the father *of* his people."

RULE XIV. A remarkable expression, or a short observation, somewhat in the manner of a quotation, may be properly marked with a comma: as, "It hurts a man's pride to say, I do not know;" "Plutarch calls lying, the vice of slaves."

RULE XV. Relative pronouns are connective words, and generally admit a comma before them: as, "He preaches sublimely, *who* lives a sober, righteous, and pious life;" "There is no charm in the female sex, *which* can supply the place of virtue."

But when two members, or phrases, are closely connected by a relative, restraining the general notion of the antecedent to a particular sense, the comma should be omitted: as, "Self-denial is the sacrifice which virtue must make;" "A man who is of a detracting spirit, will misconstrue the most innocent words that can be put together." In the latter example, the assertion is not of "a man in general," but of "a

man who is of a detracting spirit;" and therefore they should not be separated.

The fifteenth rule applies equally to cases in which the relative is not expressed, but understood: as, "It was from piety, warm and unaffected, that his morals derived strength." "This sentiment, habitual and strong, influenced his whole conduct." In both of these examples, the relative and verb *which was*, are understood.

RULE XVI. A simple member of a sentence, contained within another, or following another, must be distinguished by the comma: as, "To improve time whilst we are blessed with health, will smooth the bed of sickness." "Very often, while we are complaining of the vanity, and the evils of human life, we make that vanity, and we increase those evils."

If, however, the members succeeding each other, are very closely connected, the comma is unnecessary: as, "Revelation tells us how we may attain happiness."

When a verb in the infinitive mood, follows its governing verb, with several words between them, those words should generally have a comma at the end of them; as, "It ill becomes good and wise men, to oppose and degrade one another."

Several verbs in the infinitive mood, having a common dependence, and succeeding one another, are also divided by commas: as, "To relieve the indigent, to comfort the afflicted, to protect the innocent, to reward the deserving, are humane and noble employments."

RULE XVII. When the verb *to be* is followed by a verb in the infinitive mood, which by transposition, might be made the nominative case to it, the former is generally separated from the latter verb, by a comma: as, "The most obvious remedy is, to withdraw from all associations with bad men." "The first and most obvious remedy against the infection, is, to withdraw from all associations with bad men."

RULE XVIII. When adjuncts or circumstances are of importance, and often when the natural order of them is inverted, they may be set off by commas: as, "Virtue must be formed and supported, not by unfrequent acts, but by daily and repeated exertions." "Vices, like shadows, towards the evening of life, grow great and monstrous.

"Our interests are interwoven by threads innumerable; "By threads innumerable, our interests are interwoven."

RULE XIX. Where a verb is understood, a comma may often be properly introduced. This is a general rule which,

besides comprising some of the preceding rules, will apply to many cases not determined by any of them: as, "From law arises security: from security, curiosity; from curiosity, knowledge." In this example, the verb "arises" is understood before "curiosity" and "knowledge;" at which words a considerable pause is necessary.

RULE XX. The words, *nay, so, hence, again, first, secondly, formerly, now, lastly, once more, above all, on the contrary, in the next place, in short*, and all other words and phrases of the same kind, must generally be separated from the context by a comma: as, "Remember thy best and first friend; *formerly*, the supporter of thy infancy, and the guide of thy childhood; *now*, the guardian of thy youth, and the hope of thy coming years." "He feared want, *hence*, he over-valued riches." "This conduct may heal the difference, *nay*, it may constantly prevent any in future." "*Finally*, I shall only repeat what has been often justly said." "If the spring put forth no blossoms, in summer there will be no beauty, and in autumn, no fruit; *so*, if youth be trifled away without improvement, riper years may be contemptible, and old age miserable."

In many of the foregoing rules and examples, great regard must be paid to the length of the clauses, and the proportion which they bear to one another. An attention to the sense of any passage, and to the clear, easy communication of it, will, it is presumed, with the aid of the preceding rules, enable the student to adjust the proper pause, and the places for inserting the commas.

CHAPTER II.

OF THE SEMICOLON.

THE Semicolon is used for dividing a compound sentence into two or more parts, not so closely connected as those which are separated by a comma, nor yet so little dependent on each other, as those which are distinguished by a colon.

The semicolon is sometimes used, when the preceding member of the sentence does not of itself give a complete sense, but depends on the following clause: and sometimes when the sense of that member would be complete without the concluding one: as in the following instances: "As the desire of approbation, when it works according to reason, improves the amiable part of our species in every thing that is laudable; so nothing is more destructive to them when it is governed by vanity and folly."



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CHAPTER IV.
OF THE PERIOD

WHEN a sentence is complete and independent, and not connected in construction with the following sentence, it is marked with a Period.

Some sentences are independent of each other, both in their sense and construction: as, "Fear God. Honour the king. Have charity towards all men." Others are independent only in their grammatical construction: as, "The Supreme Being changes not, either in his desire to promote our happiness, or in the plan of his administration. One light always shines upon us from above. One clear and direct path is always pointed out to man."

A period may sometimes be admitted between two sentences, though they are joined by a disjunctive or copulative conjunction. For the quality of the point does not always depend on the connective particle, but on the sense and structure of sentences: as, "Recreations, though they may be of an innocent kind, require steady government, to keep them within a due and limited province. But such as are of an irregular and vitious nature, are not to be governed, but to be banished from every well-regulated mind."

"He who lifts himself up to the observation and notice of the world, is of all men, the least likely to avoid censure. For he draws upon himself a thousand eyes, that will narrowly inspect him in every part."

The period should be used after every abbreviated word: as, "M. S. P. S. N. B. A. D. O. S. N. S." &c.

CHAPTER V.

Of the Dash, Notes of Interrogation and Exclamation, &c.

THE DASH.

THE DASH, though often used improperly by hasty and incoherent writers, may be introduced with propriety, where the sentence breaks off abruptly; where a significant pause is required; or where there is an unexpected turn in the sentiment: as, "If thou art he, so much respected once—but, oh! how fallen! how degraded!" "If acting conformably to the will of our Creator;—if promoting the welfare of mankind around us;—if securing our own happiness;—are objects of the highest moment:—then we are loudly called upon, to cultivate and extend the great interests of religion and virtue."

"Here lies the great—False marble, where?
Nothing but sordid dust lies here."

Besides the points which mark the pauses in discourse, there are others, which denote a different modulation of voice, in correspondence to the sense. These are,

The Interrogation point,	?
The Exclamation point,	!
The Parenthesis.	()

INTERROGATION.

A note of Interrogation is used at the end of an interrogative sentence; that is, when a question is asked: as, "Who will accompany me?" "Shall we always be friends?"

Questions which a person asks himself in contemplation, ought to be terminated by points of interrogation: as, "Who adorned the heavens with such exquisite beauty?" "At whose command do the planets perform their constant revolutions?"

A point of interrogation is improper after sentences which are not questions, but only expressions of admiration, or of some other emotion.

"How many instances have we of chastity and excellence in the fair sex!"

"With what prudence does the son of Sirach advise us in the choice of our companions!"

A note of interrogation should not be employed, in cases where it is only said a question has been asked, and where the words are not used as a question. "The Cyprians asked me, why I wept." To give this sentence the interrogative form, it should be expressed thus: "The Cyprians said to me, 'Why dost thou weep?'"

EXCLAMATION.

The note of Exclamation is applied to expressions of sudden emotion, surprise, joy, grief, &c. and also to invocations or addresses: as, "My friend! this conduct amazes me!" "Bless the Lord, O my soul! and forget not all his benefits!"

"Oh! had we both our humble state maintain'd,
And safe in peace and poverty remain'd!"

"Hear me, O Lord! for thy loving kindness is great!"

It is difficult, in some cases, to distinguish between an interrogative and exclamatory sentence; but a sentence, in which any wonder or admiration is expressed, and no answer either expected or implied, may be always properly terminated by a note of exclamation: as, "How much vanity in the pursuits of men!" "Who can sufficiently express the goodness of our Creator!" "What is more amiable than virtue!"

The interrogation and exclamation points are indeterminate as to their quantity or time, and may be equivalent in that

respect to a semicolon, a colon, or a period, as the sense may require. They mark an elevation of the voice.

The utility of the points of Interrogation and Exclamation, appears from the following examples, in which the meaning is signified and discriminated solely by the points.

“What condescension!”

“What condescension?”

“How great was the sacrifice!”

“How great was the sacrifice?”

PARENTHESIS.

A Parenthesis is a clause containing some necessary information, or useful remark, introduced into the body of a sentence obliquely, and which may be omitted without injuring the grammatical construction: as,

“Know then this truth, (enough for man to know,) Virtue alone is happiness below.”

“And was the ransom paid? It was; and paid (What can exalt his bounty more?) for thee.”

“To gain a posthumous reputation, is to save four or five letters (for what is a name besides?) from oblivion.”

“Know ye not, brethren, (for I speak to them that know the law,) how that the law hath dominion over a man as long as he liveth?”

If the incidental clause is short, or perfectly coincides with the rest of the sentence, it is not proper to use the parenthetical characters. The following instances are therefore improper uses of the parenthesis. “Speak you (who saw) his wonders in the deep.” “Every planet (as the Creator has made nothing in vain) is most probably inhabited.” “He found them asleep again; (for their eyes were heavy;) neither knew they what to answer him.”

The parenthesis marks a moderate depression of the voice, and may be accompanied with every point which the sense would require, if the parenthetical characters were omitted. It ought to terminate with the same kind of stop which the member has, that precedes it; and to contain that stop within the parenthetical marks. We must, however, except cases of interrogation and exclamation: as, “While they wish to please, (and why should they not wish it?) they disdain dishonourable means.” “It was represented by an analogy, (Oh, how inadequate!) which was borrowed from paganism.” *See the Octavo Grammar, on this subject.*

There are other characters, which are frequently made



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“The proper study of mankind is man.”

Crotchets or Brackets [] serve to enclose a word or sentence, which is to be explained in a note, or the explanation itself, or a word or a sentence which is intended to supply some deficiency, or to rectify some mistake.

An Index or Hand  points out a remarkable passage, or something that requires particular attention.

A Brace } is used in poetry at the end of a triplet or three lines, which have the same rhyme.

Braces are also used to connect a number of words with one common term, and are introduced to prevent a repetition in writing or printing.

An Asterisk, or little star*, directs the reader to some note in the margin, or at the bottom of the page. Two or three asterisks generally denote the omission of some letters in a word, or of some bold or indelicate expression, or some defect in the manuscript.

An Ellipsis — is also used, when some letters in a word, or some words in a verse, are omitted: as, “The k—g,” for “the king.”

An Obelisk, which is marked thus †, and Parallels thus ||, together with the letters of the Alphabet, and figures, are used as references to the margin, or bottom of the page.

PARAGRAPHS.

It may not be improper to insert, in this place, a few general directions respecting the division of a composition into paragraphs.

Different subjects, unless they are very short, or very numerous in small compass, should be separated into paragraphs.

When one subject is continued to a considerable length, the larger divisions of it should be put into paragraphs. And it will have a good effect to form the breaks, when it can properly be done, at sentiments of the most weight, or that call for peculiar attention.

The facts, premises, and conclusions, of a subject, sometimes naturally point out the separations into paragraphs: and each of these, when of great length, will again require subdivisions at their most distinctive parts.

In cases which require a connected subject to be formed into several paragraphs, a suitable turn of expression, exhibiting the connexion of the broken parts, will give beauty and force to the division. *See the Octavo Grammar.*

DIRECTIONS *respecting the use of* CAPITAL LETTERS.

