

ENGLISH GRAMMAR

ADAPTED FOR

the Use of Dutch Students.

WITH NUMEROUS EXAMPLES TAKEN FROM
THE ENGLISH AND AMERICAN CLASSICAL AUTHORS
AND A FEW EXERCISES.

COMPILED BY

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DEVENTER,

A. J. VAN DEN SIGTENHORST.

1870.





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J. H. MEIJER'S
ENGLISH GRAMMAR
FOR
DUTCH STUDENTS.

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR

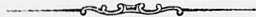
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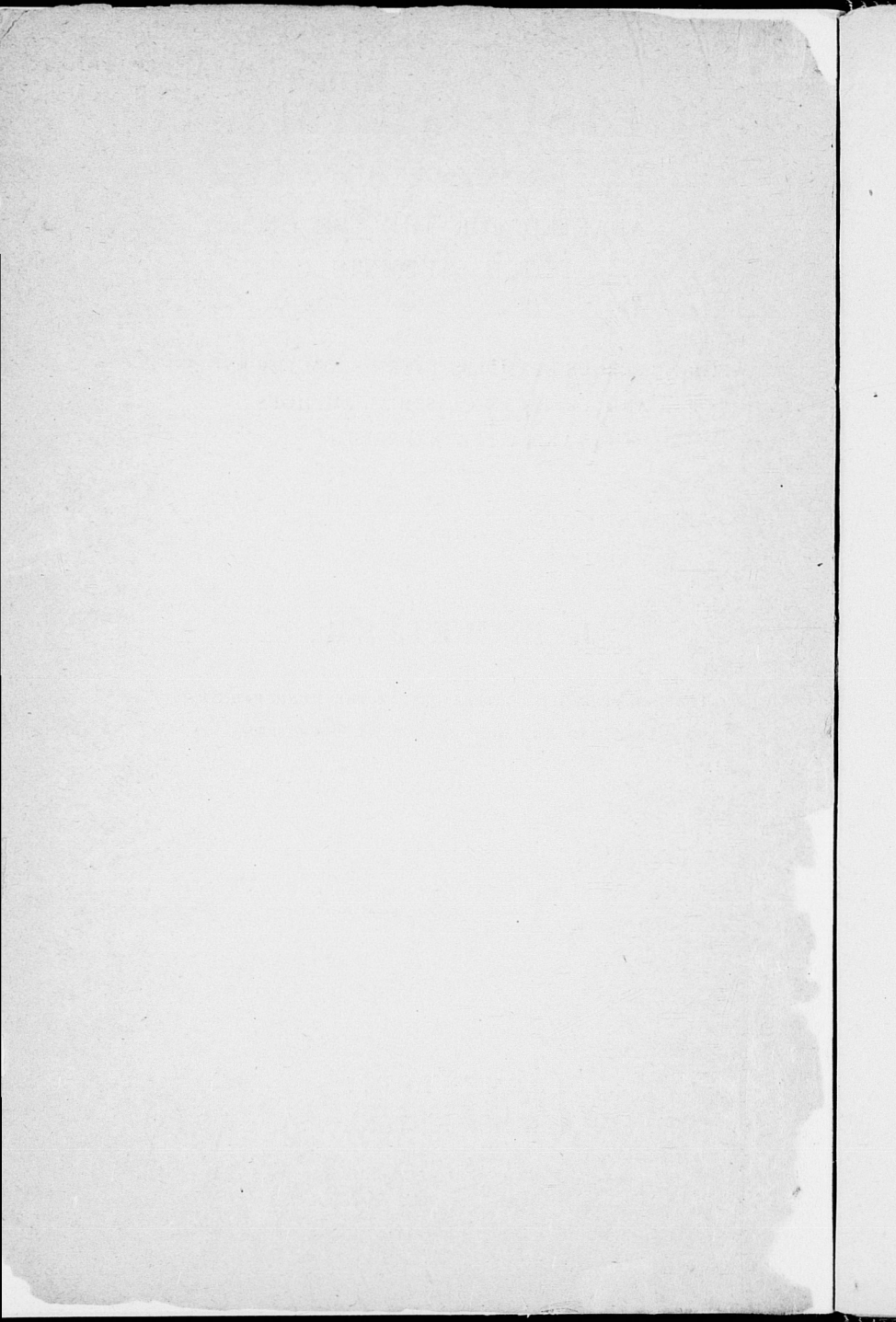
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P R E F A C E.

During many years' employment in giving instruction in English grammar, I have felt the necessity, especially for our Dutch pupils, to simplify and facilitate the study of it—or, in other words, to divest it of the difficulties with which it has been encumbered by the grammaticists.

As a matter of course our pupils should not only be taught to make tolerable translations, but in the first place to express themselves clearly and elegantly in the modern languages, which constitute a part of their daily studies, and I have always looked upon grammar as an excellent means of exercising their faculties in this respect.

The English language has the great advantage of bearing the stamp of the practical turn of the nation by whom it is spoken, but the greatest difficulties of it are innate to English pupils and are therefore generally either passed over in silence in English grammars, or treated so very superficially that our pupils never understand them sufficiently. If therefore it will be found that I have been rather explicit on the use of the *auxiliary verbs* and more especially of *will* and *shall*, that I have consecrated a long chapter to the *use of the different conjunctions*, I hope to have rendered this little volume the more acceptable by treating those subjects less superficially than is generally the case. Another observation which experience proved to me to be well founded is that an abstract rule is often easily committed to memory by a well chosen example. I

have therefore tried to illustrate every important rule by as many examples as I could gather among the most eminent authors, both ancient and modern and many of which have not hitherto appeared in any grammar.

The book is particularly intended for the upper classes of colleges and middle-class schools, where but little time can be given to practical exercises; I have on that account added a series of such exercises as may serve as a practical repetition of any part of the book.

More advanced pupils and such as have to prepare for any examination in the English language will find many subjects treated in it for which they will in vain look into other grammars of this size, and throughout the compilation of the book in which Mr. Sullivan's Grammar (57th Edition) has been a much valued assistance to me, I have exerted myself to make the study of English grammar as entertaining as the subject would allow.

May experience prove that I have not spent many years in preparing an ungrateful task!

DEVENTER, February 1870.

J. H. MEIJER.

LIST OF AUTHORS QUOTED IN THIS WORK.

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Sir Philip Sidney.

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Thomas Fuller.
Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon.
Jeremy Taylor.

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Joseph Hall.
Francis Beaumont.
John Fletcher
Philip Massinger.
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B. & F.

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Edmund Waller.
Samuel Butler.
Abraham Cowley.

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William Shenstone.
Thomas Gray.
William Collins.

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William Robertson.

William Cowper.

Oliver Goldsmith 1729—1771.

John Gillies.

James Macpherson.

Edmund Burke.

John Wolcot.

Edward Gibbon.

George Crabbe.

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Henry Mackenzie.

William Wordsworth.

Thomas Erskine.

James Montgomery.

Charles James Fox.

Henry Grattan.

Richard Brinsley Sheridan.

John Pinkerton.

William Pitt.

Ann Redcliffe.

James Mackintosh.

Edward Daniel Clarke.

John Lingard.

George Canning.

Sir Walter Scott 1771—1832.

Maria Edgeworth.

Samuel Taylor Coleridge.

Daniel O'Connell.

John Leyden.

Charles Lamb.

Robert Southey.

Robert Mudie.

Thomas Campbell.

Henry Lord Brougham.

Thomas Moore.

William Hazlitt.

Henry Kirke White.

Sir Robert Peele.

Lord Byron.

Frederick Marryat.

Percy Bysshe Shelley.

Thomas Carlyle.

Felicia Hemans.

William Carleton.

John Keats.

Henry Hallam.

Thomas Hood.

Isaac d'Israeli.

Thomas Babington Macaulay 1800—1859.

George P. R. James.

Laetitia Elizabeth Landon.

Robert Chambers.

Alfred Thennyson.

Edward Lytton Bulwer.

Samuel Warren.

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Washington Irving.

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John Lothrop Motley.

Robert Nicoll.

William Hickling Prescott.

James Fenimore Cooper.

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

	Page
Preface	I
List of the authors from whose works examples have been selected.	III
Table of contents.	V
Introduction	1
Grammar	1
Letters	2
Capital or head letters	3
Syllables.	4
Words	4
Division of words into syllables	5
Etymology	6
Article	6
Use of the article.	8
Repetition of the article.	13
Place of the article	14
Noun or substantive.	15
Number.	17
Gender	22
Case.	25
Adjective	31
Cardinal numbers.	43
Ordinal numbers	44
Fractions	44
Multiplicative numbers	45
Multiplicative adverbs of number.	45
Pronominal adjective	45
Repetition of the adjective.	46

Tobias Smollet 1721—1771.

William Robertson.

William Cowper.

Oliver Goldsmith 1729—1771.

John Gillies.

James Macpherson.

Edmund Burke.

John Wolcot.

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	Page
Preface	I
List of the authors from whose works examples have been selected.	III
Table of contents.	V
Introduction	1
Grammar	1
Letters	2
Capital or head letters	3
Syllables.	4
Words	4
Division of words into syllables	5
Etymology.	6
Article	6
Use of the article.	8
Repetition of the article.	13
Place of the article	14
Noun or substantive.	15
Number. *	17
Gender	22
Case.	25
Adjective	31
Cardinal numbers.	43
Ordinal numbers	44
Fractions	44
Multiplicative numbers	45
Multiplicative adverbs of number.	45
Pronominal adjective	45
Repetition of the adjective.	46

	Page
Place of the adjective	47
Pronouns	49
Personal pronouns	50
Relative "	52
Adjective "	56
Possessive "	56
Distributive "	59
Demonstrative "	60
Indefinite "	61
Verb	67
The agent or nominative of a verb	68
Tense or time of verb	70
Mood of verbs	73
Participles.	75
Conjugation of verbs	77
Irregular verbs	78
A complete list of irregular verbs	79
Conjugation of the verbs <i>be, have, do, shall, will, can, may,</i> <i>ought, must.</i>	87, 88, 89, 90
Compound tenses.	91
Emphatic form of conjugation.	93
Present-Perfect, Progressive	94
Negative form of conjugation.	97
Table of the simple and compound tenses of the English verb.	98
<i>To be</i>	98
Observations (on the auxiliary verb <i>to be</i>)	99
<i>Have. Do</i>	100
<i>Shall and will, should, would.</i>	101
<i>Can</i>	116
<i>May</i>	117
<i>Ought</i>	118
<i>Must</i>	119
The Dutch verb " <i>laten</i> "	119
Observations on the conjugation of the auxiliary verbs	120
Conjugation of an English verb according to the usual method-. Mood	122
The tenses	125
Participles	127
Conjugation of a regular verb (<i>to love</i>)	128

	Page
Table of the simple and compound tenses of the verb <i>to be</i> . . .	129
The simple and compound tenses of the verb <i>to have</i> . . .	130
Observations on the preceding tables, and suggestions for parsing the compound tenses	131
Adverb	132
Preposition	137
Examples of the use made of the prepositions by the best authors.	139
Two prepositions connected	153
Repetition of the preposition	154
Conjunction	154
Observations on some of the conjunctions	158
Observations (general).	162
Place of the conjunctions.	168
Ellipsis of the conjunctions	169
Interjection	171
Derivation	172
English or Saxon prefixes	173
Latin prefixes	174
Greek prefixes	176
Affixes or terminations	178
Affixes forming nouns.	178
Affixes forming adjectives	180
Affixes forming verbs	181
Affixes forming adverbs	181
English etymologies	181
Examples of derivative words formed from these roots by the first process of derivation	182
Examples of nouns formed from the past participles of verbs .	183
Examples formed by contraction from the obsolete third person singular of verbs	184
Examples of the interchange of kindred letters.	184
Long vowels usually shortened in derivatives	184
English derivatives to be traced to their roots.	185
Additional syntactical remarks and observations.	187
Ellipsis	203
Parsing	203
A form of parsing.	205
A sentence parsed	206

	Page
Sentences to be parsed	210
Connexion between grammar and logic	211
Practical exercises	213
Grammatical sentences.-Logical propositions.	214
Practical exercises	215
Analysis of sentences	216
Contracted sentences	219
Idioms and idiomatic phrases.	220
Adjectives used adverbially	226
Words difficult to be classed.	227
On the choice of prepositions	230
Figures of speech	232
Figures of orthography	233
Figures of Syntax	234
Figures of Rhetoric	237
Synonyms	240
Punctuation	243
The occasional marks in writing	244
Versification	245
Jambic Measures	247
Trochaic Measures	249
Anapestic Measures	250
Sentences to be corrected.	251
Dictation exercises on particular words	259
Miscellaneous dictation-exercises	264
Exercises on Synonyms	267
A Collection of words, alike in sound or nearly so but different in signification and spelling	269
Alphabetic list of abbreviations of words used for despatch in writing.	272
Alphabetical list of Familiar Proverbs, Maxims, Quotations and family Mottoes, frequently occurring in English and American authors	273
Errata.	276

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

INTRODUCTION.

1. Language or speech is the faculty by which mankind communicate their ideas.

2. Language is either **oral** or **written**. It is said to be *oral* when only *spoken*, as among barbarous nations; and *written*, when it is expressed by letters or artificial signs; as the *Hebrew, Greek, Latin, English, Dutch* etc.

3. The elements of spoken language are **articulate** sounds. The elements of written language are **characters** or **letters** representing articulate sounds.

4. Letters are formed into **syllables**, syllables into **words**, and words into **sentences**.

Grammar.

1. Grammar is the science of language and the art of speaking and writing with propriety.

2. English Grammar is the art of speaking and writing the English language with propriety.

3. Grammar is usually divided into four parts, viz. **Orthography, Etymology, Syntax** and **Prosody**.

4. **Orthography** teaches the forms and sounds of letters; and the correct method of spelling words.

Spelling is the art of expressing words by their proper letters, and of rightly dividing them into syllables.

5. **Etymology** treats of the derivation, classification and inflection of words.

6. **Syntax** treats of the proper arrangement and combination of words in **Sentences**.

7. **Prosody** treats of the accents and the pronunciation of words; and the laws of versification.

LETTERS.

1. A **letter** is a character or mark used in writing words.

2. The English Alphabet consists of twenty-six letters.

3. Formerly **i** and **j** were considered different forms of the same letter; and this was also the case with regard to **u** and **v**; and hence the English alphabet was said to consist of *twenty-four* letters *).

4. Letters are divided into **vowels** and **consonants**. The vowels are **a, e, i, o, u**; and **w** and **y** when they do not begin a word or syllable. All the other letters are consonants.

5. Except in the beginning of a word or syllable, **w** is another form of **u**, and **y** of **i**; and consequently **w** and **y** are in such positions **vowels**. Compare *pro***w** and *pro***u**, *vie***w** and *vie***u**, *try* and *tri*, *fly* and *files* etc.

6. The vowels are so called because they can be fully and perfectly sounded by themselves, or without the aid of any other letters.

7. The consonants are so called because they cannot be distinctly sounded without the aid of a vowel.

8. The consonants are divided into **mutes** and **semivowels**. The *mutes* cannot be sounded at all without the aid of a vowel. They are **b, p; d, t; k, q** and **c**, hard. The *semivowels* have an imperfect sound of themselves. They are **f, j, l, m, n, r, s**,

*) Hence the forms *Troja* and *Troia*, *iota* and *jota*, *halleluja* and *halleluiah*, *major* and *mayor*; and we have only to open any old book to find instances of the interchanges of **u** and **v**. The double **v** (formerly printed **vv** separately) is still called *double u*; and in the words *lieutenant* and *lieutenancy*, the **u** is generally considered to have acquired the sound of **v**.

v, x, z, and **c, g,** soft. Four of the semivowels namely **l, m, n, r,** are called **liquids** from their easily uniting with other consonants in the syllable.

9. Consonants are also divided (from the organs of speech chiefly employed in giving them utterance) into **labials, dentals, nasals, palatials** and **gutturals**. The *labials* are **b, p, f, v;** the *dentals* are **t, d, s, z;** the *nasals* are **m, n** and **ng;** the *palatials* are **j** and soft **q;** and the *gutturals* are **k, q** and **c** and **g** hard.

10. A **Diphthong** is the union of *two* vowels into one *sound* or syllable; as *ou* in *sound*.

11. A **Proper diphthong** is one in which *both* the vowels are sounded; as *ou* in *sound*.

12. The only diphthongs in the English language in which each vowel is distinctly heard, forming together one sound or syllable are **eu, oi, ou;** as in *feud, soil, ground*. The only **proper** diphthongs therefore are **eu, oi** and **ou**.

13. An **Improper diphthong** is one in which only *one* of the two vowels is sounded; as *ao* in *gaol, oa* in *boat*.

14. A **Triphthong** is the union of *three* vowels into one *sound;* as *ieu* in *adieu*.

CAPITAL OR HEAD LETTERS.

Words should begin with **capital** letters in the following situations: — 1. The first word of every sentence. 2. The first word of every line in poetry. 3. The first word of a formal or direct quotation. 4. The terms applied to the Supreme Being. 5. All proper names and adjectives derived from proper names, as *England, English*. 6. Common names personified; that is, used as proper names; as *O Death, where is thy sting? O Grave where is thy victory!* 7. The names of the months, as *June;* and of the days of the week, as *Thursday*. 8. Any important word as *the Revolution*. 9. The pronoun *I* and the interjection *O*. 10. The titles of books and the heads of their principal divisions; as *Young's Night Thoughts, Spalding, History of English Literature, Chapter II. The Age of the Protestant Reformation*.

Syllables.

1. A. **Syllable** is a distinct sound, produced by a single impulse of the voice; as *a*, *an*, *ant*, *aunt*. In every syllable there must be at least one vowel.

2. A. **Monosyllable** is a word of *one* syllable; as *tree*.

3. A. **Dissyllable** is a word of *two* syllables; as *love-ly*, *pear-tree*.

4. A. **Trisyllable** is a word of *three* syllables; as *love-li-ness*, *con-tent-ment*.

5. A. **Polysyllable** is a word of more than three syllables; as *phi-lo-so-phy*, *ac-ti-vi-ty*, *dis-in-ter-est-ed-ness*.

Words.

1. **Words** are articulate sounds, used as *signs* to convey our ideas. Words are either **primitive** or **derivative**, **simple** or **compound**.

2. A. **Primitive** word cannot be reduced or traced to any simpler word in the language; as *tree*, *book*, *sound*, *content*.

3. A. **Derivative** word can be reduced or traced in the language to another of greater simplicity; as *manly*, *goodness*, *contentment*.

4. A. **Simple** word is not compounded or combined with any other word; as *child*, *slate*, *horse*, *ink*.

5. A. **Compound** word is formed of two or more simple words joined together; as *horse-ship*, *walking stick*, *dancing-master*.

6. In many instances the two simple words have become completely incorporated, particularly when *monosyllabic*; as *always*, *therein*, *utmost*, *gunpowder*, *childhood*; in others they are usually connected by a hyphen; as *rail-way*, *watch-ribbon*, *piano-forte*. In all newly-formed compounds the hyphen is used; as *steam-engine*, *gun-cotton*.

Division of words into syllables.

1. The best general rule for dividing words into syllables is, to follow as closely as possible the divisions made by the organs of speech accurately pronouncing them.

2. When the pronunciation is either not known or not to be relied on, the following rules should be observed. Two vowels not forming a diphthong belong to separate syllables; as *gru-el*, *li-a-ble*. A diphthong preceding a vowel follows the same rule; as *roy-al*, *sew-er*.

3. A single consonant between two vowels should be joined to the latter; as *bri-dal*, *fa-vour*, *e-lo-quence*, *de-light*, *de-cide*. But in many derivative words, the intervening consonant must be joined to the former vowel; as *ab-use*, *up-on*. The letter *x* also between two vowels must be joined to the former; as *ox-en*, *prax-is*, *ex-ist*, *ver-a-tion*.

Observation. The mute *e* not forming a syllable in English can never be separated from the preceding consonant, nor can it ever constitute a syllable; as *peace*, *grace-ful*, *some-times*. If any letter be added to this mute *e*, a new syllable is formed, *place*, *pla-ces*; *time*, *ti-mes*.

4. Two consonants between two vowels should be separated; as *can-dor*, *con-cord*, *cur-nal*, *el-bow*, *mul-ti-form*, *ab-bey*, *pep-per*, *dag-ger*; except in cases in which it would be obviously improper to divide them; as *ta-ble*, *tri-ple*, *a-ble*, *ea-gle*, *re-sponse*, *de-prive*, *bro-ther*, *gra-phi-c*, *in-struc-tion*.

5. Compound and derivative words should be divided into the simple words of which they are composed; as *what-ever*, *un-even*, *dis-order*, *pen-knife*, *mis-lead*.

6. Grammatical endings or terminations are generally separated; as *broad-er*, *great-est*, *teach-ing*, *defend-ed*, *satisfy-ing*. Exceptions on this rule form such words in the composition of which enters a mute *e*; as *shi-ning*, *ha-ted*, *fi-nest*, (*shine*, *hate*, *fine*).

7. The terminations *cial*, *cian*, *cious*, *tious*, *tial*, *sion*, and *tion* should not be divided, because these combinations con-

stitute but *one* sound or syllable; as in *pro-vin-cial*, *di-ver-sion*.

8. In the body of a word *gn* is always separated; as *mag-net*, *mag-ni-tude*.

Etymology.

1. **Etymology** treats of the derivation, classification, and inflection of words.

2. Etymology teaches the derivation or deduction of one word from another, and the various modifications by which the meaning of the same word is diversified. Etymology therefore, treats of the several kinds or classes of words and the inflections or changes which they undergo; as the declension of nouns, the comparison of adjectives and the conjugation of verbs.

3. There are nine sorts of words or **Parts of Speech** viz. **Article, Noun, or Substantive, Adjective, Pronoun, Verb, Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction, and Interjection.**

Article.

1. An **Article** is a word placed before a noun to show whether it is used in a particular or general sense.

Thus when we say — "*Wheat is good for man and grass for sheep.*" we speak generally; but when we say: *The wheat looks well, but the grass looks thin,*" we mean some particular field or portion of wheat and grass. Nouns, therefore, which express the whole of any species do not in general take the definite article: and hence, as it is said, a noun used without an article to limit it, is taken in its widest sense; as "*man is mortal*" that is *all* mankind. And it is for a similar reason that **Proper** nouns are used without articles. As there is only one city called "*Rotterdam*" for instance, we never say *a Rotterdam* or *the Rotterdam*. In fact if every thing in nature had a name for itself — that is a proper name — there would be no necessity for *articles*.

6. There are two articles, namely **The** and **A** or **An**. *A* becomes **an** before a vowel or an *h* mute; as *a bird*, *an old bird*; *a history*, *an (h)istorical account*.

7. Strictly speaking the *n* has been retained in such cases, for the original form is *an*, which modern usage has abbreviated to *a*. The *n* is inserted in such cases to prevent what is called a *hiatus*, or the disagreeable sound produced by the meeting of two vowels. Hence when a word begins with an *aspirated* vowel, there is no necessity to insert the *n*; as *a University*, *a euphony*, *a ewe*, *many a one*, *a one-pound note*.

8. *An* is generally used before a word beginning with *h* sounded, when the accent is on the second syllable; as *an heroic action*, *an historical event*, *an hereditary claim*.

9. The words beginning with silent *h* are (*h*)*eir*, (*h*)*erb*, (*h*)*onest*, (*h*)*onor*, (*h*)*ospital*, (*h*)*ostler*, (*h*)*our*, (*h*)*umour*, (*h*)*umble* and their derivatives.

10. *The* is called the **definite** article, because it *defines* or particularizes the noun to which it is prefixed. Thus when I say "*show me the pen*," I mean some particular pen, and not *any* pen, which would have been my meaning if I had said, "*show me a pen*."

11. *A* or *An* is called the **indefinite** article because it is used in an indefinite or general sense; as in the latter example.

12. *The* is used before nouns both in the singular and the plural number.

13. In its original sense *a* is *definite*, because it signifies *one*; as in the proverb, "*A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush*;" and also in the old Scottish saying, "*Better to have nae child than ae (one) child*". But, in its usual sense, it is *indefinite*, because it does not denote *one* in contradistinction to *two* or more, but rather the *species* of the noun to which it is prefixed. "*A child should obey its parents*", does not mean *one* child, nor does *a* in the sentence, "*I am a man and feel for all mankind*", mean *one* man. It is the *species* that is meant, as is still more evident in the following sentence, *It is a horse, and not a man, you should get to carry this load*.

14. As the proper signification of *an* is *one* it cannot be prefixed to nouns which are in the plural number, that is,

which express *more* than one. But in such phrases as the following, which have evidently a collective signification, it may be used; as, *Only a few persons came, though a great many were expected.*

15. *The* is closely allied to the demonstrative *that*. "*Thou art the man,*" and "*Thou art that man*" are nearly equivalent in meaning. So also "*The stone which the builders rejected*" and "*that stone which the builders rejected.*" There is however an essential difference between *the* and *that*; the former cannot be used without having the noun to which it refers expressed, but the latter can stand alone, and in fact, supply the place of its noun. We can say either "*Do that thing and you will oblige me,*" or "*do that and you will oblige me.*" But though we could substitute *the* for *that* in the first example, we could not do so in the second.

16. *The* is sometimes used before adverbs in the comparative degree; as, *The more I know of him, the better I like him.*

Use of the article.

17. When an *article* is prefixed to a *proper* name, either the noun to which it really belongs is understood, as in the sentence, "*The Britannia entered the Thames yesterday*" (in which *ship* is understood before *Britannia* and *river* before *Thames*) — or the proper name is used in the sense of a common noun, that is, to denote a class or family; as *the Stuarts*, *the Howards*; or when eminence or distinction is implied; as, *He is a Nelson; he is the Bacon of his age.*

18. Substantives expressing *weight*, *measure*, *number*, or *time* require the *indefinite* article before them; as, *Two shillings a pound. Four pence a bottle. So much a man, a head. Four times a week and twenty times a month.*

19. The word *many* is sometimes followed by the *indefinite* article and a singular noun; as, *many an hour; many a soldier. Many a one is a child at seventy, and many a man, full grown in intellect and old in experience, has not a grey hair on his head.* (James). *He heaves up many a sigh.* (Cowper).

20. *A* is sometimes placed between an adjective in the comparative degree preceded by **no**, and a substantive denoting a thing which is susceptible of addition; as, *No less a personage than the king himself.*

21. *What* used in expressions of sudden emotion or surprise is followed by the indefinite article; as, *The neighbouring villagers long remembered with what a clatter of horse-hoofs and what a storm of curses the whirlwind of cavalry swept by.* (Macaulay). *What a strange thing imagination is!* (James).

22. Before the words **little** and **few** the article *a* is sometimes omitted which diminishes the number or quantity. Mark the difference between, *He has got a little fortune* and, *He has got little fortune.* *He was so dull that he had but few clear moments* and, *His dulness did not prevent him from having a few friends; a few* meaning of course **some**.

23. Nouns denoting **professions, dignities and titles** have the indefinite article prefixed to them; as, *She is a countess, he is a lawyer, he is a Protestant, his wife a Roman Catholic;* unless the title be not applicable to more than one person at a time; as, *He was made Duke of Monmouth; He was chosen Pope,* or unless professions, dignities or titles are only mentioned as such; as, *He got the title of marquess.*

24. The use of the article in the following and similar sentences requires particular attention.

We were drawn into a scrape.

He was (in), got, fell, flew into a passion.

You travelled without a guide.

She takes a pride in her children.

They were in a great hurry.

She kept it a secret.

He made a boast of his villany.

I have half a mind to return and leave the rest undone.

The hunting party made a stand in the wood.

We gave a guess at their meaning.

All of a sudden he came to a stand.

25. As the definite article **the** serves to determine particular

objects, it can never be used before substantives in a general sense; as, *I seemed to myself to have made a leap in life when I returned to school.* (Bulwer). *Christianity teaches and commands us to moderate our passions.* (Temple). *Innocence and independence make a brave spirit.* (Fuller). *Reason and discretion are the singular eminences of man.* (Barrow). *Glory is nothing else but the shadow of virtue.* (Steele). *I endured the change of circumstances.* (Warren). *Don't we fight that he may roll in riches?* (Thackeray). *The giving of thanks is displeasing to him.* (Spectator).

26. The names of persons do not require any article before them; besides the exceptions mentioned under No. 17, the following rules require particular attention:

a. The expression "*Almighty God*" never requires the definite article.

b. The names of *countries, provinces, islands, peninsulas, cities and villages* have no article before them; as *Germany, South-Brabant, Anglesea, Alaska, Bristol, Lesser-Asia, Modern Greece, Syria, Palestine, Arabia, Ethiopia.*

Exceptions: *The Brazils, The Deccan, The Downs, The Havannah, The Mauritius, The Morea, The Texel, The Tyrol.*

c. The names of *ridges of mountains* require the definite article; before those of *single mountains* it is omitted; as, *The Pyrenees, The Alps, The Himalays; (Mount) Etna, (Mount) Vesuvius, Stromboli, Chimborazo, Lebanon.*

d. *Geographical names*, besides those already mentioned, names of *hotels and vessels* take the before them; as, *The South Sea, The Atlantic, The Mediterranean, The Cape of Good Hope, The Persian Gulf, The Kurile islands, The Antarctic Continent, The Great-Eastern, The Sir John Russell, The Elephant and Castle, The Four P's.*

e. *Geographical denominations* such as: *empire, kingdom, duchy, province, island, town, etc.* require the before and of after them; as, *The empire of Russia, The kingdom of Italy, The duchy of Limburg, The province of Utrecht, The Bay of Bengal, The isle of Wight, The City of Rome, The Peak of Teneriffe*
 Exceptions: *The River Nile, Mount Rossi, Lake Ontario, Cape*

Clear, Loch Lomond (after the words: **river, mount, lake, cape, loch**).

27. Substantives representing a whole class take the definite article before the singular number but not before the plural; as, *The lion who formerly inhabited three quarters of the ancient world, is now confined to Africa and some neighbouring parts of Asia, as are also the panther and (the) leopard. Hyenas are almost exclusively peculiar to Africa. The monkey is a funny animal. Monkeys are funny animals. Fairies use flowers for their charactery.* (Shak.). *Lions make leopards tame.* (Shak.). **Man** and **Woman** make an exception to this rule: **Man** is mortal. **Woman** is the pearl of creation.

28. Substantives expressing things which are *single in their kind* require the definite article before them; as, *The moon, the sun, the sky, the stars, the universe, the Almighty.*

Exceptions: **Heaven, hell, paradise, Elysium, Tartarus, Providence, purgatory**, as, *God in heaven forbid!* (Shak.). *I'll send them all to hell in an instant.* (Smollet). Poets have of course a license to violate this and many other grammatical rules.

29. Words that are sufficiently determinate in their signification require no article; as, *He utterly disregarded popular pursuits at college.* (Warren). *Some Catholic divines were sent to him from court.* (Macaulay). *Here on Earth God hath dispensed his bounties as in Heaven.* (Milton). *The pomp of death is more terrifying than death itself.* (Blair).

30. *Titles, dignities, professions* etc. prevalent in England, do not require the article, when they are followed by proper names; as, **King James, General Grant, Farmer Flamborough, Attorney-general Bacon, Seamstress Ann**; but **The Czar Nicholas, The Elector William, The Archduke Alexander, The Emperor Napoleon, The Empress Eugenia, The Chevalier Bayard**.

Exceptions: The word **Princess** is always preceded by the definite article, as are also *titles* or *geographical* names followed by *of*; **The Earl of Rochester, The Cape of Good Hope**.

Observations. a. The words **Count, Viscountess, Lady** are often preceded by the definite article; as, **The lady Russell**.

b. When a title is preceded by an adjective, *the* is made

use of; as, *The Right Honorable the Earl of Essex. The Honorable Mrs. Richard Cobden.*

c. The definite article is also used before the names of *peoples, sects, societies* etc.; as, *The English, The Protestants, The Cavaliers* etc.

d. We write or read at least in English: *William (the) Third. Charles (the) Second. Book (the) Ninth. Chapter (the) Fifth.*

e. Adjectives used as substantives always denote the whole class, and require the definite article; as, *The poor are often less miserable than the rich imagine. I felt I could have adored him, and made him my husband, had he been the poorest of the poor.* (Warren).

f. In comparative degrees the definite article is used as follows. *Who is the worse for the loss of a few things like these?* (Dickens).

The higher it soars, the more string, we must give it. (Bulwer).

They said they liked the book the better, the more it made them cry. (Goldsmith).

Well sir, since you are so bent on it, the sooner the better. (Sheridan).

The nearer to the spring we go,

More limpid, more unsoil'd, the waters flow. (Dryden).

g. The words **next** and **last** are commonly used without the definite article; as, *Next year the war will be carried on. Fruit was very cheap last summer.*

31. Particular attention should be paid to expressions, as the following: *And now, what say you, my lads, to a game at cards?* (Bulwer). *The life of a fellow-creature might really be at stake.* (Warren). *At sight of that stupendous bridge his joy increas'd.* (Milton). *I went down stairs immediately.* (Warren). *A light broke upon my unhappy comrade in arms.* (Bulwer). *I took my pen in hand to write to him.* (Warren). *The king's forces came in sight.* (Macaulay). *He had been seen on foot, pike in hand encouraging his infantry by force and by example.* (Macaulay). *He came to London on purpose to see and to thank us.* (Bulwer). *It was determined to send a boat*

on shore. (Dickens). *The sons of song are gone to rest.* (Macpherson). *Book in hand, he would, on fine days, pace to and fro.* (Bulwer). *How does young master?* (Sheridan). *Groom fought like noble, squire like knight.* (Scott). *Never was husband so watchful, and so little jealous.* (Bulwer). *The clown with whom Monmouth had changed clothes was discovered.* (Macaulay).

32. The difference should be observed too between the expressions: *To go to school*, (in order to receive instruction) and: *He is at the school*, (at a particular one). *He is in the school*, (a carpenter. f. i. being at work in the building). *To go to church*. *To go to the church*. *To walk about the church*. *To go to market*. *To stand on the market*. *To be at table*. *To go to table*. *To put on table*. *To rise from table*. *To sit down to table*.

Repetition of the article.

33. The article is not repeated in ordinary cases; as, *The greatest pain I can suffer is the being talked to, and being stared at.* (Spectator). *The bride and bridegroom rose from the chairs in which they had been seated.* (James). *They were a boy and girl.* (Dickens). *He was frequently flogged by the captain and mate.* (Warren). *When a master and mistress are at strife in a house, the subordinates in the family take the one side or the other.* (Thackeray). *The melody ascended to the roof, and filled the choir and nave.* (Dickens). *The thunder and lightning were more appalling than I ever recollect witnessing.* (Warren).

34. The article must be repeated before every noun:

a. When emphasis is intended; as, *Let us to our fresh employments rise, Among the groves, the fountains, and the flowers.* (Milton). *Even in our time the plough and the spade have not seldom turned up ghastly memorials of the slaughter.* (Macaulay). *You will see those who, in the Law, the Church, the State or the still cloisters of Learning are destined to become the eminent leaders of your age.* (Bulwer).

b. When different persons or things are denoted by two or more nouns; as, *The secretary and the treasurer have been invited*, (two separate persons). *The secretary and treasurer to the company has been knighted* (one single person). *The old and the New Testament*.

c. In denoting *comparison* or *contrast* when two or more persons are intended; as, *He is a better sailor than an invalid*, means that he is a better sailor than an invalid would be; but, *He is a better novelist than painter*, signifies that he is both novelist and painter, but that he is greater in the former capacity than in the latter.

Place of the article.

35. The usual place of the article is before the adjective qualifying a substantive. In the following cases however it has a different position.

a. The *definite* article is placed *after* the words **all**, **double** (*twice*), **treble**, **triple**, **quadruple**, **quintuple**, but the *indefinite* article is placed *before* them; as, *He could have walked untired double the distance* (James) but, *a double distance*.

b. Both the *definite* and the *indefinite* article are placed *after* the words **both**, **half** and **quite**; as, *Half the delight is in the pursuit*. (James). *Before half an hour, I'll swear that we are out of their sight*. (Marryat). But when denoting a thing not susceptible of division *a* and *the* are placed *before* **half**; as, *The emoluments were good, interposed Randal with a half smile*. (Bulwer); which is also the case when the word *half* forms a part of a compound noun; as, *The limited half-hour soon passed*. (James). *She gave her grandson a half-sovereign*.

c. When a noun is preceded by the words **as**, **how**, **however**, **so**, **too** connected with adjectives, and by the word **such** the *definite* article is placed between them and the noun; as, *The Caxtons were as good a family as the Trevanions*. (Bulwer). *Who have gifts to carry on so great a work, but we alone*. (Butler). *Such a book must not be lost to the world*. (Bulwer).

She's much too good a wife to behave so. (Bulwer). Sometimes however **a** is placed *before* **too**; as, *she gave a too ready answer.*

d. Between **such** and an *abstract* noun the indefinite article is frequently omitted; as, *such affectation, such cowardice.*

Noun or Substantive.

1. A noun or substantive is the name of any thing that exists, or of which we have any idea or notion; as *man, pen, sweetness, justice.*

2. The word *thing* is applicable, not only to every object that comes within the sphere of our senses, but also to every idea or conception which we can form in our minds. In fact, it properly means whatever we can *think* about, or form an idea of. It is, therefore, of universal application, and consequently the most general term in the language.

3. A noun is either **proper** or **common**. A proper noun can be applied to but one person or thing in the same sense; as *John, Dublin, the Thames, Lebanon*. A common noun can be applied to several persons or things in the same sense; as *man, city, river, mountain.*

4. **Proper** nouns are the names given to individual persons or things, to distinguish them from the rest of the same class or species, as the examples in the preceding paragraph. **Common** nouns are the names which belong in *common* to whole classes of persons or things. Thus the word *man* is a *common* noun, because it is not the name of any one man in particular, but belongs to, or is equally applicable to, every man.

5. Proper nouns become common when they are applied to more individuals than one; as *"the Cæsars," "the Howards;"* *"a Cicero," "a Catiline."*

6. In the preceding examples, it is evident that *"the Cæsars"* and *"the Howards"* are put for a class; and that *"a Cicero"* and *"a Catiline,"* are equivalent to the common terms (a great) *orator*, and (a daring) *conspirator*.

7. A common or general term may be made to represent an individual person or thing, by placing before it the defi-

nite article *the*, or the demonstrative pronoun *this* or *that*; as "*Thou art the man*;" *that river is deep*; *this pen is bad*. In this way a general term may be made to serve as a substitute for a proper name.

8. **Real nouns** are the names of things existing in nature; as *man*, *horse*, *table*, *city*.

9. **Abstract nouns** are the names of qualities considered *abstractedly*, or without reference to the substances to which they belong; as *sweetness*, *wisdom*, *strength*, *purity*.

10. Abstract nouns are formed in this way. We observe that several of the things around us possess in common a certain property or quality. Thus, we see that *snow*, *milk*, and *chalk*, are distinguished by a certain quality which we call *white*, from which, by abstraction, we form the idea of *whiteness* and we call the name of that quality an **abstract noun**.

11. Most abstract nouns are formed from *adjectives* by adding *ness*; as from *sweet*, *sweetness*, from *good*, *goodness*, etc. Several are also found with other terminations; as *ity*, *ety*, *th*, *ence*, *dom*, etc.; as *purity*, *variety*, *health*, *strength*, *insolence*, *freedom*.

12. **Diminutive nouns** are formed from other nouns by the addition of certain terminations, which express some *diminution* of the original meaning; as *gosling*, *satchel*, *pocket*, *hillock*. Some of them express endearment, as *darling*; and some of them contempt, as *hireling*.

13. **Participial or verbal nouns** imply action, or the doing of something; as *hunting*, *fishing*, *walking*, *reading*, *writing*.

14. Participial *nouns* must be carefully distinguished from participial *adjectives*, and also from *participles*. They are easily known by their taking a preposition before them, like *nouns*, and by their governing an objective case after them, like *verbs*, that is, when they are *transitive*. (In the sentence just written, "*taking*" and "*governing*" are participial nouns.) They have also the meaning, and may easily be converted into the form of nouns. I could say, for example, I spent half an hour in *preparing* this lesson—or in *the preparation* of this lesson.

Number.

1. A noun which expresses a *single* person or thing is said to be in the **singular number**; as *boy, book, virtue*.

2. Nouns which express *more* than *one* person or thing are said to be in the **plural number**; as *boys, books, virtues*.

3. The plural number is generally formed by adding **s** to the singular; as in the preceding examples.

4. To nouns ending in **s, x, sh, ss, or ch** soft,¹⁾ **es** must be added, otherwise the **s** could not be sounded, and the plural could not be distinguished in conversation from the singular; as, *gas, gases; ass, asses; box, boxes; brush, brushes; church, churches*. Ex: *All classes of religious thinkers receive toleration from the British government.* (Chambers). *There is no union of the sexes.* (Dickens). *He used to place twenty waiters upon the table, and a hundred more attended on the ground, some with dishes of meat and some with wine.* (Swift). *Their governesses never entertain them with the stories of witches and hobgoblins.* (Swift). *Fifteen hundred strong horses, about four inches and a half high were yoked to the machine.* (Swift).

5. Nouns ending in **y**, preceded by a **consonant**, form their plural by changing **y** into **ies**; as *study, studies*. But **y** preceded by a **vowel**, follows the general rule, as *attorney, attorneys*. Proper names when pluralized follow the general rule, as *Henry, the Henrys*. Ex: *This fellow's civilities begin to grow troublesome; but who can be angry with those assiduities which are meant to please him?* (Goldsmith). *The dancing monkeys are in one place; the puppet-show in another.* (Spectator). *Thy valleys float with golden waves.* (Thomson). *The Marys wo bring ointment for our feet get but little thanks.* (Thackeray).

6. Nouns ending in **o**, preceded by a **consonant**, generally take **es** to form their plural; as *calico, calicoes; tobacco, tobaccoes; potato, potatoes; stiletto, stilettoes; manifesto,*

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manifestoes. Ex: *Every negro's hand is armed against his fellow negroes.* (Pitt.) *A dirty foot-boy was carrying a yellow-ware dish of potatoes into the back-room.* (Bulwer).

7. The following nouns ending in *o*, though preceded by a consonant, follow the general rule: *canto, grotto, junto, solo, portico, quarto, octavo, duodecimo, rotundo, tyro.* Ex: *The rocks about her are shaped into artificial grottos.* (Spectator).

8. The following nouns change *f* or *fe* into *ves* to form their plural: — *Beef, calf, elf, half, leaf, loaf, self, sheaf, shelf, thief, wolf, life, wife, knife*; as, *Leaves have their time to fall.* (Hemans). *He took three of the loaves, which were as thick as a musketball, at a time.* (Swift). *Staff* has *staves* in the plural, but it is now beginning to follow the general rule; as, *Twice every day the waves efface Of staves and sandal'd feet the trace* (Scott). All its compounds are regular, as *tipstuffs, flag-stuffs*, the former sometimes *tipstaves*: *The worthy and exemplary tipstaff, — this prince of tipstaves, I say, placed his charge in a place of security.* (James).

9. The following nouns are quite irregular in the plural: —

Man	Mén ¹)	Foot	Feet
Woman	Women	Tooth	Teeth
Ox	Oxen	Goose	Geese
Child	Children	Mouse	Mice.

10. Some nouns have double plurals, each having a different meaning; as—

Brother,	{ brothers, sons of the same parents.
	{ brethren, members of the same society or church.
Die,	{ dies, stamps for coining.
	{ dice, small cubes used in games.
Fish,	{ fishes, when <i>number</i> is meant.
	{ fish, when the <i>species</i> is described.
Genius,	{ geniuses, men of genius.
	{ genii, fabulous spirits.

¹) The remains of an Anglo-Saxon plural in *an*. Hence, also, *hosen*, now written *hose*; *sowen* now *swine*; *cowen*, now *kine*; *shoon*, now *shoes*; *eyen*, now *eyes*; *housen*, now *houses*.

Index,	{ indexes, tables of contents.
	{ indices, algebraic exponents.
Pea,	{ peas, single ones.
	{ pease, in the mass, as a dish of <i>pease</i> .
Penny,	{ pennies, separate coins, as six <i>pennies</i> .
	{ pence, value in computation, as <i>sixpence</i> in silver.

11. Some nouns have the singular and plural alike; as **deer, swine, sheep, salmon, apparatus, species**. The singular of such words is generally denoted by the article *a* or *an*; as *a deer, an apparatus*.

12. Some nouns, from the nature of the things which they express, have no plural; and others, no singular.

13. Nouns that have no plural are:—1. Proper names, unless when used in the sense of common nouns: as '*the Cæsars*,' '*the Howards*;' as, *Her beautiful Jason was gone, as beautiful Jasons will go.* (Thackeray). *Down with the Capulets! down with the Montagues!* (Shak). *Where Desdemonas are so scarce, if you could but guess how green-eyed their Othellos generally are!* (Bulwer). 2. Nouns which denote things measured or weighed; as *tea, sugar, wheat, oil, wine*, unless when they express varieties or different sorts. 3. The names of metals, as *gold, silver, lead*. 4. The names of abstract and moral qualities; as *hardness, softness, prudence, charity*. Some of these nouns, also take a plural when varieties or different kinds are spoken of; as *teas, sugars, wines, affinities, gravities, charities*.

14. Nouns that have no singular are those which are plural either in form or meaning. The following are of this class:—

Alms ¹⁾	Arms ²⁾	Bellows	Breeches
Annals	Ashes	Bitters.	Cattle
Antipodes	Assizes	Billiards	Compasses
Archives	Assets	Bowels	Clothes

¹⁾ *Alms*, from the old French *aïmesse*, is strictly in the singular, and was so used by old authors, as "*an alms*;" "*much alms*."

²⁾ *Arms*, meaning weapons or armorial bearings.

Calends	Lees	Nones	Shears
Customs ¹⁾	Letters ³⁾	Oats	Snuffers
Drawers ²⁾	Literati	Odds	Sweepstakes
Dregs	Lungs ⁴⁾	Orgies	Thanks ⁹⁾
Embers	Mallows	Pains ⁶⁾	Tidings
Entrails	Manners ⁵⁾	Pantaloons	Tongs
Goods	Matins	Pincers	Trowsers
Hose	Measles	Riches ⁷⁾	Vespers
Hysterics	Minutiæ	Scissors	Victuals
Ides	Morals	Sessions ⁸⁾	Vitals
Illuminati	Nippers	Shambles	Wages.

15. The word *gallows* always takes a singular verb; as „*The gallows is thirty feet high.*” *News* is generally singular; as „*This is good news.*” *Means* is also to be considered as singular, unless when the instrumentality of more than one thing is implied; as in the following sentence: „*He was careful to observe what means were employed by his adversaries to counteract his schemes.*” A similar rule may be applied to *amends*. Examples: *I prophesied, if a gallows were on land, This fellow could not drown.* (Shak.) *The news is very fair and good* (Shak.) *Evil news rides post, while good news baits.* (Milton.) *By this means our liberty becomes a noble freedom.* (Burke.) *Every means was lawful.* (Gibbon).

16. The names of sciences ending in *ics*, as *ethics*, *mathe-*

¹⁾ *Customs*, meaning taxes or duties on goods imported or exported.

²⁾ *Drawers*, meaning under or inside trowsers.

³⁾ *Letters*, meaning literature, as „*a man of letters.*”

⁴⁾ *Lungs*. But with reference to each other, we say the right, or the left *lung*.

⁵⁾ *Manners*, meaning behaviour or demeanour.

⁶⁾ *Pains*, in the sense of care, is now used only with a plural verb. It occurs, however, in good authors, with a singular verb.

⁷⁾ *Riches*, from the French *richesse*, is strictly singular. It is always, however, used in the plural.

⁸⁾ *Sessions*, meaning a sitting of magistrates.

⁹⁾ *Thanks*. This word occurs in the singular form, in old writers, as, „*What thank have ye?*” also in the compounds *thankless*, *thanklessness*, *thankful*, &c.

matics, mechanics, optics, physics, pneumatics, politics, statistics, tactics, &c., generally take a plural verb, but are sometimes found in good authors with a singular one.

17. **Collective nouns**, or nouns of **multitude**, are singular in form and plural in signification; as *people, folk, parliament*.

Ex. *The Aristocracy, they say, is strenuously opposed to it.* (Brougham). *It was round this left hand door that the crowd took its densest aspect.* (James). *The whole nation took arms against their sovereign.* (Robertson). *A considerable number of prisoners were immediately selected for execution.* (Macaulay). *The greater part of my slaves are much attached to me.* (Dickens). *The peasantry were accustomed to serve in the militia.* (Macaulay). *The pellice, replied the intendant, are the persons best fitted by habit, as well as entitled by law, to carry on such an inquiry.* (James). *Mankind begin by wonder, and conclude by worship.* (Grattan). *The court has made up its mind.* (James). *The number of independant chiefs and commanders were apt to introduce discords in their councils.* (Scott).

18. The compounds of *full* have the regular plural; as *spoonful, spoonfuls; mouthful, mouthfuls.* "*Two spadefuls were cast out.*" (James.) But compound words formed of a *noun* and an *adjective*, or of *two nouns* connected by a *preposition*, have, in general, the *s* annexed to the first word; as *court-martial, courts-martial; son-in-law, sons-in-law.*

19. Nouns adopted, without alteration, from foreign languages, generally retain their original plural; as in the following—

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Alumnus	Alumni	Animalculum	Animalcula
Addendum	Addenda	Antithesis	Antitheses
Amanuensis	Amanuenses	Appendix	Appendices ¹
Analysis	Analyses	Arcanum	Arcana

¹) The words followed by an *asterisk* have also the ordinary English plural (by adding *s* or *es* to the *singular* form).

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Automatum	Automata	Macula	Maculae
Axis	Axes	Madame	Mesdames
Bandit	Banditti*	Magus	Magi
Basis	Bases	Medium	Media
Beau	Beaux	Memorandum	Memoranda*
Calculus	Calculi	Metamorphosis	Metamorphoses
Cherub	Cherubim*	Momentum	Momenta
Criterion	Criteria	Monsieur	Messieurs
Crisis	Crises	Nebula	Nebulae
Datum	Data	Oasis	Oases
Desideratum	Desiderata	Parenthesis	Parentheses
Diæresis	Diæreses	Postulatum	Postulata
Dilettante	Dilettanti	Phasis	Phases
Dogma	Dogmata*	Phenomenon	Phenomena
Echinus	Echini	Polypus	Polypi
Effluvium	Effluvia	Radius	Radii
Ellipsis	Ellipses	Sarcophagus	Sarcophagi
Emphasis	Emphases	Seraph	Seraphim*
Erratum	Errata	Speculum	Specula
Focus	Foci	Stamen	Stamina
Formula	Formulae	Stimulus	Stimuli
Fungus	Fungi*	Stratum	Strata
Genus	Genera	Thesis	Theses
Gymnasium	Gymnasia	Tumulus	Tumuli
Hypothesis	Hypotheses	Vertex	Vertices
Lamina	Laminae	Virtuose	Virtuosi
Larva	Larvae	Vortex	Vortices

Gender.

1. **Gender** is the distinction of sex. There are three genders, the **Masculine**, the **Feminine**, and the **Neuter**.

2. The **Masculine** gender denotes the *male* kind; as *boy*, *lion*.

3. The **Feminine** gender denotes the *female* kind; as *girl*, *lioness*.

4. The **Neuter** means *neither* masculine nor feminine; as a *book*, a *chair*. The neuter is, properly speaking, no gender, but merely denotes the absence of gender.

5. Such nouns as can be applied either to males or females are said to be of the **Common** gender; as *parent*, *child*, *friend*, *bird*.

6. Some nouns, naturally neuter, are, by a figure of speech, called **Personification**, regarded as belonging either to the masculine or the feminine gender; as when we say of the sun, "*He is setting*;" or of the moon, "*She is rising*;" of a *ship*, "*She is sailing*." In general, things, that convey an idea of strength, boldness, firmness, or energy, are in such cases reckoned to be of the masculine gender; as the *Sun*, *Time*, *Death*, *Love*, *Winter*, &c, while those things which convey an idea of weakness or timidity, or which are more of a passive than of an active nature, are considered feminine; as the *Moon*, *Earth*, *Nature*, *Spring*, *Virtue*, *Sickness*, etc. Ex:

Death withdrew his shades from the days. (Campbell). *Love breath'd his infant sighs.* (Thomson). *The sun sheds his kindest rays for you.* (Thomson). *Time rolls his ceaseless course.* (Scott). *The winter keen poured out his waste of snows, and summer shot his pestilential heats.* (Thomson).

The moon wears a wan circle round her blunted horns. (Thomson). *It is not by nature, nor by her liberality, that we are printed with the seal of God's image.* (Raleigh). *Earth's mountains are levelled and her seas filled up in our passage.* (Carlyle). *Reviving sickness lifts her languid head.* (Thomson). *From his ardent look the turning spring averts her blushful face.* (Thomson).

7. *Insects*, *small quadrupeds*, *birds*, and *fishes*, are usually spoken of as neuter.

8. Gender is distinguished in three ways—

1. By different terminations; as—

Abbot	Abbess	Duke	Duchess
Actor	Actress	Elector	Electress
Administrator	Administratrix	Emperor	Empress
Adulterer	Adulteress	Enchanter	Enchantress
Ambassador	Ambadressess	Executor	Executrix
Arbiter	Arbitress	Giant	Giantess
Author	Authoress	Governor	Governess
Baron	Baroness	Heir	Heiress
Benefactor ¹⁾	Benefactress	Hero	Heroine
Chanter	Chantress	Host	Hostess
Conductor	Conductress	Hunter	Huntress
Count	Countess	Inheritor	Inheritrix
Czar	Czarina	Jew	Jewess
Dauphin	Dauphiness	Lad	Lass
Deacon	Deaconess	Landgrave	Landgravine
Don	Donna	Lion	Lioness
Margrave	Margravine	Seamster	Seamstress
Marquess	Marchioness	Shepherd	Shepherdess
Mayor	Mayoress	Songster	Songstress
Negro	Negress	Sorcerer	Sorceress
Patron	Patroness	Spectator	Spectatress
Peer	Peeress	Sultan	Sultana
Poet	Poetess	Testator	Testatrix
Priest	Priestess	Tiger	Tigress
Prince	Princess	Traitor	Traitress
Prior	Prioress	Tutor	Tutoress
Prophet	Prophetess	Viscount	Viscountess
Protector	Protectress	Widower	Widow.

2. By different words; as—

Bachelor	Maid	Boar	Sow
Beau	Belle	Boy	Girl

¹⁾ The feminine termination *tress* is derived through the French from the Latin termination *trix*; as in *executrix*.

Bridegroom	Bride	Husband	Wife
Brother	Sister	King	Queen
Buck	Doe	Lord	Lady
Bull	Cow	Man	Woman
Bullock	Heifer	Master	Mistress
Cock	Hen	Messieurs	Mesdames
Colt	Filly	Monk	Nun
Dog	Bitch	Milter	Spawner
Drake	Duck	Nephew	Niece
Earl	Countess	Ram	Ewe
Father	Mother	Sir	Madam
Gaffer	Gammer	Sloven	Slut <i>or</i> slattern
Gander	Goose	Son	Daughter
Gentleman	Lady ¹⁾	Stag	Hind
Hart	Roe	Uncle	Aunt
Horse	Mare	Wizard	Witch.

3. By prefixing a word denoting the gender; as—

A <i>male</i> child	A <i>female</i> child
A <i>man</i> -servant	A <i>maid</i> -servant
A <i>he</i> -goat	A <i>she</i> -goat
A <i>cock</i> -sparrow	A <i>hen</i> -sparrow.

Case.

1. The **case**²⁾ of a noun means the *state* it³⁾ is in, or the *relation* it bears to another word in the same sentence.

¹⁾ The proper feminine is *gentlewoman*, but *lady* is ^{*} more in use.

²⁾ The ancient grammarians called the nominative case the *upright* case (*casus rectus*), and likened the noun in this state to a perpendicular line. The variations of the word from the nominative, they compared to other lines inclined to it at certain angles, so that the forms of the *genitive*, *dative*, &c., seem to be *falling*, as it were, with different degrees of obliquity, from the original word. Hence these forms were called the **oblique** cases; and a regular enumeration of them was called, for a similar reason, **declension**. The word *case* is from the Latin *cado* (*casus*) to *fall*.

³⁾ That is, the person or thing represented by the 'noun.'

2. There are three cases, the **Nominative**, **Possessive**, and **Objective**.

3. A noun is said to be in the **nominative case** or **state** when it is the name of the agent, or of the person or thing that acts; as, *John reads; the wind blows.*

4. When a noun ¹⁾ *does* any thing it is called the **agent**; and when something is *done* to it, it is called the **object**. In the sentence, "*John strikes the table*," *John* is the agent, and *table* is the object.

5. A **noun nominative** can enter grammatically into a sentence only in five ways, viz:

a. As the nominative to the verb, the verb agreeing with it in number and person; as "*I speak*;" "*Henry speaks*."

b. As a nominative in immediate apposition; which means, in position close to another noun nominative that stands for the same person or thing; as "*The boy, Henry, speaks*." Here, *boy* is nominative to the verb, and *Henry* a nominative in apposition with *boy*.

c. As a nominative in apposition by means of a verb neuter; as "*It is I*;" "*It was Henry*;" "*He became a great man*." Or infinitively with the verb; as, "*To be a great man*."

d. As a nominative in direct address, and therefore in the second person; as "*Lord, remember David*;" "*O Charles*;" "*You are to blame, Henry*." This is what in Latin grammar, is called the **vocative case**.

e. As a nominative absolute; as, "*Henry being gone, we gave over the game*;" "*I began reading, there being a book at hand*."

6. The **possessive** represents the noun ¹⁾ in the case or state of **possessing** something; as *John's book*.

For this reason this form of the possessive case is only applied to persons and not to things, unless the latter be represented as personified. Ex: *The eye of the fisherman's wife strained over the waters.* (James). *A friend should bear his friend's infirmities* (Shak). *The example of God's universal*

¹⁾ That is the person or thing represented by the "noun."

providence is seen in his creatures. (Raleigh). *The House of Commons rejected the advice of his Majesty's Ministers* (Peel). *It formed the delight of Newmanstreet, Gerardstreet and the artists' quarter.* (Thackeray). *He divided all the lands of England into knights' fees.* (Erskine).

*May I my best thoughts employ
To be my parents' hope and joy.* (Coleridge).
*Mercy has, could Mercy's self be seen,
No sweeter look than this propitious queen.*

(Waller).

You are in the crisis of a whole nation's hopes and fears. (Brougham). *I hold ambition of so airy and light a quality, that it is but a shadow's shadow.* (Shak). *I have been gathering wolves' hairs.* (B. Jonson). *Four years' experience has confirmed rather than altered my opinion.* (Canning). *You are not above six or seven hours' journey from Paris.* (James).

7. The possessive case is formed by adding *s*, with a comma prefixed; as *John's horse*.

8. A comma in such a position is called an *apostrophe*, because it denotes that a letter has been *turned away* from its place, or omitted. The omitted letter in such cases, is either *e* or *i*¹).

9. Plural nouns ending in *s* form their possessive by adding the apostrophe only; as *"angels' visits."* When the plural does not end in *s*, the possessive is formed by adding *s* with the apostrophe, as in the general rule. Thus, the possessive plural of *man* is *men's*; of *children*, *children's*. Ex: *It is impossible for any person to form a right judgment of his neighbours' sufferings.* (Addison). *Long live the Commons' King, King James!* (Scott). *You know the haste of magistrates and of magistrates' men.* (James). *Six spears' lengths from the entrance halted that deep array.* (Macaulay).

¹) The *'s* is an abbreviation or contraction of the old Saxon genitive or possessive; as *"Godes grace," "the kingis crown."* It was formerly thought to be an abbreviation of *his*; but though 'the king's crown', could be resolved into 'the king *his* crown,' yet 'the *queen's* crown,' and similar instances, could not be so resolved.

You gentlemen's gentlemen are so hasty. (Sheridan). *If we desire to live peaceably with all men, we are to be equal in censuring men's actions.* (Barrow). *They were dressed in seamen's clothes.* (Marryat).

10. When singular nouns end in *es*¹⁾ *ss*, *ce* or any other letter or syllable which will not combine in sound with *s*, the possessive is usually formed by merely adding the *apostrophe*; as *Moses' rod*; *for righteousness' sake*; *for conscience' sake*. Ex: *Bacchus' blessings are a treasure.* (Dryden). *His highness' pleasure is to talk with him.* (Shak.) *Did not great Julius bleed for justice' sake?* (Shak.) *Fitz-Eustace' heart felt closely pent.* (Scott).

11. The possessive case may, in general, be resolved into the objective preceded by the preposition *of*. Thus *my father's house* may be changed into *the house of my father*, and *the mountain's brow* into *the brow of the mountain*, without changing the meaning.

12. A noun possessive can enter into construction in two ways:

a. In subservience to another noun which comes after it, and is commonly said to govern it; as *"Henry's hat;"* *"St. Paul's church;"* *"Virtue's reward."* But when the former noun is a pronoun, it is usual to explain its connection with the other by calling it an adjective pronoun possessive; as *"My hat;"* *"Our church."*

b. Instead of an adjective pronoun possessive and the substantive with which it makes sense; as *"Mine is here,"* for *"My hat is here,"* *"Ours is built of stone,"* for *"Our church is built of stone."* Entering into construction in this manner, a noun possessive is so in name only, its case being *nominative* or *objective*.

13. The following examples offer particularities connected with the use of the **Saxon genitive case**, which the pupil either knows already from the exercises in the first volume

¹⁾ The *e*, in such cases, is sounded; for though we may say *Moses' rod*, we should not say *James' book*, but *James's book*.

²⁾ This chiefly occurs before the word *sake*; for we say, the *duchess's robes*, the *princess's carriage*.

or which it will be very instructive for him to bring under rules: *I was yesterday at Count Schonbrun, the vice-chancellor's garden.* (Montague.) *From my father and grandfather's time, at least, the apartment which was assigned to you last night, had been shut.* (Scott.) *Ever since Henry the Seventh's time have the houses of St. Quintin and Glenmorris been allied.* (Bulwer.) *Miss Sharp's father was an artist, and in that quality had given lessons of drawing at Miss Pinkerton's school.* (Thackeray.) *Frank Woodville had been Richard Browne's fag at Eton.* (Scott.) *Can you tell whether he has been informed of Sir Anthony's and Miss Melville's arrival?* (Sheridan.) *Sir Pitt Crawley's family was in want of a governess.* (Thackeray.)

The devastations of one dreadful hour The Great Creator's six days' work devour. (Young.) *The Lieutenant's last day's march is over.* (Sterne.)

That is madam Lucy — my master's mistress's maid. (Sheridan.) *These Continental patriots, when they take up the sword with one hand, generally contrive to thrust the other deep into their neighbours' breeches' pockets.* (Bulwer.)

I bade him sit still, and caused Friday to rub his ancles, and bathe them with rum, as he had done his father's. (Defoe.) *The good-natured schoolmaster's wife said justly that she ought to keep Mr. Goldsmith's money as well as the young gentlemen's.* (Thackeray.) *Here are some fine villas, particularly the late Prince of Lichtenstein's.* (Montague.) *Lear thought to himself, how small the fault of Cordelia (if it was a fault) now appeared, in comparison with her sister's and he wept.* (Lamb.) *Love is always more selfish in a man's bosom than in a woman's.* (James.)

A female relation of Bolit's had settled in Spain. (Bulwer.) *He was rather a feudal chieftain than a monarch, and had no power to carry this law of Edward's into execution.* (Ers-kine.) *The fortune of my poor sister's is old Radford's object.* (James.)

The merchant trudges through the mire from his warehouse to his banker's. (Mudie.) I'll send it to Bob Cratchit's (Dickens.) I don't think I shall venture to look in her face till I see my father's again. (Goldsmith.) When I was at my father's, did not the men give up their gayest balls and parties in order to pass the evening with me? (Thackeray.) Do you know the Poulterer's, in the next street but one, at the corner? (Dickens.) He is as well acquainted with St. Paul's as if he had built it. (Hazlitt.)

My last thought is England's. (Scott.) His purse and his heart were everybody's, and his friend's as much as his own. (Thackeray.) Old England is his, and he is Old England's. (Mudie.) Earth is the Lord's, and therefore ours. (Thomson.) Let all thy ends, thou aim'st at, be thy country's, Thy God's, and truth's. (Shak.)

One lady's maid (my lady's) was a mere bundle on the floor. (Dickens.) Let us suppose him to be a lawyer's clerk. (Hazlitt.) He listens like a three years' child. (Coleridge.)

14. The **objective** case represents the noun in the case or state of being the *object* of an action, or as being acted upon; as "*Brutus killed Caesar.*"

15. A **noun objective** can enter into construction in three ways :

a. As the objective of an active verb, which is said to govern it; as "*I teach Henry;*" "*She teaches me.*"

b. As the objective of a preposition, which is said to govern it; as "*This is for Henry;*" "*She gave this to me.*"

c. In apposition immediate, or by means of a verb, with some other noun objective; as "*I teach the boy, Henry;*" "*She teaches one pupil, — me;*" "*I know him to be a friend.*"

16. The nominative and objective are the same in form, and can only be distinguished by their position and meaning in the sentence. In their natural order, the nominative comes before the verb, and the objective after it. *Hogs (n) get pigs (o) all the year, and bitches (n) dogs (o).* (Butler). *The eagle (n) rode the rising blast (o).* *The garden (n) fears no*

blight (o), and *needs no fence* (o). (Cowper). *The spirit* (n) *raised a frightful cry* (o). (Dickens). *A land breeze* (n) *shook the shrouds* (o). (Cowper). *As he stood there awaiting his arrival* (o), *the knocker* (n) *caught his eye* (o). (Dickens).

14. Nouns are thus declined : —

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.		SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>Nom.</i>	Father	Fathers	<i>Nom.</i>	Man	Men
<i>Poss.</i> ¹⁾	Father's	Father's	<i>Poss.</i>	Man's	Men's
<i>Obj.</i>	Father	Fathers	<i>Obj.</i>	Man	Men

Adjective.

1. An **adjective** is a word *added to*, or put along with a noun to express its *quality*, or some distinguishing circumstance respecting it; as a **good man**, a **long journey**. They are not changed on account of the gender and number, or case of the nouns the distinguishing circumstance of which they express. We say as well a **good man** as a **good dog**.

2. As the word *adjective* (from the Latin *adjectus*) signifies *added to* something else, it cannot, as has been said, stand alone, but must refer to a substantive expressed or understood.

3. Adjectives have *three* degrees of comparison, namely, the **Positive**, the **Comparative**, and the **Superlative**.

