A

GRAMMATICAL INSTITUTE

OF THE

ENGLISH LANGUAGE:

COMPRISING

AN EASY, CONCISE, AND SYSTEMATIC

METHOD OF EDUCATION.

DESIGNED

FOR THE USE OF ENGLISH SCHOOLS IN AMERICA.

IN THREE PARTS.

PART SECOND.

CONTAINING A PLAIN AND COMPREHENSIVE

GRAMMAR,

GROUNDED ON THE TRUE PRINCIPLES AND IDIOMS OF THE LANGUAGE.

By NOAH WEBSTER, Jun.

Author of "Dissertations on the English Language," "Collection of Essays, and Fugitive Writings," &c. &c. &c.

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Advertisement.

As this work is designed for general u the most necessary rules and definitions given in the text, by way of question and swer. These are all that a learner need b den his memory with, till he has made some p ficiency in Grammar. The Notes will be u ful for those who wish to become more accura ly acquainted with the principles and idio of the language.

ADVERTISEMENT,

To this Edition.

In this Edition, the reader will find a riety of new remarks and examples, serving throw additional light on the subject, and lustrate the principles of this work.

PREFACE.

THE design of this part of the INSTITUTE is, to furnish schools with a collection of rules or general principles of English Grammar. Within a few years past many excellent treatises upon this subject have appeared in Great Britain, each of which has some particular merit, and perhaps each may be liable to some exception.

It is the business of grammar to inform the student, not how a language might have been originally constructed, but how it is *constructed*. Grammarians are too apt to condemn particular phrases in a language, because they happen not to coincide strictly with certain principles: But we should reflect, that languages are not framed by philosophers. On the contrary, they are spoken long before they are written; and spoken by barbarous nations, before any improvements are made in science. Hence anomalous phrases creep into language in its infancy: and become established idioms, in its most refined state. On this principle we admit these expressions, a few weeks, a great many men, you are, applied to an individual; this news is favourable, and many other expressions in our language. On the same principle, neuter plural nouns, in the Greek tongue were joined to verbs in the singular number. This is my reason for admitting some phrases as good English, which the most respectable writers on this subject have condemned as ungrammatical.

With respect to some points, I acknowledge I have changed my opinion, since the publication of the first edition. This change has been produced by a more laborious and critical investigation of the language, particularly in ancient authors; by comparing our translation of the New Testament with the original; and by consulting the best English writers of the last and present century.

The language seems not yet to be ascertained. When a Lowth, an Ash, and a Priestly differ from each other

in opinion, the curious inquirer has no resource but t look for satisfaction in the state of the language itsel as it has been exhibited in the best writers, and in ge neral practice. This has been my endeavor, and I hav been obliged to differ, in some respects, from the mos approved grammarians. The reasons and authorities o which my opinions are founded, are too numerous to b inserted in this abridgment; most of them are to be foun in my "Dissertations on the English Language."

I have been so often led into mistakes by the opinion of men eminent for their literary abilities, that I am scru pulous of embracing any theory, till I have made it a sub ject of critical examination. I adopt the opinion of Mon tesquieu—"that nothing retards the progress of the sci ences more, than a bad performance of a celebrated au thor."*—And I am satisfied that the best of our transat lantic English grammars, are inaccurate or defective.

Our verbs and auxiliaries, the most difficult article in the study of our language, are here arranged in a manner entirely new. The Latin division of tenses, which is commonly followed, appears to me very arbitrary in our language, and rather calculated to mislead the learner, than to give him clear ideas of our verbs. My division is also arbitrary, but I must think it more eligible than any that has come to my knowledge.—It has been found by experiment, that the language cannot be parsed on the principles of any English grammar that has hitherto appeared in America; and should this be true hereafter, I shall neither be surprised nor mortified. I can only say, that I have attempted to simplify a very complex subject, and shall always feel indebted to the man who shall suggest any improvements.

* "Rein ne recule plus le progres des connoissances, qu'un mauvais ouvrage d'un auteur celebre." And he assigns the reason "parcequ' avant d'instruire, il faut detromper."

A PLAIN AND COMPREHENSIVE

GRAMMAR.

OF GRAMMAR.

WHAT is Grammar?

Grammar is the art of communicating thoughts by words with propriety and dispatch.

What is the use of English Grammar?

To teach the true principles and idioms* of the English Language.

How may language be divided?

Into the *written* and *spoken* language.

Explain the difference.

The *written* language is presented to the eye, as in books, and consists of certain letters or combination of visible marks, which by custom, stand for ideas or notions. The *spoken* language is addressed to the ear, and consists of certain sounds, either simple or combined, which, by custom convey ideas or notions.†

In what order does the formation of sentences proceed?

Letters are the elements or component parts of language—these form syllables—syllables form words—and words form sentences.‡

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* Modes of speaking peculiar to the language.

† The language of the passions and emotions is not the subject of grammar.

‡ Letters and syllables are the subject of the first part of the Institute.

How may words be divided?

Into primitive and compound.

What is a primitive word?

A word that cannot be separated into parts, each of which shall retain any sense; as, *man, hope, good, bless.*

What is a compound word?

A primitive word with the addition of a syllable or syllables; as, *man-ly, hope-less, goodness, blessing.**

What is the rule for spelling compound words?

In general, the primitive must be kept entire; as *turned, book-ish.* But to this rule there are some exceptions.

When the primitive ends with a vowel, and the word added begins with a vowel, the vowel of the primitive is dropped; as, *fame, famous; dance, dancing.* But *e* must not be dropped after *c* and *g*, before *able*; as *serviceable.*

Before a consonant, *e* is not dropped; as, *name, name-less.*†

2. When the primitive ends in *y*, this letter is changed into *i* in the derivative; as, *holy, holiness.* Except before *i*; as, *deny, denying.*

3. When an accented consonant ends a primitive, the consonant is usually doubled in the derivative; as, *pen, penned.*‡

Into how many classes may words be distributed?

Six—Nouns, Articles, Pronouns, Adjectives, Verbs, Abbreviations or Particles.‖

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* I consider *all particles* and terminations as words; for it is certain that most of them were originally words, and significant. This theory destroys the difference between derivatives and compound words.

† This rule is arbitrary; if *e* is a mark of a prolonged sound of a foregoing vowel in *namely*, it should be retained for the same purpose in *famous.*

‡ This practice is very needless; *pen-ned* and *pen-ed* being pronounced alike.

‖ This distribution of words is new, and requires illustration; but this abridgement is not the place to treat the subject at large. I will observe in general, that the words denominated *adverbs, conjunctions*, and *prepositions*, are formed the last in the progress of language. They are arti-

NOUN.

Explain the Noun.

A noun is the name of any thing that exists, or that conveys an idea, without the help of any other word; as, *pen, paper, power, faith.**

What is the usual division of nouns?

Into *proper* and *common*.

What is the difference?

A *proper* noun is the name of a thing, when there is but one; as, *Philadelphia, Mississippi.* A *common* noun is the name of a sort or species of things; as, *man, book.*

In what manner do the English ascertain individuals *with common names?*

By the use of two little words, *a* and *the*, called *Articles.*

Explain the use of each.

The article *a*, which before a vowel, becomes *an*,† is placed before a noun to confine its signification to an individual thing; but it does not show which of the kind is meant; as *a* book.‡ *A* is called the *indefinite* article.

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cles of refinement, rather than of necessity. By recurring to the Saxon and Gothic originals, most of the English particles are found to be abbreviations or combinations of nouns, verbs or adjectives. Indeed most adjectives are formed in the same manner from nouns and verbs. See Horne's Diversions of Purley.

* Children very early in life understand the name of visible objects; as, pen, paper—but they make much slower progress in abbreviations which stand for combinations of ideas, and in ideas of immaterial substances. A boy may have a clearer idea of *paper*, at 4 years of age than of *thought* or *faith* at 15. This shows that children should be taught sciences, as much as possible, by visible objects.

† We write *a* before all consonants—before *y*, *w*, and *u*; pronounce *yu*; as, *a year, a week, a union.* It should also be written before *h* pronounced, as, *a hundred*; but *an* before *h* mute, as *an hour.*

‡ The article *a* is used before plural nouns, preceded by *few* or *many*; as *a few men*; *a great many houses*; and also before *dozen, hundred, thousand, million*, as, *a dozen eggs.*

The is used, when we speak of a thing, or number of things, which are specified and known. It limits the signification of the noun to a particular, or to particulars; as *the* commander in chief; *the* apostles.* *The* is called the *definite* article.

NUMBER.

How many Numbers are there in Grammar?

Two, the *singular* and the *plural*. The singular speaks of one; as, *a table:* The plural of more; as, *tables.*

How is the plural of nouns formed?

It is regularly formed by adding *s* or *es* to the singular; as, *tree, trees; fox, foxes.*

When the singular ends in *ch, sh, ss,* or *x*, the plural is formed by adding *es;* as, *church, churches, brush, brushes; glass, glasses; box, boxes.*

When the singular ends in *f*, or *fe*, the plural is sometimes formed by changing *f*, into *v*, and adding *s;* as *life, lives.*†

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* *The* is used before nouns in either number, and also before the words *more, most, less, least, better, best,* in order to mark the sense with more precision. *Proper* names may become *common*, by being applied to more individuals than one; and then they admit the articles, and take the plural number; as, "a traitor is *an* Arnold"—"Our general was *a* Fabius"—"*The* two Howes"—"*The* Misses Smiths"—"*The* Smiths."

† The words of this class are the following:

life	lives	staff	staves
knife	knives	loaf	loaves
wife	wives	sheaf	sheaves
leaf	leaves	shelf	shelves
calf	calves	wolf	wolves
self	selves	wharf	wharves
half	halves		

IRREGULAR PLURALS.

man	men	focus	foci
woman	women	radius	radii
brothers	brethern or brothers	index	indexes or indices

Nouns ending in *y*, preceded by a consonant, form the plural by changing *y* into *ies*; as, *body*, *bodies*.

What is meant by Case?

Either a difference of ending in a word to express a different relation, or a different position of a word.

What cases are there in English?

The *nominative*, which usually stands before a verb; as the *boy* writes: The *possessive*, which takes an *s* with a

penny	pence	criterion	criteria
child	children	phenomenon	phenomena
tooth	teeth	thesis	theses
ox	oxen	emphasis	emphases
die	dice	antithesis	antitheses
louse	lice	hypothesis	hypotheses
goose	geese	seraph	seraphim
beau	beaux	cherub	cherubim

Summons is singular, and makes its plural regularly, *summonses*.

There are some nouns which are used only in the plural number. Such are the following.

aborigines	compasses	snuffers	breeches
aloes	cresses	shears	trowsers
amends	embers	thanks	matins
annals	clothes	mallows	vitals
archives	entrails	filings	orgies
ashes	tidings	hatches	pleiades
assets	fetters	shambles	belles-lettres
bowels	goods	tongs	scissars
ides	lungs	calends	
nones	pincers	vespers	

Others have only a plural termination, but are joined to verbs in either number, or in the singular only.

alms	pains	billiards	ethics
bellows	news	sives	mathematics
gallows	riches	hysterics	billet-doux
odds	wages	measles	sessions
means	victuals	physics	

The nouns *sheep*, *deer*, *fern*, *hose*, are used in both numbers, without a plural termination. Many nouns, from the nature of the things which they express, admit not the plural number. Such are *wheat*, *rye*, *barley*, *flour*, *gold*, *cloth*, *pride*.

comma, and denotes property ; as, *John's* hat: The *objective* which follows a verb or preposition ; as, he honors *virtue*, or it is an honor to him.*

GENDER.

How many Genders are there ?

Two ; *masculine*, which comprehends all males ; and *feminine*, which comprehends all females.†

How are the different genders expressed ?

Sometimes by different words ; as, man, woman ; brother, sister ; son, daughter ; uncle, aunt, &c. Sometimes by the words *male* and *female*, *man* and *maid*, prefixed to nouns ; as, a male child, a female orator ; a man servant, a maid servant. Sometimes by prefixing *he* and *she* ; as, a *he*-goat, a *she*-goat.

A few nouns have the feminine in *ix* ; as, *executor*, *executrix*. *Hero* makes *heroine*.

But the regular ending of the feminine gender, is *ess* ; as, *actor*, *actress* ; *heir*, *heiress*.‡

* When nouns end in *ss* or *es*, the comma alone is added ; as *for goodness' sake ; on eagles' wings*. This omission is to prevent the disagreeable hissing of the letters.

Sometimes a number of words form a kind of complex noun, and then the sign of the possessive is added to the last word ; as, "the King of England's army"—"The King of Pergamus's treasure." In these examples, the whole phrase must be considered as a single noun ; for it is not simply a king's army or treasure ; but the English or Pergamean king's. This mode of speaking is not esteemed elegant, but it is well established, and sometimes cannot be avoided.

† The English language knows no gender in the vegetable world. It leaves to philosophy the sexes of plants, and considers all things without life as having no sex. Sometimes inanimate substances are spoken of as male or female. We say of a ship, "she is a fast sailing vessel." This personification is often striking and ornamental.

‡ The following are most of the nouns, which have a distinct termination for the feminine.

Abbot	abbess	prophet	prophetess
actor	actress	shepherd	shepherdess
adulterer	adulteress	sorcerer	sorceress

PRONOUN.

What is a Pronoun?

A small word that stands for a noun; as, "This is a man of worth; treat *him* with respect." The pronoun *him* supplies the place of *man*.

Which are called the Personal Pronouns?

I, thou, he, she; we, ye, or you, they. The person speaking calls himself *I*. 2d. The person spoken to is called *thou* or *you*. 3d. The person spoken of, is called, if a male, *he*—if a female, *she*—when a thing is spoken of it is called *it*. The plural of *I*, is *we*—the plural of *thou*, is *ye* or *you*—the plural of *he*, *she*, or *it*, is *they*.

What difference is there in the use of ye *and* you?

Ye is used in the solemn style—*you* in common discourse. *You* is also used in familiar language, for *thou*, which is used principally in addresses to the Deity.*

How do these pronouns vary in the cases?

Thus:

ambassador	ambassadress	tutor	tutoress
baron	baroness	traitor	traitress
benefactor	benefactress	songster	songstress
count	countess	seamster	seamstress
deacon	deaconess	viscount	viscountess
duke	dutchess	jew	jewess
elector	electress	lion	lioness
emperor	empress	marquis	marchioness
governor	governess	master	mistress
heir	heiress	patron	patroness
peer	peeress	protector	protectress
priest	priestess	executor	executrix
prince	princess	testator	testatrix
poet	poetess	administrator	administratrix
tyger	tygress		

* One set of Christians, the Friends, use *thou* and *ye* in their original sense. These however have run into great errors on their own principles. They often say, *thee does, thee has, thee gives;* which are as erroneous as *him has, her gives;* it would be more correct, and the singularity more pleasing, to say, *thou dost, thou hast, thou givest.*

SINGULAR.

Nominative.	*Possessive.*	*Objective.*
I	mine	me
thou or you	thine or yours*	thee or you
he	his	him
she	hers	her
it	its	it

PLURAL.

we	ours	us
ye or you	yours	you
they	theirs	them†

What other words are called pronouns?

My, thy, her, our, your, their, are called *pronominal adjectives*, because they are joined with nouns. This, that, other, any, some, one, none, are called *definitive pronouns*, because they limit the signification of the noun to which they refer.‡

Are any of these varied?

This, *that* and *other*, make, in the plural, *these*, *those* and *others*.‖

What other pronouns are there in English?

Who, *which* and *what*.** These are called *relatives*, because they relate to some foregoing noun: Except when they ask questions; then they are called *interrogatives*. *What* has the sense of *that which*, except in asking questions.

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* The old Saxon *uren* is still heard in New-England, *ouren*. *Ourn* and *yourn* are obsolete in books, but are not a corruption. *Ours* and *yours* are the most modern words.

† The reasons why the first and second persons have no distinction of gender in a language, is, that they are supposed to be present when we speak, and their sex known.

‡ *None* is compounded of *no one*, and yet we often use it as a plural.

‖ *This* and *these* refer to things present—*that* and *those* to things absent. *Others* is used only when the noun is omitted—We say *all others*; but *all other men*.

** *That* and *as* are all used as relatives.

Have the relatives any variations ?

Who, is thus varied in the cases—Nom. *who*—Poss. *whose*—Obj. *whom*.*

What is the name given to each, every, other?

That of *distributives;* because they denote a number of particulars, taken separately; as, "There are five boys, *each* of whom *is* able to read."

What is the use of own *and* self?

They are added to pronouns, to express an idea with force. *Self* makes *selves* in the plural.

ADJECTIVES.

What is an adjective ?

A word which expresses some quality or circumstance of a noun; as a *wise* man, a *young* woman, *two* men.

Have adjectives any variations ?

Adjectives which express qualities, capable of being increased or diminished, are varied to express comparison, thus: *Wise, wiser, wisest—cold, colder, coldest.*

What are the degrees of comparison called ?

The *positive, comparative* and *superlative.* The *positive* expresses the simple quality; as *wise, cold*—the *comparative* expresses a quality in a greater or less degree; as *wiser, colder, less wise.* The *superlative* expresses a quality in the greater or least possible degree; as *wisest, coldest, least wise.*

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* *Who* and *whom* are used only to express persons—*Which, whose* and *that*, refer to things and persons. *Which* refers not to persons, except in asking questions. These relatives, *who, what* &c. were formerly spelt, *quha quhat* &c. They seem to be formed, like the Latin *qui, quod* from the Greek *kai-o, kai-oti.* So that our relatives are abbreviations, and signify *and he—and that*, &c. Should it be objected that the origin of the Saxon or Gothic languages is as remote as that of the Greek; I answer, this may be true; and yet both may be derived from the same common root. The relatives of the English *who, which, what*, of the Latin, *qui, quæ, quod;* of the French *qui*, &c. are evidently derived from the same stock; and from words equivalent to the Greek *kai-o, kai-oti.* The French *quelles, who, which*, is from *que-elles*, and *they*.

Most adjectives may be compared by *more* and *most*, *less* and *least* : as *more generous*, or *less generous*, &c.

VERB.

What is a Verb ?

A part of speech, signifying *action* or *being*.

How many kinds of verbs are there ?

Two ; *transitive* and *intransitive*.† A *transitive* verb denotes some action which passes from an agent to an object ;

A small degree of quality is expressed by *ish* as *whitish*, *reddish*. A quality in a great degree, but not in the greatest, is expressed by *very*, prefixed to the adjective ; as *very* black.

Adjectives of irregular comparison.

good—better—best	near—nearer—nearest or next
bad or evil—worse—worst	old—older—oldest or elder—eldest
fore—former—first	late—later—latest or latter—last
little—less or lesser—least	
many or much—more—most	

Those adjectives which express simple qualities, or qualities inherent in bodies, seem to claim a place among the original parts of speech ; as *hard*, *soft*, *white*, &c. But adjectives which convey abstract, complex ideas, or ideas of accidental circumstances, are usually formed by a combination of other words, and may be referred to the class of abbreviations.

Thus the termination *less* added to the noun *number*, forms what is called an adjective. But *less* is from the Saxon verb *lesan*, to dismiss. *Numberless*, is therefore, *number dismissed*.

The termination *ful* which needs no explanation, is added to nouns ; as, *wonderful*, and this compound is called an adjective.

The termination *ly* is from the Saxon *liche* or *like*, *heavenly* is *heavenliche* ; *soberly*, *soberliche* ; and so were these words written by Chaucer.

† This division of words is complete—it is not liable to one exception. The common division into *active*, *passive* and *neuter*, is very inaccurate. We have no passive verb in the language ; and those which are called *neuter* are mostly *active*.

as, *John loves study*. Here the action of *loving* passes from *John* the *agent*, to *study* the *object*.

What is an intransitive verb ?

An *intransitive* verb expresses *action* or *being*, which is confined to the agent; as, *I run, he lives, they sleep*. Therefore when the verb is intransitive, no object follows it.

How many things belong to a verb ?

Four ; persons, number, time and mode.

How many persons are used with verbs ?

Three—as in the singular number, *I* write, *thou* writest, *he* writes. In the plural, *we* write, *ye* or *you* write, *they* write.

How many times, or tenses are there ?

Three; *present*, *past* and *future*. An action may be now doing; as, *I write* or *am writing*. The verb is then said to be in the *present tense*. An action may have been done some time ago ; as, *I wrote* or *have written :* The verb is then in the *past time*. When the action is yet to come, the verb is in the *future time ;* as, *I shall* or *will write*.

What is mode *in grammar ?*

The manner of representing *action* or *being*.

How do the English express time and mode?

Principally by the means of several small words called *auxiliaries* or *helpers ;* viz. do, be, have, shall, will, may, can, should, would, could and must.*

Which are the modes ?

The infinitive, the indicative, the imperative, and the subjunctive.

Many verbs are used both *transively* and *intransively*, as occasion requires. "*He reads well*," is intransitive ; "*He reads English well*," is transitive; but this affects not the definition given above.

*These helping verbs are by some grammarians considered as principal verbs. Doubtless, they were all such originally ; some of them are so now ; as, *do*, *be*, *have*. *To* is said to be the same original as *do*—We preserve *to* before the radical verb *to love ;* and *do* makes the present and past tenses, *do love* and *did love*. I make a distinction between the verbs—when they stand alone. I call them principal verbs—when prefixed to verbs and particles, I call them auxiliaries.

Explain them.

The infinitive expresses action or being, without limitation of person or number: as, *to write.*

The indicative shows or declares an action or being; as, *I write, I am;* or some circumstances of action or being; as, *I can write, I must sleep;* or asks a question; as, *Do I write?*

The imperative commands, exhorts, or prays; as, *Write, go, do thou grant.*

The subjunctive expresses action or being, under some condition or uncertainty; and is commonly preceded by a particle; as, *If I write.**

What are participles?

They are words which are formed from verbs, and have the nature of verbs, nouns or adjectives.

How do they end?

In *d, t, n,* or *ing.* Thus from the verbs, move, teach, write, go—are formed the participles, moved, taught, written, going.

What is the use of do *as a helping word?*

It has four uses. 1*st*, to express emphasis or opposition; as, "perdition catch my soul, but *I do* love thee."

2*d*, To save the repetition of another verb; as "he writes better than you *do*; that is, better than you write."

3*d*, To ask a question; as do they write?

4*th*, It is elegantly used in negative sentences; as, "he *does* not walk."

In all other cases it is obsolete or inelegant.

What is the use of be *and* have?

As helpers they are signs of time.

What is the use of shall?

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* We have no modes in the sense that the Romans and Greeks had, viz. formed by different endings of verbs. But the foregoing common distribution of modes, seems to me natural, and must render the acquisition of the language easy. I cannot discard all distinctions of mode, because not formed by inflections. Our combinations of words have uses, which are reduceable to rule, and require illustration.

In the first person it foretels, as, "I shall go, we shall speak."

In the second and third persons, it implies a command or determination; as, he shall go; you shall write."

What is the use of will?

In the first person, it promises; as, "I will pay him."

In the second and third, it foretels; as, "he will speak; you will go."

What is the use of would?

In the first person, it denotes a past, or conditional promise; or mere inclination. It is often used in the present time, in declaratory phrases; as, "I would not choose any."