It was formerly the custom to begin every noun with a capital: but as this practice was troublesome, and gave the writing or printing a crowded and confused appearance, it has been discontinued. It is, however, very proper to begin with a capital,

1. The first word of every book, chapter, letter, note, or any other piece of writing.

2. The first word after a period; and, if the two sentences are *totally independent*, after a note of interrogation or exclamation.

But if a number of interrogative or exclamatory sentences, are thrown into one general group; or if the construction of the latter sentences depends on the former, all of them, except the first, may begin with a small letter: as, "How long, ye simple ones, will ye love simplicity? and the scorers delight in their scorning? and fools hate knowledge?" "Alas! how different! yet how like the same!"

3. The appellations of the Deity: as, "God, Jehovah, the Almighty, the Supreme Being, the Lord, Providence, the Messiah, the Holy Spirit."

4. Proper names of persons, places, streets, mountains, rivers, ships: as, "George, York, the Strand, the Alps, the Thames, the Seahorse."

5. Adjectives derived from the proper names of places: as, "Grecian, Roman, English, French, and Italian."

6. The first word of a quotation, introduced after a colon, or when it is in a direct form: as, "Always remember this ancient maxim: 'Know thyself.'" "Our great Lawgiver says, 'Take up thy cross daily, and follow me.'" But when a quotation is brought in obliquely after a comma, a capital is unnecessary: as, "Solomon observes, 'that pride goes before destruction.'"

The first word of an example may also very properly begin with a capital: as, "Temptation proves our virtue."

7. Every substantive and principal word in the titles of books: as, "Johnson's Dictionary of the English Language;" "Thomson's Seasons;" "Rollin's Ancient History."

8. The first word of every line in poetry.

9. The pronoun *I*, and the interjection *O*, are written in capitals: as, "I write:" "Hear, *O* earth!"

Other words, besides the preceding, may begin with capitals, when they are remarkably emphatical, or the principal subject of the composition.

APPENDIX.

CONTAINING RULES AND OBSERVATIONS FOR ASSISTING YOUNG PERSONS TO WRITE WITH PERSPICUITY AND ACCURACY. TO BE STUDIED AFTER THEY HAVE ACQUIRED A COMPETENT KNOWLEDGE OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

PERSPICUITY

IS the fundamental quality of style: a quality so essential in every kind of writing, that for the want of it nothing can atone. It is not to be considered as merely a sort of negative virtue, or freedom from defect. It has higher merit: it is a degree of positive beauty. We are pleased with an author, and consider him as deserving praise, who frees us from all fatigue of searching for his meaning; who carries us through his subject without any embarrassment or confusion: whose style flows always like a limpid stream, through which we see to the very bottom.

The study of perspicuity and accuracy of expression consists of two parts: and requires attention, first, to *Single Words and Phrases*; and then, to the *Construction of Sentences*.

PART I.

Of PERSPICUITY and ACCURACY of EXPRESSION, with respect to single Words and Phrases.

THESE qualities of style, considered with regard to words and phrases, require the following properties: PURITY, PROPRIETY, and PRECISION.

CHAPTER I.

OF PURITY.

PURITY of style consists in the use of such words, and such constructions, as belong to the idiom of the language which we speak; in opposition to words and phrases that are taken from other languages, or that are ungrammatical, obsolete,



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look upon as a greater evil than anarchy itself, as much as a savage is a happier state of life than a slave at the oar:" it should have been, "as much as *the state* of a savage is happier than *that* of a slave at the oar." "He has not treated this subject liberally, by the views of others as well as his own;" "By *adverting* to the views of others," would have been better. "This generous action greatly increased his former services;" it should have been, "greatly increased *the merit* of his former services." "By the pleasures of the imagination or fancy (which I shall use promiscuously) I here mean," &c. This passage ought to have had the word "terms" supplied, which would have made it correct: "*terms* which I shall use promiscuously."

It may be proper in this place to observe, that articles and prepositions are sometimes improperly omitted; as in the following instances: "How immense the difference between the pious and profane!" "Death is the common lot of all; of good men and bad." They should have had the article and preposition repeated: "How immense the difference between *the* pious and *the* profane!" "Death is the common lot of all; *of* good men and *of* bad."

The repetition of articles and prepositions is proper, when we intend to point out the objects of which we speak, as distinguished from each other, or in contrast; and when we wish that the reader's attention should rest on that distinction: as, "Our sight is at once *the* most delightful, and *the* most useful of all our senses."

3. *In the same sentence, be careful not to use the same word too frequently, nor in different senses.* "One may have an air *which* proceeds from a just sufficiency and knowledge of the matter before him, *which* may naturally produce some motions of his head and body, *which* might become the bench better than the bar."

The pronoun *which* is here thrice used, in such a manner as to throw obscurity over the sentence.

"Gregory favoured the undertaking, for no other reason than this, that the manager, in countenance, favoured his friend." It should have been, "resembled his friend."

"Charity expands our hearts in love to God and man: it is by the virtue of charity that the rich are blessed, and the poor supplied. In this sentence, the word "charity" is improperly used in two different senses; for the highest benevolence, and for almsgiving.

4. *Avoid the injudicious use of technical terms.* To inform those who do not understand sea-phrases, that "We tacked to the larboard, and stood off to sea," would be expressing

ourselves very obscurely. Technical phrases not being in current use, but only the peculiar dialect of a particular class, we should never use them but when we know they will be understood.

5. *Avoid equivocal or ambiguous words.* The following sentences are exceptionable in this respect. "As for such animals as are *mortal* or noxious, we have a right to destroy them." "I long since learned to like nothing but what you *do*." "He aimed at *nothing less* than the crown," may denote either, "Nothing was less aimed at by him than the crown," or "Nothing inferior to the crown could satisfy his ambition." "*I will have mercy*, and not sacrifice." The first part of this sentence denotes, "I will exercise mercy;" whereas it is in this place employed to signify, "I require others to exercise it." The translation should therefore have been accommodated to these different meanings. "They were both much more ancient among the Persians, than Zoroaster *or* Zerdusht." The *or* in this sentence is equivocal. It serves either as a copulative to synonymous words, or as a disjunctive of different things. If, therefore, the student should not know that Zoroaster and Zerdusht mean the same person, he will mistake the sense. "The rising tomb a lofty column bore:" "And thus the son the fervent sire address." Did the tomb bear the column, or the column the tomb? Did the son address the sire, or the sire the son?

6. *Avoid unintelligible and inconsistent words or phrases.* "I have observed," says Steele, "that the superiority among these coffeehouse politicians, proceeds from an opinion of gallantry and fashion." This sentence, considered in itself, evidently conveys no meaning. First, it is not said whose opinion, their own, or that of others: Secondly, it is not said what opinion, or of what sort, favourable or unfavourable, true or false, but in general, "an opinion of gallantry and fashion," which contains no definite expression of any meaning. With the joint assistance of the context, reflection, and conjecture, we shall perhaps conclude that the author intended to say; "That the rank among these politicians was determined by the opinion generally entertained of the rank, in point of gallantry and fashion, that each of them had attained."

"This temper of mind," says an author, speaking of humility, "keeps our understanding tight about us." Whether the author had any meaning in this expression, or what it was, is not easy to determine.

Sometimes a writer runs on in a specious verbosity, amusing his reader with synonymous terms and identical

propositions, well-turned periods, and high sounding words; but at the same time, using those words so indefinitely, that the reader can either affix no meaning at all to them, or may affix to them almost any meaning he pleases.

“If it is asked,” says a late writer, “whence arises the harmony, or beauty of language? what are the rules for obtaining it? the answer is obvious. Whatever renders a period sweet and pleasant, makes it also graceful. A good ear is the gift of nature; it may be much improved, but not acquired by art. Whoever is possessed of it, will scarcely need dry critical precepts to enable him to judge of a true rhythm, and melody of composition. Just numbers, accurate proportions, a musical symphony, magnificent figures, and that decorum which is the result of all these, are unison to the human mind.”

The following is a poetical example of the same nature, in which there is scarcely a glimpse of meaning, though it was composed by an eminent poet.

From harmony, from heavenly harmony,
 This universal frame began:
 From harmony to harmony
 Thro' all the compass of the notes it ran,
 The diapason closing full in man.

In general, it may be said, that in writings of this stamp, we must accept of sound instead of sense; being assured, that if we meet with little that can inform the judgment, we shall at least find nothing that will offend the ear. And perhaps this is one reason that we pass over such smooth language, without suspecting that it contains little or no meaning. In order to write or speak clearly and intelligibly, two things are especially requisite: one, that we have clear and distinct ideas of our subject; and the other, that our words be approved signs of those ideas. That persons who think confusedly, should express themselves obscurely, is not to be wondered at; for embarrassed, obscure, and feeble sentences, are generally, if not always, the result of embarrassed, obscure, and feeble thought; but that persons of judgment, who are accustomed to scrutinize their ideas, and the signification of their words, should sometimes write without any meaning, is, at first sight, matter of admiration. This, however, when further considered, appears to be an effect derived from the same cause, indistinctness of conception, and inattention to the exact import of words. The occasions on which we are most apt to speak and write in this unintelligible manner, are the three following.



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“It is but opening the eye, and the scene enters.” A *scène* cannot be said to *enter*: an *actor* enters; but a scene *appears* or *presents itself*.

“We immediately assent to the beauty of an object, without inquiring into the causes of it:” it is proper to say, that we *assent* to the truth of a proposition; but it cannot so well be said, that we *assent to the beauty of an object*. *Acknowledge* would have expressed the sense with propriety.

“The sense of feeling, can, indeed, give us a notion of extension, shape, and all other ideas that enter at the eye, except colours.” *Extension* and *shape* can, with no propriety, be called *ideas*; they are properties of matter. Neither is it accurate, to speak of any sense *giving us a notion of ideas*: our senses give us the ideas themselves. The meaning of the sentence would have been proper, and much clearer, if the author had expressed himself thus: “The sense of feeling can, indeed, give us the idea of extension, figure, and all the other properties of matter, which are perceived by the eye, except colours.”

“The covetous man never has a sufficiency; although he has what is enough for nature,” is much inferior to, “The covetous man never has *enough*; although he has what is *sufficient* for nature.”

“A traveller observes the most striking objects he sees; a general remarks all the motions of his enemy;” better thus; “A traveller *remarks*,” &c.; “A general *observes*,” &c. “This measure enlarged his school, and obliged him to increase the buildings;” it should be, “*increased* his school;” and “*enlarge* the buildings.”

“He applied a medicine before the poison had time to work:” better thus: “He applied an *antidote*,” &c.

“The poison of a suspicious temper frequently throws out its bad qualities, on all who are within its reach;” better, “throws out its *malignant* qualities.”

“I will go except I should be ill;” “I saw them all unless two or three:” corrected thus: “*unless* I should be ill;” “*except* two or three.”

A selection of words and phrases, which are peculiarly expressive of the ideas we design to communicate; or which are as particular and determinate in their signification, as is consistent with the nature and the scope of the discourse; possesses great beauty, and cannot fail to produce a good effect.

CHAP. III.

OF PRECISION.

PRECISION is the third requisite of perspicuity with res-

pect to words and phrases. It signifies retrenching superfluities, and pruning the expression, so as to exhibit neither more nor less than an exact copy of the person's idea who uses it.

The words used to express ideas may be faulty in three respects. - 1st, They may not express the idea which the author intends, but some other which only resembles it; secondly, They may express that idea, but not fully and completely; thirdly, They may express it, together with something more than is intended. Precision stands opposed to these three faults, but chiefly to the last. Propriety implies a freedom from the two former faults. The words which are used may be *proper*; that is, they may express the idea intended, and they may express it fully; but to be *precise*, signifies that they express *that idea and no more*.

