A SHORT INTRODUCTION TO ENGLISH GRAMMAR: WITH CRITICAL NOTES.

Nam ipsum Latine loqui, est illud quidem in magna laude ponendum; sed non tam sua sponte, quam quod est a plurisque neglectum. Non enim tam præclarum est scribere Latine, quam turpe nescire; neque tam id mihi oratoris boni, quam civis Romani, proprium videtur. Cicero.

1796

By Robert South

BASIL:
Printed and sold by J. J. Tourneis:
MDCCXCIV.
THE

PREFAE.

THE English Language hath been much cultivated during the last two hundred years. It hath been considerably polished and refined; its bounds have been greatly enlarged; its energy, variety, richness, and elegance, have been abundantly proved, by numberless trials, in verse and in prose, upon all subjects, and in every kind of style: but, whatever other improvements it may have received, it hath made no advances in Grammatical Accuracy. Hooker is one of the earliest writers, of considerable note, within the period above-mentioned: let his writings be compared with
the best of those of more modern date; and, I believe, it will be found, that in correctness, propriety, and purity of English style, he hath hardly been surpassed, or even equaled, by any of his successors.

It is now about fifty years, since Doctor Swift made a public remonstrance, addressed to the Earl of Oxford, then Lord Treasurer, concerning the imperfect State of our Language; alledging in particular, "that in many instances it offended against every part of Grammar." Swift must be allowed to have been a good judge of this matter; to which he was himself very attentive, both in his own writings, and in his remarks upon those of his friends: he is one of the most correct, and perhaps the best, of our prose-writers. Indeed, the justness of this complaint, as far as I can find, hath never been questioned; and yet no effectual method hath hitherto been taken to redress the grievance, which was the object of it.
P R E F A C E.

But let us consider, how, and in what extent, we are to understand this charge brought against the English Language: for the Author seems not to have explained himself with sufficient clearness and precision on this head. Does it mean, that the English Language, as it is spoken by the politest part of the nation, and as it stands in the writings of our most approved authors, often offends against every part of Grammar? Thus far, I am afraid, the charge is true. Or does it further imply, that our Language is in its nature irregular and capricious; not hitherto subject, nor easily reducible, to a System of rules? In this respect, I am persuaded, the charge is wholly without foundation.

The English Language is perhaps of all the present European Languages by much the most simple in its form and construction. Of all the antient Languages extant, that is the most simple, which is undoubtedly the most antient;
but even that Language itself does not equi
the English in simplicity.

The words of the English Language are pe
haps subject to fewer variations from the
original form, than those of any other. I
Substantives have but one variation of Case,
nor have they any distinction of Gender, be-
side that which nature hath made. Its Ad-
jectives admit of no change at all, except that
which expresses the degrees of comparison.
All the possible variations of the original form
of the Verb are not above fix or seven; whereas
in many Languages they amount to some hun-
dreds: and almost the whole business of Modes,
Times, and Voices, is managed with great
ease by the assistance of eight or nine commod-
dious little Verbs, called from their use Auxi-
liaries. The Construdion of this Language is
so easy and obvious, that our Grammarians
have thought it hardly worth while to give us
any thing like a regular and systematical Syntax.
P R E F A C E.

The English Grammar, which hath been last presented to the public, and by the Person best qualified to have given us a perfect one, comprises the whole Syntax in ten lines: for this reason; "because our Language has so little inflexion, that its construction neither requires nor admits many rules." In truth, the easier any subject is in its own nature, the harder is it to make it more easy by explanation; and nothing is more unnecessary, and at the same time commonly more difficult, than to give a formal demonstration of a proposition almost self-evident.

It doth not then proceed from any peculiar irregularity or difficulty of our Language, that the general practice both of speaking and writing it is chargeable with inaccuracy. It is not the Language, but the Practice, that is in fault. The truth is, Grammar is very much neglected among us; and it is not the difficulty of the Language, but on the contrary the...
simplicity and facility of it, that occasions thi
neglect. Were the Language less easy and
simple, we should find ourselves under a ne-
cessity of studying it with more care and atten-
tion. But as it is, we take it for granted, that
we have a competent knowledge and skill, and
are able to acquit ourselves properly, in our
own native tongue: a faculty, solely acquired
by use, conducted by habit, and tried by the
ear, carries us on without reflexion; we meet
with no rubs or difficulties in our way, or we
do not perceive them; we find ourselves able
to go on without rules, and we do not so much
as suspect, that we stand in need of them.

A Grammatical Study of our own Lan-
guage makes no part of the ordinary method of
instruction, which we pass through in our
childhood; and it is very seldom that we ap-
ply ourselves to it afterward. Yet the want
of it will not be effectually supplied by any
other advantages whatsoever. Much practice
in the polite world, and a general acquaintance with the best authors, are good helps; but alone will hardly be sufficient: we have writers, who have enjoyed these advantages in their full extent, and yet cannot be recommended as models of an accurate style. Much less then will what is commonly called Learning serve the purpose; that is, a critical knowledge of antient Languages, and much reading of antient authors: the greatest Critic and most able Grammarian of the last age, when he came to apply his Learning and his Criticism to an English Author, was frequently at a loss in matters of ordinary use and common construction in his own vernacular idiom.

But perhaps the Notes subjoined to the following pages will furnish a more convincing argument, than any thing that can be said here, both of the truth of the charge of Inaccuracy brought against our Language, as it subsists in Practice; and of the necessity of
investigating the Principles of it, and studying it Grammatically, if we would attain to a due degree of skill in it. It is with reason expected of every person of a liberal education, and it is indispensably required of every one who undertakes to inform or entertain the public, that he should be able to express himself with propriety and accuracy. It will evidently appear from these Notes, that our best authors have committed gross mistakes, for want of a due knowledge of English Grammar, or at least of a proper attention to the rules of it. The examples there given are such as occurred in reading, without any very curious or methodical examination: and they might easily have been much increased in number by any one, who had leisure or phlegm enough to go through a regular course of reading with this particular view. However, I believe, they may be sufficient to answer the purpose intended; to convince the necessity of the Study of Grammar in
our own Language; and to admonish those, who set up for authors among us, that they
would do well to consider this part of Learning
as an object not altogether beneath their regard.

The principal design of a Grammar of any
Language is to teach us to express ourselves
with propriety in that Language; and to en-
able us to judge of every phrase and form of
construction, whether it be right or not. The
plain way of doing this is, to lay down rules,
and to illustrate them by examples. But, be-
side shewing what is right, the matter may be
further explained by pointing out what is
wrong. I will not take upon me to say, whe-
ther we have any Grammar, that sufficiently
instructs us by rule and example; but I am
sure we have none, that, in the manner here
attempted, teaches us what is right by shewing
what is wrong; though this perhaps may
prove the more useful and effectual method of
instruction.
Beside this principal Design of Grammar in our own Language, there is a secondary use to which it may be applied, and which, I think, is not attended to as it deserves; the facilitating of the acquisition of other Languages, whether antient or modern. A good foundation in the General Principles of Grammar is in the first place necessary for all those who are initiated in a learned education; and for all others likewise, who shall have occasion to furnish themselves with the knowledge of modern Languages. Universal Grammar cannot be taught abstractedly: it must be done with reference to some Language already known; in which the terms are to be explained, and the rules exemplified. The learner is supposed to be unacquainted with all, but his native tongue; and in what other, consistently with reason and common sense, can you go about to explain it to him? when he has a competent knowledge of the main principles of Grammar
in general, exemplified in his own Language; he then will apply himself with great advantage to the study of any other. To enter at once upon the Science of Grammar, and the study of a foreign Language, is to encounter two difficulties together, each of which would be much lessened by being taken separately and in its proper order. For these plain reasons, a competent grammatical knowledge of our own language is the true foundation, upon which all Literature, properly so called, ought to be raised. If this method were adopted in our Schools; if children were first taught the common principles of Grammar, by some short and clear System of English Grammar, which happily by its simplicity and facility is perhaps fitter than that of any other Language for such a purpose; they would have some notion of what they were going about, when they should enter into the Latin Grammar; and would hardly be engaged so many years,
as they now are, in that most irksome and difficult part of Literature, with so much labor of the memory, and with so little assistance of the understanding.

A design somewhat of this kind gave occasion to the following little system, intended merely for a private and domestic use. The chief end of it was to explain the general principles of Grammar, as clearly and intelligibly as possible. In the definitions, therefore, easiness and perspicuity have been sometimes preferred to logical exactness. The common divisions have been complied with, as far as reason and truth would permit. The known and received terms have been retained; except in one or two instances, where others offered themselves, which seemed much more significant. All disquisitions, which appeared to have more of subtilty than of usefulness in them, have been avoided. In a word, it was calculated for the use of the learner, even of
The lowest class. Those, who would enter more deeply into the Subject, will find it fully and accurately handled, with the greatest acuteness of investigation, perspicuity of explication, and elegance of method, in a treatise intitled Hermes, by James Harris, Esq; the most beautiful and perfect example of Analysis, that has been exhibited since the days of Aristotle.

The author is greatly obliged to several Learned Gentlemen, who have favored him with their remarks upon the first Edition, which was indeed principally designed to procure their assistance, and to try the judgement of the public. He hath endeavoured to weigh their observations, without prejudice or partiality; and to make the best use of the lights, which they have afforded him. He hath been enabled to correct several mistakes; and encouraged carefully to revise the whole, and to give it all the improvement which his present
materials can furnish. He hopes for the continuance of their favor, as he is sensible there will still be abundant occasion for it. A system of this kind, arising from the collection and arrangement of a multitude of minute particulars, which often elude the most careful search, and sometimes escape observation when they are most obvious, must always stand in need of improvement. It is indeed the necessary condition of every work of human art or science, small as well as great, to advance towards perfection by slow degrees; by an approximation, which though it still may carry it forward, yet will certainly never bring it to the point to which it tends.
A SHORT INTRODUCTION TO ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

GRAMMAR

Grammar is the Art of rightly expressing our thoughts by Words.

Grammar in general, or Universal Grammar, explains the principles, which are common to all languages.

The Grammar of any particular Language, as the English Grammar, applies those common principles to that particular language, according to the established usage and custom of it.

Grammar treats of Sentences; and of the several parts, of which they are compounded.

Sentences consist of Words; Words, of one or more Syllables; Syllables, of one or more Letters.

So that Letters, Syllables, Words, and Sentences, make up the whole subject of Grammar.
INTRODUCTION TO

LETTERS.

A LETTER is the first Principle, or least part, of a Word.

An Articulate Sound is the sound of the human voice, formed by the organs of speech.

A Vowel is a simple articulate sound, formed by the impulse of the voice, and by the opening only of the mouth in a particular manner.

A Consonant cannot be perfectly sounded by itself; but joined with a vowel forms a compound articulate sound, by a particular motion or contact of the parts of the mouth.

A Diphthong, or compound vowel, is the union of two or more vowels pronounced by a single impulse of the voice.

In English there are twenty-six Letters.

A, a; B, b; C, c; D, d; E, e; F, f; G, g; H, h; I, i; J, j; K, k; L, l; M, m; N, n; O, o; P, p; Q, q; R, r; S, s; T, t; U, u; V, v; W, w; X, x; Y, y; Z, z.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR

\( \text{f} \), and \( \text{v} \), are consonants; the former having the sound of the soft \( g \), and the latter that of a coarser \( j \): they are therefore entirely different from the vowels \( i \) and \( u \), and distinct letters of themselves; they ought also to be distinguished from them, each by a peculiar Name; the former may be called \( ja \), and the latter \( vee \).

The Names then of the twenty-six letters will be as follows: \( a \), \( bee \), \( cee \), \( dee \), \( e \), \( ef \), \( gee \), \( aitch \), \( i \), \( ja \), \( ka \), \( el \), \( en \), \( o \), \( pee \), \( cue \), \( ar \), \( efs \), \( tee \), \( u \), \( vee \), \( double u \), \( ex \), \( y \), \( zed \).

Six of the letters are vowels, and may be founded by themselves; \( a \), \( e \), \( i \), \( o \), \( u \), \( y \).

\( B \) is generally silent at the end of a word; but it has its effect in lengthening the preceding vowel, as \( bid \), \( bide \): and sometimes likewise in the middle of a word; as, \( ungrateful \), \( retirement \). Sometimes it has no other effect, than that of softening a preceding \( g \): as, \( lodge \), \( judge \), \( judgement \); for which purpose it is quite necessary in these and the like words.

\( \text{y} \) is in found wholly the same with \( i \); and is written instead of \( i \) at the end of words; or
INTRODUCTION TO

before i, as flyng, denying: it is retained likewise in some words derived from the Greek; and it is always a vowel (1).

W is either vowel, or diphthong; its proper sound is the same as the Italian u, the French ou, or the English oo; after o, it is sometimes not sounded at all; sometimes like a single u.

The rest of the letters are consonants; which cannot be sounded alone: some not at all, and these are called Mutes; b, c, d, g, k, p, q, t; others very imperfectly, making a kind of obscure sound; and these are called Semi-vowels, or Half-vowels, l, m, n, r, f, s; the first four of which are also distinguished by the name of Liquids.

(1) The same sound, which we express by the initial y, our Saxon Ancestors in many instances expressed by the vowel a; asower, your: and by the vowel i; as iu, yew; song, young. In the word yew, the initial y has precisely the same sound with i in the words view, lieu, adieu: the i is acknowledged to be a Vowel in these latter; how then can the y, which has the very same sound, possibly be a Consonant in the former? Its initial sound is generally like that of i in shire, or ee nearly: it is formed by the opening of the mouth, without any motion or contraction of the parts: in a word, it has every property of a Vowel, and not one of a Consonant.
The Mutes and the Semi-vowels are distinguished by their names in the Alphabet; those of the former all beginning with a consonant, *bee, cee,* &c.; those of the latter all beginning with a vowel, *ef, ell,* &c.

*X* is a double consonant, compounded of *c,* or *k,* and *s.*

*Z* seems not to be a double consonant in English, as it is commonly supposed: it has the same relation to *s,* as *v* has to *f,* being a thicker and coarser expression of it.

*H* is only an Aspiration, or Breathing: and sometimes at the beginning of a word is not founded at all; as, *an hour, an honest man.*

*C* is pronounced like *k,* before *a,* *o,* *u,* and soft, like *s,* before *e,* *i,* *y:* in like manner *g* is pronounced always hard before *a,* *o,* *u,* sometimes hard and sometimes soft before *i,* and *y,* and for the most part soft before *e.*

The English Alphabet, like most others, is both deficient and redundant; in some cases, the same letters expressing different sounds, and different letters expressing the same sounds.
INTRODUCTION TO

SYLLABLES.

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

Spelling is the art of reading by naming the letters singly, and rightly dividing words into their syllables. Or, in writing, it is the expressing of a word by its proper letters.

In spelling, a syllable in the beginning or middle of a word ends in a vowel, unless it be followed by s; or by two or more consonants: these are for the most part to be separated; and at least one of them always belongs to the preceding syllable, when the vowel of that syllable is pronounced short. Particles in Composition, though followed by a vowel, generally remain undivided in spelling. A mute generally unites with a liquid following; and a liquid, or a mute, generally separates from a mute following: & and re are never separated from a preceding mute.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

But the best and easiest rule, for dividing the syllables in spelling, is to divide them as they are naturally divided in a right pronunciation; without regard to the derivation of words, or the possible combination of consonants at the beginning of a syllable.

WORDS.

Words are articulate sounds, used by common consent as signs of ideas or notions.

There are in English nine sorts of words, or, as they are commonly called, parts of speech.

1. The Article; prefixed to substantives, when they are common names of things, to point them out, and to show how far their signification extends.

2. The Substantive, or Noun; being the name of any thing conceived to subsist, or of which we have any notion.

3. The Pronoun; standing instead of the noun.

4. The Adjective; added to the noun to express the quality of it.
5. The Verb; or Word, by way of eminence, signifying to be, to do, or to suffer.

6. The Adverb; added to verbs, and also to adjectives and other adverbs, to express some circumstance belonging to them.

7. The Preposition; put before nouns and pronouns chiefly, to connect them with other words, and to show their relation to those words.

8. The Conjunction; connecting sentences together.

9. The Interjection; thrown in to express the affectation of the speaker, though unnecessary with respect to the construction of the sentence.

Example:

The power of speech is a faculty peculiar to man, and was bestowed on him by his beneficent Creator for the greatest and most excellent uses; but alas! how often do we pervert it to the worst of purposes?
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

In the foregoing sentence, the Words the, a, are Articles; power, speech, faculty, man, creator, uses, purposes, are Substantives; him, his, we, it, are Pronouns; peculiar, beneficent, greatest, excellent, worst, are Adjectives; is, was, bestowed, do, pervert, are Verbs; most, how, often, are Adverbs; of, to, on, by, for, are Prepositions; and, but, are Conjunctions; and alas is an Interjection.

The Substantives, power, speech, faculty, and the rest, are General, or Common, Names of things; whereof there are many sorts belonging to the same kind; or many individuals belonging to the same sort; as there are many sorts of power, many sorts of speech, many sorts of faculty, many individuals of that sort of animal called man; and so on. These general or common names are here applied in a more or less extensive signification; according as they are used without either, or with the one, or with the other, of the two Articles a and the. The words speech, man, being accompanied with no article, are taken in their largest extent; and signify all of the kind or sort; all sorts of speech,
INTRODUCTION TO

and all men. The word *faculty*, with the article *a* before it, is used in a more confined signification, for some one out of many of that kind; for it is here implied, that there are other faculties peculiar to man beside speech. The words *power*, *creator*, *uses*, *purposes*, with the article *the* before them, (for *his* Creator is the same as *the Creator of him*,) are used in the most confined signification, for the things here mentioned and ascertained: *the power* is not any one indeterminate power out of many sorts, but that particular sort of power here specified; namely, the power of speech: *the creator* is the One great Creator of man and of all things: *the uses*, and *the purposes*, are particular uses and purposes; the former are explained to be those in particular, that are the greatest and most excellent; such, for instance, as the glory of God, and the common benefit of mankind; the latter to be the worst, as lying; flattering, blaspheming, and the like.

The Pronouns, *him*, *his*, *we*, *it*, stand instead of some of the nouns, or substantives, going before them; as, *him* supplies the place of *man*;
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

his, of man's; we, of men, implied in the general name man, including all men, (of which number is the speaker;) it, of the power, before mentioned. If, instead of these pronouns, the nouns for which they stand had been used, the sense would have been the same; but the frequent repetition of the same words would have been disagreeable and tedious: as, The power of speech peculiar to man, bestowed on man, by man's Creator, &c.

The Adjectives peculiar, beneficent, greatest, excellent, worst, are added to their several substantives, to denote the character and quality of each.

The Verbs is, was bestowed, do pervert, signify severally, being, suffering, and doing. By the first it is implied, that there is such a thing as the power of speech, and it is affirmed to be of such a kind; namely, a faculty peculiar to man: by the second it is said to have been acted upon, or to have had something done to it; namely, to have been bestowed on man: by the last, we are said to act upon it, or to do something to it; namely, to pervert it.
INTRODUCTION TO

The Adverbs, most, often, are added to the adjective excellent, and to the verb pervert, to show the circumstance belonging to them; namely, that of the highest degree to the former, and that of frequency to the latter: concerning the degree of which frequency also a question is made, by the adverb how added to the adverb often.

The Prepositions of, to, on, by, far, placed before the substantives and pronouns, speech, man, him, &c. connect them with other words, substantives, adjectives, and verbs, as, power, peculiar, bestowed, &c. and show the relation which they have to those words; as the relation of subject, object, agent, end; for denoting the end, by the agent, on the object; to and of denote possession, or the belonging of one thing to another.

The Conjunctions and, and but, connect the three parts of the sentence together; the first more closely, both with regard to the sentence and the sense; the second connecting the parts of the sentence, though less strictly, and at the same time expressing an opposition in the sense.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

The Interjection *alas* expresses the conception and regret of the speaker; and though thrown without propriety, yet might have been omitted without injuring the construction of the sentence or destroying the sense. 

ARTICLE.

The ARTICLE is a word prefixed to substantives, to point them out, and to show how their signification extends.

In English there are but two articles, *a*, *the*: *a* becomes *an* before a vowel, *y* and *w* (*excepted*; and before a silent *h* preceding a vowel.

*A* is used in a vague sense to point out a single thing of the kind, in other respects indeterminate: *the* determines what particular thing is meant.

(1) The pronunciation of *y*, or *w*, as part of a diphthong at the beginning of a word, requires such an effort in conformation of the parts of the mouth, as does not admit of the article *an* before them. In other cases the article *an* in a manner coalesces with the vowel which precedes: in this, the effort of pronunciation separates article, and prevents the disagreeable consequence of an audible hiatus.
A substantive, without any article to limit it, is taken in its widest sense: thus man means all mankind; as,

"The proper study of mankind is man."

Pope.

Where mankind and man may change places, without making any alteration in the sense. A man means some one or other of that kind, indefinitely; the man means, definitely, that particular man, who is spoken of: the former therefore is called the Indefinite, the latter the Definite, Article (1).

(1) "And I persecuted this way unto the death." Acts xxii. 4. The Apostle does not mean any particular sort of death, but death in general: the Definite Article therefore is improperly used. It ought to be unto death, without any Article: agreeably to the Original. See also 2 Chron. xxxii. 24.

"When He, the Spirit of Truth, is come, he will guide you into all truth." John xvi. 13. That is, according to this translation, into all Truth whatsoever, into Truth of all kinds: very different from the meaning of the Evangelist, and from the Original, into all the Truth; that is, into all Evangelical Truth.

"Truly this was the Son of God." Matt. xxvii. 54. and Mark. xv. 39. This translation supposes, that the Roman Centurion had a proper and adequate notion of the character of Jesus, as the Son of God in a peculiar and in-
Example: "Man was made for society, and ought to extend his good will to all men: but a man will naturally entertain a more particular kindness for the men, with whom he has the most

communicable sense: whereas, it is probable, both from the circumstances of the History, and from the expression of the Original, (a Son of God, or, of a God, not the Son,) that he only meant to acknowledge him to be an extraordinary person, and more than a mere man; according to his own notion of Sons of Gods in the Pagan Theology. This is also more agreeable to St. Luke's account of the same confession of the Centurion: "Certainly this was a righteous man;" not, the Just One. The same may be observed of Nebuchadnezzar's words, Dan. iii. 25. "And the form of the fourth is like the Son of God:" it ought to be expressed by the Indefinite Article, like a Son of God; as Theodotion very properly renders it: that is, like an Angel; according to Nebuchadnezzar's own account of it in the 28th verse: "Blessed be God, who hath sent his Angel, and delivered his servants." See also Luke, xix. 9.

"Who breaks a butterfly upon a wheel?" Pope. It ought to be, the wheel; used as an instrument for the particular purpose of torturing Criminals: as Shakspeare;

"Let them pull all about mine ears; present me Death on the wheel, or at wild horses heels." "God Almighty hath given reason to a man to be a light unto him." Hobbes, Elements of Law, Part I. Chap. v. 32. It should rather be, "to man," in general, These remarks may serve to show the great importance
frequent intercourse; and enter into a still closer union with the man, whose temper and disposition suit best with his own."