In the second and third persons it expresses inclination; as, he would not go; you will not answer."

What is the use of should?

In the first person, it commonly expresses event merely; as, I should write, if I had an opportunity."

In the second and third person it expresses duty or obligation; as, "you should help the poor; he should go to school."

When an emphasis is laid on *should* or *would*, it varies their meaning.

The Auxiliary *or* Helping Verbs *are thus varied.*

Do	*Have*	*Can*

Present Time or Tense.

Singular Number.

I do	I have	I can
Thou doest or dost, or you do	Thou hast, or you have	Thou canst, or you can
He doeth, does or doth	He hath or has	He can

Plural Number.

We do	We have	We can
Ye or you do	Ye or you have	Ye or you can
They do	They have	They can

Past Time.

Singular.

I did	I had	I could
Thou didst, or you did	Thou hadst, or you had	Thou couldst or you could
He did	He had	He could

Plural.

We did	We had	We could
Ye or you did	Ye or you had	Ye or you could
They did	They had	They could

PARTICIPLES.

Doing	Having
Done	Had

Present Time.

Singular.

May.	*Shall.*	*Will.*
I may	I shall	I will
Thou mayest, or you may	Thou shalt, or you shall.	Thou wilt, or you will
He may	He shall	He will

Plural.

We may	We shall	We will
Ye or you may	Ye or you shall	Ye or you will
They may	They shall	They will

Past Time.

Singular.

I might	I should	I would
Thou mightest or you might	Thou shouldst, or you should	Thou wouldst, or you wouldst
He might	He should	He would

Plural.

We might	We should	We would
Ye or you might	Ye or you should	Ye or you would
They might	They should	They would

Must has no variation.

How is the verb be *varied in the modes, times and persons?*

The verb *be* is thus varied, and united to the other helping verbs.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time declaratory.

Singular.	*Plural.*
I am	We are
Thou art, or you are	Ye or you are
He is	They are

Or thus:

I be	We be
You be	Ye or you be
He is	They be

With *may*, in this manner:

I may be	We may be
Thou mayest be, or you may be	Ye or you may be
He may be	They may be

With *can.*

I can be	We can be
Thou canst be, or you can be	Ye or you can be
He can be	They can be

With *must.*

I must be	We must be
Thou must be, or you must be	Ye or you must be
He must be	They must be

Conditional, with *would.*

I would be	We would be
Thou wouldst be, or you would be	Ye or you would be
He would be	They would be

With *could*, *should* and *might*, in the same manner.

Past Time, declaratory.

I was	We were
Thou wast, or you was	Ye or you were
He was	They were

After *have* and *had* the participle *been* is used.

I have been	We have been
Thou hast been / you have been	Ye or you have been
He has been	They have been
I had been	We had been
Thou hast been / you had been	Ye or you had been
He had been	They had been
I could be	We could be
Thou couldst be, or / you could be	Ye or you could be
He could be	They could be

Would and *should* are varied in the same manner; but these forms of the verbs are not much used in the past time, except after other verbs, or in negative and interrogative phrases.

I might have been	We might have been
Thou mightest have been / you might have been	Ye or you might have been
He might have been	They might have been

Could have been, *would have been*, *should have been*, in the same manner. *Must have been* is also used, but *must* is not varied.

I may have been	We may have been
Thou mayest have been / you may have been	Ye or you may have been
He may have been	They may have been

Future Time.

I shall be	We shall be
Thou shalt be, or / you shall be	Ye or you shall be
He shall be	They shall be
I will be	We will be
Thou wilt be / you will be	Ye or you will be
He will be	They will be

I shall have been	We	shall have been
Thou shalt have been / you shall have been	Ye or you	
He shall have been	They	
I will have been	We	Will have been
Thou wilt have been / you will have been	Ye or you	
He will have been	They	

IMPERATIVE *or* COMMANDING MODE.

Be thou	Be ye, or be you
Do thou be	Do ye be, or do you be

SUBJUNCTIVE *or* CONDITIONAL MODE.

This is formed merely by placing *if*, *tho*, *suppose*, *whether*, or some word implying condition, before the indicative mode through all its variations; thus, *if I am*, *if he is*, *tho we are:* Except the following conditional form of this verb, which is only in the subjunctive, present time.

If I were	If we were
If thou were / if you wert	If ye or you were
If he were	If they were

PARTICIPLES.

being — been

[The teacher may direct the learner to add any passive participles to the foregoing, which will give a combination of words expressing the sense of the Latin and Greek passive verbs.]

In what manner are regular verbs varied in the several modes, times, and persons?

They are all varied like *turn* in the following example:

INFINITIVE MODE—*To Turn.*

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time declaratory.

I turn	We	turn
Thou turnest / you turn	Ye or you	
He turneth, or turns	They	

With the Helping Verbs thus:

I do turn	We	
Thou dost turn / you do turn	Ye or you	do turn
He doth turn or does turn	They	
I may turn	We	
Thou mayest turn / you may turn	Ye or you	may turn
He may turn	They	
I can	We	
Thou canst / you can	Ye or you	can turn
He can	They	

(turn)

I must turn, &c.

Conditional.

I might	We	
Thou mightest / you might	Ye or you	might turn
He might	They	

(turn)

I would turn
I could turn
I should turn
} varied in the same manner.

Past Time.

I turned	We turned
Thou turnedst / you turned	Ye or you turned
He turned	They turned

With the Helping Verbs, thus:

I did turn	We	
Thou didst turn / you did turn	Ye or you	did turn
He did turn	They	
I have	We	
Thou hast / you have	Ye or you	have turned
He has	They	

(turned)

I had turned		We	had turned
Thou hadst turned / you had turned		Ye or you	
He had turned		They	
I may		We	may have turned
Thou mayest / you may	have turned	Ye or you	
He may		They	
I could		We	could have turned
Thou couldst / you could	have turned	Ye or you	
He could		They	

I might have turned
I would have turned
I should have turned
} varied in the same manner..

Future Time.

I shall turn		We	had turned
Thou shalt turn / you shall turn		Ye or you	
He shall turn		They	
I will turn		We	will turn
Thou wilt turn / you will turn		Ye or you	
He will turn		They	
I shall		We	shall have turned
Thou shalt / you shall	have turned	Ye or you	
He shall		They	
I will		We	Will have turned
Thou wilt / you will	have turned	Ye or you	
He will		They	

Imperative Mode.

Turn, or	Turn, or
Turn thou or turn you, or	Turn ye or you, or
Do thou or you turn	Do you turn

PARTICIPLES.

Turning Turned

The subjunctive mode is the same with the indicative, with *if*, *though*, or some term of condition prefixed.

PARTICLES, OR ABBREVIATIONS.

What do Grammarians call Particles ?

All those small words which connect nouns, verbs and sentences ; as, *and, for, from, with, &c.*

What are these words ?

They are mostly abbreviations or corruptions of old nouns and verbs.

How may the abbreviations be distributed ?

Into Conjunctions, Prepositions and Adverbs.

What is the particular use of conjunctions ?

To connect words and sentences ; as, four *and* three make seven ; Thomas studies, *but* John does not.

Which are the conjunctions ?

Those more generally used are the following ;

And, if, nor, either, since, unless, also, but, neither, therefore, though, else, or, yet, because, wherefore, whether.

What is the use of prepositions ?

They are commonly placed before nouns or other words to express some relation.

Which are the particles called prepositions ?

These which may stand alone, and are called *separable* prepositions, viz.

A, for, till, above, before, from, until, about, behind, in, into, to, after, beneath, on, upon, towards, against, below, of, under, among *or* amongst, between, over, with, at, betwixt, through, within, amidst, beyond, by, during, without, around.

The following are used only with other words, and are therefore called *inseparable* prepositions :

Be, con, dis, mis, per, pre, re, sub, un.

What is the use of adverbs ?

To express circumstances of *time, place* and *degree*, &c.

Which are some of the most common adverbs ?

Already, alway, by and by, else, ever, enough, far, hence, here, how, hither, thither, whether, indeed, much, no, not, never, now, often, perhaps, rather, seldom, then, thence, there, very, when, where, whilst, *or* while, yesterday.

Besides these, there are great numbers of others, and particularly those formed by *ly*, added to adjectives —*honest, honestly.*

What do we call such words as alas, oh, fie, pish, *&c. ?*

Interjections. These are mere expressions of passion, which are sudden and irregular.*

* The theory of adverbs, conjunctions and prepositions, which I call *abbreviations*, is novel. I shall therefore introduce an abstract of Mr. Horne's explanations, as I find them in his *Diversions of Purley*.

ABBREVIATIONS called CONJUNCTIONS.

If,

If is the imperative of the Saxon, *gifan*, to *give*.

"My largesse
" Hath lotted her to be your brother's mistress
" *Gif* she can be reclaimed ; *Gif* not, his prey."
Sad Shep. Act. 2 *Sc.* 2.

This passage is thus resolved, " She can be reclaimed ; *Give that* (condition, circumstance) my largesse hath lotted her to be your brother's mistress. She cannot be reclaimed ; *give that* my largesse hath lotted her to be your brother's prey.

This word *if* was written by old authors, *yeve*, *yef*, *yf*, *gife*, *giff*, *gi*, &c. all corruptions of *gif*. *Gyn* is still used in the north of England.—*Wilkins*.

This resolution obviates the absurdity which is incurred by ranking *that* as a conjunction after *if* ; *if that* ; for two conjunctions together must be an absurdity. The truth is *if* is a verb, and *that* is always a pronoun or adjective.

In Latin, *si* is the imperative of *sum* ; being a contraction of *sit*, *be it* ; a mode of expression equivalent to *gif*.

An was formerly used in the same manner.

" *An* they will take it, so. *If* not, he's plain.—Shakes.

An is the imperative of *anan*, a word in the Anglo-Saxon language, signifying *grant*.

Unless.

This is from the Saxon *onleasan*, to dismiss. It was formerly written *onless* or *onlesse*.

" *Onless* ye believe, ye shall not understand."

That is, " ye believe, *dismiss that* [*fact*] ye shall not understand."

Yet.

This is the same as *get* from the Saxon *getan*, to obtain.

Still.

This is from the Saxon *stellan*, to place or put.

Else is from *alesan*, to dismiss. Imp. *ales*.

SENTENCES.

What is a sentence ?

A *sentence* is a number of words ranged in *proper* order, and making *complete* sense.

What does the formation of sentences depend on ?

On agreement and government.

What is agreement ?

Tho' or *though.*

These are from *thaf* and *thafig ;* the imperatives of *thafian* and *thafigan*, a different spelling of the same word which signified *I allow.* Many of the common people both in England and America, pronounce the word *thaf* or *thof* which is the exact original. " Though he slay me, yet I will trust in him." That is, I *allow* or *suppose* he shall slay me," &c.

But.

This is used in two senses, as it is derived from two originals of different significations. One is from *bot* the imperative of *botan, to boot*—a word still used in English for *more* or *addition.* The other from *be-utan, be out*, be absent. Gawin Douglas uses *bot* and *but*, as words of distinct significations ; and so do many old authors.

" *Bot* thy worke shall endure in laude and glorie,
But spot or falt condine eterne memoire."

Here *bot* is *more, further ;* and *but*, *be out* or *without.*

In modern English, we say, " *But* let us proceed," that is, *bot* or *more.* We say, "all *but* one," that is, "all *be out*, one," or *except* one. *But* is now used in both senses, and is always the contraction of a *verb.*

Without.

This is from *wryth-utan, to be out :* It has the sense of *but*, from *be-utan.* It is applied to words and to sentences. " I will not go *without* (be out) him." " It cannot be read *without* (be out) the Attorney General consents to it."—L. Mansfield. *And.*

This is from *an* the imperative of *anan, to give*, and *ad*, the fertes, rest, remainder. An, ad, give the rest.

The usual definition of *and* is wretchedly incorrect. "*And* is a conjunction copulative ; the conjunction connects sentences so as out of two, to make one sentence." Thus, " *You and I and Peter rode to London*," is one sentence made up of three. " *You rode, I rode, Peter rode.*" But

When one word stands connected with another word in the same *number*, *case*, *gender*, and *person*.

What is government?

It is when one word causes another to be in some *case* or *mode*.

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let us try another example.—"*I bought a book for four shillings and sixpence.*" That is, according to the usual definition. "*I bought a book for four shillings, I bought a book for sixpence.*" *And*, with all its connecting force, cannot make one sentence of these.

And is a contraction of a noun and verb, *I bought a book for four shillings*, give the addition, *six pence*.

Lest.

From *lesan*, to dismiss. Hence *lease* and *release*.

"Kiss the son, *lest* he be angry." "That is "Kiss the son, *dismiss* or *omit*, that, he will be angry." This by the way, is a proof that this mode of expression, which has hitherto been considered the present tense of the subjunctive is merely an eliptical form of the future indicative.

Since.

This is the participle of *seon*, *to see*. It was formerly written *sith*, *sithence*, &c. and is to this day pronounced by the common people, *sence*, *sen*, *sin*, &c. It is used for *seen thence*, or for *seen*, for *seeing that*, or for *seen that*. But at this day writers often use the participle *seeing*.

As.

From the German, *es*, *that*, a pronoun.

Many other words, as *except*, *because*, are commonly called conjunctions—but very improperly. Since Latin words have been incorporated with the Saxon, we use *suppose*, *on condition*, *provided that*, nearly in the sense of it.

ABBREVIATIONS called PREPOSITIONS.

With.

With is from *withan*, to join. "A house *with* a wall," is, "A house *join* a wall." It is often synonimous with *by*.

Through.

This is from the Gothic *dauro*, or Teutonic, *thuruh*, a passage or gate. Hence the English *door*, the German *thure*, *thur*, &c.

From.

The Gothic noun, *from* a beginning. "Five miles *from* New-York" is, *Five miles* beginning *New-York*.

RULE I.

A verb must agree with its nominative case in number and person.

EXAMPLES.

In the solemn style—*thou readest, he readeth, ye read.*
In the familiar style—*I go, he goes, we go, you go.*

To

From the Gothic *taui act, effect, consummation;* participle *tauie*, from *tauyan, to do, to finish.* It seems to have been prefixed to verbs, on dropping the Saxon termination of the infinitive *an*, with a view to distinguish *verbs* from *nouns. One loves change, one loves to change*, that is, *act change.*

The Latin *ad* is probably from *act*, which is from *actum*, participle of *agere*, and corresponds with *to* in sense and derivation. *Of*

From the Saxon *afora, offspring, consequence.* The Russians formerly used this, where the English would use *son*, as a patronymic ending. *Peterson*, the Russians would have called *Peterhof. For*

From the Gothic? *fairina, cause.* Christ died for us—that is, *cause us. By*

This is from *byth*, the imperative of *beon*, to *be.* This was formerly used for *during.* "He made Clement, *by* his life, helper, and successor."——Fabian.

In old authors it was written *be.*

"*Be* my feth, *be* my troth.'——Cheevy Chase.

We now say, *By* my faith.

Between. Betwixt.

Between is the imperative *be*, and *twegen, twain.*

Betwixt is *be* and *twas* the Gothic for *two.*

Before, behind, below, beside, are compounded with *be*, and the nouns *fore, hind, low, side.*

Beneath, is from *be* and *neath*; that is *bottom.* From *neath*, we have *nether, nadir*, still in use.

Under seems to be *on nether*—or as the Dutch pronounce it *neder*, from *neath.*

Beyond is from *be* and *geond*, the participle of *gan*, or *gangan, to go. Beyond*, is therefore *be passed.*

Ward, is the Saxon *ward* or *weard*, imperative of *wardian*, to look at. It is the same as the French *garder*;

EXPLANATION.

Thou is the second person singular number, and so is the verb *readest*. *He* is the third person singular, and so is *readeth*. *Ye* is the second person plural number, and so is the verb *read*. And it may be observed in the familiar style, that each verb is in the same person as the nominative word.

for we begin with *w*, words which the French begin with *g*. Hence come *warden*, *toward*, *homeward*, *heavenward*, &c.

The English *ward* and *warden*, are the same as *guard* and *guardian*, derived from the French *garder*.

Athwart, is from *athweorian*, *to twist*.

Among, *amongst* are from *gememgan*, *to mix*.

Against, in the Saxon, *ongegen*, probably from the same root as the Dutch *jagenen*, *to meet*, or *oppose*.

Amid, *amidst*, are from *on middan*, *in the midst*.

Along, is from the Saxon *on long*, *a length* or *distance*.

Round, *around*, in Saxon, *wheil on wheil*: whence probably the English *wheel*. *On round* or *one round*. *Dan.* rund.

Aside, *abroad*, *across*, *astride*, are formed in the same manner.

On side, or *one side*. We often say now, He went *one side*.

Instead, is *in place*. *Bed-stead*, *home-stead*, are *bed-place*, *home-place*.

About, from *onbuta*, *abuta*, *one bound*. Hence to *butt* and *bound*.

After, the comparative of *aft*, the *hind part*.

Aft, is retained only in the seamen's dialect.

Up, probably from the same root as *top*.

Over, from Saxon *ufa*, *ufera*, *ufermost* which signify *high*, *higher*, *highest*. Hence *above*, *upper*, *uppermost*.

ABBREVIATIONS called ADVERBS.

The termination *ly*, is from Saxon *liche*, *like*; *heavenly* is *heavenlike*.

Aghast is from *agaze*, to look with astonishment.

Ago, is merely a contraction of *agone*, from *go*.

Asunder, is from *usundred*, participle of *asundrian* to *separate*.

Askew, In the Danish *skiev*, is to *twist*.

Askant, askance, in the Dutch, *schuin*, *wry*, *crooked*.

To wit, from *wittan*, *to know*.

Naught, *nought*, *no whit*.

Needs, *need is*.

Anon in one (moment, &c.)

REMARK 1.

Although the nominative word commonly stands before the verb, as in the foregoing examples; yet it may follow an intransitive verb, as, On a sudden *appeared the Queen.* And when a question is asked or a command given, the nominative must follow the verb or auxiliary sign—as, *did he go? were you there? go thou, awake you.* But in giving commands we generally omit the nominative—as, *go, awake.*

Alone, only, from *all one, one like.*

Alive, on life, or *in life. Asleep, on* or *in sleep.*

Anew, abroad, formed in the same manner.

Farewell, go well, from the old verb, *faran, to go.* Hence *fare a passage, thorough fare,* to pay the fare.

Aught or *ought, a whit* or *one whit.*

Awhile, in time, or *time that.*

Aloft, in air. In Saxon *luft* is air. Hence, *to lift, loft, luff, lee, leeward,* &c.

Enough, *Dutch genog, content. Lo,* from *look.* Hence our vulgar exclamation, *la* soul.

Lief from *le f, gl id, delight,* still used, but corrupted into *lives.* "I had as *lives.*"

Once, twice, thrice, formerly written *anes, twies, thries.* Perhaps the possessive of one, two, three.

Rather, the comparative of *rathe, from t, swift. Rathe* is used by Milton.

Seldom, an adjective, *rare uncommon.* In Dutch *selden,* German, *selten,* from the same root.

Stark, Saxon, *stare,* strong; but now used like *total, entire, stark-mad.*

Span, from *spange, shining, span new, span clean.* Hence *spangle.*

Aye, a verb, which the French retain. It is the imperative of *avoir, to have; aye, have it. Yes,* is *ay-es, have that.*

Yea, in German *ja,* pron. *yaw,* is from the same source.

No, not, from an old word signifying *unwilling.* In Danish it is *nodig,* in Dutch, *noode, node.*

Such is Mr. Horne's theory of the particles. If in some instances his system is liable to doubts and exceptions, yet in general it is well founded, being clearly established by undisputed etymology.

REMARK 2.

When *there*, *nor*, or *either*, precedes the word in the beginning of a phrase, the nominative may follow the verb or auxiliary; as "*there* was a man;" "*nor* am I solicitous;" "neither hath this *man* sinned, nor his parents." John ix. 3.

REMARK 3.

When an intransitive verb stands between two nominative words, the one in the singular, and the other in the plural number, the verb more elegantly agrees with the first—as, 'the *sum is* ten pounds—all *things are* dust."

FALSE CONSTRUCTION.

Solemn Style.

Who *is* 1 thou O man, that *presume* 2 on thy own wisdom? Thou *ought* 3 to know thou *are* 4 ignorant. He that *confess* 5 his sins and *forsake* 6 them, shall find mercy. A soft answer *turns* 7 away wrath. Anger *rests* 8 in the bosom of fools.

Familiar Style.

Philadelphia *are* 9 a large city; it *stands* 10 on the west side of the river Delaware, and *am* 11 the most regular city in America. It *containeth* 12 a variety of different sects; all *speak* 13 their own language; and they *worshipseth* 14 as they please. I *were* 15 much delighted with it; I *wishes* 16 that thou *couldst* 17 see it, and observe its manners.

N. B. The nominative to a verb is found by asking a question, who or what? Example: "A clear conscience, which we ought carefully to preserve in every station of life, and which will secure to us a perpetual source of inward tranquility, will also be our principal guard against the abuses of malevolence." Here the question occurs what will be our guard? &c. The answer is a clear *conscience*; which is therefore the nominative case to the verb be. The noun to which an adjective refers is found in the same manner. Example: "A man in office, to whom some important trust is committed, ought to be exceedingly cau-

1 art. 2 presumeth. 3 oughtest. 4 art. 5 confesseth 6 forsaketh. 7 turneth. 8 resteth.
9 is. 10 stands. 11 is. 12 contains. 13 speak. 14 worship. 15 was. 16 wish. 17 could.

tious in his behaviour." Ask the question, who ought to be *cautious?* the answer is, a *man* in office; *man* therefore is the noun, to which the adjective *cautious* refers.

RULE II.

Two or more nouns singular connected by a copulative conjunction, may have *verbs*, *pronouns*, and *nouns* agreeing with them in the plural number.

EXAMPLES.

1. Envy and vanity *are* detestable vices.
2. Brutus and Cassius *were brothers; they* were *friends* to Roman liberty.

EXPLANATION.

1. *Envy* and *vanity* are both nouns in the *singular* number, but being joined by the copulative conjunction *and*, they require the word *are* to be in the plural number.
2. *Brutus* and *Cassius* are both in the *singular* number, but being united by a copulative conjunction they form a plural, and require the verb *were*, the nouns *brothers* and *friends* and the pronoun *they* to be in the plural number.

REMARK.

When nouns singular are united by a disjunctive conjunction, the *verb*, *pronoun*, and *noun* following must be in the singular number, as referring to one only; as, "either *John* or *I was* there; "neither pride nor envy, nor any other vicious passion *disturbs* my repose."

FALSE CONSTRUCTION.

Wisdom and learning *is* 1 very necessary for men in high station. Peace and security *is* 2 the happiness of a community. Sobriety and humility *leads* 3 to honor. You and I *is* 4 very studious. You and he *was* 5 accounted good *sholar*. 6 Prince Eugene and the Duke of Marlborough *was* 7 great generals; *he was scourge* 8 to the house of Bourbon. Love, joy, good humour and friendship *raises* 9 correspondent feelings in every heart; *it sweeten* 10 all the pleasures of life; but hatred, ill nature, jealou-

1 are. 2 are. 3 lead. 4 are. 5 were. 6 scholars. 7 were. 8 they were scourges. 9 raise. 10 they sweeten.

sy, envy, insincerity and melancholy *diffuses* 11 *its* 12 baleful influence, and *casts* 13 a cloud over social felicity.

