PRACTICAL GRAMMAR.

The Conjugation of a Regular Verb.

LOVE.

Radical Verb, or Infinitive Mode, Present Tense.
To love.

Perfect Tense.
To have loved.

Verbal of the Present Tense.
Loving.

Of the Perfect.
Loved.

Compound.
Having loved.

Declarative or Indicative Mode.

Present Tense, indefinite.

I love
Thou loveth or loves
You love
He loveth or loves
We love
Ye love
You love
They love

With the auxiliar do.

I do love
Thou dost love.
You do love.
He doth or does love
We do love
Ye do love
You do love
They do love.
I am n loving
Thou art n loving
You are n loving
He is n loving

We are n loving
Ye are n loving
You are n loving
They are n loving.

Past Tense, indefinite.

I loved n
Thou lovedst n
You loved n
He loved n

We loved n
Ye loved n
You loved n
They loved n

With the auxiliar did.

I did n love
Thou didst n love
You did n love
He did n love

We did n love
Ye did n love
You did n love
They did n love

Perfect Tense, indefinite.

I have n loved
Thou hast n loved
You have n loved
He has or hath n loved

We have n loved
Ye have n loved
You have n loved
They have n loved.

Definite.

I have n been loving
Thou hast n been loving
You have n been loving
He has or hath n been lov-
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Prior-past, indefinite.

I had n loved
Thou hadst n loved
You had n loved
He had n loved
We had n loved
Ye had n loved
You had n loved
They had n loved

Definite.

I had n been loving
Thou hadst n been loving
You had n been loving
He had n been loving
We had n been loving
Ye had n been loving
You had n been loving
They had n been loving

Future Tense, indefinite.

The form of predicting.

I shall n love
Thou wilt n love
You will n love
He will n love
We shall n love
Ye will n love
You will n love
They will n love.

The form of promising, commanding and determining.

I will n love
Thou shalt n love
You shall n love
He shall n love
We will n love
Ye shall n love
You shall n love
They shall n love.

Definite.

I shall or will n be loving
Thou shalt or wilt n be loving
You shall or will n be loving
He shall or will n be loving
We shall or will n be loving
Ye shall or will n be loving
You shall or will n be loving
They shall or will n be loving.
Prior-future, indefinite.

I shall n have loved
Thou shalt or wilt n have loved
You shall or will n have loved
He shall or will n have loved

We shall n have loved
Ye shall or will n have loved
You shall or will n have loved
They shall or will n have loved

Definite.

I shall n have been loving
Thou shalt or wilt n have been loving
You shall or will n have been loving
He shall or will n have been loving

We shall n have been loving
Ye shall or will n have been loving
You shall or will n have been loving
They shall or will n have been loving.

Imperative Mode.

Let me n love
Love n
Do n love
Do thou n love
Do you n love
Let him n love

Let us n love
Love n
Do n love
Do ye or you n love
Let them n love.

In the place of let, the poets employ the verb without the auxiliar—"Perish the lore that deadens young desire."

"Be ignorance thy choice, where knowledge leads to woe."

Potential Mode.

Present Tense, indefinite.

I may or can n love
We may or can n love
PRACTICAL GRAMMAR.

Thou mayest or canst \( n \) love
You may or can \( n \) love
He may or can \( n \) love

Ye may or can \( n \) love
You may or can \( n \) love
They may or can \( n \) love

Must is used in this tense and in the perfect.

Definite.

I may or can \( n \) be loving
Thou mayest or canst \( n \) be loving
You may or can \( n \) be loving
He may or can \( n \) be loving

Past Tense, indefinite.

I might \( n \) love
Thou mightest \( n \) love
You might \( n \) love
He might \( n \) love

We might \( n \) love
Ye might \( n \) love
You might \( n \) love
They might \( n \) love.

With could, would and should in the same manner.

Definite.

I might \( n \) be loving
Thou mightest \( n \) be loving
You might \( n \) be loving
He might \( n \) be loving

Past Tense, indefinite.

I may or can \( n \) have loved
Thou mayest or canst \( n \) have loved
You may or can \( n \) have loved
He may or can \( n \) have loved.

Perfect Tense, indefinite.

I may or can \( n \)
Thou mayest or canst \( n \) have loved
You may or can \( n \) have loved
He may or can \( n \) have loved.
Definite.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{I may or can } n & \text{ have been loving} \\
\text{Thou mayest or canst } n & \text{ have been loving} \\
\text{You may or can } n & \text{ have been loving} \\
\text{He may or can } n & \text{ have been loving}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{We may or can } n & \text{ have been loving} \\
\text{Ye may or can } n & \text{ have been loving} \\
\text{You may or can } n & \text{ have been loving} \\
\text{They may or can } n & \text{ have been loving}
\end{align*}
\]

Prior-past Tense, indefinite.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{I might } n & \text{ have loved} \\
\text{Thou mightest } n & \text{ have loved} \\
\text{You might } n & \text{ have loved} \\
\text{He might } n & \text{ have loved}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{We might } n & \text{ have loved} \\
\text{Ye might } n & \text{ have loved} \\
\text{You might } n & \text{ have loved} \\
\text{They might } n & \text{ have loved}
\end{align*}
\]

Definite.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{I might } n & \text{ have been loving} \\
\text{Thou mightest } n & \text{ have been loving} \\
\text{You might } n & \text{ have been loving} \\
\text{He might } n & \text{ have been loving}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{We might } n & \text{ have been loving} \\
\text{Ye might } n & \text{ have been loving} \\
\text{You might } n & \text{ have been loving} \\
\text{They might } n & \text{ have been loving}
\end{align*}
\]

With could, would and should in the same manner, in the two last forms.

The Potential mode becomes conditional by means of the modifiers, if, tho, unless, &c. prefixed to its tenses, without any variation from the foregoing inflections. This may, for distinction, be called the Conditional Potential.
Conditional or Subjunctive Mode.

Present Tense.

If, tho, unless, whether, suppose, admit, &c.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Conditional Form</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I love</td>
<td>We love</td>
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<td>Thou loves</td>
<td>Ye love</td>
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<td>You love</td>
<td>You love</td>
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<td>He loves</td>
<td>They love</td>
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<tr>
<td>or loves</td>
<td></td>
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Some authors omit the personal terminations in the second and third persons—*if thou love, if he love*. With this single variation, which I deem contrary to the principles of our language, the conditional Mode differs not in the least from the indicative, and to form it, the learner has only to prefix a sign of condition, as *if, tho, unless, &c. to the indicative, in its several tenses*: With this exception, however, that in the future tense, the auxiliary may be and often is suppressed. Thus instead of

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Future Tense</th>
<th>Conditional Form</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If I shall or will love</td>
<td>We shall or will love</td>
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<tr>
<td>Thou shalt or wilt love</td>
<td>Ye shall or will love</td>
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<tr>
<td>You shall or will love</td>
<td>You shall or will love</td>
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<tr>
<td>He shall or will love</td>
<td>They shall or will love</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Authors write,

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Conditional Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If, &amp;c. I love</td>
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<tr>
<td>Thou love</td>
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<tr>
<td>You love</td>
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<td>He love</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ye love</td>
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<tr>
<td>You love</td>
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<tr>
<td>They love</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is further to be remarked, that *should* is very often used to form the conditional future—*if I should, thou shouldst, &c.* This tense is inflected like the past tense of the potential, but is probably more used for the conditional future than *shall* and *will*. 
The other auxiliars also in the past time are used in this conditional mode in a very indefinite sense.

I shall therefore offer a new tense in this mode, composed of any principal verb, with might, could, should and would, expressing, like the Greek aorists, time indefinite present, past or future, especially the future.

Conditional Mode, indefinite Tense.

If, tho, unless, whether, lest, except, suppose, &c.

**Singular.**

I might, could, should, or would not love
Thou mightest, couldst, shouldst, wouldst not love
You might, could, should, would not love
He might, could, should, would not love

**Plural.**

We might, could, should, would not love
Ye or you might, could, should, would not love
They might, could, should, would not love

It should be noticed that the sign of the condition is not always expressed. *Supposition* or *hypothesis* may be well expressed without the modifiers if, tho, &c. As in the following; “It being no more necessary that there should be existing a solid body infinitely extended, because we have an idea of the infinity of space, than it is necessary that the world should be eternal, because we have an idea of infinite duration.” *Locke on Und. b. 2. ch. 17.*

In the conditional mode, there is a peculiarity in the tenses which should be noticed. When I say, *if it rains*, it is understood that I am uncertain of the fact, at the time of speaking. But when I say, “*if it rained*, we should be obliged to seek shelter,” it is not understood that I am uncertain of the fact; on the contrary, it is understood that I am certain, it does not rain at the time of speaking. Or if I say, “*if it did not rain*, I would take a walk,” I convey the idea that it does not rain at the moment of speaking. This form of our tenses in the conditional mode has never been
the subject of much notice, nor ever received its due explanation and arrangement. For this hypothetical verb is actually a present tense, or at least indefinite—it certainly does not belong to past time. It is further to be remarked, that a negative sentence always implies an affirmative—"if it did not rain," implies that it does rain. On the contrary, an affirmative sentence implies a negative—"if it did rain, implies that it does not.

In the past time, a similar distinction exists; for "if it rained yesterday," denotes uncertainty in the speaker's mind—but "if it had not rained yesterday," implies a certainty, that it did rain.

Passive form of the Verb.

Indicative Mode.

Present Tense.

I am not loved
\{ Thou art not loved
\{ You are not loved
He is not loved

We are not loved
\{ Ye are not loved
\{ You are not loved
They are not loved.

Past Tense.

I was not loved
\{ Thou wast not loved
\{ You were or were not loved
He was not loved

We were not loved
\{ Ye were not loved
\{ You were not loved
They were not loved.

Perfect Tense.

I have not been loved
\{ Thou hast not been loved
\{ You have not been loved
He has or hath not been loved

We have not been loved
\{ Ye have not been loved
\{ You have not been loved
They have not been loved.
Prior-past Tense.

I had n been loved
Thou hadst n been loved
You had n been loved
He had n been loved
We had n been loved
Ye had n been loved
You had n been loved
They had n been loved

Future Tense.

I shall or will n be loved
Thou shalt or wilt n be loved
You shall or will n be loved
He shall or will n be loved
We shall or will n be loved
Ye shall or will n be loved
You shall or will n be loved
They shall or will n be loved

Prior-future Tense.

I shall n have been loved
Thou shalt or wilt n have been loved
You shall or will n have been loved
He shall or will n have been loved
We shall n have been loved
Ye shall or will n have been loved
You shall or will n have been loved
They shall or will n have been loved.

Imperative Mode.

Let me n be loved
Be n loved
Be thou or you n loved
Do you n be loved
Let him n be loved
Let us n be loved
Be n loved
Be ye or you n loved
Do you n be loved
Let them n be loved

Note...The not is usually placed after do, and contracted into don't.
Potential Mode.

Present Tense.

I may, can or must \( n \) be loved  
Thou mayest, canst or must \( n \) be loved  
You may, can or must \( n \) be loved  
He may, can or must \( n \) be loved  
We may, can or must \( n \) be loved  
Ye may, can, or must \( n \) be loved  
You may, can or must \( n \) be loved  
They may, can or must \( n \) be loved.

Past Tense.

I might \( n \) be loved  
Thou mightest \( n \) be loved  
You might \( n \) be loved  
He might \( n \) be loved  
We might \( n \) be loved  
Ye might \( n \) be loved  
You might \( n \) be loved  
They might \( n \) be loved.

With could, should and would in the same manner.

Perfect Tense.

I may, can or must \( n \) have been loved  
Thou mayest, canst or must \( n \) have been loved  
You may, can or must \( n \) have been loved  
He may, can or must \( n \) have been loved  
We may, can or must \( n \) have been loved  
Ye may, can, or must \( n \) have been loved  
You may, can or must \( n \) have been loved  
They may, can or must \( n \) have been loved.

Prior-past Tense.

I might \( n \) have been loved  
Thou mightest \( n \) have been loved  
You might \( n \) have been loved  
He might \( n \) have been loved  
We might \( n \) have been loved  
Ye might \( n \) have been loved  
You might \( n \) have been loved  
They might \( n \) have been loved.

In the same manner, with could, would and should.
Conditional or Subjunctive Mode.

Present Tense.

If, &c. I am n loved
Thou art n loved
You are n loved
He is n loved
We are n loved
Ye are n loved
You are n loved
They are n loved.

Or thus:

If, &c. I be n loved
Thou be n loved
You be n loved
He be n loved
We be n loved
Ye be n loved
You be n loved
They be n loved.

Past Tense.

If, &c. I was n loved
Thou wast n loved
You was or were n loved
He was n loved
We were n loved
Ye were n loved
You were n loved
They were n loved.

Or thus:

If, &c. I were n loved
Thou wert n loved
You were n loved
He were n loved
We were n loved
Ye were n loved
You were n loved
They were n loved.

The last form is obsolete in common practice, and not much used by the learned.

Perfect Tense.

If, &c. I have n been loved
Thou hast n been loved
You have n been loved
He has or hath n been loved
We have n been loved
Ye have n been loved
You have n been loved
They have n been loved.
Prior-past Tense.

If, &c. I had not been loved

Thou hadst not been loved

You had not been loved

He had not been loved

We had not been loved

Ye had not been loved

You had not been loved

They had not been loved

Future Tense.

If, &c. I shall, will or should not be loved

Thou shalt, wilt or shouldst thou be loved

You shall, will or should you be loved

He shall, will or should he be loved

We shall, will or should we be loved

Ye shall, will or should ye be loved

You shall, will or should you be loved

They shall, will or should they be loved.

Prior-future Tense.

If, &c. I shall or should not have been loved

Thou shalt or shouldst not have been loved

You shall or should not have been loved

He shall or should not have been loved

We shall or should not have been loved

Ye shall or should not have been loved

You shall or should not have been loved

They shall or should not have been loved.

The future is often elliptical, the auxiliary being omitted. Thus instead of if I shall be loved, &c. are used the following forms.

If, &c. I be not loved

Thou be not loved

You be not loved

He be not loved

We be not loved

Ye be not loved

You be not loved

They be not loved.
An exhibition of the verb in the interrogative form, with the sign of the negative.

**Indicative Mode.**

Present Tense, indefinite.

Love I n? Love we n?

Loveest thou n? Love ye n?

Love you n? Love you n?

Loveth or loves he n? Love they n?

The foregoing form is but little used. The following is the usual mode of asking questions.

Do I n love? Do we n love?

Dost thou n love? Do ye n love?

Do you n love? Do you n love?

Does or doth he n love? Do they n love?

Definite.

Am I n loving? Are we n loving?

Art thou n loving? Are ye n loving?

Are you n loving? Are you n loving?

Is he n loving? Are they n loving?

Past Tense, indefinite.

Did I n love? Did we n love?

Didst thou n love? Did ye n love?

Did you n love? Did you n love?

Did he n love? Did they n love?

The other form of this tense, loved he? is seldom used.

Definite.

Was I n loving? Were we n loving?
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Was thou n loving? Were ye n loving?
Was or were you n loving? Were you n loving?
Was he n loving? Were they n loving?

Perfect Tense, indefinite.

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

Definite.

Have I n been loving? Have we n been loving?
Hast thou n been loving? Have ye n been loving?
Have you n been loving? Have you n been loving?
Has or hath he n been loving? Have they n been loving?

Prior-past, indefinite.

Had I n loved? Had we n loved?
Hadst thou n loved? Had ye n loved?
Had you n loved? Had you n loved?
Had he n loved? Had they n loved?

Definite.

Had I n been loving? Had we n been loving?
Hadst thou n been loving? Had ye n been loving?
Had you n been loving? Had you n been loving?
Had he n been loving? Had they n been loving?

Future Tense, indefinite.

Shall I n love? Shall we n love?
Shalt or wilt thou n love? Shall or will ye n love?
Shall or will you n love? Shall or will you n love?
Shall or will he n love? Shall or will they n love?
Definite.

Shall I be loving?
Shall or wilt thou be loving?
Shall or will you be loving?
Shall or will he be loving?

Shall we be loving?
Shall or will ye be loving?
Shall or will you be loving?
Shall or will they be loving?

Prior-future, indefinite.

Shall I have loved?
Shall or wilt thou have loved?
Shall or will you have loved?
Shall or will he have loved?

Shall we have loved?
Shall or will ye have loved?
Shall or will you have loved?
Shall or will they have loved?

The definite form of this tense, is little used.
Will, in this tense, is not elegantly used in the first person.
The interrogative form is not used in the imperative mode—a command and a question being incompatible.
It is not necessary to exhibit this form of the verb in the potential mode. Let the learner only be instructed that in interrogative sentences, the nominative follows the verb when alone, or the first auxiliary, when one or more are used; and the sign of negation not, [and generally never,] immediately follows the nominative.

Irregular Verbs.

All verbs whose past tense and perfect participle or verbal do not end in ed are deemed irregular. The number of these is about one hundred and seventy-seven. They are of three kinds.

1st. Those whose past tense, and verbal of the perfect are the same as the present; as beat, burst, cast, cost, cut,
hit, hurt, let, put, read, rent, rid, set, shed, shred, shut, slit, split, spread, thrust, sweat, wet. *Wet* has sometimes *wetted*; *heat* sometimes *het*, but the practice is not respectable. *Light* and *quit* have *lit* and *quit* in the past time and verbal, but they are also regular.

2. Verbs whose past time and verbal are alike, but different from the present; as *meet, met*; *well, sold*.

3. Verbs whose present and past tenses and verbal are all different; as *know, knew, known*.

A few verbs ending with *ch, ck, x, t, ll, ess*, tho regular, suffer a contraction of *ed* into *t*, as *snatched* for *snatched*, *checked* for *checked*, *snapt* for *snapped*, *mict* for *mixed*, *dwell* for *dwelled*, *past* for *passed*. Others have a digraph shortened; as *dream, dreamt, feel, felt, mean, meant, sleep, slept, deal, dealt*. In a few, *v* of the radical verb is changed into *f*, as *bereave, bereft, leave, left*.

As some of the past tenses and verbals are obsolete or obsolescent, it is deemed proper to set these in separate columns for the information of the student.

### IRREGULAR VERBS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Radical Verb</th>
<th>Past Tense</th>
<th>Verbal</th>
<th>Past Tense</th>
<th>Verbal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abide</td>
<td>abode</td>
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<td>Am</td>
<td>was</td>
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<td>Arise, rise</td>
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<td>Root Verb</td>
<td>Past Tense</td>
<td>Verbal.</td>
<td>Past T. absolv</td>
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Note 1. The old forms of the past tense, sang, spake, sprung, forgat, &c. are here placed among the obsolete words. They are entirely obsolete, in ordinary practice, whether popular or polite; and it seems advisable not to attempt to revive them. In addition to this reason for omitting them, there is one which is not generally understood. The sound of a in these and all other like cases, was originally the broad a or aw; which sound, in the Gothic and Saxon, as in modern Scotch, corresponded nearly with e in spoke, swore. Spake is therefore nearer to the original than spake, as we now pronounce the vowel a with its first or long sound as in sake.
Note 2. In the use of the past tense and participle of some of these verbs, there is a diversity of practice; some authors retaining those which others have rejected as obsolete. Many words which were in use in the days of Shakespeare and Lord Bacon are now wholly laid aside; others are used only in books, while others are obsolete, being occasionally used; and a few of the old verbs, having lost the verbal character, are used only as attributes. Of the last mentioned, species are fraught, drunken, molten, beholden, shorn, clad, bounden, cloven, which are no longer considered as belonging to the verbs, from which they are derived. Holpen is entirely obsolete. Holpen, sqelled, gotten, and forgotten, are nearly obsolete in common parlance. Wronged is evidently obsolete; stricken is used only in one phrase, stricken in age or years, which we learn from the Bible; but in every other case, is inelegant and pedantic.

Bishop Lowth has attempted to revive the use of many of the obsolete past tenses and verbals, for which he has, and I think deservedly, incurred the severe animadversions of eminent critics. "Is it not surprising, says Campbell on Rhetoric, b. 2, ch. 2, that one of Lowth's penetration should think a single person entitled to revive a form of inflection in a particular word, which had been rejected by all good writers of every denomination, for more than a hundred and fifty years?" This writer declares what Lowth has advanced on the use of the past tense and participle, to be inconsistent with the very first principles of grammar. He observes justly, that authority is everything in language, and that this authority consists in reputable, national, present usage.

Independent of authority however, there are substantial reasons in the language itself for laying aside the verbals ending with en, and for removing the differences between the past time and verbal. In opposition to the opinion of Lowth, who regrets that our language has so few inflections, and maintains that we should preserve all we have, I think it capable of demonstration that the differences between the past time and verbal or participle of the past tense of our irregular verbs, is one of the greatest inconveniences in the language. If we used personal terminations to form our modes and tenses like the Greeks, it would be desirable that they should be carefully retained. But as we have no more than about half a dozen different terminations, and are therefore obliged to form our modes and tenses by means of auxiliaries, the combination of these forms a part of the business of learning the language, which is extremely difficult and perplexing to foreigners. Even the natives of Scotland and Ireland do not always surmount the difficulty. This difficulty is very much augmented by the difference between the past tense and the verbal. To remove this difference, in words in which popular usage has given a lead, is to obviate, in a degree, this inconvenience. This is recommended by another circumstance—it will so far reduce our irregular verbs to an analogy with the regular, whose past tense and verbal of the perfect are alike.
In a number of words, the dropping of \( n \) in the participle, will make a convenient distinction between the verbal and the attribute; for in the latter, we always retain \( en \)—we always say a written treatise, a spoken language, a hidden mystery—though the best authors write, a "mystery hid from ages;" "the language spoke in Bengal."

Besides, whenever we observe a tendency in a nation to contract words, we may be assured that the contraction is found to be convenient, and is therefore to be countenanced. Indeed if I mistake not, we are indebted to such contractions for many real improvements; as write from gewrite; slain from ofslegen; fastened from gefastnode; men from monman; holy from haligan, &c. And as a general remark, we may be assured that no language ever suffers the loss of a useful word or syllable. If a word or syllable is ever laid aside in national practice, it must be because it is not wanted, or because it is harsh and inconvenient in use, and a word or syllable more consonant to the general taste of a nation or state of society, is substituted.

Such is the fact with our participles in \( en \): the \( e \) being suppressed in pronunciation, we have the words spokn, writtn, holein, in actual practice. Nothing can be more weak, inefficient and disagreeable than this nasal sound of the half vowel—it is disagreeable in prose, feeble in verse, and in music, intolerable. Were it possible to banish every sound of this kind from the language, the change would be desirable. At any rate, when people in general have laid aside any of these sounds, writers, who value the beauties of language, should be the last to revive them.

We need not however trouble ourselves to discuss the utility or propriety of retaining these participles; for it is a fact as curious as important, that no word, syllable or phrase entirely obsolete in common usage, was ever yet recalled into popular use. On the other hand, whatever is thus obsolete among the body of a people, is ultimately neglected by the learned. However the learned, therefore may pride themselves in their superior attainments, and in their right to control the usages of a nation, the history of languages will evince, that they must at last be borne away upon the current of popular practice.

Men of letters may revolt at this suggestion; but if they will attend to the history of our own language, they will find the fact to be as here stated. It is commonly supposed that the tendency of this practice of unlettered men is to corrupt the language. But the fact is directly the reverse. I am prepared to prove, were it consistent with the nature of this work, that nineteen twentieths of all the corruptions of our language, for five hundred years past, have been introduced by authors—men who have made alterations in particular idioms which they did not understand. The same remark is applicable to the orthography and pronunciation. The tendency of unlettered men is to uniformity—to analogy; and so strong is this disposition, that the common people have actually
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converted some of our irregular verbs into regular ones. It is to
unlettered people, that we owe the disuse of holpen, bounden, sitten,
and the use of the regular participles swelled, helped, worked, in the
place of the ancient ones. This popular tendency is not to be con-
temned and disregarded, as some of the learned affect to do, for it
is governed by the natural, primary principles of all languages, to
which we owe all their regularity and all their melody; viz. a love
of uniformity in words of a like character, and a preference of an
easy natural pronunciation, and a desire to express the most ideas
with the smallest number of words and syllables. It is a fortunate
thing for language that these natural principles generally prevail
over arbitrary and artificial rules.

Defective Verbs.

Verbs which want the past time or verbal, are deemed
defective. Of these we have very few. The auxiliaries
may, can, will, shall, must, having no participle, belong to
this class. Ought is used in the present and past tenses
only, with the regular inflection of the second person only
—I ought, thou oughtest, he ought, We, you, they ought.
Quoth is wholly obsolete, except in poetry and burlesque.
It has no inflection, and is used chiefly in the third person,
with the nominative following it, quo\th he.

Wit, to know, is obsolete, except in the radical form, to
introduce an explanation or enumeration of particulars;
as “There are seven persons, to wit, four men and three
women.” It is found in one passage of scripture; “More-
over, brethren, we do you to wit of the grace of God.”
2 Cor. 8. 1. “We make you to know.” Here do is used
in an obsolete sense. Wot is frequently used in scripture,
in the present tense; “I wot not who hath done this
thing.” Gen. 21. “My master wotteth not what is with
me in the house.” 39. 8. I find it thus used in the Sax-
on. Wot is not only the past tense, but a dialectical vari-
atation of the present.

Wotst, the past tense of wis, to think or imagin, is now
wholly obsolete, tho frequently used in the vulgar version
of the bible. It is very desirable that these and a few other
obsolete words and phrases in that version should be ex-
Modifiers.

Modifiers, words which are usually comprehended under the term *adverb*, are a secondary part of speech. Their uses are to *enlarge, restrain, limit, define*, and in short, to *modify* the sense of other words.

Modifiers may be classed according to their several uses.

1. Those which qualify the actions expressed by verbs and verbals; as “a good man lives *piously*;” “a room is *elegantly* furnished.” Here *piously* denotes the *manner of living—elegantly*, denotes the *manner of being furnished*. The words of this kind, which are very numerous, are really compound attributes, formed by annexing the attribute *like* to any other attribute—*pious-like, elegant-like*. The phrases mentioned, when expressed according to the primitive idiom, stand thus; “he lives pious-like;” “a room elegant-like furnished.” So that the most numerous class of modifiers of verbs are really attributes; but being used as the qualifiers of verbs and other attributes, and not to express the qualities of names, they may well take a different appellation.

In this class may be ranked a number of other words whose origin is less known or more remote; as *when, soon, then, where, whence, hence*, and many others, whose use is to modify verbs.

2. Another class of modifiers are words usually called prepositions, used with verbs to vary their signification; for which purpose they generally follow them in construction; as *to fall on, give out, bear with, cast up*; or they are prefixed and become a part of the word; as *overcome, underlay*. In these uses, these words *modify*, or change the sense of the verb; and when prefixed, are united with the verb in orthography.
3. The other class of modifiers consists of old Saxon verbs or other words: as if, tho,* whether, unless, etc., etc., whose use is to give a conditional or hypothetical form to sentences; and if a distinction of names should be thought useful, they may be called *modifiers of sentences*. They have been most improperly classed with conjunctions.

A few modifiers admit the terminations of comparison; as soon, sooner, soonest; often, oftener, oftencst. Most of those which end in ly may be compared by more and most, less and least; as more justly, most excellently; less honestly, least criminally.

*Note:* The numerous distinctions of modifiers into those of time, place and quantity, causal, illative, adversative, &c. seems to be more perplexing than useful. We might as well make the definition of every word in our dictionaries the foundation of a class, as to recognize the divisions of this species of words, with which the ingenuity of authors has filled our grammars.

**Prepositions.**

Prepositions, so called from their being put before other words, serve to connect words and show the relation between them; or to show the condition of things. Thus a man of benevolence, denotes a man who possesses benevolence. Christ was crucified between two thieves. Receive the book from John and give it to Thomas.

The prepositions most common, are, to, for, by, of, in, into, on, upon, among, between, betwixt, of, over, under, beneath, against, from, out, with, through, at, towards, before, behind, after, without, across.

We have a number of particles, which serve to vary or modify the words to which they are prefixed, and which are sometimes called *inseparable prepositions*, because they are never used, but as parts of other words—such are a, be, con, mis, fire, re, sub, in abide, become, conjoin, mistake, prefix, return, subjoin, &c. These may be called *prefixes*.

*Tho* is usually written *though*, but improperly; and probably by confounding *the* with *thof*, a distinct word, nearly obsolete.
Connectives.

Connectives are words which unite words and sentences in construction, joining two or more simple sentences into one compound one, and continuing the sentence at the pleasure of the writer or speaker. They also begin sentences after a full period, manifesting some relation between sentences in the general tenor of discourse.

The connectives of most general use, are and, or, either, nor, neither, but, than. To which may be added because.

And is supposed to denote an addition; as "The book is worth four shillings and sixpence." That is, it is worth four shillings, add sixpence, or with sixpence added.* "John resides at New-York, and Thomas, at Boston." That is, John resides at New-York, add, [add this which follows] Thomas resides at Boston. From the great use of this connective in joining words of which the same thing is affirmed or predicated, it may be justly called the copulative by way of eminence.