It is of the nature of both the articles to determine or limit the thing spoken of: a determines it to be one single thing of the kind, leaving it still uncertain which; the determines which it is, or, of many, which they are. This therefore can only be joined to substantives in the singular number (1); the last may also be joined to plurals.

There is a remarkable exception to this rule: the use of the Adjectives few and many, (the latter chiefly with the word great before it of the proper use of the Article; the near affinity there between the Greek Article and the English Definite Article; and the excellence of the English Language in this respect which by means of its two Articles does most precisely determine the extent of signification of Common Names whereas the Greek has only one Article, and it has puzzled all the Grammarians to reduce the use of that to any clear and certain rules.

(1) "A good character should not be reflected in as an end, but employed as a means of doing still further good. Atterbury, Serm. II. 3. Ought it not to be a mean? We have read an author of this taste, that compares a ragged coin to a tattered color. " Addison, Dial. I. on Medals, which,
which, though joined with plural Substantives, et admit of the singular Article a: as: a few men, great many men:

Told of a many thousand warlike French: "
A care-craz'd mother of a many children."

Shakspeare.

The reason of it is manifest from the effect, which the article has in these phrases: it means a small great number collectively taken, and therefore gives the idea of a Whole, that is, of Unity (1).

Thus likewise a hundred, a thousand, is one whole number, an aggregate of many collectively taken;

(1) Thus the word many is taken collectively as a Substantive:

"O Thou fond Many! with what loud applause
Didst thou beat heav'n with blessing Bolingbroke,
Before he was what thou wouldst have him be!"

Shakspeare, a Henry IV.

But it will be hard to reconcile to any Grammatical propriety the following phrase: "Many one there be, that say of my soul; There is no help for him in his God." Psal. iii. 2.

"How many a message would he send!"

Swift, Verses on his own Death.

"He would send many a message," is right: but the question how seems to destroy the unity, or collective nature, of the idea; and therefore it ought to have been expressed, if the measure would have allowed of it, without the article, in the plural number: how many messages.
and therefore still retains the article *a*, though joined as an Adjective to a plural Substantive; as, *a hundred years* (1).

"For harbour at *a thousand doors* they knock'd; Not one of all *the thousand*, but was lock'd."  
Dryden.

The Definite Article *the* is sometimes applied to Adverbs in the Comparative and Superlative degree; and its effect is to mark the degree more strongly, and to define it more precisely: as, "*The more* I examine it, *the better* I like it. I like this *the least* of any."

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

SUBSTANTIVE.

A SUBSTANTIVE, or NOUN, is the Name of a thing; of whatever we conceive in any way to subsist, or of which we have any notion.

Substantives are of two sorts; Proper, and Common, Names. Proper Names are the Names appropriated to individuals; as the names of persons and places: such are George, London. Common Names stand for kinds, containing many sorts; or for sorts, containing many individuals under them; as, Animal, Man. And these Common Names, whether of kinds or sorts, are applied to express individuals, by the help of Articles added to them, as hath been already shown; and by the help of Definitive Pronouns, as we shall see hereafter.

Proper Names being the Names of individuals, and therefore of things already as determinate as they can be made, admit not of Articles, or of Plurality of number; unlefs by a Figure, or by Accident; as, when great Conquerors are called Alexanders; and some great Conqueror An Alexander, or The Alexander of his Age: when a
INTRODUCTION TO

Common Name is understood, as The Thames, that is, the River Thames; The George, that is the Sign of St. George: or when it happens that there are many persons of the same name as, The two Scipios.

Whatever is spoken of is represented as one or more, in Number: these two manners of representation in respect of number are called the Singular, and the Plural, Number.

In English, the Substantive Singular is made Plural, for the most part, by adding to it s or es, where it is necessary for the pronunciation: as king, kings; fox, foxes; leaf, leaves; in which last, and many others, f is also changed into v, for the sake of an easier pronunciation and more agreeable found.

Some few Plurals end in en; as, oxen, children, brethren, and men, women, by changing the a of the Singular into e (1). This form we have retained from the Teutonic; as likewise the intro

(1) And anciently, eyn, shoen, housen, hosen: so likewise fowen, cowen, now always pronounced and written swine, kine.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

duction of the e in the former syllable of two of the last instances; weomen; (for so we pronounce it,) brethren, from woman, brother (1): something like which may be noted in some other forms of Plurals: as mouse, mice; louse, lice; tooth, teeth; foot, feet; goose, geese (2).

The words sheep, dear, are the same in both Numbers.

Some Nouns, from the nature of the things which they express, are used only in the Singular, others only in the Plural, Form: as wheat, pitch, gold, loth, pride, &c. and bellows, scissars, lungs, bowels, &c.

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,

(1) In the German, the vowels, a, o, u, of monosyllable Nouns, are generally in the Plural changed into diphthongs with an e: as die hand, the hand, die künde; der hut, the hat, die küte; der knöff, the button, (or knob,) die knöffes; &c.

(2) These are directly from the Saxon: mus, mys; lus, lys; toth, teth; sot, set; ges, ges.
INTRODUCTION TO

vary the termination or ending of the Substantive, to answer the same purpose. These different endings are in those languages called Cases. And the English being derived from the same origin as the German, that is, from the Teutonic (1), is not wholly without them. For instance, the relation of Possession, or Belonging, is often expressed by a Case, or a different ending of the Substantive. This Case answers to the Genitive Case in Latin, and may still be so called; though perhaps more properly the Possessive Case. Thus, "God’s grace:" which may also be expressed by the Preposition; as, "the grace of God." It was formerly written, "Godis grace;" we now always shorten it with an Apostrophe; often very improperly, when we are obliged to

(1) "Lingua Anglorum hodierna avite Saxonicæ formam in pleisique orationis partibus etiamnum retinet. Nam quod particulæ causales, quorundam causum terminaciones, conjugationes verborum, verbum substantivum, formam passivæ vocis, pronomina, participia, conjunctiones, & prepositio-

nes omnes; denique, quod idiomata, phrasiumque maxi-
mam partem, etiam nunc Saxonicus est Anglorum fermo." Hickes, Thesaur. Ling. Septent, Pref. p. vi. To which may be added the Degrees of Comparison, the form of which is the very same in the English as in the Saxon.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

pronounce it fully; as, "Thomas's book;" that is, "Thomas's book;" not "Thomas his book;" as it is commonly supposed (1).

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

(1) "Christ his sake," in our Liturgy, is a mistake, either of the Printers, or of the Compilers. "Nevertheless, Aza his heart was perfek with the Lord." 1 Kings, xv. 14. "To see whether Mordecai his matters would stand." Esther, iii. 4.

"Where is this mankind now? who lives to age
Fit to be made Methusalem his page?"  Donne.

"By young Telemachus his blooming years."

Pope's Odyssey.

"My Paper is the Ulysses his bow, in which every man of wit or learning may try his strength." Addison, Guardian, No. 98. See also Spect. No. 207. This is no slip of Mr. Addison's pen: he gives us his opinion upon this point very explicitly in another place. "The same single letter s on many occasions does the office of a whole word; and represents the his and her of our forefathers." Addison, Spect. No. 135. The latter instance might have shown him, how groundless this notion is: for it is not easy to conceive, how the letter s added to a Feminine Noun should represent the word her; any more than it should the word their, added to a Plural Noun; as, "the children's bread." But the direct derivation of this Case from the Saxon Genitive Case is sufficient of itself to decide this matter.
INTRODUCTION TO

King of Great Britain's Soldiers. When it is a Noun ending in s, the sign of the Possessive Case is sometimes not added; as, "for righteousness sake (1); nor ever to the Plural Number ending in s; as, "on eagles' wings (2)." Both the Sign and the Preposition seem sometimes to be used; as, "a soldier of the king's;" but here are really two Possessives; for it means, "one of the soldiers of the king."

The English in its Substantives has but two different terminations for Cases; that of the Nominative, which simply expresses the Name of the thing, and that of the Possessive Case.

(1) In Poetry, the Sign of the Possessive Case is frequently omitted after Proper Names ending in s, or x: as, "The wrath of Peleg's Son." Pope. This seems not so allowable in Prose: as, "Moses' minister." Josh. i. x. "Phinehas' wife." 1 Sam. iv. 19. "Felix came into Felix' room." Acts, xxiv. 27.

(4) It is very probable, that this Convocation was called, to clear some doubt, that King James might have had, about the lawfulness of the Hollanders their throwing off the Monarchy of Spain, and their withdrawing for good and all their allegiance to that Crown." Welwood's Memoirs, p. 31. 6th Edit. In this Sentence the Pronominal Adjective their is twice improperly added; the Possessive Case being sufficiently expressed without it.
Things are frequently considered with relation to the distinction of Sex or Gender; as being male, or Female, or Neither the one, nor the other. Hence Substantives are of the Masculine, or Feminine, or Neuter, (that is, Neither,) Gender: which latter is only the exclusion of all consideration of Gender.

The English Language, with singular propriety, following nature alone, applies the distinction of Masculine and Feminine only to the names of Animals; all the rest are Neuter: except when, by a Poetical or Rhetorical fiction, things Inanimate and Qualities are exhibited as Persons, and consequently become either Male or Female. And this gives the English an advantage above most other languages in the Poetical and Rhetorical style: for when Nouns naturally Neuter are converted into Masculine and Feminine (5),

(5) "At his command th’ uprooted Hills retired
Each to his place: they heard his voice, and went
Obsequious: Heaven his wonted face renew’d,
And with fresh flowers Hill and Valley smil’d."


"Was I deceiv’d; or did a fable Cloud
Turn forth her silver lining on the Night?"

Milton, Comus.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

The chief use of Gender in English is in the Pronoun of the Third Person; which must agree in that respect with the Noun for which it stands.

PRONOUN.

A Pronoun is a word standing instead of a Noun, as its Substitute or Representative.

In the Pronoun are to be considered the Person, Number, Gender, and Case.

There are Three Persons which may be the Subject of any discourse: first, the Person who speaks may speak of himself; secondly, he may speak of the Person to whom he addresses himself; thirdly, he may speak of some other Person.

These are called, respectively, the First, Second, and Third, Persons: and are expressed by the Pronouns, I, Thou, He.

As the Speakers, the Persons spoken to, and the other Persons spoken of, may be many; so each of these Persons hath the Plural Number; We, Ye, They.

The Persons speaking and spoken to, being at the same time the Subjects of the discourse, are
INTRODUCTION TO

supposed to be present; from which and other circumstances their Sex is commonly known, and need not to be marked by a distinction of Gender in their 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, which ought to be more distinctly marked: accordingly the Pronoun Singular of the Third Person hath the Three Genders; *He*, *She*, *It*.

Pronouns have Three Cases; the Nominative; the Genitive, or Possessive; like Nouns; and Moreover a Case, which follows the Verb Active, or the Preposition, expressing the Object of an Action, or of a Relation. It answers to the Oblique Cases in Latin; and may be properly enough called the Objective Case.
PRONOUNS;

according to their Persons, Numbers, Cases, and Genders.

PERSONS.

1. 2. 3. 1. 2. 3.

Singular. Plural.

I, Thou, He; We, Ye or You, They

CASES.


First Person.

I, Mine, Me; We, Ours, Us.

Second Person.

Thou, Thine, Thee; Ye or You, Yours, You (1)

(1) Some Writers have used Ye as the Objective Case Plural of the Pronoun of the Second Person; very improperly, and ungrammatically.

"The more shame for ye: holy men I thought ye."

Shakspeare, Hen. VIII.

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

Prior.

"His wrath, which one day will destroy ye both."

Milton, P. L. ii. 734

Milton uses the same manner of expression in a few other places of his Paradise Lost, and more frequently in
INTRODUCTION TO

Third Person.

Mas. He, His, Him;

Fem. She, Hers, Her;

Neut. It, Its (1), It;

Poems. It may perhaps be allowed in the Comic and Ilesque style, which often imitates a vulgar and incorrect pronunciation: as, "By the Lord, I knew ye, as well as that made ye." Shakspere, 1 Henry IV. But in the seri and solemn style, no authority is sufficient to justify manifest a solecism.

The Singular and Plural Forms seem to be confounded the following Sentence: "Pass ye away, show inhabitant Saphir." Micah, i. 11.

(1) The Neuter Pronoun of the Third Person had forms no variation of Cales. Instead of the Possessive its they used his, which is now appropriated to the Masculine. "Learn hast his infancy, when it is but beginning, and altho' childish; then his youth, when it is luxuriant and juvenile; then its strength of years, when it is solid and reduced; lastly his old age, when it waxeth dry and exhaust." Bacon, Essay 58. In this example his is evidently used as the Possessive Case of it: but what shall we say to the following where her is applied in the same manner, and seems to make a strange confusion of Gender? "He that pricketh the heart maketh it to show her knowledge." Eccles, xxii. 19.

"Oft have I seen a timely-parted ghost,
Of ash-y semblance, meagre, pale, and bloodless,
Being all defended to the fab'reng heart,
Who, in the conflux that it holds with death,
Attracts the same for aidance 'gainst the enemy."

Shakspere, 2 Hen. VI.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

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

Thy, My, Her, Our, Your, Their, are Pronominal Adjectives: but His, (that is, He's) Her's, Our's, Your's, Their's, have evidently the Form of the Possessive Case: and by Analogy, Mine, Thine (1), may be esteemed of the same rank. All these are used, when the Noun, to which they belong, is understood: the two latter sometimes also instead of my, thy, when the Noun following them begins with a vowel.

Beside the foregoing, there are several other Pronominal Adjectives; which, though they may

It ought to be,

"Which, in the conflict that it holds."

Or, perhaps more poetically,

"Who, in the conflict that he holds with death."

(1) So the Saxon In hath the Possessive Case Min; Thu, Possessive Thin; He, Possessive His: from which our Possessive Cases of the same Pronouns are taken without Alteration. To the Saxon Possessive Cases, hire, ure, eower, hira, (that is, her's, our's, your's, their's,) we have added the s, the Characteristic of the Possessive Case of Nouns. Or our's, your's, are directly from the Saxon ure, eowers; the Possessive Case of the Pronominal Adjectives ure, eower; that is, our, your.
sometimes seem to stand by themselves, yet have always: some Substantive belonging to them either referred to, or understood: as, This, the other, any, same, one, none. These are called Definitive, because they define and limit the extent of the Common Name, or General Term to which they either refer, or are joined. The three first of these are varied, to express Numbers, as, These, those, others (1); the last of which admits of the Plural form only when its Substantive is not joined to it, but referred to, or understood: none of them are varied to express the Gender; only two of them to express the Case as, other, one, which have the Possessive Case. One is sometimes used in an Indefinite sense (answering to the French on,) as in the following phrases; "one is apt to think;" "one sees;" "one supposes." Who, which, that, are called Relatives, because they more directly refer to some substantive going before; which therefore is

(1) "Diodorus, whose design was to refer all occurrence to years,—is of more credit in a point of Chronology, that Plutarch or any other, that writes Lives by the lump." Bentley Differ. on Themistocles's Epistles, Sec. vi. It ought to be others, or writes.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR. 33
called the Antecedent. They also connect the following part of the Sentence with the foregoing. These belong to all the three Persons; whereas the rest belong only to the Third. One of them only is varied to express the three Cases; Who, whose, (1), (that is, who’s (2),) whom: none of them have different endings for the Numbers. Who, which, what, are called Interrogatives, when they are used in asking questions. The two

(1) Whose is by some authors made the Possessive Case of which, and applied to things as well as persons: I think improperly.

"The question, whose solution I require,
Is, what the sex of women most desire." Dryden.
"Is there any other doctrine, whose followers are punish-
ed?" Addison.

The higher Poetry, which loves to consider every thing as bearing a Personal Character, frequently applies the personal Possessive whose to inanimate beings:

"Of man’s first disobedience, and the fruit
Of that forbidden Tree, whose mortal taste
Brought death into the world, and all our woe." Milton.

(2) So the Saxon hwa hath the Possessive Case, hwas.
Note, that the Saxons rightly placed the Aspirate before the w: as we now pronounce it. This will be evident to any one that shall consider in what manner he pronounces the words what, when; that is, hoo-ət, hoo-ən

D
latter of them have no variation of Number Case. *Each, every* (1), *either*, are called Dist
butives; because they denote the persons, things, that make up a number, as taken *sep*
rately and singly.

*Own, and self,* in the Plural *selves,* are joint to the Possessives, *my, our, thy, your, his,* (s
her, their; as, *my own hand; myself, yourselves.*
both of them expressing emphasis, or opposition as, *"I did it my own self,"* that is, and no or
else: the latter also forming the Reciprocal Pronoun; as, *"he hurt himself."* *Himself, then
selves,* seem to be used in the Nominative Cas

(1) *Every* was formerly much used as a Pronominal Ad
jedive, standing by itself: as, *"He propofeth unto Gt
their necessities, and they their own requests, for relief: every of them."* Hooker, v. 39. *"The corruptions and d
pravations to which every of these was subjected."* Swift, Cor
iefs and Differences. We now commonly say, *every one.*

(2) The Possessives *his, mine, thine,* may be accounts either Pronominal Adjedives, or Genitive Cases of the re
pedive Pronouns. The form is ambiguous; just in the sam
manner as, in the Latin phrase *"cujus liber,"* the wo
cujus may be either the Genitive Case of *qui,* or the Nomi
native Masculine of the Adjective, *cujus, cuja, cujum.* S
likewise, *mei, tui, sui, noster, vestri,* have the same form whether Pronouns, or Pronominal Adjedives.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

by corruption instead of his self, their selues (1): as, "he came himself;" "they did it themselves;" where himself, themselves, cannot be in the Objective Case. If this be so, self must be, in these instances, not a Pronoun, but a Noun. Thus Dryden uses it:

"What I show,
Thy self may freely on thyself bestow."

Ourselv, the Plural Pronominal Adjective with the Singular Substantive, is peculiar to the Regal Style.

Own is an Adjective; or perhaps the Participle own, (2) of the verb to owe; to be the right owner of a thing (3).

All Nouns whatever in Grammatical Construction are of the Third Person; except when an

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

(2) Chaucer has thus expressed it:

"As friendly, as he were his own brother."

Cant. Tales, 1654, edit. 1775. And so in many other places; and, I believe, always in the same manner.

(3) "The Man that giveth this girdle."Ads, xxi. xi.
address is made to a Person: then the (answering to what is called the Vocati in Latin,) is of the Second Person.

**ADJECTIVE.**

An **Adjective** is a word added to a substantive to express its quality (1).

In English the Adjective is not varied in count of Gender, Number, or Case (2).

(1) Adjectives are very improperly called *no* they are not the *Names* of things. The Adjectives *white*, are applied to the Nouns *man, snow*, to *e* Qualities belonging to those Subjects; but the those Qualities in the Abstract, (that is, considered for themselves, and without being attributed to any Sub *goodness, whiteness*; and these are Nouns, or Subj.

(2) Some few Pronominal Adjectives must her accepted, as having the Possessive Case; as one, other "By one's own choice." Sidney.

"Teach me to feel another's woe."

Pope, Univ.

And the Adjectives, *former*, and *latter*, may be as Pronominal, and representing the Nouns, they refer; if the phrase in the following sentence be allowed to be just: "It was happy for the *Fabius* continued in the command with *Minucius former's phlegm* was a check upon the *latter's viv..."
ENGLISH GRAMMAR. 37

Only variation, which it admits of, is that of
the Degrees of Comparison.

Qualities for the most part admit of more and
less, or of different degrees: and the words that
express such Qualities have accordingly proper
forms to express different degrees. When a
Quality is simply expressed without any relation
to the same in a different degree, it is called
the Positive; as, wise, great. When it is ex-
pressed with augmentation, or with reference to
a less degree of the same, it is called the Com-
parative; as, wiser, greater. When it is expres-
sed as being in the highest degree of all, it is
called the Superlative; as, wisest, greatest.

So that the simple word, or Positive, becomes
Comparative by adding r or er; and Superlative
by adding est, or est, to the end of it. And the
Adverbs more and most placed before the Ad-
jective have the same effect; as, wise, more
wise, most wise (1).

(1) Double Comparatives and Superlatives are improper:

The Duke of Milan,

And his more brave Daughter could controul thee.

Shakespeare, Tempest.

After the most bravest seat of our religion I have lived a

D 3
Monosyllables, for the most part, are compared by \textit{er} and \textit{eis}; and Di-syllables by \textit{more} and \textit{most}: as, \textit{mild}, \textit{milder}, \textit{mildest}; \textit{frugal}, \textit{more frugal}, \textit{most frugal}. Disyllables ending in \textit{y}, \textit{happy}, \textit{lovely}; and in \textit{le} after a mute, as \textit{able}, \textit{ample}; or accented on the last syllable, as \textit{discrete}, \textit{polite}; easily admit of \textit{er} and \textit{eis}. Words of more than two syllables hardly ever admit of those terminations.

Pharis-ee. » Adi., xxvi. 5. So likewise Adjectives, that have in themselves a Superlative signification, admit not properly the Superlative form superadded: "Whoever of you will be \textit{chiesest}, shall be servant of all." Mark, x. 44.

"One of the first and \textit{chiepest} instances of prudence." At-terbury, Serm. IV. 10. "While the \textit{extreme} parts of the earth were meditating a submission." Ibid. I. 4.

"But first and \textit{chiesest} with thee bring Him, that yon soars on golden wing, Guiding the fiery-wheeled throne, The Cherub Contemplation."

Milton, II Penfierofo.

"That on the sea's \textit{extreme} border stood."

Addison's Travels.

But poetry is in possession of these two improper Superlatives, and may be indulged in the use of them.

The Double Superlative \textit{most} \textit{highest} is a Phrase peculiar to the Old Vulgar Translation of the Psalms; where it acquires a singular propriety from the Subject to which it is applied, the Supreme Being, who is \textit{higher than the highest}. 
In some few 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 (1), least; much, or many, more, most; and a few others. And in other languages, the

(1) "Lesser, says Dr. Johnson, is a barbarous corruption of les, formed by the vulgar from the habit of terminating Comparisons in er."

"Attend to what a lesser Muse indites." Addison.

"The tongue is like a race-horse; which runs the faster, the lesser weight it carries." Addison, Spect. No. 247.

Worse sounds much more barbarous, only because it has not been so frequently used.

"Changed to a worse shape thou canst not be." Shakspere, 1 Hen. VI.

"A dreadful quiet felt, and worse far
Than arms, a fullen interval of war." Dryden.

The Superlative least ought rather to be written without the a, being contracted from least; as Dr. Wallis hath long ago observed. The Conjunction, of the same sound, might be written with the a, for distinction.
words irregular in this respect are those which express the very same ideas with the foregoing verbs.

A verb is a word which signifies to be, do, or to suffer.

There are three kinds of verbs; active, passive, and neuter verbs.

A verb active expresses an action, and necessarily implies an agent and an object acted upon: as, to love; "I love Thomas."

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; "Thomas is loved by me."