N. B. It must be remarked, that when different persons are mentioned, the verb must agree with the first in preference to both the others, and with the second in preference to the third. Thus all three persons united—as, *you* and *I* and *he*, make *we*, the first person plural.

You and *I* make *we*.

You and *he*, make *ye* or *you*, the second person.

RULE 3.

Nouns of multitude, though they are in the singular number, may have a verb and pronoun agreeing with them either in the singular or plural.

EXAMPLES.

The assembly *is* or *are* very numerous—*they are* much divided. "My people *is* or *are* foolish—*they have* not known me." The company *was* or *were* noisy.

EXPLANATION.

Assembly is a noun of multitude and may be united with *is* in the singular, or with *are* in the plural number. The same is observable of *people* and *company*.*

11 diffuse. 12 their. 13 cast.

* We would have strict regard to the meaning of these collective nouns, in determining whether the singular or plural number is most proper to be joined with them.

And if the indefinite article *a* or *an* precedes the noun, the verb must be singular; as, "*a* company *was*, &c."

There are some nouns in the English, that have a plural termination, which are really in the singular, and are followed by verbs in the singular. Such are *news*, *pains*, *odds*, *victuals*, *alms*, *bellows*, *gallows*, and sometimes *wages*. *Means* is used in both numbers, and sometimes *pains*.

EXAMPLES.

"What *is the news?*" General Practice.

"Much *pains was* taken." Pope.

"It *is odds*; what is the *odds?*" General Practice.

"The *victuals is* good." General Practice.

"We had such very fine *victuals* that I could not eat *it*".—Swift.

FALSE CONSTRUCTION.

His cattle *is* 1 very large. Their constitution *were* 2 subverted by ambition. The church *were* 3 not free from false professors. The island *contain* 4 many inhabitants.

N. B. *Cattle*, though in the singular number, conveys an idea of plurality, and therefore requires the verb to be plural, in all cases. But *constitution*, *church* and *island*, are not nouns of multitude, and they require a singular verb; though good writers have used them as such, with a plural verb. "What reason *have the church* of Rome to talk of modesty in this case?—Tillotson, vol. 1. ser. 49. In some cases this is admissible.

RULE 4.

An adjective must agree with its noun in number. Participles in the nature of adjectives, refer to some noun, but have no variation.

EXAMPLES.

This man, *that* boy, *these* men, *those* boys, *this* kind.

EXPLANATION.

Man is in the singular number, and so is the adjective

1 are. 2 was. 3 was. 4 contains.

"He gave *much alms*." Bible.

"To ask *an alms*." Bible.

"Give me *that bellows*." General Practice.

"*Let a gallows* be made." Bible.

"*This is a means*." General Practice, and almost all good writers.

"The *wages* of sin *is* death." Bible.

Under this remark we may rank *billiards*, *fives*, *ethics*, *mathematics*, *measles*, *hysterics*, and perhaps *riches*,

"*Billiards* or *fives is* a game." General Practice.

"The *measles is* a *disease*." General Practice.

"*Ethics* or *mathematics is* a science." Gen. Prac.

Hysterics is often used in the same manner.

"The *metaphysics* of language *is* not yet sufficiently cultivated."—*Michaelis*.

"In one hour *is* so great *riches** come to nought." Bible.

But *wages* and *riches* are more frequently considered as plurals. See *Chaucer*.

* Anciently *riches* was in the singular *richesse*; and in the plural, *richesses*; so that *riches* is literally in the singular number.

this. *Boy* is singular, and so is *that*. *Men* and *boys* are plural, and so are the adjectives *these* and *those*.*

REMARK 1.

Adjectives are commonly placed before the nouns to which they refer.

EXAMPLES.

Adj.	*Noun.*	*Adj.*	*Noun*
Brave	men.	warm	weather
virtuous	women	polite	behavior
kind	friends	frugal	manners
wise	rulers	illustrious	general

EXCEPTIONS.

1. When something depends on an adjective, it follows the noun—as,

Noun	*Adj.*
Articles	necessary for a family
food	convenient for me
method	suited to his capacity

2. When the adjective is emphatical, it is placed after the noun; as,

Noun	*Adj.*
Alexander	the great
Scipio	the younger
Socrates	the wise

3. Sometimes an intransitive verb is placed between the noun and adjective—as,

Noun	*Verb*	*Adj.*
The sun	is	pleasant
the war	was	expensive
virtue	is	amiable.

4. Sometimes the adjective stands before the verb or auxiliary—as,

Adj.	*Verb.*	*Noun.*
Happy	is the	man
happy	shall	he be.

* It will be well to remark, that we have no adjectives in the language that are varied, except *this* and *that*. All others, being the same in all genders and numbers, cannot help agreeing with their nouns—as a *good* boy, or *good* boys, or *good* girls.

6. When several adjectives agree with one noun, they may stand after it; as, a woman *modest*, *sensible*, and *prudent*.

REMARK 2.

Articles are commonly placed before adjectives; thus,

Art.	*Adj.*	*Noun.*
A	wise	legislator.
a	great	scholar
the	best	season
the	sweetest	apples.

But they are placed after the adjectives *all*, *such*, and *many*; thus,

Adj.	*Art.*	*Noun*
All	the	men
such	a	man
many	a	man.

And after any adjective, subjoined to the adverbs, *so*, *as*, *how*: thus.

Adv.	*Adj.*	*Art.*	*Noun.*
So	great	a	hero
as	fine	a	genius
how	bright	a	sun

REMARK 3.

When *this* and *that*, *these* and *those*, stand opposed to each other, *this* and *these* refer to the last member of the sentence, *that* and *those*, to the former.

"*Self-love*, the spring of action, moves the soul:
Reason's comparing balance rules the whole;
Man, but for *that* no action could attend,
And but for *this* were active to no end." Pope.

That in the third line, refers to *self-love* in the first; and *this*, in the fourth refers to *reason* in the second.

"*Some* place the bliss in action, *some* in ease;
Those call it pleasure, and contentment *these*."

Those refers to men who place the bliss in *action*; *these*, to men who place the bliss in *ease*.

REMARK 4.

The distributive pronomical adjectives, *each*, *every*, *other*, must always have verbs agreeing with them in the singular number; for they refer to individuals separate from each other; as,

Each of us *is*—not each of us *are*.
Every one *was*—not every one *were*.
Either of the men *is*—not either of the men *are*.

REMARK 5.

Many words are either nouns or adjectives; as, *good*, *evil*. Instead of single names, we often use compound nouns; as, *fire-stoves*.

REMARK 6.

Adjectives often refer to whole numbers of sentences, as to nouns; thus, "*Agreeable* to order, the committee passed a vote; "*prior* to the decree, it was resolved." These sentences are transposed; the natural order being; "The committee passed a vote, *agreeable* to order." "It was resolved *prior* to the decree." The adjectives *agreeable*, *prior*, agree with the preceding member of the sentence; the committee passed a vote, *which* (act) was *agreeable* to order. It was resolved, *which* (act of resolving) was *prior* to the decree. This is an established usage in the language.* The same rule is found in this sentence;

* In the sentence, "*previous* to the vote, a motion was made," *previous* seems to refer to the word *time*, implied. But the general rule is, that the adjective, in these phrases, agrees with the whole member of a sentence. *Antecedent*, *subsequent*, *pursuant*, *according*, *conformable*, *suitable*, *independent*, are used in the same manner.

Some late writers, not attending to this idiom of the language, have affected correctness by using adverbs in such phrases; *previously* to this event, *agreeably* to order, *conformably* to his intention. I do not recollect to have seen *subsequently* to this event, or *accordingly* to orders, ever used; but they are just as correct as the other examples which are frequently used. Setting aside the difficulty of pronouncing such phrases, the modern alteration is a gross violation of the rule of construction, and of the purest practice. For instance, *agreeably* means *in an agreeable manner;* but what an awkward construction is this: *in an agreeable manner to the order of the day*, it was resolved. This is the literal resolution of the phrase, which is not English; there being no situation in which *to* will properly follow the adverbs *agreeably*, *accordingly*, &c. as their regimen. In those examples where the adjective seems to denote the *manner of acting*, or *being*, and thus to qualify the *verb* in

"Suppose *that* John should come this morning." Here *that* refers to the whole subsequent part of the sentence. But this relative is usually omitted.

REMARK 7.

One adjective often qualifies another; as, *very cold, full sweet, most excellent.* In these expressions, the last adjective refers to, and qualifies the noun employed in the sentence; and the first adjective qualifies the last, or shows the *degree* of the *quality* predicated of the thing. Thus, it is *very cold weather; weather* is the noun; *cold* denotes the *quality* of the weather; and *very* marks the *degree* of that quality. The phrase, *right worshipful* is of this kind, and many others.*

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stead of the *sentence*, it is more agreeable to the analogy of our language, to suppose the word *manner* implied; as "he behaved himself *conformable* to that blessed example;" that is, he behaved *in a manner conformable.* Or we may suppose *conformable* to agree with *he* in the beginning of the sentence; *he conformable* to the blessed example behaved himself. This last is the Latin idiom, and not unfrequently found in English, especially among the poets. But in most instances, the *manner* of action or being has nothing to do in the sentence. Thus, "agreeable to promise, he called at five o'clock." In this sentence there is no reference to the *manner* of calling; the *time* is a particular circumstance in the promise, but it is not the only circumstance; the whole affirmation or declaration, *he called at five o'clock* is *agreeable to promise.* This is the true construction; it is the genius of the language; and had grammarians examined our *own language* and its *peculiar idioms*, they would have discovered, long before now, that *adjectives may agree with sentences or members of a sentence*, as well as with nouns.

I would just remark farther, that the original derivative meaning of some adjectives in *able*, seems to be almost lost in modern usage. Thus, *suitable, agreeable, conformable, proportionable*, and others, do not often denote what *may be suited, conformed* or *may agree;* but what is *suited*, or *conformed*, or *agreeing.*" "With a force *suitable* to the enterprize," is a more usual expression than "with a force *suited* to the enterprize."

* *Very* is merely the French *vrai*, true; anciently writ-

REMARK 8.

Adjectives sometimes qualify verbs and adverbs; as, a bell *sounds clear*; a stream *works clear*; the sun *shines bright* or *warm*; he *came quick*; he *lives high*; he *rides single*; it *polishes smooth*; he was *very coldly* received; it was planted *full reasonably*.*

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ten in English *viray*. The rule above laid down is one of the best established in the language; and had not grammarians been blinded by a veneration for the learned languages, the rule would not have passed to this time undiscovered. Some eminent critics have condemned such combinations as, *extreme cold*, *wondrous wise*; but these expressions are in exact conformity to the English idiom. To prove this we need only advert to this fact, most of such phrases which have gained an undisputable establishment, are of Saxon origin. The phrases, *extremely cold*, *severely virtuous*, are good English; and indeed we should all pronounce *severe virtuous* bad English. But whoever heard of *verily cold*, *mostly excellent?* Perhaps it will be said, that *very*, *most*, *full*, &c. in such phrases are used *adverbially*. This is a pitiful substitute for truth. The truth is, the Saxon idiom was to use *one adjective* to *qualify another*; and this idiom stands its ground in the Saxon branch of the language; but the Latin idiom, than an *adjective* is *qualified* by an *adverb*, has been introduced with the derivatives from the Roman tongue. Both idioms are good in English; both are derived from the highest antiquity, and stand on the immovable basis of *general undisputed practice*, the foundation of all languages on earth.

* I think no person will deny the examples above to be good English; or that the adjectives are added to the verbs to denote some quality of action or being. A bell *sounds clear*, is good English; indeed *clearly* would be very awkward. Yet *clear* denotes the manner of a bell's sounding. *Very coldly* is *most clearly* good English; and will any person say *very* is an *adverb?* These are remains of the Saxon idioms which grammarians have no authority to condemn. Indeed in Latin derivatives, I should prefer the union of an *adjective* with an *adverb* to that of two *adverbs*. *Extreme suddenly*, though seldom used, is a better phrase than *extremely suddenly*.

FALSE CONSTRUCTION.

That 1 pens want mending. *That* 2 books are torn. *These* 3 is a fine day. *That* 4 will make excellent scholars. *These* 5 lad will be an honor to his friends. *This* 6 ladies behave with modesty.

"To diversify *these* kind* of informations, the industry of the female world is not to be unobserved." *Spec. No.* 428.

RULE 5.

The relative pronoun must agree with its antecedent in number, gender, and person.

EXAMPLES.

1. This is the *boy*, *who* studies with diligence; *he* will make a scholar.

2. The *girl who* sits by you is very modest; *she* will be a very amiable woman.

3. The *pen*, *which* you gave me, is good; it writes very well.

EXPLANATION.

In the first example, *boy* the antecedent, is masculine gender; therefore *who* and *he*, the relative and pronoun, must be masculine.

In the second, *girl* the antecedent, is feminine; therefore the relative *who* and pronoun *she* are feminine.

In the third, *pen* the antecedent is neuter, or of neither gender; therefore the relative *which* and pronoun *it* must be used; these standing for things without life.

REMARK.

The antecedent is sometimes omitted; as, "give tribute to whom tribute is due:" that is, "to the *person* to whom tribute is due."

The relative is often omitted; as, "the man I saw;" "the thing I want;" that is, "the man *whom* I saw;" "the thing *which* I want."

FALSE CONSTRUCTION.

He *which* 1 is not contented with the goods of fortune *whom* 2 he now enjoys, must expect to be unhappy, even with greater possessions. He *which* 3 delights in villainy must be rewarded with the infamy *whom* 4 he deserves. His sister, *which* 5 is much beloved by *his* 6 acquaint-

* This kind.

1 These. 2 those. 3 this. 4 those. 5 this. 6 these.
1 who. 2 which. 3 who. 4 which. 5 who. 6 her.

ance, for *its* 7 virtue and good sense, is older than I am; *he* 8 sings and dances well, and *his* 9 good breeding and sweetness of temper are the admiration of *its* 10 companions.

Virtue is *his* 11 own reward. In this life *she* 12 affords peace of mind to those *which* 13 possess *him* 14.

N. B. *Who* is both masculine and feminine; referring to persons of both sexes: *Which* is applied to things without life, and to brutes.

The relative pronouns are the same in both numbers.

RULE 6.

If no nominative comes between the relative and the verb, the relative is the nominative.

EXAMPLES.

This is the man *who taught* rhetoric. The estates of those *who have* taken arms against their country ought to be confiscated. We have a constitution *which secures* our rights.

EXPLANATION.

In these expressions there being no nominative between the relatives *who* and *which* and the verbs *taught*, *have*, and *secures*, therefore the relatives are the nominative.

REMARK.

The verb *to be* has a nominative after it, as well as before it; as, "it *was I*;" "ye *are they* who justify yourselves." For this reason this passage seems to be ungrammatical, "*whom* do men say that I am?" Matth. xvi. 13. It ought to be *who*, governed of *am*."

But in the infinitive mode an objective case follows *be*; as, I thought it to be *him*;" "you believe it to be *me*."

RULE 7.

But if the nominative comes between the relative and the verb, the relative is governed by the following verb, or some other word.

EXAMPLES.

This is the man *whom* I esteem, *whose* virtues merit distinction, and *whom* I am happy to oblige.

EXPLANATION.

There being the nominative *I* between the relative *whom* and the verb *esteem*, *whom* is in the objective case, govern-

7 her. 8 she. 9 her. 10 her. 11 its. 12 it. 13 who. 14 it.

ed by the intransitive verb *esteem*. The next relative denoting possession, is put in the possessive case *whose*; *virtues* being the nominative to *merit*. In the last member of the sentence, *whom* is governed of *oblige*; there being a nominative *I* between the relative and the verb, am.

N. B. The compounds of *who* follow the same rule. "Whoever I am;" "Whomsoever you please to appoint."

FALSE CONSTRUCTION.

The boys, *who* 1 I admire, are those that study. The women, *who* 2 I saw, were very handsome. The servant *who* 3 you sent, is not returned. *Who* 4 should I meet the other day. *Who* 5 should I see but my old friend. The boy *whom* 6 loves study, will be beloved by his instructor. The ladies, *whom* 7 possess modesty, are always respected.

RULE 8.

Two nouns, signifying the same thing, must be in the same case, and are said to be in opposition: as, "Paul the Apostle," "Alexander the conqueror."

But if they signify different things, and imply property, the first is put in the possessive case, by adding *s*, separated from the word by an apostrophe.

EXAMPLES.

This is *John's* paper. We admire a *man's* courage and a *lady's* virtue.

EXPLANATION.

The words *John's*, *man's*, *lady's*, denote property, and are in the possessive case.

The same ideas may be thus expressed; "this is the paper of John. We admire the courage of a man, and the virtue of a lady."

REMARK 1.

In common discourse, the name of the thing possessed is generally omitted; as, St. Paul's; Mr. Addison's; that is, St. Paul's Church; Mr. Addison's house.

REMARK 2.

The apostrophe ought always to be placed in the possessive case to distinguish it from the plural number.

1 whom. 2 whom. 3 whom. 4 whom. 5 whom. 6 who. 7 who.

Thus, "see the *lad's* manners, is possessive; but, "the *lads* have no manners," is plural.

FALSE CONSTRUCTION.

See that *boys* 8 impudence; he disobeys his *masters* 9 orders. That *girls* 10 bonnet is awry. *John his* 11 book is lost. This is *George his* 12 paper. The *kings* 13 edict is published.

RULE 9.

Transitive verbs govern the objective case.

EXAMPLES.

1. I admire *her*. She saw *him*. The Scripture directs *us*.
2. Religion honors its *votaries*. Shame follows *vice*.

EXPLANATION.

1. The verbs *admire*, *saw*, *directs*, are transitive, and govern the pronouns *her*, *him*, *us*, in the objective case.

2. *Honors* and *follows*, being transitive verbs, are said to govern the words *votaries* and *vice* which express the objects of their influence.

REMARK 1.

Sometimes the personal pronouns and always the relatives, *who*, *which*, *what*, *that*, are placed before the verb that governs them.

Pro. and *rel.* Governed by the *verbs.*

whom	ye ignorantly	*worship.*
Him		*declare* I unto you.
Whom	do you	*see?*
Which	will you	*take?*

REMARK 2.

Participles may govern the same causes as their verbs; as, "I am *viewing* a fine *prospect;* I have *moved them.*" Here *viewing* and *moved* are participles, yet govern the words *prospect* and *them.*

N. B. As few or no errors are committed under this rule it is needless to give examples of false construction.

RULE 10.

The answer must be in the same case as the question: it being always governed by the verb that asks the question, though the verb is not expressed.

8 boy's. 9 master's. 10 girl's. 11 John's. 12 George's. 13 king's.

EXAMPLES.

QUESTIONS.	ANSWERS.
Who wrote this book?	*George.*
who is this?	*he.*
whom do you see?	*them.*
whom do you admire?	*her.*

EXPLANATION.

In the two first questions, *who*, the word that asks the question, is in the nominative; and so are the answers *George* and *he*. In the two last, *whom* is in the objective, and so are the answers *them* and *her*.

The propriety of this will better appear by expressing the questions and answers at large.

QUESTIONS	ANSWERS.
Who wrote this book?	*George* wrote it.
who is this?	it is *he?*
whom do you see?	I see *them.*
whom do you admire?	I admire *her.*

RULE 11.

Prepositions govern the objective case.

EXAMPLES.

I write *for him*. Give the box *to her*. You will ride *with them*, or *with us*.

EXPLANATION.

For, *to*, and *with*, are prepositions, and require the pronouns *him*, *her*, *them* and *us* to be in the objective case.

REMARK 1.

The preposition may be omitted with propriety—as, "give me the book," that is, *to me*. "I will go *next Monday*;" that is, *on next Monday*.

REMARK 2.

Formerly prepositions joined with adverbs, supplied the place of pronouns—thus,

Herewith	were used for	with this
wherewith		with which
thereto		to that
thereat		at that
thereby		by that
whereby		by which
whereunto		to which
whereof		of which
wherein		in which

Note. Prepositions are sometimes prefixed to adverbs: as, *to where*, *from where*, *over where*, &c. This is only an elliptical form of expression; the word *place*, or some word of the same import being implied. For example; "The western limit of the United States extends along the middle of the river Missisippi, *to where* it intersects the thirty-first degree of north latitude:" that is, to the *place where*. But the phrase is by no means elegant.

Note, further. That prepositions are often placed after verbs, and become a part of them; being essential to the meaning. Thus in the phrases *to fall on*, *to give over*, *to cast up* (an account) the particles *on*, *over*, *up*, are essential to the verbs to which they are annexed, because on them depends the meaning of the phrases. This sort of verbs is purely Saxon; they are often very significant, and their place cannot always be supplied by any single word.

RULE 12.

Conjunctions connect like cases.

EXAMPLES.

You and *I* were both present. *He* and *she* sit together. It was told to *him* and *me*. It is disagreeable to *them* and *us*.

EXPLANATION.

The pronoun *you*, being in the nominative case, *I* is required to be there too, because it is coupled to *you* by the conjunction *and*. The case is the same with *he* and *she*; *him* and *me*; *them* and *us*; except that the four last are in the objective case.

REMARK.

When a comparison is made between different persons or things, the word that follows *than*, is not governed of it, but of some verb or preposition implied; thus,

You are taller than *I*	*Are better understood thus,*	You are taller than *I am.*
he is older than *she*		he is older than *she is.*
we are younger than *they*		we are younger than *they are*
you think him handsom-		you think him handsomer
[er than *me*,		than you think *me.*
she sings as well as *he*,		she sings as well as he *sings.*
I write as well as *you*		I write as well as *you write.*

FALSE CONSTRUCTION.

It was agreeable to him and *I* 1 that we and *them* 2 should study together. It was told us and *ye* 3, Will he go with you and *I* 4? Neither she nor *him* 5 was there. He taught both me and *she* 6. Either you or *me* 7 must go. Neither they nor *us* 8 were present. John and *me* 9 are not good scholars.

N. B. The relative *who* after *than*, is improper; it ought always to be *whom*, in the objective; as, "we have a general, *than whom* Europe cannot produce a greater character."

RULE 13.

The infinitive mode follows a *verb*, *noun*, or an *adjective*.

EXAMPLES.

1. It follows a verb; as, let us learn to *practice* virtue.
2. A noun; as, you have a fine opportunity *to learn*.
3. An adjective; as, my friend is worthy to *be* trusted.

EXPLANATION.

In the first example, *practice* is a verb in the infinitive mode, following the verb *learn*.

In the second, *learn* is in the infinitive, following the noun *opportunity*.

In the third, *be* is in the infinitive, following the adjective *worthy*.

REMARK 1.

The infinitive mode or part of a sentence often has the nature of a noun; and does the office of a nominative or objective case.

Of a nominative: as		*Of an objective;*
To play is pleasant.		I love *to play*.
to study is useful.		I hate *to quarrel*.
to be virtuous is wise.		I desire *to learn*.

REMARK 2.