The distinguishing use of the connective is to save the repetition of words; for this sentence "John, Thomas, and Peter reside at York," contains three simple sentences; "John resides at York,"—"Thomas resides at York."—"Peter resides at York," which are all combined into one, with a single verb and predicate, by means of the copulative.

Either and or have been already explained under the head of substitutes; for in strictness they are the representatives of sentences or words; but as or has totally lost that

* Mr. H. Tooke supposes and to be a contraction of an-ad, an, give and ad congeries, a mass, pile or heap. This etymology is not sufficiently probable; nor can I find one that is. An, in the Celtic, is equivalent to the English the or that; and perhaps an may be united to the radical of the verb add—in which case, the sense is, add that—add what follows. I find no small part of English words and many of our idioms are of Celtic origin. But the origin of and is obscure; and that which is here offered is mere conjecture.
character, both these words will be here considered as connectives. Their use is to express an alternative, and I shall call them *alternatives.* Thus "Either John or Henry will be at the exchange," is an alternative sentence; the verb or predicate belonging to one or the other, but not to both; and whatever may be the number of names or propositions thus joined by *or,* the verb and predicate belong to one only.

One very common use of *or,* is to join to a word or sentence, something added by way of explanation or definition. Thus "No disease of the mind can more fatally disable it from benevolence, than ill-humor or peevishness." *Rambler, No. 74.* Here *peevishness* is not intended as a distinct thing from *ill-humor,* but as another term for the same idea. In this case, *or* expresses only an *alternative of words,* and not of signification.

*Neither* and *nor* are mere contractions of *neither,* the Saxon for *not either,* and of *ne or,* or *ne other.* As *either* and *or* are affirmative of one or other of the particulars named, so *neither* and *nor* are negative of all the particulars. Thus "For I am persuaded that *neither* death, *nor* life, *nor* angels, *nor* principalities, *nor* powers, *nor* things present, *nor* things to come, *nor* height, *nor* depth, *nor* any other creature shall be able to separate us from the love of God." *Rom. 8, 38.* Here *neither* is in fact a substitute for each of the following particulars—all which it denies to be able to effect a certain purpose—*not either* of these which follow shall separate us from the love of God. It is laid down as a rule in our grammars, that *nor* must always answer to *neither,* but this is a great mistake, for the negation of *neither,* not *either,* extends to every one of the following alternatives. But *nor* is more generally used, and in many cases, as in the passage just recited, is far the most emphatical.

*Neither* and *nor* may be called *negative alternatives.*

*But* is used for two Saxon words, originally by mistake, but now by established custom; *bet* or *bote,* the radical of

*In some cases pronounced *mither* or *nouther,* as it was formerly written.*
our modern words better, boot, and denoting sufficiency, compensation, more, further, or something additional, by way of amendment; and beutan or butan, equivalent to without or except.

In the former sense, we have the word in this sentence; "John resides at York, but Thomas resides at Bristol." The primitive sense here is, John resides at York; more, add or supply, Thomas resides at Bristol. It does not signify opposition, as is usually supposed, but some addition to the sense of what goes before.

In the latter sense, or that of beout, it is used in this passage "He hath not grieved me but in part." 2 Cor. 2. 5. that is, "He hath not grieved me, except in part." The first assertion is a complete negation; the word but, (beutan) introduces an exception.—"Nothing, but true religion, can give us peace in death." Here also is a complete negation, with a saving introduced by but. Nothing, except true religion.

These were the only primitive uses of but, until by means of a mistake, a third sense was added, which is, that of only. Not knowing the origin and true meaning of but, authors omitted the negation in certain phrases where it was essential to a true construction; as in the following passages "Our light affliction which is but for a moment." 2 Cor. 4. "If they kill us, we shall but die." 2 Kings. 7.

The but, in these passages, is buton, be out, except; and according to the true original sense, not should precede, to give the sentence a negative turn; "Our light affliction is not, but (except) for a moment." "We shall not, but die." As they now stand, they would in strictness signify, Our light affliction is except for a moment—We can except die, which would not be sense. To correct the sense, and repair the breach made in the true English idiom, by this mistake, we must give but a new sense, equivalent to only. Thus we are obliged to patch and mend, to prevent the mischiefs of innovation.

The history of this word but should be, as Johnson expresses the idea, "a guide to reformers, and a terror to innovators." The first blunder or innovation blended two words of distinct meanings into one, in orthography and
pronunciation. Then the sense and etymology being obscured, authors proceeded to a further change, and suppressed the negation, which was essential to the buton. We have now therefore one word with three different and unalike meanings; and to these may be reduced the whole of Johnson's eighteen definitions of but.

Let us however trace the mischief of this change a little further. As the word but is now used, a sentence may have the same meaning, with or without the negation. For example; "he hath not griefed me, but in part"—and "he hath grieved me, but in part," have, according to our present use of but, precisely the same meaning. Or compare different passages of scripture, as they now stand in our bibles.

He hath not grieved me, but in part.

Our light affliction is but for a moment.

This however is not all; for the innovation being directed neither by knowledge nor judgment, is not extended to all cases, and in a large proportion of phrases to which but belongs, it is used in its original sense with a preceding negation, especially with nothing and none. "There is none good, but one, that is God." Matt. 19. 17. This is correct—there is none good, except one, that is God. "He saw a fig-tree in the way, and found nothing thereon but leaves only." Matt. 21. 19. This is also correct—"he found nothing, except leaves," the only is redundant. "It amounts to no more but this." Locke. Und. b. 1. 2. This is a correct English phrase; "it amounts to no more, except this," but it is nearly obsolete.

Hence the propriety of these phrases; "They could not, but be known before." Locke. 1. 2. "The reader may be, nay cannot chuse but be very fallible in the understanding of it." Locke. 3. 9. Here but is used in its true sense—They could not, except this, be known before. That is, the contrary was not possible. The other phrase is frequently found in Shakespeare and other old writers, but is now obsolete. They cannot chuse but—that is, they have no choice, power or alternative, except to be very fallible.
But is called in our grammars, a *disjunctive conjunction*, connecting sentences, but expressing opposition in the sense. To illustrate the use of this word which *joins and disjoins* at the same time, Lowth gives this example: “You and I rode to London, *but* Peter staid at home.” Here the Bishop supposed the *but* to express an opposition in the sense. But let *but* be omitted, and what difference will the omission make in the sense? “You and I rode to London, Peter staid at home.” Is the opposition in the sense less clearly marked than when the conjunction is used? By no means. And the truth is, that the opposition in the sense, when there is any, is never expressed by the connective at all, but always by the following sentence or phrase: “They have mouths, but they speak not; eyes have they, but see not.” Psalm 115. 5. Let *but* be omitted—“They have mouths, they speak not; eyes have they, they see not.” The omission of the connective makes not the smallest alteration in the sense, so far as opposition or difference of idea in the members of the sentence is concerned. Indeed the Bishop is most unfortunate in the example selected to illustrate his rule; for the copulative *and* may be used for *but*, without the least alteration of the sense—“You and I rode to London, *and* Peter staid at home.” In this sentence the opposition is as completely expressed as if *but* was used; which proves that the opposition in the sense has no dependence on the connective.

Nor is it true that an opposition in the sense always follows *but*; “Man shall not live by bread alone, *but* by every word which proceedeth out of the mouth of God.” Mat. 4. 4. Here the last clause expresses no opposition, but merely an additional fact. The true sense of *but* when used for *but* (i.e., *supply, more, further, something additional*), to complete the sense—it may be in opposition to what has preceded, or in continuation only. In general however, the word *but* is appropriately used before a clause of a sentence, intended to introduce a new and somewhat different idea, by way of modifying the sense of the preceding clause. This use is very naturally deduced from the original sense of the word, something further which *is to make complete or qualify what has preceded*.
That is a connective of comparison; as "John is taller than Peter."

Because, is a mere compound of the verb be and cause—
the cause be or is—or let the cause be. "It is the case of
some to contrive some false periods of business, because
they may seem men of despatch." Bacon of Despatch.
See also Apud. 7. 6. This is a correct English idiom, Dr.
Lowth's criticism to the contrary notwithstanding, but it is
now obsolete.

Exclamations.

Exclamations are sounds uttered to express passions and
emotions; usually those which are violent or sudden.
They are called interjections, words thrown in between the
parts of a sentence. But this is not always the fact, and
the name is insignificant. The more appropriate name is,
exclamations; as they are mere irregular sounds, uttered
as passion dictates and not subject to rules.

A few of these sounds however become the customary
modes of expressing particular passions and feelings in
every nation. Thus in English, joy and surprise and grief
are expressed by oh, uttered with a different tone and coun­
tenance. Alas expresses grief or great sorrow—fish,
fish, pish, pshaw, express contempt. Sometimes verbs, names and
attributes are uttered by way of exclamation, in a detached
manner; as hail! Welcome! Bless me! Gracious heav­
ens!

In two or three instances, exclamations are followed by
names and substitutes in the nominative and objective—
as O thou in the nominative—oh me in the objective. Some­
times that follows O, expressing a wish—"O that the
Lord would guide my ways." But in all such cases, we
may consider wish or some other verb to be understood.
Derivation.

However numerous may be the words in a language, the number of radical words is small. Most words are formed from others by addition of certain words or terminating syllables, which were originally distinct words, but which have lost their distinct character, and are now used only in combination with other words. Thus er in lover, is a contraction of wer, a Saxon word denoting man, [the Latin vir;] ness is from the same root as nasus, nose, promontory, and denotes state or condition; ly is an abbreviation of like or liche; fy is from feo, to make, &c.

Most of the English derivatives fall under the following heads:

1. Names formed from names, or more generally from verbs, by the addition of r, er or or, denoting an agent; as lover, hater, assignor, flatterer, from love, hate, assign, flatter. In a few instances, words thus formed are less regular; as glazier, from glass, courtier, from court, parishioner, from parish.

2. Names converted into verbs by the prefix to, as from love, to love; from fear, to fear, and to hope, to cloud, to water, from the nouns.

3. Attributes converted into verbs in the same manner; as to lame, to cool, to warm, from lame, cool, warm.

4. Verbs formed from names and attributes by the termination ize; as method, methodize; system, systemize; moral, moralize. When the primitive ends with a vowel, the consonant t is prefixed to the termination; as stigma, stigmatize.

5. Verbs formed from names and attributes by the addition of en or n; as lengthen, widen, from length, wide.

6. Verbs formed by fy; as brutify, stratify, from brute, stratum.

7. Names formed from attributes by ness; as goodness, from good; graciousness, from gracious.
8. Names formed by dom and ric, denoting jurisdiction; as kingdom, bishopric, from king and bishop. Dom and ric are nouns denoting jurisdiction or territory.

9. Names formed by hood and ship, denoting state or condition; as manhood, lordship, from man, lord.

10. Names ending in ment and age, from the French, denoting state or act; as commandment, parentage, from command, parent.

11. Names in er, or and ee, used by way of opposition, the former denoting the agent, the latter the receiver or person to whom an act is performed; as assignor, assignee; indorser, indorsee.

12. Attributes formed from names by the addition of y; as healthy, from health; pithy, from pith; or ly added to the name; as stately, from state. Ly is a contraction of like.

13. Attributes formed from names by the addition of ful; as hopeful, from hope.

14. Attributes formed from names or verbs by ible or able; as payable, from pay; creditable, from credit; compressible, from compress. Able denotes power or capacity.

15. Attributes formed from names or attributes by ish; as whitish, from white; blackish, from black; waggish, from wag.

16. Attributes formed from names by less; as fatherless, from father, noting destitution.

17. Attributes formed from names by ess; as famous, from fame, gracious, from grace.

18. Attributes formed by adding some to names; as delightsome, from delight.

19. Modifiers formed from attributes by ly, as sweely, from sweet.

20. Names to express females formed by adding ess to the masculine gender; as heiress, from heir. Ess is from the Hebrew cesa, a female.
21. Names ending in *ly*, some directly from the Latin, others formed from attributes; as responsibility, from responsible; contractility, from contractile; probity, from probitas.

22. Attributes formed by adding *al* to names; as national, from nation.

23. Attributes ending in *ic* mostly from the Latin, or French, but some of them by the addition of *ic* to a name; as balsamic, from balsam; sulphuric, from sulphur.

24. Names formed by *ate* to denote the union of substances in salts; as carbonate, in the chemical nomenclature denotes carbonic acid combined with another body.

25. Names ending in *ite*, from other names and denoting salts formed by the union of acids with other bodies, as sulphite, from sulphur.

26. Names ending in *ret* formed from other names, and denoting a substance combined with an alkaline, earthy or metallic base; as sulphuret, carburet, from sulphur and carbon.

27. Names formed from other names by adding *cy*; as ensigncy, captaincy, from ensign, captain.

Words are also formed by prefixing certain syllables and words, some of them significant, by themselves; others never used but in composition; as *re, fire, con, mis, sub, super*; and great numbers are formed by the union of two words; as bed-room, ink-stand, pen-knife.

Syntax.

Syntax teaches the rules to be observed in the construction of sentences.

A sentence is a number of words arranged in due order, and forming a complete affirmation or proposition. In philosophical language, a sentence consists of a subject and a predicate, connected by an affirmation. Thus "God is
omnipotent," is a complete proposition or sentence, composed of God, the subject, omnipotent, the predicate or thing affirmed, connected by the verb is, which forms the affirmation.

The predicate is often included in the verb; as "the sun shines."

A simple sentence then contains one subject and one personal verb; that is the name and the verb; and without these, no proposition can be formed.

A compound sentence consists of two or more simple sentences, joined by connectives. The divisions of a compound sentence may be called members or clauses.

Sentences are declaratory, as I am writing; the wind blows—imperative, as go, retire, be quiet—interrogative, as where am I? who art thou?—or conditional, as If he should arrive.

The rules for the due construction of sentences fall under three heads. First, concord or agreement—Second, government—Third, arrangement and punctuation.

In agreement, the name or noun is the controlling word, as it carries with it the verb, the substitute and the attribute. In government, the verb is the controlling word; but names and prepositions have their share of influence also.

Agreement or Concord.

RULE 1.

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

Examples.

In solemn style. "Thou hast loved righteousness." 
Heb. 1. 9.

"Thou madest man a little lower than the angels, and crownedst him with glory and honor." 
Heb. 2. 7.

"Thou shalt not steal." Commandment.
"Art thou called, being a servant?" 1 Cor. 7. 21.

"But ye are washed; but ye are sanctified." 1 Cor. 6. 11.

"Know ye not that we shall judge angels?" 1 Cor. 6. 11.

"Do ye not know that the saints shall judge the world?" 1 Cor. 1. 2.

In familiar language, "This is the word of promise." Rom. 9. 9.

I write; John reads; Newton was the first of astronomers; we are astonished at his discoveries; are you pleased with the new chemistry? Emilia has an elegant form.

NOTE....The nominative to a verb is found by young learners, by asking who or what does what is affirmed. "Eumenes, a young man of great abilities, inherited a large estate from his father. His father, harrassed with competitions, and perplexed with a multiplicity of business, recommended the quiet of a private station." Let the question be asked, who inherited a large estate? The answer is Eumenes, which is the nominative to the verb inherited. Who recommended the quiet of a private station? His father, which is therefore the nominative to the verb recommended.

NOTE 2....Let the following rules be observed respecting the position of the nominative.

I. The nominative usually precedes the verb in declaratory phrases; as "God created the world;" "the law is a rule of right." But the nominative may be separated from its verb, by a member of a period; as "Liberty, say the fanatic favorers of popular power, can only be found in a democracy." Anarch. ch. 62.

II. The nominative often follows an intransitive verb, for such a verb can have no object after it, and that position of the nominative creates no ambiguity: thus, "Above it stood the Seraphins." Isa. 6. "Gradual sinks the breeze. Thompson."
III. When the verb is preceded by *here, there, hence, thence, then, thus, yet, so, nor, neither, such, the same, herein, therein, wherein,* and perhaps by some other words, the nominative may follow the verb, especially *be,* as *"here are five men;"* *"there was a man sent from God;"* *"hence arise wars;"* *"thence proceed our vicious habits;"* *"then came the scribes and pharisees;"* *"thus saith the Lord;"* *"yet required not I bread of the governor."* *Neh. 5. 18.*

*"So panteth my soul after thee, O Lord."* *Psalm 42.*

*"Neither hath this man sinned nor his parents."* *John 9.*

*"Such were the facts;"* *"the same was the fact."* *Herein consists the excellence of the English government."* *Blacke. Com. b. 1.*

IV. When an emphatical attribute introduces a sentence, the nominative may follow the verb; as *"Great is the Lord, glorious are his works, and happy is the man who has an interest in his favor."*

V. In certain phrases, which are conditional or hypothetical, the sign of the condition may be omitted, and the nominative placed after the auxiliary; as *"Did he but know my anxiety; for, if he did but know—*" Had I known the fact,"* for, if I had known—*"Would they consent,"* for, if they would, &c.

VI. When the words *whose, his, their, her, mine, your, &c.* precede the verb with a governing word, the nominative may follow the verb; as *"Out of whose modifications have been made most complex modes."* *Locke 2. 22. 10.*

VII. In interrogative sentences, the nominative follows the verb when alone, or the first auxiliary; as believest thou? *Will he consent? Has he been promoted? The nominative also follows the verb in the imperative mode; as go thou, "be ye warmed and filled." But after a single verb, the nominative is commonly omitted; as arise, &c.
NOTE 3. In poetry, the nominative is often omitted in interrogative sentences, in cases where in prose the omission would be improper; as "Lives there who loves his pain." Milton. That is, lives there a man or person.

NOTE 4. In the answer to a question, the whole sentence is usually omitted, except the name, which is the principal subject of the interrogation; as "Who made the chief discoveries concerning vapor? Black." "Whose theory of respiration is generally received? Crawford's."

NOTE 5. In poetry, the verb in certain phrases is omitted, chiefly such verbs as express an address or answer; as "To whom the monarch"—that is, said or replied.

NOTE 6. When a verb is placed between two nominatives in different numbers, it may agree with either; but generally is made to agree with the first, and this may be considered as preferable; as "His meat was locusts and wild honey." Anarch. ch. 36.

NOTE 7. Verbs follow the connective than, without a nominative expressed; as "Not that any thing occurs in consequence of our late loss, more afflicting than was to be expected." Life of Pope. Let. 62.

"He felt himself addicted to philosophical speculations, with more ardor than consisted with the duties of a Roman and a senator." Murphy’s Tacitus. 4. 57.

"All words that lead the mind to any other ideas, than are supposed really to exist in that thing." Locke. 2. 25.

These forms of expression seem to be elliptical; "more afflicting than that which was to be expected." "That which or those which will generally supply the ellipsis.

NOTE 8. We sometimes see a nominative introducing a sentence, the sense suddenly interrupted, and the nominative left without its intended verb; as "The name of a procession; what a great mixture of independent ideas of persons, habits, tapers, orders, motions, sounds does it contain," &c. Locke 3. 5. 13. This form of expression is often very striking in animated discourse. The first words, being the subject of the discourse and important, are made to usher in the sentence, to invite attention; and the mind of the speaker, in the fervor of animation, quitting the trammels of a formal arrangement, rushes forward to a description of the thing mentioned, and presents the more striking ideas in the form of exclamation.
NOTE 9. We have one phrase in which the personal substitute one precedes a verb in the third person—methinks, methought. Anciently him was used in like manner—him thuhte, him thought. Alf. Orosius. And names also; as "tham halgan Gast was gethuht." It thought (or seemed good) to the Holy Ghost. Lamb. Sax. Lata. 21. Him, me and tham are here in the Saxon dative case.

RULE II.

A name, a nominative case or a sentence joined with a verbal or participle of the present tense, may stand in construction without a verb, forming the Case or Clause independent; as "Jesus had conveyed himself away, a multitude being in that place." John 5. 13. Here multitude, the name, joined with being, stands without a verb.

"By memory we conceive heat or light, yellow or sweet, the object being removed." Locke 2. 10.

"I have, notwithstanding this discouragement, attempted a dictionary of the English language." Johnson's Preface.

"Whatever substance begins to exist, it must, during its existence, necessarily be the same." Locke 2. 27. 28.

"The penalty shall be fine and imprisonment, any law or custom to the contrary notwithstanding."

The latter phraseology is peculiar to the technical law style. In no other case, does notwithstanding follow the sentence. But this position makes no difference in the true construction, which is, "any law or custom to the contrary not opposing"—the real clause independent.

It is very common, when this verbal agrees with a number of words, or a whole clause, to omit the whole except

*During is the verbal of an old verb now obsolete; but its derivatives endure and enduring are in use. During is usually called a preposition; but no consideration can justify the practice—it retains its true verbal sense. Equally erroneous is the classification of notwithstanding, with conjunctions. The two words, not and notwithstanding are joined indeed without reason; but the resolution of sentences in which this compound is found, demand a restoration of it to its true place and character.
the verbal; and in this use of notwithstanding, we have a striking proof of the value of abbreviations in language. For example; "Moses said, let no man leave of it till the morning. Nevertheless, they hearkened not unto Moses." Ex. 16. 20. Here notwithstanding stands without the clause to which it belongs; to complete the sense in words, it would be necessary to repeat the whole preceding clause or the substance of it—"Moses said, let no man leave of it until the morning. Nevertheless this command of Moses, or notwithstanding Moses said that which has been recited, they hearkened not unto Moses."

"Folly meets with success in this world; but it is true, notwithstanding, that it labors under disadvantages." Por- teus. Lecture 13. This passage at length would read thus—"Folly meets with success in the world; but it is true, notwithstanding folly meets with success in the world, that it labors under disadvantages." By supplying what is really omitted, yet perfectly well understood, we learn the true construction; so that notwithstanding is a verbal always agreeing with a word or clause, expressed or understood, and forming the independent clause; and by a customary ellipsis, it stands alone in the place of that clause.

Such is its general use in the translation of the scriptures. In the following passage, the sentence is expressed—"Notwithstanding I have spoken unto you." Jer. 35. That is, "This fact, I have spoken unto you, not opposing or preventing." Or in other words, "In opposition to this fact."

It is also very common to use a substitute this, that, which or what, for the whole sentence; as "Bodies which have no taste, and no power of affecting the skin, may, notwithstanding this, notwithstanding they have no taste, and no power to affect the skin, act upon organs which are more delicate." Pourcey. Translation.

I have included in books, the words for which this is a substitute.

"To account for the misery that men bring on themselves, notwithstanding that, they do all in earnest pursue happiness, we must consider how things come to be represented to our desires under deceitful appearances."

Lecke 2. 21. 61.
Here *that*, a substitute, is used, and the sentence also for which it is a substitute. This is correct English, but it is usual to omit the substitute, when the sentence is expressed—"Notwithstanding they do all in earnest pursue happiness."

It is not uncommon to omit the verbal of the present tense, when a verbal of the perfect tense is employed—"The son of God, while clothed in flesh, was subject to all the frailties and inconveniences of human nature, *sin excepted.*" Locke. 3. 9. That is, *sin being excepted;* the clause independent.

This omission is more frequent when the verbal *provided* is used, than in any other case. "In the one case, *provided the facts on which it is founded be sufficiently numerous,* the conclusion is said to be morally certain." Campbell on Rhet. 1. 114. Here *being* is omitted, and the whole clause in italics is independent—"*The facts on which it is founded are sufficiently numerous,* that being provided, the conclusion is morally certain. *Provided,* in such cases, is equivalent to *given, admitted or supposed.*

"In mathematical reasoning, *provided you are ascertained of the regular procedure of the mind,* to affirm that the conclusion is false, implies a contradiction." *Ibm.* 134.

In this phrase, *that may follow provided—provided that,* you are ascertained, &c. us in the case of *notwithstanding,* before mentioned—*that being a definitive substitute, pointing to the following sentence—that which follows being provided.*

To this construction must be referred the old verbal *since* [sithence, sith, sin, for *seen*] from the Saxon verb to see. "The Lord hath blessed thee since my coming." *Gen.* 30. 30. That is, *my coming being seen.* This was a Saxon expression to fix the time of an event, or its beginning and continuation, which were represented by the idea of seeing it. "As he spake by the mouth of his holy

*Provided that,* says Johnson, is an *adverbial expression,* and we sometimes see *provided* numbered among the conjunctions, as its correspondent word is in French. *What strange work has been made with Grammar!*
prophets, which have been, since the world began." Luke 1. 70. That is, "the world began being seen"—that fact being in existence.*

It is not uncommon for authors to carry the practice of abridging discourse so far as to obscure the common regular construction. An instance frequently occurs in the omission both of the nominative and the verbal, in the case independent. For example: "Conscious of his own weight and importance, his conduct in parliament would be directed by nothing but the constitutional duty of a peer." Junius. Let. 19. Here is no noun expressed to which conscious can be referred. We are therefore to supply the necessary words, to complete the construction—"He being conscious"—forming the clause independent.

RULE III.

A sentence, a number of words or a clause of a sentence may be the nominative to a verb, in which case the verb is always in the third person of the singular number; as "All that is in a man’s power in this case, is, only to observe what the ideas are which take their turns in the understanding." Locke 2. 14. Here the whole clause in italics is the nominative to is.

"To attack vices in the abstract, without touching persons, may be safe fighting indeed, but it is fighting with shadows." Pope. Let. 48.

"I deny that men’s coming to the use of reason, is the time of their discovery." Locke 1. 2.

"That any thing can exist, without existing in space, is to my mind incomprehensible." Darwin. Zoon. sect. 14. Here the definitive substitute may be transferred to a place next before the verb—"Any thing can exist, without existing in space," that [whole proposition] is incomprehensible.

* This word has also been thrown into the common sink of adverbs and prepositions.
No species of sentences fall under this rule more frequently than those which begin with the radical verb. "To shew how the understanding proceeds herein, is the design of the following discourse." Locke 1. 4.

This sentence may be inverted without the change of a single word. "The design of the following discourse is to show," &c.

"To fear no eye and to suspect no tongue, is the great prerogative of innocence." Rambler. "This sentence may be inverted; but according to our idiom, the substitute it would precede the verb—"it is the great prerogative of innocence to fear," &c. The sentence thus inverted would be good English without the substitute—"The great prerogative of innocence is"—but this alters the sense, and limits the prerogatives of innocence to the one mentioned. By changing the to a, this inconvenience would be remedied; but in either case the force of the sentiment would be impaired.

"Our idea of eternity can be nothing but an infinite succession of moments of duration." Locke 2. 17. 16. "The notion they have of duration, forces them to conceive," &c. ibid. In these passages, we observe the nominative or subject of the affirmation consists of several words; for it is not simply an idea which is affirmed to be nothing but an infinite succession of moments of duration; but our idea of eternity. In like manner, attributes and other words often make an essential part of the nominative. "A wise son maketh a glad father; but a foolish son is the heaviness of his mother." Abstract the name from its attribute, and the propositions cannot always be true—"A son maketh a glad father"—"a son is the heaviness of his mother."

"He that gathereth in summer is a wise son." Here the predicate belongs to the person described—"He that gathereth in summer." Take away the description, that gathereth in summer, and the affirmation ceases to be true or becomes inapplicable.

These sentences or clauses thus constituting the subject of an affirmation, may be termed nominative sentences.
RULE IV.

The radical verb may be the nominative to a personal verb; as "to see is desirable; to die is the inevitable lot of men." Sometimes an attribute is joined with the radical verb; as "to be blind is calamitous." In this case the attribute has no name expressed to which it refers. The proposition is abstract, and applicable to any human being, but not applied to any.

RULE V.

In some cases, the imperative verb is used without a definite nominative; as "I will not take any thing that is thine—save only that which the young men have eaten." Gen. 14. 24.

"Israel burned none, save Hazor only." Josh. 11. 13.

"I would that all—were such as I am, except these bonds." Acts 26. 29.

"Our ideas are movements of the nerves of sense, as of the optic nerve in recollecting visible ideas, suppose of a triangular piece of ivory." Darwin. Zoon. Lect. 39.

This use of certain verbs in the imperative is very frequent, and there is a peculiar felicity in being thus able to use a verb in its true sense and with its proper object, without specifying a nominative; for the verb is thus left applicable to the first, second or third person. I may save or except, or you may except, or we may suppose. If we examin these sentences, we shall be convinced of the propriety of the idiom; for the ideas require no application to any person whatever.
RULE VI.

When the same thing is affirmed or predicated of two or more subjects, in the singular number, the nominatives are joined by the copulative and, with a verb agreeing with them in the plural number; as "John and Thomas and Peter reside at Oxford." In this sentence, residence at Oxford is a predicate common to three persons—and instead of three affirmations—John resides at Oxford, Thomas resides at Oxford, Peter resides at Oxford; the three names are joined by and, and one verb in the plural applied to the whole number.

"Reason and truth constitute intellectual gold, which defies destruction." Johnson. "Why are whiteness and coldness in snow?" Locke. "Your lot and mine, in this respect, have been very different." Cowper. Let. 38. *

In like manner, names and attributes representing all the subjects or particulars connected by and, must be in the plural number; as "Plato and Aristotle were learned men; these philosophers founded the academic and peripatetic schools." "The most able generals of the last century were Frederick of Prussia, the Duke of Marlborough and Prince Eugene." "We look on the whiteness and softness, produced in the wax, not as qualities in the sun, but effects produced by its powers." Locke 2. 8.