So when the agent takes the lead in the sentence, the verb is active, and is followed by the object: when the object takes the lead the verb is passive, and is followed by an agent.

A verb neuter expresses being; or a state
ENGLISH GRAMMAR

condition of being; when the Agent and the Object acted upon coincide, and the event is properly. Neither action nor passion, but rather something between both: as, I am, I sleep, I walk.

The Verb Active is called also Transitive; because the action passeth over to the Object, or hath an effect upon some other thing; and the Verb Neuter is called Intransitive; because the effect is confined within the Agent, and doth not pass over to any object (1).

In English many Verbs are used both in an Active and Neuter signification, the construction only determining of which kind they are.

To the signification of the Verb is superadded

(1) The distinction between Verbs absolutely Neuter, as to sleep, and Verbs Active Intransitive, as to walk, though founded in nature and truth, is of little use in Grammar. Indeed it would rather perplex than assist the learner: for the difference between Verbs Active and Neuter, as Transitive and Intransitive, is easy and obvious: but the difference between Verbs absolutely Neuter and Intransitively Active is not always clear. But however these latter may differ in nature, the construction of them both is the same: and Grammar is not so much concerned with their real, as with their Grammatical, properties.
the designation of Person, by which it corresponds with the several Personal Pronouns; Number, by which it corresponds with Number of the Noun, Singular or Plural; Time, by which it represents the being, action or passion, as Present, Past, or Future; whether Imperfectly, or Perfectly; that is, whether passing in such time, or then finished; and lastly of Mode, or of the various Manner in which the being, action, or passion, is expressed.

In a Verb therefore are to be considered the Person, the Number, the Time, and the Mode.

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."

So also to express different Numbers of the same person: as, "Thou lovest, Ye love; He loveth, They love (1)."

(1) In the Plural Number of the Verb, there is no variation of ending to express the different Persons; and the three Persons Plural are the same also with the first Person Singular: moreover in the Present Time of the Subjunctive Mode all Personal Variation is wholly dropped. Yet is this scanty provision of terminations sufficient for all the purposes
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

So likewise to express different Times, in which anything is represented as being, acting, or acted upon: as, "I love, I loved; I bear, I bore, I have borne."

The Mode is the Manner of representing the Being, Action, or Passion. When it is simply declared, or a question is asked, in order to obtain a declaration concerning it, it is called the Indicative Mode; as, "I love; lovest thou?" when it is hidden, it is called the Imperative; as, "love thou:" when it is subjoined as the end or design, or mentioned under a condition, a supposition, or the like, for the most part depending on some other Verb, and having a Conjunction before it, it is called the Subjunctive; as, "If I love; if thou love:" when it is barely expressed without any limitation of person or number, it is called the Infinitive; as, "to love;" and when it is expressed in a form in

of discourse, nor does any ambiguity arise from it: the Verb being always attended either with the Noun expressing the Subject acting or acted upon, or the Pronoun representing it. For which reason the Plural Termination in es, they lowen, they wren, formerly in use, was laid aside as unnecessary, and hath long been obsolete.
INTRODUCTION TO

called therefore Auxiliaries, or Helpers; do, have, shall, will: as, I do love, I did love; I loved, I was loved; I have loved; I have loved; I shall, or will, love, or be loved.

The two principal Auxiliaries, to have and to be, are thus varied, according to Person, Number, Time, and Mode.

Time is Present, Past, or Future.

TO HAVE.

Indicative Mode.

Present Time.

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

We
Ye have.
They

being, doing, or suffering, with the designation of Time superadded. But if the essence of the Verb be made to consist in Affirmation, 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, denying that title to all the other Modes. See Hermes, p. 164.

(1) Thou, in the Polite, and even in the Familiar Style, is diffused, and the Plural You is employed instead of it: we say, You have; not, Thou hast. Though in this case we apply You to a single Person, yet the Verb too must agree
ENGLISH GRAMMAR. 47

Past Time.

1. I had, We
2. Thou hadst, Ye had.
3. He had; They

with it in the Plural Number: it must necessarily be, You
have, not, You hast. You was, the Second Person Plural of
the Pronoun placed in agreement with the first or Third Per-
son Singular of the Verb, is an enormous Solecism: and yet
Authors of the first rank have inadvertently fallen into it.
"Knowing that you was my old master's good friend." Addi-
don, Spec. No. 517. "The account you was pleased to
send me." Bentley, Philoeluth. Lipf. Part II. See the Letter
prefixed. "Would to God you was within her reach!" Bo-
lingbroke to Swift, Letter 46. "If you was here." Ditto,
Letter 47. "I am just now as well, as when you was here."Pope to Swift, P. S. to Letter 56. On the contrary the
Solemn Style admits not of You for a single Person. This
hath led Mr. Pope into a great impropriety in the beginning
of his Messiah:

"O Thou my voice inspire,
Who touch'd Isaias's hallow'd lips with fire."

The Solemnity of the Style would not admit of You for Thou
in the Pronoun, nor the measure of the Verse touch'd, or
didst touch, in the Verb; as it indispensably ought to be, in
the one, or the other, of these two forms: You, who
touched; or Thou, who touch'd, or didst touch.

"What art thou, speak, that on designs unknown,
While others sleep, thus range the camp alone?"
Pope's Iliad, x. 90.

"Accept these grateful tears; for thee they flow;
For thee, that ever felt another's woe." Ib. xix. 319.
INTRODUCTION TO

Future Time.

1. I shall, or will,
2. Thou shalt, or wilt (1),
3. He shall, or will,

We shall
Ye or
They have

"Faultless thou dropt from his unerring skill."
Dr. Arbuthnot, Dodley's Poems,

Again:
"Just of thy word, in every thought sincere;
Who knew no wish, but what the world might have"
Pope, Ep.

It ought to be your in the first line, or knewest in the last.

In order to avoid this Grammatical Inconvenience,
two distinct forms of Thou and You are often used properly
by our modern Poets, in the same Poem, in the same
graph, and even in the same Sentence; very inelegant
improperly:

"Now, now, I seize, I clasp thy charms;
And now you burst, ah cruel! from my arms."
Pope

(2) Hath properly belongs to the serious and solemn
has, to the familiar. The same may be observed in
and does.

"But, confounded with thy art,
Inquires her name, that has his heart."
W

"Th' unwearied Sun from day to day
Does his Creator's pow'r display."
Add

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

(1) The Auxiliary Verb will is always thus formed
second and third Persons singular: but the Verb to wil
Impera
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

Imperative Mode.
1. Let me have,
2. Have thou,
or, Do thou have,
3. Let him have;

Subjunctive Mode.
Present Time.
1. I
2. Thou
3. He

Infinite Mode.
Present, To have; Past, To have had.
Participle.
Present, Having; Perfect (1), Had;
Past, Having had.

being an Auxiliary, is formed regularly in those Persons: I will, Thou wilt, He will, or wills. "Thou, that art the author and bestower of life, canst doubtless restore it also, if thou wilt, and when thou wilt: but whether thou wilt (wilt) please to restore it, or not, that Thou alone knowest." -- Atterbury, Serm. I. 7.

(1) This Participle represents the action as complete and finished; and, being subjoined to the Auxiliary to have, constitutes the perfect Time: I call it therefore the Perfect Participle. The same, subjoined to the Auxiliary to be, constitutes the Passive Verb; and in that state, or when used without the Auxiliary in a Passive sense, is called the Passive Participle.
INTRODUCTION TO

TO BE:
Indicative Mode.

Present Time.

1. I am, We
2. Thou art, Ye
3. He is; They

Or.

Past Time.

1. I was, We
2. Thou wast, Ye
3. He was; They

Future Time.

1. I shall, or will, We
2. Thou shalt, or wilt, be; Ye
3. He shall, or will, They

Imperative Mode.

1. Let me be, Let us be,
2. Be thou, Be ye,
or, Do thou be, or Do ye be,
3. Let him be; Let them be.

(1) "I think it be thine indeed: for thou liest in it." Shakspeare, Hamlet. Be, in the Singular Number of this Time and Mode, especially in the third Person, is obsolete; and is become somewhat antiquated in the Plural.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

Subjunctive Mode.

I
Thou
He
We
Ye
They

Past Time.

I were,
Thou wert (1),
He were;
We
Ye
They

Infinitive Mode.

Present, To be: Past, To have been.

Participle.

Present, Being: Perfect, Been:
Past; Having been.

Milton.
Dryden.
Addison.
Prior.
Pope.
Swift.

hall we in deference to these great authorities allow wert to
the same with was; and common to the Indicative and
subjunctive Mode? or rather abide by the practice of our best
ucid writers; the propriety of the language, which requires,
as far as may be, distinct forms for different Modes;
and the analogy of formation in each Mode; I was, Thou
waft; I were, Thou wert! all which conspire to make was
peculiar to the Subjunctive Mode.
INTRODUCTION TO

The Verb Active is thus varied according Person, Number, Time and Mode.

Indicative Mode.

Present Time.

Sing.       Plur.
1. I love,    We
2. Thou lovest,  Ye    love
3. He loveth, or loves;  They

Past Time.
1. I loved,     We
2. Thou lovedst,  Ye    loved
3. He loved;    They

Future Time.
1. I shall, or will,      We    shall
2. Thou shalt, or wilt,   love;  Ye    or wi
3. He shall, or will,     They    love.

Imperative Mode.
1. Let me love,      Let us love (1),
2. Love thou,        Love ye,
    or, Do thou love,  or, Do ye love,
3. Let him love;     Let them love.

(1) The other form of the First Person Plural of the perative, love we, is grown obsolete.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

Subjunctive Mode.

Present Time.

1. I
2. Thou
3. He

We
love; Ye
They

And,

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

We
love; Ye
They

have loved (1).

Past Time.

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

We
love; Ye
They

have loved (1).

(1) Note, that the Imperfect and Perfect Time are here put together. And it is to be observed, that in the Subjunctive Mode, the event being spoken of under a condition, or supposition, or in the form of a wish, and therefore as doubtful and contingent, the Verb itself in the Present, and the Auxiliary both of the Present and Past Imperfect Times, often carry with them somewhat of a Future sense: as, "If he come to-morrow, I may speak to him:"—"if he should, or would, come to-morrow, I might, would, could, or should, speak to him." Observe also, that the 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 Mode the precise time of the Verb is very much determined by the nature and drift of the Sentence.
and distinction. They are also of frequent and almost necessary use in Interrogative and Negative Sentences. They sometimes also supply the place of another Verb, and make the repetition of it, in the same or a subsequent sentence, unnecessary: as,

"He loves not plays,
As thou dost, Anthony."


Let does not only express permission; but praying, exhorting, commanding. May and might express the possibility or liberty of doing a thing; can and could, the power. Must is sometimes called in for a helper, and denotes necessity. Will, in the first Person singular and plural, promises or threatens; in the second and third Persons, only foretells: shall, on the contrary, in the first Person, simply foretells; in the second and third Persons, promises, commands, or

"Yes, I did love her;" that is, at that time, or once; intimating a negation, or doubt, of present love.

"The Lord called Samuel; and he ran unto Eli, and said, Here am I, for thou calledst me. — And the Lord called yet again, Samuel. And Samuel arose and went to Eli, and said, Here am I, for thou didst call me." 1 Sam, iii. 4—6.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

threatens (1). But this must be understood of Explanative 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 again, “he shall go,” and “shall he go,” both imply will, expressing or referring to a command. Would primarily denotes inclination of will; and should, obligation: but they both vary their import, and are often used to express simple event.

Do and have make the Present Time; did, had (2), the Past; shall, will, the Future: let

(1) This distinction was not observed formerly as to the word shall, which was used in the Second and Third Persons to express simply the Event. So likewise should was used, where we now make use of would. See the vulgar Translation of the Bible.

(2) It has been very rightly observed, that the Verb had, in the common phrase, I had rather, is not properly used, either as an Adverb or as an Auxiliary Verb; that, being in the Past time, it cannot in this case be properly expressive of time Present; and that it is by no means reducible to any Grammatical construction. In truth, it seems to have arisen from a mere mistake, in resolving the familiar and
is employed in forming the Imperative Mode: \textit{may}, \textit{might}, \textit{could}, \textit{would}, \textit{should}, in form the Subjunctive. The Preposition \textit{to}, placed before the Verb, makes the Infinitive Mode (ambiguous abbreviation, \textit{I'd rather}, instead of \textit{I would rather}; which latter is the regular, analogical and proper expression. See two Grammatical Essays. Lond. 1768. Essay i.

(1) Bishop Wilkins gives the following elegant invention of the Modes, in his \textit{Real Character}, Part. III. Chap.

"To show in what manner the Subject is to be joined with his Predicate, the Copula between them is, as in

with a Particle; which, from the use of it, is called \textit{dus}, the manner or \textit{Mode}.

Now the Subject and Predicate may be joined together, either \textit{Simply}, or with some kind of \textit{Limitation}; and accordingly these Modes are Primary, or Secondary.

The Primary Modes are called by Grammarians \textit{Indicative} and \textit{Imperative}.

When the matter is declared to be so, or at least what seems in the Speaker’s power to have it be so, as the union of Subject and Predicate would import; then Copula is nakedly expressed without any variation: and manner of expressing it is called the \textit{Indicative Mode}.

When it is neither declared to be so, nor seems to immediately in the Speaker’s power to have it so; then can do no more in words, but make out the expression of his will to him that hath the thing in his power: namely

\begin{align*}
\text{Superior,} & \quad \text{Petition,} \\
\text{Equal,} & \quad \text{Persuasion,} \\
\text{ Inferior,} & \quad \text{Command,}
\end{align*}
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

Have, through its several Modes and Times, is placed only before the Perfect Participle; and

manner of these affecting the Copula, (Be it so, or, let it be so), is called the Imperative Mode; of which there are these three varieties, very fit to be distinctly provided for. As for that other use of the Imperative Mode, when it signifies Permission: this may be sufficiently expressed by the Secondary Mode of Liberty; you may do it.

The Secondary Modes are such, as, when the Copula is affected with any of them, make the Sentence to be (as Logicians call it) a Modal Proposition.

This happens, when the matter in discourse, namely, the being, or doing, or suffering of a thing, is considered, not simply by itself, but gradually in its causes; from which it proceeds either contingently, or necessarily.

Then a thing seems to be left as Contingent, when the Speaker expresses only the Possibility of it, or his own Liberty to it.

1. The Possibility of a thing depends upon the power of its cause; and may be expressed,

when \textit{Absolute}

by the Particle \textit{Can};

\textit{Conditional}

\textit{Could}.

2. The Liberty of a thing depends upon a freedom from all obstacles either within or without, and is usually expressed in our language,

when \textit{Absolute}

by the Particle \textit{May};

\textit{Conditional}

\textit{Might}.

Then a thing seems to be of Necessity, when the Speaker expresseth the resolution of his own Will, or some other Obligation upon him from without.
be, in like manner, before the Present and Passive Participles: the rest only before the Verb, or another Auxiliary, in its Primary form.

When an Auxiliary is joined to the Verb, the Auxiliary goes through all the variations of Person and Number; and the Verb itself continues invariably the same. When there are two or more Auxiliaries joined to the Verb, the first of them only is varied according to Person and Number. The Auxiliary must admits of no variation.

The Passive Verb is only the Participle Passive, (which for the most part is the same with the Indefinite Past Time Active, and always the same with the Perfect Participle,) joined to the Auxiliary Verb to be, through all its Variations: as, "I am loved; I was loved; I have been

3. The Inclination of the Will is expressed,

*Absolute*, by the Particle. *Will;*  
*Conditional*, *Would.*

4. The Necessity of a thing from some *external Obligation*, whether *Natural* or *Moral*, which we call Duty, is expressed,  
if *Absolute*, by the Particle *Must, ought, shall;*  
*Conditional*, *Must, ought, should.*

See also HERMES, Book I. Chap. viii.
loved; I shall be loved;" and so on, through all the Persons, the Numbers, the Times, and the Modes.

The Neuter Verb is varied like the Active; but, having somewhat of the Nature of the Passive, admits in many instances of the Passive form, retaining still the Neuter signification; chiefly in such Verbs, as signify some sort of motion, or change of place or condition: as, I am come; I was gone; I am grown; I was fallen (1)." The Verb am, was, in this case

(1) I doubt much of the propriety of the following examples: "The rules of our holy religion, from which we are infinitely severed." Tillotson, Vol. I. Serm. 27. "The whole obligation of that law and covenant, which God made with the Jews, was also ceased." Ib. Vol. II. Serm. 52. "Whose number was now amounted to three hundred." Swift, Contests and Discontentions, Chap. 3. "This Mareschal, upon some discontent, was entered into a conspiracy against his master." Addisun, Freeholder, No. 31. "At the end of a Campaign, when half the men are deserted or killed." Addisun, Tatler, No. 42. Neuter Verbs are sometimes employed very improperly as Active: "Go, see thee away into the land of Judah." Amos, vii. 12. "I think it by no means a fit and decent thing to vie Charities, and ered the reputation of one upon the ruins of another."
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.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

In English both the Past Time Active and the Participle Perfect, or Passive, are formed by adding to the Verb ed; or d only, when the Verb ends in e: as, “turn, turned; love, loved.” The Verbs that vary from this rule, in either or in both cases, are esteemed Irregular.

The nature of our language, the Accent and

Atterbury, Serm. I. 2. “So many learned men, that have spent their whole time and pains to agree the Sacred with the Profane Chronology.” Sir William Temple, Works, Fol. Vol. I. p. 295.

“How would the Gods my righteous toils succeed?”

Pope, Odyssey. xiv. 447.

—“If love this arm succeed.”

Ibid. xxi. 219.

And Active Verbs are as improperly made Neuter; as, “I must premise with three circumstances.” Swift, Q. Anne’s Last Ministry, Chap. 2. “Those that think to ingratiate with him by calumniating me.” Bentley, Differt. on Phalaris, p. 519.
Pronunciation of it, inclines us to contract even all our Regular Verbs: thus loved, turned, are commonly pronounced in one syllable, lov'd, turn'd: and the second Person, which was originally in three syllables, lovedest, turnedest, is become a disyllable, lovedest, turnedest; for as we generally throw the accent as far back as possible towards the first part of the word, (in some even to the fourth syllable from the end,) the stress being laid on the first syllables, the rest are pronounced in a lower tone, more rapidly and indistinctly; and so are often either wholly dropped, or blended into one another.

It sometimes happens also, that the word, which arises from a regular change, does not found easily or agreeably; sometimes by the rapidity of our pronunciation the vowels are shortened or lost; and the consonants, which are thrown together, do not easily coalesce with one another, and are therefore changed into others of the same organ, or of a kindred species. This occasions a further deviation from the regular form: thus loveth, turneth, are contracted into low'\th, turn'\th, and these for easier pronunciation immediately become loves, turns.
INTRODUCTION TO

Verbs ending in ch, ck, p, x, ll, fs, in the Past Time Active, and the Participle Perfect Passive, admit the change of ed into t; as, (1) snatcht, checkt, snapt, mixt, dropping also one of the double letters, dwelt, past; for snatchted, checked, snapped, mixed, dwelled, passed: those that end in l, m, n, p, after a diphthong, moreover shorten the diphthong, or change it into a single short vowel; as, dealt, dreame, meant, felt, slept, &c.: all for the same reason; from the quickness of the pronunciation, and because the d after a short vowel will not easily coalesce with the preceding consonant. Those that end in u change also v into f; as, bereave, bereft; leave, left; because likewise v after a short vowel will not easily coalesce with t.

All these, of which I have hitherto given examples, are considered not as Irregular, but as Contracted only: in most of them the Entire as well as the Contracted form is used; and

(1) Some of these Contractions are harsh and disagreeable: and it were better, if they were avoided and diffused; but they prevail in common discourse, and are admitted into Poetry; which latter indeed cannot well do without them.
Entire form is generally to be preferred to Contradicted.

The formation of Verbs in English, both Regular and Irregular, is derived from the Saxon. The Irregular Verbs in English are all Monobles, unless compounded; and they are the most part the same words which are regular Verbs in the Saxon.

All our Regular Verbs are subject to some of Contraction; so the first Class of Irreg-

I.

Irregulars by Contraction.

me Verbs ending in d or t have the Pre-

the Past Time, and the Participle Perfect Passive, all alike, without any variation: beat, burst (1), cast (2), cost, cut,

These two have also beaten and burst in the Parti-

and in that form they belong to the Third Class of

Shakespeare uses the Participle in the Regular Form:

and when the mind is quicken'd, out of doubt
INTRODUCTION TO

heat *, (1), hit, hurt, knit, let, lift *
lit, light *, (2), put, quit *, read (3), rent,
rid, set, shed, shred, shut, slit, split (4),
spread, trust, wet *.

These are Contractions from beat ed, bur sted,
cast ed, &c; because of the disagreeable sound of the syllable ed after a or t (5).

The organs, though defunct and dead before,
Break up their drowsie grave, and newly move
With casted slough, and fresh celerity. "HEN. V.

(1) He commanded, that they should heat the furnace
one seven times more than it was wont to be heat -
Dan. iii. 19.

The Verbs marked thus *, throughout the three Classes
of Irregulars, have the Regular as well as the Irregular
Form in use.

(2) This Verb in the Past Time and Participle is pronounced
short, light or lit: but the Regular Form is preferable,
and prevails most in writing.

(3) This Verb in the Past Time and Participle is pronounced
short; read, red, red; like lead, led, led; and perhaps
ought to be written in this manner: our ancient writers
spelt it reede.

(4) Shakespeare uses the Participle in the Regular Form:

"That self hand,
Which writ his honor in the ads it did,
Hath, with the courage which the heart did lend it,
Splitted the heart itself." Ant. and Cleop.

(5) They follow the Saxon rule: "Verbs which in the
ENGLISH GRAMMAR

Others in the Past Time, and Participles Perfect and Passive, vary a little from the Present, by shortening the diphthong, or changing the d into t; as, lead, led; sweat, swet *, (1); meet, met; bleed, bled; breed, bred; feed, fed; speed, sped; bend, bent *; lend, lent; rend, rent; send, sent; spend, spent; build, built *; geld, gelt *: gild, gilt *; gird, girt *; lose, lost.

Others not ending in d or t are formed by Contraction; have, had, for have'd; make, made for made; fleece, fled, for flee-ed; shave, shad, for shoe-ed.

Infinitive end in dan and tan, * (that is, in English, d and t; for ar is only the Characteristic termination of the Saxon Infinitive;)* in the Preterit and Participle Preterit commonly, for the sake of better sound, throw away the final ed; as beat, a-fed, (both in the Preterit and Participle Preterit,) for beeted, a-fed; from beatan, afedan,* Hickes, Grammat. Saxon. cap. ix. So the same Verbs in English, beat, fed, instead of beeted, fered.

(1) "How the drudging goblin sue't."

Milton, Allegro.
Shakespeare uses suet, as the Participle of this Verb:
"Greefe, that's suetten"
From the murtherer's gibbet throw." Macbeth.
In this form it belongs to the Third Class of Irregulars.
68

INTRODUCTION TO

The following, beside the Contraction, change also the Vowel; fell, fold; tell, told; clothe; clad.

