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英吉利文範二編 全





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英吉利文範
編二

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Part II.
Etymology.

chapter 1.

A General View of the Parts of Speech.

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

There are, in English, nine sorts of words, or, as they are commonly called Parts of speech; namely, the article, the Substantive or Noun, the adjective, the Pronoun, the Verb, the adverb, the Preposition, the conjunction, and the Interjection.

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

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

the substantive may, in general, be distinguished

by its taking an article before it, or by its making sense of itself: as, a book, the sun, an apple; temperance, industry, chastity.

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

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

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

5. A Verb is a word which signifies to Be, to Do, or to suffer: as, "I am; I rule; I am ruled."

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

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

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

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

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

8. A Conjunction is a part of speech that is chiefly used to connect sentences; so as, out of two or more sentences to make but one: it

Sometimes connects only words: as, "Thou and he are happy, because you are good." "Two and three are five."

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

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

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

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

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

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

ter of etymology.

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

chapter 11.

Of the articles.

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

In English, there are but two articles, a and the: a becomes an before a vowel,* and before a silent

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

h; as, an acorn, an hour. But if the h be sounded, the a only is to be used; as, a hand, a heart, a highway.

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

To remedy this evil, readers should be taught to omit, in all similar cases, the sound of the n, and to give the h its full pronunciation.

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

The is called the definite article; because it ascertains what particular thing or things are

meant: as, "Give me the book;" "Bring me the apples;" meaning some book, or apples, referred to.

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

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

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

The article is omitted before nouns that imply the different virtues, vices, passions, qualities, sciences, arts, metals, herbs, &c.; as, "prudence is commendable; falsehood is odious; anger ought to be avoided;" &c. It is not prefixed to a proper name; as, "et lex,

ander;" (because that of itself denotes a determinate individual or particular thing,) except for the sake of distinguishing a particular family: as, "He is a Howard, or of the family of the Howards;" or by way of eminence: as, "Every man is not a Newton;"

"He has the courage of an Achilles:" or when some noun is understood; "He sailed down the (river) Thames, in the (ship) Britannia."

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

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

But there appears to be a remarkable exception to this rule, in the use of the adjectives few

and many, (the latter chiefly with the word great before it,) which, though joined with plural substantives, yet admit of the singular article a: as, a few men; a great many men.

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

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

"Full many a gem of purest ray serene,

"The dark unfathom'd caves of ocean bear:

"Full many a flow'r is born to blush un-
seen,

"And waste its sweetness on the desert air."

In these lines, the phrases, many a gem and many a flow'r, refer to many gems and many flowers, separately, not collectively considered.

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

Chap. III.

Of Substantives.

Section 1. Of Substantives in general.

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

Substantives are either proper or common.

Proper names or substantives, are the names appropriated to individuals: as, George, London, Thames.

Common names or substantives, stand for kinds containing many sorts, or for sorts containing many individuals under them; as, animal, man, tree, &c.

When proper names have an article annexed to them, they are used as common names: as, "He is the Cicero of his age; he is reading the lives of the Twelve Caesars."

Common names may also be used to signify individuals, by the addition of articles or pronouns: as, "The boy is studious; that girl is discreet."*

To substantives belong gender, number, and cases; and they are all of the third person, when spoken of, and of the second when spoken to: as, "Blessings attend us on every side; be grateful,

*Nouns may also be divided into the following classes: collective nouns, or nouns of multitude; as, the people, the parliament, the army: Abstract nouns, or the names of qualities abstracted from their substances; as, knowledge, goodness, whiteness: Verbal or participial nouns; as, beginning, reading, writing

children of man!" that is, ye children of men.

Section 2. of Gender.

Gender is the distinction of nouns, with regard to sex. There are three genders, the Masculine, the Feminine, and the Neuter.

The Masculine Gender denotes animals of the male kind: as, a man, a horse, a bull.

The Feminine Gender signifies animals of the female kind: as, a woman, a duck, a hen.

The Neuter Gender denotes objects which are neither males nor females: as, a field, a house, a garden.

Some substantives, naturally neuter, are, by a figure of speech, converted into the masculine or feminine gender: as, when we say of the sun, he is setting; and of a ship, she sails well.

Figuratively, in the English tongue, we commonly give the masculine gender to nouns which are conspicuous for the attributes of imparting or com,

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

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

1. By different words: as

Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
Bachelor.	Maid	Husband	Wife.
Boar.	Sow.	King.	Queen.

Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
Boy	Girl.	Lad.	Lass.
Brother.	Sister.	Lord.	Lady.
Buck.	Doe.	Man.	woman.
Bull.	Cow.	Master.	Mistress.
Bullock or	Heifer.	Milker.	Spawner.
Steer.		Nephew	Niece.
Cock.	Hen.	Ram.	Ewe.
Dog.	Bitch.	Singer.	Songstress. or
Drake.	Duck.		Singer.
Earl.	Countess.	Hoven.	Slut.
Father.	Mother.	Son.	Daughter.
Friar.	Nun.	Stag.	Hind.
Gander.	Goose.	Uncle.	Aunt.
Hard.	Ro.	Wizard.	Witch.
Horse.	Mare.		

2. By a difference of termination: as,

Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
Abbot.	Abbess.	Landgrave.	Landgravine
Actor.	Actress.	Lion.	Lioness.

Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
Administrator.	Administratrix.	Marquis.	Marchioness.
Adulterer.	Adulteress.	Master.	Mistress.
Ambassador.	Ambassadress.	Mayor.	Mayoress.
Arbiter.	Arbitress.	Patron.	Patroness.
Baron.	Baroness.	Peer.	Peeress.
Bridegroom.	Bride.	Poet.	Poetess.
Benefactor.	Benefactress.	Priest.	Priestess.
Caterer.	Cateress.	Prince.	Princess.
Chanter.	Chantress.	Prior.	Prioress.
Conductor.	Conductress.	Prophet.	Prophetess.
Count.	Countess.	Protector.	Protectress.
Deacon.	Deaconess.	Shepherd.	Shepherdess.
Duke.	Duchess.	Songster.	Songstress.
Elector.	Electress.	Sorcerer.	Sorceress.
Emperor.	Empress.	Sultan.	Sultanness, Sultana.
Enchanter.	Enchantress.	Tiger.	Tigress.
Executor.	Executrix.	Traitor.	Traitress.
Governor.	Governess.	Tutor.	Tutroress.

Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
Hero.	Heroine.	Viscount.	Viscountess.
Hunter.	Huntress.	Notary.	Notares.
Host.	Hostess.	Widower.	Widow.
Jew.	Jewess.		

3. By a noun, pronoun, or adjective, being pre-
fixed to the substantive: as,

A cock-sparrow.	A hen-sparrow.
A man-servant.	A maid-servant.
A he-goat.	A she-goat.
A he-bear.	A she-bear.
A male-child.	A female-child.
Male descendants.	Female descendants.

It sometimes happens, that the same noun is ei-
ther masculine or feminine. The words parent,
child, cousin, friend, neighbour, servant, and se-
veral others, are used indifferently for males or
females.

Nouns with variable terminations contribute to
conciseness and perspicuity of expression.

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

Section 3. Of Number.

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

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

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

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

Some nouns, from the nature of the things which they express, are used only in the sin-

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

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

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

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

Nouns ending in f, or fe, are rendered plu-

ral by the change of those terminations into ves:
as, loaf, loaves; half, halves; wife, wives; ex-
cept grief, relief, reproof, and several others, which
form the plural by the addition of s. Those
which end in ff, have the regular plural: as,
ruff, ruffs; except, staff, staves.

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

Some nouns become plural by changing the a
of the singular into e: as, man, men; woman, wo-
men; alderman, aldermen. The words, ox and
child, form oxen and children; brother, makes ei-
ther brothers, or brethren. Sometimes the diph-
thong oo is changed into ee in the plural: as,
foot, feet; goose, geese; tooth, teeth. Louse and
mouse make lice and mice. Penny makes pence,

or pennies, when the coin is meant; die, dice (for
play); die, dies (for coining).

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

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

The word news is now almost universally con-
sidered as belonging to the singular number.

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

The following words, which have been adopted
from the Hebrew, Greek, and Latin languages,

are thus distinguished with respect to number.

Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
Cherub.	Cherubim.	Datum.	Data.
Seraph.	Seraphim.	Effluviū.	Effluvia.
Antithesis.	Antitheses.	Encomium.	Encomia. or Encomiums.
Automaton.	Automata.		
Basis.	Bases.	Erratum.	Errata.
Crisis.	Crises.	Genius.	Genii.*
Criterion.	Criteria.	Genus.	Genera.
Diæresis.	Diæreses.	Index.	Indices or Indexes.†
Ellipsis.	Ellipses.		
Emphasis.	Emphases.	Lamina.	Laminae.
Hypothesis.	Hypotheses.	Medium.	Media.
Metamor- phosis.	{ Metator, phoses.	Magus.	Magi
Phænomenon.	Phænomena.	Memoran- dum.	{ Memoranda or Memorandums.

* *Genii*, when denoting aerial spirits: *Geniuses*, when signify-
ing persons of genius.

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

Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
Appendix.	Appendices or Radius.		Radii.
	Appendices.	Stamen.	Stamina.
Arcanum.	Arcana.	Stratum.	Strata.
Axis.	Axes.	Vortex.	Vortices.
Calx.	Calces.		

Some words, derived from the learned langu-
ages, are confined to the plural number: as, an-
tipodes, credenda, literati, minutiae.

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

Section 4. Of Case.

In English, substantives have three cases,
the nominative, the possessive, and the objec-
tive.*

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

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

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

When the plural ends in *s*, the other *s* is omitted, but the apostrophe is retained: as, "On eagles' wings;" "The drapers' company."

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

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

English substantives are declined in the following manner:

	Singular.	Plural.
Nominative Case.	A mother.	Mothers.
Possessive Case.	A mother's.	Mothers'.
Objective Case.	A mother.	Mothers.

Nominative Case.	The man.	The men.
Possessive Case.	The man's.	The men's.
Objective Case.	The man.	The men.

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

Singular.		
Nominative.	Dominus,	A Lord.
Genitive.	Domini,	Lord's, of a Lord.
Dative.	Domino,	To a Lord.
Accusative.	Dominum,	A Lord.
Vocative.	Domine,	O Lord.
Ablative.	Domino,	By a Lord.

Plural.		
Nominative.	Domini,	Lords.
Genitive.	Dominorum,	Lords', of Lords.
Dative.	Dominiis,	To Lords.
Accusative.	Dominos,	Lords.
Vocative.	Domini,	O Lords.
Ablative.	Dominiis,	By Lords.