The use and importance of precision may be deduced from the nature of the human mind. It never can view, clearly and distinctly, more than one object at a time. If it must look at two or three together, especially objects that have resemblance or connexion, it finds itself confused and embarrassed. It cannot clearly perceive in what they agree, and in what they differ. Thus, were any object, suppose some animal, to be presented to my view, of whose structure I wished to form a distinct notion, I should desire all its trappings to be taken off; I should require it to be brought before me by itself, and to stand alone, that there might be nothing to divide my attention. The same is the case with words. If, when any one would inform me of his meaning, he also tells me more than what conveys it: if he joins foreign circumstances to the principal objects; if, by unnecessarily varying the expression, he shifts the point of view, and makes me see sometimes the object itself, and sometimes another thing that is connected with it, he thereby obliges me to look on several objects at once, and I lose sight of the principal. He loads the animal he is showing me, with so many trappings and collars, that I cannot distinctly view it; or he brings so many of the same species before me, somewhat resembling, and yet somewhat differing, that I see none of them clearly. When an author tells me of his hero's courage in the day of battle, the expression is precise, and I understand it fully: but if, from the desire of multiplying words, he should praise his courage and fortitude; at the moment he joins these words together, my idea begins to waver. He means to express one quality more strongly, but he is in truth expressing two: courage resists danger; fortitude supports p . . . The occasion of exerting each of these qualities is different; and

being led to think of both together, when only one of them should be considered, my view is rendered unsteady, and my conception of the object indistinct.

All subjects do not equally require precision. It is sufficient, on many occasions, that we have a general view of the meaning. The subject, perhaps, is of the known and familiar kind, and we are in no hazard of mistaking the sense of the author, though every word which he uses is not precise and exact.

Many authors offend against this rule of *precision*. A considerable one, in describing a bad action, expresses himself thus: "It is to remove a good and orderly affection, and to introduce an ill or disorderly one; to commit an action that is ill, immoral, and unjust; to do ill, or to act in prejudice of integrity, good nature, and worth."

A crowd of unmeaning or useless words is brought together by some authors, who, afraid of expressing themselves in a common and ordinary manner, and allured by an appearance of splendour, surround every thing which they mean to say with a certain copious loquacity.

The great source of a loose style in opposition to precision, is the injudicious use of the words termed *synonymous*. They are called synonymous, because they agree in expressing one principal idea; but, for the most part, if not always, they express it with some diversity in the circumstances.

The following instances show a difference in the meaning of words reputed synonymous, and point out the use of attending, with care and strictness, to the exact import of words.

Custom, habit.—Custom, respects the action; habit, the actor. By custom, we mean the frequent repetition of the same act; by habit, the effect which that repetition produces on the mind or body. By the custom of walking often in the streets, one acquires a habit of idleness.

Pride, vanity.—Pride makes us esteem ourselves; vanity makes us desire the esteem of others. It is just to say, that a man is too proud to be vain.

Haughtiness, disdain.—Haughtiness is founded on the high opinion we entertain of ourselves; disdain, on the low opinion we have of others.

Only, alone.—Only, imports that there is no other of the same kind; alone, imports being accompanied by no other. An only child, is one that has neither brother nor sister; a child alone, is one who is left by itself. There is a difference, therefore, in precise language, between these two phrases:



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PART II.

OF PERSPICUITY AND ACCURACY OF EXPRESSION, WITH
RESPECT TO THE CONSTRUCTION OF SENTENCES.

SENTENCES, in general, should neither be very long, nor very short: long ones require close attention to make us clearly perceive the connexion of the several parts; and short ones are apt to break the sense, and weaken the connexion of thought. Yet occasionally they may both be used with force and propriety; as may be seen in the following sentences.

“If you look about you, and consider the lives of others as well as your own; if you think how few are born with honour, and how many die without name or children; how little beauty we see, and how few friends we hear of; how much poverty, and how many diseases there are in the world; you will fall down upon your knees, and instead of repining at one affliction, will admire so many blessings which you have received from the Divine hand.” This is a sentence composed of several members linked together, and hanging upon one another, so that the sense of the whole is not brought out till the close. The following is an example of one in which the sense is formed into short, independent propositions, each complete within itself. “I confess, it was want of consideration that made me an author. I wrote because it amused me. I corrected, because it was as pleasant to me to correct as to write. I published, because I was told I might please such as it was a credit to please.”

A train of sentences, constructed in the same manner, and with the same number of members, should never be allowed to succeed one another. A long succession of either long or short sentences should also be avoided; for the ear tires of either of them when too long continued.

Whereas, by a proper mixture of long and short periods, and of periods variously constructed, not only the ear is gratified; but animation and force are given to our style.

We now proceed to consider the things most essential to an accurate and a perfect sentence. They appear to be the four following: 1. CLEARNESS. 2. UNITY. 3. STRENGTH. 4. A JUDICIOUS USE OF THE FIGURES OF SPEECH.

CHAPTER I.

OF THE CLEARNESS OF A SENTENCE.

PURITY, propriety, and precision, in words and phrases separately considered, have already been explained, and shown to be necessary to perspicuous and accurate writing.

The just relation of sentences, and the parts of sentences, to one another, and the due arrangement of the whole, are the subjects which remain to be discussed.

THE FIRST requisite of a perfect sentence is *clearness*.

Whatever leaves the mind in any sort of suspense as to the meaning, ought to be avoided. Obscurity arises from two causes; either from a wrong choice of words, or a wrong arrangement of them. The choice of words and phrases, as far as regards perspicuity, has been already considered. The disposition of them comes now under consideration.

The first thing to be studied here, is grammatical propriety. But as the grammar of our language is comparatively not extensive, there may be an obscure order of words, where there is no transgression of any grammatical rule. The relations of words, or members of a period, are, with us, ascertained only by the position in which they stand.

Hence a capital rule in the arrangement of sentences is, that the words or members, most clearly related, should be placed in the sentence as near to each other as possible, so as to make their mutual relation clearly appear. It will be proper to produce some instances, in order to show the importance of this rule.

1. *In the position of adverbs.* “The Romans understood liberty, *at least*, as well as we.” These words are capable of two different senses; according as the emphasis, in reading them, is laid upon *liberty*, or upon *at least*. The words should have been thus arranged: “The Romans understood liberty as well, at least, as we.”

“Theism can only be opposed to polytheism, or atheism.” Is it meant that theism is capable of nothing else besides being opposed to polytheism, or atheism? This is what the words literally import, through the wrong placing of the adverb *only*. It should have been, “Theism can be opposed only to polytheism or atheism.”

“By the pleasures of the imagination, I mean only such pleasures as arise originally from sight.” When it is said, “*I mean only such pleasures*,” it may be remarked, that the adverb *only* is not properly placed. It is not intended here to qualify the word *mean*, but *such pleasures*; and therefore should have been placed in as close connexion as possible with the word which it limits or qualifies. The style becomes more clear and neat, when the words are arranged thus: “By the pleasures of the imagination, I mean such pleasures only as arise from sight.”

In the following sentence, the word *more* is not in its proper place. “There is not, perhaps, any real beauty or deformity

more in one piece of matter than another.” The phrase ought to have stood thus: “Beauty or deformity in one piece of matter more than in another.”

2. *In the position of circumstances, and of particular members.*

An author, in his dissertation on parties, thus expresses himself: “Are these designs which any man, who is born a Briton, in any circumstances, in any situation, ought to be ashamed or afraid to avow?” Here we are left at a loss, whether these words, “in any circumstances, in any situation,” are connected with “a man born in Britian, in any circumstances or situation,” or with that man’s “avowing his designs in any circumstances or situation into which he may be brought.” As it is probable that the latter was intended, the arrangement ought to have been conducted thus: “Are these designs which any man, who is born a Briton, ought to be ashamed or afraid, in any situation, in any circumstances, to avow?”

The following is another instance of a wrong arrangement of circumstances. “A great stone that I happened to find, after a long search, by the sea shore, served me for an anchor.” One would think that the search was confined to the sea shore; but as the meaning is, that the great stone was found by the sea shore, the period ought to have run thus: “A great stone, that, after a long search; I happened to find by the sea shore, served me for an anchor.”

It is a rule, too, never to crowd many circumstances together, but rather to intersperse them in different parts of the sentence, joined with the principal words on which they depend. For instance: “What I had the opportunity of mentioning to my friend, some time ago, in conversation, was not a new thought.” These two circumstances, “*sometime ago*,” and “*in conversation*,” which are here put together, would have had a better effect disjoined, thus: “What I had the opportunity, sometime ago, of mentioning to my friend in conversation, was not a new thought.”

Here follows an example of the wrong arrangement of a member of a sentence. “The minister of state who grows less by his elevation, like a little statue placed on a mighty pedestal, will always have his jealousy strong about him.” Here, so far as can be gathered from the arrangement, it is doubtful whether the object introduced, by way of simile, relates to what goes before, or to what follows. The ambiguity is removed by the following order. “The minister of state who like a little statue placed on a mighty pedestal, grows less by his elevation, will always,” &c:



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The following sentence is a beautiful example of strict conformity to this rule. “Our sight fills the mind with the largest variety of ideas, converses with its objects at the greatest distance, and continues the longest in action, without being tired or satiated with its proper enjoyments.” This passage follows the order of nature. First, we have the variety of objects mentioned, which sight furnishes to the mind; next, we have the action of sight on those objects; and lastly, we have the time and continuance of its action. No order could be more natural or exact.

The order which we now recommend, is, in single words especially, frequently violated for the sake of better sound; but, perhaps in no instances, without a deviation from the line of strict propriety.

3. *In the disposition of the relative pronouns, who, which, what, whose, and of all those particles which express the connexion of the parts of speech with one another.*

A small error in the position of these words may cloud the meaning of the whole sentence; and even where the meaning is intelligible, we always find something awkward and disjointed in the structure of the sentence, when these relatives are out of their proper place. “This kind of wit,” says an author, “was very much in vogue among our *countrymen*, about an age or two ago; *who* did not practise it for any oblique reason, but purely for the sake of being witty.” We are at no loss about the meaning here; but the construction would evidently be mended by disposing the circumstance, “about an age or two ago,” in such a manner as not to separate the relative *who* from its antecedent *our countrymen*; in this way: “About an age or two ago, this kind of wit was very much in vogue among our countrymen, who did not practise it,” &c.

The following passage is still more censurable. “It is folly to pretend to arm ourselves against the accidents of life, by heaping up treasures, *which* nothing can protect us against, but the good providence of our Creator.” *Which* always refers grammatically to the substantive immediately preceding; and that, in the instance just mentioned, is “treasures.” The sentence ought to have stood thus: “It is folly to pretend, by heaping up treasures, to arm ourselves against the accidents of life, which nothing can protect us against,” &c.

With regard to relatives, it may be further observed, that obscurity often arises from the too frequent repetition of them, particularly of the pronouns *who* and *they*, and *them*, and *theirs*, when we have occasion to refer to different persons; as in the following sentence of Tillotson. “Men look

with an evil eye upon the good that is in others, and think that *their* reputation obscures *them*, and *their* commendable qualities stand in *their* light; and therefore *they* do what *they* can to cast a cloud over *them*, that the bright shining of *their* virtues may not obscure *them*." This is altogether careless writing. When we find these personal pronouns crowding too fast upon us, we have often no method left, but to throw the whole sentence into some other form, which may avoid those frequent references to persons who have before been mentioned.

