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ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

BY

ALEXANDER BAIN, M.A.,

PROFESSOR OF LOGIC IN THE UNIVERSITY OF ABERDEEN.

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PREFACE.

THE present work has been composed with more particular reference to the class of English Composition (attached to the Chair of Logic) in the University of Aberdeen.

While availing myself of the best works on the English Language, I have kept steadily in view the following plan.

Under Etymology, the three departments : 1st, Classification of Words or the Parts of Speech ; 2nd, Inflection ; 3rd, Derivation, have been separately discussed. This method I think better adapted for conveying grammatical information than the older one, of exhausting successively each of the Parts of Speech in all its relations.

The practice of explaining the precise meanings of the frequently recurring words of the language, such as pronouns, articles, distributive adjectives, prepositions, and conjunctions, has here been systematically followed out. Words of this description are not numerous. Belonging alike to all subjects and all styles, they are the very hinges of composition. The explanation of them, so long as it is confined to a small compass, is a proper office of the grammarian, although therein he may seem to intrude a little on the province of the lexicographer.

A similar plan is carried out in the second part of Etymology,—Inflection. Thus, the meanings of the different moods and tenses of the verb are explained as accurately as the writer's knowledge would enable him. Almost all the newer grammars recognize the expediency of this course.

So with regard to Derivation, the meanings of the significant prefixes and suffixes are stated. Under this head, such an account has been given of the sources of the English vocabulary, as in a great measure to dispense with an Etymological dictionary.

One advantage of the plan now described is the simplifying of Syntax, which, when freed from all matters relating to the meanings of words and of inflections, may fall entirely under the three heads of Concord, Government, and Order or Arrangement of Words; this last part being what in our language most requires the careful attention of the pupil.

For the sake of the accurate definition of the Parts of Speech, as well as for General Syntax, the recently introduced system of the Analysis of Sentences is fully explained. On this subject the method given by Mr. C. P. Mason has been principally followed.

A short account of the English Alphabet is prefixed, but Orthography at large is not entered on in this work. The subjects of Prosody, Figures of Speech, and Style, are also reserved, it being purposed to include them in a separate manual of Rhetoric.

In the discussion of the idioms and constructions of the language, this grammar contains one novelty of importance, namely, the explanation of the precise uses of the relatives, ' That,' ' Who,' and ' Which.' The distinction between ' that ' on the one hand, and ' who ' and ' which ' on the other, was clearly perceived by our

idiomatic writers up to the beginning of the last century; but owing to an unfortunate misapprehension as to the peculiarly English idiom of throwing a preposition to the end of a clause, the relative 'that' is now very little employed in book composition, 'who' and 'which' being made to serve in its stead. For my first knowledge of the real distinction I was indebted, more than twenty years ago, to a communication from Dr. Thomas Clark, then of Marischal College.

In the preparation of this grammar my acknowledgments are more especially due to Mr. C. P. Mason (*English Grammar*), Dr. Angus (*Handbook of the English Tongue*), Mr. Ernest Adams (*Elements of the English Language*), Dr. Latham's works, Dr. Charles W. Connon (*English Grammar*), Dr. Crombie (*Etymology and Syntax of the English Language*), Dr. Morell (*English Grammar*), Mr. O. Allen Ferris (*English Etymology*), Mr. T. Kerchever Arnold (*English Grammar*), Mr. A. J. D. D'Orsey (*English Grammar*, Chambers's Course), Mr. Brandon Turner (*English Grammar*), Mr. Matthew Harrison (*The English Language*), and Mr. Henry H. Breen (*Modern English Literature*). I am also much indebted to an outline of English Grammar, in *Chambers's Information for the People*, written by Mr. Andrew Findlater, Editor of *Chambers's Encyclopædia*.

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

THE ALPHABET.

1. THE Alphabet is the collection of written characters or symbols representing the simple articulate sounds.

The English Alphabet contains twenty-six characters, or letters, but the sounds to be expressed are still more numerous. Moreover, as several sounds have duplicate letters, the available characters are really fewer than twenty-six.

2. There are two kinds of articulate sounds,—*vowels* and *consonants*.

A sound that can be uttered alone, as *ee, ah, owe*, is called a *vowel* sound. A sound that cannot be uttered alone, but must be joined with a vowel sound, as *p, t, k, v*, is called a *consonant* sound.

3. The characters available for the vowel sounds are *five*,—*a, e, i, o, u*.

A vowel sound, uttered clearly and with stress of voice, is said to be *accented*. The accent may fall either on the vowel alone, or on the vowel together with a consonant next following it.

As most usually represented by the five vowel characters, the following five vowel sounds (which may be called *long* vowels) exemplify such vowels as receive the accent exclusively on the vowel :—

<p style="text-align:center">lay, lea, lie, lo, loo ;</p>

which may be symbolized thus : lá, lé, lí, ló, lú.

The other following five vowels sounds (which may be called *short* vowels) exemplify such vowels as receive the accent on the consonant following, as well as the vowel :—

<p style="text-align:center">àt, èt, ìt, òt, ùt (as in nut).</p>

Independent of the different kind of accent, these ten vowels are each distinct from the other ; they make up ten separate vowels.

In some words the accented long vowel sounds are pronounced with force, quickly, and so as to include in the accent a consonant that comes after the vowel. This happens in the case of the fifth long vowel 'ú,' in several words, as in *pull, full*, compared with *pool, fool* ; which may be symbolized thus : pûl, fûl ; púl, fúl. The second long vowel 'é' undergoes a like change of accent in the word *been*, which is pronounced 'bèn ;' probably too in several other words ; but

<div style="text-align:right">B</div>

this particular form of accent has not been much studied heretofore. The third long vowel 'í' becomes 'î,' that is to say, carries its accent to the next consonant, as in the word *pride*, compared with the words 'pry,' 'pried;' which three words may be symbolized thus : prîd, prí, príd. The like happens with this vowel in a good many words; but as yet no care has been taken to discriminate syllables thus accented.

On the other hand accented short vowel sounds have the vowel sound prolonged, in certain words, without any of the accent falling on a following consonant. This happens particularly in the case of 'à' and 'ò,' the first and fourth of those vowels, as may be seen on comparing the words 'am,' ' palm ' (which may be symbolized 'àm,' ' pām') and the words sot, *saw, sought* (which may be symbolized 'sòt, sō, sòt ').

The other three accented short vowel sounds (è, ì, ù) are not thus prolonged, excepting 'è,' which occasionally becomes 'ē,' as in the expression 'vèri wèl — vēri !'

These variations of accent add to the number of accented vowel sounds, but not to the number of vowels. Only the mode of accentuation is varied.

ow or *ou* in the words *now* and *noun*, and *oy* or *oi* in the words *boy, boil*, are compounds of other vowels; in the words *now* and *noun*, of 'ō' and 'ú;' in *boy* and *boil*, of 'ō,' and 'í.'

'I' is here a supposed vowel, produced by extending the vowel twice occurring in the word 'pity.' Some authorities prefer considering the vowel sound in *now* and *noun* as combined of 'ā' and 'ú.' The truth is that the compound sounds do so vary in pronunciation in different parts of England as to justify either analysis; but 'ō' rather than 'ā' is the one here preferred. *eye, dye,* is also considered as a compound sound, but its elementary parts can hardly be assigned. We may regard it as a compound of 'ā,' and the sound of 'I' just described. 'í' is here treated as a simple sound.

w and *y* are sometimes called consonants, sometimes semi-vowels. In any case 'w' is 'ú,' and 'y' is 'é,' each quickly pronounced before another vowel; as in the words *we* and *way* (ú-é, ú-á = wé, wá), and in the words *ye, yea* (é-é, é-ā = yé, yá).

'ú' has often the sound of 'y' before it, as in *tune, few* (= tyún, fyú).

'a, e, i, u' may respectively stand for the unaccented vowels of 'à, è, ì, ù;' ' ă, ĕ, ĭ, ŭ ' for the unaccented short vowels of ' á, é, í, ú.'

'ō' symbolizes a vowel that is heard in the words *awe, paw, pawn* (= ō, pō, pōn). The first syllable of the word *autumn* contains the same vowel, likewise accented (= ōtum). The first syllable of the word *autumnal* contains the same vowel, but unaccented. This unaccented vowel of 'ō' will be symbolized as 'ö.' Say *autumn, autumnal* = ōtum, ötùmnal—'ö' is found to substitute 'ō' when losing the accent ; as in the words, *author, authorize, authority, authoritative ;* say ' öthor, ōthoríz, öthòriti, öthòritátiv.' The same vowel 'ö' is also the unaccented vowel of 'ò;' but when 'ò' loses its accent in a kindred English word, this vowel is hardly ever substituted, but in place of it the unaccented vowel of ' ó,' as heard in the first and last vowels of the word 'potáto.' The first syllable of the word *opposite* (òpozit) loses its accent in *oppose*, and then becomes, not ' öpóz,' but ' opóz.' *Opposite* becomes, not ' öpózit,' but ' opozit.' The vowel 'ö' occurs

very rarely in English; the vowel in the first and last syllables of 'potáto' occurs very frequently. Therefore it is preferred to symbolize this vowel by the letter 'o,' without any mark at all.

Although, as already correctly stated, 'á' is a different vowel from 'à,' as is 'é' from 'è,' 'í' from 'ì,' 'ú' from 'ù,' yet it is an important observation that the individuals of each of these four couples of vowels are exchangeable with each other in kindred English words, sometimes accented, sometimes unaccented, as may be seen from a few examples : náshon, nàshonal, nàshonàliti ; derív, derivàshon, derivativ ; réal, réalíz, rèaliti ; idéa, idealíz, idèàliti ; rál, wá, rálwǎ ; repyút, rèpyùtabl ; párent, parèntal ; papā, pápal ; máson, masònic ; contìnyǔ, còntinyúiti ; théatr, theàtrical ; Cànada, Canádian ; Pàriz, Parìzian ; revél, rèveláshon ; replí, rèplicáshon ; repét, rèpetìshon ; àccent, accènt ; Gèrman, Germànic ; Britan, Britània, Britànic, British ; lànd, Scòt, Scòtland ; lábor, labórius ; ostér, ostèrity (austere, austerity) ; òspis, òspìshus (auspice, auspicious).*

4. The consonants, and their sounds, are divided into *liquids, mutes,* and *sibilants.*

The *liquids* are, r, l, n, m, and the sound of ng in *sing.* They are so called because they flow on continuously, and are therefore more like vowels than consonants in the strict sense of the word. They are not the only consonants that do so, and therefore the name has no descriptive propriety.

The *mutes* are the larger number of the consonants. They are of various classes, according to the part of the mouth that utters them, and according to the concurrence of vocal sound from the throat.

Those uttered by the mouth are *labials ; p, f, b, v.* If we compare p and f with b and v, we find that in uttering the first two the air-tube is entirely closed, and the voice shut off ; *up, off :* while with the last two, the stoppage is but partial, and we can still keep up a certain degree of sound, *cob, love.* This is the distinction between *sharp* and *flat* mutes, and is of importance in English Grammar.

Those uttered by the teeth are *dentals ;* (sharp) *t, th* (thin), (flat) *d, dh* (thine). Those uttered by the throat are gutturals ; (sharp) *k, ch* (Scotch in *loch*), (flat) *g, gh* (Irish *lough*).

The *sibilants* are the hissing sounds, *s, sh* (shame), z (zeal), *zh* (azure). There are two compounds of these, *tsh* (chest), *dzh* (jest).

The letter *h,* a softened form of *ch* (loch), is called the aspirate.

It will be seen from the above list, that our alphabet is deficient in characters for expressing the consonant sounds ng (ring), sh (shame), zh (azure), th (thin), dh (thine). It is farther redundant as regards the letters c (represented by s or k), q (the same as k before u), and x (either ks or gs). Also j, as representing a compound sound, would be superfluous, if we had the elementary character zh (azure). At present it is a convenient contraction for dzh.

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* This scheme of vowel symbolization, which has the peculiar advantage of indicating at once the accents and the vowels of words, has been communicated to me by Dr. Clark, who considers it likely to be useful, not only in grammatical discussions, but in English pronouncing dictionaries and in the vowel part of any system of phonetic spelling that may be hereafter attempted for the English language.

ETYMOLOGY.

Etymology is the study of individual words. It is in contrast to Syntax, which is the joining of words in sentences.

Individual words may be viewed in three different ways:

First, we may divide them into classes, or kinds, and explain the purposes served by each kind. This is to give the *classification* of words, or the PARTS OF SPEECH.

Secondly, we may consider the changes that they undergo when they enter into composition, as in the plurals of nouns, the comparison of adjectives, &c. This is INFLECTION.

Thirdly, we may examine the growth and structure of words. This is called DERIVATION.

Before entering upon the first division,—the Parts of Speech, it is requisite to examine the nature of the Sentence

THE SENTENCE.

1. A sentence expresses a thought, or judgment, of the mind, and always consists of at least two parts ; as 'time flies ;' 'the sea lashes the shore.'

A single name will not constitute a thought, or judgment, although it may suggest a notion : 'time,' 'sea,' 'shore,' 'come,' taken separately, are notions, but not judgments.

The tests of a thought or judgment are action and belief; and as it may be shown that a reference to action is contained in belief, it follows that action is the final criterion of a thought as expressed in a sentence. The following are sentences :—

> Enter the house ; the house is large.
> Behold the sun ; the sun is bright.
> Ascend the mountain ; the mountain is near.

When we say 'enter the house,' we dictate an action; when we say 'the house is large,' we present something for belief or disbelief, and also something that can be acted on; for to believe that the house is large means that we are prepared to put into it a great multitude of objects.

2. A Sentence may take one of three forms.

(1.) It may contain a verb in the imperative mood, and thereby command, entreat, or direct.

(2.) It may ask a question.

In both these cases action is directly indicated.

(3.) It may make an affirmation, or a denial, and thereby afford matter for belief or for disbelief.

1. 'Avoid the dog,' 'allow me to pass,' 'turn to the right,' are imperative sentences, and each is intended to originate some action.

2. 'Are you sure ?' is an interrogative sentence. This is an abbreviation of 'I desire to know a certain fact,' namely, the fact that 'you are sure.' Now desire is a state of mind that also has a bearing on action.

3. 'Gold is heavy,' is an affirmation ; 'the report is not true,' is a denial. These are matters to be believed or disbelieved, and in the final reference, to be acted on or not acted on. 'Gold is heavy,' means that we may distinguish a good sovereign by the weight, and in other ways involves actions; and to be ready to perform these actions is the test of the belief.

It will be seen that in no case can there be a sentence without two things named. There may be more than two, but there cannot be less. When a direction is apparently given by a single word, as

'come,' 'go,' 'give,' there is something left unexpressed, which the hearer is able to supply—'come ye.'

We cannot make a sentence merely by joining two or more words: 'heavy gold,' 'wise men,' 'the sun, moon, and stars,' are not sentences. They all want some word that shall convey or declare action or affirmation, or inform us that we may act in some way, or believe or disbelieve something, which word is called a *verb*: 'gold *is* heavy,' 'wise men *exist*,' 'the sun, moon, and stars *shine*,' '*behold* the moon.'

The imperative sentence is considered as resolvable into the sentence of affirmation or denial, by supplying an omission : 'come hither,' means 'it is my wish, or command, that you come hither,' which is an affirmation : 'tell me,' is the same as 'I have a desire to know.'

3. **The two essential parts of a Sentence are called the Subject and Predicate.**

The Subject is what is spoken about; or the thing put in action, or declared to be acting or acted on.

The Predicate is what is said about the Subject, the action that it undergoes, or the quality that it possesses.

'A fish swims,' is a complete sentence. 'A fish' is the thing spoken about and declared to be acting or acted on, or possessed of some active quality, and is the subject. 'Swims' is the thing said about 'fish,' the action that it undergoes, or the active quality belonging to it, and is the predicate. 'All men are mortal;' 'all men,' *subj.*, 'are mortal,' *pred.*

In every sentence we may make the division into subject and predicate by considering what is spoken about, or affirmed to have some active power or quality, and what is the power or quality so affirmed or declared. Sometimes a great many words are employed in expressing the one or the other. But in all cases the two parts can be exhibited separately.

Subject.	*Predicate.*
A small leak	— will sink a great ship.
The pain of death	— is most in apprehension.
They that have the greatest gifts, and are of the greatest usefulness }	— are the most humble.

. Although the general rule in sentences of affirmation and denial is to place the subject first, the order is sometimes inverted : 'short was his triumph;' 'how long he will remain, no one can say;' 'it is a law of nature, that disuse diminishes the capabilities of things.' On restoring the regular order, these may be written thus :—

His triumph	— was short.
No one	— can say how long he will remain.
That disuse diminishes the capabilities of things }	— is a law of nature.

In such a sentence as 'they that sow shall reap accordingly,' the division according to the above plan is, *subj.* 'they that sow,' *pred.* 'shall reap accordingly;' but, for the purposes of Grammar, a more limited view is taken of the subject and predicate. The grammatical subject is the simple nominative 'they,' and the addition 'that sow' is considered as enlarging, extending, or qualifying it; the grammatical predicate is the verb 'shall reap,' which is enlarged, extended, or qualified, by accordingly.' The full or enlarged subject and predicate are called the *logical* subject and predicate, because they give the full and entire description of what is spoken of, and what is said about it.

In imperative sentences, the subject is the person or thing addressed and put in motion, the predicate is the action imposed or indicated : 'believe it not;' *subj.* 'you' (the person addressed) understood; *pred.* 'believe it not.' When a sentence cannot be reduced in this way to a single subject and single predicate, it is because in reality two or more sentences are mixed together; as 'the sun gives light by day, and the moon by night.' Here there are two sentences : (1) 'the sun (*subj.*) gives light by day (*pred.*); (2) the moon (*subj.*) gives light by night (*pred.*).'

In many sentences the subject and predicate are linked together by some part of the verb 'be:' 'the rose *is* red ;' 'they *were* lucky ;' 'we *shall be* there.' This part is called in Logic the *copula*. The verb 'be' is considered as the universal binding word in assertions, inasmuch as propositions of any form whatsoever may be resolved into others connected by this verb. For 'the sun shines,' we may say 'the sun *is* shining :' 'Wren built St. Paul's,' 'Wren *was* the builder, the man that built St. Paul's.' But in Grammar this reference to the copula is not required. 'We may consider,' says Mr. C. P. Mason, 'that the grammatical copula in every sentence consists of the *personal inflections* of the verb.' This is the same as to say that the *verb* is the real copula, since the inflections for number, person, and time constitute the criterion of the verb (finite), or of the word that does not simply name, but also declares, affirms, propounds for belief or disbelief, or indicates action. Consequently the grammatical copula is inseparable from the predicate ; and when 'is,' 'are,' &c., occur, we are to treat them as part of the predicate : *subj.* 'rose,' *pred.* '*is* red.' This 'verb' then, like many others, is to be considered a verb of *incomplete predication.* The other auxiliaries are of the same character : 'he *will* come ;' 'he *can* do better ;' 'come' is the completion of the predicate, not the enlargement of it, for 'will' does not make a meaning without 'come.'