Some writers think, that the relations signi-
fied by the addition of articles and preposi-
tions to the noun, may properly be denominated
cases, in English, and that, on this principle,
there are, in our language, as many cases as
in the Latin tongue. But to this mode of

Beyond a man,

forming cases for our substantives, there are
strong objections. It would, indeed, be a
formal and useless arrangement of nouns, ar-
ticles, and prepositions. If an arrangement of
this nature were to be considered as constituting
cases, the English language would have a much
greater number of them than the Greek and
Latin tongues: for, as every preposition has
its distinct meaning and effect, every com-
bination of a preposition and article with
the noun, would form a different relation,
and would constitute a distinct case. This
would encumber our language with many new
terms, and a heavy and useless load of distinc-
tions.*

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

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

But though this variety of cases does not at all correspond with the idiom of our language, there seems to be great propriety in admitting a case in English substantives, which shall serve to denote the objects of active verbs and of prepositions; and which is, therefore, properly termed the objective case. The general idea of case doubtless has a reference to the termi-

nation of the noun: but there are many instances, both in Greek and Latin, in which the nominative and accusative cases have precisely the same form, and are distinguished only by the relation they bear to other words in the sentence. We are therefore warranted, by analogy, in applying this principle to our own language, as far as utility, and the idiom of it, will admit. Now it is obvious, that in English, a noun governed by an active verb, or a preposition, is very differently circumstanced, from a noun in the nominative, or in the possessive case; and that a comprehensive case, correspondent to that difference, must be useful and proper. The business of parsing, and of showing the connexion and dependence of words, will be most conveniently accomplished, by the adoption of such a case; and the irregularity of having our nouns sometimes placed in a situation, in which they cannot be said to be

in any case at all, will be avoided.

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

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

Sometimes, though rarely, two nouns in the possessive case, immediately succeed each other, in the following form: "My friend's wife's sister;" a sense which would be better expres-

sed by saying, "the sister of my friend's wife;" or, "my friend's sister in law." Some grammarians say, that in each of the following phrases, viz. "A book of my brother's," "A servant of the queen's," "A soldier of the king's," there are two genitive cases; the first phrase implying, "one of the books of my brother," the next, "one of the servants of the queen;" and the last, "one of the soldiers of the king." But as the preposition governs the objective case; and as there are not, in each of these sentences, two apostrophes with the letter s coming after them, we cannot with propriety say, that there are two genitive cases.

Chapter IV.

Of Adjectives.

Section 1. Of the nature of adjectives, and the degrees of comparison.

An Adjective is a word added to a

substantive to express its quality: as, "An industrious man;" "A virtuous woman;" "A benevolent mind."

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

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

There are commonly reckoned three degrees of comparison; the Positive, the Comparative, and the Superlative.

Grammarians have generally enumerated these three degrees of comparison; but the first of them has been thought by some writers, to be, improperly, termed a degree of comparison; as it seems to be nothing more than the simple form of the adjective, and not to imply either comparison or degree. This opinion may be well founded, unless the adje,

ctive be supposed to, imply comparison or degree, by containing a secret or general reference to other things: as, when we say, "he is a tall man," "this is a fair day," we make some reference to the ordinary size of men, and to different weather.

The Positive State expresses the quality of an object, without any increase or diminution: as, good, wise, great.

The Comparative Degree increases or lessens the positive in signification: as, wiser, greater, less wise.

The Superlative Degree increases or lessens the positive to the highest or lowest degree: as, wisest, greatest, least wise.

The simple word, or positive, becomes the comparative, by adding r or er; and the superlative, by adding st or est, to the end of it: as, wise, wiser, wisest; great, greater, greatest. And the adverbs more and

most, placed before the adjective, have the same effect: as, wise, more wise, most wise.

The termination ish may be accounted in some sort a degree of comparison, by which the signification is diminished below the positive: as, black, blackish, or tending to blackness; salt, saltish, or having a little taste of salt.

The word rather is very properly used to express a small degree or excess of a quality: as, "She is rather profuse in her expenses."

Monosyllables, for the most part, are compared by er and est; and dissyllables by more and most: as, mild, milder, mildest; frugal, more frugal, most frugal. Dissyllables ending in y; as, happy, lovely; and in le after a mute, as, able, ample; or accented on the last syllable, as discreet, polite; easily admit of er and est: as, happier, happiest; abler, ablest; politer, politest. words of more than two syllables hardly ever admit of those termina-

tions.

In some words the superlative is formed by adding the adverb most to the end of them; as, nethermost, uttermost, or utmost, undermost, uppermost, foremost.

In English, as in most languages, there are some words of very common use, (in which the caprice of custom is apt to get the better of analogy,) that are irregular in this respect: as, "good, better, best; bad, worse, worst; little, less, least; much or many, more, most; near, nearer, nearest or next; late, later, latest or last; old, older or elder, oldest or eldest;" and a few others.

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

Various nouns placed before other nouns

assume the nature of adjectives; as sea fish, wine vessel, corn field, meadow ground, &c.

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

Section 2. Remarks on the subject of
Comparison.

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

In quantities, however, that may be exa-

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

But though these degrees are infinite or indefinite in fact, they cannot be so in language; nor would it be convenient, if language were to express many of them. In regard to unmeasured quantities and qualities, the degrees of more and less, (besides those marked above,) may be expressed intelligibly, at least, if not accurately, by certain adverbs, or words of like import: as, "Socrates was much wiser than Alcibiades;" "Snow is a great deal whiter than this paper;" "Epaminondas was by far the most accompli-

shed of the Thelans;" The evening star is a very splendid object, but the sun is incomparably more splendid;" "The Deity is infinitely greater than the greatest of his creatures." The inaccuracy of these, and the like expressions, is not a material inconvenience; and, if it were, it is unavoidable: for human speech can only express human thought; and where thought is necessarily inaccurate, language must be so too.

When the word very, exceedingly, or any other of similar import, is put before the positive, it is called by some writers the superlative of eminence, to distinguish it from the other superlative, which has been already mentioned, and is called the superlative of comparison. Thus very eloquent, is termed the superlative of eminence; most eloquent, the superlative of comparison. In the superlative of eminence, something of comparison is, howe-

ver, remotely or indirectly intimated: for we cannot reasonably call a man very eloquent, without comparing his eloquence with the eloquence of other men.

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

Chapter v.

Of Pronouns.

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

There are three kinds of pronouns.

viz. the Personal, the Relative, and the Adjective Pronouns.

Section 1. Of the Personal Pronouns.

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

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

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

I, is the first person

Thou, is the second person

He, she, or it, is the third person

We, is the first person

ye or you, is the second person

They, is the third person

} ulae
Sing

} real.
Plur

This account of persons will be very intelligible, when we reflect, that there are three persons who may be the subject of any discourse: first, the person who speaks, may speak of him,

self; secondly, he may speak of the person to whom he addresses himself; thirdly, he may speak of some other person; and, as the speaker, the persons spoken to, and the other persons spoken of, may be many, so each of these persons must have the plural number.

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

Gender has respect only to the third person singular of the pronouns, he, she, it. He is masculine; she is feminine; it is neuter.

The persons speaking and spoken to, being at the same time the subjects of the discourse, are supposed to be present; from which, and other circumstances, their sex is commonly known, and needs not to be marked by a distinction of gender in the pronouns: but the

third person or thing spoken of, being absent, and in many respects unknown, it is necessary that it should be marked by a distinction of gender; at least when some particular person or thing is spoken of, that ought to be more distinctly marked: accordingly, the pronoun singular of the third person has the three genders, *he, she, it*.

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

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

The personal pronouns are thus declined.

Person.	Case.	Singular.	Plural.
First.	Nom.	I.	We.
	Poss.	Mine.	Ours.
	Obj.	Me.	Us.
Second.	Nom.	Thou.	Ye or you.

Person.	Case.	Singular.	Plural.
Third.	Poss.	Thine.	Yours.
	Obj.	Thee.	You.
Mas.	Nom.	He.	They.
	Poss.	His.	Theirs.
Third.	Obj.	Him.	Them.
	Nom.	She.	They.
Fem.	Poss.	Hers.	Theirs.
	Obj.	Her.	Them.
Third.	Nom.	It.	They.
Neuter.	Poss.	Its.	Theirs.
	Obj.	It.	Them.

Section 2. Of the Relative Pronouns.

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

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

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

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

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

who is of both numbers, and is thus declined:

Singular and Plural.	
Nominative.	who.

Possessive. whose.

Objective. whom.

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

— "And the fruit
Of that forbidden tree whose mortal taste
Brought death." Milton.

— "Pure the joy without alloy,
whose very rapture is tranquillity." young.
"The lights and shades, whose well accorded strife
Gives all the strength and colour of our
life." Pope.

"This is one of the clearest characteristics
of its being a religion whose origin is divine."
Blair.

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

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

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

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

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

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

Some writers have classed the interrogatives

as a separate kind of pronouns; but they are too nearly related to the relative pronouns, both in nature and form, to render such a division proper. They do not, in fact, lose the character of relatives, when they become interrogatives.

The only difference is, that without an interrogation, the relatives have reference to a subject which is antecedent, definite, and known; with an interrogation, to a subject which is subsequent, indefinite, and unknown, and which it is expected that the answer should express and ascertain.

Section 3. Of the Adjective Pronouns.

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

The adjective pronouns may be subdivided into four sorts, namely, the possessive, the distributive, the demonstrative,

and the indefinite.

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

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

The pronouns his, mine, thine, have the same form, whether they are possessive pronouns, or the possessive cases of their respective personal pronouns. See p. 170.

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

The following sentences exemplify the possessive pronouns:— "My lesson is finished; Thy books are defaced; he loves his studies."

She performs her duty; We own our faults, your situation is distressing; I admire their virtues."

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

Some grammarians consider its as a possessive pronoun.

The two words own and self, are used in conjunction with pronouns. Own is added to possessives, both singular and plural: as, My own hand, our own house. It is emphatical, and implies a silent contrariety or opposition: as, "I live in my own house," that is, "not in a hired house." Self is added to possessives: as, myself, yourselves; and sometimes to personal pronouns: as, himself, itself, themselves. It then, like own, expresses emphasis and opposition: as, "I

did this myself," that is, "not another;" or it forms a reciprocal pronoun; as, "We hurt ourselves by vain rage."

Himself, themselves, are now used in the nominative case, instead of hisselt, theirselves: as, "He came himself;" "He himself shall do this;" "They performed it themselves."

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

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

Every relates to several persons or things, and signifies each one of them all taken separately.

This pronoun was formerly used apart from

its noun, but it is now constantly annexed to it, except in legal proceedings: as, in the phrase "all and every of them."