To have the relation of every word and member of a sentence marked in the most proper and distinct manner, not only gives clearness to it, but makes the mind pass smoothly and agreeably along all the parts of it.—See the APPENDIX to the Exercises.

CHAPTER II.

OF THE UNITY OF A SENTENCE.

THE SECOND requisite of a perfect sentence, is its *Unity*.

In every composition, there is always some connecting principal among the parts. Some one object must reign and be predominant. But most of all, in a single sentence, is required the strictest unity. For the very nature of a sentence implies that one proposition is expressed. It may consist of parts, indeed, but these parts must be so closely bound together, as to make the impression upon the mind of one object, not of many. To preserve this unity of a sentence, the following rules must be observed.

In the *first* place, *During the course of the sentence, the scene should be changed as little as possible.* We should not be hurried by sudden transitions from person to person, nor from subject to subject. There is commonly, in every sentence, some person or thing which is the governing word. This should be continued so, if possible, from the beginning to the end of it.

The following sentence varies from this rule: "After we came to anchor, they put me on shore, where I was welcomed by all my friends, who received me with the greatest kindness." In this sentence, though the objects contained in it have a sufficient connexion with each other, yet, by this manner of representing them, by shifting so often both the place and the person, *we* and *they*, and *I* and *who*, they appear in so disunited a view, that the sense of connexion is much impaired. The sentence is restored to its proper unity, by turning it after the following manner. "Having come to

an anchor, I was put on shore, where I was welcomed by all my friends, and received with the greatest kindness."

Here follows another instance of departure from the rule: "The sultan being dangerously wounded, they carried him to his tent; and, upon hearing of the defeat of his troops, they put him into a litter, which transported him to a place of safety, at the distance of about fifteen leagues." Better thus: "The sultan being dangerously wounded, was carried to his tent; and, on hearing of the defeat of his troops, was put into a litter, and transported to a place of safety about fifteen leagues distant."

A second rule under the head of unity, is, *Never to crowd into one sentence, things which have so little connexion, that they could bear to be divided into two or three sentences.*

The violation of this rule tends so much to perplex and obscure, that it is safer to err by too many short sentences, than by one that is overloaded and embarrassed. Examples abound in authors. "Archbishop Tillotson," says an author, "died in this year. He was exceedingly beloved by king William and queen Mary, who nominated Dr. Tennison, bishop of Lincoln, to succeed him." Who would expect the latter part of this sentence to follow in consequence of the former? "He was exceedingly beloved by both king and queen," is the proposition of the sentence. We look for some proof of this, or at least something related to it to follow; when we are on a sudden carried off to a new proposition.

The following sentence is still worse. The author, speaking of the Greeks under Alexander, says: "Their march was through an uncultivated country, whose savage inhabitants fared hardly, having no other riches than a breed of lean sheep, whose flesh was rank and unsavoury, by reason of their continual feeding upon sea-fish." Here the scene is changed upon us again and again. The march of the Greeks, the description of the inhabitants through whose country they travelled, the account of their sheep, and the cause of their sheep being ill-tasted food, form a jumble of objects, slightly related to each other, which the reader cannot, without much difficulty, comprehend under one view.

These examples have been taken from sentences of no great length, yet very crowded. Writers who deal in long sentences, are very apt to be faulty in this article. Take, for an instance, the following from Temple. "The usual acceptation takes profit and pleasure for two different things, and not only calls the followers or votaries of them by the several names of busy and idle men; but distinguishes the



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reflect on those operations of the soul that are most agreeable ; and to range, under their proper heads, what is pleasing or displeasing to the mind, without being able to trace out the several necessary and efficient causes, from whence the pleasure or displeasure arises.”

The following amendment, besides breaking down the period into several sentences, exhibits some other useful alterations: “In yesterday’s paper, we showed that every thing which is great, new, or beautiful, is apt to affect the imagination with pleasure. We must own, that it is impossible for us to assign the efficient cause of this pleasure, because we know not the nature either of an idea, or of the human soul. All that we can do, therefore, in speculations of this kind, is to reflect on the operations of the soul which are most agreeable, and to range under proper heads what is pleasing or displeasing to the mind.”

A *third* rule for preserving the unity of sentences, is, *to keep clear of all unnecessary parentheses.*

On some occasions, when the sense is not too long suspended by them, and when they are introduced in a proper place, they may add both to the vivacity and to the energy of the sentence. But for the most part their effect is extremely bad. They are wheels within wheels ; sentences in the midst of sentences ; the perplexed method of disposing of some thought, which a writer wants judgment to introduce in its proper place.

The parenthesis in this sentence is striking and proper ;

“And was the ransom paid ? It was ; and paid

“(What can exalt the bounty more ?) for thee.”

But in the following sentence, we become sensible of an impropriety in the use of it. “If your hearts secretly reproach you for the wrong choice you have made, (as there is time for repentance and retreat ; and a return to wisdom is always honourable,) bethink yourselves that the evil is not irreparable.” It would be much better to express in a separate sentence, the thoughts contained in this parenthesis ; thus : “If your hearts secretly reproach you for the wrong choice you have made, bethink yourselves that the evil is not irreparable. Still there is time for repentance and retreat ; and a return to wisdom is always honourable.”—*See the APPENDIX to the Exercises.*

CHAPTER III.

OF THE STRENGTH OF A SENTENCE.

THE THIRD requisite of a perfect sentence, is, *Strength.*

By this is meant such a disposition and management of the

several words and members, as shall bring out the sense to the best advantage, and give every word and every member, its due weight and force.

A sentence may be clear, it may also be compact in all its parts, or have the requisite unity, and yet, by some circumstance in the structure, it may fail in that strength of impression, which a better management would have produced.

The *first* rule for promoting the strength of a sentence, is, *to prune it of all redundant words and members.*

It is a general maxim, that any words which do not add some importance to the meaning of a sentence, always injure it. Care should therefore be exercised with respect to synonymous words, expletives, circumlocutions, tautologies, and the expressions of unnecessary circumstances. The attention becomes remiss, when words are multiplied without a correspondent multiplication of ideas. "Content with deserving a triumph, he refused the honour of it;" is better language than to say, "Being content with deserving it," &c.

"In the Attic commonwealth," says an author, "it was the privilege and birthright of every citizen and poet, to rail aloud and in public." Better simply thus: "In the Attic commonwealth, it was the privilege of every citizen to rail in public."

Another expresses himself thus. "They returned back again to the same city from whence they came forth;" instead of, "They returned to the city whence they came." The five words, *back, again, same, from, and forth*, are mere expletives, that have neither use nor beauty, and are therefore to be regarded as encumbrances.

The word *but* is often improperly used with *that*: as, "There can be no doubt *but that* he seriously means what he says." It is not only useless, but cumbersome: "There can be no doubt *that* he seriously means what he says." By transposing the parts of the sentence, we shall immediately perceive the propriety of omitting this word: "That he seriously means what he says, there can be no doubt."

"I am honestly, seriously, and unalterably of opinion, that nothing can possibly be more incurably and emphatically destructive, or more decisively fatal, to a kingdom, than the introduction of thoughtless dissipation, and the pomp of lazy luxury." Would not the full import of this noisy sentence be better expressed thus: "I am of opinion, that nothing is more ruinous to a kingdom, than luxury and dissipation."

Some writers use much circumlocution in expressing their ideas. A considerable one, for so very simple a thing as

man's wounding himself, says, "To mangle, or wound, his outward form and constitution, his natural limbs or body."

But, on some occasions, circumlocution has a peculiar force; as in the following sentence: "Shall not *the judge of all the earth* do right?"

In the sentences which follow, the ill effects of tautology appear.

"So it is, that I must be *forced* to get home, partly by stealth, and partly by *force*."

"Never did Atticus succeed better in gaining the *universal* love and esteem of *all* men."

The subsequent sentence contains several unnecessary circumstances. "On receiving this information, he arose, went out, saddled his horse, mounted him, and rode to town." All is implied in saying, "On receiving this information, he rode to town."

This manner, however, in a certain degree, is so strongly characteristic of the simple style of remote ages, that, in books of the highest antiquity, particularly the Bible, it is not at all ungraceful. Of this kind are the following scriptural phrases. "He lifted up his voice, and wept." "He opened his mouth, and said." It is true, that, in strictness, they are not necessary to the narration, but they are of some importance to the composition, as bearing the venerable signature of ancient simplicity. It may, on this occasion, be further observed, that the language of the present translation of the Bible, ought not to be viewed in an exceptionable light, though some parts of it may appear to be obsolete. From universal admission, this language has become so familiar and intelligible, that, in all transcripts and allusions, except where the sense is evidently injured, it ought to be carefully preserved. And it may also be justly remarked, that, on religious subjects, a frequent recurrence of scripture-language is attended with peculiar force and propriety.

Though it promotes the strength of a sentence, to contract a roundabout method of expression, and to lop off excrescences, yet we should avoid the extreme of pruning too closely: some leaves should be left to shelter and surround the fruit. Even synonymous expressions may, on some occasions, be used with propriety. One is, when an obscurer term, which we cannot well avoid employing, needs to be explained by one that is clearer. The other is, when the language of the emotions is exhibited. Emotion naturally dwells on its object; and when the reader also feels interested, repetition and synonymy have frequently an agreeable effect.



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where they think the meaning can be understood without it: as, "The man I love;" "The dominions we possessed, and the conquests we made." But though this elliptical style is intelligible, and is allowable in conversation and epistolary writing, yet in all writings of a serious and dignified kind, it ought to be avoided. There, the relative should always be inserted in its proper place, and the construction filled up. "The man whom I love." "The dominions which we possessed, and the conquests which we made."

With regard to the copulative particle *and*, which occurs so frequently in all kinds of composition, several observations are to be made. First, it is evident, that the unnecessary repetition of it enfeebles style. The following sentence from Sir William Temple, will serve for an instance. He is speaking of the refinement of the French language. "The academy, set up by Cardinal Richelieu, to amuse the wits of that age *and* country, *and* divert them from raking into his politics *and* ministry, brought this into vogue; *and* the French wits have, for this last age, been wholly turned to the refinement of their style *and* language; *and*, indeed, with such success, that it can hardly be equalled, *and* runs equally through their verse *and* their prose." Here are no fewer than eight *ands* in one sentence. Some writers often make their sentences drag in this manner, by a careless multiplication of copulatives.

But, in the next place, it is worthy of observation, that though the natural use of the conjunction *and*, is to join objects together, yet, in fact, by dropping the conjunction, we often mark a closer connexion, a quicker succession of objects, than when it is inserted between them. "I came, I saw, I conquered," expresses with more force the rapidity and quick succession of conquest, than if connecting particles had been used.

On the other hand, when we seek to prevent a quick transition from one object to another, when we are making some enumeration, in which we wish that the objects should appear as distinct from each other as possible, and that the mind should rest, for a moment, on each object by itself, copulatives may be multiplied with peculiar advantage. As when an author says, "Such a man might fall a victim to power; but truth, and reason, and liberty, would fall with him." Observe, in the following enumeration made by the Apostle Paul, what additional weight and distinctness are given to each particular, by the repetition of a conjunction: "I am persuaded that neither death, nor life, nor angels, nor principalities, nor powers, nor things present, nor things to

come, nor height, nor depth, nor any other creature, shall be able to separate us from the love of God."