When three or more particulars are enumerated, the connective may be omitted, except before the last; as "The particular bulk, number, figure and motion of the parts of fire or snow are really in them." Locke 2. 8. The copulative may however be inserted, where the repetition of it adds to the ideas dignity, force or solemnity.

When terms of number are employed to specify the particulars, the copulative is suppressed; as "These three then, first the law of God, secondly the law of political societies, thirdly the law of fashion or private censure, are those to which men compare their actions." Locke 2. 28. 13.

*The last example is an evidence that mine is a possessive case!"
NOTE 1. The rule for the use of a plural verb with two or more names in the singular number, connected by and, is laid down by critics with too much positiveness and universality. On original principles, all the names, except the first, are in the objective case; for it is probable that and contains in it the verb add. "John and Thomas and Peter reside at York," on primitive principles must be thus resolved—"John, add Thomas, add Peter reside at York." But without resorting to first principles, which are now lost or obscured, the use of the singular verb may be justified by considering the verb to be understood after each name; and that which is expressed, agreeing only with the last; as "Nor were the young fellows so wholly lost to a sense of right, as pride and conceit has since made them affect to be." Rambler. No. 97. That is, as pride has and as conceit has. "Their safety and welfare is most concerned." Spectator. No. 121. In our best authors the singular verb is frequent, in such sentences.

What will the hypercritic say to this sentence, "Either sex and every acre was engaged in the pursuits of industry." Gibbon. Rom. Emp. ch. 10. Is not the distributive effect of either and every, such as to demand a singular verb? So in the following: "The judicial and every other power is accountable to the legislative." Paley. Phil. 5. 8.

NOTE 2. When names and substitutes belonging to different persons, are thus joined, the plural substitute must be of the first person in preference to the second and third, and of the second in preference to the third—/ I, you and he are represented by we; you and he, by you. Pope in one of his letters makes you or I to be represented by we or you. "Either you or I are not in love with the other." The sentence is awkward one and not to be imitated.

RULE VII.

When an affirmation or predicate refers to one subject only among a number, which are separately named in the singular number, the subjects are joined by the alternative or or nor, with a verb, substitute and name in the sin-

* This was also a very common practice with the best Greek and Roman writers—"Mens enim, etc et ratio, etc aeneas in semibus est." Cicero. de Senec. ed. 19.

"Sed etiam ipsius terre est et natura delectatur." ibid. 15.

See Homer. Il. 1. 61.

gular number; as "Either John or Peter was at the Exchange yesterday; but neither John nor Peter is there today."

Errors. "A circle or square are the same in idea." 

"But whiteness or redness are not in the porphyry."  

"Neither of them [Tillotson and Temple] are remarkable for precision." Blair.

Substitutes for sentences, whether they represent a single clause, or the parts of a compound sentence, are always in the singular number; as "It is true indeed that many have neglected opportunities of raising themselves to honors and to wealth, and rejected the kindest offers of fortune." Rambler. No. 58. Here it and that refer to the clauses which follow—"It is true that, many have rejected the kindest offers, &c.

"It being unavoidable in discourses, differing from the ordinary received notions, either to make new words, or to use old words in a new signification." Locke 2. 12. 14. Here it refers to the two alternative clauses which succeed.

RULE VIII.

Collective or aggregate names, comprehending two or more individuals under a term in the singular number, have a verb or substitute to agree with them in the singular or plural; as The council is or are unanimous; the company was or were collected; this people, or these people.

No precise rule can be given to direct, in every case, which number is to be used. Much regard is to be had to usage, and to the unity or plurality of idea. In general, modern practice inclines to the use of the plural verb and substitute; as may be seen in the daily use of clergy, nobility, court, council, commonalty, audience, enemy and the like.

"The clergy began to withdraw themselves from the temporal courts." Blacks, Com. Introduction.
“Let us take a view of the principal incidents, attending the nobility, exclusive of their capacity as hereditary counsellors of the crown.”  Bl. Com. 1. 12.

“The commonalty are divided into several degrees.”  ibn.

“The enemy were driven from their works.”  Portuguese Asia. Mickle. 163.

“The chorus prepare resistance at his first approach—the chorus sings of the battle—the chorus entertains the stage.”  Johnson’s Life of Milton.

“The nobility are the pillars to support the throne.”  Bl. Com. 1. 2.

Party and army, in customary language, are joined with a verb in the singular number. Constitution cannot be plural. Church may be singular or plural. Mankind is almost always plural.

The most common and palpable mistakes in the application of this rule, occur in the use of sort and kind, with a plural attribute—these sort, those kind. This fault infects the works of our best writers; but these words are strictly singular, and ought so to be used.

When a collective name is preceded by a definite, which clearly limits the sense of the word to an aggregate with an idea of unity, it requires a verb and substitute to agree with it in the singular number; as a company of troops was detached; a troop of cavalry was raised; this people is become a great nation; that assembly was numerous; “a government established by that people.”  Bl. Com. 1. 2.

Yet our language seems to be averse to the use of it, as the substitute for names even thus limited by a, this or that.

“How long will this people provoke me, and how long will it be ere they will believe me for all the signs that I have shewed among them.”  Num. 14. 11. “Liberty should reach every individual of a people; as they all share one
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common nature." Spectator. No. 287. In these passages, it in the place of they, would not be relished by an English ear; nor is it ever used in similar cases.*

RULE IX.

When the nominative consists of several words, and the last of the names is in the plural number, the verb is commonly in the plural also; "A part of the exports consist of raw silk." "The number of oysters increase." Golds. Anim. Nat. vol. 4, ch. 3. "Of which seeming equality we have no other measure, but such as the train of our ideas have lodged in our memories." Locke 2. 14. 21. "The greater part of philosophers have acknowledged the excellence of this government." Anarch. vol. 5. 272.

Note 1....The practice of using a plural verb after these and similar nominatives, is a proof of the propriety of considering the whole of the words or the name and its adjuncts as the actual nominative. Separate the words part and exports in the first example, and the affirmation of the verb cannot with truth be applied to either; and as the whole must be considered as the nominative, the verb is very naturally connected in number with the last name.

Note 2....When an aggregate amount is expressed by the plural names of the particulars composing that amount, the verb may be in the singular number; as "There was more than a hundred and fifty thousand pounds sterling. Mavor Voyages 1.

However repugnant to the principles of grammar this may seem at first view, the practice is correct; for the affirmation is not made of the individual parts or divisions named, the pounds, but of the entire sum or amount. See this subject more fully explained under Rule 14.

*The Romans used a greater latitude in joining plurals with collective names, than we can—"Magna pars in villis repleti cibo vi-noque." Liv. 2. 26. Here is an attribute plural of the masculine gender, agreeing with a name in the singular, of the feminine gender.
RULE X.

Substitutes [pronouns] must agree with the names they represent, in number, gender and person; as

"Mine answer to them that do examin me is this,"
1 Cor. 9. 3.

"These are not the children of God."
Rom. 9. 8.

"Speak unto the children of Israel and say unto them, when ye come into the land whither I bring you."
Num. 15. 18.

"This is the heir, come let us kill him, and let us seize on his inheritance."
Matth. 21. 38.

"Esther put on her royal apparel—she obtained favor in his sight—then the king said unto her."
Esth. 5.

"A river went out of Eden to water the garden, and it was parted"—Gen. 2. 10.

"The woman whom thou gavest to be with me."
Gen. 3. 12.

"Ignatius, who was bishop of Antioch, conversed with the apostles."
Paley. Evid. sect. 3.

"A letter, which is just received, gives us the news."

"O thou who rulest in the heavens."

Who and whom are exclusively the substitutes for persons; whose is of all genders, and as correctly applied to things as to persons,

"The question whose solution I require."
Dryden.

"That forbidden fruit whose mortal taste"—Milton.

"A system whose imagined suns;" Golds.

"These are the charming agonies of love Whose miseries delight." Thomp.

It, the neuter, is used as the substitute for infant or child; the distinction of sex in the first period of life being disregarded.
Formerly which was used as a substitute for persons; as appears from old authors, and especially in the vulgar version of the scriptures—“mighty men which were of old.” But this use of the word is entirely discarded. Which however represents persons, when a question is asked or discrimination intended; as which of the men was it; I know not which person it was.

Who, is sometimes used as the substitute for things, but most unwarrantably: “The countries who”—Davenant on Rev. 2, 13. “The towns, who”—Hume Contin. 11, ch. 10. “The faction or party who”—Equally faulty is the use of who and whom for brutes: “the birds who”—

The use of it for a sentence, seems to have given rise to a very vague application of the word in phrases like this: How shall I contrive it to attend court? How fares it with you? But such phrases, whatever may have given rise to them, are used chiefly in familiar colloquial language, and are deemed inelegant in any other style.

A more justifiable use of it is seen in this sentence: “But it is not this real essence that distinguishes them into species; it is men, who range them into sorts,” Sec. Locke. 3, 6, 36.

Here it is in the singular, tho referring to men in the plural. The cause or origin of this, in our language as in others, may perhaps be found in the disposition of the mind to combine the particular agents employed in performing an act, into a single agent. The unity of the act or effect seems to predominate in idea, and control the grammatical construction of the substitute.

RULE XI.

In compound sentences, a single substitute, who, which, or that employed to introduce a new clause, is the nominative to the verb or verbs belonging to that clause, and to others connected with it; as “The thirst after curiosities, which often draws contempt.” Rambler, No. 83. “He who suffers not his faculties to lie torpid, has a chance of doing good.” ibm. “They that are after the flesh, do
mind the things of the flesh." Rom. 8. 5. “Among those who are the most richly endowed by nature, and are accomplished by their own industry, how few are there whose virtues are not obscured by the ignorance, prejudice or envy of their beholders.” Spect. No. 255.

In a few instances, the substitute for a sentence or a clause, is introduced as the nominative to a verb, before the sentence or clause which it represents; as “There was therefore, which is all that we assert, a course of life pursued by them, different from that which they before led.” Paley. Evid. ch. 1. Here which is the representative of the whole of the last part of the sentence, and its natural position is after that clause.

The substitute what combines in itself the offices of two substitutes, which, if expressed, would be the nominatives to two verbs, each in distinct subsequent clauses; as “Add to this, what, from its antiquity is but little known, has the recommendation of novelty.” Hermes. pref. 10. Here what stands for that, which—and the two following verbs have no other nominative.

This use of what is not very common. But what is very frequently used as the representative of two cases—one, the objective after a verb or preposition, and the other, the nominative to a subsequent verb. Examples:

“I heard what was said.” “He related what was seen.”

“We do not so constantly love what has done us good.”

Locke 2. 20. 14.

“Agreeable to what was afterwards directed.”

Bl. Com. b. 2. ch. 3.

“I heard what was said.”

“Agreeable to what hath been mentioned.”

Prideaux. p. 2. 6. 3.

“There is something so overruling in whatever inspires us with awe.” Burke on Sublime. 364. In these sentences what includes an object after a verb or preposition, and a nominative to the following verb. “I have heard that, which was said.”

N 2
RULE XII.

When a new clause is introduced into a sentence, with two substitutes, or with one substitute and a name, one of them is the nominative to the verb, and the other is governed by the verb or a preposition in the objective case, or by a noun in the possessive; as "Locke, whom there is no reason to suspect of favoring idleness, has advanced"—Ramb. 89. Here reason is the nominative to is, and whom is governed by suspect.

"Take thy only son Isaac, whom thou lovest." Gen. 22. Here are two substitutes, one the nominative to the verb, and the other governed by it in the objective.

"God is the sovereign of the universe, whose majesty ought to fill us with awe, to whom we owe all possible reverence, and whom we are bound to obey."

It is not unusual to see in periods, a third clause introduced within a second, as a second is within the first, each with a distinct substitute for a nominative; as, "Those modifications of any simple idea, which, as has been said, I call simple modes, are distinct ideas." Locke 2. 13.

Involution to this extent may be used with caution, without embarrassing a period; but beyond this, if ever used, it can hardly fail to occasion obscurity. Indeed the third member included in a second, must be very short, or it will perplex the reader.

Substitutes are sometimes made to precede their principals; thus, "When a man declares in autumn, when he is eating them, or in spring when there are none, that he loves grapes." Locke 2. 20. But this arrangement is usually awkward and seldom allowable.
RULE XIII.

When there are two antecedents in different persons, to which a nominative substitute refers, the substitute and verb following may agree with either, tho usage may sometimes offer a preference; as "I am the Lord that make all things; that stretch forth the heavens alone; that spread abroad the earths," &c. Isa. 44. Here I and Lord are of different persons, and that may agree with either—If it agrees with I the verbs must be in the first person; "I am the Lord that make." If that agrees with Lord in the third person, the verb must be in the third person; "I am the Lord that maketh." But in all cases, the following verbs should all be of the same person.

RULE XIV.

The definitive attributes, this and that, the only attributes which are varied to express number, must agree in number with the names to which they refer; as this city, that church; these cities, those churches.

This and that are often used as substitutes for a name in the singular number, which is omitted; but the same name in the plural immediately follows after a connective; as in this example, "The mortality produced by this and other diseases"—Life of Washington. 3. 6. That is, by this disease and other diseases. The sentence may be varied thus—by this disease and others—but the first form is the most common, and it occasions no obscurity.

Other attributes and verbals used as attributes, are joined to the names which they qualify without inflection; as a wise man, wise men; an amiable child, or amiable children; a received truth, or received truths; a shining character, or shining characters.

Attributes are often used as substitutes for the names of men and things which they describe by their qualities; as few were present; the wise are respected; the bravest are not always victorious.
In this character, attributes take the plural form, and are qualified by other attributes; as the goods of fortune, two finites or infinites, universals, generals—the chief good, a happy few; "the extraordinary great"—Burke on the Sublime. 304. "The blue profound." Akenside.

When names are joined by a copulative, an attribute preceding the first, is applied to the others without being repeated; as "From great luxury and licentiousness"—here great belongs to licentiousness as well as to luxury. "Converted to strict sobriety and frugality of manners." Enfield.

When a period of time is described by its component parts or portions, specified by plural names, an attribute in the singular number, or denoting unity, may be joined to the plural names of the parts; as "I have not been to London this five years?" "an election regularly takes place every seven years;" that is, in every single period or term of seven years.

This idiom is explainable on very natural principles. The whole portion of time has no name, and we are therefore obliged to express our idea of it by something equivalent; which, in this instance, are the parts, five and seven years. The mind is fixed upon the entire period, and while the lips utter the name of the parts, the mind naturally considers the whole as a unity, and overlooking the several portions, attaches the attribute to that unity or whole period. Hence originated the customary abbreviation of twelve months, into a twelvemonth; seven nights into seven-night; fourteen nights into a fortnight; and hence dozen, hundred, &c. admit the definitive a.

To the same cause probably may be ascribed the common phrases, twenty pound, thirty foot, and others similar; in which a whole quantity or space, for which we have no appropriate name, is described by smaller portions equivalent. The idea of unity, in all such cases, being predominant, and the only one which the speaker wishes to communicate, is very apt to control the language, and occasion the omission of the sign of the plural, even when it is necessary to the very purpose intended.
Hence we learn the cause why enumeration and addition of numbers are usually expressed in the singular number; two and two is four; seven and nine is sixteen; that is, the sum of seven and nine is sixteen. This is correct upon principle; for the affirmation respects the total amount or result, which in idea is always a unity. These idioms, instead of being violations of grammatical rules, as our critics would make us believe, are wonderful proofs either of ingenuity in the framers of language, or more probably, of an irresistible propensity in men, independent of reasoning, to accommodate words to ideas, and to express their ideas with the utmost brevity as well as force.

RULE XV.

Attributes are usually placed before the names to which they belong; as a wise prince; an obedient subject, a pious clergyman, a brave soldier.

Exception 1. When some word or words are dependent on an attribute, it follows the name; as "knowledge requisite for a statesman; furniture convenient for a family.

Exception 2. When an attribute becomes a title, or is emphatically applied to a name, it follows it; as Charles, the Great; Henry, the First; Lewis, the Gross; Wisdom incomprehensible.

Exception 3. Several attributes belonging to the same name, may precede or follow the name to which they belong; as a learned, wise and martial prince, or a prince learned, wise and martial.

Exception 4. The verb be often separates the name from its attribute; as war is expensive; gaming is ruinous.

Exception 5. An emphatical attribute is often used to introduce a sentence, in which case it precedes the name which it qualifies, and sometimes at a considerable dis-
tance; as "Great is the Lord;" auspicious will be that event; fortunate is that young man who escapes the snares of vice.

Exception 6. The attribute all may be separated from its name by the, which never precedes it in construction; as "all the nations of Europe." Such and many are separated from names by a; as "such a character is rare;" "many a time."

All attributes are separated from names by a when preceded by so and as—so rich a dress—as splendid a retinue; and they are separated by a or the, when preceded by how and however; as "how distinguished an act of bravery"—"how brilliant the prize." "However just the complaint."

The word soever may be interposed between the attribute and the name; "how clear soever this idea of infinity"—"how remote soever it may seem." Locke.

Double is separated from its noun by the; as "double the distance"—the, in such cases, never preceding double. But a precedes double, as well as other attributes.

All and singular or every precede the before the name in these phrases. "All and singular the articles, clauses and conditions." "All and every of the articles"—phrases of the law style.

RULE XVI.

Attributes belong to verbs in the radical form or infinitive mode; as "to see is pleasant"—"to ride is more agreeable than to walk;" "to calumniate is detestable."

Sometimes the attribute belongs to a radical verb in union with another attribute or a name; as "to be blind is unfortunate;" "to be a coward is disgraceful." Here the attribute unfortunate is the attributive of the first clause, to be blind, &c.
RULE XVII.

Attributes belong to sentences, or whole propositions:

Examples:

"Agreeable to this, we read of names being blotted out of God's book." Burder's Oriental Customs, 375.

What is agreeable to this? The answer is found in the whole of the last clause of the sentence.

"Antiochus—to verify the character prophetically given of him by Daniel, acted the part of a vile and most detestable person, agreeable to what hath been aforementioned of him.” Prideaux, part 2, b. 3.

"Her majesty signified her pleasure to the admiral that as soon as he had left a squadron for Dunkirk, agreeable to what he had proposed, he should proceed with the fleet." Burchet, Nov. Hist., 439.

"Independent of his person, his nobility, his dignity, his relations and friends, may be urged,” &c. Guthrie’s Quintilian.

"No body can doubt but that these ideas of mixed modes are made by a voluntary collection of ideas put together in the mind, independent from any original patterns in nature.” Locke, 3. 5.

"Whereupon God was provoked to anger, and put them in mind how, contrary to his directions, they had spared the Canaanites.” Whiston’s Josephus, b. 5, ch. 2.

"Greece, which had submitted to the arms, in her turn, subdued the understandings, of the Romans, and contrary to that which in these cases commonly happens, the conquerors adopted the opinions and manners of the conquered.” Enfield, Hist. Phil. b. 3, 1-

"This letter of Pope Innocent enjoined the payment of tithes to the parsons of the respective parishes, where any man inhabited, agreeable to what was afterwards directed by the same Pope in other countries.” Blacke, Comment, b. 2, ch. 3.
"Agreeable to this, we find some of the Anglo-Saxon ladies were admitted into their most august assemblies." Henry. Hist. Brit. b. 2. ch. 1. and b. 4. ch. 1. sect. 4.

"As all language is composed of significant words variously combined, a knowledge of them is necessary, previous to our acquiring an adequate idea of language." Encycloph. art. Grammar.

"His empire could not be established, previous to the institution of pretty numerous societies." Smellie. Ph. Nat. Hist. 339.

"Suitable to this, we find that men, speaking of mixed modes, seldom imagine," he. Locke. 3. 5. 11.

"No such original convention of the people was ever actually held, antecedent to the existence of civil government in that country." Pal. Phil. b. 6. ch. 3.

Note Writers and critics, misapprehending the true construction of these and similar sentences, have supposed the attribute to belong to the verb, denoting the manner of action. But a little attention to the sense of such passages will be sufficient to detect the mistake. For instance, in the example from EnfieLl, the attribute contrary cannot qualify the verb adopted; for the conquerors did not adopt the opinions of the conquered in a manner contrary to what usually happens—the manner of the act is not the thing affirmed, nor does it come into consideration. The sense is this: the fact, that the conquerors adopted the opinions and manners of the conquered, was contrary to what commonly happens in like cases. The attribute belongs to the whole sentence or proposition. The same explanation is applicable to every similar sentence.

In consequence of not attending to this construction, our hypercritics, who are very apt to distrust popular practice, and substitute their own rules for customary idioms founded on common sense, have condemned this use of the attribute, and authors, suffering themselves to be led astray by these rules, often use an adverb or modifier, in the place of an attribute.

"The greater part of philosophers have acknowledged the excellence of this government, which they have considered, some relatively to society, and others as it has relation to the general system of nature." Anarch. ch.62.

"The perceptions are exalted into a source of exquisite pleasure, independently of every particular relation of interest." Studies of Nature. 13.
In the first of these examples, relatively is used very awkwardly for as relative, or as relating, or as it relates, or in relation; for the word has a direct reference to government.

In the second example, independently is used as if it had been intended to modify the verb exalt—the perceptions are independently exalted. But the manner of exalting is not the thing described. It is not that the perceptions are exalted in an independent manner, not in a manner independent of a relation to interest; but the fact, that the perceptions are exalted into a source of exquisite pleasure, is independent of every relation of interest. Equally faulty is the following sentence:

"Agreeably to this law, children are bound to support their parents." Paley. Phil.

Johnson in his life of Thompson has this sentence—"Why the dedications are to winter and the other seasons, contrarily to custom, left out, in the collected works, the reader may imagine." It is strange that a man of this author's discernment should not perceive that it was not the manner of leaving out, which he was stating, but the fact—The dedications to winter and other seasons are left out, which fact or thing is contrary to custom.* I do not recollect this use of contrary in any other passage; tho it is certainly as vindicable as the use of any other modifier under like circumstances; for in every case it entirely perverts the sense. In this instance, the use of the modifier instead of the attribute, may have been an oversight.

In this kind of phrase, I have even seen an instance of the participle according converted into accordingly. See this word explained in the sequel.* I have not seen priorly used for prior, in like sentences—"Priorly to his arrival in England."—Nor anteriorly, posteriorly, exteriorly, inferiorly, nor adjacently, or contiguously to the river; and the like barbarisms; but subsequently, antecedently, consistently, conformably, are frequent, in our best authors. "To do what we will, consistently with the interest of the community, is civil liberty." Paley. Phil. 6. 5. This is not English; for it is not the manner of doing, but the thing done, which must be consistent with the public interest. A misapprehension of the true import and construction of such passages, has done immense mischief to the language.

*The idiom in question has resulted from that disposition to abridge the number of words used in communicating ideas, which I have repeatedly mentioned; the effects of which are among the prime excellencies of every language.
RULE XVIII.

Attributes are used to modify the action of verbs, and to express the qualities of things in connection with the action by which they are produced. Examples:

"Open thine hand wide." Deut. 15. 17.

We observe, in this passage, that wide, the attribute of hand, has a connection with the verb 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.

"Let us write slow and exact." Guthrie. Quinlilian 2, 375.

We might perhaps substitute slowly for slow, as describing only, the manner of writing; but exactly cannot be substituted for exact; for this word is intended to denote the effect of writing, in the correctness of what is written. The attribute expresses the idea with a happy precision and brevity.

As this is one of the most common, as well as most beautiful idioms of our language, which has hitherto escaped due observation, the following authorities are subjoined to illustrate and justify the rule.

"We could hear distinctly the bells—which sounded sweetly soft and pensive." Chandler’s Travels, ch. 2.

"A southerly wind succeeded blowing fresh." ibid. vol. 2. 3.

"His provisions were grown very short." Burchet’s Nav. Hist. 357.

"When the Caloric exists ready combined with the water of solution." Lavoisier. Trans. ch. 5.

"The purest clay is that which burns white." Encyc. art. Chemistry.

"Bray, to pound or grind small." Johnson’s Diet.

"When death lays waste thy house." Beattie’s Minn.
"All which looks very little like the steady hand of nature." *Pal. Phil. ch. 5.*

"Magnesia feels smooth; calcareous earths feel dry; eithomarga feels very greasy or at least smooth; yet some feel dry and dusty." *Kirwan. vol. 1. 12. 189.*

"By this substance, crystals and glasses are colored blue." *Chaputl. Trans. 299.*

"There is an apple described in Bradley’s work, which is said to have one side of it a sweet fruit, which boils soft; and the other side, a sour fruit which boils hard." *Darwin. Phytol. 105.*

"Drink deep or taste not the Pierian spring." *Pope.*


"The victory of the ministry cost them dear." *Hume. Contin. 11. 9.*

"And just as short of reason he must fall." *Pope.*

"Thick and more thick the steely circle grows." *Hook’s Tasso 5. 8.*


"The cakes eat short and crisp." *Vicar of Wakefield.*

"A steep ascent of steps which were cut close and deep into the rocks." *Hampton’s Polybius. 2. 265.*

"It makes the plow go deep or shallower?" *Encyc. art. agriculture.*

"The king’s ships were getting ready." *Lusiad. 1. 91.*

"After growing old in attendance." *Spect. No. 982.*

"The sun shineth watery." *Bacon. Aphor.*


"I made him just and right." *Milton. 3. 98.*

"He drew not nigh unheard." *ibm. 645.*
"Whether the soul be supposed to exist antecedent to, or coeval with, or some time after the first rudiments of organization." Locke, b. 2. 1.

"When the vowel of the preceding syllable is pronounced short." Murray's Grammar.

"Here grass is cut close and gravel rolled smooth. Is not that trim? Boswell. Johnson. 3.

"Slow tolls the village clock—deep mourns the turtle." Beattie's Minstrel.

"If you would try to live independent." Pope. Let.

"He obliged the Nile to run bloody for your sakes." Whiston's Josephus. 3. 5.

"Correct the heart and all will go right." Porteus. Lect. 3.

The poets sometimes use attributes in this manner, when modifiers would express the idea. Sometimes they are induced to it by the measure; and not unfrequently by the obvious superiority of the attribute in expressing the idea with force and precision.

When two qualifying words are wanted, the latter may be an attribute, tho applied to a verb; as "He beat time tolerably exact." Golds. An. Nat. ch. 12.

"The air will be found diminished in weight exactly equal to what the iron has gained." Lavoisier. ch. 3.

"Horses are sold extremely dear." Golds.

"And greatly independent lived." Thomp. Spring.

"This was applying a just principle very ill." Vattel. Trans. 2. 7.

It will be remarked that we have no adverbial form of the attribute in the comparative and superlative degrees, except that of more and most, less and least, prefixed. But we use the attributes with the regular terminations, in these degrees, to qualify verbs. Examples:

- "Cruentam etiam fluxisse aquam Albanam, quidam auctores erant." Liv. lib. 27. 11. Some authors related that the Alban river ran bloody.
"To hands that longer shall the weapon wield."

Hoole. Tus. 7.

"Then the pleasing force
Of nature and her kind parental care,
Worthier I'd sing." Akenside. Pl. of Im. 1. 323.

"So while we taste the fragrance of the rose,
Glows not her blush the fairer?" ibm. 2. 77.

"When we know our strength, we shall the better know what to undertake with hopes of success."

Locke. 1. 6.

"And he that can most inform or best understand him, will certainly be welcomed." Rambler. No. 99.

"How much nearer he approaches to his end."

"I have dwelt the longer on the discussion of this point."

Junius Let. 17.

"The next contains a spirited command and should be pronounced much higher." Murray's Grammar.*

"Leviathan, which God of all his works
Created hugest that swim th' ocean's stream."

Milton. 1. 201.

"But mercy first and last shall brightest shine."

ibm. 3. 134.

"Such opinions as seemed to approach nearest [to] the truth."

Enfield. Hist. Phil. 2. 59.

"Her smiles, amid the blushes, lovelier show;
Amid her smiles, her blushes lovelier glow."

Hoole. Tasso, b. 15.

*In remarking upon such phrases as "The vices which enter deeper or deepest into the soul," Murray says, deeper and deepest should be more deeply, most deeply. But when he forgets the rule, he writes correct English. It is recommended to him, to change the attribute in the two passages I have cited—"The vowel of the preceding syllable is pronounced shortly"—"The next should be pronounced much more highly." This alteration will put his rule to the test.
Authors, misguided by Latin rules, and conceiving that every word which is used to qualify a verb, must be an adverb, have pronounced many of the passages here recited and similar ones to be incorrect—and in such as are too well established to bear censure, they call the attribute an adverb. Were it not for this influence in early education, which impresses a notion that all languages must be formed with the like idioms, we should never have received an idea that the same word may not modify a name, an attribute and a verb.