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

Neither imports "not either;" that is, not one nor the other; as, "Neither of my friends was there."

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

This refers to the nearest person or thing, and that to the most distant: as, "This man is more intelligent than that."

This indicates the latter or last mentioned; that, the former or first mentioned: as, "Both wealth and poverty are tempta-

tions; that, tends to excite pride, this, discontent."

Perhaps the words former and latter may be properly ranked amongst the demonstrative pronouns, especially in many of their applications.

The following sentence may serve as an example: "It was happy for the state, that Fabius continued in the command with Minucius: the former's phlegm was a check upon the latter's vivacity."

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

Of these pronouns, only the words one and other are varied. One has a possessive case, which it forms in the same manner as substantives: as, one, one's. This word has a general signification, meaning people at large; and sometimes also a peculiar reference to the person who is speaking.

“One ought to pity the distresses of mankind.”

“One is apt to love one's self.” This word is often used, by good writers, in the plural number: as, “The great ones of the world;” “The boy wounded the old bird, and stole the young ones;” “My wife and the little ones are in good health.”

Other is declined in the following manner:

	Singular.	Plural.
Nom.	Other	Others.
Poss.	Other's	Others.
Obj.	Other	Others.

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

The following phrases may serve to exemplify the indefinite pronouns. “Some of you are wise

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

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

None is used in both numbers: as, “None is so deaf as he that will not hear;” “None of those are equal to these.” It seems originally to have signified, according to its derivation, not one, and therefore to have had no plural; but there is good authority for the use of it in the plural number: as, “None that go unto her return again.” Prov. ii. 19.

“Terms of peace were none vouchsaf'd.”

Milton.

“None of them are varied to express the gender.” “None of them have different endings

for the numbers." Lowth's *Introduction*.

"None of their productions are extant." Blair.

We have endeavoured to distinguish, and explain the nature of the adjective pronouns; but it is difficult to divide them in an exact and unexceptionable manner. Some of them, in particular applications, might have been differently classed; but it is presumed that, in general, the distribution is tolerably correct. All the pronouns, except the personal and relative, may indeed, in a general view of them, be considered as *definite* pronouns, because they define or ascertain the extent of the common name, or general term to which they refer, or are joined; but as each class of them does this, more or less exactly, or in a manner peculiar to itself, a division adapted to this circumstance appears to be suitable to the nature of things, and the understanding of learners.

It is the opinion of some respectable gram-

marians, that the words *this, that, any, some, such, his, their, our, &c.* are pronouns, when they are used separately from the nouns to which they relate; but that, when they are joined to those nouns, they are not to be considered as belonging to this species of words; because, in this association, they rather ascertain a substantive, than supply the place of one. They assert that, in the phrases, "give me *that*," "*this* is John's," and "*such* were some of you," the words in italics are pronouns; but that, in the following phrases, they are not pronouns; "*this* book is instructive," "*some* boys are ingenious," "*my* health is declining," "*our* hearts are deceitful," &c. Other grammarians think, that none of these forms of speech can properly be called pronouns; as the genuine pronoun stands by itself, without the aid of a noun expressed or understood. They are of opinion, that in the expressions, "Give me

that," *this is John's*," &c. the noun is always understood, and must be supplied in the mind of the reader: as, "Give me that book;" "this book is John's;" "and such persons were some persons amongst you."

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

Chapter VI.

Of Verbs.

Section 1. Of the nature of Verbs in general.

A verb is a word which signifies to be, to do, or to suffer; as, "I am, I rule, I am ruled."

Verbs are of three kinds; active, passive, and neuter. They are also divided into regular, irregular, and defective.

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

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

A Verb Neuter expresses neither action nor passion, but being, or a state of being: as,

"I am, I sleep, I sit."*

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Verbs neuter may properly be denominated intransitives, because the effect is confined within the subject and does not pass over to any object: as, "I sit, he lives, they sleep."

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

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

it signifies to grow dull or insipid, it is a verb neuter.

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

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

In our definition of the verb, as a part of speech which signifies to be, to do, or to suffer, &c. we have included every thing, either expressly or

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

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

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

o or assertion

"I desire you to depart instantly;" and that as the latter phrase implies affirmation, so does the former. But, supposing the phrases to be exactly alike in sense, the reasoning is not conclusive. 1st. In the latter phrase, the only part implying affirmation, is, "I desire." The words "to depart," are in the infinitive mood, and contain no assertion: they affirm nothing. 2d. The position is not tenable, that "Equivalence in sense implies similarity in grammatical nature." It proves too much, and therefore nothing. This mode of reasoning would confound the acknowledged grammatical distinction of words. A pronoun, on this principle, may be proved to be a noun; a noun; a verb; an adverb, a noun and preposition; the superlative degree, the comparative; the imperative mood, the indicative; the future tense, the present; and so on: because they may respectively be resolved into similar meanings. Thus, in the sentence, "I desire you to depart," the words to depart, may be called a

a noun, because they are equivalent in sense to the noun departure, in the following sentence, "I desire your departure." The words "Depart instantly," may be proved to be, not the imperative mood with an adverb, but the indicative and infinitive, with a noun and preposition; for they are equivalent to "I desire you to depart in an instant." The superlative degree in this sentence, "Of all acquisitions virtue is the most valuable," may pass for the comparative, because it conveys the same sentiment as, "Virtue is more valuable than every other acquisition."

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

To verbs belong number, person, mood, and tense.

Section 2. Of Number and Person.

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

In each number there are three persons; as,

	Singular.	Plural.
First Person.	I love.	we love.
Second Person.	Thou lovest.	ye or you love.
Third Person.	He loves.	They love.

Thus the verb, in some parts of it, varies its endings, to express, or agree with, different persons of the same number: as, "I love, thou lovest; he loveth, or loves;" and also to express different numbers of the same person: as, "thou lovest, ye love; he loveth, they love." In the plural number of the verb, there is no variation of ending to express the different persons; and the verb, in the three persons plural, is the same as it is in the first person singular.

yet this scanty provision of terminations is sufficient for all the purposes of discourse, and no ambiguity arises from it: the verb being always attend,

ed, either with the noun expressing the subject acting or acted upon, or with the pronoun representing it.

For this reason, the plural termination in en, they loven, they weren, formerly in use, was laid aside as unnecessary, and has long been obsolete.

Section 3. Of Moods and Participles.

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

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

There are five moods of verbs, the indicative, the imperative, the potential, the subjunctive, and the infinitive.

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

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

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

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

The Subjunctive Mood represents a thing under a condition, motive, wish, supposition, &c.; and is preceded by a conjunction, expressed or

understood, and attended by another verb: as, "I will respect him, though he chide me;" "Were he good, he would be happy; that is, 'if he were good.'"—See pages 202, 203.

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

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

There are three participles, the Present or Active, the Perfect or Passive, and the Compound Perfect: as, "loving, loved, having loved!"

Agreeably to the general practice of grammarians, we have represented the present participle,

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

finished: as, "I have written a letter;" "The letter is written."*

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

Participles not only convey the notion of time; but they also signify actions, and govern the cases of nouns and pronouns, in the same manner as verbs do; and therefore should be comprehended in the general name of verbs. That they are mere modes of the verb, is

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

manifest, if our definition of a verb be admitted: for they signify being, doing, or suffering, with the designation of time superadded. But if the essence of the verb be made to consist in affirmation or assertion, not only the participle will be excluded from its place in the verb, but the infinitive itself also! which certain ancient grammarians of great authority held to be alone the genuine verb, simple and unconnected with persons and circumstances.

The following phrases, even when considered in themselves, show that participles include the idea of time: "The letter being written, or having been written;" "Charles being writing, having written, or having been writing." But when arranged in an entire sentence, which they must be to make a complete sense, they show it still more evidently as, "Charles having written the letter, sealed and dispatched it."—The participle does indeed associate with different tenses of the verb: as, "I am writing," "I was writing," "I shall be writing:" but this forms no just object,

ion to its denoting time. If the time of it is often relative time, this circumstance, far from disproving, supports our position.* See observations under Rule 13 of Syntax.

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

That the words in italics of the three latter examples, perform the office of substantives, and may be considered as such, will be evident, if we reflect,

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

Encyclopædia Britannica.

lect, that the first of them has exactly the same meaning and construction as, "The chancellor's attachment to the king secured his crown;" and that the other examples will bear a similar construction. The words, being attached, govern the word chancellor's in the possessive case, in the one instance, as clearly as attachment governs it in that case, in the other: and it is only substantives, or words and phrases which operate as substantives, that govern the genitive or possessive case.

The following sentence is not precisely the same as the above, either in sense or construction, though, except the genitive case, the words are the same: "The chancellor being attached to the king secured his crown." In the former, the words, being attached, form the nominative case to the verb, and are stated as the cause of the effect; in the latter, they are not the nominative case, and make only a circumstance to chancellor, which is the proper nominative. It may not be improper to add ano,

• p.
ther form of this sentence, by which the learner may better understand the peculiar nature and form of each of these modes of expressions: "The chancellor being attached to the king, his crown was secured." This constitutes what is properly called, the Case Absolute.

Section 4. Remarks on the Potential Mood.

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

“I walk,”

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

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

and various modifications and circumstances of action,” we shall perceive that those auxiliaries, far from interfering with this design, do, in the clearest manner, support and exemplify it. On the reason alleged by these writers, the greater part of the Indicative Mood must also be excluded; as but a small part of it is conjugated without auxiliaries. The Subjunctive too will fare no better; since it so nearly resembles the Indicative, and is formed by means of conjunctions, expressed or understood, which do not more effectually show the varied intentions of the mind, than the auxiliaries do which are used to form the Potential Mood.

Some writers have given our moods a much greater extent than we have assigned to them. They assert that the English language may be said, without any great impropriety, to have as many moods as it has auxiliary verbs; and they allege, in support of their opinion, that the compound expressions

which they help to form, point out those various dispositions and actions, which, in other languages, are expressed by moods. This would be to multiply the moods without advantage. It is, however, certain, that the conjugation or variation of verbs, in the English language, is effected, almost entirely, by the means of auxiliaries. We must, therefore, accommodate ourselves to this circumstance; and do that by their assistance, which has been done in the learned languages, (a few instances to the contrary excepted,) in another manner, namely, by varying the form of the verb itself. At the same time, it is necessary to set proper bounds to this business, so as not to occasion obscurity and perplexity, when we mean to be simple and perspicuous. Instead, therefore, of making a separate mood for every auxiliary verb, and introducing moods Interrogative, Optative, Promissive, Exhortative, Precative, &c. we have exhibited such only as are obviously distinct; and which, whilst they are calculated to unfold

and display the subject intelligibly to the learner, seem to be sufficient, and not more than sufficient, to answer all the purposes for which moods were introduced.