The words designed to mark the transition from one sentence to another, and the connexion between sentences, are sometimes very incorrect, and perform their office in an imperfect and obscure manner. The following is an example of this kind of inaccuracy. "By greatness, I do not mean the bulk of any single object only, but the largeness of a whole view. *Such* are the prospects of an open champaign country, a vast uncultivated prospect, &c. The word *such* signifies of that nature or quality, which necessarily presupposes some adjective or word descriptive of a quality going before, to which it refers. But, in the foregoing sentence, there is no such adjective. The author had spoken of *greatness* in the abstract only; and, therefore, *such* has no distinct antecedent to which we can refer it. The sentence would have been introduced with more propriety, by saying, *To this class belong, or under this head are ranged, the prospects, &c.*

As connective particles are the hinges, tacks, and pins, by which the words in the same clause, the clauses in the same member, the members in the same sentence, and even the sentences in the same discourse, are united together, and their relations suggested, so they should not be either too frequently repeated, awkwardly exposed to view, or made up of polysyllables, when shorter words would as well convey the meaning. *Notwithstanding that, insomuch that, forasmuch as, furthermore, &c.* are tedious words, which tend to overload and perplex a sentence.

We shall conclude this head with two remarks on the subject of inserting or omitting the conjunctions. The first is, that the illative conjunctions, the causal, and the disjunctive, when they suit the sense, can more rarely be dispensed with than the copulative. The second is, that the omission of copulatives always succeeds best, when the connexion of the thoughts is either very close, or very distant. It is mostly in the intermediate cases that the conjunction is deemed necessary. When the connexion in thought is very distant, the copulative appears absurd; and when very close, superfluous.

'The *third* rule for promoting the strength of a sentence, is, *to dispose of the capital word, or words, so that they may make the greatest impression.*'

That there are in every sentence, such capital words on which the meaning principally rests, every one must see; and that these words should possess a conspicuous and distinguish-

ed place, is equally plain. For the most part, with us, the important words are placed in the beginning of the sentence. So in the following passages: "Silver and gold have I none; but such as I have, give I unto thee," &c. "Your fathers, where are they? and the prophets, do they live forever?"

Sometimes, however, when we intend to give weight to a sentence, it is of advantage to suspend the meaning for a little, and then bring it out full at the close. "Thus," says an author, "on whatever side we contemplate this ancient writer, what principally strikes us, is his wonderful invention."

To accomplish this end, the placing of capital words in a conspicuous part of the sentence, the natural order of our language must sometimes be inverted. According to this natural order, the nominative has the first place, the verb the second, and the objective, if it be an active verb that is employed, has the third. Circumstances follow the nominative, the verb, or the objective, as they happen to belong to any of them. "Diana of the Ephesians is great," is the natural order of the sentence. But its strength is increased by inversion, thus: "Great is Diana of the Ephesians." "I profess, in the sincerity of my heart," &c. is the natural order of a circumstance. Inverted thus: "In the sincerity of my heart, I profess," &c.

Some authors greatly invert the natural order of sentences; others write mostly in a natural style. Each method has its advantages. The inverted possesses strength, dignity, and variety: the other, more nature, ease, and simplicity. We shall give an instance of each method, taken from writers of considerable eminence. The first is of the inverted order. The author is speaking of the misery of vice. "This, as to the complete immoral state, is what, of their own accord, men readily remark. Where there is this absolute degeneracy, this total apostacy from all candour, truth, or equity, there are few who do not see and acknowledge the misery which is consequent. Seldom is the case misconstrued when at worst. The misfortune is, that we look not on this depravity, nor consider how it stands in less degrees. As if, to be absolutely immoral, were, indeed, the greatest misery; but to be so in a little degree, should be no misery or harm at all. Which, to allow, is just as reasonable as to own, that it is the greatest ill of a body to be in the utmost manner maimed or distorted; but that to lose the use only of one limb, or to be impaired in some single organ or member, is no ill worthy the least notice." Here is no violence done to the language, though there are many inversions.

The following is an example of natural construction:



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the belief that we have forsaken our passions, when they have forsaken us."

In general, it is agreeable to find a sentence rising upon us, and growing in its importance, to the very last word, when this construction can be managed without affectation. "If we rise yet higher," says Addison, "and consider the fixed stars as so many oceans of flame, that are each of them attended with a different set of planets; and still discover new firmaments and new lights that are sunk further in those unfathomable depths of ether; we are lost in such a labyrinth of suns and worlds, and confounded with the magnificence and immensity of nature."

The *fifth* rule for the strength of sentences is, *to avoid concluding them with an adverb, a preposition, or any inconsiderable word.*

Agreeably to this rule, we should not conclude with any of the particles, *of, to, from, with, by.* For instance, it is a great deal better to say, "Avarice is a crime of which wise men are often guilty," than to say, "Avarice is a crime which wise men are often guilty of." This is a phraseology which all correct writers shun: and with reason. For as the mind cannot help resting a little, on the import of the word which closes the sentence, it must be disagreeable to be left pausing on a word, which does not, by itself, produce any idea.

For the same reason, verbs which are used in a compound sense, with some of these prepositions, are, though not so bad, yet still not proper conclusions of a period: such as, *bring about, lay hold of, come over to, clear up,* and many other of this kind; instead of which, if we can employ a simple verb, it always terminates the sentence with more strength. Even the pronoun *it,* should, if possible, be avoided in the conclusion: especially when it is joined with some of the prepositions; as, *with it, in it, to it.* We shall be sensible of this in the following sentence. "There is not, in my opinion, a more pleasing and triumphant consideration in religion, than this, of the perpetual progress which the soul makes towards the perfection of its nature, without ever arriving at a period *in it.*" How much more agreeable the sentence, if it had been so constructed as to close with the word *period!*

Besides particles and pronouns, any phrase, which expresses a circumstance only, always appears badly in the rear of a sentence. We may judge of this by the following passage: "Let me therefore conclude by repeating, that division has caused all the mischief we lament; that union alone can retrieve it and that a great advance towards this union, was

the coalition of parties, so happily begun, so successfully carried on, and of late so unaccountably neglected ; to say no worse." This last phrase, "to say no worse," occasions a falling off at the end. The proper disposition of such circumstances in a sentence, requires attention, in order to adjust them so as shall consist equally with the perspicuity and the strength of the period.—Though necessary parts, they are, however, like irregular stones in a building, which try the skill of an artist, where to place them with the least offence. But it must be remembered, that the close is always an unsuitable place for them. Notwithstanding what has been said against concluding a period with an adverb, &c. this must not be understood to refer to such words, when the stress and significancy of the sentence rest chiefly upon them. In this case they are not to be considered as circumstances, but as the principal objects : as in the following sentence. "In their prosperity, my friends shall never hear of me, in their adversity, always." Here, "*never*" and "*always*" being emphatical words, were to be so placed as to make a strong impression.

The *sixth* rule relating to the strength of a sentence, is, *that in the members of a sentence, where two things are compared or contrasted with one another ; where either a resemblance or an opposition is intended to be expressed ; some resemblance, in the language and construction, should be preserved. For when the things themselves correspond to each other, we naturally expect to find a similar correspondence in the words.*

Thus, when it is said, "The wise man is happy when he gains his own approbation ; the fool, when he recommends himself to the applause of those about him ;" the opposition would have been more regular, if it had been expressed thus : "The wise man is happy when he gains his own approbation ; the fool, when he gains that of others."

"A friend exaggerates a man's virtues : an enemy inflames his crimes." Better thus : "A friend exaggerates a man's virtues ; an enemy his crimes."

The following passage from Pope's Preface to his Homer, fully exemplifies the rule just given : "Homer was the greater genius ; Virgil, the better artist : in the one we most admire the man ; in the other the work. Homer hurries us with a commanding impetuosity ; Virgil leads us with an attractive majesty. Homer scatters with a generous profusion ; Virgil bestows with a careful magnificence. Homer, like the Nile, pours out his riches with a sudden overflow ; Virgil, like a river in its banks, with a constant stream."—Periods thus constructed, when introduced with propriety, and not

returning too often, have a sensible beauty. But we must beware of carrying our attention to this beauty too far. It ought only to be occasionally studied, when comparison or opposition of objects naturally leads us to it. If such a construction as this be aimed at, in all our sentences, it leads to a disagreeable uniformity; produces a regularly returning clink in the period, which tires the ear; and plainly discovers affectation.

The *seventh* rule for promoting the strength and effect of sentences, is, *to attend to the sound, the harmony and easy flow, of the words and members.*

Sound is a quality much inferior to sense; yet such as must not be disregarded. For, as long as sounds are the vehicle or conveyance for our ideas, there will be a very considerable connexion between the idea which is conveyed, and the nature of the sound which conveys it.—Pleasing ideas, and forcible reasoning, can hardly be transmitted to the mind, by means of harsh and disagreeable sounds. The mind revolts at such sounds, and the impression of the sentiment must consequently be weakened. The observations which we have to make on this subject, respect the choice of words; their arrangement; the order and disposition of the members; and the cadence or close of sentences.

We begin with the choice of words. It is evident, that words are most agreeable to the ear, when they are composed of smooth and liquid sounds, in which there is a proper intermixture of vowels and consonants; without too many harsh consonants rubbing against each other; or too many open vowels in succession, to cause a hiatus, or disagreeable aperture of the mouth.

It may always be assumed as a principle, that whatever sounds are difficult in pronunciation, are, in the same proportion, harsh and painful to the ear. Vowels give softness; consonants, strength to the sound of words. The melody of language requires a just proportion of each; and the construction will be hurt, will be rendered either grating or effeminate, by an excess of either. Long words are commonly more agreeable to the ear than monosyllables. They please it by the composition or succession of sounds which they present to it; and accordingly, the most harmonious languages abound most in them. Among words of any length, those are the most melodious, which do not run wholly either upon long or short syllables, but are composed of an intermixture of them: such as, *repent, profess, powerful, velocity, celerity, independent, impetuosity.*

If we would speak forcibly and effectually, we must avoid



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ourselves involved in difficulties that cannot be 'avoided.' "It is plain to any one who views the subject, even slightly, that there is nothing here that is without allay and pure:" improved by this form; "It is evident to the slightest inspection, that nothing here is unallayed and pure."

We may take, for an instance of a sentence remarkably harmonious, the following from Milton's *Treatise on Education*; "We shall conduct you to a hill-side, laborious indeed, at the first ascent; but else so smooth, so green, so full of goodly prospects, and melodious sounds on every side, that the harp of Orpheus was not more charming." Every thing in this sentence conspires to promote the harmony. The words are well chosen; full of liquids, and soft sounds; *laborious, smooth, green, goodly, melodious, charming*; and these words so artfully arranged, that were we to alter the situation of any one of them, we should, presently, be sensible of the melody's suffering.

To promote this harmonious arrangement of words, the following general directions will be found of some use. 1st, When the preceding word ends with a vowel, let the subsequent one begin with a consonant; and *vicé versâ*, *A true friend, a cruel enemy*, are smoother and easier to the voice, than *a true union, a cruel destroyer*. But when it is more perspicuous or convenient, for vowels or consonants to end one word and begin the next, it is proper that the vowels be a long and short one; and that the consonants be either a liquid and a mute, or liquids of different sorts: thus, *a lovely offspring; a purer design; a calm retreat*; are more fluent than, *a happy union, a brief petition, a cheap triumph, a putrid distemper, a calm matron, a clean nurse*. From these examples, the student will perceive the importance of accurately understanding the nature of vowels and consonants, liquids and mutes; with the connexion and influence, which subsist amongst them. 2d, In general, a considerable number of long or short words near one another should be avoided. "Disappointment in our expectations is wretchedness:" better thus; "Disappointed hope is misery." "No course of joy can please us long:" better, "No course of enjoyment can delight us long." A succession of words having the same quantity in the accented syllables, whether it be long or short, should also be avoided, "James was needy, feeble, and fearful:" improved thus, "James was timid, feeble, and destitute." "They could not be happy; for he was silly, pettish, and sullen:" better thus; "They could not be happy; for he was simple, peevish, and gloomy." 3d, Words which begin alike, or end alike, must not come together;

and the last syllable of the preceding word, should not be the same as the first syllable of the subsequent one. It is not so pleasing and harmonious to say, "This is a convenient contrivance;" "He is an indulgent parent;" "She behaves with uniform formality;" as, "This is a useful contrivance;" "He is a kind parent;" "She behaves with unvaried formality."