Because the verb in such forms as the 'sun *shines*,' contains within itself the whole predicate or quality affirmed, such verbs were called *adjective* verbs, and by contrast, 'be,' whose parts,—'is,' 'are,' &c., do not of themselves indicate the quality predicated, was called the *substantive* verb, a name often applied to it in the grammar of other languages as well as the English. The comparison is by no means a correct or relevant one ; and the distinction of the two kinds of verbs is best expressed as above, by 'complete' and 'incomplete' predication.

4. As the grammatical subject and the grammatical predicate determine two of the parts of speech—the Noun and the Verb,—the extension or enlargements of these give the other parts of speech.

A simple sentence, like 'the sun warms,' 'time flies,' is sometimes spoken of as a *skeleton* sentence, because it contains all the essentials of a sentence, while by expanding it through the addition of qualifying words, we may attain to sentences of any degree of fullness or complexity. The subject and the predicate are called the *principal* elements of the sentence ; and the sentence is said to be *developed*, or enlarged, by means of additions, or adjuncts, which are the *secondary* elements.

5. The Predicate is enlarged when the sense requires us to name an object acted on; as ' the sun warms *the earth ;*' ' the ancients worshipped *many gods.*'

This construction does not bring out any new part of speech; the object, like the subject, is a noun or some form equivalent to a noun. But we thereby determine a distinction among verbs : those that are thus followed by an object are called *transitive* verbs, because the action is supposed to *pass over* to some particular thing. Those that give a complete meaning without an object (' the sun *shines,*' ' time *flies* ') are *intransitive.*

6. The Subject is enlarged by having attributes attached to it; as ' the *distant* sun warms the earth ;' ' the sun, *at noon*, gives the greatest heat ;' ' the *summer* sun, *at noon*, is very hot.' This mode of enlarging the Subject brings into play the part of speech called the Adjective.

The Object of a sentence may be enlarged in the same manner : ' the sun warms the *remote* planets.'

The simplest enlargement of the subject and object is by a single word, as ' distant,' ' remote,' which, when joined to a noun to limit its application, is called an adjective. The phrase ' at noon,' has the same effect as an adjective, and hence is called an adjective phrase. ' *Summer* sun ' exemplifies a case very common in our language, where a word that is of itself a noun may be employed to limit another noun, and so act the part of the adjective. The reasons of this will be given afterwards.

7. The Predicate is still farther extended by means of words expressing some attributes or circumstances of the action; as ' the sun *persistently* warms the earth ;' ' the summer sun at noon is *intensely* hot ;' ' he acted *fairly.*' The words ' persistently,' ' intensely,' ' fairly,' belong to the part of speech called the Adverb.

The adverb is employed to qualify both the predicate and the attributes of the subject and object : ' a *very* great man once said ;' ' he made a *desperately* hard fight.' In other words, adverbs qualify adjectives as well as verbs.

The predicate may be qualified by phrases of greater or less length, which, from serving the same end as the adverb, are called adverbial phrases : ' he left *on the first opportunity.*'

We thus see that the subject and predicate and their extensions bring to light four classes of words, called parts of speech,—the Noun, the Verb, the Adjective, the Adverb. These are the main parts of speech as far as the expression of real things, or notions, is concerned ; the Pronoun, Preposition, and the Conjunction are em-

ployed in connecting together these other parts in the development of sentences; whence the one group—noun, verb, adjective, adverb—is sometimes called the *notional*, and the other—pronoun, preposition, and conjunction—the *relational* parts of speech.

It belongs to Syntax to follow out the development of sentences, and explain the different sorts of sentences thence arising.

THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

THE NOUN.

1. The defining marks of the Noun are the following :—

I. It may be the subject or object of a sentence : ' the *gardener* pruned the *tree*.'

Here ' gardener ' and ' tree,' the one the subject and the other the object of the sentence, are nouns. But as these offices may be filled by other parts of speech, as, for example, the infinitive of the verb, some further restrictions are necessary.

2. II. The Noun is inflected by Number, Case, and Gender ; as ' man,' ' men,' ' men's,' ' woman.'

The fact of being an inflected part of speech separates the noun from prepositions and conjunctions, which are not inflected at all. Its being inflected by number, or having a plural form, distinguishes it (in our language) from the adjective, which is inflected only for degree, or by comparison. The verb is inflected for number, but not for gender or case, and has besides a set of inflections, those for time, &c., not shared in by the noun. Thus while the first defining mark leaves the noun undistinguished from the verb, and even from the adjective, this second mark supplies the deficiency.

3. III. The Noun is the name of a Notion, or of an Actual Thing, and not of a mere relation to things. Thus ' man,' ' virtue,' ' kingdom,' are notions ; ' you,' ' it,' ' who,' are names, not of any present thing, but of relations to some objects otherwise pointed out and understood.

This criterion is necessary, in order to distinguish the noun from the pronoun ; inasmuch as pronouns possess both the two foregoing marks, being subjects and objects in sentences, and undergoing the same inflections as the noun.

Nouns are classified as follows :—

4. I. PROPER ; also called MEANINGLESS. These are of two kinds.

(1.) Proper and Singular ; as ‘ Rome,’ ‘ the Danube,’ ‘ Julius Cæsar.’ These each mean only one object.

(2.) Proper and Common ; as ‘ William,’ ‘ London,’ ‘ Frankfort.’ There are many Williams, several Londons, and two Frankforts.

The exact meaning of a proper name, whether singular or common, will appear when the next class is explained.

5. II. Significant, and also for the most part General ; as ‘ star,’ ‘ river,’ ‘ city,’ ‘ animal.’

There being a small class of significant nouns that are not general, but singular, it is requisite to make two divisions, as in proper nouns.

6. (1.) General and Significant ; as ‘ city.’

When a name is used to signify any one of a great number of things, as ‘ city ’—which applies to London, Paris, New York, &c.— and when it is applied to these not arbitrarily, but because of a likeness or common character pervading them, such a name is said to have a *meaning*, or an implication, over and above the fact that it is applied to designate London, Paris, &c. It is applied to them and everything else that agrees with them in possessing certain peculiarities, called the attributes of the class ‘ city.’ On the other hand, the names ‘ Rome ’ and ‘ Paris ’ are mere marks to speak of those towns by ; they do not imply any distinguishing peculiarities ; they are proper or meaningless names : ‘ city ’ is a general and significant name. So ‘ man ’ is a significant name ; when it is applied to any living being, we are made aware that the being so designated has a certain form, and certain physical and mental endowments. In like manner ‘ king ’ is a significant name, and betokens that the person expressed by it holds a certain station and office in the world ; while such a word as ‘ Smith,’ ‘ Brown,’ ‘ Stuart,’ ‘ George,’ ‘ Mary,’ applied also to human beings, gives no information respecting their character or position, but merely serves to distinguish them from their fellow men and women. These last are proper names, and in most instances, as may be seen, they are common at the same time, being rendered singular and specific by adding other names, as ‘ John Anderson Smith ;’ ‘ William Stuart, now of the parish of St. Giles's.’

Thus a proper noun is not truly contrasted with a common noun, but with a significant noun. ‘ John Smith ’ is common to more individuals than ‘ king ;’ but the one is a proper name, and the other is not. Significant names are designated in Logic by the word *connotative ;* or they are said to *connote* certain properties, that is to say, the properties belonging to the class named. Thus ‘ king,’ besides being the name for certain individuals, as ‘ John Smith ’ is, farther signifies, implies, or connotes, that these individuals are the heads, or chief rulers, of the nations that they severally belong to. ‘ John

Smith' *denotes*, but does not *connote*; 'king' both denotes and connotes. Proper names are non-connotative.

7. (2.) SINGULAR and SIGNIFICANT; as 'Providence.'

When a singular object is expressed by a name or names indicating attributes, that name is still a significant name. Although not general, it is given on account of having an appropriate meaning. 'The present sovereign of Britain' is a singular name, because there is only one person designated by it; yet from its being applied, not as a mere name, but as expressing the functions and position of that person, it does more than indicate an individual; it conveys information respecting that individual, and is therefore significant, or connotative. In an army 'the commander-in-chief' is a significant or connotative name. Every combination of words that singles out one person makes a singular name; but when the words convey no information as to the qualities or attributes of that person, the name is proper; when information is conveyed, it is significant. 'John Augustus Clark, junior,' is proper; 'the town clerk,' 'the senior magistrate,' 'the clergyman of the parish,' &c., are connotative or significant.

8. 'Class Names' come under the division General and Significant; as 'animal,' 'plant,' 'mineral,' 'quadruped,' 'bird,' 'man,' 'Christian.' These are all GENERAL Names, and ought to be parsed as such.

All the objects of the three natural kingdoms—minerals, plants, and animals—are arranged into classes, which have class names; as earths, rocks, mosses, palms, fishes, apes, &c. Every one of these names implies or connotes the peculiarities of the class. So in Geography we have class names; as seas, mountains, rivers, capes. In Astronomy we have stars, planets, moons, comets. In like manner every science arranges some department of nature into classes; and in common life we have such class terms as 'society,' 'trade,' 'manufacture,' 'town,' &c.

All such names have a meaning, or connotation. They might be parsed as class nouns, or as general nouns,—the word 'general' being understood as meaning also 'significant,' while 'common' does not necessarily mean 'significant.'

9. III. COLLECTIVE Names; as 'nation,' 'regiment,' 'fleet,' 'senate,' 'shoal.' In these a great number of individuals are included in one mass or body, and are then taken as a single object.

When a multitude of individuals act together, as a fleet, or a parliament, they are spoken of in the singular number, and have a singular verb, as 'the fleet *was* victorious;' 'the Parliament *was* opened by the Queen in person.' These are properly collective nouns; they are in effect individual or singular.

The designation 'Noun of Multitude' is sometimes applied to express collective bodies expressed in the singular number, but whose action is not collective but in-dividual; as 'the clergy *were* opposed to the measure.' Here 'clergy' expresses the whole body of clergymen; but as they did not meet in an assembly, and express their opposition by a collective resolution, but gave their opinions separately, the verb is plural, and the noun is in reality a plural noun under the guise of a collective noun singular. In this sense 'mankind.' would be a noun of multitude in most cases, being nearly the same as 'men,' or 'all men.'

10. IV. Names of MATERIALS; as 'iron,' 'water,' 'clay,' 'wheat,' 'snow.'

These imply an aggregation, but not of separable individuals like collective nouns. The aggregate is an unbroken or continuous mass, as earth, water, salt, coal. 'Space,' meaning space at large, 'matter,' 'fire,' may be ranked under the same head. All the material constituents of the globe, existing in continuous masses, may be spoken of in this character of unity or collectiveness in quantity, though not in number.

Such nouns are singular nouns, and do not naturally admit of a plural. When we speak of 'earths,' 'waters,' we mean different species of earth or water. The great element 'fire,' localized and separated into distinct burning masses, is then spoken of as 'fires.' 'Space' may become 'spaces' by being supposed to be divided. Thus the same word may be both a class name and a material name, taking the plural in the one case and not in the other. 'The botanist studies the *grasses*, and has found a new *grass* (class-noun).' 'The cow eats *grass* (noun of material).' 'They had *fish* (noun of material) for dinner, and consumed four *fishes* (class-noun).'

Where number is thought of we have a plural : '*two men* are in the room.' When quantity is thought of, even when expressed in number, we have the singular : 'twenty pounds was the sum charged.'

11. V. Abstract Nouns; as 'length,' 'shape,' 'white-ness,' 'health,' 'bravery,' 'wisdom.'

The name of a thing existing in nature, taken as a whole, or with all its attributes together,—as 'town,' 'mountain,' 'horse,' 'man,' 'soldier,' —is called a *concrete* noun ; but when we speak of one of the attributes of the thing apart from the rest—as the *length* of the town, the *shape* of the mountain, the whiteness of the horse, the health of the man, the bravery of the soldier—we are said to describe properties in the *abstract*, and the names are called abstract nouns. They name an attribute, property, or quality, abstracted, or apart, from the subject that it belongs to.

Such names resemble names of materials in being naturally singular. We do not say 'whitenesses,' 'braveries,' 'wisdoms.' In particular applications they are made plural, as 'I drink all your good *healths* ;' 'the *lives* and *liberties* of the people ;' but in such instances there is a deviation from their strict character as abstract nouns. Thus 'colour' in one sense is abstract, as the '*colour* of the sea ;' in another concrete, as the '*colours* of the rainbow,' mean-ing the *class* of colours making up the tints of the rainbow.

Plurality belongs essentially and chiefly to general, or class, names, and is necessarily wanting in proper singular names, as well as in nouns of material and abstract nouns.   Collective nouns may have plurals, because there may be more than one collection of the same kind, as 'armies,' 'crowds,' 'rookeries.'

12. Nouns are for the most part names of the following objects :—

(1.) PERSONS; as 'Cæsar,' 'Milton,' 'Englishman,' 'judge,' 'clergy.'

Whether as proper names, or as names of classes, nations, or professions, singly or collectively, the designations of persons are nouns rather than any other part of speech. Adjectives are employed in specifying individuals, or in distinguishing them from the rest of their class, as the '*first* Edward,' 'the *great* Elector,' this being the function of the adjective; but there is always a noun substantive accompanying or else understood. A person is hardly ever named by a verb.   The exceptions are nicknames, as 'Cut-my-throat,' 'Put-'em-down,' 'Tear-'em,' and these are sentences rather than verbs.

(2.) PLACES, including all geographical designations; as 'London,' 'the Atlantic,' 'the Alps,' 'the Sahara.'

Celestial objects, in like manner, are designated by nouns, as 'the Sun,' 'Mercury,' 'Sirius,' 'the comet of Halley.' 'The azure' for the celestial space, and 'the deep' for the sea, are adjectives used as nouns.

(3.) NATURAL OBJECTS IN GENERAL, comprising the objects of the three great Natural Kingdoms—minerals, plants, and animals; as 'limestone,' 'iron,' 'diamond;' 'heath,' 'shrub,' 'vine,' 'corn;' 'star-fish,' 'bee,' 'lizard,' 'canary,' 'camel.'

As in the names of persons, we have in some instances a verb clause employed to designate a mineral, plant, or animal; for example, 'Forget-me-not.'

Likewise, the employment of adjectives is extensive and systematic in Natural History, as '*stratified* rock,' '*red* thorn,' '*white* ant.' The generic name 'rock,' or the name of the kind, is still a noun; the specific or distinctive designation, 'stratified,' is the adjective.   This mode of naming by two words, one generic and the other specific, has great advantages.

(4.) Objects in stillness or isolation; as 'the house,' 'the factory,' 'the ruin.'

The objects and implements of human industry, considered as at rest, or inactive, are expressed by nouns.   When they become active or productive, the fact is signified in some way or other by the verb : 'he *ploughed* the land,' 'he *housed* the cattle.'

(5.) The facts and attributes of the MIND; as 'sense,' 'thought,' 'feeling,' 'will,' 'anger,' 'conscience.'

(6.) The artificial products and instruments of society and civilization have noun designations, as 'government,' 'law,' 'science,' 'art,' &c.

(7.) Although action is more peculiarly implied in the verb, every active state may be designated by a noun; as 'the *roar* of the lion.'

This fact needs to be pointed out at length, in order to show that the noun and verb cannot be distinguished by the nature of the things designated by them. We shall find that it is not strictly correct to say that the noun is 'the name of any person, place, or thing,' and the verb the word that expresses 'being, doing, or suffering,' for nouns also extend to active states. There are several processes for obtaining noun forms to signify what is expressed by verbs.

(1.) By derivation, as in the Verbal Nouns. It will be seen afterwards (DERIVATION) that there are suffixes or endings for converting verbs into nouns. We may here mention the suffix 'ing,' constituting the verbal noun, as in 'feeling,' 'suffering,' 'wedding,' 'meeting,' where the action implied in the verbs 'feel,' 'suffer,' 'wed,' 'meet,' is still named as an action, although no longer in the form of a verb.

(2.) Our language admits of the same word, in the same sense, being employed as both noun and verb; as 'thunder,' 'cloud,' 'light,' 'war,' &c. These words can, on the one hand, be made the subjects or objects of sentences, and receive the noun inflections; and, on the other, they may be predicated and be inflected by tense, &c. Thus in 'the *thunder's* voice is terrible;' 'the *thunders* of the heavens inspire awe'—the word is a noun: '*thundered* o'er the deep,' exhibits the same word as a verb. The number of this class of words is very great. The following are additional examples:—eye, hand, man (the boat), taste, smell, snuff, sound, roar, fire, water, well, pass, break, beat, whip, fly, run, boat (me o'er the ferry). bed, seat, block, shield, pull, rub, flow, wave, steam, whisk, brush, shoe, bottom, table, chair, poker, house, shelve, ship, plough, paper, feed, milk, bread, corn, plant, stone, fence, iron, copper, tin, silver, nail, hammer, pin, thread, fetter, lead, earth, cover, meet (of hounds), dog, chain, scout, dragoon, knight, guide, rule, work, talk, love, kiss, laugh, lament, stop, esteem, respect, result.

It is in consequence of ours being a comparatively uninflected language that this interchange of parts of speech is so frequent. Still the only difference between ours and the classical languages would be that the above class of words would come under the first head above given, namely, verbs converted into nouns (or nouns into verbs) by derivation. The fact remains that there is no impassable difference of meaning between the noun and the verb, and therefore they cannot be defined and separated by the character of the notions that they express.

This employment of verbs for nouns, or of nouns for verbs, can be explained on the following principles.

(a.) If we have the name of some object used as an agent or material in producing effects, as 'water,' 'light,' 'heat,' 'hand,' and wish to signify that such agent or material is doing its work, a verb is necessary. Now instead of the circumlocution 'he pours *water* on the flowers,' we use the shorter phrase 'he waters the flowers.' So 'he *lights* the lamp,' 'he *heats* the room,' 'he *hands* a chair,' 'he *ploughs* the field,' are preferred, as being short and terse.

(b.) To take the opposite case. An action is named by a verb, as 'work,' and we wish to designate what is the result of the action. Instead of saying the 'effect or result of the work,' we by a figure of speech denominate that by the verb itself, which then becomes a noun, and receives the inflections of the noun. 'Their *works* followed them.' So 'print' means what has been printed. There are other adjuncts of action named in this way from the verb, as 'a walk,' a place for walking. In many such words we are at a loss to know which form is oldest, the noun or the verb: 'milk' is an example.

(c.) It should not be omitted that in cases where verbs have not been converted into nouns, there is still a possibility of expressing the action of any verb as the

subject or object of a sentence; and that is by means of certain inflections of the verb that drop the idea of predication and simply name the action. These are the infinitives, now commonly recognized as two,—'to write,' and 'writing.' In English, these parts cannot assume noun inflections, and are therefore not reckoned as nouns in the full sense of the word. But we construct sentences like the following: '*talking* (for *talk*) prevents working;' '*seeing* (sight) is believing (belief);' '*to err* (error) is human;' '*he* likes *to walk*.' These forms are another evidence to show that the noun and the verb are not distinguished by the things they are applied to.