From Grammarians who form their ideas, and make their decisions, respecting this part of English Grammar, on the principles and construction of languages, which, in these points, do not suit the peculiar nature of our own, but differ considerably from it, we may naturally expect grammatical schemes that are not very perspicuous nor perfectly consistent, and which will tend more to perplex than inform the learner. See pages 44-46. 61-64. 69-70. 201-203.

Section 5. Of the Tenses.

Tense, being the distinction of time, might seem to admit only of the present, past, and future; but to mark it more accurately, it is made to consist of six variations, viz. the present, the imperfect, the perfect, the plu-

perfect, and the first and second future tenses.

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

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

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

o or as soon as he arrives,

hear the news before he arrives, or, at farthest, soon after he arrives;" "The more she improves, the more amiable she will be."

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

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

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

In the former example, it is signified that the

finishing of the letter, though past, was at a period immediately, or very nearly, preceding the present time. In the latter instance, it is uncertain whether the person mentioned was seen by the speaker a long or short time before. The meaning is, "I have seen him some time in the course of a period which includes, or comes to, the present time." When the particular time of any occurrence is specified, as prior to the present time, this tense is not used: for it would be improper to say, "I have seen him yesterday;" or, "I have finished my work last week." In these cases the imperfect is necessary: as, "I saw him yesterday;" "I finished my work last week." But when we speak indefinitely of any thing past, as happening or not happening in the day, year, or age, in which we mention it, the perfect must be employed: as, "I have been there this morning;" "I have travelled much this year;" "We have escaped many dangers through life." In referring, however, to such a division of the day as is past

before the time of our speaking, we use the imperfect: as, "They came home early this morning;" "He was with them at three o'clock this afternoon?"

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

there remains a part of this year, week, and day
whereof I speak.

In general, the perfect tense may be applied
wherever the action is connected with the present
time by the actual existence, either of the author, or
of the work, though it may have been perform-
ed many centuries ago; but if neither the author
nor the work now remains, it cannot be used.

We may say, "Cicero has written orations;" but
we cannot say, "Cicero has written poems;" be-
cause the orations are in being, but the poems
are lost. Speaking of priests in general, we
may say, "They have in all ages claimed great
powers;" because the general order of the priest-
hood still exists: but if we speak of the Druids,
as any particular order of priests, which does
not now exist, we cannot use this tense. We cannot
say, "The Druid priests have claimed great powers;" but
must say, "The Druid priests claimed great powers;"
because that order is now totally extinct. See Pick,

town on the English verb.

The Pluperfect Tense represents a thing,
not only as past, but also as prior to some
other point of time specified in the sentence:
as, "I had finished my letter before he
arrived."

The First Future Tense represents the
action as yet to come, either with or with-
out respect to the precise time: as, "The sun
will rise to-morrow;" "I shall see them ag-
ain."

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

It is to be observed, that in the subjunctive
mood, the event being spoken of under a con-

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

The present, past, and future tenses, may be used either definitely or indefinitely, both with respect to time and action. When they

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

The different tenses also represent an action as complete or perfect, or as incomplete or imperfect. In the phrases, "I am writing," "I was writing," "I shall be writing," imperfect,

unfinished actions are signified. But the following examples, "I wrote," "I have written," "I had written," "I shall have written," all denote complete perfect action.

From the preceding representation of the different tenses, it appears, that each of them has its distinct and peculiar province; and that though some of them may sometimes be used promiscuously, or substituted one for another, in cases where great accuracy is not required, yet there is a real and essential difference in their meaning. It is also evident, that the English language contains the six tenses which we have enumerated. Grammarians who limit the number to two, or at most to three, namely, the present, the imperfect, and the future, do not reflect that the English verb is mostly composed of principal and auxiliary; and that these several parts constitute one verb. Either the English language has no regular future tense, or its future is composed of the auxē,

liary and the principal verb. If the latter be admitted, then the auxiliary and principal united, constitute a tense, in one instance; and, from reason and analogy, may doubtless do so, in others, in which minor divisions of time are necessary, or useful. What reason can be assigned for not considering this case, as other cases, in which a whole is regarded as composed of several parts, or of principal and adjuncts? There is nothing heterogeneous in the parts: and precedent, analogy, utility, and even necessity, authorize the union.

In support of this opinion, we have the authority of eminent grammarians; in particular, that of Dr. Beattie "Some writers," says the doctor, "will not allow any thing to be a tense, but what, in one inflected word, expresses an affirmation with time; for that those parts of the verb are not properly called tenses, which assume that appearance, by means of auxiliary words. At this rate we should have, in English, two tenses

only, the present and the past in the active verb, and in the passive no tenses at all. But this is a needless nicety; and, if adopted, would introduce confusion into the grammatical art. If am, averam be a tense, why should not amatus fu, eram? If I heard be a tense, I did hear, I have heard, and I shall hear, must be equally entitled to that appellation."

The proper form of a tense, in the Greek and Latin tongues, is certainly that which it has in the grammars of those languages. But in the Greek and Latin grammars, we uniformly find, that some of the tenses are formed by variations of the principal verb; and others, by the addition of a helping verb. It is, therefore, indisputable, that the principal verb, or rather its participle, and an auxiliary, constitute a regular tense in the Greek and Latin languages. This point being established, we may, doubtless, apply it to English verbs; and extend the principle as far as convenience, and

the idiom of our language require.

If it should be said, that, on the same ground that a participle and auxiliary are allowed to form a tense, and the verb is to be conjugated accordingly, the English noun and pronoun ought to be declined at large, with articles and prepositions; we must object to the inference. Such a mode of declension is not adapted to our language. This we think has been already proved.* It is also confessedly inapplicable to the learned languages. Where then is the grammatical inconsistency, or the want of conformity to the principles of analogy, in making some tenses of the English verb to consist of principal and auxiliary; and the cases of English nouns, chiefly in their termination? The argument from analogy, instead of militating against us, appears to confirm and establish our position. See pages 38-40, 61-63, 67-70, 201-203.

We shall close these remarks on the tenses,

* See page 13.

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

*The following criticism affords an additional support to

Section 6. The Conjugation of the auxiliary verbs to have and to be.

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

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

The auxiliary and active verb to have, is conjugated in the following manner.

to have

Indicative Mood.

the author's system of the tenses, &c.

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

Present tense.

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

Imperfect tense.*

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

*The terms which we have adopted, to designate the three past tenses, may not be exactly significant of their nature and distinctions. But as they are used by grammarians in general, and have an established authority; and, especially, as the meaning attached to each of them, and their different significations, have been carefully explained; we presume that no solid objection can be made to the use of terms so generally approved, and so explicitly defined. See pages 46 and 48. We are supported in these sentiments, by the authority of Dr. Johnson.

Perfect tense.

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

Pluperfect tense.

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

First future tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I shall or will have.	1. We shall or will have.
2. Thou shalt or will have.	2. Ye or you shall or will have.

See the first note in his "Grammar of the English Tongue," prefixed to his dictionary—If, however, any teachers should think it warrantable to change the established names, they cannot perhaps find any more appropriate, than the terms first preterit, second preterit, and third preterit.

3. He shall or will have. 3. They shall or will have.

Second future tense.

Singular.

Plural.

1. I shall have had.

1. We shall have had.

2. Thou wilt have had.

2. Ye or you will have had.

3. He will have had.

3. They will have had.

Imperative mood.

Singular.

Plural.

1. Let me have.

1. Let us have.

2. Have, or have thou, or
do thou have.

2. Have, or have ye, or
do ye or you have.

3. Let him have.

3. Let them have.*

The imperative mood is not strictly entitled to three persons. The command is always addressed to the second person, not to the first or third. For when we say, "Let me have," "Let him, or let them have," the meaning and construction are, do thou, or do ye, let me, him, or them have. In philosophical st,

* If such sentences should be rigorously examined, the Imperative will appear to consist merely in the word let. See Parsing, p. 23.

riety, both number and person might be entirely excluded from every verb. They are, in fact, the properties of substantives, not a part of the essence of a verb. Even the name of the imperative mood, does not always correspond to its nature: for it sometimes petitions as well as commands. But, with respect to all these points, the practice of our grammarians is so uniformly fixed, and so analogous to the languages, ancient and modern, which our youth have to study, that it would be an unwarrantable degree of innovation, to deviate from the established terms and arrangements. See the advertisement at the end of the Introduction, page 8; and the quotation from the Encyclop. Britannica, page 86.

Potential mood.

Present tense.

Singular.

Plural.

1. I may or can have.

1. We may or can have.

2. Thou mayst or

2. Ye or you may or

canst have.

can have.

3. He may or can have. 3. They may or can have.

Imperfect tense.

Singular.

Plural.

1. I might, could, would or should have. 1. We might, could, would, or should have.

2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst have. 2. Ye or you might, could, would, or should have.

3. He might, could, would or should have. 3. They might, could, would or should have.

Perfect tense.

Singular.

Plural.

1. I may or can have had. 1. We may or can have had.

2. Thou mayst or canst have had. 2. Ye or you may or can have had.

3. He may or can have had. 3. They may or can have had.

Pluperfect tense.

Singular.

Plural.

1. I might, could, would, or should have had. 1. We might, could, would, or should have had.

or should have had.

or should have had.

2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst have had. 2. Ye or you might, could, would, or should have had.

3. He might, could, would, or should have had. 3. They might, could, would, or should have had.*

Subjunctive mood.

Present tense.

Singular.

Plural.

1. If I have. 1. If we have.

2. If thou have.† 2. If ye or you have.

3. If he have.† 3. If they have.

* Shall and will, when they denote inclination, resolution, promise, may be considered, as well as their relation should and would, as belonging to the potential mood. But as they generally signify futurity, they have been appropriated, as helping verbs, to the formation of the future tenses of the indicative and subjunctive moods.

† Grammarians, in general, conjugate the present of the auxiliary, in this manner. But we presume that this is the form of the verb, considered as a principal, not as an auxiliary verb. See page 200. note 5.

that.

The remaining tenses of the subjunctive mood, are, in every respect, similar to the correspondent tenses of the indicative mood;* with the addition to the verb, of a conjunction, expressed or implied, denoting a condition, motive, wish, supposition, &c. It will be proper to direct the learner to repeat all the tenses of this mood, with a conjunction prefixed to each of them. See, on this subject, the observations at page 82; and the notes on the nineteenth rule of syntax.

Infinitive Mood.

Present. To have.

Perfect. To have had.

Participles

Present or active. Having.

Perfect. Had.

Compound perfect. Having had.