4. The **positive** degree is the simple form of the adjective, expressing the quality of a noun without any increase or diminution; as *small*, *great*, *wise*. Equality of quality is expressed by **as** — **as** in *affirmative* and *interrogative* and by **so** — **as** in negative sentences; as, *I spoke of my own estates and property as if I was as rich as a duke*. (Thackeray). *Let your courage be as keen, but at the same time as polished as your sword*. (Sheridan).

Is not your uncle as old as mine? Has not your brother deserved a reward as well as his cousin? They are not so stupid as to try to make us believe that black is white? They do not study or practise so much as we should like them to do.

¹⁾ The possessive case is sometimes called the **genitive**, and the objective, the **accusative**.

5. Though the *positive degree* seems merely to lay down or state the quality of an object without instituting any comparison between it and other individuals of the same species, yet there is, in point of fact, such a comparison made. When I say, for instance, *that is a tall man*, I really, though tacitly, and perhaps unconsciously, make a comparison, with regard to stature, between him and the generality of men.

6. The *comparative* expresses an increase or diminution of the quality; as *nearer, smallest, wiser, less wise*. *Ex. The fair land through which they went never perhaps looked fairer.* (James). *Whatever brings us nearer to our happiness.* (Tillotson). *The philosopher who contemplates from the rock is a less noble image than the sailor who struggles with the storm.* (Bulwer). *The disorder in nature and the inanimate world will be no less, nor less strange and unaccountable, than those in mankind.* (Burnet).

The *comparative degree* is followed by the conjunction *than*; as, *He was older than most of his seniors.* (Thackeray). *The girl's sense of ridicule was far stronger than her gratitude.* (Thackeray). *Her face seemed whiter than the white dress she wore.* (Warren).

7. The *superlative* expresses the greatest increase or diminution of the quality; as *nearest, smallest, wisest, least wise*. *Ex: He could not conceive, he said, which was the nearest way from one given point to another.* (Warren). *Rebellion was the smallest part of Monmouth's crime.* (Macaulay). *They with speed their course through thickest constellations held.* (Milton). *Was I not in all worldly pretensions the least worthy of her suitors, and might I not seem therefore the most mercenary?* (Bulwer).

8. Adjectives of one syllable are generally compared by adding to the positive *er* for the *comparative*, as *small, smaller*; and *est* for the *superlative*, as *small, smallest*. If the adjective ends in *e*, only *r* or *st* is added; as *wise, wiser, wisest*; *free, freer, freest*. If the adjective in the positive degree ends in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, the consonant is doubled as well in the comparative as in the superlative degree; as, *mad, madder, maddest*; *big,*

bigger, biggest; thin, thinner, thinnest; as, Have I not An arm as big as thine? a heart as big? Thy words, I grant, are bigger. (Shak.) *The air was sad; but sadder still, It fell on Marmion's ear.* (Scott.) *O hark, O hear! how thin and clear, And thinner, clearer, further going!* (Tennyson.) *They are the fittest timber to make great politics of.* (Bacon.) *These things cannot come to pass without the greatest disorders imaginable, both in the minds of men and in external nature, and the saddest spectacles that eye can behold.* (Burnet).

Adjectives ending in **y** preceded by a consonant, change **y** into **i** before **er** and **est**; as *cleanly, cleanlier, cleanliest; ugly, uglier, ugliest*; as, *Now with pleasant pace a cleanlier road I mean to tread.* (Cowper.) *The more fair and crystal is the sky, The uglier seem the clouds that in it fly.* (Shak.) *Our most important are our earliest years.* (Cowper.) *Thou dost drink, and dance, and sing, Happier than the happiest king!* (Cowley.)

9. Adjectives of *two* or more syllables are generally compared by prefixing **more** and **most**; as *more valiant, most valiant*. But if diminution of quality is to be expressed, **less** and **least** are prefixed; as *less valiant, least valiant*. See the examples under 6 and 7.

10. Some adjectives of *two* syllables are compared either by adding **er** for the comparative, and **est** for the superlative; or by prefixing **more** and **most**; as *happy, happier, happiest, or more happy, most happy*. The adjectives compared in this way either end in **y**, as *happy*, or **e**, as *noble*. The ear, however, or euphony, is the best judge in such cases. Ex.: *He that acts sincerely, hath the easiest task in the world.* (Tillotson). *Bad meats will scarce breed good nourishment in the healthiest constitution.* (Milton). *They punished with the severest tortures, whoever dared to secrete any part of the consecrated offering.* (Hume). *Complaint is the largest tribute heaven receives, and the sincerest part of our devotion.* (Swift).

The grave is more easy for me than this dungeon. (Bunyan). *This most unamiable part of her character has been more strongly developed during the past year.* (Dickens). *I love to*

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bigger, biggest; thin, thinner, thinnest; as, Have I not An arm as big as thine? a heart as big? Thy words, I grant, are bigger. (Shak.) *The air was sad; but sadder still, It fell on Marmion's ear.* (Scott.) *O hark, O hear! how thin and clear, And thinner, clearer, further going!* (Tennyson.) *They are the fittest timber to make great politics of.* (Bacon.) *These things cannot come to pass without the greatest disorders imaginable, both in the minds of men and in external nature, and the saddest spectacles that eye can behold.* (Burnet).

Adjectives ending in **y** preceded by a consonant, change **y** into **i** before *er* and *est*; as *cleanly, cleaner, cleanest; ugly, uglier, ugliest*; as, *Now with pleasant pace a cleaner road I mean to tread.* (Cowper.) *The more fair and crystal is the sky, The uglier seem the clouds that in it fly.* (Shak.) *Our most important are our earliest years.* (Cowper.) *Thou dost drink, and dance, and sing, Happier than the happiest king!* (Cowley.)

9. Adjectives of *two* or more syllables are generally compared by prefixing **more** and **most**; as *more valiant, most valiant*. But if diminution of quality is to be expressed, **less** and **least** are prefixed; as *less valiant, least valiant*. See the examples under 6 and 7.

10. Some adjectives of *two* syllables are compared either by adding **er** for the comparative, and **est** for the superlative; or by prefixing **more** and **most**; as *happy, happier, happiest, or more happy, most happy*. The adjectives compared in this way either end in **y**, as *happy*, or **e**, as *noble*. The ear, however, or euphony, is the best judge in such cases. Ex.: *He that acts sincerely, hath the easiest task in the world.* (Tillotson). *Bad meals will scarce breed good nourishment in the healthiest constitution.* (Milton). *They punished with the severest tortures, whoever dared to secrete any part of the consecrated offering.* (Hume). *Complaint is the largest tribute heaven receives, and the sincerest part of our devotion.* (Swift).

The grave is more easy for me than this dungeon. (Bunyan). *This most unamiable part of her character has been more strongly developed during the past year.* (Dickens). *I love to*

converse only with the more grave and sensible part of the sex. (Goldsmith). *Here and there, among the thick graves of unquiet and aspiring statesmen lie more delicate sufferers.* (Macaulay). *Whoever refused to submit to their decree was exposed to the most severe penalties.* (Hume).

11. Though the ear is the best guide to determine whether the comparison should be expressed by changing the *termination*, or by prefixing *more* and *most* the following rules will be found to be generally prevalent.

By a change of termination are generally compared :

a. Adjectives of one syllable; as *tall*, *taller*, *tallest*; *wise*, *wiser*, *wisest*.

b. Adjectives of two syllables ending in *y*; as *busy*, *busier*, *busiest*; *dirty*, *dirtier*, *dirtiest*.

c. Adjectives of two syllables in *le*; as *noble*, *nobler*, *noblest*; *simple*, *simpler*, *simplest*.

d. Adjectives of two syllables with the accent on the second syllable; as *gentle*, *genteler*, *gentelest*; *forlorn*, *forlornier*, *forlornest*.

Adjectives which are not to be brought under any of these rules have *more* and *most* prefixed to them in the degrees of comparison.

12. The degrees of comparison are irregularly formed in the following adjectives:

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
<i>Bad, evil, ill</i>	<i>worse</i>	<i>worst.</i>
<i>far</i>	<i>farther or further</i>	<i>farthest or furthest.</i>
<i>fore</i>	<i>former</i>	<i>first.</i>
<i>good</i>	<i>better</i>	<i>best.</i>
<i>late</i>	<i>later or latter</i>	<i>latest or last.</i>
<i>little</i>	<i>littler or less</i>	<i>littlest or least.</i>
<i>much (many)</i>	<i>more</i>	<i>most.</i>
<i>near</i>	<i>nearer</i>	<i>nearest or next.</i>
<i>old</i>	<i>older or elder</i>	<i>oldest or eldest.</i>

Farther means *more distant*.

Further implies *more forward*.

Later and **lat t** are used with reference to *time*.

Latter and **last** refer to *rank* and *order*.

Littler and **littlest**, mean small in *extent* or *size*.

Less and **least** express the idea of a *smaller* or *lower degree*.

Much is used before things that are *measured* or *weighed*.

Many can only be used before quantities that are numbered.

Nearest means *shortest*, *most direct*.

Next refers to *time*, *place*, *order*.

Elder and **eldest** are used in speaking of *persons* and generally only in comparing the age of members of the same family.

Examples: *My uncle Toby proceeded no farther.* (Sterne). *They now travelled far and farther than I can tell.* (Goldsmith). *That time for thee Were better farthest off.* (Milton.) *He seldom goes far abroad, and his credit stretcheth further than his travel.* (Fuller). *I told my companion, I had been at the further end of the city.* (Fielding). *I was permitted now to continue my journey without any further molestation.* (Smollet). *Travel you far on, or are you at the furthest!* (Shak.). *The knight waved his hand, and looked so expressively upon the baron, that the latter restrained his resentment, and passed on.* (Radcliffe). *I must excuse myself upon the principle of reserving the best to the last.* (Marryat). *You shall now receive, my dear wife, my last words in these my last lines.* (Raleigh). *Is the crime much less to kill ourselves by a slow poison than by a sudden wound?* (Temple). *Many tyrants rose; The least the proudest.* (Thomson). *Those who have most virtue in their mouths, have least of it in their bosoms.* (Goldsmith). *Reckless and profuse expense distinguished the courts of the lesser nobles as well as of the superior princes.* (W. Scott). *They cannot dispatch so much business in so short a time.* (Addison). *It has been observed by many writers, that Socrates was little moved at this sort of buffoonery.* (Addison). *He could not conceive, he said, which was the nearest way from one given point to another.* (Warren). *It would be an easy matter to overtake the coach, if not the next day, at farthest the day after the next.* (Smollet). *At sunrise the next morning the search was recommenced, and Buyse was found.* (Macaulay). *The elder of the two might have attained the age of thirty.* (Bulwer).

I asked him, whether he had yet married his eldest daughter? (Addison). *My eldest son was bred at Oxford.* (Goldsmith). *The king of Portugal determined to settle the sovereignty of Brazil upon his eldest son.* (Canning).

13. Some adjectives form their superlative by adding **most** to the comparative form; as *nether*, *nethermost*; *lower*, *lowermost*; *under*, *undermost*. Others, by adding *most* either to the positive or comparative; as *hind*, *hindmost*, or *hindermost*; *up*¹⁾, *upmost*, or *uppermost*; *in*, *inmost*, or *innermost*; *out*, *outmost* or *utmost*, *outermost* or *uttermost*; *top*, *topmost*. Ex.: *The giant, for the first time, was foremost now.* (Goldsmith). *When the Brigg of Turk was won, The headmost horseman rode alone.* (Scott). *'Tis not his wont to be the hindmost man.* (Shak.). *Oft in glimmering bowers and glades He met her, and in secret shades Of woody Ida's inmost grove.* (Milton). *The midmost battles hast'ning up behind.* (Dryden). *All through the passage there he was, first at the braces, outermost on the yards.* (Dickens). *The nightingale may claim the topmost bough.* (Cowper). *He seems to know and respond to what was uppermost at our hearts when he was born.* (Bulwer). *In all the public establishments of America. the utmost courtesy prevails.* (Dickens). *I will be free Even to the uttermost, in words.* (Shak.).

14. The words *prior*, *exterior*, *interior*, *inferior*, *superior*, *ulterior* etc., though comparatives in Latin, are not to be considered as such in English for: 1. They have not the form of English comparatives. 2. They are not followed by *than*, as all English comparatives are. 3. Several of them have a truly positive meaning; as *interior*, which simply means *inside* in contradistinction to *exterior*, *outside*. Besides, it does not follow that every adjective which implies comparison is, therefore, in the comparative degree. If this were so, *preferable* (better than), *previous* (prior to), and several others, would rank as comparatives.

15. The word **rather** is used to express a small degree,

¹⁾ *Up* and *out* are properly adverbs; *in* is a preposition; and *top* a substantive. They may however be used as *adjectives*, as here.

or excess of a quality; as *rather sweet*. *I had come in with an idea of distinguishing myself rather, conceiving that I was very well prepared.* (Dickens).

*He sought through the world, but sought in vain,
And nowhere finding, rather fear'd her slain.* (Dryden).

16. Words as **square, round; gold, Silk, Arabian, snow-white, chief, extreme, perfect, universal** and others which common reason tells us not to admit extension or diminution cannot be compared. Sometimes however the word **very** or any word of similar import, is placed before an adjective in the positive degree and converts it into what is called the **superlative of eminence**; as, *He was most violently attached to the contrary opinion.* (Goldsmith). *The cold was most severe.* (Dickens). *The pictures of our grandmothers in queen Elizabeth's time are clothed down to the very wrists and up to their very chin.* (Addison). *Those who had drunk of Circe's cup, were turned into very beasts.* (Davies). *Is not this medium exceedingly more rare and subtle than the air, and exceedingly more elastic and active?* (Newton).

17. A gradual increase of the quality expressed by the adjective is denoted by a repetition of the comparative degree; as,

The more the kindled combat rises higher

The more with fury burns the blazing fire. (Dryden).

The more God has blessed any man with estate or quality, the more he should take care of his children's education. (Swift). *The heavier the storm the shorter its duration* (Bulwer): *The more the self-interest is enlightened, the less we are influenced by it.* (Bulwer).

18. When three or more persons or things are to be compared, we make of course use of the comparative and superlative degree, but when only two are compared the comparative is used contrary to the practice in Dutch. Suppose a father have several sons, in speaking of them he will mention *Charles* as the *eldest* and *William* as *older* than either *John* or *Stephen*; but if he have but two children, he will say "*I made the excursion with my elder daughter, the younger preferring to keep her mother company.*"

19. It is as correct to say *Charles is older than William by two years*, as *Charles is two years older than William*.

20. In some cases the superlative may be converted into the comparative, and the comparative into the superlative, without changing the meaning. Thus, instead of saying „John is the *tallest* boy in the school,” we might convey the same meaning by saying, „John is *taller* than any other in the school.”

21. The adjectives **like** and **worth** govern the objective case; as, *Be strong and quit yourselves like men*. (Transl. of the Bible). *The castle appeared a place worth the keeping, and capable to be made secure against a good army*. (Clarendon).

22. If the complement of an adjective is a verb, the complement can be expressed by an *infinitive mood* or by a *present participle*, as; *I am fearful of hurting your feelings* or *I am fearful to hurt your feelings*, but if the complement of an adjective consists of a noun or a pronoun it is joined to it by means of a preposition.

23. The following adjectives require the prepositions put after them.

19. The following adjectives require the preposition **of**

Afraid of	Dubious of	Jealous of	Shy of
Amorous of	Fearful of	Lavish of	Sick of
Apprehensive of	Fond of	Mindful of	Sparing of
Ashamed of	Forgetful of	Negligent of	Susceptible of
Avaricious of	Full of	Patient of	Tenacious of
Aware of	Glad of	Positive of	Tender of
Blind of (one eye)	Greedy of	Prodigal of	Thoughtless of
Capable of	Guilty of	Productive of	Tired of
Clear of	Heedful of	Profuse of	Vain of
Conscious of	Heedless of	Proud of	Void of
Deaf of (one ear)	Inclusive of	Saving of	Wasteful of
Descriptive of	Innocent of	Sensible of	Weary of
Desirous of	Insensible of	Short of	Worthy of
Diffident of			

20. The Preposition **to** is used after the following.

Acceptable to	Agreeable to	Allied to	Averse to
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Blind to	Fatal to	Obvious to	Preferable to
Callous to	Favourable to	Odious to	Unequal to
Contrary to	Inadequate to	Open to	Useful to
Deaf to	Liable to	Pernicious to	Visible to
Evident to			

3^o. The following have **at**.

Apt at	Disappointed at	Prompt at	Surprised at
Clever at	Grieved at	Ready at	Troubled at

4^o. The following take **from**.

Absent from	Different from	Far from	Secure from
Clear from	Estranged from	Free from	Safe from
Distant from	Evident from	Remote from	Separable from

5^o. The following take **with**.

Angry with	Conversant with	Inconsistent with
Big with	Customary with	Rich with

6^o. The next take **in**.

Conversant in	Earnest in	Steady in
Curious in	Indifferent in (to)	Useful in
Deficient in	Skilful in	Versed in
Diligent in	Successful in	

7^o. The next take **for**.

Famous for Sorry for.

Ex.: *I was apprehensive of interrupting you.* (Sheridan). *The valetudinarians who are conscious of their weak part, avoid the least breath of air.* (Ibid.). *I should detest myself if I thought my heart was capable of ingratitude.* (Fielding). *This young gentleman was not insensible of the charms of Sophia.* (Ibid.). *He has been absolutely guilty of one or the other of these crimes.* (Ibid.). *As we are diffident of our own abilities let us here invite a superior power to our assistance.* (ibid). *This circumstance is highly descriptive both of his own character and of that of the age in which he lived.* (Gillies). *Love must carefully keep clear of those vicious weeds which are too apt to surround it.* (Fielding). *Thoughtless of beauty she was beauty's self.* (Thomson). *Patient of thirst and toil, son of the desert! even the camel feels, shot through his withered heart, the fiery blast.* (Thomson). *Ye, Masters! then be mindful of the*

rough laborious hand that sinks you soft in elegance and ease. (ibid.). His consciousness of strength made him negligent of the laws of property. (W. Scott). They are remarkably tenacious of reputation. (Sheridan). He was bound by a necessity which rendered him unsusceptible of all remorse. (Bulwer). A bank profuse of flowers. (Milton).

The nature of that good man made him averse to any baseness or treachery. (Fielding). The least attempt of such a kind would make the guilty person for ever odious to his eyes. (ibid.). We are sensible that our highest abilities are very inadequate to the task. (ibid.). He was already obnoxious to Mr. Western. (ibid.). It renders him liable to the charge of stupidity. (ibid.). I was deaf to every thing but the suggestions of my love. (Smollet). The useful quality of courage was peculiarly acceptable to the stern God of war. (Gillies). This rendered him callous to every obstacle. (Bulwer).

His behaviour was very different from that of the other persons (Fielding). It is evident from his writings that every important event appeared to the Greeks the reward of their religion, or the punishment of their irreligion. (Gillies).

This may seem inconsistent with that character which he has hitherto maintained. (Fielding). The orchard big with bending fruit. (Thomson). The pure Dorsetian downs — yonder shagg'd with wood, here rich with harvest, and there white with flocks. (Thomson).

This institution had been equally useful in promoting domestic concord. (Gillies). The philosopher knew very well what virtue was, though he was not always perhaps steady in its pursuits. (Fielding).

24. Substantives are often used as adjectives; as a *gold* ring, a *silver* spoon, a *corn* field. Such words, when incorporated, as *bookseller*, or connected by a hyphen, as *steam-engine*, are considered as forming one compound word, and

are called **compound substantives**. A **compound adjective** is one that consists of two or more words connected by a hyphen; as *well-known*, *milk-white*, *ivy-mantled*, *eighteen-hundred-and-forty-seven*¹⁾.

25. An adjective can only be used as a substantive in the plural number and with the definite article. In such cases a whole class of persons is expressed by it; as, *Learn from the creature dearest to your heart, how bad the **Bad** are born.* (Dickens). *Deep is the sleep of the **dead**; low their pillow of dust.* (Macpherson). *The **Music of the French** is indeed very properly adapted to their pronunciation and accent.* (Spectator). *His lenity to the **bad** was cruelty to the **good**.* (Pinker-ton). *The **happy** only are the truly **great**.* (Young). *We appeal to every one who has the least knowledge or observation of life, whether the **busy**, or the **idle**, have the most agreeable enjoyment of themselves.* (Blair). *Fearless there the **lowly** sleep.* (Hemans). *The **suspicious** are generally dissembling and revengeful.* (Lingard).

26. Some adjectives indeed, have been considered as real substantives, by their frequent occurrence as such, on which account the plural form is not denied to them; such are f. i. the words: *ancients*, *bettors*, *blacks*, *catholics*, *dears*, *domestics*, *elders*, *exotics*, *indifferents*, *moderns*, *morals*, *natives*, *necessaries*, *particulars*, *relatives*, *savages*, *spirituals*, *temporals*, *whites*, as may be seen from the following quotations: *The rules of the **ancients** were yet known to few.* (Johnson). *Our **bettors** have hit upon the expedient of electing each other.* (Goldsmith). *Having first allowed the catholic churches to go to ruin, they then turn round on the **catholics**, and by act of parliament make us rebuild them.* (O'Connell). *A merry Christmas to us all, my **dears**.* (Dickens). *He was recognised with a shriek by some of the female **domestics**.* (Warren). *She has the assistance of a council of **elders**.* (Dickens). *Some from the greenhouse*

¹⁾ The hyphen is not always used in such cases. By adding *th* to the last word we have a compound ordinal numeral; as "In the eighteen hundred and forty-seventh year of our Lord."

ranged exotics round. (Bloomfield). *The indifferents might be counted on to cry King George or King James, accordingly as either should prevail.* (Thackeray). *The great contention of criticism is to find the faults of the moderns, and the beauties of the ancients.* (Johnson). *We have not the best schools of morals here.* (James). *A sylvan life till then the natives led.* (Thomson). *Many thousands are in want of common necessities.* (Dickens). *I had the whole particulars of the conversation from her ladyship's companion.* (Thackeray). *It was in vain I pressed him to tell me who his relatives were.* (Warren). *The Spaniard spoke the language of the savages pretty well.* (Defoe). *Their infallible master has a right over kings, not only in spirituals but temporals.* (Dryden). *Some of the drivers are blacks, some whites.* (Dickens).

27. When adjectives are used in the possessive case, as *one's*, they are also to be considered as real substantives; as in the sentences: *One ought to know one's own mind. I will not destroy it for twenty's sake. The cause of his inveteracy against the deceased, was the deceased's having won considerably.* (Warren).

28. The following sentences will show that even in the singular, chiefly for expressing abstract ideas adjectives are sometimes considered as substantives: *She was answered in the affirmative.* (Warren). *I doubt, Mr. Fag, you ha'n't changed for the better.* (Sheridan). *Dark needs no candles now, for dark is light.* (Shak.). *Night deceived me on the deep.* (Macpherson). *He soon learnt to speak English perfectly, and to forget some of his French.* (Thackeray). *The good which is in them shall outweigh the bad.* (Dryden). *Only two of our battalions were shaken in the least.* (Thackeray). *How can the less the greater comprehend.* (Dryden). *The moral follows the material in accelerated speed.* (James). *Will you do the needful for me?* (Warren). *No passion unfolds itself sooner than the love of the ornamental.* (Canning).

Go, soar with Plato to the empyreal sphere,

To the first good, first perfect, and first fair. (Pope).

No longer Autumn's glowing red

Upon our forest hills is shed. (Scott).

I bloomed for two years in the blue and silver of a fellow commoner of Trinity. (Bulwer). *The extraordinary, if it be not ludicrous, is always easily convertible into the awful; and where, as in the present instance, it becomes intimately interwoven with all the doubtful, the mysterious, and the fearful in our state of being, it reaches that point of the sublime to which the heart of every man is most sensible.* (James). *Shakespeare approximates the remote, and familiarizes the wonderful.* (Johnson). *We do not know the worst.* (Chatham). *You've done your worst.* (B. & F.).

29. Besides the common or general class of adjectives, there are four others, namely, *Proper*, *Numeral*, *Pronominal*, and *Verbal* or *Participial*.

30. **Proper adjectives** are formed from proper names; as *Socratic*, *Johnsonian*, *British*.

31. **Numeral adjectives** are of two kinds: **cardinal**, which express a number absolutely, as *one*, *two*, *three*; and **ordinal**, which denote the *order* or succession in which any number of persons or things is mentioned, as *first*, *second*, *third*. The rules about the *Numeral adjectives* have been sufficiently explained in the first volume. A few sentences in which this part of speech is used in a rather remarkable and peculiar way may find their place here.

CARDINAL NUMBERS.

All was delusion, nought was truth. (Scott). *I must be fed, if I make one.* (Dickens). *An ell or two of prospect we command.* (Cowper). *They came in two by two.* (Spectator). *An apple, cleft in two, is not more twin Than these two creatures.* (Shak.). *The utterance of a brace of tongues Must needs want pleading for a pair of eyes.* (Shak.). *Can you lie three in a bed?* (Goldsmith). *Do they ever wonder why their masters walk upright in lieu of going on all-fours.* (Dickens). *I met a travelling carriage-and-four thundering down the road.* (Warren). *A couple of sentinels were posted at the gate — a half-dozen more walked towards the stable.* (Thackeray). *Each one a six-foot bow could bend.* (Scott). *We breakfast commonly*

between eight and nine. (Cowper). My travelling carriage-and-four will be at your door to-morrow morning between nine and ten o'clock. (Warren). The same medicine should suit the old weather-beaten uncle, and the nephew in his teens. (Bulwer). As seamen frequent these haunts, there are maritime pictures by the dozen. (Dickens). The famous Mr. Congreve I saw a dozen of times at Button's. (Thackeray). These fifteen years you have been in a dream. (Shak.). Twenty to one then he is shipp'd already. (Shak.). Five and six are eleven, and four are fifteen, and six are twenty-one. (James). She was apparently about four or five-and-twenty. (Warren). She was then about twenty-six or seven years of age. (Warren). For three-score years in penance spent, My knees those flinty stones have worn. (Scott). Sometimes they consisted of thousands, sometimes of simple tens. (James). In July 1841 no fewer than nine hundred and seventy-eight of these girls were depositors in the Lowell Savings Bank: the amount of whose joint savings was estimated at one hundred thousand dollars, or twenty thousand English pounds. (Dickens). Many a merchant who never made a hundred pounds by fair trade, makes thousands and hundreds of thousands by cheating the Customs. (James).

ORDINAL NUMBERS.

Mortals, whose pleasures are their only care, First wish to be imposed on, and then are. (Cowper). The old saying is, the third pays for all. (Shak.). Leaving Boston on the afternoon of Saturday the fifth of February, we proceeded by another railroad to Worcester. (Dickens). Externally it had a strong Harry-the-Eighth look about it. (James). We left it with no little regret on the evening of Friday the 11th. (Dickens). From Nature's chain whatever link you strike, Tenth or ten thousandth, breaks the chain alike. (Pope).

FRACTIONS.

The causes of one-half of our actions are unknown to us. (James). After two hours and a half of this odd travelling . . . we reached Hartford. (Dickens). I should think it must have

been of about half a pony power. (Dickens). Every half-league of the road made a change in the scenery. (James). It did not appear a third part so big as it was before. (Addison). I sum up half mankind, And add two thirds of the remaining half. (Cowper). He had committed to memory nearly three-fourths of the whole play. (Warren). A man of fashion of that time often passed a quarter of his day at cards, and another quarter at drink. (Thackeray). Nine-tenths of it existed but in rumour. (Thackeray). 'T is a wonderful thing for him to know even a fiftieth part of what he does. (Warren).

MULTIPLICATIVE NUMBERS.

He could only produce a single witness in a point where the law required the testimony of two persons. (Addison). Every cell has double doors. (Dickens). This is my twofold object. (Bulwer). The knight would never have hesitated to attack a body of double, or perhaps treble his own number. (James). This triple realm adores thee. (Cowper). Even that power, which gave me first my oath, Provokes me to this threefold perjury. (Shak.). What I had heard during his absence, made me now look on him with tenfold interest. (Warren).

MULTIPLICATIVE ADVERBS OF NUMBER.

What can be done once can be done twice. (Bulwer). He is twice her age. (Bulwer). My uncle walked, or rather stumped, three times up and down the room. (Bulwer). Three times Arose the well-known martial chimes, And thrice their high heroic pride In melancholy murmurs died. (Scott). If you offered him ten times the sum, he wouldn't take it. (James). In the keen evening air, every sharp outline looked a hundred times sharper than ever. (Dickens). The sun is several thousand times bigger than the earth. (Swift).

32. **Pronominal adjectives** comprise all the pronouns that can be used as *adjectives*. Of these there are four classes,

namely, the **Possessive**, **Distributive**, **Demonstrative**, and **Indefinite**. The Pronominal adjectives are usually called Adjective Pronouns. See under the head „Pronoun.”

33. **Verbal or Participial adjectives** are the participles of verbs used as adjectives; ‘an *interesting* story,’ ‘a *charming* prospect,’ a *finished* scholar,’ ‘a *broken* reed.” *The strong-curling monsters from his side His full-extended fury cannot tear.* (Thomson). *Did not the one deserve to have an heir? Is not his heir a well-deserving son?* (Shak.) *He was a handsome, fine-looking man.* (Marryat). *The suburbs are, if possible, even more unsubstantial-looking than the city.* (Dickens).

I hate such old-fashioned trumpery (Goldsmith). *Hast thou left thy blue course in heaven, golden-haired son of the sky!* (Macpherson). *He is broken-hearted already.* (Sterne). *We are all short-sighted, and very often see but one side of a matter.* (Locke). *He is the pleasantest-spoken gentleman you ever heard.* (Dickens).

I have known a man's career in life blasted, by ignorance on this important, this all-important subject. (Thackeray) *Whatever befell her was by the will of One all-wise and all-good, as well as all-powerful.* (James). *There is a bomb-proof fort here of great strength.* (Dickens). *His hair, naturally black as jet, was now of sad iron-gray colour.* (Warren). *Outdoor costume seemed as if it did not become one so long an invalid.* (Warren). *Their shoes were far from being water-proof.* (Dickens). *Truly, truly, we would-be practical men are fools!* (Bulwer).

REPETITION OF THE ADJECTIVE.

34. Adjectives need not be repeated when qualifying nouns of the same number; as, a **beautiful and accomplished** girl, a **generous and amiable** conduct.

The repetition of the adjective is required when the nouns are of different number; as, a **beautiful** house and **beautiful** gardens, a **handsome** man and **handsome** women.

35. To avoid the repetition of a noun after a singular substantive, the pronoun **one** is used, which in the same case becomes **ones** after a substantive in the plural number.

Examples.

SINGULAR.

*Except when a branch road joins the **main one**, there is seldom more than one track of rails.* (Dickens). *Directly the acrimony of the last election is over, the acrimony of the **next one** begins.* (Dickens). *Many of these rooms had doors which led into the **one adjacent**.* (James).

PLURAL.

*An idle reason lessens the weight of the **good ones** you gave before.* (Swift). *When there were only a few books, at least they were **good ones**.* (Bulwer). *Blindly adopting nominal pleasures I lost **real ones**.* (Chesterfield). *My **sweet ones**, all come forth and play.* (Cunningham).

PLACE OF THE ADJECTIVE.

36. The usual place of the adjective is before the substantive it qualifies. Among the many instances of its being placed after the substantive the following are the most important:

a. The words *adry, adrift, afeard, afloat, afraid, aghast, aground, akin, alike, alive, aloft, alone, alost, ashamed, ashore, aside, askew, asleep, athirst, awake, aware, behind-hand, elect, pursuant, worth.*

We may say. "*It is not good that man should be **alone**,*" but we cannot say "*an alone man.*" "*The poor boy was very much **ashamed***" is perfectly right, but it would not do to say "*an ashamed boy.*"

b. When the adjective is qualified by some word or words forming with the adjective itself what is called a *complex adjective*; as, *a prince fit for government. To cherish the dawn of merit, and hasten its maturity was a **work worthy a noble Roman**.* (Addison). *Though the young Lady cannot be rich, she has still a competence sufficient to give content.* (Goldsmith).

c. When the adjective is used as a title; as, *Peter the Great*. *Charles the Bold*; when it is used *emphatically*; as, *Glaucus looked back on the melancholy city of Harmodius the Free and Pericles the Magnificent*. (Bulwer). *I felt a confusion unspeakable at again seeing him*. (Burney). *Cleomera dances with all the elegance of motion imaginable*. (Addison). Or when it may be considered as connected to the substantive by an omitted relative pronoun and the verb *to be*; as, *In times long past* (i. e. that are long past) *they established there a colony*. (Washington-Irving). *His ruminations were of a nature peculiarly agitating*. (W. Scott).

d. Often when an adjective is attended by the word *so*; as, *Her youth, health and innocence were still heightened by a complexion so transparent and such a sensibility of look as even age could not gaze on with indifference*. (Goldsmith). *Mucius does it grieve me, it is the monarch of a people, so civilized and courteous, and so renowned for sentiment and fine feelings, that I have to reason with*. (Sterne). *An interposition so wonderfully circumstanced can never be recollected without benefit*. (Burney).

Observations. Such expressions as: *ambassador-extraordinary, gazette-extraordinary, knight-errant, major-general, attorney-general, court-martial, the prince-regent, a noun substantive a verb active, the participle present (ambassador-, minister-), plenipotentiary, blood-(chapel, prince, princess) royal* are only to be considered as the consequence of a tendency to omit the adjective; in general we should not be too anxious to bring all these exceptions under particular rules, for we may as well find in the best authors expressions as the following: *an impossible attempt; a momentary visit; an inconsiderable trouble; the next morning; the last evening; the present conversation, all imaginable haste, every possible endeavour*. Poets too on account of the rhyme often put the adjectives after their substantives; as, *The duchess and her daughters fair, and every gentle lady there*. (W. Scott). *The patient search and vigil long of him who treasures up a wrong*. (Byron). The same may be observed of expressions containing a super-

lative degree; Ex.: *As this explanation will require that I should divulge secrets of a nature the most delicate, I must entreat you to regard them as sacred.* (Frances Burney). *My disposition was as free from meanness as his own and I made a determination most solemn, never to lessen its dignity by submitting to pecuniary obligations.* (Burney). *Upon the accusations the most absurd and groundless, their persons and property were exposed to every turn of popular fury.* (W. Scott).

37. An **adjective** enters into construction in four ways:

1^o. In immediate agreement with a noun-substantive, with which logic requires that it should make one sense; as, "*Fine cloth*;" "*Good reasoning*;" "*Conduct fair and noble*." And note, that an **article**, which is a sort of adjective, enters into construction in the same way; as "*A house*;" "*The houses*."

2^o. In agreement with a noun-substantive by means of a verb neuter; as "*This cloth is fine*;" "*The reasoning appeared good*."

3^o. Having an infinitive sense with a verb infinitive or a participle; as "*To be fine is no proof of gentility, but to be amiable and polite*;" or "*Being fine is no proof, etc., but being amiable and polite*."

4^o. As a substantive, or taken substantively; as "*The amiable and polite*, and not the *fine* in garb, are properly esteemed genteel."

Pronouns.

1. A pronoun is a word used *for*, or instead of, a *noun* to prevent a too frequent repetition of the same word; as in the following sentence: —

"John gave *his* pen to James, and *he* lent *it* to Jane to write *her* copy with *it*." The words in *italics* are **pronouns**, and if no such words were known the *nouns* which they represent would have to be repeated in every instance; as John gave *John's* pen to James, and *James* lent *the pen* to Jane to write *Jane's* copy with *the pen*. Such a repetition of the same word would not only be disagreeable to the ear, but would tend to clog and embarrass our discourse.



c. When the adjective is used as a title; as, *Peter the Great*. *Charles the Bold*; when it is used *emphatically*; as, *Glaucus looked back on the melancholy city of Harmodius the Free and Pericles the Magnificent*. (Bulwer). *I felt a confusion unspeakable at again seeing him*. (Burney). *Cleomera dances with all the elegance of motion imaginable*. (Addison). Or when it may be considered as connected to the substantive by an omitted relative pronoun and the verb *to be*; as, *In times long past* (i. e. that are long past) *they established there a colony*. (Washington-Irving). *His ruminations were of a nature peculiarly agitating*. (W. Scott).

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2. There are three kinds of pronouns, *Personal*, *Relative*, and *Adjective*.

3. **Personal** pronouns are so called because they stand for or represent *persons*. There are five personal pronouns—namely, **I**, **thou**, **he**, **she**, **it**, with their plurals, **we**, **ye** or **you**, **they**.

4. As the proper use of **it** is to represent an inanimate thing, or an irrational animal, it is, properly speaking, an **impersonal** pronoun. In certain cases, however, it is applicable to each of the three persons in both numbers; as '*It is I*;' '*It was you*;' '*Was it they*?' ¹⁾ *It was in vain that I bit my under lip, almost till it brought blood.* (Warren). *It is I that am pleased with beholding his gaiety.* (Taylor). *It was some time before I could conjecture what was the matter.* (Warren). *I see how it is.* (Warren). *I saw what o'clock it was.* (Warren). *Is it thou, O King?* (Byron). *How far is it, my lord, to Berkley now?* (Shak.). *It is an ancient Mariner.* (Coleridge). *'T is for a poor gentleman.* (Sterne).

5. As personal pronouns are substitutes for nouns, they possess their properties, as *gender*, *number*, and *case*.

6. It is only in the third person singular that the genders are distinguished—namely, **he**, **she**, **it**. As the *first* and *second* persons (**I**, **thou**, **we**, **ye**, or **you**) are *present*, the gender in each case is obvious.

7. There are *three* persons, ²⁾ *first*, *second*, and *third*. The **first** person is the *person that speaks*; the **second** is the *person spoken to*; and the **third** is the *person or thing spoken of*.

8. A familiar idea of the grammatical meaning of *person* may be communicated to the learner in this way. *Speaking* implies *two* persons — the person from whom the voice pro-

¹⁾ In such cases, *it* represents the subject of a proposition or sentence, and not the neuter pronoun.

²⁾ This term is derived from the Latin word *persona*, a theatrical mask, covering the entire head and face, with the exception of an aperture opposite to, and corresponding with the mouth, through which the voice of the speaker (*sounded*) proceeded. From the *mask*, the term was naturally transferred to the *actor*; next to the **character** or **individual** represented; and finally, to any *individual* or **person**.

ceeds, and the person to whom it is addressed. The former is called the *first* person, because the voice or speech proceeds from, or *commences* with him; and the latter is called the *second* person, because it goes or is addressed to him. The term for the person speaking is *I*, and for the person addressed, *Thou*. When the person speaking includes another, or others, with himself, he uses the term *We*; and when he addresses more than one person, he says *Ye* or *You*, instead of *Thou*. Hence, *We* is called the first person plural, and *Ye* or *You*, the second person plural. (Strictly speaking, *You* is now generally used for *Thou*, that is, when only *one* person is addressed.) The other pronouns (*He*, *She*, *It*), and all nouns are said to be of the *third* person, because they are spoken of, that is, they are neither the person speaking, nor the person spoken to.

9. The personal pronouns are thus declined: —

PERSON.	CASE.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
First	<i>Nom.</i>	I	We
	<i>Poss.</i>	Mine	Ours
	<i>Obj.</i>	Me	Us
Second	<i>Nom.</i>	Thou	Ye or you
	<i>Poss.</i>	Thine	Yours
	<i>Obj.</i>	Thee	You
Third Masc :	<i>Nom.</i>	He	They
	<i>Poss.</i>	His	Theirs
	<i>Obj.</i>	Him	Them
Third Fem :	<i>Nom.</i>	She	They
	<i>Poss.</i>	Hers	Theirs
	<i>Obj.</i>	Her	Them
Third Neuter	<i>Nom.</i>	It	They
	<i>Poss.</i>	Its	Theirs
	<i>Obj.</i>	It	Them

10. The *personal* pronouns ¹⁾ are the only real pronouns;

¹⁾ The Personal Pronouns have the nature of Substantives, and, as such, stand by themselves: the rest have the nature of Adjectives, and, as such, are joined to Substantives, and may be called Pronominal Adjectives.

for they alone are used as **substitutes for nouns**. All the other pronouns refer to nouns, and are, therefore, strictly speaking, *adjectives*.

Relative pronouns.

1. A **relative** pronoun is so called, because it *relates* to some noun or phrase *going before*, which is thence called the *antecedent*; as 'The person **who** told me.'

2. The relatives are **who**, **which**, and **that**. **Who** is applied to *persons*, and **which** to *animals* and *inanimate* things; as „*Happy is the man who findeth wisdom;*” ‘*This is the horse which I bought;*’ ‘*This is the pen which I sent him.*’ They deceive you, Sir, **who** tell you that you have many friends, **whose** affectations are founded upon a principle of personal attachment. (Junius). Religion, **which** made a greater feature in the Vendéen war, was not among the motives which instigated the army of Montrose. (Scott).

3. **Who** is applied to inferior animals when, as in fables, they are represented as acting and speaking like rational beings. **Which** is applied to infants, or very young children, and was formerly applied to persons, like *who*; as in the Lord's Prayer. *Our Father which art in heaven, Hallowed be thy name.* (Bible).

4. **That**, as a relative, is used to prevent the too frequent repetition of **who** and **which**; as, „*Happy is the man who findeth wisdom, and the man that getteth understanding.*”

5. **That** may be substituted for either *who* or *which*, and is consequently applicable both to persons and things. When *that* is neither a relative nor a demonstrative pronoun, it is a **conjunction**. The cases in which **that** is preferable to *who* and *which* are the following.

a. After the words **all**, **any**, **same** and ordinal numbers; as, *All the shell fishes that produce pearl, produce them not for him.* (Taylor). *What warmth is there in your affection towards any of these princely suitors, that are already come.* (Shak.) *Pain is often produced by the same objects and ideas that produce pleasure in us.* (Locke). *Are not his subjects' fields bedewed with the same showers that water his pleasure*

grounds? (Taylor). *The king's son was the first man that leaped.* (Shak.).

b. After an adjective in the superlative degree; as,

Prayer is the simplest form of speech

That infant lips can try;

Prayer the sublimest strains that reach,

The Majesty on high. (Montgomery).

c. After the antecedent *who*; as, **Who that had ever known ye, could have wished you other than ye were.** (Bulwer). **The man and his donkey that pass our house daily.**

d. If the words to which it relates require partly *who* and partly *which*; as, *The woman and the estate that became his portion.* (Murray). *The man and the horse that we mentioned yesterday.*

It is a *relative*, when it can be turned into *who* or *which* without altering the meaning; and a *demonstrative*, when it is placed immediately before a noun expressed or understood — or when its place can be supplied by the definite article *the*.

6. The relative pronoun may sometimes be omitted as subject; as, *There was a remarkable incident () attended this tavern play.* (Fielding). *There was never law, or sect, or opinion, () did so magnify goodness as the Christian Religion doth.* (Bacon).

However it occurs much more frequently that the relative pronoun is omitted in the objective case, sometimes even the relative pronoun and the preposition by which it is governed are both omitted, as will be seen from the following sentences: *The bridge () thou seest, said he, is human life.* (Addison). *There is no spectacle () we so eagerly pursue, as that of some uncommon and grievous calamity.* (Burke). *The strength () he gains is from th'embrace he gives.* (Pope). *Censure is the tax () a man payeth to the public for being eminent.* (Swift). *Tell me if thou seest any thing () thou dost not comprehend.* (Addison). *Shooting is an amusement () I was never particularly partial to.* (Bulwer). *We shall enjoy together that great blessedness () you told me of.* (B. & F.) *A great flood swept away the rest, and left the bridge in the ruinous condition ()*

I now beheld it. (Addison). *The moment () she hears I have shut myself up in my room, she is sure that it is for sorrow.* (Bulwer). *This is the last time () we meet.* (Bulwer). *When we are obliged to utter our thoughts, we do it in the shortest way () we are able.* (Addison).

7. **What** is a kind of compound relative, including both the antecedent and the relative; and is generally equivalent to *that which*; as, *I have found what I wanted;* that is, *that which*, or *the thing which I wanted*.

8. **Who** and **which** are thus declined: —

CASE.	SING. AND PLUR.	SING. AND PLUR.
<i>Nom.</i>	Who	Which
<i>Poss.</i>	Whose	Whose
<i>Obj.</i>	Whom	Which

9. **Who**, **which**, and **what**, are sometimes, by the addition of **ever** or **soever**, formed into a kind of compound relatives; as:

Whoever	Whatever	Whichever
Whichever	Whosoever	Whatsoever

Whoever desires the character of a proud man, ought to conceal his vanity. (Swift). *This Poesy must be used by whosoever will follow St. Paul's counsel.* (Sidney). *Ask of him, or ask of whomsoever he has taught.* (Cowper).

10. **Whoever** is equivalent to *any person who*; and so **which** the rest. The last three are now seldom used. **Whoso** (an abbreviation of *whosoever*) is obsolete; as, *Whoso eats thereof, forthwith attains Wisdom without their leave* (Milton).

11. **Which** and **what** are sometimes used as *adjectives*; as, *"For which reason, he will do it," "By what means shall I succeed?"* They may follow **which** part they please. (Dryden). *I knew him when he was nineteen: since which time he has risen by slow degrees to be the most brilliant and accomplished debater that the world ever saw.* (Burke). *Make what alterations you please.* (Goldsmith). *What blessings thy free bounty gives, Let me not cast away.* (Pope).

12. **Who**, **which**, and **what**, when they are used in asking

questions, are called **interrogative** pronouns; as '**Who told you?** **Which is the house?** **What did he say?**' ¹⁾

13. *Who*, as an interrogative, is applied to persons only; *which* and *what*, to both persons and things. *Who* asks the name of a person; *what*, his character and occupation; as "*Who is he?*" "*What is he?*" *Which* inquires *what* one of a *known* class or number; as "*Which of the boys?*" "*Which of the books?*" *Tell me at least, who you are, and who assisted to secrete you in this chamber.* (Radcliffe). *Whose turn may it be to-morrow?* (Thackeray). *Tell me whom you live with, and I will tell you who you are.* (Chesterfield). *Compare the busy and the idle in the societies with which they mingle; and remark, which of them discover most cheerfulness and gaiety, which possess the most regular flow of spirits; whose good humour is most unclouded.* (Blair). *Which was which he cou'd not tell.* (Butler). *To what, and to whom, and what are we to surrender?* (Marryat). *Who but the greatest fool would be a knave?* (Wolcott). *He knew what's what.* (Butler).

14. **Whether** was formerly used when the inquiry related to two persons or things; as "**Whether of the twain did the will of his father?**" Its place as a pronoun is now supplied by *which*. ²⁾

15. **As** is, in some grammars, added to the relative pronouns, but it is always either a conjunction, or a comparative adverb. When it appears to be a *relative* there is an ellipsis, and *such as* stands for *that which* or *those who*; as, "*Only such punishment is inflicted as (that which) serves the end of government;*" "*He welcomed such as (those who) came.*"

¹⁾ By supplying the ellipsis in the case of *interrogative* pronouns, we shall find that they are really *relatives*. Thus, "*Who did it?*" — or "*Which of them did it?*" may be amplified into, 'Tell me—or show me the person *who* did it;' and "*What did he do?*" into, "Tell me the thing *which* he did."

²⁾ *Whether* is now employed as a conjunction, but it is really a pronoun, having, like *either* and *neither*, a reference to the **dual** number. It corresponds to the Latin *uter*, which of the *two*.

Adjective pronouns.

1. **Adjective pronouns** ¹⁾ are so called because they partake of the properties of both *adjectives* and *pronouns*.

2. There are *four* sorts of adjective pronouns, namely, *Possessive*, *Distributive*, *Demonstrative*, and *Indefinite*.

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

3. The **possessive** pronouns relate to *possession* or property. They are **my**, **thy**, **his**, **her**, **its**, **our**, **your**, **their**. ²⁾

4. In most grammars the possessive *adjective* pronouns, *my*, *thy*, *her*, *our*, *your*, *their*, are classed with the possessive cases of the *personal* pronouns, *mine*, *thine*, *hers*, *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*; but there is an essential difference between them. ³⁾ The former cannot be used without nouns, and are, consequently, of the nature of *adjectives*; but the latter stand for or represent nouns, and are, therefore, genuine *pronouns*. It is true that *mine* and *thine* were formerly, for the sake of euphony, used before nouns beginning with a vowel; as "*Blot out mine iniquities*;" "*If thine eye offend thee*." In these instances, *mine* and *thine* are equivalent to *my* and *thy*; but in general, they are essentially different. For example, to the question "*Whose book is that*," we might answer, '*It is mine*'—or '*It is thine*;' but we could not say, '*It is my*'—or '*It is thy*,' without adding the noun, *book*.

5. The possessive case of the *personal* pronoun **he**, and the possessive *adjective* pronoun derived from it, have the

¹⁾ Adjective pronouns are also called **pronominal** adjectives.

²⁾ *Thy*, *my*, *her*, *our*, *your*, *their*, are pronominal adjectives; but *his*, (that is, *he's*) *her's*, *our's*, *your's*, *their's*, have evidently the form of the possessive case; and by analogy, *mine*, *thine*, may be esteemed of the same rank. All these are used when the noun to which they belong is understood: the two latter sometimes also instead of *my*, *thy*, when the noun following them begins with a vowel.—*Lowth.*

³⁾ That is, with regard to the *classification*, for in meaning they are perfectly equivalent; as in the phrases '*it is my book*'—and '*it is mine*,' which denote, in each case, it is a book *of* (or belonging to) *me*.

same form, namely **his**, but the distinction between them is obvious. The former stands alone, the latter is always followed by a noun, as in the following example, "*Whose book is that?*" '*It is his,*' or, '*It is his book.*' The same observations apply to **its**.¹⁾

6. Some recent writers on grammar class the **possessive cases** of the personal pronouns, *mine, thine, ours, yours, and hers*, under the head of *possessive pronouns*; and assert that they are always either in the *nominative* or *objective* cases; as, "*These pens are ours;*" "*I will give you my pens for yours.*"²⁾

7. The noun **self** and its plural **selves**, are added to pronouns to mark the person with emphasis or opposition. Thus, "*you did it yourself,*" means emphatically **you** and no other. Pronouns formed in this way are called the **emphatic pronouns**. They are also called the **compound pronouns**:

Myself ³⁾	Himself	Ourselves
Thyself	Herself	Yourselves
Yourself	Itself	Themselves

They stand either (a) as subject, (b) as opposition, (c) as predicate, (d) as object, (e) as the Latin Dative, (f) connected with a preposition, (g) as compliment to an adjective. Examples:

a. *It was night as Vivian and myself rode slowly home.* (Bulwer). *Beneath her father's roof, alone She seemed to live; her thoughts her own; Herself her own delight; Pleased with*

¹⁾ We sometimes see *it's* and *your's* written with the apostrophe 's; but the words have no more right to it than *his, hers, ours, and theirs*. They were all formerly written the apostrophe, as appears by Greenwood, Lowth, etc.

²⁾ In such cases they would say '*ours*' is in the nominative after '*are*;' and '*yours*' in the objective after '*for*.'—See the note from Lowth, page 56.

³⁾ The possessive pronouns *my, thy, his*, etc., were formerly disjoined from the noun *self*; as *my self, our selves*, etc. *Himself* is a confirmed corruption of *hissself, itself* of *itssself*, and *themselves* of *theiresselves*. *Meself* and *usself* are, strictly speaking, not greater grammatical errors than *himself* and *themselves*. The latter forms have however been established by usage.

herself. (Wordsworth). *Tell me yourself, — is it reasonable that I should trust myself alone with a stranger, at this hour, in a solitary forest?* (Radcliffe).

b. *Thou art an excellent nurse thyself, Trim.* (Sterne). *Phoebus is himself thy sire* (Cowley). *The reflection that strikes the heart is not, that the evils before us are real evils, but that they are evils to which we ourselves may be exposed.* (Johnson).

c. *I shall not be myself till we are reconciled.* (Sheridan). *What there thou seest, fair Creature, is thyself.* (Milton).

d. *I regard myself as one placed by the hand of God in the midst of an ample theatre.* (Swift). *Fancy began again to bestir herself.* (Addison). *By persuading others, we convince ourselves.* (Junius). *I had a notion that it had been one of the best ways of securing one's self from the infection, to have retired into a ship.* (Defoe).

e. *By grief we make ourselves troubles most properly out of the dust.* (Temple). *Fortune, fame, power, life, have named themselves a star.* (Byron).

f. *She punished in herself another's fault.* (Sidney) *Each state was divided into factions within itself.* (Hume). *Every blow you strike in America is against yourselves.* (Fox). *They have many fashions peculiar to themselves.* (Montague).

g. *Now shew you like yourselves, In your own natural shapes.* (Massinger). *It is a matter of great consolation to an envious person, when a man of known honour does a thing unworthy himself.* (Steele).

8. **Own** is frequently added to possessive pronouns for the purpose of marking more strongly the relation of property or possession; as, *my own house*. *You can judge for your own selves.* (Dickens). *I did it my own self.* (Perry).

9. Compound pronouns are called **reflective** ¹⁾ when they denote that the action is, as it were, *reflected* or thrown back upon the agent—or, in other words, when they denote that

¹⁾ In some grammars, the reflective pronouns are erroneously called **reciprocal** pronouns.

the agent and the object of the action are identical; as '*they injured themselves*;' '*she hurt herself*;' "*He who hath bent him o'er the dead*," (that is *himself*). *He addressed himself to the audience.* (Robertson). *He determined to avail himself of his father's prejudices in order to effect his purpose.* (Bulwer). *Strap and I betook ourselves to rest.* (Smollet). *The other inhabitants of the island still maintained themselves by pasture.* (Hume). *Worms wind themselves into our sweetest flow'rs.* (Cowper).

10. **Each other** and **one another** are called **reciprocal** pronouns, because they denote the mutual action of different agents upon each other; as '*they struck each other*;' '*love one another*.' *Each other* is properly used of two, and *one another* of more. Ex.: *Did they perfectly understand each other?* *Did they perfectly understand themselves?* (James). *We could not see each other's face.* (Byron). *I could not help smiling at the reciprocal anxiety for each other's health simultaneously manifested by this worthy couple.* (Warren). *Ev'ry creature was decreed To aid each other's mutual need.* (Gay). *The company beheld one another with great surprise and mirth.* (Smollet). *The word by which the insurgents were to recognise one another in the darkness was Soho.* (Macaulay). *We saw and heard little or nothing of one another for several years.* (Warren). *I think no persons are more hypocritical, and have a more affected behaviour to one another, than the young. They deceive themselves and each other.* (Thackeray).

11. *Each other* and *one another* are regarded as if forming one compound: and are declined like nouns; as:

Nom. Each other	Nom. One another.
Poss. Each other's	Poss. One another's.
Obj. Each other	Obj. One another.

DISTRIBUTIVE PRONOUNS.

12. The **distributive** pronouns are so called, because they denote the persons or things that make up a number, as taken separately and singly. They are **each both**, **every**, **either** **neither**.

13. **Each** properly denotes two persons or things taken sepa-

rately, and is, therefore, singular; as „**Each** of you both is worthy.” It is, however, often used for *every*, and applies to more than two; as „*The four beasts had each of them six wings.*” You found a range of low thatched houses on **each** side of the road. (Carleton). Behold a ghastly band, **Each** a torch in his hand. (Dryden). This balustrade was divided by low piers, on **each** of which was placed a round ball. (Bulwer). **Each** was to **each** a dearer self. (Thomson).

Both is used for two persons or things taken collectively; as, **Both** opinions by this distinction may be well reconciled. (Raleigh). He brought them **both** safe into our creek. (Defoe). Christian and Hopeful **both** came out. (Bunyan). The young heir of Castlewood was spoiled by father and mother **both**. (Thackeray). Buy **both** of us. (Edgeworth).

14. **Every** is applied to more than two persons or things taken individually or separately, and is therefore singular; as „**Every** boy in the school is constantly employed.” His gentle manners won **every** heart. (Pinkerton). He takes nearly half an ounce of laudanum **every** night, at bed time. (Warren). Gods they had tried of **every** shape and size. (Dryden).

15. **Either** denotes one of two persons or things, and is therefore singular; as ‘**either** of them is sufficient.’ It is sometimes used for *each*. **Neither** means *not either*; as ‘**neither** of them is in fault.’ Without answering **either** of these inquiries, the stranger said, that he could not then explain himself. (Radcliffe). So match’d they stood; For never but once more was **either** like To meet so great a foe. (Milton). I would enjoy the pleasures of the table and of wine, but stop short of the pains annexed to an excess in **either**. (Chesterfield). As she occasionally smiled on one or the other of the rivals, I saw the countenance of **either** alternately clouded with displeasure. (Warren).

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

16. The **demonstrative** pronouns point out the subjects to which they relate. They are **this** and **that**, with their plurals, **these** and **those**.

17. *This* refers to the *nearer* person or thing, and *that* to the more distant. Hence, *this* is used to denote the *latter*, or last mentioned, and *that*, the *former*, or first mentioned. The same distinction is to be made between their plurals *these* and *those*. They are used both adjectively and substantively as will be seen from the following examples: *Girls like these often seek an object in their walk, and visit this poor person or that.* (James). *This must my comfort be, That sun that warms you here, shall shine on me; And those his golden beams, to you here lent, Shall point on me, and gild my banishment.* (Shak.). *No one should think it unnecessary to learn those arts, by which friendship may be gained.* (Johnson). *This, this is she To whom our vows and wishes bend.* (Milton). *Meet me in the evening, and I'll give you an answer to this.* (Sheridan). *People may say this and that of being in jail.* (Goldsmith). *Kiss me — that's a dear girl — and go up to bed.* (Warren). *These are the points of difference, but those of resemblance are more general and more strongly marked.* (Scott). *The Squires had bracelets of silver upon their arms and legs, of which the former were naked from the elbow, and the latter from mid-leg to ancle.* (W. Scott). *The Romans called Marcellus their sword, and Fabius their buckler; the former's vigour, mixed with the latter's steadiness made a happy compound, very salutiferous to Rome* (Story).

18. *Yon* and its comparative *yonder* ¹⁾ should be added to the demonstrative pronouns.

Yon flowery arbours, yonder alleys green. (Milton). *Fountain of light! from whom yon rising sun First drew his splendour!* (Milton). *In yonder grave a Druid lies.* (Collins).

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

19. The *indefinite* pronouns are so called, because they are used in an *indefinite* or general manner. The following are of this class: *any, all, few, some, several, one, other, another, none*, etc.

¹⁾ The old form of *yon* is *yond*; whence the comparative *yonder*.

20. Strictly speaking, all the indefinite pronouns are *adjectives* with their nouns understood; except *one*, *other* and its compound *another*, when they stand for, and are declined like nouns, as in the following sentences: „*One* ¹⁾ ought to know *one's* own mind;” „Do unto *others*, as you would wish that they should do unto you” „Teach me to feel *another's* woe.”

21. *Any* is the diminutive of *an* or *ane*, and like it, it originally meant *one*. Like *an*, too, it came to signify *one* of a species, and hence indefinitely, *any one* whatever of a class or number. *Any* differs from *an* in its being applicable to plural nouns. It also differs from *an* in this, that it can be used either with or without the noun which it qualifies; as, *There's many a bolder lad 'ill woo me any summer day.* (Tennyson). *We were benighted at a good distance from any inn.* (Smollet). *She could govern any horse that any man could ride.* (Dickens). *South of Thames he found not any that could read English.* (Fuller).

Combined with the words *body* and *thing* it forms the words *anybody* and *anything* used to ask questions or to express negative sentences; as, *The mistress of the house takes no particular notice of any body, nor returns any body's visit.* (Montague). *Nobody says anything, at any meal, to anybody.* (Dickens). *When he describes anything, you more than see it — you feel it too.* (Dryden). *Oratory such as that could persuade me to anything.* (Warren).

22. *All* is applied to the whole of a quantity or number taken together; as, ‘*all the corn;*’ ‘*all the men.*’ It is sometimes equivalent to *every*; as „*I will give you all the apples—or every apple—on that tree for a guinea.*” But in the following examples the difference between *all* and *every* is strikingly exhibited: „*All the apples on that tree would fill a bushel;*” „*Every apple on that tree would fill a bushel.*” *She had read all the historical romances of the day.* (Bulwer).

¹⁾ In such cases *one* is not the numeral adjective *one*, but the representative of the French word *on* (as in “*on dit*”), which, according to the etymologists, is a contraction of *homme* (*omme*, *om*, *on*). The root is the Latin *homo*, a man, a person, and hence, people in general.

God forgive **all** those who have thirsted, without cause, for my blood. (Robertson). Goldsmith's father was no doubt the good Doctor Primrose, whom we **all** of us know. (Thackeray). How many fox-hunters and rural squires are to be found **all** over Great Britain, who are ignorant that they have lived **all** this time in a planet! (Swift).

23. **Few** ¹⁾ is opposed to *many*; as „**Many** are called, but **few** are chosen.” *Few* without the article *a* has a different meaning from the same word preceded by *a*. When we say *few* we almost deny that there are *any*; but when we say *a few*, we wish to assert that there are *some*; as, *At the time to which this tale refers*, these **few** dwellings were still **fewer**. (James). *Very few* people are good economists of their fortune, and still **fewer** of their time. (Chesterfield). *There are a few* children employed in these factories, but not *many*. (Dickens). *He had been raised to the peerage by the decease of his father a few* months before. (Scott). *He had consulted almost every surgeon of eminence in England, and a few* on the Continent. (Warren).

24. **Several** originally denoted one thing severed or separated from another; as in the law phrase, „*A joint and several estate.*” It now means more than two, but not a great many. *He had a wife and several* children. (Addison). *I met him several* times in private society. (Warren). *The guests began to retire to their several* apartments. (Scott). *Emperors and Kings Are but obey'd in their several* provinces. (Marlowe).

25. **Some** denotes a larger number than several. It is applied to both number and quantity; as ‘*some* men;’ ‘*some* corn.’ *That he may secure some* liberty, he makes a surrender in trust of the whole of it. (Burke). *Every rich man has usually some* sly way of jesting. (Spectator). *The work some* praise *And some* the architect. (Milton).

Some is often added to the words **one**, **body**, **thing**, **what**,

¹⁾ **A few** of the sailors were saved is an affirmative proposition; **few** of the sailors were saved is properly a negative; for it would be understood that you were speaking of “most of the sailors,” and denying that they were saved.

how, **times** and **where** in which case it forms the expressions *some one*, *somebody*, *something*, *somewhat*, *somehow*, *sometimes* *somewhere* the meaning of which will be easily understood from the following examples. *You want some one*, in the difficult circumstances in which you are placed, to guide and counsel you. (James). *Before then, he had always imagined that he was somebody*. (Bulwer). *Something was said of the death of the just*. (Mackenzie). *Let me not think that I discovered something of coldness in your first salutation*. (Sheridan). *Here's a little something to buy you a riband*. (Sheridan). *His hair, once somewhat sandy, was now rather grayish*. (Bulwer). *The expression of his face was somewhat impudent and reckless*. (Bulwer). *The day passes in more or less of pain; and the night wears away somehow*. (Thackeray). *Somehow or another I attracted his attention in passing*. (Warren). *Sometimes she would laugh, and sometimes cry*. (Thomson). *I was somewhere about sixteen*. (Bulwer).

26. **One**, when it denotes number, is no more a pronoun than *two*, *three* or any other of the numeral adjectives. But when it denotes the person speaking, or people in general, it is a noun; and in fact, quite a different word. (See note (p. 62). *My boat is small, the boatman cried, 'Twill bear but one away*. (Southey). *Will you allow me, Mddam, to make one of your party?* (Bulwer). *My secret then was one That earth refused to keep*. (Hood). *I hope, cousin, one may speak to one's own relations, and not be to blame*. (Goldsmith). *Come, sweet ones, come to the fields with me*. (Cunningham). *The man whom a woman admires the most is not unfrequently the one of all others for whom she could feel least tenderness*. (James).

27. The Dutch pronoun *men* can be translated in English
1^o. by **you** and **they**; as, *Before this time Sir Roger was what you call a fine gentleman*. (Addison). *This lady was of that species of women whom you rather commend for good qualities than beauty*. (Fielding). *As you approach the Hudson, the rugged aspect increases, until you at length meet with the formidable barrier of the Highland*. (Cooper). *Second thoughts, they say, are best*. (Fielding). *You hear men every*

day in conversation profess that all the honour, power and riches which they propose to themselves, cannot give satisfaction enough to reward them for half the anxiety they undergo in the pursuit, or possession of them. (Addison). It is not enough that **your** designs, nay that **your** actions, are intrinsically good; **you** must take care they shall appear so. (Fielding).

20. by a man, men, people, and, when the speaker includes himself in the assertion, also by *we*; the latter being also the case in proverbial sentences; as, **A man** would think they were searching after an apt classical term. (Addison). **People** were wonderfully surprised to hear generals singing the word of command. (Addison).

30. Very frequently also by making use of the passive voice; as, **It is said** to have been totally demolished on that occasion. (Scott). **Even human sacrifices are said** to have been offered in this island. (Pitt). **They were forbidden** to leave their own parishes. (Hallam). **A clock was heard** to strike seven. (Mackenzie). **I was early taught** to weep. (Landon). **The king from the earliest period of his reign, was denied** the personal enjoyments of a nobleman. (Disraeli). **I have been offered** already seven times the sum which I gave for the land. (Bulwer). **No beggar was to be refused** his dinner. (Thackeray). **He was refused** the protection of law. (Hume). **He had been taught** a great many things. (James). **The authority of Mr. Fox had been alluded to.** (Grattan). **Some parts are provided** for with great exactness. (Burke). **The judges were sent for.** (Clarendon). **Look again how that same Holland is spoken** of to-day. (Fox). **He was admired, talked of, listened to** (Bulwer).

40. By **one** in an indeterminate sense, when some unknown or indefinite person is meant; as, **These officers are always in one's way.** (Sheridan). **One must vent one's passion on something.** (Bulwer). **One must dress a little particular or one may escape in the crowd.** (Goldsmith).

28. **Other** denotes the second of two classes of persons or things, and is often contrasted with *one*; as „**The one consented, the other refused.**” „**The other day,**” means a day or two ago. Dr. Johnson restricts it to „**the third day past.**”

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He prefers porter to any other liquor. (Marryat). *The English delight in silence more than any other European nation.* (Addison). *You told me yourself, the other evening, that you had never had a brief in your life.* (Marryat). *Most of our young fellows, here, display some character or other by their dress.* (Chesterfield). *He observed many signs of threatening, and others of promises, pity, and kindness.* (Swift). *Let others brave the flood in quest of gain.* (Thomson). *He was at her bedside almost every other day.* (Warren).

29. **Another** is compounded of *an* and *other*, and consequently means, *one other*. It can only be used in the singular number; as, *I'll fill another pipe.* (Sterne). *Thais led the way, To light him to his prey, And, like another Helen, fir'd another Troy.* (Dryden). *She wrote a short letter to the King of France, and another to the duke of Guise.* (Robertson). *It is one thing to write and another to publish.* (Bulwer).