13. An ADJECTIVE is sometimes converted into a noun, as 'the palpable *obscure*;' 'the fountains of the *deep*;' 'in the *dark*.'

In such cases the explanation is that a noun is understood, as 'obscure *spaces*,' 'deep *sea*,' 'dark *place*.' The noun thus formed is usually abstract; as 'the true' for 'truth;' 'the beautiful' for 'beauty.'

14. ADVERBS are in a few instances turned into nouns: 'the *ayes* have it;' 'an eternal *now*;' 'the *ups* and *downs*;' 'the *why* and *wherefore*.'

15. The equivalents of the Noun in composition are (besides the Pronoun), an Infinitive and a Clause.

The infinitive forms are two,—'to live,' and 'living.' The infinitive may carry with it an object, in which case it is called an *infinitive phrase*; as 'he disdains *to curry favour* (with any one).'

16. When a Clause supplies the place of a Noun, it makes a Noun Clause, and is introduced either by 'that,' or by some interrogative word: '*that we are safe* is now' apparent;' 'I know *how it came about*.'

THE PRONOUN.

1. The PRONOUN differs from the Noun in expressing a thing not by its own name, but by a relation or reference to something else; as '*I* (the person now speaking) say;' '*he* (some one formerly mentioned) remained.'

'John,' 'the master,' 'the king,' are nouns, and express the objects by their real names; but in the sentence 'John was here; I saw *him*,' the word 'him' is not the real name of 'John;' it is the name of any one that happens to be mentioned in the previous clause.

'*I*' stands for the speaker, and means that the actions named are the actions of the speaker. 'I know what I affirm,' means that the subject of the verbs 'know' and 'affirm' is the person speaking: 'thou, or you know not what you say,' implies that the subject of the verbs

'know' and 'say' is the person addressed. Who the speaker, or the person addressed, is, cannot be determined from these expressions, but must be gathered from other sources.

'He, she, or it,' is a subject neither speaking nor spoken to, but pointed out in some other way, as when already mentioned by a noun designation (as 'Peter,' 'Mary,' 'the house'), to which we are referred back for the meaning of the pronoun. Apart from written or spoken language, the person meant might be pointed to by a gesture.

'Who,' the relative, designates some person already named, referring us back to that name (the antecedent) for determining the individual. 'Who' and 'what' (interrogatives) imply that the subject is unknown.

A pronoun is a purely *connotative* name; it denotes no one thing in particular, but connotes the relation of the object to the act of speaking. It is the contrast of a proper name, which denotes, but does not connote.

CLASSES OF PRONOUNS.

2. I. PERSONAL : 'I,' 'we,' 'thou,' 'ye,' 'you.' 'I' and 'we' are pronouns of the first person; the others, 'thou,' 'ye,' 'you,' are pronouns of the second person.

1. 'I' means the speaker standing alone : 'I charge you to depart.' 'We' means the speaker, and others associated with him. In oral address only one can speak at a time, but that one, speaking for others as well as for himself, says 'we.' The foreman of a jury addresses the judge in the words, ' *We* find the prisoner guilty.' In written composition 'we' is more strictly correct, because the parties signing their names at the end are all equally supposed to be uttering their sentiments.

Persons in very high authority, in issuing their commands, often use 'we' instead of 'I;' as ' We, Nicholas, Autocrat of all the Russias.' This may be supposed to be an expression of personal humility, as if the assumption of so much power did not become any single person. Compare, 'ourself shall be last served.'

In anonymous writing, as in newspapers and magazines, the writer speaks as 'we.' This is called the editorial 'we.'

'We' is used in speaking for humanity generally : 'we fancy that we shall always feel as we do now.'

2. 'Thou' is addressed to one person. In the usages of our language this word is obsolete, except in the following cases :—

(1.) In addressing the Almighty : ' *Thou* art the Lord alone.'

(2.) In poetical use, as in the apostrophe to the sun : ' O *thou* that rollest in heaven above.'

(3.) In expressing familiarity and contempt : ' *Thou* vile creature.'

(4.) In the language of the Society of Friends.

'You' is the ordinary pronoun of the second person for one or more persons.

'Ye' is employed in more solemn and elevated occasions : ' *Ye* hills and dales.'

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Nor you, *ye* proud, impute to those the fault.

Also in familiarity : ' *Ye* need not wait.'

There has been a sacrifice of oratorical effect in dropping ' thou ' as the pronoun of the singular, as we may see from the ancient oratory, where the singular was used. The denunciations of Demosthenes against Æschines would have been much enfeebled if, instead of saying ' thou,' which makes the person, as it were, stand alone to bear the whole brunt of what is addressed to him, he had been obliged to say ' you,' and thereby seem to include others in the attack. The modern usage may be looked upon as a mode of politeness.

3. II. DEMONSTRATIVE : ' he,' ' she,' ' it ;' ' this,' ' that.' The two last (this, that) are also Demonstrative Adjectives.

Formerly it was the practice to look upon ' he,' ' she,' ' it,' as personal pronouns, like ' I ' and ' thou.' Two of the three apply to persons, and on that account might seem to be *personal*. But grammarians now remark a wide difference between these pronouns of the ' third ' person, as they are called, and those of the first and second. There is something distinct and peculiar in the relation of speaker and person addressed, and this relationship is well marked in all languages. But the structure of language shows that the names descriptive of what is spoken of, whether persons or things, are formed on a different plan.

Latham lays down the following distinctions between the proper personal pronouns (the first and second) and the pronoun of the third person :—

(1.) The personal pronouns have no gender. There being an actual speaker and an actual hearer, the one is supposed to know the other's gender as a matter of course.

(2.) Their declension is peculiar. In our language, the forms ' I, mine, me '— ' Thou, thine, thee,' are similar to one another, and do not resemble ' he, his, him '— ' she, hers, her '—' it, its, it.'

(3.) There is a closeness of meaning between ' he, she, it,' and the demonstratives ' this ' and ' that.' If the one class are to be called demonstratives, so might the other.

(4.) The plurals of ' he, she, it,' viz. ' they, them,' are derived from the same root as ' that ' the demonstrative. In other languages, such as Latin, the same words, both singular and plural, are at once the third personal pronouns and the demonstratives (is, ille, iste, hic).

4. ' He ' is the pronoun of the male sex in man and in the higher animals.

Also in masculine personifications we make use of ' he.' Speaking of the sun, we say, ' *he* has risen ;' ' he is eclipsed.'

5. ' She ' is the pronoun of the feminine gender in man and in animals : ' when the lioness sees her cubs in danger *she* flies to their help.'

There are feminine personifications as well as masculine. ' Nature,' with us is conventionally spoken of as ' she ;' also the moon : ' that orbed maiden with white fire laden.'

6. ' It' is the pronoun of the *neuter gender*, and refers to things without life, and to living beings whose gender is not marked. ' The house is near, let us go to *it*.' ' *It* is a healthy child.' ' Where's the dog ? I have missed *it*.'

All objects spoken of, that either have no sex, or are not sufficiently important to have the sex discriminated, are signified by ' it :' ' bring the light, put *it* on the table;' 'I went to the river, *it* was swollen.'

> If thou wouldst view fair Melrose aright,
> Go visit *it* by the pale moonlight.

(1.) This may be taken as the primary and ordinary meaning of ' it' as the demonstrative neuter pronoun. But there are other conflicting modes of employing the word, such as to require much care in the appropriate use of this pronoun.

(2.) Frequently the antecedent is not some single noun, as in the above instances, but a whole clause : ' the day will be fine; who doubts *it*? *it* may be so.' Here the antecedent is not ' day,' but the whole assertion, ' the day will be fine.' 'I have done the State some service, and they know *it*,' means properly that they know the circumstance that ' I have done some service.' This usage gives a more indefinite character to the pronoun than can belong to the masculine and feminine demonstratives ' he ' and ' she.' The reference may be still more indefinite, as when at the end of a long narrative the hearer replies, 'never mind *it*;' 'who would have thought *it*?'

(3.) By the idiom of our language, ' it ' is employed to anticipate something that is to come after : ' *it* is probable *that the day will be fine*.'

The simplest example of this arrangement is seen when the reference is an infinitive, or infinitive phrase : ' *it* is too late *to walk* ;' ' *it* is vain *to make excuses*.'

The other case is when the reference is to a sentence : ' *it* is said *that our army has gained a victory*.' This is in conformity with the second use above mentioned, namely, where the antecedent is an entire clause. The sentence referred to in this construction is most commonly introduced by the conjunction ' that;' but other conjunctions may be employed : ' *it* is uncertain if (or *whether*, or *when*) he will come;' ' *it* is laid down *how far* we should go.'

This use of ' it ' gives us something of the power of inversion belonging to languages different in structure from ours, and thus takes away an imperfection of our language as compared with these others. The idiom ' there is ' has the same effect.

(4.) There is a still more vague and indefinite employment of ' it ' in such phrases as ' who is *it*?' ' what is *it*?' where the pronoun is put for something altogether uncertain or unknown. The response to such questions shows the great latitude allowed with this word : ' it is a boy ;' ' it is a beggar;' ' it is a coach ;' ' it is the men ;' ' it is a

message;' 'it is a long story about nothing.' Hence the admitted employment of the word in violation of the concords of number and gender. Thus,

> *'Tis these* that gave the great Atrides spoils.—*Pope.*

' *It* was *he*, not *she*, that I saw.'

The same indefiniteness is exemplified in the phrases, '*it* rains;' '*it* strikes four;' 'how is *it* with you?' '*it* is all over with us;' 'they lord *it*;' 'he stars *it* in the provinces;' 'trip *it* as ye go.' In some of these expressions the pronoun approaches almost to the character of an expletive; we can with difficulty assign any object, circumstance, or fact, as an antecedent or reference.

The pronoun 'it' thus appears to have at least three distinct modes of reference: 1st, to a simple subject, or noun, going before; 2nd, to a clause going before; 3rd, to a clause coming after. Hence we are often in great perplexity to say which of several possible references a writer has in view when he uses the word. 'When wit hath any mixture of raillery, *it* is but calling *it* banter, and the thing is done.' Here we judge from the meaning that the first 'it' is anticipative, and the second retrospective. The full illustration of this difficulty, and of the various modes of obviating it, will come afterwards. We may farther remark here, however, that the relative 'which' has the same alternative reference to a single object or to a whole clause.

7. 'They' is the plural of 'He' and 'She' applied to persons, and of 'It' applied to things: 'I met the soldiers; *they* were on the march.' 'I saw his daughters; *they* were in the field.' 'Gold, silver, and platinum are the noble metals; *they* are so called because they do not rust.'

8. 'This' and 'That' are properly Demonstrative Adjectives, and will be given under Adjectives. They usually have a noun expressed or understood, as, 'I take *this* place, you take *that*.' In the first expression the noun 'place' is expressed, in the second it is understood; in the one, 'this' is an Adjective, in the other, 'that' may be classified as either an Adjective or a Demonstrative Pronoun.

The case where 'that' seems to have most of the nature of a true pronoun is seen in the following sentences: 'he mistook his own room for *that* of the stranger;' 'the song of the nightingale is more various than *that* of the thrush.' This is a form derived from the French: our native idioms applicable to the case, which are to be preferred when they can be used, are, 1st, to repeat the noun,—'his own room for the stranger's room;' and 2nd, to use the possessive without the noun,—'for the stranger's.' Owing to the possessive inflection being so rarely in use, we are principally thrown upon the first form when we wish to keep clear of the Gallicism.

In the line, ' To be, or not to be, *that* is the question,' ' that' may be considered as a pronoun, having a whole clause for the antecedent, as we have seen with the demonstrative ' it.' We might still consider the word as an adjective with a noun dropped, or put in a different place, and so look upon the passage as an abbreviation of ' to be, or not to be—*that question* is it.' ' One thing have I desired of the Lord, *that* (thing) I will seek after.'

' This ' is of the nature of a pronoun in the phrases ' before this,' ' after this;' there being, however, an ellipsis of ' time.'

9. Certain Pronouns of Demonstrative signification are called INDEFINITE, from signifying not any particular subject, but persons or things taken generally. Such are ' One' and ' They :' ' *one* cannot be sure of that ;' ' any of the little *ones*.'

' They ' is also used colloquially in this indefinite sense : ' *they say* that the harvest is good;' but ' the harvest is said to be good ' is better English.

In the first example ' one' is derived from the French *on*, which is a corruption of *homme*—man. When the subject of the verb is unknown, or of little consequence, the French use *on*, as *on dit*—' it is said ' (by no one in particular) ; ' on commence à ériger'—' people begin to build;' it being no matter who are to be employed, provided the work is done. We use the passive voice in such cases : ' the building is begun.' We employ ' one' in somewhat different circumstances. Thus, if we were putting a supposition by way of argument or illustration, we might give it in the following forms : ' suppose *I* were to lose my way in a wood ;' or, ' suppose *you* were to lose your way ;' or, ' suppose *one* were to lose *one's* way.' All are made use of, but as a general rule, the last is preferred as a matter of good taste. The first is objectionable as verging on egotism, the second as using freedoms with another person, whereas the third is indifferent. ' If one's honesty were impeached, what should one do ?' is a politer mode of making the supposition than to take either one's self, or the person addressed, for the example.

' One' should be followed by ' one,' and not by ' he.' ' What *one* sees or feels, *one* cannot but be sure that *one* sees or feels.' This may sound stiff, but the following is lax : ' the better acquainted *one* is with any kind of rhetorical trick, the less liable *he* is to be misled by it.'

In the second example given above—' the little ones,' ' one ' is the numeral employed in the manner of a pronoun, by indicating something that has gone before (or perhaps has to come after) : ' I like peaches, but I must have a ripe *one*, or some ripe *ones*.'

Other adjectives are used in almost the same way ; as ' give me *one or two* ;' ' I will take *either*, or *neither*, or *both*, or *any one, some*, or *all*, or *none*.'

'Such' and 'same' are employed as demonstrative pronouns: 'if you are a man, show yourself *such*.' The use of 'same' in common style is inelegant. The adverbs, 'so,' 'thus,' 'then,' 'there,' 'here,' 'hence,' 'thence,' 'hither,' 'thither,' serve the purpose of the demonstratives: 'do *so* then,' for 'do it,' or 'do that;' 'and if *so* be that he find it.'

10. The word 'self' enters into compounds with both the Personal and the Demonstrative Pronouns; as 'myself,' 'thyself,' 'ourselves,' 'himself,' 'herself,' 'itself,' 'one's self,' 'themselves.' These are called Reflective Pronouns.

They also impart emphasis, as 'I myself,' 'he himself,' 'they themselves.' Considered as nominatives, their structure is singular; since some of them are combinations with the possessive case, and others with the objective (or dative) case.

11. III. RELATIVE PRONOUNS: 'who,' 'which,' 'that,' 'what.' These are the proper relatives.

There are several other words that answer the purpose of relatives; 'such as,' 'but,' 'when,' 'where,' 'whither,' 'whence,' and the compounds, 'whoever,' 'whoso,' 'whosoever,' 'whichever,' 'whichsoever,' 'whatsoever,' 'whenever,' 'whensoever,' &c.

12. A Relative Pronoun stands for a noun, or subject otherwise mentioned, with the power of a conjunction besides. It joins sentences and clauses by referring back directly to something just named.

In the sentence, 'I found an old acquaintance, *whom* I had not seen for some time;' 'whom' is the same as '*and him* I had not seen.' 'I do not know *what* you say' is properly an abbreviation of 'I do not know that that you say.'

13. 'Who' and its compounds, 'whoso,' 'whoever,' 'whosoever,' apply to persons; 'which' and its compounds relate generally to things; 'that,' 'what' (with its compounds), 'such as,' are used with both persons and things.

'Who' is commonly applied in two very different significations.

I. To connect two co-ordinate sentences; as 'I met the watchman, *who* told me there had been a fire.' Here the two sentences are distinct and independent; in such a case 'and he' might have been substituted for 'who.'

Another form of the same use is when the second clause is of the kind termed adverbial, where we may still resolve 'who' into a personal or demonstrative pronoun and a conjunction. 'Why should we consult Charles, *who* (*for he, seeing that he*) knows nothing of the matter?'

II. In modern use, more especially in books, 'who' is frequently employed when it is intended to restrict, define, limit, or explain, the subject of the previous sentence; as 'that is the man *who* spoke to us yesterday.' Here the clause introduced by 'who' is necessary to define or explain the antecedent 'the man;' without it we do not know who 'the man' is. Such relative clauses are called *adjective* clauses, because they have the same effect as adjectives in limiting nouns. This may be called the *restrictive* use of the relative.

Now it will be found that the practice of our most idiomatic writers and speakers is to prefer 'that' to 'who' in this application; whereas for the other meaning, 'that' would be improper.

'Which' is employed with reference to things in both the senses now given of 'who' with reference to persons; as in co-ordinate sentences, where 'it,' or 'they,' and a conjunction might answer the purpose; thus, 'at school I studied geometry, *which* (*and it*) I found useful afterwards.' Here the new clause is something independent added to the previous clause, and not limiting that clause in any way. So in the adverbial clause, as 'he struck the poor dog, *which* (*and* or *although it*) had never done him harm.' Such instances represent the most accurate meaning of 'which,' as of 'who;' and accordingly, we might term these the *co-ordinating* relatives.

'Which' is likewise used for restrictive purposes, or to limit or explain its antecedent; as 'the house *which* he built still remains.' Here 'which' specifies, or points out, the house that is the subject of the statement, namely, by the circumstance that a certain person built it. As remarked with regard to 'who,' our most idiomatic writers prefer 'that' in this particular application, and would say 'the house *that* he built remains.'

But there is a meaning of 'which' attaching to it as the neuter relative, as in the following clause: 'Cæsar crossed the Rubicon, *which* was in effect a declaration of war.' The antecedent to 'which' in this instance is not the 'Rubicon,' but the entire clause, 'Cæsar crossed the Rubicon;' this fact being what amounted to war. It will be remembered that the neuter demonstrative 'it' in like manner may have a clause for its antecedent: we might say that 'Cæsar crossed the Rubicon when nobody expected *it;*' 'it' referring still to the fact of Cæsar's crossing, and not to the 'Rubicon.' Now this meaning of 'which' is not one of the meanings of the relative 'that' as a retrospective pronoun, although 'that' may apply to things as well as to persons.

'That' is the proper *restrictive*, explicative, limiting, or defining relative—the relative of the adjective sentence. Although 'that' is by no means uniformly employed in published works now, when this sense occurs, yet if we go back to the writers of the seventeenth century we find the usage observed. This construction also avoids ambiguities that often attend the indiscriminate use of 'who' and 'which' for co-ordinate and for restrictive clauses. Thus when we say, 'his conduct surprised his English friends, who had not known him long,' we may mean either that his English friends generally were surprised (the relative being, in that case, *co-ordinating*), or that

only a portion of them—namely, the particular portion that had not known him long—were surprised. In this last case the relative is meant to define or explain the antecedent, and the doubt would be removed by writing thus: 'his English friends *that* had not known him long.' So in the following sentence there is a similar ambiguity in the use of 'which:' 'the next winter *which* you will spend in town will give you opportunities of making a more prudent choice.' This may mean, either 'you will spend next winter in town' ('which' being co-ordinating), or 'the next of the winters when you are to live in town,' let that come when it may. In the former case 'which' is the proper relative; in the latter case the meaning is restrictive or defining, and would be best brought out by 'that:' 'the next winter *that* you will spend in town.'