So far are the words here used from being adverbs, that they cannot be changed into adverbs, without impairing the beauty, weakening the force or destroying the meaning of the passages. Let the sentences be put to the test—Magnesia feels smoothly—the cakes eat shortly and crisply—the apples boil softly or hardly—glows not her blush the more fairly. Every English ear rejects this alteration at once—the sentences become nonsense. Nor can the attribute be separated from the verb—“Amid her smiles, her blushes, being lovelier, glow”—this is not the sense—nor will it answer to say, “her lovelier blushes glow”—this is not the idea. The sense is, that the attribute expressed by lovelier, is not only a quality of blushes, but a quality derived, in a degree, from the action of the verb, glow.

Thus, clay burns white—objects may be seen double—may rise high—fall low—grow strait, or thick, or thin, or fat, or lean—one may speak loud—the sun shines clear—the finer a substance is pulverized—to grow wiser, to plunge deeper, spread wider—and similar expressions without number, constitute a well established idiom, as common as it is elegant.*

* The Roman writers availed themselves of the same idiom. "Ob multitudinem familiarum, quae gliscebat inmemoran.” Tacitus. An. lib. 4. 27.


How much more impressive is the description which Tacitus gives of an alarming insurrection of slaves, than if he had used
The attributes thus connected with verbs may easily be distinguished from those which merely qualify names, the latter being separable from the verb. Thus,

"Our great enemy
All uncorruptible, would, on his throne,

Here unpolluted has no effect at all upon the verb; but may be separated from it, and carried into the first line without altering the sense.

"And the birds sing concealed." Thompson.

"He roved uncertain through the dusky shade." Hoole.

RULE XIX.

Some attributes are used to modify the sense of others and of verbalis; as a very clear day, red hot iron, a more or most excellent character. "Without coming any nearer." Locke; more pressing necessity, most grateing sound, "a closer grained wood." Lavoisier, Trans.

"Full many a gem with purest ray serene." Gray.


In these expressions the last attribute belongs more immediately to the noun expressing its quality—and the first attribute qualifies the second.

the adverb! "A multitude of slaves which was increasing and growing immense!" This is giving to prose the rhetorical sublimity of verse. It is giving the verb its full effect and at the same time, attaching the attribute to that effect.

In the word potissimum, in Livy, as in many others, we see the effect of not understanding this elegant use of attributes. Such words are marked in Dictionaries as adverbs! How would Tully, Livy and Tacitus smile to see their native tongue disfigured with accents to distinguish adverbs from adjectives, in a modern dictionary of the language! It is a just remark of Mr. Tooke, that all words which critics have not understood, they have thrown into the common sink of adverbs.
Not unfrequently two attributes are used to modify a third, or the principal one; as "The manner in which external force acts upon the body is very little subject to the will." Rambler, No. 78.

RULE XX.

Attributes are used to qualify the sense of modifiers or adverbs; as a city was very bravely defended; the soldiers were most amply rewarded; a donation more beneficially bestowed; a house less elegantly furnished; a man the least peaceably disposed.

In these phrases, the modifier attends the verb or verbal to mark the manner or character of the act or affirmation; and the attribute attends the modifier to mark the degree or extent of that manner or character.

For a like purpose of defining the degrees of quality and modification, we make great use of much before attributes of the comparative and superlative degrees; as a prince much more humanely disposed; or much less martially inclined.

We have a few other words which are often used to modify attributes as well as verbs—as a little, a great deal, a trifle. "Many letters from persons of the best sense—do not a little encourage me." Spectator. 124. "It is a great deal better;" a trifle stronger; the last of which expressions is colloquial.

RULE XXI.

The attributes each, every, either and neither, have verbs and substitutes agreeing with them in the singular number; as

"Each one was a head of the house of his fathers." Josh. 22. 14.

"Every one that findeth me, shall slay me." Gen. 4. 14.
And take every man his censer.” *Num. 16. 17.*

“Nadab and Abihu took *either* of them his censer.” *Lev. 10. 1.*

“Neither of the ways of separation, real or mental, *is* compatible to pure space.” *Locke. 2. 13.*

**Errors.** “Let each esteem others better than *themselves*.” It ought to be *himself.*

“There are bodies, *each* of which *are* so small.” It ought to be *is.* *Locke. 2. 8.*

**Note...** A plural verb, which affirms something of a number of particulars, is often followed by a distributive which assigns the affirmation to the particular objects or individuals. Thus, “If metals have, *each* a peculiar earth”—Here we may consider *each* as the nominative to *has* understood—“If metals have, *if* each metal has a peculiar earth.” There is no other way of resolving the phrase. This manner of expression is common, tho quite useless—as the last clause, “*if* each metal has”—is sufficient. It has not the merit of an abbreviation. This phrase, “Let us love one another,” is of a similar construction, but it is not easy to find a substitute of equal brevity.

**RULE XXII.**

Names of measure or dimension stand without a governing word, followed by an attribute; as, “a wall seven feet high and two feet thick”—“a carpet six yards wide”—“a line sixty fathoms long”—“a kingdom five hundred miles square”—“water ten feet deep.”

“An army forty thousand strong,” is a similar phrase.

**Note...** Double comparatives and superlatives, *most straitest, most highest,* being improper and useless, are not to be used. The few which were formerly used, are obsolete. *Worse,* a mistake in spelling *wyrsa,* is obsolete; but *lesser,* a mistake for *lesser,* is still used, as well as its abbreviation, *less.*

The superlative form of certain attributes, which in the positive degree, contain the utmost degree of the quality, as *extremely, chiefest,* is improper and obsolete. But authors indulge in a most unwarrantable license of annexing comparison to attributes whose negative sense precludes increase or diminution; as in these sentences, “These are more formidable and *more impassable* than the
mountains." Golds. Am. Nat. ch. 2. "This difficulty was rendered still more insurmountable by the licentious spirit of our young men." Murphy. Tacit. Orat. 35. "The contradictions of impiety are still more incomprehensible." Massillon. Serm. to the Great.

Similar to these are numerous expressions found in good authors—more impossible, more indispensable, less universal, more uncontrollable; and others, in which the sign of comparison is not only improper, but rather enfeebles the epithet; for the word itself expressing the full extent of the idea, ought to bear some emphasis, which, if a qualifying word is prefixed, will naturally be transferred to that word.*

In a few instances, this usage seems to be too well established to be altered, and particularly in the use of more and must, less and least perfect. In general, it would indicate more precision of thought to apply a term of diminution to the affirmative attribute—less passable, less surmountable, less controllable; rather than a term of increase to a negative attribute.

NOTE 2...In English, two names are frequently united to form a new name; as earth-worm, drill-plow, ink-stand, book-case. In some cases, these compounds are by custom effectually blended into one term; in other cases, they are separated into their component parts by a hyphen—in other cases, words are united, and the first term forms a sort of occasional attribute to the second; as family-use or family-consumption.

NOTE 3...From a disposition to abridge the number of words in discourse, we find many expressions which are not reducible to any precise rule, formed at first by accident or ellipsis—Such are at first, at last, at best, at worst, at most, at least, at farthest, at the utmost. In these expressions there may have been an ellipsis of some name; but they are well established, brief and significant, and may be numbered among the pinions of mercury.

NOTE 4....We have certain attributes which follow a verb and a name to which they belong, but never precede the name. Such are adry, afeared, afraid, alone, asleep, awake, arthritic, asleep, asleep, afloat, ashore, aside, and a few others which may be used as attributes or modifiers. We say, one is adry, ashamed, asleep or awake. But never an adry

* This effect may proceed also from another consideration. If the attribute alone is used, its sense precludes the idea of increase or diminution—it expresses all that can be expressed. But admit comparison, and it ceases to express the utmost extent of the quality.
PRACTICAL GRAMMAR.

person, an ashamed child, &c. We say, "A proclamation was issued pursuant to advice of council." But we can in no case place pursuant before a noun.

Plenty, as an attribute, has not yet been recognized by critics; but critics do not make language, nor can they reject what a nation has made. Plenty is constantly used as an attribute after a name in colloquial language, and is found in our best writers; to cavil at this usage therefore, is as idle as it is impertinent.

"The sea muscle is perhaps the most plenty." Gold's An. Nature.

"Where shrubs are plenty and water scarce." Ibm. 2.21.

"In those provinces where wood was plenty." Rycaut Garcillasso. 923.

"This species is more plenty in France." Encycl. art. Loxia.

"Provisions are plenty and living cheap." Ibm. art. Adrianople.

Worth not only follows the name which it qualifies, but is followed by a name denoting price or value; as a book worth a dollar, or a guinea—it is well worth the money—"It is worth observation."—Beloe's Herodotus. Erato. 98. If a substitute is used after worth, it must be in the objective case, as it is worth them or it.

But worthy, the derivative of worth, follows the usual construction of attributes, and may precede the name it qualifies; as, a worthy man.

Regimen or Government.

RULE XXIII.

One name signifying the same thing with another, or descriptive of it, may be in apposition to it; that is, may stand in a like character or case, without an intervening verb; as, Paul, the apostle; John, the baptist; Newton, the philosopher; Chatham, the orator and statesman.

NOTE 1....In the following sentence, a name in the plural stands in apposition to two names in the singular, joined by an alternative.

"The terms of our law will hardly find words that answer them in the Spanish or Italian, no scanty languages." Locke 3. 5. 8.

NOTE 2....Names are not unfrequently set in apposition to sentences, as "Whereby if a man had a positive idea of infinite, either duration or space, he could add two infinites together; nay, make one infinite infinitely bigger than another; absurdities too gross to be confuted." Locke 2. 17. 20. Here the absurdities are the whole preceding propositions.
"You are too humane and considerate; things few people can be charged with." Pope Let. Here things are in apposition to humane and considerate. Such a construction may be justified, when the ideas are correct, but it is not very uncommon.

"The Dutch were formerly in possession of the coasting trade and freight of almost all other trading nations; they were also the bankers for all Europe; advantages by which they have gained immense sum." Zimmerman's Survey, 170. Here advantages is put in apposition to the two first members of the sentence.

**RULE XXIV.**

When two names are used, one denoting the possessor, the other the thing possessed, the name of the possessor precedes the other in the possessive case; as, "In my father's house are many mansions." Men's bravery; England's fleet; a Christian's hope; Washington's prudence.

**NOTE 1.** When the thing possessed is obvious, it is usual to omit the name; as, "Let us go to St. Paul's," that is, church; "He is at the President's," that is, house.

"Nor thinks a lover's are but fancied woes." Cowper.

That is, a lover's woes. "Whose book is this? William's."

**NOTE 2.** When the possessor is described by two or more names, the sign of the possessive is generally annexed to the last; as, "Edward, the second of England's Queen." Bacon on Empire.

"In Edward the third's time." Blacks. Com. B. 1. Ch. 2.

"John the Baptist's head." Matt.

But if the thing possessed is represented as belonging to a number severally specified, the sign of the possessive is repeated with each; as "He has the surgeon's and the physician's advice." It was my father's, mother's, and uncle's opinion."

*The contrary rule in Murray is egregiously wrong; as exemplified in this phrase, "This was my father, mother and uncle's advice." This is not English. When we say, "the king of England's throne," the three words, king of England, are one name in effect, and can have but one sign of the possessive. But when two or three distinct names are used, the article possessed is described as belonging to each. "It was my father's advice, my mother's advice and my uncle's advice." We can omit advice after the two first, but by no means, the sign of the possessive.
NOTE 3. When of is used before the possessive case of nouns, there is a double possessive, the thing possessed not being repeated; as "Vital air was a discovery of Priestley's." "Combustion, as now understood, was a discovery of Lavoisier's." The sense of which is, that vital air was one of the discoveries of Priestley. This idiom prevents the repetition of the same word.

NOTE 4. The possessive may be supplied by of, before the name of the possessor; as "the hope of a christian." But of does not always denote possession; it denotes also consisting of or in, concerning, &c. and in these cases, its place cannot be supplied by the possessive case. Thus cloth of wool, cannot be converted into wool's cloth; nor a cup of water, into water's cup; nor an idea of an angel, into an angel's idea; nor the house of Lords, into the Lord's house. An attention to this distinction would have prevented some mistakes and much impertinent criticism.

RULE XXV.

Verbals or participles are often used for names, and have the like effect in governing names in the possessive case; as "A courier arrived from Madrid, with an account of his Catholic majesty's having agreed to the neutrality." "In case of his Catholic majesty's dying without issue." "Averse to the nation's involving itself in another war." Hume. Cont. vol. 7. b. 2. ch. 1. "Who can have no notion of the same person's possessing different accomplishments." Spect. No.-130.

This is the true idiom of the language; yet the omission of the sign of the possessive is a common fault among modern writers, who learn the language by grammar, and neglect usages which are much better authority, and the basis of correct grammar. "Pieces of iron arranged in such a way as seemed most favorable for the combustion being communicated to every part." Lavoisier. Trans.

"There is no reason for hydrogene being an exception." ibm. These expressions are not English.
RULE XXVI.

Transitive verbs and their verbals require the objective case or the object of action to follow them; as "In the beginning, God created the heaven and the earth."

"If ye love me, keep my commandments." "O righteous father, the world hath not known thee."

Sometimes the object and often the objective case of substitutes precedes the governing verb; as "The spirit of truth, whom the world cannot receive." "Whom ye ignorantly worship, him declare I unto you."

Whom and which, when in the objective case, always precede the verb.

In verse, a greater licence of transposition is used, than in prose, and names are often placed before the governing verb.

"But through the heart Should jealousy its venom once diffuse." Thompson.

"She with extended arms his aid implores." ibm.

A name with whatever, whatsoever or whichever, preceding, is placed before the governing verb; as "whatever positive ideas we have." Locke. 2. 17.

Note 1. We have some verbs which govern two words in the objective case; as,

"Did I request thee, maker, from my clay To mold me man?" Milton. 10. 744.

"God seems to have made him what he was." Life of Cooper.

"Ask him his opinion;" "You have asked me the news."

Will it be said that the latter phrases are elliptical, for "ask of him his opinion?" I apprehend this to be a mistake. According to the true idea of the government of a transitive verb, him must be the object in the phrase under consideration, as much as in this, "Ask him for a guinea?" or in this, "ask him to go."
PRACTICAL GRAMMAR.

This idiom is very ancient, as we often see it in the Latin—"Interrogatus sententiam." Liv. 26. 33. "Se id Scipionem orare." ibm. 27. 17. "Auxilia regem orabant." ibm. lib. 28. 5. The idiom in both languages had a common origin.

Note 2. Some verbs were formerly used as transitive, which are no longer considered as such; as "he repented him." - "he was swerved" - "the sum was amounted," &c. which are held improper.

Cease however, is used as a transitive verb by our best writers—"Cease this impious rage." Milton. "Her lips their music cease." Twain, by Hoole.

RULE XXVII.

Intransitive verbs are followed by the name of the act, which the verb expresses in action; as "To live a life of virtue;" "To die the death of the righteous;" "to dream dreams;" "to run a race;" "to sleep the sleep of death."

We observe, in these examples, life is the name of living supposed to be complete; as race is the name of the act of running when accomplished.

Note. Nearly allied to this idiom is that of using, after verbs transitive or intransitive, certain nouns which are not the objects of the verb, nor of precisely the same sense; but which are either the names of the result of the verb's action, or closely connected with it. Examples: "A guinea weighs five penny weight, six grains;" a crown weighs nineteen penny weight;" "a piece of cloth measures ten yards."


"Her lips blush deeper sweets." Thompson.

* The radical idea of weigh is carry, bear or sustain, from the Saxo- 

on wæg, a balance. The idiom in question has its original in that idea—a guinea weighs five penny weight, six grains—that is, carries or sustains that weight in the scales. How much of the propriety, and even of the beauty of language is lost, by neglecting to study its primitive state and principles!
"To ascend or descend a flight of stairs, a ladder, or a mountain"—"To cost a guinea."

Under this rule or the following may be arranged these expressions—"Let them go their way"—"When matters have been brought this length." Lavois. Translation. "We turn our eyes this way or that way." "Reckoning any way from ourselves, a yard, a mile, &c. Locke. 2. 17.

Similar to this idiom are the phrases to go west or east—pointing north or south—north-west or south-east and the like, which I find to be Saxon phrases and very ancient.

In some instances verbs of this sort are followed by two objects; as "a ring cost the purchaser an eagle."

RULE XXVIII.

Names of certain portions of time and space, and especially words denoting continuance of time or progression, are used without a governing word; as "Jacob said, I will serve thee seven years for Rachel." And dust shalt thou eat all the days of thy life." "And he abode with him the space of a month." "The tree of life yielded her fruit every month." "In those days I Daniel was mourning three full weeks." "Whosoever shall urge thee to go a mile, go with him twain." "To walk a mile or a league."

"Effects occurring every moment to ourselves."

"You have asked me news a hundred times." Pope.

Words expressing particular or precise points of time are usually preceded by a preposition; as "at that hour;" "on that day." But to both these rules there are exceptions.

* Lowth, followed by the whole tribe of writers on this subject, alleges some preposition to be understood before these expressions of time. But this is a palpable error, arising from preconceived notions of the necessity of such words. The fact is otherwise. All these peculiar phrases, are idiomatic; and the remains of the early state of our language.

The same idiom is found in the Greek and Latin languages, which were built on a Teutonic foundation—it is found in the Saxon, from which it is derived to modern English; and is therefore to be considered as original, or coeval with the language.
RULE XXIX.

The verb be has the same case after it as before it; or two substitutes connected with be in construction are in the same case. "It is I, be not afraid." "Thou art she," "it is he." "Who was he?" "Who do men say that I am?" "Whom do they represent me to be?" "Whom do men say that I am," is incorrect.

RULE XXX.

Transitive verbs and their verbals admit of a sentence, a clause or number of words as their object; as "He is not alarmed so far, as to consider how much nearer he approaches to his end." Rambler. No. 78.

Consider what? The whole following clause, which is the object of the verb.

"For to say, a man has a positive clear idea of any quantity, without knowing how great it is, is as unreasonable as to say, he has a positive clear idea of the number of sands on the sea shore." Locke. 2. 17. 15. Here the parts of this period in Italics are the things said, the objects of the verb say. The first clause, being the object after say, forms, with the preceding words, the nominative to is—and the same clause of the period is qualified by the attribute unreasonable.—For to say all which follows is as unreasonable, &c.

"If he escapes being banished by others, I fear he will banish himself." Pope. Let. to Swift.

Here being banished stands in the place of a noun, as the object after escapes.

"Whether that which we call ecstasy be not dreaming with the eyes open, I leave to be examined." Locke. 2. 19.

We cannot avoid observing their sensible qualities, nay the very substances to be in a continual flux." Locke. 2. 19.
This rule comprehends the construction of the verbs, save, except, add, admit, allow, suppose, and many others when used to govern sentences; and in strictness, the old verbs if, tho, unless. Examples:

"Add to this, what, from its antiquity, is but little known, but, from that very circumstance, the recommendation of novelty." Hermes. Preface. In this sentence, the whole of the clauses in Italics, is what is to be added—and is the actual object governed by the verb add.

"Suppose then the world we live in to have had a creator"—"Suppose the disposition which dictated this council to continue." Paley. Evid. 1.

"Not forgetting therefore what credit is due to the evangelical history, supposing even any one of the four gospels to be genuine." ibid. ch. 9.

"It is good also not to try experiments in states, except the necessity be urgent or the utility evident." Bacon on Innovation.

"They are in effect no more than standing commissions, save that, they have greater authority." ibid. of Counsel.

"For that mortal dint, Save he who reigns above, none can resist." Milton. 2. 815.

"I wish I could give you any good reasons for your coming hither, except that, I earnestly invite you." Pope. Let.

"Lord Bathurst is too great a husbandman to like barren hills, except they are his own to improve." Pope. Let. Sept. 3. 1726.

"The ships of either party may freely traffick with the enemies of the other, excepting with contraband merchandise." Anderson. Commerce. 3. 71.

"Suppose I was to say, light is a body." Hermes. 78.


"Ye cannot bear fruit, except ye abide in me." John 15.
"He that sacrificeth unto any god, save unto the Lord only, shall be put to death." Ex. 22. 20.

"And he could there do no mighty works, save that, he laid his hand on a few sick and healed them."
Matth. 6. 5.

He that is washed, needeth not, save to wash his feet."
John. 13.

"Add to this their custom of plantation of Colonies."
Bacon.

In these and similar passages, the object of the verb is a whole proposition or statement, in a sentence or clause of a sentence. In this passage, "Except ye repent, ye shall all likewise perish," the fact excepted is affirmed in a single verb. "Take away this fact "that you shall repent"—and the consequence must be, you will perish. This is one of the modes of abbreviation in language which I have so frequently mentioned, and which constitutes a principal excellence of the English.

We observe in some of the passages here cited, the substitute that, after the verb. This is probably the true original construction; the substitute that, pointing to the whole following clause. "He could do no mighty works there, save that, [except that single fact which follows] he laid his hand on a few sick and healed them."

Note...It may be here observed that in some of the passages cited, the verb has no definitive nominative—the verbs save, except, suppose, add, &c. are in the imperative mode, but the address is not made to any particular person or persons. And this probably has led authors to class save and except among conjunctions, prepositions or adverbs, or to consider them as used adverbially; for it has been already observed that the class of adverbs has been a sort of common sink to receive all words which authors have not been able to comprehend.

Is it not strange that suppose, add, admit, allow, and other verbs, which are constantly used in the same manner, should have hitherto escaped the same doom? In the passages above cited from Paley, suppose is used precisely in the same manner, as except and save in others. Indeed nothing but the most inexcusable negligence could have led critics to this classification of save and except—for in many passages of scripture, these very words, in the sense in which they are called conjunctions or adverbs, have an object
following them, like other transitive verbs; as “Israel burned none of them, save Hazor only.” Josh. 11. 13. “Ye shall not come into the land, save Caleb and Joshua.” Num. 14. 30. “I would that all were as I am, except these bonds.” Acts.

This use of verbs without a definite nominative occasions no inconvenience; for the address is not made to any particular person, but is equally applicable to any one who will apply it. See the subject further explained under rule 38. The following passage in Locke, 2. 27. 2. contains another verb used in the same manner; “Could two bodies be in the same place at the same time, then those two parcels of matter must be one and the same, take them great or little.”

The error of considering save as an adverb or conjunction has however produced a multitude of mistakes in construction, as in these passages; “Save he who reigns above.” Milton. “Which no man knoweth, saving he that receiveth it.” Rev. 2. 17. The nominative he cannot be reconciled to any principle of true construction. He ought to be him, the object after the verb. Except might have been used, and this word being called a preposition, would have required after it the objective case. But both words are verbs, and ought to have the same construction.

RULE XXXI.

The radical verb or infinitive follows, first, another verb or verbal; as “He loves to cherish the social affections”—“be persuaded to abandon a vicious life”—“he is willing to encounter danger”—“he was proceeding to relate his adventures.”

2dly. The radical verb follows a name; as “The next thing natural for the mind to do.” Locke. “He has a task to perform.”

3dly. It follows an attribute or verbal attribute; as “a question difficult to be solved.” “It is delightful to contemplate the goodness of Providence.” “God is worthy to be loved and trusted.” “Be prepared to receive your friend.”

4thly. It follows the definitive substitute as; thus, “an object so high as to be invisible?” “a question so obscure as to perplex the understanding.”
5thly. It follows than after a comparison; as “Nothing makes a man suspect much, more than to know little.” 

Bacon on Suspicion.

6thly. It follows the preposition for, noting cause or motive; as “What went ye out for to see?” Mat. 11.

This is the true original idiom; but it is usual now to omit for; as “he went to see a reed shaken with the wind.” In every phrase of this sort, for is implied in the sense; but the use of the word is confined to colloquial language.

The radical verb is independent, standing as a substitute for a whole phrase; as “It is not once in ten attempts that you can find the case you seek, in any law book; to say nothing of those numerous points of conduct concerning which the law professes not to prescribe.” Paley, Philos. ch. 4.

RULE XXXII.

The verbs bid, make, see, hear, feel, let, with the auxiliaries, may, can, must, shall and will, and dare and need, when used as auxiliaries, are followed by the radical verb without the prefix to; as “He bids me come”—“We cannot make them understand”—“Let me see you write”—“We heard him relate the story”—“We felt the earth tremble.”—“Which they let pass.” Locke. “He may go, can go, must go, shall go, will go.” “I dare engage or dare say”—“He need not be anxious.”

Note 1. In the uses of dare and need, there are some peculiarities which deserve remark.

When dare signifies to defy or challenge, it is regular in the tenses and persons, is a transitive verb, and followed by a radical verb with the usual prefix: as “he dares me to enter the list.” But when it is intransitive, denoting to have courage, it more generally drops the personal terminations, has an anomalous past tense, and is followed by a radical verb without to; in short it has the form of an auxiliary; and in the German, it is classed with the auxiliaries. Examples: “I dare engage.” Pope’s Works. Letter to Gay. “I dare not confess.” Swift to Gay. “I dare say.” Locke. “But my Lord, you dare not do either.” Junius. Let. 28. “Durst I venture to deliver my own sentiments.” Hum. Et. 7.
The past tense, when regular is followed by a radical verb with the usual prefix:—"You have dared to throw more than a suspicion upon mine." Junius. Let. 20. The same remark may be extended to the future tense; "He will not dare to attack his adversary."

The popular practice of using dare in the third person without the personal termination, he dare, is correct; for this appears to have been the original manner of using this verb.—"Se the wyke, se the war, se the dure—"he that will or he that dare." Alf. Groc. 6. 8. 4.

In the German language the same practice is established—dare is numbered among the auxiliaries, and thus inflected in the present tense of the indicative—Ich dare—Du darfst—Er darfst.

In like manner, need, when a transitive verb, is regular in its inflections; as "a man needs more prudence"—"The army needed provisions."—But when intransitive, it drops the personal terminations in the present tense; is formed like an auxiliary, and followed by a verb, without the prefix to; as "Nobody need be afraid he shall not have scope enough." Locke. 2. 22. 9. "I need not go any farther." ibm. "Nor need we wonder." ibm. "The lender need be under no fear." Anarch. ch. 69. "There need be no difficulty." Beddoes' Hygeia. 1. 27. "She need dig no more." Spectator. No. 121. "A man need not be uneasy on these grounds." Borcett. 3. 41. "He need not urge to this honorable court." Judge Chase.

In the use of this verb, there is another irregularity, which is peculiar, the verb being without a nominative, expressed or implied. "Whereof here needs no account." Mit. P. L. 4. 235. "There is no evidence of the fact, and there needs none." This is an established use of need.

NOTE 2. The radical verb [infinitive mode] has, in its sense and use, a near affinity to a name, and often has the construction of one. It is much employed to introduce sentences which are the nominatives to verbs, as well as the objects following them; as "To will is present with me, but to perform that which is good I find not." Here the first radical verb is the nominative to is, and the second begins the sentence which is the object after find.

NOTE 3. A common mistake in the use of the radical verb, is to use the perfect tense after another verb in past time; when in fact one of the verbs in the past time would correctly express the sense: Thus, "It would have been no difficult matter to have compiled a volume of such amusing precedents." Cowper to Hill. Let. 29. Here the first verb states the time past when it was not difficult to compile a volume; at that time the compilation could not be past; the verb therefore should have been to compile, which is present and always indefinite.

In the following passage, we have a like use of verbs which is correct. "A free pardon was granted to the son, who was known
to have offered indignities to the body of Varus." *Murphy's Tacitus.*

6. Here the offering of indignities was a fact precedent to the time stated in the verb was known; and therefore the verb, to have offered, is well employed.

**RULE XXXIII.**

The radical verb, signifying motive or purpose, often introduces a clause or sentence which is not the nominative or objective to any verb; as "To see how far this reaches, and what are the causes of wrong judgment, we must remember that things are judged good or bad in a double sense." *Locke.* 2. 21. 61. "To prevent property from being too unequally distributed, no person should be allowed to dispose of his possessions to the prejudice of his lawful heirs." *Anarch.* ch. 62.

*Note*: This form of sentence seems to be derived from the use of *for* before the verb: *for to see.* The modern practice is to prefix some noun; as *In order to see,* or *‘With a view to prevent.*" These are the bungling work of innovators, who were not satisfied with the original idiom, in which *for,* expressing cause, was prefixed to the verb; as it is still by our common people.

**RULE XXXIV.**

In the use of the passive verb, there is often an inversion of the order of the subject and object; thus, "The bishops and abbots were allowed their seats in the house of Lords." *Black's Com.* b. 1. ch. 2.

Here the true construction would be, "Seats in the house of lords were allowed to the bishops and abbots."

"Thrasea was forbid the presence of the emperor." *Murphy's Tacitus.* 2. 540. *Note*: This is a common phrase. It may be resolved thus: "The presence of the emperor was forbid to Thrasea—or Thrasea was forbid to approach the presence of the Emperor.

"I was this day shown a new potatoe." *Darwin. Phytol.* sect. 18.
"He was shown that very story in one of his own books."

Guth. Quint. 1. 42.

This idiom is outrageously anomalous; but perhaps incorrigible.