30. **None**, though a contraction of *no one*, is used in both numbers, like *any*. In the singular, it means *nobody* or *nothing*; in the plural *no persons* or *no things*. *His face is none the longest.* (Steele). *Will none of you speak in pity?* (Macpherson). *None are so busy as the fool and knave.* (Dryden).

31. **A pronoun** which is a sort of noun, enters into construction under conditions already mentioned: and the learner must carefully remember, that though a pronoun must represent its noun in *person*, *number*, and *gender*, it takes the *case* which its grammatical position requires, without any regard to the case of the noun it stands for. When we say, „I saw *George*, and *he* told me,” the pronoun *he* agrees with the noun *George* in the third person singular, and the masculine gender; but *George* is objective in one part of the construction, and *he* is nominative in another. Again, in saying „*George* came, and I told *him*,” the pronoun agrees with the noun as before; but *George* is now a noun nominative, and the pronoun is objective. If the two words happen to be in the same case, as in saying „I saw *George*, and told *him*,” the reason is, that each is separately governed, not that they agree in case by any rule. All this will perhaps

appear plain enough when the pronoun is a personal pronoun; but a relative pronoun, though a very useful, is a mongrel part of speech; and being a conjunction as well as a pronoun, we often fail to perceive that it has the very same duties to fulfil as another pronoun. Thus, for instance, in saying, „I saw *George*, *who* told me,” the relative is in the nominative case for the same reason that *he* is nominative in the correspondent example above, while *George* is still objective in another part of the construction. Again, in saying „*George* came, *whom*, I told,” the relative is in the *objective* for the same reason that *him* is *objective* in the correspondent example; but the relative does not come after the verb that governs it, as *him* does, because it has also to act as a conjunction, and must therefore take its place at the beginning of the sentence which it has to join to the other. So also in saying „I saw *George whom* I told,” the two *objectives* are separately governed, as in the correspondent example; but *whom* comes first in its sentence for the reason just given. — The relative *which* is liable to the same difference of grammatical position, though it has no change of form to imply when it is *objective*. It is *nominative* in the following example; „The bird is dead *which* sung sweetly:” it is *objective* in the following; „The bird is dead *which* you loved.”

Verb.

1. A **verb** is a word which implies *action*, or the doing of something.

2. When the action which a verb signifies *passes over* to an *object*, the verb is said to be **transitive**; as, ‘I love *him*;’ ‘He learns his *lesson*;’ ‘John strikes the *table*.’

In these examples, the objects represented by the words ‘*him*,’ ‘*lesson*,’ and ‘*table*,’ receive or are affected by the action which the verbs ‘*love*,’ ‘*learns*,’ and ‘*strikes*’ signify.

3. The object of a transitive verb is sometimes understood; as, ‘Virtue *leads* to happiness,’ that is, its *followers*, or those who practise it; ‘he *bowed* to me as he passed, that is, his *head*;’ ‘the ivy *twines* round the oak,’ that is, *itself*.

4. When the action which a verb signifies *does not pass over* to an *object*, the verb is said to be **intransitive**; as 'I *walk*;' 'The horse *gallops*.'

5. Several intransitive verbs may be used in a transitive, or rather, a *causative* sense; as, to *gallop* a horse, that is, to make, or *cause* him to *gallop*. Some verbs have two forms to express these two senses, as, *rise* ¹⁾ and *raise*, *fall* and *fell*, *lie* and *lay*, *sit* and *set*. „To *raise* the window,” for example, is to *cause* it to *rise*; and so of the others.

6. Some intransitive verbs are used transitively when followed by a corresponding or kindred noun; as „May we *live* the *life*, and *die* the *death* of the righteous.”

7. And sometimes, by the addition of a preposition, an intransitive verb becomes what is termed a **compound** transitive. Thus, 'to *smile*' is intransitive; but 'to *smile on*' is transitive; as, „Fortune *smiled on* him in all his undertakings.”

THE AGENT OR NOMINATIVE OF A VERB.

8. A verb signifies action, and as every action implies an *agent*, that is, something which performs or directs it, every verb must have an agent. The agent of a verb is either a noun or a pronoun in the *nominative* case; and hence the agent is usually called the **nominative** of the verb.

NUMBER AND PERSON OF VERBS.

9. Verbs, like their nominatives, have two numbers, the singular and the plural; and in each number, three persons; as:

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1st Person,	I <i>love</i>	We <i>love</i>
2nd Person,	Thou <i>lovest</i>	Ye or you <i>love</i>
3rd Person,	He <i>loves</i>	They <i>love</i> .

In these examples, 'I *love*' is the first person singular of the *verb*, because its *nominative* 'I' is a pronoun of the first

¹⁾ The uneducated Irish usually say *rise* when they should say *raise*; as „*Rise* the window.” The English often say *lay* when they should say *lie*; as, „He *lays* in bed too long in the morning.”

person and singular number; '*Thou lovest*' is the second person singular of the *verb*, because its *nominative* *thou* is a pronoun of the second person and singular number; and so on with the other persons and numbers. And for a similar reason, '*loves*,' in the sentences '*John loves his book*,' is the third person singular of the verb, because its *nominative* *John* is a noun of the third person and singular number.

The place of *Thou* is now generally supplied by the plural form *You*—except in solemn or poetical language—or when addressing a person contemptuously. But in all such cases, *you*, though applied to but *one* person, must have a plural verb; as '*you were*,' '*were you?*' (not "*you was*," "*was you*"). It also requires the plural form of the possessive pronoun; as, "*You are a good boy, and therefore I shall grant you your request*;" (not *thy*). The custom of addressing a person in the plural form originated in courtesy or obsequiousness. The religious body called "*Quakers*" or "*the Society of Friends*," consider it a deviation from truth to say *you* to *one* person, and, therefore, in all such cases, say *thou* or *thee*. But they often say *thee* when they should say *thou*; as, "*Thee said it*," which should be, *thou saidst* it.

The plural form *We* is used for the singular "*I*" by kings, editors of newspapers, and generally by authors. In the first case, '*we*' includes the counsellors by whose advice kings are supposed to act; and with regard to editors and authors, the '*we*' implies that they are expressing opinions not exclusively their own.

10. Number and person properly belong to the *nominative*, which is either a noun or a pronoun, and not to the verb, which simply signifies action.

11. English verbs have no variations in their terminations or endings to express *number* and *person*, except in **three** cases, namely, the second and third persons singular of the *present tense*, and the second person singular of the *past*.

12. The second person singular of a verb ends in **est** or **st**, and the third person in **s** or **eth**.¹) In all the other cases,

¹ The form *eth* is now seldom used, except in solemn, or poetical language.

the form of the verb remains unchanged, and its number and person can only be known by its nominative. Thus, in the present tense of the verb *to love*, the *first* person singular and the *three* persons plural are alike; as *I love*, *we love*, *ye or you love*, *they love*; and in the past tense, *all* the persons, in both numbers, are alike, except the second person singular (*thou lovedst*); as *I loved*, *he loved*, *we loved*, *ye or you loved*, *they loved*.

Tense¹⁾ or time of verb.

1. English verbs have but two distinctions of tense, the **present** and the **past**; as *I walk*; *I walked*. In the first of these examples, the action is represented as going on in the *present* time; in the other, the action is *past* or completed.

2. The *present tense* is often used colloquially for the *future*; as '*He leaves town next week*;' '*Next Monday is the first of May*. It is also used when preceded by such words as *when*, *as soon as*, to point out the relative time of a future action; as '*When he arrives, we shall hear the news*;' '*I shall go, when he comes*.' *While he is on earth, I'll pursue him*. (Goldsmith). *I'll scamper away to mount Vesuvius; from thence to Joppe and from Joppe to the world's end, where, if he follows me, I pray God he may break his neck*. (Sterne). *When the knight of Ivanhoe comes within the four seas of Britain, he underlies the challenge of Brian de Bois-Guilbert, which if he answer not, I will proclaim him as a coward on the walls of every Temple Court in Europe*. (Scott).

3. In vivid descriptions or narrations, the *present tense* is used for the *past*; as— "*Cæsar leaves Gaul, crosses the Rubicon, and enters Italy at the head of five thousand men*." *He pursues his way and swims or sinks or wades or creeps or flies*. (Milton). *The rising oar disperses wide the foamy spray*. (Leyden). It also applies to authors whose works are *extant*; as '*Homer tells us, in the Iliad*;' '*Shakspeare delights*

¹⁾ *Tense* is a corruption of the French word *temps*, *time*.

and instructs us.' "Although," says Erskine, "his principle is to be applauded, the error cannot, in this enlightened age happily need not, be defended. In such cases the authors are regarded as if existing in their works.

4. The *present tense* is used to express general and permanent truths; as, 'Man is mortal,' 'birds fly,' 'the earth moves round the sun.' Philosophy instructs, but it performs its work by precept. (Dryden). Fat gets fat, riches get riches. (James). The wakeful mother, by the glimmering pale, Trims her sick infant's couch, and soothes his feeble wail. (Scott). It is also used to express habits, or acquirements; as, 'she snuffs,' 'he drinks,' 'John writes a good hand,' 'Jane sings and plays well.' He keeps his hands clean, wears rings, and sports a gold snuffbox. (Marryat). He reads much, he is a great observer, he loves no plays, he hears no music, seldom he smiles. (Shak.). This form of the present tense is usually called the *indefinite present*.

5. There are two other forms to express present time, namely, the *progressive* and *emphatic*. The *progressive form* expresses present time, and *progressive* or continued action; as 'I am writing.' They say he's dying all for love, but that can never be: They say his heart is breaking, mother — what is that to me? (Tennyson). If you're waking call me early, call me early, mother dear. (Tennyson). Few moments are more pleasing than those in which the mind is concerting measures for a new undertaking. (Johnson). One of the chief pleasures of my life is to know what changes of public measures are approaching, who is climbing to the top of power, and who is tottering on the precipice of disgrace. (Addison). He's writing a book. (Moore). The *emphatic form* is used when emphasis or strong negation is to be expressed; as, 'I do forgive you,' 'I do not believe it.' I do believe he considered it sinful to smile. (Dickens). Government is not made in virtue of natural rights, which may and do exist in total independence of it. (Burke). Man doth the most degenerate from kind. (Drayton). It is true that he does boast of being an Englishman. (Mudie). 'Well, Friday,' said I, 'do not be frightened.'

(Defoe). **Don't be hard upon me!** (Dickens). *In no nation do the people practically enjoy greater rational liberty of speech or action, and in none is the press more free.* (Chambers).

6. The past tense has also three forms; — 1. The **indefinite**, which represents the action as past or finished, but without reference to the precise time; as, "**He died, and no one knew him.**" *Serooge shivered and wiped the perspiration from his brow.* (Dickens). *To this my girl replied that she should have no objection, if she could do it with honour.* (Goldsmith). *I suspected that her affections were placed upon a different object.* (ibid.). *She observed that several very prudent men of our acquaintance were freethinkers and made very good husbands.* (ibid.). This tense becomes definite if a word or phrase is used in connexion with it specifying the time; "**He died in September last.**" *He resigned her up to the chaplain, adding that he was to go that night five miles, being invited to a harvest supper.* (ibid.). *When Leo X reigned Pope of Rome, his holiness of all things affected fools, buffoons, humorists and coxcombs.* (Addison). *When I pronounced these words, my father's resentment glowed in his visage.* (Smollet). *He owed 2000 £ when he died.* (Thackeray). *Early in the morning she retired to her closet, and employed a considerable time in devotion.* (Robertson). 2. The **progressive**, which expresses past time and progressive action; as, "**I was writing, when he arrived.**" *Every thing was going on remarkably well.* (Marryat). *By it there were waters flowing And on it there were young flowers growing.* (Byron). *Rebecca could witness part of what was passing without the castle, and report to Ivanhoe the preparations which the assailants were making.* (Scott). *The chimes were ringing the three quarters past eleven at that moment.* (Dickens). 3. The **emphatic**; as, "**I did write to you, I assure you.**" *One Christmas time, when yonder solitary child was left here all alone, he did come, for the first time, just like that.* (Dickens). *The wind did blow, the cloak did fly.* (Cowper). *He did a little too much romanise our tongue.* (Dryden). *Oft did the harvest to their sickle yield.* (Gray). *She struggled — she did struggle very hard — to answer,*

Yes. (Dickens). *Thou didst bless the infant train.* (White).

7. The **future** time of a verb is expressed by using **shall** or **will** immediately before it; as *I shall or will love.* ¹⁾ *Before this time to-morrow I shall have gained a peerage, or Westminster-Abbey.* (Southey). *Then cometh the end when he shall have delivered up the kingdom to God, even the father, when he shall have put down all rule.* (Bible). *The date is expired: this is the time, and he will fetch me.* (Marlowe). *One drop of blood will save me.* (Marlowe). *Be your own monitor, now that you will have no other.* (Chesterfield). *Post you to London, and you'll find it so.* (Shak.). In such cases **shall** and **will** are called **auxiliary** or **helping** verbs.

Mood of verbs.

1. The **mood** of a verb is the *mode* or *manner* in which the action is represented ²⁾. When a verb *indicates* or *declares*, or asks a question in order to obtain a *declaration*, it is in the **indicative** mood; as, *'I love him' 'lovest thou me?'* *Nature gives us many friends and children to take them away, but takes none away to give them to us again.* (Temple). *What seeks he—or at least professes to seek—but truth?* (Warren). *How comest thou hither Where no man ever comes?* (Shak.). *Wealth brings much woe.* (Herrick).

2. When a verb is used for *commanding* or *entreating*, it is said to be in the **imperative** mood; as, *'depart thou;'* *for-give me.* ³⁾ *Blow on, sweet breeze, blow on!* (Crabbe). *Softly*

¹⁾ Strictly speaking, English verbs have no future tense. — We shall explain this on some following page, when speaking of the compound tenses.

²⁾ Properly there is only one mood in the English language, namely, the *indicative*, or *assertive*, to which it would be easy to show that all the others are reducible.

³⁾ What is called the *imperative* mood is really the *infinitive* governed by some verb understood. *'Love thou,'* for example, may be resolved into, *'I desire that thou shouldst love.'* By supplying the ellipsis in this way, we get the verb for *'thou,'* which, by the first rule of syntax,

blow, thou western breeze, Softly rustle through the sail!
Soothe to rest the furrowy seas, Before my love, sweet western
 gale! (Leyden). **Step** after him, said my uncle Toby, — do
 Trim — and ask him if he knows his name. (Sterne). **Begone**
 you slaves, you idle vermin go. **Fly** from the scourges, and
 your master know. (Roscommon). **Arise**, winds of autumn,
arise; blow along the heath! streams of the mountains roar! roar
 tempests, in the groves of my oaks! **walk** through broken clouds,
 O moon! **show** thy pale face at intervals! **bring** to my mind
 the night when all my children fell. (Macpherson).

3. The command or entreaty is always in the *present* time, and addressed from the first to the *second* person. Hence the *imperative mood* has only the second person singular and the second person plural; as 'love thou,' 'love ye or you.'

4. When a verb is used in an *indefinite* or general way, it is said to be in the *infinitive* mood; as, *to read, to write to love.* "To be vain is rather a mark of humility than pride. (Swift). *He who knows not what it is to labour, knows not what it is to enjoy.* (Blair). *You have but a fortune to make, I have a name to redeem; you look calmly on to the future, I have a dark blot to erase from the past.* (Bulwer). *The yard was so dark that even Scrooge, who knew its every stone, wais fain to grope with his hands.* (Dickens).

5. In the preceding examples it is not asserted that *I* or *you*, or any person, or persons, read, or write, or love or do anything else. The abstract or simple idea of the action which

must end in *st.* If the imperative mood were resolved in this way, the absurdity of describing one and the same mood as used for commanding and entreating would be got rid of. When the '*imperative*' mood is said to *entreat*, some verb implying an entreaty is understood; as *pray* or *beseech*. For example, '*give*' in the Lord's Prayer is said to be in the *imperative* mood! — but it is really in the *infinitive*, governed by '*we pray*,' or '*we entreat Thee to give*,' etc. — or, it is our prayer that *Thou shouldst* 'give.' When the imperative mood is used in its proper sense, some word implying a command is understood; as, '*go*,' that is, *I wish*, or, *I order you to* 'go'—or, *It is my desire that thou shouldst* 'go.' 'Let him go,' that is, *I wish* or *desire you to* let (or permit) him to 'go.'

the verbs in each case imply, is expressed without any reference to an agent or *nominative*; and hence this *indefinite* or general way of using a verb has been called the *infinitive* mood.

6. Except in a few cases in which it is understood, the infinitive mood is always preceded by the preposition *to*; and hence it is called its *sign*.

7. The infinitive mood partakes of the nature of a noun, and in many cases it is equivalent in all respects, not only to a *participial*, but also to a *common* noun; as, in the following examples:

John likes to play, but he does not like to work: John likes playing, but he does not like working; John likes play, but he does not like work.

In the same way, '*To err is human, to forgive divine,*' may be resolved into '*Erring is human, forgiving is divine*'—or into the common noun, '*Error is human, forgiveness is divine.*' Compare also, '*To see is to believe,*' '*Seeing is believing,*' '*Sight is belief.*'

PARTICIPLES.

8. Verbs have two **participles**, the present or imperfect, ending in **ing**, as *loving*; and the past or perfect, generally ending in **ed** or **d**, as *loved*, *heard*.

9. **Participles** are so called because they *participate* in the nature both of a *verb* and an *adjective*. As verbs they imply *action*, and as adjectives they are put along with nouns to express *quality*; as, '*The bird is singing; is it a singing bird?*' '*Her heart was broken;*' '*She died of a broken heart.*'

10. Participles may be regarded as adjectives — 1. When they denote something customary or habitual, rather than a transient act; as, *a lying rogue*; as, *Rocks the bellowing voice of boiling seas rebound.* (Dryden). *Canst thou, without pity, hear a child's expiring cry?* (Southey). *Roaring waves climb the distant rock.* (Macpherson). *Over the rolling waters go.* (Tennyson). *The only standing force should be the militia.* (Macaulay). 2. When they are compared; as, *a more learned man*; as, *Its cottage-homes and hamlets are considered more*

neat and engaging than those of any other nation. (Chambers). The favorite and most coveted seats were invariably those nearest to the door. (Dickens). We exchanged the most dignified salutations with profound gravity and respect. (Dickens). 3. When they are compounded with a prefix which the verb does not admit; as, *unbecoming, unknown, unsought*; as, *No apparition could have been more unexpected* (Bulwer). *Poor boy that I was, why should I seem more disinterested than others* (Bulwer).

11. The present participle represents the verbal action as proceeding, and, therefore, not finished or complete. Hence it has been called the *Imperfect* participle. The past participle represents the verbal action as finished or complete, and hence, it has been called the *Perfect* participle. But strictly speaking, the participles do not in themselves contain any notification of the time to which they refer; as is evident from the following examples: '*He is writing,*' '*he was writing,*' '*he will be writing,*' '*he is elected,*' '*he was elected,*' '*he will be elected.*' The time is indicated either by the verb with which they are connected (as in the examples just given) or by some word or phrase in the context.

12. The participial form is often used for the infinitive mood, particularly after verbs which signify, to *see, to hear, to feel, to begin, to prefer, to think* and a few others; as, *I saw him go or going; I heard him speak or speaking; I began to speak, or I began speaking*; as, *She saw her master standing* (or *stand*) *by the bedside.* (Fielding). *From the turret we discern some troops approaching* (or *approach*). (Thomson). *I perceived the procession marching* (or *march*) *slowly forward towards the church.* (Goldsmith). *Now does he feel his secret murder sticking* (or *stick*) *on his hand.* (Shak.). *I found my eldest son sitting* (or *sit*) *by my bedside.* (Goldsmith).

13. As words ending in *ing* are frequently used both as nouns and adjectives, the learner should take care not to call such words *participles* unless they are really so. The meaning and application of the word will in each case enable him to decide its class.

Conjugation of verbs.

1. The **conjugation** of a verb means the *joining together* or arrangement of its principal parts.

2. The principal parts of a verb are the **Present tense**, the **Past tense**, and the **Perfect participle**.

3. From the *present tense* are formed the *past tense* and the *perfect participle* by adding **ed**, or **d** only when the verb ends in *e*, as:

PRESENT TENSE.	PAST TENSE.	PERFECT PARTICIPLE.
Learn	Learned	Learned
Love	Loved	Loved

Regular, irregular, and defective verbs.

4. Verbs are said to be **regular** when they form their *past tense* and *perfect participle* according to the preceding rule; and **irregular**, when they vary from the rule in either, or in both cases. **Defective** verbs are both *irregular* and *deficient* in some of their parts.

5. **Impersonal verbs** are such as are used only in the third person singular, with **it** as the nominative, as, '*It rains*;' '*It raised*.'

6. Conjugation of a regular verb.

TO LOVE.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. I love	1. We love
2. Thou lovest	2. Ye <i>or</i> you love
3. He loves	3. They love

PAST TENSE.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. I loved	1. We loved
2. Thou lovedst	2. Ye <i>or</i> you loved
3. He loved	3. They loved
<i>Imperative</i> , Love	<i>Infinitive</i> , To love

PARTICIPLES.

<i>Imperfect</i> , Loving.	<i>Perfect</i> , Loved.
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7. All *regular* verbs ending in *e* are conjugated like the verb *love*; and all *regular* verbs not ending in *e*, as to *learn*, to *fear*, to *look*, differ from this model only by adding *est* instead of *st*, and *ed* instead of *d*.

8. It appears from this that, including the simple form of the verb, there are only *six* variations in the terminations or endings of a regular verb in the English language.

9. And in the irregular verbs, the variations never exceed *seven*; except in the verb *to be*, in which they amount to *eleven*. It will be easy, therefore, for the pupils to make themselves acquainted with these terminations, and the parts of the verbs to which they belong.

Irregular verbs.

10. The Irregular verbs may be divided into three classes: —

1. Such as have the *present*, and *past tense*, and *perfect participle* the same; as,

PRESENT TENSE.	PAST TENSE.	PERFECT PARTICIPLE.
Cast	Cast	Cast
Cut	Cut	Cut
Let	Let	Let

2. Such as have the *past tense* and the *perfect participle* the same; as,

PRESENT TENSE.	PAST TENSE.	PERFECT PARTICIPLE.
Sell	Sold	Sold
Lose	Lost	Lost
Keep	Kept	Kept

3. Such as have the *present*, and *past tense*, and *perfect participle* different; as,

PRESENT TENSE.	PAST TENSE.	PERFECT PARTICIPLE.
Begin	Began	Begun
See	Saw	Seen
Do	Did	Done

A complete list of irregular verbs.

Note, — That some of the participles marked as obsolete, are not obsolete when used purely as adjectives: for instance *beholden*, *drunken*, *stricken*, *sunken*.

In committing the forms to memory, those in *italics* should be omitted, as not fit for modern or common use.

ROOT: PRESENT INDEF. PRETERIT. PERFECT PART.

Abide,	abode,	abode.
Am, is, {	was,	been.
Be, }		
Arise,	arose,	arisen.
Awake,	{ awoke,	awaked.
	{ awaked,	
Bear, <i>to bring forth</i> {	bore,	born.
	bare,	
Bear, <i>to carry</i> {	bore,	borne.
	<i>bare</i> , ¹⁾	
Beat,	beat,	{ beat.
		{ beaten. ²⁾
Become,	became,	become.
Begin,	began,	begun.
Bend,	{ bent,	{ bent.
	<i>bended</i> , ¹⁾	<i>bended</i> . ¹⁾
Bereave,	{ bereft,	{ bereft.
	{ bereaved, ²⁾	{ bereaved. ²⁾
Beseech,	{ besought,	{ besought.
	<i>beseeched</i> , ¹⁾	<i>beseeched</i> . ¹⁾
Bid,	{ bid,	{ bid.
	{ bade, ²⁾	{ bidden. ²⁾
	{ bad,	
Bind,	bound,	{ bound.
		{ bounden. ¹⁾
Bite,	bit,	{ bit. ³⁾
		{ bitten.

¹⁾ Obsolete, or very little used.

²⁾ Grave style, or not colloquial.

³⁾ Colloquial only.

ROOT: PRESENT INDEF.	PRETERIT.	PERFECT PART.
Bleed,	bled,	bled.
Blow,	blew,	blown.
Break,	{ broke,	{ broken.
	{ brake, ²⁾	{ broke. ³⁾
Breed,	bred,	bred.
Bring,	brought,	brought.
Build,	{ built,	{ built.
	{ <i>builded</i> , ¹⁾	{ <i>builded</i> . ¹⁾
Burst,	burst,	{ burst.
		{ <i>bursten</i> . ¹⁾
Buy,	bought,	bought.
Can, {		—
Could, }	could,	
Cast,	cast,	cast.
Catch,	{ caught,	{ caught.
	{ <i>catched</i> , ¹⁾	{ <i>catched</i> . ¹⁾
Chide,	chid,	{ chid.
		{ <i>chidden</i> . ²⁾
Choose,	chose,	chosen.
Cleave, <i>to stick to</i>	{ cleaved,	cleaved.
	{ <i>clave</i> , ¹⁾	
	{ cleft, ²⁾	
Cleave, <i>to split</i> ,	{ clove,	{ cleft.
	{ <i>clave</i> , ¹⁾	{ <i>cloven</i> . ³⁾
Cling,	{ clung,	clung.
	{ <i>clang</i> , ¹⁾	
Clothe,	{ clothed,	{ clad.
	{ <i>clad</i> , ²⁾	{ clothed.
Come,	came,	come.
Cost,	cost,	cost.
Creep,	crept,	crept.
Crow,	{ crew,	crowed.
	{ <i>crowed</i> ,	
Cut,	cut,	cut.

¹⁾ Obsolete, or very little used.²⁾ Grave style, or not colloquial.³⁾ Colloquial only.

ROOT: PRESENT INDEF. PRETERIT.

PERFECT PART.

Dare, <i>to venture</i> ,	durst,	dared.
Dare, <i>to challenge</i> ,	dared,	dared; (<i>quite regular</i>).
Deal,	{ dealt, <i>dealed</i> , ¹⁾	{ dealt. <i>dealed</i> . ¹⁾
Dig,	{ dug, digged, ²⁾	{ dug. digged. ²⁾
Do,	did,	done.
Draw,	drew,	drawn.
Dream,	{ dreamt, dreamed, ²⁾	{ dreamt. dreamed. ²⁾
Drink,	drank,	{ drunk. drunken. ¹⁾ drank. ³⁾
Drive,	drove,	driven.
Dwell,	{ dwelt, dwelled, ²⁾	{ dwelt. dwelled. ²⁾
Eat,	{ eat, ate, ²⁾	{ eat. eaten. ²⁾
Fall,	fell,	fallen.
Feed,	fed,	fed.
Feel,	felt,	felt.
Fight,	fought,	{ fought. foughten. ¹⁾
Find,	found,	found.
Flee,	fled,	fled.
Fling,	flung,	flung.
Fly,	flew,	flown.
Forget,	forgot,	{ forgot. forgotten. ²⁾
Forseake,	forsook,	forsaken.
Freeze,	froze,	frozen.
Freight,	freighted, fought, ¹⁾	{ freight. freighted.

¹⁾ Obsolete, or very little used.²⁾ Grave style, or not colloquial.³⁾ Colloquial only.

ROOT: PRESENT INDEF.	PRETERIT.	PERFECT PART.
Bleed,	bled,	bled.
Blow,	blew,	blown.
Break,	{ broke,	{ broken.
	{ brake, ²⁾	{ broke. ³⁾
Breed,	bred,	bred.
Bring,	brought,	brought.
Build,	{ built,	{ built.
	{ <i>builded</i> , ¹⁾	{ <i>builded</i> . ¹⁾
Burst,	burst,	{ burst.
		{ <i>bursten</i> . ¹⁾
Buy,	bought,	bought.
Can, {		—
Could, }	could,	
Cast,	cast,	cast.
Catch,	{ caught,	{ caught.
	{ <i>catched</i> , ¹⁾	{ <i>catched</i> . ¹⁾
Chide,	chid,	{ chid.
		{ <i>chidden</i> . ²⁾
Choose,	chose,	chosen.
Cleave, <i>to stick to</i>	{ cleaved,	
	{ <i>clave</i> , ¹⁾	cleaved.
	{ cleft, ²⁾	
Cleave, <i>to split</i> ,	{ clove,	{ cleft.
	{ <i>clave</i> , ¹⁾	{ <i>cloven</i> . ³⁾
	{ clung,	
Cling,	{ clang, ¹⁾	clung.
	{ clothed,	{ clad.
Clothe,	{ clad, ²⁾	{ clothed.
Come,	came,	come.
Cost,	cost,	cost.
Creep,	crept,	crept.
	{ crew,	
Crow,	{ crowed,	crowed.
Cut,	cut,	cut.

¹⁾ Obsolete, or very little used.²⁾ Grave style, or not colloquial.³⁾ Colloquial only.

ROOT: PRESENT INDEF. PRETERIT.

PERFECT PART.

Dare, <i>to venture</i> ,	durst,	dared.
Dare, <i>to challenge</i> ,	dared,	dared; (<i>quite regular</i>).
Deal,	{ dealt, <i>dealed</i> , ¹⁾	{ dealt. <i>dealed</i> . ¹⁾
Dig,	{ dug, <i>digged</i> , ²⁾	{ dug. <i>digged</i> . ²⁾
Do,	did,	done.
Draw,	drew,	drawn.
Dream,	{ dreamt, <i>dreamed</i> , ²⁾	{ dreamt. <i>dreamed</i> . ²⁾
Drink,	drank,	{ drunk. <i>drunken</i> . ¹⁾ <i>drank</i> . ³⁾
Drive,	drove,	driven.
Dwell,	{ dwelt, <i>dwelled</i> , ²⁾	{ dwelt. <i>dwelled</i> . ²⁾
Eat,	{ eat, <i>ate</i> , ²⁾	{ eat. <i>eaten</i> . ²⁾
Fall,	fell,	fallen.
Feed,	fed,	fed.
Feel,	felt,	felt.
Fight,	fought,	{ fought. <i>foughten</i> . ¹⁾
Find,	found,	found.
Flee,	fled,	fled.
Fling,	flung,	flung.
Fly,	flew,	flown.
Forget,	forgot,	{ forgot. <i>forgotten</i> . ²⁾
Forsake,	forsook,	forsaken.
Freeze,	froze,	frozen.
Freight,	{ freighted, <i>fraught</i> , ¹⁾	{ freight. <i>freighted</i> .

¹⁾ Obsolete, or very little used.²⁾ Grave style, or not colloquial.³⁾ Colloquial only.

ROOT: PRESENT INDEF. PRETERIT.

PERFECT PART.

Get,	got,	{ got.
		{ gotten. ²⁾
Gild,	{ gilt,	{ gilt.
	{ gilded, ²⁾	{ gilded. ²⁾
Gird,	{ girt,	{ girt.
	{ girded, ²⁾	{ girded. ²⁾
Give,	gave,	given.
Go,	went, (<i>see Wend.</i>)	gone.
Grave,	graved,	{ graven.
		{ graved.
Grind,	ground,	ground.
Grow,	grew,	grown.
Have,	had,	had.
Hang,	hung,	{ hung.
	{ hanged, (<i>as a</i>	{ hanged, (<i>as a criminal.</i>)
	<i>criminal.</i>)	
Hear,	heard.	heard.
Hew,	hewed,	{ hewn.
		{ hewed.
Hide,	hid,	{ hid.
		{ hidden. ²⁾
Hit,	hit,	hit.
Hold,	held,	{ held.
		{ holden. ²⁾
Hurt,	hurt,	hurt.
Keep,	kept,	kept.
Knit,	knit,	{ knit.
	{ knitted,	{ knitted.
Know,	knew,	known.
Lade,	laded,	laden.
Lay,	laid,	laid, (<i>active; compare Lie.</i>)
Lead,	led,	led.
Lean,	leant, ³⁾	{ leant. ³⁾
	{ leaned,	{ leaned.

¹⁾ Obsolete, or very little used.²⁾ Grave style, or not colloquial.³⁾ Colloquial only.

ROOT: PRESENT INDEF. PRETERIT.

PERFECT PART.

Leave,	left,	left.
Lend,	lent,	lent.
Let,	let,	let.
Lie, (to lie down,)	lay,	lain (<i>neuter: compare Lay.</i>)
Lie, (to tell a lie,)	lied,	lien. ¹⁾
Load,	loaded,	lied; (<i>quite regular.</i>)
Light, (to set fire	lighted,	loaded.
to)	lit, ³⁾	loaden. ¹⁾
Lose,	lost,	lighted.
Make,	made,	lit. ³⁾
May,	} might,	lost.
Might,		made.
Mean,	{ meant,	—
	{ <i>meaned</i> , ¹⁾	{ meant.
Meet,	met,	{ <i>meaned</i> . ¹⁾
Mow,	mowed,	met.
Must,	—	{ mown.
Ought, (<i>See Owe.</i>)	—	{ mowed.
Owe,	{ owed,	—
	{ <i>ought</i> , ¹⁾	{ owed; (<i>quite regular.</i>)
Pay,	paid,	{ <i>ought</i> . ¹⁾
Put,	put,	paid.
—	quoth,	put.
Read,	read, ⁴⁾	—
Rend,	rent,	read. ⁴⁾
Rid,	rid,	rent.
Ride,	rode,	rid.
Ring,	{ rung	{ rode.
	{ rang,	{ ridden. ²⁾

¹⁾ Obsolete, or very little used.
³⁾ Colloquial only.

²⁾ Grave style, or not colloquial.

⁴⁾ Pr. *red*.

ROOT: PRESENT INDEF.	PRETERIT.	PERFECT PART.
Rise,	rose,	risen.
Rive,	rived,	riven.
Run,	ran,	run.
Saw,	sawed,	{ sawn. sawed.
Say,	said,	said.
See,	saw,	seen.
Seek,	sought,	sought.
Seethe,	{ seethed, sod, ²)	{ seethed. sodden.
Sell,	sold,	sold.
Send,	sent,	sent.
Set,	set,	set.
Shake,	shook,	shaken.
Shall,	should. ¹)	—
Shape,	shaped,	{ shaped. shapen. ¹) shaved. shaven. ²)
Shave,	shaved,	
Shear,	{ sheared, shore, ¹)	shorn.
Shed,	shed,	shed.
Shine,	{ shone, shined, ¹)	{ shone. shined. ¹)
Shoe,	shod,	shod.
Shoot,	shot,	shot.
Show,	showed,	shown.
Shred,	shred,	shred.
Shrink,	{ shrunk, shrank, ²)	{ shrunk. shrunken. ¹)
Shut,	shut,	shut.
Sing,	{ sung, sang, ²)	sung.

¹) Obsolete, or very little used.²) Grave style, or not colloquial.³) Colloquial only.

ROOT: PRESENT INDEF. PRETERIT.

PERFECT PART.

Sink,	{ sunk, sank, ²⁾	{ sunk. sunk. ¹⁾
Sit,	sat,	{ sat. sitten. ¹⁾
Slay,	slew,	slain.
Sleep,	slept,	slept.
Slide,	slid,	{ slid. slidden. ²⁾
Sling,	{ slung, slang, ²⁾	slung.
Slink,	{ slunk, slank,	slunk.
Slit,	{ slit, slitted, ²⁾	{ slit. slitted.
Smite,	smote,	smitten.
Sow,	sowed,	{ sown. sowed.
Speak,	{ spoke, spake, ¹⁾	{ spoken. spoke. ³⁾
Speed,	sped,	sped.
Spend,	spent,	spent.
Spill,	{ spilt, spilled, ²⁾	{ spilt. spilled. ²⁾
Spin,	{ spun, span, ¹⁾	spun.
Spit,	{ spit, spat, ²⁾	{ spit. spitten. ¹⁾
Split,	split,	split.
Spread, ⁴⁾	spread, ⁴⁾	spread. ⁴⁾
Spring,	{ sprung, sprang, ²⁾	sprung.
Stand,	stood,	stood.
Steal,	stole,	{ stolen. stole. ³⁾

¹⁾ Obsolete, or very little used.²⁾ Grave style, or not colloquial.³⁾ Colloquial only.⁴⁾ Pr. *spred*.

ROOT: PRESENT INDEF.	PRETERIT.	PERFECT PART.
Stick,	stuck,	stuck.
Sting,	{ stung, <i>stang</i> , ¹⁾	stung.
Stink,	{ stunk, <i>stank</i> , ²⁾	stunk.
Stride,	{ strode, <i>strid</i> , ³⁾	{ strid, stridden.
Strike,	struck,	{ struck, <i>stricken</i> , ¹⁾
String,	{ strung, <i>stringed</i> , ²⁾	{ strung. <i>stringed</i> ,
Strive,	strove,	striven.
Strow,	{ strowed, strewed, <i>strawed</i> , ¹⁾	{ strown. strewed.
Strew,		
<i>Straw</i> , ¹⁾		
Swear,	swore,	sworn.
Sweat,	{ swet, sweated,	{ swet. sweated, sweaten.
Swell,	swelled,	{ swollen. swelled.
Swim,	{ swum, swam,	swum.
Swing,	{ swung, <i>swang</i> , ²⁾	
Take,	took,	taken.
Teach,	taught,	taught.
Tear,	{ tore, tare, ²⁾	torn.
Tell,	told,	told.
Think,	thought,	thought.
Thrive,	{ throve, thrived, ¹⁾	thriven.

¹⁾ Obsolete, or very little used.

²⁾ Grave style, or not colloquial.

³⁾ Colloquial only.

ROOT: PRESENT INDEF.	PRETERIT.	PERFECT PART.
Throw,	threw,	thrown.
Thrust,	thrust,	thrust.
Tread,	trod,	{ trodden. trod. ³⁾
Wax,	waxed,	{ waxed. waxen. ²⁾
Wear,	wore,	worn.
Weave,	wove,	woven.
Weep,	wept,	wept.
Wend, ¹⁾ (<i>see Go</i>)	went,	wended. ¹⁾
Will,	would,	—
Win,	won,	won.
Wind, (<i>to turn</i>)	wound,	wound.
Wind, (<i>to ventilate</i> , etc.)	winded,	winded, (<i>quite regular.</i>)
Wont, ²⁾	wont, ¹⁾	{ wont. ²⁾ wonted. ³⁾
Work,	{ wrought, worked,	{ wrought. worked.
Wring,	wrung,	wrung.
Write,	{ wrote, writ, ¹⁾	{ written. writ. ¹⁾

It would have occupied too much space to have given more obsolete forms than are here furnished: the attentive student will have occasion to remark many in the course of his reading, — such for instance as *clomb*, *holp*, *strook*, old preterits of *climb*, *help*, and *strike*.

Conjugation of the verbs *be*, *have*, *do*.

1. TO BE.

PRESENT TENSE.

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

¹⁾ Obsolete, or very little used.

²⁾ Grave style, or not colloquial.

³⁾ Colloquial only.

PAST TENSE.

SINGULAR.

1. I was
 2. Thou wast
 3. He was
- Imperative, Be*

PLURAL.

1. We were
 2. Ye or you were
 3. They were
- Infinitive, To be*

PARTICIPLES.

*Imperfect, Being**Perfect, Been.*

2. The verb **to be** assumes a different form when doubt or contingency is to be expressed ¹⁾; as,

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

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

PLURAL.

1. If we be
2. If ye or you be
3. If they be

PAST TENSE.

SINGULAR.

1. If I were
2. If thou wert
3. If he were

PLURAL.

1. If we were
2. If ye or you were
3. If they were

This form of the verb is usually called the **conditional** or **subjunctive** mood.

3. TO HAVE.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

1. I have
2. Thou hast ²⁾
3. He has or hath

PLURAL.

1. We have
2. Ye or you have
3. They have

¹⁾ This is a modern restriction of this form of the verb; for in old authors **be** is used in an *indicative* sense; as "*We be twelve brethren*" — *Bible*. We also find '*be-est*' in Shakspeare and Milton; as "*If thou be'st death*;" "*If thou beest he*."

²⁾ If the pupils be made to conjugate **to have** like the model verb **to love**, they will see that it owes its irregularities to contraction. Thus, I have, thou (*havest* contracted into) *hast*, he (*haves* or *haveth*, into) *has* or *hath*; I (*haved*, into) *had*, thou *havedst*, into) *hadst*. The *v* is dropped in *havest*, etc., as in *e'er* for *ever*, *e'en* for *even*, *ill* for *evil*.

PAST TENSE.

SINGULAR.

1. I had
2. Thou hadst
3. He had

• *Imperative*, Have

PLURAL.

1. We had
 2. Ye or you had
 3. They had
- Infinitive*, To have

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Having

Perfect, Had.

4. TO DO.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

1. I do
2. Thou doest or dost¹⁾
3. He does or doth

PLURAL.

1. We do
2. Ye or you do
3. They do

PAST TENSE.

SINGULAR.

1. I did
2. Thou didst
3. He did

Imperative, Do

PLURAL.

1. We did
2. Ye or you did
3. They did

Infinitive, To do

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Doing

Perfect, Done.

Conjugation of the defective verbs.

5. SHALL.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

1. I shall
2. Thou shalt
3. He shall

PLURAL.

1. We shall
2. Ye or you shall.
3. They shall

PAST TENSE.

SINGULAR.

1. I should
2. Thou shouldst
3. He should

PLURAL.

1. We should
2. Ye or you should
3. They should

¹⁾ *Dost* is contracted from *doest*, *doth* from *doeth*, and *did* from *doed*. By contraction also, *shallest* has become *shall*; *willest*, *wilt*; and *werest*, *wert*.

6. WILL.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

1. I will
2. Thou wilt
3. He will

PLURAL.

1. We will
2. Ye *or* you will
3. They will

PAST TENSE.

SINGULAR.

1. I would
2. Thou wouldst
3. He would

PLURAL.

1. We would
2. Ye *or* you would.
3. They would

7. CAN.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

1. I can
2. Thou canst
3. He can

PLURAL.

1. We can
2. Ye *or* you can
3. They can

PAST TENSE.

SINGULAR.

1. I could
2. Thou couldst
3. He could

PLURAL.

1. We could
2. Ye *or* you could
3. They could

8. MAY.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

1. I may
2. Thou mayest
3. He may

PLURAL.

1. We may
2. Ye *or* you may
3. They may

PAST TENSE.

SINGULAR.

1. I might
2. Thou mightst
3. He might

PLURAL.

1. We might
2. Ye *or* you might
3. They might

OUGHT AND MUST.

9. Ought and must are applied both to the present and

past tense. **Ought** varies only in the second person singular (thou **oughtest**) and **must** has no variations ¹⁾.

10. The preceding verbs, namely, **be**, **have**, **do**, **shall**, **will**, **can**, **may**, **ought**, and **must** are called **auxiliary verbs**, because it is by their help, as it is said, the English verbs are principally conjugated.

The verbs **be**, **have**, **do**, are used both as *Principal* and *Auxiliary*, verbs. But **shall**, **will**, **can**, **may**, **ought**, **must**, are now used only as *Auxiliary* verbs. **Will** is, when *regular*, a principal verb; as, 'He *wills*,' 'he *willed*.' Ex: Say — *is there aught that you would will within The little sway now left the Duke?* (Byron). *I am always willing to obey your commands, but you must upon this occasion take the will for the deed.* (Montague). *We do no otherwise than we are will'd.* *Who willed you? or whose will stands but mine?* (Shak.). *Every star stands out so bright and particular, as if fresh from the time when the Maker willed it.* (Bulwer).

Compound tenses.

1. Such tenses as are formed by the aid of the Auxiliary verbs are called **compound tenses**.

2. Thus, if the *imperfect participle* of any verb is put after the several persons of the verb **to be**, the *Progressive* form of conjugation is made up; thus:

Progressive form of Conjugation.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

1. I am dancing ²⁾
2. Thou art dancing
3. He is dancing

PLURAL.

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

¹⁾ **Quoth**, **wis**, **wit** or **wot**, are usually classed with the defective verbs; but they are now obsolete; except **wit**, in the phrase, *"to wit."*

²⁾ Verbs expressing an affection of the mind, as, *love*, *hate*, *know*, do not admit of the *Progressive* form.

PAST TENSE.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

- | | |
|----------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. I was dancing | 1. We were dancing |
| 2. Thou wast dancing | 2. Ye <i>or</i> you were dancing |
| 3. He was dancing | 3. They were dancing |

3. And if the perfect participle of any verb is put after the several persons of the verb *to be*, the *Passive voice*¹⁾, as it is called, is formed; thus:

Passive form of Conjugation.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

- | | |
|-------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. I am loved | 1. We are loved |
| 2. Thou art loved | 2. Ye <i>or</i> you are loved |
| 3. He is loved | 3. They are loved |

PAST TENSE.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

- | | |
|--------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. I was loved | 1. We were loved |
| 2. Thou wast loved | 2. Ye <i>or</i> you were loved |
| 3. He was loved | 3. They were loved |

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Be thou loved	Be ye <i>or</i> you loved
---------------	---------------------------

INFINITIVE MOOD.

<i>Present</i> , To be loved	<i>Perfect</i> , To have been loved
------------------------------	-------------------------------------

PARTICIPLES.

<i>Present</i> , Being loved	<i>Perfect</i> , Loved
------------------------------	------------------------

Compound Perfect, Having been loved

4. The *Emphatic* form of conjugating a verb consists in putting its infinitive or root after the several persons of the verb *to do*; as:

¹⁾ In the *active* voice, the nominative is the name of the *agent*; but in the *passive* voice, the nominative is the name of the object or receiver of the action. Thus '*I love*' is in the active voice, but '*I am loved*' is in the passive. Strictly speaking, however, there is no passive voice in the English language. The following are Dr. Crombie's observations on the subject: — "The English verb has only one voice, namely, the active. Dr. Lowth and most other grammarians have assigned it two voices, *active* and *passive*."

Emphatic form of Conjugation.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

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

PAST TENSE.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

- | | |
|--------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. I did love | 1. We did love |
| 2. Thou didst love | 2. Ye <i>or</i> you did love |
| 2. He did love | 3. They did love. |

5. When this form of the verb is not used to express *emphasis* or strong assertion, it is called the *Expletive form*.

*Present-Perfect Tense.*¹⁾

6. The Present-Perfect tense is formed by putting the *perfect* participle of any verb after the several persons of the *present* tense of the verb *have*; as:

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

- | | |
|-----------------|-----------------------------|
| I have loved | We have loved |
| Thou hast loved | Ye <i>or</i> you have loved |
| He has loved | They have loved. |

7. This tense is much in use; and is frequently confounded with the Past tense, from which it should be carefully distinguished.

8. The Present-Perfect,²⁾ as its name denotes, includes

¹⁾ This tense is best known by the name of the *Perfect Tense*; in some recent English grammars it is called the *Past definite*; and in others, the *Present Complete Tense*.

²⁾ By regarding this tense as the *present* tense of the verb *to have* prefixed to the *past* or *perfect* participle of another verb, we shall have no difficulty in determining when it, and not the 'Imperfect' or 'Past tense,' should be used, as in cases like the following: '*I have received your letter,*' or '*I received your letter.*' The 'Perfect tense' implies the *having* or possessing of a finished or completed action; and therefore it refers both to *present* and *past* time. For example, '*I loved him*' (formerly but not now); '*I have loved him*' (since I first knew him, and I continue to love him). '*I received your letter*' (yesterday, but could not answer it till to-day). Or, '*I received your letter*'

in its signification completed action and *present* time—or, in other words, it brings a *past* action into connexion with the *present* time. Thus, '*I have written the letter,*' implies that I have *just* written it. The Past tense includes in its signification completed action and *past* time; that is, it represents an action as having occurred at some period of time *prior* to, and *disjoined* from, the present. Thus, '*I wrote the letter,*' implies that I wrote it at some time previous to, and disconnected with, the present.

9. The Present-Perfect is also used to express an action done in a certain period of time, (such as a *day*, a *year*, a *century*,) part of which is yet to elapse; as, '*I have tasted nothing to-day;*' '*I have not seen him this year;*' '*Strange events have occurred this century.*'

10. This tense is also used to express a past action whose consequences extend to the present; as, '*I have neglected my duty and am, therefore, unhappy.*' In this way it is applied to authors whose works are in existence, though they themselves may be long since dead; as, '*Cicero has written orations.*' But we could not say, with propriety, '*Cicero has written poems,*' because his poems are no longer extant. In this case we should say, '*Cicero wrote poems.*'

11. *Present-Perfect Progressive.*

SINGULAR.

I have been dancing

Thou hast been dancing

He has been dancing

PLURAL.

We have been dancing

Ye or you have dancing

They have been dancing

12. The *Passive* of the Present-Perfect tense is formed by putting *been* after *have*, through all the persons in both numbers; as:

this morning, but could not answer it till *now*' (the evening or mid-day). '*I have received your letter*' (this moment, and hasten to answer it). '*Homer has described the Trojan war in the Iliad*' (that is, Homer, who may be regarded as existing in his works, *has* the Trojan war described in the Iliad). '*It has rained all day*' (and it is still raining). '*It rained very heavily this morning*' (but it is fair now).

SINGULAR.

I have been loved
Thou hast been loved
He has been loved

PLURAL.

We have been loved
Ye *or* you have been loved
They have been loved.

13. *Prior-Perfect.* ¹⁾

SINGULAR.

I had loved
Thou hadst loved
He had loved

PLURAL.

We had loved
Ye *or* you had loved
They had loved.

14. This tense represents an action as *perfected* or completed *before* some other action or event mentioned in connexion with it took place; as, '*I had written the letter before the news arrived.*' It is compounded of the *past* tense of the verb *have* and the perfect participle of another verb.

15. *Prior-Perfect Progressive.*

SINGULAR.

I had been dancing
Thou hadst been dancing
He had been dancing

PLURAL.

We had been dancing
Ye *or* you had been dancing
They had been dancing.

16. The *Passive* of the Prior-Perfect tense is formed by putting *been* after *had*; as:

SINGULAR.

I had been loved
Thou hadst been loved
He had been loved

PLURAL.

We had been loved
Ye *or* you had been loved
They had been loved.

17. *First Future.*

SINGULAR.

I shall *or* will love
Thou shalt *or* wilt love
He shall *or* will love

PLURAL.

We shall *or* will love
Ye *or* you shall *or* will love
They shall *or* will love.

18. The First Future tense simply indicates that an action or event is yet to take place; as, '*I shall write the letter.*' It is formed by putting the infinitive of any verb, without

¹⁾ The usual, and classical name of this tense in the *Pluperfect*.

the sign *to*, after the several persons of the *present* tense of the verb *Shall* or *Will*; as in the preceding examples ¹⁾).

19. *First Future Progressive.*

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

I shall <i>or</i> will be dancing	We shall <i>or</i> will be dancing
Thou shalt <i>or</i> wilt be dancing	Ye <i>or</i> you shall <i>or</i> will be dancing
He shall <i>or</i> will be dancing	They shall <i>or</i> will be dancing

20. *First Future Passive.*

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

I shall <i>or</i> will be loved	We shall <i>or</i> will be loved
Thou shalt <i>or</i> wilt be loved	Ye <i>or</i> you shall <i>or</i> will be loved
He shall <i>or</i> will be loved	They shall <i>or</i> will be loved

21. *Second Future.*

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

I shall <i>or</i> will have loved	We shall <i>or</i> will have loved
Thou shalt <i>or</i> wilt have loved	Ye <i>or</i> you shall <i>or</i> will have loved
He shall <i>or</i> will have loved	They shall <i>or</i> will have loved

22. The Second Future tense indicates that a future action or event will take place at or before another future action or event; as, '*I shall have written the letter before the post arrives.*' It is compounded of the present tense of *Shall* or *Will*, the infinitive of *Have* (without the sign), and the perfect participle of any other verb.

23. The *Passive* of the Second Future is formed by putting *been* after *have*; as, '*I shall or will have been loved;*' and so on through the other persons in both numbers.

Interrogative form of Conjugation.

24. Verbs are conjugated interrogatively either by simply putting the verb before its nominative; as, *Love I? Lovest thou?* — or by putting the corresponding part of the verb *Do* before the nominative; as, *Do I love? Dost thou love?* and so on through the two tenses. The first mode is seldom used, except in poetry or solemn language.

¹⁾ The distinction between *shall* and *will*, will be explained further on.

Negative form of Conjugation.

25. Verbs are conjugated negatively, either by putting *not* after the verb, as, 'I *love not*,' thou *lovest not*' — or by using the *emphatic* ¹⁾ form with *not* between the auxiliary and the verb; as, 'I *do not* love,' 'thou *dost not* love, etc. The latter is the usual mode.

26. *Negative and Interrogative Conjugation.*

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

Do not I love? ²⁾

Dost not thou love?

Does not he love?

PLURAL.

Do not we love?

Do not ye *or* you love?

Do not they love?

PAST TENSE.

SINGULAR.

Did not I love?

Didst not thou love?

Did not he love?

PLURAL.

Did not we love?

Did not ye *or* you love?

Did not they love?

Table of the simple and compound tenses of the English verb.

TO MOVE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

*Active Voice.**Passive Voice.**Indefinite*, I move, etc.

I am moved, etc.

Progressive, I am moving.*(Objectionable.)* ³⁾*Emphatic*, I do move.*(Wanting.)**Present Perfect*, . I have moved.

I have been moved.

Pres. Perf. Prog. I have been moving. *(Wanting.)*

PAST TENSE.

Indefinite, I moved, etc.

I was moved, etc.

Progressive, I was moving.*(Objectionable.)* ³⁾

¹⁾ In negative and interrogative sentences the *emphatic form* is not necessarily *emphatic*; as, 'Do you know him?' 'I *do not* know him;' or in the usual form — 'I *don't* know him.'

²⁾ Or, Love I not? Lovest thou not? and so on through the two tenses.

³⁾ The forms "I am being moved," "I was being moved," are not recommended.

the sign *to*, after the several persons of the *present* tense of the verb *Shall* or *Will*; as in the preceding examples ¹⁾.

19. *First Future Progressive.*

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

I shall <i>or</i> will be dancing	We shall <i>or</i> will be dancing
Thou shalt <i>or</i> wilt be dancing	Ye <i>or</i> you shall <i>or</i> will be dancing
He shall <i>or</i> will be dancing	They shall <i>or</i> will be dancing

20. *First Future Passive.*

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

I shall <i>or</i> will be loved	We shall <i>or</i> will be loved
Thou shalt <i>or</i> wilt be loved	Ye <i>or</i> you shall <i>or</i> will be loved
He shall <i>or</i> will be loved	They shall <i>or</i> will be loved

21. *Second Future.*

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

I shall <i>or</i> will have loved	We shall <i>or</i> will have loved
Thou shalt <i>or</i> wilt have loved	Ye <i>or</i> you shall <i>or</i> will have loved
He shall <i>or</i> will have loved	They shall <i>or</i> will have loved

22. The Second Future tense indicates that a future action or event will take place at or before another future action or event; as, '*I shall have written the letter before the post arrives.*' It is compounded of the present tense of *Shall* or *Will*, the infinitive of *Have* (without the sign), and the perfect participle of any other verb.

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24. Verbs are conjugated interrogatively either by simply putting the verb before its nominative; as, *Love I? Lovest thou?* — or by putting the corresponding part of the verb *Do* before the nominative; as, *Do I love? Dost thou love?* and so on through the two tenses. The first mode is seldom used, except in poetry or solemn language.

¹⁾ The distinction between *shall* and *will*, will be explained further on.

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25. Verbs are conjugated negatively, either by putting *not* after the verb, as, 'I *love not*,' thou *lovest not*' — or by using the *emphatic* ¹⁾ form with *not* between the auxiliary and the verb; as, 'I *do not* love,' 'thou *dost not* love, etc. The latter is the usual mode.

26. *Negative and Interrogative Conjugation.*

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

Do not I love? ²⁾

Dost not thou love?

Does not he love?

PLURAL.

Do not we love?

Do not ye *or* you love?

Do not they love?

PAST TENSE.

SINGULAR.

Did not I love?

Didst not thou love?

Did not he love?

PLURAL.

Did not we love?

Did not ye *or* you love?

Did not they love?

Table of the simple and compound tenses of the English verb.

TO MOVE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

*Active Voice.**Passive Voice.**Indefinite*, I move, etc.

I am moved, etc.

Progressive, I am moving.(Objectionable.) ³⁾*Emphatic*, I do move.

(Wanting.)

Present Perfect, . I have moved.

I have been moved.

Pres. Perf. Prog. I have been moving. (Wanting.)

PAST TENSE.

Indefinite, I moved, etc.

I was moved, etc.

Progressive, I was moving.(Objectionable.) ³⁾

¹⁾ In negative and interrogative sentences the *emphatic form* is not necessarily *emphatic*; as, 'Do you know him?' 'I *do not* know him;' or in the usual form — 'I *don't* know him.'

²⁾ Or, Love I not? Lovest thou not? and so on through the two tenses.

³⁾ The forms "I am being moved," "I was being moved," are not recommended.

	<i>Active Voice.</i>	<i>Passive Voice.</i>
<i>Emphatic</i> ,	I did move.	(<i>Wanting.</i>)
<i>Prior Perfect</i> , . . .	I had moved.	I had been moved.
<i>Prior-Perf. Prog.</i>	I had been moving.	(<i>Wanting.</i>)

FUTURE TENSE.

<i>First Future</i> , . . .	I shall <i>or</i> will move.	I shall <i>or</i> will be moved.
<i>Progressive</i> ,	I shall <i>or</i> will be moving.	(<i>Wanting.</i>)
<i>Second Future</i> , . .	I shall <i>or</i> will have moved.	I shall <i>or</i> will have been moved.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

<i>Second Person</i> , . .	Move, <i>or</i> move thou,	Be thou moved, <i>or</i> do <i>or</i> do thou move.
		thou be moved.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

<i>Present</i> ,	To move.	To be moved.
<i>Progressive</i> ,	To be moving.	(<i>Wanting.</i>)
<i>Perfect</i> ,	To have moved.	To have been moved.

PARTICIPLES.

<i>Present</i> ,	Moving.	Being moved.
<i>Perfect</i> ,	Moved.	Been moved.
<i>Compound Perfect</i> ,	Having moved.	Having been moved.

Observations on the origin and meaning of the auxiliary verbs.

I. *Be*. — The variety in the form of this verb is a proof that it is derived from different sources.¹⁾

1. *Are* seems to be from the French *être*, the *t* having been dropped; as in *pier* from *petra*; *friar* from *frater*; *larceny* from *latrocinium*, etc.²⁾

¹⁾ The similarity between the form and meaning of the Greek word *bios*, life, and *be*, to exist or *live*, justifies the derivation of the latter from the former: and the forms *am*, *is*, and *was* may also be traced to the Greek, *eimi*, *I am*, etc.

²⁾ *Art* is from the Anglo-Saxon *eart*, and *wast* and *wert* probably from the Franco-Teutonic, *warst*.

The analogy by which we derive *are* from *être* is clear and certain.

2. **Art** seems formed by contraction from *are-st*; as, *shalt* from *shallest*; *wilt* from *willest*; and *wert* from *were-st*.

3. **Were** is from **are** by prefixing *w*, which in many cases is merely a *breathing*; as in the word *one*, in which *w* is *audibly* present. In the words *weather*, *whole*, and *work*, the *w* has no more business (phonetically speaking) than in the word *one*.

OBSERVATIONS.

a. Connected with an infinitive mood *to be* is used to indicate that something is to take place, the reason of which may either be a resolution, or a consequence of circumstances. Sometimes it even implies possibility. Ex. *They fixed a time in which they were all to assist at repairing my former dwelling.* (Goldsmith). *Those excellencies which are to be regarded but in the second place, should not precede more weighty considerations* (Addison). *I was to do many small things.* (Goldsmith). *He was to lie that night at a neighbour's.* — *I am to be married to a squire.* — *I am to have a lord.* *Is that all you are to have for your two shillings?* (Goldsmith). *They thought it impossible for any man to read through all the books, though he was to live as long as Methuselah.* (Coventry).

b. The verb *to be* placed between two nouns of different number, generally agrees with the substantive used as subject of the sentence; as, *Perjury is but scandalous words.* (Fielding). *Frequent disappointments are the only physic for ambition.* (Fielding). *The wages of sin is death.* (Bible). *In Arabia I saw a nation at once pastoral and warlike, whose only wealth is their flocks and herds.* (Johnson).

c. Connected with the objective case the infinitive mood, especially of the verb *to be*, often serves to compose such sentences as are expressed in the Dutch language by the conjunction *that*. This conjunction is omitted in English, the subject is changed into the objective case and the verb is put in the infinitive mood; as, *Allowing his sentiments to be wrong,*

In many words *t* before *r* has been dropped; as in *père* from *pater*, *mère* from *mater*, *frère* from *frater* — and why not *are* from *être*? And having deduced *are*, we have *art*, by contraction, from *are-st*, and *were* by prefixing *w*. The root is the Latin *stare*, whence (*estre*) *être*.

yet as he is purely passive in his assent, he is not to be blamed. (Goldsmith). *At last she demonstrated her affection to him to be much stronger than what she bore her own son.* (Fielding). *He knew the nature of that good man to be averse to any baseness or treachery.* (Fielding). *He soon observed him to be so wrapped in his own thoughts as to take little heed of external objects.* (W. Irving). *White turbans and the oriental form of their garments shewed them to be natives of some distant eastern country.* (W. Scott). *Travellers often proclaim that to be a difference in the several characters of nations which is but a difference in their manners.* (Bulwer).

II. **Have.** — This verb has the same origin as the Latin *habeo*, to have or possess. Its present tense **have**, and its past tense **had**, if prefixed to the perfect participle of any verb, make up what is called the Perfect and Pluperfect tenses; as, I *have* loved; I *had* loved; and in the Passive form, I *have been* loved; I *had been* loved.

Generally speaking *to have* is used to form with the past participle the compound tenses of an active verb, but only when this participle is followed by its objective case; when on the contrary the latter is placed before the past participle a particular construction is used, as will be seen from the following examples: *She had more money left than the keeper intended she should carry out of prison with her.* (Goldsmith). *Her dress was in such disorder that I was quite sorry to have her figure exposed to the servants.* (Burney). *When Tom attended the reverend Mr. Thwackum, he had the same questions put to him by that gentleman which he had been asked the evening before.* (Fielding). *I would not have it thought that these instructions were directed chiefly to their personal accomplishments.* (W. Irving). *Astyanax was the son of Hector and Andromache. When Troy was taken, this young prince had his head cut off, and his body thrown to swine.* (Swift).

III. **Do.** — All verbs imply action, or the doing of something, but this verb *emphatically* means to do or act. Hence it is prefixed to other verbs to make up what is called the *Emphatic* form of conjugation; as, I *do* love, etc. It is also

used for the purpose of *negation* and *interrogation*; as, *I do not love*. Thou *dost not* love, etc.; *Do I love?* *dost* thou love? It is also often used as an *expletive*; as:

„While *expletives* their feeble aid *do* join,
And ten low words oft creep in one dull line.” — *Pope*.

IV. **Shall and Will.** The English language has two future tenses in the indicative mood, the *future simple*, and the *future-perfect*; the first formed by the present tense of the verb *shall*, and the infinitive mood of the principal verb, the second by the future of *to have*, and the perfect participle of the principal verb. And note that *shall* is the proper sign of the future tense in this language, and that it yields its office to *will* only to prevent an effect which will be pointed out presently; in all the following examples, it forms an indicative future: *I shall go*; *I shall have gone*; *We shall speak*; *We shall have spoken*; *Shall you go*? „If” *he shall go*; „I am determined that” *he shall go*. The whole sentence in which the last example is included, may be said to be a potential sentence; but the potential meaning is given by the introductory part, and *he shall go* expresses a simple future. Suppose, however, we use the latter phrase, namely, „*He shall go*,” without the introductory part, the potential effect remains: we do not understand „*he shall go*,” simply as a future event, but as an event to take place by the *will* of the speaker, or of some external will controlling the will of the person of the verb: the following phrases, therefore, are in the potential mood when nothing occurs in the context to reduce them to the expression of simple futurity; — *Thou shalt go*; *he shall go*; *you shall go*; *they shall go*. But if *shall* in the second and third persons is liable to be thus understood, that is to say, as an indication of some external *will*, and not as a sign of simple futurity, — how is the simple future in these persons to be implied? Let us use *will* for *shall*, and consider the effect: *thou wilt go*; *he will go*; *you will go*; *they will go*, are phrases which may also be understood potentially; but so understood, the power is the *will* of the person of the verb, and clearly not the *will*

of the speaker. And this is no doubt the sole original meaning of these and similarly formed phrases, and is still the meaning when we lay some degree of stress on the auxiliary verb; in which case the examples all belong to the potential mood. But with a slighter pronunciation of the auxiliary, such as, in colloquial use, often sinks into the contraction 'll, and the lax interpretation of custom, these phrases have the meaning of the simple future; and the future tenses affirmative in the indicative mood, are therefore conjugated thus: *I shall teach, thou wilt teach, he will teach; we shall teach, you will teach, they will teach; — I shall have taught, thou wilt have taught, he will have taught; We shall have taught, you will have taught, they will have taught.*

1. **Shall** originally signified to *owe*, as in Chaucer, „*By the faith I shall to God;*” and it still means that which one *owes* or *ought*; particularly in its past tense **should**; as, „*Children should obey their parents.*”

‘*What shall I do?*’ properly means what *owe* I, or *ought* I to do? What am I bound by **duty** or **obligation** to do? And, ‘*You should do so and so,*’ properly means, it is *due* from you — or it is your *duty* to do so and so. Hence **shall**, and particularly **should**, imply **duty** and **obligation**. And as that which one *owes* to do is yet to be done, **shall** has come to be used as a sign of the *future* tense or time of other verbs, under the name of an Auxiliary.

2. **Will**. — The verb **will** is also used to express the future tense of other verbs, and for a similar reason, for that which one *wills* or *intends* to do refers to the *future*; as, *I will go*, that is, *I intend to go*.

But though **shall** and **will** are both used in connexion with other verbs to express a future time, they are by no means synonymous; and their proper application, in every case, constitutes one of the idiomatic difficulties of the English language. In a certain English work thirty-five rules have been given on the use of **shall** and **will**; and, in fact, an entire treatise has been published on the same subject. The following short rule is clear and comprehensive:

In the First Person, simply, **shall** foretells;
 In **will**, a *threat* or else a *promise* dwells;
Shall in the Second and the Third does *threat*:
Will simply then *foretells* the future feat.

In other words, when the future is to be expressed simply or without emphasis, **shall** should be used after the *first* person, and **will** after the other *two*. But when the future is to be expressed with determination and authority, **will** should be used after the *first* person, and **shall** after the other *two*; that is, the cases are precisely reversed ¹⁾.