A farther consideration in favour of employing 'that' for explicative clauses is the unpleasant effect arising from the too frequent repetition of 'who' and 'which.' Grammarians often recommend 'that' as a means of varying the style; but this end ought to be sought in subservience to the still greater end of perspicuity.

'What' may be considered as a compound relative, since it enables the antecedent to be suppressed. 'Give me what is in your hand' is for 'give me that (the thing) that is in your hand.'

In such expressions as the following, 'what' may be put for 'that which,' and is generally an improvement: 'who steals my good name steals *that which* makes me poor indeed.'

14. As, preceded by Such, has the force of a relative, applying to both persons and things, and generally with an explicative, or restrictive signification: 'the curse denounced upon *such as* removed ancient landmarks.' This might have been 'them *that*,' or 'those *that*,' but not so properly 'who.'

The true relative force lies in the adverb 'as,' which, in provincial and vulgar English, has the full power of a relative without 'such ;' thus, 'the man *as* rides to market' is 'the man *that* rides to market,' the meaning being restrictive. In old English 'such' was sometimes followed by 'that.' Thus, in Chaucer: 'I shall loven *such that* I will.' The form 'such as' is a convenient substitute for 'that,' and enables us to vary the relative construction in restrictive clauses without loss of clearness. It has the farther advantage of enabling us to enclose the antecedent: 'such *skill* as he displayed.'

15. The word But is a relative in certain constructions; as 'there was no one *but* did his best,' for 'there was no one *that did not* do his best.'

The expression is obviously an abbreviation for 'there was no one present *but* (those that) did their best.' This usage can occur only in negative assertions.

16. The adverb 'when' answers the purpose of the

restrictive relative, especially with a noun of *time* as the antecedent; as 'the good news from Ireland reached London at a time *when* good news was needed.'

It is also usual to employ 'in which' for the same meaning; but in cases where the relative clause limits or defines, 'that' is the proper relative, and we can say 'the very day *that* he arrived.' 'When' has not always the explicative meaning; thus, 'the day of trial will come *when* all will be different;' 'in which' would here be the correct relative. We may say, however, that 'when' is perhaps oftener restrictive than co-ordinating.

17. 'Where' is used as a relative when the antecedent denotes place; as 'I put the book (in the place) *where* I found it;' for '*in which* I found it,' or '*that* I found it *in*.'

The remarks made on 'when' apply to 'where.' It may be a substitute for either relative, but it is perhaps more commonly and better applied when the restrictive meaning is intended, as in the above instance. 'Where' takes a much wider range than literal place, being extended to the many metaphorical applications of place. Thus we may say 'the *point where* your argument fails;' '*where* thy treasure is, there will thy heart be also.'

These two adverbial relatives are of great use in varying and lightening composition, which is always liable to be overburdened with the common relatives.

18. 'Whence' is occasionally used as a relative of place: 'he returned to the place *whence* he came,' instead of 'from which he came,' or 'that he came from.'

'Whither' is used in like manner in the sense of 'to a place;' as 'I know not *whither* he went.'

'Whence' and 'whither' are of less general application than 'when' and 'where.' They are more confined to their principal use as interrogative adverbs. As relatives they are, strictly speaking, the equivalents of the common relatives with prepositions; 'from which' (whence), 'to which' (whither). But we postpone the more special account of the relative as governed by prepositions, to the second branch of Etymology, or Inflection; under which head we shall have to allude to the adverbial relatives compounded with prepositions, as 'whereof,' 'wherein,' 'whereto,' 'whereat,' some of which represent what is called the *cases* of the relative pronouns, 'whereof' being equal to 'whose.'

19. The compound forms 'whoever,' 'whoso,' 'whosoever,' 'whichever,' 'whichsoever,' 'whatever,' 'whatsoever,' 'whenever,' 'whensoever,' 'wherever,' 'wheresoever,' 'whithersoever,' 'whensoever,' have a certain indefinite meaning, and have their antecedents often left unexpressed; thus, '*whoever* is found wanting,' means *any person* that is found; '*whoso* is wise;' '*whatever* be

the consequences, I dare not stay;' 'wherever, whither-soever you go.'

The characteristic meanings of these words are more closely allied with the *interrogative* meanings of ' who,' ' which,' ' what,' &c., than with their meanings as relatives. Thus the peculiar force of ' which ' as an interrogative is, ' which one of a certain defined number or class?' and this is the meaning of ' whichsoever.'

20. IV. Interrogative Pronouns: 'who,' 'which,' 'what.' The equivalent Adverbs are 'when,' 'where,' 'whence,' 'whether,' and their compounds.

These are obviously the relative pronouns in a new acceptation; the transference is explained on the principle of ellipsis or abbreviation; thus, the complete form of an interrogative sentence may be supposed to be, 'I want to know the man *who* did this.' The first part, containing the expression of the wish, is dropped, and the place supplied by putting a peculiar stress on the relative ' who,' which then bears the whole force of the omitted clause.

21. 'Who' applies to persons, and is entirely indefinite. 'Who goes there?' supposes complete ignorance of the person alluded to.

22. 'Which,' unlike its use as a Relative, applies to persons as well as to things. Its peculiar force is selective.

It supposes a known class or group, and inquires the specific individual or individuals: ' *Which* of you convinceth me of sin?' ' Which is the way?' ' Which is best?'

23. 'What' applies to both persons and things.

When it is applied to persons, a noun is necessary, as ' *What* man of honour would act so?' ' *What* monarch would resign his power meekly?' Without such a noun, it refers exclusively to things; as ' *What* do you mean?'

This may be called by pre-eminence the interrogative of knowledge, or the expression of a desire to be informed respecting some part of the world: ' What is man?' ' What is lightning?' ' What is the cause of the tides?'

24. The Adverbial Interrogatives equivalent to the pronouns are 'When,' 'Where,' 'Whence,' 'Whither,' and are applied in the same circumstances as those described for their use as relatives.

The compounds ' wherein,' ' wherefore,' are used as interrogatives, but not the other compounds of ' where.' ' Whether,' an old dual, was formerly applied to ask ' which of two:' ' Whether is greater, the gold, or the temple?'

Interrogation takes place in another form, as 'Can the rush grow?' 'Breathes there a man?' 'Came you by the bridge?' The thing demanded may be observed to be somewhat different in these instances.

25. One of the uses of Pronouns is to save the repetition of a Noun; as ' John is come; he has not been long.'

This may be effected by various other means.

(1.) By some more *general* designation, as in Milton : ' Thus spoke the *tempter*, the *fiend*,' for Satan. ' We went to see St. Paul's, and admired the *vast building*.'

Such general words are often advantageously combined with the relative : ' touching musical harmony, a *thing that* (equal to ' which ') delighteth all ages; a *thing* as seasonable in joy as in grief;' ' *which consideration* had some weight;' ' he was naturally morose, a *peculiarity that* I do not here take into account.' Also the relative may be dispensed with : ' the nation were unanimous, a *thing* (a *circumstance*) of rare occurrence.'

(2.) The iteration of the noun is avoided by the use of synonymes. ' His *happiness* was much enhanced by his success; but it was not in the nature of so great *bliss* to last.'

Under the adjective we shall see other modes of saving the repetition of the principal subject, as by ' former and latter,' ' the one and the other,' ' the first and the second,' &c.

It is a very insufficient *definition* of the pronoun to say that it saves the repetition of the noun, being wholly inapplicable to interrogatives, and to the indefinite pronouns.

THE ADJECTIVE.

1. An Adjective is a word joined to a noun, to limit its application; as ' *my* hat;' ' a *sweet* sound.'

Adjectives are commonly said to name a *quality*. But this can hardly apply to pronominal adjectives, as ' this,' ' our.' Moreover in the classification of adjectives, one class is those of quality ; implying that the other classes, namely, those of quantity and the pronominal, are not expressive of quality. It is better to treat them as words that go along with nouns to specify or narrow their application. For example, the word ' wise ' joined to the noun ' man,' signifies a more select kind of man, having the distinguishing attribute termed wisdom. Thus while the extent of the noun is narrowed, its meaning is increased by the adjective: ' wise men ' are a smaller class than ⁺men,' but they have one attribute in addition to what is common to men.

2. An Adjective is distinguished from a noun by its

inflection, which is by degree, or what is called Comparison: '*wise, wiser;*' '*fertile, more fertile.*'

In our language, which admits the easy convertibility of the parts of speech, nouns are often used to discharge the office of the adjective; as 'the *gold* ring.' These nouns are distinguished from true adjectives by not being compared: we cannot say, 'gold, golder, goldest.' On the other hand, the true grammatical adjective does not undergo the noun inflection: we do not say 'wise, (*plural*) wises.' By the same criterion we can distinguish an adjective from a verb used to limit a noun; as 'a *brew* house.'

It follows from the definition, that an adjective cannot be the subject of a sentence. We cannot say '*wise* is good.' A word that merely limits can have no meaning standing alone, or without a word to limit. Such cases as '*foul* is fair,' '*black* is not white,' are not exceptions; the adjective being used for the corresponding abstract noun. Hence when a sentence or clause begins with an adjective we understand that there is an inversion of the usual order; as '*great* was the fall thereof.'

An adjective cannot qualify any part of speech but a noun. It cannot be governed by a preposition.

CLASSES OF ADJECTIVES.

3. I. PRONOMINAL. These are of two kinds, *Demonstrative* and *Possessive.*

The name 'pronominal' indicates that these adjectives (this, my, &c.) are all derived from pronouns. Indeed they have often been included among the pronouns. The reason for placing them among adjectives is that they require a noun after them, which the proper pronouns do not.

4. (1.) *Pronominal Demonstratives:* 'this,' 'that,' 'the,' 'yon,' 'yonder.'

'This' applies to persons and things, and means some object near or close at hand, or nearer than some other compared object: '*this* man,' some one close by; '*this* house,' the house that we are in or near; '*this* is my own, my native land.'

In a succession of things 'this' means the nearest—either the last said, or the next to be mentioned. 'After *this* speech' refers to what has just been delivered: 'I will put *this* supposition' is what is to come next.

'That' applies also to persons and things, and means something at a distance. '*That* man' is some one not close by. 'This' and 'that' are correlative or contrasting words; the one excludes or opposes the other.

When two persons or things have been mentioned, the first in order is sometimes recalled by 'that,' the second by 'this,' in imitation of the Latin pronouns *ille* and *hic*. Other forms for the same purpose are 'the one' and 'the other,' 'the first' and 'the second,' 'the first named' and 'the last named,' 'the former' and 'the latter.' In the following lines, 'these' and 'those' mean 'some' and 'others,' selected without reference to comparative proximity :

> The palaces and lofty domes arose,
> *These* for devotion, and for pleasure *those*.

'Yon' and 'yonder' are in use for the same meaning as 'that:' '*yonder* ivy-mantled tower.'

'The,' derived from 'that,' is commonly called the Definite Article. It is usually considered along with 'a' or 'an,' the Indefinite Article.

5. The adverbial substitutes for the Demonstrative Adjectives are the same as for the Demonstrative Pronouns, 'so,' 'thus,' 'then,' 'there,' 'here' (and the compounds, 'herein,' 'therein,' &c.), 'hence,' 'thence,' 'hither,' 'thither.' These substitutes cannot be used where nominatives are required. '*Here, there*, lies,' are equivalent to 'in this place,' 'in that place,' &c.

Both variety and elegance are attained by the employment of these adverbs as demonstratives. The remarks made respecting 'where,' 'when,' &c., as equivalents of the relative pronouns, are applicable to the present class of words: '*here* is the point;' '*there's* the rub ;' '*herein* is love ;' '*then* was the time.'

The frequent ellipsis of the noun with the demonstrative adjectives is what gives them the character of demonstrative pronouns : 'after *that*, I shall say no more ;' '*this* being granted.' These adjectives also save the repetition of the main subject, by being joined to a more general noun. Thus instead of repeating the name 'Cæsar,' we may designate him 'that general,' 'that Roman,' 'that conqueror.'

6. (2.) *Pronominal Possessives :* 'my,' 'mine,' 'our,' 'ours,' 'thy,' 'thine,' 'your,' 'yours,' 'his,' 'her,' 'hers,' 'its,' 'their,' 'theirs.' These are the Genitives of the Personal and Demonstrative Pronouns.

The double forms 'my, mine,' 'our, ours,' 'thy, thine,' 'your, yours,' 'their, theirs,' have distinct uses. The first form is used with nouns like any other adjectives, as '*my* book ;' '*your* house ;' '*their* liberty :' the other form is employed only in predication, as 'the book is *mine ;*' 'the house is not *yours*.' The distinction was not always observed in our language. In the translation of the Bible, 'thine' and 'mine' are used with nouns : '*mine* eyes have seen ;' 'mine honour,' &c. A similar difference exis s between

'no' and 'none.' There are probably no other instances of adjectives used in predication alone.

The meanings of the possessive pronouns are so well understood, and so little subject to irregularity, as to need no special comment.

7. II. ADJECTIVES OF QUANTITY.

Setting aside the pronominal adjectives, we may include all the others under the two heads of quantity and quality ; those of the one class (quantity) are few in number and peculiar in character ; the other class (quality) comprises the great body of adjectives. The adjectives of quantity are subdivided as follows :—

8. (1.) *Quantity* in *mass* or *bulk :* 'much,' 'little,' 'great,' 'small,' 'some,' 'any :' '*much* wind ;' '*little* light ;' '*great* rivers ;' '*some* feeling.'

This kind of quantity is also called *continuous* quantity, and is opposed to broken, numbered, or *discrete* quantity.   Space, motion, bulk, and material being in many instances unbroken, we do not always apply numbers to designate their amount.   When we desire accuracy we suppose these things divided into parts, and number the parts ; as 'ten yards.'   But where we cannot do this, as in mental qualities, we use adjectives of degree, and apply qualifying words to specify the differences ; thus, 'small, very small, exceedingly small, diminutive, insignificant ;' 'great, large, somewhat large, rather large, considerable, vast, huge, immense, enormous, infinite ;' 'middling, average, moderate, ordinary, sober,' &c.

'Some' and 'any' are applied also to number.

9. (2.) *Quantity in Number.* Under this we have various kinds.

(*a.*) Definite Numeral Adjectives ; as '*eight* days' (*cardinal* number) ; 'the *eighth* day' (*ordinal* number).

The *cardinal* numbers—one, two, three—denote totals made up to the amount of the number,—a total of two, five, fifty, &c. The *ordinal* numbers indicate a series, and state the place of an individual in the series : the 'fifth' is the name of one object in a certain remove from the commencement.

We may include also the *multipliers*, 'single,' 'double,' 'triple,' 'quadruple ;' and the combination of the numerals with particular subjects, as '*bi*ennial,' '*quadri*lateral,' '*hepta*gonal.'

'A,' or 'an,' the Indefinite Article, is strictly speaking the numeral adjective 'one,' with a somewhat altered signification.

'Another' is an ordinal adjective, meaning the second of *two.*

The word is not confined to this meaning, but is used to signify 'one more ;' 'another and another and another.'

'Both' means two taken together, and is opposed to the distributives 'either' (one of two), and 'neither' (none of two).

This word, being often used without the noun, assumes the character of a pronoun.

10. (b.) Indefinite numeral Adjectives; as '*many* days,' '*any* books,' '*all* men.' These express number, but not in the definite form of numeration.

'Many,' although plural in meaning, can be joined with a singular noun preceded by 'a:' 'many a man.'

'Any' after negative words has an emphatic exclusive force, 'without any remainder.' As a derivative from 'one,' in a positive signification it means 'one,' but no one in particular; hence called indefinite. It may, however, mean more than one, and it applies both to quantity and to number: 'any meat,' 'any trees.'

'Some' denotes an uncertain portion of an entire collection.

'Some' has various meanings. In strict logic it signifies 'not none,' a certain number, but how many not stated,—*some at least.* There is a more popular meaning, which implies less than the whole, 'some only,' or '*some at most.*' 'Some men are wise,' insinuates that there are other men not wise. Hence the *alternative* signification : 'some believed,' and 'some (others) believed not.' '*Some* fifty years ago' is a special idiom.

'Certain' is a small select number. Applied in the singular it means a particular and known individual.

'Several,' the Distributive Adjective, is also used to mean a small number without reference to distribution.

'Few' is opposed to many. '*Few, few* shall part where many meet.' 'A few' is some—not many.

Not a few is a more emphatic 'many;' the denying of an opposite being often a stronger form of the affirmative. '*Not* inconsiderable' is perhaps a little less than 'considerable.'

'Most,' the larger number.

'All' is opposed alike to 'none,' and to 'some.'

'Whole,' or total, is opposed to 'part,' and hence to 'some.'

'No,' and 'None,' the absence, negation, or privation of anything.

These words must be followed by the singular or plural, according to the meaning. An ancient Greek disbelieving his religion would have said there are 'no Gods;' a Jew, there is 'no God.'

11. (c.) Distributive numeral Adjectives; as '*each*
man,' '*neither* way.' These are 'each,' 'either,' 'neither,'
'several,' 'every,' 'other.'

'Each' is employed to denote two or more things taken separately,
and when applied to two, is opposed to '*either*,' which is one of the
two, as well as to 'both,' or the two collectively. 'Each' is the word
that should have been used in the following passage. 'The King of
Israel, and Jehoshaphat, King of Judah, sat *either* of them on his throne.'
'Simeon and Levi took *each* man his sword,' shows the correct usage.
'Each' is a singular word. The correlative is 'other,' as seen in the
elliptical phrase 'bear each other's burdens.'

'Neither' excludes each of two.

'Several' is a small number taken separately, but entirely, and is a
plural : 'several witnesses attested the fact.'

'Every' means each individual of a whole collection separately
stated or considered. When 'each' denoted, as it seems to have done
at one time, 'one of two,' there was a real difference between 'each'
and 'every' that hardly exists now. Excepting in such idiomatic
phrases as 'each other,' 'every' might be generally substituted for
'each.' 'Every' is an emphatic word for 'all,' as it seems to address
the individuals separately : 'England expects *every* man to do his
duty ;' 'not *every* one that saith unto me.' 'Every three years' is an
admitted idiom.

'Other,' opposed to 'one,' is the second or alternative of a couple,—
a dual form. 'No other' has the more indefinite signification of 'none
anywhere.' Followed by 'than' it is the same as 'none but.' By
an incidental consequence, 'the other' may point out contrariety ; as
'on the *one* side of the river stood our army, on the *other*, the enemy.'
The meaning of addition comes naturally to attach to the word : 'get
as much *other* knowledge as you can.' 'The *other* day' is an idiom
for 'lately.' The word has a noun form and declension when opposed
to 'some' and 'each :' 'some sat, *others* stood ;' 'they visited at each
other's houses.' In this capacity the plural 'others' is a species of
collective noun, like the 'rest' or the 'remainder.'