**RULE XXXV.**

The verbal or participle of the present tense without a definitive a or the, or with any possessive attribute, usually retains the sense of its verb, and has the objective case after it; as "The clerk is engrossing the bill." "The love we bear our friends is generally caused by our finding the same dispositions in them, which we feel in ourselves.” Pope’s Letters.

"In return to your inviting me to your forest.” ibid.

But when the verbal is preceded by a or the, it takes the character and government of a name, and in most cases, must be followed by of; as "The middle station of life seems to be the most advantageously situated for the gaining of wisdom. Poverty turns our thoughts too much upon the supplying of our wants, and riches, upon enjoying our superfluities.” Spectator. No. 464.

In many cases, this verbal becomes a noun, without a or the; as "It is more properly talking upon paper than writing.” Pope. Let.

**Note.** The foregoing rule is often violated by our best writers, and to make it universal is to assume a authority much too dictatorial. "Some were employed in blowing of glass; others in weaving of linen.” Gibbon. Rem. Emp. ch. 10.

"When the hindering any action." Locke. 2. 21.

In these two examples the rule is disregarded to the prejudice of the language. But let us attend to the following—"The attributing to faculties that which belonged not to them.” Locke. 2. 21. Here the verbal, preceded by the, cannot be followed by of, nor does it perform the office of a noun, but it retains the nature and government of a verb. "The not making a will is a culpable omission.” Paley. Phil. ch. 23. These expressions are perfectly good English.
RULE XXXVI.

Verbals [participles] of the present tense, either single or in union with the verbal of the perfect tense, often perform, at once, the office of a verb and a name; as "The taking from another what is his, without his knowledge or allowance, is called stealing." Locke. 2. 28. 16.

"By the mind's changing the object to which it compares any thing." Locke. 2. 25.

"To save them from other people's damning them." Wycherley to Pope.

"Such a plan is not capable of being carried into execution." Anarch. ch. 62.

"They could not avoid submitting to this influence." Boling. on Hist. Let. 8.

"Suppose a Christian, Platonist or Pythagorean, should, upon God's having ended all his works, think his soul hath existed ever since." Locke. 2. 27. 14.

"Taking a madman's sword to prevent his doing mischief." ibm. 1. 2. 20.

"He was displeased with the king's having disposed of the office, or with his having bestowed it upon a worthless man." Henry. Hist. Brit. b. 3.

"Its excesses may be restrained, without destroying its existence." Blacks. Com. b. 1. ch. 2.

"Supposing it had a right to meet, without being called together." ibm.

"He was near losing his life." Dobson's Life of Petrarch. 1. 29.

"The advising or attempting to procure any insurrection." Judge Chase.

Note 1. The verbal in ing, though strictly active in its signification, is not unfrequently used by modern authors in a passive sense;
as "More living particles are produced—than are necessary for nutrition or for the restoration of decomposing organs:" that is, organs suffering decomposition. Darwin. Zoon. sect. 39. 9. "From which Caloric is disengaging"—that is, undergoing the process of separation. Lavoisier. Translation. "The number is augmenting daily." ibm. "They seemed to think Cesar was slaying before their eyes rather than that he was slain." Guth. Quint. 2. 18. "The nation had cried out loudly against the crime while it was committing." Biling. on Hist. Let. 8. "My lives are re-printing." John. to Boswell. 1762.

Many of this kind of verbals have become mere attributes; as "Writing paper; looking glass; spelling or pronouncing dictionary." Wanting and owing have long had the character of passive verbals—or attributes, with the sense of wanted, owed.

Note 2. The use of two verbals in the place of a noun is one of the most frequent practices of our best writers; as "This did not prevent John's being acknowledged and solemnly inaugurated Duke of Normandy." Henry. Hist. Brit. b. 3. The verbal being with an attribute, supplies the place of a noun also. "As to the difference of being more general, that makes this maxim more remote from being innate." Locke. 1. 2. 20.

RULE XXXVI.

Verbals, like attributes, agree with a sentence, a part of a sentence or a substitute for a sentence; as "Concerning relation in general, these things may be considered." Locke. 2. 25.

Here concerning relates to the whole of the last clause of the sentence—"These things may be considered"—all which is concerning relation in general.

"This criterion will be different, according to the nature of the object which the mind contemplates." Enfield. Hist. Ph. 2. 15.

That is, the difference of criterion will accord with the nature of the object.

"According to Hierocles, Ammonius was induced to execute the plan of a distinct eclectic school," &c. ibm. p. 63.
Here the whole statement of facts in the last clause was according to Hierocles; that is, it accorded with his testimony.

"I have accepted thee, concerning this thing also." Gen. 19.

"I speak concerning Christ and the Church." Eph. 5. 32.

"Thus shalt thou do unto the Levites, touching their charge." Num. 8. 26.

"And touching the house of the king of Judah, say, Hear ye the word of the Lord." Jer. 21. 10.

"Now as touching things offered unto idols, we know that we all have knowledge." 1 Cor. 8. 1.

In general as is used in scripture before touching, and the construction is, Now as, or that which follows is touching things offered to idols. Since the translation of the bible, this word touching, in this sense, has been obsolescent, and respecting has taken its place.

"He finds the ideas he has in his mind to agree or disagree, according as the words standing for them are affirmed or denied one of another in the proposition." Locke 1. 2. 23.

In this passage, according as are used in a manner which is very common, but which none of our critics have seen fit to explain. As has the same sense here which it has in other places—it is a definitive substitute for the whole of the subsequent clause—according that which follows. The resolution of the sentence is thus—"The words standing for his ideas are affirmed or denied one of another—according that fact." Or more at large the resolution will stand thus—"The words standing for his ideas are affirmed one of another—according that proposition—he finds his ideas to agree—Or the words standing for his ideas are denied of each other, according that fact, he finds his ideas to disagree." So that according as, when closely examined, are found to have a close affinity to the clause independent.

Note.—The use of verbals explained under this rule, coincides with that of attributes as explained under Rule 17.
RULE XXXVIII.

Verbals often stand without a name, sentence or substitute on which they immediately depend, being referable to either of the persons indefinitely: as "It is not possible to act otherwise, considering the weakness of our nature."

Spectator.

NOTE 1.—Johnson in his Dictionary, calls this a kind of conjunction, and adds—"It had been more grammatically written considered, in French, but considering is always used."

This criticism indicates an incorrect view of the subject. Considered, cannot be used without a change in the structure of the sentence—"The weakness of our nature being considered." But to make this form of expression correspondent to the other clause, that ought also to be varied, and a definite person introduced, thus—"It does not appear (to us) possible to act otherwise, the weakness of our nature being considered." But this amendment would be of no advantage, but rather an injury.

To comprehend the use of such expressions, we should consider that men find it useful to deal in abstract propositions, and lay down truths without reference to persons. This manner of discoursing is often less invidious than to apply propositions or opinions to persons. To accomplish this purpose, men have devised words and modes of speech which enable them thus to communicate their ideas. In the passage cited, the first clause contains a general abstract proposition, equally applicable to any person—"It is not possible to act otherwise." That is, it is not possible for me, for you, for him or for her—but it might be invidious to specify persons. It is not possible for John or Thomas to act otherwise, he considering the weakness of his nature. Hence the proposition is left without application—and it follows naturally that the persons who are to consider the cause, the weakness of our nature, should be left indefinite, or unascertained. Hence considering is left without a direct application to any person.

Whatever foundation there may be for this explanation, the idiom is common and well authorized—It bears a close affinity to the independent clause.

"Generally speaking, the heir at law is not bound by the intention of the Testator." Paley. Phil. 23.

"Supposing that electricity is actually a substance, and taking it for granted that it is different from caloric, does it not in all probability contain caloric, as well as all other bodies?"

Thompson Chem. art. Caloric.

Here is no noun expressed or implied, to which supposing and taking can be referred; we would be most naturally understood—
"Supposing the first stratum of particles to remain in their place, after their union with caloric, we can conceive an affinity, &c."

"For supposing parliament had a right to meet spontaneously, without being called together, it would be impossible to conceive that all the members would agree," &c. Blacks. Com. B. 1. 2.

"The articles of this charge, considering by whom it was brought, were not of so high a nature as might have been expected."

"It is most reasonable to conclude that, excepting the assistance he may be supposed to have derived from his countrymen, his plan of civilization was the product of his own abilities."

"None of us put off our clothes, seeing that every one put them off for washing."

"And he said unto them, hinder me not, seeing the Lord hath prospered my way."

"Lie not one to another, seeing that ye have put off the old man with his deeds."

"Comparing two men, in reference to a common parent, it is easy to frame the ideas of brothers."

"Granting this to be true, it would help us in the species of things no farther than the tribes of animals and vegetables."

"Bating for abating, in a like construction, is found in old authors, but now obsolete. Admitting, allowing, and some others are frequent in a like construction.

The substitute, which, in most of these phrases, might be most conveniently supplied, is we, as the writer may be considered as addressing himself to his readers, and including them with himself.

It will be readily observed how nearly this idiom is allied to the independent clause; for by a trifling change, these sentences may be resolved into that case. "Two men being compared in reference to a common parent, it is easy [for us, you or him] to frame the ideas of brothers."—"Hinder me not, since (seeing) the Lord hath prospered my way."

* To what cause but to the low state of philological knowledge, must be ascribed the classing of according, excepting, saving, touching and words used in a like manner, with prepositions and conjunctions. The reference of these words to whole sentences, is one of the most common and best established idioms of the English lan-
Note 2. It has been remarked that the verbals of many of the regular verbs are obsolescent, the past tense being often used in their place; and the reasons for encouraging this practice have been assigned. The influence of Bishop Lowth has had some effect in preserving the use of the old participles in books, but not in oral and popular usage; and why should we retain words in writing which are not generally recognized in oral practice? The following authorities, coinciding with common usage, may be considered as exhibiting the true verbals and past tenses of the verbs mentioned,

"Having spoke of this in another place." Locke. 2. 17. 5.
"If any of these creatures could have spoke." ibn. 3. 6. 37.
"He would have spoke." Milton. P. L. x. 517.
"Words interwove with sighs." P. L. 1. 621.
"Their crowns interwove with amaranth." P. L. 2. 352.
"The fragrant briar was wove." Dryden's Fables.
"Though wove and quilted by their ladies' hands." Lusiad. 3.
"His voice was broke with sighs." Spect. No. 164.
"Had broke the enemy's lines." Murphy. Tacitus. 2. 63.
"When they have broke themselves a passage." Golds. An. Nat. 2.
"Ofarrel was broke with infamy." Hume Contin. 7. ch. 5.
"The parley was broke off." ibn.
"One of his postillions had broke his leg." Rambler. No. 61.

...and without such reference, it is not possible to resolve, or correctly to understand, the sentences in which they are employed. Indeed so ignorant have some authors been of the true construction, that they have converted accordingly, into accordingly, as if it was a modifier of the verb, in the manner before remarked of agreeably—"accordingly to the order of the day;" thus changing the true English idiom into a phrase which is neither grammar nor sense.—"Thus we say, salts with earthy bases, salts with alkaline bases—accordingly as the case may be." Nicholson. Dict. Vol. 1. 198.

—That is—accordingly that—The case may be; instead of according that—that which follows.
"When any magnet is broke in two." Cavallo on Magnet. 74.
"Differences had broke out." Henry Brit. 3. ch. 1. 3.
"Though broke and crushed." Hoole's Tasso. b. xi.
"The cards were broke open." Rambler, No. 15.
"Whose conspicuous merit had broke through the obscurity of his birth." Gibbon, ch. 4.
"An imposthume which is broke." Pope. Letters.
"A murderer, who has broke prison." Burke.
"Whether upheld by strength or chance." Milt. 1. 133.
"By ancient Tarsus held—a council to be held." ibid. 755.
"The victory was long held in suspense." Murphy, Tac. 2. 63.
"John was held in high esteem." Parteus. Lect. xiv.
"That being dead wherein we were held." Rom. 7. 6.
"Shall not be withheld." Milt. 7. 117.
"Not transient acts beheld." Parteus. Lect. 3.
"For treasures better hid." P. L. 1. 698.
"Your life is hid with Christ in God." Col. 3. 3.
"The waters were hid as with a stone." Job. 38. 30.
"The armies rang hosanna." Milton. 6. 204.
"From his school sprung the Ionic Sect." Enfield. 1. 145.
"Limpid water which sprung up." Rambler. No. 91.
"All earth had to her center shook." Milton. 6. 219.
"A free constitution has been shook." Bol. on Hist.
"Too strong to be shook by their enemies." Atterbury.
"The tower shook by the destroyer time." Armstrong, b. 2.
"I sunk into a slumber." Rambler. No. 102.
"Creator him they sung." Milt.
"Some say he bid his angels." Milt. 10. 663.
"He forbid hunting and hawking." Henry Brit. 3. ch. 1.
"This Turk forbid him shewing us that cavern." Tournefort. 1. 76.
"Pope Innocent II. forbid him teaching again." Enocy. art. Abelard.

* Holden, is much used in law language, tho long since neglected by all elegant writers. Our lawyers would do well to discard it, and the still more barbarous stricken, and swollen.
"She bid them beware of a red Embassy." Tournefort. 1. 186.
"The sum was bid—which had forbid." Milt. 10. 672. 694.
"Thrasea was forbid the presence of the Emperor." Murphy Tac.
"We are not forbid. Porteus. Lect. 7.
"He has got the name and idea." Locke. 1. 2. 16. It is to be remarked that Locke has scarcely once used gotten or forgotten in whole volumes of his works—a clear proof of the usage in his days.
"By natural necessity begot." Milt. 11. 743.
"Truth and faith forget." ibm. 807.
"The joy ceases when we have forget the cold." Rambler. No. 80.
"Transient acts—forget as soon as over." Porteus. Lect. 5.
"The muse forget and thou beloved no more." Pope. Elegy.
"I have chose this perfect man." Milt. 1. 165.
"As soon as the river was froze. Hume Cont. B. 4. ch. 3.
Note.
"The men begun to embellish themselves. Spect. No. 434.
"Rapt into future time the bard begun." Pope. Messiah.
"A second deluge learning thus errun."
"Him she approached and lowly thus begun." Hoole. T. a. 5.
"Yet the heroes that errun regions." Rambler No. 78.
"And blazing forth another course begun." Lusiad. b. 2.
"This operator will have stole it. "Swift. tale of a Tub.
"Some philosophers have mistook." ibm.
"If Diodorus has not mistook himself." Bentley.
"Have took." Shakespear—was took"—Milton. Comus.
"I have took." Prior. Alia.
"They had drank Chocolate." Rambler. No. 101.
"Albion the poison of the Gods has drank." Armstrong. b. 3.
"Until he was assured the sick had drank." Rycaut. Cartilium. 321 and 343.
"The sort which is commonly drank at table." Barrow. Trav. 61.
"The remainder is absorbed or drank up." Darwin. Zoon. Lect. 2.
"The warm liquids that are drank." Beddoes Hyg. Es. 5.*
"And tread the path their feet had tred before." Hoole. Tas. xi.
"Which numbers have tred." Bacon Introd. Nov. Org.
"When I had writ this." Locke. 1. 3. 15.
"I writ a discourse." Swift to Pope.
"The few words I writ to you." Pope to Gay.
"He writ to Lord Godolphin." Johnson Life of Garth.
"He probably thought all that he writ." Life of Prior.

It is among the excellencies of that cluster of elegant English writers, who adorned and illuminated their country, in the beginning of the last century, that they wrote their native language as it was generally spoke, unfettered by arbitrary rules. To attempt to fix a living language, and to found present rules on the usage of speaking in the days of Elizabeth, is as wrong in principle as it will be fruitless.

RULE XXXIX.

Modifiers [adverbs] are usually placed near the words whose signification they are intended to affect.

First. They are placed before attributes: as truly wise; sincerely upright; unaffectedly polite

Secondly. They usually follow a verb when single; as he spoke eloquently; and if the verb is transitive with an object following, the modifier follows the object; as "John received the present gratefully."

To this rule, the exceptions are numerous, and not to be classed under general heads. "So it frequently happens;" "men often deceive themselves"—Indeed, in many cases the position of the modifier makes no difference in the sense, and may be regulated entirely by the preference

* The old participle drank is so effectually obsolete, and so generally used as an attribute only, in the sense of intoxicated, that its use as a verbal is not a little ludicrous. "Distilled water has an insipid taste and when drunk, oppresses the stomach with a kind of weight." Heron's Fourcroy, Vol. 1. 164—Such an abuse of words is a striking evidence of the mischief done by false rules of grammar.
of sound, in the general structure of the period, provided it is not such as to mislead the reader, in the application of the word.

Thirdly. When one auxiliar and a participle are used, the modifier is usually placed between them or it follows the participle; as "he was graciously received," or "he was received graciously." The first is the most elegant.

Fourthly. When two auxiliars are used, the modifier is usually placed after the second; as "We have been kindly treated"—But it may follow the verbal, "We have been treated kindly;" and in some cases, it may precede the auxiliars; as "And certainly you must have known."

Junius, Letter 8.

Fifthly. When modifiers are emphatical, they may introduce a sentence, and be separated from the word to which they belong, as "How completely this most amiable of human virtues had taken possession of his soul!" Port. Lect. 8. This position of the modifier is most frequent in interrogative and exclamatory phrases.

The modifier always is usually placed before the verb.

Never commonly precedes a single verb, except be, which it follows; as "We are never absent from church on Sunday." It is sometimes placed before an auxiliar; as, "He never has been at court;" but it is more correctly and elegantly placed after the first auxiliar, as "He has never been at court"—"he has never been intoxicated."

This word has a peculiar use in the phrase "ask never so much dowry." Gen. 34. "The voice of charmers, charming never so wisely." Psalm 58. The sense is "Ask me so much dowry as never was asked before"—an abbreviation singularly expressive of the idea of asking to any amount or extent. Authors not understanding it, have substituted ever for never, which impairs the force, if it does not destroy the sense, of the phrase. The use of both is now common, but never is preferable—"Some agreements indeed, tho never so expressly made, are deemed of so important a nature, that their ought not to rest in verbal promise only." Black. Com. B. 3. ch. 9.

The use of here and there, in the introduction of sentences before verbs, forms an authorized idiom of the language; tho the words may be considered as redundant.
The practice may have originated in the use of the hand in pointing, in the early stage of society. Here, there, and where, originally denoting place, are now used in reference to words, subjects and various ideas of which place is not predicable. "It is not so with respect to volitions and actions; here the coalescence is intimate." Hermes, ch. 8. "We feel pain in the sensations, where we expected pleasure." Locke, 2. 7. 4.

Hence, whence and thence, denoting the place from which a departure is stated, are used either with or without the preposition from. In strictness, the idea of from is included in the words, and it ought not to be used. These words also are used not only in reference to place, but to any argument, subject, or idea in a discourse. Hither, thither and whither, denoting to a place, are obsolete in popular practice; and obsolescent in writing; being superseded by here, there, and where. This change is evidently the effect of the all-controlling disposition of men to abridge speech, by dismissing useless syllables, or by substituting short words of easy pronunciation, for those which are more difficult. Against this disposition and its effects, the critic remonstrates in vain; and we may rest assured that common convenience and utility are better guides in whatever respects the use of words, than the opinion of men in their closets. No word or syllable in a language, which is essential or very useful, is ever lost. While is a noun denoting time, and not a modifier. In this phrase, "I will go while you stay," the word is used in its primitive manner, without government, like many other names of portions of time—a month, a week.

We are accustomed to use, as modifiers, a little, and a great deal. "The many letters I receive, do not a little encourage me." Spect. No. 124. Many names are used in like manner, as modifiers of the sense of verbs. "You don't care sixpence whether he was wet or dry." Johnson.

RULE XI.

In polite and classical language, two negatives destroy the negation and express an affirmative; as "Nor did he
not perceive them,"—that is, he did perceive them. This phraseology is not common nor agreeable to the genius of our tongue.*

The following is a common and well authorized use of negatives. "His manners are not inelegant," that is, are elegant. This manner of expression however, when not accompanied with particular emphasis, denotes a moderate degree of the quality.

* Milton seems to have understood Latin better than English.
RULE XL I.

Prepositions are followed by the names of objects and the objective case; as 

- From New-York to Philadelphia; across the Delaware; over land; by water; through the air; with us; for me; to them; in you; among the people; towards us.

The preposition to is supposed to be omitted after verbs of giving, yielding, affording, and the like; as “give them bread,” instead of “give bread to them.” “Afford him protection;” “furnish her with books.” But this idiom seems to be primitive, and not elliptical.

From is sometimes suppressed, as in this phrase, “He was banished the kingdom.”

Home, after a verb denoting motion to, is always used without to; as “We are going home.”

In general, the preposition is placed next before a substitute; as to him, for us—but may be separated from a name by an attribute and definitive; as “in the busy scenes of life”—

After the attribute near, to is often omitted; as “To bring them nearer the truth.” Massillon. Also after adjoining; as “a garden adjoining a river.”

The preposition is sometimes separated from the word which it governs; as “With a longing for that state which he is charmed with,” instead of with which he is charmed. In many cases, the relative substitute may be suppressed; as “I did not see the person he came with;” that is, with whom he came—and in other cases, what is employed for the word governed; as “I know not what person he gave the present to.”

This separation of the preposition from the word governed by it, and the suppression of the substitute, are most common and most allowable in colloquial and epistolary language. In the grave and elevated style, they are seldom elegant; and never to be admitted to the prejudice of perspicuity; as in the following passage—“Of a space or number, which, in a constant and endless enlarging progression, it can in thought never attain to.” Locke, 2. 17. 8.

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A separation of the preposition to such a distance from the word with which it is connected in construction, is perplexing and inelegant.

**Note...** In the use of *who* as an interrogative, there is an apparent deviation from regular construction—it being used without distinction of case; as “Who do you speak to?” “Who is she married to?” “Who is this reserved for?” “Who was it made by?” This idiom is not merely colloquial; it is found in the writings of our best authors.

**RULE XLII.**

Prepositions govern sentences and clauses or members of sentences; as “The marine acid—dissolves all metals, without excepting gold, silver or mercury.” *Ency. art. Mineralogy.*

“*Without seeking any more justifiable reasons of hostility.*” *Hume* 1. 5.

“*Besides making an expedition into Kent.*” *Hume* 1. 36.

“*From what has been said.*” *Blair. Serm.*

“*To the general history of these periods will be added,*” &c. *Enfield. Prelim.*

“*About the beginning of the eleventh century.*” *ibm.*

“*By observing these rules and precautions.*” *ibm.*

“*In comparing the proofs of questionable facts.*” *ibm.*

“*For want of carefully attending to the preceding distinction.*” *Enfield. H. Ph. b. 2.

“*After men became christians.*” *Paley. Evid. ch. 1.*

“*Before you were placed at the head of affairs.*” *Junius. Let. 9.*

“*Personal bravery is not enough to constitute the general, without he animates his whole army with courage.*” *Fielding’s Socrates. p. 188.*

“*Pray, get these verses by heart, against I see you.*” *Chesterfield. Let.*

“*After having made me believe I possessed a share in your affection,*” *Pope. Let. 7.*
"Ambition, envy,—will take up our minds, without we can possess ourselves in sobriety." Spect. No. 143.

Note.—We observe, in the foregoing passages, the preposition has two uses—one is to precede a word to which other words are annexed as necessary to complete the sense—" about the beginning"—Here the sense is not complete—the time is not designated—To define the time which is the object of the preposition about, it is necessary to add the words—" of the eleventh century"—about that time—So that the whole clause is really the object after the preposition.

The other use of the preposition is to precede names, verbs or other words which are not the object of the preposition, but which have a construction independent of it—as " after men became christians." Here men is the nominative to become; yet the whole proposition is as really the object governed by after, as the word hour, in the phrase, after that hour. " Against I see you" is a phrase of like construction—No single word is an object or in the objective case after against; but the whole affirmation is the object. " Without we can possess ourselves," has a like construction, and though superseded, in a degree, by unless, a word of similar import, is a true English phrase—After [this fact] men became christians—Against [that time when] I see you—Without [this fact] we can possess ourselves.

Let us examine the following sentence, " After thus considering what was likely to happen, we are next to enquire, &c." Paley. Evid. ch. 2. Here considering refers to we—but is it not, with the whole clause, governed by after as the object?

" When we would consider eternity a parte ante, what do we but repeat in our minds the idea of years or ages?" Locke. 2, 17. 10. Here but has the force of a preposition, or of a verb in the imperative mode—equivalent to except—What do we except this—we repeat, &c. The Saxon beutan, the original word, is probably, but not certainly, a compound of be, the verb—and utan, out—but I think it more correct to assign to but, in this sense, a place among the prepositions, and governing either a single word or a sentence.

" Man, but for this, no action could attend, And, but for that, were active to no end." Pepe.

"What with more decency were in silence kept, And, but for this unjust reproach, had slept." Boyd. Virg. s. 26.

" The law never speaks, but to command." Paley. Ph. 3.

RULE XLIII.

The modifiers of sentences, if, the, unless, and lest may be followed by verbs in the future tense, without the usual
auxiliaries, "as." "If his son ask bread, will he give him a stone?"—"If he ask a fish, will he give him a serpent?" "Thou shalt stay me, yet will I trust in him." "He shall not eat of the holy things, unless he wash his flesh with water." "Lest thou say, I have made Abram rich."

Except has a like effect upon the following verb: as "I will not lett thee go, except thou bless me." Whether has been numbered also among the conjunctions, which require the conditional mode: but by an egregious mistake. It is not a connective, nor does it imply a condition or hypothesis, but an alternative.

Note....The arrangement of the foregoing form of the verb, in the present tense of the subjunctive mode, is one of the most palpable mistakes that the compilers of English grammars have committed. It seems to have originated in the Saxon and ancient English practice of omitting the personal termination, to express future time—shall and will not being much used, in ancient times, for this purpose. In consequence of this practice, the translators of the bible, who wrote the style of the age of Elizabeth, rarely made any difference between a present uncertainty and a future contingency; so that the present and future tenses of the original are confounded, and the form of the verb in English which comprehends both, has been placed by grammarians in the present tense of the Conditional Mode.—Take the following proofs of this fact—From the Hebrew.

Deut. 9. 28. Lest the land say—In the original, pen yamart eartz. lest the land shall say—in the future.

Deut. 30. 17. If thine heart turn away, so that thou wilt not hear—original—U,im ipenelebebek ula tesemo—if thine heart shall turn—in the future.

1 Kings. 8. 31. At asar ichetha ais leroeu—if any man trespass against his neighbor—orig—shall trespass.

Job. 11. 10. Am ike lep vichegir vicqueil, umi isibenu—if he cut off and shut up or gather together, then who can hinder him? orig—if he shall cut off and shall shut up.

Job. 13. 15. En qanehel silo tho he shall slay me—or lo, he shall slay me.

* The present translation of the bible is commonly considered as made in the reign of James I.; but on comparing it with the translations published in the beginning of Elizabeth's reign, it is evident, that the last translators merely revised the former copies, altering a few phrases and words; but leaving the body of the style unaltered,
PRACTICAL GRAMMAR.

Job. 27. 16. Am izeber koper ukecher mer likin melobus—
tho he shall heap up silver as the dust, and shall prepare raim­
ment as the clay.
Gen. 19. 19. I cannot escape to the mountains—pen teobble­
eroc uneci—lest some evil shall take me and I die.
Levit. 25. 29. Uais ki imakar bith—when, or if a man shall sell
a house.
Malachi. 4. 6. Pen abua vekiti artz cherim—lest I shall come,
and shall strike the earth with a curse.

As a general fact, the original Hebrew, verb, which the transla­
tors have rendered by a verb without shall or will or a personal ter­
mination, is in the future tense; and the English verb, having the
sense of the future, ought to be arranged in grammars under that
tense.

This remark is confirmed by the Greek translation of the seventy
—who render the Hebrew by a verb in the future or by an aorist,
the sense of which, after a sign of condition, is future.
Job. 13. 15. Ean me child ietai—tho he should slay me.
Levit. 22. 6. ean m« lousetai to soma—unless he shall wash his
body.
Gen. 14. 23. ina me eipes—lest thou shouldst say—or that thou
should not say.
Gen. 32. 26. ean mc me eulogesei—except thou shalt bless me.
See also Gen. 19. 15—Ex. 20. 19 and indeed examples in almost
every chapter in the Old Testament.

In the New Testament, the aorist, with the sense of a future,
is generally rendered by a like form of the English verb. “Take heed
lest any man deceive you”—that is, shall or should deceive you.
See 1. Cor. 10. 12.—Heb. 3. 12, a future tense,—Luke 8. 12 and nu*
merous other examples.

The translation may be considered as correct, but to make it
correct, the verbs should in grammars be arranged under the fu­
ture tense, or an aorist.

For want of attention to the distinction between present uncer­
tainty and future contingency, the translators have confounded two
tenses of the original, into one in English. Thus Matt. 4. 5. et
moaset lo theou, which ought to be translated—if thou are the
son of God—is rendered, if thou be the son of God. So also Luke.
23. 35. The original is in the Indicative—if he is the son of God.
So also in John 10. 24—1. 25—15'. 18. If the world hates you; in the
Indicative. Acts. 3. 39—if it is of God.—See also John 7. 17—1.
John, 4. 1. and 3. 13.
In these and numerous other passages, the original Greek tense is correctly placed in the present tense of the Indicative—expressing a condition or uncertainty respecting a present fact or event. And our common people who learn the language by tradition, preserve this use of the Indicative, which was the primitive use; for the Greeks and English derive it, from the same source.