We proceed to consider the members of a sentence, with regard to harmony. They should not be too long, nor disproportionate to each other. When they have a regular and proportional division, they are much easier to the voice, are more clearly understood, and better remembered, than when this rule is not attended to: for whatever tires the voice, and offends the ear, is apt to mar the strength of the expression, and to degrade the sense of the author. And this is a sufficient ground for paying attention to the order and proportion of sentences, and the different parts of which they consist. The following passage exhibits sentences in which the different members are proportionally arranged,

Temple, speaking sarcastically of man, says "But his pride is greater than his ignorance, and what he wants in knowledge, he supplies by sufficiency. When he has looked about him as far as he can, he concludes there is no more to be seen; when he is at the end of his line, he is at the bottom of the ocean; when he has shot his best, he is sure none ever did, or ever can, shoot better, or beyond it. His own reason he holds to be the certain measure of truth; and his own knowledge, of what is possible in nature." Here every thing is at once easy to the breath, grateful to the ear, and intelligible to the understanding. See another example of the same kind, in the 17th and 18th verses of the 3d chapter of the prophet Habakkuk. We may remark here, that our present version of the Holy Scriptures, especially of the Psalms, abounds with instances of an harmonious arrangement of the words and members of sentences.

In the following quotation from Tillotson, we shall become sensible of an effect very different from that of the preceding sentences. "This discourse, concerning the easiness of the Divine commands, does all along suppose and acknowledge the difficulties of the first entrance upon a religious course; except only in those persons who have had the happiness to be trained up to religion, by the easy and insensible degrees of a pious and virtuous education." Here there is some degree of harshness and unpleasantness, owing principally to this, that there is properly no more than one pause or rest in the sentence, falling betwixt the two mem

bers into which it is divided : each of which is so long as to occasion a considerable stretch of the breath in pronouncing it.

With respect to the cadence or close of a sentence, care should be taken, that it be not abrupt, or unpleasant. The following instances may be sufficient to show the propriety of some attention to this part of the rule. "Virtue, diligence, and industry, joined with good temper and prudence, are prosperous in general." It would be better thus: "Virtue, diligence, and industry, joined with good temper and prudence, have ever been found the surest road to prosperity." An author speaking of the Trinity, expresses himself thus: "It is a mystery which we firmly believe the truth of, and humbly adore the depth of." How much better would it have been with this transposition: "It is a mystery, the truth of which we firmly believe, and the depth of which we humbly adore."

In order to give a sentence this proper close, the longest member of it, and the fullest words, should be reserved to the conclusion. But in the distribution of the members, and in the cadence of the period, as well as in the sentences themselves, variety must be observed ; for the mind soon tires with a frequent repetition of the same tone.

Though attention to the words and members, and the close of sentences, must not be neglected, yet it must also be kept within proper bounds. Sense has its own harmony ; and in no instance should perspicuity, precision, or strength of sentiment, be sacrificed to sound. All unmeaning words, introduced merely to round the period, or fill up the melody, are great blemishes in writing. They are childish and trivial ornaments, by which a sentence always loses more in point of weight, than it can gain by such additions to its sound. See *the Octavo Grammar, on this chapter.*

See also the APPENDIX to the Exercises.

CHAPTER. IV.

OF FIGURES OF SPEECH.

THE FOURTH requisite of a perfect sentence, is a judicious use of the Figures of Speech.

As figurative language is to be met with in almost every sentence ; and, when properly employed, confers beauty and strength on composition ; some knowledge of it appears to be indispensable to the scholars, who are learning to form their sentences with perspicuity, accuracy, and force. We shall, therefore, enumerate the principal figures, and give them some explanation.



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tended to those mental objects, of which men had more obscure conceptions, and to which they found it more difficult to assign distinct names. They borrowed, therefore, the name of some sensible idea, where their imagination found some affinity. Thus, we speak of a *piercing* judgment, and a *clear* head; a *soft* or a *hard* heart; a *rough* or a *smooth* behaviour. We say, *inflamed* by anger, *warmed* by love, *swelled* with pride, *melted* into grief; and these are almost the only significant words which we have for such ideas.

The principal advantages of figures of speech, are the two following.

First, They enrich language, and render it more copious. By their means, words and phrases are multiplied, for expressing all sorts of ideas; for describing even the minutest differences; the nicest shades and colours of thought; which no language could possibly do by proper words alone, without assistance from Tropes.

Secondly, They frequently give us a much clearer and more striking view of the principal object, than we could have, if it were expressed in simple terms, and divested of its accessory idea. By a well chosen figure, even conviction is assisted, and the impression of a truth upon the mind, made more lively and forcible than it would otherwise be. We perceive this in the following illustration of Young: "When we dip too deep in pleasure, we always stir a sediment that renders it impure and noxious:" and in this instance: "A heart boiling with violent passions, will always send up infatuating fumes to the head." An image that presents so much congruity between a moral and a sensible idea, serves, like an argument from analogy, to enforce what the author asserts, and to induce belief.

Having considered the general nature of figures, we proceed next to particularize such of them as are of the most importance; viz. Metaphor, Allegory, Comparison, Metonymy, Synecdoche, Personification, Apostrophe, Antithesis, Interrogation, Exclamation, Amplification or Climax, &c.

A *Metaphor* is a figure founded entirely on the resemblance which one object bears to another. Hence, it is much allied to simile or comparison, and is indeed no other than a comparison, expressed in an abridged form. When I say of some great minister, "that he upholds the state like a pillar which supports the weight of a whole edifice," I fairly make a comparison: but when I say of such a minister, "That he is the pillar of the state," it now becomes a metaphor. In the latter case, the comparison between the minister and

a pillar is made in the mind ; but it is expressed without any of the words that denote comparison.

The following are examples of metaphor taken from Scripture : “ I will be unto her a wall of fire round about, and will be the glory in the midst of her.” “ Thou art my rock and my fortress.” “ Thy word is a lamp to my feet, and a light to my path.”

Rules to be observed in the use of metaphors.

1. *Metaphors, as well as other figures, should, on no occasion, be stuck on profusely ; and should always be such as accord with the strain of our sentiment.* The latter part of the following passage, from a late historian, is, in this respect, very exceptionable. He is giving an account of the famous act of parliament against irregular marriages in England. “ The bill,” says he, “ underwent a great number of alterations and amendments, which were not effected without violent contest. At length, however, it was floated through both houses on the tide of a great majority, and steered into the safe harbour of royal approbation.”

2. Care should be taken that *the resemblance, which is the foundation of the metaphor, be clear and perspicuous, not far-fetched, nor difficult to discover.* The transgression of this rule makes what are called harsh or forced metaphors ; which are displeasing, because they puzzle the reader, and instead of illustrating the thought, render it perplexed and intricate.

3. In the third place, we should be careful, in the conduct of metaphors, *never to jumble metaphorical and plain language together.* An author, addressing himself to the king, says :

To thee the world its present homage pays ;

The *harvest* early, but mature the *praise*.

It is plain, that, had not the rhyme misled him to the choice of an improper phrase, he would have said,

The *harvest* early, but mature the *crop* ;

and so would have continued the figure which he had begun. Whereas, by dropping it unfinished, and by employing the literal word “ praise,” when we were expecting something that related to the harvest, the figure is broken, and the two members of the sentence have no suitable correspondence to each other.

4. We should avoid making two inconsistent metaphors meet on one object. This is what is called *mixed* metaphor, and is indeed one of the greatest misapplications of this figure. One may be “ *sheltered* under the patronage of a great man :” but it would be wrong to say, “ *sheltered* under the mask of dissimulation :” as a mask conceals, but does not shelter. Addison in his letter from Italy, says :

I *bridle* in my struggling muse with pain,
That longs to *launch* into a bolder strain.

The muse, figured as a horse, may be bridled; but when we speak of launching, we make it a ship; and by no force of imagination, can it be supposed both a horse and a ship at one moment; *bridled*, to hinder it from *launching*.

The same author, elsewhere, says, "There is not a single view of human nature, which is not sufficient to *extinguish* the *seeds* of pride." Observe the incoherence of the things here joined together; making a view *extinguish*, and *extinguish seeds*.

As metaphors ought never to be mixed, so they should not be crowded together on the same object; for the mind has difficulty in passing readily through many different views of the same object, presented in quick succession.

The *last* rule concerning metaphors, is, *that they be not too far pursued*. If the resemblance, on which the figure is founded, be long dwelt upon, and carried into all its minute circumstances, we tire the reader, who soon grows weary of this stretch of fancy; and we render our discourse obscure. This is called *straining a metaphor*. Authors of a lively and strong imagination are apt to run into this exuberance of metaphor. When they hit upon a figure that pleases them, they are loth to part with it, and frequently continue it so long, as to become tedious and intricate. We may observe, for instance, how the following metaphor is spun out.

Thy thoughts are vagabonds; all outward bound,
'Midst sands, and rocks, and storms, to cruise for pleasure;
If gain'd, dear bought; and better miss'd than gain'd.
Fancy and sense, from an infected shore,
Thy cargo bring; and pestilence the prize:
Then such a thirst, insatiable thirst,
By fond indulgence but inflam'd the more;
Fancy still cruises, when poor sense is tired.

An *Allegory* may be regarded as a metaphor continued; since it is the representation of some one thing by another that resembles it, and which is made to stand for it. We may take from the Scriptures a very fine example of an allegory, in the 80th Psalm; where the people of Israel are represented under the image of a vine: and the figure is carried throughout with great exactness and beauty. "Thou hast brought a vine out of Egypt: thou hast cast out the heathen and planted it. Thou preparedst room before it; and didst cause it to take deep root, and it filled the land. The hills were covered with the shadow of it: and



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be adequate to the purpose of signature, if it had not the power to retain as well as to receive the impression, the same holds of the soul with respect to sense and imagination. Sense is its receptive power; imagination, its retentive. Had it sense without imagination, it would not be as wax, but as water, where, though all impressions are instantly made, yet as soon as they are made, they are instantly lost."

In comparisons of this nature, the understanding is concerned much more than the fancy: and therefore the rules to be observed, with respect to them, are, that they be clear, and that they be useful; that they tend to render our conception of the principal object more distinct; and that they do not lead our view aside, and bewilder it with any false light. We should always remember that similes are not arguments. However apt they may be, they do no more than explain the writer's sentiments, they do not prove them to be founded on truth.

Comparisons ought not to be founded on likenesses which are too faint and remote. For these, in place of assisting, strain the mind to comprehend them, and throw no light upon the subject. It is also to be observed, that a comparison which, in the principal circumstances, carries a sufficiently near resemblance, may become unnatural and obscure, if pushed too far. Nothing is more opposite to the design of this figure, than to hunt after a great number of coincidences in minute points, merely to show how far the writer's ingenuity can stretch the resemblance.

A *Metonymy* is founded on the several relations, of cause and effect, container and contained, sign and thing signified. When we say; "They read Milton," the cause is put instead of the effect; meaning "Milton's works." On the other hand, when it is said, "Gray hairs should be respected," we put the effect for the cause, meaning by "gray hairs," *old age*. "The kettle boils," is a phrase where the name of the container is substituted for that of the thing contained. "To assume the sceptre," is a common expression for entering on royal authority; the sign being put for the thing signified.