Stand, stood; and dare, durst, (which in the Participle hath regularly dared,) are directly from the Saxon, standan, stood; dyræn, durst.

I I.

Irregulars in ght.

The Irregulars of the Second Class end in ght, both in the Past Time and Participle; and change the vowel or diphthong into au or ou: they are taken from the Saxon, in which the termination is hte.

Saxon.

Bring, brought: Bringan, brohte.
Buy, bought: Bycgean, bohte.
Catch, caught: Cytcan, fuhht.

(1) "As in this glorious and well-foughten field
   We kept together in our chivalry."

Shakspeare, Hen. V.

"On the foughten field
Michael, and his Angels, prevalent,
Encamping, plac'd in guard their watches round."

ENGLISH GRAMMAR

Saxon.

Teach, taught: Tæchan, tæhte.
Think, thought: Thencan, thohte.
Seek, sought: Seccan, sohte.
Work, wrought: Weorcæan, wrohte.

*Fraught* seems rather to be an Adjective than the Participle of the Verb to *freight*, which has regularly *freighted*. *Raught* from *reach* is obsolete.

III.

Irregulars in *en*.

The Irregulars of the Third Class form the Past Time by changing the vowel or diphthong of the Present; and the Participle Perfect and Passive, by adding the termination *en*; beside, for the most part, the change of the vowel or diphthong. These also derive their formation in both parts from the Saxon.


a changed into e.

Fall, fell, fallen.

This Participle seems not agreeable to the Analogy of derivation, which obtains in this Class of Verbs.
INTRODUCTION TO

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Long into</th>
<th>Short</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abide</td>
<td>abode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Climb</td>
<td>elomb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drive</td>
<td>drove</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ride</td>
<td>rode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rise</td>
<td>rose (Ⅰ)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shine</td>
<td>shine *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shrive</td>
<td>shrove</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smite</td>
<td>smote</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stride</td>
<td>strode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strive</td>
<td>strove *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thrive</td>
<td>thrrove (Ⅱ)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Write (3)</td>
<td>wrote</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Ⅰ) Rife, with short, hath been improperly used.

Past Time of this Verb: "That form of the first or

genial earth, which rises immediately out of Chaos, in

the same, nor like to that of the present earth." B

Theory of the Earth, B. I. Chap. iv. "If we hold

that scripture-conclusion, that all mankind rise from

head." Ibid. B. II. Chap. vii.

(Ⅱ) Mr. Pope has used the Regular form of the Past

of this Verb:

"In the fat age of pleasure, wealth, and ease,

Sprung the rank weed, and thrived with large increas

Essay on

(Ⅲ) This Verb is also formed like those of long

short; Write, writ, written: and by Contradiction writ

Participle; but, I think, improperly.
LONG INTO a, short INTO a.

Strike, struck, stricken, or strucken.

Bid, bade, bidden.
Give, gave, given.
Sit (i), sat, fitten.

(1) Frequent mistakes are made in the formation of the Participle of this Verb. The analogy plainly requires fitten; which was formerly in use: "The army having fitten there so long." — "Which was enough to make him flir, that would not have fitten still, though Hannibal had been quiet." Raleigh. "That no Parliament should be dissolved, till it had fitten five months." Hobbes, Hist. of Civil Wars, p. 257. But it is now almost wholly disused, the form of the Past Time sat having taken its place. "The court was sat, before Sir Roger came." Addison, Spect. No. 122. See also Tatler, No. 253, and 265. Dr. Middleton hath, with great propriety, restored the true Participle. — "To have fitten on the heads of the Apostles: to have fitten upon each of them." Works, Vol. II. p. 30. "Blessed is the man, — that hath not sat in the seat of the scornful." Psal. i. 1. The old Editions have fit; which may be perhaps allowed, as a Contradiction of fitten. "And when he was sat, his disciples came unto him," Mat. v. 1. — "Who is sat on the right hand," — "and is sat down at the right hand of the throne of God;" Heb. viii. 1. & xii. 2. (see also Mat. xxvii. 19. Luke, xxii. 55. John, xxiii. 12. Rev. iii. 21.) Set can be no Part of the Verb to sit. If it belong to the Verb to set, the Translation in these passages is wrong: for to set signifies to place, but without any designation of the posture of the person placed; which is a circumstance of importance expressed by the original.
## Introduction to

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Short into</th>
<th>Long into</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Spit</td>
<td>spat</td>
<td>spitten</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dig</td>
<td>dug*</td>
<td>(dugged)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lie</td>
<td>lay</td>
<td>lien, or lain</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hold</td>
<td>held</td>
<td>holden</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do</td>
<td>did</td>
<td>done, i.e. done</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Choose</td>
<td>chose</td>
<td>chosen</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blow</td>
<td>blew</td>
<td>blown</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crow</td>
<td>crew</td>
<td>(crowed)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grow</td>
<td>grew</td>
<td>grown</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Know</td>
<td>knew</td>
<td>known</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Throw</td>
<td>threw</td>
<td>thrown</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(1) This Neuter Verb is frequently confounded with Verb Active to lay, (that is, to put or place;) which is Regular, and has in the Past Time and Participle layed or laid.

«For him, through hostile camps I bent my way;
For him, thus prostrate at thy feet I lay:
Large gifts proportion'd to thy wrath I bear.»

Pope, Iliad. xxiv. 68

More lay is evidently used for the present Time, instead of
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

\[ \text{fly (1),} \quad \text{flew,} \quad \text{flown (2).} \]

The following are Irregular only in the Participle; and that without changing the vowel.

\[
\begin{array}{lcl}
\text{Bake,} & \quad \text{(baked,)} & \quad \text{baken *}, \\
\text{Fold,} & \quad \text{(folded,)} & \quad \text{folden * (3)}. \\
\end{array}
\]

(1) That is, as a bird, \textit{volare}; whereas \textit{to flee} signifies \textit{fugere}, as from an enemy. So in the Saxon and German, \textit{fliegen, fliegen, volare: fleon, flehen, fugere}. This seems to be the proper distinction between \textit{to fly}, and \textit{to flee}; which in the Present Times are very often confounded. Our Translation of the Bible is not quite free from this mistake. It hath \textit{flee} for \textit{volare}, in perhaps seven or eight places out of a great number; but never \textit{fly} for \textit{fugere}.

(2) "For rhyme in Greece or Rome was never known,

Till by barbarian deluges overflowed."

Roscommon, Essay.

"Do not the Nile and Niger make yearly inundations in our days, as they have formerly done? and are not the countries to overflow still situate between the tropicks." Bentley's Sermons.

"Thus oft by mariners are shown

Earl Godwin's castles overflowed."

Swift.

Here the Participle of the Irregular Verb, \textit{to fly}, is confounded with that of the Regular Verb, \textit{to flow}. It ought to be in all these places overflowed.

(3) "While they be folden together as thorns." Nahum, i. 10.
INTRODUCTION TO

That all these had originally the termination _en_ in the Participle, is plain from the following consideration. _Drink_ and _bind_ still retain it; _drunken_ , _bounden_; from the Saxon, _drunken_, _bunden_; and the rest are manifestly of the same analogy with these. _Begonnen_ , _sonken_ , and _founden_, are used by Chaucer: and some others of them appear in their proper shape in the Saxon: _scruncen_ , _spunnen_ , _sprungen_ , _strungen_ , _wunden_. As likewise in the German, which is only another offspring of the Saxon: _begonnen_ , _geklungen_ , _getrunken_ , _gesungen_ , _gesunken_ , _ge- spunnen_ , _gesprungen_ , _gestunken_ , _geschwommen_ , _geschwungen_.

The following seem to have lost the _en_ of the Participle in the same manner:

Hang (1), hung * , hung *.
Shoot, shot , shot.
Stick, stuck , stuck.

(1) This Verb, when Adive, may perhaps be most properly used in the Regular form; when Neuter, in the Irregular. But in the Adive sense of furnishing a room with draperies the Irregular form prevails. The Vulgar Translation of the Bible uses only the Regular form.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

Come, came, come.
Run, ran, run.
Win, won, won.

Hangen, and scoten, are the Saxon originals of the two first Participles; the latter of which is likewise still in use in its first form in one phrase: a shotten herring. Stuck seems to be a contraction from strucken, as struck now in use for strucken. Chaucer hath comeu and wonnen: becommen is even used by Lord Bacon (7). And most of them still subsist entire in the German: gehangen, kommen, gerunnen, gewonnen.

To this third Class belong the Defective Verbs, Be, been; and Go, gone; i.e. gone.

From this Distribution and account of the Irregular Verbs, if it be just, it appears, that originally there was no exception from the Rule, That the Participle Preterit, or Passive, in English, ends in d, t, or n. The first form included all the Regular Verbs; and those, which are become Irregular by Contraction, ending in t. To the second properly belonged only those which end in ght, from the Saxon Irregulars in hts. To the

(7) Essay xxix.
third, those from the Saxon Irregulars in en; which have still, or had originally, the same termination.

The same Rule affords a proper foundation for a division of all the English Verbs into Three Conjugations; or Classes of Verbs, distinguished one from another by a peculiar formation, in some principal part of the Verbs belonging to each: of which Conjugations respectively the three different Terminations of the Participle might be the Characteristics. Such of the contracted Verbs, as have their Participles now ending in t, might perhaps be best reduced to the first Conjugation, to which they naturally and originally belonged; and they seem to be of a very different analogy from those in ght. But as the Verbs of the first Conjugation would so greatly exceed in number those of both the others, which together make but about 117 (1);

(1) The whole number of Verbs in the English language, Regular and Irregular, Simple and Compounded, taken together, is about 4300. See, in Dr. Ward's Essays on the English Language, the Catalogue of English Verbs. The whole number of Irregular Verbs, the Defective included, is about 177.
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 to consider the first in *ed* as the only regular form, and the others as deviations from *t*; after the example of the Saxon and German Grammarians.

To the Irregular Verbs are to be added the Defective; which are not only for the most part irregular, but are also wanting in some of their parts. They are in general words of most frequent and vulgar use; in which Custom is apt to get the better of Analogy. Such are the Auxiliary Verbs; most of which are of this number. They are in use only in some of their Times and Modes; and some of them are a Composition of Times of several Defective Verbs having the same signification.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Am</td>
<td>was</td>
<td>been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can</td>
<td>could</td>
<td>gone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>So</td>
<td>went</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May</td>
<td>might</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Must</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
INTRODUCTION TO

Quoth, quoth.
Shall, should.
Weet, wit, or wot; wot.
Will, would.
Wis, wist.

There are not in English so many as a Hur Verbs, being only the chief part, but no of the Irregulars of the Third Clafs,) have a distinct and different form for the Time Active and the Participle Perfect or Past. The general bent and turn of the language wards the other form; which makes the Time and the Participle the same. This great inclination and tendency of the language to have given occasion to the introducing very great Corruption: by which the Past Time is confounded with that Participle in these Verbs, few in propo which have them quite different from on other. This confusion prevails greatly in mon discourse, and is too much authoriz the example of some of our best Writer

(1) "He would have spoke."

Milton, P. L.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

Thus it is said, He begun, for he began; he run, for he ran; he drunk, for he drank: the Participle

"Words interwove with sighs found out their way."
P. L. i. 621.

"Those kings and potentates who have grown."
Eiconoclaust. xvii.

"And to his faithful servant hath in place
Bore witness gloriously."
Sam. Ag. ver. 1752.

"And envious darkness, ere they could return,
Had stolen them from me."
Comus, ver. 195.

Here it is observable, that the Author's MS. and the first Edition have it stole.

"And in triumph had rode."
P. R. iii. 36.

"I have chose
This perfect man."
P. R. i. 165.

"The fragrant brier was wove between."
Dryden, Fables.

"I will scarce think you have swam in a Gondola."
Shakespeare, As you like it.

"Then finish what you have began;
But scribble faster, if you can."

"And now the years a numerous train have ran;
The blooming boy is ripen'd into man."
Pope's Odyss. xi. 555.

"Which I had no sooner drank, but I found a pimple
Rising in my forehead."
Addison, Tatler, No. 131.

"Have sprang."
Atterbury, Serm. I. 4. "had spoke—had
Vulgar Translation of the Bible, which is the best standard of our language, is free from this corruption, except in a few instances; as hid is used for hidden; held, for Holden, frequently; bid, for hidden; begot, for begotten, once or twice: in which, and a few other like words, it may perhaps be allowed as a Contraction. And in some of these, Custom has established it beyond recovery: in the rest it seems wholly inexcusable. The absurdity of it will be plainly perceived in the example of some of these verbs, which Custom has not yet so perverted. We should be immediately shocked at I have knew, I have saw, I have gave, &c. but our ears are grown familiar with I have wrote, I have drank, I have bore, &c. which are altogether as barbarous.

There are one or two small irregularities to be noted, to which some verbs are subject in the formation of the present participle. The present participle is formed by adding ing to the verb; as, turn, turning, verbs ending in e omit the e in the present participle: as, love, loving. Verbs ending with a single consonant
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

preceded by a single Vowel, and, if of more than one Syllable, having the accent on the last Syllable, double the Consonant in the Present Participle, as well as in every Part of the Verb in which a Syllable is added: as put, putting, putteth; forget, forgetting, forgettest; abet, abetting, abetted (1).

ADVERB.

Adverbs are added to Verbs, and to Adjectives, to denote some modification or circumstance of an action, or quality: as, the manner, order, time, place, distance, motion, relation, quantity, quality, comparison, doubt, affirmation, negation, demonstration, interrogation.

In English they admit of no Variation; except some few of them, which have the degrees of

(1) Some Verbs having the Accent on the last Syllable but one, as worship, counsel, are represented in the like manner, as doubling the last consonant in the formation of those parts of the Verb in which a Syllable is added; as worshipping, counselling. But this I rather judge to be a fault in the spelling, which neither Analogy nor Pronunciation justifies.
INTRODUCTION TO

Comparison: as, (1) often, oftener, oftenest; "soon, sooner, soonest;" and those Irregulars derived from Adjectives (2) in this respect likewise irregular; "well, better, best;" &c.

An adverb is sometimes joined to another Adverb, to modify or qualify its meaning; as, "very much; much too little; very prudently;"

(1) The formation of Adverbs in general with the Comparative and Superlative Terminations seems to be improper; at least it is now become almost obsolete: as, "Touching things which generally are received,—we are hardly able to bring such proof of their certainty, as may satisfy gainseaters." Hooker, B. v. 2. "Was the easilier persuaded." Raleigh. "That he may the strongest provide." Hobbes, Life of Thucyd. "The things highliest important to the growing age." Shaftesbury, Letter to Melford. "The question would not be, who loved himself, and who not; but, who loved and served himself the rightest, and after the truest manner." Id. Wit and Humor. It ought rather to be, most hardly, more easily, more strongly, most highly, most right, or rightly. But these Comparative Adverbs, however improper in prose, are sometimes allowable in Poetry.

"Scepter and pow'r, thy giving, I assume;
And gladlier shall resign." Milton, P. L. vi. 73.

(2) See above, p. 39.
PREPOSITION.

PREPOSITIONS, so called because they are commonly put before the words to which they are applied, serve to connect words with one another, and to shew the relation between them.

One great Use of Prepositions in English is to express those relations, which in some languages are chiefly marked by Cases, or the different endings of the Noun.

Most prepositions originally denote the relation of Place, and have been thence transferred to denote by similitude other relations. Thus, out, in, through, under, by, to, from, of, &c. Of is much the same with from; "ask of me," that is, from me: "made of wood;" "Son of Philip;" that is, sprung from him. For, in its primary sense, is pro, loco alterius, in the stead, or place, of another. The notion of Place is very obvious in all the rest (1).

(1) The Particle a before Participles, in the phrases a coming, a going, a walking, a shooting, &c; and before Nouns, as a-bed, a-board, a-shore, a-foot, &c; seems
INTRODUCTION TO

Prepositions are also prefixed to words in such a manner, as to coalesce with them, and to be-
to be a true and genuine Preposition, a little disguised by familiar use and quick pronunciation. Dr. Wallis supposes it to be the preposition at. I rather think it is the Preposition on; the sense of which answers better to the intention of those expressions. At has relation chiefly to place: on has a more general relation, and may be applied to action, and many other things, as well as place. "I was on coming, on going," &c; that is, employed upon that particular action: so likewise those other phrases above-mentioned, a-bed, &c. exactly answer to on bed, on board, on shore, on foot. Dr. Bentley plainly supposed a to be the same with on; as appears from the following passage: "He would have a learned University make Barbarisms a purpose." Differ. on Phalaris, p. 223. "The depths on trembling fell." J. Hopkins, Pf. lxxvii. 16. That is, as we now say in common discourse, "they fell a trembling." And the Preposition on has manifestly deviated into a in other instances: thus the Saxon compounded Prepositions ongean, onmang, onbutan, are become in English, by the rapidity of pronunciation, against, among, about; and what is in the Saxon Gospel, "It wylte gan on fixoth," is in the English Translation, "I go a-fishing." John xxii. 3. Much in the same manner, John of Nokes, and John of Stiles, by very frequent and familiar use, became John a Nokes, and John a Stiles: and one of the clock, or rather on the clock, is written, one o'clock, but pronounced, one a clock. The phrases with a before Participles are out of use in the solemn style; but still prevail in familia discourse. They are established by long usage, and good authority: and there seems to be no reason, why they should be utterly rejected.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

Some a part of them. Prepositions, standing by themselves in Construction, are put before Nouns and Pronouns; and sometimes after Verbs; but in this sort of Composition they are chiefly preceeded to Verbs: as, *to outgo, to overcome, to undervalue*. There are also certain Particles, which are thus employed in Composition of words, yet cannot stand by themselves in Construction: as, *be, con, mis, &c; in abide, bedeck, conjoin, mistake, &c; these are called Inseparable Prepositions.*

CONJUNCTION.

The Conjunction connects or joins together sentences; so as, out of two, to make one Sentence.

Thus, "You, and I, and Peter, rode to London," is one Sentence, made up of these three by the Conjunction *and* twice employed; "You rode to London; I rode to London; Peter rode to London." Again, "You and I rode to London, but Peter staid at home," is one Sentence made up of three by the Conjunctions *and*
INTRODUCTION TO

it is required to be in like case, number, gender, or person.

One word is said to govern another, when it causeth the other to be in some Case, or Mode.

Sentences are either Simple, or Compounded.

A Simple Sentence hath in it but one Subject and one Finite Verb; that is, a Verb in the Indicative, Imperative, or Subjunctive Mode.

A Phrase is two or more words rightly put together, in order to make a part of a Sentence and sometimes making a whole Sentence.

The most common Phrases, used in Simple Sentences, are the following.

1st Phrase: The Substantive before a Verbal Active, Passive, or Neuter; when it is said what thing is, does, or is done: as, “I am;” “Thou writest;” “Thou art loved;” where I Thou, Thomas, are the Nominative (1) Cases and answer to the question, who, or what? as “Who is loved? Thomas.” And the Verb agrees with the Nominative Case in Number and

(1) “He, whom ye pretend reigns in heaven, is so far from protecting the miserable sons of men, that he perpetually de
ERSON (1); as, thou being the Second Person singular, the Verb writest is so too.

rights to blast the sweetest flowrets in the Garden of Hope." adventurer, No 76. It ought to be who; the Nominative as to reigns; not whom, as if it were the Objective Case overned by pretend. "If you were here, you would find three or four in the parlour after dinner, whom you would my passed their time agreeably." Locke, Letter to Molyneux. "Scotland and Thee did each in other live." Dryden, Poems, Vol. II. p. 220.

"We are alone; here's none, but Thee and I."

Shakspeare, 2 Henry VI.

t ought in both places to be Thou; the Nominative Case to he Verb expressed 'or understood.

(1) "But Thou, false Arcite, never shalt obtain
Thy bad pretence." Dryden, Fables.

ought to be shalt. The mistake seems to arise from the confounding of Thou and You, as equivalent in every respect; whereas one is Singular, the other Plural. See above, p. 46.

"And whereas o'er thou casts thy view."

Cowley, on the Death of Hervey.

"There's (there are) two or three of us have seen strange sights."


"Great pains has (have) been taken."

Pope, P. S. to the Odyssey.

"I have considered, what have (hath) been said on both sides in this controversy." Tillotson, Vol. I. Serm. 27.

"One would think, there was more Sophisters than one had a finger in this Volume of Letters." Bentley, Differt. on Socrate's Epistles, Sect. IX.
INTRODUCTION TO

2d Phrase: The Substantive after a Verb Neut or Passive; when it is said, that such a thing or is made, or thought, or called, such another thing; or, when the Substantive after the Verb is spoken of the same thing or person with the Substantive before the Verb: as, "A calf becomes an ox;" "Plautus is accounted a Poet; I am He." Here the latter Substantive is the Nominative Case, as well as the former; as the Verb is said to govern the Nominative Case, or, the latter Substantive may be said to agree Case with the former.

3d Phrase: The Adjective after a Verb Neut or Passive, in like manner: as, "Life is short and Art is long." "Exercise is esteemed wholesome."

4th Phrase: The Substantive after a Verb A

"The number of the names together were about an hundred and twenty." Acts, i. 15. See also Job, xiv. 5.

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

"If the blood of bulls and of goats, and the ashes of a heifer, sprinkling the unclean, sanctifieth to the purify of the flesh." Heb. ix. 13. See also Exod. ix. 8, 9, 10.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

e, or Transitive: as when one thing is said to be done to another: as, to open a door; "to build a house: " Alexander conquered the Persians." Here the thing acted upon is in the Objective Case (1): it appears plainly when it is expressed by the noun, which has a proper termination for the Case; "Alexander conquered them; " and Verb is said to govern the Objective Case. In the Phrase: A Verb following another Verb, for who love I so much?"

Shakspeare, Merch. of Venice,

Whoe'er I woo, myself would be his wife."

Id. Twelfth Night.

"Whoever the King favours, the Cardinal will find employment for, and far enough from court." Id. Hen. VIII.

Tell who loves who; what favours some partake, and who is jilted for another's sake."

Dryden, Juvenal, Sat. vi.

Those, who he thought true to his party." Clarendon, Vol. I. p. 667, 8vo. "Who should I meet the other day, but my old friend?" Spech. N° 32. "Who should I meet the lid of it, but the Doctor?" Addison, Spech. N° 57. Saying the suspicion upon somebody, I know not who, in country." Swift, Apology prefixed to Tale of a Tub. In these places it ought to be whom.
INTRODUCTION TO

as, "Boys love to play:" where the latter is in the Infinitive Mode.

6th Phrase: When one thing is said to belong to another: as, "Milton's poems:" where the thing to which the other belongs is placed first, and is in the Possessive Case; or else last, with the Preposition of before it: as, "the poems of Milton."

7th Phrase: When another Substantive is added to express and explain the former more fully: as, "Paul the Apostle;" "King George:" where they are both in the same case; and the latter is said to be put in Apposition to the former.

8th Phrase: When the quality of the Substantive is expressed by adding an Adjective to it: as, "a wise man;" "a black horse." Participles have the nature of Adjectives: as, "a learned man;" "a loving father."