* Except the second and third persons, singular and plural, of the second future tense, require the auxiliary *shalt, shall*, instead of *wilt, will*. Thus, "He *will* have completed the work by midsummer," is the indicative form, but the subjunctive is, "He *shall* have completed the work by midsummer."

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

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

It appears to be proper, for the information of the learners, to make a few observations in this place, on some of the tenses, &c. The first is, that, in the potential mood, some grammarians confound the present with the imperfect tense; and the perfect with the pluperfect. But that they are really distinct, and have an appropriate reference to time, correspondent to the definitions of those tenses, will appear from a few examples. "I wished him to stay, but he wo,

uld not;" "I could not accomplish the business in time;" "It was my direction that he should submit;" "He was ill, but I thought he might live;" "I may have misunderstood him;" "He cannot have deceived me;" "He might have finished the work sooner, but he could not have done it better."—It must, however, be admitted, that, on some occasions, the auxiliaries might, could, would, and should, refer also to present and to future time. See page 43.

The next remark is, that the auxiliary will, in the first person singular and plural of the second future tense; and the auxiliary shall, in the second and third persons of that tense, in the indicative mood, appear to be incorrectly applied. The impropriety of such associations may be inferred from a few examples: "I will have had previous notice, whenever the event happens;" "Thou shalt have served thy apprenticeship before the end of the year;" "He shall have completed his business when the messenger arrives;" "I shall have had; thou wilt have served; he will have complet,

ed," &c. would have been correct and applicable. The peculiar import of these auxiliaries, as explained in page 57, under section 7, seems to account for their impropriety in the applications just mentioned.

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

We shall conclude these detached observations, with one remark, which may be useful to the young scholar, namely, that as the indicative mood is converted into the subjunctive, by the expression of a condition, motive, wish, supposition, &c. being superadded to it; so the potential mood may, in like man-

ner, be turned into the subjunctive; as will be seen in the following examples: "If I could deceive him, I should abhor it," "Though he should increase in wealth, he would not be charitable;" "Even in prosperity he would gain no esteem, unless he should conduct himself better."

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

To Be.

Indicative Mood.

Present tense.

Singular.

Plural.

1. I am

1. We are

2. Thou art.

2. Ye or you are.

3. He, she, or it is.

3. They are.

Imperfect tense.

Singular.

Plural.

1. I was.

1. We were.

2. Thou wast.

2. Ye or you were.

3. He was.

3. They were.

Perfect tense.

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

Pluperfect tense.

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

First future tense.

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

Second future tense.

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

Imperative mood.

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

Potential mood.

Present tense.

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

Imperfect tense.

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

Perfect tense.

五十四

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. I may or can have been. | 1. We may or can have been. |
| 2. Thou mayst or canst have been. | 2. Ye or you may or can have been. |
| 3. He may or can have been. | 3. They may or can have been. |

Pluperfect tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. I might, could, would, or should have been. | 1. We might, could, would, or should have been. |
| 2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst have been. | 2. Ye or you might, could, would, or should have been. |
| 3. He might, could, would, or should have been. | 3. They might, could, would, or should have been. |

Subjunctive Mood.

Present tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|----------------|---------------------|
| 1. If I be. | 1. If we be. |
| 2. If thou be. | 2. If ye or you be. |

3. If he be.

3. If they be.

Imperfect tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. If I were. | 1. If we were. |
| 2. If thou wert. | 2. If ye or you were. |
| 3. If he were. | 3. If they were. |

The remaining tenses of this mood are, in general, similar to the correspondent tenses of the indicative mood. See pages 50, 61, 62, and the notes under the nineteenth rule of syntax.

Infinitive mood.

Present tense. To be. Perfect. To have been.

Participles.

Present. Being. Perfect. Been.

Compound perfect. Having been.

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

The learner will perceive that the preceding auxiliary verbs, *to have* and *to be*, could not be conju-

gated through all the moods and tenses, without the help of other auxiliary verbs; namely, may, can, will, shall, and their variations.

That auxiliary verbs, in their simple state, and unassisted by others, are of a very limited extent, and that they are chiefly useful, in the aid which they afford in conjugating the principal verbs; will clearly appear to the scholar, by a distinct conjugation of each of them, uncombined with any other. They are exhibited for his inspection; not to be committed to memory.

To have.

Present tense.

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

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

Imperfect tense.

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

Plur. 1. We had. 2. Ye or you had. 3. They had.

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

Participles.

Present. Having. Perfect. Had.

To Be.

Present tense.

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

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

Imperfect tense.

Sing. 1. I was. 2. Thou wast. 3. He was.

Plur. 1. We were. 2. Ye or you were. 3. They were.

Participles.

Present. Being. Perfect. Been.

Shall.

Present tense.

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

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

Imperfect tense.

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

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

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

Will.

Present tense.

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

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

Imperfect tense.

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

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

May.

Present tense.

Sing. 1. *I may.* 2. *Thou mayst.* 3. *He may.*

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

Imperfect tense.

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

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

Can.

Present tense.

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

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

Imperfect tense.

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

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

To do.

Present tense.

Sing. 1. *I do.* 2. *Thou dost.* 3. *He doth or does.*

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

Imperfect tense.

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

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

Participles.

Present. Doing. Perfect. Done.

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

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

Do and *did* mark the action itself, or the time

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

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

May and might express the possibility or liberty of doing a thing; can and could, the power. as, "It may rain;" "I may write or read;" "He

might have improved more than he has;" "He can write much better than he could last year."

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

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

Shall, on the contrary, in the first person, simply foretels; in the second and third persons, promises, commands, or threatens: as, "I shall go abroad;" "We shall dine at home;" "Thou shalt, or you shall, inherit the land;" "Ye shall do justice, and love mercy;" "They shall account for their misconduct." The following passage is not translated ac-

according to the distinct and proper meanings of the words shall and will: "Surely goodness and mercy shall follow me all the days of my life; and I will dwell in the house of the Lord for ever;" it ought to be, "Will follow me," and "I shall dwell."—The foreigner who, as it is said, fell into the Thames, and cried out: "I will be drowned, nobody shall help me," made a sad misapplication of these auxiliaries.

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

When the verb is put in the subjunctive mood, the meaning of these auxiliaries likewise undergoes some alteration; as the learners will readily perceive by

a few examples: "He shall proceed," "If he shall proceed;" "you shall consent," "If you shall consent." These auxiliaries are sometimes interchanged, in the indicative and subjunctive moods, to convey the same meaning of the auxiliary: as, "He will not return," "If he shall not return;" "He shall not return," "If he will not return."

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

Section 8. The conjugation of regular Verbs.

Active.

Verbs Active are called Regular, when they form their imperfect tense of the indicative mood, and their perfect participle, by adding to the verb, ed, or d only when the verb ends in e: as,

Present.	Imperfect.	Perf. Participle.
I favour.	I favoured.	Favoured.

I love. I loved. Loved.

A Regular Active Verb is conjugated in the following manner.

To Love.

Indicative Mood.

Present tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I love.*	1. We love.
2. Thou lovest.	2. Ye or you love.
3. He, she, or it loveth or loves.	3. They love.

Imperfect tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I loved.	1. We loved.
2. Thou lovedst.	2. Ye or you loved.
3. He loved.	3. They loved.

*In the present, and imperfect tenses, we use a different form of the verb, when we mean to express energy and positiveness: as, "I do love; thou dost love; he does love; I did love; thou didst love; he did love."

Perfect tense.

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

Pluperfect tense.

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

First future tense.

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

Second future tense.

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

3. He will have loved 3. They will have loved.

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

Imperative Mood.

- | Singular. | Plural. |
|---|--|
| 1. Let me love. | 1. Let us love. |
| 2. Love, or love thou, or do thou love. | 2. Love, or love ye or you, or do ye love. |
| 3. Let him love. | 3. Let them love. |

Potential Mood.

Present tense.

- | Singular. | Plural. |
|------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. I may or can love. | 1. We may or can love. |
| 2. Thou mayst or canst love. | 2. Ye or you may or can love. |

3. He may or can love. 3. They may or can love.

Imperfect tense.

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

Perfect tense.

- | Singular. | Plural. |
|------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1. I may, or can have loved. | 1. We may or can have loved. |
| 2. Thou mayst or canst have loved. | 2. Ye or you may or can have loved. |
| 3. He may or can have loved. | 3. They may or can have loved. |

Pluperfect tense.

- | Singular. | Plural. |
|---|--|
| 1. I might, could, would, or should have loved. | 1. We might, could, would, or should have loved. |

- | | |
|--|---|
| 2. Thou mightst, couldst,
wouldst, or shouldst have
loved. | 2. ye or you might, could,
would, or should have
loved. |
| 3. He might, could, would,
or should have loved. | 3. They might, could, would,
or should have loved. |

Subjunctive Mood.

Present tense.

- | Singular. | Plural. |
|------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. If I love. | 1. If we love. |
| 2. If thou love. | 2. If ye or you love. |
| 3. If he love. | 3. If they love. |

The remaining tenses of this mood, are, in general, similar to the correspondent tenses of the indicative mood. See page 50, and page 62.

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

tend to embarrass the learner.

Infinitive Mood.

Present. To love. Perfect. To have loved.

Participles.

Present. Loving. Perfect. Loved.

Compound perfect. Having loved.

The active verb may be conjugated differently, by adding its present or active participle to the auxiliary verb *to be*, through all its moods and tenses; as, instead of "I teach, thou teachest, he teaches," &c.; we may say, "I am teaching, thou art teaching, he is teaching," &c.; and instead of "I taught," &c. "I was teaching," &c. and so on, through all the variations of the auxiliary.

This mode of conjugation has, on particular occasions, a peculiar propriety; and contributes to the harmony and precision of the language. These forms of expression are adapted to particular acts, not to general habits, or affections of the mind. They are very frequently applied to neuter

verbs; as, "I am musing; he is sleeping." *

Some grammarians apply, what is called the conjunctive termination, to the persons of the principal verb, and to its auxiliaries, through all the tenses of the subjunctive mood. But this is certainly contrary to the practice of good writers.

Johnson applies this termination to the present and perfect tenses only. Lowth restricts it entirely to the present tense; and Priestley confines it to the present and imperfect tenses. This difference of opinion amongst grammarians of such eminence, may have contributed to that diversity of practice, so observable in the use of the subjunctive mood. Uniformity in this point is his

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

ghly desirable. It would materially assist both teachers and learners; and would constitute a considerable improvement in our language. On this subject, we adopt the opinion of Dr. Lowth; and conceive we are fully warranted by his authority, and that of the most correct and elegant writers, in limiting the conjunctive termination of the principal verb to the second and third persons singular of the present tense.