The infinitive mode is often made absolute or independent on the sentence; as, "*to confess* the truth, I was in fault," "but *to proceed*;" "*to conclude*," &c. This mode of expression may be resolved into the subjunc-

1 me. 2 they. 3 you. 4 me. 5 he. 6 her. 7 I. 8 we. 9 I.

tive; thus, "that I may confess the truth; that I may proceed; that I may conclude," &c.

REMARK 3.

It is a general rule in the language that *to* is a sign of the infinitive mode; but we have a few verbs that will admit of another verb after them in the infinitive, without *to*, such as, *bid*, *dare*, *need*, *make*, *see*, *hear*, *feel*; as, "he has bid me *do* it," not "bid me *to do* it."

RULE 14.

A participle, with a preposition preceding it, answers to the Latin gerund, and may govern an objective case.

EXAMPLES.

By avoiding evil.	*By shunning* him.
by doing good.	*in observing* them.
by seeking peace; and	*for esteeming* us.
by pursuing it.	*by punishing* them.

EXPLANATION.

The participles *avoiding*, *doing*, *seeking*, &c. govern the objective words, *evil*, *good*, &c.

REMARK 1.

But a participle with an article before it, generally has the nature of a noun, and may have the preposition *of* after it.

By *the* avoiding *of* evil.	By *the* observing *of* which.
by *the* doing *of* good.	by *the* punishing *of* whom.

The following expressions seem to be not grammatical.

neither { By *the* avoiding which. / by *the* doing which. / by *the* observing them. } nor { By avoiding *of* which. / by doing *of* which. / by observing *of* them.

Either *the* before the participle and *of* after it, ought both to be used, or both to be omitted.

But our best writers always have used the article before the participle, without the preposition after it, and in some instances it is avoided without difficulty.

REMARK 2.

Participles often become mere adjectives, denoting a quality, and as such admit of comparison; thus,

Pos.	Com.	Super.
A *learned*	—*more learned*	—*most learned* man.
a *loving*	—*more loving*	—*most loving* father.
a *feeling*	—*more feeling*	—*most feeling* heart.

REMARK 3.

A participle, with an adverb, may be placed independent of the sentence; as, "this, *generally speaking*, is a good rule."

Note. Instead of the participle in *ed*, some writers, particularly the poets, have used an adjective, derived of a verb; as, *devote*, *annihilate*, *exhaust*; for *devoted*, *annihilated*, *exhausted*; But these are become obsolete.

REMARK 4.

The participles in *ing* often have the nature both of *nouns* and *verbs*. They are preceded by an article, a noun, or pronoun possessive, and yet govern the objective case. These may be called *participial nouns*. They are much used in the language, and their place cannot always be well supplied by a different construction.

EXAMPLES.

"I heard of *his seeing him*." "We seldom hear of a *man despising* wealth; or of a *woman's hating* flattery."

Sometimes two participles have the nature of a noun; as, "I heard of his *being noticed*." "His *being praised*, excited envy."

Some writers omit the sign of the possessive; "we seldom hear of a *man despising* wealth." But this seems not so correct; for the object of the verb is not so much the *man*, as his *contempt* of wealth. Besides the object of the verb, the thing heard, is an act *passed*, and consequently a noun; rather than an act *performing*, which would make *despising* a proper participle. In this phrase, "a *man despising* wealth," *despising* is a proper participle. In this, a *man's despising* wealth, it is a noun, still governing *wealth*. The latter is a *participle noun*, and the most correct phrase.

REMARK 5.

Some participles in *ing* have a passive signification. "The book is now *printing*." "Such articles are now *selling* at vendue."

RULE 15.

A nominative case, joined with a participle, often stands independent of the sentence. This is called the case absolute.

EXAMPLES.

The sun being risen, it will be warm. *They all consenting* the vote was passed. "Jesus conveying himself away; *a multitude being in that place.*"

EXPLANATION.

The words in Italics are not connected with the other parts of the sentence, either by agreement or government; they are therefore in the case obsolete, which, in English is always the nominative.

FALSE CONSTRUCTION.

Him 1 being sick, the physician was called.
Him 2 being crazy, it was necessary to confine him.
Her 3 being dressed, she went to the assembly.
Them 4 being convened, they began business.
Us 5 knocking, the door was opened.

RULE 16.

An adverb must always stand near the word which it is designed to affect or modify.

1. It is placed before an adjective; as,

Adv.	*Adj.*
Very	wise
Extremely	cold
rigidly	just.

2. It is usually placed after a verb; as,

Verbs	*Adv.*
To write	correctly
to sing	sweetly.
to behave	politely

3. It is placed between an auxiliary and a verb or participle; as,

Aux.	*Adv.*	*Verbs* or *Part.*
She was	elegantly	dressed
she was	greatly	admired
I have	often	seen
he has been	much	celebrated
we shall be	highly	pleased
they will	soon	observe.

REMARK 1.

We use many adverbs before a single verb; as, "*I commonly* eat at six o'clock;" and the adverb *never* is usually

1 He. 2 he. 3 she. 4 they. 5 we.

placed before both verbs and auxiliaries; as, I "*never* will be seen there." But this seems not so elegant as, "I will *never* be seen there."

REMARK 2.

Two negatives destroy each other, and amount to an affirmative; thus,

	Are the same in sense as	
I do *not* know *nothing* [about it.		I do know something about [it.
I did *not* hear *nothing*,		I did hear something.
I did *not* hear *not one* [word.		I did hear one word.
he may *not* get *none*.		he may get some.
you *cannot* see *none*.		you can see some.

REMARK 3.

No stands alone in answer; as, Will you go? *No*. But if any other word is used, the negation is expressed by *not*; as, will they go? They will *not*.

No is used for *not*; as, "I will go, whether he will or no."

No is used as an adjective before nouns; as, *no man*, *no house*.

RULE 17.

After the conjunctions, *if*, *though*, *unless*, *except*, *whether*, the auxiliary sign is sometimes omitted in the future time.

EXAMPLES.

"Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him."
Job xiii. 15.

"Unless he wash his flesh, he shall not eat of the holy things." Lev. xxii. 6.

That is, "though he slay me," &c. "unless he shall wash," &c.*

* I cannot admit that these expressions belong to the present tense of the subjunctive mode. The ideas are clearly future, and the verbs are in the future in the original. In most instances where authors have used, "if I be," "if he be," "if he have," "if he pay," &c. the phrases are resolvable into the future or the present form of the indicative, by supplying an auxiliary: "If he can or may be," "if he shall have," "if he should say." Most authors use the present and future of the subjunctive promiscuously; sometimes, *if he has* or *is*, and at other times, *if he have* or *be*. It appears to me the distinction is very easy. The first belongs to the present, and the last to the future.

REMARK 1.

The conjunction may be elegantly omitted, and the nominative be placed after the auxiliary; as, "had I been there," instead of "If I had been there." "Were I the person," instead of "if I were the person."

REMARK 2.

Some conjunctions have correspondent conjunctions, which ought to follow, in the subsequent part of the sentence.

EXAMPLES.

Although our enemies were powerful, *yet* we defeated them.

Whether it was John *or* Thomas.

Either the one *or* the other.

Neither the one *nor* the other.

As with the people *so* with the priest.

Their troops were not *so* brave as ours.

AN EXERCISE.

THE following examples will teach children to distinguish the parts of speech, and enable them to understand their connection by agreement and government, according to the foregoing rule.*

EXAMPLE.

"A woman who has merit, improved by a virtuous and refined education, retains, in her decline, an influence over the men, more flattering than even that of beauty. She is the delight of her friends as formerly of her admirers."

"Admirable would be the effects of such refined education, contributing no less to public good than to private happiness. A man, who at present must degrade himself into a fop or a coxcomb in order to please the women,

* This is called parsing. In this children may be much assisted by a Pocket Dictionary, which distinguish the parts of speech. This method of parsing the English language, which has been hitherto very little practised, is the only way to obtain a thorough knowledge of it.

would soon discover, that their favor is not to be gained, but by exerting every manly talent in public and private life; and the two sexes, instead of corrupting each other, would be rivals in the race of virtue. Mutual esteem would be to each a school of urbanity; and mutual desire of pleasing would give smoothness to their behaviour, delicacy to their sentiments, and tenderness to their passions."

Hume's Hist. Man. Sketch 6.

The foregoing paragraphs may be thus parsed:

A	The indefinite article.
woman	A noun, in the singular number, nominative case to the verb *retains*.
who	A relative pronoun, referring to woman, its antecedent, nominative case to the verb *has*. Rule 6.
has	A transitive verb, in the indicative mode, present time, third person singular, agreeing with its nominative *who*. Rule 6.
merit	A noun in the singular number, objective case after *has*. Rule 9.
improved	A participle, from the verb *improve*, in the nature of an adjective, agreeing with *merit*. Rule 4.
by	A preposition.
a	Indefinite article.
virtuous	An adjective, agreeing with *education*. Rule 4.
and	A conjunction, connecting *virtuous* and *refined*. Rule 12.
refined	A participle in the nature of an adjective agreeing with *education*. Rule 4.
education	A noun singular, governed by the preposition *by*. Rule 11.
retains	A verb trans. ind. pres. 1st form, 3d person singular, agreeing with its nominative *woman*. Rule 1.
in	A preposition.
her	A pronominal adjective, agreeing with *decline*, Rule 4.
decline	A noun, sing. governed by *in*. Rule 11.

an	Indefinite article, for *a*, because the following word begins with a vowel.
influence	A noun sing. governed by *retains*. Rule 9.
over	A preposition.
the	The definite article.
men	A noun, plural, governed by *over*. Rule 11.
more	An adverb.
flattering	A participle in the nature of an adjective, derived from *flatter*, agreeing with *influence*. Rule 4.
than	A conjunction.
even	An adverb.
that	A relative pronoun in the room of *influence*.
of	A preposition.
beauty	A noun governed by *of*. Rule 11.
She	A pronoun, feminine gender, nom. to *is*.
is	An intransitive verb, ind. present tense, 3d. person sing. agreeing with *she*. Rule 1.
the	Definite article.
delight	A noun, sing. nom. after *is*. Remark on
of	[Rule 6.
her	A pronominal adj. agreeing with *friends*. Rule 4.
friends	A noun, plural, governed by *of*. Rule 11.
as	A conjunction.
formerly	An adverb, from *former*.
of	
her	
admirers	A noun, plural, governed by *of*. Rule 11.
Admirable	An adjective, agreeing with *effects*. Rule 4; placed before *be*. Exception 4 to Rule 4.
would be	*Would* an auxiliary, *be* a verb intransitive indicative, present. 3d person plural, agreeing with *effects*. Rule 1.
the	
effects	A noun, plural, nominative to *would be*, by Remark 1, on Rule 1.
of	
such	An adjective, referring to *education*. Rule 4.
refined	As before.
education	As before.

contributing A participle, agreeing with *education*. **Rule 4.**
no An adverb.
less An adverb.
to A preposition.
public An adjective, agreeing with *good*. **Rule 4.**
good An adjective, used as a noun. **Remark 5.** **Rule 4.** governed by *to*. **Rule 11.**
than A conjunction.
to
private An adj. agreeing with *happiness*. **Rule 4.**
happiness A noun, singular, governed by *to*. **Rule 11.**
A
man A noun, sing. nominative to *would discover*.
who A relative, nom. to *must degrade*. **Rule 6.**
at present An adverb, a contract. of *at the present time*.
must degrade A verb trans. ind. present, 6th form, 3d person sing. agreeing with *who*. **Rule 1.**
himself A pronoun, objective case, gov. by *degrade*. **Rule 9.**
into A preposition.
a Indefinite article.
fop A noun, sing. governed by *into*. **Rule 11.**
or A conjunction.
a
coxcomb A noun singular, connected with *fop*, by *or*. **Rule 12.**
in
order A noun, sing. governed by *in*. **Rule 11.**
to please A verb transitive, infinitive mode. 1st form, following the noun *order*. **Rule 13, 2.**
the
women A noun, plural, governed by *please*. **Rule 9.**
would discover A verb trans. ind. pres. *(fpt)* 3d person sing. agreeing with *man*. **Rule 1.**
soon An adverb.
that A conjunction.
their A pron. adj. agreeing with *favor*. **Rule 4.**
favor A noun sing. nominative to *is*.
is A verb intrans. ind. pres. 3d person sing. agreeing with *favor*. **Rule 1.**
not An adverb.

to be	A verb intrans. infinitive mode.
gained	A participle, agreeing with *favor*.
but	A conjunction.
by	A preposition.
exerting	A participle, governing *talent*. Rule 14.
every	A distributive pronominal adj. agreeing with *talent*. Rule 4.
manly	An adj. agreeing with *talent*.
talent	A noun sing. gov. by *exerting*, by Remark 2. on Rule 9.
in	
public	An adj. agr. with *life* understood. Rule 4.
and	
private	An adj. agreeing with *life*.
and	
the	
two	An adj. agreeing with *sexes*. Rule 4.
sexes	A noun, plural, nom. to *would be*.
instead	An adverb.
of	
corrupting	A participle. Rule 14.
each	A distrib. pron. adj. agreeing with *other*. Rule 4.
other	A pron. adj. standing for a noun. Remark 5, on Rule 4; gov. by *corrupting*. Remark 2, Rule 9.
would be	A verb intrans. ind. pres. 3d person plural, agreeing with *sexes*. Rule 1.
rivals	A noun, plural, nominative after *be*. Rule 6. Remark.
in	
the	
race	A noun, sing. gov. by *in*. Rule 11.
of	
virtue	A noun, sing. gov. by *of*. Rule 11.
Mutual	An adjective, agreeing with *esteem*. Rule 4.
esteem	A noun, sing. nominative to *be*.
would be	As before, 3d person sing. agreeing with *esteem*. Rule 1.
to	
each	A distrib. pron. adj. standing for *sex* also. Rule 4, Remark 5, gov. by *to*. Rule 11.

a	
school	A noun, singular, nom. after *be.* Remark on Rule 6.
of	
urbanity	A noun, sing. governed by *of.* Rule 11.
and	
mutual	An adjective, agreeing with *desire.* Rule 4.
desire	A noun sing. nom. to *would give.*
of	
pleasing	A participle governed by *of.* Rule 14.
would give	*Give* is a trans. verb. ind. present. No. 11, 3d person sing. agreeing with *desire.* Rule 1.
smoothness	A noun, governed by *give.* Rule 9.
to	
their	A pron. adj. agr. with *behavior.* Rule 4.
behavior	A noun, sing. governed by *to.* Rule 11.
delicacy	A noun, sing. governed by *give*, understood Rule 9.
to	
their	As before, agreeing with *sentiments.*
sentiments	A noun, plural, governed by *to.* Rule 11.
and	
tenderness	A noun, singular, connected by *and* to *delicacy*, or governed by *give*, understood. Rule 9.
to	
their	As before, agreeing with *passions.*
passions	A noun, plural, governed by *to.* Rule 11.

APPENDIX.

How do the English express a command?

BESIDES the use of *shall*, which may express a command, the radical form of the verb is used for the same purpose; as, *go*, *come*, *write*. This is always addressed to a person, and *thou*, *ye*, or *you*, is supposed to be understood; *go thou*, *come ye*.

What other sense is annexed to this form?

This mode of speaking is used to pray and exhort; as, "Grant thy blessing." "Let thou thy servant depart in peace." In this sense, and sometimes in giving commands, *o* is employed; as "Do you prepare a dinner at two o'clock."

IMPERATIVE.

Write thou, or	Write ye, or
Do thou write.	Do ye or you write.

Or thus, omitting the pronouns,

Write, or do write.*

A wish or prayer is also expressed by several of the auxiliary signs, with the pronoun following; and this, either with or without the interjection, Oh!

* It is surprising that grammarians have made three persons in the imperative. These expressions, *let me write*, *let him write*, *let us write*, and *let them write*, appear to be the second person; for *let* has the sense of *permit* or *suffer*; *permit me to write*, &c. We do not address *commands* or *exhortations* to ourselves; *let me write* is not an address to myself, but to a second person, *let thou me*; that is, *permit me*. Nor do we address commands to a third person, except by means of a second. *Let him go*, is a command to a second person or an order conveyed thro' a second to a third person. *Let us go*, is either an *exhortation* to a number, among whom the speaker includes himself, or a command; as *permit us to go*. In all these cases, the address is made to the second person.

May he be restored to health; or
O! *May he* be restored!
Would he but spare my life!
O! *Might I* behold my dear son!
Could he be restored to my longing eyes!

May and *Might* here preserve their usual distinction, *May* supposes uncertainty, and therefore expresses a prayer. *Might* supposes a thing which cannot probably happen, and therefore expresses a fruitless wish.

These expressions correspond, in some measure, with the Greek optative.

How do the English express condition *and* uncertainty?

By prefixing some *adverb* or *conjunction* to the verb. Verbs subjoined to other verbs in construction, or to adverbs and conjunctions implying doubt and condition, are said to be in the *subjunctive mode.*

How is this mode formed?

By combinations of words, similar to those in the indicative,* as,

If I go—if he goes—&c.

INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES.

How are questions asked in the English language?

By placing the pronoun, or other nominative case, after the verb, or first helping verb. Thus:

Have I?	Have we?
Hast thou? have you?	Have ye or you?
Has he? or hath he?	Have they?

Give an example in the several times?

Present Time.

Am I?	Will I?
Can I?	Do I?
May I?	Do I turn?
Shall I?	Dost thou turn? &c.

* It has been the practice of some writers to omit the inflections of the irregular verbs in the present time of the subjunctive. *If I write, if thou write, if he write.* But this form is generally an eliptical future; "if he *should* or *shall* write." This appears to be the genius of the language, and most modern writers use the proper form for the present; "if thou writest, if he writes."

Past Time.

Had I?	Would I?
Was I?	Did I?
Could I?	Did I turn?
Might I?	Didst thou turn &c.
Should I?	
Had I been?	Must I have turned?
Could I have been?	Might I have turned?
Might I have been?	Could I have turned?
Should I have been?	Should I have turned?
Would I have been?	Would I have turned?

Future Time.

Shall I be?	Shall I have been?
Wilt thou be?	Wilt thou have been?*

How are negative sentences formed; that is, how do we deny any thing?

By placing the word *not* after the verb, or first helper.

Examples, in Present Time.

I am not	We are not
Thou art not / you are not	Ye or you are not
He is not	They are not
I have not	
I do not	I turn not, or / I do not turn
I may not	
I can not	I am not turning.

In Past Time.

I was not	I would not
I had not	I should not
I did not	I might not
I could not	
	I was not turned
I have not been	I have not turned

---

* The first person will I be? will we be? is not used, except by a mistake. I have not set down all the persons in the interrogative form, deeming one or two sufficient. The learner may go thro' the several persons at the direction of the instructor; as, *am I? art thou? is he? are ye* or *you? are they?* So in the other examples.

I had not been	I had not turned
I could not have been	I did not turn
I would not have been	I could not turn
I should not have been	I would not turn
I might not have been	I should not turn
	I might not turn

I may not have turned
I can not have turned
I might not have turned
I would not have turned
I could not have turned
I should not have turned.

In Future Time.

I shall not be	I shall not turn
I will not be	I will not turn
I shall not have been	I shall not have turned
You will not have been	You will not have turned

How do the English ask questions in the negative?

In this manner, place the nominative after the verb or first helper, and the *not* immediately after the nominative.

Examples.

Am I not?	Will I not?
Was I not?	Shall I not?
Have I not?	Could I not?
Had I not?	Would I not?
Can I not?	Should I not?
May I not?	

Have I not been turned?
Had I not been turned?
Could I not have been turned?
Would I not have been turned?
Should I not have been turned?
Might I not have been turned?
Must I not have been turned?

When do the English ask questions in the negative form?

When the speaker is supposed to be acquainted with the fact enquired for, or to suspect it; and to ask for a concession or assurance of the fact. It seems in an argument, to be a modest way of asserting a fact. But when

the inquirer is supposed to be unacquainted with the fact, he ought not to ask the question in the negative form. Thus:

Does it rain? asks for information.

Does it not rain? implies that the speaker supposes it to rain.

"Do you believe the existence of a Supreme Being?" would be a very improper question to ask of a known Christian.

"Do you not believe the existence of a Supreme Being?" may be asked of any person with propriety; especially in argument.

Where is the negative to be placed?

After the nominative case; thus:

Do I *not* write?	Has he *not* written?
Does he *not* write?	Should he *not* be writing

In the vulgar stile, the negation is placed before the nominative, and contracted thus: *Didn't I write? don't he write? can't he write?* But this should not be imitated.

Note. The answer to a negative interrogative sentence, if the fact is conceded, is expressed by the affirmative *yes*, or a correspondent verb. If the speaker intends to deny the fact, he answers by the negative *no*, or a correspondent verb. It is said by some men of erudition, that the negative form of questioning is not philosophically necessary; but this is not material; as, in our language, it certainly has a distinct and important meaning.

In teaching the English verbs, especially to foreigners, the learner should be directed to draw out on paper the forms of several verbs at large; not only in the affirmative form, but in the negative and interrogative, and in the combined form of both. This should be particularly attended to in the irregulars at large, with a view to understand the proper combinations of the auxiliary signs, with the radical verb and its participles.

The defective verb *ought* is thus varied, in the present and past time:

I ought	We ought
Thou oughtest	Ye or you ought
He ought	They ought.

Ought has no participle.

Let is thus varied in the present time:

I let	We let
Thou lettest	Ye or you let
He letteth or lets	They let

It has no other variation: but it has all tenses and participles.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

All English verbs that make the past time and participle in *ed* are accounted regular: All that vary from this rule may be called irregular. I shall rank the whole of our irregular verbs under three heads; first, those that make the present tense, past and participle all alike; as,

Present.	*Past.*	*Part.*
Hurt	Hurt	Hurt

Of this kind are the following; Beat, burst, cast, cost, cut, heat, hit, knit, let, put, read, rent, rid, set, shed, slit, split, spread, thurst, wet.

The addition of *ed* after *d* or *t*, would render the sound of that word disagreeable; as, *hitted*, *putted*, &c. for which reason it is omitted.

Note. Beat sometimes, makes *beaten* in the participle; and *beat*, *beated*.