9th Phrase: An Adjective with a Verb in the Infinitive Mode following it: as, "worthy to die;" "fit to be trusted."

10th Phrase: When a circumstance is added to a Verb, or to an Adjective, by an Adverb: as, "You read well;" "he is very prudent."
11th Phrase: When a circumstance is added to a Verb, or an Adjective, by a Substantive with a Preposition before it: as, "I write for you;" "he reads with care;" "studious of praise;" "ready for mischief."

12th Phrase: When the same Quality in different Subjects is compared: the Adjective in the Positive having after it the Conjunction as, the Comparative the Conjunction than, and the Superlative the Preposition of: as, "white snow;" "wiser than I;" "greatest of all."

The Principal Parts of a Simple Sentence are the Agent, the Attribute, and the Object. The Agent is the thing chiefly spoken of; the Attribute is the thing or action affirmed or denied of it; and the Object is the thing affected by such action.

In English the Nominative Case, denoting the agent, usually goes before the Verb, or Attribute; and the Objective Case, denoting the object, follows the Verb Active; and it is the order that determines the cases in Nouns: as, Alexander conquered the Persians."

But the
INTRODUCTION TO

Pronoun, having a proper form for each of the six cases, sometimes, when it is in the Objective Case, is placed before the Verb; and, when it is in the Nominative Case, follows the Object and Verb; as, "Whom ye ignorantly worship, him declare I unto you." And the Nominative Case is sometimes placed after a Verb Neuter: as, "Upon thy right hand did stand the Queen: On a sudden appeared the King." And always, when the Verb is accompanied with the Adverb there: as, "there was a man." The reason of it is plain: the Neuter Verb not admitting of an Objective Case after it, no ambiguity of Case can arise from such a position of the Noun: and where no inconvenience attends it, variety itself is pleasing (1).

(1) It must then be meant of his sins who makes, not of his who becomes, the convert." Atterbury, Sermons, I. 2. "In him who is, and him who finds, a friend." Pope, Essay on Man.

"Eye hath not seen, nor ear heard, neither have entered into the heart of man, the things, which God hath prepared for them that love him." I Cor. ii. 9.

There seems to be an impropriety in these sentences, in which the same Noun serves in a double capacity, performing at the same time the offices both of the Nominative and Objective Case.
Who, which, what, and the Relative that, though in the Objective Case, are always placed before the Verb; as are also their Compounds, whoever, whosoever, &c: as, "He whom you seek." "This is what, or the thing which, or that, you want." "Whomsoever you please to appoint."

When the Verb is a Passive, the Agent and Object change places in the Sentence; and the thing acted upon is in the Nominative Case, and the Agent is accompanied with a Preposition: as, "The Persians were conquered by Alexander."

The action expressed by a Neuter Verb being confined within the Agent, such Verb cannot admit of an Objective Case after it; denoting a person or thing as the Object of action. Whenever a Noun is immediately annexed to a preceding Neuter Verb, it either expresses the same notion with the Verb; as, "to dream a dream; to live a virtuous life;" or denotes only the circumstance of the action, a Preposition being understood; as, "to sleep all night," that is, through
all the night; "to walk a mile," that is, through the space of a mile.

For the same reason, a Neuter Verb cannot become a Passive. In a Neuter Verb the Agent and Object are the same, and cannot be separated even in imagination; as in the examples, to sleep, to walk: but when the Verb is Passive, one thing is acted upon by another, really, or by supposition, different from it (1).

(1) That some Neuter Verbs take a Passive Form, but without a Passive Signification, has been observed above; see p. 61. Here I speak of their becoming both in Form and Signification Passive: and shall endeavour further to illustrate the rule by example. To split, like many other English Verbs, hath both an Active and a Neuter Signification: according to the former we say, "the force of gunpowder split the rock;" according to the latter, "the ship split upon the rock:" and converting the Verb Active into a Passive, we may say, "the rock was split by the force of gunpowder;" or "the ship was split upon the rock." But we cannot say with any propriety, turning the Verb Neuter into a Passive by inversion of the sentence, "the rock was split upon by the ship;" as in the passage following: "What success these labors of mine have had, He knows best, for whose glory they were designed. It will be one sure and comfortable sign to me, that they have had some; if it shall appear, that the words I have spoken to you to-day are not in vain: if they shall prevail with you in any measure to avoid those rocks, which art usually split upon in Elections, where multitudes of different
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

A Noun of Multitude (1), or signifying many, may have the Verb and Pronoun agreeing with it either in the Singular or Plural Number; yet not without regard to the import of the word, as conveying unity or plurality of idea: as, "My people is foolish; they have not known me." Jer. iv. 22. "The assembly of the wicked have inclosed me." Psal. xxii. 16. perhaps more properly than, "hath inclosed me." "The assembly was very numerous:" much more properly than, "were very numerous."

inclinations, capacities, and judgments, are interested." Atterbury, Sermons, IV. 12.

(1) "And restores to his Island that tranquillity and repose, to which they had been strangers during his absence." Pope, Dissertation prefixed to the Odyssey. Island is not a noun of Multitude: it ought to be, his people; or, it had been a stranger. "What reason have the Church of Rome to talk of modesty in this case?" Tillotson, Serm. I. 49. "There is indeed no Constitution so tame and careless of their own defence, where any person dares to give the least sign or intimation of being a traitor in his heart." Addison, Freetholder, No. 52. "All the virtues of mankind are to be counted upon a few fingers, but his follies and vices are innumerable." Swift, Preface to Tale of a Tub. Is not mankind in this place a Noun of Multitude, and such as requires the Pronoun referring to it to be in the Plural Number, their?
Two or more Nouns in the Singular Number joined together by one or more Copulative Conjunctions (1), have Verbs, Nouns, and Pronouns, agreeing with them in the Plural Number: as, "Socrates and Plato were wise; they were the most eminent Philosophers of Greece." But sometimes, after an enumeration of particulars thus connected, the Verb follows in the Singular Number; and is understood as applied to each of the preceding terms: as, — "The glorious Inhabitants of those sacred palaces, where nothing but light and blessed immortality, no shadow of matter for tears, discontentments, griefs, and uncomfortable passions to work upon; but all joy, tranquility, and peace, even for ever and ever doth dwell." Hooker, B. i. 4. "Sand, and salt, and a mass of iron,

(1) The Conjunction Disjunctive hath a contrary effect; and, as the Verb, Noun, or Pronoun, is referred to the preceding terms taken separately, it must be in the Singular Number. The following Sentences are faulty in this respect: "A man may see a metaphor, or an allegory, in a picture, as well as read them (it) in a description. Addison, Dial. I. on Medals. "It must indeed be confessed, that a lampoon, or a satyr, do not carry in them robbery or murder." Id. Spec. No. 23.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

If easier to bear, than a man without understanding. Eccles xxii. 15 (1).

If the Singulargs so joined together are of several Persons, in making the Plural Pronoun agree with them in Person, the second Person takes place of the third, and the first of both: He and You and I won it at the hazard of our lives: You and He shared it between you.

The Neuter Pronoun it is sometimes employed to express, 1. the subject of any discourse or inquiry; 2. the state or condition of any thing or person; 3. the thing, whatever it be, that is the cause of any effect or event; or any person or persons considered merely as a Cause. Examples:

1. "'Twas at the royal feast for Persia won By Philip's godlike son." Dryden.
   It happen'd on a summer's holiday,
   That to the greenwood shade he took his way." Ibid.

(1) "And so was also James and John the sons of Zebedee, which were partners with Simon." Luke, v. 10. Here the two Nouns are not only joined together by the Conjunction Copulative, but are moreover closely connected in sense by the part of the sentence immediately following, in which the correspondent Nouns and Verbs are Plural: the Verb therefore preceding in the Singular Number is highly improper.
INTRODUCTION TO

"Who is it in the press that calls on me?"
Shakspeare, Jul. Cæl

2. "H. How is it with you, Lady!
Q. Alas! how is it with you?"
Shakspeare, Hamlet

3. "You heard her say herself, it was not I.—
'Twas I that kill'd her." Shakspeare, Othello.
"'Tis these, that early taint the female soul."
Pope.

"It rains; it shines; it thunders." From whic
last examples it plainly appears, that there is n
such thing in English, nor indeed in any language
as a sort of Verbs, which are really Imperfona.
The Agent or Person in English is expressed by
the Neuter Pronoun; in some other languages
is omitted, but understood (1).

The Neuter Pronoun it is sometimes omitted
and understood; thus we say, as appears;
follows;" for, "as it appears; as it follows;
and, "may be," for "it may be."

The Verb to be has always a Nominative Ca
after it; as, "It was I, and not He, that did it:

(1) An Example of impropriety, in the use of the Neut
Pronoun, see below, p. 121. note 1.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

unless it be in the Infinitive Mode; "though you thought it to be Him (1)."

The Adverbs, when, while, after, &c. being left out, the Phrase is formed with the Participle, independent on the rest of the Sentence: as, "The doors being shut, Jesus stood in the midst." This is called the Case absolute. And the Case is in English always the Nominative: as,

(1) "Whom do men say, that I am?—But whom say ye, that I am?" Matt. xvi. 13. 15. So likewise Mark, viii. 27. 29. Luke, ix. 18. 20. "Whom think ye, that I am?" Acts, xiii. 25. It ought in all these places to be who; which is not governed by the Verb say or think, but the Verb am: or agrees in Case with the Pronoun I. If the Verb were in the Infinitive Mode, it would require the Objective Case of the Relative, agreeing with the Pronoun me: "Whom think ye, or do ye think, me to be?"

"To that, which once was thee." Prior.

It ought to be, which was thou; or, which thou wast. "It is not me you are in love with." Spec. N° 290. The Proposition with should govern the Relative whom understood, not the Antecedent me; which ought to be I. "It is not I, or, I am not the person, with whom you are in love."

"Art thou proud yet? Ay, that I am not thee." Shakspeare, Timon.

"Time was, when none would cry, that oaf was me; But now you strive about your Pedigree." Dryden, Prologue.

"Impossible! it can't be me." Swift
INTRODUCTION TO

"God from the mount of Sinai, whose gray top Shall tremble, He descending (1), will himself, In thunder, lightning, and loud trumpet's sound, Ordain them laws." Milton, P. L. xii. 227.

(1) On which place, says Dr. Bentley, "The Context demands that it be,—Him descending, Illo descendente." But him is not the Ablative Case, for the English knows no such Case; nor does him without a Preposition on any occasion answer to the Latin Ablative illo. I might with better reason contend, that it ought to be "his descending," because it is in Greek in the Genitive; and it would be as good Grammar, and as proper English. This comes of forcing the English under the rules of a foreign Language, with which it has little concern: and this ugly and deformed fault, to use his own expression, Bentley has endeavoured to impose upon Milton in several places: see P. L. vii. 15. ix. 829. 883. 1147. x. 267. 1001. On the other hand, where Milton has been really guilty of this fault, he, very inconsistently with himself, corrects him, and sets him right. His Latin Grammar Rules were happily out of his head, and, by a kind of vernacular finity, (so, I imagine, he would call it,) he perceived that his Author was wrong.

"For only in destroying I find ease
To my relentless thoughts; and, him destroy'd,
Or won to what may work his utter loss,
For whom all this was made, all this will soon
Follow, as to him link'd in weal or woe."

P. L. ix. 129.

It ought to be, "he destroy'd," that is, "he being destroy'd." Bentley corrects it, "and man destroy'd."
To before a Verb is the sign of the Infinitive Mode: but there are some Verbs, which have commonly other Verbs following them in the Infinitive Mode without the sign to: as, bid, dare, need, make, see, hear, feel; as also let, and sometimes have, not used as Auxiliaries; and perhaps a few others; as, "I bade him do it; you dare not do it; I saw him (1) do it; I heard him say it (2)."

Archbishop Tillotson has fallen into the same mistake: "Solomon was of this mind; and I make no doubt, but he made as wise and true Proverbs as any body has done since: Him only excepted, who was a much greater and wiser man than Solomon." Serm. I. 53.

(1) "To see so many to make so little conscience of so great a sin." Tillotson, Serm. I. 22. "It cannot but be a delightful spectacle to God and Angels to see a young person, besieged by powerful temptations on either side, to acquit himself gloriously, and resolutely to hold out against the most violent assaults: to behold one in the prime and flower of his age, that is courted by pleasures and honors, by the devil and all the bewitching vanities of the world, to reject all these...and to cleave steadfastly unto God." Ib. Serm. 54. The impropriety of the Phrases distinguished by Italic Characters is evident. See Matt. xv. 31.

(2) "What, know you not, That, being mechanical, you ought not walk, Upon a laboring day, without the sign Of your profession?" Shakespeare, Jul. Cæs.
INTRODUCTION TO

The Infinitive Mode is often made Absolute, or used independently of the rest of the sentence; supplying the place of the conjunction that with the Subjunctive Mode: as, “to confess the truth, I was in fault;” “to begin with the first;” “to proceed;” “to conclude;” that is, “that I may confess; &c.”

The Infinitive Mode has much of the nature of a Substantive; expressing the Action itself, which the Verb signifies; as the Participle has the nature of an Adjective. Thus the Infinitive Mode does the office of a Substantive in different Cases; in the Nominative: as, “to play is pleasant;” in the Objective: as, “boys love

Both Grammar and Custom require, “ought not to walk.” Ought is not one of the Auxiliary Verbs, though often reckoned among them: that it cannot be such, is plain from this consideration; that, if we consult custom and our ear, it does not admit of another Verb immediately following it, without the Preposition to.

“To wish him wrestle with affection.”

Shakspeare, Much ado.

“Nor with less dread the loud
Etherial trumpet from on high gan blow.”

Milton, P. L. i. 60.

These phrases are poetical, and by no means allowable in prose.
o play. In Greek it admits of the Article through all its cases, with the Preposition in the Oblique cases: in English the Article is not wanted, but the Preposition may be used: "For to will is present with me; but to perform that which is good I find not." "All their works they do for to be seen of men (1)." But the use of the Preposition, in this and the like phrases, is now become obsolete.

"For not to have been dipp'd in Lethe's lake
Could save the Son of Thetis from to die."

Spenser.

Perhaps therefore the Infinitive, and the Participle, might be more properly called the Substantive Mode, and the Adjective Mode (2).

(1) The following sentences seem defective either in the construction, or the order of the words: "Why do ye that, which is, not lawful to do on the sabbath days? — The shew bread, which is not lawful to eat, but for the priests alone." Luke vi. 2. 4. The Construction may be rectified by supplying it; "which it is not lawful to do; which it is not lawful to eat:" or the order of the words in this manner; "to do which, to eat which, is not lawful:" where the Infinitive to do, to eat, does the office of the Nominative Case, and the Relative which is in the Objective Case.

(2) "Here you may see, that visions are to dread."

Dryden, Fables.
The Participle with a Preposition before it and still retaining its Government, answers to what is called in Latin the Gerund: as, "Happiness is to be attained, by avoiding evil, and by doing good; by seeking peace, and by pursuing it."

The Participle, with an Article before it, and the Preposition of after it, becomes a Substantive, expressing the action itself which the Verb signifies (1): as, "These are the Rules of Grammar,

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

(1) This rule arises from the nature and idiom of our Language; and from as plain a principle, as any on which it is founded: namely, that a word which has the Article before it, and the Possessive Preposition of after it, must be a Noun, and if a Noun, it ought to follow the Construction of a Noun, and not to have the Regimen of a Verb. It is the Participial Termination of this sort of words that is apt to deceive us, and make us treat them as if they were of an amphibious species, partly Nouns, and partly Verbs. I believe, there are hardly any of our writers, who have not fallen into this inaccuracy. That it is such will perhaps more clearly appear,
by the observing of which you may avoid mistakes."
Dr it may be expressed by the Participle, or Ge-

f we examine and resolve one or two examples in this
kind.

"God, who didst teach the hearts of thy faithful people,
by the sending to them the light of thy Holy Spirit: " — Col-
ea, Whit-Funday. Sending is in this place a Noun; for it
is accompanied with the Article: nevertheless it is also a
Transitive Verb, for it governs the Noun light in the Ob-
jective Case; but this is inconsistent; let it be either the one
or the other, and abide by its proper Construction. That
these Participial Words are sometimes real Nouns is unde-
niable, for they have a Plural Number as such: as, "the
outgoings of the morning." The Sending is the same with the
Misson; which necessarily requires the Preposition of after it,
to mark the relation between it and the light; the mission of
the light; and so, the sending of the light. The phrase would
be proper either way; by keeping to the Construction of
the Noun, by the sending of the light; or of the Participle, or
Gerund, by sending the light.

Again: — "Sent to prepare the way of thy Son our Sa-
vior, by preaching of Repentance: " — Collea, St. John
Baptist. Here the Participle, or Gerund, hath as impro-
perly the Preposition of after it; and so is deprived of its
Verbal Regimen, by which, as a Transitive, it would govern
the Noun Repentance in the Objective Case. Besides, the
phrase is rendered obscure and ambiguous: for the obvious
meaning of it in its present form is, "by preaching con-
terning Repentance, or on that Subject; " whereas the sen-
se intended is, "by publishing the Covenant of Repentance,
and declaring Repentance to be a condition of Acceptance.
rund, "by observing which," not, "by observing of which;" nor, "by the observing which:" for either of those two Phrases would be a confounding of two distinct forms.

I will add another example, and that of the best authority: "The middle station of life seem to be the most advantageously situated for gaining of wisdom. Poverty turns our thoughts too much upon the supplying of our wants, and riches upon enjoying our superfluities." Addison, Spect. No 464.

The Participle is often made Absolute, in the same manner, and to the same sense, as the Infinitive Mode: as, "This, generally speaking, is the consequence."

The Participle frequently becomes altogether with God." The phrase would have been perfectly right, and determinate to this sense, either way; by the Noun, by the preaching of repentance; or by the Participle, by preaching repentance.

"So well-bred Spaniels civilly delight
In mumbling of the game, they dare not bite."

Pope, Epist. to Arbuthnot.

"By continual mortifying our corrupt affections." Collet, Easter-Eve. It ought to be, by the continual mortifying of, or, by, continually mortifying, our corrupt affections.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

an Adjective; when it is joined to a Substantive merely to denote its quality; without any respect to time; expressing, not an Action, but a Habit; and, as such, it admits of the degrees of Comparison: as, "a learned, a more learned, a most learned man; a loving, more loving, most loving father (1)."

(1) In a few instances the Active Present Participle hath been vulgarly used in a Passive Sense: as, beholding for being; owing for own. And some of our writers are not quite free from this mistake: "I would not be beholding to fortune for any part of the victory." Sidney.

"I'll teach you all what's owing to your Queen." Dryden.

"The debt, owing from one country to the other cannot be paid without real effects sent thither to that value." Locke.

"We have the means in our hands, and nothing but the application of them is wanting." Addison.

"His estate is dipp'd, and is eating out with usury." Steele, Spect. No 114.

So likewise the Passive Participle is often employed in an Active Sense in the word mistaken, used instead of miscasting:

"You are too much mistaken in this King." Shakspere, Hen. V.

"I mistake; or, "I am misstaking;" means, "I misunderstand:" but, "I am mistaken," means properly, "I misunderstood."
INTRODUCTION TO

Simple Sentences are 1. Explicative, or explaining: 2. Interrogative, or asking: 3 Imperative, or commanding (1).

1. An explicative Sentence is, when a thing said to be, or not to be; to do, or not to do; to suffer, or not to suffer; in a direct manner as in the foregoing examples. If the Sentence be Negative, the Adverb not is placed after the Auxiliary; or after the Verb itself, when it has

But in some of these Participles the Abuse is so authorized by Custom, as almost to have become an Idiom of the language.

(1) These are the three Primary Modes, or manners of expressing our thoughts concerning the being, doing, or suffering of a thing. If it comes within our knowledge, we explain it, or make a declaration of it; if we are ignorant of it or doubtful, we make an inquiry about it; if it is not immediately in our power, we express our desire or will concerning it. In Theory, therefore, the Interrogative seems to have as good a title to a Mode of its own, as either of the other two: but Practice has determined it otherwise; and has, in all the Languages with which we are much acquainted, supplied the place of an Interrogative Mode either by Particles of Interrogation, or by a peculiar order of the words in the sentence. If it be true, as I have somewhat read, that the Modes of the Verbs are more numerous than any other, possibly the Lapland may be provided with an Interrogative Mode.
no Auxiliary: as, "it did not touch him;" or, "it touched him not (1)."

2. In an Interrogative Sentence, or when a Question is asked, the Nominative case follows the Principal Verb, or the Auxiliary: as, "was it he?" "did Alexander conquer the Persians?"
And the Verb there, accompanying the Verb Neuter, is also placed after the Verb: as, "was there a man?" So that the Question depends entirely on the order of the words (2).

(1) "The burning lever not deludes his pains."
Dryden, Ovid. Metam. B. xii.
"I hope, my Lord, said he, I not offend."
Dryden, Fables.

These examples make the impropriety of placing the Adverb not before the Verb very evident. Shakspeare frequently places the Negative before the Verb:
"She not denies it."
Much ado.
"For men
Can counsel, and give comfort to that grief,
Which they themselves not feel."
Ibid.

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

(2) "Did he not fear the Lord, and besought the Lord, and the Lord repented him of the evil, which he had pronounced against them." Jer. xxvi. 19. Here the Interrogative and Explicative forms are confounded. It ought to be, "Did

1 3
3. In an Imperative Sentence, when a thing is commanded to be, to do, to suffer, or not; the Nominative case follows the Verb, or the Auxiliary as, "Go, thou traytor;" or, "do thou go:" or the Auxiliary let, with the Objective (1) case after it, is used as, "let us be gone (2)."

he not fear the Lord, and beseech the Lord? and did not the Lord repent him of the evil—?" "If a man have an hundred sheep, and one of them be gone astray, doth he not leave the ninety and nine, and goeth into the mountains, and seeketh that which is gone astray?" Matth. xviii. 12. It ought to be, go, and seek; that is, "doth he not go, and seek that which is gone astray;"

(1) "For ever in this humble cell
Let Thee and I, my fair one, dwell." Prior,

It ought to be Me.

(2) It is not easy to give particular rules for the management of the Modes and Times of Verbs with respect to one another, so that they may be proper and consisient: not would it be of much use; for the best rule that can be given is this very general one, To observe what the sense necessarily requires. But it may be of use to consider a few examples, that seem faulty in these respects; and to examine where the fault lies.

"Some, who the depths of eloquence have found,
In that unnavigable stream were drown'd."

Dryden, Juv. Sat. x.

The event mentioned in the first line is plainly prior in time to that mentioned in the second: this is subsequent to that,
The adjective in English, having no variation of Gender or Number, cannot but agree with

and a consequence of it. The first event is mentioned in the Present Perfect Time; it is present and completed; "they have (now) found the depths of eloquence." The second event is expressed in the Past Indefinite Time; it is past and gone, but, when it happened, uncertain: "they were drown'd."