3. *Shall* has originally the meaning of the German *sollen* and *will* of *wollen*. Properly *shall* serves to express **to command**, **to promise** and **to threaten** whilst *will* indicates the **intention**, the **will** and the **resolution** of its subject. If the speaker wishes to inform the person spoken to, of his *will* or *intention*, his *purpose* or *resolution*, if he wants to *threaten* him or to *make him a promise*, he should make use of the two expressions in the following way.

I will,	we will,	I would,	we would,
thou shalt,	you shall,	thou wouldst,	you would,
he shall,	they shall.	he would,	they would.

as: **I will go this moment and inform the company of my circumstances.** (Goldsmith). *Though thou hast my forgiveness thou shalt ever have my contempt.* (ibid). *If I am to be a*

¹⁾ If two distinct forms were used to express what is called the First Future, the difference between **shall** and **will** would be more easily understood by the learner. The one form might be called the *Simple*, and the other the *Emphatic* Future. For example:

SIMPLE FORM OF FIRST FUTURE.

I shall go	We shall go
Thou wilt go	Ye or you will go
He will go	They will go

EMPHATIC FORM OF FIRST FUTURE.

I will go	We will go
Thou shalt go	Ye or you shall go
He shall go	They shall go

beggar, **it shall never make me a rascal.** (ibid). Now, my friend, **we will** once more set forward with our history. (Fielding). You shall feel the effect of this insolence. (Goldsmith). The many adventures that befell them on their journey shall be left to the reader's imagination. (Coventry). I had devoutly sent her word that **I would** assuredly wait upon her. (Sterne). I was determined that **he should** write to the squire offering a settlement which **he should** have no reason to reject. (Smollet). **We must** confess **we would** gratify our reader in every thing that is reasonable. (Addison).

4. If on the contrary the speaker inquires into the *will*, the *resolution* of the person spoken to, this is done for the different persons in the following way

shall I?	shall we?	should I?	should we?
wilt thou?	will you?	wouldst thou?	would you?
shall he?	shall they?	should he?	should they?

as: *And the Lord said, shall I hide from Abraham the thing which I do.* (Bible). *How, replied his master, wilt thou not obey my commands?* (W. Scott). *Shall then my recovery, shall my presence cast her at once down into misery and despair?* (Fielding). *And shall we never part again?* (Smollet). *Why will you thus attempt to persuade me?* (Goldsmith). *Will you not call with me at your mother's?* (Bulwer). *Shall he that hateth right govern? and wilt thou condemn him that is most just?* (Bible). *Should I lie against my right?* (ibid). *Wilt thou play with him as with a bird?* (ibid).

5. The case is quite different however if *shall* and *will* are used to form the future tense and *should* and *would* constitute the *Dutch conditional mood*, which do not only express *depending* but even only *supposed* circumstances.

6. If the speaker wishes to communicate his own opinion about any thing, he makes use of the following forms.

I shall	we shall	I should	we should
thou wilt	you will	thou wouldst	you would
he will	they will	he would	they would.

as: **I shall** conclude this paper with an epigram. (Addison). *Reader, it is impossible to know which sort of person thou wilt*

be. (Fielding). *The time will certainly come when we shall cease from our toil.* (Goldsmith). *Go and get gold for this; you will do it at neighbour Jackson's* (ibid). *They will raise our compassion rather than our abhorrence.* (Addison). *Would they have suffered me to listen, I should have forgot every thing unpleasant.* (Burney). *A circumstance that would certainly retard my success.* (Smollet). *According to what you may observe on our stage, you would be apt to pronounce us a nation of savages.* (Addison). *They would rather tend to promote a cheerful serenity in the mind than any of those dangerous effects which we have mentioned.* (Fielding).

7. If the speaker on the contrary inquires into another's intention and opinion, the verbs *will* and *shall* are used in the following manner:

Shall I?	shall we?	should I?	should we?
shalt thou?	shall you?	shouldst thou?	should you?
will he?	will they?	would he?	would they?

as: *Shall I ever be restored to health? What will all this end in? Shall you never leave off quarrelling? Why should you anticipate such consequences from a union where birth is equal and fortune favourable?* (W. Scott). *Would the enthusiastic loyalty survive the success or the failure of the present political machinations?* (W. Scott).

8. Such questions where the speaker is convinced that the matter inquired into cannot take place, should be expressed in the third person by *shall*; as. *Who shall declare his way to his face? and who shall repay him what he has done? Where shall wisdom be found?* (Bible). *Who shall ascend unto the hill of the Lord? or who shall stand in his holy place?* (Ps. 24th). *Who shall say that there is no wisdom in inculcating external address? — Who shall say that the writer who above all has contributed to this end, is only the preacher of dissimulation and deceit?* (Bulwer).

9. With regard to futurity *shall* is however also used in the second and third person after the conjunctions *as*, *according as*, *as soon as*, *as often as*, *if*, *till*, *until*, *unless*, *when*, *whenever*, *whether*, *after* and after the relative pronouns, *when*

only the circumstantial part of the action is pointed out; as, *The time will certainly and shortly come, when the luxurious great ones of the world shall no more tread us to the earth; our bliss shall be unutterable, and still, to crown all, unending.* (Goldsmith). *It is thou, o Liberty, whom all in public or in private worship, whose taste is grateful and ever will be so, till nature herself shall change.* (Sterne). *We shall if rightly understood, afford a very useful lesson to those well disposed youths, who shall hereafter be our readers.* (Fielding). *And sure if fate some future bard shall join in sad similitude of griefs to mine.* (Pope). *You will not turn this daughter out of doors, before you know, whether you shall approve her choice.* (Fielding). *He that shall walk with vigour three hours a day will pass in seven years a space equal to the circumference of the globe.* (Johnson). *After she shall have completed her business.* (Webster).

10. In subordinate sentences *shall* is also used after the conjunction *that* (which is however often omitted), when the words or orders of some one else are expressed or a duty is represented as the consequence of the foregoing principal sentence; as, *He has given orders that the table shall be served up.* (Addison). *Can any one on his entrance into the world, be fully secure that he shall not be deceived?* (Murray). *It has been a custom long established that a husband shall never enter into his wife's apartment without first knocking at the door.* (Fielding).

11. In the second and third person *shall* also expresses a thing as a necessary consequence of circumstances, as something which is not to be avoided, and therefore is equally used in a prophetic tone; as, *Fear not, Macbeth; no man that's born of woman, shall e'er have power on thee.* (Shak). *Our high placed Macbeth shall live the lease of nature.* (ibid). *Blessed is the man whose heart has not condemned him: if he have a good heart, he shall at all times rejoice in a cheerful countenance etc.* (Sterne).

12. The use of *shall* also applies to questions of the same nature, and this accounts for expressions as; *Shall not con-*

science rise up and sting him on such occasions? — No, thank God, there is no occasion. (Sterne).

Shall is also used in the sense of *suppose*; as, *A man shall be vicious and utterly debauched in his principles; — shall live shameless in the open commission of a sin which no reason or pretence can justify: — surely, you will think conscience must lead such a man a troublesome life; he can have no rest night or day from its reproaches.* (Sterne).

13. In the second and third person *should* is also used as well after the conjunctions mentioned in Nr. 9 as after *lest*, *that*, *provided (that)*, *though* and when the words and the opinion of somebody else are mentioned, without regard to his will and if the person spoken of would not himself have made use of *shall* and *should*; as, *He introduced a discourse on the fatal consequences, if Mr Allworthy should discover that he still carried on this commerce.* (Fielding). *There was reason to apprehend, lest the system of Lycurgus should evaporate.* (Gillies). *He himself was quite uncertain, whether or not he should be engaged that winter.* (Smollet). *I asked leave to stay till the wind should become favorable.* (ibid). *My father permitted me to ride across the country to her brother's house, while he should hire a post chaise for London, where he would wait for me.* (ibid). *I obtained her consent to complete my happiness as soon as my father should judge it proper.* (ibid). *The author of a weekly paper, he doubted not, would employ me in that way, provided he should find me duly qualified.* (ibid). *He assured me that he not be long in my debt.* (ibid). *It cannot be wondered at, that the unexpected sight of Jones should so strongly operate on the mind of Molly.* (Fielding). *The prior expressed his astonishment, that their guide should be so perfectly acquainted with the passes of the forest.* (W. Scott).

Observations. a. „Such a discovery, he said, his enemies gave him reason to think, **would** be unavoidable”. In this sentence Fielding makes use of *would*, because the person referred to, employed the word *will*. „Figure yourself a family the master of which **should** dispose of the several econo-

mical offices in the following manner, says miss Burney, because it is as if there was: *if a master of a family should dispose.*" — "*He promised to inform himself that very day, at which time it would be proper for me to wait upon him.*" we find in Smollet, the question being supposed: *at what time will it be proper for me to wait upon him?* In saying *He hoped he should recover*, the auxiliary form *should* refers to the person who hopes. In *He hoped he would recover* the word *would* indicates that it is said of another person.

b. In stead of *be* or *should be* the word *were* is sometimes used, in the same way as *had* may be used for *should have* and sometimes even for *would have*, as: *An intermediate verse being evidently lost, it were idle to attempt a union that never was intended.* (Steevens). *It were unworthy to murmur for a night's lodging or a night's food.* (W. Scott). *Lord if thou hadst been here, my brother had not died.* (Bible).

c. Very frequent is also the use of *would* in the meaning of the Dutch expression *placht*, which may be rendered into English by *he used to*, and the frequent repetition of the same action or situation is often expressed by the present tense *will*; as, *Sometimes farmer Flamborough, our talkative neighbour, and often the blind piper would pay us a visit.* (Goldsmith). *She would bid the girls hold up their heads.* (ibid). *As the heedless insects hovered round the gaudy network. Mr Bumble would heave a deep sigh.* (Dickens). *I forgot to mention that he (Mr Mell) would talk to himself sometimes, and grin, and clench his fist, and grind his teeth, and pull his hair in an unaccountable manner.* (Dickens). *My pretty little Dora's face would fall, and she would make her mouth into a bud again, as if she would very much prefer to shut mine with a kiss.* (Dickens). *Dora would think a little, and then reply, "perhaps", with great triumph.* (Dickens).

Infected minds to their deaf pillows will discharge their secrets. (Shak). *These are the men, my sons, the squire will continue, that show to what our national character may be exalted.* (W. Irving).

d. *Would* also has the signification of *wished* in such

sentences as the following: *I would not be thought to undervalue reputation.* (Fielding). *Who knows but this man's situation is better than my father would represent it.* (Goldsmith). *I would indeed, that nature were more visibly knit with our individual existence.* (Bulwer).

I hope by all this to have sufficiently explained the use of *shall* and *will* which are not only rather difficult in their various applications but which even Irishmen and Scotchmen often misplace, though an Englishman scarcely ever does. I think therefore, it may answer the purpose of some juvenile students to know what Dr Henry Alford, the learned Dean of Canterbury, mentions in such a popular way in his "*Plea for the queen's English*" of which the second edition appeared in 1864.

"In attempting to give an explanation of our English usage," he says, "I may premise that it is exceedingly difficult to do so. We seem to proceed rather on instinct, than by any fixed rule. Yet instinct, in rational beings, must be founded on some inherent fitness of things; and examination ought to be able to detect that fitness. Let us try to do this, though it may be difficult, in the case before us.

The simplest example that can be given is "*I will*." Now this can have but one meaning. It can only be used as expressing determination: only, where the will of the person speaking is concerned. "*Wilt thou have this woman to thy wedded wife?*" Answer, "*I will*" (in the Latin, "*volo*"). We cannot use "*I will*," where a mere contingent future event is concerned. We cannot use "*I will*" of anything uncertain, anything about which we hope or fear. "*Help me, I'll fall*," if strictly interpreted, would be an entreaty to be saved from an act of wilful precipitation. "*I fear I won't*" is an impossible and unmeaning junction of terms. If it meant anything, it could only be, "*I fear that, when the time comes, my power of volition will be found too weak for its work*." But this is obviously not what it is intended to mean. The account then of "*I will*" seems very simple.

Now, what is "*I shall*?" In its ordinary use, it just

takes those cases of things future, where "*I will*" cannot be said: those cases where the things spoken of are independent of our own will. "*Next Tuesday I shall be twenty-one*"—an event quite out of my own power. So far, all is plain. But there is a case of "*I shall*" which somewhat complicates the matter. We are in the habit, when announcing something which we positively mean to do, to speak of it as if it were taken, so to say, out of the region of our own will, and placed among things absolutely certain; and in such cases we turn "*will*" into "*shall*." The traveller meets with incivility, or he cannot find his luggage, at the station. He breaks forth, in angry mood, "*I shall write to the 'Times' about this*,"—and he means the station-master to conclude that his writing is as certain as if it were already done. The "*shall*" is intended to elevate the "*will*" into the category of things indisputable.

So far then for "*will*" and "*shall*" when used in the first person. But how when used in the second? Let us take "*You will*." "*You will*" is used when speaking to another person of a matter entirely out of the speaker's power and jurisdiction. "*You will be twenty-one next Tuesday*." "*If you climb that ladder you will fall*." This is the ordinary use. Here again there is an exception, which I cannot well treat till I have spoken of "*You shall*."

"*You shall*" or "*You shall not*" is said to another, when the will of the speaker compels that which is spoken of. "*Thou shalt love the Lord thy God*." "*Thou shalt not steal*."

The exceptions to both these usages may be stated thus, and they are nearly related to that of which I spoke when on the first person. A master writes to his servant, "*On the receipt of this you will go*," or "*you will please to go*," "*to such a place*." This is treating the obedience of the servant as a matter of certainty, sure to follow of course on his lord's command. The exception in the use of "*shall*" is when we say, for instance, "*If you look through History, you shall find that it has always been so*," and the account of it seems to be, that the speaker feels as perfect a certainty of the

result, as if it were not contingent, but depended only on his absolute command.

It remains that we consider the words „will” and „shall” as applied in the third person; said of persons and things spoken about. And here, what has already been said will be a sufficient guide in ordinary cases. For all announcements of common events foreseen in the future, „will” is the word to be used. „*I think it will rain before night.*” „*To-morrow will be old May-day.*” We may sometimes use „shall,” but it can only be in cases where our own will, or choice, or power, exercises some influence over the events spoken of: as for instance, „*The sun shall not set to-night before I find out this matter.*” „*Next Tuesday shall be the day.*” Notice, you would not say, „*Next Tuesday shall be my birthday.*” because that is a matter over which you have no control: but a King might say, „*Next Tuesday shall be my birthday.*” because he would mean, „*shall be kept as my birthday,*” a matter over which he has control.

There are some very delicate and curious cases of the almost indifferent usage of the two auxiliary verbs. Take this one, „*If he will look, he will find it to be so.*” Here we use the first „will” in the sense of „choose to:” „*If he please to look.*” But the second has its mere future use: „*he will find that it is so.*” Here however we might use, though it would be somewhat pedantic English, the word „shall” in both members of the sentence: „*If he shall look, he shall find it to be so,*” and then the former „shall” would be in the sense of a mere future, and the second in that sense of absolute certainty, „*I will undertake that he shall find,*” of which I spoke just now. This sentence might in fact be correctly said in four different ways:

- If he will look, he will find:
- If he shall look, he shall find:
- If he will look, he shall find:
- If he shall look, he will find.

I may mention that the almost uniform use of „shall” as applied to future events and to persons concerned in them,

is reserved for the prophetic language of the Bible, as spoken by One whose will is supreme and who has all under his control.

There are certain other cases in which we may say either „will” or „shall.” In reporting what another said, or what one said one’s self, we may say, „*He told me he should go up to town to-morrow and settle it;*” or we may say, „*He told me he would go up to town,*” &c. This arises from the possibility, already noticed, of using either word in speaking in the first person.

Sometimes an ambiguity arises from the fact that „will” and „would” either may convey the idea of inclination of the will, or may point to a mere future event. We have two notable instances in the English version of the New Testament. Our Lord says to the Jews (John. v. 40), „*Ye will not come to me that ye might have life.*” Is He merely announcing a fact, or is He speaking of the bent and inclination of their minds? We consult the original, and the question is at once answered. What our Lord says, is this: „*Ye are not willing,*” „*ye have no mind,*” „*to come to me that ye might have life.*”

Again (Matt. xi. 27). „*No man knoweth the Father save the Son, and he to whomsoever the Son will reveal Him.*” Is this „will” a mere auxiliary for the future meaning, or does it convey the idea of *exercise of will*? Here again the original sets us right in a moment. It is, „*he to whom the Son is minded to reveal Him.*”

Let us take a still more remarkable case. The Pharisees said to our Lord (Luke xiii. 31), „*Get thee hence, for Herod will kill thee.*” This seems a mere future, and I have no doubt English readers universally regard it as such: but the original is „*Herod wishes,*” „*is minded,*” „*to kill thee.*”

The sense of duty conveyed by „should” sometimes causes ambiguity. Thus we have (Matt. xxvi. 35), „*Though I should die with thee, yet will I not deny thee.*” This, to the mere English reader, only conveys the sense, „*Even if it should happen that I should die with thee.*” But on consulting the original we find we should be wrong in thus understanding

it. It is *"Even if it be necessary for me to die with thee"* — and would have been better rendered, *"Even if I must die with thee."* But in another clause (John xxi. 19), *"This spake He, signifying by what death he should glorify God,"* the *"should"* does not represent any necessity, but the mere future.

Which is right, *"it would seem,"* or *"it should seem"*? I believe both are right, but with slightly differing meanings. Both, be it observed, are expressions of very slight and qualified assent. The former, *"it would seem,"* implies, *"we are told that if we were to weigh all that is to be said, we should come to such or such a conclusion."* The latter, *"it should seem,"* conveys the meaning, with perhaps a slightly ironical tinge, *that we are required to believe so and so.* The Germans use their *"soll,"* in reporting the conclusions or belief of others, in nearly the same sense.

An amusing instance of the confusion of *shall* and *will* was repeated to me by a Scottish friend. A young men's "Institute for Discussion and Self improvement" is reported in a Scottish provincial paper to have met, and discussed the question, *"Shall the material universe be destroyed?"* My friend supposes that the decision was in the negative: or that, if it was in the affirmative, the society cannot have proceeded to carry its resolution into effect.

I believe Dr. Latham, in his *"History of the English Language,"* was the first to observe that the confusion in such cases is more apparent than real. The Englishman and the Scotchman mean the same, but express it differently. We may say either, *"the material universe will be destroyed,"* expressing merely something which will happen some day in the future: or we may say *"the material universe shall be destroyed,"* in which case we put more solemnity and emphasis into our announcement, and treat it as something inevitable, pronouncing almost as if we were exercising our own will in the matter. When we turn the assertion into a question, we say, *"Will the material universe be destroyed?"* the Scotchman says, *"Shall the material universe be destroyed?"* He means

to put, as a question, what we meant, when we used *shall* in the assertion. But be it observed, that in turning the proposition into a question, the *shall* assumes a ludicrous form, because of the deliberative aspect given to the sentence; and it looks as if the person putting the question had the option whether he would destroy the universe or not.

Five years ago I was visiting Loch Maree, in Ross-shire, with my family. We took a „trap” from the comfortable inn at Kinloch-Ewe, and lunched and sketched on the cliffs, about twelve miles down the lake. When our time was nearly up, our Highland driver appeared in the distance, shouting, „Will I yauk him?” which, being interpreted, meant to say, „Shall I harness the pony?” I hardly see how even Dr. Latham’s explanation will account for the usage here ¹⁾.

¹⁾ I venture to insert the following remarks of a very intelligent Irish correspondent: —

„Your rules for the use of *shall* and *will* seem to me, as far as they go, the most simple and satisfactory I have ever read. But I observe: —

„I. No rule is laid down for the use of these words in interrogation. In Ireland the tendency is to make use of *will* in *every case*. I have collected several examples from English writers which seem to me to suggest the following rules: —

„*Will you?*” is a *request*.

„*Shall you?*” a simple *question* as to the future event.

„*Will he?*” a simple question.

„*Shall he?*” means *do you wish that he shall?*

„*Will I?*” is always incorrect.

„*Shall I?*” has two meanings: 1st, it asks the simple question as to the future event, *e.g.*, *shall I be of age next month?* 2nd, it asks, *do you wish that I shall?* *e.g.*, *shall I call you friend?*

„II. You say nothing of the use of these words in the secondary clauses of such sentences as the following:

„He hopes that he *shall* not be thought,’ &c.

„He walked into a church knowing well he *should* find,’ &c.

„Phrases of this kind occur very frequently, and, I think, almost all my countrymen would be found to use *will* and *would* instead of *shall* and *should*. I may add that, as it seems to me nothing to be found in your book would set them right on this point, I would propose the following principle for such cases: — If we report in our own words

Shall being the proper sign of futurity, must never be used for a potential meaning, except for that which arises by implication, when a will is suggested that controls the will of the verb. And this effect always follows from its use in the second and third persons, unless the context or a direct interrogation, to the first person, should prevent the effect. Thus, for instance, the following forms in italics are potential: *thou shalt die; he shall die; you shall know; they shall see.* But in the first person *shall* implies mere futurity; as, *I shall die;* and in the other persons also, when the effect above described, is presented: as in such instances as these: *shall you know? Do you think that you shall fail? Unless he shall see. If you shall be invited.*

We shall only add, that if the pupil keeps in mind the original meaning of **shall** and **will**, he will make few gross errors in applying them. If, for instance, he means to express his *will* or *determination* with regard to future action, he should use **will** and not **shall**. But if he merely foretells a future or contingent event without reference to his *will* or *determination*, **shall** will be the proper word. A few examples will make this clear — „*I will be drowned, and nobody shall*

what another has said, or thought, or known, or felt, we must use that verb which he would have used if, speaking in the first person, he had himself related the circumstance.

„III. There is to be found almost every day in the *Times* (second column) a curious illustration of the distinction between ‘shall’ and ‘will.’ When a person advertises for a lost article we sometimes read, ‘If any person brings, &c., he *shall* be rewarded.’ sometimes we find, ‘a reward *will* be given.’ Now here your rules seem to be at fault. The future event, namely, the giving of the reward, is dependent upon the will of the speaker in the latter case as well as in the former. If the rule hold good, therefore, we must say, ‘A reward *shall* be given.’ Yet it is never said.”

[This seems to fall under the list of exceptions mentioned at page 110; where the result is so spoken of as not contingent but certain. „A reward *shall* be given,” is the subjective dictum of him who has so determined: „a reward *will* be given,” is the objective future certainty, the *determination* being lost sight of.]

save me," is evidently wrong, unless the person who makes the exclamation *wishes* or *determines* to be drowned in spite of any efforts that may be made to save him. 'I fear that I will die of this disease.' If I go out in the rain I will catch cold, for my feet shall get wet, as my boots are thin.' If you shall not assist me I will not be able to finish it in time.' I will be sixteen years old next May.' I hope I will soon be better.' 'I will not be there so early.' ,We will not see his like again.' ,Will I go with the letter to the post-office?' Shall you wait until I return?' 'I will have some friends to dine with me to-day, shall you join us?' ,Come, now! say positively whether you shall or not.' ,Would we be blamed if we did it?' We would all be sober if we should but resist temptation.

In all these examples it is clear that either *shall* or *will* is misapplied.

Can which means *to be able*, is another form of the old *ken*, *to know*¹⁾ and such was its original; as, „*I can* rhymes of Robin Hoode. That which one knows how to do, one is generally, able to do; and hence, on the principle that '*Knowledge is power*,' *can* came to signify *to be able*. *I can* go, therefore, means *I am able* to go. *Can* you lift this weight, means, *are you able* to lift this weight. *I don't make merry myself at Christmas, and I can't* afford to make idle people merry. (Dickens). Since *I cannot* find a man in my regiment to attend a sick soldier, *I must* do it myself (Sterne). *I certainly shan't* hold my hand, when *I can* get anything in it by reaching it out (Dickens). If the fountain itself is polluted or infected, how *can* the streams be clear or wholesome? (Barrow). Slaves *cannot* breathe in England; if their lungs receive our air, that moment they *are* free. (Cowper). The servants *can't* miss the way? (Goldsmith).

The old form of the past tense (*could*) was *coud* and *couth* (*d* being aspirated as in *path* from *pad*); as, „Well *couth* hee tune his pipe." The *l* in *could* does not belong to it. It

¹⁾ *Con* is another form of the same word; whence, also *cunning* that is skilful, knowing, artful.

must have crept in by mistake, in imitation, perhaps, of the *l* in the words *should* and *would*. *I could not avoid smiling at this speech.* (Edgeworth). *Couldn't I contrive to have a little right on my side?* (Sheridan). *Could I draw my pedigree from a general, a statesman, or a celebrated author, I should study their lives with the diligence of filial love.* (Gibbon).

May¹⁾ which means *to be allowed, permitted* implies *permission* or *possibility*; as, '*I may go,*' that is, I am at liberty to go. *What a fool am I thus to lie in a stinking dungeon, when I may as well walk at liberty.* (Bunyan). *I feel that I may trust you.* (Marryat). *May I die by an anodyne necklace.* (Goldsmith). *Many new years, indeed, you may see, but happy ones you cannot see without deserving them.* (Chesterfield). *If the time shall ever come, when you shall wish to enjoy the tranquillity of private life, may you have a son endowed with such qualities, that you can resign your sceptre to him with as much satisfaction as I give up mine to you.* (Robertson). *The affections of your subjects may still be recovered.* (Junius). *Place the shield of Caithbat near, that they may behold me amidst the arms of my fathers!* (Macpherson). *Gentlemen, as they mayn't be good enough company for you, step down for a moment.* (Goldsmith). *He would prevent my girls from going to town, that he may have the pleasure of my youngest daughter's company here at home.* (Goldsmith). *Now heaven send she may be too sullen to look round!* (Sheridan). *Whatsoever his former conduct may have been, papa, his circumstances*

¹⁾ When I say of a man forcibly carried off by enemies, "*he must go wherever they conduct him,*" I mean "*he cannot avoid going:*" when I say that on his release "*he must eagerly return to his home,*" I mean that "*I cannot avoid drawing that conclusion.*" So also, if I say of a man in health and at liberty, "*he may go out or stay within.*" I mean that neither going nor staying is *unavoidable* to him: but when I say of a man who is sick, that "*he may recover,*" I do not mean (as in the former case) that this depends on *his choice*, but that "*I am not led unavoidably to the conclusion, that he will recover, or that he will not recover.*"

should exempt him from censure now (Goldsmith). Let the course of our employments be ordered in such a manner, that in carrying them on, we may be also promoting our eternal interest. (Blair). Its past tense, **might**, is contracted from *mayed*, as **fright** from *frayed*; **tight** from *tied*; **weight** from *weighed*. She entreated with particular earnestness, that now in her last moment, her almoner **might** be suffered to attend her, and that she **might** enjoy the consolation of those pious institutions prescribed by her religion. (Robertson). Poor queen! so that thy state **might** be no worse, I would my skill were subject to thy curse. (Shak.). He **might** forgive his personal adversaries, he may lawfully hate the enemies of God. (Gibbon). Her knowledge of what his intentions were, if she **might** not reveal them **might** be important, as perhaps, she **might** dissuade him. (Marryat). After such a year of trial, I **might** have flattered myself that I should not have been insulted with a new probation of my sincerity, as cruel as unnecessary. (Sheridan).

Ought which means to be obliged is contracted from *owed*, the past tense of the verb to owe; as **bought** from *buyed*; **sought** from *seeked*; **wrought** from *worked*. It was formerly used in the sense of *owed*: as, „The love and duty I long have **ought** you. (Spelman). It is now nearly synonymous in meaning with **should**. The time approached when I **ought** to speak. (Bulwer). **Ought** I to take the money? (Bulwer). A number there are who think they cannot admire as they **ought** the power and authority of the word of God, if in things divine they should attribute any force to man's reason. (Hooker). The characters which should move our pity **ought** to have virtuous inclinations. (Dryden). He should remember that he **ought** to accommodate himself to an English audience. (Addison). A parent **ought** to be consulted on this occasion. (Fielding). He thinks this an innovation on the dignity of a park which **ought** to be devoted to deer only. (W. Irving). We **ought** never to forget, that entire idleness always borders, either on misery or on guilt. (Blair). It was now determined

that something ought to be done for her without delay. (W. Irving). *I ought to be mortified at your disappointment.* (Montague). See *Shall*.

Must which means *to be forced* implies necessity or constraint; as, *I must go*, that is, *I am constrained to go*. *Now must I venture, as I may, To sing his favourite roundelay.* (Scott). *I must have made a mistake.* (Marryat). *You are but just listed in the world, and must be active, diligent, and indefatigable.* (Chesterfield). *You must have been delighted with the view from the saluting battery.* (Marryat). *If we could flatter ourselves that this would not happen, we must be the weakest of men; we must be the worst, if we were indifferent whether it happened or not.* (Burke).

The Dutch verb *laten* requires particular attention because the translation of it into English offers some difficulties. It signifies: *a. letting or allowing; b. causing; c. commanding; d. leaving.*

a. The signification of *letting* is rendered by the verb *to let*; as: *Let a lady sacrifice but a single ribbon to her morn-ing studies, and it will be sufficient; let a family burn but a candle a night less than their usual number, and they may take in the Spectator without detriment to their private affairs.* (Addison). *We had better let the postboy take the portman-teau.* (Sheridan). *And innocence.... It will not let itself be driven away.* (Coleridge). *Let me see the use of the dress of thy English ancestry* (W. Scott). *Let the chamber be clear'd.* (Byron). Besides *let* the synonymous verbs *to allow*, *to suffer*, *to permit* are often used in such cases, as: *The phy-sician allowed him to take a little exercise and suffered him to walk from his house to the garden twice a day.* (Anon). *I shall not allow business to absorb me.* (Marryat). *Two minutes were allowed to elapse.* (Rob. Macnish). *A fact which the divines did not suffer to sink into oblivion.* (Macaulay). *He did not suffer me to remain long in this delusion.* (Fielding). *Shall we thus permit a blasting breath to fall on him?* (Shak.).

b. *To cause* and *to get stand* connected with a gerundial infinitive; as: *cause his face to shine upon us.* (Ps. 67: 1).

The king having caused himself to be guided. (Shak.). *Get him to say his prayers.* (Shak.). *He gets that worthy to pay.* (Brown).

When the object is represented as undergoing the action, the passive voice is made use of after *to cause* and the past participle after *get*; as, *He caused him to be flogged twice.* (Anon). *The family had lately got their pictures drawn.* (Goldsmith).

c. The idea of command is expressed by *to bid*, *to tell*, *to command*, *to order* etc.; as, *Bid the captains look to't.* (Shak.). *Tell your brother not to come and bother us any more.* (Anon). *Command the citizens make bonfires.* (Shak.). *Command the grave restore her taken prey?* (Young). *He ordered his brother out of the room.* (Anon). *They ordered him to return towards the boat.* (Bulwer).

d. The idea of *leaving* is generally expressed by the verb *to leave*; as, *I'll leave you to fix your own time.* (Sheridan). *This poor right hand of mine is left to tyrannize upon my breast.* (Shak.). *Four of the sufferers were left to rot in irons.* (Macaulay).

Let is often also rendered by *to have* and *make* with the infinitive construction; as, *What would I have you do?* (B. Johnson). *What would you have me do?* (Shak.). *I'll have them fly to India for gold.* (Marryat). *Gerard had the guilty parties put under arrest.* (Macnish). *She made him to be laid.* (Spenser). *The Egyptians made the children of Israel to serve.* (Bible). *You do not make appear....* (Milton). *It makes one's heart smile.* (Bulwer). *I was made believe.* (Montague).

Observations on the conjugation of the auxiliary verbs.

When one verbs follows or depends upon another, it is put in the infinitive mood. But after the verbs called **auxiliary**, or others *in frequent use*, as **bid**, **see**, **hear**, etc., **to**, the sign of the infinitive, is usually omitted. The Auxiliary Verbs,

therefore, are really separate and independent verbs; and the verbs which follow them are in the *infinitive* mood, the sign *to* having been suppressed in the hurry of speech. I *ought to go*, and I *should go*, are equivalent expressions; and if '*go*' in the former, is in the infinitive mood governed by *ought*, surely '*go*' in the latter, is also in the infinitive mood governed by *should*. The only difference is, that the sign *to* is expressed in the one case, and suppressed in the other. The expressions, '*I ought go*' and '*I should to go*' would sound strangely to the ear; but this is because it has not been accustomed to the omission of the word '*to*' in the one case, or to the insertion of it in the other.

Hence it is that the inflections for number and person are made in the *auxiliary* and not in the *principal* verb; because the latter verb is in the *infinitive* mood, which admits of no changes to express number or person; as, *do* (to) love; thou *dost* (to) love; he *does* (to) love; I *did* (to) love; thou *didst* (to) love. I *shall* (to) love; thou *shalt* (to) love; I *should* (to) love; thou *shouldst* (to) love. I *will* (to) love; thou *wilt* (to) love; I *would* (to) love; thou *wouldst* (to) love. I *may* (to) love; thou *mayest* (to) love; I *might* (to) love; thou *mightst* (to) love. I *can* (to) love; thou *canst* (to) love; I *could* (to) love; thou *couldst* (to) love.

This mode of conjugation appears strange and harsh because our eyes and ears have not been accustomed to it; nor do we recommend its revival. It will be sufficient to show the pupils that the auxiliary verbs were originally separate and independent verbs, and that they may still be resolved into such. This will appear still more evident if they are resolved in this way—I *can* love, that is, I *am able to* love; I *may* love, that is, I *am at liberty to* love; I *will* love, that is, I *intend to* love, etc. The following examples taken from the earliest authors will clearly illustrate this assertion.

„The Mayster *lette* X men and mo

To wende.” —

Octavian 381.

He said he *could* not *to* forsake my love.” —

(*Higgins*) *Queen Elstride*.

— — „Never to retourne more,
would his life to lose therefore.” —

King Albanact.

„And though he owe the fall of Troy requite
Yet let revenge thereof from gods to light.” —

King Albanact.

„My woful child what flight maist thou to take.” —

(Higgins) Lady Sabrine.

„Thei couthe much, he couthe more.” — *Gower.*

„His felow taught him homeward prively
Fro day to day til he coude it by rote.” —

(Chaucer) Prioress Tale.

„A stern geant is he
Of him thou owest to drede.” — *Trist*, 3. 29.

„The knight the which that castle ought.” — *Spenser.*

— „A wicked maladie

Reigned among men, that many *did to die.*” — *Idem.*

Conjugation of an English verb according to the usual method¹⁾.

MOOD.

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

There are five moods of verbs; the **Indicative**, the **Imperative**, the **Potential**, the **Subjunctive**,²⁾ and the **Infinitive**.

The **Indicative** simply indicates or declares a thing: as, ‘I see; they know:’ or it is used in asking questions; as, ‘Seest thou? do they know?’ *My uneasiness in the country where I am, arises rather from the society than the solitude of*

¹⁾ What follows is **Lindley Murray’s** account of the English verb.

²⁾ We have already shown (page 73, note³⁾ how the Imperative mood in English may be resolved into the Infinitive; and in all cases, it may be shown that what are called the Potential and Subjunctive moods may be similarly resolved.

it. (Addison). *My patience was now quite exhausted, I was willing to cast myself away, and only wanted the gulph to receive me.* (Goldsmith). *Why standest thou afar off, o Lord? why hidest thou thyself in times of trouble?* (Bible).

The Imperative is used for commanding, exhorting, entreating, or permitting; as, *Depart thou; mind ye; go in peace.* *Mind your own business,* is an old adage. (Marryat). *Read to live, not live to read.* (Bulwer). *That mercy I to others show, That mercy show to me.* (Pope). *Remember, He, who said, 'repent,' Said also, 'sin no more.'* (Landon). *Show me where they stood; read the inscription; tell me the victor's name.* (Burnet). *Wait for the time, and accept the manner of the dissolution.* (Taylor). *Come, come! walk on, or I must walk you off.* (Bulwer). *Arise, winds of autumn, arise; blow along the heath! streams of the mountains roar! roar, tempests, in the groves of my oaks! walk through broken clouds, O moon! show thy pale face at intervals! bring to my mind the night when all my children fell.* (Macpherson). *Weave the warp, and weave the woof.* (Gray).

The Potential implies possibility or liberty, power, will, or obligation; and may be used in asking questions; as, *'He may go or stay; I can ride; he would walk; may I stay? You cannot study too much in the academy; but you may study usefully there, if you are an economist of your time.* (Chesterfield).

The Subjunctive represents an action under a condition, motive, wish, or supposition; and is preceded by a conjunction, expressed or understood, and attended by another verb; as; *'I will respect him, though he chide me; 'Were he good, he would be happy.' It is necessary that the hero of the play be not a villain.* (Dryden). *Our country, our God — O, my Sire! Demand that thy Daughter expire.* (Byron). *Take heed, the queen come not within his sight.* (Shak). *His reign will offer little worthy of praise, unless it be the severity with which he punished offences.* (Lingard). *Come he slow, or come he fast, It is but Death who comes at last.* (Scott). *Although all this be true, there are certain defects, which are of such a nature and extent as completely*

to justify a total change in the Representative system. - (Peel). However that be, the goodwife had declared that the duck was good for nothing. (Bulwer). Whatever be his rank, and whether he commands or obeys, he never can be mistaken. (Mudie). To morrow ere fresh morning streak the east With first approach of light, we must be risen. (Milton). Don't let Effie come to see me till my grave be growing green. (Tennyson). These ashes too, this little dust, Our Father's care shall keep, Till the last angel rise, and break The long and dreary sleep. (White).

O that I were a glove upon that hand, That I might touch that cheek. (Shak). You know that you are Brutus that speak this, Or, by the gods, this speech were else your last. (Shak). Suppose it were to come to pass that I should be hanged. (Warren). If I were to say all that I could say in praise of yachts, I should never advance with my narrative. (Marryat). In the coach with the Duke was an officer whose orders were to stab the prisoner if a rescue were attempted. (Macaulay). Some other and greater evil would be incurred were it removed. (Pitt). Even those who had often seen him were at first in doubt whether this were truly the brilliant and graceful Monmouth. (Macaulay). For a moment she doubted whether the past were not all a dream. (James). The praetor told him, that where the law required two witnesses he would not accept of one, tho' it were Cato himself. (Addison). Were he twenty times my son I would impeach him. (Shak).

The Infinitive expresses an action in a general manner, without any distinction of number or person; as, 'To act; to speak; to be feared.' 'To judge by the newspapers,' said I, 'the same delusions are renewed again'. (Bulwer). To say the truth, I was tired of being always wise. (Goldsmith). To think of your turning bookhunter, Guy! (Bulwer). Scrooge sat down upon a form, and wept to see his poor forgotten self as he had used to be. (Dickens). Plots true or false are necessary things To raise up commonwealths, and ruin kings. (Dryden). From Nature too, I take my rule, To shun contempt and ridicule. (Gay). Had you never a son, to ease you of this labour? (Smollet). I thought, Jack, you and I had

been too old acquaintance for you to mention such a matter. (Fielding).

THE TENSES.

Tense, being the distinction of time, might seem to admit only of the *present*, *past*, and *future*.

But, to mark it more accurately, it is made to consist of six variations; namely, the **Present**, the **Imperfect**, the **Perfect**, the **Pluperfect**, and the **First** and **Second Future tenses**.

The **Present** represents an action as passing at the time in which it is mentioned; as, '*I rule; I am ruled; I think; I fear.*' Behold how they toss their torches on high, How they point to the Persian abodes. (Dryden). The felicity of human life, depends on the regular prosecution of some laudable purpose or object, which keeps awake and enlivens all our powers. (Blair). He looks at it, and lets it stand. (Marryat). His country does not pine for him as much as he pines for his country. (Macaulay). This bold floweret climbs the hill, Hides in the forest, haunts the glen, Plays on the margin of the rill, Peeps round the fox's den. (Montgomery). The present tense however is also used to mark continual, habitual actions, things which frequently occur, and to express constant truths; as, *Rich men look sad, and ruffians dance and leap.* (Shak). *They drink and dance by their own light; They drink and revel all the night.* (Cowley). The chief and most considerable sort of men manage all their concerns merely by words; by them princes rule their subjects, generals command their armies, senators deliberate and debate about the great matters of state: by them advocates plead causes, and judges decide them; divines perform their offices, and minister their instructions; merchants strike up their bargains, and drive on all their traffic. (Barrow). The mourners weep, because it is civil, or because they need thee, or because they fear. (Taylor). Many people lose a great deal of their time by laziness; they loll and yawn in a great chair, tell themselves that they have no time to begin any thing then and that it will do as well another time. (Chesterfield).

The **Imperfect** represents the action either as past or finished, or as remaining unfinished at a certain time past; as, '*I wrote*

yesterday, or last year.' 'They *were* travelling post when he met them.' Ex: I *became* perfectly easy, and very readily *gave* him a guinea, *bid* him pay himself, and acquiesced in the unjust charge which had been laid on my memory. (Fielding). I soon *fell* sick, and so *got* leave to return home again. (Goldsmith). The severity of this rebuke I *bore* patiently, because I *knew* it was just. (Goldsmith). What next befell me then and there I know not well — I never *knew*. (Byron). I *became* involved in debts, from which I *saw* no hopes of ever extricating myself. (Fielding). Though I had applied myself with much industry to books, in which I *took* great delight, there were other pleasures in which I was capable of taking much greater. (Fielding). The old man *hoped*, as he *expressed* it in his letter, to join their hands, and see them happy before he *died*. (Mackenzie). *Mary* not only *retained* perfect composure of mind herself, but *endeavoured* to moderate their excessive grief. (Robertson). He *touched* the spring of his repeater. (Dickens). Each *turned* his face with a ghastly pang, And *cursed* me with his eye. (Coleridge).

The Perfect not only refers indefinitely to what is past, but also conveys an allusion to the present time; as, 'I *have* seen the person that was recommended to me:' that is, 'I *have* seen him by this time.' Ex: *Otway* has *followed* Nature in the language of his Tragedy. (Spectator). The cook has *capsized* the kettle — but he has *put* more on. (Marryat). They have *rummaged* all the portmanteaus and *dressed* themselves in the gentlemen's best clothes. (Marryat). Each place, each province have I *tried*, And *sung* and *danced* my saraband. (White).

The Pluperfect represents the action not only as past, but also as prior to some other point of time mentioned in the sentence; as, 'I *had finished* my letter before he arrived.' Ex: Another great event *completed* what the revolution had *begun*. (Robertson). When he *had entered* the room three paces, he stood still. (Sterne). Pickersgill *had*, of course, *observed* the motions on the yacht. (Marryat). *Had* I *met* it in the plains of Hindostan, I *had revered* it. (Sterne). Dartmouth replied that the King *had spoken* the truth. (Macaulay).

The **first Future** represents the action as yet to come; either with or without respect to the precise time; as 'The sun *will rise* to-morrow;' 'I *shall see* him again.' Ex: *When a special Providence shall distinguish them, they shall die with easy circumstances.* (Taylor). '*What Shall we do*,' said Corbett, — '*get the boat out?*' (Marryat). *Shall we call back Northumberland, and send Defiance to the traitor, and so die.* (Shak.). *How shall I praise or curse to thy desert? Or separate thy sound from thy corrupted part?* (Dryden). *They shall feast and sing, rejoice and worship, for ever and ever.* (Taylor). *We will all drink that toast, my lads, and then on board.* (Marryat). *Fair warrior, wilt thou dwell with me, And leave the maid of Colonsay!* (Leyden). *Wilt thou not listen, son of the rock, to the song of Ossian?* (Macpherson). *I'll cut off Whatever is exorbitant in you, Or in your daughters; and reduce you to Your natural forms and habits.* (Massinger). *I will ride with you a few miles.* (Bulwer).

The **Second Future** intimates that the action will be fully accomplished at or before the time of another future action or event; as, 'I *shall have dined* at (or before) one o'clock;' 'The two houses *will have finished* their business when (or before) the king comes to prorogue them.' *I fear the broad-swords will be drawn.* (Scott). *That shout shall ne'er be heard again.* (Scott). *In a few days you will be restored to your friends.* (Marryat). *She will be discovered and slain by the murderers of her father.* (James).

PARTICIPLES.

The Participle is a certain form of the verb, and derives its name from its partaking, not only of the properties of a verb, but also those of an adjective; as, 'I am *writing* the letter;' '*Admired* and *applauded*, she became vain;' '*Having finished* his work, he submitted it to my inspection.'

There are three participles; the **Present** or **Active**, the **Perfect** or **Passive**, and the **Compound Perfect**; as, '*loving, loved, having loved.*'

A regular transitive verb is conjugated in the following manner.

The following Table has been arranged in such a manner that the pupils can have all the forms before them at one view. In this way, they can avail themselves of the principle of **comparison** which is so useful to the learner. The omitted persons, in both numbers, can be added by the pupils, themselves.]

CONJUGATION OF A REGULAR VERB.

TO LOVE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

	<i>Active Voice.</i>	<i>Passive Voice.</i>
<i>Present Tense</i> , .	I love, etc.	I am loved, etc.
<i>Imperfect</i> , . .	I loved.	I was loved.
<i>Perfect</i> , . . .	I have loved.	I have been loved.
<i>Pluperfect</i> , . .	I had loved.	I had been loved.
<i>First Future</i> , .	I shall <i>or</i> will love.	I shall <i>or</i> will be loved.
<i>Second Future</i> , .	I shall <i>or</i> will have loved.	I shall <i>or</i> will have been loved.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

<i>First Person</i> , .	Let me love.	Let me be loved.
<i>Second</i> , . . .	Love, <i>or</i> love thou.	Be thou loved.
<i>Third</i> , . . .	Let him love.	Let them be loved.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

<i>Present Tense</i> , .	I may <i>or</i> can love, etc.	I may <i>or</i> can be loved.
<i>Imperfect</i> , . .	I might, could, would, <i>or</i> should love.	I might, could, would, <i>or</i> should be loved.
<i>Perfect</i> , . . .	I may <i>or</i> can have loved.	I may <i>or</i> can have been loved.
<i>Pluperfect</i> , . .	I might, could, would, <i>or</i> should have loved.	I might, could, etc. have been loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

<i>Present Tense</i> , .	If I love, if thou love, if he love, etc.	If I be loved, if thou be loved, etc.
<i>Imperfect</i> , . .	If I loved, if thou loved, etc.	If I were loved, if thou wert loved, etc.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

	<i>Active Voice.</i>	<i>Passive Voice.</i>
<i>Present</i> ,	To love.	To be loved.
<i>Perfect</i> ,	To have loved.	To have been loved.

PARTICIPLES.

<i>Present</i> ,	Loving.	Being loved.
<i>Perfect</i> or <i>Past</i> , .	Loved.	Been loved.
<i>Compound Perfect</i> , .	Having loved.	Having been loved.

TABLE OF THE SIMPLE AND COMPOUND TENSES OF THE VERB
TO BE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present</i> ,	I am, thou art, he is; we are, etc.
<i>Imperfect</i> ,	I was, thou wast, he was; we were, etc.
<i>Perfect</i> ,	I have been, thou hast been, he has been; we have been, etc.
<i>Pluperfect</i> ,	I had been, thou hadst been, he had been; we had been, etc.
<i>First Future</i> ,	I shall <i>or</i> will be, thou shalt <i>or</i> wilt be, he shall <i>or</i> will be, etc.
<i>Second Future</i> ,	I shall <i>or</i> will have been, thou shalt <i>or</i> wilt have been, etc.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present</i> ,	Be, <i>or</i> be thou, <i>or</i> do thou be. Be ye, etc.
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POTENTIAL MOOD.

<i>Present</i> ,	I may <i>or</i> can be, thou mayst <i>or</i> canst be, he may <i>or</i> can be, etc.
<i>Imperfect</i> ,	I might, could, would, <i>or</i> should be, thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, etc.
<i>Perfect</i> ,	I may <i>or</i> can have been, thou mayst <i>or</i> canst, etc.
<i>Pluperfect</i> ,	I might, could, would, <i>or</i> should have been.



The following Table has been arranged in such a manner that the pupils can have all the forms before them at one view. In this way, they can avail themselves of the principle of **comparison** which is so useful to the learner. The omitted persons, in both numbers, can be added by the pupils, themselves.]

CONJUGATION OF A REGULAR VERB.

TO LOVE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

*Active Voice.**Passive Voice.*

<i>Present Tense</i> , .	I love, etc.	I am loved, etc.
<i>Imperfect</i> , . .	I loved.	I was loved.
<i>Perfect</i> , . . .	I have loved.	I have been loved.
<i>Pluperfect</i> , . .	I had loved.	I had been loved.
<i>First Future</i> , .	I shall <i>or</i> will love.	I shall <i>or</i> will be loved.
<i>Second Future</i> , .	I shall <i>or</i> will have loved.	I shall <i>or</i> will have been loved.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

<i>First Person</i> , .	Let me love.	Let me be loved.
<i>Second</i> , . . .	Love, <i>or</i> love thou.	Be thou loved.
<i>Third</i> , . . .	Let him love.	Let them be loved.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

<i>Present Tense</i> , .	I may <i>or</i> can love, etc.	I may <i>or</i> can be loved.
<i>Imperfect</i> , . .	I might, could, would, <i>or</i> should love.	I might, could, would, <i>or</i> should be loved.
<i>Perfect</i> , . . .	I may <i>or</i> can have loved.	I may <i>or</i> can have been loved.
<i>Pluperfect</i> , . .	I might, could, would, <i>or</i> should have loved.	I might, could, etc. have been loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

<i>Present Tense</i> , .	If I love, if thou love, if he love, etc.	If I be loved, if thou be loved, etc.
<i>Imperfect</i> , . . .	If I loved, if thou loved, etc.	If I were loved, if thou wert loved, etc.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

	<i>Active Voice.</i>	<i>Passive Voice.</i>
<i>Present</i> ,	To love.	To be loved.
<i>Perfect</i> ,	To have loved.	To have been loved.

PARTICIPLES.

<i>Present</i> ,	Loving.	Being loved.
<i>Perfect</i> or <i>Past</i> , .	Loved.	Been loved.
<i>Compound Perfect</i> , .	Having loved.	Having been loved.

TABLE OF THE SIMPLE AND COMPOUND TENSES OF THE VERB
TO BE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present</i> ,	I am, thou art, he is; we are, etc.
<i>Imperfect</i> ,	I was, thou wast, he was; we were, etc.
<i>Perfect</i> ,	I have been, thou hast been, he has been; we have been, etc.
<i>Pluperfect</i> ,	I had been, thou hadst been, he had been; we had been, etc.
<i>First Future</i> ,	I shall <i>or</i> will be, thou shalt <i>or</i> wilt be, he shall <i>or</i> will be, etc.
<i>Second Future</i> ,	I shall <i>or</i> will have been, thou shalt <i>or</i> wilt have been, etc.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present</i> ,	Be, <i>or</i> be thou, <i>or</i> do thou be. Be ye, etc.
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POTENTIAL MOOD.

<i>Present</i> ,	I may <i>or</i> can be, thou mayst <i>or</i> canst be, he may <i>or</i> can be, etc.
<i>Imperfect</i> ,	I might, could, would, <i>or</i> should be, thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, etc.
<i>Perfect</i> ,	I may <i>or</i> can have been, thou mayst <i>or</i> canst, etc.
<i>Pluperfect</i> ,	I might, could, would, <i>or</i> should have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present, If I be, if thou be, if he be; if we be, etc.
Imperfect, If I were, if thou wert, if he were; if
 we were, if ye or you were¹⁾, etc.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present, To be.
Past, To have been.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Being.
Past or Perfect, . Been.
Compound Perfect, . Having been.

THE SIMPLE AND COMPOUND TENSES OF THE VERB

TO HAVE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present, I have, thou hast, he has; we have, etc.
Past, I had, thou hadst, he had; we had, etc.
Perfect, I have have had, thou hast had, he has had, etc.
Pluperfect, . . . I had had, thou hadst had, he had had, etc.
First Future, . . I shall or will have, thou shalt or wilt have,
 he shall or will have, etc.
Second Future, . I shall or will have had, thou shalt or
 wilt have had, etc.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present, Have, or have thou, or do thou have, etc.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present, I may or can have, thou mayst or canst
 have, he may or can have, etc.
Imperfect, I might, could, would, or should have, etc.
Perfect, I may or can have had, thou mayst, etc.
Pluperfect, . . . I might, could, would, or should have
 had, thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, etc.

¹⁾ The remaining tenses of the Subjunctive Mood are the same as the Indicative, with the addition of a conjunction expressed or understood, denoting a condition, motive, wish, supposition, etc. — See page 132.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present, . . . If I have, if thou have, if he have, etc.
Imperfect, . . . If I had, if thou had, if he had ¹⁾, etc.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present, . . . To have.
Perfect, . . . To have had.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, . . . Having.
Perfect, . . . Had.
Compound Perfect, Having had.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE PRECEDING TABLES; AND SUGGESTIONS
FOR PARSING THE COMPOUND TENSES.

Perfect Tense. — This is what we have called the *Present-Perfect Tense*; but it is more generally, and perhaps more correctly, ranged under the *Past* tense, and called the *Perfect* or *Past-Definite*. The name "*Present-Perfect* tense" however indicates its connexion with the *present* time, and prevents the learner from confounding it with the *Past* or *Imperfect* tense. The name has been objected to; but there are few *technical* terms to which objections might not be made. A *Conjunction Copulative*, for example, is a tautology; and a "*Conjunction Disjunctive*," a contradiction in terms. These terms are, however, found very intelligible, and very useful in practice. — See page 93.

I have loved. — '*To parse*,' properly means to give the *part* of speech of each word in a sentence. Hence, in parsing the compound tenses, the pupils should be required to give the part of speech of each word separately. For example, '*I have loved*' may be parsed thus: — '*I*' is a personal pronoun, first person, singular number, and nominative case to the verb '*have*;' '*have*' is the present tense of the verb **to have**, and first person singular to agree with its nominative '*I*;'

¹⁾ The remaining tenses as the Indicative — See page 132.

and 'loved' is the past or perfect participle of the verb **to love**, used *adjectively*.

Pluperfect Tense. — This is what we have called the *Prior-Perfect*. — See page 95. This tense may be parsed as the preceding one, with the exception of calling 'had' the *past* tense of the verb **to have**. When an *objective* case follows a *past* participle in such cases it may be considered as governed by the verb **have** taken transitively. For example, 'I have loved him' may be resolved into, 'I have him loved;' 'I have written the letter,' into 'I have the letter written;' 'he had his forces assembled.' In such cases, the past participle agrees with the noun or pronoun, like an adjective, instead of governing it like a verb ¹⁾.

First Future Tense. — In this tense 'love' is in the infinitive mood, the sign 'to' being understood. — See pages 95, 101—116.

Second Future Tense. — See page 96 for the composition of this tense, and also, pages 98, 101.

Potential Mood. — This mood is made up of the present or past tenses of the verbs **may** or **can**, etc., followed by an infinitive with the sign 'to' suppressed.

Subjunctive Mood. — This is really the *Infinitive* Mood governed by some verb understood, which agrees with the nominative in number and person. For example, in such expressions as, 'If thou *love*,' 'if he *love*,' the ellipsis, in the one case, is *shalt* or *shouldst*, and in the other, *shall* or *should*. See page 128. Such expressions as, 'If thou *loved*,' 'if thou *came*,' are really *ungrammatical*. The conjunctions which usually precede what is called the Subjunctive Mood are, *if*, *though*, *although*, *unless*, *except*, *whether*, *lest*, etc. See note, p. 130.

Adverb.

1. An **adverb** is a part of speech joined to a verb, an adjective, and sometimes to another adverb, to express some

¹⁾ In Latin, we meet with similar modes of construction; as, 'Ea me falsum habuit,' that matter *had me deceived*, that is, deceived me. 'Copias quas habebat paratas,' the forces which he *had* (possessed) prepared—or, which he had prepared.

quality or circumstance respecting it; as '*He rides well*;' *John is a very good boy*;' '*He acted very wisely*. '*Let me have no riddles, Sir, said the Intendant dryly*. (James). *Marley's Ghost bothered him exceedingly*. (Dickens). *Speak gravely of grave things*. (Thackeray). *The noise — the voices — the tramping feet — the rolling wheels became loudly audible*. (Bulwer). *Her mind was evidently cultivated with great care, but she was perfectly void of pedantry*. (Bulwer). *The chapel is extremely neat, and richly adorned*. (Montague). *I now began to argue very seriously with him*. (Fielding). *The air breathes upon us here most sweetly*. (Shak.). *Such a fellow is troublesomely active, frivolously busy, foolishly lively*. (Chesterfield).

2. As **substantives** have various qualities which render **adjectives** necessary, so **verbs** require **adverbs** to describe their different modes or manner of action. The adverb, then, may be said to be to the verb what the adjective is to the substantive. An adjective is put along with a substantive to express some quality or circumstance respecting it, and an adverb is joined to a verb to describe the *manner* of the action, or some circumstance respecting it ¹⁾, as, *time, place, affirmation, negation, interrogation*, etc.

3. Adverbs of **manner** are generally formed from adjectives by adding the termination **ly**; as *wise, wisely, patient, patiently*; or by changing **le** into **ly**; as *able, ably*. Adverbs of this kind are the most numerous. *The unhappy lady had fainted*,

¹⁾ This was the primary use of the adverb, and hence it derived its name. '*Adverb*,' that is, (*ad*) to a verb. It is used, however, for many other purposes—for so many, indeed that it is rather difficult to understand the nature of this part of speech well. There are adverbs of **time**, past, present, and to come, definite and indefinite, relative and absolute; as, *formerly, now, hereafter, thrice, often, early, always*—of **place**, answering to the questions *where, whither, and whence*; as, *here, thither, thence*—of **quantity** and **quality** in all their varieties; as, *much, little, enough; well, ill, bravely*—and **adverbial phrases** without number. There are also adverbs of **order, number, affirmation, negation, and interrogation**. In short, the adverb may be called "the common sink" of the grammarians. When they do not know what to make of a word, they class it as an *adverb*.

and lay **unconsciously** in her more unconscious husband's arms. (Warren). He had dipped **ungenerously** into a generous mother's purse; **basely** and **recklessly** spilt her little cruse. (Thackeray). Thousands of them were **inhumanly**, **wantonly** butchered. (Fox). You have spoken so **admirably** that you give me courage to confess my weakness. (Bulwer). He had done even a better work than the noble one he so **nobly** performed. (James). The dinner of that day was **undeniably** perfect. (Dickens).

4. Most adverbs ending in *ly* may be compared by prefixing *more* and *most*; as, *wisely*, **more wisely**, **most wisely**. A few adverbs are compared by adding *er* and *est*; as, *soon*, *sooner*, *soonest*; *often*, *oftener*, *oftenest*. This I cannot do **more effectually**, than by the following letter. (Addison). Rather than fail they will defy That which they love **most tenderly**. (Butler). I am told that even in this very room a debtor of his, no **later than** last year, died for want. (Goldsmith). He keeps youth **longest** who lives **longest**. (Bulwer).

5. Some words are used both, as **adjectives** and **adverbs**; as, *little*, *less*, *least*; *better*, *best*; *much*, *more*, *most*; *only*, *ill*, etc. If such words qualify nouns, they are **adjectives**; but if they refer to *verbs*, *adjectives*, or other *adverbs*, they are **adverbs**. The disorder in nature and the inanimate world will be no **less** nor less strange and unaccountable than those in mankind. (Burnet). How shall we breathe in other air **Less** pure, accustom'd to immortal fruits? (Milton). Was I not in all worldly pretensions the **least** worthy of her suitors? (Bulwer). Many tyrants rose; The **least** the proudest. (Thomson). There I remained until I got **better**. (Dickens). Winter is an excellent invigorator no doubt, but we all love summer **better**. (Bulwer). He is not a Christian, but he is the **best** of unbelievers. (Mackenzie). All things are **best** fulfill'd in their due time. (Milton). Wealth brings **much** woe. (Herrick). I cannot write **much**. (Raleigh). His mother was a woman of some talent and **more** ambition. (Bulwer). They ask no **more** than simple Nature gives. (Thomson). Most men admire *Virtue*, who follow not her lore. (Milton). Those of the army, who knew him **best** and had suffered **most** from him, admired him

most of all. (Thackeray). *In the female nurseries the young girls of quality are educated much like the males, only they are dressed by orderly servants of their own sex.* (Swift). *The only danger I desire.* (B. and F.).

6. Adverbs often express in one word, what would otherwise require two or more; as, **here**, is equivalent to, *in this place*; **there** *in that place*; **where**, *in what place*; **hither**, *to this place*; **thither**, *to that place*; **whither**, *from what place*; **hence**, *from this place*; **thence**, *from that place*; **whence**, *from what place*. *He acted prudently*, that is, *in a prudent manner*. *'Don't stay long,'* that is, *for a long time*.

7. An **adverbial phrase** consists of two or more words joined or taken together; as, *at least*, *at once*, *at present*, *by and by*, *ever and anon*, *now and then*, *of course*, *the whiles*, *to and fro*, *to-morrow*, *to night*, etc. *Show your good breeding, at least, though you have forgot your duty.* (Sheridan). *'Tis too much at once to show Excess of Love and Temper too.* (Butler). *With these words Hopeful at present did moderate the mind of his brother.* (Bunyan). *We will talk of it by-and-by.* (James). *On we go, all night, and bye and bye the day begins to break.* (Dickens). *Ever and anon between Lay velvet tufts of loveliest green.* (Scott). *A wolf eats sheep but now and then.* (Gay). *I assented of course.* (Warren). *The whiles a Northern harper rude Chanted a rhyme of deadly feud.* (Scott). *There was a bustle in the street, and many people moving to and fro.* (Thackeray). *We'll see to that to-morrow.* (Marryat). *You sail to-night?* (Marryat).

8. The following are the principal classes into which adverbs are usually divided:

1. **Manner or quality**; as, *well, wisely, ably, skilfully, thus*.
2. **Time**; as, *now, then, soon, still, never, already, hereafter*.
3. **Place**; as, *here, there, where, hence, backwards*.
4. **Order**; as, *first (firstly), secondly, thirdly, fourthly, lastly, finally*.
5. **Quantity**; as, *enough, much, less, scarcely, abundantly*.
6. **Affirmation**; as, *ay, yes, certainly, doubtless, indeed, truly*.
7. **Negation**; as, *nay, no, not, nowise, not at all*.

9. In addition to the adverbs already mentioned there are several others which are formed by a combination of prepositions with the adverbs of place, *here*, *there*, and *where*; as, *thereof*, *whereof*; *hereto*, *thereto*; *hereby*, *thereby*; *whereby*; *herewith*, *therewith*; *herein*, *therein*, *wherein*, etc. These expressions however are now considered as obsolete and, as the following examples will show, are generally speaking only to be met with in old writers; the moderns prefer of *this*, of *which*, by *this* to *thereof*, *whereof*, *thereby* etc. Ex.: *Sufficient unto the day is the evil thereof.* (Bible). *Now great deeds Had been achiev'd, whereof all hell had rung.* (Milton). *Therewith came a noble remorse that he had hitherto done so little for his species.* (Bulwer). *Many poesies and writings (in making whereof that nation hath evermore delighted) are yet extant in my time, whereby some difference between the ancient and present language may easily be discerned.* (Harrison). *The fair tree whereon the eagle builds, Poor sheep from tempests, and their shepherds shields.* (Waller).

10. There are also some adverbs, which are composed of nouns, and the preposition *a* used instead of *at* or *on*; as, *aside*, *asleep*, *astir*, *astray*, *ado*, *awake*, *aware*, *afresh*, *alive*, *a-year* etc., as, *The guests stood all aside.* (Scott). *My comrade and I fell asleep.* (Smollet). *He was up and watching long before the house was astir.* (Thackeray). *I see that all are wand'rers, gone astray Each in his own delusions.* (Cowper). *He had much ado to keep himself awake.* (Thackeray). *There is more philosophy in it than you are aware of.* (Bulwer). *My wounds bled afresh as I came away.* (Bulwer). *There are those alive to whom, in return for their love to me, I often fondly said I would give my life away.* (Thackeray).

Preposition.

1. **Prepositions** serve to connect words, and to show the relation between the objects which the words express; as, *my hand is on the table; my head is above the table; my feet are under the table.*

2. Prepositions are generally ¹⁾ placed or put *before* nouns and pronouns; and hence the derivation of the term from the Latin words *præ*, before, and *positus*, placed.

3. The primary use of prepositions was to denote the relations of **place**; as, *above*, *below*; *before*, *behind*; but in the progress of language, they have, like other words, been extended by *analogy* to other relations; as, '*a colonel is above a captain*;' '*John is behind James in his studies*.'

4. The principal use of prepositions in English ²⁾ is, to express those *relations* which, in some languages ³⁾, are chiefly denoted by **cases** or inflexional forms of the noun.

5. Combinations of words like the following, may be called *prepositional* phrases; as, *according to*, *ahead to*, *along-side of*, *apart from*, *as to*, *because of*, *by dint of*, *by means of*, *for the sake of*, *in behalf of*, *in order to*, *in place of*, *in spite of*, *on account of*, *on board*, *opposite to*, *out of*, *through and through*, *up to*, *upwards of*, *with regard to*. Examples: *The count had arranged the party according to his taste.* (James). *The wall of the park ran along-side of the*

¹⁾ Prepositions are often placed before clauses of sentences; as, '*He will, before he dies, sway the sceptre*.' In such cases, the clause is equivalent to a *substantive*.

²⁾ Prepositions are placed before nouns or pronouns to connect them with the action of *intransitive* verbs; as, '*He came to Dublin yesterday*;' '*He arrived in Dublin yesterday*.' In these examples the prepositions '*to*' and '*in*' connect the noun '*Dublin*,' with the verbs '*came*' and '*arrived*;' but if we use a *transitive* verb, as, '*He visited Dublin yesterday*,' there will be no occasion for a preposition to connect the verb and the noun. In each of these sentences, '*Dublin*' is in the *objective case*; in the latter, because the *action* of the verb *passes over to it*; and in the two former, because the prepositions *to* and *in* connect it with the verbs '*came*' and '*arrived*.' Hence prepositions are said to govern the objective case. Compare the following expressions: — '*He admired their courage*,' and '*He wondered at their courage*;' '*He expected a reward*,' and '*He hoped for a reward*.' A preposition prefixed to a verb has a similar effect; as, '*He withstood him to his face*;' *Who shall gainsay me?*'

³⁾ As the Latin and Greek.

highway for two or three hundred yards. (Scott). I was obliged to have this room constructed on purpose apart from the rest of my establishment. (Warren). I acquainted him, that he had been misinformed as to the sum taken. (Fielding). How they cringe and bow to that Creole, because of her hundred thousand pounds. (Thackeray). At last, by dint of whipping the four horses were compelled to set off in lame gallop. (Edgeworth). He thanked heaven he had succeeded so far as to find me out by means of an accident which had like to have proved fatal to him. (Fielding). To serve King William for interest's sake would have been a monstrous hypocrisy and treason. (Thackeray). For Lis sake, for God's sake, try if there be any room for mercy. (Macaulay). The King will reward you handsomely, never fear, for all you have done in his behalf. (Thackeray). I am displeased with myself, for having designed to leave the World in order to be virtuous. (Spectator). In houses where, in place of that sacred, inmost flame of love, there is discord at the centre, the whole household becomes hypocritical. (Thackeray). Windy weather, in spite of its using him so roughly, was, after all, a sort of holiday for Toby. (Dickens). You left the army on account of weakness of the loins. (Thackeray). There were two constables on board the steamboat, in pursuit of runaway slaves. (Dickens). The canary saw me standing opposite to its cage. (Bulwer). Bold inquiry, diving out of sight, Brings many a precious pearl of truth to light. (Cowper). The duke, out of regard to the family, persisted in charging Magny with only robbery. (Thackeray). The slander hath gone through and through her heart. (Shak.). The conduct of Pickersgill had been such, up to the present, as to inspire confidence. (Marryat). There was a sailor who had been there upwards of eleven years. (Dickens). She resolutely kept the oath which she had made with regard to her sister-in-law. (Thackeray). What arrangements have you made with respect to the children? (Warren).