2. Those that make the past time and participle alike; but different from the present time; as the following:

Present.	*Past and Part.*	*Present.*	*Past and Part.*
Awake	Awoke	dwell	dwelt
abide	abode	feed	fed
be	been	feel	felt
behold	beheld	fight	fought
bind	bound	find	found
bleed	bled	flee	fled
breed	bred	fling	flung
bring	brought	geld	gelt or gelded
build	built or builded	bend	bent
buy	bought	unbend	unbent
catch	caught	bereave	bereft
creep	crept	beseech	besought
deal	dealt	leap	leapt or leaped
dig	dug	lend	lent
dream	dreamt	lose	lost
drink	drank	make	made

Present.	*Past and Part.*	*Present.*	*Past and Part.*
mean	meant	have	had
meet	met	hear	heard
pay	paid	keep	kept
rend	rent	lay	laid
say	said	lead	led
seek	sought	leave	left
sell	sold	stick	stuck
send	sent	sting	stung
shoot	shot	sweep	swept
sleep	slept	sweat	swet
sling	slung	teach	taught
smell	smelt	tell	told
spend	spent	think	thought
spin	spun	weep	wept
stand	stood	wind	wound
gild	gilt or gilded	work	work, wrought or worked
gird	girt or girded		
grind	ground	wring	wrung
hang	hung or hanged	win	won

3. Those that have the present, past and participle all different; as the following:

Present Tense.	*Past.*	*Participle.*
Bear	bore or bare	borne or born
begin	began	begun
bid	bade or bid	bidden
bite	bit	bitten
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
chide	chid	chidden
choose	chose	chosen
cleave	clove or clave	cloven or cleft
come	came	come
crow	crew	crowed
dare	durst	dared
die	died	dead
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
drive	drove	driven

Present.	*Past.*	*Participle.*
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
fly	flew	flown
forsake	forsook	forsaken
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	gotten
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grow	grew	grown
hew	hewed	hewn
hide	hid	hidden
hold	held	held or holden
know	knew	known
lade	laden	loaded or loaden
ly or lie	lay	lain
mow	mowed	mown
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang or rung	rung
rise	rose	risen
run	ran	run
see	saw	seen
saw	sawed	sawn
seeth	sod	sodden
shave	shaved	shaven or shaved
shake	shook	shaken
shear	sheared	shorn or sheared
strew	strewed	strewn
	also	
strow	strowed	strown
shew	shewed	shewn
	also	
show	showed	shown
shrink	shrank or shrunk	shrunk
sing	sang or sung	sung
sink	sank or sunk	sunk
sit	sat	sitten
slay	slew	slain
slide	slid	slidden
smite	smote	smitten

Present.	*Past.*	*Participle.*
sow	sowed	sown
speak	spoke	spoken
spring	sprang or sprung	sprung
steal	stole	stolen
stink	stank or stunk	stunk
strike	struck	struck
spit	spit	spitten
strive	strove	striven
swear	swore	sworn
swell	swelled	swollen or swelled
swing	swang or swung	swung
swim	swam or swum	swum
take	took	taken
tear	tore	torn
thrive	throve	thriven
throw	threw	thrown
tread	trod	trodden
wear	wore	worn
weave	wove	woven
write	wrote	written
wax	waxed	waxen

NOTES.

PLURAL NUMBER.

SOME men write *genius's*, *idea's* for the plural. But this seems not so correct as *geniusses*, *ideas*.

It is disputed, whether *two handeful* or *two handfuls* is the most correct expression. It appears to me as plain a case as *two shoemakers* or *two shoes maker*. The word handful is a noun, the name of a certain quantity, and the sign of the plural ought to be added to the termination. *Two handeful* does not convey the idea; it means two separate *handeful* filled; whereas *two handfuls* means twice the quantity that the hand will contain, which is our meaning when we use the word.

We usually say, "*the Miss Smiths*;" "*the Misses Smiths*," is more accurate.

We say, *twelve foot*, *thirty pound*; and this seems to be an established idiom of the language. It is remarked by

Lhuyd, that this also is the invariable practice in the Cornish dialect, a branch of the old British language. So also we say *a hundred horse, these are a good apple.* The word *folk* anciently signified a number, *these folk.* But it is now used in the plural, *folks.* *Enough* was once used in the singular only; *enow* in the plural is still used by some writers, particularly the Scotch—but *enough* is now generally used in both numbers.

POSSESSIVE CASE.

Many people use *wives* in the plural, when they should use *wife's*, in the possessive. "It is at my *wives* disposal" ought to be *wife's* disposal.

It is questioned whether, *at Mr. Bell's the bookseller's*, or *at Mr. Bell's the bookseller*, or *at Mr. Bell the bookseller's*, is the most elegant expression. The first is clearly the most correct and agreeable—except two words follow; as, *at Mr. Bell's the bookseller's and stationer's*; in which case, I should vary the expression, *at the store of Mr. Bell the bookseller and stationer.*

We use *latter* and *later* in different senses. *Latter* refers to *time* and *place*; *later* to *time* only.——*Priestly.*

Older and *oldest* are used in a sense different from *elder* and *eldest.* *Older* and *oldest* refer to priority of time only; *elder* and *eldest* are used to express precedency of rank or privilege.

We often use the superlative for the comparative, *the strongest of the two.* This is not so correct as *stronger.*

Plenty for *plentiful* is become so frequent, as, perhaps, to claim a place among English adjectives. *Wheat is plenty.*

PRONOUNS.

Pronouns are sometimes used without any antecedent; but in such cases, the antecedent is easily suggested by the mind. "*How far is it to such a place?*" "*How far do you call it?*" That is, the distance. *Who is it? Who is the person?*

Sometimes *it* seems to coalesce with the verb in sense, "The king *carried it* with a high hand."—*Parl. hist.*

We vulgarly say, *Will you smoke it?*

What is vulgarly used for *that.* "I am not satisfied but *what* it was best."

It is very common to hear these phrases, *it is me, it was him.* These appear not strictly grammatical, but such a prevalence in English, and in other modern languages derived from the same source, it inclines me to think that there may be reasons for them, which are not now understood. The French say, *c'est moi, c'est lui,* phrases precisely answering to ours, *it is me, it is him.* In some instances, these cannot well be avoided. See *Priestly* on pronouns.

The relative *who,* in this and similar phrases, *who do you speak to?* must perhaps be admitted as an anomaly. It is the invariable practice to use *who,* except among people who are fettered by grammatical rules. In spite of rules, *who is she married to?* is more agreeable than *whom* is she married to?

VERB.

We say, *what ails him?* but seldom *he ails a fever,* or other disease.

Owing and *wanting* are used in a passive sense. *What is wanting? A debt is owing to me,* are established phrases.

We say *a man is well read in law; he was offered so much for a thing,* where the subject and object seem to have changed places; for the meaning is, *law is well read; so much was offered,* &c. this inversion may be allowable where it is not attended with obscurity.

On the use of auxiliary verbs, Dr. *Priestly* has this criticism. "By studying conciseness we are apt to drop the auxiliary, *to have,* though the sense relate to past time. *I found him better than I expected to find him.* In this case analogy seems to require that we say, *I expected to have found him;* that is, *to have found him there.*" This is a great error, and for the reason which he immediately assigns, that is, "*the time past is sufficiently indicated by the former part of the sentence.*" The truth is, the time is ascertained by the first verb, *I expected,* which carries the mind back to the time; then to use another verb in time past, is to carry the mind back to a time preceding the existence of my expectations. He gives an example from *Hume,* which he says is certainly faulty. "These prosecutions of William *seem to be* the most iniquitous," &c. It is faulty, not because both verbs are not in time past,

but because neither of them is past time; *seem to have been*, or *seemed to be*, would have been correct; but *seemed to have been*, would not have been grammatical. His remarks on this point *seem to have been* made with less accuracy of judgment, than we observe in most of his writings.

Sometimes verbs after *than* have no apparent nominative, "He speaks with more spirit *than* is usual." This is an elliptical form of expression, and the verb might be omitted; but it is often used without creating ambiguity.

These expressions, *I had rather, you had better, I had as lief*, seem not grammatical. Whether *had* is, in these phrases a corruption of *would*, or an old peculiarity, its general use, both in books and speech, undoubtedly entitle it to an establishment in grammar. *Rather* is the comparative of the old word *rathe*, *prompt*, *willing*. This, as well as *better* and *lief*, were originally nouns, and might with propriety follow *have*, *had*, *rather*, i. e. *had more promptness*, or *readiness*. It is probable, that if we go far enough into antiquity, we should find that these phrases might be resolved on grammatical principles. Besides, *would* will not always supply the place of *had*. *You would better stay*, is not the sense of *you had better stay*.

There is something singular in the use of the verbs *need* and *dare* in the third person. When they stand as transitive verbs, and are followed by some noun or pronoun, they have the regular personal termination; as, *he needs a guide; he dares me to enter the list*. But when they are immediately followed by another verb in the infinitive, the personal termination is dropped, and these verbs are to be considered as auxiliaries: Thus, *he need not go; he dare not stay*; where *need* and *dare* stand exactly upon the footing of *may* and *can*. This difference in the use of these words has not before been observed, yet is as well established as any peculiarity in the language and insensibly made in practice from the best writers to the humblest cottagers. *He dares not go; he needs not go*; are as awkward and unwarrantable as *he mays not*, or *cans not go*.

The verb *needs* is often used in another manner equally singular; as in this sentence: "In such artificial things there *needs* no other description, than to name them by their usual names." *Bacon's Abridgt.* vol. 4. 24. This is,

good English, but what is the nominative to *needs?* Perhaps this phrase might grow out of *need is;* as *needs* in the phrase, *he must needs*, is evidently a contraction of *need is*. At any rate, it is a well established mode of expression, *there needs one, there needs none*, &c. and it must be admitted as an idiomatic irregularity.

Another singularity in the use of this verb is observable. When it is used as a transitive or principle verb, it has a regular preterit; as, *he had all the evidence he needed*. But when it stands on the footing of an auxiliary it has not the usual inflections for the past time; as "Perhaps the party had other evidence, and *need* not have put the cause on this point." *Salkeld's Reports*, 1. 289. These distinctions are established in books as well as speaking.

When *need* is used as a principal verb, the sign of the infinitive is prefixed to a following verb; as, *he needed to have* some sport. So that as a *principal* verb, it is regular in its variations; but as an *auxiliary*, it has no variation, unless with *thou* in the second person.

The use of mistaken is equally singular. When applied to *persons* it is synonimous with *wrong* or *erroneous*. This is *almost* or *quite universally* understood to be its meaning; and this common understanding constitutes its true signification, which no man has a right to dispute or attempt to change. But when applied to *things*, it is always used in a passive sense, equivalent to *misunderstood*. *I am mistaken, you are mistaken*, mean, *I am wrong, you are wrong;* but *the nature of a thing is mistaken*, means, *its nature is misunderstood*.

PREPOSITIONS, ADVERBS *and* CONJUNCTIONS.

While is commonly considered as an adverb; but very erroneously. It is a noun signifying *time*. *It is worth while*, or *worth his while;* i. e. *worth his time*. *How* is sometimes used as implying negation. "*Let us take care how we sin*," i. e. that we do not sin. But this is not very correct, and a very unnecessary mode of speaking. *Above* is often used as an adjective—*the above remarks*. *Then* is sometimes used in the same manner—*the then ministry*. These phrases seem uncouth, but perhaps were formerly considered as correct.

A is often used as equivalent to *per* in Latin. *Four shillings a bushel.* Philosophical principles teach us to supply *for* to make the sentence complete; but it does not appear that *for* was ever used in these cases. It is probable from the progress of language, and from old English writers, that it is a contraction of *one*, *four shillings one bushel.* Some grammarians, ignorant of the idioms of their own tongue, and fond of adjusting every thing by Roman rules, have substituted the Latin *per.* This we see every day, *per week*, *per quarter*, *per yard*, *per bushel*, and a multitude of other *pers*, the offspring of ignorance and pedantry, foisted into the language, and disinheriting our own legitimate children. The English is *a week*, *a yard*, *a day*, &c. and *a day* is as correct in English, as *per diem* is in Latin.

Lowth condemns this expression, "In one hour *is* so great *riches* come to nought." But this word was formerly in the singular number. Chaucer uses *richesse* almost invariably in the singular, and makes the plural *richesses.*

Many was formerly used in the singular number—

"Against so manye *foo*"—that is, *foe.*

Hence the propriety of the phrase, *many a man.*

Lowth also reprobates this form of expression, *it is these*, *it is they.* I believe these phrases may be defended on philosophical principles; *these* and *they* collectively forming an agent or subject, represented by *it.* At any rate, the idiom is so well established, and the other construction is so awkward, that an English ear cannot consent to the correction—*they are they.* No Frenchman disputes the propriety of *ce sont eux*, *ce sont elles*—phrases which are as unphilosophical as ours, *it is these* or *they.* And in spite of great names, these phrases will still be used as good English.

Our ancestors considered ashes as singular. "The *ashes* of an heifer—*sanctifieth* to the purifying of the flesh." *Sanctifieth* is not a mistake—the translators of the Bible did not make such blunders. But in modern times, *ashes* is rather used as a plural.

Averse and *aversion*, Lowth says, seem to require *from* and not admit *to.* He inclines much to admit Latin idioms rather than English. The true force and propriety of the English particles are known only by their use. To

is generally used after these words—it is much the most agreeable, and on examining the original meaning of *to*, it is found to be the most correct. A Latinist may relish *averse from*, but an English ear is not easily reconciled to the expression.

Compare is followed by *with* or *to*. *With* is used, when two objects are compared which are together, and exhibited at a single view. *To* is sometimes used, when objects are absent from each other. Or perhaps this is the difference; *with* is used when two things are of the same kind, and alike in the capital figure or properties; *to* when a comparison is instituted *de novo*, or between things that are not associated in idea. Of the former, this will serve as an example "He *compared* one picture with another." Of the latter, "Homer *compares* a croud of people *to* a swarm of bees."

The adjectives long, broad, thick, deep, high, old, distant, strong, may follow the nouns which they qualify; as, five feet long, two feet broad, four feet thick, one yard deep, twenty feet high, seven years old, three miles distant, four thousand strong.

[*Note.* Some writers, affecting correctness, write *ever so* instead of *never so*, the ancient phrase; as, let it be *ever so* little. This is an error. The true phrase is, *never so* little. "If a neighbor offended them *never so* little." The meaning and construction is, "if a neighbor offend them *so little* as he *never* before offended them." This phrase was used by all good writers, till since the days of Addison and Swift; when it became offensive to some superficial critics, who rejected, without understanding it.]

[It is disputed whether *cotemporary* or *contemporary* is to be preferred. The ease of pronunciation, which is the guide in this case, always requires cotemporary.]

CRITICAL NOTES, BY Dr. LOWTH.

(1) "AND I persecuted this way unto *the* death." Acts xxi. 4. 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*, with-

out any article, agreeable to the original. See also 2 Chron. xxxii. 24.

"When He, the Spirit of truth is come, he will guide you into *all truth*." John xvi. 13. 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.

"Truly this was *the* Son of God," Matt. xxvii. 54. and Mark xv. 39. This translation supposes that the Roman Centurion had a proper and adequate notion of the character of Jesus, as the son of God in a peculiar and incommunicable sense; whereas, it is probable, both from the circumstances of history, and from the expression of the original, (*a* Son of God, or of *a* God, not *the* Son) that he only meant to acknowledge him to be an extraordinary person, and more than a mere man; according to his own notion of Sons of Gods in the Pagan theology. This is also more agreeable to St. Luke's account of the same confession of the centurion. "Certainly this was a righteous man;" not the Just One. The same may be observed of Nebuchadnezzar's words, Dan. iii. 25, "and the form of the fourth is like *the* Son of God;" it ought to be expressed by the indefinite article, like *a* Son of God, as Theodotian very properly renders it; that is, like an angel; according to Nebuchadnezzar's own account of it in the 28th verse. "Blessed be God, who hath sent his *angel* and delivered his servants." See also Luke xix. 9.

"Who breaks a butterfly upon a wheel?" Pope.

It ought to be *the* wheel; used as an instrument for the particular purpose of torturing criminals; as Shakespear,

"Let them pull all about mine ears; present me
Death on *the* wheel, or at wild horses heels."

"God almighty hath given reason to *a* man to be a light unto him." Hobbes, Elements of Law, Part I. chap. v. 12. It should rather be, "to man in general."

(2) The word *many* is taken collectively as a substantive.

"O thou fond *many*! with what loud applause
Did'st thou beat heav'n with blessing Bolingbroke,
Before he was what thou wouldst have him be!"
Shakespear, 2 Hen. IV.

But it will be hard to reconcile to any grammatical

propriety the following phrase: "*Many one* there *be*, that say of my soul, There is no help for him in his God." Ps. iii. 2.

"*How many a message* would he send?" Swift, verses on his own death.

"He would send *many a message*," is right: but the question *how* seems to destroy the unity, or collective nature of the idea; and therefore it ought to have been expressed, if the measure would have allowed of it, without the article in the plural number; "*how many messages*."

(3) "There were slain of them upon *a* three thousand men;" that is, to the number of three thousand. 1 Mac. iv. 15. "About *an* eight days;" that is, a space of eight days, Luke ix. 28. But the expression is obsolete, or at least vulgar; and we may add likewise, improper; for neither of these numbers has been reduced by use and convenience into one collective and compact idea, like *a hundred* and *a thousand*; each of which, like *a dozen*, or *a score*, we are accustomed equally to consider on certain occasions as a simple unity.

(4) "*Christ his* sake," in our liturgy, is a mistake either of the printers or of the compilers. "Nevertheless Asa *his* heart was perfect with the Lord." 1 Kings xv. 14. "To see whether Mordecai *his* matters would stand." Esther iii. 4.

(5) "It is very probable that this convocation was called, to clear some doubt, that King James might have had about the lawfulness of the Hollanders *their* throwing off the monarchy of Spain, and *their* withdrawing, for good and all, their allegiance to that crown." Wellwood's Memoirs, p. 31, 6th edition. In this sentence the pronominal adjective *their* is twice improperly added, the possessive case being sufficiently expressed without it.

(6) Some writers have used *ye* as the objective case plural of the pronoun of the second person, very improperly, and ungrammatically.

"The more shame for *ye*: holy men I thought *ye*." Shakespear. Henry VIII.

"But tyrants dread *ye*, lest your just decree,
Transfer the pow'r, and set the people free." Prior.

" His wrath, which one day will destroy *ye* both."
Milton, P. L. ii. 734.

Milton uses the same manner of expression in a few other places of his Paradise Lost, and more frequently in his Poems. It may perhaps be allowed in the Comic and Burlesque style, which often imitates a vulgar and incorrect pronunciation; as, " By the Lord I knew *ye*, as well as he that made *ye*." Shakespear, 1 Henry IV. But in the serious and solemn style, no authority is sufficient to justify so manifest a solecism.

The singular and plural form seem to be confounded in the following sentence: " Pass *ye* away, *thou* inhabitants of Sophir." Micah i. 11.

(7) *His self* and *their selves* were formerly in use even in the objective case after a preposition: " Every of us, each for *his self*, labored how to recover him." Sidney. " That they would willingly, and of *their selves*, endeavor to keep a perpetual chastity." Stat. 2 and 3. Ed. VI. ch. 21.

(8) Double comparatives and superlatives are improper:

" ———The Duke of Milan,
And his *more braver* daughter would control thee."
Shakespear, Tempest.

" After the *most straitest* sect of our religion, I lived a Pharisee." Acts xxvi. 5. So likewise adjectives, that have in themselves a superlative signification, admit not properly the superlative form superadded—" Whosoever of you will be *chiefest*, shall be servant of all." Mark x. 44. " One of the first and *chiefest* instances of prudence." Atterbury, Serm. IV. " While the *extremest* parts of the earth were meditating a submission." Ibid. I. 4.

" But first and *chiefest* with thee bring
Him that yon soars on golden wing,
Guiding the fiery wheeled throne,
The Cherub contemplation." Milton II. Penseroso.
" That on the sea's *extremest* border stood."
Add. Travels.

(9) *Worser* is barbarous.

" Changed to a *worser* shape thou canst not be."
Shakespear, 1 Hen. VI.

"A dreadful quiet felt, and *worser* far
Than arms, a sullen interval of war." Dryden.

(10) *Thou* in the polite, and even in the familiar style, is disused, and the plural *you* is employed instead of it; we say, *you have*, not *thou hast*. On the contrary the solemn style admits not of *you* for a single person. This hath led Mr. Pope into a great impropriety in the beginning of his Messiah:

——"O *thou* my voice inspire,
Who *touch'd* Isaiah's hallowed lips with fire!"

The solemnity of the style would not admit of *you* for *thou* in the pronoun: nor the measure of the verse *touchedst* or *didst touch*, in the verb, as it indispensably ought to be in the one or the other of these two forms; *you* who *touched*, or *thou* who *touchedst* or *didst touch*.

(11) *Hath* properly belongs to the serious and solemn style; *has* to the familiar. The same may be observed of *doth* and *does*.

"But confounded with thy art,
Inquires her name, that *has* her heart." Waller.
"The unwearied sun from day to day,
Does his Creator's power display." Addison.

The nature of the style as well as the harmony of the verses seems to require in these places *hath* and *doth*.

(12) The auxiliary verb *will* is always formed in the second and third persons singular, *wilt* and *will*; but the verb *to will*, not being an auxiliary, is formed regularly; I *will*, thou *willest*, he *willeth* or *wills*. "Thou that art the author and bestower of life, canst doubtless restore it if thou *will'st*, and when thou *will'st*; but whether thou *will'st* (wilt) please to restore it, or not, that thou alone knowest." Atterbury, Serm. I. 7.

(13) I doubt much of the propriety of the following examples: "The rules of our holy religion, from which we *are* infinitely *swerved*." Tillotson, vol. i. Serm. 27. "The whole obligation of that law and covenant, which God made with the Jews, *was* also *ceased*." Ibid. vol. ii. Serm. 52. Whose number *was* now *amounted* to three hundred." Swift's contest and dissentions, chap. iii. 'This mareschal upon some discontent *was entered* into a conspiracy against his master.' Addison, Freeholder,

No. 31. Neuter verbs are sometimes employed very improperly as actives; "*Go flee thee* away into the land of Judah." Amos vii. 12. "I think it by no means a fit and decent thing to *vie charities*, and erect the reputation of one upon the ruins of another." Atterbury, Ser. i. 2. "So many learned men, that have spent their whole time and pains, to *agree* the sacred with the profane chronology." Sir William Temple, Works, fol. vol. p. 296.

"How would *the gods* my righteous *toils succeed?*"
Pope, Odyss. xiv. 447.

——"If *Jove this arm succeed.*" Ibid. xxi. 291.

And active verbs are as improperly made neuter; as "I must *premise* with three circumstances." Swift, Queen Anne's last ministry, chap. ii. "Those that think to *ingratiate* with him, by calumniating me." Bentley, Dissert. on Phalaris, p. 159.

(14) *Rise*, with *i* short, hath been improperly used as the past time of this verb. "That form of the first, or primogenial earth which *rise* immediately out of chaos, was not the same, nor like to that of the present earth." Burner's Theory of the Earth, B. I. chap. 4. "If we hold fast to that scripture conclusion, that all mankind *rise* from one head." Ibid. B. II. chap. 7.

(15) Frequent mistakes are made in the formation of the participles of the verb *sit*. The anology plainly requires *sitten*; which was formerly in use: "The army having *sitten* there so long." "Which was enough to make him stir, that would not have *sitten* still, though Hannibal had been quiet." Raleigh. "That no parliament should be dissolved, till it had *sitten* five months." Hobbes, Hist. of Civil Wars, p. 257. But it is now almost wholly disused, the form of the past time *sat* having taken its place. "The court *was sat* before Sir Roger came." Addison, Spec. No. 122. Dr. Middleton hath, with great propriety, restored the true participle—"To have *sitten* on the heads of the apostles—to have *sitten* upon each of them." Works, vol. ii. p. 30.

(16) The neuter verb *lie*, is frequently considered with the verb active *to lay*, (that is, to *put* or *place*;) which is regular, and has in the past time and participle *layed* or *laid*.

"For him through hostile camps I bent my way,

For him, thus prostrate at thy feet I *lay*;
Large gifts proportioned to thy wrath I bear."
Pope, Iliad xxiv. 622.