When the whole is put for a part, or a part for the whole; a genus for a species, or a species for a genus; in general, when any thing less, or any thing more, is put for the precise object meant; the figure is then called a *Synecdoche* or *Comprehension*. It is very common, for instance, to describe a whole object by some remarkable part of it: as when we say, "A fleet of twenty sail," in the place of "ships;" when we use the "head" for the "person," the "waves" for the "sea." In like manner an attribute may be put for a subject: as

“Youth” for the “young,” the “deep,” for the “sea;” and sometimes a subject for its attribute.

: *Personification* or *Prosopopoeia*, is that figure by which we attribute life and action to inanimate objects. The use of this figure is very natural and extensive: there is a wonderful proneness in human nature, under emotion, to animate all objects. When we say, “the ground *thirsts* for rain,” or, “the earth *smiles* with plenty;” when we speak of “ambition’s being *restless*,” or, “a disease’s being *deceitful*;” such expressions show the facility with which the mind can accommodate the properties of living creatures to things that are inanimate, or to abstract conceptions of its own forming. The following are striking examples from the Scriptures: “When Israel went out of Egypt, the house of Judah from a people of strange language; the sea saw it, and fled: Jordan was driven back! The mountains skipped like rams, and the little hills like lambs. What ailed thee, O thou sea! that thou fleddest? Thou Jordan, that thou wast driven back? Ye mountains, that ye skipped like rams; and ye little hills, like lambs? Tremble, thou earth, at the presence of the Lord, at the presence of the God of Jacob.”

“The wilderness and the solitary place shall be glad for them: and the desert shall rejoice and blossom as the rose.”

Milton thus describes the immediate effects of eating the forbidden fruit. Terror produces the figure.

Earth trembled from her entrails, as again

In pangs, and nature gave a second groan;

Sky low’r’d, and, mutt’ring thunder, some sad drops

Wept, at completing of the mortal sin.

The impatience of Adam to know his origin, is supposed to prompt the personification of all the objects he beheld, in order to procure information.

Thou sun, said I, fair light!

And thou enlighten’d earth, so fresh and gay!

Ye hills and dales, ye rivers, woods, and plains,

And ye that live and move, fair creatures, tell,

Tell, if you saw, how came I thus, how here?

We shall give a remarkably fine example of this figure, from bishop Sherlock. He has beautifully personified Natural Religion: and we may perceive, in the personification, the spirit and grace which the figure, when well conducted, bestows on discourse. The author is comparing together our Saviour and Mahomet. “Go (says he) to your Natural Religion: lay before her Mahomet, and his disciples, arrayed in armour and blood, riding in triumph over the spoils of thousands who fell by his victorious sword. Show her the

cities which he set in flames, the countries which he ravaged and destroyed, and the miserable distress of all the inhabitants of the earth. When she has viewed him in this scene, carry her into his retirement; show her the Prophet's chamber; his concubines and his wives; and let her hear him allege revelation, and a Divine command, to justify his adultery and lust."

"When she is tired with this prospect, then show her the blessed Jesus, humble and meek, doing good to all the sons of men. Let her see him in his most retired privacies; let her follow him to the mount, and hear his devotions and supplications to God. Carry her to his table, to view his poor fare; and hear his heavenly discourse. Let her attend him to the tribunal, and consider the patience with which he endured the scoffs and reproaches of his enemies. Lead her to his cross; let her view him in the agony of death, and hear his last prayer for his persecutors; 'Father, forgive them, for they know not what they do.'—When Natural Religion has thus viewed both, ask her, which is the Prophet of God?—But her answer we have already had, when she saw part of this scene, through the eyes of the Centurion, who attended at the cross. By him she spoke, and said, 'Truly this man was the Son of God.'" This is more than elegant; it is truly sublime. The whole passage is animated; and the Figure rises at the conclusion, when Natural Religion, who, before, was only a spectator, is introduced as speaking by the Centurion's voice.

This figure of speech is sometimes very improperly and extravagantly applied. A capital error in personifying objects, is, to deck them with fantastic and trifling circumstances. A practice of this sort dissolves the potent charm, which enchants and deceives the reader: and either leaves him dissatisfied, or excites, perhaps, his risibility.

Another error, frequent in descriptive personifications, consists in introducing them, when the subject of discussion is destitute of dignity, and the reader is not prepared to relish them. One can scarcely peruse, with composure, the following use of this figure. It is the language of our elegant poet Thomson, who thus personifies and connects the bodily appetites, and their gratifications.

Then sated Hunger bids his brother Thirst
Produce the mighty bowl:
Nor wanting is the brown October, drawn
Mature and perfect, from his dark retreat
Of thirty years: and now his honest front
Flames in the light refulgent.



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so with full justice, in a convenient place, at a proper time, with secure impunity ; he made no scruple to murder against justice, in an unfavourable place, at an unseasonable time, and at the risk of capital condemnation ?”

The following examples further illustrate this figure.

Tho’ deep, yet clear ; tho’ gentle, yet not dull ;
Strong, without rage ; without o’erflowing, full.

“ If you wish to enrich a person, study not to increase his stores, but to diminish his desires.”

“ If you regulate your desires according to the standard of nature, you will never be poor ; if according to the standard of opinion, you will never be rich.”

A maxim, or moral saying, very properly receives the form of the two last examples ; both because it is supposed to be the fruit of meditation, and because it is designed to be engraven on the memory, which recalls it more easily by the help of such contrasted expressions. But where such sentences frequently succeed each other ; where this becomes an author’s favourite and prevailing manner of expressing himself, his style appears too much studied and laboured ; it gives us the impression of an author attending more to his manner of saying things, than to the things themselves.

The following is a beautiful example of Antithesis. “ If Cato may be censured, severely indeed, but justly, for abandoning the cause of liberty, which he would not, however, survive ; what shall we say of those, who embrace it faintly, pursue it irresolutely, grow tired of it when they have much to hope, and give it up when they have nothing to fear ?” — The capital antithesis of this sentence, is instituted between the zeal of Cato for liberty, and the indifference of some others of her patrons. But, besides the leading antithesis, there are two subordinate ones, in the latter member : “ Grow tired of it, when they have much to hope : and give it up, when they have nothing to fear.”

The eloquent Burke has exhibited a fine instance of this figure, in his eulogium of the philanthropic Howard.

“ He has visited all Europe,—not to survey the sumptuousness of palaces, or the stateliness of temples ; not to make accurate measurements of the remains of ancient grandeur, nor to form a scale of the curiosity of modern arts ; nor to collect medals, or collate manuscripts :—but to dive into the depths of dungeons ; to plunge into the infection of hospitals ; to survey the mansions of sorrow and pain ; to take the gage and dimensions of misery, depression, and contempt ; to remember the forgotten, to attend to the neglected, to visit the

forsaken, and compare and collate the distresses of all men, in all countries.”

The next figure concerning which we are to treat is called *Hyperbole* or *Exaggeration*. It consists in magnifying an object beyond its natural bounds. In all languages, even in common conversation, hyperbolical expressions very frequently occur: as swift as the wind; as white as the snow; and the like; and the common forms of compliment, are almost all of them extravagant hyperboles. If any thing be remarkably good or great in its kind, we are instantly ready to add to it some exaggerating epithet, and to make it the greatest or best we ever saw. The imagination has always a tendency to gratify itself, by magnifying its present object, and carrying it to excess. More or less of this hyperbolical turn will prevail in language, according to the liveliness of imagination among the people who speak it. Hence young people deal much in hyperboles. Hence the language of the Orientals was far more hyperbolical, than that of the Europeans, who are of more phlegmatic, or, perhaps we may say, of more correct imagination. Hence, among all writers in early times, and in the rude periods of society, we may expect this figure to abound. Greater experience, and more cultivated society, abate the warmth of imagination, and chasten the manner of expression.

Hyperboles are of two kinds; either such as are employed in description, or such as are suggested by the warmth of passion. All passions without exception, love, terror, amazement, indignation, and even grief, throw the mind into confusion, aggravate their objects, and of course prompt a hyperbolical style. Hence the following sentiments of Satan in Milton, as strongly as they are described, contain nothing but what is natural and proper; exhibiting the picture of a mind agitated with rage and despair.

Me, miserable! which way shall I fly
 Infinite wrath, and infinite despair?
 Which way I fly is Hell, myself am Hell;
 And in the lowest depth, a lower deep,
 Still threat'ning to devour me, opens wide,
 To which the Hell I suffer seems a Heaven.

The fear of an enemy augments the conceptions of the size of their leader. “I saw their chief,” says the scout of Ossian, “tall as a rock of ice; his spear, the blasted fir; his shield, the rising moon: he sat on the shore, like a cloud of mist on the hill.”

The errors frequent in the use of Hyperboles, arise either from overstraining, or introducing them on unsuitable occa-

sions. Dryden, in his poem on the restoration of king Charles the Second, compliments that monarch, at the expense of the sun himself.

That star at your birth shone out so bright,
It stain'd the duller sun's meridian light.

This is indeed mere bombast. It is difficult to ascertain, by any precise rule, the proper measure and boundary of this figure. Good sense and just taste must determine the point, beyond which, if we pass, we become extravagant.

Vision is another figure of speech, which is proper only in animated and warm composition. It is produced when, instead of relating something that is passed, we use the present tense, and describe it as actually passing before our eyes. Thus Cicero, in his fourth oration against Catiline: "I seem to myself to behold this city, the ornament of the earth, and the capital of all nations, suddenly involved in one conflagration. I see before me the slaughtered heaps of citizens, lying unburied in the midst of their ruined country. The furious countenance of Cethegus rises to my view, while, with a savage joy, he is triumphing in your miseries."

This manner of description supposes a sort of enthusiasm, which carries the person who describes, in some measure out of himself; and, when well executed, must needs, by the force of sympathy, impress the reader or hearer very strongly. But, in order to a successful execution, it requires an uncommonly warm imagination, and so happy a selection of circumstances, as shall make us think we see before our eyes the scene that is described.

Interrogation. The unfigured, literal use of interrogation, is to ask a question: but when men are strongly moved, whatever they would affirm or deny, with great earnestness, they naturally put in the form of a question, expressing thereby the strongest confidence of the truth of their own sentiment, and appealing to their hearers for the impossibility of the contrary. Thus Balaam expressed himself to Balak. "The Lord is not a man that he should lie, neither the son of man that he should repent. Hath he said it? and shall he not do it? Hath he spoken it? and shall he not make it good?"

Interrogation gives life and spirit to discourse. We see this in the animated, introductory speech of Cicero against Catiline: "How long will you, Catiline, abuse our patience? Do you not perceive that your designs are discovered?"—He might indeed have said; "You abuse our patience a long while. You must be sensible, that your designs are discovered." But it is easy to perceive, how much this latter mode



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or he is in a journey, or peradventure he sleepeth, and must be awaked.”

Exclamations and Irony are sometimes united: as in Cicero's oration for Balbus, where he derides his accuser, by saying; “O excellent interpreter of the law! master of antiquity! corrector and amender of our constitution!”

The last figure of speech that we shall mention, is what writers call *Amplification* or *climax*. It consists in heightening all the circumstances of an object or action, which we desire to place in a strong light. Cicero gives a lively instance of this figure, when he says; “It is a crime to put a Roman citizen in bonds; it is the height of guilt to scourge him; little less than parricide to put him to death: what name then shall I give to the act of crucifying him?”