We observed, that the last-mentioned event is subsequent to the first; but how can the Past Time be subsequent to the Present? It therefore ought to be, in the second line, are, or have been, drown'd, in the Present Indefinite, or Perfect; which is consistent with the Present Perfect Time in the first line: or, in the first line, had found in the Past Perfect; which would be consistent with the Past Indefinite in the second line.

"Friend to my life, which did not you prolong,
The world had wanted many an idle song."

Pope, Epist. to Arbuthnot.

It ought to be, either, had not you prolonged; or, would want.

There seems to be a fault of the like nature in the following passage:

"But oh! 'twas little that her life
O'er earth and waters bears thy fame." Prior.

It ought to be bore, in the second line.

Again:

"Him portion'd maids, apprentice'd orphans blest,
The young who labor, and the old who rest." Pope, Moral Ep. iii. 267.

"Fierce as he mov'd, his silver shafts resound." Iliad, B. i.
INTRODUCTION TO

the Substantive in those respects; some of the Pronominal Adjectives only excepted, which

The first Verb ought to be in the same Time with the following.

"Great Queen of Arms, whose favor Tydeus won,
As thou defend'st the fire, defend the son."

Pope, Iliad x. 337.

It ought to be defend'd.

"Had their records been delivered down in the vulgar tongue,—they could not now be understood, unless by Antiquaries, who made it their study to expound them.

Swift, Letter on the English Tongue. Here the latter part of the sentence depends entirely on the Supposition expressed in the former, "of their records being delivered down in the vulgar tongue;" therefore made in the Indicative Mode, which implies no Supposition, and in the Past Indefinite Time is improper: it would be much better in the Past Definite and Perfect, had made; but indeed ought to be in the Subjunctive Mode, Present or Past Time, should make, or should have made.

"And Jesus answered, and said unto him, What wilt thou that I should do unto thee? The blind Man said unto him, Lord, that I might receive my sight." Mark, x. 51. "This I may know him, and the power of his resurrection, and the fellowship of his sufferings, being made conformable unto his death; if by any means I might attain unto the resurrection of the dead." Phil. iii. 10, 11. It ought to be made in both places. See also John, ix. 39. Ephes. iii. 1 Col. i. 9, 10.

"On the morrow, because he would have known
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

have the Plural number: as, these, those: which must agree in Number (1) with their Substantives.

certainty, wherefore he was accused of the Jews, he loosed him." Acts, xxii. 30. It ought to be, because he would know; or rather, being willing to know:

"I thought to have written last week," is a very common phrase: the Infinitive being in the Past Time, as well as the Verb, which it follows. But it is certainly vicious: for how long soever it now is since I thought, to write was then present to me; and must still be considered as present, when I bring back that time, and the thoughts of it. It ought to be therefore, "I thought to write last week." "I can not excuse the remissness of those, whose business it should have been, as it certainly was their interest, to have interposed their good offices." Swift. "There were two circumstances, which would have made it necessary for them to have lost no time." Ibid. "History Painters would have found it difficult, to have invented such a species of beings." Addison, Dial. I. on Medals. It ought to be, to interpose, to lose, to invent.

(1) "By this means thou shalt have no portion on this side the river." Ezra, iv. 16. It renders us careless of approving ourselves to God by religious duties, and by that means securing the continuance of his goodness." Atterbury, Sermons. Ought it not to be, by these means, by these means? or by this mean, by that mean, in the singular number? as it is used by Hooker, Sidney, Shakspeare, &c.

"We have strict statutes, and most biting laws,
Which for this nineteen years we have let sleep."

Shakspeare, Meaf. for Meaf.

"I have not wept this forty years." Dryden. "If I had not left off troubling myself about those kind of things." Swift,
INTRODUCTION TO

Nouns of Measure, Number, and Weight, are sometimes joined in the Singular form with Numeral Adjectives denoting Plurality: as, "fifty foot; six score."

"Ten thousand fathom deep."
Milton, P.L. ii. 934.

"A hundred head of Aristotle's friends."
Pope, Dunciad, iv. 193.

"About an hundred pound weight."
John xix. 39.

The Adjective generally goes before the Noun:

Letter to Steele. "I fancy they are these kind of Gods, which Horace mentions in his allegorical vessel." Addison, Dial. II. on Medals. "I am not recommending these kind of sufferings to your liking." Bishop Sherlock, Vol. II. Disc. xi.

The foregoing phrases are all improper. So the Pronoun must agree with its Noun: in which respect let the following example be considered. "It is an unanswerable argument of a very refined age, the wonderful civilities that have passed between the nation of authors and that of readers." Swift, Tale of a Tub, Sec. x. As to these wonderful Civilities, one might say, that "they are an unanswerable argument, &c." but as the Sentence stands at present, it is not easy to reconcile it to any grammatical propriety. A person (that is, one) whom all the world allows to be so much your betters." Swift, Battle of Books. "His face was easily taken either in painting or sculpture; and scarce any one, though never so indifferently skilled in their art, failed to hit it." Welwood's Memoirs, p. 68, 6th Edit.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR. 123

as, "a wise man; a good horse;" unless something depend on the Adjective; as, "food convenient for me:" or the Adjective be emphatical; as, "Alexander the great:" and it stands immediately before the Noun, unless the Verb to be, or any Auxiliary joined to it, come between the Adjective and the Noun; as, "happy is the man; happy shall he be." And the Article goes before the Adjective: except the Adjectives, all, such, and many, and others subjoined to the Adverbs, so, as, and how: as, "all the men;" "such a man;" "many a man;" "so good a man;" "as good a man as ever lived;" "how beautiful a prospect is here!" And sometimes, when there are two or more Adjectives joined to the Noun, the Adjectives follow the Noun: as, "a man learned and religious."

There are certain Adjectives, which seem to be derived without any variation from Verbs, and have the same signification with the Passive Participles of their Verbs: they are indeed no other than Latin Passive Participles adapted to the English termination; as, annihilate, contaminate, elate.
INTRODUCTION TO

"To destruction sacred and devote." Milton.
"The alien compost is exhausted." Philips, Cyder.

These (some few excepted, which have gained admission into common discourse,) are much more frequently, and more allowable, used in poetry, than in prose (1).

The Distributive Pronominal Adjectives each every, either, agree with the Nouns, Pronouns, and Verbs of the Singular number only (2): as,

(1) Adjectives of this sort are sometimes very improperly used, with the Auxiliary have, or had, instead of the Active Participle: as, "Which also King David did dedicate unto the Lord, with the silver and gold that he had dedicated of all nations which he subdued." 2 Sam. viii. 11. "And Jehoash took all the hallowed things, that—his fathers, kings of Judah, had dedicated." 2 Kings, xii. 18. So likewise Dan. iii. 19. It ought to be, had dedicated. "When both interests of Tyranny and Episcopacy were incorporated into each other." Milton, Eikonoclast. xvii.

(2) "Let each esteem other better than themselves." Phil. ii. 3. It ought to be, himself. "It is requisite, that the language of an heroic poem should be both perpicious and sublime. In proportion as either of these two qualities are (is) wanting, the language is imperfect." Addison, Spect. No. 285. "Tis observable, that every one of the Letters bear date after his banishment; and contain a compleat Narrative of all his
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

"The king of Israel and Jehosaphat the king of Judah fat, each (king) on his throne, having (both) put on their robes." 1 Kings, xxii. 10. "Every tree is known by his own fruit." Luke, vi. 44.

"Lepidus flatters both,
Of both is flatter'd; but he neither loves,
Nor either cares for him."
Shakspeare, Ant. and Cleop.

story afterwards." Bentley, Differt. on Themistocles's Epistles, Sed. ii. It ought to be bears, and they contain.

There is a like impropriety in the following Sentence: "I do not mean by what I have said, that I think any one to blame for taking due care of their health." Addison, Spec. No. 25.

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

Unless the Plural Noun convey a Collective as, "that every twelve Years there should forth two ships." Bacon.

Every Verb; except in the Infinitive, Participle, hath its Nominative case, either pressed or implied (1) as,

(1) "Forasmuch as it hath pleased Almighty God, and in the great danger of Childbirth:" — Liturgy. The hath preferred hath here no Nominative case; for it be properly supplied by the preceding word God, in the Objective case. It ought to be, "and He hath you;" or rather, "and to preserve you." Some of writers have frequently fallen into this inaccuracy, and to me to be no small one: I shall therefore a more examples of it, by way of admonition; insomuch, within Crotchets, the Nominative case that cient, and that must necessarily be supplied to sup proper Construction of the Sentence. "If the calm, he was born, and (which) lasted so long, had cont Clarendon, Life, p. 43. "The Remonstrance he fully received from the House of Commons, and (which) dispersed throughout the Kingdom." Clarendon, Hist p. 366. 8vo. These we have extracted from an Hilp undoubted credit, a reverend bishop, the learned Jovius; and (they) are the same that were praise the pontificate of Leo X." Pope, Of the Poet "A cloud gathering in the North; which we have h raise, and (which) may quickly break in a storm u
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

"Awake, arise, or be for ever fall'n:"

that is, "Awake ye, &c."

Every Nominative case, except the case Absolute, and when an address is made to a Person, belongs to some Verb, either expressed or implied (1): as in the answer to a Question:

heads. " Swift, Conduct of the Allies. "A man, whose inclinations led him to be corrupt, and (who) had great abilities to manage and multiply and defend his corruptions." Gulliver, Part I. Chap. vi. "My Master likewise mentioned another quality, which his servants had discovered in many Yahoos, and (which) to him was wholly unaccountable." Gulliver, Part iv. Chap. vii. "This I filled with the feathers of several birds I had taken with springs made of Yahoos hairs, and (which) were excellent food." Ibid. Chap. x. "Ophius, whom the Grecians call Dlonyius, and (who) is the same with Bacchus." Swift, Mechan. Oper. of the Spirit, Sec. ii.

"Which Homer might without a blush rehearse,
And leaves a doubtful palm in Virgil's verse."

Dryden, Fables, Dedication.

a Will martial flames for ever fire thy mind,
And never, never be to heav'n resign'd!"

Odyssey, xii. 145.

"And will (it, thy mind,) never — "

(1) "Which rule, if it had been observed, a neighbouring Prince would have wanted a great deal of that incense, which hath been offered up to him by his adorers." Atterbury, Serm. I. 1. The Pronoun it is here the Nominative case to
INTRODUCTION TO

"Who wrote this book? Cicero:" tll
"Cicero wrote it." Or when the Verb
derstood; as,
"To whom thus Adam:" that is, spitake.

Every Postessive case supposes some Note
which it belongs: as when we say, "St.
or St. James's," we mean St. Paul's or
or St. James's Palace.

Every Adjective has relation to some Sensitive, either expressed or implied: as,
Twelve," that is, Apostles; "the wife, the that is, persons.

In some instances the Adjective becomes
Flantive, and has an Adjective joined to
"the chief Good;" "Evil, be thou my Good
the Verb observed; and which rule is left by itself, native case without any Verb following it. This exam expression, however improper, is very common.

to be, "If this rule had been observed, &c." "We
better materials to compound the Priesthood of, the mass of mankind: which, corrupted as it is, those
ceive Orders mu have some vices to leave behind when they enter into the Church." Swift, Sentiment of
Church of England man.

(1) Adjectives are sometimes employed as Adver
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

In others, the Substantive becomes an Adjective, or supplies its place; being prefixed to another Substantive, and linked to it by a mark properly, and not agreeably to the Genius of the English Language. As, "indifferent honest, excellent well": Shakespeare, Hamlet. "extreme elaborate": Dryden, Essay on Dram. Poet. "marvellous graceful": "Clarendon, Life, p. 18. "marvellous worthy to be praised": Psal. cxliv. 3. For so the Translators gave it. "extreme unwilling": "extreme subject": Swift, Tale of a Tub, and Battle of Books. "extraordinary rare": Addison, on Medals. "He behaved himself conformable to that blessed example." Spots's Sermons, p. 80. "I shall endeavour to live hereafter suitable to a man in my station." Addison, Spec. No. 530. "The Queen having changed her ministry suitable to her own wisdom." Swift, Examin. No. 21. "The assertions of this Author are safer detected." Swift, Public Spirit of the Whigs. "The Characteristic of his Seat allowed him to aim no stronger than that." Bentley, Phil. Lipf. Remark liii. If one author had spoken nobler and loftier than another." Ibid. "Xenophon says express." Ibid. Remark lxxiv. "I can never think so very mean of him." Ibid. Dissertation on Phalnis, p. 24. "Homer describes this river agreeable to the vulgar reading." Pope, Note on Iliad ii. ver. 1032. So exceeding, for exceedingly, however improper, occurs frequently in the Vulgar Translation of the Bible, and has obtained in common discourse "Many men reason exceeding clear and rightly, who know not how to make a syllogism." Locke. "We should live soberly, righteously, and godly in this present world." Tit. ii. 12. See also 2 Tim. iii. 12. "To convince all that are ungodly among them, of all their ungodly deeds, which
INTRODUCTION TO

of conjunction: as, "sea-water; land-tortoise; forest-tree."

they have ungodly committed." Jude, 15. "I think it very masterly written." Swift to Pope, Letter lxiv.

"O Liberty, Thou Goddess heavenly bright." Addison.

The Termination ly, being a contradiction of like, expresses similitude, or manner; and being added to Nouns, forms Adjectives; and, added to Adjectives, forms Adverbs. But Adverbs expressing similitude, or manner, cannot be so formed from Nouns: the few Adverbs, that are so formed, have a very different import: as daily, yearly; that is, day by day, year by year. Early, both Adjective and Adverb, is formed from the Saxon Preposition, er, before. The Adverbs therefore above noted are not agreeable to the Analogy of formation established in our Language, which requires godly, ungodly, heavenly: but these are disagreeable to the ear, and therefore could never gain admittance into common use.

The word lively, used as an Adverb, instead of vivitily, is liable to the same objection; and, not being so familiar to the ear, immediately offends it. "That part of poetry must needs be best, which describes most lively our actions and passions, our virtues and our vices." Dryden, Pref. to State of Innocence. "The whole design must refer to the Golden Age, which it lively represents." Addison, on Medals, Dial. II.

On the other hand, an Adverb is improperly used as an Adjective in the following passages. "We may call in such seeds and principles, as we judge most likely to take soonest and deepest root." Tillotson, Vol. I. Serm. 59.

"After these wars, of which they hope for a soon and
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

ADVERBS have no Government. (1).

The Adverb, as its name imports, is generally placed close or near to the word, which it modifies or affects; and its propriety and force depends on its position (2). Its place for the most part is before Adjectives; after Verbs Active or Neuter; and it frequently stands between the Auxiliary and the Verb: as, "He made a very degant harangue; he spake unaffectedly and forci-

prosperous issue." Sidney. "Use a little wine for thy stomach's sake, and thine often infirmities." 1 Tim. v. 23. Unless soon and often were formerly Adjectives, though now wholly obsolete in that form. See Johnson's Dictionary; Oftentimes and Soonly.

(1) "How much forever the reformation of this corrupt and degenerate age is almost utterly to be despaired of, we may yet have a more confortable prospect of future times." Tillotson, I. Pref. to Serm. 49. The first part of this Sentence abounds with Adverbs; and those such, as are hardly consistent with one another.

(2) Thus it is commonly said, "I only spake three words;" when the intention of the speaker manifestly requires, "I spake only three words;"

"Her body shaded with a slight cymarr,
Her bosom to the view was only bare."

Dryden, Cymon and Iphig.

The sense necessarily requires this order,

"Her bosom only to the view was bare."

K 2
bly; and was attentively heard by the whole audience."

Two Negatives in English destroy one another, or are equivalent to an Affirmative (1): as,

"Nor did they not perceive the evil plight
In which they were, or the fierce pain not feel."
Milton, P. L. i. 335.

Prepositions have a Government of Cases: and in English they always require the Objective

(1) The following are examples of the contrary:

"Give not me counsel;
Nor let no comforter delight mine ear."
Shakspeare; Much ado.

"She cannot love,
Nor take no shape nor project of affection." Ibid.

Shakspeare uses this construction frequently. It is a relic of the ancient style, abounding with Negatives; which is not grown wholly obsolete:

"And of his port as make as is a mayde:
He never yet no villain ne sayde
In alle his lif unto no manerere wight.
He was a very parfit gentil knight." Chaucer.

"I cannot by no means allow him, that this argument my prove, — " Bentley, DiSSERT. on Phalaris, p. 515. "Th. we need not, nor do not, confine the purposes of God. Id. Sermon 8,"
Cafe after them: as, "with him; from her; to me (1)."

The Preposition is often separated from the Relative which it governs, and joined to the Verb at the end of the Sentence, or of some member of it: as, "Horace is an author, whom I am much delighted with." "The world is too well bred to shock authors with a truth, which generally their booksellers are the first that inform them of," (2). This is an idiom, which our language is strongly inclined to: it prevails in common conversation, and suits very well with the familiar style in writing: but the placing of the

(1) "Who servest thou under?" Shakspeare, Hen. V.
   "Who do you speak to?" "As you like it.
   "I'll tell you, who Time ambles withal, who Time trots withal, who Time gallops withal, and who he stands still withal.
   "I pr'ythee, whom doth he trot withal?" Ibid.
   "We are still much at a loss, who civil power belongs to?" Locke.
In all these places, it ought to be whom.
   "Now Margaret's curse is fall'n upon our heads,
   When she exclam'd on Haflings, you, and I."
   Shakspeare, Rich. III.

It ought to be me.

(2) Pope, Preface to his Poems.

K 3
Preposition before the Relative is more graceful as well as more perspicuous; and agrees much better with the solemn and elevated style (1).

Verbs are often compounded of a Verb and a Preposition; as to uphold, to outweigh, to overlook; and this composition sometimes gives a new sense to the Verb; as, to understand, to withdraw, to forgive (1). But in English the Preposition is more frequently placed after the Verb, and separate from it, like an Adverb: in which situation it is no 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

(1) Some writers separate the Preposition from its Noun, in order to connect different Prepositions with the same Noun: as, “To suppose the Zodiac and Planets to be efficient of, and antecedent to, themselves.” Bentley, Serm. 6. This, whether in the familiar or the solemn style, is always inelegant; and should never be admitted, but in Forms of Law, and the like, where fulness and exactness of expression must take place of every other consideration.

(2) With in composition retains the signification, which it has among others in the Saxon, of from and against: as to withhold, to withstand. So also for has a negative signification, from the Saxon; as, to forbid, forbeadan; to forget, forgitan.
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 (1).

(1) Examples of impropriety in the use of the Preposition, in phrases of this kind. "Your character, which I, or any other writer, may now value ourselves by (upon) drawing." Swift, Letter on the English Tongue. "You have bestowed your favors to (upon) the most deserving persons." Ibid. "Upon such occasions as fell into (under) their cognizance." Swift, Contests and Difficulties, &c. Chap. iii. "That variety of fictions into (in) which we are still engaged." Ibid. Chap. v. "To restore myself into (to) the good graces of my fair Critics." Dryden, Pref. to Aureng. "Accused the minister for (of) betraying the Dutch." Swift, Four last years of the Queen, Book ii. "Ovid, whom you accuse for (of) luxuriance of verse." Dryden, on Dram. Poetry. "The people of England may congratulate to themselves, that." — Dryden. "Something like this has been reproached to Tacitus." Bolingbroke, on History, Vol. I. p. 136. "He was made much on (of) at Argos." — "He is so resolved of (on) going to the Persian Court." Bentley, Dissert. on Themistocles's Epistles, Sec. iii. "Neither the one nor the other shall make me swerve out of (from) the path, which I have traced to myself." Bolingbroke, Letter to Wyndham, p. 252.

"And virgins smil'd at what they blush'd before: " "at what they blush'd (at.)" Pope, Essay on Crit. "They are now reconciled by a zeal for their cause to what they
INTRODUCTION TO

As the Preposition subjoined to the Verb the construction and nature of an Adverb

could not be prompted (to) by a concern for their be.

Addison, Spec. No. 81. "If policy can prevail upon force." Addison, Travels, p. 62. "I do likewise

with (from) the Examiner." Addison, Whig-Exam.

"Ye blind guides, which strain at a gnat, and swa
camel." Matt. xxiii. 24. "which strain out, or take

out of the liquor by straining it:" the impropriety

Preposition has wholly destroyed the meaning of the

"No discouragement for the authors to proceed."

a Tub, Preface. "A strict observance after times and fast

Ibid. Sect. ii. "Which had a much greater share of

him, than any regards after his father's commands.

Sect. vi. "Not from any personal hatred to them,

justification to (of) the best of Queens." Swift, Exa

No. 23. In the last example, the Verb being Tranquil

requiring the Objective Case, the Noun formed from it
to require the Possessive Case, or its Preposition, a

Or perhaps he meant to say, "in justice to the best of Quee

Observe also, that the Noun generally requires after

same Preposition, as the Verb from which it is formed

was perfectly in compliance to (with) some per son

whose opinion I have great deference." Swift, E

Temple's Memoirs. "The wisest Princes need not to

any diminution to (of) their greatness, or derogation to

their sufficiency, to rely upon counsel." Bacon, E

So the Noun areflection, (that is, a turning away,) as the

Adjective atverse, seems to require the Preposition

after it; and not so properly to admit of to, or for,

are often used with it.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR

the Adverbs, here, there, where, with a Preposition subjoined, as hereof, therewith, whereupon (1), have the construction and nature of Pronouns.

The Prepositions to and for are often understood, chiefly before the Pronoun; as, "give me the book; get me some paper;" that is, to me, for me (1).

(1) These are much confused in common discourse, and are retained only in the Solemn, or Formulary style. "They, our Authors, have of late, 'tis true, reformed in some measure the gouty joints and darning-work of whereunto's, whereby's, thereof's, therewith's, and the rest of this kind; by which complicated periods are so curiously strung, or hooked on, one to another, after the long-spun manner of the bar or pulpit." Lord Shaftesbury, Miscell. V.

"Fра sche thir wourdis had sаyd."

Gawin Douglas, Æn. x.

"Thir wikit schrewis."

Ibid. Æn. xii.

That is, "these words: " these wicked shrews." They, these, or those, masculine; that, these, or those, feminine, in Islandick. Hence, perhaps, thereof, therewith, &c. of, with, them; and so, by analogy, the rest of this class of words.

(2) Or in these and the like phrases, may not me, thee, him, her, us, which in Saxon are the Dative cases of their respective Pronouns, be considered as still continuing such in the English, and including in their very form the force of the Prepositions to and for? There are certainly some other Phrases, which are to be resolved in this manner: "Wo is
INTRODUCTION TO

The Preposition in, or on, is often understood before Nouns expressing Time: as, "this day; next month; last year:" that is, "on this day;" "in next month;" "in last year."