12. III. ADJECTIVES OF QUALITY ; as 'a *broad* way,'
'a *heavy* weight,' 'a *prudent* man.'

These embrace the great body of adjectives, and are co-extensive
with human knowledge. They could be classified only by a reference
to the sciences, or different departments of knowledge, as mathematics,
natural history, morals, &c. Everything that can be pointed out as a
property, power, or agency, is liable to be expressed as an adjective, so
as to qualify some subject. In Roget's *Thesaurus of Words and
Phrases* there is a classification of human knowledge given as a
basis for the classification of words according to their meaning, and it
will be found that the words thus arranged are nouns, adjectives,
and verbs ; and there is hardly any meaning that cannot appear in
all the three forms.

The nouns least suited to become adjectives are the names of natural classes or kinds, as 'tree,' 'horse,' 'monkey;' because these objects contain too many qualities to be predicated of anything besides themselves. We cannot well have a thing different from a tree and possessing all the characters of a tree; hence when we derive an adjective from tree, as 'arborescent,' we mean only the form of a tree, and not the whole attributes. So 'manly,' 'leonine,' or 'lionlike,' merely indicate some prominent character of a man, or of a lion, and do not transfer the whole of the attributes of a man or a lion to something that is neither.

Adjectives formed from the metals, minerals, woods, &c., generally signify 'made from these materials.'

Adjectives derived from the great natural objects, often mean only a *reference* to those objects; as 'the solar, the lunar tables'—tables *respecting* the sun or moon.

13. The class of Adjectives derived from proper names, and called Proper Adjectives, are principally adjectives of quality, as the '*Socratic* Method,' which means a certain kind of method, invented or employed by Socrates.

Some proper adjectives might be looked upon as contributing to form proper names, as '*English* law,' '*French* literature, the '*Elizabethan* Age.'

THE ARTICLES.

The articles are of great value in our language. They indicate three different forms of the noun, each with a separate meaning : '*a* virtue,' '*the* virtue,' and '*virtue*,' are all distinct.

14. 'A' or 'An' is called the Indefinite Article : '*a* horse' means no one horse in particular. It gives the species or kind of thing wanted, and leaves the choice of the individual free.

The indefinite article is the unemphatic form of the numeral 'one,' and has a meaning of its own, different from the numeral. 'Give me *a* pen,' means give me an object of the species 'pen ;' 'give me *one* pen,' lays an emphasis upon *one*, and implies that one is asked for, and not two or three. 'A horse, a horse, my kingdom for a horse,' is any horse, anything that is a horse.

The article having a singular meaning, is a sign of the singular number, and is used with all singular things (provided they are such as admit of the plural). Thus we do not say 'house,' 'table,' 'star,' but '*a* house,' '*a* table,' '*a* star.' Hence it is used with general or class names, and not with proper names (Adam, Mary), nor with names of material (air, gold), nor with abstract names (wisdom, bravery). When class nouns have no plural change (sheep, cannon), the presence or absence of the article is a mark of the number (a

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sheep, sheep). When 'a' is prefixed to a proper name (a Mr. Brown), one of a class is meant.

15. 'A' is used before a consonant, and before 'h' (sounded as h), 'y,' or 'w :' a meal,' 'a house,' 'a year,' 'a world.' An is used before a vowel, and before silent 'h ;' as 'an ounce,' 'an hour.'

Many of the best writers, as Macaulay, use an before 'h' (not silent) when the accent is on the second syllable: 'an historical parallel.'

16. 'The' is called the Definite Article : 'the horse' means some one horse in particular.

It is the unemphatic form of the demonstrative 'that,' and has itself a weaker demonstrative force than 'that.'

The circumstances determining the use of this article may be stated thus. There is a *collection* of various things before us, say in a room, and *one* of each thing : a door, a window, a table, a sofa, a fire. If we want to single out one of these, we say 'the door,' 'the table,' 'the fire.' In like manner, 'the house,' 'the garden,' 'the stables,' are the single objects that enter into the aggregate whole of a residence. A definite collection, or total, must be supposed to be before the mind of the hearer, and there must be no more than one object of a kind. Hence when we speak of 'the town hall,' 'the market cross,' 'the harbour,' 'the provost,' we are understood to refer to the aggregate whole that makes up the town that we live in ; and there being only one of each of these objects in the town, it is indicated by prefixing 'the,' 'the provost.' So 'the parliament,' 'the constitution,' 'the navy,' suppose the collective whole of the nation, and that there are not two parliaments or constitutions. 'The sun,' 'the stars,' suppose that we are thinking of the great sidereal whole, and that we indicate therein the one sun, or the one collection of stars.

The various applications of the definite article seem to branch out from this principal meaning. Thus, when applied, as it is, to indicate a *species*, as 'the rose,' 'the lion,' 'the gorilla,' a certain higher genus is supposed present to the mind, containing many species, one of which is singled out : 'as *the cedar* among *the woods*, so is my beloved.' Having in view animals generally, we say 'the lion' to indicate the one species of that name. The use of the article is less common with very high or comprehensive groups ; we sometimes, but not often, say 'the plant,' 'the animal,' having in our view organized beings as a whole. In Philosophy the whole of known existence is divided into 'the object,' the external world, and 'the subject,' the world of mind.

The same specification explains the application of the article to designate geographical objects, as 'the Alps' (among mountains), 'the Rhine' (among rivers), 'the Atlantic' (among oceans) ; likewise 'the French,' 'the English' (among nations).

So in such phrases as 'the Bar,' 'the Church,' 'the Bench,' we have in our mind the aggregate of professions, and single out the separate individuals. 'The palace,' 'the cottage,' are figures of speech (like the Bar, &c.) for the noble and the low-born, and exhibit still the same general signification. By prefixing 'the' to an adjective, as 'the rich,' 'the powerful,' we indicate a particular class of men selected from the general community. The noun 'men' is omitted in such phrases, because it is one that can be so readily supplied by the hearer.

In 'Shakspeare was the Homer' we have still the same principle of specification from an aggregate. Of the great poets of antiquity, Homer is the one to be singled out for comparison to Shakspeare.

The head of a Celtic clan is spoken of as 'the Douglas,' by pre-eminence. There are many Douglases it is true, but there is one that commands, and, as it were, sums up and personifies the whole, and he is distinguished by the specifying article.

'The' is used in pointing out an individual defined by an adjective clause, as 'The man that earns his bread honestly.' There is nothing remarkable in this case; it is a mere expansion of such a phrase as 'the rich man,' 'the honest man,' the adjective being converted into a sentence, as if we were to say 'the man that is rich.'

Somewhat different, seemingly, is the employment of the article in the phrases 'the beautiful,' 'the good,' 'the true,' 'the just,' 'the lawful,' 'the expedient,' where an adjective is converted into an abstract noun by prefixing 'the.' This is probably an imitation of a Greek idiom. It still falls under the general signification of the article—the specification of one thing in a supposed aggregate. These are reckoned more emphatic and pointed expressions than 'beauty,' 'goodness,' 'truth,' 'justice,' 'lawfulness,' 'expediency;' and, as often happens when there are two modes of expressing the same thought, a slight difference of meaning springs up between the two; 'the just,' is not precisely the same thing as 'justice.' So we say for darkness 'the dark ;' and Carlyle employs the expression, 'somewhat sorrowfully in the vague.'

The occurrence of 'the' with a comparative, 'the more, the better,' is now shown by grammarians not to afford an example of the definite article. 'The' in such combinations, although spelt like the article, is in reality another word, namely the ablative of the Anglo-Saxon demonstrative. In Anglo-Saxon it was 'thi mara, thi betera,' 'by how much the more, by so much the better,' as in a well-known Latin idiom (quo magis, eo melius). We need not, therefore, in this case look for the carrying out of the general meaning that obtains with all the foregoing applications of the article.

In the sentence 'they will ask the more,' we must suppose this to be the meaning of 'the,' even although 'the more' appears to be the object of the verb 'ask,' and therefore incompatible with an ablative construction. Either 'the more' is elliptical for a proportionably greater quantity, or we may consider it as an adverbial phrase qualifying the verb.

The dropping of the article from words that it has usually been joined to has a personifying effect. When we say 'society' instead of 'the society,' we treat society as a person. So with 'Government,' for 'the Government.' The Americans have made the same change with 'the Community.' They say 'Community thinks so too.'

There are various Scotticisms in connection with the articles. 'How much the

pound is it?' (What is it a pound?) 'sixpence *the* piece' (a piece); '*the* sugar is cheaper' (sugar); 'go to *the* school' (to school); 'say *the* grace' (say grace); 'a justice of *the* peace' (of peace); 'up *the* stairs' (up stairs); 'he is studying (*the*) Botany.'

The names of diseases are recognized in English usage as nouns of **material**: 'he has caught cold; he died of consumption, of typhus.' It is a Scotticism to treat them **as** class nouns, and prefix the article—*the* cold, *the* fever.

'From Tweed to Tay' is a poetical usage; the common form is, 'from *the* Tweed **to** *the* Tay.' 'Not worth (*a*) cheese.' ' *The* day' (to-day).

'Who breaks a butterfly upon *a* wheel,' is given by Lowth **as** an error of the article. The meaning is definite; '*the* wheel.'

17. NOUNS are frequently employed as Adjectives: ' a *gold* crown;' ' the *cotton* districts;' ' the *police* regulations;' ' the *Berlin* decrees;' ' *Health of Towns* Act;' ' *cod-liver* oil.'

The easy transmutation of the parts of speech has already been noticed **as a** peculiarity of our language. All that is necessary to perform the true function of the adjective is to limit the application of a noun, by selecting some portion of the things denoted by it having a more special meaning than the rest. Thus of 'crowns' we select those made of gold, of iron, of diamonds, and the noun **indicating** the material in each case is considered enough for the purpose. We limit the class of 'oils' by specifying the oil extracted from the liver of the cod. 'Police regulations' are the particular class of rules having reference to police. The same considerations explain the employment of verbs, as '*bake*-house.'

18. Likewise ADVERBS; as 'the *very* instant,' ' the *then* king,' ' the *now* state of things,' ' the *down* train.'

19. Also PREPOSITIONS; as '*after* ages,' 'the *above* discourse.'

20. The ADJECTIVE CLAUSE is a Sentence serving to limit a Noun in the same manner as the Adjective: ' the crown *that Napoleon wore;*' ' the way *that he ought to go;*' ' the causes *that led to the war,*' &c.

It has already been remarked that this is the construction most suited to the employment of 'that' as a relative, in preference to 'who' or 'which.'

THE VERB.

1. The VERB is the part of speech concerned in *predication*; that is, in affirming or denying—in presenting something to be believed or disbelieved, something that can be acted on. There can be no sentence without a Verb. 'The sun *shines;*' ' the sea *is* calm;' ' Milton *wrote* Paradise Lost.'

In affirmation, as has been seen, there must always be two things, a subject and a predicate. The subject is expressed by a noun or its

equivalent; the predicate always contains a verb. Whenever any word has the effect of predicating or affirming, it is from that circumstance a verb. But verbs have the further grammatical distinction of being inflected to express varieties of time, person, number, manner of action, &c. A verb proper is thus distinguished from a word belonging to some other part of speech that may be used in predication. The adverb 'away' may be employed for the verb 'go,' but it is not on that account a true grammatical verb ; we do not say 'I away, thou awayest, they awayed.'

To classify the different kinds of predications serves no purpose in Grammar, but belongs to Logic. We should derive no assistance from the common classification into 'being,' 'doing,' and 'suffering,' even if it were a correct division, which may be very much doubted.

The logical classification of Predicates may be seen in Mill's *Logic*. There are five in all—*Existence, Co-existence, Succession, Causation,* and *Resemblance.* The meaning is that every sentence affirms or denies of one or more things, some one or other of these five properties : 'There is light' (existence) ; 'the lion is carnivorous' (co-existence) ; 'night follows day' (succession) ; 'heat melts bodies' (causation) ; 'three times four is twelve' (resemblance).

For purely grammatical purposes, verbs are classified as follows :—

2. I. Transitive Verbs; as 'the fire *warms* the room.'

Here 'warm' is called transitive, because the action passes over to and affects a certain object, 'the room.' This is contrasted with another class of verbs exemplified by 'the fire glows,' where the action, 'glowing,' is said not to pass away from, but to adhere to, the fire. It is with a transitive verb that we have a sentence containing subject, action, and object, or the completion of the predicate by an object.

The distinction of transitive and intransitive is important for the purposes of grammar, but it is not always a distinction in the nature of things. We find that the same verb, expressing the same action, can be both transitive and intransitive. Thus in 'the child *sees* the candle,' the verb is transitive ; in 'the new-born child *sees*, the puppy is blind,' the same verb is intransitive. The difference of the two cases may be explained thus : In the transitive application a special and single act is expressed, 'seeing the candle;' in the other, the action, 'seeing,' is generalized, that is, spoken of generally, and the particular modes are, therefore, suppressed. So, 'men *build* houses' (trans.) ; 'men *build*, and time *pulls down* ' (intrans.). Speaking of painting, Cowper says :—

Blest be the art that can *immortalize.*

Some of the verbs named causative, which are transitive, are derived from intransitive verbs by an internal modification, as follows :

INTRANSITIVE.	TRANSITIVE.	
he sits	he sets	(causes to sit)
— stands	— stays	(— — stand)
— lies	— lays	(— — lie)
— falls ·	— fells	(— — fall)
— rises	— raises	(— — rise)
— sucks	— soaks	(— — suck)
— drinks	— drenches	(— — drink)
— dives	— dips	(— — dive)

We may also employ intransitive verbs as transitive and causative without any change, as ' the horse *walks*' (intrans.) ; ' the groom *walked* the horse' (trans. and causative). ' The wood *floated ;*' ' the raftsman *floated* the wood down the river.'

Transitive verbs are construed in the passive voice; the object of the active verb being the subject or nominative of the passive verb : ' The steam-engine *was invented* by Watt.' Reflective transitives are those where the object is the same as the subject : ' He defended himself.' A passive construction is forbidden here by the nature of the case.

3. II. Intransitive Verbs ; as ' come,' ' lie,' ' sit,' ' stand,' ' walk,' ' run,' ' speak,' ' bark,' ' wonder,' ' groan,' ' sleep.'

A distinction has been drawn between intransitive verbs expressing action (*flies, moves, walks*) and verbs expressing merely a state (*sleeps, lies, rests*), which last are called *neuter* verbs. But it is often impossible to draw the line where activity ends and neutrality begins. If any difference were to be expressed between the two classes, it would be that such verbs as ' sleep,' ' lie,' ' rest,' express abstinence from action, or the restraining of action ; but no grammatical constructions depend upon this difference.

Intransitive verbs can often take what seems a prepositional object, as ' I wonder *at his zeal ;*' ' they came *to the resolution ;*' ' his friends stood *by him.*' By an allowable process, the prepositions in such cases become adverbs united to the verbs, constituting them compound verbs, and rendering them transitive likewise ; what was the object of the preposition being now the object of the verb. Thus we have the verbs ' wonder at,' ' come to,' ' stand by,' ' speak to,' ' ride about' (the town, the fields), which are often transitive in the fullest sense, as tested by the passive construction ; ' his zeal was wondered at ;' ' the resolution was come to ;' ' the servant was spoken to by the master.' So, ' robbers fell upon him ;' ' he was fallen upon by robbers.' An exception to the use of a passive construction in such cases would be ' the sea is run into by the Thames.' This we might say grammatically, but we refrain, on the ground that the sea is too little impressed by the flow of the Thames to be made the subject of the affirmation.

4. There are certain verbs termed Copula or Apposition verbs, of which the leading example is the substantive verb ' be ;' the others are such as ' become,' ' seem,' ' appear,' ' grow,' &c. The noun that follows a verb of this class is said to be in *apposition* with the nominative, instead of being governed by it as an object. ' He *was* king' is different from ' he dethroned a king.'

These verbs are now considered as *incomplete predicates*, or verbs of *incomplete predication*. ' *He lived an apostle*, and *died a martyr.*' Here ' lived' is only a *part* of the predicate ; ' an apostle' is necessary to complete it.

There is an ambiguity attaching to the verb ' be,' from the circumstance that it is also used to declare that a thing exists, as ' God is.' Both uses occur in the passage, ' We believe that he is (existence), and that he is (copula) the rewarder of them that diligently seek him.'

5. It is usual to designate a certain class of verbs by the name auxiliary. They are the verbs that contribute to form the tenses of the ordinary verbs. But they all fall under one or other of the three foregoing classes. 'Have,' 'do,' 'will,' are transitives; 'be' is the copula verb; 'may' and 'can' are transitives, having for their objects the infinitives of verbs: 'I can *run*.'

6. The impersonal verbs are, strictly speaking, verbs defective in the persons, being used only with the third person singular; they are hence called 'unipersonal.' Such are 'it rains,' 'it snows.'

7. Other parts of speech are sometimes used as verbs; as '*Hence;* home, you idle creatures;' '*Up*, Guards, and *at* 'em.' There is in such instances an obvious ellipsis, or omission of the proper verb; '*go* hence.' Nouns, as we have seen, are freely converted into verbs, and regularly conjugated as such: 'he *ages* fast.' The same is true of adjectives: 'idle,' 'better,' 'dry,' 'smooth,' &c., are examples.

THE ADVERB.

1. The Adverb is a word used to limit or modify the meaning of Verbs, Adjectives, and other Adverbs : 'she sings *brilliantly;*' 'a *very* great pity;' '*exceedingly* well.'

These are the parts of speech that are, properly speaking, modified by adverbs; although instances are pointed out where they are joined to prepositions, to phrases, and even to nouns.

Prepositions : '*long* after the event,' '*much* before the time,' '*greatly* above his reach.' But we may consider that the adverb in such expressions really qualifies the adverbial phrase made up of the preposition and noun, '*much* (before the time').

Compound phrase : 'he *boldly* (fought his way to the barrier'). In this construction it might seem not improper to say that 'boldly' qualifies the whole action, rather than the verb alone (fought). 'The barn-owl *sometimes* (carries off rats').

As regards the noun, such examples as these may be given: 'I shall study *only* instruction;' 'he looked to his reputation *solely;*' 'an *only* son.' But it would be better in these instances to regard 'only,' 'solely,' in the light of adverbs used as adjectives; in the phrase 'an *only* son,' no other view could well be taken. Another apparent example is, 'Napoleon, *lately* Emperor of the French.' Here, however, there is a manifest omission of a verb, which 'lately' would qualify, 'being lately,' or 'who was lately.' The same might be said of 'the house *here*,' 'for the house that is here.' In such an expression as 'he was *fully* master of his subject,' we might treat the word 'master' as having the form of a noun with the sense of a verb. The more regular form in such a case would be 'he had fully *mastered* his subject.' We are therefore to consider that as a rule the noun is not properly qualified by an adverb, but by an adjective or some of its equivalents; and the parts of speech that are properly qualified by adverbs are verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs.