7. Inseparable prepositions are those which are found only in composition with other words; as *a* in *ashore*; *con* in *conjoin*; *fore* in *foresee*; *o* in *omit*.

8. The following are the principal prepositions in English :

A	Behind	In	Round
Aboard	Below	Like	Save
About	Beneath	Near	Since
Above	Beside	Nigh	Through
According to	Besides	Notwithstanding	Throughout
Across	Between	O	Till
Afore	Betwixt	Of	To
After	Beyond	Off	Touching
Against	But	On	Towards
Along	By	Opposite	Upwards
Amid	Concerning	Outside	Under
Amidst	Despite	Out of	Underneath
Among	Down	Over	Unto
Amongst	During	Past	Up
Around	Ere	Pending	Upon
At	Except	Per	With
Athwart	For	Regarding	Within
Before	From	Respecting	Without.

The prepositions playing a very conspicuous part in the construction of English sentences, as indeed the whole sense very often depends on the meaning which this part of speech imparts to it, we add a list of the prepositions mentioned with examples of the use made of them by the best authors.

A.

I attended my miserable patient twice and sometimes even thrice a-day. (Warren).

I a few years' time he was raised to the head of their large establishment, and received a salary of 500 l. a-year. (Warren).

Aboard.

Aboard my galley, I invite you all. (Shak.).

They hurried us aboard a bark. (Shak.).

About.

Doubtless, he is perfectly competent to talk as much nonsense to you as any other young man about town. (James).

There is a meek modesty about her, that charms me. (Goldsmith).

He seemed about thirty years old. (Warren).

We were not quite so particular about uniform as we are now. (Marryat).

I will tell you all about it. (James).-

Above.

Their legs above the knee were bare. (Scott).

Endeavour as much as you can, to keep company with people above you. (Chesterfield).

A journey of seventy miles to a family that had hitherto never been above ten from home, filled us with apprehension. (Goldsmith).

Across.

He has a large whip in his hand, and a gun slung across his shoulders. (Bulwer).

Our sentries talked across the stream. (Thackeray).

There is a lecture-room across the way. (Dickens).

Afore.

Now, afore God, I am so vexed that every part about me quivers. (Shak.).

'Fore God, they are both in a tale. (Shak.).

After.

After dinner, we went down to the railroad again. (Dickens).

He made no inquiries after her. (Warren).

Look after her; Remove from her the means of all annoyance, And still keep eyes upon her. (Shak.).

You will pine after the liberty you once enjoyed. (Thackeray).

Blessed are they which do hunger and thirst after righteousness. (Bible).

Our second child, a girl, I intended to call after her aunt Gris-el. (Goldsmith).

He taught his pupil after his own system. (Bulwer).

Against.

The war against America is against your own countrymen. (Fox).

Weigh thy opinion against Providence. (Pope).

His spear stands against the wall. (Macpherson).

Be ready against morning. (Thackeray).

What could he 'gainst the soke of hell? (Scott).

Along.

The small waves, thrown up by the tide more than the wind, came rippling along the beach like a flood of diamonds. (James).

Strange pangs would flash along Childe Harold's brow. (Byron).

Amid.

Timotheus, plac'd on high Amid the tuneful quire, With flying fingers touch'd the lyre. (Dryden).

I must die amid their taunts and reproaches. (Warren).

I see the hand of a father amidst the chastenings of my God. (Mackenzie).

He came midst her thoughts by night. (Macpherson).

Among.

Suicides are rare among these prisoners. (Dickens).

They decided all controversies among states as well as among private persons. (Hume).

My family have for centuries been residing amongst you. (Bulwer).

Amongst men of equal education there is a great inequality of parts. (Locke).

Inquire at London, 'mongst the taverns there. (Shak.).

Around.

All things around you are mortal and perishing. (Blair).

No war or battle's sound Was heard the world around. (Milton).

At.

No hunter at a distance is seen. (Macpherson).

A gallant sight she was, when we, fast gaining on her in a steumboat, saw her in the distance riding at anchor. (Dickens).

I felt sick at heart for her. (Warren).

I arrived at an unlucky moment. (Bulwer).

At length, he and his lady returned to England. (Edgeworth).

He was quite ready with tears at a moment's warning. (Thackeray).

He seems to sneer at everything. (Thackeray).

It's cruel of you to sneer at me so! (Thackeray).

He threw himself down at full length upon the sofa. (Warren).

No second visit could be paid to the Queen on that day at any rate. (Thackeray).

He aimed at every thing. (Bulwer).

You are to call at all the alehouses. (Shak.)

They lived at number five. (Warren).

After a while they played at forfeits. (Dickens).

I sometimes shrink at evils recollected, and sometimes start at evils anticipated. (Johnson).

I shall take thee at thy word. (Butler).

Athwart.

Sundry recollections of Gil Blas and the Vicar of Wakefield came athwart me. (Bulwer).

Before.

He rose before day to read the Postman. (Addison).

Before leaving Boston, I devoted one day to an excursion to Lowell. (Dickens).

After me cometh a man which is preferred before me: for he was before me. (Bible).

She is a cutter, and a good sea-boat, and sails well before the wind. (Marryat).

They have each their tumbler before them. (Marryat).

Flocks of birds through the glad air did flee, joyful and safe before man's luxury. (Cowley).

Behind.

He was placed behind a policeman on a horse. (Thackeray).

This coach is rather behind its time to-day. (Dickens).

Her father left nothing behind him but his daughter — and his debts. (Warren).

Below.

A man truly proud thinks the greatest honours below his merit. (Swift).

There is a conversation above grossness and below refinement, where propriety resides. (Johnson).

Beneath.

*He hides his head beneath the coverlet. (Dickens).
No stores beneath its humble thatch Required a master's care. (Goldsmith).
Uneasy sleeps a head beneath the crown. (Bulwer).
Beneath his blows he fell and groaned. (Southey).
Pho! you are beneath my notice. (Sheridan).*

Beside.

*Mother and daughter knelt beside him. (James).
They meet beside the oak. (Macpherson).
Undertakers on duty would be sprightly beside them. (Dickens).
Paul, thou art beside thyself; much learning doth make thee mad. (Bible).*

Besides.

*He had a crowd of poor dependents besides those hungry children. (Thackeray).
There is a great deal to see at Plymouth besides the sea itself. (Marryat).*

Between.

*Between them and the enemy lay three broad rhines filled with water and soft mud. (Macaulay).
I write now between laughing and crying. (Bulwer).
There is no likelihood between pure light and darkness, between beauty and deformity, or between righteousness and reprobation. (Raleigh).
How stand matters between you and Lydia? (Sheridan).
We were persuaded to buy the two gross between us. (Goldsmith).
The two mothers have settled it all between them. (Bulwer).
Well, faith, my dear Charles, between ourselves, I think we have made an excellent day's work of it. (Goldsmith).
What between love and wine and field sports, you'll have a miserable time of it! (James).*

Betwixt.

The necessary intercourse between the lords of the soil, and those oppressed inferior beings by whom that soil was cultivated, occasioned the gradual formation of a dialect, compounded betwixt the French and the Anglo-Saxon, in which they could render themselves mutually intelligible to each other. (Scott).

Is there division 'twixt thy lord and Cassio? (Shak.).

Beyond.

*He passes out of our life, and goes to render his account beyond it. (Thackeray).
The assiduities of the good people tease me beyond bearing. (Goldsmith).
These thoughts are apt to draw me beyond the usual length of this paper. (Steele).
He wished to be put beyond the reach of temptation. (Dickens).*

But,

There is no one to the child but him. (Warren).

Esmond's last coat but one was in pawn. (Thackeray).

The next day but one was a Sunday. (Thackeray).

All but his knightly diadem he gives. (Dryden).

He described her features as wearing an expression of all but sublimity. (Warren).

By.

Our tranquillity was soon disturbed by the report of a gun just by us. (Goldsmith).

All our adventures were by the fireside. (Goldsmith).

Here was a doctor, who never had a patient, cheek by jowl with an attorney, who never had a client. (Thackeray).

Stay you by this gentleman till my return. (Shak.)

From their palace he hastened to his own, which stood by itself in the middle of a large court. (Robertson).

Easy, sweet, And as a purling stream, thou, son of night, Pass by his troubled senses. (B. & F.).

I wish, by the way, I had thought of asking their addresses! (Warren).

It had been my intention to proceed by James River and Chesapeake Bay to Baltimore. (Dickens).

The journey from New York to Philadelphia is by railroad, and two ferries. (Dickens).

Mr. Esmond said, 'No doubt he should come by his name, if even greater people came by theirs. (Thackeray).

The citizens now gained ground upon the soldiers, winning it inch by inch. (Southey).

They travelled by short stages. (Mackenzie).

The men drank beer by the gallon, and eat cheese by the hundred weight. (Bulwer).

My orchard was often robbed by schoolboys, and my wife's custards plundered by the cats or the children. (Goldsmith).

Habitual indolence, by a silent and secret process, undermines every virtue in the soul. (Blair).

The mason waited faithfully, amusing himself by weighing the gold pieces in his hand, and clinking them against each other. (Irving).

It was only by chance that I discovered it. (Thackeray).

I was by nature an admirer of happy human faces. (Goldsmith).

Do think you couldn't get it me by way of annuity? (Sheridan).

Every one doth call me by my name. (Shak.).

That is the name I go by in the neighbourhood. (Addison).

Hold fast by my girdle. (Byron).

I was startled to see, by my watch, how late it was. (Bulwer).

All the women in the country took pattern by her. (Thackeray).

The host was by several years the senior of the traveller. (Cooper).

By that time his host had learned the name and character of his guest. (Mackenzie).

By eight o'clock next morning, the traveller is at the end of his journey. (Dickens).

*The party reached London by nightfall. (Thackeray).
Often by the setting moon I see the ghosts of my children.
(Macpherson).*

By all my hopes, most falsely doth he lie. (Shak.).

Concerning.

*On his retiring to his tent, many who had lingered in the lists, to
to look upon him and form conjectures concerning him, also dispersed.
(Scott).*

*What I desire the reader should know concerning me he will find
in the body of the Poem. (Dryden).*

Despite.

I love him still, despite my wrongs. (Scott).

*Despite my causes for seriousness, I could not help laughing.
(Bulwer).*

Down.

The torrent goes down the rock. (Macpherson).

A tear stole down her cheek. (Warren).

*All down the long table, there is scarcely a man who is in any-
thing different from his neighbour. (Dickens).*

During.

*Each year, during the month of Ramadan, he withdrew from the
world. (Gibbon).*

*I have too much respect for you, from your conduct during our
short meeting, to compromise you. (Marryat).*

*You must give me leave to hold your hand during the operation.
(Warren).*

Ere.

France will be lost ere long. (Shak.).

They came to St. Mary's lake ere day. (Scott).

Except.

All the buildings except the keep, were utterly neglected. (James).

Everybody uses the comb and brush, except myself. (Dickens).

For.

*Ah! how little did he know what fortune was in store for me!
(Thackeray).*

Sir Anthony Absolute is below, inquiring for the captain. (Sheridan).

I sent for Radcliffe. (Prior).

They trust to themselves for success. (Marryat).

I can't ask you to wait for me. (Bulwer).

Olivia wished for many lovers, Sophia to secure one. (Goldsmith).

He sat down upon a stone and cried for vexation. (Thackeray).

Blood atoned for blood. (Pope).

*Every minute will infinitely pay for all the troubles of our whole
life. (Taylor).*

Do you blame him for not making enemies? (Sheridan).

To-morrow I depart for Frankfort. (Bulwer).

*I entreat, woman, that my words may be now marked once for all.
(Goldsmith).*

His lady rebuked him for a saucy varlet. (Thackeray).
My uncle did not leave his room for three days. (Bulwer).
I made acquaintance with an American railroad, on this occasion, for the first time. (Dickens).
It might be yours, or hers, for aught I know. (Shak).
But for that motion, we should have thought him dead. (Warren).
Methinks she is too low for a high praise, too brown for a fair praise, and too little for a great praise. (Shak).
There's no accounting for tastes. (Thackeray).
I do not even ask for pardon. (Bulwer).
We called for horses. (Thackeray).
I did not care for drink. (Thackeray).
They are all concerned for him. (Sterne).
I saw the great towns of Passau and Lintz, famous for the retreat of the imperial court, when Vienna was besieged. (Montague).
I had an uncommon natural genius for many things. (Thackeray).
Cook, what have you got for dinner? (Marryat).
Do you long as ardently for peace as your sister? (Cooper).
Are you sorry for that lady and gentleman? (Warren).
I have been waiting for you. (Bulwer).
I will write for the boy directly. (Sheridan).

From.

She started from her seat. (Scott).
He was exhorted to abstain from intoxicating drinks. (Dickens).
From this defect, I think, no man is free. (Goldsmith).
I could not but differ from this opinion. (Pope).
It has its name from the river Rab, on which it is situated. (Montague).
We have nothing to fear from them. (Marryat).
Olivia was often affected, from too great a desire to please; Sophia even repressed excellence, from her fears to offend. (Goldsmith).
The temper of a woman is generally formed from the turn of her features. (Goldsmith).
I know her better than you can — have known her from a child. (Bulwer).
Do not think you have been absent from us. (Scott).
I abstained from calling upon her. (Warren).
I would only accept medicines from her hand. (Thackeray).
My only dislike arose from an attachment he discovered to my daughter. (Goldsmith).
The fortitude of Monmouth was not that highest sort of fortitude which is derived from reflection and from self-respect. (Macaulay).
I speak not this, God knows, to dissuade you from marriage. (Raleigh).
Nothing was concealed or hidden from my view. (Dickens).
Had I not come up too late after the robbery to prevent the highwayman from carrying off her money and pearls? (Thackeray).
Stand from the hearse, stand from the body. (Shak).
We hear no tidings from the king. (Shak).

In.

They take the air in it both on foot and in coaches. (Montague).
Scrooge took his melancholy dinner in his usual melancholy tavern. (Dickens).

Let me whisper in your ear that you have fallen into very bad hands. (Thackeray).

He may make a figure in the world. (Bulwer).

We don't know what is in store for us. (Thackeray).

I felt now, for the first time, in some perplexity. (Thackeray).

He asked me, in a whisper, if he might see my uncle. (Bulwer).

That which in mean men we entitle patience Is pale cold cowardice in noble breasts. (Shak).

I know that it is not the custom of lovers to confide in fathers and uncles. (Bulwer).

Israel dealt in robbery and wrong. (Cowper).

The English delight in silence more than any other European nation. (Addison).

I am so interested in this young man. (Bulwer).

She is utterly mistaken in what she saw. (Spectator).

The year was spent in moral or rural amusements, in visiting our rich neighbours, and relieving such as were poor. (Goldsmith).

I tore them in pieces. (Bunyan).

Into.

These negroes held their knives in their hands, ready to dip them into the bowl of poison. (Edgeworth).

Shall I show him into the parlour? (Sheridan).

They all three burst into a laugh. (Dickens).

It calls the blush into my old cheeks to think I was ever forced to keep such company. (Thackeray).

I will not enter into any defence of smuggling. (Marryat).

I can fully enter into your feelings. (Warren).

They had let a woman into their plot. (Thackeray).

Put yourself into my place. (Warren).

The proudest monuments of human art moulder into dust. (Blair).

It gave me an opportunity of inquiring a little into my own affairs. (Fielding).

Like.

His eyes appear like flames in his dark face; his voice is like distant thunder. (Macpherson).

There is no virtue like necessity. (Shak).

Near.

Near the city, is a most splendid unfinished marble structure. (Dickens).

The fit lasted near a month. (Warren).

Nigh.

Some bards have sung, the Ladye high, Chapel or altar came not nigh. (Scott).

Was not this nigh shore? (Shak).

Notwithstanding.

Mr. Thornhill, notwithstanding his real ignorance, talked with ease. (Goldsmith).

Notwithstanding her jennet's speed, Sir Osborne was soon by her side. (James).

O'.

It is ten o' clock at night. (Dickens).

They were a merrier people here, and had musical instruments playing to them o' nights. (Dickens).

Of.

I will give you the best of dinners, and can promise to satisfy both of you. (Thackeray).

Nearly the whole of the newspapers turned against the ministry. (Warren).

He produced a decanter of curiously light wine, and a block of curiously heavy cake. (Dickens).

That boy's a Brady, every inch of him. (Thackeray).

Was it any business of ours? (Thackeray).

Of all knavish trafficking, there is none like your political trafficking; of all swindlers, your political swindler is the vilest. (Warren).

The frankness of his manner concealed the artifice of his views. (Gibbon).

I lost four fingers of the left hand. (Goldsmith).

I never saw such a picture of forlorn affliction and distress of mind. (Dickens).

There is an air of command, a feeling of conscious superiority about Jack. (Marryat).

I hope you're of my mind, Mr. Pelham. (Bulwer).

I went to the famous academy of Göttingen. (Thackeray).

The first knocking at the door had the effect of bringing a speedy answer. (Thackeray).

I will strive with things impossible; Yea, got the better of them. (Shak).

I had clearly the best of him in the argument. (Thackeray).

I confess it was but a small place, but, indeed, we made the most of it. (Thackeray).

He made the best of his way home. (Irving).

Poor Lady Emma leads a wretched life of it. (Warren).

I saw no more of him. (Goldsmith).

This is the Mr. Carlton whom your brother so often spoke of. (Bulwer).

I have often thought of you. (Warren).

What are you afraid of? (Sheridan).

He is fond of grog. (Marryat).

The air will be full of flaming meteors. (Burnet).

I am not guilty of Lysander's blood. (Shak).

His eyes look wildly round in search of his friend. (Macpherson).

Finding him blind of one eye, he would have nothing to say to him. (Goldsmith).

As for stories about my regiment, of these, of course, I had no lack. (Thackeray).

You will not approve of that love. (Bulwer).

He was ashamed of what he had done. (Addison).

Avail yourself of what occasion gives. (Dryden).

What is to become of us! (Warren).

Make no boast of it. (Shak).

I must be very careful of my honour. (Sheridan).

Does she complain of pain in the chest? (Warren).

How dare you deprive me of my liberty? (Warren).

I had no doubts of the future. (Thackeray).

The town is full of life and bustle. (Dickens).

Take heed of the pretences of men, and their affections. (Raleigh).

There was no lack of company for a person travelling towards Dublin. (Thackeray).

My companion begged I would enter his house, which we now neared, and partake of a glass of beer. (Thackeray).

He was not more possessed of knowledge than he was communicative of it. (Congreve).

If... she was proud of her beauty, to do her justice she was still more proud of her son. (Thackeray).

Isabella repented of her unkindness towards Rachel. (Thackeray).

'Give me a sum of money,' said the girl, 'and get rid of me.' (Thackeray).

You have robbed us of 1500 l. a-year. (Thackeray).

All imagination of it must fall far short of the reality. (Dickens).

I had almost lost sight of them. (Warren).

Off.

In a moment he was off his horse. (James).

I asked him to dine, with two counts, off gold plate, at the little room in the casino. (Thackeray).

What say you to a friend that would take this bitter bargain off your hands? (Goldsmith).

Although he goes on shore in France off the English coast, he never quits the vessel. (Marryat).

You know the little inn, three miles off the trout stream? (Bulwer).

The whole of this matter is but a lure to take us off the right scent. (James).

On.

The next moment I was sobbing on his breast. (Bulwer).

How on earth do they get at it? (Bulwer).

Sure he can't have imposed on Sir Anthony too! (Sheridan).

The breakfast parlour looked on the street. (Bulwer).

I could make a very handsome settlement on my son. (Goldsmith).

I was on guard at Potsdam. (Thackeray).

Mercy on us! (Marryat).

Spare me the pain of a personal interview on the matter. (Warren).

If you succeed, depend on it, your reward will be secure. (Thackeray).

Thou hast relied on the king of Syria, and not relied on the Lord thy God. (Bible).

He shed some royal tears on the occasion. (Thackeray).

All his friends congratulated him on his triumph. (Warren).

She doated on her husband more fondly than ever. (Warren).

Do your duty, be a gentleman, and no serious harm can fall on you. (Thackeray).

We are not so particular in Ireland on the score of neatness as people are in this precise country. (Thackeray).

I first began seriously to reflect on the miscarriages of my former life. (Fielding).

The key was turned on him. (Marryat).

The sins of the fathers are visited on the children. (Marryat).

The two gentlemen alone waited on him. (Thackeray).

Opposite.

Miss Herbert gently opened her eyes; and seeing me sitting opposite her uncle, by her side, gave me her hand. (Warren).

Outside.

The little page was outside the coach on the step. (Thackeray).

I carried my little reports to him at the Garden-house outside the town. (Thackeray).

Over.

There is a number over his cell-door. (Dickens).

A glow of delight came over me at this discovery. (Dickens).

The fame of great players is known all over Europe. (Thackeray).

He had been over the whole fair, and could not get change. (Goldsmith).

O'er him he kneel'd down in prayer. (Scott).

They arose from causes over which he had no control. (Lingard).

We got drunk over the wine. (Thackeray).

Knowledge will always predominate over ignorance. (Johnson).

We sat over our dessert. (Thackeray).

Past.

I count these slumbering passengers, and get past forty. (Dickens).

No lady begins now to put on jewels till she's past forty. (Goldsmith).

He is past relenting. (Dickens).

Pending.

Pending this ceremony, I walked into the village. (Dickens).

The bequest is involved in legal disputes, and pending them the work has stopped. (Dickens).

Per.

I guarantee cent per cent. I offer you cent per cent. (Bulwer).

Regarding.

Often and often has she talked to me and the neighbours regarding her own humility and piety. (Thackeray).

Respecting.

She was as good as her word respecting him. (Thackeray).

Thus I felt respecting Vivian. (Bulwer).

Round.

He kept an open table; round which sate flatterers and poor friends. (Thackeray).

She scarcely looked round the apartment to which she was led.
(James).

Save.

They left behind no fruits of their success, save the glory they had won. (Scott).

Summers three times eight save one She has told. (Milton).

Since.

We had never once met since the day of her marriage, three years ago. (Warren).

I have not seen her since our quarrel. (Sheridan).

Through.

Our road wound through the pleasant valley of the Susquehanna.
(Dickens).

't Is probable that I should have run through the little property as he did in my place. (Thackeray).

A family likeness prevailed through all. (Goldsmith).

I have always had through life an incorrigible knack of spending.
(Thackeray).

Though not a member of the society, I gained admission through a friend. (Warren).

Throughout.

There was no small excitement, or rather agitation, diffused throughout the country, especially London. (Warren).

You must bear this in mind throughout my story. (Bulwer).

Till.

I extolled her prudence, economy, and obedience till death. (Goldsmith).

Little was known of the natives till the voyages of Captain Cook.
(Chambers).

To.

She said she had a headache and would go to bed. (Thackeray).

Once or twice he condescended to talk to me about my prospects in life. (Thackeray).

We had the whole coach to ourselves in our journey. (Bulwer).

What say'st thou to this? (Shak).

Tell me to one penny what I am worth. (Perey).

The girl has a great deal to say upon every subject, and to my knowledge is very well skilled in controversy. (Goldsmith).

He had a strong dislike to the practice. (Southey).

She is daughter to this famous Duke of Milan. (Shak).

They are true to the last. (Campbell).

T^e enjoy is to obey. (Pope).

The busiest man of the mart and counter will find some acquisition to his practical knowledge. (Bulwer).

He had a violent animosity to the old Baron. (Thackeray).

I appealed to my minister. (Thackeray).

Time was necessary in order to break the matter to Prince Victor.
(Thackeray).

Though I am a daughter to his blood, I am not to his manners. (Shak).

I drink to my hostess and her family. (Thackeray).

Your passion is not equal to ours. (Thackeray).

The estate to which I was heir was in the hands of rapacious creditors. (Thackeray).

The hereditary princess was already indebted to the favourite for help on various occasions. (Thackeray).

This is the index to his history. (Dickens).

He was not altogether insensible to music. (Mackenzie).

She introduced him to her company. (Thackeray).

Bring up your family on next to nothing. (Dickens).

Tell me what you can object to him? (Sheridan).

I was kept a prisoner to my room the next day. (Thackeray).

He had an irresistible propensity to get drunk. (Dickens).

All things seemed for awhile quite prosperous to my wishes. (Thackeray).

Our two little ones always read to us. (Goldsmith).

He felt that he was restored to consciousness. (Dickens).

He felt sick to death. (Warren).

They can't sign their names to the book. (Dickens).

We all sat down to a comfortable breakfast in the cabin below. (Dickens).

You must not take the matter to heart so. (Thackeray).

Woe to the man who did not pay when the note became due. (Thackeray).

Touching.

There are some points touching which... we shall question you *ourselves.* (James).

Answer touching the charges you have brought against one Sir Osborne Maurice. (James).

Towards.

She moved a few steps towards me. (Bulwer).

The Queen, especially in her latter days, inclined towards her own family. (Thackeray).

Towards the end of the week, we received a card from the town ladies. (Goldsmith).

Under.

We were quite unaware of the mine under our feet. (Thackeray).

I fell at last under the censure of the vice-chancellor. (Fielding).

I am under no positive engagement with Mr. Acres. (Sheridan).

They were all evidently labouring under great excitement. (Warren).

Underneath.

I heard the mighty rush of water, and felt the ground tremble underneath my feet. (Dickens).

Thou dost cover a dead body underneath thee. (B. Jonson).

Until.

I had kept quiet until his arrival. (Thackeray).

Though I did not rise until noon, yet had I not been up at play until long past midnight? (Thackeray).

Unto.

Add faith unto your force, and be not faint. (Spenser).
The sun was not so true unto the day, As he to me. (Shak).

Up.

They run up the bank, and go down again on the other side at a fearful pace. (Dickens).

We went up stairs into another chamber. (Dickens).

Upon.

I closed the door upon her. (Warren).
The drops of perspiration stood upon his forehead. (Warren).
My uncle and I were, meanwhile, swimming upon the high tide of fortune. (Thackeray).
The men cried fie upon the shameless Irish adventurer. (Thackeray).
A new light breaks in upon me. (Sheridan).
I have brought ruin upon her! (Warren).
Nay, madam, there shall be no constraint upon your inclinations.
I promise you. (Sheridan).
It is frightful to us to look upon a great city in flames. (Burnet).
The Colonel was ordered, with his regiment, upon foreign service. (Warren).
Why does this man intrude upon me? (Johnson).
He had once been prevailed upon to fill a high diplomatic situation abroad. (Bulwer).
Evening slowly steals upon the landscape. (Dickens).
I had a gentleman to wait upon me. (Thackeray).
Upon these grounds, gentlemen, I have the honour to solicit your votes. (Bulwer).
He has talked upon religious matters with the gentleman who visits him. (Dickens).

With.

I have no acquaintance with this man. (Sheridan).
Be back with me this evening at supper. (Thackeray).
What you ask I cannot comply with. (James).
I hope your prayers may be heard, with all my heart. (Sheridan).
They met with a company of robbers. (Goldsmith).
What with exhaustion, and the effect of the medicines which had been administered, he fell into profound sleep. (Warren).
They are concealing what is really the matter with her. (Warren).
What said our cousin when you parted with him? (Shak).
Philadelphia is most bountifully provided with fresh water. (Dickens).
She kindly offered to accommodate me with lodgings in her own house. (Thackeray).
London air had agreed with it, and it was singing lustily. (Bulwer).
No man can be heartily angry with him who pleases him against his will. (Dryden).

Had I known his origin, of course I would have died rather than have associated with him. (Thackeray).

Bear with me, kind reader! (Warren).

Her face seemed clouded with anxiety. (Warren).

He knew not how the new owner would deal with him. (Thackeray).

He entertained us with a long account of his achievements. (Dickens).

The horses that carried us down are now fatigued with the journey. (Goldsmith).

He had never been a favourite with the officers of his regiment. (Thackeray).

Newfashioned folks, with their large theories of education, may find fault with thee. (Bulwer).

Her highness in some whim had insulted him with his origin. (Thackeray).

Nobody has a right to interfere with you. (Warren).

Her lips quivered with emotion. (Warren).

He shook with agitation. (Warren).

All things smiled With fragrance, and with joy my heart o'erflow'd. (Milton).

The magistrates seemed struck with what he had said, and much more with his manner of saying it. (Warren).

He was taken with a violent fit of trembling. (Dickens).

The world teems with spirits: the very air is thick with them. (James).

I am really extremely vexed with you! (Warren).

Post-horses, my good friend! what can you possibly want with them, when you promised to stay with me quietly for at least a week? (cott).

Within.

Time is very long, gentlemen, within these four walls. (Dickens).

My heart melted within me. (Addison).

He resolved within himself, after mature inquiry, that it was all a dream. (Dickens).

The first day's journey brought us in safety within thirty miles of our future retreat. (Goldsmith).

I could almost think you had grown thinner within the last few days. (Bulwer).

Without.

Guards were placed within and without her doors. (Thackeray).

Mr. Squills and I performed our journey without adventure. (Bulwer).

'Well there 's room enough,' replies the coachman, without getting down or even looking at him. (Dickens).

Two prepositions connected.

I waited for upwards of an hour. (Warren). *Its little white walls peeped from amid honey-suckle and jessamine.* (Ibid).

Rise, moon, from behind thy clouds! (Macpherson). *Hard by,*

a cottage chimney smokes, From betwixt two aged oaks. (Milton).
See every bud and leaf plucked one by one from off the fairest stem. (Dickens). *What voices spoke from out the thundering water!* (Dickens). *Why did not Fate join me to thee, instead of to the odious man who holds me under his sway.* (Thackeray).
My wife's fortune came not till after marriage. (Bulwer).
They were within about a mile of the house. (James). *Beaz up against the desapoondments of life.*

Repetition of the Preposition.

We find as many instances in English writers of the prepositions being repeated as of the contrary. It is however difficult to give any fixed rules for it; the following examples of both cases have been selected from the best authors:

By sea, by land, thy matchless worth was known. (Dryden).
I shall cut short the account of my travels in Europe, and of my success at the Continental courts. (Thackeray). *In camp, in castle, or in bower, Each warrior sought repose.* (Scott).
Teach me to love and to forgive. (Gray). *The prophets' sons, by such example led, To learning and to loyalty were bred.* (Dryden).

Those heap'd affronts that haughty subjects bring Are burdens for a camel, not a king. (Dryden). *Did you ever hear of such doctors and such a disciple?* (Thackeray). *With gentle hand and soothing tongue She bore the leech's part.* (Scott). *Vainly he feeds his hopes With dinner of roast chicken, savoury pie, Or tart or pudding.* (Barbauld). *He often comes over to dine and sleep, returning the next morning.* (Bulwer).

Conjunction.

1. A conjunction¹⁾ is that part of speech which joins words, clauses, or sentences together; as '*John and James were there; but they did not remain long.*'

If there were no conjunctions we should have to say, in

¹⁾ From the Latin *conjungo*, to join with or together.

this case: '*John was there.*' '*James was there.*' '*They did not remain long.*'

2. Conjunctions are usually divided into **Copulative** and **Disjunctive** conjunctions.

3. **Copulative** conjunctions are so called, because they connect things which are to be considered jointly; as, **and**, **also**, **both**. *The clock struck eleven; and the Duke with his body guard rode out of the castle.* (Macaulay). *The French on the shore could now behold him also.* (James). *This drew the attention of both lady and gentleman to me.* (Bulwer).

4. **Disjunctive** conjunctions are so called, because they imply diversity, negation, doubt, or opposition; as:

Either	Nor	But	However	Though
Or	Whether	Unless	Notwithstanding	Although
Neither	Lest	Yet	Nevertheless	Than.

Examples: *You lose thus the confidence of your friends without having rendered them either better or more skilful* (Chesterfield). *Whosoever is delighted in solitude, is either a wild beast or a god.* (Bacon). *You can neither do wrong without ruin, nor right without affliction.* (Junius). *He neither loves, Nor either cares for him.* (Shak.). *So, thrice fair lady, stand I, even so; As doubtful whether what I see be true, Until confirm'd, sign'd, ratified by you.* (Shak.). *Whether they properly be Poets, or no, let Grammarians dispute.* (Sidney). *We have only one thing that distresses us, a fear lest the Colonel may be ordered to join his regiment and go abroad.* (Warren). *Gentlemen, away, lest you perish with me.* (Marlowe). *He never played a game but he lost it, or engaged in a conspiracy but 't was certain to end in defeat.* (Thackeray). *It cannot be but they will do you justice.* (Byron). *It is anybody's business but his.* (Dickens). *A fourth did nothing but whistle.* (Dickens). *The fellow, but for his unaccountable bashfulness, is pretty well.* (Goldsmith). *But that the stories connected with that same establishment are not the most profitable tales in the world, I could tell tales of scores of queer doings there.* (Thackeray). *You are the cause of this young man's*

wound, madam, and, but that the instrument of your savage cruelty relented, would have been the author of his murder. (Thackeray). Not a day, indeed, passed but what he held long conversations with my father. (Bulwer). I shall see nothing more of you, unless it be by letter, till the evening. (Sheridan). Real friendship is a slow flower, and never thrives unless ingrafted upon a stock of known and reciprocal merit. (Chesterfield). Both may be lost, yet each in his own way. (Cowper). His doublet was of sturdy buff, And though not words, yet cudgelproof. (Butler). However unexpected our company might be to them, theirs, I am sure, was still more so to us. (Goldsmith). However this be, Roland and I were not long in detecting each other. (Bulwer). They who honour the law as an image of the wisdom of God himself, are notwithstanding to know that the same had an end in Christ. (Hooker). Hot though it had been yesterday, it was quite cold to-day. (Dickens). Though a Whig, or, perhaps, because a Whig, the marquess was one of the haughtiest men breathing. (Thackeray). He, tho' bad, is follow'd by a worse. (Dryden). What is better than wisdom? (Chaucer). There's no nobler blood in Europe than mine. (Thackeray). Fletcher kept his temper better than any who knew him expected. (Macaulay).

5. Conjunctions are also subdivided into 1. **Adversative**; as, **but, however**. They look for some to have pity on them, but there is no man. (Taylor). The world talked and blustered, but what cared I? (Thackeray). He insults not on the ruins of a decayed gentleman, but pities and relieves him. (Fuller). 2. **Causal**; as, **because, for, since, that**. The mourners weep, because it is civil, or because they need thee, or because they fear. (Taylor). You took me, because I was useful. (Thackeray). Let the tomb open to Ossian, for his strength has failed. (Macpherson). Some two or three prisoner nurses were with them for they were very sick. (Dickens). You have done right to leave the house, for the temptation might be too strong. (Bulwer). Since thou dost seek to kill my name in me, I mock my name, great king, to flatter thee. (Shak.). Kent bade farewell to the king, and said, that since he chose to show himself

in such fashion, it was but banishment to stay there. (Lamb). *Teach your son also to love and fear God, while he is yet young, that that the fear of God may grow up with him.* (Raleigh). *Speak, that I may see you.* (Barrow). 3. **Comparative**; as, **than**. *An indiscreet Man is more hurtful than an ill-natur'd one.* (Spectator). *You are forty years younger than I am in experience.* (Thackeray). 4. **Concessive**; as, **though, although, albeit, yet**. *No argument in favour of the system, can reasonably be deduced from this circumstance, although it is very often urged.* (Dickens). *Although he defied the laws, he appeared to regard the courtesies of life.* (Marryat). *A worthy fellow, Albeit he comes on angry purpose now; But that's no fault of his.* (Shak.). *Tom professed himself, albeit a high churchman, a strong King William's-man.* (Thackeray). 5. **Conditional**; as, **if, except, provided**. *If you were convinced that Julia were well and in spirits, you would be entirely content.* (Sheridan). *If he were guilty at all, he was unquestionably guilty of murder in its broadest and worst signification.* (Dickens). *I never could find out that he did anything except sit there.* (Dickens). *I know little about newspapers, except that I have to subscribe to one in my county.* (Bulwer). *We are never again to buy cannons, provided only we can exchange cotton for corn.* (Bulwer). *Of course I meant that I would do so, provided nothing more suitable presented itself.* (Thackeray). 6. **Equality**; as, **so, as, as well as**. *The sun, the moon, the stars, the fruits also, and vegetables of the earth, perpetually changing their positions, or their aspects, exhibit an elegant entertainment to the understanding as well as to the eye.* (Swift). *There is a holy mistaken zeal in politics, as well as in religion.* (Junius). 7. **Exceptive**; as, **unless**. *I shall see nothing more of you, unless it be by letter, till the evening.* (Sheridan). *Real friendship is a slow grower, and never thrives unless ingrafted upon a stock of known and reciprocal merit.* (Chesterfield). 8. **Exclusive**; as, **neither, nor**. *Neither had I so soon learned the gratitude of courtiers to persuade myself that his majesty's present severities acquitted me of all past obligations.* (Swift). *Nor can I here pass over an ominous circumstance that hap-*

pened the last time we played together. (Goldsmith). 9. **Illative**; as, **therefore**, **wherefore**, **then**. *I therefore went to the young-gentleman's house, and wherefore I was denied to see him has of course not been told me, but he breathed, then he lived and this was all I wanted to know.*

6. **Conjunctive phrases**, or **compound conjunctions**, are formed of two or more words; as, *as if*, *as though*, *as well*, *and also*, *forasmuch as*, etc.

7. Sometimes the same words are used as **conjunctions** in one place and as **adverbs** or **prepositions** in another. In such cases it will be easy to distinguish the *preposition*, because it always governs the *objective* case of a noun or pronoun expressed or understood; as, '*Go you before, and I will go after.*' that is, '*Go you before me, and I will go after you.*' In the sentence, '*He went down the street*, *down* is an adverb, and *street* is governed by a preposition understood as, '*along.*' It is not so easy, in some cases, to distinguish *adverbs* from *conjunctions*; nor is it of any great importance.

Observations on some of the conjunctions.

1. Some conjunctions require to be followed by another conjunction in the second member of the sentence. They are the following:

Although,	though,
Whether	— or
Either	— or
Neither	— nor
as	— as
as	— so
so	— as
so	— that
however	— yet,
nevertheless,	

a. *Though* is sometimes connected with *still*; as, *Though I should never have possession of thy charming person, still shalt thou alone have possession of my love, my soul.* (Fielding).

b. In some cases however this *yet* is omitted; as, *The riches, which by the aid of wisdom, we heap up in the storehouses of wisdom, we heap up in the storehouses of our mind, are, though not the only, the most customary coin by which external prosperity is bought.* (Bulwer).

c. *Though* is sometimes placed at the end of a sentence, mostly elliptic and in relation to a preceding or omitted expression; as, *A good cause would do well, though.* (Dryden). *Well, he must be soon at my house, though.* (Sheridan). *He has a superb head, though, I replied.* (Bulwer).

2. *Whether* — or often imply the same uncertainty that is expressed in other languages by an auxiliary verb; as, *whether it was that his majesty's ministers were insensible of his merits, or could find no place suited to his abilities, the unhappy knight profited very little by his court-attendance.* (Coventry). *Whether he be rich, or whether he be poor, if he have a good heart, he shall at all times rejoice in a cheerful countenance.* (Sterne).

3. *Either* — or is used in stead of *neither* — nor after a negative sentence; as, *There is nothing either good or bad but thinking makes it so.* (Shak.). *To tell you a truth, Mr. Thornhill, I never either loved you, or liked you.* (Goldsmith). *I am accountable to myself for my actions, and I shall nor render an account either to you or that gentleman.* (Fielding).

4. *Neither* and *nor* (each taken separately) are also used to connect sentences; in which case *neither* indicates a slighter connexion with the foregoing part of the phrase than *nor*; as, *I soon regretted that project with horror by remembering the oath I had made to the emperor. Neither had I so soon learned the gratitude of courtiers to persuade myself that his majesty's present severities acquitted me of all past obligations.* (Swift). *The dangers of fire oracles and the horrid practice of human sacrifice were unknown to the good sense*

and purity of the heroic ages; **nor** is there to be discovered the smallest vestige of these wild and wicked inventions in the writings of Homer. (Gillies). **Nor** can I here pass over an ominous circumstance that happened the last time we played together. (Goldsmith).

5. In some cases *or* and *nor* may be used indifferently; as, *Mrs. Partridge became by these means more formidable in the school than her husband; for, to confess the truth, he was never master there, or any where else, in her presence.* (Fielding). *The king whose character was not sufficiently vigorous, nor decisive, assented to the measure.* (Robertson).

6. *Neither* is sometimes put at the end of a sentence to fortify a foregoing negation; as: *I protested I could see for it no reason neither, nor why Mr. Simpkins got the ten thousand pound prize in the lottery, and we sat down with a blank.* (Goldsmith). *Men come not to the knowledge of those ideas which are thought innate, till they come to the rise of reason; nor then neither.* (Locke).

7. **As** — *as* are used in comparisons of equality, as well in relation to *two predicates with one subject* as to *one predicate with two subjects*, or to *two subjects with two different predicates*; as, *I shall and must introduce a digression of true wisdom, of which Mr. Allworthy was in reality as great a pattern as he was goodness.* (Fielding). *Mankind are as ignorant of such divine goodness, as they are unworthy of it.* (ibid.). *The age at which Miss Bridget was arrived, seems to me as proper a period as any to be fixed on for this purpose* (ibid.). *He had the character of as bold a man as any in the army.* (ibid.). *The contrast of the various dresses of the spectators rendered the view as gay as it was rich.* (W. Scott). *His countenance bore as little the marks of self-denial, as his habit indicated contempt of wordly splendour.* (Ibid.).

8. In comparisons of inequality the comparative degree is either followed by **than**, or after a negative expression by the corresponding conjunctions *so* — *as*. Ex.: *The lieutenant had not conceived quite so favorable an opinion of the Doctor's physical abilities, as the good woman.* (Fielding). *None is so*

unworthy of his goodness as myself. (ibid). *He found no times, in all the long research so glorious, or so base, as he proved.* (Thomson).

Expressions of doubt require also *so* — *as*. Ex. *I don't know if this poor man's situation be so bad as my father would represent it.* (Goldsmith).

9. *So* — *as* are used to express the degree of a quality, when the two sentences, which are to be connected, have a common subject. In such cases *as* is followed by the infinitive mood. Ex: *I will never be so ungrateful as ever to think he has done an act of injustice by me.* (Fielding). *She felt an agreeable tickling in a certain little passion, which though it bears no immediate affinity either to religion or virtue, is often so kind as to lend great assistance in executing the purposes of both.* (ibid). *He was so full of thought as not to notice any one about him.* (W. Irving). *The oaks were intermingled with beeches and hollies so closely as totally to intercept the level beams of the sinking sun.* (W. Scott). *He was something startled by the abrupt appearance of a horseman, whose steed leaped the hedge so close to our hero as almost to endanger his safety.* (Bulwer).

10. When the two sentences have a different subject *so-that* must be used. *Mere outside is so very trifling a circumstance with me, that I should scarce have remembered to mention it, had it not been a general topic of conversation.* (Goldsmith). *Her conversation was so pure, and her whole deportment so grave and solemn, that she seemed to deserve the name of saint equally with her name-sake.* (Fielding).

The same conjunctions are used when the verb in the second member of the phrase (*shall, will, etc.*) cannot be used in the infinitive mood; as, *I was so ill a judge of things, that I could not discover the lenity and favour of this sentence.* (Swift). *There was not any secret place so lonely, that it might claim exemption from those inroads.* (Cooper).

11. *Such* — *as* and *such* — *that* indicate a *cause* and *effect* but *as* is made use of as well when both sentences have a common subject, as when the word connected by *such* requires

to be pointed out; as, *She placed her chair in such a posture as to occupy almost the whole fire.* (Fielding). *The Athenians made such considerable alterations in their writings and pronunciation as remarkably distinguished them from their Ionian brethren.* (Gillies). *My daughter rejected farmer William's addresses in such a manner as totally repressed his further solicitations.* (Goldsmith). *Such was the insecurity of property, as to render it probable that the delay would be explained by some depredations of the outlaw.* (W. Scott). *My reasons for not keeping my pledge are such as fairly to satisfy Sir Reginald Pelham.* (Bulwer).

Observations.

1. In the works of the best authors mistakes may be found against the rules explained above.

2. *As* is often omitted after *so*, where it should be expressed, as, *The youth of both sexes are too apt to be deficient in their gratitude for that regard with which persons more advanced in years are sometimes so kind (as) to honour them.* (Fielding). *If thy sagacity discovers meanings that were never meant, be so good (as) to impute it to thy own ill nature.* (Coventry).

3. After *such* and *so* we often find *as* that used; as, *Is there such a depravity in man, as that he should injure another without benefit to himself?* (Johnson). The expression is however not to be recommended.

12. *As* — *so* relating to each other are used to unite two sentences, that may be compared on account of some equality or analogy. They then come in the place of the Dutch even *als* of *terwijl* — *zoo*; Examples: *As the captain had increased in the eagerness of his desires, so the lady, with the same propriety, decreased in the violence of her refusal.* (Fielding). *As some men gaze with admiration at the colours of a tulip or the wing of a butterfly, so I was by nature an admirer of happy human faces.* (Goldsmith). *As Mr. Whiston had written upon his wife's tomb, that she was the only wife of*

William Whiston, so I writo a similar epitaph for my wife. (ibid).

13. After *such* the conjunctions *as* takes the place of a relative pronoun; *as, I passed among such of the French as were poor enough to be very merry.* (Goldsmith). *The peace is now drawing to such a conclusion, as all Europe is, or must be, satisfied with.* (Pope). *The finest writers among the modern Italians fill their writings with such poor imaginations and conceits, as your youths are ashamed of before they have been two years at the university.* (Addison).

14. *As* is sometimes confounded with *when* and *while* or *whilst*. The difference between *as* and *when* may be explained as follow. *As* implies the simultaneousness of two actions; *when* expresses a less direct and is only used for repeated succession. For the latter reason *when* can be made use of with a pluperfect tense and *as* not. Ex: *Turnus trembled as she* (Dido) *spoke.* (Dryden). *The one entertained me with her vivacity when* (whenever) *I was serious.* (Goldsmith). *When a servant had given me notice; my custom was to go immediately to the door.* (Swift). *While* and *whilst* imply longer duration and correspond to the Dutch *terwijl*. Ex: *Many women abused her, while they envied her lover and her finery.* (Fielding). *Whilst he was looking at the window the curtain was partially withdrawn.* (W. Irving).

15. *As* may sometimes be used for *like*, which means: *in such a manner as*, or *such a kind as*, and is only used in comparing two objects which are quite different in every other respect. *As* on the contrary, to which the word *being* may generally be supposed, marks that the two ideas compared must also be considered as connected. When Smollet says: *Every one shunned me like a person infected* the sense is: „Every person shunned me as people use to shun an infected person. By changing *like* into *as* the sense would be that the speaker was considered as infected. Examples: *Who that has such a house to return to, as your honour, would travel thus about the country like a vagabond.* (Fielding). *The property of Polychares, like that of the most opulent of his countrymen, consisted in numerous*

herds of cattle. (Gillies). *I dislike greatly to see a man hung up like a dog.* (Cooper). *From despondency she passed to something like quiety.* (Cooper). *She voted for sending the child, as a kind of noxious animal, immediately out of the house.* (Fielding). *He was restrained by the fear of being detained as (being) a deserter.* (Smollet). *Tell not as (being) new what every body knows.* (Cowper). *The Cartons were an eccentric family, and never did any thing like other people.* (Bulwer). *They are curs'd As (being) rigid and inexorable.* (Massinger). *Every one of them wore chains like Marley's Ghost.* (Dickens).

16. *As* is not only connected with *if* but also with *though* to express the Dutch „*als of*” *Ex: She continued to lean upon her deliverer's arm as if still willing to receive assistance.* (Goldsmith). *He would pass whole days in the library, consulting a multiplicity of authors, as though he were pursuing some interesting subject.* (W. Irving). *His head was turned aside, as though he listened to some distant and distrusted sounds.* (Cooper). *It seemed as if the Genius of the Weather sat in mournful meditation on the threshold.* (Dickens). *It is as though the fiends prevailed Against the seraphs they assailed.* (Byron).

17. The Dutch expression „*naangaande — wat betreft*” (with respect to) is commonly translated by *as to* or *as for* *Ex. She was not very inquisitive as to that point.* (Fielding). *As to myself, I must confess. I was so ill a judge of things, that I could not discover the lenity of this sentence.* (Swift). *The remainder were lost in doubt as to what was required of them.* (Cooper). *As for breeding there were few country ladies who could show more.* (Goldsmith).

18. *But* has sometimes the signification of a causal conjunction; as, *Jones had not such implicit faith in his guide, but that on their arrival at a village he inquired whether they were on the road to Bristol.* (Fielding). *Books and men I have not so neglected but that I have gleaned at intervals some little knowledge from both.* (Bulwer).

19. Standing alone as well as connected with *that*, after

expressions as: *I do not doubt, I question not, I do not deny, it is not impossible* and more such negations the word **but** has the same meaning as *that*; as, *By these means we doubt not but our reader may be rendered desirous to read on for ever.* (Fielding). *They made no doubt but that the navy should be absolutely master of the seas.* (Bacon). *There was no doubt in my mind but that Gerard and Montreuil were engaged in some intrigue for the exiled family.* (Bulwer). *Nor can I deny but I have some interest in being first to deliver this message.* (Goldsmith).

20. **But** is also used for the Dutch *dan*, *behalve* after negative expressions and after questions, which often stand for emphatic negations; as, *He took nothing but what was his own.* (Fielding). *They could not be supposed to have held none but wrong principles, and to have uttered nothing but absurdities.* (Ibid). *The Athenians declared, none but Jupiter should thenceforth reign in Athens.* (Gillies). *I desire no other reward but the pleasure of having served my friend.* (Goldsmith). *Savages seldom shed blood but to retaliate former cruelties.* (Ibid). *Who should enter the room but our two great acquaintances from town?* (Ibid). *And what is friendship but a name, a charm that lulls to sleep?* (Ibid). *Some obstinate unbelievers insisted that it was nothing but the howling of a watchdog.* (W. Irving).

21. A particular use of **but** is made in sentences such as the following expressions, which may be considered as idioms: *There were none of the Grograms but could sing a song, or of the Marjorams but could tell a story.* (Goldsmith). *There is scarce any man but will condescend in the meanest manner to flatter himself.* (Fielding). *There is not a housemaid but dreams of wedding-favours.* (W. Irving). *There is seldom one of them but has her love-cares and love-secrets.* (Ibid). *Who but would deem their bosoms burnt anew with thy unquenched beam, lost Liberty?* (L. Byron). *And who that recollects young years and loves but would much rather sigh like his son, than cough like his grandfather.* (ibid). *There is scarce any matter of duty but it concerns them both alike.* (W. Irving).

I must heartily pity him and cannot but wish it were in my power to afford him some relief. (Burney). Sir Clement approached me with an air so interested in my distress that I could not but feel myself obliged to him. (Ibid). I could not but think they would make a tolerable group for a modern picture. (W. Irving).

Thus we lived several years in a state of much happiness, not but that we sometimes had those little rubs which Providence sends to enhance the value of her favours. (Goldsmith).

I would tell your Ladyship something but that I am afraid it would offend you. (Fielding). Some of the debtors would have literally perished for want but that they were delivered by the generosity of the criminals themselves. (Bulwer).

Who knows but all that matter which he told us might be intended as a warning to us. (Fielding). She knew not but some new treachery was menacing her. (W. Irving).

This task would have been more difficult but for (without) our recent calamity. (Goldsmith). She might have succeeded but for (if it had not been for) the interposition of Sir Clement. (Burney). The room was so very much crowded, that, but for the uncommon assiduity of Sir Clement, we should not have been able to procure a box. (ibid). But for a strange mishap, my sword had revenged all our injuries. (W. Scott). The corporal had beheld the commencement of the kill at the extremity of the town, where but for him they had not dined. (Bulwer).

22. There is some analogy between the conjunctions **but** and **yet**; the latter however is only used in the sense of *though*; as, *I have heard Sir William Thornhill represented as one of the most generous yet whimsical men in the kingdom. (Goldsmith). In bidding this last adieu, my heart is filled with fond, yet melancholy emotions. (W. Irving). With a fierce, yet hesitating motion, he laid his hand on the hilt of his knife. (W. Scott). The distant, yet distinct report of heavy cannon, fired at intervals, apprized Waverley that the work of destruction was going forward. (ibid). As the shout of laughter and of happy hearts came upon his ear, he turned enviously, yet not malignantly*

away. (Bulwer). *Caesar was good-natured, yet not weak. But on the contrary cannot be turned into though in any of the following examples: All that is very true, but not what I would be at.* (Goldsmith). *Their features were rough but remarkably intelligent, grave, but the very reverse of stupid.* (W. Scott). *They entered the narrow, but fragrant lawn.* (Cooper). *Heaven bless you, my son, exclaimed the astonished but delighted parent.* (Ibid). *He drew from nature a singular combination of shrewd, but false conclusions.* (Bulwer).

23. **Lest** has generally the signification of the Dutch „*opdat niet*.” After words expressing fear or concern it has also the meaning of *that*; as, *There was reason to apprehend lest the system of Lycurgus should evaporate with the enthusiasm which produced it.* (Gillies). *If you please, Sir, answered I, quite terrified lest this Mrs. Mirvan should attend to him.* (Burney). *I was at first under some concern lest he should recollect my features.* (Smollet). *He dreaded lest the world should be deprived of the promising talents of so aspiring an alchymist.* (W. Irving).

24. **That** stands often connected with *but* as has already been explained, but the following examples will show that it can also be used with many other conjunctions: *Turn thou the mouth of thy artillery against these saucy walls; and when that we have dash'd them to ground, why, then defy each other.* (Shak). *Though that my death were adjunct to my act, by heaven, I'd do it.* (Ibid). *The philosophy of Square taught that the end was immaterial, so that (provided) the means were fair.* (Fielding). *He acquainted them, that he brought sad news; for that his mother was dead at Salisbury.* (Ibid). *These days were ages to him notwithstanding that he was basking in the smiles of the pretty Mary.* (W. Irving). *Whether or not that it arises from this sentiment, there is one very peculiar characteristic in all genius of the highest order.* (Bulwer).

25. The Dutch „*dat*” and „*wanneer*” are sometimes expressed in English by *for* followed by the accusative and the verb in the infinitive mood; as, *Your wisdom should show itself more richer, for, for me to put him to his purgation,*

would perhaps plunge him in more choler. (Shak). The time draws on for experience and observation to take place of instruction. (Burney). The good man gave immediate orders for all his family to be summoned round him. (Fielding). There is not a more dangerous thing in the world than for a beauty to be a Deist. (Sterne). There is nothing so rare as for a man to ride his hobby without molestation. (W. Irving). They all returned the salutation of their host, though each waited for him to speak. (Cooper). The chaste Diana had been too spoiled by the prosperity of many years, for the sickness of a single month to effect much good in her disposition. (Bulwer).

26. In indirect questions and other dependent sentences *if* is often used for the Dutch *„of”*; as, *Answer me on your honour, if you have, not intended to do him wrong.* (Fielding). *I asked if he did know the story of that unfortunate young gentleman.* (Smollet). *With them I would search if nature's boundless frame was call'd, late rising from the void of night, or sprung eternal from th'eternal mind.* (Thomson). *The lady hastily inquired if he would have any assistance.* (Cooper). *They asked concerning the Triponers, and if they had taken his counsel.* (Bunyan).

Place of the Conjunctions.

27. Conjunctions generally have their place at the beginning of the sentence or the part of a sentence which they connect with the foregoing. *However, then* and *therefore* may precede, whilst *also, too, likewise,* must follow *either, neither* and *both* must precede words in the sentence to which they belong.

28. When the words connected by *both — and, either — or, neither — nor* are governed by a preposition the latter sometimes precedes and sometimes follows the conjunction; as, *Religion gives to both rich and poor the same happiness hereafter.* (Goldsmith). *This is inconsistent with both honour and honesty.* (Fielding). *What signifies that I have rank and honour in reality, if I am to live an obscure prisoner, without either society or observance.* (W. Scott). *Either from an apprehension*

of treading on dangerous ground, or an unwillingness to intrude upon the taciturnity of his guest, he several times hesitated before he could venture to make any remark. (Cooper).

Observations. a. When the prepositions are repeated before every word the conjunctions should be placed before them; as, *Our squire was by no means a match either for his host, or for parson Supple, at his cups that evening.* (Fielding).

b. *Both* can also be placed after the words connected by *and*; as, *If we lose our noble lord, I bid adieu to the court and to the camp both.* (W. Scott).

29. *Whether* followed by *or not* does not suffer any other word to come between; as, *It now struck me that he was resolved to try, whether or not I was capable of talking upon any subject.* (Burney). *He inquired of me whether or no his wife went out alone.* (Smollet). *She left Wayland under the disagreeable uncertainty whether or no she had formed any plan for her own future proceedings.* (W. Scott). *I wonder, thought I, whether or not Lady Roseville is enamoured with her new correspondent.* (Bulwer).

Ellipsis of the conjunctions.

30. Some conjunctions are frequently omitted in English. Those that are most generally omitted are *as*, *that*, *if* and *but*; sometimes this is also the case with *and*, *though* and *when*. They may however not be omitted in all cases though no fixed rules can be given for it.

The ellipsis of *as* is allowed when it has the meaning of the Dutch „*zoo als*” and when, as a comparative conjunction, it implies a comparison before expressions such as: *I perceived, it seems, I recollected*, etc. Ex. *I could turn my suspicion only on Mr. Burchell, who, (as) I recollected, had of late had several conferences with my daughter.* (Goldsmith). *The village, (as) it seems had been apprized of our approach.* (Ibid). *This was received with great approbation by all, excepting my wife, who, (as) I could perceive, was not perfectly satisfied.* (Ibid). *Predominant vanity is, (as) I am afraid, too much concerned here.* (Fielding).

He was now all impatience to secure the treasure, which, (as) he did not doubt lay at the bottom of the well. (W. Irving). Your idea of love may be as absurd as that which (as) we are told a blind man once entertained of the colour Red. (Ibid). He again resumed a discourse that, (as) all felt, was most peculiarly his own. (Cooper).

31. **That** may only be omitted when it expresses the object of the preceding verb by another verb, or when it stands at the head of a sentence of which the preceding declares something; as, *I suppose (that) there will be no business done here to-day. (Goldsmith). It is impossible (that) we should know what sort of person thou wilt be. (Fielding). Tom had brought them all back into Allworthy's hall, where they now awaited his final resolution, which, upon his knees he besought him might be in favour of the girl (ibid); instead of: and he besought him upon his knees that it might be.*

In this edifice it was agreed (that) Mr. Gulliver should lodge. (Swift). We may be confident, (that) whatever he does is intended for good. (Temple). I saw (that) the poor fellow was most terribly scared. (Defoe). I suspect (that) this is a bad business. (Bulwer). I thought (that) you knew Sir Anthony better. (Sheridan). She bounded by, and tripp'd so light, (that) They had not time to take a steady sight. (Dryden). Is it for thee (that) the lark ascends and sings? (Pope). Tell him (that) the mighty are not here; and (that) my arm is young. (Macpherson). They told him (that) they were pilgrims, and that they had lost their way. (Bunyan).

32. Ellipsis of **if** is found in the following sentences: *War's a game which, were their subjects wise, Kings would not play at. (Cowper). Had I boldly broke open his escritoire, I had, perhaps, escaped even his suspicion. (Fielding). She has got a treasure in her husband, which she couldn't have, had she taken a duke to marry her. (Thackeray). I could weep, Madam, would it do you good. (Shak). What will be the fame of my sword shouldst thou fall? (Macpherson). Him should he meet the bellowing war begins. (Thomson).*

33. **Though** has been left out in the sentence: *"Go you, and*

where you find a maid, that, ere she sleep, has thrice her prayers said, raise up the organs of her fantasy, sleep she as sound as careless infancy. (Shak).

34. **But** is wanting in the following sentence. *You left me but poor, and poor I find you are come back; and yet I make no doubt (but) you have seen a great deal of the world.* (Goldsmith).

35. **When** can be omitted at the head of a sentence which serves more precisely to point out a before indicated point of time; as, *She was terribly frightened every time (when) they went out together.* (Fielding). *Jones recollected Mr. Bliffl's loss the moment (when) it was mentioned.* (Ibid). *He unfortunately arrived on the very evening (when) an unknown or rather suspicious guest was an inmate of the house that seldom contained any others than its regular inhabitants.* (Cooper).

Interjection.

1. **Interjections** ¹⁾ are words or exclamations *thrown in* to express some sudden emotion of the mind, as, *Ah! For! shame! O! Alas!*

2. The following are the interjections chiefly in use: —

1. Of joy; as, *hey! heyday!* ²⁾ 2. Of sorrow; as, *oh! ah as!* 3. Of wonder; as, *ha! strange!* 4. Of wishing or earnestness; *O!* 5. Of pain; *oh! ah!* 6. Of contempt; *fudge! pooh! pish! pshaw! tush!* 7. Of aversion; *foh! fie! fy! oh! begone! avaunt!* 8. Of calling aloud; *ho! holla! hollo! soho!* ³⁾ 9. Of

¹⁾ The brutish, inarticulate interjection, that has nothing to do with speech, and is only the miserable refuge of the speechless, is reckoned amongst the parts of it. The neighing of a horse, the lowing of a cow, the barking of a dog, the purring of a cat; sneezing, coughing, groaning, shrieking, and every other involuntary convulsion with oral sound, have almost as good a title to be called parts of speech, as interjections have.

The term interjection is derived from the Latin *interjectus*, cast or thrown between.

²⁾ *Heyday* is evidently a corruption of *high day*.

³⁾ *Holla* or *hollo* (from the French *hola!* ho there!) calls at a greater distance than *soho!* *Halloo*, a cry to excite dogs in hunting, is a different word from *holla*.

exultation; *aha! huzza! hurra!* 10. Of laughter; *ha! ha! ha!* 11. Of salutation; *welcome! hail! all hail!* 12. Of calling attention to; *lo! behold! look! see! hark!* 13. Of commanding silence; *hush! hist! mum!* 14. Of surprise; *oh! ah! hah! what! indeed!* 15. Of languor; *heigho!* 16. Of approbation; *bravo! well done!*

3. Any part of speech, when uttered as an exclamation, is considered as an interjection; as *mercy! strange! what!*

Derivation.

Derivation is that part of Etymology which treats of the origin and primary signification of words.

Words are either Primitive or Derivative. A **primitive** word cannot be reduced or traced to any simpler word in the language; *man, good, obey*. A **derivative** ¹⁾ word can be reduced or traced to another word in the language of greater simplicity; as *manly, goodness, disobey*. Primitive words from which derivatives are formed, are called **roots**. Many words considered as primitives or roots in English, are derivatives from the Latin, Greek, and other languages. For example, the word *animadvert* is a primitive in English, but a derivative in Latin.

The primitive words in any language are very few when compared with the whole amount of its vocabulary. The shortest and easiest way, therefore, of learning a language, is to make one'sself acquainted with its comparatively few *primitives*, and the processes by which *derivatives* are formed from them.

Derivative words are formed from their **primitives** in three ways: — 1. By the addition of letters or syllables. 2. By the omission of letters or by contractions. ²⁾ 3. By the interchange of equivalent or kindred letters.

¹⁾ Compound words are included under the head of derivatives, See page 4.

²⁾ The first process includes the figures of Orthography called by Grammarians *Prosthesis, Epenthesis, and Paragoge*; and the second, the figures called *Aphaeresis, Syncope, and Apocope*. See under the head "Figures of speech" for examples.

All words having **prefixes** or **affixes**, or both, are examples of the first process.

A **prefix** is a significant particle, generally an inseparable preposition *prefixed* to a word to vary or modify its meaning; as *mis* in *mistake*, *ab* in *absolve*, and *para* in *paragraph*.

An **affix** or **termination** is a significant particle or syllable added to a word to vary or modify its meaning; as *en* in *lengthen*, *fy* in *purify*, and *ize* in *dogmatize*.

The meaning of a word is either primary or secondary. The **primary** meaning of a word is that in which it was *first* or originally applied.

A word can have but one primary, but it may have several secondary meanings. Though in many instances, the primary meaning of a word has been lost, or is no longer felt, yet, in general, it will be found to pervade all its secondary or figurative applications.

ENGLISH OR SAXON PREFIXES.

A, *at*, *to*, or *on*; as *afield*, ¹⁾ that is, *at* or *to* the field; *afoot*, *on* foot; *aboard*, *ashore*, *on* shore.

Be has usually an intensive signification, as *bewail*, *bespread*, *behold*, *besprinkle*. In *because*, *before*, *beside*, and a few other words, it is another form of *by*.

En, **em**, ²⁾ *in* or *into*; as *enrol*, *embalm*; also, *to make*, as in *enable*, *enlarge*, *embark*, *empower*. Compare **im** or **in**.

For, *negative* or *privative*; as *forbid*, to bid *not* or prohibit; *forget*, *not* to *get* or have in recollection.

Fore, *before*; as *foresee*, *forewarn*, *foremost*, *forward*.

Im for **in**, *to make*; as *imbitter*, *impair* (*to make worse*), *impoverish*, *improve* (*to make proof of*), *to make better*. Compare *en*, as in *enable*.

Mis, *not*, *wrong* or *error*; as, *mistake*, *misconduct*.

¹⁾ "How jocund did they drive their team *afield*." — *Gray's Elegy*.

²⁾ *En*. — In some words *en* is used both as a *prefix* and an *affix*; as in *enlighten*, *enliven*, and *embolden*.

Out, *beyond, superiority*; as *outlive, outrun*.

Over, *above, beyond*; as *overcharge, overreach*.

Un, *not*, like the Latin *in*; as *unspeakable, ineffable; unwilling, involuntary*. Prefixed to **verbs** it signifies to *undo*; as in *unlock, untie, unbind*.