In Poetry, the common Order of words is me!" The phrase is pure Saxon: "wa is me!" me is the Daive cafe; in English, with the Preposition, to me. So, "methinks:" Saxon, "me thinflb:" "As us thoughte:" Sir John Maundeville. "Methoughts, this short interval of silence has had more music in it, than any of the same space of time before or after it." Addison, Tatler, No. 133. See also Spe. N° 3 and 63. It ought to be, methought. "The Lord do that which seemeth him good." 2 Sam. x. 12. See also 1 Sam. iii. 18. 2 Sam. xviii. 4. "He shall dwell with thee, — in one of thy gates, where it liketh him best." Deut. xxiii. 16. See also Ex. viii. 8. "O well is thee!" Psal. cxxviii. 2. "Wel his the, id est, bene est tibi." Simeon Dunelm, apud X. Scriptores, col. 135. "Wel is him that ther mai be." Anglo-Saxon Poem in Hickes's Thesaur. Vol. I. p. 231. "Well is him, that dwelleth with a wife of understanding." — "Well is him, that hath found prudence." Eccles. xxv. 8, 9. The Translator thought to correct his phrase afterward; and so hath made it neither Saxon nor English: "Well is he, that is defended from it. Eccles. xxviii. 19. "Wo worth the day!" Ezek. xxx. 2. that is, "Wo be to the day." The word worth is not the Adjective, but the Saxon Verb worthan, or worthan, seris, to be, to become; which is often used by Chaucer, and is still retained as an Auxiliary Verb in the German Language.
frequently inverted; in all ways, in which it may be done without ambiguity or obscurity.

Two or more Simple Sentences, joined together by one or more CONNECTIVE words, become a compounded Sentence.

There are two Sorts of words, which connect Sentences: 1. Relatives; 2. Conjunctions.

Examples: 1. "Blessed is the man, who feareth the Lord." 2. "Life is short, and art is long." 1. and 2. "Blessed is the man, who feareth the Lord, and keepeth his commandments."

The Relatives, who, which, that, having no variation of gender or number, cannot but agree with their Antecedents. Who is appropriated to persons; and so may be accounted Masculine and Feminine only: we apply which now to things only; and to Irrational Animals, excluding them from Personality, without any consideration of Sex: which therefore may be accounted Neuter. But formerly they were both indifferently used of persons: "Our Father, which art in heaven." That is used indifferently both of persons and things; but it would better
INTRODUCTION TO

become the solemn style to refrain it more to the latter, than is usually done. What includes both the Antecedent and the Relative: as, "This was what he wanted;" that is, "the thing which he wanted (1)."

The Relative is the Nominative Case to the Verb, when no other Nominative comes between it and the Verb: but when another Nominative comes between it and the Verb, the Relative is governed by some word in its own member of the Sentence: as, "The God, who preserveth me; whose I am, and whom I serve (2)."

(1) That has been used in the same manner, as including the Relative which; but it is either improper, or obsolete: as, "To consider advisedly of that is moved." Bacon, Essay xxi. "We speak that we do know, and testify that we have seen." John iii. 11. So likewise the Neuter Pronoun it: as, "By this also a man may understand, when it is that men may be said to be conquered; and in what the nature of Conquest and the Right of a Conqueror consisteth: for this Submission is it (that which) implyeth them all." Hobbes, Leviathan, Conclusion. "And this is it (that which) men mean by distributive Justice, and (which) is properly termed Equity." Hobbes, Elements of Law, Part I. Chap. iv. 2.

(2) "Who, instead of going about doing good, they are perpetually intent upon doing mischief." Tillotson, Serm. I. 18. The Nominative Case they in this sentence is super-
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

Because in the different Members of the sentence, the Relative performs a different office: in the first member it represents the Agent; in the second the Possessor; in the third the Object of an action; and therefore must be in the different Cases, corresponding to those Offices.

Every Relative must have an Antecedent to which it refers, either expressed, or understood: as, "Who steals my purse, steals trash:" that is, "the man, who — ."

The Relative is of the same person with the Antecedent; and the Verb agrees with it accordingly: as, "Who is this, that cometh from Edom; this, that is glorious in his apparel? I, that speak in righteousness." Isaiah lxiii. 1. "O Shepherd of Israel; Thou, that leavest Joseph like a flock; Thou, that dwellest between the Cherubims." Psal. lxxx. 1. (1).

fluous: it was expressed before in the Relative who. "Commend me to an argument that, like a Flail, there's no Fence against it." Bentley, Diex t. on Euripides's Epistles, Sect. i. If that be designed for a Relative, it ought to be which, governed by the Preposition against, and it is superfluous: thus, "against which there is no fence:" but if that be a Conjunction, it ought to be in the preceding member, "such an argument." (1) "I am the Lord, that maketh all things; that stretcheth
INTRODUCTION TO

When this, that, these, those, refer to a preceding Sentence; this, or these, refers to the
forth the heavens alone:—Isaiah xliiv. 24. Thus far is
right: the Lord in the third Person is the Antecedent, and
the Verb agrees with the Relative in the third Person: "I
am the Lord, which Lord, or He that, maketh all things."
It would have been equally right if I had been made the An-
tecedent, and the Relative and the Verb had agreed with it
in the First Person: "I am the Lord, that make all things."
Put when it follows, "that spreadeth abroad the earth by my-
self;" there arises a confusion of Persons, and a manifest
Solecism.

"Thou great first Cause, least understood!
Who all my sense confin'd
To know but this, that Thou art good,
And that myself am blind:
Yet gave me in this dark estate, &c."

Pope, Universal Prayer.

It ought to be, confined, or didst confine; gavest, or didst
give; &c. in the second Person.

"O Thou supreme! high thron'd all height above!
O great Pelasgic, Dodonean Jove!
Who 'midst surrounding frosts, and vapours chill,
Preside on bleak Dodona's vocal hill!"

Pope, Iliad. xvi. 284.

"Nor thou, lord Arthur, shalt escape:
To thee I often call'd in vain,
Against that assassin in crape;
Yet thou couldst tamely see me slain.
Nor when I felt the dreadful blow,
Or chid the dean, or pinch'd thy spouse."

Swift, Market-hill Thur.

See above, p. 47. Note.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR. 143

ter member or term; that, or those, to the termer; as.

Self-love, the spring of motion, acts the soul;cause's comparing balance rules the whole:
lan, but for that, no action could attend;
and, but for this, were active to no end.

Pope, Essay on Man.

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

Ibid.

The Relative is often understood, or omitted:
as, "The man I love;" that is, "whom I love (1)."

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

That is, "all whom he lov'd, or who lov'd him:" or, to make it more easy by supplying a Relative that has no variation of cases, "all that he lov'd, or that lov'd him." The Construction is hazardous, and hardly justifiable, even in Poetry. "In the temper of mind he was then." Addison, Spect. No. 549. "In the posture I lay." Swift, Gulliver, Part I, Chap. i. In these and the like phrases, which are very common, there is an Ellipsis both of the Relative and the Preposition; which would have been much better supplied: "In the temper of mind in which he was then." "In the posture in which I lay." "The little satisfaction and consistency (which) is to be found in most of the systems of Divinity (which)
INTRODUCTION TO

The accuracy and clearness of the sentence depend very much upon the proper and determinate use of the Relative; so that it may readily present its Antecedent to the mind of the hearer or reader, without any obscurity or ambiguity. The same may be observed of the Pronoun as the Noun; which by some are called also the Relative and Antecedent (1).

I have met with, made me betake myself to the sole read of the Scripture (to which they all appeal) for the understanding (of) the Christian Religion." Locke, Pref. to Reasonableness of Christianity. In the following example the antecedent is omitted: "He desired they might go to the altar together and jointly return their thanks to whom only it was due. Addison, Freeholder, No. 49. In general, the omission of the Relative seems to be too much indulged in the familiar style; it is ungraceful in the solemn; and, of whatever kind the style be, it is apt to be attended with obscurity and ambiguity.

(1) The Consecutive parts of Sentences are the most important of all, and require the greatest care and attention for it is by these chiefly that the train of thought, the course of reasoning, and the whole progress of the mind, in continued discourse of all kinds, is laid open; and on their use of these the perspicuity, that is, the clear and great beauty, of style principally depends. Relatives and Conjunctions are the instruments of Connexion in discourse; it is be of use to point out some of the most common inaccuracies that writers are apt to fall into with respect to the

CONJUNCTION:
Conjunctions have sometimes a Government of Modes. Some Conjunctions require the In-
and a few examples of faults may perhaps be more instructive, than any rules of propriety that can be given. Here therefore shall be added some further examples of inaccuracies in the use of Relatives.

The Relative placed before the Antecedent; Examples:

The bodies, which we daily handle, make us perceive, that whilst they remain between them, they do by an unsurmountable force hinder the approach of our hands that press them." Locke, Essay, B. ii. C. 4. Sed. 1. Here the sense is suspended, and the sentence is unintelligible, till you get to the end of it; there is no antecedent, to which the Relative them can be referred, but bodies; but, "whilst the bodies remain between the bodies," makes no sense at all. When you get to hands, the difficulty is cleared up, the sense helping out the Construction. Yet there still remains an ambiguity in the Relative they, them, which in number and person are equally applicable to bodies or hands: this, though it may not here be the occasion of much obscurity, which is commonly the effect of it, yet is always disagreeable and inelegant: as in the following examples.

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

"The Earl of Falmouth and M. Coventry were rivals who should have most influence with the Duke, who loved th-
INTRODUCTION TO

Indicative, some the Subjunctive Mode, after them: others have no influence at all on the Mode.

Earl best, but thought the other the wiser man, who supported Pen, who disobligea all the Courtiers, even against the Earl, who contemned Pen as a fellow of no sense." Clarendon, Cont. p. 264.

But the following Sentence cannot possibly be understood, without a careful recollection of circumstances through some pages preceding.

"All which, with the King's and Queen's so ample promises to him (the Treasurer) so few hours before the conferring the place on another, and the Duke of York's manner of receiving him (the Treasurer,) after he (the Chancellor) had been shut up with him (the Duke,) as he (the Treasurer) was informed, might very well excuse him (the Treasurer) for he thinking (the Chancellor) had some share in the affront he (the Treasurer) has undergone." Clarendon, Cont. p. 296.

"Breaking a Constitution by the very same errors, that so many have been broke before." Swift, Contests and Discontents, &c. Chap. 5. Here the Relative is employed not only to represent the Antecedent Noun the errors, but likewise the Preposition by prefixed to it. It ought to be, "the same errors by which so many have been broken before."

Again: "—An Undertaking; which, although it has failed, (partly, &c. and partly, &c.) is no objection at all to an Enterprize so well concerted, and with such fair probability of success." Swift, Conduct of the Allies. That is, "Which Undertaking is no objection to an Enterprize so well
English Grammar

Hypothetical, Conditional, Concessive, and Exceptional Conjunctions seem in general to require the Subjunctive Mode after them: as, if, though, unless, except, whether—or, &c.: but by use they often admit of the Indicative: and in some cases with propriety. Examples: "If thou be the Son of God." Matt. iv. 3. "Though he say me, yet will I put my trust in him." Job, xiii. 15. "Unless he wash his flesh." Lev. xii. 6. "No power, except it were given from above." John xix. 11. "Whether it were I or they, so we preach." 1 Cor. xv. 11. The Subjunctive in these instances implies something contingent or doubtful; the Indicative would express a more absolute and determinate sense (1).

(1) The following example may serve to illustrate this observation: "Though he were divinely inspired, and spake therefore, as the oracles of God, with supreme authority: though he were indited with supernatural powers, and could therefore have confirmed the truth of what he uttered by miracles; yet in compliance with the way in which human nature and reasonable creatures are usually wrought upon, he reasoned." Atterbury, Serm. IV. 5.

That our Saviour was divinely inspired, and indited with
INTRODUCTION TO

That, expressing the motive or end, has the Subjunctive Mode, with may, might, should after it.

Left; and that annexed to a Command presents supernatural powers, are positions, that are here taken for granted, as not admitting of the least doubt; they would therefore have been better expressed in the Indicative Mode, though he was divinely inspired; though he was induced with supernatural powers." The Subjunctive is used in like manner in the following example: Though he were a Son yet learned he obedience, by the things which he suffered. Heb v. 8. But in a similar passage the Indicative is employed to the same purpose, and that much more properly: "Though he was rich, yet for your sakes he became poor." 2 Cor. viii. 9. The proper use then of the Subjunctive Mode after the Conjunction is in the case of a doubtful supposition, or concession: as, Though he fall, he shall not be utterly cast down." Pial. xxxvii. 24. And much the same may be said of the rest.

The same Conjunction governing both the Indicative and the Subjunctive Mode, in the same sentence, and in the same circumstances, though either of them separately would be right, seems to be a great impropriety: as,

"Though heaven's King
Ride on thy wings, and thou with thy compeers,
Us'd to the yoke, draw'd his triumphant wheels
In progress through the road of heav'n star-pav'd."

"If there be but one body of legislators, it is no better than a tyranny; if there are only two, there will want a calling voice." Addison, Spec. No 287.
EDING; and if with but following it; necessarily require the Subjunctive Mode: Examples; “Let him, that fleeth, take heed, lest he fall.” 1 Cor. x. 12. “Take heed; that thou speak not to Jacob.” Gen. xxxi. 24. If he do but touch the hills, they shall smoke.” Psal. civ. 32 (1).

Other Conjunctions, expressing a Continuation, an Addition, an Inference, &c. being of a positive and absolute nature, require the Indicative Mode; or rather leave the Mode to be determined by the other circumstances and conditions of the sentence.

When the Qualities of different things are compared; the latter Noun, or Pronoun, is not governed by the Conjunction than, or as, (for a Conjunction has no Government of Cases,)

(1) In the following instances the Conjunction that, expressed, or understood, seems to be improperly accompanied with the Subjunctive Mode:

“So much she fears for William’s life,
That Mary’s fate she dare not mourn.” Prior.

“Her eyes in heaven
Would through the airy region stream so bright,
That birds would sing, and think it were not night.”
Shakspeare, Rom. and Jul.
but agrees with the Verb, or is governed by the Verb, or the Preposition, expressed, or under-
flow. As, "Thou art wiser than I (am)." "You are not so tall as I (am)." "You think him 
handsomer than (you think) me; and you love 
him more than (you love) me." In all other 
instances, if you complete the Sentence in like 
manner, by supplying the part which is under-
flow; the Case of the latter Noun, or Pronoun, 
will be determined. Thus, "Plato observes, 
that God geometrizes: and the same thing was 
observed before by a wiser man than he:" that 
is, than he was. "It was well expressed by Plato; 
but more elegantly by Solomon than him:" that 
is, than by him (1). 

(1) "You are a much greater loser than me by his death." Swift, to Pope, Letter 63. 
"And tho' by heaven's severe decree 
She suffers hourly more than me." Swift, to Stella. 
"We contributed a third more than the Dutch, who were 
obliged to the same proportion more than us." Swift, Con-
duct of the Allies. 
"King Charles, and more than him, the Duke, and the 
Popish Fadion, were at liberty to form new schemes." Bolingbroke, Diff. on Parties, Letter 3. 
"The drift of all his Sermons was, to prepare the Jews 
for the reception of a Prophet, mightier than Him, and
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

But the Relative who, having Reference to no Verb or Preposition understood, but only to its whose shoes he was not worthy to bear." Atterbury, Sermons, IV. 4.

"A Poem, which is good in itself, cannot lose any thing of its real value; though it should appear not to be the work of so eminent an author, as him, to whom it was first imputed." Congreve, Pref. to Homer's Hymn to Venus.

"A stone is heavy, and the sand weigheth: but a fool's wrath is heavier than them both," Prov. xxvii. 3.

"If the King gives us leave, you or I may as lawfully preach, as them that do." Hobbes, Hist. of Civil Wars, p. 62.

"The sun upon the calmest sea
Appears not half so bright as Thee." Prior.

"Then finish, dear Chloe, this Pastoral war,
And let us like Horace and Lydia agree:
For thou art a Girl as much brighter than her,
As he was a Poet sublimer than me." Ibid.

"Phalaris, who was so much older than her." Bentley, Dissert. on Phalaris, p. 537.

"In these passages it ought to be, I, We, He, They, Thou, She, respectively. Perhaps the following example may admit of a doubt, whether it be properly expressed or not.

"The lover got a woman of a greater fortune than her he had mis'd." Addison, Guardian, N* 97. Let us try it by the Rule given above: and see, whether some correction will not be necessary, when the parts of the Sentence, which are understood, come to be supplied: "The lover got a woman of a greater fortune, than she (was whom) he had mis'd."
Antecedent, when it follows than, is always in the Objective Case; even though the Personal Pronoun, if substituted in its place, would be in the Nominative: as,

"Beelzebub, than whom,
Satan except, none higher sat."

Milton, P. L. ii. 299.

which, if we substitute the Personal Pronoun, would be,

"none higher sat, than he."

The Conjunction that is often omitted and understood: as, "I beg you would come to me:" 'See, thou do it not:" that is, "that you would:" "that thou do (1).

"Nor hope to be myself less miserable
By what I seek, but others to make such
As I."


"The Syntax, says Dr. Bentley, requires, "make such as me." On the contrary, the Syntax necessarily requires, "make such as I:" for it is not, "I hope to make other such, as to make me:" the Pronoun is not governed by the Verb to make, but is the Nominative Case to the Verb as understood; "to make other such as I am."
ENGLISH GRAMMAR

The Nominative Case following the Auxiliary, or the Verb itself, sometimes supplies the place of the Conjunction, if, or though: as, "Had he done this, he had escaped": "Charm he never so 
(1) wisely:" that is, "if he had done this;" "though he charm."

Some Conjunctions have their Correspondent Conjunctions belonging to them; so that, in the subsequent Member of the Sentence, the latter answers to the former: as, although —, yet, or nevertheless; whether —, or; either —, or; neither, or nor —, nor; as —, as; expressing a Comparison of equality; "as white as snow:" as —, so; expressing a Comparison sometimes of equality; "as the stars, so shall thy seed be; that is, equal in number: but most commonly a Comparison in respect of quality; "and it shall be, as with the people, so with the priest; as with the servant, so with his master:" "as is the good, so is the sinner; as the one dieth, so

(1) Never so — "This phrase, says Mr. Johnson, is justly accused of Solecism." It should be, ever so wisely: that is, how wisely forever. "Besides, a Slave would not have been admitted into that Society, had he had never such opportunities." Bentley, Dissert on Phalaris, p. 338.
INTRODUCTION TO

dieth the other: " that is, in like manner: \( f 0 - \),
as; with a Verb expressing a Comparison of qua-

ty: " To see thy glory, \( f 0 \) as I have seen thee
in the sanctuary: " but with a Negative and an
Adj\'ective, a Comparison in respect of quantity:
as, "Pompey had eminent abilities: but he
was neither \( f 0 \) eloquent and politic a statesman,
nor \( f 0 \) brave and skilful a general, nor was he
upon the whole \( f 0 \) great a man, as Caesar:" \( f 0 - \),
\( that; \) expressing a Consequence; &c (1).

(1) I have been the more particular in noting the proper
uses of the Conjunctions; because they occur very frequent-
ly, and, as it was observed before of Conne\v e\v e words in
general, are of great importance with respect to the clear-
ness and beauty of style. I may add too, because millates
in the use of them are very common; as it will appear by
the following Examples.

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

Neither is sometimes supposed to be included in its corre-
spondent nor:
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

INTERJECTIONS in English have no Government.

"Simois, nor Xanthus shall be wanting there."

Dryden.

"That all the application he could make, nor the King's own interposition, could prevail with Her Majesty." Clarendon, Hist. Vol. III. p. 179. Sometimes to be supplied by a subsequent Negative: "His rule holdeth still, that nature, nor the engagement of words, are not so forcible as custom." Bacon, Essay xxxix. "The King nor the Queen were not at all deceived." Clarendon, Vol. II. p. 363. These forms of expression seem both of them equally improper.

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

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

So —, as, was used by the Writers of the last century, to express a Consequence, instead of so —, that: Examples; "And the third part of the fars was smitten; so as (that) the third part of them was darkened." Rev. viii. 12. "The relations are so uncertain, as (that) they require a great deal of examination." Bacon, Nat. Hist. "So as (that) it is a hard calumny to affirm —," Temple. "So as (that) his thoughts might be seen." Bentley, Dissert. on Aesop's Fables, Sect. vi. "There was something so amiable, and yet so piercing in his looks, as (that) it inspired me at once with love and terror." Addison, Spect. No. 63. "This computation being so easy and trivial, as (that) it is a shame to mention it." Swift, Conduct of the Allies. "That the Spaniards were so violently affected to the House of Austria,
INTRODUCTION TO

Though they are usually attended with Nominals in the Nominative Case, and Verbs in the Indirect Object Case, as (that) the whole kingdom would revolt. *Ibid.* Swift; I believe, is the last of our good writers, who has frequently used this manner of expression: it seems improper, and is deservedly grown obsolete.

*As*, instead of *that*, in another manner: "If a man have that penetration of judgement, as (that) he can discern what things are to be laid open." *Bacon*, *Essays* vi. "It is the nature of extreme self-lovers, as (that) they will set an house on fire, and it were but to roast their eggs." *Id.* Essays xxiii. "They would have given him such satisfaction in other particulars, as (that) a full and happy peace must have ensued." *Clarendon*, Vol. III. p. 214.

"

"I gain'd a son;
And such a son, as all men hail'd me happy."

*Milton*, *Sonnets*. Ag.

"We should sufficiently weigh the objects of our hope; whether they be such, as (that) we may reasonably expect from them what they propose in their fruition, and whether they are such, as we are pretty sure of attaining." *Addison*, *Spectator* No. 535, "France was then disposed to conclude a peace upon such conditions, as (that) it was not worth the life of a grenadier to refuse them." *Swift*, Four last years of the Queen B. ii.

"As instead of the Relative *that*, *who*, or *which*: "An it had not been for a civil Gentleman, as (who) came by —." *Sir J.* Wilmot, in Congreve's Old Bachelor. "The Duke had not behaved with that loyalty, as (with which) he ought to have done." *Clarendon*, Vol. II. p. 460. "— With those thoughts as (which) might contribute to their honor."
dicative Mode: yet the Cafe and Mode are not

Ibid. p. 565. "In the order as they lie in his Preface, as Middleton's Works, Vol. III. p. 8. It ought to be, either, "in order, as they lie; or, "in the order, in which they lie." "Securing to yourselves a succession of able and worthy men, as (which, or who,) may adorn this place." Atterbury, Sermons, IV. 12.

The Relative that instead of as: "Such sharp replies, that (as) cost him his life in a few months after." Clarendon, Vol. III. p. 179. And instead of such: — "If he was truly that (such a) scare-crow, as he is now commonly painted. But I wish I could do that (such) justice to the memory of our Phrygian, (as) to oblige the painters to change their pencil." Benley, Dislert. on Æsop's Fables, Sect. x.

The Relative who — , instead of as: "There was no man so sanguine, who did not apprehend some ill consequence from the late change." Swift, Examiner, No. 24. It ought to be, either, "so sanguine, as not to apprehend—" or "There was no man, how sanguine soever, who did not apprehend."

As improperly omitted: "Chaucer followed nature everywhere; but was never so bold (as) to go beyond her." Dryden, Preface to Fables. "Which nobody presumes, or is so sanguine (as) to hope." Swift, Drap. Let. v. "They are so bold (as) to pronounce—." Swift, Tale of a Tub, Sect. vii. "I must however be so just (as) to own." Addison, Spect. No. 45. "That the discoursing of Policks shall be looked upon as (as) dull as talking on the weather." Addison, Freeholder, No. 38.