2. Before classifying adverbs according to their signification (as

place, time, &c.), it is proper to advert to an important distinction running through all these classes. Most adverbs contain their meaning within themselves, and are therefore called *simple;* they might also be called absolute, or notional ; such are, 'now,' 'here,' 'greatly,' 'delightfully.' A small number have no meaning in themselves, but refer to some adjoining clause for the meaning, as, 'when,' 'while,' 'where,' 'whether,' 'whence,' 'why,' 'wherever,' 'as,' 'than,' &c. These are to the other adverbs what the pronoun is to the noun, and hence they are called *relative* adverbs; they are also connective, or *conjunctive* adverbs, being in fact commonly reckoned among conjunctions. 'He came *while,*' is not intelligible; the sense is suspended till some other clause is supplied : 'he came *while I was speaking;*' 'I know not *whence you are.*'

Most of this class are obvious derivatives of the relative 'who' (or its root); and we have seen that they are substitutes for the relative pronouns. In many examples, we may, at our pleasure, call them either substitutes for the relative, or relative adverbs.*

* The Interrogative adverbs are principally derived from these relative forms; they·are, 'where,' 'whither,' 'whence' for place ; 'when,' for time ; 'how much,' for degree ; 'why,' 'wherefore,' for reason ; 'how,' for manner in general.

Taking simple and relative adverbs together, we may classify them thus :—

3. I. PLACE; as 'here,' 'there,' 'without,' 'above,' 'near,' 'apart,' 'together,' &c.

This includes the following regularly formed pronominal group :—

Place where.	Motion to.	Motion from.
Here	Hither	Hence.
There	Thither	Thence.
Where	Whither	Whence.

Also the compounds, 'hitherward,' 'thitherward,' 'whitherward.'

4. (1.) *Rest in a place :* 'here,' 'there,' 'where,' 'at,' 'by,' 'near,' 'yonder,' 'above,' 'below.'

'Here,' in this place, this place; opposed to 'there,' in that, or some other place; an adverbial substitute for the demonstrative 'this.' It has metaphorical extensions to other subjects : '*here* lies the difference.'

'There,' in its primitive meaning, is explained by its contrast to 'here.' The two are coupled together in various idioms, as 'neither here nor there' (no matter), 'here a plain, there a river.'

'There' has a very peculiar use. We employ it to begin sentences without any special reference to the idea of place, and hence derive one of our idiomatic forms of syntax. '*There* was once a good king ;' 'there was not a tree to be seen ;' 'there came a voice from heaven.' Out of the definite signification 'in that place,' has sprung an expres-

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* See *English Grammar*, by C. P. Mason, art. 267.

sion of mere existence. It is not difficult to account for the transition. To be able to say that a thing is in a certain place is to give an emphatic assurance that it exists; and hence the localizing statement has become the statement of existence. Instead of saying 'a road is,' or 'exists,' we say 'there is a road.' This idiom is found very convenient, but is apt to be abused, and the excessive use of it should be avoided. Thus instead of such circumlocutions as 'there is a sense in which that is true;' 'there is a plan by which you can do it,' we might with more elegance, because more briefly, say 'in one sense that is true,' 'one plan would be.'

The following sentence is an example of the effect of the form in question: 'One act James induced them to pass which would have been most honourable to him and them, if *there were* not abundant proofs that it was meant to be a dead letter.'—*Macaulay.*

'Where' is in form an adverb, like 'here' and 'there,' but in use a purely connective word, serving the function of a relative or of a conjunction. 'She left the place *where* she was so happy.' Having the original meaning of place, it has acquired the same metaphorical extensions as those two other words. '*Where* ignorance is bliss, 'tis folly to be wise.' By an ellipsis easy to explain we find it employed as if it were a substantive: 'he had no *where* to lay his head,' for 'he had no *place where* he might lay his head.' We have the compound phrase 'somewhere,' like 'somehow,' 'nohow,' &c. 'Where' is also one of our interrogative words.

5. (2.) *Motion to a place.*

'Hither,' 'thither,' are likewise an opposed and mutually explaining couple: 'to this place,' 'to that place,' 'come hither,' 'go thither;' 'where I am, thither ye cannot come.' 'Whither' is 'to which place,' as a relative, or 'to what place?' as an interrogative.

6. (3.) *Motion from a place.*

'Hence,' 'thence,' 'whence;' 'from this place,' 'from that place,' 'from which, or what place.' 'Hence' is extended to time, 'a week hence;' also to reason or cause, as 'hence (from this cause) it is;' likewise from this source or origin: 'all other faces borrowed *hence* their light, their grace.' The extension to time hardly takes place with 'thence' and 'whence,' but these share in the extensions to reason or cause: 'the facts are admitted, *whence* we conclude that the principle is true.' 'From whence' seems a tautology, or superfluity of expression, but we find it in good use: 'Who art thou, courteous stranger, and from whence?'

'Near,' 'by,' are the adverbs of nearness or proximity: 'there was no one *by*;' 'he stood *by*;' '*by* comes a horseman.' 'By' shows its difference from 'here' (in this spot), in the phrase 'put by,' which means put away or remove.

Separation in place is expressed by 'apart,' 'separately,' 'asunder.' Conjunction is expressed by 'together.'

Place, in a variety of relative positions, is indicated by 'above,' 'aloft,' 'below,' 'under,' 'down,' 'beyond,' 'yonder,' 'away,' 'through,'

'in,' 'out,' 'without,' 'inwards,' 'inside,' 'around,' 'fro,' 'forth ;' **many** of which are prepositions in their primary application.

Under place we may class the adverbs of numerical order, 'firstly,' or 'first,' 'secondly,' 'lastly.'

7. II. Time; as 'ever,' 'lately,' 'often,' 'before,' &c. Time may be present, past, or future.

8. (1.) *Time present.* Under this we include the following: 'now,' 'to-day,' 'instantly,' 'presently,' 'still,' 'forthwith,' 'henceforth;' together with such phrases as 'this instant,' &c.

Closely allied to this class are those that connect one thing with another in point of time, such as ' while,' ' when,' ' then,' 'as ' ' immediately.'

The word ' now ' may be considered as the main or typical adverb of present time, from which signification its other uses are derived.

' Immediately ' is used by the Scotch, when the English use ' presently.' ' I will come presently ' is the current English expression for ' I will lose no time,' ' I will come without delay.' The strict use of ' immediately ' is to make one event follow close on another in a narrative ; 'he heard the news, and *immediately* set out.'

9. (2.) *Time past :* 'before,' 'heretofore,' 'hitherto,' 'already,' 'lately,' 'once,' 'yesterday.'

The meaning of 'once' is 'some former time not signified.'

10. (3.) *Time future :* 'hereafter,' 'afterwards,' 'soon,' 'henceforth,' 'presently,' 'immediately,' 'to-morrow,' 'no more.'

It will be seen that some of these (soon, presently, immediately, henceforth), have been already enumerated under present time. The reason is that they express an action that is just about to commence, and therefore, though strictly future, they are yet also practically present.

11. (4.) *Duration or Repetition :* 'ever,' 'never,' 'always,' 'aye ;' 'often,' 'seldom,' 'rarely,' 'occasionally,' 'frequently,' 'continually,' 'continuously,' 'incessantly,' 'perpetually,' 'again,' 'once,' 'twice,' 'daily,' 'monthly,' 'annually,' 'periodically.'

' Ever ' is the foremost of the class expressive of duration. Its meaning is ' at all times,' or ' through all time ;' and owing to the great force or impressiveness obtained through this extensive signification, we find it employed as a word of emphasis ; 'if he offer *ever* so much,' meaning an indefinitely large quantity. By analogy we extend the figure still farther, and say ' *ever* so little,' although this somewhat borders on a contradiction of the original meaning ; as ...es ' ever the less ' for ' one whit the less.' The same reason

explains the applications of 'never.' As it excludes all time, it is a term of strong denial, and is employed for mere purposes of emphasis. ' He answered him *never* a word.'

' Again' means originally 'a second time,' but is not confined to this meaning. It serves as a conjunctive adverb, or conjunction, introducing a new sentence or paragraph, with the signification 'once more,' or 'in addition.' By the phrase 'once and again,' frequent repetition is denoted.

12. III. DEGREE, or MEASURE; as 'much,' 'little,' 'very,' 'far,' 'exceedingly.'

These refer to the attribute of quantity, which has been seen above to be estimated in two ways, namely, by numbers, and by indefinite words.

For a scale of *intensity* beginning at the least, we have 'very little,' 'little,' 'slightly,' 'scarcely,' 'inconsiderably,' 'pretty,' 'moderately,' 'enough,' 'sufficiently,' 'much,' 'very much,' 'greatly,' 'exceedingly,' 'utterly,' 'thoroughly,' 'generally,' 'universally,' 'terribly.' 'Gay,' in the sense of 'very,' is a Scotticism.

' Generally' has two very different meanings which are liable to occasion ambiguity. In the one sense it implies ' for the most part,' or 'in the majority of instances,' as ' the plan *generally* succeeded,' or succeeded in the greater number of trials. In the other sense it means a general or generalized fact or attribute, something common to a whole class, as ' Animals generally have a nervous system,' or, it is a general property of animals. The first is the most usual meaning, the second is better expressed by the phrase 'in general.'

Defect. The following may be considered as expressing quantity under the form of defect or deficiency : 'almost,' 'nearly,' 'little,' 'less,' 'least,' 'hardly,' 'but,' 'partly,' 'well-nigh.' 'Partly' is also the adverb of division : '*partly* his, *partly* yours.'

Excess is implied by 'very,' 'far' 'exceedingly,' 'more,' 'most,' 'better,' 'best,' 'worst.'

Equality, or *sufficiency :* 'enough,' 'sufficiently,' 'equally,' 'exactly,' 'perfectly,' 'truly,' 'just.'

Abatement, or *gradation :* 'scarcely,' 'hardly,' 'piecemeal,' 'gradually.'

Repetition (implies number): 'seldom,' 'often,' 'frequently,' 'once,' 'twice,' 'thrice,' 'again,' 'once more.' In the sense of *addition :* 'also,' 'likewise,' 'besides,' 'too.'

13. There are certain important adverbs of *Comparison*, the words, 'so,' 'as,' and 'too.'

' So,' in its original etymology, is a demonstrative pronoun, meaning 'by that.' We have seen that it is still employed in this character. It thence became an adverb of comparison : 'it was *so* dark, that we could see nothing.' It was dark 'by *that*,' 'to *that measure*,' namely, 'that we could not see.' To make the comparison, some second clause or statement is requisite. Sometimes it is used with a marked emphasis, implying 'to such a high degree.'

> *So* frowned the mighty combatants, that hell
> Grew darker at their frown.

In colloquial language, we often leave the comparison unsupplied, and then the word is a mere expression of intensity : 'the view is *so* fine.'

The application to signify cause and effect is in conformity with the original meaning : 'he ran with all his might, and *so* was first ;' which is to say, that 'running *in that manner*, he became first ;' the relation of cause and effect being inferred from the sequence of statement.

'As,' etymologically is considered to be a contraction of 'all-so.' In substance it is the same word as 'so,' and admits of the same interpretation. It also retains a pronominal application in the relative combination 'such as,' and perhaps in the constructions 'as follows,' 'as regards.' The adverbial signification 'brave as a lion' may be explained 'brave *by that*, a lion is brave.' By an admitted ellipsis it may express comparison, as in this instance, without another word, although the full statement demands a second 'as,' or the allied particle 'so.' '*As* far *as* we can see ;' '*as* two is to one, *so* is twelve to six ;' two is to one *by that* twelve is to six *by that*. 'Men are more happy, *as* they are less involved in affairs ;' 'more' (the more) completes the comparison.

It passes into more remote meanings when used as a conjunction. Thus it means *time*—'he trembled *as* he spoke ;' *reason*—'*as* (for *since*) you are of that opinion.' In combination with 'if,' the comparative signification is still apparent ; '*as if* we did not know that.'

'Too' is likewise an adverb of comparison occasionally employed in the absolute sense. It is a word greatly contributing to terseness of expression ; its value is fully appreciated in translating into other languages, as the Latin. 'He is too old to learn' is a happy abbreviation of 'he is so old that he is unable to learn.' When the infinitive phrase expressing the comparison is suppressed, we must understand the word in the sense of '*more* than enough, than what is just, right, convenient, fitting, or desirable.'

> Oh ! that this *too, too* solid flesh would melt,
> Thaw, and dissolve itself into a dew.

The important word 'only' with the synonymes 'solely,' 'merely,' 'alone,' might be included under the present head. The general meaning of 'only' is 'this one thing by itself,' to the exclusion of other things.

14. IV. BELIEF and DISBELIEF, or Certainty and Uncertainty ; as 'truly,' 'surely,' 'certainly,' 'nay,' 'not,' 'not so.'

This being a distinction of great and leading importance, the words that indicate the degrees of certainty and uncertainty are a marked class, although not very numerous.

For the expression of *belief* or certainty, we have 'certainly,' 'surely,' 'assuredly,' 'truly,' 'verily,' 'undoubtedly,' 'exactly,' 'positively,' 'precisely,' 'of course,' 'by all means,' 'indeed,' 'in truth,'

'even so,' 'just so,' 'yes,' 'yea,'* with a variety of phrases, as 'most assuredly,' 'by all manner of means,' 'on every ground,' 'without fail,' 'without exception,' 'beyond all doubt,' 'beyond the possibility of question.'

For the expression of *disbelief*, we have principally the great particle of negation, 'no,' or 'not,'* and phrases deriving their negative force from it : 'no,' 'not,' 'nay,' 'not so,' 'not at all,' 'no wise,' 'by no means,' 'by no manner of means,' 'on no account,' 'in no respect,' 'not in the least,' 'not a whit,' 'not a bit,' 'not a jot,' 'forsooth ' (an ironical phrase in modern English, but used at one time seriously, for 'verily ').

For *probability*, contingency, or uncertainty, we have, 'perhaps,' 'probably,' 'possibly,' 'maybe,' 'haply,' 'likely,' 'perchance,' 'per-adventure.'

15. V. CAUSE and EFFECT ; as 'therefore,' 'wherefore,' 'why.'

Under this head we may include *instrumentality*, which meaning, however, although abundantly expressed by *phrases* and *clauses*, is seldom answered by any single word.

16. VI. MANNER, or QUALITY ; as 'well,' 'ill,' 'wisely,' 'bravely,' 'softly,' 'quickly,' 'remarkably,' 'rightly.'

As with adjectives, this is the class that includes the great body of adverbs. Of the five previous classes it is possible to give an exhaustive enumeration, but adverbs of Quality make a large part of the vocabulary of the language. The mode or manner of doing an action may be very various, as we may see on a little reflection. Suppose the subject is putting something in motion ; we may move quick, slow, steady, violently, suddenly, abruptly, hurriedly, straight, zigzag, strongly, rightly, beautifully, unexpectedly, and so on. And every kind of action that it is possible to mention has varieties of manner peculiar to itself. Thus 'to speak,' 'to sing,' 'to eat,' 'to look,' 'to work,' 'to govern,' 'to die,' have all their special modes, exclusive of the attributes of time, place, and degree, above enumerated ; and the word, or phrase, or clause, expressive of that mode, is considered in grammar as an adverb. 'He spoke, long, clearly, to the purpose.' 'He looked hard, with anxiety, as if he were in earnest.' 'He governed wisely, with discretion, so as to gain esteem.' 'He died easily, without suffering, in the way that one would have predicted.' A word, or combination of words, answering to the interrogative 'how ' is an adverb of manner, as replying

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* The words *yes, yea, ay, no*, are called adverbs, and seem to have an adverbial force ; but, as Mr. C. P. Mason remarks, they are never used to qualify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs, and therefore appear scarcely entitled to the appellation. He proposes to call them interjections ; but this too seems objectionable, as they are not outbursts of emotion, like 'alas !' 'hurrah !' and the like. They are rather a species of relative words, which express a speaker's assent or denial to a particular statement, not by repeating the statement, but by referring to it as having just been enounced. Many of the words in the above list, may be detached in the same way from the sentence that they qualify ; for example—certainly, surely, indeed, &c.

to an inquiry into the special mode or circumstances of an action. If we say 'the sun shines,' any one may demand a more specific account of this fact, which is known to take place in a variety of ways, and the words employed to give such more specific information are adverbs or the equivalent of adverbs : 'the sun shines bright, or with intermission, or so as to light up the landscape, or as if we were in the tropics.' The name for the specifying attribute of a *noun* corresponds to the adjective in grammar; the specifying attributes of the *verb* are given by the adverb. Now, from the great variety of ways and circumstances of the performance of actions, adverbs, and adverbial phrases and clauses, like adjectives and their equivalents, are necessarily innumerable.

17. The equivalents of the Adverb in composition are phrases and adverbial clauses.

(1.) PLACE. *Phrases :* 'At the seat of judgment,' 'in the skies,' under the greenwood tree.' *Clauses :* ' *Where the tree falls,* there will it lie ;' '*whither I go,* ye cannot come ;' 'go *whence you came.*' The relative adverbs—'where,' 'whither,' 'whence,' 'wheresoever,' &c., are the connectives of these clauses with the main clause, while they also qualify, by the attribute of place, the verb in the dependent clause.

(2.) TIME. *Phrases :* 'Once on a time,' 'the day before yesterday,' 'next year,' 'a century ago.' *Clauses :* 'I will come *when I can ;*' '*while I live,* I will follow truth ;' 'the thing was done *before I came.*' These clauses are introduced either by the relative adverbs of time— 'ere,' 'until,' 'when,' 'while,' 'whenever '—or by the prepositions 'before,' 'after,' 'since,' which in this application govern clauses, instead of nouns.

(3.) DEGREE. *Phrases :* 'By ever so little,' 'to a small extent,' 'in a very intense degree.' *Clauses :* 'The sea is *as* deep *as the mountains are high ;*' 'as thy day is, so shall thy strength be.' ' As ' is the principal word employed in these clauses. The degree being expressed by comparison with some other thing as a standard, the connective required is a word or words of comparison or proportionality : *as—as, as—so, than, the* (*the* more). 'He knows more than I (do) ;' 'the longer we live, the more charitable we become.'

(4.) BELIEF and DISBELIEF. *Phrases :* 'With the highest certainty,' 'with great hesitation.' *Clauses :* ' *If my life depended on it,* I would maintain my opinion ;' 'I am as certain *as if I had seen it.*'

(5.) CAUSE and EFFECT.
CAUSE. *Phrases :* 'By the action of the sun,' 'by force of kindness,' 'by the influence of the government.' *Clauses :* 'The crops are bad, *because the spring was ungenial ;*' 'we lost the fight, because our numbers were reduced.' The conjunction 'because,' and its equivalents (inasmuch as, by reason that) are the connecting links in this kind of clause.