Grammarians have not only differed in opinion, respecting the extent and variations of the subjunctive mood; but a few of them have even doubted the existence of such a mood in the English language. These writers assert, that the verb has no variation from the indicative; and that a conjunction added to the verb, gives it no title to become a distinct mood; or, at most, no better than it would have, if any other particle were joined to it. To these observations it may be replied; 1st. It is evident, on inspection, that, in the subjunctive

tive mood, the present tense of the principal verbs, the present and imperfect tenses of the verb to be, and the second and third persons, in both numbers, of the second future tense of all verbs; * require a variation from the forms which those tenses have in the indicative mood. So much difference in the form of the verb, would warrant a correspondent distinction of mood, though the remaining parts of the subjunctive were, in all respects, similar to those of the indicative. In other languages, a principle of this nature has been admitted, both in the conjugation of verbs, and the declension of nouns. 2d. There appears to be as much propriety in giving a conjunction the power of assisting to form the subjunctive mood, as there is in allowing the particle *to* to have an effect in the formation of the infinitive mood. † 3d. A conjunction added to the verb,

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

shows the manner of being, doing, or suffering, which other particles cannot show: they do not coalesce with the verb, and modify it, as conjunctions do. 4th. It may be said, "If contingency constitutes the subjunctive mood, then it is the sense of a phrase, and not a conjunction, that determines this mood." But a little reflection will show, that the contingent sense lies in the meaning and force of the conjunction, expressed or understood.

This subject may be farther illustrated, by the following observations.—Moods have a foundation in nature. They show what is certain; what is possible; what is conditional; what is commanded. They express also other conceptions and volitions; all signifying the manner of being, doing, or suffering. But as it would tend to obscure, rather than elucidate the subject, if the moods were particu-

† Conjunctions have an influence on the mood of the following verb. Dr. Beattie. Conjunctions have sometimes a government of moods. Dr. Lowth.

larly enumerated, grammarians have very properly given them such combinations and arrangements, as serve to explain the nature of this part of language, and to render the knowledge of it easily attainable.

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

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

sentiments here advanced, see pages 38-40. 44-46. 67-69. 201-203.

Passive.

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

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

To be loved.

Indicative Mood.

Present tense.

Singular.

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

Plural.

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

Imperfect tense.

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

Perfect tense.

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

Pluperfect tense.

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

First future tense.

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

Second future tense.

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

Imperative Mood.

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

Potential Mood.

Present tense.

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

Imperfect tense.

Singular.

Plural.

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

Perfect tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. I may or can have been
loved. | 1. We may or can have been
loved. |
| 2. Thou mayst or canst
have been loved. | 2. Ye or you may or can
have been loved. |
| 3. He may or can have
been loved. | 3. They may or can have
been loved. |

Pluperfect tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|---------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. I might, could, would, | 1. We might, could, would, |
|---------------------------|----------------------------|

or should have been
loved.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 2. Thou mightst, couldst
wouldst, or shouldst have
been loved. | 2. Ye or you might, could,
would, or should have
been loved. |
|--|--|

- | | |
|---|---|
| 3. He might, could, would,
or should have been
loved. | 3. They might, could, would,
or should have been
loved. |
|---|---|

Subjunctive Mood.

Present tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|----------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. If I be loved. | 1. If we be loved. |
| 2. If thou be loved. | 2. If ye or you be loved. |
| 3. If he be loved. | 3. If they be loved. |

Imperfect tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. If I were loved | 1. If we were loved |
| 2. If thou wert loved. | 2. If ye or you were loved. |
| 3. If he were loved. | 3. If they were loved. |

The remaining tenses of this mood are, in gene,

ral, similar to the correspondent tense of the indicative mood. See pages 50, 63. and the notes under the nineteenth rule of syntax.

Infinitive mood.

Present tense.

To be loved.

Perfect.

To have been loved.

Participles

Present.

Perfect or passive.

Compound perfect.

Being loved.

Loved.

Having been loved.

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

The neuter verb is conjugated like the active; but as it partakes somewhat of the nature of the passive,

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

Section 9. Observations on Passive Verbs.

Some writers on grammar assert, that there are no Passive Verbs in the English language, because we have no verbs of this kind with a peculiar termination, all of them being formed by the different tenses of the auxiliary to be, joined to the passive participle of the verb. This is, however, to mistake the true nature of the English verb; and to regulate it, not on the principles of our own tongue, but on those of foreign languages. The conjugation, or the variation, of the English verb, to answer all the purposes of verbs, is accomplished by the means of auxiliaries; and if it be alleged that we have no passive

verbs, because we cannot exhibit them without having recourse to helping verbs, it may with equal truth be said, that we have no perfect; pluperfect, or future tense, in the indicative or subjunctive mood, since these, as well as some other parts of the verb active, are formed by auxiliaries.

Even the Greek and Latin passive verbs require an auxiliary to conjugate some of their tenses; namely, the former, in the preterit of the optative and subjunctive moods; and the latter, in the perfect and pluperfect of the indicative, the perfect, pluperfect, and future, of the subjunctive mood, and the perfect of the infinitive. The deponent verbs, in Latin, require also an auxiliary to conjugate several of their tenses. This statement abundantly proves that the conjugation of a verb in learned languages does not consist solely in varying the form of the original verb. It proves that these languages, like our own language, sometimes conjugate with an auxiliary, and sometimes without it. There is,

indeed, a difference. What the learned languages require to be done, in some instances, the peculiar genius of our own tongue obliges us to do, in active verbs, principally, and in passive ones, universally. In short, the variation of the verb, in Greek and Latin, is generally accomplished by prefixes, or terminations, added to the verb itself; in English, by the addition of auxiliaries.

The English tongue is, in many respects, materially different from the learned languages. It is, therefore, very possible to be mistaken ourselves, and to mislead and perplex others, by an undistinguishing attachment to the principles and arrangement of the Greek and Latin Grammarians. Much of the confusion and perplexity, which we meet with in the writings of some English Grammarians, on the subject of verbs, moods, and conjugations, has arisen from the misapplication of names. We are apt to think, that the old names must always be attached to the identical forms and

things to which they were anciently attached. But if we rectify this mistake, and properly adjust the names to the peculiar forms and nature of the things in our own language, we shall be clear and consistent in our ideas; and, consequently, better able to represent them intelligibly to those whom we wish to inform.

The observations which we have made under this head, and on the subject of the moods in another place, will not apply to the declension and cases of nouns, so as to require us to adopt names and divisions similar to those of the Greek and Latin languages: for we should then have more cases than there are prepositions in connection with the article and noun: and, after all, it would be a useless, as well as an unwieldy apparatus; since every English preposition points to, and governs, but one case, namely the objective; which is also true with respect to our governing verbs and participles. But the conjugation of an English verb in form, through all its mo-

ods and tenses, by means of auxiliaries, so far from being useless or intricate, is a beautiful and regular display of it, and indispensably necessary to the language.

Some grammarians have alleged, that on the same ground that the voices, moods, and tenses, are admitted into the English tongue, in the forms for which we have contended, we should also admit the dual number, the paulo postfuture tense, the middle voice, and all the moods and tenses, which are to be found in Greek and Latin. But this objection, though urged with much reliance on its weight, is not well founded. If the arrangement of the moods, tenses, &c. which we have adopted, is suited to the idiom of our tongue; and the principle, on which they are adopted, is extended as far as use and convenience require; where is the impropriety, in arresting our progress, and fixing our forms at the point of utility? A principle may be warrantably adopted, and carried to a precise convenient extent, with,

the

out subjecting its supporters to the charge of inconsistency, for not pursuing it beyond the line of use and propriety.

The importance of giving the ingenious student clear and just ideas of the nature of our verbs, moods and tenses, will apologize for the extent of the Author's remarks on these subjects, both here and elsewhere, and for his solicitude to simplify and explain them. He thinks it has been proved, that the idiom of our tongue demands the arrangement he has given to the English verb; and that, though the learned languages, with respect to voices, moods, and tenses, are, in general, differently constructed from the English tongue, yet, in some respects, they are so similar to it, as to warrant a principle which he has adopted. See pages 38-40. 41-46. 67-63. 67-69. 201-203.

Section 10. Of Irregular Verbs.

Irregular Verbs are those which do not form their imperfect tense, and their perfect

participle, by the addition of d or ed to the verb: as,

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

Irregular verbs are of various sorts.

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

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

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

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

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

Present	Imperfect	Perfect Part.
Arise,	arose,	arisen.

Blow, blew, blown

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

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

Present	Imperfect	Perf. or Pass. Part.
Abide,	abode,	abode.
Am,	was,	been.
Arise,	arose,	arisen.
Awake,	awoke, &c.	awaked.
Bear, to bring forth,	bare,	born.
Bear, to carry,	bore,	borne.
Beat,	beat,	beaten, beat.
Begin,	began,	begun.
Bend,	bent,	bent.
Bereave,	bereft, &c.	bereft, &c.

Present	Imperfect	Perf. or Pass. Part.
Beseech,	besought,	besought.
Bid,	bid, bade,	bidden, bid.
Bind,	bound,	bound.
Bite,	bit,	bitten, bit.
Bleed,	bled,	bled.
Blow,	blew,	blown.
Break,	broke,	broken.
Breed,	bred,	bred.
Bring,	brought,	brought.
Build,	built,	built.
Burst,	burst,	burst.
Buy,	bought,	bought.
Cast,	cast,	cast.
Catch,	caught, &c.	caught, &c.
Chide,	chid,	chidden, chid.
Chose,	chose,	chosen.
Cleave, to stick or adhere,	} <u>Regular.</u>	
Cleave, to split	clove, or cleft.	cleft, cloven

Present.	Imperfect.	Perf. or Pass. Part.
Cling,	clung,	clung.
Clothe,	clothed,	clad, R.
Come,	came,	come.
Cost,	cost,	cost.
Creep,	crept,	crept.
Crow,	crew, R.	crowed.
Cut,	cut,	cut.
Dare, <u>to venture,</u>	durst,	dared.
Dare, R. <u>to challenge</u>		
Deal,	dealt, R.	dealt, R.
Dig,	dug, R.	dug, R.
Do,	did,	done.
Draw,	drew,	drown.
Drink,	drank,	drunk.
Drive,	drove,	driven.
Dwell,	dwelt, R.	dwelt, R.
Eat,	eat, or ate,	eaten.
Fall,	fell,	fallen.
Feed,	fed,	fed.