Here *lay* is evidently used for the present time, instead of *lie*.

(17) *Overflown* used for *overflowed*.

"For rhyme in Greece or Rome was never known,
Till by barbarian deluges *o'erflown*." Roscom. Essay.

"Do not the Nile and the Niger make yearly inundations in our days, as they have formerly done? And are not the countries so *overflown* still situate between the tropics?"
Bentley's Sermons.

"Thus oft by mariners are shown
Earl Goodwin's castles *overflown*." Swift.

Here the participle of the irregular verb *to fly*, is confounded with that of the regular verb *to flow*. It ought to be in all these places *overflowed*.

(18) *Improper use of the past time for the participle*.

"He would *have spoke*." Milton, P. L. x. 517.
"Words *interwove* with sighs, found out their way."
P. L. i. 621
"Those kings and potentates who *have strove*."
Eiconoclast. xvii.
"And to his faithful servant *hath* in place
Bore witness gloriously." Samson Ag. ver. 1752.
"And envious darkness, ere they could return,
Had stole them from me." Comus, ver. 195.

Here it is observable, that the author's MS. and the first Edition, have it *stolen*.

"And in triumph *had rode*." P. R. iii. 36.
——"I *have chose*
This perfect man." P. R. i. 165.
"The fragrant briar *was wove* between." Dry. Fab.
"I will scarce think you *have swam* in a gondola."
Shakespear, As you like it.
"Then finish what you *have began*,
But scribble faster, if you can."
Dryden, Poems, vol. ii. p. 172.
"And now the years a numerous train *have ran*;
The blooming boy has ripened into man."
Pope's Odyss, xi. 555.

"*Have sprung.*" Atterbury, Serm. I. 4.

"*Had spake—Had begun.*" Clarendon, Contin. Hist. p. 40. and 120.

"The men *began* to embellish themselves."
Addison, Spect. No. 434.

"Rapt into future times the bard *begun*."
Pope, Messiah.

And without the necessity of rhyme:

"A second deluge learning thus *o'er run*,
And the Monks finish'd what the Goths *begun*."
Essay on Criticism.

(18) The formation of adverbs in general with the comparative and superlative terminations seem to be improper; at least, it is now become almost obsolete; as, "Touching things which generally are received—we are *hardliest* able to bring such proof of their certainty, as may satisfy gain-sayers." Hooker, B. V. 2. "Was the *easier* persuaded." Raleigh. "That he may the *stronglier* provide." Hobbes, Life of Thucyd. "The things *highliest* important to the growing age." Shaftesbury, Letter to Molesworth. "The question would not be, who loved himself, and who not; but who loved and served himself the *rightest*, and after the truest manner." Ib. Wit and Humour. It ought rather to be *most hardly*, *more easily*, *more strongly*, *most highly*, *most right* or *most rightly*. But these comparative abverds, however improper in prose, are sometimes allowed in poetry.

"Sceptre and pow'r thy giving, I assume;
And gladlier shall resign." Milton, P. L. vi. 731.

(20) The conjunction *because*, used to express the motive or end, is obsolete; as, "The multitude rebuked them, *because* they should hold their peace." Mat. xx. 31. "It is the case of some to contrive false periods of business, *because* they may seem men of dispatch." Bacon, Essay xxv. We should now make use of *that*.

(21) "Scotland and *thee* did each in over live."
Dryden, Poems, vol. II. p. 220

"We are alone; here's none but *thee* and I."
Shakespear, 2 Hen. VI.

It ought, in both places, to be *thou*; the nominative case to the verb expressed or understood.

(22) "But *thou* false Arcite, never *shall* obtain
Thy bad pretence." Dryden, Fables.
It ought to be *shalt*. The mistake seems to arise from the confounding of *thou* and *you*.

"Nor *thou* that flings me floundering from thy back."
Parnel, Battle of Frogs and Mice, I. 123.

"There's (there *are*) *two* or *three* of us have seen strange sights." Shakespear, Jul. Cæs.

"I have considered *what have* (hath) been said on both sides in this controversy." Tillot. vol. I. Ser. 27.

"One would think, there *was* more *Sophists* than one had a finger in this volume of letters. Bently, Dissert. on Socrates, Epist. sect. IX.

"The *number* of the names together *were* about an hundred and twenty." Acts i. 25. See also Job. xiv. 5.

"And Rebekah took goodly *raiment* of her eldest son Esau, *which were* with her in the house, and put *them* upon Jacob her youngest son." Gen. xxvii. 15.

(23) "To *see* so many *to make* so little conscience of so great a sin." Tillotson, Ser. I. 22. "It cannot but be a delightful spectacle to God and angels, to *see* a young person besieged by powerful temptations on either side, *to acquit* himself gloriously, and resolutely *to hold* out against the most violent assaults: to *behold* one in the prime and flower of his age, that is courted by pleasures and honors by the devil, and all the bewitching vanities of the world, *to reject* all these, and *to cleave* steadfastly unto God." Ib. Serm. 54. The impropriety of the phrases distinguished by Italic characters is evident. See Matth. xv. 3.

(24) Matth. xxiii. 5. The following sentences seem defective either in the construction or the order of the words; "Why do ye that, *which is not lawful to do* on the sabbath days?—The shew-bread *which is not lawful to eat* but for the priests alone." Luke vi. 2—4. The construction may be rectified, by supplying *it*; 'which *it* is not lawful to do: which *it* is not lawful to eat:' or the order of the words in this manner, *to do which, to eat which*, is not lawful; where the infinitive *to do*, *to eat*, does the office of the nominative case, and the relative *which* is in the objective case.

(25) " Here you may see, that visions are to *dread.*"
Dryden, Fables.

' I am not like other men, *to envy* the talents I cannot reach.' Tale of a Tub, Preface. ' Grammarians have denied, or at least *doubted them to be* genuine.' Congreve's Preface to Homer's Hymn to Venus. ' That all our doings may be ordered by thy governance, *to do* always that is righteous in thy sight.' Liturgy. The infinitive in these places seems to be improperly used.

(26) ' The burning lever *not deludes* his pains.'
Dryden, Ovid, Metam. B. xii.

' I hope, my Lord, said he, I *not offend.*'
Dryden, Fables.

These examples make the impropriety of placing the adverb *not* before the verb, very evident. Shakespear frequently places the negative before the verb:

' She *not denies* it.' Much ado.

——— ' For men
Can council, and give comfort to that grief,
Which they themselves *not feel.* Ibid.

It seems therefore as if this order of words had anciently been much in use, though now grown altogether obsolete.

(27) ' *Did* he not *fear* the Lord, and *besought* the Lord, and the Lord *repented* him of the evil which he had pronounced against them? Jer. xxvi. 19. Here the interrogative and explicative forms are confounded. It ought to be, ' did he not *fear* the Lord, and *beseech* the Lord? and *did not* the Lord *repent* him of the evil?' ' If a man have an hundred sheep, and one of them be gone astray, *doth* he *not leave* the ninety and nine, and *goeth* into the mountains and *seeketh* that which is gone astray? Mat. xviii. 12. It ought to be *go* and *seek*; that is, *doth* he *not go* and *seek* that which is gone astray?

(28) ' Let *each* esteem other better than *themselves.*' Phil. ii. 3. It ought to be *himself.* ' It is requisite that the language of an heroic poem should be both perspicuous and sublime. In proportion as *either* of these two qualities *are* (is) wanting, the language is imperfect.' Addison, Spect. No. 285. ' 'Tis observable that every *one* of the letters *bear* date after his banishment; and *contain*

a complete narrative of all his story afterwards.' Bentley, Diss. on Themistocles' epistles, Sect. ii. It ought to be *bears*, and *they contain*.

Either is often used improperly instead of *each*; as, 'The king of Israel, and Jehoshaphat king of Judah sat *either (each)* of them on his throne.' 2 Chron. xviii. 9. 'Nadab and Abihu, the sons of Aaron, took *either (each)* of them his censer.' Lev. x. 1. See also 1 Kings vii. 15. *Each* signifies *both* of them taken distinctly, or separately; *either* properly signifies *only the one or the other* of them, taken disjunctively. For which reason the like expression in the following passages seems also improper: 'They crucified two other with him, on *either* side one, and Jesus in the midst.' John xix. 18. 'Of *either* side of the river was there the tree of life.' Rev. xxii. 2. See also 1 Kings x. 19. 'Proposals for a truce between the ladies of *either* party.' Addison, Freeholder. Contents of No. 38.

(29) 'Forasmuch as it hath pleased Almighty God of his goodness to give you safe deliverance, and *hath preserved* you in the great danger of childbirth:' Liturgy. The verb *hath preserved*, hath here no nominative case; for it cannot be properly supplied by the preceding word, *God*, which is in the objective case. It ought to be, '*and he hath preserved* you;' or rather, '*and to preserve* you.' Some of our best writers have frequently fallen into this, which appears to me to be no small inaccuracy.

(30) '*Which rule*, if it had been observed, a neighboring prince would have warranted a great deal of that incense which has been offered up to him by the adorers.' Atterbury, Serm. I. 1. 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 manner of expression, however improper, is very common. It ought to be, 'If *this rule* had been observed, &c.' 'We have no better materials to compound the priesthood of, than the mass of mankind; *which*, corrupted as it is, those who receive orders must have some vices to leave behind them, when they enter into the church.' Swift, Sentiments of a Church of Englandman.

(31) This is commonly said, 'I *only* spake three words:' when the intention of the speaker manifestly requires, 'I spake *only* three words.'

'Her body shaded with a light cymarr,
Her bosom to the view was *only* bare.'
Dryden, Cymon and Ipigh.

The sense necessarily requires this order:
'Her bosom *only* to the view was bare.'

(32) Examples of impropriety in the use of the preposition. 'Your character, which I, or any other writer, may now value ourselves *by* (upon) drawing.' Swift, Letter on the English tongue. 'You have bestowed your favors *to* (upon) the most deserving persons.' Ibid. 'Upon such occasion as fell *into* (under) their cognizance.' Swift, Contests and Dissentions, &c. ch. ii. 'That variety of factions *into* (in) which we are still engaged.' Ibid. ch. v. 'To restore myself *into* (to) the good graces of my fair critics.' Dry. Preface to Aureng. 'Accused the ministers *for* (of) betraying the Dutch.' Swift, Four last years of the Queen, Book ii. 'Ovid, whom you accuse *for* (of) luxuriance of verse.' Dry. on Dram. Poesy. 'The people of England may congratulate *to* themselves that'—Dry. 'Something like this has been reproached *to* Tacitus.' Bolingbroke on History, vol. I. p. 136. 'He was made much *on* (of) at Argos.' 'He is so resolved *of* (on) going to the Persian court.' Bentley, Disser. on Themist. Epist. Sect. iii. 'Neither the one nor the other shall make me swerve *out of* (from) the path which I have traced to myself.' Bolingbroke, Letter to Wyndham, p. 252.

'And virgins smil'd at what they blush'd before.'
What they blush'd (at). Pope, Essay on Crit.

'They are now reconciled by a zeal for their cause, to what they could not be prompted (to) by a concern for their beauty.' Addison, Spect. No. 81: If policy can prevail *upon* (over) force.' Addison, Travels, p. 62. 'I do likewise dissent *with* (from) the Examiner.' Addison, Whig Exam. No. 1. 'Ye blind guides, *which* strain *at* a gnat and swallow a camel.' Mat. xxiii. 24. 'Which strain *out*, or take a gnat *out* of the liquor by straining it:' The impropriety of the preposition has wholly destroyed the meaning of the phrase. Observe also that the noun generally requires after it, the same preposition, as the verb from which it is formed: 'It was perfectly in compliance *to* (with) some persons, for whose opinion I have great deference.' Swift, Preface to Temple's Memoirs. 'Not

from any personal hatred to them, but in justification *to* (of) the best of Queens.' Swift, Examiner, No. 23. In the last example, the verb being transitive, and requiring the objective case, the noun formed from it seems to require the possessive case or its preposition after it. Or perhaps he meant to say, 'in *justice* to the best of Queens.'

(33) May not *me, thee, him, her, us*, which in Saxon are the dative cases of their respective pronouns, be considered as still continuing such in the English, and including, in their very form, the force of the propositions *to* and *for*? There are certainly some other phrases, which are to be resolved in this manner; 'Wo is *me*!' The phrase is pure Saxon: 'Wa is me: *me* is the dative case; In English, with the preposition, *to me*. So, '*methinks*;' Saxon, '*methinketh*.' 'As *us thoughte*:' Sir John Maundevylle. 'Wo worth the day?' Ezek. xxx. 2; that is, Wo be *to* the day. The word *worth* is not the adjective, but the Saxon verb *weorthan* or *worthan, fieri, to be, to become*; which is often used by Chaucer, and is still retained as an auxiliary verb in the German language.

(34) *That* hath been used in the same manner as including the relative *which*; but it is obsolete; as, 'To consider advisedly of *that* is moved.' Bacon, Essay xxii. 'We speak *that* we do know, and testify *that* we have seen.' John iii. 11.

(35) '*Who* instead of going about doing good *they* are perpetually intent upon doing mischief.' Tillotson, Serm. I. 8. The nominative case *they*, in this sentence, is superfluous: It was expressed before in the relative *who*.

(36) 'I am *the Lord that maketh* all things; *that stretcheth* forth the heavens alone:' Isaiah xliv. 24. Thus far is right: *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. It would have been equally right, If *I* had been made the antecedent, and the relative and the verb had agreed with it in the first person: *I* am the Lord *that make* all things. But when it follows, '*that spreadeth* abroad the earth by *myself*,' there arises a confusion of persons, and manifest solecism.

'*Thou* great First Cause, least understood!
Who all my sense *confin'd*

To know but this, that *thou art* good,
And that myself am blind;
Yet *gave* me in this dark estate,' &c. Pope. U. Prayer.

It ought to be *confinedst*, or *didst confine: gavest*, or *didst give*, &c. in the second person.

(37) 'Abuse on all he lov'd, or lov'd him, spread.'
Pope. Epist. to Arbuthnot.

That is, 'all *whom* he lov'd, or *who* lov'd him. Or to make it more easy by supplying a relative, that has no variation of cases, 'all *that* he lov'd, or *that* lov'd him. 'In the temper of mind he was then.' Addison, Spec. No. 549. In these and the like phrases, which are very common, there is an ellipsis both of the relative and the preposition; which would have been much better supplied; 'In the temper of mind *in which* he was then.'

(38) The connective parts of sentences are the most important of all, and require the greatest care and attention; for it is by these chiefly, that the train of thought, the course of reasoning, and the whole progress of the mind, in continued discourse of all kinds, is laid open; and on the right use of these, the perspicuity; that is the first and greatest beauty of style principally depends. Relatives and conjunctions are the instruments of connexion in discourse: It may be of use to point out some of the common inaccuracies that writers are apt to fall into with respect to them, and a few examples of faults, may perhaps be more instructive than any rules of propriety that can be given. Here, therefore, shall be added some further examples of inaccuracies in the use of relatives.

The relative placed before the antecedent; Example:

'The bodies, which we daily handle, make us perceive, that whilst they remain between *them*, they do by an unsurmountable force, hinder the approach of our *hands* that press them.' Locke, Essay, B. ii. C. 4. Sect. 1. Here the sense is suspended, and the sentence is unintelligible, till you get to the end of it; There is no antecedent to which the relative *them* can be referred, but *bodies*; but, 'whilst the bodies remain between the bodies, makes no sense at all. When you get to *hands*, the difficulty is cleared up, the sense helping out the construction. Yet there still remains an ambiguity in the relatives, *they*, *them*, which in number and person are equally applicable to *bodies* or

hands; this, though it may not here be the occasion of much obscurity, which is commonly the effect of it, yet it is always disagreeable and inelegant—as in the following examples:

'Men look with an evil eye, upon the good that is in others—and think that *their* reputation obscures *them*; and that *their* commendable qualities do stand in *their* light, and therefore *they* do what *they* can to cast a cloud over *them*, that the bright shinings of *their* virtues may not obscure *them*.' *Tillotson. Serm. I.* 42.

"The earl of Falmouth and Mr. Coventry were rivals *who* should have most influence with the Duke *who* loved the earl best, but thought the other the wiser man, *who* supported Pen, *who* disobliged all the courtiers, even against the Earl, *who* contemned Pen as a fellow of no sense."—*Clarenden, Cont. ft.* 264.

(39) The distributive conjunction *either*, is sometimes improperly used alone, instead of the simple disjunctive *or*; "Can the fig-tree bear olive berries? *either* a vine, figs." James iii. 12.—'Why beholdest thou the mote that is in thy brother's eye? *Either* how canst thou say to thy brother, Brother let me pull out the mote that is in thine eye; when thou thyself beholdest not the beam that is in thine own eye?'—*Luke vi.* 41, 42. *See also chap. xv.* 8; *and Phil. iii.* 12.

Neither is sometimes supposed to be included in its correspondent *nor*.

'Simois, *nor* Xanthus shall be wanting there.' *Dryden.*

Or is sometimes used instead of *nor*, after *neither*; 'This is another use, that in my opinion contributes rather to make a man learned than wise, and is *neither* capable of pleasing the understanding *or* imagination.' *Addison, Dial. I. on Medals.*

Neither for *nor*: *Neither* in this world, *neither* in the world to come.—*Matt. xii.* 32.

Too—, *that* improperly used as correspondent conjunctions: 'Whose characters are *too* profligate, *that* the managing of them should be of any consequence.' *Swift, Examiner, No.* 24. And *too*—, *than*: 'You that are a step higher than a philosopher, a divine; yet have *too* much grace and wit *than* to be a bishop.'—*Pope to Swift, Letter* 80. *So*—, *but*: If the appointing and ap-

portioning of penalties to crimes be not *so* properly a considerationof justice, *but rather* (as) of prudence in the lawgiver.'— *Tillotson, Serm. I.* 35.

CRITICAL NOTES, by Dr. Priestly.

(1) In several adjectives the termination *most* is used to express the superlative degrees; as *hindermost* or *hindmost; hithermost* (almost obsolete) *uphermost, undermost, nethermost, innermost, outermost*, or *utmost*.

(2) Several adverbs are used in an elegant manner, to answer the purpose of degrees of comparison. There is great beauty in the use of the word *rather*, to express a small degree, or excess of a quality. 'She is *rather* profuse in her expences.'—*Critical Review, No.* 90, *p.* 43.

(3) The word *full* is likewise used to express a small excess of any quality. Thus we say, the tea is *full* weak, or *full* strong; but this is only a colloquial phrase.

(4) The preposition *with* is also sometimes used in conversation, to express a degree of quality something less than the greatest; as, they are *with* the widest.

(5) In some cases we find substantives, without any alteration, used for adjectives. 'In the *flux condition* of human affairs.' *Bolingbroke on history, vol. I. p.* 199. 'A muslin flounce, made very full, would give a very agreeable *flirtation air*.'—*Pope*.—Chance companions. Of this kind are, an alabaster column, a silver tankard, a grammar school, and most other compound nouns.

(6) In speaking to children, we sometimes use the third person singular, instead of the second; as, will *he* or *she* do it. The Germans use the third person plural when they speak the most respectfully.

(7) The pronouns *you* and *your* are sometimes used with little regard to their proper meaning; for the speaker has just as much interest in the case as those he addresses. This style is ostentatious, and does not suit grave writing. 'Not only *your* men of more refined and solid parts and learning, but even *your* alchymist, and *your* fortune-teller, will discover the secrets of their art in Homer and Virgil.'—*Addison on Medals, p.* 82.

(8) For want of a sufficient variety of personal pronouns of the third person, and their possessives, our language

labors under an ambiguity, which is unknown in most others. 'The eagle killed the hen, and eat her in *her own* nest. He sent *him* to kill *his own* father.' Nothing but the sense of the preceding sentences, can determine what nest, the hen's, or the eagle's, is meant in the former of these examples; or whose father, his that gave the order, or his that was to execute it, in the latter.

(9) When the words are separated by other prepositions, there is, sometimes, the same ambiguity. 'He was taking a view from a window of St. Chad's Cathedral, in Litchfield, where (i. e.) *in which* a party of the royalists had fortified themselves.'—*Hume's Hist. vol. VI. p.* 449. Quere, was it in the cathedral, or in the town, that the party of royalists were fortified?

(10) The demonstrative *that*, is sometimes used very emphatically for *so much*. 'But the circulation of things, occasioned by commerce, is not of *that* moment as the transplantation which human nature itself has undergone.' *Spirit of nations, p.* 22.

(11) Sometimes this same pronoun is elegantly used for *so great* or *such a*. 'Some of them have gone to *that* height of extravagance, as to assert that performance had been immediately dictated by the Holy Ghost.—*Hume's Hist. vol. V. p.* 288. In these cases, however, it should seem, that the common construction is generally preferable.

(12) *What* is sometimes put for *all the*, or words nearly equivalent. '*What* appearances of worth afterwards succeeded, were drawn from thence.—*Internal policy of Great Britain, p.* 196. i. e. all the appearances.

(13) The pronoun *one* has a plural number, when it is used as a substantive. 'There are many whose waking thoughts are wholly employed in their sleeping *ones*.'—*Addison.*

(14) I shall here mention a remarkable ambiguity in the use of the word *one* when it is no pronoun. And it is such as, I think, cannot be avoided, except by a periphrasis, in any language. *I cannot find* one *of my books*. By these words I may either mean, that all the books are missing, or only one of them; but the tone of the voice with which they are spoken, will easily distinguish in this case.

(15) The word *none* has generally the force of a pronoun; as, 'Where are the books? I have *none* of them.' In this case it seems to be the same word with the adjective

no—for where *no* is used with the substantive, *none* is used without it; for we say, *I have no books*; or *I have none*. This word is used in a very peculiar sense. 'Israel would *none* of me.' 'I like *none* of it.' i. e. Would not have me at all; do not like it at all.

(16) There is a remarkable ambiguity in the negative adjective *no*—and I do not see how it can be remedied in any language. If I say, 'no laws are better than the English,' it is only my known sentiments that can inform a person whether I mean to praise or dispraise them.

(17) The word *so* has sometimes the same meaning with *also*, *likewise*, *the same*; or rather it is equivalent to the universal pronoun *le* in French. *They are happy, we are not* so, i. e. *not happy*.

(18) We want a conjunction adapted to a familiar style equivalent to *notwithstanding*. *For all that* seems to be too low and vulgar. 'A word it was in the mouth of every one, but *for all that*, as to its precise and definite idea, this may still be a secret.'—*Harris's three Treatises, p. 5.*

(19) *In regard that*, is solemn and antiquated; *because* would do much better in the following sentence. 'The French music is disliked by all other nations. It cannot be otherwise, *in regard that* the French prosody differs from every other country in Europe.'—*Smollet's Voltaire, vol. IX. p.* 306.

(20) *Except* is far preferable to *other than*. 'It admitted of no effectual cure *other than* amputation.'

(21) In using proper names, we generally have recourse to the adjective *one*, to particularize them. If I tell my friend, *I have seen one Mr. Roberts*, I suppose the Mr. Roberts that I mean, to be a stranger to him; whereas, if I say, *I have seen Mr. Roberts*, I suppose him to be a person well known. Nothing supposes greater notoriety than to call a person simply Mr. It is therefore, great presumption or affectation in a writer, to prefix his name in this manner to any performance, as if all the world were well acquainted with his name and merit.