EFFECT. *Phrases :* 'To his own hurt,' 'with the highest success.' *Clauses :* 'He stood his ground, *and therefore triumphed.*'

(6.) MANNER generally. The *phrases* and combinations for this

purpose are innumerable. 'In a manful way,' &c. The *clauses* are introduced by the relative or connecting adverb 'as,' upon the same principle of comparison as that involved in degree. 'He behaved *as if his all had been at stake*;' 'he took such perusal of my face *as he would draw me*.'

18. Other parts of speech are occasionally used as adverbs.

Nouns : 'He goes *to-morrow*' (the morrow) (time); ' he sent the man *home*' (place); 'he cares not *a groat*' (degree).

This is not an unfrequent usage. We may explain it by the abbreviation of the adverbial phrases, 'on the morrow,' ' to his house, or home,' ' so much as a groat.' The word 'somewhat' is given as an example of a pronoun serving as an adverb : 'somewhat large.' (Scotticism, 'some,'—some hot.)

Adjectives ; as 'drink *deep*,' 'the green trees whispered *soft* and *low*,' 'this looks *strange*,' ' standing *erect*.'

We have also examples of one adjective qualifying another adjective, as ' wide open,' ' red hot,' ' the pale blue sky.' Sometimes the corresponding adverb is used, but with a different meaning, as ' I found the way *easy*—*easily* ;' ' it appears *clear*—*clearly*.' Although there is a propriety in the employment of the adjective in certain instances, yet such forms as 'indifferent well,' 'extreme bad,' are grammatical errors. ' He was interrogated *relative* to that circumstance,' should be *relatively*, or in *relation* to. It is not unusual to say ' I would have done it *independent* of that circumstance,' but *independently* is the proper construction.

The employment of adjectives for adverbs is accounted for by the following considerations :

(1.) In the classical languages the neuter adjective may be used as an adverb, and the analogy would appear to have been extended to English.

(2.) In Anglo-Saxon, the adverb was often formed from the adjective, by adding ' e,' as soft, softe, which ' e,' being dropped, left the adverb in the adjective form; thus ' clœne,' adverb, became ' clean,' and appears in the phrase ' clean gone ;' fœste, fast, ' to stick fast.'

(3.) There are cases where the subject is qualified rather than the verb, as with verbs of incomplete predication, ' being,' ' seeming,' ' arriving,' &c. In ' the matter seems *clear*,' ' clear' is part of the predicate of ' matter.' ' They arrived *safe* ;' ' safe' does not qualify ' arrived,' but goes with it to complete the predicate. So ' he sat silent,' ' he stood firm.' ' It comes *beautiful*,' and ' it comes beautifully,' have different meanings. This explanation applies especially to the use of participles as adverbs, as in Southey's lines on Lodore : the participial epithets applied there are adjectives qualifying ' water,' and not adverbs qualifying ' came.' ' The church stood *gleaming* through the trees ;' ' gleaming' is the predicate of ' church,' and an

adjective regularly used.* ' Passing strange ' is elliptical ; ' passing (surpassing) what is strange.'

Verbs ; as ' *smack* went the whip ;' ' he let it go *bang* at the window ;' a very rare usage.

Prepositions ; as ' I told you that *before.*'

The following are familiar examples of prepositions employed as adverbs: ' before,' ' after,' ' since,' ' in,' ' up,' ' down.'

THE PREPOSITION.

1. A Preposition is a word placed before a noun, or its equivalents, to indicate a relation to something else; as ' the river runs *to* the sea,' ' the middle *of* the street,' ' a house *for* sale.'

In each of these examples there is a noun preceded by a preposition, and the effect is to unite the noun with the other words of the clause ; the action of ' the river running ' is made specific by saying that it is in the direction of the sea ; ' the street ' and ' middle ' are coupled into one meaning by ' of ;' the word ' sale ' is introduced to be joined in meaning with ' house,' and ' for ' is the uniting word.

The prepositions, therefore, like the pronouns, are called *relational* words. The part of speech that they are most liable to be confounded with is the conjunction. A good many of them also serve as adverbs, in which case they qualify verbs instead of governing a noun. ' He runs *about* the house' (preposition); ' he runs *about*' (adverb).

The prepositions are a class of words limited in number, but incessant in their application. The right use of them has a direct bearing on clearness and delicacy of style.

2. Certain Prepositions correspond to the case-endings of nouns in the classical languages ; these are, ' of,' ' to,' ' for,' ' from,' ' by,' ' with.'

3. ' OF ' corresponds to the possessive case in English, and the genitive case in other languages.

As the possessive inflection is used only in a small number of nouns, and not uniformly in those, we are dependent on this preposition for conveying the meaning of the possessive case.

' Of ' expresses a variety of relations, which may be traced up to a common source. The original import of the root was ' proceeding from,' which easily led to

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* Dr. Angus on the English language, art. 311.

the meaning now most generally signified, namely, 'belonging to.' For example, the 'force of the wind' means a property proceeding from the wind, or manifested by it, and therefore inhering in it, or belonging to it.

Any complicated object may be considered as made up in two ways. A house has a foundation, walls, a roof, doors, windows, rooms, &c.; these are its *parts*, or mechanical divisions. Any one of these being specified, we signify that it belongs to the house by the preposition 'of :' 'the roof *of* the house.' This leads to the first use of the preposition.

(1.) 'Of' is used to relate the part of anything to the whole: 'the wing *of* the eagle,' 'the walls *of* the town,' 'the banks *of* the river.' This may be called the *partitive* meaning.

So we may say, 'the army of Britain,' 'the children of the family,' 'the property of the corporation.' These are all separable parts of the wholes that they severally belong to.

A fraction or division of a total is expressed by 'of' on the same principle; 'a third *of* the proceeds;' 'few *of* the host survived;' 'a tithe *of* all he possessed;' 'one ninth *of* the remainder.' Hence the adjectives of fullness or want are naturally followed by 'of :' 'full of compassion, of hope;' 'destitute of clothes, of money, of all things.'

But there is a second mode of conceiving a complex or concrete object, namely, as made up of properties, or attributes, inseparable from the object, except in thought. Thus we may speak of the *length* of a room, but we cannot cut off the length from the other dimensions and properties. We cannot separate the weight, the colour, the value, of gold from the rest of the qualities. These are called *abstract* qualities: they are spoken of in language, as inhering in the total, or the concrete; and when any one of them is specified, the preposition 'of' is the connecting word: as 'the sweetness of honey,' 'the shape of the mountain,' 'the colour of the snow.' This directs us to the second meaning of the preposition.

(2.) 'Of' is used to connect an abstract property, or quality, with the concrete; as 'the strength *of* the lion,' 'the lightness *of* air,' 'the temper *of* steel.' This may be called the *attributive* meaning.

These two meanings are simple and intelligible, being two modes of the same general idea of 'possession,' 'property,' or 'belonging.' But we find other meanings apparently very remote from this leading idea.

(3.) 'Of' may serve to specify a subject or make a *reference*; as 'the Book *of* Proverbs.' Here 'Proverbs'

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indicates the subject that 'book' refers to. 'The love *of* our neighbour;' love with regard to, or directed upon, a certain party specified as our neighbour. ' *Of* man's first disobedience—sing, heavenly Muse.'

This meaning may have grown up thus. If we say 'a book of problems,' we may be understood as implying, that of the whole class of things named problems, as much is taken as will make a book,—literally, 'a bookful of problems.' 'A treatise of geometry,' is a portion of the whole subject of geometry, taken and included in a treatise. The meaning of reference would thus be a branch of the partitive meaning. It is to be noticed, however, that this application of the word is not so frequent now as formerly. We prefer 'on' to 'of,' in specifying a subject under discussion: as ' *on* geometry,' 'on plants,' &c. 'The love of our neighbour' is ambiguous if we allow it to mean 'towards our neighbour.' Properly this should be interpreted (attributively) 'the love manifested *by* our neighbour *to* us;' for the other case we should use 'to:' 'love to God,' 'love to man.' In the phrase 'the fear of God,' the meaning of reference is exclusively involved; the 'fear' is a passion belonging properly to us, and is indicated by the possessive of the person, 'man's fear,' 'the wicked's fear;' but there must be an object to the passion, some one who, as it were, shares the property of it; there is an attribute *belonging to God* that inspires the fear, and this probably leads to our employing 'of' in order to indicate this object.

Such a phrase as 'a common of turbary,' is a pure case of reference; the acceptation is 'a common in so far as regards the right of cutting turf.' 'Right of pasturage' is a right having reference to pasturage.

(4.) The Preposition, with its Noun, has often the force of an Adjective; as 'a crown of gold,' for a golden crown;' 'an act of grace' (a gracious act); 'a pearl of great price' (a precious pearl). This may be called the *adjective* meaning.

This too might be explained on the partitive principle. 'A crown of gold' we may interpret as meaning the quantity of gold taken and employed to make up a crown. In 'a man of courage' we may imagine, that of the courage contained in the world a certain portion is represented as inhering in a man,—a man filled or supplied with courage. This construction is the chief example of the *adjective phrase.*

In 'the Earl *of* Mar,' we have an exact case of partition; for although these titles are now a mere name, they were not always so. Mar was a great district of country containing many constituent elements, physical and moral; among these was its chief, or Earl; so that the Earl of Mar was a correct form on the partitive principle, no less than 'the district, the people, the wealth, the history, &c., of Mar.' 'The Queen of England,' the 'Town Clerk of Leeds,' are exactly parallel. The same principle will explain, 'Doctor *of* medicine,'

'Teacher *of* music,' 'Dean *of* Guild,' 'Master *of* the Rolls.' Every one of these supposes a collective institution, made up of many elements, or parts, and of these one is specified : Medicine is a whole, containing its science, its methods, and among the rest, its doctors.

In the expression 'of necessity' we have the equivalent of the *adverb* 'necessarily.' It may be explained as 'something belonging to or proceeding from necessity. Shakspeare says 'of force,' where we should say 'perforce.'

'The winter *of* our discontent' is a Shakspearian figure, remotely indicating reference.

'To ask a favour *of*,' 'to rid one's self *of*,' 'to cure a man *of*,' are examples of the employment of the preposition in its primary sense of 'proceeding from.'

(5.) Nouns in *apposition* are sometimes connected by 'of;' as 'the city *of* Amsterdam,' 'this affair *of* the mutiny,' 'a monster *of* a man.'

'The city of London' is strictly partitive, inasmuch as the city is a part of London ; but 'the town of Berlin' is an example of apposition, 'the town, Berlin.' It is not allowed to apply this form indiscriminately : 'the river of Jordan' is an error.

'This affair of the mutiny' is the same as 'this affair, namely, the mutiny.' We may perhaps consider the present case as a further application of the meaning of reference. 'A brute of a dog' is colloquial English, and may be interpreted as a case of apposition, or predication, 'a dog that is a brute.'

In comparing the expressions 'a bust of Cicero,' 'and a bust of Cicero's' we can farther illustrate the uses of the preposition. In the second case it has the partitive signification ; the meaning is 'a bust of Cicero's collection of busts ;' in the other it is an example of reference—'a bust, whose subject is Cicero.'

'A play of Shakspeare' is also partitive ; a man's productions are considered as a part of his collective personality.

'The better *of* it' is not so good as 'the better *for* it.'

4. 'To' has a remarkably uniform meaning notwithstanding the extent of its use. The primary idea of *motion towards* pervades all its applications. It is pointedly contrasted with 'from,' as in the phrase 'to and fro.' 'He went *to* the house,' 'leave that *to* me,' 'add *to* your faith,' 'duty *to* our parents,' '*to* arms,' 'glory *to* God,' are obvious instances. Among the more remote applications are to be found such phrases as 'pleasant *to* the taste,' '*to* one's hand,' ten *to* one,' 'to the number of two hundred,' '*to* all intents and purposes,' '*to* his honour be it said,' 'done *to* a cinder,' 'ye shall pay *to* the last penny,' 'they marched *to* the tune of——,' '*to* a Christian, this world is a place of trial and preparation.' Even in these examples, where motion 'in the direction of' is not directly stated, *proximity*, which is the natural result, is indicated ; hence the meaning of reference indicated in the last example.

As the sign of the infinitive 'to' has still the same signification.

It is remarked by grammarians, that certain nouns, adjectives, and verbs take ' to ' after them, and lists of such words are accordingly given for the guidance of the pupil ; as, for example, ' accustom *to*,' ' adapt *to*,' ' belong *to*,' ' equal,' ' prefer,' ' tend,' &c.   But it should be noticed that in nearly all these cases the intended meaning is answered by this preposition, and would not be so well answered by any other.   Thus the words ' attach,' ' attend,' ' confirm,' ' consecrate,' ' listen,' ' give,' ' tell,' ' show,' ' liken,' all indicate the sense of approaching nearer to something, or pointing in some one direction, which is the main signification of this preposition. In a few cases there would appear to be something arbitrary in the choice, and in such cases we must look upon the connection as a special idiom of the language, to be learned from usage, and not to be inferred from the general meaning of the word.   Among these, we may. perhaps include the following, ' blind *to*' (where ' to' means reference), ' derogatory *to*,' ' foreign *to*,' ' object *to*,' ' opposite *to*.'

Such examples as ' true to,' ' unknown to,' ' dislike to,' ' provoke to,' ' impute to,' ' adapt to,' are conformable to the primary signification.

We occasionally meet with violations of these special usages, such as ' different to,' for ' different from.'

' It is altered *to* the better,' should be ' *for* the better.'

Scotticisms : ' Will you buy a knife *to* (for) me ;' ' I have no fault *to* (with) him ;' ' I entertain no prejudice *to* (towards) him.'

5. ' FOR' is much more complicated and various in its appplications. Originally connected with ' fore,' meaning ' in front of,' it has branched off in different directions, until the original signification is to all appearance lost sight of.

(1.) The chief meaning is *direction*, end, purpose, benefit.   ' They set out *for* their home ;' ' some toil *for* money, others *for* fame ;' ' every one *for* himself ;' ' the Sabbath was made *for* man ;' ' *for* this end came I into the world ;' ' good *for* good ;' ' oh, *for* a draught of vintage that hath been— ;' ' *for* Jesus' sake.'

The old idiom, now called the gerund form of the verb, is an instance of this application : ' What went ye out *for* to see ?' The idea of end or purpose is implied in this verbal construction, although the ' for.' is now dropped.

(2.) It means ' notwithstanding,' ' in spite of,' a meaning not readily connected with the foregoing.   ' *For* all this, they still proceed ;' ' *for* all his wealth, he was not content ;' ' *for* anything to the contrary ;' ' *for* all that.'   We may suppose the connection to arise from the circumstance that men often fail in their enterprises, although possessing the usual means of success, and that the word implies the presence of the means, according to its original force, ' in front of,' and yet allows us to infer that the end was not gained.   ' *For* all his wealth —with all his wealth *in front of him*—the natural consequences did not follow in his case.'   (Compare the uses of ' with.')

(3.) It is used in opposition to ' against :' ' he fought *for* his principles and *against* his interest ;' ' *for* the constitution, and *against* the king.'   This is still a branch of the first meaning.

In the phrases, ' six for a penny,' ' line for line,' ' measure for measure,' we have the meaning of exchange, or ' return for,' which chimes

in with the original signification. Perhaps the idea of 'proportionality' in the phrase 'he is tall *for* his years,' is merely a following out of the same application. So also 'we took him *for* his brother,' where the meaning shades into the idea of comparison implied in 'as.'

'For an hour,' 'for a little,' 'for once,' 'for ever,' represent an apparently distinct signification, although we may suppose a connection between it and the primary meaning 'in front of.'

The meaning of *reference*, seen in such expressions as 'so much *for* the first question,' 'bodies depend *for* their visibility,' can be traced to the first meaning given above (end, purpose, benefit).

'*For* a holy person to be humble, for one whom all men esteem as a saint, to fear lest himself become a devil, is as hard as *for* a prince to submit himself to be guided by tutors.' Here we have a form grown out of the gerund construction, with a reference still to the idea of end, purpose, or direction. This is a useful equivalent of the noun clause (*that* a holy person be humble, *that* a prince submit himself, &c.).

Of the list of words given as properly followed by 'for, the greater number have their meaning suited by this preposition, while with a few it has no special appropriateness. Thus 'care for,' 'sail for,' 'work for,' 'design for,' 'good for,' 'prepared for,' 'substitute for,' 'thankful for,' 'answer for,' 'occasion for,' 'esteem for,' are all in accord with the principal meaning above given. The phrase 'eminent for' is not specially in keeping.

'He was accused *for*,' is a Scotticism for 'accused *of*.' It is also an error to say 'inquire *after*,' the correct English being 'inquire *for*.' So, 'there is much need *for* it,' 'need of it,' is the correct phrase; 'burst *for* (with) laughing;' 'insists *for* (on) it;' 'he called *for* (on) me;' 'died *for* (of) thirst.'

'To' and 'for' correspond to what is called the dative case of the classical languages, although they have a far wider range of meaning than could be expressed by that inflection. Our so-called objective forms—me, thee, him, her, them—are, in their origin, datives, and this signification still to a certain extent adheres to them.

6. '**From**;' 'forth,' 'forwards,' 'beginning from,' 'proceeding from.' '*From* door to door,' '*from* Dan to Beersheba,' '*from* home,' '*from* earth to heaven.'

The original reference to place is widely departed from in the use of the preposition, but the more general idea of 'direction from' is in the main preserved.

The application to *time* is seen in such phrases as '*from* morn to dewy eve,' '*from* my youth up,' '*from* age to age.'

Anything that indicates a source, origin, or commencement, may be followed by 'from.' 'He rose *from* the ranks, *from* obscurity,' &c.; 'authority emanates *from* the sovereign;' 'won *from* the enemy;' 'snatched *from* the flames;' 'the song began *from* Jove;' 'we must probe the story *from* first to last.' Hence it is used in the sense of 'turn away,' 'quit,' 'leave,' 'abandon.' 'He fled *from* the city of destruction;' 'shrinking *from* the picture of distress.'

Also remoteness and privation, as 'absent *from* my sight;' 'remote

from cities;' ' far *from* the madding crowd's ignoble strife;' ' *from* thee to die were torture more than death.'

It likewise follows words implying deliverance, release, &c.: 're-leased *from* his vow.'

So, separation, abstraction, destruction, are indicated by the same preposition, and with a like adherence to the main and primary import.

Motive, or reason, may be expressed by ' from :' ' they acted *from* no unworthy motive,' ' *from* gratitude,' ' *from* fear.'

The following are some instances of errors connected with the use of ' from.' ' It is inferior *from* (should be *to*) what I expected;' ' different *to* that,' should be *from*.

7. 'By.' The primary meaning seems to be 'alongside of,' ' proximity.' ' He sat *by* the river,' ' *by* the tree,' ' hard *by* the oracles of God,' ' inhabited *by* the great.' The other meanings grow out of this by natural transitions. Thus, *defence of*—' stand by me ;' *agency, instrumentality*, and *cause*—' eaten by wolves,' ' maintained by the public,' ' watched by angels,' ' shaken by the wind.' Shakspeare uses ' with ' in this sense : ' here is himself, marred, as you see, *with* traitors ;' we should now say ' *by* traitors.' ' We hope to gain *by* you ;' ' seize him *by* force ;' ' *by* intelligence man raises his condition ;' ' the power of speaking well should be aimed at *by* all ;' ' to know *by* heart.'