Up, motion *upwards*; as *upon, upstart*; also, subversion; as in *upset* (to overthrow).

With, *from, against*, as *withdraw, withhold, withstand*.

LATIN PREFIXES.

A, ab, ¹⁾ *abs, from or away*; as *avert, to turn from; absolve, to free from; abstain, to hold or keep from*.

Ad, *to*; as *advert, to turn to; adverb*, (a part of speech added) *to a verb*.

Note. — For the sake of euphony, the final letter of a preposition in composition usually assumes the form of the initial letter of the word to which it is prefixed. Thus **ad** becomes **ac**, as in *accede*; **af**, as in *affix*; **ag**, as in *aggression*; **al**, as in *allude*; **an**, as in *announce*; **ap**, as in *apply*; **ar**, as in *arrogate*; **as**, as in *assent*; and **at**, as in *attract*.

Amb or Ambi, *about or around*; as *ambient, going round or about*. Compare the Greek prefix *Amphi*.

Ante, ²⁾ *before*; as *antecedent, going before*. Compare the Greek prefix *Anti*.

Bis, bi, *two*; as *bisect, to cut or divide into two; biped, a two-footed animal*.

Circum, circu, *about or around*; as *circumjacent, lying around; circulate, to carry round*.

Cis, *on this side*; as *cisalpine, on this side the Alps*.

Con, *with or together*; as *condole, to grieve with; concourse, a running together*.

Note. — For the sake of euphony, **con** becomes **co**, as in *coheir*; **cog**, as in *cognate*; **col**, as in *collect*; **com**, as in *compress*; and **cor**, as in *correspond*. See note under **Ad**.

¹⁾ *Ab* is the original form—from the Greek prefix *Apo* (*Ap'*).

²⁾ *Ante*. In *Anticipate* the *e* has been corrupted into *i*.

Contra, *against*; as *contradict*, to speak, *against*, or to the *contrary*. **Contra** sometimes takes the form of **counter**, as in *counteract*, to act or work *against*.

De, *down*, *from*, *of*, or *concerning*; as, *descend*, to come *down*; *deduct*, to take *from*; *depart*, to part *from*; *describe*, to write *of* or *concerning*.

Dis, *di*, *asunder*, *apart*, or *separated from*, (and hence its negative force) *not*; as, *disjoin*, *dismember*, *displease*.

E, ¹⁾ **ex**, *out of*, *beyond*; as *emit*, to send *out*; *eject*, to cast *out of*; *extend*, to stretch *out*; *exclude*, to shut *out of*; *exceed*, to go *beyond*.

Note. — In composition, **ex** is changed into **ec**, as in *eccentric*; **ef**, as in *efface*; and **el**, as in *ellipse*. See note under **ad**.

Extra, ²⁾ *out*, *beyond*; as *extraordinary*, *beyond* ordinary.

In, when prefixed to **verbs**, signifies *in* or *into*, *on* or *upon*, *against*; as *inject*, to cast *in* or *into*; *incident*, falling *on* or *upon*; *incite*, to stir up *against*. But when **In** is prefixed to **nouns**, **adjectives**, or **adverbs**, it means *not* or *contrary* to; as *injustice*, *infirm*, *ingloriously*. Compare the English prefix **Un**.

Note. — For the sake of euphony, **in** in composition usually assumes the form of the initial letter of the word to which it is prefixed; as in *ignorance*, *illegal*, *illuminate*, *immortal* *imprison*, *irregular*, *irradiate*. Compare the changes of the Prefixes **Ad** and **Con**.

Inter, *between*; as *intervene*, to come *between*.

Intro, *to the inside*; as *introduce*, to lead *to the inside*.

Juxta, *nigh to*; as *juxtaposition*, position *nigh to*.

Ob, *in the way of*, *against*; as *obvious*, *obstacle*, *object* (to cast or urge *against*).

Note. — In composition, **ob** is changed into **oc**, as in *occur*; **of**, as in *offer*; and **op**, as in *oppress*. See note under **Ad**.

¹⁾ *E*. The original form is *Ex*—from the Greek prefix *Ek* or *Ex*.

²⁾ *Extra* is derived from **ex**, and the termination (*tera*) *tra*, as *Intra*, from **in**. Compare, also, the formation of *Infra* and *Supra*.

Per, *through, thoroughly, or completely*; as *pervade*, to go *through, thoroughly, or completely*; *perfect, thoroughly made, or complete*.

Post, *after*; as *postscript*, written *after*.

Prae, *before*; as *precede*, to go *before*; *predict*, to *foretell*.

Preter, *beyond or past*; as *preternatural* and *preterite*.

Pro, *forth of forward*; also, *for*, or *instead of*; as *protrude*, to thrust *forward*, *pronoun, for or instead of* a noun. See the Greek prefix *Pro*.

Re, *back or again*; as *revert*, to turn *back*; *reform*, to form *again*, to remodel, to improve.

Retro, *backward*; as *retrospect*, a looking *backward* or on the *past*.

Se, *aside or apart*; as *secede*, to go *apart* or withdraw from.

Sine, *without*; as *sinecure* (*without* care or duty).

Sub, *under*; as *subscribe*, to write *under*; *subterranean*, *under* ground; *sublunary*, *under* the moon.

Note. — In composition, **sub** becomes **suc**, as in *succeed*; **suf**, as in *suffer*; **sug**, as in *suggest*; **sup**, as in *suppress*; and **sus**, as in *suspend*. See note under **Ad**, **Con**, and **Ob**.

Subter, *under*; as *subterfuge* (a flying *under* or beneath).

Super, ¹⁾ *above or over*; as *supernumerary*, *above* the number, *superscribe*, to write *above*.

Trans, **tra**, ²⁾ *beyond*; as *transport*, to carry *beyond*; *tramontane*, *beyond* the mountains (the *opposite* side of the *Alps* from Italy).

Ultra, *beyond*; as *ultramarine*, *beyond* the sea; *ultramontane*, *beyond* the mountains (the *Italian* side of the *Alps*).

GREEK PREFIXES.

A (a), *not or without*; as *apathy*, *without* (*pathos*) feeling, *abyss*, *without* a bottom ³⁾.

¹⁾ *Super*. — Hence *sur* (through the French); as in *surbase*, *above* the base, *surtout*, *over* all; *surmount*, *surpass*, &c.

²⁾ *Trans*. — Hence *tres* (through the French); as in *trespass*. Compare *transgress* (*trans*, *beyond*, and *gressus*, a step).

³⁾ "The dark, *unbottomed*, infinite *abyss*." — *Milton*.

Note. — Before a vowel **a** becomes **an**; as, *anarchy*, *without* government; *anonymous*, *without* a name.

Amphi (ἀμφί), *about, on both sides*; as *amphithèatre*, a theatre with seats *all round* or *in a circle*; *amphibious*, living in *both*, that is, *both on land* or *in the water*.

Ana (ἀνά), *again or back*; as *anabaptism*, that is, baptism *again* or a second time; *analyse*, to resolve (into the component parts) *again*; *anachronism*, (dated *back* or *earlier* than the occurrence), an error in chronology.

Anti (ἀντί), *opposite to, in opposition to, against*; as, *ant-àrctic*, *opposite to* the arctic (circle); *antagonist*, one who contends *against* another; *antidote*, something given *against*, or to counteract.

Apo (ἀπό), *from or away*; as *apòstle*, (sent *from*), a missionary; *apòstate*, one who stands *from* or abandons his profession or party; *apòlogy*, a word or discourse, *from*, an excuse or justification. Before an aspirated vowel, *apo* becomes *aph*; as in *aphélion* and *aphaéresis*.

Auto (αὐτός), *self*; as *àutograph*, *self-written* (as „an *auto-graph* letter from the king”); *àutobiògraphy*, a biography or history of one’s *self*.

Cata (κατά), *down*; as *càtaract*, a waterfall.

Dia (διά), *through*; as *diàmeter*, a line passing *through* the middle; *diàgonal*, a line passing *through* a parallelogram from one angle to the opposite; *díalogue*, a discourse (passing from one side to the other) between two.

Ec, ex (ἐκ, ἐξ), *from or out of*, as *eclèctic*, selected *from*, *ècstasy* (standing *out of*), transport or rapture.

En (em) (ἐν), *in or on*; as *endèmic*, *in* or *among* the people; *èmphasis*, force or stress laid *on* a word or words in pronunciation.

Epi (ἐπί), *upon, on, over, to*, as *epidèmic*, *upon* the people or generally prevalent; *èpilogue*, a word or speech *upon*, or immediately after, the play; *epístle*, a writing sent *to*, a letter.

Hyper (ὕπερ), *above*; as *hypercritical*, *over-critical*.

Hypo (ὕπό), *under*; as *hìppocrite*, one who keeps *under* or

conceals his real sentiments; *hyphen*, a mark used to bring two words or syllables *under* or into *one*.

Meta (μετά), *beyond*; as *metaphor*, a carrying of, or applying, a word *beyond* its proper meaning.

Para (παρά), *beside, from*, as *paragraph*, a writing *beside*; *parallel*, *beside* one another; *parasol*, keeping the sun *from*; *paradox*, *from* or contrary to the general opinion; a seeming contradiction, but really true.

Peri (περί), *round about*; as *periphery*. Compare the derivation of *circumference*.

Syn (σύν), *with or together with*; as in *synthesis*, a placing *together*; *synod*, a going *together*, a convention.

Note. — In composition, **syn** becomes **sy**, as in *system*; **syl**, as in *syllable*; and **sym**, as in *sympathy* (compassion).

AFFIXES OR TERMINATIONS.

[It is impossible in every case to ascertain the exact force, or even the general import, of an **affix** or termination. Several of them seem to have different, and even contradictory meanings, and in some cases they appear to be merely *paragogic*, that is, they lengthen the word, without adding to the meaning. Pupils cannot be required to assign a meaning to every **affix** that occurs.]

AFFIXES FORMING NOUNS.

Acy, implies doing. or the thing done; also, state or condition; as *conspiracy*, *legacy*, *celibacy*, *prélacy*.

Age, ion, denote the act of doing; the thing done; state or condition; as *carriage*, *passage*, *marriage*, *bondage*; *immersion*, *derivation*, *cohésion*, *subordination*.

Ana, denotes sayings or anecdotes of; as *Walpoliana*, *Johnsoniana*, that is, sayings or anecdotes of *Walpole* or *Johnson*.

Ard, *state* or *character*; as *dòtard*, one in a *state* of dotage; *sluggard*, one who *slugs* or indulges in sloth; *wizard*, a *wise* man or sage.

Ary, ery or ory, implies a set or collection of; as *library*, *aviary*, *nursery*, *rookery*, *knavery*, *cookery*; *repòsitory*, *dòrmitory*. **Ary**, also implies one who is what the word to which it is attached signifies; as *adversary*, *secretary*.

Dom, implies *dominion* or possession, state or condition; as *kingdom*, *Christendom*, *martyrdom*, *freedom*, *wisdom*.

Er ¹⁾ or **er**, denotes the agent or person acting; as *doer*, *writer*, *actor*, *professor*.

Ee, usually denotes the person in a passive state, or as the object of the action; as (*lessor*, the person who lets or gives a lease) *lessee*, the person to whom a lease is made; *patentee*, *trustee*, *committee* (a number of persons to whom some inquiry or charge is *committed*).

Escence, denotes the state of *growing* or becoming; as, *putrèscence*, *effervescence*.

Ess the feminine termination of a noun; as *princess*, *lioness*, *duchess*, *actress*.

Hood or head, implies state or degree; as *manhood*, *maidenhood* or *head*, *priesthood*.

Ism, denotes sect, party, peculiarity, or idiom; as *Calvinism*, *Jacobitism*, *Græcism*, *vulgarism*.

Ist, denotes skilled in or professing; as *botanist*, *florist*, *artist*, *naturalist*, *linguist*.

Ite, a descendant or follower of; as *Israelite*, *Jacobite*.

Kin, a diminutive affix; as *lambkin*, *manikin*, *pipkin*. See **Ling**.

Ling, cle, el, et, eck, express diminution, endearment, contempt; as *gosling* (*little goose*), *foundling* (a *little child* or infant *found* or abandoned), *darling* (*little dear*), *underling*, *worldling*; *particle*, *satchel*, *pocket*, *hillock*.

Ment, implies the act or doing of; state of; as *acknowledgment*, *contentment*.

Ness, ²⁾ denotes the prominent or distinguishing qualities;

¹⁾ *Er*. — In a few words this termination has become *eer*, *ster*, or *ar*; as *auctioneer*, *engineer*; *gamester*, *spinster*; *liar*, *beggar*.

²⁾ *Ness* properly means a promontory; as *Langness*, the *Naze*, &c. The root is the Latin *nasus*, the *nose*.

state or quality of being ; as *goodness*, *greatness*, *whiteness*, *happiness*.

Rick, ¹⁾ implies rule or jurisdiction ; as *bishoprick*.

Ship, ²⁾ denotes office, state, or condition ; as *chancellorship* ; *lordship*, *fellowship*, *friendship*.

Tide, denotes *time* or event ; as *noontide*, *Whitsuntide*.

Tude, **ity**, or **ty**, implies being or state of being ; as *gratitude*, *multitude*, *fortitude* ; *ability*, *adversity* ; *novelty*, *anxiety*, *honesty*, *liberty*.

Ure, implies doing or being ; state or condition ; as *manufacture*, *capture*, *Scripture*, *exposure*, *displeasure*.

AFFIXES FORMING ADJECTIVES.

Able, **ible**, **ble**, or **ile**, implies having *ability* or power to undergo what the word to which it is attached signifies ; as *portable*, fit or *able* to be carried, *defensible*, that which can, or is *able* to be defended ; *docile*, ³⁾ able or fit to be taught ; *ductile*, that which may be led, or drawn out.

Aceous, having the qualities of, consisting of, resembling ; as *herbaceous*, *testaceous*, *crustaceous*.

Al, **an**, **ary**, **ory**, **ic**, **id**, **ine**, **ile**, denote belonging or pertaining to ; as *natural*, *ducal*, *Europæan*, *collégian*, *Christian* ; *military*, *missionary*, *epistolary* ; *prefatory*, *introductory*, *public*, *theoretic*, *timid*, *lucid* ; *alkaline*, *feminine* ; *infantile*, *mercantile*.

En, denotes *made of* ; as *golden*, *wooden*, *earthen*.

Esque, ⁴⁾ is the French form of *ish* ; as *burlesque*, *grotesque*, *picturesque*.

¹⁾ *Rick*. The root is the Latin *rego*, to rule or govern.

²⁾ *Ship* properly means the *shape* or form (as in *landscape* for *land-shape*), and hence, the prominent or distinguishing quality.

³⁾ *Docile*. — In such cases **ile** is a contraction of *ible*, and must be distinguished from the adjective termination **ile**, which denotes similitude ; as *puerile*, like a boy ; *infantile*, like an infant.

⁴⁾ *Esque*. The root of *esque* (and of *isc*, *isch*, *ish*, &c.) is the Greek termination *ισκος*, as in *basilisk*.

- Ful**, denotes full of, or abounding in; as *hopeful*, *artful*.
Ish, implies belonging to; like or resembling; having a tendency to; as *British*, *Irish*, *boyish*, *greenish*, *thievish*.
Ive, has usually an active signification; as *motive*, *defensive*, *offensive*, *persuasive*, *adhesive*.
Less, denotes privation, or to be without; as *joyless*.
Like or **ly**, denotes likeness or similitude; as *godlike* or *godly*, *gentlemanlike* or *gentlemanly*.
Ose, denotes full of; as *verbose*, full of *words*.
Ous, implies having or consisting of; as *dangerous*, *bilious*.
Some, denotes possessing *some of*, or in *some* degree; as *troublesome*.
Y, implies having or abounding in; as (stone) *stony*, (wealth) *wealthy*, (wood) *woody*.

AFFIXES FORMING VERBS.

- Ate**, in some cases, signifies *to make*; as *abbreviate*¹.
En, denotes to make; as *sweeten*, *moisten*, *blacken*, *brighten*.
 Compare **Fy** and **Ize**.
Fy, denotes to make; as *magnify*, *purify*, *beautify*. See **En**.
Ize, or **ise**, denotes to make; as *barbarize*, *systematize*, *fertilize*, *civilize*; *analyse*, *criticise*, *advertise*.
Ish, implies *to make*; as *publish*, to make *public*; *finish*, to make an *end of*.

AFFIXES FORMING ADVERBS.

- Ly**, an abbreviation of *like* implies *way* or *manner*; as *wisely*, *nobly*, *rapidly*, *skilfully*.
Ward, **wards**, means turned to or in the direction of; as *toward* or *towards* (*turned*, *to*), *forward* (*foreward*), &c.

English Etymologies.

If the pupils have been made thoroughly acquainted with the preceding Prefixes and Affixes, and with the usual pro-

¹ *Ate* is, in many cases, an integral part of the word, and not an *affix*; as *narrate*, *inflate*, *relate*.

cesses of deducing derivative words from their roots, they will have little or no difficulty in English derivation properly so called. But to deduce English primitives from their originals in other languages, as from the Latin and Greek, they would require to be taught, in addition to the Prefixes and Affixes, a large number of what are called Latin and Greek **roots**; and also the forms which they assume in English words, which of course cannot find a place here.

EXAMPLES OF DERIVATIVE WORDS FORMED FROM THEIR ROOTS
BY THE FIRST PROCESS OF DERIVATION, NAMELY, BY THE
ADDITION OF LETTERS OR SYLLABLES.

Root.	Derivative.	Root.	Derivative.
Crack	Crackle	Rough	Ruffle
Cramp	Crumple	Scribe	Scribble
Crumb	Crumble	Set	Settle
Curd	Curdle	Shove	Shovel
Drip	Dribble	Side	Sidle
Fond	Fondle	Spark	Sparkle
Game	Gamble	Stray	Straggle
Gripe	Grapple	Stride	Straddle
Hack	Hackle	Throat	Throttle
Hack	Higgle	Track	Trickle
Nest	Nestle	Wade	Waddle
Nib	Nibble	Whet	Whittle
Pose	Puzzle	Wink	Twinkle
Prate	Prattle	Wrest	Wrestle
Rank	Rankle	Wring	Wrinkle
Roam	Ramble	Wrong	Wrangle

Verbs formed in this manner are called **frequentatives**, because they imply a *frequency* or iteration of actions.

Nouns formed in this manner are called **diminutives**, because they imply *diminution*; as

Root.	Derivative.
Bind	Bundle
Gird	Girdle
Hand	Handle
Lade	Ladle
Nib	Nipple
Round	Rundle
Ruff	Ruffle

Root.	Derivative.
Seat	Saddle
Shoot	Shuttle
Spin	Spindle
Steep	Steeple
Stop	Stoppel
Thumb	Thimble
Tread	Treadle

Some **frequentative** verbs are formed by adding *er* to the primitive word; as

Beat	Batter
Spit	Sputter
Spit	Spatter
Pest	Pester
Climb	Clamber

Gleam	Glimmer
Wend	Wander
Long	Linger
Hang	Hanker
Whine	Whimper

The large classes of nouns which are formed from the past participle, and also, from the old form (*-elh*) of the third person singular of verbs, are examples of the second and third process, that is, of contraction. and interchange of kindred letters.

EXAMPLES OF NOUNS FORMED FROM THE PAST PARTICIPLES OF VERBS.

Root.	Derivative.
Feigned	Feint
Joined	Joint
Waned	Want
Bended	Bent
Rended	Rent
Gilded	Gilt
Weighed	Weight
Frayed	Fright
Mayed	Might
Bayed	Bight
Cleaved	Cleft
Weaved	Weft
Thieved	Theft
Thrived	Thrift

Root.	Derivative.
Shrived	Shrift
Drived	Drift
Gived	Gift
Sieve (<i>sieved</i>)	Sift
Rived	Rift
Grafted	Graft
Haved	Haft
Haved	Heft
Waved	Waft
Deserved	Desert
Held	Hilt
Flowed	Flood
Flowed	Float
Cooled ¹	Cold

¹) The *irregular* verbs, as they are called, are additional examples of this tendency in the language.

EXAMPLES OF NOUNS FORMED BY CONTRACTION FROM THE
OBSOLETE THIRD PERSON SINGULAR OF VERBS.

Healeth	Health	Beareth	Birth
Stealeth	Stealth	Breatheth	Breath
Wealeth	Wealth	Girdeth	Girth
Groweth	Growth	Dieth	Death
Troweth	Troth	Tilleth	Tilth
Troweth	Truth	Smiteth	Smith ¹⁾
Breweth	Broth	Mooneth	Month

Some nouns have been similarly formed from **adjectives**; as

Deep	Depth	Wide	Width
Long	Length	Broad	Breadth
Strong	Strength	Slow	Sloth
Young	Youth	Warm	Warmth
Merry	Mirth	Dear	Dearth

EXAMPLES OF THE INTERCHANGE OF KINDRED LETTERS.

Root.	Derivative.	Root.	Derivative.
Bake	Batch	Nick	Notch
Wake	Watch	Nick	Niche
Hack	Hatch	Stink	Stench
Make	Match	Drink	Drench
Break	Breach	Crook	Crouch
Speak	Speech	Mark	March
Seek	Beseech	Stark	Starch
Poke	Pouch	Milk	Milch
Dike	Ditch	Kirk	Church
Stick	Stitch	Lurk	Lurch

LONG VOWELS USUALLY SHORTENED IN DERIVATIVES.

From the natural tendency in all languages to abbreviations, long sounds in simple or primitive words usually become short in compounds and derivatives. The following are examples :

¹⁾ "Whence cometh **Smyth**, al-be he knight or squire,
Buth from the *smith* that *smiteth* at the fire." — *Verstegan*.

Root.	Derivative.
Cave	Cavity
Game	Gamble
Vale	Valley
Shade	Shadow
Insane	Insanity
Nature	Natural
Prate	Prattle
Grain	Granary
Vain	Vanity
Explain	Explanation
Villain	Villany
Maintain	Maintenance
Break (\bar{a})	Breakfast (\bar{e})
Clean	Cleanse
Clean	Cleanly
Heal	Health
Steal	Stealth
Weal	Wealth
Breathe	Breath
Dear	Dearth
Please	Pleasant
Please	Pleasure
Seam	Sempstress
Zeal	Zealous
Coal	Collier
Foul	Fulsome
Sour	Surly

Root.	Derivative.
Zeal	Zealot
Legend	Legendary
Secret	Secretary
Deep	Depth
Sheep	Shepherd
Spleen	Splenetic
Crime	Criminal
Prime	Primer
Mime	Mimic
Line	Lineal
Vine	Vineyard
Behind	Hinder
Wind	Windlass
Wild	Wilderness
Wise	Wizard
Wise	Wisdom
Michael	Michaelmas
White	Whitbread
White	Whitsunday
Före	Förehead
Know	Knowledge
Holy	Holiday
Import	Important
Goose	Gosling
Boor	Burly
House	Hustings
South	Southerly

ENGLISH DERIVATIVES TO BE TRACED TO THEIR ROOTS.

Abase	Also	Appraise	Barrier
Abate	Allof	Arrears	Batter
Acorn	Amass	Atone	Baste
After	Amount	Bacon	Batch
Alderman	Ant	Bait	Bairn
Aloft	Appal	Bandy	Bauble
Alone	Appease	Barricade	Beaver

Bedlam	Cripple	Fribble	Locket
Beetle	Crouch	Froward	Loiter
Behold	Crotchety	Fulsome	Luggage
Beholden	Crotchety	Gadfly	Lugger
Behalf	Crutch	Gang	Lumber
Bereave	Cud	Gangway	Mayor
Between	Curd	Garner	Meander
Bewilder	Curdle	Gosling	Mote
Billet	Dawn	Grocer	Mould
Board	Deed	Gunnel	Moulder
Bloat	Dismay	Grotesque	Mound
Boggle	Doff	Haft	Naught
Bond	Doom	Hammercloth	Neighbour
Booth	Draught	Hanger	Neither
Bower	Drawingroom	Harrier	Ness
Bow	Drawl	Heed	Net
Bowsprit	Dray	Higgle	Niggard
Bout	Droop	Holster	Nosegay
Brace	Elder	Hood	Nostril
Bread	Elbow	Hound	None
Brinded	Embark	Huswife	Nought
Brood	Embroider	Husband	Nozzle
Burly	Engross	Ill	Offal
Casement	Enlist	Imagine	Offspring
Cashier	Fancy	Indenture	Only
Cavalierly	Farthing	Inform	Ought
Chandler	Fetlock	Jest	Orrery
Chilblain	Fetter	Jovial	Ostler
Clamber	Fifteen	Kidnap	Padlock
Closet	First	Kine	Parboil
Clumsy	Flea	Landscape	Parcel
Comely	Fodder	Lass	Parse
Cooper	Foible	Last	Pattern
Counter	Forestal	Laggard	Pelt
Craven	Forsake	Launch	Perform
Crimple	Fortnight	Launch	Perry
Crumple	Forward	Left	Peruse

Philippie	Salver	Soak	Trice
Pike	Salvage	Sorrel	Trifle
Pipkin	Sample	Staple	Upholsterer
Pocket	Saw	Starch	Utter
Pucker	Scrap	Stud	Veneer
Quagmire	Sharper	Tadpole	Waddle
Quick	Sheen	Tamper	Waver
Rally	Sheriff	Tap	Wild
Reel	Shuttle	Tendril	Warn
Remnant	Skipper	Tight	Whisk
Riddle	Sloven	Twilight	Whisker
Roost	Sneer	Twin	Wizard
Satchel	Snuff	Twist	Wrong

Additional Syntactical Remarks and observations.

1. **Syntax** is that part of Grammar which treats of the proper construction of *sentences*.

2. A **sentence** is an assemblage of words so arranged as to convey a definite *sense* or meaning.

3. In every sentence there must be at least one verb, and a noun or nominative. The nominative of a verb is called its **subject**, because it represents the subject of the *assertion*¹⁾ or affirmation made by the verb. Thus, in the sentence "*Time flies*" — in which an assertion is made about the nominative "*time*," namely, that it "*flies*" — '*Time*' is the subject, and '*flies*' is the verb.

4. Sentences are either **simple** or **compound**. A *simple* sentence contains but one subject, and one verb or assertion about it; as, '*Time flies*.'

5. A *compound* sentence consists of two, or more simple sentences so connected as to form, when taken together, one complete proposition; as, "*Time flies, and death approaches*;"

¹⁾ In every case the verb affirms or denies something about its nominative, and hence some grammarians place the essence of the verb in *asserting*.

The ox knoweth his owner, and the ass his master's crib; but Israel doth not know, my people do not consider." A simple sentence forming part of a compound sentence is called a **clause**.

6. The principal parts of a sentence are the *nominative* or **subject** the **verb** and the **object**, that is, the word or phrase upon which the verb is said to act, when it is *transitive*.

7. The **nominative** of a verb is known by putting the question, *Who?* or *What?* as, '*I love him;*' *Who loves him?* Answ: *I.* '*Time flies;*' *What flies?* Answ: *Time.*

8. The **object** of the verb answers to the question, *Whom?* or *What?* as, '*I love him;*' *Whom do you love?* Answ: *Him.* '*He struck the table;*' *What did he strike?* Answ: *The table.*

9. A **phrase** is an expression consisting of two or more words, and forming, in general, part of a sentence. A *phrase*, also, means an **idiom** or peculiarity of expression.

10. Syntax is divided into two parts, namely, **Concord** and **Government**.

11. **Concord** is the *agreement* of one word with another, in *case*, *gender*, *number*, or *person*.

12. **Government** is the *power* which one word has over another in determining its case or mood.

Rule I. A verb must agree with its nominative in number and person; as, *I am, Thou art, He is, We are.*

In each of these examples the verb evidently agrees with its nominative in number and person. Thus, in '*I am,*' the nominative '*I*' is the *first* person and *singular* number, and so is the verb '*am,*' in '*Thou art,*' *thou* is the *second* person *singular*, and so is the verb '*art;*' and so on with the other examples.

In each of the preceding examples there is a distinct form for the person of the verb, namely, *am, art, is, and are;* but this is the only verb in the English language that varies its form or termination in the different persons. All other verbs remain unchanged, except for the second and third person singular of the present tense, and the second person singular of the past. *Is it only in these three cases, therefore, that this rule can be violated;* and the pupil has only to keep in mind that when *thou* is the

nominative, *st* ¹⁾ must be added to the termination of the verb; as, *Thou lovest*; *thou lovedst*, and when *he*, *she*, *it*, or *any substantive in the singular number* is the nominative, *s* must be added to the verb; as, *He loves*; *she loves*; *John loves*; *the boy loves*.

Observe, that *s* added to a verb makes it singular, while the reverse is the case with nouns or substantives.

1. When the nominative is a **collective noun**, the verb may be either in the singular or plural number, according as *unity* or *plurality* of idea is intended to be expressed, as: *The Aristocracy, they say, is strenuously opposed to it.* (Brougham). *The court has made up its mind.* (James). *Go and complain thy family is young.* (Pope). *The Scottish foe has fired his tent.* (Scott). *The number of independant chiefs and commanders was apt to introduce discords into their councils.* (Scott). *The train has left the hills of Braid.* (Scott).

The Aristocracy set themselves in a mass against the people. (Brougham). *The body of foot were drawn up in array.* (James). *The established clergy of the three kingdoms are supported by public funds, chiefly arising from the fruits of the earth.* (Chambers). *The commonalty in the streets were wild, unshorn, and in rags.* (Thackeray). *By talent, indeed, his family had risen, and were strikingly characterised.* (Bulwer). *On the opposite side of the ditch the King's foot were hastily forming in order of battle.* (Macaulay). *The House of Commons undoubtedly consider their duty to the Crown, as paramount to all other obligations.* (Junius). *How feeble are the two-legg'd kind!* (Gay). *Mankind begin by wonder, and conclude by worship.* (Grattan). *A fairer pair were never seen To meet beneath the hawthorn green.* (Scott). *Our party consist, in a neat Calais job, Of Papa and myself, Mr. Coner and Bob.* (Moore). *His people were loud in their grief.* (Mackenzie). *Will you not trust the people of England? Dou you charge them with dissaffection to the Monarch and to the Constitution under which they live?* (Peel). *The tow'rs of Heav'n are fill'd*

¹⁾ If the verb does not end in *e*, *est* is to be added.

With armed watch, that render all access impregnable. (Milton). Does good company Care to have a man reeling drunk among them? (Chesterfield). One half of the world are ignorant how the other half lives. (Goldsmith). England's host has gain'd the plain; Wheeling their march, and circling still, Around the base of Flodden hill. (Scott). Can parliament be so dead to its dignity and duty, as to give their support to measures thus obtruded and forced upon them? (Chattam). The stork assembly meets, for many a day Consulting deep and various ere they take Their arduous voyage thro' the liquid sky. (Thomson).

2. Two or more singular nouns, connected by the conjunction *and*, are equivalent to a plural, and must therefore have the verb in the plural number; as, *The tailor and the painter often contribute to the success of a tragedy more than the poet.* (Addison). *Prince Harry and Falstaff, in Shakespeare, have carried the ridicule upon fat and lean as far as it will go.* (Ibid).

3. Two or more singular nouns joined by *or* or *nor*, require the verb in the singular number, because the assertion is made only about one of them; as: *When a wife, a child, a relation or a friend, performs what we desire with grumbling and reluctance, the manifest difficulty, which they undergo, must greatly enhance the obligation.* (Fielding.) *Any new accident or object, which comes into such a gentleman's way, gives his wife new pleasure and satisfaction.* (Addison). *It is seldom that either popular condemnation or applause follows where it is merited.* (Cooper). *They succeeded so far in concealing their apprehensions that neither Miss Peyton, nor Frances was aware of their extent.* (Cooper).

4. When the infinitive mood, or a part of a sentence is the nominative, the verb should be in the singular; as: *To chase is one thing — to capture, another.* (Marryat) *To see him and not to spare him was an outrage on humanity and decency.* (Macaulay). *Customs to steal is such a trivial thing.* (Dryden).

5. When a subject or nominative is joined to a participle, without being connected with any other verb in the sentence, it is said to be in the **nominative absolute**; as: *One of the*

executioners rudely endeavouring to assist, she gently checked him. (Robertson). They walked along the road; Scrooge recognising every gate, and post, and tree. (Dickens). Morrison running for Cherbourg, and Pickersgill steering the yacht along shore to the westward. (Marryat). Fear being an apprehension of pain or death, it operates in a manner that resembles actual pain. (Burke).

RULE II. Pronouns must agree with the nouns for which they stand, or to which they relate, in number, gender, and person; as:

James is a good boy, and he is fond of his book.

Alice is a good girl, and she is fond of her book.

John and James are good boys, and they are fond of their books.

This apple looks well, but it is not ripe.

These apples look well, but they are not ripe.

1. When *It* stands for the subject of a proposition, it is applicable to each of the three persons, in both numbers; as, *It is I; it is you; it is she; it is he; it is we; it is they.* Is *it* the king? (refer to page 50:4).

RULE III. The relative agrees with its antecedent in gender, number, and person; as:

'I who am your teacher.' 'Thou who art my pupil.' 'He that is good is happy.' 'You who are my friends.' 'The book which you read.' 'Here am I left to underprop this land; who, weak with age, cannot support myself. (Shak.) 'Few hear, and they will not regard thee, who seemest like a person void of understanding and of a departed interest. (Taylor). 'Thou art he who shalt by right The nation all possess. (Milton). 'Behold, you who dare, that charming virgin. (Spectator). 'Ye, therefore, who love mercy, teach your sons To love it too. (Cowper). 'These children, whom you have taught and loved, will not forget to love you. (Thackeray). 'Can he be fair, that withers at a blast? (Quarles.) 'These accidents are common to all that die. (Taylor). 'He had two sons, of which I was the younger. (Fielding).

1. The relative is nominative to the verb if no nominative comes between it and the verb; as „*Solomon who*

was the son of David, built the temple at Jerusalem." Religion, which made a great feature in the Vendéen war, was not among the motives **which** instigated the army of Montrose. (Scott). *All the shell fishes that produce pearl, produce them not for him.* (Taylor). *The Cock implor'd the Pigeon's flight, Whose wings were rapid, strong, and light.* (Gay.) *Tall are the oaks whose acorns Drop in dark Auser's rill.* (Macaulay).

2. But if a nominative comes between the relative and the verb, the relative is governed by the preposition going before, or the verb or noun following; as, *"He **whom** we worship, by whose gift we live, and by **whom** all things were made, is the Lord."* *This calm of which we are speaking was soon to come to an end.* (Thackeray.) *The character **which** most young men first aim at, is that of a man of pleasure.* (Chesterfield). *I found, **What** weak credulity could have no faith in, A treasure far exceeding these.* (Massinger).

3. The relative is often omitted, particularly in colloquial language; as, *'The person you visited yesterday called this morning;'* *'I received the letter you sent yesterday.'* In these examples *whom* is understood before *'you visited;'* and *which* before *'you sent.'* *There's something tells me, (but it is not love,) I would not lose you.* (Shak.) *Sir, there is a gentleman below desires to see you.* (Sheridan). *There was never law, or sect, or opinion, did so magnify goodness as the Christian Religion doth.* (Bacon). *Our friendship lasted all the time he stayed at Eton.* (Bulwer). (compare page 53:6).

4. The relative **which** has sometimes a clause or a sentence for its antecedent, as, *'John is improving in grammar every day, **which** gives me great pleasure.'*

5. *Who* and *whom* are used with reference to inferior animals, and inanimate objects when they are represented as acting and speaking like rational beings, or, in other words, when they are *personified*.

6. The relative *which* is generally used with reference to **collective** nouns, even though they represent *persons*; as, *'The committee **which** met to-day were divided in their opinions.'*

RULE IV. Every adjective, and every adjective pronoun, belongs to a substantive, expressed or understood; as:

'**Few are happy;**' that is, few *persons* are happy (*persons*). '**This is a fine day;**' that is, this *day* is a fine day. '**That was a bold assertion;**' that is, that *assertion* was a bold assertion. *None but the brave deserves the fair* (Dryden). **Cruel,** dost thou forsake us! (Bulwer). *With the death of her betrothed, Fanny was free.* (Ibid). *The poor nurse was infinitely the more distressed of the two.* (Warren). **These are the tears of thankfulness for that.** (Sheridan). *There points the Muse to stranger's eye The graves of those that cannot die.* (Byron). *His conversation was a thousand times more agreeable to her than the talk of such of her own sex as she now encountered.* (Thackeray). *Their pleasure and their tasks had been the same.* (W. Scott).

RULE V. The distributive pronouns, **each, every, either, neither,** agree with nouns, pronouns, and verbs in the singular number only; as, '*The two kings sat each on his throne;*' '**Every tree is known by its fruit.**' *New beauties rise with each revolving day.* (Thomson). *They stood as signals to the land, Each one a lovely light.* (Coleridge). *Another guest there was, of sense refin'd, Who felt each worth, for every worth he had.* (Thomson). *We were every one on deck.* (Dickens). *He prospered beyond every one's expectations.* (Warren). *She drank to every one of her servants.* (Robertson). *She was cheer'd, But silently a gentle tear let fall From either eye, and wip'd them with her hair.* (Milton). *One little stone in your own shoe or your horse's, suffices to put either to torture.* (Thackeray). *The crow doth sing as sweetly as the lark, When neither is attended.* (Shak). *Things terrestrial wear a different hue, As youth or age persuades; and neither true.* (Cowper). *Few competitions but engender spite; And those the most, where neither has a right.* (Cowper). **Neither could understand the other.** (Bulwer).

In such cases as, '*every ten years;*' '*every hundred men;*' the plural has a collective or singular meaning, **Either** means one of the two, but not both; and **neither** means not either.



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In such cases as, '*every ten years;*' '*every hundred men;*' the plural has a collective or *singular* meaning, **Either** means one of the *two*, but not *both*; and **neither** means *not either*.

RULE VI. *Transitive* verbs and *Transitive* participles govern nouns and pronouns in the objective case; as :

'I love John, and John loves me.' 'He struck us.' 'This is the man whom I love.' 'Seeing him pass, I called him.' *News, which every day arrived from England, of the fury expressed by the Commons against all papists, struck fresh terror into the Irish nation.* (Hume). *He thinks the strangest things (that) you ever heard.* (Dickens). *As he stood there, waiting his arrival, the knocker caught his eye.* (Dickens). *Two men who watched the light had made a fire.* (Dickens).

1. **Participial** nouns formed from transitive verbs follow the same rule; as. '*He injured himself in injuring them.*' (Refer to page 16). *I heard a voice on a sudden hailing me with great familiarity by my christian name.* (Fielding). *Albert and Marguerite concealing themselves as best they could, beheld the fierce and bloodthirsty Prévot with his companions seeking them through the castle.* (James).

2. Transitive verbs are sometimes used for *intransitive* verbs which are analogous in meaning; as, '*You can return the book when you return,*' that is, *come back.* '*The earth turns upon its axis,* that is, *revolves.* *Sir, you do me infinite honour!* (Sheridan). *Mr. Smith, do me the favour to ring the bell.* (Marryat). *Where is the national spirit that ever did honour to this country?* (Fox). *Light reading does not do when the heart is really heavy.* (Bulwer). *The Continent only does for us English people to see — not to inhabit.* (Bulwer). *Now the devil, that told me I did well, Says that this deed is chronicled in hell.* (Shak).

3. A verb in the infinitive mood, a sentence or part of a sentence, may be the object of a transitive verb; as, '*John loves to study;*' '*I know how you have served me.*' '*I could not avoid seeing him.*' *His comrades had plotted an orchard to rob, And ask'd him to go and assist in the job.* (Cowper). *I presently promised to obey his commands.* (Fielding). *I have heard that you struck him three or four times.* (Macaulay).

4. Some verbs in the passive voice, particularly in colloquial language, are followed by an objective case, as :

'He was promised a school;' *'John was offered a fine situation;'* *'He was promised her in marriage;'* *'I was asked a question.* The King, from the earliest period of his reign, was denied the personal enjoyments of a nobleman. (D'Israeli). He was forbidden access to the sacrifices or public worship: he was debarred all intercourse with his fellow citizens. (Hume). He was permitted a liberty in his hours of leisure, of which he availed himself with all the zest of his early habits and adventurous temper. (Bulwer). The King had been taught the Viol di Gamba. (D'Israeli).

RULE VII. Prepositions govern the objective case of nouns and pronouns; as: (See notes, p. 137). *He informed me to whom the different houses belonged that lay in our view.* (Goldsmith). *He brought my little ones a pennyworth of gingerbread each, which my wife undertook to keep for them.* (Ibid). *I ran back as far as I could in one breath without looking behind me.* (Addison).

'Is this for me?' *'Put it on the table.'* *'He went with us.'* *'To whom much is given, of him much shall be required.'*

1. Prepositions are frequently omitted before the words which they govern; as, *'Give (to) him that book;'* *'He taught (to) me geography;'* *'Jane is like (to) her;'* *'It is very near (to) us;'* *'I asked (of) him a question;'* *'Saddle (for) me the ass;'* *'They were banished (from) the realm;'* *'You must not pass (through or beyond) this place.'* Mr. Allworthy answered, in the morning he would provide (for) it a nurse. (Fielding). When Mr. Burchell bought (for) each of the girls a set of ribands, Sophia's was the finest. (Goldsmith). After these visits supper succeeded to find (for) him fresh employments. (Coventry). Yet what thou canst attain which best may serve to glorify thy Maker shall not be withheld (from) thy hearing. (Milton). Who shall find out his uncouth way o'er the vast abrupt, ere he arrive (at) the happy isle. (Ibid). Banished (from) France and excluded (from) Italy, he was desirous of obtaining an asylum in England. (Bulwer). He mourn'd (for) no recreant friend, no mistress coy. (Beattie).

RULE VIII. The verb **to be** has the same case after it that is before it; as:

'I am he.' *'It was she.'* *'It is I.'* *'It is they.'* *'I supposed him to be the person.'* *'He proved himself (to be) my friend on the occasion.'* *'You believed it to be her.'*

1. The positions of the nominatives before and after the verb **to be**, may be reversed without changing the sense. In fact, it is an assertion that they are *identical*; and hence they are put in the same case; as, *'I supposed him to be the person'* is equivalent to, *'I supposed the person to be him.'* *'The captain of the ship is my brother'* is equivalent to. *'My brother is the captain of the ship.* With other verbs it is quite different; as, *'Brutus killed Cæsar.* cannot, without violating the truth, be changed into, *'Cæsar killed Brutus.'*

2. Verbs of *calling, naming, appointing, making, considering, seeming, becoming,* and some others, have the same case after them that they have before them, when both words refer to the same thing. In such cases there is generally an ellipsis; as, *'they appointed him (to be) a great man;'* *'they made him (to be) king;'* *'they called him (by the name of) John;'* *'he died (as or like) a rebel;'* *'Tom struts (as or like) a soldier.'*

RULE IX. One verb governs another that follows it or depends upon it, in the infinitive mood; as, *„Cease to do evil; learn to do well.”*

1. When the infinitive mood implies purpose or motive it is, strictly speaking, not governed by the preceding verb, but by some word or phrase understood before it, such as **for** or **in order**; as, *'I read [for or in order] to learn.'* *'There was none [for] to help.'* *'What went ye out for [or in order] to see?'* There is a similar ellipsis before infinitives which are said to be governed by *nouns and adjectives*; as, *'Your desire [for] to improve is very laudable.'* *'I am anxious [for] to serve you.'*

2. The infinitive is sometimes used absolutely; as:

'To speak the truth, we are all liable to error.' *'To be candid with you, I think you are in the wrong.'* *To be sincere, I*

had strong suspicions that some absurd proposal was preparing. (Goldsmith). *To be sure she could not help being uneasy.* (Fielding). *To confess the truth, he was never master there.* (Fielding). *I too was there, and, sooth to tell, Bedeafen'd with the jangling knell, Was watching where the sunbeams fell, Through the stain'd casements gleaming.* (Scott). *To think what a victory over herself the proud woman must have obtained!* (Bulwer).

3. To, the sign of the infinitive, is omitted after the verbs, **bid, dare, need, make, see, hear, feel, let** (and others in frequent use, as the *auxiliary verbs*). But when these verbs are used in the passive voice, the infinitive following them has generally the sign to expressed; as:

'I bade him do it.' *'I saw him go.'* *'Make them sit down.'* *'I heard him say it.'* *'He dares not do it.'* *'We are bidden to rest.'* *They were seen to go.'* *'He was heard to say.'* *When shall it be morn in the grave, to bid the slumberer awake?* (Macpherson). *Jove bids disperse the murm'ring crowd.* (Gay). *He bade them dwell in peace.* (Cowper). *Bid him make haste, and meet me at the north gate.* (Shak). *The King sent one to bid him withdraw from his Majesty's presence.* (Clarendon).

Ah! dared I speak my feelings! (Byron). *He dared not in more honourable days have risk 'd it.* (Ibid). *They for God's cause their monarchs dare dethrone.* (Dryden). *The steward was summoned up, and he dared not disobey.* (Marryat). *Did they dare obey my phrensy's jealous raving?* (Byron). *Woe to the vassal, who durst pry Into Lord Marmion's privacy!* (Scott). *If I dare eat, or drink, or breathe, or live, I dare meet Surrey in a wilderness, And spit upon him, whilst I say, he lies.* (Shak). *Her kindness and her worth to spy, You need but gaze on Ellen's eye.* (Scott). *I need not muse, Nor gape, nor ponder, which to choose.* (Wolcott). *You need not read it again, sir.* (Sheridan). *O need I tell that passion's name!* (Scott). *I'll make her behave as becomes a young woman.* (Sheridan). *Shall I make Spirits fetch me what I please? Resolve me of all ambiguities? Perform what desperate enterprises I will?* (Marlowe). *That contagious ambition made my own*

veins run more warmly, and my own heart beat with a louder tumult. (Bulwer). *It made him shudder, and feel very cold.* (Dickens). *I made him take the two fowling-pieces, which we always carried, and load them.* (Defoe). *See the furies arise.* (Dryden). *I saw him beat the surges under him.* (Shak). *I saw him come back again.* (Defoe). *Do exactly as you see me do.* (Defoe). *I have seen thee fight.* (Shak). *The master saw the madness rise.* (Dryden). *When shall you see me write a thing in rhyme?* (Shak). *I heard a step come heavily forward.* (Goldsmith). *We heard it ripple night and day.* (Byron). *I heard him shriek, and call aloud for help.* (Marlowe). *She cannot endure, to hear tell of a husband.* (Shak). *We could hear her waken Rife.* (Smollet). *They felt a filial heart Beat high within them at a mother's wrongs.* (Cowper). *I felt my hairs individually bristle.* (Scott). *Now does he feel his title Hang loose about him* (Shak). *I feel this pin prick.* (Shak). *Let us exercise a little more patience.* (Bunyan). *Let them find that out.* (Goldsmith). *'Let us get our boat out, Steward,' said his lordship, 'and help them.'* (Marryat). *Let us arise from the bed of sloth; distribute our time with attention and care; and improve to advantage the opportunities which Providence has bestowed.* (Blair). *Lord marshal, let me kiss my sovereign's hand, And bow my knee before his majesty.* (Shak). *First let me rise and take my sword.* (Butler).

4. *Dare*, when it signifies to challenge or defy, or when the imperfect tense and the past participle are conjugated regularly, is followed by *to*; as: *'I dare thee but to breathe upon my love.'* *Though the Colonel was a brave man and dared to fight yet he was altogether as willing to let it alone.* (Fielding). *Woods whose gloomy horrors yet no desperate foot has dared to pierce.* (Thomson). *He resolved to make an example of the wretch that had dared to lay her iniquities at his door.* (Coventry).

RULE X. When two substantives come together signifying the same thing, they agree in case; as, *The veteran Robles, Seigneur de Belly, a Portuguese officer of eminent Service and high military rank, was also destroyed.* (Motley). *His most illustrious antagonist, the great Condé, remarked after the*

bloody day of Seneff, that the Prince of Orange, had in all things borne himself like an old general, except in exposing himself like a young soldier. (Macaulay).

1. In such cases the latter substantive is said to be in **apposition** to the former; but all such expressions are elliptical. Thus, '*Paul, the apostle,*' means Paul *who was* an apostle—or Paul, *I mean* the apostle.

RULE XI. When an article precedes a **participial noun**, the preposition *of* should follow it; as, '*Much depends on the observing of this rule;*' '*This was a betraying of the trust reposed in him.*' '*I hear the beating of nature's heart.*' (Nicoll). '*Behold the contending of kings.*' (Macpherson). '*Commissions were issued for the levying of new regiments.*' (Macaulay). '*There is nothing, says Plato, so delightful, as the hearing or the speaking of Truth.*' (Addison). (Refer to pages 76, N. 12 and rule vi., note 1. page 194).

1. An **adjective** before a participial noun has the same effect; as, '*This was no unnecessary exciting of the feelings.*' In all such cases, participial nouns are used purely as **nouns**; and as such, they cannot take an **objective** case after them, without the intervention of a **preposition**. In the preceding examples, for instance, '*the observing*' is equivalent to *the observation*; '*a betraying*,' to *a betrayal*; and '*exciting*,' to *excitement*.

2. A **possessive** pronoun, or a substantive in the **possessive** case, before a participial noun, should have the same effect; as, '*Much depends on their observing of this rule;*' '*Much depends on John's observing of this rule.*' In such cases, however, the *of* is often omitted, even by correct writers.

RULE XII. **Adjectives** should not be used as **adverbs**; nor **adverbs** as **adjectives**; as:

'*Indifferent honest;*' '*exceeding careful;*' '*remarkable well;*' '*she dresses very neat;*' '*he acted conformable to his instructions;*' '*such a tall man.*' '*Thine often infirmities;*' '*the soonest time;*' '*she looks very neatly;*' '*the study of syntax should be previously to that of punctuation.*'

1. In poetry, adjectives are frequently used instead of adverbs, and often with propriety and beauty; as, '*We'll teach you to drink deep ere you depart;*' '*Slow rises worth by*

poverty oppressed;" "*A field where weeds and flowers promiscuous shoot;*" "*How jocund did they drive their team afield.*"

2. In cases like the following, the *idiom* of the English language requires that *adjectives* and not *adverbs* should be used: '*I feel sick;*' '*She looks pale;*' '*It tastes sour;*' '*boil the eggs hard;*' '*John came late;*' '*He painted the door black;*' '*Her smiles amid the blushes lovelier show;*' '*Glow not her cheek the fairer?*' — See in the Idioms for additional illustrations.

3. Double comparatives and superlatives are improper; as, '*more wiser;*' '*the worser part;*' '*the lesser angle;*' '*the most strictest sect.*'

RULE XIII. *Adverbs* are, generally speaking, placed *after* verbs, *before* adjectives and other adverbs; and in compound tenses, *between* the auxiliary and the participle; as:

'*John reads well, but he writes badly;*' '*Jane is a very good girl;*' '*The copy which he has just finished, is very carelessly written.*'

RULE XIV. *Conjunctions* connect the same moods and tenses of verbs, and cases of nouns and pronouns; as in the following examples:

'*To do good and to distribute forget not.*' '*He comes and goes as he pleases.*' '*He watched and wept, he prayed and felt for all.*' '*He and she arrived yesterday.*' '*I saw him and her yesterday.*'

1. *Conjunctions* do not always connect the same tenses; as, '*It is, and was, and shall be.*'

2. The conjunction *than* is said to govern the relative in the objective case; as, '*Alfred, than whom a greater king never reigned.*' This arose from mistake, (from supposing *than* to be a *preposition*,) and should not be imitated.

3. "*Some conjunctions,*" it is said, "*require the indicative, some the subjunctive mood;*" but as the conjunctions which usually precede the subjunctive mood, may be used before the *indicative* also, when the sense requires it, the meaning intended to be conveyed should, in every case, determine the form of the expression; as in the following examples:

'*If a man smite his servant, and he die.*' '*Thus, if Eternal*

Justice rules the ball. 'Though he fall, he shall not utterly be cast down.' 'Though our outward man perishes, the inward man is renewed day by day.' 'Though he does submit, he is not convinced.' 'Unless he act prudently he will not accomplish his purpose.' 'Unless he means what he says, he is doubly faithless.'

RULE XV. — The form called the **Subjunctive** mood should be used only when doubt or contingency regarding a *future* action or event is implied—or, in other words, when an *ellipsis*, such as *shall* or *should* cannot be supplied, the **Indicative**, and not the *Subjunctive* form should be used; as:

'If it rains (that is, *is raining*) I will not go;' 'If it rain (should rain) I will not go.' — See pages 123 and 132.

RULE XVI. Interjections have no government; but in phrases, they are followed by the objective case of the pronoun of the first person; and by the nominative case of the pronoun of the second; as, *Ah me!* *Ah! thou unfortunate man!* *O ye hypocrites!*

1. An objective case after an **interjection** is governed by a preposition understood; as, '*Ah me,*' that is, *alas for me;* '*Wo is me,*' that is, *wo is to me.*

2. The nominative after *O* expressed or understood is called the **nominative of address**. *O!* is used for wishing, exclaiming, or addressing: *Oh!* expresses pain, sorrow, or surprise.

RULE XVII. Two **Negatives** in the English language destroy each other, or are equivalent to an *affirmative*; as:

'*Nor did they not perceive him,*' that is, *they did perceive him.* '*Nor have I no money which I can spare.*' '*I cannot drink no more.*' '*He will never be no taller.*'

RULE XVIII. Never use the **past tense** for the **past participle**; nor the **past participle** for the **past tense**; as:

He is came, instead of *he is come;* '*the river is froze,*' instead of *frozen;* '*the window is broke,*' instead of *broken;* '*I had wrote,*' instead of *written;* '*I have chose,*' instead of *chosen;* '*I have sang,*' instead of *sung.*

'*I seen,*' instead of *I saw;* '*I done,*' instead of *I did;* '*I begun,*' instead of *I began;* '*I sung,*' instead of *I sang.*

1. In compound tenses the verb **to be** is used both before the *present* and the *past* participle of other verbs; but the

verb **to have** is used only before *past* participles; as, 'I am *moving*,' 'I am *moved*,' 'I have *moved*,' &c. See pages 91, 92, 93.

2. The other auxiliary verbs, **shall**, **will**, **do**, **may**, **can**, ¹⁾ **must**, are used only before the *infinitives* of other verbs. See page 121.

RULE XIX. In the use of words or phrases which in point of time relate to each other, the order and consistency of time should be observed.

Thus, instead of saying, '*I know the family more than twenty years*,' it should be, *I have known*. '*The Lord hath given, and the Lord hath taken away*.' It should be *gave*. '*What wilt thou, that I should do unto thee? The blind man said unto him, Lord, that I might receive my sight*.' It should be *may*.

I tell you that I will do it if I can.

I told you that I would do it if I could.

I told you that I would have done it, if I could have done it.

1. In such cases, as Dr. Lowth ²⁾ has said, the best rule is, 'to observe what the sense necessarily requires.'

¹⁾ And their past tenses *should*, *would*, *did*, *might*, *could*.

²⁾ "*I thought to have written last week*,' is a very common phrase, the infinitive being in the past tense, as well as the verb which it follows. But it is certainly vicious: for how long soever it is *now* since I *thought*, *to write* was *then* present to me; and must still be considered as present when I bring back that time, and the thought of it. It ought to be, therefore, '*I thought to write last week*.' '*I cannot excuse the remissness of those whose business it should have been, as it certainly was their interest, to have interposed their good offices*.' — (Swift). '*There were two circumstances which would have made it necessary for them to have lost no time*.' — (Swift). '*History painters would have found it difficult to have invented such a species of beings*.' — (Addison). It ought to be *to interpose, to lose, to invent*." — Lowth.

"Consider well what you *mean*, what you *wish to say*, and you will never make a mistake as to the *tenses* of verbs. '*I thought to have heard the noble lord produce something like proof*.' No! My dear James will never fall into the use of such senseless gabble! You would think of *hearing* something; you would think of *to hear*, not *to have heard*; you would *be waiting to hear*, and not like these men, *be waiting to have heard*." — Cobbett.

Hence, except when the sense requires it otherwise, the *present* infinitive and not the *perfect* should follow the *past* tense of another verb; as, '*He intended to go last week,*' not, '*He intended to have gone.*' In this case the first form is correct; because it is meant that his intention, which was *present* at the time specified, was *to go*, not *to have gone*.

Ellipsis.

Ellipsis in grammar is the *omission* of some word or words in a sentence for the sake of brevity and terseness. The omitted word or words must be *understood* by the reader, otherwise he can neither understand the sentence fully, nor parse it grammatically. In cases, therefore, of difficulty or ambiguity the *elliptical* words should be supplied.

Thus instead of saying, '*He was a learned man, he was a wise man, and he was a good man,*' we make use of the **ellipsis**, and say, '*He was a learned, wise, and good man.*'

'*John is as tall as James*' [is]. '*John is taller than I*' [am]. '*John reads better than James*' [reads]. '*John reads as well as James*' [reads]. '*I like him better than her;*' that is, *than I like her.* '*I like him better than she;*' that is, *than she likes him.* '*During our long and costly wars much more was spent each year than could be raised by taxes;*' that is, *much more money was spent in each year than the money would amount to, which could be raised by taxes.* '*I knew him well, and every truant knew;*' that is, *knew him.* See "*Figures of Syntax*" for additional illustrations.

Parsing.

1. The simple meaning of the word **to parse** is, to give or name the **part** of speech of each word in a sentence. This ought to be the first step; and it might be called **Simple Parsing**.

2. In **Simple Parsing** the pupils should be required merely to state what *part of speech* each word is, without saying

any thing more about it, except giving, when called upon, their reasons for so classing it. As the **classification** of words is the foundation of Grammar, and as the importance of laying a good foundation is proverbial, too much attention cannot be paid to **Simple Parsing**.

3. The next step in Parsing should be to what is called **Etymological Parsing**. In this exercise the learner should be required to give, not only the **part of speech** of each word in a sentence, but also to tell every thing that he knows about it—or, in technical language, he should state its individual **accidents**¹⁾. For example, if it be a **noun**, he should state its **number** and **case**; if a **verb**, its **mood**, **tense**, **number**, and **person**; and if an **adjective**, its **degree of comparison**, &c.

4. The third or highest kind of Parsing is what is called **Syntactical Parsing**. In this exercise the learner should be required to give not merely the **part of speech** of each word, and its individual **accidents**, but also, to point out the relation it bears, or the connexion it has, with other words in the sentence. For example, he is to give the **Concord** and **Government** of words, and when required, the appropriate **Rule of Syntax**. It is obvious that both **Simple** and **Etymological** Parsing are included in **Syntactical Parsing**.

5. The best way of arriving at the meaning of a sentence is to analyse it logically, that is, to resolve it into the *subject*, the *predicate*, and the *copula*. This will be easily done, for, generally speaking, a sentence in grammar, and the principal parts into which it is divided, correspond to a logical proposition and its divisions. The subject and predicate of a proposition may be found by asking what is spoken of, and what is said of it; and in this way, the drift or general meaning of a sentence may be at once ascertained.

6. As it is of great importance to save time in a school, the pupils should be accustomed to parse in as succinct a

¹⁾ An accident in logic is the name of a non-essential quality; that is, a quality which a thing may or may not have, without ceasing to be what it is; as *whiteness* in a man.

form as possible. Some form, such as the following, should be fixed upon, and rigidly adhered to. But should the sentence to be parsed contain any difficulty or peculiarity, the teacher will of course question the pupils upon it, and fully explain it to them.

A FORM OF PARSING.

Definite Article—is the definite article particularizing the noun—

Indefinite Article—is the indefinite article referring to the noun—

Proper Noun—is a proper noun, and nominative ¹⁾ case to the verb—[or, in the possessive—or objective case governed by—]

Common Noun—is a common noun; singular [or plural] number and nominative case to the verb—[or in the possessive—or objective case governed by—]

Pronoun—is a pronoun, first [second, or third] person, singular [or plural] number; and nominative ²⁾ case to the verb—[or in the possessive—or objective case governed by—]

Adjective—is an adjective in the—degree; qualifying or referring to the noun—

Verb—is a verb [regular or irregular]; transitive [or intransitive]; present [or past] tense; first [second, or third] person; and singular [or plural] number to agree with its nominative—. [If the verb is in the infinitive mood the pupil should add governed by—] ³⁾

Adverb—is an adverb modifying the verb—[adjective or adverb—[or, used for the purposes of abbreviation, &c].

Preposition—is a preposition, governing the noun [or pronoun]—in the objective case.

¹⁻²⁾ Or it may be nominative of Address—or the nominative Absolute.

³⁾ In the case of a compound tense, the pupil should say 'a compound tense, expressing present [or past] time; and if necessary he should be required to resolve it into its constituent parts. See page 91.

Conjunction—is a conjunction coupling or connecting the words [or clauses]—

Interjection—is an interjection expressing—

A SENTENCE PARSED.

The following sentence, which contains all the parts of speech, is parsed as an example.

„I now see the old man coming; but alas! he has walked with much difficulty.”

I is a pronoun, first person, singular number, and nominative case to the verb *see*.

now is an adverb modifying the verb *see*.

see is an irregular, transitive verb, present tense, and first person singular, to agree with its nominative *I*; and governing the noun *man* in the objective case.

the is the definite article particularizing the noun *man*.

old is an adjective in the positive degree, qualifying the noun *man*.

man is a common noun, singular number, and objective case, governed by the transitive verb *see*.

coming is the present participle of the verb to *come*, referring to the noun *man*.

but is a conjunction connecting the preceding clause with the following.

alas! is an interjection expressing sorrow or sympathy.

he is a pronoun, third person, masculine gender, ¹⁾ and nominative case to the verb *has walked*.

has walked is a compound tense, expressing past time, and agreeing with its nominative *he*. (It is compounded of the third person, present tense of the verb to *have*, and the past or perfect participle of the verb to *walk*).

with is a preposition governing the noun *difficulty* in the objective case.

much is an adjective in the positive degree, qualifying the noun *difficulty*.

¹⁾ Except when the noun or pronoun has a form to express the gender, it is unnecessary to speak of it.

difficulty is a common noun, singular number, and objective case, governed by the preposition *with*.

Even in this simple sentence the teacher will observe some peculiarities on which he should question the pupils—such as the distinction between *older* and *elder*, *oldest* and *eldest*; *much* and *many*, &c.

[As a practical proof of the applicability of the simple and easy method of parsing, recommended in this work, even to what may be considered the highest or most difficult kind of English, we shall parse, *verbatim*, a passage from *Paradise Lost*; which, to avoid the appearance of selection, we shall take from the beginning of the First Book.]

Of man's first disobedience, and the fruit
Of that forbidden tree, whose mortal taste
Brought death into the world, and all our woe,
With loss of Eden, till one greater man
Restore us, and regain the blissful seat,
Sing, heavenly muse!

(O) heavenly muse, sing (thou) of man's first disobedience, and (sing thou of) the fruit, &c. &c.

1. Of . . . Preposition, meaning here, *about* or concerning, and governing '*disobedience*.' (Rule VII).
- man's . . . Noun, com., sing. (but used here in its widest sense, having no article to limit it¹); poss. case, gov. by '*disobedience*.' ('Man's' what? '*Disobedience*').
- first . . . Adjective in the superlative degree, contracted from the old form *fore*, *forer*, *forest*, *for'st* (**first**). 'First' what? '*Disobedience*.' It therefore refers to or qualifies the noun *disobedience*.
- disobedience . Noun, abstract, sing. (not used in the plural); obj. case, gov. by the prep. '*of*.' (Rule VII).

¹) See the observations under **the article**, page 6.

- (Composed of *dis*¹), which has here its *negative* force, and *obedience*].
- and . . . Conjunction, copulative, connecting '*the fruit*,' to the preceding clause. ('And' what? 'The fruit;' that is, 'Sing of man's first disobedience,' and sing, also, of '*the fruit*,' &c.)
- the . . . Definite, article, particularizing '*fruit*,' namely, '*the fruit of that forbidden tree*.'
- fruit . . . Noun, com., sing., obj. case, gov. by the prep, '*of*,' understood. (And sing of '*the fruit*.')
- . Of . . . Prep, gov. '*tree*.' ('Of what? 'Of that forbidden 'tree.' Rule VII).
- that . . . Pronoun, demonstrative, referring emphatically to '*tree*.'
- forbidden . . . Past or perfect participle of the verb *forbid*; used adjectively, and qualifying '*tree*' ('Forbidden' what? '*Tree*.' Composed of the *negative* prefix *for* and the verb *to bid*).
- tree . . . Noun, com., sing., and obj. case, gov. by the prep. '*of*.' (Rule VII).
- whose . . . Pronoun, relative, sing. (because its antecedent, '*fruit*,' is sing.); and poss. case gov. by '*taste*.' ('Whose' what? '*Taste*.' Rule III., Note 2.)
- mortal . . . Adjective, not admitting of comparison; qualifying '*taste*.' ('Mortal' what? '*Taste. Mortal* signifies here *causing death*; in the sentence, '*man is mortal*,' it means *subject to death*).
- taste . . . Noun, common, sing., nominative case to the verb '*brought*.' (Refer to pp. 55 and 120).
3. Brought . . . Verb, trans., irreg., past tense, and third person, sing., to agree with its nom. '*taste*.' (Give all the parts of this verb, namely, the present and past tenses; the participles; and the imperative, and infinitive mood).

¹) Refer to the *Prefixed*, page 173 and 175 for the meaning of *Dis* and *For*.

- death . . . Noun, com., sing., and obj. case, gov. by the trans. verb 'brought.' ('Brought' what? 'Death.')
- into . . . Prep., governing 'world.' (Rule VII.)
- the . . . Def. article, referring to 'world.'
- world . . . Noun, com., sing. number, and obj. case, gov. by the preposition 'into.'
- and . . . Conjunction, connecting, 'all our woe' with 'death,' that is, 'and' *brought* 'all our woe.'
- all . . . Adj. not admitting of comparison; qualifying 'woe.' ('All' what? 'Our woe.')
- our . . . Adj. pronoun of the poss. kind, referring to or qualifying 'woe.'
- woe . . . Noun, common, sing, num. and obj. case, gov. by 'brought,' *understood*.
4. With . . . Prep., connecting 'loss of Eden' with the preceding clause, and governing 'loss.' (Rule VII.)
- loss . . . Noun, com., sing. num. and obj. case, gov. by the prep. 'with.'
- of . . . Prep., governing 'Eden.' (Rule VII.)
- Eden . . . Noun, proper; obj. case gov. by the prep. 'of.'
- till . . . Conjunction. (Refer to page 96.)
- one . . . Numeral adj., referring to or qualifying 'man.' ('One' what? 'Greater man.')
- greater . . . Adj., in the comp. degree; qualifying 'man.' ('Greater' than who? 'The first man Adam, who was of the earth, earthy.')
- man . . . Noun, sing.; and nom. case to some verb understood, as 'came.'
5. Restore . . . May be taken as verb in the infinitive mood ¹), gov.