"And shall not God avenge his own elect, who cry to him day and night, tho he bear long with them!—Luke 18. 7. In the original, tho he bears long with them. —The fact is not mentioned as a future contingency—tho he should bear; but as a fact admitted—tho he bears long with them, still he will be avenged.

"But tho our outward man perish, yet the inward man is renewed day by day"—2 Cor. 4. 15. The original, diaphtheireitai, is in the present tense of the Indicative—tho our outward man perish, or rather, is perishing or decaying. The translation, which indicates a future casual event, tho our outward man perish, [that is, should perish] seems not to convey the Apostle's meaning, for he evidently speaks of a fact conceded, as present.

I might extend these criticisms to almost every passage in the Bible, in which this pretended present tense of the subjunctive mode is used in our version, and show that the translators have confounded two tenses, which, in the original, are uniformly kept distinct.

To demonstrate the impropriety of that practice, let us attend to the principles of our own tongue. It has been before remarked that if, tho, and unless, are old Saxon verbs in the imperative mode, and that the ingenious invention of our ancestors to express a condition or supposition, was, to employ a verb, with the sense of give, grant, put, be it, that is, give the fact. We retain the idiom, and the words employed; but as these have lost their inflections, critics have ignorantly classed them with conjunctions—a part of speech to which they have no more alliance than they have to nouns or adjectives.* We have also certain words of Latin original, employed for precisely the same purpose—suppose, grant, and admit, which indeed are not yet misnamed and classed with conjunctions.

The Saxon method therefore of expressing condition, doubt, or hypothesis, was to declare the fact which was to be supposed, by a verb in the Indicative mode, and prefix to this fact or statement, a verb in the imperative mode, denoting give, grant, or suppose. Thus, "Give his son shall ask bread, will he give him a stone." Give, in the imperative and his son shall ask bread, a sentence following give as its object. This is precisely the construction of such sentences of a conditional kind. Now to omit the personal termination of the verb in the hypothetical sentence—"Give, he ask

* If his son ask bread, will he give him a stone." In the name of reason, what single property of a conjunction has if? The is as much a conjunct as the is; and this is equally true of et and nisi in Latin.
bread," is to convert the sentence into false English, unless we
suppose the tense future, and the auxiliary will or shall suppressed.
In the present tense, it is just as bad English, as to omit the termina-
tion after the Latin equivalent words: suppose or admit. "Sup­
pose, his son ask bread"—"Suppose, he be the son of God."

Unless, is a verb, on lyean, to unloose, release, dismiss, put away,
remove. Unless he wash his flesh, he will be unclean. That is,
dismiss, (or suppose not to exist) this fact—he wash his flesh, and
he will be unclean. This shows that the sentence is not English,
except we consider wash as in the future, and the auxiliary shall
suppressed. That the tense is future, is not only obvious, from the
sense of the verb itself, but from the following clause—if his son
(shall) ask bread, will he give him a stone? "Unless he (shall)
wash his flesh, he will be unclean—the last clauses are in the fu­
ture, corresponding in time with the contingent events expressed
in the first clause.

To add further proof of this explanation, some extracts from our
best Saxon writings are here offered, showing that the Indicative
Mode was actually employed after these signs of condition.

"We witan other egland her be easton; therg ge magon earldian,
gif ge willath, and gif hwa eow withstent &c." Saxon Chronicle.
p. 1. We know other island eastward from this place; there ye
may dwell, if ye willeth (will) and if any one (who) shall with­
stand you"—Such is the literal English.

"Gif wceleas nellath sibbe with us," p. 25. If the Welsh willeth
not (will not conclude) peace with us.

"Gif hwa hit doth." p. 43. If any one doth it.

"Gif hwa this to breketh any thing," p. 38. If any one break­
eth this any thing, that is, is guilty of the least violation.

"Gif any man is"—p. 67.

"Gif thar man an ban findeth unforbaerned"—Alfred's Orosius.
p. 28. If any man findeth a bone unburned—

"Gif hy gemunan willath hiero yldrena unclxnressa." p. 61.
If they willeth recollect the uncleanness of old times.

"Gif any man yd"—p. 93. If any man is.

"Gif hi thonue sweethath" p. 177. "If they then conceiveth."

"Gif we him fulgengan willath" p. 178. "If we willeth devote
ourselves to him."

It will be noted that the Saxons joined a verb in what we now
call the third person singular, with nouns and pronouns plural—we
or they willath, and this form of the verb after plural nominatives is
still in vulgar use—the horses runs fast. Indeed this ending eth or
eth is in the Saxon grammar, given as plural. But the passages
cited prove the only point I am defending: which is, that the in­
dicative mode, as the language was originally constructed, follows
the signs of condition.
To show that the form of the verb, in conditional sentences, which is commonly called the present tense of the subjunctive mode, is really the future tense, and was so intended by ancient writers, let the following authorities be considered.

"*Gif hwa gefehhte on cyninges hus*"—Give who fight in the kings house."—*Si quis in regia pugnaserit.* That is, if any person shall fight in the royal palace.  *L. L. Ina. 8. Lombard Trans.*

"*Gif hwa hwafore unaleased fram his hlaforde.*" Give who go without leave from his lord.  "*Si quis decesserit a domino sine ejus venia.*" If any person shall depart from his lord without his permission.  *L. L. Ina. 39.*

"*Gif hwa slea his thone nethstan mid stane.*" Give who slay (strike) his nearest with a stone.

"*Si quis percusserit suum proximum lapide.*" If any person shall smite his neighbor with a stone.  *L. L. Alfred.*

"*Se theof brecce mannnes hus nightes and cyrthe thare ofslagen*"—if a thief break open a man’s house at night and be there slain.—*L. L. Alf. 25.*

These and similar examples without number in the Saxon writings, demonstrate that this form of the verb was intended for a future tense. For 1st, let it be observed that shall and will in the Saxon were rarely used as signs of the future tense—2dly. The sense is future and contingent, as every act commanded or prohibited by law must necessarily be—and this form of the verb is usually translated into the Latin future—3dly. The same form of the verb is used in the Saxon, without the sign of a condition. For example.

"*Se the slea his agenne theowneesne oththe mennen.*" He that slay (or strike) his own male or female servant.  *L. L. Alf. 17.*

"*Se the frione forstake and he layne bebyrne, swelt se death.*" He that steal a freeman and sell him, let him suffer death.  *L. L. Alf. 15.*

"*Bute he gebete,*" without he compensate—that is, unless he shall make compensation.  *L. L. Edmund.*

It is evident that the verbs are here used for the future tense; he that strike or steal, for he that shall strike or steal.

4thly. The same fact may be inferred from the use of the future by the Roman law-givers, in similar cases. So nearly allied are the Teutonic and Latin languages, that some of the pronouns in each are the same words with trivial alterations in orthography, and numerous idioms of the two languages are the same. Now in the early Roman laws, we find the verb after the sign of condition always in the future.—Witness the following laws of Romulus and Numa, in their primitive orthography.
"Si pater filion ter venunduit, filius a patre liber est." If a father shall sell his son three times, let the son be free.

"Sei (si) puer parentis verberit"—if a boy shall beat his parents.

"Patronus, si clienti fraudem faciet, sacer esto." If a patron shall defraud his client, let him be devoted or cursed.

In the same manner without the sign of condition. Qui terminum exarassit—he who shall remove a landmark.

There can be no doubt therefore that this form of the verb, in which the personal termination is dropped, is a real future tense, and ought to be considered as such by Grammarians. In Grammars it should stand as a future, or an aorist: noting an indefinite time and a contingent act.

Emin de ekeino diaporelon en arche, ei estin upsous tis bathous techre. Longinus, Sect. 2.

"We are first to enquire whether (or if) there is any art in the sublime and profound." Here Longinus has used the indicative to express a present doubtful fact.

"Quae [mors] aut plane negligenda est, si omnino extinguit animum, aut etiam optanda, si aliquo eum deducit, ubi sit futurus eternus." Cicero, de Senec. 19.

Death is not to be regarded, if it annihilates the soul: and is even desirable, if it conduces it to immortality.

Here uncertainty of a present fact is expressed by the present tense of the Indicative, after si; but after ubi, not a conjunction expressing uncertainty, the author uses, sit, in the subjunctive—where the soul is or may be. So also after quoniam, "quom tantae celeritas animum sit," since such is the activity of the soul. Ibid. ca. 21.

In which use, no doubt or uncertainty is expressed, but the fact is admitted as true. And after ut, "ex quo fit, ut animosior etiam senectus sit, quam adolescentia." Ca. 20. By which means old age is rendered more brave than youth.

The use of the subjunctive in Latin was not regulated by the uncertainty of the fact stated; but by certain conjunctions, adverbs and preceding verbs. And a principal use of it was to express what, in English, is expressed by auxiliaries; as in the following examples. "Plures enim dicent, quern ad modum haec fiat, quam quem ad modum his reseruerit." Cicero, de Amicitia. 12.

More men will inform us how these things may happen, than how the evil may be resisted. "Quid enim refert, qua me ratione cognosce cogitis? cognitum certe." Ibid. 8. Of what importance is it, by what means you may constrain me! You still impose constraint.

"Quod si comminueris, vilem redigatur ad assem." Hor. Sat. 4. 122.

If you should lessen it, it may be reduced to a paltry farthing.

"Habes auctorem, quo facias hoc." Hor. Sat. 1. 43. You have an authority, by which you may do this, or for doing this.
"Quod si in hoc erro, quod animos hominum immortales esse credam, libenter erro"—Cic. de Sen. 23. "For if I err in this, that I believe the souls of men to be immortal, I willingly err." Here the first verb erro immediately subjoined to the conjunction implying condition or uncertainty, is in the Indicative—while the second verb, credam, which is not dependent on any word expressing condition, is in the subjunctive.

And here let it be observed that quod, in both parts of the sentence, is marked with an accent in our printed copies of the original; when in fact it is a substitute for the following sentence—quod si in hoc erro—gif which, be it, I err in this—or be that—or in old English, all be it, I err. The second quod relates immediately to the antecedent hoc—in hoc, quod—in this which follows. In neither case is quod an adverb or conjunction—in such a wretched state is the grammar of the Latin, as well as the English language!

"Frequentes—postulant ut signum detur." The multitude demand that the signal should be given—or in the elliptical, indefinite form, that the signal be given Edicunt inde ut abstinent pugna. They order that they should abstain from action: Lib. lib. 11. 45. This is one of the most important uses of the Latin subjunctive Mode.

I have been more full upon this subject, with a view to reconcile the differences between books and colloquial usage. It struck me, at an early period of my studies, as the most monstrous absurdity, that books should teach us a language altogether different from the common language of life. I was determined to satisfy my own mind, which practice is most correct upon principle, and who have made innovations, the learned or unlearned. The result is perfectly satisfactory. In the particular under consideration, the popular practice of using the Indicative Mode, in conditional phrases, when present time is expressed, is perfectly correct. The personal terminations, cannot correctly be dropped after, if, tho, lest and whether, unless when the tense is future, and an auxiliary, will, shall or should, is understood.

The use of the present tense of the subjunctive, without the personal terminations was formerly very general. It was reserved for the classical writers of the eighteenth century to lay aside the pedantic forms, if he go, if it proceed, though he come, &c. and restore the native idiom of the language, by writing it as men spoke it, and as they still speak it, unless perverted by Grammars.

"If they are notions imprinted." Locke on Und. p. 15. Lond. 1796.
If principles are innate."

"If any person hath put such a notion into his head."—ft. 73.

"Whether that substance thinks or no." ft. 82.

"Whether the soul doth think—whether it has pleasure or pain—or be [is] capable of happiness or misery," ft. 83.

"Tho a shadow consists in nothing but the absence of light." ft. 110.

"Whether these his observations are justly grounded, I cannot tell. Spect. No. 265.

"If I am rightly informed." Ibm.

"If he has not the pomp of a numerous train." No. 264.

"Tho mutual esteem produces mutual desire to please. Rasselas. 29.

"If he was but feared." Rambler, No. 4.

"If his health was impaired." No. 5.

"If he is born to think." No. 7.

"If he is dwelling with delight." No. 8.

"If he pretends to hold him to syllogism." No. 9.

"Of which the writer, if he was to live now, would be ashamed." No. 29.

"If it was not for you." Pope Letters.

"If there was no other way." Hume continued 7. ch. 2.

"If the revolution was not lawful—if the doctor was guilty." Ibm. ch. 5.

"If this was the decision of man only." Porteus, Lect. 3.

"If he has declared." Ibm.

"If the reality is proved." Lect. 6. ibm.

"Tho this institution is calculated." Coxe Trav. Russia.

"Unless some powerful motive animates this regularity and decency of appearance." Anarcharsis Trans ch. 47.
"If a soldier has quitted his rank—if he is married—if the person admits the augmentation—if he does not."—ibm. ch. 56.

"If the physician does not enjoin a proper regimen—if the patient deviates from his injunctions."—Beddoes Hygiene. Es. 3.

"If newspapers are scourilous."—Junius, Let. 16.

"If no circumstances are alleged in his favor—if no allegation be [is] made to lessen the force of evidence."—Ibm. 62.

"If he means Antigonus—if he means Demetrius."—Prideaux. 1. 2.

"Unless he thinks it proper or prudent so to do?"—Blacks. Comment. 1. 2.

It is needless to multiply authorities—they may be cited without end—and such is the language. The elegant writers here cited, learnt their native tongue, certainly not in Grammars, but in actual usage, in national practice—Fortunately they were not fettered by the pedantry of schools, but they found differences between the oral and written language, some of which have crept into all their writings, and now stand as inconsistencies, not unfrequently in the same sentence. I recollect one author who is not chargeable with this fault—Dr. Gregory, in three volumes entitled the "Economy of Nature," has used the indicative after the signs of condition, without an exception; and it is with pleasure I see such respectable writers restoring the language to its primitive purity.

The poets omit the auxiliary of the future tense, without the sign of contingency—a licence not admissible in prose.

"To morrow, ere fresh morning streak the east."—Milt.

That is, shall streak.

The auxiliary is omitted also after a command.

"Gabriel—hath given
"Charge and strict watch, that to this happy place,
"No evil thing approach or enter in."—Milt.

To the false rules of our Grammars, we may ascribe the omission of the personal terminations of verbs after till and
before—that at the end of which a new shaft is sunk, and this is done repeatedly, till the shaft penetrate to the bottom of the mine.” Heron’s Fourcroy. 2. 248. “The resounding of the rock when it is struck, warns the workmen before this event take place.” Ibn. 249.

It has been remarked under the head of tenses, that the present tense is properly used for the future, after words which carry the mind forward to the time. Till is a word of this sort—its meaning is, to the time, which has such an effect upon future time, that we conceive and speak of it in the present tense.

In the first passage just cited, shall may perhaps be supplied—shall penetrate—which will render the sentence tolerable; but it cannot be prefixed to take in the second passage, and the sentence appears not only incorrect, but ridiculous. The same fault in Pinkerton’s Geography, renders many passages incorrect, and some ridiculous.

Tho the Mersey present a grand estuary, its course is not of great extent.” Pinkerton’s Geography, v. 1. Phil. 82.

This is not English even upon Lowth’s principles, for he lays it down as a rule, that when a fact is certain, admitted, or taken for granted, the indicative mode is the most proper—and he condemns this translation—“Tho he were a son, yet learned he obedience.” “Tho the Mersey presents,” is the true English idiom.

“A large river, which there divides itself into three branches before it join the sea.” Vol. 2, 135.

“In Neged, a young Arab cannot marry till he have proved his valor.” Ibn. 316.

Pinkerton’s works abound with similar mistakes which prove the writer to have a very superficial knowledge of Grammar; for he carries the false rules of Lowth to an extent never intended by the learned author. The like errors abound in the works of Paley—and are frequent in Dr. Miller’s Retrospect of the eighteenth century; an elegant work, disfigured only by errors of grammar, into which the author must have been misled by false rules.*

* From a careful survey of the history of our language, I have ascertained beyond any reasonable doubt, that the English Gram
“Those who hold such doctrine must require that a man so attacked, must, before he strike the assailant, stop and ascertain how the pistol is loaded.” Trial of Selfridge, p. 160.

I know not whether this inaccuracy is the fault of the Judge or of the reporter; but strike cannot be considered here as either future or conditional; it expresses time in that indeterminate manner, which constitutes a principal office of the present tense of the Indicative—It ought to be strikes.

RULE XLIV.

Connectives join two or more clauses or members in a compound sentence:—as “Keep thy tongue from evil, and thy lips from speaking guile.”

Here are two clauses united by and, which continues the sense and prevents the repetition of the verb keep.

“I sought the Lord, and he heard me, and delivered me from all my fears.” Here are three clauses combined into a sentence or period by the help of and; but a new verb is introduced in each, and the second connective prevents the repetition of the substitute he only.

“A wise son heareth his father’s instruction; but a scoffer heareth not rebuke.” Here but joins the two clauses, but a new character is the nominative to a distinct verb, in the second clause, which exhibits a contrast to the first and no word is omitted.

RULE XLV.

Connectives join single words, which are the nominatives to the same verb, expressed or understood—or words which follow a transitive verb or a preposition in the same case. Connectives also join verbs, attributes, and modifiers. Examples:

...
"Peter and John went up into the Temple."

Here Peter and John are the nominatives to the verb, and the connective and prevents the repetition of the verb and following part of the sentence—Peter went up into the Temple—John went up into the Temple. I and you will go to Boston—William and Thomas must go to Washington. Neither I nor John was present—Peter or Henry will attend. "I am the way and the truth and the life."

In the following, the connective joins words which are the object of a verb or preposition. "The torch of truth discovers malevolence and envy." "I have dispatched my correspondents with fair words and general civility."—Rambler.

I esteem him and her and them—He loves us and you. It is for you and me.

In the following, two verbs in the same tense or mode are joined by a connective. "Their fondness for allegory dazzled and confounded their understanding." Enfield. "Plutarch taught philosophy and was a voluminous writer." Ibm. "All are of the dust and turn to dust." "The idea is likely to sink the deeper and spread the farther."

Connectives join attributes and modifiers—as "He is wise and virtuous." "An orator pleads eloquently and plausible.

The connectives perform a very important office in abridging language; by enabling us to omit words which must otherwise be repeated, Thus when I say "I esteem religion and virtue," two affirmations, "I esteem religion, I esteem virtue," are actually included in the sentence.

When several words or clauses succeed each other, it is not uncommon to omit the connective; as "We hear nothing of causing the blind to see, the lame to walk, the deaf to hear, the lepers to be cleansed." Paley Evid.

After the connective than, there may be and usually is an ellipsis of a verb, a name or other words; as "There is none greater in this house than I." Gen. xxxix. 9, that is, than I am.

"In the throne only will I be greater than thou." Gen. xli. that is, than thou shalt be.

"He loves his money more than his honor," that is, more than he loves his honor.
"The king of the north shall return and set forth a multitude greater than the former," Dan. xi. 13, that is, than the former multitude.

"I will pull down my barns and build greater," Luke 12, that is, greater barns.

Sometimes other words may be suppressed without obscuring the sense, as "It is better for me to die than to live." Jonah 4. That is, better than for me to live.

Precise rules for the ellipsis of words, in all cases, cannot be given. In general, a writer will be governed by a regard to perspicuity, and omit no word, when the want of it leaves the sense obscure or ambiguous, nor when it weakens the strength of expression. But the following remarks and examples may be of some use to the student.

1. When a number of words are joined in construction, the definitive may be omitted, except before the first; as the sun, moon and stars—a house and garden—So also when two or more attributes agree with the same name; as a great, wise and good prince. But when attributes or names are particularly emphatical, the definitive should be expressed before each—the sun, the moon and the stars,

2. The repetition of names adds emphasis to ideas; as "Christ the power of God and the wisdom of God," is more emphatical than "Christ the power and the wisdom of God."

3. An attribute belonging to two or more names, joined by a connective, may be omitted except before the first; as my house and garden—good qualities and actions—"their interest and solicitation"—Rambler, 56. Nor does it make any difference that the names are in different numbers, as our attributes have no distinction of number, the same word may be applied to the singular number and the plural; as a magnificent house and gardens—his house and lands. But when a precedes the first attribute, this construction is not elegant.

4. In compound sentences, a nominative substitute or name may be omitted before all the verbs except the first;
as I love, fear and respect the magistrate—instead of I love, I fear and I respect. The connective substitute may sometimes be suppressed; as the man I saw, for the man whom I saw.

**Note.**...In this particular of the connective substitute, authors often indulge in an unwarrantable license. The use of *that* for *which* is obsolete and not justifiable. "We speak that we do know," is an original English phrase, but has ceased to be used by good writers.

The omission of the substitute in phrases like this—"There was an instance occurred"—for *which occurred*—is found in all our good authors—but it is so gross a violation of syntax, without utility or pretext of any kind, that every writer should avoid it.

The verb may often be omitted; as he is wise and virtuous— that is, he is wise, he is virtuous. They go to see and be seen— that is, they go to see, they go to be seen.

After *hence, thence* and *whence* a verb is often omitted without occasioning obscurity—as "Hence the flood of vice which overspreads the land."

The auxiliars often supply the place of a principal verb; as John loves money better than you do; John has read more books than Peter has [read]; John shall go, but Peter shall not [go].

A modifier need not be repeated with every word which it qualifies, the connective *and* rendering it unnecessary; as he spoke and acted gracefully. Here gracefulness belongs to speaking as well as to acting.

A preposition may be omitted after a connective; as He walked over the hills and the valleys—that is, over the valleys.

After *like and near, to* is usually omitted; as "Like three distinct powers in mechanics"—*Blacke. Com. 1. 2.* That is, like to three—"Such opinions as seemed to approach nearest the truth"—*Enfield. 2. 59*—that is, nearest to the truth.

Likewise after *join and adjoin, to* is sometimes omitted; as "a garden adjoining the river."

"For is omitted by the poets after *mourn."

"He mourn’d no recreant friend, no mistress coy."

**Note.**...The common rule respecting connectives is, that they join like *modes* and *tenses*, as well as like cases; or if the tense or mode is changed, the nominative to the additional verb must be.
repeated. But this is often false. "He lives temperately and he
has long lived temperately," is an instance in which the repetition of
the nominative is alleged to be indispensable. This I apprehend
to be a great mistake—the sentence is more correct, as well as
more easy and familiar, without the last nominative. So when we
pass from the affirmative to the negative or from the negative to the
affirmative, the subject or nominative is said to be always resumed.
This is doubtless an egregious error—He is rich, but he is not res­
pectable,' is not so common a sentence, as "he is rich, but not
respectable." The general rule respecting the ellipsis, is, that a
word may always be suppressed, when the omission occasions no
obscurity or ambiguity. "He is indolent and therefore will be
poor," is perfectly good English. But let the rule be put to the
test of authorities.

"Not that he is or ever was, obliged by these statutes to call a
new parliament every year." Blacks. Com. b. 1. 2.

Is this incorrect? No man will pretend that this is not an autho-
rized idiom and perfectly correct. And how shall we supply the
ellipsis? Not that he is or he ever was! What sort of language is
this?

"For when a man says gold is malleable, he means and would
insinuate something more than this." Locke. b. 3. ch. 10. 17.

What necessity is there of repeating the nominative before
would? Not the least. It is impossible to improve the perspicuity
of the sentence.

"That they have contributed and will probably yet contribute in
a considerable degree to the abridgment of labor—Miller's retros­
psect, vol. 1. 390.

"But whatever they were or are." Burke. Reflections on the
Fr. rev. 72.

"The whole has been done under the auspices, and is confirmed
by the sanction, of religion and piety." ibm.

"It has opened and will more and more open their eyes," ibm. 84.

"If I have been born, or dwell or have served an apprenticeship
in one town." Payley. Phil. b. 6. 7.

"He neither reserves nor can give delight." Johnson.

"Cowper's exhortation—is not inferior to similar exhortation—
in the accomplished translator of Tanillo's poem, the Nurse, by
which these enchanting writers have induced, and will continue to
induce, so many mothers," &c. Life of Cowper. Will any per-
son say, this latter sentence is not correct? How will the gramma-
rian supply the nominative? It cannot be done, without repeating
a part of the preceding clause—by which these enchanting writers
have induced, and by which they will continue to induce.—And of
what use is this repetition? Does it add any thing to perspicuity
or elegance? Not the least.—Nothing can show, in a stronger light, the falsity of the rule.

"The philosopher who hath busied himself in considering their natures, and thinks he knows how far, &c." Locke 4. 2, ch. 8. 3.

Here a repetition of the nominative who before thinks, would improve the structure of the sentence, but is by no means indispensable.

"These are the fountains of knowledge, from whence all the ideas we have or can have, do spring." Locke 2. 1.

"I neither do nor can comprehend all I would." ibid. 2. 17.

In the two last examples, the repetition of the nominative, instead of improving, would impair the structure of the sentences.

It should however be observed, that the distinction between the Indicative and the Potential Mode in our language, is not well founded—at least as it regards the grammatical construction—The potential is in fact an Indicative or Declarative mode, unless when the conditional signs are used—and might more correctly be called the Potential Indicative. Certain it is that the connectives unite the Indicative and potential modes, in our language, without a nominative repeated, just as well as they join two verbs in the same tense and mode.

The truth seems to be, men learn rules and apply them almost as mechanically as a parrot—without attending to their correctness or applicability. The rule under consideration was copied from the Latin Grammar and applied to the English Language, without first settling the question, whether in English we have a potential mode or not—a question not fully determined. And how can it be expected that rules should be correct, when the essential preliminary question, concerning the subjects to which they are applicable, has not been settled?

The mischiefs resulting from such a vague manner of instituting Grammar rules, will be fully seen in the perpetual confusion of tenses which recur in almost every author. We are told that conjunctions connect like tenses and modes—and whether is a conjunction. Let us see the consequence "If I should ask any one, whether ice and water were two distinct species of things." Locke, 5. 4. 18.

To resolve this sentence by common grammars, we are to say, that should ask is a verb in the imperfect tense of the subjunctive mode; whether is a conjunction, and were, a verb connected with ask by that conjunction. And what sort of language is this—"If I should ask"—a contingent event or hypothesis—of course the time future—"Whether ice and water were two distinct things" that is, were, in time past, and perfectly past; for were by itself never denotes time imperfectly past?

In this way, the author is led to write what he never intended—sheer nonsense. The verb was intended to express a fact of general existence—one which is always true or false—that is, the identity or diversity of ice and water—a fact existing in nature, and ther-
fore to be mentioned in the present tense indefine—"Whether

ice and water are two distinct substances."

"It would seem that inquietude was as natural to it as its fluidi-

ty." Golds. An. Nat. ch. 17.—Here is a similar mistake—the use of

the first verb in what is called past time, leading the author to use

a second verb in the same tense—But that is no connective, any

more than every substitute in the language—The inquietude of

the ocean is a natural property, existing at all times—and the author

meant the verb to express that idea. "It would seem that inquietu-
dte is as natural to the sea as its fluidity." To show this to be the

real construction, let the order of the words be changed. "Inqui-
etude was as natural to the sea as its fluidity—that would seem"

This arrangement exhibits the mistake in its true light.—Let the

reader attend to the following passages.

"If my readers will turn their thoughts back on their old friends,
they will find it difficult to call a single man to remembrance, who

appeared to know that life was short, [is short] till he was about

lose it." Rambler. No. 71.

"Upon this supposition the alchemists went, who, supposing

that—all bodies were [are] composed of salt, sulphur and mer-
cury." Encylop. art. Chemistry. 23.

"They considered the body as a hydraulic machine, and the

fluids as passing through a series of chemical changes; forgetting

that animation was [is] its essential characteristic." Darwin. Zoon.

pref.

"A stranger to the poem would not easily discover that this was

[is] verse." Murray's Grammar.

"From the figure and movements of the feathered tribes, we

should be led to imagin that the structure of their organs was [is]
extremely different from that of quadrupeds—their economy and

way of living required [require] some variations of their frame.

Smellie Phil. of Nat. Hist. p. 71.

"Supposing Parliament had a right to meet spontaneously—and

if half of the members met [should meet] and half [should]

absent [should absent] themselves, who shall determin which is the legislative

body?" Blacks. Com. 12.

"Two more were stationed in Dalmatia, in a situation, if a war

broke [should break] out at their back, to support the other legions;

and if a sudden occurrence required [should require] their presence,

ready to advance by rapid marches into Italy." Murphy Tacitus.

1. 264.

Note 2. The employment of these verbs by the translator is the

less excusable, as he had the original to guide him to the true

sense"—qua—si repentinum auxiliurn Italia posceret, haud procul

accidentem." If Italy should require sudden aid—the legions might

be called from a small distance. It is however some apology for
the author, that the Latin imperfect tense has been misnamed or
left unexplained, and is as little understood by means of grammar
rules, as the English tenses.