Present.	Imperfect.	Perf. or Pass. Part.
Feel,	felt,	felt.
Fight,	fought,	fought.
Find,	found,	found.
Flee,	fled,	fled.
Fling,	flung,	flung.
Fly,	flew,	flown.
Forget,	forgot,	forgotten, forgot.
For sake,	forsook,	forsaken.
Freeze,	froze,	frozen.
Get,	got,	got. *
Gild,	gilt, R.	gilt, R.
Gird,	girt, R.	girt, R.
Give,	gave,	given.
Go,	went,	gone.
Grave,	graved,	graven, R.
Grind,	ground,	ground.
Grow,	grew,	grown.

* gotten is nearly obsolete. Its compound folgotten is still in good use.

Present.	Imperfect.	Perf. or Pass. Part.
Hang,	hung, R.	hung, R.
Have,	had,	had.
Hear,	heard,	heard.
Hew,	hewed,	hewn, R.
Hide,	hid,	hidden, hid.
Hit,	hit,	hit.
Hold	held,	held.
Hurt,	hurt,	hurt.
Keep,	kept,	kept.
Knit,	knit, R.	knit, R.
Know,	knew,	known.
Lade,	laded,	laden.
Lay,	laid,	laid.
Lead,	led,	led.
Leave,	left,	left.
Lend,	lent,	lent.
Let,	let,	let.
Lie, to lie down,	lay,	lain.
Load,	loaded,	laden, R.

Present.	Imperfect.	Perf. or Pass. Part.
Lose,	lost,	lost.
Make,	made,	made.
Meet,	met,	met.
Mow,	mowed,	mown. R.
Pay.	paid,	paid.
Put,	put,	put.
Read,	read,	read.
Rend,	rent,	rent.
Rid,	rid,	rid
Ride,	rode,	rode, ridden.*
Ring,	rung, rang,	rung.
Rise,	rose,	risen.
Rive,	rived,	riven.
Run,	ran,	run.
Saw,	sawed,	sawn, R.
Say,	said,	said.
See,	saw,	seen.
Seek,	sought,	sought.

* Ridden is nearly obsolete.

Present	Imperfect	Perf. or Pass. Part.
Sell,	sold,	sold.
Send,	sent,	sent.
Set,	set,	set.
Shake,	shook,	shaken.
Shape,	shaped,	shaped, shapen.
Shave,	shaved,	shaven, R.
Shear,	sheared,	shorn.
Shed,	shed,	shed.
Shine,	shone, R.	shone, R.
Show,	showed,	shown.
Shoe,	shod,	shod.
Shoot,	shot,	shot
Shrink,	shrank,	shrank.
Shred,	shred,	shred.
Shut,	shut,	shut.
Sing,	sung, sang,	sung.
Sink,	sunk, sank,	sunk.
Sit,	sat,	sat.
Slay,	slaw,	slain.

Present	Imperfect	Perf. or Pass. Part.
Sleep,	slept,	slept.
Slide,	slid,	slidden.
Sling,	slung,	slung.
Slink,	slunk,	slunk.
Slit,	slit, R.	slit or slitted.
Smite,	smote,	smitten.
Sow,	sowed,	sown, R.
Speak,	spoke,	spoken.
Speed,	sped,	sped.
Spend,	spent,	spent.
Spill,	spilt, R.	spilt, R.
Spin,	spun,	spun.
Spit,	spit, spat,	spit, spitten *
Split,	split,	split.
Spread,	spread,	spread.
Spring,	sprung, sprang, sprung.	
Stand,	stood,	stood.
Steal,	stole,	stolen.

* Spitten is nearly obsolete.

Present	Imperfect.	Def. or Pass. Part.
Stick,	stuck,	stuck.
Sting,	stung,	stung.
Stink,	stunk,	stunk.
Stride,	strode or strad,	stridden.
Strike,	struck,	struck or stricken.
String,	strung,	strung.
Strive,	strove,	striven.
Strow or strew,	strewed or strewed,	{ strown, strowed, wed, strowed
Swear,	swore,	sworn.
Sweat,	swet, R.	swet, R.
Swell,	swelled,	swollen, R.
Swim,	swum, swam,	swum.
Swing,	swung,	swung.
Take,	took,	taken.
Teach,	taught,	taught.
Tear,	tore,	torn.
Tell,	told,	told.
Think,	thought,	thought.

Present	Imperfect.	Def. or Pass. Part.
Thrive,	throve, R.	thriven.
Throw,	threw,	thrown.
Thrust,	thrust,	thrust.
Tread,	trod,	trodden.
Wax,	waxed,	waxen.
Wear,	wore,	worn.
Weave,	wove,	woven.
Weep,	wept,	wept.
Win,	won,	won.
Wind,	wound,	wound.
Work,	wrought,	wrought, or worked.
Wring,	wrung,	wrung.
Write,	wrote,	written.

In the preceding list, some of the verbs will be found to be conjugated regularly, as well as irregularly; and those which admit of the regular form are marked with an R. There is a preference to be given to some of these, which custom and judgment must determine. Those preterits

and participles which are first mentioned in the list, seem to be the most eligible. The Compiler has not inserted such verbs as are irregular only in familiar writing or discourse, and which are im- properly terminated by t, instead of ed. as, lea- rnt, spelt, spilt, &c. These should be avoided in every sort of composition. It is, however, proper to observe, that some contractions of ed into t, are un- exceptionable: and others, the only established forms of expression: as crept, dwelt, guilt. &c.: and lost, felt, slept, &c. These allowable and necessary con- tractions must therefore be carefully distinguish- ed by the learner, from those that are exception- able. The words which are obsolete have also been omitted, that the learner might not be induced to mistake them for words in present use. Such are, wreathen, drunken, holpen, molten, gotten, holden, bounden, &c.: and swang, wrang, slank, steawed, gat, brake, tare, ware, &c.

Section 11. Of Defective Verbs; and the different ways in which verbs are conjugated.

Defective verbs are those which are used only in some of their moods and tenses.

The principal of them are these.

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

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

In most languages there are some verbs which

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

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

Some Grammarians have thought that the English verbs as well as those of the Greek, Latin,

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

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

Before we close the account of the verbs, it may afford instruction to the learners, to be informed, more particularly than they have been, that diffe,

rent nations have made use of different contrivances for marking the tenses and moods of their verbs.

The Greeks and Latins distinguish them, as well as the cases of their nouns, adjectives, and participles, by varying the termination, or otherwise changing the form, of the word; retaining, however, those radical letters, which prove the inflection to be of the same kindred with its root. The modern tongues, particularly the English, abound in auxiliary words, which vary the meaning of the noun, or the verb, without requiring any considerable varieties of inflection. Thus, *I do love, I did love, I have loved, I had loved, I shall love*, have the same import with *amo, amabam, amavi, amaveram, amabo*. It is obvious, that a language, like the Greek and Latin, which can thus comprehend in one word the meaning of two or three words, must have some advantages over those which are not so comprehensive. Perhaps, indeed, it may not be more perspicuous; but, in the arrangement of words, and

consequently in harmony and energy, as well as in conciseness, it may be much more elegant.

Chapter VII.

Of Adverbs.

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

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

Adverbs seem originally to have been contrived to express compendiously in one word, what must otherwise have required two or more: as, "He acted wisely," for he acted with wisdom;

"prudently," for, with prudence; "He did it here," for, he did it in this place; "exceedingly," for, to a great degree; "often and seldom," for, many, and for few times; "very," for, in an eminent degree, &c.

There are many words in the English language that are sometimes used as adjectives, and sometimes as adverbs: as, "More men than women were there;" or, "I am more diligent than he." In the former sentence, more is evidently an adjective, and in the latter, an adverb. There are others that are sometimes used as substantives, and sometimes as adverbs: as, "To-day's lesson is longer than yesterday's;" here to-day and yesterday are substantives, because they are words that make sense of themselves, and admit besides of a genitive case: but in the phrase, "He came home yesterday, and sets out again to-day," they are adverbs of time, because they answer to the question when. The adverb much is used as all three: as,

"Where much is given, much is required;" "Much money has been expended;" "It is much better to go than to stay." In the first of these sentences, much is a substantive; in the second, it is an adjective; and in the third, an adverb. In short, nothing but the sense can determine what they are.

Adverbs, though very numerous, may be reduced to certain classes, the chief of which are those of Number, Order, Place, Time, Quantity, Manner or Quality, Doubt, Affirmation, Negation, Interrogation, and Comparison.

1. Of number: as, "Once, twice, thrice," &c.

2. Of order: as, "First, secondly, thirdly, fourthly, fifthly, lastly, finally," &c.

3. Of place; as, "Here, there, where, elsewhere, anywhere, somewhere, nowhere, herein, whither, hither, thence, thither, upward, downward, forward, backward, whence, hence, thence, whithersoever," &c.

4. Of time.

Of time present: as, "Now, to-day," &c.

Of time past: as, "Already, before, lately, yesterday, heretofore, hitherto, long since, long ago," &c.

Of time to come: as, "To-morrow, not yet, hereafter, henceforth, henceforward, by and by, instantly, presently, immediately, straightways," &c.

Of time indefinite: as, "Often, often, oftentimes, oftentimes, sometimes, soon, seldom, daily, weekly, monthly, yearly, always, when, then, ever, never, again," &c.

5. Of quantity: as, "Enough, little, sufficiently, how much, how great, enough, abundantly," &c.

6. Of manner or quality: as, "Wisely, foolishly, justly, unjustly, quickly, slowly," &c. Adverbs of quality are the most numerous kind; and they are generally formed by adding the termination *ly* to an adjective or participle, or changing *le* into *ly* as, "Bad, badly; cheerful, cheerfully; able, ably; admirable, admirably."

7. Of doubt: as, "Perhaps, peradventure, possibly, perchance."

8. Of affirmation: as, "Verily, truly, undoubtedly, doubtless, certainly, yea, yes, surely, indeed, really," &c.

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

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

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

Besides the adverbs already mentioned, there are many which are formed by a combination of several of the prepositions with the adverbs of place *he*, *re*, *there*, and *where*; as, "Hereof, thereof, whereof; hereto, thereto, whereto; hereby, thereby, whereby; herewith, therewith, wherewith; herein, therein, where, in; therefore (i. e. there-for), wherefor (i. e. where-for), hereupon or hereon, thereupon or thereon, wh

erupon or whereon, &c. Except therefore, these are seldom used.

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

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

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

It may be particularly observed with respect to the word therefore, that it is an adverb, when, without joining sentences, it only gives the sense of, see

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

The inquisitive scholar may naturally ask, what necessity there is for adverbs of time, when verbs are provided with tenses, to show that circumstance. The answer is, though tenses may be sufficient to denote the greater distinctions of time, yet, to denote them all by the tenses would be a perplexity without end. What a variety of forms must be given to the verb, to denote yesterday, to day, tomorrow, formerly, lately, just now, now, immediately, presently, soon, hereafter, &c. It was this consideration that made the adverbs of time ne-

cessary, over and above the tenses.