Archbishop Tillotson uses this figure very happily, to commend good and virtuous actions: “After we have practised good actions awhile, they become easy; and when they are easy, we begin to take pleasure in them; and when they please us, we do them frequently; and by frequency of acts, a thing grows into a habit; and confirmed habit is a kind of second nature; and so far as any thing is natural, so far it is necessary; and we can hardly do otherwise; nay, we do it many times when we do not think of it.”

We shall conclude this article with an example of a beautiful climax, taken from the charge of a judge to the jury, in the case of a woman accused of murdering her own child. “Gentlemen, if one man had any how slain another; if an adversary had killed his opposer, or a woman occasioned the death of her enemy; even these criminals would have been capitally punished by the Cornelian law; but if this guiltless infant, that could make no enemy, had been murdered by its own nurse, what punishment would not then the mother have demanded? With what cries and exclamations would she have stunned your ears! What shall we say then, when a woman, guilty of homicide, a mother, of the murder of her innocent child, hath comprised all those misdeeds in one single crime? a crime, in its own nature, detestable; in a woman, prodigious; in a mother, incredible; and perpetrated against one whose age called for compassion, whose near relation claimed affection, and whose innocence deserved the highest favour.”

We have now finished what was proposed, concerning Perspicuity in single words and phrases, and the accurate construction of sentences. The former has been considered under the heads of Purity, Propriety, and Precision; and the latter, under those of Clearness, Unity, Strength, and the

proper use of Figurative Language. Though many of those attentions which have been recommended, may appear minute, yet their effect upon writing and style, is much greater than might, at first, be imagined. A sentiment which is expressed in accurate language, and in a period, clearly, neatly, and well arranged, always makes a stronger impression on the mind, than one that is expressed inaccurately, or in a feeble or embarrassed manner. Every one feels this upon a comparison : and if the effect be sensible in one sentence, how much more in a whole discourse, or composition that is made up of such sentences ?

The fundamental rule for writing with accuracy, and into which all others might be resolved, undoubtedly is, *to communicate, in correct language, and in the clearest and most natural order, the ideas which we mean to transfuse into the minds of others.* Such a selection and arrangement of words, as do most justice to the sense, and express it to most advantage, make an agreeable and strong impression. To these points have tended all the rules which have been given. Did we always think clearly, and were we, at the same time, fully masters of the language in which we write, there would be occasion for few rules. Our sentences would then, of course, acquire all those properties of clearness, unity, strength, and accuracy, which have been recommended. For we may rest assured, that whenever we express ourselves ill, besides the mismanagement of language, there is, for the most part, some mistake in our manner of conceiving the subject. Embarrassed, obscure, and feeble sentences, are generally, if not always, the result of embarrassed, obscure, and feeble thought. Thought and expression act and re-act upon each other. The understanding and language have a strict connexion ; and they who are learning to compose and arrange their sentences with accuracy and order, are learning, at the same time, to *think* with accuracy and order ; a consideration which *alone* will recompense the student, for his attention to this branch of literature. *For a further explanation of the Figures of Speech, see the Octavo Grammar, on this subject.*

ADDRESS

TO YOUNG STUDENTS.

THE Compiler of these elements of the English language, hopes it will not be deemed inconsistent with the nature and design of his work, to make a short address to the young persons engaged in the study of it, respecting their future walks in the paths of literature, and the chief purpose to which they should apply their acquisitions.

In forming this Grammar, and the volume of Illustrations connected with it, the author was influenced by a desire to facilitate your progress in learning, and, at the same time, to impress on your minds principles of piety and virtue. He wished also to assist, in some degree, the labours of those who are cultivating your understandings, and providing for you a fund of rational and useful employment; an employment calculated to exclude those frivolous pursuits, and that love of ease and sensual pleasure, which enfeeble and corrupt the minds of many inconsiderate youth, and render them useless to society.

Without your own best exertions, the concern of others for your welfare, will be of little avail: with them, you may fairly promise yourselves success. The writer of this address, therefore, recommends to you, an earnest co-



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wisdom, religion, and goodness around you. Thus improved, your acquisitions become handmaids to virtue; and they may eventually serve to increase the rewards, which the Supreme Being has promised to faithful and well-directed exertions, for the promotion of truth and goodness amongst men.

But if you counteract the hopes of your friends, and the tendency of these attainments; if you grow vain of your real or imaginary distinctions, and regard with contempt, the virtuous, unlettered mind; if you suffer yourselves to be absorbed in over-curious or trifling speculations; if your heart and principles be debased and poisoned, by the influence of corrupting and pernicious books, for which no elegance of composition can make amends; if you spend so much of your time in literary engagements, as to make them interfere with higher occupations, and lead you to forget, that pious and benevolent action is the great end of your being: if such be the unhappy misapplication of your acquisitions and advantages,—instead of becoming a blessing to you, they will prove the occasion of greater condemnation; and, in the hour of serious thought, they may excite the painful reflections,—that it would have been better for you, to have remained illiterate and unaspiring; to have been confined to the humblest walks of life; and to have been even hewers of wood and drawers of water all your days.

Contemplating the dangers to which you are exposed, the sorrows and dishonour which accompany talents misapplied, and a course of

indolence and folly; may you exert your utmost endeavours to avoid them! Seriously reflecting on the great end for which you were brought into existence; on the bright and encouraging examples of many excellent young persons; and on the mournful deviations of others, who once were promising; may you be so wise as to choose and follow that path, which leads to honour, usefulness, and true enjoyment! This is the morning of your life, in which pursuit is ardent, and obstacles readily give way to vigour and perseverance. Embrace this favourable season; devote yourselves to the acquisition of knowledge and virtue; and humbly pray to God that he may bless your labours. Often reflect on the advantages you possess, and on the source from whence they are all derived. A lively sense of the privileges and blessings, by which you have been distinguished, will induce you to render to your heavenly Father, the just returns of gratitude and love: and these fruits of early goodness will be regarded by him as acceptable offerings, and secure to you his favour and protection.

Whatever difficulties and discouragements may be found in resisting the allurements of vice, you may be humbly confident, that Divine assistance will be afforded to all your good and pious resolutions; and that every virtuous effort will have a correspondent reward. You may rest assured too, that all the advantages arising from vicious indulgences, are light and contemptible, as well as exceedingly transient, compared with the substantial enjoyments, the

present pleasures, and the future hopes, which result from piety and virtue. The Holy Scriptures assure us, that “The ways of wisdom are ways of pleasantness, and that all her paths are peace :” “that religion has the promise of the life that now is, and of that which is to come :” and that the truly good man, whatever may be the condition allotted to him by Divine Providence, “in all things gives thanks, and rejoices even in tribulation.”—Some of these sentiments have been finely illustrated by a celebrated poet. The author of this address presents the illustration to you, as a striking and beautiful portrait of virtue : with his most cordial wishes, that your hearts and lives may correspond to it ; and that your happiness here, may be an earnest of happiness hereafter.

“ Know then this truth, (enough for man to know,)
 Virtue alone is happiness below :
 The only point where human bliss stands still ;
 And tastes the good without the fall to ill :
 Where only merit constant pay receives,
 Is bless'd in what it takes, and what it gives ;
 The joy unequal'd, if its end it gain,
 And if it lose, attended with no pain :
 Without satiety, though e'er so bless'd ;
 And but more relish'd as the more distress'd :
 The broadest mirth unfeeling folly wears,
 Less pleasing far than virtue's very tears :
 Good, from each object, from each place acquir'd ;
 For ever exercis'd, yet never tir'd ;
 Never elated, while one man's oppress'd ;
 Never dejected, while another's bless'd :
 And where no wants, no wishes can remain
 Since but to wish more virtue, is to gain.—
 For him alone hope leads from goal to goal,
 And opens still, and opens on his soul ;
 Till lengthen'd on to faith, and unconfid'd,
 It pours the bliss that fills up all the mind.”



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CHAP. 6.	Of verbs.		
Sect. 1.	Of the nature of verbs in general.	-	50
2.	Of number and person.	- -	52
3.	Of moods and participles.	- -	53
4.	Remarks on the potential mood.	-	55
Sect. 5.	Of the tenses.	- - - -	57
6.	The conjugation of the auxiliary verbs <i>to have</i> and <i>to be</i> .	- -	63
7.	The auxiliary verbs conjugated in their simple form ; with observations on their peculiar nature and force.		69
8.	The conjugation of regular verbs.	-	73
9.	Observations on passive verbs.	-	80
10.	Of irregular verbs	- - -	82
11.	Of defective verbs ; and of the different ways in which verbs are conjugated.		86
CHAP. 7.	Of adverbs.	- - -	88
CHAP. 8.	Of prepositions.	- -	91
CHAP. 9.	Of conjunctions.		93
CHAP. 10.	Of interjections.		96
CHAP. 11.	Of derivation.		
Sect. 1.	Of the various ways in which words are derived from one another.		96
2.	A sketch of the steps, by which the English language has risen to its present state of refinement.		99
PART III.—SYNTAX.			101
Of the syntax of the article.			123
Of the syntax of the noun.			
Of several nouns joined by copulatives.			108
Of nouns connected by disjunctives.			108
Of nouns of multitude.			109
Of one noun governing another in the possessive case.			126
Of the syntax of the pronoun.			
Of pronouns agreeing with their antecedents.			110

Of the relative being nominative to the verb. -	113
Of the relative preceded by nominatives of different persons. - - - - -	115
Of the syntax of the adjective. -	115
Of the syntax of the verb.	
Of the verb's agreement with the nominative case.	102
Of verbs active requiring the objective case. -	130
Of one verb governing another in the infinitive mood.	132
Of verbs related in point of time. - - -	134
Of the syntax of the participle.	137
Of the rules respecting adverbs.	
Of the position of adverbs. - - -	139
Of two negatives. - - - - -	141
Of the syntax of prepositions. -	142
Of the syntax of conjunctions.	
Of conjunctions connecting the same moods, tenses, and cases. - - - - -	145
Of conjunctions requiring the subjunctive mood, &c.	146
Of the syntax of interjections. - -	113
Of comparisons by the conjunction <i>than</i> or <i>as</i> . - - - - -	154
Directions respecting the ellipsis. -	155
General rules of syntax. -	159
Directions for parsing. - - - -	161

PART IV.—PROSODY.

CHAP. 1. Of pronunciation.	169
Sect. 1. Of accent. - - - -	169
2. Of quantity. - - - -	173
3. Of emphasis. - - - -	175
4. Of pauses. - - - -	179
5. Of tones. - - - -	181
CHAP. 2. Of versification. -	182

OF PUNCTUATION.

CHAP. 1. Of the comma. - - -	195
------------------------------	-----

CHAP. 2.	Of the semicolon.	-	200
CHAP. 3.	Of the colon.	- -	201
CHAP. 4.	Of the period.	- -	202
CHAP. 5.	Of the dash, notes of inter- rogation, exclamation, capi- tals, &c.	- -	202

APPENDIX.

RULES AND OBSERVATIONS FOR PROMOTING PERSPICUITY
AND ACCURACY IN WRITING

PART I.

*Of perspicuity and accuracy of expression, with respect to
single words and phrases.*

CHAP. 1.	Of purity.	- - - -	208
CHAP. 2.	Of propriety.	- -	209
CHAP. 3.	Of precision.	- -	214

PART II

*Of perspicuity and accuracy of expression, with respect to the
construction of sentences.*

CHAP. 1.	Of the clearness of a sentence.		218
CHAP. 2.	Of the unity of a sentence.	-	223
CHAP. 3.	Of the strength a sentence.	-	226
CHAP. 4.	Of figures of speech.	-	240
ADDRESS TO YOUNG STUDENTS.			- 254