(22) A nice distinction of the sense is sometimes made by the use or omission of the article *a*. If I say, *he behaved with a little reverence*, my meaning is positive. If I say, *he behaved with little reverence*, my meaning is negative; and these two are by no means the same, or to

be used in the same cases. By the former, I rather praise a person; by the latter, I dispraise him.

[23] For the sake of this distinction, which is a very useful one, we may better bear the seeming impropriety of this article *a* before nouns of number. When I say, *there were* few men *with him*, I speak diminutively, and mean to represent them as inconsiderable. Whereas, when I say, *there were a* few men *with him*, I evidently intend to make the most of them.

[24] Sometimes a nice distinction may be made in the sense by a regard to the position of the article only. When we say *half a crown*, we mean a piece of money of one half of the value of a crown; but when we say, *a half crown*, we mean a half crown piece, or a piece of metal of a certain size, figure, &c. Two shillings and sixpence is *half a crown* but not *a half crown*.

(25) The article *the* is often elegantly put, after the manner of the French for the pronoun possessive; as, 'he looks him full in *the* face,' i. e. in his face. 'That awful majesty, in whose presence they were to strike *the* forehead on the ground,' i. e. their foreheads.—*Ferguson on Civil Society, p.* 390.

(26) When a word is in such a state, as that it may, with very little impropriety, be considered, either as a proper, or a common name, the article *the* may be prefixed to it or not, at pleasure. '*The* Lord Darnly was the person in whom most men's wishes centered.' *Hume's History, vol. V. p.* 87. *Lord Darnly* would have read just as well; and this form is more common, the word *Lord* being generally considered as part of the proper name.

(27) 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. 'The combat *between* thirty Britons, *against* twenty English.'—*Smollet's Voltaire, vol. II. p.* 292.

(28) In some cases it is not possible to say to which of two prepositions the preference is to be given, as both are

used promiscuously, and custom has not decided in favor of either of them. We say, *expert* at, and *expert* in *a thing*. 'Expert at finding a remedy for his mistakes.' *Hume's History, vol. IV. p.* 417. We say, *disapproved* of, and *disapproved* by *a person*. 'Disapproved by our court.'—Swift. It is not improbable, but that, in time these different conjunctions may be appropriated to different uses. All languages furnish examples of this kind, and the English as many as any other.

(29) The force of a preposition is implied in some word, particularly in the word *home*. When we say, *he went home*, we mean to *his own house*; yet in other constructions, this same word requires a preposition; for we say *he went* from *home*. We say, *he is* at *home*, not *he is home*.

(30) Many writers affect to subjoin to any word the preposition with which it is compounded, or the idea of which it implies; in order to point out the relation of the words in a more distinct and definite manner, and to avoid the more indeterminate prepositions *of* and *to*; but general practice, and the idiom of the English tongue, seem to oppose the innovation. Thus many writers say *averse* from a *thing*. 'Averse *from* Venus.' *Pope*. 'The abhorrence *against* all other sects.' *Hume's History, vol.* 4. *p.* 34. But other writers use *averse* to *it*, which seems more truly English. '*Averse* to *any advice*.' *Swift*.

(31) Several of our modern writers have leaned to the French idiom in the use of the preposition *of*, by applying it where the French use *de*, though the English idiom would require another preposition, or no preposition at all in the case; but no writer has departed more from the genius of the English tongue in this respect than Mr. Hume. 'Richlieu profited *of* every circumstance, which the conjecture afforded.' *Hume's History, vol.* 4. *p.* 241. We say *profited by*. 'He remembered him *of* the fable.' *Ib. vol.* 5. *p.* 185. 'The great difficulty they find *of* fixing just sentiments.'—*Ib.* 'The king of England provided *of* every supply.' *Ib. vol.* 1. *p.* 206. In another place he writes. 'Provide them in food and raiment.—*Ib. vol.* 2. *p.* 65. The true English idiom seems to be *to provide* with *a thing*.

(32) It is agreeable to the same idiom, that *of* seems to be used instead of *for* in the following sentences. 'The

rain hath been falling *of* a long time. *Maupertuis's voyage.* 'It might perhaps have given me a greater taste *of* its antiquities.'—*Addison.* Of, in this place occasions a real ambiguity in the sense. *A taste* of a *thing*, implies actual enjoyment of it; but *a taste for it* only implies a capacity for enjoyment.

(33) In the following sentences, *on* or *upon* might very well be substituted for *of*. 'Was totally dependent *of* the Papal crown.'—*Hume's History.* 'Laid hold *of*.'—*Ib.* We also use *of* instead of *on* or *upon*, in the following familiar phrases, which occur chiefly in conversations; to *call of a person*, and *to wait* of *him*. *On* or *upon* is most correct.

(34) In some cases a regard to the French idiom hath taught us to substitute *of* for *in*. 'The great difficulty they found *of* fixing just sentiments.'—*Hume's History.* 'Curious *of* antiquities.'

(35) In a variety of cases, the preposition *of* seems to be superfluous in our language; and, in most of them, it has been derived to us from the French. Notwithstanding *of* the numerous panegyrics on the ancient English liberty.'

(36) *Of* is often ambiguous, and would oftener be perceived to be so, did not the sense of the rest of the passage in which it occurs prevent that inconvenience. *The attack of the English* naturally means *an attack made by the English, upon others*; but in the following sentence, it means an attack made upon the English. 'The two princes concerted the means of rendering ineffectual their common attack *of* the English.'

(37) *Of* is used in a particular sense in the phrase, *he is* of *age*; the meaning of which is, *he is arrived at what is deemed the age of manhood.*

(38) Agreeable to the Latin and French idioms, the preposition *to* is sometimes used in conjunction with such words as, in those languages, govern the dative case; but this construction does not seem to suit the English language. 'His servants ye are, *to* whom ye obey.'—*Romans.* 'And *to* their general's voice they soon obey'd.'

(39) *To* seems to be used instead of *for* in the following sentences. 'Deciding law-suits *to* the northern counties.' Hume's History. 'A great change *to* the better.' Hume's Essays. At least, *for* is more usual in this construction.

(40) *To* seems to be used improperly in the following sentences. 'His abhorrence *to* that superstitious figure.'

Hume's History, i. e. *of*. 'Thy prejudice *to* my cause.' Dryden, i. e. *against*. 'Consequent *to*.' *Locke, i. e. upon.*

(41) The place of the preposition *for*, might have been better supplied by other prepositions in the following sentences. 'The worship of this deity is extremely ridiculous, and therefore better *adapted for* the vulgar.' *Smollet's Voltaire*, i. e. *to*. 'To die *for* thirst, *Addison*, i. e. *of* or *by*. 'More than they *thought for*,' *(of.) D'Alembert.*

(42) The preposition *with* seems to be used where *to* would have been more proper in the following sentences. 'Reconciling himself *with* the king.'—*Hume's History.* 'Those things which have the greatest *resemblance with* each other, differ the most.'—*Smollet's Voltaire.*

(43) Other prepositions had better have been substituted for *with*, in the following sentences. 'Glad *with* (at) the sight of hostile blood.' *Dryden.* 'He has as much reason to be angry *with* you as *with* him.'—*Preceptor.*

(44) The preposition *with* and a personal pronoun, sometimes serve for a contraction of a clause of a sentence. 'The homunculus is endowed with the same locomotive powers and faculties *with* us.'—*Tristram Shandy*, i. e. *the same faculties with which we are endowed.*

(45) The preposition *on* or *upon* seems to be used improperly in the following sentences. I thank you for helping me to an use *(of a medal)* that perhaps I should not have *thought on (of.)*—*Addison.* 'Censorious *upon* all his brethren.' *Swift*, perhaps *of.*

(46) We say *to* depend upon *a thing*, but not *to* promise upon *it*. 'But this effect, we may safely say, no one could beforehand have *promised upon*.'—*Hume's History.* It might have been, *have promised themselves.*

(47) The preposition *in* is sometimes used where the French use their *en*, but where some other prepositions would be more agreeable to the English idiom. 'He made a point of honour *in* (of) not departing from his enterprise.'—*Hume's History.* To be liable *in* a compensation.' *Law Tracts.*

(48) The preposition *from* had better be changed in the following sentences. 'He acquits me *from* mine iniquity.' Job, better *of*. 'Could have profited *from* (by) repeated experiences.' *Hume's History.*

(49) *From* seems to be superfluous after *forbear*. 'He

could not forbear *from* appointing the Pope to be one of the godfathers.'—*Ibid.*

(50) The preposition *among* always implies a number of things; and, therefore, cannot be used in conjunction with the word *every*, which is in the singular number. 'Which is found *among every* species of liberty.'——*Hume.*

(51) Sometimes the word *all* is emphatically put after a number of particulars comprehended under it.

'Her fury, her despair, her every gesture,
Was nature's language *all*.'——*Voltaire.*

'Ambition, interest, glory, *all* concurred.'

Let. on Chiv.

(53) The word *such* is often placed after a number of particulars to which it particularly relates. 'The figures of discourse, the pointed antithesis, the unnatural conceit, the jingle of words; *such* false ornaments were not employed by early writers.'——*Hume's History.*

(54) The preposition *of* will not bear to be separated from the noun which it either precedes or follows, without a disagreeable effect. 'The ignorance of that age in mechanical arts, rendered *the progress* very slow, *of* this new invention.'—*Hume's History.*

(55) Little explanatory circumstances are particularly awkward between a genitive case, and the word which usually follows it. 'She began to extol the *farmer's*, as she called him, *excellent understanding*.'——*Harriet Watson.*

(56) It is a matter of indifference, with respect to the pronoun *one another*, whether the preposition *of* be placed between the two parts of it, or before them both. We may either say, *they were jealous* one of another, or *they were jealous* of one another.

NOTES AND REMARKS

Added to the Edition 1798.

INFINITIVE MODE. *See Rule* 13.

The infinitive mode may follow *as*. 'All the colors of poetry can never paint natural objects in such a manner *as to make* the description *(to)* be taken for a real landskip.' Hume's Es. vol. 2. 17 and 30.

It also follows *than*. 'To form monsters costs the imagination no more trouble *than to conceive* the most natural objects.—*Ibm. fl.* 18.

It also follows the disjunctives *either* and *or*.—'Abstract reasonings are employed, *either to assist* experience in the discovery of these laws, *or to determine* their influence on particular instances.'—*Ibm. fl.* 34.

It follows *so as*, 'If, by any contrivance or machinery, we can encrease the velocity of that force *so as to make* it an overmatch for its antagonist.' *Ibm.*

It follows *both* in this sentence. 'This answer we must endeavor, *both to explain* and to defend.'—*Ibm. fl.* 35.

It follows *which* also. We must find a rule by *which to decide* this case.

The infinitive may also be preceded by *not*; as *not to listen*, is uncivil.

Any.

The word *any* is often used alone, in the place of the noun to which it relates; and is then followed by *of*. 'When we reflect on *any of* those sensations:' That is any one sensation of those sensations.

Not *before verbs.*

Not followed by *only* may precede a verb, and this constitutes an exception to the rule laid down under Interrogative Sentences—page 67. 'Nothing may seem more unbounded than the thought of man, which *not only escapes* all human power and authority but is not even restrained within the limits of nature and reason.' *Hume Es. vol.* 2. *fl.* 18.

When the sense admits, these words may follow the verb in the usual form.

Not may also precede the verb in the infinitive; as *not to go*, is idle. And it often precedes participles; as he is *not attending*.

In interrogative sentences when a pronoun personal is used, the verb and the pronoun both precede the negation —as *was he not* there? But when the substantive is used, the negation is interposed between the verb and the noun —as was *not* the man present.

Nominative.

The rule that two nouns singular require a plural verb

is often dispensed with, even by good writers. 'The *mixture* and *composition* of these *belongs* alone to the mind and will.'——Hume, Es. vol. 2. 19.

'The *modesty* and *diffidence* of true genius *was* united with the ardent enthusiasm of a projector.' Robert. Hist. Amer. vol. I. 66.

It may be said, in vindication of this practice, that the two words are synonymous and the *unity* of idea admits a verb in the *singular* number. It appears to me more rational to account for the practice on the proper idiom of the language. The more easy mode of explaining the practice, is by resolving the compound sentence into its parts, and considering the verb expressed as belonging to one simple member, and the same verb implied, as belonging to each of the other members. Thus in the latter sentence above *modesty was united*, and *diffidence was united*, are the two sentences expressed at large. In this view of the subject, it can hardly be called *bad* English, to use a singular verb after two nouns singular.

The word *as*, commonly called an *adverb* or *conjunction*, is often more properly a *relative pronoun*. It is often the nominative case to verbs and in both numbers. 'Our thoughts or ideas resolve themselves into such simple ideas *as* were copied from a precedent feeling or sentiment.' Hume, Es. Vol. 2. 19. 'It lies not merely in any peculiar idea, which is annexed to such a conception *as* commands our assent.' Ibm. 51.

That is sometimes classed among conjunctions. But if we examine the structure of our language we shall find *that* always a relative. Sometimes it refers to a noun—sometimes to a sentence—but always to one or the other. I heard *that* he went to Paris.—In this sentence *that* refers to the whole member of the sentence which follows —he went to Paris—I heard *that*.

In some phrases, the nominative is omitted—'To what purpose *collect* arguments?' Where the words *should we* or others similar, seem to be implied.

The word *utmost* is often used as a noun and the nominative to a verb; as are also, *most* and *least*. 'The *utmost* that can be expected—the *most* or *least* that can be inferred from it, *is*, that he firmly believed.'

'Let them appear in their true colors, *just* as they exist.' Is *just* here an adjective, or an adverb? It is an adjective, qualifying the adverb *as*. *As* denotes here the *manner* of existing—*Just* is prefixed to describe that manner more precisely. See Remarks 7 and 8, under Rule 4.

'Go a little farther. What is *little* in that sentence? If an adjective, does it not refer to and qualify an *adverb*? 'It feels *very differently*.' Hume, Es. 2. 5. Does not *very* here qualify an adverb? And is not *very* an adjective?

'It is *worth* five dollars.' Is *worth* here a noun or an adjective? It denotes value, and the sum at which the thing is valued immediately follows it.

'Having admitted that the jury not only *acted like just* men towards the Bishops, but as patriot citizens towards their country.'—Erskine's arguments for rights of Juries in the case of the Bishop of St. Asaph, Stockdale's trial, p. 115.—Here we find, and we always find in similar phrases, the adjective *like* after the verb *act*. 'He acted *like* an honest man.' This phrase is analogous to the following—'He went *agreeable* to promise. *Antecedent* to this period, it was resolved by the house.' The adjective in all such cases is preferable to the adverb. See the Note on Remark 6, Rule 4.

Bases is used as the plural of *basis*; and *proboscees* as plural of *proboscis*.

'A criminal *intention need* not be proved.'

Stockdale's trial, p. 118.

Dr. Johnson, not observing the distinction between *need* when an *auxiliary* and a *principal* verb, very awkwardly uses *needs* in phrases similar to the foregoing: but the sentence just quoted is correct.

'He offered up a solemn *thanks* to Almighty God.' Robert. Amer. Vol. I. 109. *Thanks* is here used as in the singular number; but the omission of *a* would have been preferable.

Auxiliary.

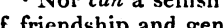
Short members of a sentence are often placed between the auxiliary and the verb. 'The two following arguments will, *I trust*, be sufficient.'

The nominative follows the auxiliary in these phrases. *So* must *we* also esteem the man who does justice—*In*

vain should *we* pretend to determine this question—*Illiberal* would *it* be in the last degree.

In these and many similar phrases, it rests wholly with the writer to vary the natural order of the sentence, and place at the head of it, any word, more emphatical than the nominative. This change in the order of arrangement often gives to the sentence force and variety.

The auxiliary is often separated at great distance from the principal verb. 'Nor *can* a selfish heart easily *conceive* the heights of friendship and generosity.'



ELLIPSIS.

Ellipsis is the elegant omission of a word or words in a sentence.

This figure, judiciously managed, renders language concise, without obscuring the sense.

Examples.

True Construction.

1. God will reward the righteous, and *God* will punish the wicked.

Nominative omitted.

God will reward the righteous and punish the wicked.

True Construction.

2. Give your heart to your Maker—*give* honor to your parents—and *give* your bosom to your friend.

Verb omitted.

Give your heart to your Maker—honor to your parents—and your bosom to your friend.

True Construction.

3. Here is the virtue *which* I admire, and *which* I will endeavor to imitate.

Relative omitted.

Here is the virtue I admire and will endeavour to imitate.

TRANSPOSITION.

Transposition or inversion, is the placing of words out of their natural order.

The order of words is either *natural* or *artificial*.

The *natural* order of words in a sentence is when they follow each other in the same manner as the conceptions of the mind.

Artificial order is when words are so arranged as to render the sentence harmonious and agreeable to the ear, without obscuring the sense.

EXAMPLES *in* PROSE.

Natural Order.

'We hear daily complaints of depopulation, in every great state where the people are sunk into voluptuousness, by prosperity and opulence.'

Artificial Order.

In every great state, where the people, by prosperity and opulence, are sunk into voluptuousness, we hear daily complaints of depopulation.

In the foregoing example, the *artificial* order of the words, is as perspicuous as the *natural*, and more elegant and harmonious. But when an inversion serves to embarrass a period, it ought to be avoided, for perspicuity ought not to be sacrificed to any other ornament.

The following example appears to be faulty in this respect. 'Now from these evils, the love of letters, with that liberal cast of thought which they are naturally calculated to give, would, I am persuaded, be one powerful preservative.' *Fordyce, Serm.* 8.

Corrected.

I am persuaded that the love of letters, with that liberal cast of thought which they are naturally calculated to give, would be one powerful preservative from these evils.

POETRY.

Inverted Order.

'Or southward far extend thy wond'ring eyes,
Where fertile streams the garden'd vales divide;
And mid the peopled fields distinguish'd rise
Virginian towers and Charleston's spiry pride.'
Elegy on the Times.

Natural Order.

Or extend thy wondering eyes far southward, where fertile streams divide the gardened vales; and Virginian towers and Charleston's spiry pride rise distinguished amid the peopled fields.

ARRANGEMENT.

As the principal object to be considered in any composition, whether prose or verse, is perspicuity, and as this depends much on a proper arrangement of the members of a period; it is necessary to lay down some general rules with respect to this point, and illustrate their propriety by examples of wrong arrangement.

1. Words expressing ideas that are connected in the mind, ought to be placed as near together as possible.

The want of such connexion is obvious in the following examples.

'For the English are naturally fanciful, and very often disposed by *that gloominess of temper which is so frequent in our nation*, to many wild notions, and visions, to which others are not liable. *Spect. No.* 419.

Corrected.

For the English are naturally fanciful, and by that gloominess of temper which is so frequent in our nation, are very often disposed to many wild notions and visions to which others are not so liable.

'The same Lucumo, having afterwards attained the crown, with the name of Tarquin the ancient, *by the favour of the people*, did, that he might preserve their affection, choose out of their order, a hundred Senators,' &c.

'The same Lucumo having afterwards, by the favour of the people, attained the crown, which the name of Tarquin the ancient, did,' &c.—Vertot.

2. A circumstance ought not to be placed between two capital members of a period; for this renders it doubtful, to which of the two members, the circumstance belongs. Witness the following example.

'Since this is too much to ask of freemen, nay of slaves, *if his expectations be not answered*, shall he form a lasting division upon such transient motives?——*Bolingbroke.*

Corrected.

Since this is too much to ask of freemen, nay of slaves, shall he, if his expectations be not answered, form a lasting division upon such transient motives?

In this example it is doubtful, whether the circumstance in Italic, belongs to the first or last member of the period: in the correction the ambiguity is removed.

3. A circumstance should be placed near the beginning of a period, rather than at or near the conclusion. The mind passes with pleasure from small to great objects: but the transition from great to small is disagreeable. For this reason the closing member of a period ought to be the most important.

In this respect the following examples are exceptionable.

And although they may be, and too often are drawn, by the temptations of youth and the opportunities of a large fortune, into some irregularities, *when they come forward into the world*; it is ever with reluctance, and compunction of mind, because their bias to virtue continues.—*Intelligencer, No.* 9.

'And although, when they come forward into the world, they may be, and too often are drawn, by the temptations of youth, and the opportunities of a large fortune, into some irregularities; it is ever with reluctance, and compunction of mind, because their bias to virtue continues.'

In this example, the circumstance in Italics is placed too late in the period, and renders the first division of it flat and unimportant; in the correction, the circumstance is placed in the beginning of the period, and its harmony and dignity are not afterwards interrupted.

4. A number of circumstances ought not to be crowded together, but interspersed among the capital members of a period.

Example.

'It is likewise urged that there are, by computation, in this kingdom, above 10,000 persons, whose revenues.' &c.——Swift.

Corrected.

It is likewise urged that, in this kingdom, there are, by computation, above 10,000 persons, whose revenues.' &c.

The two circumstances *by computation*, and *in this kingdom*, placed together, destroy the clearness and beauty of this period.

'They beheld, *with wonder*, *at court*, a young lady so intelligent, and who spoke the ancient languages with no less purity than grace.'——*Essay on Women.*

'They beheld with wonder, a young lady at court, who was so intelligent and spoke the ancient languages with no less purity than grace.'

Perhaps the best arrangement would be, 'With wonder they beheld,' &c. 'In England we met with the three Seymours, sisters, nieces to a king and daughters to a protector, all celebrated for their learning, and for their elegant Latin verses, which were translated and repeated all over Europe. Jane Gray, whose elevation to the throne was only a step to the scaffold, and who read, *before her death*, in *Greek*, Plato's dialogue on the immortality of the soul.'

One would imagine by the situation of the two circumstances, *before her death*, and *in Greek*, that her death was in Greek: It ought to be, 'who, before her death, read in Greek,' &c. The ellipsis also in the beginning of the period, rather serves to obscure the sense. 'The three Seymours *who were* sisters,' &c. would be more perspicuous. Perhaps the greatest fault in Mr. Russel's style, is, a too frequent use of the ellipsis.

5. A pronoun ought to stand as near to its antecedent as possible. A wide separation of words so intimately connected, often renders the sense ambiguous.

'It is the custom of the Mahometans, if they see any printed or written paper upon the *ground*, to take *it* up and lay it aside carefully, as not knowing but it may contain some piece of their Alcoran.' Spect. No. 85.

'It is the custom of the Mahometans, if they see, upon the ground, any printed or written *paper*, to take *it* up and lay it aside carefully,' &c.

In this example, the construction of the sentence, leads us to imagine that the pronoun *it* refers to *ground*; whereas, its antecedent is *paper*; and the nearer these stand to each other, the more easily does the mind comprehend the meaning of the author.

6. The members of a period ought if possible to be so arranged, that the mind will easily comprehend the meaning and the connexion as fast as the eye surveys the words. A suspension of thought, till the close of a period, is painful and embarrassing to the understanding. Witness the following

Examples.

'*She* again, who should not perceive herself prompted to a prudent and amiable demeanor, or guarded against the contrary, by those pictures of discretion and excellence on one hand, and of levity and worthlessness on the other, with which sentimental and moral writers abound, *must* be absolutely void of decency and reflection.'