¹) *Restore*. According to the usual method of parsing, 'restore,' would be in the subjunctive mood governed by the conjunction 'till;' but it is really in the infinitive, governed by a verb understood. In such cases, *shall* or *should* is usually the verb understood; but in this instance, the sense requires a verb in the *past* tense, such as *came*, as it was *after* the Christian era that the poet wrote.

The following lines from 'Paradise Regained,' illustrate the meaning of this passage:—

- us, . . . Pron., 1st per., plur. num., and obj. case gov. by the trans. verb 'restore,' (or rather by the prep. 'to' understood, that is, *came to restore Eden to us, and came to regain for us the blissful seat.*)
- and regain . Conj. and verb. (See the preceding sentence.)
- the blissful . Def. art.; and adj., qualifying 'seat.'
- seat, . . . Noun, com., sing., obj. case, gov. by the trans. verb 'regain.'
6. Sing, ¹⁾ . Verb, imper. mood, second person singular, having 'thou' understood, for its nominative.
- heavenly . . Adjective, qualifying 'Muse.'
- Muse! . . Noun, sing.: nominative of address; O being understood. (Rule XVI. Note 2.)

Sentences to be parsed.

I expect him.
 Thou protectest me.
 He visits daily.
 We assist them.
 You deceive yourselves.
 They encourage her.
 I live here.
 You reside in Dublin.
 He walks too fast.
 Doctors differ.
 I studied grammar.
 Thou lovedst me.
 He accused them.
 Jane blushed.

We completed our journey.
 Ye assisted us.
 The dogs barked.
 Honor the king.
 Prepare your lessons.
 I am not what I was.
 Thou art the man.
 If I were he.
 If it be so.
 You have my book.
 John had it yesterday.
 Thou hadst it.
 She has my pen.
 Thou didst it.

'I who ere-while the happy garden sung,
 By one man's disobedience lost, now sing
Recovered paradise to all mankind.

¹⁾ *Sing.* In accordance with established usage, we have said that 'sing' is in the imperative mood; but it is really in the infinitive, governed by some verb understood, such as '*I invoke*' or '*I entreat*' thee to sing,—or it is my wish that thou shouldst 'sing.' See page 73. Note 3.

He often does it.
 We never do it.
 The gun burst.
 Cast it from thee.
 The mower cuts the grass.
 The mower cut the grass.
 We built a house.
 Jane rang the bell.
 They rent their garments.
 She fed the lamb.
 You misled us.
 We slept too long.
 I meant it not.
 John tore his clothes.
 Bear and forbear.
 The dog bit his leg.
 You hid it there.
 He smote him thrice.
 It froze last night.
 Thou sawest him.
 Thou seest me.
 The corn grew there.
 That mill ground it.
 Know yourselves.
 You took it.
 That boy broke the window.

The bird flew away.
 He got his reward.
 The trees fell yesterday.
 The ship lay in the harbour.
 We caught no fish.
 You held it too tightly.
 James lost his pen.
 I read it twice.
 Read it again.
 A stitch in time saves nine.
 Small leaks sink great ships.
 Little strokes fell large oaks.
 A rolling stone gathers no moss.
 A glutton lives to eat;
 A wise man eats to live.
 Smooth waters run deep.
 'Tis the thunder that frights,
 But the lightning that smites.
 A straw best shows
 How the wind blows.
 Look before you leap.
 Of small account is a fly,
 Till it gets into the eye.
 Praise a fair day at night.
 Make hay while the sun shines.
 Strike the iron while it is hot.

CONNEXION BETWEEN GRAMMAR AND LOGIC.

1. A **proposition** in logic is a sentence in which something is predicated, that is, affirmed or denied of some other thing. It consists of three parts, the **subject**, the **predicate**, and the **copula**. That which is spoken of, is called the *subject* of the proposition; that which is said of it is called the *predicate*; and that which affirms or denies the predicate of the subject is called the *copula*. Thus, in the propositions, '*Sugar is sweet*,' '*John is not tall*,' the words **sugar** and **John** are the



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 You hid it there.
 He smote him thrice.
 It froze last night.
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 Thou seest me.
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 The ship lay in the harbour.
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 Read it again.
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 Little strokes fell large oaks.
 A rolling stone gathers no moss.
 A glutton lives to eat;
 A wise man eats to live.
 Smooth waters run deep.
 'Tis the thunder that frights,
 But the lightning that smites.
 A straw best shows
 How the wind blows.
 Look before you leap.
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1. A **proposition** in logic is a sentence in which something is predicated, that is, affirmed or denied of some other thing. It consists of three parts, the **subject**, the **predicate**, and the **copula**. That which is spoken of, is called the *subject* of the proposition; that which is said of it is called the *predicate*; and that which affirms or denies the predicate of the subject is called the *copula*. Thus, in the propositions, '*Sugar is sweet*,' '*John is not tall*,' the words **sugar** and **John** are the

„subjects”; **sweet** and **tall** are the „predicates;” and **is** and **is not** are the copulas.

2. And when the substantive verb is not expressed, as in the propositions, ‘*The sun shines,*’ ‘*The sun does not shine,*’ the copula **is** or **is not** is included in the signification of the verb used. Thus, ‘shines’ in the first proposition is equivalent to **is shining**; and ‘does not shine’ in the second, is equivalent to **is not shining**.

3. The subject and predicate of a proposition are called the terms of it. A **term** is a word expressing a **notion** or **idea**. And as an idea may be expressed by a single word, or by a combination of words, the terms of a proposition, that is, the subject and predicate of it, may consist each of a single word; as, ‘*Man is mortal;*’¹⁾ ‘*To err is human,*’—Or they may each consist of several words; as, ‘*A variety of pleasing objects is grateful to the eye;*’ ‘*To fear God is the beginning of wisdom.*’ But in every case, no matter how many words are used, the subject of a proposition may be found by asking ourselves, **of what are we speaking?** and the predicate, by **what do we say of it?**

4. As in every proposition the predicate must be either affirmed or denied of the subject, every proposition must, consequently, be either **affirmative** or **negative**. When the predicate is affirmed of the subject, the proposition is said to be **affirmative**; as, ‘*dinner is ready;*’ ‘*the sun shines;*’ and when the predicate is denied of the subject, the proposition is said to be **negative**; as the ‘*dinner is not ready;*’ ‘*the sun does not shine.*’

5. When the predicate is affirmed or denied of the whole of the subject, the proposition is said to be **universal**; as, ‘*all men are mortal;*’ but when the predicate is said only of a part of the subject, the proposition is said to be **particular**; as, ‘*some men are deceitful.*’ In some propositions it is not expressed whether the

¹⁾ In such cases the predicate, strictly speaking, consists of *two* words; for every adjective must refer to a substantive expressed or understood. In those examples the full propositions would be, ‘*Men are mortal beings;*’ ‘*To err is a human failing* or *characteristic.*’

predicate agrees or disagrees with the whole of the subject, or with only a part of it; as, '*men are mortal*;' '*men are deceitful*.' Such propositions are said to be **indefinite**; but in reasoning, they must all be considered either as **universal** or **particular**, because the *predicate* must, in every case, agree or disagree, either with the whole subject, or only with a part of it; that is, in other words, every proposition must really be either **universal** or **particular**.

Hence every **indefinite** proposition is reducible either to the class **universal** or **particular**; and every **singular** ¹⁾ proposition must be considered as a **universal** one, because the predicate either agrees or disagrees with the whole subject; as, '*that mountain is high*;' '*John is not a good boy*.'

PRACTICAL EXERCISES.

[In each of the following examples, the pupils should be required to point out the **subject**, **copula**, and **predicate**; and also, to state whether the proposition is **affirmative** or **negative**, **universal** or **particular**, **indefinite** or **singular**. And in the case of an **indefinite** proposition, they should also state whether it is **really** universal or particular.]

All trees are vegetables. Horses are quadrupeds. No human being is perfect. Some coins are made of silver. Food is necessary to life. Virtue alone is happiness below. Not a drum was heard. Debt is the worst kind of poverty. Dublin is the capital of Ireland. Fools are wise in their own estimation. Stockings are made of cotton. To see the sun is pleasant. One year's seeding is nine years' weeding. To deprive any one of his due is contrary to justice. Well begun is half done. From Dover to Calais is eighteen miles. ²⁾ The moon is up. The storm is over. Boys like to play. Seeing is

¹⁾ That is, a proposition whose subject is a *singular* term or a proper name, as in the examples given above, ('*that mountain*' and '*John*.')

²⁾ That is, *the distance* from Dover to Calais is eighteen miles—or *it* (put for *the distance*) is eighteen miles, &c. See note 1., p. 50.

believing. Thrice is he armed that hath his quarrel just. The good taste of the present age has not allowed us to neglect the study of the English language. The man of piety and virtue secures for himself the approbation, both of God and of his fellow man.

GRAMMATICAL SENTENCES—LOGICAL PROPOSITIONS.

1. Generally speaking, a sentence in grammar, and the principal parts into which it is divided, correspond to a logical proposition and its divisions. In every simple sentence, however short, the three essential parts of a proposition will be found; and in every compound sentence, however long, all the parts or clauses of which it is composed will be found to range naturally under one of these three heads. For every sentence, as well as every proposition, is resolvable into something of which we are speaking, and something which we say about it.

2. When the terms of a proposition consist of a single word each, it is obvious that simple propositions and simple sentences are identical; as, '*Man is mortal*'; '*To err is human*'; '*Time flies*' (= *is flying*). But when the terms of a proposition contain several words or **adjuncts**, the **grammatical** subject or **nominative**, and the **verb** which refers to it, form only parts of the **logical** subject and predicate: for in a logical proposition, which implies reasoning, the idea expressed by all the words or adjuncts is regarded; but in a grammatical sentence there is always a special reference to the agreement and government of the principal words in it; as the **nominative**, the **verb**, and the **object**.

3. In the following proposition, for example, both of the terms consist of several words or adjuncts, and consequently, its division into subject and predicate will not coincide with its division as a sentence: "*Men who are prudent avoid dangers which are obvious*." Here we are speaking, not of men **generally**, but of men **who are prudent**, and consequently the whole of these words must be regarded as the **logical** subject; whereas the word **men** of itself constitutes the **gram-**

matical subject or nominative (to the verb "*avoid*"). And what do we say of men who are prudent? Not merely that they **avoid dangers**, but that they avoid dangers **which are obvious**. Hence the **logical** predicate comprehends the whole of these words; whereas the two words **avoid dangers** form of themselves the **grammatical predicate** and *object*.

Hence it appears that when the terms of a proposition are **simple**, the logical and grammatical subjects and predicates are the same; but when the terms are **complex**, the logical subject and predicate include the grammatical subject and predicate with their **adjuncts**. It should also be noted that though the **terms** of a proposition may be **complex**, the proposition itself may be **simple**, as in the example just given; for though there are several words used, there is but one thing spoken of, and one thing said of it. The same example also shows that a **simple** proposition may be a **compound** sentence; for every sentence is compound which consists of more than one finite verb. See p. 187.

PRACTICAL EXERCISES.

[The pupils should be required to point out the distinction between the *logical* and *grammatical* subjects and predicates in the following propositions or sentences.]

A great book is a great evil. The first Roman emperor was killed in the senate house. Better is a dinner of herbs with love, than a stalled ox and hatred with it. A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush. He that runs may read. Who steals my purse steals trash. The school of experience is the only school for fools. A very little attention will often prevent very great errors. The man who is faithfully attached to his religion may be relied on with confidence. Full many a gem of purest ray serene, the dark unfathomed caves of ocean bear. To know that which before us lies in daily life, is the prime wisdom.

Almost every object that attracts our notice has its bright and its dark side. He who habituates himself to look at the

dark side will sour his disposition, and consequently impair his happiness; while he who constantly beholds it on the bright side, insensibly ameliorates his temper, and in consequence of it, improves his own happiness and the happiness of all around him.

ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

The **analysis** of a sentence consists in resolving it into its constituent parts, and pointing out their several relations, connexions, and dependencies.

In analysing a sentence grammatically we should, in the first place, resolve it into its principal or essential parts; and then point out the adjuncts, if any, which belong to each part. The principal parts of a sentence are, the **nominative**, the **verb**, and the **object**, that is, the word or phrase on which the verb is said to act if it is **transitive**. The nominative is found by asking the question **Who** or **What** with the verb; as in the sentence, '*Alexander conquered Darius*'; **Who** conquered Darius? **Alexander**. And the object is found by asking the question **Whom** or **What**; as, in the same sentence: **Whom** did Alexander conquer? **Darius**. Should there be any other words or clauses in a sentence, they will be found to range naturally as **adjuncts** under one of these three heads. For example, the **nominative** and **object** (which are either **nouns**, or words or phrases equivalent to nouns)¹⁾ may have adjectives qualifying

¹⁾ Words or phrases equivalent to nouns are—1. Personal pronouns. 2. Verbs in the infinitive mood. 3. Participial or substantive phrases. 4. Clauses of sentences. For example, '*My brother cannot attend to-day*.' '*He will come to-morrow*.' '*To rise early conduces to health*.' '*Reading frivolous books is a misapplication of time*.' '*That he has always succeeded does not prove that he always deserved to succeed*.' In the preceding examples, the words or phrases printed in big letters are, in each case, the **subject** of the sentence; and in the examples which follow, the words similarly printed are the **object**. '*I saw your brother yesterday*.' '*I saw him an hour ago*.' '*Learn to do well, and practise how to thrive*.' '*I like living in the country*.' '*That he has always deserved to succeed does not prove that he always succeeded*.' See note 4, under Rule I., p. 190.

them, and relative or explanatory clauses following them; and the **verb** may have an adverb or adverbs modifying it, and also other words or phrases denoting circumstances connected with it; as the **time** ¹⁾ when the action which it signifies, was done; the **place** ²⁾ where it occurred; the **cause** ³⁾ motive, or purpose for doing it, the **instrument** ⁴⁾ or means by which it was effected; and the **manner** ⁴⁾ or mode of accomplishing it. These are the principal **adjuncts** ⁵⁾ by which sentences are enlarged; and as they are all obviously introduced by the speaker or writer for the purpose of extending, limiting, or modifying in some way, the meaning of the **principal parts**, it will be easy to point them out, and to arrange them under their respective heads.

¹⁾ Adjuncts of **Time** answer to the questions, **When? How long? How often?** See the different classes of *Adverbs*, p. 135.

²⁾ Adjuncts of **Place** answer to the questions, **Where? Whither? Whence?**

³⁾ Adjuncts of **Cause** or **Motive** answer to the question **Why?**

⁴⁾ Adjuncts of **Manner** or **Instrument** answer to the question **How?**

⁵⁾ The principal adjuncts of the nominative or subject of a sentence are—1. Adjectives, or words, phrases, or clauses equivalent to adjectives, as '**Prudent men avoid dangers.**' In this sentence *prudent* is an adjunct of the subject; and if we substitute for it "men of **prudence**," or "men **having prudence**," or "men **who are prudent**," the meaning will be the same. 2. Nouns in apposition, as, '*Hector, the Trojan hero, was killed by Achilles.*' 3. Nouns in the possessive case, as, '*The nightingale's song is full of melody.*' Or the noun preceded by **of**, which is equivalent to a possessive, as '*The song of the nightingale is full of melody.*'

And as the **object** in a sentence is either a noun, or a word, phrase, or clause equivalent to a noun, its adjuncts are similar to those of the subject or nominative, as, '*He employed for the purpose prudent men,*' or "men **of prudence**," or "men **having prudence**," or "men **who were prudent**." '*Achilles slew Hector, the Trojan hero.*' '*I admire the nightingale's song,* or the **song of the nightingale.**'

The adjuncts of the verb or predicate in a sentence are either adverbs, or phrases, or clauses of sentences equivalent to adverbs. See page 215.

This is the true basis; both of grammatical and logical analysis. In the former all the words or clauses introduced as adjuncts are connected either with the **nominative**, the **verb**, or the **object**; and in the latter, every adjunct not belonging to the **subject**, is to be considered as forming a part of the **predicate**. In illustration of what we have said, we shall enlarge, by the introduction of *adjuncts*, the simple sentence, „Alexander conquered Darius;” and then show how it may be analysed :

„Alexander the Great, the son of Philip, king of Macedon, in the 330th year before the Christian era, with a small army, completely conquered Darius, the king of Persia, in his own dominions, though he was at the head of almost innumerable forces.”

Now looking over this sentence we perceive that ‘conquered’ is the **verb**, and by asking **who** conquered? we find that ‘Alexander’ is the **nominative**. We have then ‘Alexander conquered,’ and as the verb is **transitive**, we ask **whom** or **what** did Alexander conquer? and the answer will be ‘Darius.’ The word ‘Darius’ is therefore the **object**. Having thus found the three principal or fundamental parts of the sentence, the *adjuncts* which belong to each part may be ascertained by asking. **What** Alexander? ‘Alexander the Great.’ **Who** was he? ‘The son of Philip, king of Macedon.’ **When** did he conquer Darius? ‘In the 330th year before the Christian era.’ Did he conquer him completely or only partially? ‘Completely.’ **By what means** did he conquer Darius? Was it with a small or a large army? ‘With a small army.’ **Who** was Darius? ‘The king of Persia.’ **Where** did Alexander conquer Darius? ‘In his own dominions.’ **Notwithstanding what** did he conquer Darius? ‘Though he was at the head of almost innumerable forces.’

And even without putting such questions formally, it, will be easy, in most sentences, to point out the adjuncts, and to account for their introduction. In the sentence under consideration, it is obvious that the **nominative** is followed by three adjuncts, and the **object** by one, which explain or

determine precisely the „Alexander” who is spoken about, the „Darius” that is meant; and it is equally obvious that all the other words and clauses in it, are adjuncts denoting circumstances connected with the **verb**; as the completeness of the action, the time when, and the place where it occurred, and the means or instrument by which it was effected.

It is true that we often meet with sentences in which it is difficult to determine to which of the parts certain adjuncts belong; but in all such cases, the difficulty arises from a confusion of ideas in the construction of the sentence. It should be observed, however, that in constructing a sentence, we never think of the parts of which it is composed: nor is it at all necessary. Illiterate persons, and even children, construct sentences—and often very correct sentences—without having any technical knowledge of a sentence, or of the parts into which it is divided. But in all such cases, they know **what they are speaking about**, and **what they say of it**; and this is the true basis of the proper construction of sentences as well as of **propositions**.

Contracted sentences.

When in compound sentences, the subject, or predicate, or object of two or more of the clauses is the same, it is unnecessary to repeat it in each case. Such sentences are called **Contracted** sentences. A contracted sentence may have,
1. Two or more subjects, and one verb or predicate. 2. Two or more predicates, and one subject ¹⁾. 3. Two or more objects, and one predicate. Examples of each will be found in the following sentences:

1) It should be noted that a sentence is not necessarily compound because it contains two subjects or two objects, connected by the conjunction *and*. For example, *‘Two and three make five’* cannot be resolved into two sentences; nor *‘He left his house to his wife and daughter.’* In such cases, the two subjects or two objects form a compound subject or object.

Europe, Asia, and North America are in the north latitude. John and James prepare their lessons at home. Asia is in the north latitude and east longitude. John loves and obeys his parents. John loves his brothers, sisters, and school-fellows.

In analysing sentences, the great object is to point out the connexion and meaning of the several parts; and when this is done, the object is fully attained. And in fact, it is only in this general way, that the analysis of sentences is either useful or **practicable**. In putting sentences together, we do not proceed technically or by rule, and therefore we cannot expect to be able to make every sentence that we meet with the subject of an exact analysis. We might, it is true, select sentences in abundance which could be shown to be in exact accordance with almost any form of analysis; but no form of analysis, however perfect it may appear, is worthy of adoption, unless it applies to all sentences; and such a form, it is almost unnecessary to be observe, must be very simple and very general. Such is the form we have just described; and as it applies generally to every sentence, it is unnecessary to select examples.

IDIOMS AND DIFFICULT PHRASES.

It is — it was.

The neuter pronoun **It** is often used at the beginning of a sentence to introduce the subject or nominative. In such cases, **It** has an **emphatic** effect; for, by introducing the subject, it bespeaks, as it were, attention to it. '*It was John who broke the window*' is much stronger than the simple assertion, '*John broke the window*;' in fact, it implies that it was John, *and not any other person*, who broke the window.

In such cases, **It** represents any word or words that can be the subject of a sentence; and hence it is applicable to each of the three persons in both numbers; as, '*It is I who am to blame.*' '*It was they who did it.*'

There is — There are — There was, etc.

Like the pronoun **It**, the adverb **There** is often used at the beginning of a sentence, to introduce the subject or nominative.

Like **It**, too, in a similar position, **There** has an emphatic effect, but in a much less degree. Though it is commonly used in connexion with the verb **to be**, yet there are many other verbs before which it can be used in the same way. In such cases, **There** is idiomatic, and it may be called an **Introductory adverb**. The following are examples:

There is a tide in the affairs of men. There was much water there. There were twenty persons present. There will be a day of reckoning. There lives and works a soul in all things. There needs no argument to prove it. There wanted not persons to stand up. There ran a report.

I had rather.

This phrase has been used by some of the best English writers in the sense of **I'd** or **I would**; as:

I had rather be a dog and bay the moon than such a Roman.

'I had much rather be the slave myself.

And wear the bonds, than fasten them on him.

This phraseology is however incorrect, and should properly not be imitated. **I'd** is considered a colloquial contraction for **I had**, as well as for **I would**; and hence the mistake arose.

The Miss Thomsons — or, The Misses Thomson.

The first form of expression, **The Miss Thomsons**, is much to be preferred, and is, in fact, established by general usage. Analogy too is in favour of it, for when two or more substantives form together one complex name, the possessive case singular, and the nominative plural are formed by adding **s** to the last word; as, '*Beaumont and Fletcher's Plays*;' '*The two Doctor Thomsons*.' Besides the second form, '**The Misses Thomson**,' savours of affectation, and should therefore be avoided.

The three first — or, The first three.

Some critics object to the first form of expression, because, as they observe, there cannot be three first. There can only be one first. The expression is however sufficiently accurate, and usage is decidedly in favour of it. But if things are spoken of with reference to their divisions into **threes, fours**, etc., the second form should be employed.

The house is building — or, The house is being built.

The latter is an affected form of expression, for which no respectable authority can be quoted¹⁾. It should, therefore, be discountenanced.

In such phrases as 'the house is building,' 'the work is printing,' 'building' and 'printing' are generally regarded as present participles used passively; but they are really participial nouns or gerunds, governed by a preposition understood; as, **a building, a printing**, that is, **at or in process of building**. This form of expression, though genuine English, has fallen into disuse of late years. The following are examples: '*While the ark was a preparing.*' *While the flesh was in seething.*' *Forty and six years was this temple in building.*'

'He was the wretched'st thing, when he was young,
So long **a growing.**' — *Shak. Rich. III.*

'The third day comes a frost, a killing frost.
And when he thinks, good, easy man, full surely
His greatness is **a ripening**, nips his shoot.' — *Hen. VIII.*

'There is some ill **a brewing** towards my rest,
For I did dream of money bags to-night.' — *Merch. Venice.*

'He that goes **a borrowing**, goes **a sorrowing.**' — *Old Proverb.*

'A begging,' 'a hunting,' 'a fishing,' 'a wooing,' are similar forms.

¹⁾ Every language has its idioms, which pedants only would attempt to change. For some time past, 'The bridge is *being built*,' 'The tunnel is *being excavated*,' and other expressions of a like kind, have pained the eye and stunned the ear. Instead of 'the stone is falling' and 'the man is dying,' we shall next be taught to say, 'The stone is *being fallen*,' and 'The man is *being dead*.' This incongruous conjunction of a present with a perfect participle, as if for the purpose of producing a confusion of tenses, is an absurdity of very modern origin, and has scarcely yet appeared in any respectable composition. Johnson writes to Boswell, 'My lives are *reprinting*;' Bolingbroke says, 'The nation had cried out loudly against the crime while it *was committing*;' and Milton has, 'While the Temple of the Lord *was building*.' — *Booth's Grammar.*

It came to pass.

The words 'pass' in this phrase is obviously a verb in the infinitive mood. Dr. Johnson, however, thinks that it may be a noun with the article understood; and that it may be explained in this way: '*It came to (the) pass (that).*' The primary meaning of 'to pass' is to step; and hence it came to signify, to move progressively; to arrive or come to, to happen. '*It came to pass,*' that is, the event or thing referred to came or happened in the order of time.

To do nothing but.

When a verb in the infinitive mood follows this phrase, the sign **to** is suppressed; as, 'He does nothing but **complain**; that is, '*He does nothing but to complain—or except complaining.*' '*Those who do nothing but drink, and dance, and sing in the summer, must expect to starve in the winter.*' See p. 75, Nos. 6 and 7.

A wall ten feet high, and two feet thick.

When dimension, number, or time, is specified, the adjective is placed last; as, '*A wall ten feet high;*' '*A child six years old;*' '*An army 20,000 strong.*' In such phrases, the construction is, '*A wall high by ten feet*'—or, as it is said colloquially, '*A wall of ten feet high;*' '*A child of six years old;*' '*An army of 20,000 strong.*'

The arguments were as follow — or, as follows.

The first form is more in accordance with analogy and even with authority¹). Those who regard **as** in such a position as a relative²), explain the phrase in this way: '*The arguments were (those) as [=which] follow;*' '*The argument was (that) as [=which] follows.*' But we should prefer to explain it in this way: '*The arguments were (such) as (those which) follow*'—or, '*(the same) as (those which) follow;*' '*The argument was (such) as (that which) follows*'—or '*(the same) as (that which) follows.*' See p. 53, Nr. 6.

¹) *The most eminent of the kennel are blood-hounds, which lead the van, and are as follow.*' 'The words were **as follow**' — Steele, (Tatler.) 'The words are **as follow**' — Addison, (Spectator.)

²) Among whom are Horne Tooke and Dr. Crombie.

Some authorities ¹⁾ regard the verb **as follows** as impersonal with **it** understood as its nominative. Thus, '*The arguments were as (it) follows.*'

It is worth a guinea.

In such cases, **'worth'** is put for **worthy of**, or the **worth of**; the meaning being, that it is **deserving of—or the value of**.

If you please.

In this colloquial expression, **you** seems to be the nominative to **please**, but it is really the objective after it; the ellipsis being '*If it should please you.*' And in such sentences as, '*He can go if he please,*' the meaning evidently is if **it should please himself**; and hence the correct form would be, '*He can go if it should please him.*'

With — And.

The preposition **with** is sometimes used for the conjunction **and**; as in the following sentences:

'The captain with his men were taken prisoners.' *'The side A, with the sides B and C, compose the triangle.'* *'The king with the lords and commons, constitute an excellent form of government.'* *'His purse, with its contents, were abstracted from his pocket.'* *'Prosperity with humility render their possessor truly amiable.'*

In each of these sentences, the sense obviously requires the verb to be in the **plural** form; but this—unless the preposition **with** can be regarded as a conjunction—involves a violation of the first rule of Syntax. Some authorities, among whom is Lindley Murray, content that the verb in such cases should be *singular*; as, '*The side A, with the sides B and C, composes the triangle.*' This is good grammar, it is true, but very bad sense—or rather no sense at all—as a triangle is not composed of *one* side but of *three*. If such constructions were avoided—and they ought to be avoided—no such difficulties could occur.

¹⁾ Among whom are Campbell (the author of the *Philosophy of Rhetoric* and Lindley Murray.

Directly he heard it, etc.

„There is a mistake very prevalent in common parlance at present, which may here be noticed; namely, the making the adverbs of time, **directly** and **immediately**, do duty as conjunctions. It has been seen by quotations from good writers, that **immediately** cannot take its place at the beginning of a sentence, unless it stand absolutely, and be followed by a preposition, as **immediately upon**, **immediately after**; and without some such arrangement it cannot take its place before the nominative; yet we commonly hear and even read such phrases, as **immediately he heard it**; **directly he arrived**, *the horses were brought*. In all such cases it stands in the room of the conjunction **when** or the phrase **as soon as**, and is particularly offensive to an ear trained to anything like grammatical accuracy.” — *Pickering's Small Books on Great Subjects*. (Gram., p. 110.)

Some authorities regard sentences such as the following as grammatically correct:

The very head and front of my offending

Hath this extent no more.'

'Wherein doth sit the dread and fear of kings.'

In such cases, they argue, that as the two nouns are different names for **one** and the same thing, the verb referring to them should be **singular**.

In such sentences as the following, it has been doubted whether the verb should be in the singular or plural number.

'Every clergyman, and every physician is by education a gentleman.'

Dr. Crombie says: 'There seems to be more ease, as well as more precision, in this than in the other mode of expression.' It is unquestionably, however, more agreeable to analogy to say, **'are gentlemen'**.

When there are two antecedents of different persons, the sense intended to be conveyed must determine with which of them the relative is to agree. Such constructions therefore as the following, are by no means optional:



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When there are two antecedents of different persons, the sense intended to be conveyed must determine with which of them the relative is to agree. Such constructions therefore as the following, are by no means optional:

'I am the man who commands you' — or, *'I am the man who command you.*

In the first sentence, 'I' is the **subject**, and 'the man who commands' the **predicate**; and the sense intended to be conveyed is, *'I am your commander.'* In the second sentence 'I who command' is the **subject**, and 'the man' is the **predicate**; and the meaning is, *I 'your commander' am the man.*

Adjectives used adverbially.

In the following and similar sentences it may be doubted whether the words **sick**, **good**, **hard** etc., should be classed as **adjectives** or **adverbs**¹⁾.

¹⁾ "When it is intended to predicate something of the subject, beside the attribute of the verb, the adjective should be employed; but when it is intended to express merely some modification of the attribute of the verb, we should then use the adverb. The difference may be illustrated by the following examples: — When Gustavus says to his troops, 'Your limbs tread vigorous and your breasts beat high,' he predicates with the act of treading their physical strength; but had he said, 'Your limbs tread vigorously,' it would merely modify their treading, and express an act, not a constitutional habit. The same distinction may be made between saying with Arnoldus in the same play: 'The tear rolls graceful down his visage,' and: 'The tear rolls gracefully.' The former predicates grace of the tear itself, the latter merely of its rolling. When we say, 'He looks sly,' we mean that he has the look or the appearance of being a sly man; when it is said, 'He looks slyly,' we signify that he assumes a sly look. When we say, 'It tastes good,' we affirm that the subject is of a good quality, whether the taste be pleasant or unpleasant; if we say, 'It tastes well,' we affirm the taste of it to be pleasant." — *Dr. Cronbie.*

On this *idiomatic* use of the **adjective**, Webster lays down the following rule: — "Adjectives are used to modify the action of verbs, and to express the quality of things in connexion with the action by which they are produced. For example, in the sentence, 'Open thy hand *wide*,' we observe that *wide*, the attribute of hand, has a connexion with the word *open*; for it is not open thy *wide hand*, but the attribute is supposed to be the *effect* of the act of opening. 'Nor can the modifier *widely* be used; for it is not simply the *manner* of the act which is intended, but the *effect*."

'*I feel sick,*' '*it tastes good,*' '*it feels hard,*' '*it smells sweet,*' '*it boils soft,*' '*it is pronounced short.*' '*The West Indian fleet arrived safe.*' '*The grass it cut close, and the gravel is rolled smooth.*' '*The judge held the scales of justice even.*' '*Our provisions ran short.*'

In all such cases the **adjective** form is correctly used, because the reference is to the **nominative** or **subject** of the sentence, and not to the verb. When the **manner** of the verb is to be indicated, the **adverbial** form should be used. For example, in the sentence, '*She always dresses neat,*' '*neat*' should be **neatly**; while in '*She always appears neat,*' the adjective form is properly used, because it refers to the subject or nominative. See Rule XII., p. 199.

Adjectives modifying each other should be considered as forming one compound adjective; as '*a red hot poker,*' '*a dark yellow colour,*' '*a narrow necked bottle.*' It is obvious that there is but one idea expressed. '*A red hot poker*' does not mean a red and a hot poker.

Words difficult to be classed.

As¹⁾. — When **as** has a strictly connective meaning in a sentence it is a **conjunction**; as, '*As the rain has ceased, I will take a walk.*' But when it *modifies* the words or phrases which it connects, it is an **adverb**. In some cases it seems to be equivalent to a **relative**; but this is in consequence of an *ellipsis*. See page 55.

Above, below, before, after, and several other words of the same class, are often used **adverbially**, and classed accordingly; but if the words which are *understood* after them be supplied, it will be seen that they are, even in such cases, **prepositions**. For example, in the sentence, '*Go you before*

¹⁾ In some cases it is not easy to decide whether **as** should be classed as a **conjunction** or as an **adverb**; nor is it of any great importance. Dr. Johnson classes it as a **conjunction** in all cases, and Webster as **adverb**. See the observations under **adverbs**, **conjunctions**, and **prepositions**, in the preceding part of this work, (pages 133, 137, 158, etc.)

and *I will go after, before,* and *'after'* are used *adverbially*; but if we supply the words that are understood, the *prepositional* character will appear; as, *'Go you before me, and I will go after you.'*

Both. — **Both** is, strictly speaking, an **adjective pronoun**; but when it is followed by **and**, as in the following example, it is called a **conjunction**: *'I both sent and wrote.'*

But¹⁾. — When **but** means **except**, and governs an objective case it is a **preposition**. When it is equivalent to **only**, **merely**, or **no more than**, it is an **adverb**. In all other cases it is a **conjunction**.

For. — When **for** is equivalent to **because**, it is a **conjunction**. In all other cases it is a **preposition**.

Either, Neither. — These words are really **adjective pronouns**; as, *'Take either of them you like.'* *'I will take neither of them.'* They are, however, often used and classed as **conjunctions**; as, *'It is either summer or winter.'* *'It is neither summer nor winter. It is spring.'* In such cases, that is, when they are used as *conjunctions*, **or** corresponds to **either** and **nor** to **neither**.

However²⁾. — This word is generally classed as an **adverb**; but it has sometimes a strictly connective meaning, and is, consequently, in such cases, to be regarded as a **conjunction**.

Much, more, most. — These words are, strictly speaking, **adjectives**; but when they are employed to modify verbs; adjectives, or adverbs, they are called **adverbs**; as in the following examples:

'I like yours much, I like his more; but I like John's most.'
'John is more diligent than James. In fact, he is the most

¹⁾ **But** strictly means **be out**, and **except** means **take out**. In fact, as Horne Tooke has shown, the words now classed as conjunctions, were originally verbs in the imperative mood. In Scotland, the word **but** is still used in its primitive sense. The **but** of a house, for example, means the **be out** or **outer** apartment; as the **ben** means the **be in** or **inner** one.

²⁾ **However.** This word is classed as an *adverb* by Dr. Johnson and Webster. See the note upon *'As.'* page 227.

diligent boy in the school. 'He reads more correctly than you. In fact, he reads most correctly.

Much, **more**, and **most**, are also used as nouns, but if we supply the words that are understood, it will be seen that they are adjectives¹⁾. For example:

'**Much** of it' is equivalent to a **large** or **great part** of it; '**more of it**,' to a **larger part** of it; and '**most of it**,' to the **largest part** of it. And the sentence, "*Where much is given, much is required*," may be resolved in this way, "*Where much advantage or grace has been given, much gratitude is required or expected*."

No. — **No** is an adjective when it refers to a noun; as '*no money*,' '*no friends*.' When it refers to a verb, or, in other words, when it has the force of **not**, it is an adverb; as, '*Were you there?*' '**No**.' (That is, I was *not* there.)

Only. — When **only** qualifies or refers to a noun it is an adjective; as, '*an only son*,' '*the only reason*.' When it modifies a verb, it is an adverb; as, '*He was not killed; he was only wounded*.'

Save. — **Save** is properly a verb in the imperative mood: but it is often used as a preposition; as, '*God save all here, save this wicked wretch*.' See the note on **But**. Page 228.

Since. — When **since** has a strictly connective meaning in a sentence, it is a conjunction; as, '*Since we part, let us part in peace*.' When it governs an objective case it is a preposition; as, '*Since that time I have seen him but once*.' In all other cases it is an adverb; as, '*A short time since*.' (That is, ago.)

That. — This word, according to its meaning in a sentence, may be a demonstrative pronoun, a relative pronoun, or a conjunction. See page 52.

Then. — **Then** is a conjunction when it is used in the sense

¹⁾ These words may be similarly explained when they are used as adverbs. Thus, '*He loved him more* — or, *most*' may be resolved into, '*He loved him in a greater* — or, *in the greatest degree*.'

of therefore; as, '*I am then to conclude that you are determined to do it.*' In all other cases it is an **adverb**.

Therefore. — When **therefore** follows such words as **and**, **it**, **since**, and conveys only the sense of **for that reason**, it is an **adverb**; but when it expresses that sense and also connects, it is a **conjunction**; as, '*He is good therefore (conj.) he is happy.*' '*He is good, and therefore (adv.) he is happy.*'

What with. — **What** followed by **with** in the sense of **partly** may be classed as an **adverb**; as '*What with the roquelaure, and what with the weather, it will be enough to give your honour your death.*'

I'll tell you what. — In the colloquial phrase '*I'll tell you what,*' the ellipsis is the **thing which I shall tell you is so and so**. '*I tell you what, Corporal, I could tear her;*' that is '*I could tear her,*' this is **what** (or **the thing which**) I tell you.

Yet. — **Yet** is a **conjunction** when it corresponds to **though**; as, '*Though he was rich, yet for our sakes he became poor.*' In all other cases it is an **adverb**.

ON THE CHOICE OF PREPOSITIONS.

Certain words and phrases in English require particular or appropriate **prepositions** after them; as:

Abhorrence <i>of</i>	Absent <i>from</i>	Accept <i>to</i>
Abide <i>in</i> ¹⁾	Accede <i>to</i>	Accommodate ³⁾
Abound <i>in</i>	Accept <i>of</i> ²⁾	Accompanied <i>by</i> ⁴⁾

¹⁾ **Abide.** **In** is the usual preposition after **abide**, but others may be used; as '*to abide in the land*' — *at a place* — *with a person* — *by an opinion*. To **abide** in a transitive sense, or without a preposition, means to bear or endure; as, '*I cannot abide his impertinence.*'

²⁾ **Accept.** As, '*Peradventure he will accept of me.*' — Gen. xxxii. 20. It is now however usually without the preposition; as, '*I accept the offer.*'

³⁾ **Accommodate to** means to fit or adapt to; as, '*We ought to accommodate ourselves to our circumstances.*' '**Accommodate with** means to supply or furnish with; as, '*to accommodate a person with apartments.*'

⁴⁾ '**Accompanied by** his friends: '**accompanied with** the following conditions (that is, in connexion *with*.)

Accord <i>with</i> , to ¹⁾	Averse to	Connive at
Accuse <i>of</i> ²⁾	Avert from	Consonant to, <i>with</i>
Acquiesce in	Bear with	Contend <i>with</i> , against
Adapted to	Beg of	Conversant with
Adept in, at	Bestow upon	Convince of
Adequate to	Blame for	Correspond <i>with</i> , to
Adhere to	Blush at	Couple with
Adjourned at ³⁾	Boast of	Debar of, from
Admonish <i>of</i> ⁴⁾	Call on, upon, at, for	Deficient in
Advantage <i>of</i> ⁵⁾	Capable of	Demanded of
Affection for	Care for	Depend upon, on
Affinity between, to	Catch at	Derogate from
Agree <i>with</i> , to, upon ⁶⁾	Coincide with	Derogatory to
Agreeable to	Compare with, to ⁸⁾	Descant on
Alienate from	Compatible with	Destitute of
Alliance with	Comply with	Devolve on, upon
Amazed at	Confide to, in	Differ with, from
Ambitious of	Conformable to	Difference between
Approve of	Congenial to	Disappointed in, of ⁹⁾
Ascendant over	Connect with	Discouragement to
Attend to, upon ⁷⁾	Connexion between	Dispense with

¹⁾ 'Accord to,' means to concede to; to 'accord with,' to agree with. Without a preposition **accord** means to adjust, or make to agree.

²⁾ 'Accused of' a crime: 'accused by' any one.

³⁾ 'Adjourned at' six o'clock; 'adjourned to' Friday next; adjourned for six weeks.'

⁴⁾ Admonished by a superior (reprimanded); 'admonished of' a fault committed; 'admonished against' committing a fault.

⁵⁾ 'Advantage of' a good education; 'advantage of, or over' a person.

⁶⁾ 'Agree with' another; 'agree to' a proposal. To agree about, upon, or for a thing, means to agree with another person regarding it.

⁷⁾ 'Attend to' means to listen to; 'to attend upon,' to wait upon.

⁸⁾ 'Compare with' in respect to quality; 'compare to, by way of illustration; as, "He compared reason to the sun, and fancy to a meteor."

⁹⁾ We are 'disappointed of' a thing when we fail in getting it, after having expected it; and we are often 'disappointed in' a thing when we obtain it, and find that it does not come up to our expectations.

Depart <i>from</i>	Healed <i>of</i>	Profit <i>by</i>
Divide <i>between</i> ¹⁾ ,	Hinder <i>from</i>	Put up <i>with</i>
<i>among</i>	Hold <i>of</i>	Questioned <i>on, upon</i>
Domineer <i>over</i>	Ignorant <i>of</i>	Reconcile <i>to, with</i>
Doubt <i>of</i>	Impose <i>upon</i>	Reckon <i>on, upon</i>
Easy <i>about</i>	Independent <i>of</i>	Reduce <i>to, under</i>
Embraced <i>in, by</i>	Indulgent <i>to</i>	Reflect <i>upon, on</i>
Embarrassed <i>in, by</i>	Initiate <i>in, into</i>	Regard <i>to, for</i>
Emerge <i>from</i>	Inseparable <i>from</i>	Rejoice <i>at</i>
Encouragement <i>to</i>	Insinuate <i>into</i>	Rely <i>upon, on</i>
Endeared <i>to</i>	Insist <i>upon</i>	Repine <i>at</i>
Endued <i>with</i>	Interfere <i>with</i>	Replete <i>with</i>
Engaged <i>to</i>	Inured <i>to</i>	Sensible <i>of</i>
Enjoin <i>upon</i>	Involve <i>in</i>	Similar <i>to</i>
Estimated <i>at</i>	Join <i>with, to</i>	Solicited <i>to, for</i>
Except <i>from</i>	Justification <i>of</i>	Sport <i>with</i>
Exception <i>to</i>	Land <i>at</i>	Sympathise <i>with</i>
Exclusive <i>from</i>	Long <i>for, after</i>	Take <i>upon</i>
Expel, <i>from</i>	Martyr <i>for, to</i>	Taken up <i>with</i>
Expert <i>in</i>	Militate <i>against</i>	Taste <i>for, of</i>
Exposed <i>to</i>	Mistrustful <i>of</i>	Thirst <i>after, for</i>
Fall <i>under, from, on,</i>	Mitigation <i>of</i>	Triumph <i>over</i>
<i>upon</i>	Murmur <i>at, against</i>	Uneasy <i>about</i>
Fawn <i>on, upon</i>	Necessary <i>to</i>	Versed <i>in</i>
Fit <i>for</i>	Need <i>of</i>	Void <i>of</i>
Foreign <i>to, from.</i>	Observance <i>of</i>	Wait <i>upon, on, for</i>
Free <i>from</i>	Opposite <i>to</i>	Want <i>of</i>
Glad <i>of</i>	Overwhelmed <i>with</i>	Weep <i>at, for</i>
Good <i>for</i>	Perceptible <i>to</i>	Witness <i>of</i>
Grieve <i>at, for</i>	Prejudice <i>against</i>	Worthy <i>of</i>
Guard <i>against</i>	Prevail <i>over</i>	Yield <i>to</i>

FIGURES OF SPEECH.

The figures of speech are divided into three classes: 1. The figures of **Orthography**, which are deviations from the usual

¹⁾ **Between** should be used when the division is between **two**; when there are **more** than two, **among**.

form or spelling of words. 2. The figures of **syntax**, which are deviations from the syntactical or regular construction of words. 3. The figures of **Rhetoric**, which are deviations from the literal or usual meaning of words.

FIGURES OF ORTHOGRAPHY.

The figures of Orthography are, Aphær'esis, Pros'thesis, Syn'cope Apoc'ope, Paràgo'ge, Diær'esis, Synær'esis, and Tmesis.

Aphaeresis takes away a letter or syllable from the beginning of a word; as, 'gins for *begins*, 'gainst for *against*.

'The glow-worm shows the matin to be near

And 'gins to pale his uneffectual fire.' — *Shakspeare*.

Prosthesis adds a letter or syllable to the beginning of a word; as *disannul* for *annul*, *unloose* for *loose*, *arise* for *rise*.

They entreated the servants spitefully. — Matt. xxii. 6.

Syncope cuts out a letter or syllable from the middle of a word; as, *lov'd* for *loved*, *se'nnight* for *sevensnight*, *lass* for *ladess*.

Apocope cuts off a letter or syllable from the end of a word; as, *th'* for *the*, *morn* for *morning*, *mob* ¹⁾ for *mobile*.

Paragoge adds a letter or syllable to the end of a word; as *awaken* for *awake*.

Diæresis places two dots over the latter of two vowels, in order that they may be pronounced in two distinct syllables; as, *zoölogy*, *coöperate*, *aërial*.

Synæresis is the contraction of two vowels or of two syllables into one; as *ae* in *Israel*.

Tmesis separates compound words by putting a word between; as, '*To God ward*,' that is, '*toward God*.'

The following contractions are chiefly colloquial: — *Can't* for *cannot*, *won't* for *will not*, *shan't* for *shall not*, *prithee* for

¹⁾ *Mob*. — "I dare not answer that *mob*, *rep.*, *pos.*, *incog.*, and the like, will not in time be looked upon as part of our tongue." — *Addison*. (*Spectator*, No. 135.)

I pray thee, I'd for I would or I had, t'other for the other, o'clock for of the clock, etc.

FIGURES OF SYNTAX.

The figures of Syntax are **Ellipsis**, **Pleonasm**, **Enallage**, **Hyperbaton**. Of these figures the *Ellipsis* is by far the most important. See page 203.

There is scarcely a sentence, however simple, in which there is not an ellipsis of some one or more of the parts of speech; as may be seen by the following examples:

1. **Ellipsis of the Article.** — '*A man, [a] woman, and [a] child came to the door.*' '*A house and [a] garden to be let.*' '*The sun and [the] moon.*' '*The day and [the] hour.*' — But if the expression is intended to be emphatical, the article should be repeated; as, '*I have told you the day and the hour.*' that is, '*not only the day but the hour.*' The indefinite article should also be repeated when one of the words begins with with a vowel, and the other with a consonant; as, '*A garden and an orchard.*' '*An apple and a pear.*'

2. **Of the Noun.** — '*The laws of God and [the laws of] man.*' '*One sun by day, by night ten thousand [suns] shine*' '*He lived near St. Paul's,*' that is, '*St. Paul's church.*'

3. **Of the Adjective.** — When the same epithet is applicable to two nouns joined together, the adjective and article may be omitted before the second. Thus, '*A little man and woman,*' denotes that they are **both** little. But '*A little man and a woman*' implies that the man only is little. The following is incorrect: '*These nations are separated by mutual fears and mountains.*' The adjective '*mutual*' is not applicable to mountains. The same adjective should not be applied to nouns of different numbers; as, '*A magnificent house and gardens*¹⁾).

¹⁾ In some cases, the omission or insertion of the article causes the sense to be different. Thus, '*A learned and good man,*' denotes *one* man; but '*A learned, and a good man*' may mean *two*. '*The green and yellow dresses*' means only one kind of dresses; but '*The green and the*

4. Of the Pronoun. — ‘I love and [I] fear him.’ ‘He watched and [he] wept, he prayed and [he] felt for all.’ ‘My house and [my] garden.’ ‘His father and [his] mother.’ ‘Who steals my purse, steals trash;’ that is, he who etc. ‘She loved me for the dangers I had passed;’ that is, through which I had passed.’ ‘The property I possess is but small;’ that is, which I possess. The omission of the relative occurs chiefly in the objective case. It should never be omitted in the nominative case except when, in the same sentence, and under the same general construction, it has been previously expressed in that case. We may say, ‘The man who spoke and [who] afterwards wrote:’ but not, ‘I had several men [who] died in my ship.’ Nor, ‘He is the man whom you saw and [who] afterwards spoke to you.’ In the two latter sentences who should be expressed.

5. Of the Verb. — ‘Who did it?’ I [did it]. ‘If he come;’ that is, if he [shall or should] come. ‘I went to see and hear him;’ that is, [I went to] hear him. ‘She is young and [she is] handsome.’ ‘I have studied my lesson, but you have not;’ that is, but you have not [studied yours].

6. Of the Participle. — ‘Men loving virtue, [loving] learning and [loving] hospitality.’ This [being] done, proceed.

7. Of the Adverb. — ‘He spoke and acted wisely;’ that is, ‘He spoke wisely and acted wisely.’ ‘Thrice I went and [thrice I] offered my services.’

8. Of the Preposition. — ‘He left [on] this morning, and he will return [in] next month.’ ‘He departed [from] this life.’ ‘He was banished [from] the kingdom.’ ‘He went into the churches and [he went into the] public buildings.’ ‘I went through the lanes and [I went through the] alleys.’ ‘The Lord do that, which seemeth him good;’ that is, ‘which

yellow dresses’ implies two kinds, the one green, and the other yellow. ‘He is a better soldier than scholar,’ means he is more warlike than learned. But ‘He is a better soldier than a scholar’ implies, ‘he is a better soldier than a scholar would prove to be.’

seemeth to him good.'¹⁾ 'It is more elegantly expressed by Solomon than him;' that is, than it is by him. *Wo is me;* that is, *to me.* 'To walk a mile; that is, through — or for the space of — a mile. 'Like [to] him. 'Near [to] him.' A boy [of] six years old.' 'A wall [of] ten feet high'.

9. Of the Conjunction. — 'Were I [if I were] Alexander I would do it.' 'So would I, were I [if I were] Parmenio.' 'If we go and [if] we miss him.' 'As it were;' that is, as if it were. 'I came, [and] I saw, [and] I conquered.' 'He said [that] he would do it.' 'Though I love him, [yet] I do not flatter him.'²⁾

10. Of the Interjection. — 'Oh the villany, [Oh] the shame, [Oh] the perverseness of men!' The ellipsis of the interjunction is not common.

Pleonasm is the use of superfluous or unnecessary words; as, 'I went home full of a great many serious reflections.' In this sentence, the words 'a great many' are superfluous, and should therefore be omitted.

This figure is allowable only when it adds force and perspicuity to a sentence, as 'I have seen it with my eyes.'

*'The spirits of your fathers shall start from every wave,
For the deck it was their field of fame, and ocean was
their grave.'*

Enallage is the use of one part of speech for another; as,

¹⁾ In the following and similar cases it would be better to supply the ellipsis: 'The horse [on which] I rode fell down.' 'In the posture I lay;' better, 'The posture in which I lay.' 'We speak that [which] we do know, and testify that [which] we have seen.' 'There is nothing men are more deficient in than knowing themselves.' It ought to be, 'There is nothing in which men are more deficient than in knowing themselves.' 'I scarcely know any part of natural philosophy [which] would yield more variety and use.'

²⁾ In the following, and similar cases, the ellipsis is improper. If he had read further, he would have found [that] several of his objections might have been spared."

'pretty strong,' 'full well;' in which cases **adjectives** are employed as **adverbs**. In poetry only this figure is allowable; as,

'Slow rises worth by poverty depressed.'

'A little learning is a dangerous thing,

Drink deep, or taste not the Pierian spring.'

Hyperbaton is the transposition of words; as, '*Silver and gold have I none.*' '*Stands Scotland where it did?*' '*Died he not in his bed?*' '*Great is Diana of the Ephesians.*'

'And live there men who slight immortal fame?

'Breathes there a man with soul so dead,' etc.

This figure, when judiciously employed, imparts variety, harmony, and energy to a sentence.

FIGURES OF RHETHORIC.

The principal figures of Rhethoric are **Simile**, **Metaphor**, **Allegory**, **Hyperbole**, **Irony**, **Metonymy**, **Synec'doche**, **Antithesis**, **Apos'trophe**, **Prosopopoea**, and **Climax**.¹⁾

A **Simile** illustrates one object by comparing it with another, to which it bears some point or points of resemblance, however unlike it may be in other respects. Thus, "*The eloquence of Demosthenes was like a rapid torrent; that of Cicero, like a large stream that glides smoothly along with majestic tranquillity.*"

'She never told her love,

But let concealment, like a worm i' the bud,

Feed on her damask cheek.'

The word **simile** denotes **similitude** or likeness; and, it is always known by the sign **like** or **as**. Thus, "*He is like a tree planted by a river*" — or, "*He is as a tree planted by a river.*"

Metaphor. If in a *simile* the sign of comparison (**like** or **as**) is dropped, the figure becomes a **metaphor**. Thus, "*He is a tree planted by a river*" is a metaphor. Again, "*His soldiers are like lions*" is a simile; but, "*His soldiers are*

¹⁾ A figure is called a **trope** when it regards a single word. The principal tropes are *Metaphor*, *Metonymy*, *Synec'doche*. and *Irony*.

lions" is a metaphor. In fact, a *metaphor*, instead of saying that one thing is *like* the other, asserts that it *is* the other. It is therefore a bolder and more energetic figure than the *simile*. The following are correct metaphors: „*Thou art my rock and fortress.*” „*Thy word is a lamp to my feet, and a light to my path.*” „*I will be unto her a wall of fire round about.*”

‘Brave peers of England, pillars of the state.’

— — *Man!*

‘Thou pendulum betwixt a smile and tear.’

The following are examples of incongruous and improper metaphors; as, *‘One of my hands was shot through the nose.’*¹⁾

‘I bridle in my struggling muse with pain.

That longs to launch into a bolder strain.’ — Addison.

To bridle a goddess, as Dr. Johnson observes, is not a very delicate idea. But why must she be bridled? Because she longs to **launch** — an act not usually prevented by a **bridle**. And whither will she launch? Into a nobler **strain**. In the first line she is a **horse**; in the second, a **ship** or a **boat**; and the care of the poet is, to keep his **horse** or his **ship** from **singing**.

The term **metaphorical** is often extended to **figurative** language in general.

Allegory. An allegory is a continuation of metaphors or metaphorical language through several sentences. **Parables** and **fables** are allegories. There is a beautiful allegory in the 80th Psalm, in which under the symbol of a vine the Jewish nation is represented. It begins thus, „*Thou hast brought a vine out of Egypt,*”

The **Hyperbole** is an **excess** of figurative or metaphorical language; as „*Rivers of blood and hills of slain.*”

Irony. By irony we express ourselves in a manner **contrary** to our thoughts, not with a view to deceive, but to add force to our assertions; as, when we say *‘Well done,’* and

¹⁾ So wrote the captain of a ship when giving an account of an engagement, — *Fitzosborne’s Letters*.

mean the reverse. Thus also, a foolish person is often called a **Solomon**; a scolding woman a **lamb**.

Metonymy is a figure which changes or puts the name of one thing for that of another allied to it, or dependent upon it; thus:

1. The cause for the effect; as, *They have Moses and the Prophets;* that is, their works. 2. The effect for the cause; as, *„Cray hairs should be respected;”* that is, **old age**. 3. The contained for the thing contained; as, *‘The kettle boils;’* that is, **the water**. *‘They smote the city;’* that is, **the inhabitants of it**. 4. The sign for the thing signified; as, *‘He assumed the sceptre;’* that is, **the sovereignty**.

Synecdoche puts the whole for a part or a part for the whole; as, when we use the waves for the sea — or, a sail for a ship. It also puts the general for the special, and the special for the general; as, *‘Preach the Gospel to every creature;’* that is, only to every human being. *„Give us our daily bread;’* that is, **all the necessities of life**.

Synecdoche is nearly allied to the preceding figure (**Metonymy**).

Prosopopoeia or **Personification** is that figure by which we address inanimate objects or irrational beings, as if they were persons; as, *‘The sea saw that and fled.’* *‘What aileth thee, O thou sea, that thou fleddest.’* *„The mountains saw thee, O Lord, and they trembled.”*

An **Apostrophe** is a sudden turning off from the subject of the discourse to address some other person or thing; as, *„Death is swallowed up in victory: O Death, where is thy sting!”*

The **Antithesis** is a contrast of words which serve like shades to set off opposite qualities; as,

*‘Though deep, yet clear: though gentle, yet not dull;
Strong, without rage; without o’erflowing, full.’*

*‘In all thy humours, whether grave or mellow,
Thou’rt such a touchy, testy, pleasant fellow —
Hast so much wit, and mirth, and spleen about thee,
There is no living with thee, nor without thee.’*

Climax or **Amplification** rises by regular steps from one circumstance to another, till the thoughts cannot be carried to a greater elevation; as, "*What a piece of work is man! how noble in reason! how transcendent in faculties! in form and moving, how express and admirable! in action, how like an angel! in apprehension, how like a god!*" (Shak.).

The **Anticlimax** diminishes great objects, and renders even such as are diminutive, still more so; as,

*'And thou, Dalhousie, the great god of war,
Lieutenant-general to the Earl of Mar.'*

In addition to the preceding figures there are **Li'totes**, which affirms more strongly by denying the contrary; **Antimonasia**, which puts a proper for a common name, and *vice versa*; **Catachresis**, or abuse of words (that is, words too far wrested from their proper meaning); **Anadiplosis** or **reduplication**, and a few others of less importance.

SYNONYMS.

1. Synonyms are words which have nearly the same meaning, sometimes the same general meaning; as, for example, **mix** and **blend**. Both these words denote a similar general meaning of putting things liquid or resembling liquids together; but when we speak of **mixing** two colours together, and of the colours of the rainbow **blending** with one another, the particular meaning is very different. **Mixing** makes two colours one; **blending** is their gradual, almost imperceptible running into one another.

2. Words which express nearly the same general notion, have often come to express it by very different, sometimes almost opposite roads; as, **unite** and **combine**. These two words are in many uses convertible; they may be exchanged the one for the other. They express, generally, the same act; but they express, particularly, two different sides of it. **Unite** means **to make one**; and **combine**, **to bring two together**. We use **unite** where the notion of the **oneness** resulting from the action is prominent; as the union of England and Scotland

(forming **one** kingdom).. But we say that two men **combined** to annoy another, because there the notion of their **joining** is prominent. **Combination** regards more the **coming together** of two parties; **union** regards more their **oneness** when come together. **Connect**, again, is of more extensive meaning: two houses may be **connected** by a passage but not **combined** or **united**.

3. There are more words which are nearly synonymous (in the strict sense) in English than in other languages, because the English language has often two sets of derivatives, one from the Latin and the other from the Anglo-Saxon, running, so to say, parallel with each other; as, **boyish**, **puerile**; **kingly**, **regal**, or **royal**; **laugh at**, **ridicule**, or **deride**; etc. But even in these cases it will be found, generally speaking, that the Saxon expression is the **stronger** of the two, — the plainer, and therefore the stronger. If we speak of **deriding** a measure, it is not so plain what this **deriding** means, for we do not speak of **riding** in the sense of **laughing**; but if we speak of **laughing at a measure**, each part of the phrase explains itself, and so is stronger: it says what it does say more forcibly. So, **amicable** and **friendly**: the latter is much more forcible. It implies a more positive feeling: hence we speak of an **amicable arrangement** as opposed to a hostile one, but we speak of a **friendly call** without any reference to or thought of an unfriendly one.

4. Sometimes the Latin adjective is used to strengthen or explain the Saxon noun, or the converse. Thus Bulwer (Student): *It was here that Byron was in the **ripest** maturity of his genius.*

5. **Ripe** (the Saxon word) is a much stronger word than **mature** (the Latin word), and hence **ripe** is generally applied literally, to fruit, corn, etc.; and **mature** metaphorically, — to the judgment or the genius, for example.

6. We proceed to give a few illustrations of the distinctions between some words reputed synonymous.

7. The following pairs of words are reputed nearly synonymous: but their difference will be seen from a few passages in which they occur.

Climax or **Amplification** rises by regular steps from one circumstance to another, till the thoughts cannot be carried to a greater elevation; as, „*What a piece of work is man! how noble in reason! how transcendent in faculties! in form and moving, how express and admirable! in action, how like an angel! in apprehension, how like a god!*” (Shak.).

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In addition to the preceding figures there are **Li’totes**, which affirms more strongly by denying the contrary; **Antimonasia**, which puts a proper for a common name, and *vice versa*; **Catachresis**, or abuse of words (that is, words too far wrested from their proper meaning); **Anadiplosis** or **reduplication**, and a few others of less importance.

SYNONYMS.

1. Synonyms are words which have nearly the same meaning, sometimes the same general meaning; as, for example, **mix** and **blend**. Both these words denote a similar general meaning of putting things liquid or resembling liquids together; but when we speak of **mixing** two colours together, and of the colours of the rainbow **blending** with one another, the particular meaning is very different. **Mixing** makes two colours one; **blending** is their gradual, almost imperceptible running into one another.

2. Words which express nearly the same general notion, have often come to express it by very different, sometimes almost opposite roads; as, **unite** and **combine**. These two words are in many uses convertible; they may be exchanged the one for the other. They express, generally, the same act; but they express, particularly, two different sides of it. **Unite** means **to make one**; and **combine**, **to bring two together**. We use **unite** where the notion of the **oneness** resulting from the action is prominent; as the union of England and Scotland

(forming **one** kingdom). . But we say that two men **combined** to annoy another, because there the notion of their **joining** is prominent. **Combination** regards more the **coming together** of two parties; **union** regards more their **oneness** when come together. **Connect**, again, is of more extensive meaning: two houses may be **connected** by a passage but not *combined* or *united*.

3. There are more words which are nearly synonymous (in the strict sense) in English than in other languages, because the English language has often two sets of derivatives, one from the Latin and the other from the Anglo-Saxon, running, so to say, parallel with each other; as, **boyish**, **puerile**; **kingly**, **regal**, or **royal**; **laugh at**, **ridicule**, or **deride**; etc. But even in these cases it will be found, generally speaking, that the Saxon expression is the **stronger** of the two, — the plainer, and therefore the stronger. If we speak of **deriding** a **measure**, it is not so plain what this **deriding** means, for we do not speak of **riding** in the sense of **laughing**; but if we speak of **laughing at a measure**, each part of the phrase explains itself, and so is stronger: it says what it does say more forcibly. So, **amicable** and **friendly**: the latter is much more forcible. It implies a more positive feeling: hence we speak of **an amicable arrangement** as opposed to a hostile one, but we speak of **a friendly call** without any reference to or thought of an unfriendly one.

4. Sometimes the Latin adjective is used to strengthen or explain the Saxon noun, or the converse. Thus Bulwer (Student): *It was here that Byron was in the **ripest maturity** of his **genius**.*

5. **Ripe** (the Saxon word) is a much stronger word than **mature** (the Latin word), and hence **ripe** is generally applied literally, to fruit, corn, etc.; and **mature** metaphorically, — to the judgment or the genius, for example.

6. We proceed to give a few illustrations of the distinctions between some words reputed synonymous.

7. The following pairs of words are reputed nearly synonymous: but their difference will be seen from a few passages in which they occur.

- | | |
|-------------|------------|
| 1. Custom | habit. |
| 2. Silence | stillness. |
| 3. Remember | recollect. |
| 4. Die | expire. |

8. (1) **Custom** is that which produces **habit**. The *habit* of doing a thing is the result of the **custom** of doing it.

„*The habit of doing well is only acquired by the custom of well-doing.*” — Hooker.

Accordingly, we do not speak of acquiring a **custom**. In Chatham's Letters these words occur, — “*Do you rise early? I hope you have already acquired to yourself the habit of doing it; if not, let me conjure you to acquire it.*” **Custom** would not have done here. The *habit* of early rising, we may say, is got only by the **custom** of rising early.

9. (2) **Silence** seems more applicable to persons. **Stillness** to animals or things. We say, for example, *He was remarkably silent*, but, *The air was perfectly still*. When **silent** is used in reference to things, — any object in nature, for example, it seems to personify the object. So, in Dryden,

„*And just before the confines of the wood
The gliding Lethe leads her silent flood.*”

In the following passage of South, the two words are used with singular beauty: —

„*How great is the difference between the thinking and the eating man! Truly as great as between the silence of an Archimedes in the study of a problem, and the stillness of a sow at her wash.*”

10. (3) **Remember** is a general term for simply retaining in the memory. It is the verb answering to the noun **memory**. It is applicable when we say that we know a thing very well, but cannot think of it now. At such times we **remember** the thing, though we cannot **recollect** it. Recollecting is the thinking of, the gathering together and calling up what we have stored away, and so must have in our memory or remember. So it is used by Dr. Johnson: „**Memory**,” he says, „*may be assisted by method, and the decays of knowledge repaired by stated times of recollection.*”

So, we use **remember** in reference to general matters, and **recollect** in reference to details of those matters. Thus, Charles Lamb says, "*I remember L. at school; and can well recollect that he had some peculiar advantages which I and others of his schoolfellows had not.*"

11. (4) The words **die** and **expire** are used with great propriety by South, in the following passages: —

"*When Alexander the Great died, the Grecian monarchy expired with him.*"

"*This was generally accompanied with a speech from the expiring consul.*" — (Middleton).

PUNCTUATION.

Punctuation is the art of dividing written language into sentences, or parts of sentences, by points or stops, for the purpose of marking the different pauses which the sense intended to be conveyed requires.

THE GRAMMATICAL AND RHETORICAL STOPS.

1. We must include in orthography all the marks which are used in presenting language to the eye, although the rules for rightly using them cannot all be given here; nothing more is intended here than to state what they are.

2. The grammatical stops are the **full stop**, (.), or that which marks the end of a sentence; and the stops subordinate to it, namely, the **colon**, (:), the **semicolon**, (;), and the **comma**, (,). In a long sentence, these are often seen, as strict theory leads us to expect, respectively subordinate, — the *colon* to the *full stop*, the *semicolon* to the *colon*, and the *comma* to the *semicolon*. In a short sentence, supposing no such subordination, but only divisions below the principal stop, and that these divisions are marked by commas, strict theory would prescribe that the principal stop should be the next above the *comma*, namely the *semicolon*; or if the principal stop is indicated by the highest of the four points, strict theory would prescribe that those which are the only

divisions below it, should be indicated by *colons*. Such however is not the practice of punctuation, the full stop being used at the end of all sentences, whether capable of division, and subdivision, and still lower division; or capable only of primary, but of no subdivision other than single words. And in this case, the divisions below the full stop are marked by *commas*: so that many sentences of tolerable length are often seen, with no other stops than *commas* during their progress, and the *full stop* at the end.