The Conjunction but instead of than: "To trust in Christ is no more but to acknowledge him for God." Hobbes, Human Nature, Chap. xi. 11. "They will concern the fo-
INTRODUCTION TO

influenced by them, but determined by the nature of the sentence (1).

male sex only, and import no more but that subjection, they should ordinarily be in, to their husbands. » Locke. « The full moon was no sooner up, and shining in all its brilli- nefs, but he privately opened the gate of Paradise. » Addi- son, Guardian, No. 167. « This is none other but the house of God. » Genesis, xxxvii. 17.

Too —, that, improperly used as Correl- lant Conjunctions: « Whose charac- ters are too profligate, that the man- 

aging of them should be of any consequence. Swift, Exam- inator, No. 24. It ought to be, « So profligate, that the ma-

naging of them cannot be of any consequence. » And, too —,

than: « You that are a step higher than a Philosopher, a Divine; yet have too much grace and wit than to be a Bishop. »

Pope, to Swift, Letter 80. It ought to be, « Too much grace and wit to be a Bishop: » without than. So — but:

« If the appointing and apportioning of penalties to crimes be not so properly a consideration of justice, but rather (as)
of prudence in the Lawgiver. » Tillotson, Serm. I. 35. And to conclude with an example, in which, whatever may be thought of the accuracy of the expression, the justness of the obser- vation will be acknowledged; which may serve also as an apology for this and many of the preceding Notes: « No errors are so trivial, but they deserve to be mended. » Pope to Steele, Letter 6.

(1) « Ah me! » seems to be a phrase of the same nature with « Wo is me! »; for the resolution of which see above, p. 137. Note.
Punctuation

Punctuation is the art of marking in writing the several pauses, or rests, between sentences, and the parts of sentences, according to their proper quantity or proportion, as they are expressed in a just and accurate pronunciation.

As the several articulate sounds, the syllables and words, of which sentences consist, are marked by Letters; so the rests and pauses between sentences and their parts, are marked by Points.

But, though the several articulate sounds are pretty fully and exactly marked by Letters of known and determinate power; yet the several pauses, which are used in a just pronunciation of discourse, are very imperfectly expressed by Points.

For the different degrees of connexion between the several parts of sentences, and the different pauses in a just pronunciation, which express those degrees of connexion according to their proper value, admit of great variety; but the
whole number of Points, which we have to express this variety, amounts only to Four.

Hence it is, that we are under a necessity of expressing pauses of the same quantity, on different occasions, by different points; and more frequently, of expressing pauses of different quantity by the same points.

So that the doctrine of Punctuation must needs be very imperfect: few precise rules can be given, which will hold without exception in all cases: but much must be left to the judgment and taste of the writer.

On the other hand, if a greater number of marks were invented to express all the possible different pauses of pronunciation; the doctrine of them would be very perplexed and difficult, and the use of them would rather embarrass than assist the reader.

It remains therefore, that we be content with the Rules of Punctuation, laid down with as much exactness as the nature of the subject will admit: such as may serve for a general direction, to be accommodated to different occasions; and to be supplied, where deficient, by the writer's judgment.
The several degrees of Connexion between Sentences, and between their principal constructive parts, Rhetoricians have considered under the following distinctions, as the most obvious and remarkable: the Period, Colon, Semicolon, and Comma.

The Period is the whole Sentence, complete in itself, wanting nothing to make a full and perfect sense, and not connected in construction with a subsequent Sentence.

The Colon, or Member, is a chief constructive part, or greater division, of a Sentence.

The Semicolon, or Half-member, is a less constructive part, or subdivision, of a Sentence or Member.

A Sentence or Member is again subdivided into Commas, or Segments; which are the least constructive parts of a Sentence or Member, in this way of considering it: for the next subdivision would be the resolution of it into Phrases and Words.

The Grammarians have followed this division of the Rhetoricians, and have appropriated to each of these distinctions its mark, or Point;
which takes its name from the part of the Sentence, which it is employed to distinguish; as follows:

The Period
The Colon
The Semicolon is thus marked
The Comma

The proportional quantity, or time, of the points, with respect to one another, is determined by the following general rule: The Period is a pause in quantity or duration double of the Colon; the Colon is double of the Semicolon; and the Semicolon is double of the Comma. So that they are in the same proportion to one another, as the Semibreve, the Minim, the Crotchet, and the Quaver, in Music. The precise quantity, or duration, of each Pause or Note cannot be defined; for that varies with the Time; and both in Discourse and Music the same Composition may be rehearsed in a quicker or a slower Time: but in Music the proportion between the Notes remains ever the same; and in Discourse, if the doctrine of Punctuation were exact, the proportion between the Pauses would be ever invariable.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR. 163

The Points then being designed to express the Pauses, which depend on the different degrees of connexion between Sentences, and between their principal constructive parts; in order to understand the meaning of the Points, and to know how to apply them properly, we must consider the nature of a Sentence, as divided into its principal constructive parts; and the degrees of connexion between those parts, upon which such division of it depends.

To begin with the least of these principal constructive parts, the Comma. In order the more clearly to determine the proper application of the Point which marks it, we must distinguish between an Imperfect Phrase, a Simple Sentence, and a Compounded Sentence.

An imperfect Phrase contains no assertion, or does not amount to a Proposition or Sentence.

A Simple Sentence has but one Subject, and one finite Verb.

A compounded Sentence has more than one Subject, or one finite Verb; either expressed or understood; or it consists of two or more Simple Sentences connected together.
In a Sentence the Subject and the Verb may be each of them accompanied with several Adjuncts; as the Object, the End, the Circumstances of Time, Place, Manner, and the like and the Subject or Verb may be either immediately connected with them, or mediatelty; that is, by being connected with some thing, which is connected with some other; and so on.

If the several Adjuncts affect the Subject or the Verb in a different manner, they are only so many Imperfect Phrases; and the Sentence is Simple.

A Simple Sentence admits of no Point, by which it may be divided, or distinguished into parts.

If the several Adjuncts affect the Subject or the Verb in the same manner, they may be resolved into so many Simple Sentences: the Sentence then becomes Compounded, and it must be divided into its parts by Points.

For, if there are several Subjects belonging in the same manner to one Verb, or several Verbs belonging in the same manner to one Subject, the Subjects and Verbs are still to be as
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

Counted equal in number: for every Verb must have its Subject, and every Subject its Verb; and every one of the Subjects, or Verbs, should or may have its point of distinction.

Examples:

"The passion for praise produces excellent effects in women of sense." Addison, Spect. No. 73. In this Sentence passion is the Subject, and produces the Verb: each of which is accompanied and connected with its Adjuncts. The Subject is not passion in general, but a particular passion determined by its Adjunct of Specification, as we may call it; the passion for praise. So likewise the Verb is immediately connected with its object, excellent effects; and mediately, that is, by the intervention of the word effects, with women, the Subject in which these effects are produced; which again is connected with its Adjunct of Specification; for it is not meant of women in general, but of women of sense only. Lastly, it is to be observed, that the Verb is connected with each of these several Adjuncts in a different manner; namely, with effects, as
the Object; with women, as the subject of them; with sense, as the quality or characteristic of those women. The Adjuncts therefore are only so many imperfect Phrases; the Sentence is a Simple Sentence, and admits of no Point, by which it may be distinguished into parts.

"The passion for praise, which is so very vehement in the fair sex, produces excellent effects in women of sense." Here a new Verb is introduced, accompanied with Adjuncts of its own; and the Subject is repeated by the Relative Pronoun which. It now becomes a Compound Sentence, made up of two Simple Sentences, one of which is inserted in the middle of the other; it must therefore be distinguished into its component parts by a Point placed on each side of the additional Sentence.

"How many instances have we (in the fair sex) of chastity, fidelity, devotion! How many Ladies distinguish themselves by the education of their children, care of their families, and love of their husbands; which are the great qualities and achievements of womankind: as the making of war, the carrying on of traffic, the
administration of justice, are those by which men
grow famous, and get themselves a name!" Ibid.

In the first of these two Sentences, the Adjuncts chastity, fidelity, devotion, are connected
with the Verb by the word instances in the same
manner, and in effect make so many distinct
Sentences: "how many instances have we of
chastity! how many instances have we of fidelity!
how many instances have we of devotion!"
They must therefore be separated from one another by a Point. The fame may be said of the
Adjuncts, "education of their children, &c." in the former part of the next Sentence: as likewise of the several Subjects, "the making of
war, &c." in the latter part; which have in
effect each their Verb; for each of these, "is
an achievement by which men grow famous."

As Sentences themselves are divided into Simple
and Compounded, so the Members of Sentences
may be divided likewise into Simple and Compounded Members: for whole Sentences,
whether Simple or Compounded, may become
Members of other Sentences by means of some
additional connexion.
INTRODUCTION TO

Simple Members of Sentences closely connected together in one compounded member, or sentence, are distinguished or separated by a Comma: as in the foregoing examples.

So likewise, the Case Absolute; Nouns in Apposition, when consisting of many terms; the Participle with something depending on it; are to be distinguished by the Comma; for they may be resolved into Simple Members.

When an address is made to a person, the Noun, answering to the Vocative Case in Latin, is distinguished by a Comma.

Examples:

"This said, He form'd thee, Adam; thee, O man,
Dust of the ground."

"Now morn, her rosy steps in th' eastern clime
Advancing, sow'd the earth with orient pearl."

Milton.

Two Nouns, or two Adjectives, connected by a single Copulative or Disjunctive, are not separated by a Point: but when there are more than two, or where the Conjunction is understood, they must be distinguished by a Comma.
Simple Members connected by Relatives, and
Comparatives, are for the most part distinguished
by a Comma: but when the Members are
short in Comparative Sentences; and when two
Members are closely connected by a Relative,
restraining the general notion of the Antecedent
to a particular sense; the pause becomes almost
insensible, and the Comma is better omitted.

Examples:

"Raptures, transports, and extasies, are tho
rewards which they confer: sighs and tears,
prayers and broken hearts, are the offerings which
are paid to them." Addison, ibid.

"Gods partial, changeful, passionate, unjust;
Whose attributes were rage, revenge, or lust."
Pope.

"What is sweeter than honey; and what is stronger
than a lion?"

A circumstance of importance, though no more
than an Imperfect Phrase, may be set off with a
Comma on each side, to give it greater force
and distinction.
Example:

"The principle may be defective or faulty; but the consequences it produces are so good, that, for the benefit of mankind, it ought not to be extinguished." Addison, ibid.

A Member of a Sentence, whether Simple or Compounded, that requires a greater pause than a Comma, yet does not of itself make a complete Sentence, but is followed by something closely depending on it, may be distinguished by a Semicolon.

Example:

"But as this passion for admiration, when it works according to reason, improves the beautiful part of our species in every thing that is laudable; so nothing is more destructive to them, when it is governed by vanity and folly." Addison, ibid.

Here the whole Sentence is divided into two parts by the Semicolon; each of which parts is a Compounded Member, divided into its Simple Members by the Comma.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR. 172

A Member of a Sentence, whether Simple or Compounded, which of itself would make a complete Sentence, and so requires a greater pause than a Semicolon, yet is followed by an additional part making a more full and perfect Sence, may be distinguished by a Colon.

Example:

"Were all books reduced to their quintessence, many a bulky author would make his appearance in a penny paper: there would be scarce any such thing in nature as a folio: the works of an age would be contained on a few shelves: not to mention millions of volumes, that would be utterly annihilated." Addison, Spect. No 124.

Here the whole Sentence is divided into four parts by Colons: the first and last of which are Compounded Members, each divided by a Comma; the second and third are Simple Members.

When a Semicolon has preceded, and a greater pause is still necessary; a Colon may be employed, though the Sentence be incomplete.

The Colon is also commonly used, when an Example, or a Speech, is introduced.
INTRODUCTION TO

When a Sentence is so far perfectly finished, as not to be connected in construction with the following Sentence, it is marked with the Period.

In all cases, the proportion of the several Points in respect to one another is rather to be regarded, than their supposed precise quantity or proper office, when taken separately.

Besides the Points which mark the pauses in discourse, there are others which denote a different modulation of the voice in correspondence with the sense. These are

The Interrogation Point, thus ?
The Exclamation Point, marked !
The Parenthesis, ()

The Interrogation and Exclamation Points are sufficiently explained by their names: they are indeterminate as to their quantity or time, and may be equivalent in that respect to a Semicolon, a Colon, or a Period, as the sense requires. They mark an Elevation of the voice.
The Parenthesis incloses in the body of a Sentence a member inserted into it, which is neither necessary to the Sense, nor at all affects the Construction. It marks a moderate Depression of the voice, with a pause greater than a Comma.
INTRODUCTION TO
APRAXIS.

Or Example of Grammatical Resolution.

1. In the fifteenth year of the reign of Tiberius Caesar, Pontius Pilate being governor of Judea, the word of God came unto John, the son of Zacharias, in the wilderness.

2. And he came into all the country about Jordan, preaching the baptism of repentance for the remission of sins.

3. And the same John had his raiment of camel's hair, and a leathern girdle about his loins; and his meat was locusts and wild honey.

4. Then said he to the multitude, that came forth to be baptized of him: O generation of vipers, who hath warned you to flee from the wrath to come? Bring forth therefore fruits meet for repentance.

5. And as all men mused in their hearts of John, whether he were the Christ, or not; John
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

answered, saying unto them all: I indeed baptize you with water; but one mightier than I cometh, the latchet of whose shoes I am not worthy to unloose: he shall baptize you with the Holy Ghost and with fire.

6. Now when all the people were baptized, it came to pass, that, Jesus also being baptized and praying, the heaven was opened, and the Holy Ghost descended in a bodily shape, like a dove, upon him; and lo! a voice from heaven, saying: This is my beloved Son, in whom I am well pleased.

1. In a Preposition: the, the Definite Article; fifteenth, an Adjective; year, a Substantive, or Noun, in the Objective Case, governed by the Preposition in; of, a Preposition; the reign, a Substantive, Objective Case, governed by the Preposition of; Tiberius Caesar, both Substantives, Proper Names, Government and Case as before; Pontius Pilate, Proper Names: being, the Present Participle of the Verb Neuter to be; governour, a Substantive; of Judea, a Proper Name, Government and Case as before; Pontius Pilate
being governour, is the Case Absolute, that is, the Nominative Case with a Participle without a Verb following and agreeing with it; the meaning is the same as, when Pilate was governour, the word, a Substantive; of God, a Substantive, Objective Case, governed by the Preposition of; came, a Verb Neuter, Indicative Mode, Past Time, third Person Singular Number, agreeing with the Nominative Case word; unto, a Preposition; John, a Proper Name; the son, a Substantive, put in Apposition to John; that is, in the same Case, governed by the same Preposition unto; of Zacharias, a Proper Name, in, a Preposition; the wilderness, a Substantive, Government and Case as before.

2. And, a Conjunction Copulative; he, a Pronoun, third Person Singular, Masculine Gender, Nominative Case, standing for John; came, as before; into, a Preposition; all, an Adjective; the country, a Substantive; about, a Preposition; Jordan, a Proper Name; Objective Cases, governed by their Prepositions; preaching, the Present Participle of the Verb Active to preach, joined like an Adjective to the Pronoun he; the baptism.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR

Baptism, a Substantive in the Objective Case following the Verb Active preaching, and governed by it; of repentance, a Substantive, Government and Case as before; for, a Preposition; the remission of sins, Substantives, the latter in the Plural Number, Government and Case as before.

3. and, (b. that is, as before; ) the same, an Adjective; John, (b.) had, a Verb Active, Indicative Mode, Past Time, third Person Singular, agreeing with the Nominative Case John; his, a Pronoun, third Person Singular, Possessive Case; raiment, a Substantive in the Objective Case, following the Verb Active had, and governed by it; of camel's, a Substantive, Possessive Case; hair, Substantive, Objective Case, governed by the Preposition of, the same as, of the hair of a camel; and, (b.) a, the Indefinite Article; leathern, an Adjective; girdle, a Substantive; about, (b.) his, (b.) loins, Substantive, Plural Number, Objective Case, governed by the Preposition about; and his, (b.) meat, Substantive; was, Indicative Mode, Past Time, third Person Singular of the Verb Neuter to be; locusts, Substantive, Plural Number, Nominative Case after the Verb.
was; and, (b.) wild, Adjective; honey, Substantive, the same Case.

4. Then, an Adverb; said, a Verb Active, Past Time, third Person Singular, agreeing with the Nominative Case he, (b.) to, a Preposition; the multitude, Substantive, Objective Case, governed by the Preposition; to; that, a Relative Pronoun, its Antecedent is the multitude; came, (b.) forth, an Adverb; to, a Preposition and before a Verb, the sign of the Infinitive Mode; be baptized, a Verb Passive, made of the Participle Passive of the Verb to baptize, and the Auxiliary Verb to be, in the Infinitive Mode; of him, Pronoun, third Person Singular, standing for John, in the Objective Case, governed by the Preposition of; O, an Interjection; generation, Substantive, Nominative Case; of Vipers, Substantive, Plural Number, Objective Case, governed by the Preposition of; who, an Interrogative Pronoun; hath warned, a Verb Active, Present Perfect Time: made of the Perfect Participle, warned, and the Auxiliary Verb hath, third Person Singular, agreeing with the Nominative Case who; you, Pronoun, Second Person plural, Objective Case,
following the Verb Active warned, and governed by it; to flee, Verb Neuter, Infinitive Mode; from, a Preposition; the wrath, Substantive Objective Case, governed by the Preposition from; to come, Verb Neuter, Infinitive Mode; bring, Verb Active, Imperative Mode, second Person plural, agreeing with the Nominative Case ye understood; as if it were, bring ye; forth, an Adverb; therefore, a Conjunction; fruits, a Substantive Plural, Objective Case, following the Verb Active bring, and governed by it; meet, an Adjective joined to fruits, but placed after it, because it has something depending on it; for repentance, a Substantive governed by a Preposition, as before.

5. And, (b.) as, a Conjunction; all, (b.) men, Substantive Plural Number; mused, a Verb Active, Past Time, third Person Plural, agreeing with the Nominative Case men; in, (b.) their, a Pronominal Adjective, from the Pronoun they; hearts, Substantive Plural Number, Objective Case governed by the Preposition in; of John, (b.) whether, a Conjunction; he, (b.) were, Subjunctive Mode, governed by the Conjunction whether, Past Time, third
Person Singular of the Verb to be, agreeing with the Nominative Case he; the Christ, Substantive Nominative Case, after the Verb were; or, a Disjunctive Conjunction, corresponding to the preceding Conjunction whether; not, an Adjective John, (b.) answered, a Verb Active, Indicative Mode, Past Time, third Person Singular, agreeing with the Nominative Case John; saying, a Present Participle of the Verb Active to say, joined with the Substantive John; unto, (b.) them, a Pronoun, third Person Plural, Objective Case governed by the Preposition unto; all, (b.) Ibb. Pronoun, first Person Singular; indeed, an Adjective verb; baptize, a Verb Active, Indicative Mode, Sub Present Time, first Person Singular, agreeing with the Nominative Case I; you, Pronoun, second Person Plural, Objective Case, following the Verb Active baptize, and governed by it; with, a Preposition; water, Substantive, Objective Case, governed by the Preposition with; but, a Disjunctive Conjunction; one, a Pronoun, standing for some Person not mentioned by name; mightier, an Adjective in the Comparative Degree, from the Positive mighty; than, a Conjunction,
ENGLISH GRAMMAR

added after a Comparative word; 'I, (b.) the Verb 
being understood; that is, than I am; cometh, 
Verb Neuter, Indicative Mode, Present Time, 
Third Person Singular, agreeing with the Nomina-
Active Case one; the latchet, Substantive; of, (b.) 
whose, Pronoun Relative; one being the Anteced-
ent to it, in the Possessive Case; shoes, Substan-
itive Plural, Objective Case, governed by the 
Preposition of; I, (b.) am, Indicative Mode, 
Present Time, first Person Singular of the Verb 
to be, agreeing with the Nominative Case I; not, 
(y. worthv, an Adjective; to unloose, a Verb 
Active, in the Infinitive Mode, governing the 
Substantative latchet, in the Objective Case; he, 
shalt, (b.) shall baptize, a Verb Active, Indicative Mode, 
Future Time, made by the Auxiliary shalt, third 
Person Singular agreeing with the Nominative 
Case he; you, (b.) with the, (b.) Holy, an Ad-
jectivé; Ghost, a Substantive; and with (b.) fire, 
i a Substantive; this and the former both in the Ob-
jective Case governed by the Preposition with.

6. Now, an Adverb: when, a Conjunction; 
all, (b.) the people, a Substantive; were baptized, 
a Verb Passive, made of the Auxiliary Verb to
be joined with the Participle Passive of the Verb *to baptize*, Indicative Mode, Past Time, third Person Plural, agreeing with the Nominative Case Singular *people*, being a Noun of Multitude, a *it*, Pronoun, third Person Singular, Neuter Gender, Nominative Case; *came*, (b.) *to pass*, Verb the Neuter, Infinitive Mode; *that*, a Conjunction; *Jesus*, a proper Name; *also*, an Adverb; *being*, the Present Participle of the Verb *to be*; *baptized*, the Participle Passive of the Verb *to baptize*; and, (b.) *praying*, Present Participle of the Verb Neuter *to pray*; *Jesus being baptized and praying* is the Nominative Case Absolute, as before; *the heaven*, Substantive; *was opened*, Verb Passive, Indicative Mode, Past Time, third Person Singular, agreeing with the Nominative Case *heaven*, the Auxiliary Verb *be* being joined to the Participle Passive, as before; *and the Holy Ghost*, (b.) *descended*, Verb Neuter, Indicative Mode, Past Time, third Person Singular, agreeing with the Nominative Case *Ghost*; *in a* (b.) *bodily*, an Adjective; *shape*, a Substantive, Objective Case, governed by the Preposition *in*; *like*, an Adjective; *a dove*, a Substantive, Objective Case, the Preposition *to* being
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

underflood, that is, like to a dove; upon, Preposition; him, Pronoun, third Person Singular, Objective Case governed by the Preposition upon; and, (b.) to, an Interjection; a voice, Substantive, Nominative Case, there was being underflood; that is, there was a voice; from, Preposition; heaven, Substantive, Objective Case; (b.) saying, (b.) this, a Pronominal Adjective, person being underflood; is, Indicative Mode, Present Time, of the Verb to be, third Person Singular, agreeing with the Nominative Case this; my, a Pronominal Adjective; beloved, an Adjective; Son, Substantive, Nominative Case after the Verb is; in, (b.) whom, Pronoun Relative, Objective Case governed by the Preposition in, the Substantive Son being its Antecedent; I am, (b.) well, an Adverb; pleased, the Passive Participle of the Verb to please, making with the Auxiliary Verb am a Passive Verb, in the Indicative Mode, Present Time, first Person Singular, agreeing with the Nominative Case I.

THE END.