Fordyce, Ser. 3d.

Corrected.

'She again must be absolutely void of decency and reflection, who should not perceive herself prompted to a prudent and amiable demeanor, or guarded against the contrary, by those pictures of discretion and excellence on one hand, and of levity and worthlessness on the other, with which sentimental and moral writers abound.'

In this example, the first word *she* is intimately connected with the last member of the period *must be*, &c. and it is a task too painful for the mind to retain the first word till it arrives at the close, and at the same time comprehend the meaning of the intervening circumstances.

The arrangement in the correction renders the period smooth and perspicuous.

An elegant writer of the present day is guilty of the same fault, in the following example:

'The burning ardors and the tormenting jealousies of the Seraglio and the Haram, which have reigned so long in Asia and Africa, and which, in the southern parts of Europe, have scarcely given way to the difference of religion and civil establishments, are found, however, with an abatement of heat in the climate, to be more easily changed in one latitude, into a temporary passion which engrosses the mind, without enfeebling it, and which excites to romantic achievments,' &c.—Ferguson's Essay on the History of Civil Society, Part 3, Sect. 1.

Here the capital members of the period, viz. *the burning ardors and the tormenting jealousies of the Seraglio and Haram, are found to be more easily changed into a temporary passion*, &c. are separated at such a great distance, and disjointed by such a number of intervening circumstances, as to perplex the reader, and fatigue his mind by closely attending to the connection of ideas.

It may be remarked, in general, that sentences ought not to close with *adverbs*, *relatives*, or *participles*. Little unimportant words; as, *to*, *for*, *with*, *it*, &c. close a period without force, and leave a feeble impression upon

the mind. Important words, such as *nouns*, *verbs*, *participles*, and *adjectives*, make the best figure in the conclusion of periods—they add dignity to the style, and energy to the sentiment.

PUNCTUATION.

Abridged from Dr. Lowth.

Punctuation is the art of making in writing the several pauses or rests between sentences, and the parts of sentences.

As the several articulate sounds, the syllables and words, of which sentences consist, are marked by letters, so the pauses, between sentences and their parts, are marked by points.

The different degrees of connexion between the parts of sentences, require a great variety of pauses of different lengths; yet, to express this variety, we use only four points. For this reason the doctrine of punctuation must necessarily be imperfect, and not reducible to precise rules.

But a few general remarks on this subject may be useful in directing the judgment of the learner.

The points used to mark the pauses between sentences and their several parts, are the period, colon, semicolon, and comma. The proportional quantity of time between these may be, as, six, four, two and one.

The period is the whole sentence complete in itself, wanting nothing to make a full and perfect sense, and not connected in construction with a subsequent sentence.

The colon or member, is a chief constructive part, or greater division of a sentence.

The semicolon or half member, is a less constructive part, or subdivision of a sentence or member.

A sentence or member is again subdivided into commas or segments, which are the least constructive sense of a sentence or member, in this way of considering it; for the next subdivision would be the resolution of it into phrases and words.

In order the more clearly to determine the proper application of the point which marks it, 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 proposition or sentence.

A simple sentence has but one subject, and one finite verb.

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.

In a sentence, the subject and the verb may be each of them accompanied with several adjuncts; as the object, the end, the circumstance of time, place and manner, and the like; and this either immediately or mediately; that is, by being connected with something which is connected with some other; and so on.

If the several adjuncts affect the subject or the verb in a different manner, they are only so many imperfect phrases; and the sentence is simple.

A simple sentence admits of no point by which it may be divided, or distinguished into parts.

If the several adjuncts affect the verb in the same manner, they may be resolved into so many simple sentences; the sentence then becomes compounded, and it must be divided into its parts by points.

For if there are several subjects belonging in the same manner to one verb, or several verbs belonging in the same manner to one subject, the subjects and verbs, are still to be accounted equal in number, for every verb must have its subject, and every subject its verb; and every one of the subject or verbs should or may have its point of distinction.

EXAMPLES.

'The passion for praise produces excellent effects in women of sense.—*Addison. Spect. No.* 73. In this sentence *passion* is the subject, and *produces* the verb: Each of which is accompanied and connected with its adjuncts. The subject is not passion in general, but a particular passion determined by its adjunct of specification, as we may call it, the passion *for praise*. So likewise the verb is immediately connected with its object *excellent effects*; and mediately, that is, by the intervention of the word *effects*, with *women*, the subject in which these effects are produced; which again is connected with its adjunct of specification, for it is not meant of women in general, but of women *of sense* only. Lastly, it is to be observed, that the verb is connected with each of the several adjuncts in a different manner; namely, with *effects*, as the object: with *women*, as the subject of them; with *sense*, as the quality or characteristic of those women. The adjuncts therefore are only so many imperfect phrases: the sentence is a simple sentence, and admits of no points by which it may be distinguished into parts.

'The passion for praise, which is so very vehement in the fair sex, produces excellent effects in women of sense.' Here a new verb is introduced, accompanied with adjuncts of its own; and the subject is repeated by the relative pronoun *which*. It now becomes a compound sentence, made up of two simple sentences, one of which is inserted in the middle of the other; it must therefore be distinguished into its component parts by a point placed on each side of the additional sentence.

How many instances have we (in the fair sex) of chastity, fidelity, devotion? How many ladies distinguish themselves by the education of their children, care of their family and love of their husbands; which are the great qualities and achievements of woman kind; as the making of war, the carrying on of traffic, the administration of justice, are those by which men grow famous, and get themselves a name.'——Ibid.

In the first of these two sentences, the adjuncts *chastity*, *fidelity*, *devotion*, are connected with the verb by the word *instances* in the same manner, and in effect make so many distinct sentences: 'How many instances have we of chastity? How many instances have we of fidelity? How many instances have we of devotion?' They must therefore be separated from one another by a point. The same may be said of the adjuncts, 'education of their children,' &c. in the former part of the next sentence; as likewise of the several subjects, 'the making of war,' &c. in the latter part, which have in effect each their verb; for each of these 'is an achievement by which men grow famous.'

As sentences themselves are divided into simple and compound, so the members of sentences may be divided into simple and compound members: for whole sentences, whether compounded or uncompounded, may become members of other sentences, by means of some additional connexion.

Simple members of sentences, closely connected together in one compounded member, or sentence, are distinguished or separated by a comma; as in the forgeoing examples.

So likewise, the case absolute; nouns in apposition, when consisting of many terms: the participle with something depending on it, are to be distinguished by the comma; for they may be resolved into simple members.

When an address is made to a person, the noun, answering to the vocative case in Latin, is distinguished by a comma.

Examples.

'This said, he formed thee, Adam: thee, O man, dust of the ground.'

'Now morn, her rosy steps in th' eastern clime,
Advancing, sow'd the earth with orient pearl.'
Milton.

Two nouns, or two adjectives, connected by a single copulative or disjunctive, are not separated by a point : but when there are more than two, or where the conjunction is understood, they must be distinguished by a comma.

Simple members, connected by relatives and comparatives, are for the most part distinguished by a comma ; but when the members are short in comparative sentences, and when two members are closely connected by a relative, restraining the general notion of the antecedent to a particular sense, the pause becomes almost insensible, and the comma is better omitted.

EXAMPLES.

Raptures, transports, and ecstacies, are the rewards which they confer ; sighs and tears, prayers and broken hearts are the offerings which are paid to them.'

Addison, Ibid.

'Gods, partial, changeful, passionate, unjust,
Whose attributes were rage, revenge or lust.' Pope.

'What is sweeter than honey? and what is stronger than a lion ?'

A circumstance of importance, tho' no more than an imperfect phrase, may be set off with a comma on each side, to give it greater force and distinction.

EXAMPLE.

'The principle may be defective or faulty : but the consequences it produces are so good, that, for the benefit of mankind, it ought not to be extinguished.'

Addison, Ibid.

A member of a sentence, whether simple or compounded, that requires a greater pause than a comma, yet does not of itself make a complete sentence, but is followed by something closely depending on it, may be distinguished by a semicolon.

EXAMPLE.

'But as this passion for admiration, when it works according to reason, improves the beautiful part of our species in every thing that is laudible; so nothing is more destructive to them, when it is governed by vanity and folly.' Addison, Ibid.

Here the whole sentence is divided into two parts by the semicolon; each of which parts is a compounded member, divided into its simple members by the comma.

A member of a sentence, whether simple or compounded, which of itself would make a complete sentence, and so requires a greater pause than a semicolon, yet is followed by an accidental part, making a more full and perfect sense, may be distinguished by a colon.

EXAMPLES.

'Were all the books reduced to their quintessence, many a bulky author would make his appearance in a penny paper: There would be scarce any such a thing in nature as a folio: The works of an age would be contained on a few shelves: Not to mention millions of volumes, that would be utterly annihilated.' Addison, Spect. 124.

Here the whole sentence is divided into four parts by colons: The first and last of which, are compounded members, each divided by a comma; the second and third are simple members.

When a semicolon has preceded, and a greater pause is still necessary, a colon may be employed, though the sentence may be incomplete.

The colon is also commonly used, when an example or a speech is introduced.

When a sentence is so far perfectly finished, as not to be connected in construction with the following sentence, it is marked with a period.

In all cases the proportion of the several points in respect to one another, is rather to be regarded, than their supposed precise quantity, or proper office, when taken separately.

Besides the points, which mark the pauses in discourse, there are others which denote a different modulation of the voice in correspondence with the sense. These are

The interrogation point,	thus marked	?
The exclamation point,		!
The parenthesis,		()

The interrogation and exclamation points are sufficiently explained by their names: They 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 requires. They mark an elevation of the voice.

The parenthesis incloses, in the body of a sentence, a member inserted into it, which is neither necessary to the sense, nor at all affects the construction. It marks a moderate depression of the voice, with a pause greater than a comma.

An EXAMPLE

Of the various combinations of a principal verb, with the auxiliaries and participles, in the different modes and tenses, with a brief explanation of each.

The *first* person only is set down; the others may be supplied by the learner.

General Rules.

I. The auxiliary *have*, is used before the participle in *d*, *t* and *n*, commonly called the past or *perfect* participles. *Be* is used before all participles. The other help-

ing words are used only before the radical form of the verb. Thus,

Radical Form.		*Past Time.*	*Participles.*
Write		wrote	writing—written
I may			
I can		I am	
I do		I was	writing
I must		I have been	
I might	write		
I could			
I shall		It is	
I will		It was	written
I should		It has been	
I would		It will be	

II. The past time *wrote* must not be preceded by any helping word whatever.

III. When a helping verb precedes another verb, the helping verb only is varied; as, thou *mayest* go.

IV. When two or more helping verbs are used, the first only is varied; as thou *wouldest* have gone.

V. The *radical form* of the verb is that which admits before it the participle *to;* as, *to write, to love.* This constitutes the *Infinitive Mode.*

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present Time.

No. 1. To write; to love; to turn.

Explanation. This radical form of verbs expresses action or being in general, without limitation of person or number.

No. 2. To be writing.

Expl. This form or combination represents an action as *now* passing, or at some specified time.

Past Time.

No. 3. To have written.

Expl. This represents an action as past.

No. 4. To have been writing.

Expl. This expresses an action, as just past, or as passing, while some other thing was performing.

Note. The beginning of an action or preparation for it, is thus expressed: *I am about to write; I am going*

to write; I was or shall be about to write. This combination is, the verb *be* with *about* or *going* placed before the radical form of the verb.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

No. 5. I write, thou writest &c.

Expl. This speaks of a present action or fact; as, *it rains;* or of its existence in general without reference to time; as, *a man writes a good hand.*

No. 6. I am writing.

Expl. This marks the precise time of action: It denotes an action *now* performing.

No. 7. I do write.

Expl. This speaks of an action with certainty and emphasis. See the explanation of *do*, page 19.

No. 8. I may write.

Expl. This expresses *liberty* or *possibility.* When it expresses *possibility*, it seems to carry the sense of the *future* time; at least, it may be united with other words expressive of the future; as, *I may go to-morrow perhaps*, or *I may not go till the next day.*

No. 9. I can write.

Expl. This denotes the *power* of doing an action. Like *may*, it often refers to future time; as, *I can go to-morrow.*

No. 10. I must write.

Expl. This denotes some kind of necessity, natural or moral. It is used to express an indispensable duty.

No. 11. I may be writing.
No. 12. I can be writing.
No. 13. I shall be writing.

} These differ from the foregoing, only in marking more precisely the time of action.

No. 14. I should write.

Expl. This denotes a conditional event; as, *I should write if I had a conveyance.* But *should* with an emphasis, in the *first* person, and without emphasis in the 2d and 3d persons, generally, perhaps always, expresses *duty* or *obligation. You should go* is equivalent to *you ought to go.* When an emphasis is laid on *should* in the 2d and 3d persons, it implies an authority in the speaker to command, or a fixed determination; or rather it supposes that if the speaker had a right to command, he would

compel the second or third person to perform an act. *If I had the care of you*, you *should* go.

No. 15. I would write.

Expl. This expresses will or inclination under a condition. *I would write if I had paper.* With an emphasis on *would*, it denotes a more fixed determination.

No. 16. I might write.

Expl. This usually denotes a conditional *liberty* or *possibility* of doing an action.

No. 17. I could write.

Expl. This denotes a conditional power of doing an action.

Note. The words *would*, *might*, *could*, and sometimes *should*, are followed by a condition expressed or implied. I would write, *if* I had a conveyance; I might go, *if* I pleased. I could go, *if* I was well.

No. 18. I should be writing
No. 19. I would be writing
No. 20. I might be writing.
No. 21. I could be writing.

} mark the precise time of an action.

Past Time.

No. 22. I wrote. I turned.

Expl. This expresses an action completely past, and refers to some particular or specified period of time at any indefinite distance; as, *I wrote last week*, or, *I wrote to a man five years ago.*

No. 23. I was writing.

Expl. This refers, like No. 22, to some particular period of time past; but *did* is used to express emphasis or certainty. See the uses of *do*, page 19.

No. 24. I did write.

Expl. This declares the time of action, and usually speaks of an action which was passing during some other transaction; as, I was writing, when he came in.

No. 25. I have written.

Expl. This denotes an action perfectly past, and sometimes as lately past, but is very indefinite as to the particular time.*

* Nothing can be less correct than the distinction usually made between *I wrote*, and *I have written*. *Wrote*, say our Grammars, denotes an action *not completed*, nor

No. 26. I have been writing.

Expl. This denotes an action just past.

No. 27. I may have written.

Expl. This denotes a *possibility* that an action has been done.

No. 28. I may have been writing.

Expl. This expresses a *possibility* that an action has just been done.

No. 29. I must have written.

Expl. This expresses the necessity of an action past: or more generally the speaker's confidence that an action has been done.

No. 30. I must have been writing.

Expl. This denotes a similar necessity, or confidence that something has just been done or doing.

No. 31. I might write
No. 32. I might be writing
No. 33. I could write
No. 34. I could be writing
No. 35. I would write
No. 36. I would be writing
No. 37. I should write
No. 38. I should be writing

These are the same combinations, as those in the present tense; see No. 14. and onwards. But they are rarely used in past time except in *negative* and *interrogative* phrases. Yet on account of such phrases they are set down under this tense

No. 39. I might have written.

Expl. This expresses a past *liberty* or *possibility* of doing an action. *Might*, with emphasis expresses *liberty* or *right*; without emphasis, a bare *possibility*.

No. 40. I might have been writing.

Expl. This denotes the *liberty* or *possibilsty* of a man's doing an action during some other transaction.

No. 41. I could have written.

Expl. This expresses a *past* power of doing an action.

No. 42. I could have been writing.

Expl. This expresses a past power of doing an action, during some other transaction.

No. 43. I would have written.

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perfectly past—have written, an action *perfectly past*, I would ask them whether *I wrote and sent a letter a year ago*, does not express an action *perfectly past?* The true distinction is given in the text.

Expl. This denotes a past conditional intention or inclination to do and complete an action. An emphasis on would gives it the force of a fixed determination.

No. 44. I would have been writing.

Expl. This denotes a past intention to be doing an action during some other transaction.

No. 45. I should have written.

Expl. This denotes an intention or obligation to have done an action in time past. See No. 14, for the full explanation of *should*.

No. 46. I should have been writing.

Expl. *Should* may be explained as in No. 14, but this combination refers to an action during some other transaction.

No. 47. I had written.

Expl. This expresses that at some *particular time past*, an action was *then* past and complete.

No. 48. I had been writing.

Expl. This denotes that an action was just done, when something else took place.

Future Time.

No. 49. I will write, is a promise that an action shall be done.

Thou wilt or you will, He will write, } foretell an event.
We will write, is a promise.
Ye and you will, They will write } foretell an event.

No. 50. I will be writing, Thou wilt, you will, He will be writing. } this promises these foretell } that an action shall be doing, while something else is taking place.

We will be writing—promises
Ye and you will, They will } foretell } as above.

No. 51. I shall write, we shall write } these foretell
Thou shalt, you shall, and he shall write, Ye and you shall, They shall write } command or promise } that an action shall be done in future time.

No. 52. I shall, We shall, You shall, He shall, Ye shall, They shall } be writing } as above.

No. 53. I will have written, We will have written } promise that at a future time, an action shall be complete——— [not much used.]

You, He, Ye, They } will, have, written } These foretell that at a future time, an action will be done & complete.

No. 54. I will, We will } have been writing—not used.

You will, He will, Ye will, They will } have been writing } These foretell that at a specified time, an action will have continued and past.

No. 55. I shall, We shall } have written } foretell that at a future time, an action will be finished.

You, He, Ye, They } shall have written } command the same, but not much used.

No. 56. I shall, We shall } have been writing } foretell that an action will have just been done when something else shall take place.

You, He, Ye, They } shall have been writing, command the same, but not used.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

No. 57. Write, or write thou, or write you.

Note. After *if* expressed or implied, English verbs in the form of the *past* time, have the sense of the *present*; but with this peculiarity that the verb, *without* any word of negation, always implies a *negative*, and, *with* a word of negation, always implies an *affirmative*. Thus, "if I

had Virgil, I would read a passage," implies that I *have not* Virgil at the *present time*; "if it *did not* rain, I would go abroad," implies that it *does rain* at *this* time. This use of our verbs seems not to have been remarked by writers on this subject.

Combinations of the auxiliary *be* with other auxiliary verbs and participles, answering to the passive verb of the Greek and Latin.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

No. 58.	I am loved.	We are loved.
	Thou art loved.	Ye are loved.
	You are loved.	You are loved.
	He is loved.	They are loved.

Past Time.

No. 59. I was loved.
No. 60. I have been loved.
No. 61. I had been loved.

Future Time.

No. 62. I shall be loved.
No. 63. I will be loved.
No. 64. I shall have been loved.
No. 65. I will have been loved.

The following combinations are not represented by the Latin *passive verbs*, but have a passive sense.

Present Time.

No. 66. I may be loved.
No. 67. I can be loved.
No. 68. I must be loved.
No. 69. I would be loved.
No. 70. I should be loved.
No. 71. I could be loved.
No. 72. I might be loved.

Past Time.

No. 73. I must have been loved.
No. 74. I would have been loved.
No. 75. I should have been loved.
No. 76. I could have been loved.
No. 77. I might have been loved.

Practical Lessons.

In making English; the verb being set down in the radical form, and the *figures* referring to the tense or combi-

nation in the foregoing Example, in which the verb is to be formed by the learner.

1. I cherish 47 some aversion to names grown triteby repetition, and, on that account, evade 47 the ancient republics. But I find the observation just, that "half our learning is their epitaph." I conceive that the "moss grown" columns and broken arches of those once renowned empires are full of instruction, as were the groves of Lyceum or the school of Plato.

2. Let Greece then be the subject of a moment's reflection. When liberty flee 22 from the gloom of Egypt, she seek 22 out and settle 22 at infant Greece—there disseminate 22 the seeds of greatness—there lay 22 the groundwork of republican glory. Simplicity of manners, piety to the gods, generosity and courage were her earliest character. "Human nature shoot 22 wild and free."

3. Penetrated with a spirit of industry, her sons scarcely know 22 relaxation; even their sports were heroic. Hence that elevated, independent soul, that contempt of danger, that laudible bias to their country and its manners. Upon the banks of Eurota flourish 22 her principal state. Frugality of living and an avariee of time, were among the riches of Lacedæmon. Her maxims draw 59 from nature, and one was, "that nothing which bear 22 the name of Greek, bear 59 for slavery."

4. From this idea flow 22 an assistance to her sister states. From a like idea in her sister states, that friendship return 59 in grateful measure. This, if it continue, 47 form 43 the link of empire, the charm that unite 43 and make 43 Greece invulnerable. While it last 22 the joint efforts of her states render 22 her a name and a praise thro' the whole earth. And here, was it not for the sake of a lesson to my country, I not only drop 15 my eulogium of Greece, but draw 15 an impervious veil over her remaining history.

5. The tenfold luster of Greece, at this day blaze 39 to heaven if the union of her states hold 61 more sacred. But that union of her states, that cement of her existence, once impaired, the fury of civil discord blow 5 her accursed clarion. Those states which lately stand 22 in mighty concert, invincible, now breathe mutual jealousy, and fall piece-meal a prey of the common enemy. Attic wisdom, Theban hardihood, Spartan valor not combine 35 to save her.

6. That very army, which Greece breed 47 and nourish 47 to reduce the oriental pride, turn 58 vulture upon her own vitals—a parricide, the faction of a tyrant. Behold the great, the godlike Greece, with all her battlements and tower about her, borne headlong from her giddy height—the shame, the pity of the world!

7. In a free government, every citizen is a soldier. When his liberty invade 58 he resent 5 the violence, as an attack on his life. Hence in free states, there is no such thing as a perpetual standing army. Mercenary troops are the instruments of tyranny, and sooner or later entail 10 misery and servitude on the nations where they employ 58.

8. On the other hand, behold a brave yeomanry, all sinew and soul, who, having marched forth and defended their families and altars, return 6 in peace to till the fields their own arms, rescue 25. Such were the troops, who led on by the patriot Warren, give 22 the first home blow to our enemies. Such were the troops, who fired by Gates, in the northern woods, almost decide 22 the fate of nations.

9. Such were the troops, who under the great and amiable Lincoln, sustain 22 a siege in circumstances that rank him and them with the captains and soldiers of antiquity. Such, we trust, were the troops who, headed indeed by the gallant and judicious Morgan, vanquish 22 a chosen veteran band long dedicated to Mars and disciplined in blood. And such, we doubt not, were the troops who drive 22 the British legions from the Jersies, and ever since preserve 25 their own country, under the conduct of that superior man who combine 5 in quality the unshaken constancy of Cato, the triumphant delay of Fabius, and on occasion, the enterprizing spirit of Hannibal.

10. Let justice be done to our country—let justice be done to our great Leader; and, as the only means under heaven of our salvation, let his army be reinforced. This grand duty over, we once more adopt 49 an enthusiasm, sublime in itself, but still more so as coming from the lips of a first patriot. I have a most animating confidence that the present noble struggle for liberty terminative 49 gloriously for America.

Extracts from an Oration delivered at Boston, March 5, 1781, by the Hon. Thomas Dawes, Jun. Esq.

END OF THE SECOND PART.

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