Chapter VIII
Of Preposition.

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

The following is a list of the principal prepositions.

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

Verbs are often compounded of a verb and a preposition; as, to uphold, to invest, to overlook; and this composition sometimes gives a new sense to the verb,

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

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

One great use of prepositions, in English, is, to express those relations, which, in some languages, are chiefly marked by cases, or the different endings,

gs of nouns. See page 13. The necessity and use of them will appear from the following examples. If we say, "he writes a pen," "they ran the river," "the tower fell the Greeks," "Lambeth is Westminster-abbey," there is observable, in each of these expressions, either a total want of connexion, or such a connexion as produces falsehood or nonsense: and it is evident, that, before they can be turned into sense, the vacancy must be filled up by some connecting word: as thus, "He writes with a pen;" "they ran towards the river;" "the tower fell upon the Greeks;" "Lambeth is over against Westminster-abbey." We see by these instances, how prepositions may be necessary to connect those words, which in their signification are not naturally connected.

Prepositions, in their original and literal acceptation, seem to have denoted relations of places, but they are now used figuratively to express other relations. For example, as they who are abo-

ve have in several respects the advantage of such as are below, prepositions expressing high and low places are used for superiority and inferiority in general: as, "He is above disguise;" "we serve under a good master;" "he rules over a willing people;" "we should do nothing beneath our character."

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

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

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

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

By is generally used with reference to the

cause, agent, means, &c.; as, "He was killed by a fall;" that is, "a fall was the cause of his being killed;" "This house was built by him;" that is, "he was the builder of it."

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

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

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

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

The signification of *without* is opposite to that of *within*: as, "She stands *without* the gate:" But it is more frequently opposed to *with*; as, "you may go *without* me."

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

Some of the prepositions have the appearance and effect of conjunctions: as, "e *After* their prisons

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

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

Chapter IX.

Of Conjunction.

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

Conjunctions are principally divided in,

to two sorts, the copulative and disjunctive.

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

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

The following is a list of the principal Conjunctions.

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

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

The same word is occasionally used both as a

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

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

A relative pronoun possesses the force both of a pronoun and a connective. Nay, the union by relatives is rather closer, than that by mere

conjunctions. The latter may form two or more sentences into one; but, by the former, several sentences may incorporate in one and the same clause of a sentence. Thus, "thou seest a man, and he is called Peter," is a sentence consisting of two distinct clauses, united by the copulative and; but, "the man whom thou seest is called Peter," is a sentence of one clause, and not less comprehensive than the other.

Conjunctions very often unite sentences, when they appear to unite only words; as in the following instances: "Duty and interest forbid vicious indulgences;" "Wisdom or folly governs us?"

Each of these forms of expression contains two sentences, namely: "Duty forbids vicious indulgences; interest forbids vicious indulgences;" "Wisdom governs us, or folly governs us."

Though the conjunction is commonly used to connect sentences together, yet, on some occasions, it merely connects words, not sentences: as, "The king

and queen are an amiable pair;" where the affirmation cannot refer to each: it being absurd to say, that the king or the queen only is an amiable pair. So in the instances, "two and two are four;" "the fifth and sixth volumes will complete the set of books." Prepositions, also, as before observed, connect words; but they do it to show the relation which the connected words have to each other: conjunctions, when they unite words only, are designed to show the relations, which those words, so united, have to other parts of the sentence.

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

and, therefore, &c. of the last.

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

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

"Till men began to think in a train, and to carry their reasonings to a considerable length, it is not probable that they would make much use of conjunctions, or of any other connectives. Ignorant people, and children, generally speak

in short and separate sentences. The same thing is true of barbarous nations: and hence uncultivated languages are not well supplied with connecting particles. The Greeks were the greatest reasoners that ever appeared in the world; and their language, accordingly, abounds more than any other in connectives.

"Conjunctions are not equally necessary in all sorts of writing. In poetry, where great conciseness of phrase is required, and every appearance of formality avoided, many of them would have a bad effect. In passionate language, too, it may be proper to omit them: because it is the nature of violent passion, to speak rather in disjointed sentences, than in the way of inference and argument. Books of aphorisms, like the Proverbs of Solomon, have few connectives; because they instruct, not by reasoning, but in detached observations. And narrative will sometimes appear very graceful, when the circumstances are plainly

told, with scarcely any other conjunction than the simple copulative and; which is frequently the case in the historical parts of Scripture.—When narration is full of images or events, the omission of connectives may, by crowding the principal words upon one another, give a sort of picture of hurry and tumult, and so heighten the vivacity of description. But when facts are to be traced down through their consequences, or upwards to their causes; when the complicated designs of mankind are to be laid open, or conjectures offered concerning them; when the historian argues either for the elucidation of truth, or in order to state the pleas and principles of contending parties; there will be occasion for every species of connective, as much as in philosophy itself. In fact, it is in argument, investigation, and science, that this part of speech is peculiarly and indispensably necessary."

Chapter X.

Of Interjections

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

The English Interjections, as well as those of other languages, are comprised within a small compass. They are of different sorts, according to the different passions which they serve to express. Those which intimate earnestness or grief, are, O! oh! ah! alas! Such as are expressive of contempt, are pish! tush! of wonder, heigh! really! strange! of calling, hem! ho! sho! of aversion or disgust, feh! fie! away! of a call of the attention, lo! behold! hark! of request, ing silence, hush! hist! of salutation, welcome! hail! all hail! Besides these, several others, frequent in the mouths of the multitude, might be

enumerated; but in a grammar of a cultivated tongue, it is unnecessary to expatiate on such expressions of passion, as are scarcely worthy of being ranked among the branches of artificial language.

Chapter XI.

Of Derivation

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

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

Words are derived from one another in various ways, viz.

1. Substantives are derived from verbs.
2. Verbs are derived from substantives, adjectives, and sometimes from adverbs.
3. Adjectives are derived from substantives.

4. Substantives are derived from adjectives.

5. Adverbs are derived from adjectives.

1. Substantives are derived from verbs: as, from "to love," comes "lover;" from "to visit, vi-
siter;" from "to survive, survivor;" &c.

In the following instances, and in many others, it is difficult to determine whether the verb was deduced from the noun, or the noun from the verb, viz. "Love, to love; hate, to hate; fear, to fear; sleep, to sleep; walk, to walk; ride, to ride; act, to act;" &c.

2. Verbs are derived from substantives, adjectives, and sometimes from adverbs: as, from the substantive salt, comes "to salt;" from the adjective warm, "to warm;" and from the adverb forward, "to forward." Sometimes they are formed by lengthening the vowel, or softening the consonant; as, from "grass, to graze;" sometimes by adding en, as from "length, to lengthen;" especially to adjectives: as, from "sheet, to sheet-

en; bright, to brighten."

3. Adjectives are derived from substantives, in the following manner. Adjectives denoting plenty are derived from substantives by adding y; as, from "Health, healthy; wealth, wealthy; might, mighty," &c.

Adjectives denoting the matter out of which any thing is made, are derived from substantives by adding en: as, from "Oak, oaken, wood, wooden; wool, woollen," &c.

Adjectives denoting abundance, are derived from substantives, by adding ful; as, from "joy, joyful; sin, sinful; fruit, fruitful," &c.

Adjectives denoting plenty, but with some kind of diminution, are derived from substantives, by adding some; as, from "Light, lightsome; trouble, troublesome; toil, toilsome," &c.

Adjectives denoting want are derived from substantives, by adding less; as, from "Worth, worthless;" from "care, careless; joy, joyless," &c.

Adjectives denoting likeness are derived from substantives, by adding *ly*; as, from "Man, manly; earth, earthly; court, courtly," &c.

Some adjectives are derived from other adjectives, or from substantives, by adding *ish* to them; which termination, when added to adjectives, imports diminution, or lessening the quality: as, "White, whitish;" i.e. somewhat white. When added to substantives, it signifies similitude or tendency to character: as, "Child, childish; thief, thievish."

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

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

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

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

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

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

Substantives ending in *ship*, are those that signify office, employment, state, or condition: as,

"Lordship, stewardship, partnership," &c. Some substantives in ship, are derived from adjectives as, "Hard, hardship," &c.

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

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

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

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

Some substantives have the form of diminu-

tives; but these are not many. They are formed by adding the terminations, kin, ling, ing, ock, el, and the like: as, "Lamb, lambkin; goose, gos-
ling; duck, duckling; hill, hillock; cock, cocker,
el," &c.

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

It is highly probable that the system of this
acute grammarian, is founded in truth; and that
adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions, are
corruptions or abbreviations of other parts of speech.

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

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

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

When the ancient Britons were so harassed and oppressed by the invasions of their northern neighbours, the Scots and Picts, that their situation was truly miserable, they sent an embassy (about the middle of the fifth century) to the Saxons, a warlike people inhabiting the north of Germany, with solicitations for speedy relief. The Saxons accordingly came over to Britain, and were successful in repelling the invasions of the Scots and Picts; but seeing the we,

ak and defenceless state of the Britons, they resolved to take advantage of it; and at length established themselves in the greater part of South Britain, after having dispossessed the original inhabitants.

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

"The Saxons did not long remain in quiet possession of the kingdom; for before the middle of the ninth century, the Danes, a hardy and adventurous nation, who had long infested the northern seas with their piracies, began to ravage the English coasts. Their first attempts were, in gene-

ral, attended with such success, that they were encouraged to a renewal of their ravages; till, at length, in the beginning of the eleventh century, they made themselves masters of the greater part of England.

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

"The next conquerors of this kingdom, after the Danes, were the Normans, who, in the year 1066, introduced their leader William to the possession of the English throne. This prince, soon after his accession, endeavoured to bring his own language (the Norman French) into use among his new sub-

the Italian,

jects; but his efforts were not very successful, as the Saxons entertained a great antipathy to these haughty foreigners. In process of time, however, many Norman words and phrases were incorporated into the Saxon language: but its general form and construction still remained the same.

"From the Conquest to the Reformation, the language continued to receive occasional accessions of foreign words, till it acquired such degree of copiousness and strength, as to render it susceptible of that polish, which it has received from writers of taste and genius, in the last and present centuries. During this period, the learned have enriched it with many significant expressions, drawn from treasures of Greek and Roman literature; the ingenious and the fashionable have imported occasional supplies of French, Spanish, and German words, gleaned during their foreign excursions; and the connexions which we maintain, through the medium of government and commerce,

with many remote nations, have made some additions to our native vocabulary.

"In this manner did the ancient language of the Anglo-Saxons proceed, through the various stages of innovation, and the several gradations of refinement, to the formation of the present English tongue."

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