Examples of this mistake may be cited without end—but those
which I have collected are amply sufficient to show the miserable
state of grammatical knowledge. How easy would it have been
to detect these blemishes, had the parts of speech been understood,
and properly classed! Take for example, the passage from Mur­
ray—and resolve it according to the explanation of that which is
given in the preceding pages—'This was verse—a stranger to the
poem would not easily discover that. What nonsense! But cor­
correct the verb. 'This is verse—a stranger would not easily discover
that.' The whole error has arisen probably from considering that
as a conjunction—when in fact it is a representative of the follow­
ing member of the period—and the sentence is found to consist of
two clauses—one hypothetical the other declaratory—'A stranger
to the poem, (if he should attempt) would not easily discover that
—this is verse.'

From the practice of connecting like tenses, probably has arisen
a similar misapplication of tenses, where no connective is used ;
as 'In this we might indicate which of their elements existed [exists] in excess.' Lavoisier by Kerr.

'It would be true gold to him and belong to that species, who
included malleableness in his nominal essence.' Locke. 3. 6. 35.
It ought to be who should include. A similar mistake in the fol­
lowing passage is really ludicrous—'I said to him that he should
rebuild the Greek cities and give them wise laws, until a proper
time arrived to restore them to liberty.' Anacharsis. 3. 231. It
ought to be should arrive. A few authors led by their own sense of right and wrong, [for
surely they have had no Grammar to guide them] have occasion­
ally avoided these errors and written the language with correct­
ness. And among these is the translator of Anacharsis, notwith­
standing the mistake just cited.

'They said that man is an animal.' Anarch. vol. 4. note.
"He told us that these birds are natives of Samos." ibn. ch. 74.
"Sabellius, who openly taught that there is but one person in the
Godhead." Encyc. art. Sabellius.
"His master had taught him that happiness consists in virtue." Anarch. ch. 7.

"D.Laertius says, the Egyptians taught that matter is the first
"Anaxagoras affirmed that a pure mind governs the universe." ibn. ch. 3. b. 2.

If we examin these sentences, we shall find the time correctly
affirmed in each member—The first declares a fact past—the last,
a fact now existing, as well as when the affirmation was made.

"He told us that, these birds are natives of Samos"—or accord­
ing to the idea before explained”—these birds are natives of
Samos—he told us that—
Man is an animal—they said that—happiness consists in virtue—his master taught him that.

I have been the more particular in illustrating this part of my subject, to show the necessity of tracing the idioms to their true source, of understanding the principles of construction, and of calling the parts of speech by their true names.

**Punctuation.**

Punctuation is the marking of the several pauses which are to be observed, in reading or speaking a sentence or continued discourse. By means of pauses, a discourse is divided into periods or complete sentences, and periods into clauses or simple sentences, and these, into phrases.

A period is a sentence complete, making perfect sense, and not connected in construction with what follows. The pause after the period is marked by a point [.] and in speaking, is distinguished by a cadence or fall of the voice.

The members of a period, or clauses and phrases, are all more or less connected in sense, and according to the nearness of the connection, are marked by a comma [,] a semicolon [;] or a colon [:].

The comma is the shortest pause, and is often used to mark the construction, where very little interruption of voice is allowable.

A simple sentence or clause contains an affirmation, a command or a question, that is, one personal verb, with its nominative and adjuncts. By *adjunct*, is meant any phrase or number of words added by way of modifying or qualifying the primary words. Thus when it is said, "Cicero was an orator of a diffuse style," the latter words, of a diffuse style, are the adjunct of orator, and the whole forms a complete simple sentence, with one verb or affirmation.

A phrase contains no assertion, or does not amount to a proposition.

**COMMA.**

**Rule I.** In general the parts of a simple sentence or clause are not to be separated by any point whatever; as
Hope is necessary in every condition of life." But when a simple sentence is long, or contains a distinct phrase or phrases, modifying the affirmation, it may be divided by a comma; as "To be very active in laudable pursuits, is the distinguishing characteristic of a man of merit." "By revenging an injury, a man is but even with his enemy." In most cases, where a short pause will give distinctness to ideas, a comma is well placed after an important word; "To mourn without measure, is folly; not to mourn at all, insensitivity."

The pause after measure, in this sentence is essential to the strength of the expression. "The idea of beauty is vague and undefined, different in different minds, and diversified by time or place." Rambler.

**Rule II.** When a connective is omitted between two or more words, whether names, attributes, substitutes, verbs or modifiers, the place is supplied by a comma; as "Love, joy, peace and blessedness are reserved for the good." "The miseries of poverty, of sickness, of captivity, would, without hope, be insupportable." Rambler. "We hear nothing of causing the blind to see, the lame to walk, the deaf to hear, the lepers to be cleansed." Paley. "He who loves, serves and obeys his maker is a pious man." "Industry steadily, prudently and vigorously pursued, leads to wealth." "David was a brave, martial, enterprising prince." "The most innocent pleasures are the most rational, the most delightful and the most durable."

**Rule III.** Two or more simple sentences closely connected in sense, or dependent on each other, are separated by a comma only; as "When our vices leave us, we flatter ourselves we leave them." "The temperate man's pleasures are durable, because they are regular." "That all the duties of morality ought to be practiced, is without difficulty discoverable, because ignorance or uncertainty would immediately involve the world in confusion and distress." Rambler. 81.
RULE IV. The sentence independent, detached affirmations or phrases involved in sentences, and other important clauses, must be separated from the other parts of a sentence, by a comma; as "The envoy has returned, his business being accomplished." "The envoy, having accomplished his business, has returned." "Providence has, I think, displayed a tenderness for mankind"—Rambler. "The decisions of patronage, who was but half a goddess, had been sometimes erroneous." Rambler. "The sciences, after a thousand indignities, retired from the palace of patronage." ibn. "It is, in many cases, apparent." ibn.

RULE V. A comma is often required to mark contrast, antithesis, or remarkable points in a sentence, and sometimes very properly separates words closely dependent in construction; as "a good man will love himself too well to lose, and his neighbor too well to win, an estate by gaming." "Prosperity gains friends, and adversity tries them." It is harder to avoid censure, than to gain applause.

"Tho deep, yet clear; tho gentle, yet not dull."

RULE VI. A single name in apposition is not separated by a comma; as "the Apostle Peter" but when such name is accompanied with an adjunct, it should be separated; as "Parmenio, a friend of Alexander's, hearing the great offers that Darius had made, said, "Were I Alexander, I would accept them." "So would I, replied Alexander, were I Parmenio."

RULE VII. Terms of address, and words of others repeated, but not introduced as a quotation, are separated by a comma; as "Wherefore, Sirs, be of good cheer." "My son, hear the counsel of thy father." "Thus shalt thou say unto the children of Israel, I AM hath sent me unto you." Exodus.

RULE VIII. Modifying words and phrases, as however, nay, hence, besides, in short, finally, formerly, &c. are usually separated by a comma; as "It is, however, the task of criticism to establish principles." Rambler.
SEMICOLON.

The semicolon is placed between the clauses of a period, which are less closely connected than such as are separated by a comma.

First. When the first division of a sentence completes a proposition, so as to have no dependence on what follows; but the following clause has a dependence on the preceding, the two parts are separated generally by a semicolon; as

"It may be laid down as a maxim, that it is more easy to take away superfluities than to supply defects; and therefore he that is culpable, because he has passed the middle point of virtue, is always accounted a fairer object of hope, than he who fails by falling short." Rambler. In this sentence the part of the sentence preceding the semicolon is a perfect period in itself, and might have been closed with a full point; but the author has added another division, by way of inference, and this is dependent on the first division. The author proceeds—"The one has all that perfection requires, and more, but the excess may be easily retrenched; the other wants the qualities requisite to excellence"—Here the first division makes a complete proposition; but the antithesis begun by the numeral one, is not complete, without the last division.

"Economy is no disgrace; for it is better to live on a little, than to outlive a great deal."

"Be in peace with many; nevertheless, have but one counsellor of a thousand."

"A friend cannot be known in prosperity; an enemy cannot be hid in adversity."

In general then, the semicolon separates the divisions of a sentence, when the latter division has a dependence on the former, whether the former has a dependence on the latter or not.

Secondly. When several members of a sentence have a dependence on each other, by means of a substitute for
the same principal word, and the clauses, in other respects, constitute distinct propositions, the semicolon may be used; as "Wisdom hath builded her house; she hath hewn out her seven pillars; she hath killed her beasts; she hath mingled her wine; she hath also furnished her table." Prov. 9.

**COLON.**

The Colon is used when the sense of the division of a period is complete, so as to admit of a full point, but something is added by way of illustration; as "A brute arrives at a point of perfection that he can never pass: in a few years he has all the endowments he is capable of; and were he to live ten thousand more, would be the same thing he is at present." Spect. No. 111.

**NOTE.** This point is of little use; the difference between the colon and semicolon is so small, that the two pauses are frequently confounded, as may be seen in our present version of the Proverbs. It is said that a colon should be placed before a quotation; but I consider the use of the semicolon as preferable. I conceive the colon might be rejected without injury to the perspicuity of sentences; and punctuation very much simplified, by substituting the semicolon and the full point. That slight dependence of a subsequent sentence upon a preceding one, which is marked by a colon, is also marked by the full point; for we are not to suppose a full point precludes a connection between sentences. Let the following sentences from the Rambler No. 31, be cited as an example.

"With the great and ambitious, I would discourse of honors and advancements.—To the rich I would tell of inexhaustible treasures and the sure method to attain them. I would teach them to put out their money on the best interest, and instruct the lovers of pleasure how to secure and improve it to the highest degree. The beauty should learn of me how to preserve an everlasting bloom.—To the afflicted I would administer comfort, and relaxation to the busy."

All the parts of a continued discourse are connected; and often by such nice grades of dependence, that it is not easy to discern, much less to mark the minute distinctions. I have never examined any author, whose use of the points is either accurate or uniform; and in particular the colon is everywhere confounded with the semicolon or the period.
PERIOD.

The Period or full point marks a completion of the sense, a cadence of the voice, and the longest pause used between sentences. It closes a discourse also, or marks a completion of a subject, chapter or section.

The full point is used also after initials when used alone; as after N. S. for New Style; and after abbreviations; as Croc. Anglic, for Crocus Anglicanus.

To these may be added,

The dash—which marks a break in the sentence or an abrupt turn; as "If thou art he—but O how fallen!"

The interrogation point ? that closes a sentence which asks a question; as "How long, ye simple ones, will ye love simplicity?"

The exclamation point! which is used after sudden expressions of surprise, or other emotions; as "O happiness! Our being's end and aim!"

The parenthesis ( ) and hooks [ ] include a remark or clause, not essential to the sentence in construction, but useful in explaining it or introducing an important idea. They mark a moderate pause, and the clause included is read with a depressed tone of voice; as

"Know then this truth (enough for man to know)
Virtue alone is happiness below." Pope.

It will be readily seen that the sentence is not at all dependent on the parenthetical clause; but the converse is not true, for that clause has a dependence more or less remote on the sentence. Thus, enough for man to know, is not intelligible without connecting it with the parts of the sentence preceding and following. So in this passage; "If any one pretends to be so sceptical, as to deny his own existence (for really to doubt of it, is manifestly impossible) let him enjoy his beloved happiness"—Locke. 4. 10. 2. The included clause here is connected with the preceding part of the sentence, and it, is a substitute for existence.

With regard to the duration of the pauses, it may be observed that the comma, semicolon, colon and full point, may bear to each other the proportion of one, two, four and
six; and the interrogation point and exclamation point may be considered each as equal in time to the colon or period. But no precise rule can be given which shall extend to every case; the length of the pauses must depend much on the nature of the discourse, and their respective proportions may be often varied to advantage by a judicious speaker.

Prosody.*

**Prosody** is that part of Grammar which treats of the pronunciation of words, and the laws of versification.

Pronunciation is regulated principally by accent and quantity.

Accent is a particular stress of voice with which a certain syllable of a word is uttered, and by which it is distinguished from the others. Thus, in pronouncing *probability,* we lay a greater stress of voice upon the third syllable, than upon the others—the voice naturally resting upon that, and passing over the others with rapidity and a slight enunciation. This stress of voice on a particular part of a word, is equally necessary to the ease of utterance and the melody of speaking.

In addition to the accent which may be called primary, there is, in pronouncing words of many syllables, a secondary accent, less distinct than the principal accent, but evidently distinguishing some one syllable from those which are unaccented. Thus in the word *indiscriminate,* the principal accent is on the third syllable; but the first syllable is evidently uttered with more force of voice, than the second and two last syllables. The final cause of both accents

* The substance of the remarks under this head was published more than twenty years ago. For some of the observations I am indebted to Sheridan’s Art of Reading; but for more of them, to the Honourable John Trumbull, Esq. one of the judges of the Supreme Court of Connecticut. His rules of metrical composition, originally published in my Grammar and afterwards in my Dissertations on the English Language, are probably the best which have been written.
is the case of pronunciation; and by this, should both be regulated; for that manner of pronouncing words which is most easy for the speaker, enables him to utter the several syllables with the most distinctness, which is consistent with a rapid communication of thoughts; and this is necessary to render his enunciation agreeable to his hearers. Hence no rules of pronunciation drawn from the termination of words, from their etymologies, or from the practice of popular speakers, should be suffered to interfere with this fundamental principle—the case of utterance—for a forced, unnatural accent is not only painful to the speaker, but utterly destructive of melody.

The accent may fall on a vowel or on a consonant. When, it falls on a vowel, the vowel is long—as in glory, table, lawful. When it falls on a consonant, the consonant closes the syllable, and the preceding vowel is short; as in habit, gratitude, deliverance.*

* It may be thought that I am captious in criticising the works of English authors, or of others who have written on this subject, but the propriety of detecting error, wherever found, supersedes the necessity of apology.

It has been the practice of most English authors to place the marks of accent, in all cases, over the vowel of the accented syllable—a practice probably borrowed from the Greek language. Thus in Johnson’s Dictionary, the vowel a in habit as well as o in holy, has the mark of accent, for which reason the mark is no guide to the true sound of the letter, and a learner would be led to give to a its long sound thus, habit—as well as to o its long sound in holy.

But this is not the worst evil. The rules for dividing syllables, from Dilworth to Murray, are not only arbitrary, but false, and absurd. They contradict the very definition of a syllable given by the authors themselves. Thus Lowth, defines a syllable to be “a sound either simple or compounded, pronounced by a single impulse of the voice, and constituting a word or part of a word.” This definition is copied and followed by Murray. But in dividing syllables, no regard is had to the definition—for manifest.—Lowth divides thus man-fest. Here the first syllabic man is pronounced with a single impulse of the voice—according to the definition; yet in writing, the syllable is split—the constituent part of a word, is divided into two parts—that which is to be pronounced with a single impulse of the voice, is so separated, as to require two impulses. A syllable in pronunciation is an indivisible thing; and strange as it may appear, what is indivisible in utterance, is divided in writing.
The quantity of a syllable is the time in which it is pronounced. In English this time is long or short—long as in frame, denote, compensation—short, as in that, not, melon.

The accent has no small influence in determining the length of a syllable, by prolonging the sound of the vowel; but, in many words, vowels have their long sound, tho not under the accent, as in nosegay, agitate.

There are some general rules for accenting syllables, which may be discovered by attending to the analogy of formation. Thus words ending in tion and sion have the accent on the last syllable save one; as protection, adhesion; words ending in ty usually have the accent on the last syllable except two, as vanity, hostility.

Few of these rules however are so general, that the exceptions to them are not almost as numerous as the words which fall within the rule; and therefore the accent of words is best learnt from a dictionary and general usage. The rules laid down for this purpose in several works of distinction, are so numerous and subject to many exceptions, that they tend rather to embarrass, than to assist the student.

Most prosodians who have treated particularly of this subject, have been guilty of a fundamental error; in considering the movement of English verse as depending on long and short syllables, formed by long and short vowels. This hypothesis has led them into capital mistakes. The truth is, many of those syllables which are considered as long in verse, are formed by the shortest vowels in the language; as strength, health, grand. The doctrine, that long vowels are requisite to form long syllables in poetry, is at length exploded, and the principles which regulate the movement of our verse, are explained; viz. accent and emphasis. Every emphatical word, and every accented syllable, will form what is called in verse, a long syllable. The unaccented syllables, and unemphatical monosyllabic words, are considered as short syllables.

when the very purpose of dividing words into syllables in writing, is to lead the learner to a just pronunciation. Thus Murray, tho he admits that a "syllable is short, when the accent is on the consonant" yet separates that consonant from the syllable—as in melon—civil—ti-mid. Most of the English elementary books which I have seen are able to the same objection.
But there are two kinds of emphasis; a natural emphasis, which arises from the importance of the idea conveyed by a word; and an accidental emphasis, which arises from the importance of a word in a particular situation.

The first or natural emphasis belongs to all nouns, verbs, participles and adjectives, and requires no elevation of the voice; as,

"Not half so swift the trembling doves can fly."

The last or accidental emphasis is laid on a word when it has some particular meaning, and when the force of a sentence depends on it; this therefore requires an elevation of the voice; as,

"Perdition catch my soul—but I do love thee."

So far the prosody of the English language seems to be settled; but the rules laid down for the construction of verse, seem to have been imperfect and disputed.

Writers have generally supposed that our heroic verse consists of five feet, all pure Iambics, except the first foot, which they allow may be a Trochee. In consequence of this opinion, they have expunged letters from words which were necessary; and curtailed feet in such a manner as to disfigure the beauty of printing, and in many instances, destroyed the harmony of our best poetry.

The truth is, so far is our heroic verse from being confined to the Iambic measure, that it admits of eight feet, and in some instances of nine. I will not perplex my readers with a number of hard names, but proceed to explain the several feet, and show in what places of the line they are admissible.

An Iambic foot, which is the ground of English numbers, consists of two syllables, the first short and the second long. This foot is admitted into every place of the line. Example, all Iambics.

"Where slaves once more their native land behold,
Nö fiends torment, nö christians thirst for gold."

Pope.

The Trochee is a foot consisting of two syllables, the first long and the second short. Example.
"Warms in the sun, refreshes in the breeze,
Gloos in the stars, and blossoms in the trees."

Pope.

The Trochee is not admissible into the second place of the line; but in the third and fourth it may have beauty, when it creates a correspondence between the sound and sense.

"Eve rightly call'd mother of all mankind."

"And staggered by the stroke, drops the large ox."
The Spondee is a foot consisting of two long syllables. This may be used in any place of the line.

1. "Good life be now my task, my doubts are done."
   Dryden.

2. "As some lone mountain's monstrous growth he stood."
   Pope.

But it has a greater beauty when preceded by a Trochee.

"Load the tall bark and launch into the main."

3. "The mountain goats bounding o'er the lawn."
4. "He spoke, and speaking in proud triumph spread, The long contended honors of her head."
   Pope.

5. "Singed are his brows, the scorching lids grow black."
   Pope.

The Pyrrhic is a foot of two short syllables; it is graceful in the first and fourth places, and is admissible into the second and third.

1. "Nor in the helpless orphan dread a foe."
   Pope.

2. "On they move, Indisposed firmly."
   Milton.

3. "The two extremes appear like man and wife, Coupled together for the sake of strife."
   Churchill.

But this foot is most graceful in the fourth place.

"The dying gales that pant upon the trees."
"To farthest shores the ambrosial spirit flies,
Sweet to the world and grateful to the skies."

The Amphibrach is a foot of three syllables, the first and third short, and the second long. It is used in heroic verse only when we take the liberty to add a short syllable to a line.

"The piece you say is incorrect, why take it,
"I'm all submission, what you'd have it, make it."

This foot is hardly admissible in the solemn or sublime style. Pope has indeed admitted it into his Essay on Man:

"What can ennoble sots or slaves or cowards,
Alas! not all the blood of all the Howards."

Again:

"To sigh for ribbands, if thou art so silly,
Mark how they grace Lord Umbra or Sir Billy."

But these lines are of the high burlesque kind, and in this style the Amphibrach closes lines with great beauty.

The Tribrach is a foot of three syllables, all short; and it may be used in the third and fourth places.

"And rolls impetus to the plain."

Or thus:

"And thunders down impetus to the subject plain."

The Dactyl, a foot of three syllables, the first long and the two last short, is used principally in the first place in the line.

"Furius he spoke, the angry chief replied."

"Murmuring, and with him fled the shades of night."

The Anapest, a foot consisting of three syllables, the two first short and the last long, is admissible into every place of the line.

"Can a bosom so gentle remain,
Unmoved when her Corydon sighs?
Will a nymph that is fond of the plains,
These plains and these valleys despise?
Dear regions of silence and shade,
Soft scenes of contentment and ease,
Where I could have pleasingly stay'd,  
If ought in her absence could please."

The trisyllabic feet have suffered most by the general ignorance of critics; most of them have been mutilated by apostrophies, in order to reduce them to the iambic measure.

Thus in the line before repeated,  
"Murmuring, and with him fled the shades of night;"
we find the word in the copy reduced to two syllables, mur'm'ring, and the beauty of the Dactyl is destroyed.

Thus is the following:

"On every side with shadowy squadrons deep,
by apostrophizing every and shadowy, the line loses its harmony. The same remark applies to the following.

"And hosts infuriate shake the shudd'ring plain."
"But fashion so directs, and moderns raise
On fashion's mould'ring base, their transient praise."

Churchill.

Poetic lines which abound with these trisyllabic feet, are the most flowing and melodious of any in the language; and yet the poets themselves, or their printers, murder them with numberless unnecessary contractions.

It requires but little judgment and an ear indifferently accurate, to distinguish the contractions which are necessary, from those which are needless and injurious to the versification. In the following passage we find examples of both.

"She went from op'ra, park, assembly, play,
To morning walks and pray'rs, three times a day;
To pass her time 'twixt reading and bohea,
To muse and spill her solitary tea;
Or o'er cold coffee trifle with the spoon,
Count the slow clock, and dine exact at noon;
Divert her eyes with pictures in the fire,
Hum half a tune, tell stories to the 'squire;
Up to her godly garret after sev'n,
There starve and pray; lor that's the way to heav'n."

Pope's Epistles.
Here is in opera ought not to be apostrophized, for such a contraction reduces an Amphibrachic foot to an Iambic. The words piuus, seve and heave need not the apostrophe of e; for it makes no difference in the pronunciation. But the contraction of over and betwixt is necessary; for without it the measure would be imperfect.

PAUSES.

HAVING explained the several kinds of feet, and shown in what places of a verse they may be used, I proceed to another important article, the pauses. Of these there are two kinds, the cesural pause, which divides the line into two equal or unequal parts; and the final pause which closes the verse. These pauses are called musical, because their sole end is the melody of verse.

The pauses which mark the sense, and for this reason are denominated sentential, are the same in verse as in prose. They are marked by the usual stops, a comma, a semicolon, a colon, or a period, as the sense requires, and need no particular explanation.

The cesural pause is not essential to verse, for the shorter kinds of measure are without it; but it improves both the melody and the harmony.

Melody in music is derived from a succession of sounds: harmony from different sounds in concord. A single voice can produce melody; a union of voices is necessary to form harmony. In this sense harmony cannot be applied to verse, because poetry is recited by a single voice. But harmony may be used in a figurative sense, to express the effect produced by observing the proportion which the members of verse bear to each other.*

The cesural pause may be placed in any part of the verse: but has the finest effect upon the melody, when placed after the second or third foot, or in the middle of the third. After the second:

"In what retreat, inglorious and unknown,
Did genius sleep, when dullness seized the throne.t"

* Sheridan's Art of Reading.
After the third:

"O say what stranger cause, yet unexplored,
Could make a gentle belle reject a lord?"

In the middle of the third:

"Great are his perils, in this stormy time,
Who rashly ventures, on a sea of rhyme."

In these examples we find a great degree of melody, but not in all the same degree. In comparing the divisions of verse, we experience the most pleasure in viewing those which are equal; hence those verses which have the pause in the middle of the third foot, which is the middle of the verse, are the most melodious. Such is the third example above.

In lines where the pause is placed after the second foot, we perceive a smaller degree of melody, for the divisions are not equal; one containing four syllables, the other six, as in the first example.

But the melody in this example, is much superior to that of the verses which have the cesural pause after the third foot; for this obvious reason: When the pause bounds the second foot, the latter part of the verse is the greatest, and leaves the most forcible impression upon the mind; but when the pause is at the end of the third foot, the order is reversed. We are fond of proceeding from small to great, and a climax in sound pleases the ear, in the same manner as a climax in sense delights the mind. Such is the first example.

It must be observed further, that when the cesural pause falls after the second and third feet, both the final and cesural pauses are on accented syllables; whereas when the cesural pause falls in the middle of the third foot, this is on a weak syllable, and the final pause, on an accented syllable. This variety in the latter, is another cause of the superior pleasure we derive from verses divided into equal portions.

The pause may fall in the middle of the fourth foot; as,

"Let favor speak for others, worth for me:"

but the melody, in this case, is almost lost. At the close of the first foot, the pause has a more agreeable effect.
"That's vile, should we a parent's fault adore,
And err, because our fathers err'd before?"

In the middle of the second foot, the pause may be used,
but produces little melody.

"And who but wishes to invert the laws
Of order, sins against the eternal cause."

Harmony is produced by a proportion between the members
of the same verse, or between the members of different verses. Example:

"Thy forests, Windsor, and thy green retreats,
At once the monarch's, and the muse's seats,
Invite my lays. Be present sylvan maids,
Unlock your springs, and open all your shades."

Here we observe, the pause in the first couplet, is in the middle of the third foot; both verses are in this respect similar. In the last couplet, the pause falls after the second foot. In each couplet, separately considered, there is a uniformity; but when one is compared with the other, there is a diversity. This variety produces a pleasing effect.* The variety is further increased, when the first lines of several succeeding couplets are uniform as to themselves, and different from the last lines, which are also uniform as to themselves. Churchill, speaking of reason, lord chief justice in the court of man, has the following lines.

"Equally form'd to rule, in age or youth,
The friend of virtue, and the guide to truth;
To her I bow, whose sacred power I feel,
To her decision make my last appeal;
Condemned by her, applauding worlds in vain
Should tempt me to take up my pen again;
By her absolv'd, the course I'll still pursue;
"If Reason's for me, God is for me too."

The first line of three of these couplets, has the pause after the second foot; in this consists their similarity. The last
line in three of them, has the pause in the middle of the
third foot; they are uniform as to themselves, but differ-
cent from the foregoing lines. This passage, which on the
whole is very beautiful, suffers much by the sixth line,
which is not verse, but rather hobbling prose.*

The foregoing remarks are sufficient to illustrate the
use and advantages of the cesural pause.

The final pause marks the close of a line or verse,
whether there is a pause in the sense or not. Sentential
pauses should be marked by a variation of tone; but the
final pause, when the close of one line is intimately con-
ected with the beginning of the next, should be merely a
suspension of the voice without elevation or depression.

Thus:

"Of man's first disobedience, and the fruit
Of that forbidden tree, whose mortal taste
Brought death into the world, and all our woes," &c.

When these lines are read without a pause after the
words fruit and taste, they degenerate into prose. Indeed
in many instances, particularly in blank verse, the final
pause is the only circumstance which distinguishes verse
from prose.

EXPRESSION.

One article more in the construction of verse deserves
our observation, which is Expression. Expression cons-
ists in such a choice and distribution of poetic feet as are
best adapted to the subject, and best calculated to impress
sentiments upon the mind. Those poetic feet, which end

* Churchill has improved English versification, but is some-
times too incorrect. It is a remark of some writer, "That the
greatest geniuses are seldom correct," and the remark is not with-
out foundation. Homer, Shakespeare, and Milton, were perhaps
the greatest geniuses that ever lived, and they were certainly guil-
ty of the greatest faults. Virgil and Pope were much inferior in
point of genius, but excelled in accuracy. Churchill had genius,
but his contempt of rules made him sometimes indulge a too great
latitude of expression.
in an accented syllable, are the most forcible. Hence the
Iambic measure is best adapted to solemn and sublime
subjects. "This is the measure of the Epic, of poems on
grave moral subjects, of elegies, &c. The Sporade, a
foot of two long syllables, when admitted into the Iambic
measure, adds much to the solemnity of the move­
ment.

"While the clear sun, rejoicing still to rise,
In pomp rolls round inmeasurable skies."

Dwight.

The Dactyl, rolls round, expresses beautifully the ma­
jesty of the sun in his course.

It is a general rule, that the more important syllables
there are in a passage, whether of prose or verse, the more
heavy is the stile. For example:

"A past, vamp'd, future, old, reviv'd new piece."

"Men, bearded, bald, cowl'd, uncowl'd, shod, unshod."

Such lines are destitute of melody, and are admissible
only when they suit the sound to the sense. In the high
burlesque style, of which kind is Pope's Dunciad; they
give the sentiment an ironical air of importance, and from
this circumstance derive a beauty. On the other hand, a
large proportion of unaccented syllables or particles, de­
prives language of energy; and it is this circumstance
principally which in prose constitutes the difference be­
tween the grave historical, and the familiar style. The
greatest number of long syllables ever admitted into a he­
roic verse is seven, as in the foregoing; the smallest num­
ber is three.