3. The **dash** (—), and the marks of parenthesis, (), may be used by choice, or of necessity. If by choice, — that is to say, when it would be easy to turn the sentence, or to complete it, so as to give the bare meaning, but not to give the meaning with lively, or with passionate effect, then we may deem these to be rhetorical characters: but if they are employed simply to make the construction of the sentence clear to the eye, and thence to the understanding, we may consider them grammatical characters. The dotted line (...) is sometimes used instead of the *dash*, generally when there is a suppression as well as an interruption. When much is omitted, or a passage is lost, *asterisks* are commonly used.

4. As to the *interrogation point*, (?), and the *exclamation point*, (!), they are rhetorical points whenever properly used; because an interrogative or exclamative sentence, is a figurative method of saying that which, plainly or without passion, would be expressed declaratively. Thus, „*Are you well?*” is a method of saying, — „*I wish you to tell me whether or not you are well:*” — and, „*How delighted I am!*” is a method of saying, „*I am very much delighted.*”

THE OCCASIONAL MARKS IN WRITING, OTHER THAN THE HYPHEN AND THE GRAMMATICAL AND RHETORICAL STOPS.

5. The following marks, not yet noticed occur occasionally in the language presented to the eye: the **accent** ('); the **long quantity**, (—); the **short quantity** (—); the **diæresis**, (· ·); the **apostrophe**, ('); the **caret**, (^); the **marks of quo-**

tation ("); the asterisk (*); the dagger, and double dagger (†, ‡); the bracket, ([]); the paragraph (¶) and the section, (§).

6. The *accent*, and the two *quantities*, denote affections of certain syllables as compared with others; which affections are to be treated of in prosody: where, however, the marks of long and short will be applied, as the genius of the English language requires. The *diæresis* marks the separation of two vowel letters into two syllables; as in saying *Beëlzebul* in four syllables; and the *apostrophe* marks the elision of a syllable; as in saying *hallow'd* in two syllables: or else the apostrophe is a sign of the genitive case; as, in *king's*, *kings'*.

7. The *caret* occurs in manuscript to mark the place where a word inadvertently omitted, is to be placed; as, *Thou shalt ^ steal*: [not.] The *marks of quotation* mark the insertion of borrowed words into the writer's text.

8. The *asterisk*, *dagger*, *double dagger*, and some other similar marks, are used in referring to notes in the margin, or at the foot of the page. The *brackets* include a note inserted among the words of the text.

9. The *paragraph* and *section* mark divisions of discourse, in which some distinct point, or part, of the whole subject, is treated. The marks themselves are seldom used in modern writings: but such divisions as they formerly indicated, are made evident to the eye in modern orthography, by leaving off in any part of a line when a division ends, and by beginning the next division at a little distance from the left hand margin, so that, as compared with the following lines, it may appear indented.

VERSIFICATION.

Versification is that part of Prosody which treats of metrical or poetical composition.

A **Verse** in poetry consists, strictly speaking, of a single line. A **Stanza** consists of two or more verses. Poetry without Rhyme is called **Blank** verse.

A **Foot** is a portion of a verse consisting generally of two, and sometimes of three syllables, one of which is always **accented**. Hence the number of accented syllables in a line determines the number of measures or feet¹⁾.

There are eight kinds of poetic feet; four of two syllables, and four of three.

Dissyllabic feet.

Trisyllabic feet

Iambic, $\cup -$; as $\acute{a}d\acute{o}'re$.

Dactyle, $- \cup \cup$; as $h\acute{o}'l\acute{i}n\acute{e}ss$.

Trochee, $- \cup$; as $r\acute{o}'s\acute{y}$.

Anapest, $\cup \cup -$; as $\acute{i}nt\acute{e}r'ce'de$.

Spondee, $- -$; as $\bar{v}\bar{a}i\bar{n} \bar{m}\bar{a}n$.

Amphibrach, $\cup - \cup$; as $c\acute{o}e'v\acute{a}l$.

Pyrrhic, $\cup \cup$; as $\acute{o}n \acute{a}$ (bank). Tribrach, $\cup \cup \cup$; as (tem) $p\acute{o}r\acute{a}r\acute{y}$.

The feet which are principally used are **iambics**, **Trochees**, and **Anapests**; and hence they are called the **principal** feet. The other feet are called **secondary**, their chief use being to diversify the numbers and improve the verse.

Verse are called **Trocheic**, **iambic**, or **Anapastic**, according to the feet that prevail in them.

If a verse consists of seven feet or measures, it is called **Heptameter**; if of six, **Hexameter**; if of five, **Pentameter**; if of four, **Tetrameter**; if of three, **Trimeter**; and if of two, **Dimeter**. In **dissyllabic** measures the number of syllables in a line is double the number of the feet; and in **trisyllabic**, treble. But in English, as in classical poetry, there is often a syllable *over* the regular measure: this is called **Hypermeter**.

¹⁾ They are called **feet**, because it is by their aid that the voice steps along, as it were, through the verse in a measured pace. This distinction was made by the ancient poets by dividing their syllables into long and short, and ascertaining their quantity, by an exact proportion of time in sounding them; the long being to the short as two to one; and the long syllables, being thus the more important, marked the movement. In English verse this measured movement is marked by the recurrence of **accented** and **unaccented** syllables at equal or regular intervals.

IAMBIC MEASURES.

In all Iambic measures the accents are to be placed on the **even** syllables; as the **second**, the **fourth**, the **sixth**, etc. It may consist of any number of feet from one to seven; but the shorter measures can only be used in connexion with longer measures, as in odes and lyrical pieces.

Trimeter, or Six Syllables.

Aloft' in aw'ful state'

The god-like hero sate.

The sun' was now' withdrawn,'

The shepherds home were sped,

The moon wide o'er the lawn

Her silver mantle spread.

(a) With an additional Syllable, or Hypermeter.

In ro'ses Cu'pid peep'ling

Disturbed a bee a sleeping.

This measure is usually called the **Anacreontic**.

Tetrameter, or Eight Syllables.

The mast'er saw' the mad'ness rise';

His glowing cheeks, his ardent eyes.

That ver'y law' which moulds' a tear',

And bids it trickle from its source;

That law preserves the earth a sphere,

And guides the planets in their course.

(a) With an additional Syllable, or Hypermeter.

Dela'ny sends' a sil'ver stand'ish,

When I' no more' a pen' can brand'ish¹⁾.

The brow'sing cam'els' bells' were tink'ling;

His mother looked from her lattice high,

¹⁾ These measures end with what is called a *Double Rhyme*.

*She saw' the dew' of eve' besprink'ling¹⁾
The pasture green beneath her eye.*

Tetrameter Iambic is the measure chiefly used in songs, sonnets, tales, fables, and other light compositions. It is applicable, however, to almost every subject, „*from grave to to gay, from lively to severe.*” In the delightful poetry of Sir Walter Scott, and in most of the beautiful poems of Lord Byron, it is the principal measure; and in it, also, the humorous doggerel of Butler is composed, though with many ludicrous irregularities.

(a) Pentameter, or Ten Syllables.

*O thou' that with' surpass'ing glo'ry crowned'.
Achil'les' wrath', to Greece' the di'reful spring'.*

(a) With an additional Syllable, or Hypermeter.

*Is that' a dag'ger which' I see' befo're/me!
Worth makes' the man', the want' of it' the fel'low.*

Pentameter Iambic is the most common, and at the same time, the most dignified species of verse in the English language. It is equally applicable to the most familiar, and the most exalted subjects; and it is, perhaps, the only measure that can sustain its dignity without the adventitious ornament of rhyme. It is the measure which is always employed in Heroic and Tragic poetry; and hence it is usually called the **Heroic measure**. Almost all the great poems in the language are composed in this measure; as Milton's „*Paradise Lost*,” Dryden's „*Virgil*,” Pope's „*Homer*,” „*Essay on Man*,” and „*Epistles*,” Thomson's „*Seasons*,” Young's „*Night Thoughts*,” Goldsmith's „*Deserted Village*,” and „*Traveller*,” Campbell's „*Pleasures of Hope*,” etc.”

The **Elegiac Stanza** is a variety of this measure. It consists of four heroic lines rhyming alternately; as in Gray's „*Elegy*.”

¹⁾ These measures end with what is called a *Double Rhyme*.

The **Spenserian Stanza** is also a variety of this measure. It consists of eight heroic lines and an **Alexandrine**; as in "*The Faërie Queene*," "*Childe Harold*," etc.

Hexameter, or Twelve Syllables.

The prais'e of Bac'chus then' the sweet' musi'cian sung'.

A needless Alexandrine ends the song,

Which like' a wound'ed snake' drags its' slow leng'th along'.

This is the measure of Drayton's "*Polyolbion*," and also of French heroic poetry, but is seldom used in the English language, except to diversify heroics, particularly at the close of a period or stanza.

Heptameter, or Fourteen Syllables.

And thrice' he rout'ed all' his foes', and thrice' he slew' the slain'

In this measure there is naturally a pause at the end of the **fourth** foot, and hence it is usually divided into two lines, one of four feet, and the other of three. Thus:

And thrice' he rout'ed all' his foes',

And thrice' he slew' the slain'.

It is of two lines of this measure, so divided, that the old English **Ballad Stanza** is composed; as in "*Cherry Chase*," and Goldsmith's "*Edwin and Angelina*." It is also what is called **Common Measure** in Psalmody. The second and fourth verses of this measure must rhyme; the first and third may or may not.

TROCHAIC MEASURES.

In all Trochaic measures the accents are to be placed on the **odd** syllables; as the **first**, the **third**, the **fifth**, etc. It is well adapted to cheerful and lively subjects; and may consist of any number of feet from one to six. But the shorter measures can only be used to diversify other measures; as in odes and lyrical pieces.

Trimeter, or Six Syllables.

When' around' thee ly'ing

Aut'umn leaves' are dy'ing.

(a) With an additional Syllable, or Hypermeter.

*Come', and trip' it, as' you /go,
On' the light' fantas'tic /toe.*

This is the Trochaic measure most generally employed.

Tetrameter, or Eight Syllables.

*War', he sung', is toil' and troub'le;
Hon'our, but'an empt'y bub'ble.*

(a) With an additional Syllable, or Hypermeter.

*I'dle, aft'er din'ner, in' his' chair,
Sat' a farm'er, rud'dy, fat', and /fair.*

This measure is rarely if ever employed.

Pentameter, or Ten Syllables.

*All' that walk' on foot' or ride' in char'iots,
All' that dwell' in pal'aces' or gar'rets.*

This measure is also very uncommon

Hexameter, or Twelve Syllables.

*On' a mount'ain stretch'd' beneath' a hoar'y wil'low,
Lay' a shep'herd swain', and view'd' the roll'ing bil'low.*

This measure is also very rare.

ANAPESTIC MEASURES.

In all Anapestic measures the accent is to be placed on every **third** syllable, as in the following specimens: —

*In my rage', shall be seen'
The revenge' of a queen'.*

*O ye woods', spread your branch'es apace';
To your deep'est recess'es I fly:'*

*I would hide with the beasts of the chase,
I would vanish from every eye.*

*'Tis the voice' of the slug'gard, I heard' him complain',
You have wak'd' me too soon', I must slumb'er again'.*

It should be noted that *Iambic*, *Trochaic*, and *Anapestic* feet admit occasionally of intermixture with each other, and also with the **Secondary** feet, which produces a pleasing variety in the English versification. The preceding are, however, the principal measures.

SENTENCES TO BE CORRECTED BY THE PUPILS BOTH ORALLY
AND IN WRITING.

(Refer to Rule I. and the Notes under it.)

1. The state of his affairs are very prosperous. 2. The mechanism of clocks and watches were then totally unknown. 3. The days of man is but as grass. 4. There is two or three apples on the table. 5. Is your brother and sister at home? 6. There is, in fact, no servants in the house. 7. A variety of circumstances are to be taken into account. 8. In him were happily blended true dignity with softness of manners. 9. The pyramids of Egypt has stood more than three thousand years. 10. Has the goods been sold and delivered? 11. There's two or thee of them here. 12. Frequent commission of crimes harden the heart. 13. Nothing but vain and foolish pursuits delight some people. 14. What avails the highest professions if the conduct is not in accordance with them? 15. In unity consists the welfare and security of every society. 16. There are, indeed, a great number in attendance. 17. The committee was divided in its opinions. 18. The people has no opinion of their own. 19. Send the multitude away that it may go and buy itself bread. 20. The flock and not the fleece are or ought to be the object of the shepherd's care. 21. The shoal of herrings were immense. 22. Ignorance and idleness leads to vice. 23. John and James reads better than you. 24. Time and tide waits for no man. 25. Patience and perseverance overcomes the greatest difficulties. 26. Out of the same mouth proceedeth blessing and cursing. 27. Either John or James were present. 28. Neither precept nor example are so forcible as habit. 29. Man's happiness or misery are, in a great measure, put into his own hands. 30. Man is not such a machine as a clock or a watch, which move merely as they are moved. 31. He dare not act otherwise. 32. He need not be in such haste. 33. The Cape of Good Hope, as well as many islands in the West Indies, are famous for hurricanes. 34. The peasantry goes barefoot, and the middle sort wears wooden shoes.

(Refer to Rules II. III. IV. and V.)

1. They which seek wisdom will certainly find her. 2. Virtue forces her way through obscurity, and sooner or later it is sure to be rewarded. 3. These are the men which make long speeches. 4. Thou who has heard the matter can give an account of it. 5. Can any person, on their entrance into life, be sure that they will not be deceived? 6. The fruit

tree bearing fruit after his kind. 7. These kind of people are not to be trusted. 8. Those sort of goods is not to my taste. 9. Each of the soldiers had their allowance. 10. On either side of the river there were high banks. 11. You may send either of these six pieces. 12. I have no interests but that of truth and virtue. 13. Solomon was the wisest man whom the world ever saw. 14. The lady and the lapdog which we saw in the carriage. 15. The horse and the man whom I pointed out to you. 16. He is one of the boys that was kept in at school for bad behaviour.

(Refer to Rules VI. VII. and VIII.)

1. He invited my brother and I to spend a week with him. 2. Let thou and I the battle try. 3. He and they we know, but whom are you? 4. Whatever others do, let you and I perform our part. 5. Who do I love so much? 6. Ye only have I known. 7. Your brother sent them and we. 8. They who worth and rank has exalted deserves our respect. 9. He who committed the offence thou should correct. and not I who am innocent. 10. Esteeming themselves wise they became fools. 11. Suspecting not only ye, but they also, I kept away. 12. Who is he married to? 13. Who are you looking for? 14. Who did John go with? 15. Do you know who you speak to? 16. Who does he live with? 17. Who does he serve under? 18. Who did you hear it from? 19. That is a book I am much pleased with. 20. He told it to John and I. 21. Thy brother is like thou. 22. Go before I. 23. Be not afraid; it is me. 24. I am certain that it was neither him nor her who did it. 25. Well I am sure it was not us. 26. Perhaps it was them that did it. 27. Who is there? It is me. 28. Well it might have been her. 29. I believed it to be she. 30. If I were him I would not act so. 31. It was either his brother or him that went. 32. It might have been me or thee. 33. I don't know who it is unless it be him. 34. Whom do you think it is? 35. Who do men say that I am? 36. Let him be whom he may, I am not afraid of him. 37. Who do you take him to be? 38. Is it me that you mean? 39. He supported them whom he thought were true to his party. 40. He supported those who he thought true to his party.

(Refer to Rule IX.)

1. But you will please observe, & c. 2. We shall find the practice accord with the theory. 3. I hope I need not to advise you farther. 4. I dare not to proceed so hastily in the matter. 5. I like to see young persons to conduct themselves with modesty. 6. We heard the thunder to roll over our heads. 7. I bid my servant to do this, and he doeth

it. 8. Make him to sit down. 9. Let me to do that. 10. I perceived him to go. 11. I felt a chilling sensation to creep over me. 12. I desired him call in the evening. 13. He was made suffer many hardships. 14. He was heard say worse things.

(Refer to page 26—31 and to Rules X. XI.)

1. Pompeys pillar. 2. Virtues reward. 3. The birds wing. 4. My ancestors virtue is not mine. 5. A man's manner's often make his fortune. 6. Longinus his Treatise on the sublime. 7. Asa his heart was perfect with the Lord. 8. Helen her beauty was the cause of Troy its destruction. 9. Wisdoms precepts are the good man's delights. 10. He asked his father, as well as his mother's advice. 11. Moses rod was turned into a serpent. 12. For conscience's sake hear me. 13. For pity sake hear me. 14. He is the only son of my uncle's. 15. She is a wife of my cousin's. 16. Are these the houses you were speaking of? Yes, they are them. 17. Who is there? It is me. 18. Although I knew it to be he. 19. It appears to be him. 20. Learning of grammar is considered difficult. 21. The learning any thing requires attention and perseverance. 22. By the exercising our faculties they are improved. 23. You will oblige us by the sending early information on the subject. 24. By observing of this rule you will avoid mistakes. 25. This was a betraying the trust reposed in him. 26. By the observing and the practising truth you will command and deserve esteem. 27. The adjusting the parts required time. 28. Making of hay is a pleasant employment. 29. It is a training minds in the mass. 30. The deserting his friends, instead of supporting of them, was disgraceful to him.

(Refer to Rules XII. and XIII.)

2. It is a remarkable good likeness. 2. I am exceeding well. 3. He did it very reluctant. 4. He was extreme prodigal, and his property is now near exhausted. 5. She always appears amiably. 6. He conducted himself suitable to the occasion. 7. They acted very violent. 8. They lived conformable to the rules of prudence. 9. She dresses very neat. 10. He came agreeable to his promise. 11. He is like to be an exceeding useful member of society. 12. Twelve o'clock is the soonest time I can go. 13. He says express that he saw the transaction. 14. Thine often infirmities. 15. 'Tis more easier to build two chimneys than to maintain one. 16. The tongue is like a race-horse; which runs the faster the lesser weight it carries. 17. The pleasures of the understanding are more preferable than those of the imagination. 18. He is the chiefest among ten thousand. 19. He stood at the extremest verge. 20. Virtue confers the most supreme dignity on man.

(Refer to Rule XIV. and XV.)

1. He gave some to John and I. 2. Her father and her were present. 3. You and us enjoy many privileges. 4. Between him and I there exists the best feelings. 5. My brother and him are good grammarians. 6. It is neither cold or warm. 7. He must go himself, or send his servant. 8. Neither despise the poor or envy the rich. 9. The dog in the manger would not eat the hay himself, nor suffer the hungry ox to eat it. 10. Professing regard, and to act differently mark a base mind. 11. Did he not tell thee his fault, and entreated thee to forgive him. 12. As far as I can judge the book is well written. 13. So is the schoolmaster so is the school. 14. I must be so plain to tell you that you do not understand it. 15. The house is not as commodious as we expected it would be.

1. He will not be pardoned unless he repents. 2. If the house was burnt down, the case would be precisely the same. 3. Though a liar speaks the truth, he will hardly be believed. 4. If the words understood are supplied the true meaning becomes evident. 5. If one went unto them from the dead, they will not repent. 6. Saxony was left defenceless, and if it was conquered, it might be plundered. 7. Though thou sheddest thy blood in the cause, it would but prove thee sincerely a fool. 8. Suppose I was to say, "Light is a body." 9. A certain lady whom I could name, if it was necessary. 10. I cannot say that I admire this construction, though it be much used. 11. If art become apparent it disgusts the reader. 12. Though he were a son, yet learned he obedience by the things which he suffered. 13. If a man have built a house, the house is his. 14. Whether nature or art contribute most to form an orator, is a trifling inquiry.

(Refer to Rule XVII.)

1. He will never be no better. 2. I cannot walk no farther. 3. Covet neither riches nor honour, nor no such perishing things. 4. Nothing never affected her so much. 5. I cannot by no means permit you to do it. 6. He says he cannot give no more. 7. I have received no information on the subject, neither from him, nor from his friend. 8. I am resolved not to comply with the proposal, neither at present, nor at any other time.

(Refer to Rule XVIII.)

1. I have wrote my copy. 2. French is spoke in almost every country in Europe. 3. After the horse was stole, he locked the stable door. 4. He run a great risk of being killed. 5. He has mistook his true interest. 6. The bread that has been eat is soon forgot. 7. The river

was froze over. 8. He begun to be tired doing nothing. 9. He has began in good earnest. 10. John has broke the window. 11. I though it was James that done it. 12. No, I seen John doing it. 13. He was very thirsty, and he drunk with avidity. 14. You who have forsook your friends are entitled to no confidence.

—
(Refer to Rule XIX.)

1. They continue with me now three day. 2. Be that as it will, he cannot justify his conduct. 3. He appeared to me to have been a man of letters. 4. I expected to have received an answer to my letter. 5. You appear to me to have been fatigued. 6. His sickness was so great that I often feared he would have died before our arrival. 7. It was a pleasure to have received his approbation. 8. It would have afforded me still greater pleasure to receive his approbation at an earlier period; but to receive it at all, is a gratification to me. 9. He would have assisted one of his friends if he could do it without injuring the other; but as that could not have been done, he avoided all interference.

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ERRORS IN GRAMMAR PROMISCUOUSLY ARRANGED.

Selected from the best poets and standard prose writers.

1. Ambition is one of those passions that is never satisfied. 2. He stands on one foot, now on another. 3. Each in their turn like Banquo's heroes stalk. 4. A few year's preparations will be necessary. 5. Thus, besides what was sunk, the Athenians took above two hundred ships. 6. Give not me counsel, nor let no comforter delight mine ear. 7. These kind of knaves I know, who in this plainness harbour more craft and more corrupter ends. 8. She cannot love, nor take no shape nor project of affection. 9. This was the most unkindest cut of all. 10. A father or a mother's sister is an aunt. 11. Nought, save the gurglings of the rill were heard. 12. All songsters, save the hooting owl, was mute. 13. For who love I so much. 14. Art thou proud yet? Ay, that I am not thee.

15. A prowling wolf whom hunger drives. 16. Wisest, virtouesest, discreetest, best. 17. The fairest¹⁾ of her daughters, Eve. 18. He trusted to have equalled the Most High. 19. As when the sun new risen. 20. I gained a son; and such a son as all men hailed me happy. 21. Him destroyed, or won to what may work his utter loss. 22. You ought not walk upon a labouring day. 23. Words interwove with sighs found out their way.

¹⁾ That is, the fairest *daughter* of her daughters, which is absurd.

24. He then marched to attack the enemy, whom he saw were crossing the river. 25. To confound things that differ, and to make a distinction where there is no difference, is equally unphilosophical. 26. He was made believe that neither the king's death nor imprisonment could help him. 27. Conceit in weakest bodies strongest works.

28. And now the years a numerous train have ran;
The blooming boy is ripened into man.

29. Fierce as he moved, his silver shafts resound.

30. O Thou my lips inspire,
Who touched Isaiah's hallowed lips with fire.

31. Friend to my life, which did not you prolong,
The world had wanted many an idle song.

32. So well-bred spaniels civilly delight
In mumbling of the game they dare not bite.

33. Him portioned maids, apprenticed orphans blest;
The young who labour, and the old who rest.

34. Accept these grateful tears—for thee they flow;
For thee that ever felt another's woe;

35. The sun upon the calmest sea
Appears not half so bright as thee.

36. Just of thy word; in every thought sincere;
Who knew no wish but what the world might hear.

37. Severe the doom that length of days impose,
To stand sad witness of unnumbered woes.

38. For him through hostile camps I bent my way;
For him, thus prostrate at thy feet I lay.

39. 'Tis hard to say if greater want of skill
Appear in writing, or in judging ill.

40. Satire or sense, alas! can Sporus feel?
Who breaks a butterfly upon a wheel.

41. Thus, oft by mariners are shown
Earl Godwin's castles overflown.

42. And though by heaven's severe decree
She suffers hourly more than me.

42. Great Queen of Arms! whose favour Tydeus won,
As thou defend'st the sire, defend the son.

43. What is 't to thee if he neglect thy urn,
And without spices lets thy body burn.

45. Thus urged the chief; a generous troop appears,
Who spread their bucklers, and advance their spears.

46. But if it climb, with your assisting hands,
The Trojan walls, and in the city stands.

47. England never did, nor never shall,

Lie at the proud foot of a conqueror.

48. Vice is a monster of so frightful mien,

As to be hated needs but to be seen.

49. The spirits of your fathers shall start from every wave.

For the deck it was their field of fame, and ocean was their grave.

50. That he permitted not the winds of heaven

Visit her face too roughly.

51. Laying the suspicion on somebody, I know not who, in the country. 52. A person whom all the world allows to be so much your betters. 53. Wrongs are engraved on marble; benefits, on sand: these are apt to be requited; those forgot. 54. I think it very masterly written. 55. He accused the ministry for betraying the Dutch. 56. Many are the works of the human understanding, which to begin and finish are hardly granted to the same man.

57. Attend to what a lesser muse indites. 58. In proportion as either of these two qualities are wanting, the language is imperfect. 59. O Liberty, thou Goddess heavenly bright. 60. It is not me you are in love with. 61. A man may see a metaphor, or an allegory, in a picture, as well as read them in a description. 62. When laws were written on brazen tablets enforced by the sword. 63. To spread suspicion, to invent calumnies, to propagate scandal, require neither labour nor courage. 64. Cicero maintained that whatever was useful was good. 65. The arrows of calumny fell harmlessly at his feet. 66. There is no neglecting it without falling into a dangerous error. 67. The number of the names together, were about a hundred and twenty. 68. And so was also James and John, the sons of Zebedee, which were partners with Simon. 69. Doth he not leave the ninety and nine, and goeth into the mountains, and seeketh that which is gone astray. 70. The king of Israel and the king of Juda sat either of them on his throne. 71. On the morrow, because he would have known the certainty whereof he was accused. 72. Their ungodly deeds which they have ungodly committed. 73. But to forget or to remember at pleasure are equally beyond the power of man. 74. For my part I love him not, nor hate him not. 75. He recommended to them, however, the immediate release of the whole community together. 76. It shall not be forgiven him, neither in this world, neither in the world to come.

77. God has given reason to a man to be a guide unto him. 78. He behaved himself conformable to that blessed example. 79. To see so many to make so little conscience of so great a sin. 80. The characteristic of his sect allowed him to affirm no stronger. 81. If there be but one body of legislators it is no better than a tyranny; if there are only two these will want a casting voice. 82. I found him better than I expected to have found him. 83. Such seeds and principles as we judge most likely to take soonest and deepest root. 84. We are still

much at a loss to know who civil power belongs to. 85. If you were here, you would find three or four, whom you would say passed their time agreeably. 86. Mr. Prince has a genius would prompt him to better things. 87. I seldom or ever see him now. 88. Tell the cardinal, that I understand poetry better than him. 89. The philosopher, who he saw to be a man of profound knowledge. 90. The Nile marks on either side the extent of fertility by the measure of its inundations. 91. It is very probable, that neither of them are the meaning of the text. 92. The river had overflowed its banks. 93. The House of Commons were of small weight. 94. He was interrogated relative to that circumstance. 95. Avoid rude sports: an eye is soon lost or bone broken. 96. While wheat has no plural, oats have seldom any singular. 97. And thou their nature know'st, and gave them names. 98. And dashest him again to earth; there let him lay. 99. Which nobody is so sanguine to hope. 100. Solomon made as wise proverbs as any body has done, Him only excepted, who was a much wiser man than Solomon.

101. If reasons were as plenty as blackberries I would give no man a reason on compulsion. 102. Not less than three books were written on the subject. 103. Almost the whole inhabitants were present. 104. He is a Nero, who is another name for cruelty. 105. Charity vaunteth not itself, doth not behave itself unseemly. 106. Great numbers were killed on either side. 107. A prophet mightier than him. 108. Neither the good or the bad are free from misfortune. 109. What dost thou mean by shaking of thy head. 110 Much depends on the tyro observing this rule. 111. There are torrents that swell to-day, and have spent themselves by to-morrow. 112. From the progress he has made, he appears to study Homer for some time. 113. I intended to have written to you ere now. 114. It appeared to be her who opened the letter. 115. In the cool of the evening he lay himself down to sleep on the grass. 116. The book laid a long time in my library. 117. My banks they are furnished with bees. 118. The whole obligation of that law was now ceased. 119. Men generally hate him who they fear. 120. These are the men whom you thought were there. 121. Whom do you think she is. 122. They seem to take the sun out of the world, which take friendship out of it. 123. The conditions of the sale are as follows. 124. The account which he gave is as follow. 125. Are the boy and the parcel arrived which were coming from the country? 126. Observe them three men walking. 127. I do not say as some have done. 128. Which of them persons were present. 129. The Anglo-Saxons however soon quarrelled between themselves for precedence. 130. Lackington's Allen's and Company's library is very extensive. 131. The books which you now see are John as well as William's. 132. Augustus the Roman Emperor, him who succeeded Julius Cæsar, is variously described. 133. Hope is as strong an incentive to action as fear; this is the anticipation

of good, that of evil. 134. You will find the remark in the second or third pages. 135. Neither of these men seem to think their opinions objectionable. 136. Stephen's party were entirely broken up by the captivity of the leader. 137. An army of 20,000 men were assembled. 138. Cæsar, as well as Cicero, were remarkable for eloquence. 139. Their religion as well as their manners were ridiculed. 140. To live soberly, righteously, and piously, are required of all men. 141. There is no condition so secure as cannot admit of change. 142. Though he be high, he has respect to the lowly. 143. In the reign of Henry II, all foreign commodities were plenty in England. 144. The climate of England is not so pleasant as those of France, Spain, or Italy. 145. Even a rugged rock or a barren heath, though in themselves disagreeable, contribute, by contrast, to the beauty of the whole. 146. Steady application, as well as genius and abilities, are necessary to produce eminence. 147. A good and well cultivated mind is far more preferable than rank or riches. 148. Who, who has either sense or civility, does not perceive the vileness of profanity. 149. When a string of such sentences occur, the effect is disagreeable.

DICTATION EXERCISES ON PARTICULAR WORDS.

It has been thought desirable to give at the conclusion of this practical grammar some dictation exercises—first, on words apt to be confounded; and secondly, miscellaneous exercises comprising different styles of writing.

Of course, you will put on coarse clothes for such dirty work.

The deer had fine horns; but it cost so much, I thought it a dear bargain.

I will pay you your due, before the dew falls to-night.

Will you dye my blue curtains brown?

I saw my poor horse fall down and die.

As I went up to pay my fare, I saw a fair lady in front of me.

I never walked so far before. It was not an easy feat for my feet to perform.

The fore-horse galloped all the four miles.

He went forth from the king's presence in the fourth year of his reign. The rain was falling; but he leaped on to his horse, seized the reins, and rode along the road to the town at full speed.

The parlour grate is a small grate, but the kitchen grate is a great one.

A hare is larger than a rabbit, and the hair on its coat is darker.

He was a hale old man, and did not mind the pelting hail.

The wound on the cow's heel will never heal, I fear.

Come here, my boy, and hear what I have to tell you.

I heard a story about a large herd of cattle.

Before Tom sailed on the sea, he went to see his grandfather, and sang a hymn to him.

When the duke saw the inn by the wayside, he went in and asked for dinner.

The mistress made a present to her little maid of an old dress.

When I meet poor John, I will order him a joint of meat from the butcher's.

I have something in my eye.

The new grocer knew the draper and the shoemaker.

A pale sickly girl brought in a pail of water.

Our boys went to play for an hour.

Every one knows what a nose is.

If you will give me a ripe pear, I will give you a pair of new scissors.

Wrap up the child in a shawl, and then go and rap at the door.

First the clergyman prays, and then he calls on us to sing a psalm of praise.

He read out of a book with a red cover.

It is quite right of Tom to try and write better than he does now.

Mary stares in surprise to see how fast Joe runs up stairs.

The thief tried to steal four steel knives.

Mary sews neatly and so does Ann, while James sows barley in the field.

The mother told her little son to look at the sunshine.

A funny tale it was Frank told us about the tail of a dog.

One of the tall men won the race.

I will take you to see a large yew-tree.

Do not run too fast, you two little boys.

Harry ate no less than eight pears.

What ails the brewer? He not only brews strong ales, he drinks them too. Last night he fell down stairs, and got a terrible bruise.

When we made the ascent of the mountain, we did it with my father's assent.

Our goat was not fed upon grass but upon bread.

The field itself is in the borough, but the wood and the rabbit-burrow are not.

The beech-tree stood on the sea-beach.

His head was bare, and he led a bear by a chain.

Where have you been? To buy a pint of beans.

Be sure you do not touch that bee, or it will sting you.

If you do not bow your head as you pass under the tree, you will be caught by that low bough.

I want to buy the house by the river.

Just as I was sealing my letter, part of the ceiling of the room fell down.

The site I have chosen to build my house on is within sight of the town. Close that box of clothes carefully.

The higher you climb up the mountains, the colder is the clime you reach, but you can hire a guide to shew you the road. My guide rode beside me.

He led his horse by the bridle, and so went on foot to the bridal of his sister. When we stood by the altar, I wished I could alter my position, and go on the other side.

The privy-council said they knew nothing about it, and could give no counsel in the matter.

The miller's coat was white, but covered with flour, and he had a flower in his button-hole.

The squirrel's fur was rubbed off against the bark of the fir-tree.

The principal man on the island said it was contrary to his principles to do such a thing.

He tied his boat to a stake, that the tide might not carry it off, and then went to the shop and bought a beef-steak.

MISCELLANEOUS DICTATION-EXERCISES.

OUR BETTERS.

Might I give counsel to any young hearer, I would say to him, try to frequent the company of your betters. In books and life, that is the most wholesome society. Learn to admire rightly; the great pleasure of life is that. Note what the great men admired; they admired great things; narrow spirits admire basely, and worship meanly.

Thackeray, *Lectures on English Humorists*.

PERSEVERANCE.

Perseverance is a prime quality in every pursuit. Youth is, too, the time of life to acquire this inestimable habit. Men fail much oftener from want of perseverance than from want of talent and good disposition. As the race was not to the hare but to the tortoise, so the meed of success is not to him who is in haste, but to him who proceeds with a steady and even step.

William Cobbett.

INDUSTRY.

There is no art or science that is too difficult for industry to attain to; it is the gift of tongues, and makes a man understood and valued in all countries and by all nations: it is the philosopher's stone that turns all metals, and even stones, into gold, and suffers not want to break into its dwelling: it is the north-west passage that brings the mer-

chant's ship as soon to him as he can desire. In a word, it conquers all enemies, and makes fortune itself pay contribution. Clarendon.

COTTON.

Cotton consists of the fine long hairs which grow from the seeds of several varieties of *Gossypium*. These hairs are so long and numerous, that they completely fill the pod or seed-vessel. They are very delicate, of the same size throughout, but seldom jointed, and they are each separate from the other. The cottonplant is chiefly cultivated in the Southern States of North America and in India. It is produced in great abundance, and is exported to England, where it is manufactured into cloth. The cotton-factories are chiefly in Lancashire.

A CRIMEAN HERO.

The colonel being wounded, Champion took the command of the regiment. He was a man of great gentleness and piety; and if he was not highly endowed with intellectual gifts, he was able to express the feelings of his heart with something of a poetic force. His mind was accustomed to dwell very much on the world that lies beyond the grave; and in the midst of this scene of carnage he gained, as it were, a seeming glimpse of the happy state; for when the younger Eddington fell at his side, Champion paused to see what ailed him, and looking upon his young friend's pale face, he saw it suddenly clothed with a 'most sweet expression.' It was because death was on him that the blissful look had come. In the mind of Champion the sight had a deep import; for he was of the faith that God's providence is special, and to him the beautiful smile on the features of the dead was the smile of an immortal man gently carried away from earth by the very hand of his Maker.

Yet this piety of his was of no unwarlike cast. Nay, he was of so noble a sort that, though he had willingly chosen the profession of arms, yet, when he prayed, he was accustomed to render thanks to his Creator for vouchsafing to make him a hardy soldier; and being, very strong in the belief that he could die as piously on the battlefield as in a downy bed, he pressed on content, with his soldiers, to the face of the great redoubt.

Kinglake's *Crimea*.

FROM THE SATURDAY REVIEW,

January 31, 1863.

If the termination of the American war is already possible, the cautious and conciliatory proposal of the French government may facilitate the commencement of negotiations. The offer of mediation which was

formerly discountenanced by England and Russia, involved an armistice by sea which would have established the independence of the Confederacy by putting an end to the blockade. The French emperor is now careful to profess his friendship for the government of Washington, and to explain that negotiation between the belligerents would not be inconsistent with the continuance of hostilities.

ENERGY.

The longer I live, the more I am certain that the great difference between men, between the feeble and the powerful, the great and the insignificant, is energy—invincible determination—a purpose once fixed, and then death or victory. That quality will do anything that can be done in this world; and no talents, no circumstances, no opportunities, will make a two-legged animal a man without it. Burton.

GUTTA PERCHA.

Gutta percha is a substance possessing many useful and valuable properties. It was unknown in Europe until a very recent date, though it is said to have been in common use for a long period previous to our discovery of its utility amongst the natives of the Indian Archipelago. It is the concrete juice of a large tree, and is brought to Europe in irregular masses of a brown colour, containing various impurities, which are easily got rid of by working it in hot water. It possesses the desirable properties of being solid, slightly elastic, and very tough. It is used for very many industrial purposes.

CAOUTCHOUC.

Caoutchouc, or India rubber, which, till recently, was used only for rubbing out pencil-marks, is now made serviceable for almost innumerable purposes. It is the solidified juice of several trees, such as the *Siphonia*, the *Jatropha elastica*, and the *Ficus elastica*. It is got by making incisions in the trunk of these trees during winter, and collecting the juice, which is a compound of caoutchouc and water. The water evaporates, and the caoutchouc remains.

PERFECTION OF GOD'S WORKS.

Apply the microscope to any of the most minute of God's works, nothing is to be found but beauty and perfection. If we examine the numberless species of insects that swim, creep, or fly around us, what proportion, exactness, conformity, and symmetry shall we perceive in all their organs! what a profusion of colouring—azure, green, and vermillion! On their wings, head, and every other part we discern delicate fringe and rich embroidery. How high the finishing! how inimitable

the polish we everywhere behold! The most perfect works of man betray a meanness, a poverty, an inability in the workman; but the works of nature plainly prove that the hand which formed them was Divine.

Platt.

IRRITATED ANSWERS.

Dr. Radcliffe, the celebrated physician, and Sir Godfrey Kneller, the no less celebrated painter, lived next door to each other in Bow Street, Covent Garden. As Sir Godfrey had a very fine garden, he allowed a door to be broken out in the wall which divided the two grounds, in order that the doctor might have free access thereto whenever he thought proper. The servants of the latter, however, did so much mischief to the rare plants and flowers, that Sir Godfrey was obliged to remonstrate. But the evil still continuing, he sent a message by one of his servants to Radcliffe, to tell him that he should be under the necessity of bricking up the doorway. To this Radcliffe merely sent the rude answer that Sir Godfrey might do anything he would with the wall except paint it. The message having been delivered to Kneller, he asked whether his very good friend, Dr. Radcliffe, had said so; and then desired his servant to go back, and after presenting his service to him, to tell him that he could take anything from him but physic.

AN ANECDOTE OF THE CRIMEAN WAR.

At that moment affairs were going ill with the French. The appearance of our head-quarters on the knoll had been marked by our allies as well as by the enemy; for now a French aid-de-camp, in great haste, came climbing up the knoll to seek Lord Raglan. He seemed to be in a state of grievous excitement; but perhaps it was the violence of his bodily exertion which gave him this appearance, for he had quitted his horse in order the better to mount the steep, and he rushed up bareheaded to Lord Raglan, to ask that he would give some support to the French were hardly pressed by the enemy. 'My lord,' he said, 'my lord, my lord, we have before us eight battalions!'.... Bending in his saddle, Lord Raglan turned kindly round towards his right—towards the side of his maimed arm—and his expression was that of one intent to assuage another's pain, but the sunshine of the last two days had tanned him so crimson, that it masked the generous flush which used to come to his face in such moments. He did not look at all like an anxious and vexed commander who had to listen to a desponding message in the midst of a battle..... In his comforting, cheerful way, he said: 'I can spare you a battalion.' But it was something of more worth than the promise of a battalion that the aid-de-camp carried back with him. He carried back tidings of the spirit in which Lord Raglan was conducting the battle. At a time when the French

were cast down, it was of some moment to them to learn that the English head-quarters, strangely placed as they were in the midst of the Russian position, wore a scene of robust animation, and that Lord Raglan looked and spoke like a man who had the foe in his power.

Kinglake's *Crimea*.

STORM AT SEA.

'God have mercy upon the poor fellows at sea!' Household words these in English homes, however far inland they may be, and although near them the blue sea may have no better representative than a sedge-choked river or canal along which slow barges urge a lazy way. When the storm-wrack darkens the sky, and gales are abroad, seaward fly the sympathies of English hearts, and the prayer is uttered with perhaps a special reference to some loved and absent sailor. It is those, however, who live on the sea-coast, and watch the struggle going on in all its terrible reality—now welcoming ashore, as wrested from death, some rescued sailor, now mourning over those who have found a sudden grave almost within call of land, that learn truly to realise the fearfulness of the strife, and to find an answer to the moanings of the gale in the prayer: 'God have mercy upon the poor fellows at sea!'

Rev. J. Gilmore.

GOOD SENSE.

There is nothing more desirable than good sense and justness of mind. All other qualities of mind are of limited use, but exactness of judgment is of general utility in every part and in all employments of life. We are too apt to employ reason merely as an instrument for acquiring the sciences, whereas we ought to avail ourselves of the sciences as an instrument for perfecting our reason; justness of mind being infinitely more important than all the speculative knowledge which we can obtain by means of sciences the most solid.

Arnald.

NATURE AND REVELATION.

The existence and character of the Deity is, in every view, the most interesting of all human speculations. In none, however, it is more so than as it facilitates the belief of the fundamental articles of revelation. It is a step to have it proved that there must be something in the world more than what we see. It is a further step to know that amongst the invisible things of nature there must be an intelligent mind concerned in its production, order, and support. These points being assured to us by natural theology, we may well leave to revelation the disclosure of many particulars which our researches cannot reach respecting either the nature of this Being, as the original cause of all things, or his character and designs as a Moral Governor: and not only so,

but the mere confirmation of other particulars of which, though they do not lie altogether beyond our reasonings and our probabilities, the certainty is by no means equal to the importance. Paley.

EXCURSION TO THE TOP OF SCAWFELL IN CUMBERLAND.

Having left Rossthwaite, in Borrowdale, on a bright morning in the first week of October, we ascended from Seathwaite to the top of the ridge, called Ash-course, and thence beheld three distinct views. On one side, the continuous vale of Borrowdale, Keswick, and Basenthwaite, — with Skiddaw, Helvellyn, Saddleback, and numerous other mountains, — and, in the distance, the Solway Frith, and the mountains of Scotland. On the other side, and below us, the Langdale Pikes, — their own vale below them; Windermere, and, far beyond Windermere, Ingleborough, in Yorkshire. But how shall I speak of the deliciousness of the third prospect! At this time, that was most favoured by sunshine. The green vale of Esk—deep and green, with its glittering serpent stream, was below us; and on we looked to the mountains near the sea—Blackcomb pre-eminent,—and still beyond, to the sea itself, in dazzling brightness. Turning round we saw the mountains of Wastdale in tumult; to our right, Great Gavel, the loftiest, a distinct and huge form, though the middle of the mountain was, to our eyes, as its base.

While we were gazing around, "Look," I exclaimed, "at yon ship upon the glittering sea!" "Is it a ship?" replied our shepherd guide. "It can be nothing else," interposed my companion; "I cannot be mistaken, I am so accustomed to the appearance of ships at sea." The guide dropped the argument; but, before a minute was gone, he quietly said, "Now look at your ship; it is changed into a horse." So indeed it was,—a horse with a gallant neck and head. We laughed heartily; and, I hope, when again inclined to be positive, I may remember the ship and the horse upon the glittering sea; and the calm confidence, yet submissiveness, of our wise man of the mountains, who certainly had more knowledge of clouds than we, whatever might be our knowledge of ships. —

Wordsworth.

SILK.

Silk is by far the strongest of the textile fabrics, being nearly three times as strong as flax. It consists of the filaments spun by a silk-worm. The worm, moving its head backwards and forwards, spins fine threads of silk, and so covers itself in with a balk of silk. This covering is called cocoon, and being gathered, furnishes the slender filaments which are spun and woven into the richest and most beautiful of all wearing apparel.

FLAX—LINEN.

Flax is obtained from the stalks of the flax-plant: it is supposed to have been originally brought from Egypt, where linens have been woven from its fibres from the most remote period to the present time. It is largely cultivated in many countries of Europe. It grows to two or three feet in height, and bears a blue flower. The fibres of the stalk are separated and cleaned by many processes, and then spun into yarn, and woven into linen fabrics.

On Synonyms ¹.

EXERCISES.

Write out the following extracts, selecting the suitable word or phrase of the two given in parentheses: —

Note. — If there should be a doubt which to choose, make use of the simpler expressions.

While the cities of Italy where thus (advancing, progressing) in their (career, course) of improvement, (an event happened, a circumstance occurred) the most (remarkable, extraordinary) perhaps in the history of mankind, which, instead of (retarding, stopping) the (trading, commercial) progress of the Italians (rendered, made) it more rapid. The (warlike, martial) spirit of the Europeans, (increased, heightened) and enflamed by religious (fervour, zeal) (induced, prompted) them to attempt the (deliverance, rescue) of the Holy Land, from the (government, dominion) of Infidels. (Great, Vast) armies (composed, made up) of all the (nations, countries) in Europe, marched towards Asia, upon this wild (enterprise, expedition). The Genoese, the Pisans, and Venetians (furnished, supplied) the transports which (carried, conveyed) them thither. They (supplied, furnished) them which provisions and military stores. Besides the immense sums which they (received, obtained) on this account, they (received, obtained) commercial privileges and establishments of great (consequence, importance) in the settlements which the Crusaders made in Palestine and in other provinces of Asia. From these (sources, causes) (prodigious, immense) wealth flowed into the cities which I have mentioned. This was (accompanied, attended) with a proportionate, corresponding) increase of power; and by the (end,

¹) As it will be scarcely possible for our Dutch students to work out these exercises without the assistance of a good dictionary of English Synonyms, I recommend to procure one of the following:

Thomas Fenby. Dict. of Engl. Synonyms. Liverpool, Edward Howell 2nd Ed. 1864.

A selection of English synonyms by E. Jane Whately, edited by archbishop Whately. Sixth. Ed revised. Arnhem, J. Voltelen. 1869.

A selection of English Synonyms designed for Dutch Schools. Leeuwarden, A. Akkeringa. 1869.

termination) of the Holy War, Venice, in particular, became a great maritime state, (possessing, having) an extensive (trade, commerce), and ample (possessions, territories). Italy was not the (country, state) in which the Crusades (contributed, helped) to (revive, recover) and (diffuse, spread) such a spirit as prepared Europe for future discoveries. By their (expeditions, enterprises) into Asia, the other European nations became well acquainted with (remote, distant) (countries, regions), which formerly they knew only by name, or by the (reports, account) of ignorant and credulous pilgrims. They had an opportunity of (beholding, observing) the (customs, manners), the arts, and the (accommodations, conveniences) of peoples more (civilized, polished) than themselves. This (communication, intercourse) between the east and west (lasted, subsisted) almost two centuries. The (adventurers, speculatists) who returned from Asia (communicated, imparted) to their countrymen the ideas they had (acquired, obtained), and the habits of life they had (contracted, formed) by visiting more refined nations. The Europeans began to be (sensible, aware) of wants, with which they were formerly unacquainted: new (desires, inclinations) were (excited, aroused): and such a taste for the (commodities, produce) and arts of other countries gradually spread among them, that they not only encouraged the resort of (foreigners, strangers) to their (harbours, ports), but began to (observe, perceive) the (advantage, utility) and (necessity, need) of applying to commerce themselves. — *Robertson*.

But it is of no (importance, use) to read much, (except, unless) you be (regular, uniform) in your reading. If it (be interrupted, cease) for any (considerable, great) time, it can never be (attended, accompanied) with proper (improvement, advantage). There are some who study for one day with (intense, excessive) (application, diligence), and (repose, rest) themselves for ten days after. But wisdom is a coquette, and must be (courted, wooed) with (unabating, untiring) (assiduity, perseverance). *Goldsmith*.

The (decline, declension) of Venice did not, like that of Rome, (proceed, arise) from the increase of luxury, or the (revolt, rebellion) of her own (armies, forces) in the distant colonies, or from civil (wars, contests) of any kind. Venice has (dwindled, diminished) in (power, strength) and (influence, importance) from (causes, reasons) which could not be (foreseen, anticipated), or guarded against by human (foresight, prudence), although they had been (foreseen, anticipated). How could this (republic, commonwealth) have (hindered, prevented) the (discovery, invention) of a (passage, voyage) round the Cape of Good Hope; or (hinder, prevent) other (nations, countries) from being (inspired with, actuated by) a spirit of enterprise, industry and (commerce, trade)? — *Dr. Moore*.

A collection of words, alike in sound,

OR NEARLY SO,

BUT DIFFERENT IN SIGNIFICATION AND SPELLING.

A/BEL, a man's name.	Bass, a part in music	By, near
A/b'le, capable	Bald, without hair	Caléndar, an almanack
Ac/cidence, a book	Bawl'd, cried out	Cálender, to smooth linen
Ac/cidents, casualties	Ball, a round thing	Call, to name
Acts, deeds	Bawl, to cry aloud	Caul, a membrane
Axe, an instrument	Bar'bara, a woman's name	Can'n'on, a great gun
Ail, to be disordered	Bar'berry, a shrub	Can'on, a rule
Ale, a liquor	Bare, naked	Cart, a carriage
Hale, healthy	Bear, to suppost	Chart, a map
Air, an element.	Bear, a wild beast	Ceiling, of a room
Are, a verb	Be, the verb To Be	Sealing, of a letter, &c.
Hair, of the head	Bee, an insect	Cell, a hut
Heir, to an estate	Bean, pulse	Sell, to dispose of
Hare, an animal	Been, participle of To Be	Cell'ar, of a house
All, every one	Beat, to strike	Sell'er, one that sells
Hall, a room	Beet, a herb	Cen'ser, an incense pan
Awl, an instrument	Beau, a fop	Cen'sor, a magistrate
Allow'd, granted	Bow! a word of terror	Cen'sure, blame
Alou'd, noisily	Bow, an instrument	Céssion, a giving up
Al'tar, for sacrifice	Beer, malt liquor	Séssion, a sitting
Al'ter, to change	Bier, for a corpse	Choir, of singers
Hal'ter, a rope	Ber'ry, a small fruit	Quire, of paper
An, a particle	Bur'y, to hide	Cholér, rage
Ann, a woman's name	Blew, did blow	Col'l'ar, for the neck
Ant, an insect	Blue, a colour	Chrónicle, a register
Aunt, a relation	Bear, a boar, a beast	Chronical, long standing
Ar'r'ant, notorious	Bore, to make a hole	Cite, to summon
Err'ant, wandering	Bold, daring	Sight, to view
Err'and, a message	Bowl'd, did bowl	Site, a situation
Arr'as, tapestry	Bórough, a corporate town	Clanse, an article
Har'ass, to tease	Bur'row, a rabbit hole	Claws, of a bird, &c.
Asce'nt, a going up	Bough, a branch	Close, to shut up
Assé't, agreement	Bow, to bend	Clothes, dress
Assistance, help	Boy, a young lad	Coarse, homely
Assistánts, helpers	Buoy, to support	Course, order
Aug'er, an instrument	Brake, a thicket	Coat, a part of dress
Aug'ur, a soothsayer	Break, to part forcibly	Cold, want of warmth
Bácon, hog's flesh	Bread, food	Colt, young horse
Béacon, a directing mark	Bred, brought up	Cote, a fold
Béckon, to make signs	Breaches, broken pieces	Com'plement the re- mainder
Bail, a surety	Breeches, a part of dress	Com'pliment, kind words
Bale, goods packed	Brews, doth brew	Cóusin, a relation
Bait, an allurement	Bruise, to hurt	Coz'en, to cheat
Bate, to take less	Bruit, a report	Creak, to make a noise
Baize, a sort of cloth	Brute, a beast	Creek, a small bay
Bays, a garland	Buy, to purchase	Cur'rant, a small fruit
Base, mean		

Owe, to be indebted
 One, in number
 Won, did win
 Or'der, method
 Or'dure, dung
 Pall, a wooden vessel
 Pale, whitish
 Pain, torment
 Pane, a square of glass
 Pair, a couple
 Pare, to cut off
 Pear, a fruit
 Pal'ate, taste
 Pal'let, a little bed
 Peal, upon bells
 Peel, rind
 Peer, a lord
 Pier, of a bridge
 Place, of abode etc.
 Plaice, a fish
 Plain, even
 Plane, to make smooth
 Plait, a fold
 Plate, wrought silver
 Pole, a long stick
 Poll, the head
 Pore, of the skin
 Pour, to fall heavily
 Prac'tice, use
 Prac'tise, to exercise
 Pray, to beseech
 Prey, a booty
 Prin'cipal, chief
 Principle, the first cause
 Prófit, gain
 Proph'et, one who foretells
 Rain, water
 Reign, rule
 Raise, to lift up
 Rays, of the sun
 Raze, to destroy
 Rais'in, a dried grape
 Reas'on, a cause
 Read, did read
 Red, a colour

Rice, a sort of grain
 Rise, an increase
 Rite, a ceremony
 Right, true
 Write, with a pen
 Road, a way
 Rode, did ride
 Roe, an animal
 Row, of trees, etc.
 Rough, uneven
 Ruff, an ornament
 Scene, a sight
 Seen, behold
 Scent, a smell
 Sent, did send
 Sea, the ocean
 See, to observe
 Seam, in a coat
 Seem, to appear
 Seas, great waters
 Sees, doth see
 Seize, to lay hold of
 Slow, dull
 Sloe, a fruit
 Soared, did soar
 Sword, a weapon
 Some, a part
 Sum, the amount
 Son, a male child
 Sun, the cause of light
 Soon, quickly
 Swoon, to taint
 Stair, a step
 Stare, to look stedfastly
 Stile, for a passage
 Style, manner of writing
 Succour, help
 Sucker, a young twig
 Tacks, small nails
 Tags, metal ends of a
 lace.
 Tax, a duty
 Tail, the end
 Tale, a story
 Tare, weight allowed

Tear, to rend
 Team, of horses
 Teem, to abound
 Their, of them
 There, in that place
 Throne, a seat of state
 Thrown, cast
 Thyme, an herb
 Time, an hour, &c.
 Tide, a flux of the sea
 Tied, bound
 To, unto
 Toe, of the foot
 Tow, hemp dressed
 Too, likewise
 Two, a couple
 Told, related
 Tolloed, as a bell
 Vain, fruitless
 Vane, a weathercock
 Vein, for the blood
 Vale, a valley
 Vail, to cover
 Vial, or Phial, a bottle
 Viol, an instrument
 Wail, to lament
 Wale, a rising part
 Whale, a fish
 Wain, a waggon
 Wane, a decrease
 Wen, a tumor
 When, at what time?
 Weak, feeble
 Week, seven days
 Ware, merchandise
 Wear, to waste
 Were, plural of was
 Where, in what place
 Whist, a game
 Wist, knew
 Wood, timber
 Wou'd, would
 Yarn, spun wool
 Yearn, to desire
 Earn, to get by labour

Alphabetical List

OF

ABBREVIATIONS OF WORDS USED FOR DESPATCH IN WRITING.

A. B. or B. A. Bachelor of Arts	Exon. Exeter	Lond. London
Abp. Archbishop	Expl. Explanation	L. S. the Place of the Seal (<i>Locum Sigilli</i>)
A. D. in the Year of our Lord	Exec. Executor	M. in Number 1000
A. M. or M. A. Master of Arts	Feb. February	M. A. Master of Arts
A. M. before Mid-day	f. i. for instance	M. P. Member of Parliament
A. M. in the Year of the World.	Fred. Frederic	Mad. Madam
A. P. G. Professor of Astronomy to Gresham College	F. R. S. Fellow of the Royal Society	Matt. Matthew
B. C. Before Christ	F. S. A. Fellow of the Antiq. Society	Math. Mathematics
B. D. Bachelor of Divinity	Gab. Gabriel	M. D. Doctor of Medicine
Bp. Bishop	Gall. Gallon	Messrs. Messieurs
B. V. M. Blessed Virgin Mary	G. C. B. Grand Cross of the Bath	Middx. Middlesex
C. stands for One Hundred	Gen. General	Mons. Monsieur
C. B. Companion of the Bath	Genm. Generalissimo	Mr. Mister
Cwt. a Hundred weight or 112 pounds.	Gent. Gentleman	Mrs. Mistress
Capt. Captain	Geo. George	M. S. Sacred to the Memory
C. C. C. Corpus Christ College	Gov. Governor	MS. Manuscript
Cent. a Hundred	Gr. Grains, or Gross	MSS Manuscripts
Col. Colonel	Greg. Gregory	N. B. note, or mark well
C. P. S. Keeper of the Privy Seal	Hants. Hampshire	N. S. New Style
C. S. Keeper of the Seals	H. P. Horse power	Nov. November
D. in Number 500	Hon. Honourable	Oct. October
D. C. L. Doctor of Civil Law	I th. Numeral for I	O. H. M. S. On his (or her) Majesty's Service
D. D. Doctor of Divinity	Ibid. in the same place	O. S. Old Style
Dec. December	Id. the same	Oxon. Oxford
Dep. Deputy	i. e. that is	Oz. Ounce
Deut. Deuteronomy	I. H. S. Jesus the Saviour of Men (<i>Hominum Salvator</i>)	P. M. After Mid-day (<i>Post Meridiem</i>)
Ditto, or Do. the same	Imp. Imperial	P. S. Postscript
Du. Duke	Inst. Instant	Q. D. as much as to say
Dukm. Dukedom	Ja. James	Q. E. D. which was to be demonstrated (<i>Quod erat demonstrandum</i>)
E. East	Jac. Jacob	R. N. Royal Navy.
E. Earl	Jan. January	Rev. Reverend
Edin. Edinburgh	I. N. R. I. Jesus of Nazareth King of the Jews	S. Saint
Edm. Edmund	Kath. Katharina	S. T. P. Professor of Divinity
Edw. Edward	Knt. Knight	V. the Numeral for 5
e.g. orex. gr. for example	K. C. B. Knight Commander of the Bath.	W. West
Eliz. Elizabeth	K. G. Knight of the Garter	Wp. Worship
Eng. England	I. the Numeral for 50.	Wpl. Worshipful
Engr. Engineer	L. or l. a Pound Sterling	X. the Numeral for 10
Ep. Epistle	Lb. a Pound Weight	Xt. Christ
Esq. Esquire	L. C. J. Lord Chief Justice	Xtmas. Christmas
Ex. Example	Leo. Leonard	Yd. Yard
	Lient. Lieutenant	Yds. Yards
	L. J. C. Lord Jesus Christ	&, and
	LL. D. Doctor of Laws	&c. and so forth

Alphabetical list of familiar Proverbs, Maxims, Quotations and Family Mottoes.

FREQUENTLY OCCURRING IN ENGLISH AND AMERICAN AUTHORS.

(THE MOTTOES ARE DISTINGUISHED BY THE LETTER *m.*)

- Ab initio. — From the beginning.
 Ab uno disce omnes. — From a single instance you may infer the whole.
 Ab urbe condita (A. U. C.) — From the building of the city.
 Adhuc sub judice lis est. — The affair is not yet decided.
 Ad Kalendas Græcas. — At the Greek calends; *i. e.* Never.
 Ad infinitum. — To infinity.
 Ad libitum. — At pleasure.
 Adquod damnum. — To what damage.
 Ad valorem. — According to value.
 Ægrescit medendo. — The remedy is worse than the disease.
 Æquam servare mentem. — To preserve an even temper. *m.*
 A fortiori. — With stronger reason.
 Alias. — Otherwise.
 Alieni appetens, sui profusus. — Covetous of other men's property, prodigal of his own.
 Alma mater. — A benign mother.
 A mensa et toro. — From bed and board; divorced.
 Amor patriæ. — The love of our country.
 Amicus humani generis. — The friend of the human race.
 Anguis in herba. — A snake in the grass.
 Annus mirabilis. — The year of wonders.
 A posteriori. — From the effect to the cause.
 A priori. — From the cause to the effect.
 Arbitrator elegantiarum. — The arbitrator of elegances; the master of the ceremonies.
 Argumentum baculinum. — Club-law.
 Artis est celare artem. — The perfection of art is to conceal art.
 Audi et alteram partem. — Hear the other party hear both sides.
 Auri sacra fames. — The accursed appetite for gold.
 Bona fide. — In good faith; in reality.
 Brevis esse laboro, obscurus fio. — When labouring to be concise I become obscure.
 Caput mortuum. — A dead head; *i. e.* the worthless remains.
 Cavendo tutus. — Safe by caution. *m.*
 Commune bonum. — A common good.
 Con amore, (*Italian*). — With love.
 Contra bonos mores. — Against good.
 Corpus delicti (*Law*). — The body of the offence.
 Cui bono? — What is the use of it?
 Currente calamo. — With a running pen
 Delenda est Carthago. — Carthage must be destroyed.
 De mortuis nil nisi bene. — Let nothing be said of the dead but what is favourable. Never speak ill of the dead.
 Deo favente — juvante — volente. — With God's favour — help — will.
 Desideratum. — A thing desired.
 Desunt cetera. — The remainder is wanting.
 Dii Penates. — Household gods.
 Divide et impera. *m.* — Divide and govern.
 Domus et placens uxor. — Thy house and pleasing wife.
 Dramatis personæ. — Characters represented.
 Ecce homo! — Behold the man!
 Esto perpetua. — Be thou perpetual.
 Et cetera. — And other things.

Ex cathedra. — From the chair.
 Ex nihilo nihil fit. — Nothing produces nothing.
 Ex officio. — By virtue of his office.
 Exempli gratia (E. G.). — For the sake of example.

Fac simile. — Do the like: an engraved resemblance of a man's handwriting.

Felo de se (*Law*). — A suicide.
 Fiat justitia, ruat cælum. — Let justice be done though the heavens should fall.

Filius nullius. — The son of nobody; a bastard.

Fortuna multis dat nimium, nulli satis. — To many fortune gives too much, to none enough.

Fuimus. — We have been. *m.*

Habeas corpus - (a writ in law). — You may have the body.

Hortus siccus. — A dry garden; a collection of dried plants.

Humanum est errare. — To err is human.

Ignis fatuus. — A deceiving light; a "Will-o'-the-wisp."

Ignorantia non excusat legem. — Ignorance does not avert the law.
 In esse; in posse. — In being; possible.

In hoc signo vinces. — By this sign thou shalt conquer. *m.*

In petto, (*It.*) -- In reserve.

In propria persona. — In person.

In puris naturalibus. — Stark naked.

Instar omnium. — One example may suffice for all.

Inter nos. — Between ourselves.

In vino veritas. — There is truth in wine.

Ipsè dixit. — He himself said it: dogmatism.

Ira furor brevis est. — Anger is a short madness.

Jacta est alea. — The die is cast.

Jure divino — humano. — By divine — by human law.

Jus civile — gentium. — The civil law — the law of nations.

Labor omnia vincit. — Labour conquers everything.

Lapsus linguæ. — A slip of the tongue.

Locus sigilli. — The place of the seal. (*L. S.*)

Magna Charta. — The Great Charter.
 Memento mori. — Remember you must die.

Mezzo termine, (*It.*) — A middle course.

Mors omnibus communis. — Death is common to all.

Multum in parvo. — Much in little.
 Mutatis mutandis. — After making the necessary changes.

Necessitas non habet leges. — Necessity has no law.

Ne sutor ultra crepidam. — Let not the shoemaker go beyond his last.

Non obstante. — Notwithstanding.

Nota bene (*N. B.*). — Mark well.

Obiter dictum. — A thing said by the way, or in passing.

Omne solum forti patria. — To a brave man every soil is his country.
 O tempora, O mores! — O the times and the manners!

Particeps criminis. — An accomplice.
 Pater familias. — The father of the family.

Pax in bello. — Peace in war. *m.*
 Per mare, per terras. — By sea and land.

Per se. — By itself.

Prima facie. — On the first view, or appearance.

Pro aris et focis. — For our altars and our hearths.

Pro bono publico. — For the public good.

Pro et con. — For and against.

Pro tempore. — For the time.

Quantum. — How much.

Quid nunc? — What now? An inquisitive person, a busybody.

Quid pro quo. — What for what.

Quo animo? — With what purpose, or intention?

Quot h
man

Requie
in p
Respic
Respul

Saper
Salus

The
the

Sempe
mar

Sempe
Semp

Sic t
the

aw
Simp

ele
Sine

cor
Sola

is

Quot homines, tot sententiæ. — So many men, so many opinions.

Requiescat in pace. — May he rest in peace.

Respice finem. — Look to the end.

Respublica. — The commonwealth.

Sapere aude. — Dare to be wise.

Salus populi suprema est lex. — The supreme law is the welfare of the people.

Semper avarus eget. — The covetous man is ever in want.

Semper fidelis. — Always faithful. *m.*

Semper paratus. — Always ready. *m.*

Sic transit gloria mundi. — Thus the glory of the world passes away.

Simplex munditiis. — Simple and elegant.

Sine qua non. — An indispensable condition.

Sola nobilitas virtus. — Virtue alone is true nobility. *m.*

Sub pœna. — Under a penalty.

Suum cuique. — Let every man have his own.

Tempus omnia revelat. — Time discloses all things.

Terræ filius. — A son of the earth.

Toga virilis. — The gown of manhood.

Toties quoties. — As often as.

Tria juncto in uno. — Three joined in one. *m.*

Vade mecum. — Go with me: a constant companion.

Veni, vidi, vici. — I came, I saw, I conquered.

Vice versa. — The terms being exchanged.

Vi et armis. — By main force.

Viva voce. — By word of mouth.

Volo, non valco. — I am willing but unable. *m.*

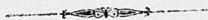
Vox populi, vox Dei. — The voice of the people is the voice of God.

61223

E R R A T A.

Page 46. The examples under 34. belong to the repetition of the article and not to that of the adjective. It should be: *One refreshing breeze awakens me to new vigour, life and spirit* (Burney). *Since the decay of the heroic opinions and belief the Delphic oracle had become the sovereign umpire of Greece* (Gillies).

Page 53. The example: "*The man and his donkey that pass our house daily,*" given under *c*, should be added to the examples under *d*. Instead of it we may illustrate *c* by the following quotations: **Who that has any sense of religion would have argued thus?** (Murray). **Who that had ever known ye, could have wished you other than ye were?** (Bulwer).



1364

asa 298

cicle
sh-
irit
lief
eece

our
m-
w-
uld
wn

98