"Or to a sâd variety of wâs."

The Trochaic measure, in which every foot closes with
a weak syllable, is well calculated for lively subjects.

"Softly sweet in Lydian measures,
Soon he soothing his soul to pleasures;
War he sung is toil and trouble,
Honor but an empty bubble," &c.

The Anapcstic measure, in which there are two short
syllables to one long, is best adapted to express the impet-
nousity of passion or action. Shenstone has used it to great advantage, in his inimitable pastoral ballad. It describes beautifully the strong and lively emotions which agitate the lover, and his anxiety to please, which continually hurries him from one object and one exertion to another.

"I have found out a gift for my fair,
I have found where the wood pigeons breed;
Yet let me that plunder forbear,
She will say 'twas a barbarous deed.
For he never could prove true, she aver'd,
Who could rob a poor bird of her young?
And I lov'd her the more when I heard
Such tenderness fall from her tongue."

The Amphibrachic measure, in which there is a long syllable between two short ones, is best adapted to lively comic subjects; as in Addison's Rosamond.

"Since conjugal passion
Has come into fashion,
And marriage so blest on the throne is,
Like Venus I'll shine,
Be fond and be fine,
And Sir Trusty shall be my Adonis."

Such a measure gives to sentiment a ludicrous air, and consequently is ill adapted to serious subjects.

Great art may be used by a poet in choosing words and feet adapted to his subject. Take the following specimen.

"Now here, now there, the warriors fall; amain
Groans murmur, armor sounds, and shouts convulse the plain."

The feet in the last line are happily chosen. The slow Spondee, in the beginning of the verse, fixes the mind upon the dismal scene of woe; the solemnity is heightened by the pauses in the middle of the second and at the end of the third foot: But when the poet comes to shake the plains, he closes the line with three forcible Iambics.

Of a similar beauty take the following example.

"She all night long, her armorous descant sung."
The poet here designs to describe the length of the night, and the music of the Nightingale's song. The first he does by two slow spondees, and the last by four very rapid syllables.

The following lines, from Gray's Elegy, written in a country church yard, are distinguished by a happy choice of words.

"For who, to dumb forgetfulness a prey,
This pleasing anxious being set-ivsign'd?
Left the warm precincts of the cheerful day,
Nor cast one longing, lingering look behind?"

The words longing and lingering express most forcibly the reluctance with which mankind quit this state of existence.

Pope has many beauties of this kind.

"And grace and reason, sense and virtue split,
With all the rash dexterity of wit."

The mute consonants, with which these lines end, express the idea of rending asunder, with great energy and effect. The words rash and dexterity are also judiciously chosen.

In describing the delicate sensations of the most refined love, he is remarkable for his choice of smooth flowing words. There are some passages in his Eloisa and Abelard, which are extended to a considerable length, without a single mute consonant or harsh word.

OF READING VERSE.

With respect to the art of reading verse, we can lay down but a few simple rules; but these may perhaps be useful.

1. Words should be pronounced as in prose and in conversation; for reading is but rehearsing another's conversation.

2. The emphasis should be observed as in prose. The voice should bound from accent to accent, and no stress
should be laid on little unimportant words, not on weak syllables.

3. The sentential pauses should be observed as in prose; these are not affected by the kind of writing, being regulated entirely by the sense. But as the cesural and final pauses are designed to increase the melody of verse, the strictest attention must be paid to them in reading. They mark a suspension of voice without rising or falling.

To read prose well it is necessary to understand what is read; and to read poetry well, it is further necessary to understand the structure of verse. For want of this knowledge, most people read all verse like the Iambic measure. The following are pure Iambics.

"Above how high progressive life may go!
Around how wide, how deep extend below!"

It is so easy to lay an accent on every second syllable, that any school boy can read this measure with tolerable propriety. But the misfortune is, that when a habit of reading this kind of meter is once formed, persons do not vary their manner to suit other measures. Thus in reciting the following line.

"Loud the tall bark, and launch into the main,"

many people would lay the accent on every second syllable; and thus read, our poetry becomes the most monotonous and ridiculous of all poetry in the world.

Let the following line be repeated without its pauses, and it loses its principal beauty.

"Bold, as a hero, as a virgin mild."

So in the following.

"Reason, the card, but passion, is the gale."

"From storms, a shelter, and from heat, a shade."

The harmony is, in all these instances, improved much by the semipauses, and at the same time the sense is more clearly understood.

Considering the difficulty of reading verse, it is not surprising to find but few who are proficient in this art. A knowledge of the structure of verse, of the several kinds
of feet, of the nature and use of the final, the cesural
and the semicesural pauses, is essential to a graceful
manner of reading poetry; and even this without the best
examples, will hardly effect the purpose. It is for this
reason, that children should not be permitted to read poe­
try of the more difficult kind, without the best examples
for them to imitate. They frequently contract, in early
life, either a monotony or a sing song cant, which, when
grown into a habit, is seldom ever eradicated.

Remarks on the received System of Grammar.

Lindley Murray has given, for a Praxis, or Example of
Grammatical Resolution, the following sentence.

"The worthy Emperor Titus, recollecting once at sup­
per, that in that day, he had not done any body a kindness,
exclaimed, "Alas! my friends, I have lost a day."

Without reciting the resolution given of this sentence,
a part of which is correct, I would observe that it contains
three or four palpable errors. The first is, that the au­
thor calls the first that, a conjunction, when in fact it is
a substitute or representative of the following member
of the sentence—he had not done any body a kindness—recol­
ecting that fact. It is, in the language of common gram­
mars, a "demonstrative pronoun"—pointing directly to
a whole declaration, or fact stated.

2. Any, before body, the author calls "an adjective pro­
noun"—and my before friends, "a possessive pronoun." A
pronoun he defines to be "a word used instead of a
noun," as all other writers have done before him. But
what nouns do any and my stand for? My, if it stands for
any thing, stands for of, me, friends of me; in which case,
it stands for a pronoun and a preposition—or if it repre­
sents of Titus, it stands in the place of a noun and a pre­
position. As for any, the reader is left to exercise his in­
vention in discovering the noun which it represents.
Lowth calls any a definitive; and my a "pronominal adjec­
tive." The latter denomination is just—an adjective, or
attribute formed from a pronoun. Johnson calls my a
"possessive pronoun"—but Lowth is the most correct." This is one of the many instances in which Lowth's grammar has been altered for the worse.

3. In the last clause of the sentence, Murray calls a, the indefinite article—"I have lost a day," A more suitable example cannot be selected to show the miserable state of our Grammars, and how mechanically men learn to repeat words without meaning and propositions which are false; moved, age after age, by the impulse of custom, in the common road of error. Titus, in the passage under consideration, recollected at supper that on that day, just ended, he had done no act of kindness—and exclaimed, I have lost a day. The last words a day are as determinate as possible—referring directly to the preceding description, on that day preceding the supper,—yet we are told that a is the indefinite article, used in a vague sense to point out one single thing of the kind, in other respects indeterminate. The truth is, a, in this clause of the sentence, denotes simply one—I have lost one day. Whether the day is determinate or indeterminate, is a circumstance not at all depending upon a.

There is an oversight in this resolution which deserves notice. In this clause—he had not done any body a kindness—the government of the words any body is omitted. Either done must govern two objects, or to is understood before any body—had not done to any body a kindness.

Another Example.

"Tho affliction be our lot, we may be the happier for it." In this sentence Murray calls tho a conjunction. And what is a conjunction? "A conjunction, says Murray, is a part of speech that is chiefly used to connect or join together sentences, so as out of two to make one sentence: it sometimes connects only words." Again, "Conjunctions connect the same moods and tenses of verbs, and cases of nouns and pronouns." I leave it to the compiler himself and his friends, to reconcile the example with the rule and definition; and to discover what is the connecting power of tho, in the sentence cited.

Be, in the first part of the same sentence, "is a verb neuter," says the compiler, "present tense, third person sin-
regular, in the subjunctive mood, being governed by the con-
junction tho." Now it happens that tho is an obsolete verb,
in the imperative mode, signifying grant or allow, and re-
taining precisely its original signification—" grant, afflic-
tion be our lot"—This explanation demonstrates the im-
propriety of the use of be—it ought to be is—according to
popular usage, which delivers the language, from genera-
tion to generation, as it was made, and preserves it from

corruption.

These examples are selected from Murray's Grammar,
not with a view to prejudice the public against that work
in particular; for it is a good compilation of the rules of
grammar, which have been heretofore received. My de-
sign is only to expose the errors and defects of the system,
which teaches rules that are false or words without mean-
ing.

A PRAXIS.

Or Example of Grammatical Resolution.

"If the excellence of Dryden's works was lessened by
his indigence, their number was increased; and I know
not how it will be proved, that if he had written less, he
would have written better; or that indeed he would have
undergone the toil of an author, if he had not been solicit-
ed by something more pressing than the love of praise."

Johnson's Life of Dryden.

If, the imperative mode of the verb give, formerly
written gif, the regular imperative of the Saxon gifan—
used to introduce a supposition of what is expressed in
the following words.

the—a definitive, used to limit the sense of excellence in its
application to, "Dryden's Works"—that particular ex-
cellence.

excellence, a name or noun, the nominative to the verb was,
or the subject of the passive verb was lessened.
of—a preposition, preceding Dryden's Works, and showing the relation of those words to excellence, which relation is that of property or possession—of the works of Dryden.

Dryden's, a proper or appropriate name—that is, a name belonging to an individual, and not to a species—in the possessive case, governed by works.

works, a name in the plural number, following of.

was lessened—the passive form of the verb to lessen, in the past tense, indefinite, conditional mode, third person singular, agreeing with excellence, its nominative. This form of the verb is composed of the substantive verb was, and the participle or verbal in ed.*

by—a preposition.

his—an attribute agreeing with indigence.

d— an attribute agreeing with indigence.

number—a name in the singular number, following the preposition by.

their—an attribute, agreeing with number.

number—a name, the nominative to was increased.

was increased; the passive form of the verb increase, in the past tense indefinite of the Declarative mode, third person singular, agreeing with number.

and—a connective of the two sentences, the preceding and the following—The sense is complete at increased, and there the sentence might have been closed; but as other clauses are added by the writer, the pause is marked with a semicolon.

I—a substitute for the writer's name, or a personal substitute—nominative case to know.

know—a transitive irregular verb, affirming a fact, and therefore in the Declarative mode—first person singular, in the present tense indefinite, agreeing with I.

* If Johnson had followed the common grammars, or even his own, which is prefixed to his Dictionary, he would have written were—"If the excellence of Dryden's works were lessened"—Fortunately this great man, led by usage rather than by books, wrote correct English, instead of grammar.
PRACTICAL GRAMMAR.

not—a modifier of the verb know, rendering the affirmation negative.

how—a modifier of the verb, will be proved.

it—a substitute of neuter gender, nominative case—representing the subsequent part of the sentence—the nominative to will be proved—inceptive, that is, introducing the verb, before the sentence or clause which is the real nominative.

will be proved—the passive form of the verb prove in the future tense, third person singular, agreeing with the nominative it.

that—a substitute representing the same part of the sentence as it—how it will be proved—viz—that which follows.

if—as before—an obsolete imperative verb, used as a modifier of the sense, introducing a condition.

he—a substitute for Dryden—nominative to had written.

had written—a transitive verb, in the prior past tense, indefinite, subjunctive or conditional mode, third person singular, agreeing with he.

tens, an attribute in the comparative degree, here used as a substitute for a smaller quantity, the object after the transitive verb, had written.

he—a substitute for Dryden, nominative to would have written.

would have written—the irregular verb write, in the prior past tense indefinite, potential mode, third person singular, agreeing with he.

better—an attribute qualifying the action of the verb would have written—describing the manner of action—in the comparative degree.

or—a connective of the sentences between which it stands, and expressing an alternative.

that—a substitute representing the part of the sentence which follows—the words, I do not know how it will be proved, are here understood before that.
indeed—a modifier, or rather a compound of in and deed—a preposition and name.

he—as before—nominative to would have undergone.

would have undergone—the irregular compound verb undergo, in the prior past tense of the potential mode—agreeing with he, the third person.

the—a definitive, limiting the sense of toil, to a particular kind—the toil of an author.

toil—a name or noun, in the singular number—the object after the transitive verb, would have undergone.

of—a preposition.

an—a definitive, limiting the subsequent word to one person, without designating the particular person.

author—a name in the singular number, following of.

if—as before, expressing a condition.

he—a substitute as before, nominative to had been solicited.

had been solicited—the passive form of the verb solicit, rendered negative by the modifier not, in the prior past tense of the conditional mode, third person singular agreeing with he.

by—a preposition.

something—a name, composed of some, and thing—following by.

more—an attribute of the comparative degree, used to modify the sense of pressing.

pressing—a verbal or participle of the present tense of the verb press; but used as an attribute of the preceding word something.

than—a connective, uniting the following words in construction, with the preceding.

the—a definitive, restraining the sense of love.
Critical Notes.

I persecuted this way unto the death. Acts 22. 4.

As no particular sort of death is here intended, the definitive the ought to have been omitted. Lowth.

When he, the spirit of truth is come, he will guide you into all truth." John 16. 13.

As the sense is probably all evangelical truth, and not other kinds of truth, Lowth supposes the definitive the ought to have been used; all the truth, agreeable to the original Greek. This criticism is probably just; but the student must be cautious of following implicitly the use of the Greek article; for nothing is less determinate; and Lowth himself acknowledges that it has puzzled all the Grammarians to reduce the use of it to any clear and certain rules. In the New Testament, it is often used in passages where it is not admissible in an English translation. Math. 3. 8. "Bring forth therefore fruits meet for repentance"—in the Greek, worthy of the repentance. Verse 11.—"Whose shoes I am not worthy to bear"—in the original, whose the shoes. In the same verse—"He shall baptize you with the Holy Ghost"—in the original, with Holy Ghost. Math. 18. 8. It is better for thee to enter into life halt or maimed—in the original, into the life. Same chapter, verse 2.—"And Jesus called a little child unto him"—in the original, there is no definitive—And Jesus calling child—Verse 3. "Except ye be converted and become as little children"—in the original, as the children—Math. 22. 13. "There shall be weeping and gnashing of teeth"—in the original, there shall be the [or this] weeping—and the gnashing of the teeth. Ch. 24. 3. "Upon the mount of the olives." Rom. 7. 1. "Know ye not, brethren, [for I speak to them that know the law] how that the law;" in the original, I speak to them that know law.
Verse 2. "For the woman that hath a husband, is bound by the law"—in the original bound by law. Verse 8. "For without the law, sin was dead." orig. Without law. Verse 21. "I find there a law," orig. I find there the law. A multitude of similar passages may be cited to prove how little is the analogy between the Greek and English Languages, in regard to the use of the definitives.

But to place this fact in a stronger light, let it be observed, that the Greeks used both the article or definitive in conjunction with the pronoun this—that is, two definitives with the same word. Rom. 7. 24. "Who shall deliver me from the body of this death." orig. from the body of the this death, or the death this. Math. 4. 3. "If thou art the son of God, command that these stones be made bread." orig. the these stones. This is a common idiom of the Greek, and one utterly repugnant to the genius of the English.

Equally singular is the use of the Greek article, before proper names—Math. 2. 22, "He turned aside into the parts of Galilee." orig. —into the parts of the Galilee. ch. 17. 1, "Jesus taketh Peter." orig. the Peter.—ch. 3. 1, "Preaching in the wilderness of Judea" orig. of the Judea.

We cannot therefore draw any general inference, respecting the extent of the signification of words in English, from the use of the Greek article. Indeed there are many cases where this article must be omitted, or utterly pervert the true meaning. Math. 11. 8. "Behold they that wear soft clothing, are in kings houses."—in the original—in the houses of the kings, ver. 11. "among them that are born of women, there hath not risen a greater than John, the Baptist." in the original, them that are born of the women.

In other cases, the English the must be used where no article is found in the Greek, as in Math. 11. 5. The blind receive their sight—the lame walk—the lepers are cleansed—and the deaf hear." Here is no article in the Greek, but in English, it cannot be omitted, except before lepers.

Of the arbitrary and uncertain use of the definite article, the French language furnishes abundant proof.

"L’avarice est de tous les vices, le plus odieux."
The avarice is the most hateful of all the vices.

"Le gouvernement doit avant toutes choses protéger les propriétés." The government ought before all things to protect the properties. "Theophraste loue l'hospitalité et il a raison." Theophrast praises the hospitality, and he has reason. 

Barrett. Trans. of Cicer. de Off.

The use of the le before names of general application, is wholly arbitrary and useless, but established by custom. Some author, I think Blair, boasts of the superiority of the English, over the Latin language, in the use of articles. This is a great error. The Latin unus is the English an—and is, ille, hic answer all the purposes of the, this and that. The Romans used these definitives when they wanted them, nor is any part of their writings left obscure for want of other articles.

"Truly, this was the son of God." Math. 27. 54.—Lowth supposes that the should be a, as this was spoke by a pagan who probably believed in a plurality of Gods. So also in Dan. 3. 23.

In this passage, "About an eight days." Luke 9. 28. an is redundant or improper. Lowth.

"Nevertheless; Asa his heart, was perfect with the Lord." 1. Kings. 15. 14. This mode of expressing possession is obsolete.

"The more shame for ye." The use of ye in the objective is admissible only in the comic and burlesk style. Lowth.

In popular practice, that and this are often followed by there and here—that there house.—this here tree. This idiom is probably as old as Language—and is not a corruption.—It existed in the Celtic—an hagh ad—that house there—and the French language has preserved it—Cette maison la.—it might have had its origin in the poverty of the primitive languages of the world; or it might have proceeded from the practice of pointing to objects described, or from the Saxo-thon genitive of this; thisere; but in the improved style of modern language, it is unnecessary, and in English, is confined to the vulgar and colloquial style.
"I had rather," is probably a mistake for "I would rather," but the error, at least in colloquial language, seems incorrigible.

"The rules of our religion, from which we are swerved." Tillotson. The passive form of swerve is obsolete.

"Flee thee away"—"Was entered into a conspiracy"—"To vie charities"—"Take pains to agree the sacred and profane chronology"—are incorrect; for intransitive verbs do not admit the passive form, nor an object after them.

Succeed, tho' numbered among intransitive verbs, has obtained a general use in a transitive sense—"Succeed the means of grace," is the customary language of divines and well authorized.

"If Jove this arm succeed" Pope.

In the words abed, ashore, &c. and before the participles, acoming, agoing, ashooting, a has been supposed a contraction of on or at. It may be so in some cases; but with the participles, it is more probably a contraction of the ag and air of the Celtic nations. In the Galic dialect, the regular participles are formed by prefixing these particles—as, ag iarraidh—seeking. In the Irish the participle is formed by prefixing ag to the infinitive—as ag radh—saying—ag the eating. This particle, in a rapid enunciation, has lost the consonant and become a.

"In him who is, and him who finds, a friend" Pope.

Lowth condemns this use of a noun in the nominative and objective at the same time; but without reason, as the cases are not distinguished in English.

In the use of mistaken, there is a singularity, which deserves notice. When applied to persons, it is equivalent to being wrong or in an error. "I am mistaken—you are mistaken"—mean, I am in an error, you are in an error. But applied to things, it signifies misunderstood; his words or opinions are mistaken, that is, misunderstood.

As used for that in the following sentence, and in similar cases, Lowth condemns as improper or obsolete—"the relations are so uncertain as they require a great deal of examination." Bacon. This use of as is obsolete; but
is genuine English—as being a word of the same class and import as *that*.

It is a popular mistake to use *wives* for the possessive *wife's*. "It is at my wife's disposal" is correct; but not, at my *wives* disposal.

On the other hand, printers err in using *proofs* for *proofs*, in the plural.

*Latter* refers both to *time* and *place*—later, to *time* only. *Priestley.*

We sometimes hear the *strongest* of the two, used for the *stronger* of the two. In such cases, the comparative degree is the more correct.

*Then* and *above* are often used as attributes; the *then* ministry; the *above* remarks; nor would I proscribe this use. It is well authorized and very convenient.

Johnson observes, "A has a peculiar signification, denoting the proportion of one thing to another; as "the landlord hath a hundred a year." But the only peculiarity of this use, is, that no preposition is employed. This and similar expressions are the primitive idiom of the language—as men originally communicated ideas chiefly by names, verbs and attributes, without connectives. The expression is perfectly good English.

*Averse*, in Louthi's opinion, should be followed by *from*; but why, any more than *repugnant*, or *unwilling*? *Practice* has established the use of *to*, with propriety.

The verb *lay* is often used for *lie*—I will *lay* down. *Lay* is transitive—I will *lay* myself down. When no object follows, the intransitive verb *lie* should be used; *let* him *lie* down.

The word *rather* is used to express a small degree of excess; "She is *rather* profuse in her expenses. In like manner is used *full*; "the coffee is *full* strong," *Priestley*.

The signification of words in construction, sometimes depends on the tone of voice with which they are uttered; thus, "I cannot find *one* of my books," if uttered without any peculiar force of voice upon *one*, means that *one* of my books is missing. But with an emphasis upon *one*, it means that all are missing. Thus, if I say "No laws are better than the English," the word *no* uttered without emphasis.
phasis makes me declare the English to be the best laws—with emphasis, it makes me affirm them to be worse than none.

In the following sentence, an important distinction is made by the definitive *a*—"He behaves with a little reverence." This is positive and rather praises, than dispraises. But omitting *a*—"He behaves with little reverence," and I rather dispraise the person. Thus, when I say "There were few men present," I speak of the number as inconsiderable by way of diminution—But there were *a few* men present," I intend to represent the number in the most favorable light. *Priestley.*

When we say "half a dollar," we mean in value only—but "*a* half dollar," means a coin or piece of money.

In this mode of expression, "He looks him *full in the face,*" *the* is used for his, which is rendered unnecessary by the use of him proceeding. *Priestley.*

There are many grammatical errors in the writers of the 16th and 17th centuries, which Lowth, Priestly, Blair and Campboll have enumerated in their respective works, and many of them are copied into Murray's Grammar. But the greatest part of them are now so perfectly obsolete, that students are in no danger of learning them, either from books or common practice; and it seems to be inexpedient to swell the size of a modern Grammar, by criticisms upon modes of writing no longer used.

**On the Grammars of the Greek, Latin and French Languages.**

I have remarked in the Preface, that many of the alterations introduced into this work, are as applicable to other languages as to the English. This subject deserves illustration.

It is an unquestionable truth, that the particles or indeclinable parts of speech, are mostly or all derived from the declinable, and chiefly from names, verbs and attributes. Bonar, in a disquisition on the subject,* and Jones in

his Greek Grammar, have attempted to trace the eighteen Greek prepositions, to their radicals, and Jones has succeeded in satisfying my mind, as to most of his etymologies. I will not here enter upon this subject—but will offer a few examples to show how imperfectly the original of words, and the true structure of sentences, have been understood.

"For I know that in me, that is in my flesh, dwelleth no good thing." Rom. 7. 18. Here the first that, in Greek ὅτι, is called a conjunction; whereas it is the neuter pronoun—that is, a substitute for the following part of the sentence—"In me, that is in my flesh, dwelleth no good thing—I know that." Similar examples of the use of this word, are to be found in every page of Greek.

"The boys attend school, where they spend their time in learning the principles of justice—and they say ὅτι ἐξεῖ ἢξοιν ἠρκονταῖ "—Xenoph. Cyroped. 1. Here ὅτι represents the following part of the sentence—they say that (which follows) they come for this purpose. The touto, is a substitute for the first part of the sentence—the boys go to school for this purpose—to learn justice.

The principles explained in this work throw much light on what are called impersonal verbs. Mark. 1. 2. As it is written in the prophets "Behold I send my messenger before thy face, who shall prepare thy way before thee—" Here the whole passage cited is the nominative to γεγραφθαί that is written in the prophets. In English it—precedes the verb, but, as has been observed, it is the representative of the sentence which follows.

"Sed animadvertendum est diligentius, quae natura rerum sit." Cicero de off. lib. 2. 20. Here the last member of the sentence is the real nominative to the verb est—what is the nature of things, is to be considered.—It is observable that in this form of construction, where a sentence or member is the nominative, the participle or attribute is of the neuter gender.

"Quamquam te, Marce fili, annum jam audientem Cratippum, idque Athenis, abundare oportet praepectis in—

† ὅτι and the Latin ut, as well as that, are probably the Hebrew at.

‡ Yet some verbs appear to be really impersonal, as pugnatum est sub muris." It was fought under the walls.
'Altho, Marcus, it behoves you, who have now attended Cratippus a year at Athens, to be well furnished with the precepts and maxims of philosophy.'—Here the last part of the sentence is really the nominative to *oportet*. To be well initiated in the principles of philosophy becomes you my son, who enjoy the advantage of the institutions of Cratippus, at Athens, the seat of science and the arts. The same remark is applicable to *libet, libet, lubet, sitaet*, &c. "Si placet tibi audire" if to hear pleases you.

"Homo autem, (quod rationis est particeps, per quam consequentia cernit,) facile totius vitæ cursum videt." *ibm. ca. 4.* In this sentence, we find *quod* marked as an adverb or conjunction; but in fact, it is the representative of the following clauses—Man—(*that he is a partaker of reason, by which he discerns consequences,*)) readily sees the whole course of life. We usually translate *quod* in such cases, by _because, as or since_; but these words amount, when scrutinized, to the same thing—they are only different terms to express a reason, cause or purpose; and if _that_ does not as readily suggest the idea, it is solely from the influence of habit. In examining the principles of language, we are not to rest satisfied with knowing what it _is_, in popular understanding; but how it was made and of what materials it is composed.

No Latinist wants to be informed that _guamobrem_ is the union of _quam ob rem_, in one word—as are _quomodo, quare, interea, praeterea_; nor that _qualibet_—is _quam_ or _quid_; and _libet_—what you _will_—as _quamvis—is, quam and _vis_, in a like sense—_quaqua_ is the mere reduplication of the relative in the ablative case—_ô_, translated _thither_ is merely the ablative of the pronoun—and _hie_, whether relating to a person or place, is the same word—_hie, he or this man_—_hie, in this place_.

But the French exceeds all languages in the number of nouns, verbs and adjectives, which are thrown into the common sink of adverbs, conjunctions and prepositions. Thus _autre, fois, aujourd'hui, essendant, autour, autant, pour qui_, _peut être_, are denominated adverbs—_autant que pour qui_, _a condition que_; _de sorte que_, _pendant que_ are called...
conjunctions—concernant, suivant, attendu, joignant, pendant, excepté, all regular verbals or participles, are classed among the prepositions. Yet it would be far better to resolve all words and phrases according to their original principles, as far as it can be done. "Il est, peut-être, difficile de ranger sous l'ordre de la nature la divination qui vient de l'art et de l'étude." Morabins, Trans, Cic, de Divin. liv. 1.

It is difficult to rank, in the order of nature, the divination which proceeds from art and study—all this—peut-être—may be. In strictness, the whole sentence or proposition which is affirmed to be possible, is the nominative to peut-être. Pendant que—that pending, admitting that to be the fact, is the case absolute or independent. Pendant que, that depending, during that—pourvu que—that being provided.—"J'ai quelque chose à vous dire concernant cette affaire." I have something to say to you, concerning that affair. Here concerning retains its verbal signification, as in English, and relates to or agrees with the preceding part of the sentence.” J'obéis suivant vos ordres.” I obey, following your orders. "Il travaille toute la semaine excepté le dimanche. He labors the whole week, Sunday excepted—that is, Sunday being excepted—the case independent.—Parce que—because—that is, for that which follows—Parce que il pretend qu'il y a dans la nature des signes des choses—Par, the preposition, ce the pronoun or definitive, and que the substitute representing the following part of the sentence. "Soit qu' il parte ou qu' il demeure. Whether he goes or stays—that is, Be it, soit que—be that fact which is expressed by il parte—que is a substitute or relative referring to the following affirmation—il parte—and the nominative to soit. In the second member of the sentence soit is understood before que.

The sentence fully expressed would stand thus; soit que—il parte; ou soit que, il demeure. Be that, he goes; or, be that, he remains.

These criticisms, already extended to an inconvenient length, considering the limited nature of this work, may serve to show the reader, how artificial and arbitrary are the distribution and denominations of the several species of words, in our grammars, and how ill calculated are the common rules to illustrate the origin or the true princi-
Before a language can be correctly understood, words must be traced to their source, their radical significations explained, their mutations, contractions, and combinations, developed. It is not the English language only whose history and principles are yet to be illustrated; but the grammars and dictionaries of all other languages, with which I have any acquaintance, must be revised and corrected, before their elements and true construction can be fully understood.

CORRECTIONS.
Preface, page 7. l. 19. insert no after of p. 17. note. prefix e to cares; and read of p. 26 (in some copies) l. 7. read mediums. p. 28, l. 16. for vituls r. vitals. p. 30, at bot. for contradictions r. contractions. p. 221. l. 10. for case r. ease.