Words of measuring take ' by ' after them, from the circumstance that the things measured have to be put side by side : ' greater *by* half ;' ' measure your desires *by* your fortunes, not your fortunes *by* your desires ;' ' *by* the rule and the square ;' ' it was sold *by* the ounce.'

The employment of the preposition with nouns of time illustrates the general signification : ' *by* this time they are far away,' that is ' alongside of, or at this time ;' ' *by* the commencement of spring ;' ' *by* sunrise.'

In such phrases as ' one by one,' ' house by house,' ' to do things by halves,' we have still the same idea. ' They came *by* hundreds ' is a somewhat loose application of the word; ' *in* hundreds ' is also used, although perhaps less frequently in good English.

This is the preposition of *adjuration*, a purpose still conformable to the primary meaning : ' *by* all that we hold dear ' may be interpreted as ' standing *by*, and under the love or fear or influence of.'

8. ' With.' The radical notion involved in ' with ' appears to be joining or uniting.'* Hence *company* or companionship is one of its foremost applications : ' he travelled *with* me for some days ;' ' there is no living *with* such neighbours ;' ' he came *with* the first and remained *with* the last ;' ' his servant was *with* him ;' ' he kindled *with* rage.'

' I will buy *with* you, sell *with* you, talk *with* you, walk *with* you, and so following; but I will not eat *with* you, drink *with* you, nor pray *with* you ;' ' *with* Ate by his side.' *Possession* is readily implied in union : ' *with* the hope of ' is the same as ' having the hope of ;' so with a view to,' ' with power to,' ' with regard to.'

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* Craik, *English of Shakspeare*, p. 198.

The meaning of *opposition* or *contest* comes readily from the main root, seeing that combatants, as well as friends, must come into close contact. 'With' in compounds has always this meaning: *with*stand. The meaning of 'in spite of' may be explained in the same way as the adversative use of 'for.' '*With* all his learning, he had but little prudence.'

From union or companionship comes *instrumentality*, or *means*: 'fed *with* the same food, hurt *with* the same weapons;' 'paved *with* gold,' 'enriched *with* knowledge,' 'elated *with* joy,' 'filled *with* wine,' 'planted *with* firs,' 'wearied *with* much study,' '*with* meditating that he must die once'—*Shakspeare.*

It has been seen that the agent, or prime mover, in an effect, more usually takes 'by' after it; but the instrument that the agent employs is expressed by 'with :' 'the field was dug *by* the labourer *with* his spade.' 'By' is the preposition that follows the passive voice : 'tried by his peers.'

'With' is also used for immediately after, the connection of ideas being apparent : '*with* this, he pointed to his face.'

Errors. 'They quarrelled *among* each other,' should be '*with* each other;' 'agreeable *with* (to) their instructions ;' 'he is not yet reconciled *with* (to) me ;' 'prevailed *with* (upon) ;' 'good-bye *with* (to) you,' or ' good-bye.'

'From,' ' by,' and ' with,' are prepositions corresponding to the ablative case in Latin. In Greek, which has no ablative, the genitive and dative are taken instead, or the corresponding prepositions are used.

The employing of these detached words is more conducive to facility and precision than the case inflections. Nevertheless it is proper to signalize the relations that the old languages have thought fit to express by cases, as being in all probability those of most frequent occurrence and of greatest importance. We shall now enumerate the entire body of prepositions under different heads, according to their meanings.

The classification is as follows :—

9. I. PLACE. Under place, we have (1.) *Rest in* (the where), as ' in,' ' on,' ' at,' ' near,' ' by.' (2.) *Motion with direction* (the whence and the whither), ' to,' ' into,' ' unto,' ' towards' (up, down), ' from.' (3.) *Place and direction*, ' on,' ' over,' ' under,' ' through,' ' behind,' ' between,' ' among,' ' upon,' ' near,' ' off,' ' across,' ' beyond,' ' abaft,' ' above.'

10. ' In.' The chief preposition of rest in, or the where. The primary force of the word is maintained throughout the many applications of it. The idea of ' being contained ' is seen even when place is not the subject under consideration. ' *In* summer,' ' *in* a deep slumber,' ' immersed *in* worldly affairs,' ' employed *in* carrying,' ' *in* the power of the enemy,' ' *in* joy and *in* sorrow,' ' versed *in* languages,' ' persevere *in* his design,' ' involved *in* ruin.'

The phrases 'in fact,' 'in truth,' 'in that,' 'inasmuch as,' 'in the event of,' 'in vain,' 'in all,' indicate no essential departure from the primary import. 'In the name of,' used in invocation or adjuration, may be supposed to mean 'clothed with the name or authority of.'

The old writers often used 'in' for 'into:' 'cast yourself *in* wonder.' The familiar phrase 'fall in love' remains as an example of the usage.

Scot. 'He gave me a book *in* (as) a present.'

'On.' Properly this falls under the third class (place and direction); but it may often be an equivalent of 'in,' as signifying merely rest. '*On* a rock, whose haughty brow.'

'At.' The same as near or close by : 'At the house' may mean simply near or by the house. Although thus coinciding in its primary meaning with 'by,' it differs from 'by' in not being extended to signify causation or agency. Besides closeness, 'at' may imply in the direction of; as 'to fire *at* a mark ;' 'to glance *at* a question ;' 'to laugh *at*,' 'wonder *at*,' 'bark *at*,' 'work *at*,' 'get *at*,' 'come *at*.'

There is a distinction between 'at' and 'in,' as signifying place; we say '*at* the market cross,' '*at* the fountain,' but '*in* the town,' '*in* France,' '*in* America ;' the one being a limited object, which we may stand close by, the other a more extended surface, which we are contained in. The distinction exactly illustrates the difference in the primary meanings of the words. In some cases both are applicable : 'at, or in school or church ;' but we must say 'at home.' Applied to time, it signifies a point or moment of time, 'at present,' 'at the stroke of nine,' 'at noon,' 'at midnight.'

The phrases involving 'at' are in keeping with the general signification, although some of them constitute peculiar idioms : 'at peace,' 'at war,' 'at play,' 'at the price of,' 'at a loss,' 'at fault,' 'at hand,' 'at issue,' 'at variance,' 'at liberty,' 'at an end,' 'at best,' 'at all,' 'at large,' 'at this,' 'at full speed.'

Scot. 'Angry *at* (with) him ;' 'hatred *at* (to or against) ;' 'ask, inquire *at* (of).'

'Near' (nigh). This preposition also means proximity, which idea it abides by very closely in its metaphorical applications; thus we have '*near* the heart,' 'a translation *near* the original,' '*near* the time,' It contrasts with 'at' in not signifying direction at a distance, and with 'in' in not expressing the fact of being contained in. The adjective 'near' signifying narrow, parsimonious, is doubtless the same word.

11. (2.) *Motion with direction.* 'To' is the chief preposition for this meaning.

Next we have the important compound 'into,' which is very uniform and explicit in its application. 'Go *into* the house,' 'look *into* a book,' 'led *into* error,' 'instilled *into* his mind,' 'forced *into* compliance,' 'ages crowded *into* years,' 'broken up *into* companies,' 'burst *into* fragments,' '*into* difficulties,' 'infuse more spirit *into* the composition,' 'let *into* the secret,' 'spring *into* blossom.'

Scot. 'He is soon put *into* (in) a passion ;' 'sit *into* (near) the fire.'

'Unto.' Compounded of 'on' and 'to,' and now seldom used, as it

signifies almost the same as either 'to' or 'into.' 'Towards' needs no special remark. 'From' has been already explained.

12. (3.) *Place and direction.* 'On.' The simple preposition of rest, repose, or support, the foundation or prop being indicated by the noun following : '*on* the ground,' '*on* the table,' '*on* the sea,' '*on* the coast,' 'leaning *on* his staff.' When we say 'London is situated *on* the Thames,' there is a slight departure from the strict meaning, as if by a figure of speech.

Sometimes a falling or other motion is implied : 'The rain falls *on* the earth ;' 'I sift the snow *on* the mountains below.'

The other uses consist more or less in following out these primary significations. 'Depend *on* me' is metaphorical rest or support. 'Now fades the glimmering landscape *on* the sight,' is highly figurative, but still in keeping. 'He plays *on* the violin,' 'he dined *on* fish,' are farther extensions of signification. The phrases 'to gaze on,' 'to dote on,' 'comment on,' 'prevail on,' 'insist on,' 'resolve on,' 'reflect on,' 'trespass on,' are well-recognized idioms, which seem remote from the primary sense, although the connection of ideas is still traceable.

In signifying time, we have such forms as 'on Monday,' 'on that night,' 'on the occasion ;' these explain themselves. A somewhat different sense is observable when we say 'on the melting of the ice the ships depart.'

Many phrases involve this preposition : 'on fire,' 'on the wing,' 'on the alert,' 'on a sudden,' 'on view,' 'on a great scale,' 'on the part of,' 'on my honour,' 'his blood be on us.'

'Rely *in*' is an error for 'rely on ;' 'founded *in* truth,' for 'on truth.' *Scot.* 'He was married on (to) such a person ;' 'I have waited long *on* (for) an answer ;' 'I saw him *on* or *upon* (in) the street.'

'On' is opposed by 'off,' which, however, is more in use as an adverb than as a preposition : 'off the ground,' 'off my shoulders.' The *adverbial* meaning is the same, and is seen in composition with verbs, as 'get off,' 'break off,' 'be off,' 'draw off,' 'drive off,' 'keep off,' 'pay off,' 'drink off' (set *off*, on a journey, should be set *out*). The phrases 'well off,' 'badly off,' are somewhat peculiar ; there is probably an ellipsis of some subject, as if we were to say 'he is well off that business.'

'Up,' 'down.' The various meanings of these words accord with the primary significations. 'The price of stock is *up* ;' 'his spirits were *up* ;' the county is *up* (in arms).' In compound words we have the adverbial form with a like signification : 'look up,' 'fill up,' 'lead up,' 'hush up.'

'*Down* stairs,' 'down hill,' 'down the stream,' 'down the vale of years.' In the *adverbial form,* 'come down,' 'sit down,' 'bring down,' 'pull down,' 'take down,' 'run down,' 'write down,' 'put down.'

'Upon' is a modification or variety of the simple preposition 'on,' which can be used ;for it in nearly every case. '*Upon* a hill,' 'upon the right,' 'upon condition,' 'upon security,' 'upon a footing,' 'upon the parish (for subsistence or support),' 'upon principle,' 'upon record,' 'upon trial,' 'upon a time,' 'upon occasion,' 'upon this.'

In *adverbial combinations :* 'dwell upon,' 'descant upon,' 'gaze upon,' 'prey upon,' 'resolve upon.'

Scot. 'There is a meeting *upon* (on) Thursday;' 'he plays *upon* (on) the flute.'

'Above,' 'below,' 'beneath.' These words likewise adhere with considerable regularity to their well-known sense—higher or lower in place. The metaphorical applications of 'above' are seen in such examples as 'above his rank,' 'above his means,' 'above comprehension,' 'above board,' 'above mean actions,' 'above the brightness of the sun.' The transition is easy to the meaning, *more than,* in excess; as 'above all,' 'above the price of rubies,' 'the serpent is cursed above all cattle.'

Adverbially the sense is adhered to. In referring back to a former place in a book, the phrase is 'above.'

As 'above' is extended metaphorically to signify superiority, dignity, elevation, 'below,' and 'beneath,' are applied to the opposite states of inferiority and degradation: '*below* the mark,' '*beneath* the yoke,' 'beneath contempt.' *Adv.* 'He shrunk beneath.' *Scot.* 'Who lives *above* (over) you?' '*Below* (under) water, ground, his clothes.'

'Over,' above in position. Extended from place to many other applications, preserving the main idea: 'power over,' 'to watch over,' 'predominate over,' 'muse over,' 'fear came over me.' 'Over the season,' is through the season: 'over-night,' would be literally through the night, but means also after the commencement of the night.

In composition the meaning is still preserved: 'overshoot,' 'overhang,' 'overcome.' In some compounds the idea implied is 'excess,' 'overdo,' 'overcharge,' 'overestimate.' The transition is an obvious one.

The idea of 'covering' distinguishes this preposition from the allied word 'above,' and has given to it a far greater stretch of applications. The number of derivatives obtained from it is very great. *Scot.* 'They looked *over* (out at) the window.'

'Under,' the opposite of over: '*under* the tree,' 'under hatches,' 'under water,' 'under heaven.' The word is extended to subjection, dependence, and protection; as '*under* the sovereign,' 'under God;' to the sustaining of anything as a burden, covering, or envelope: '*under* obligation,' 'under orders,' 'under trial,' 'under apprehension,' 'under reproaches,' 'under necessity,' 'under consideration,' 'under the guise or pretence, or character, or name of,' 'under sail,' 'under arms:' to less in quantity; as '*under* age,' 'under the mark.' 'Under the seal of,' is a more remote extension, and may be interpreted as under the authority, or guarantee signified by the putting of a seal.

The adverbial sense is in harmony with the other: 'bring under,' 'put under,' 'come under,' 'go under,' 'bend under.'

'Through.' The simple preposition for the idea of passage: '*through* the gate,' 'through the wood,' 'through many hands,' 'through the ranks,' 'through the clouds,' 'through the ages,' 'through the valley and shadow of death.' The first step in advance of the primitive sense is to signify, *over the whole extent of a thing,* from end to end, or from one side to another; as 'through all ranks,' 'through all nations;' the application depending on the fact that passage implies successive contact, and a survey of what is gone over. Owing to the facility for

gaining our wishes implied in a free passage, an open door, or a medium of conveyance, the word farther takes on the meaning of *instrumentality* : ' through industry,' ' through influence,' ' through the minister,' ' through the swiftness of his horse.' A difference may be noted between this kind of instrumentality and that expressed by ' with ;' a difference arising out of the primitive sense of the words.

Scot. 'He walked *through* (across) the room ;' ' he will learn *through* (in) time ;' ' he walks *through* (in) his sleep.'

' Along,' ' across.' Along, is by the ' long ' or length of : ' *along* the shore,' ' along the road,' ' alongside.' *Adv.* ' Come along,' ' wander along,' ' drive along,' ' glide along.' No metaphorical extensions of any importance are to be noted.

' Across.' On the ' cross :' ' *across* the river,' ' across the street,' ' across the Atlantic,' ' across his shoulders.' *Adv.* ' Lay across,' ' swim across.'

' Before,' ' after,' ' behind.' ' Before,' in the front of, with or without proximity : ' *before* the door,' ' before Sebastopol,' ' before the face of,' ' before the magistrate,' ' before the wind.' By a natural transition it applies to precedence, preference, or superiority : ' *before* his betters,' ' before his regiment,' ' he was placed before the knights.' The application to priority of time is one of the chief uses of the word : ' before day,' ' before long,' ' before the age.'. In the adverbial applications both place and time are denoted, more especially time : ' looking *before* and after.'

' After,' opposed to ' before ' in the signification of precedence in rank, and in expressing time. The full application to place is seen in the adverbial and adjective uses of the word : ' lagging after,' ' the after-part of the building.' By an obvious figure it is used with words signifying pursuit and inquiry, and also desire : ' follow after,' ' search after,' ' hunger and thirst after,' ' longing after immortality.' By a farther extension, also quite accountable, we find it signifying imitation or following a lead : ' *after* Titiens,' ' after the original, the model,' ' to name after.'

' Behind.' As opposed to ' before ' we may define it, in the rear of, or at the back of : ' behind the scenes,' ' behind a cloud,' ' behind the back.' Hence 'such applications as inferiority, being left out, a remainder in arrear, at a distance, out of sight, disregarded. The adverbial compounds with verbs are of a like ₄tenor : ' stay behind,' ' fall behind,' ' walk behind,' ' look behind.'

' Between.' When two objects are separated, the intervening space, or anything in a middle position, is expressed by this word in its primary sense : ' between decks,' ' between times.' Hence it is applied to express all that goes on in such a situation : ' passing between ;' ' intercourse or communication between ;' ' coincidence, similarity, contrast, or difference between ' (the result of the comparison that may take place when two things are near each other) ; so ' friendship, relationship, understanding between,' ' contest and rivalry between,' ' to adjudicate between ;' also community or partnership ; as ' possessing property between them.'

' Among,' and ' amidst.' ' Between ' expresses in the midst of two ; among ' and ' amidst ' imply a greater number of things surrounding :

'among the trees,' 'among friends,' 'in the midst of his flock.' *Scot.* 'I stuck *among* (in) the mud.'

> To meditate *amongst* decay, and stand
> A ruin *amidst* ruins.

So ' to divide *between*,' implies two; ' to divide *among*,' more than two.

'Beyond.' From the primary meaning of outside of in place, the far side of—as ' beyond sea,' ' beyond bounds,' ' beyond hearing '—this preposition is extended metaphorically to signify superiority or excess in a great many other properties; thus, ' beyond the number or amount,' ' beyond his power or his means,' ' beyond him,' ' beyond description,' ' beyond dispute,' ' beyond measure,' ' beyond the grave.' ' To go beyond,' is to deceive, or circumvent.

'Abaft.' A sea term exclusively.

'Round.' Adheres literally to its well-known primary significa- tion, except in the one phrase ' to get round a person,' for to wheedle or prevail with. 'Around' is the same. 'About' has the primary meaning of 'around,' but is much more vaguely applied. It passes off into signifying a certain indefinite nearness or proximity, the being contained in a place somewhere or other; as ' about the house,' ' about the town,' ' about the country, ' about the person.' This is also the force of the word as applied to time : ' about midnight,' means not exactly midnight, but some time not far off. So with number : ' about a hundred.' From expressing nearness it becomes also a preposition of reference; as ' about my father's business,' ' about who was greatest,' ' about the origin of evil.' As an adverb, its force is seen in ' go about.'

'Against.' ' *Against* the wall.'

'Without.' ' *Without* the camp.'

These prepositions of place and motion include nearly all the simple and primitive prepositions of the language. It will be seen from the foregoing explanations that by means of metaphorical exten- sions, we employ relationships of place to express most other relation- ships denoted by prepositions.

The relationships of place may be made more explicit and em- phatic by a variety of compound phrases, which have the exact force of prepositions; as ' in the midst of,' ' in the heart, centre, interior of;' ' close by,' ' hard by,' ' in close proximity to,' ' in the neighbourhood or vicinity of;' ' right through,' ' straight at;' ' in anticipation of.'

13. II. TIME. 'Since,' 'till,' 'until,' 'during,' 'pending,' 'after.'

'Since.' The time after an event : ' since the peace.'

'Till,' ' until.' Preceding and up to an event : ' till the end of the century.'

'During,' ' pending.' The continuance of the event.

Many Prepositions of place may be applied to time, by governing a noun of time ; as ' in,' ' on,' ' at,' ' before,' ' between,' ' by,' ' within,' ' about,' ' above,' ' near.'

' *In* a year;' ' *on* this;' ' *at* midsummer;' ' *before* noon;' ' *between* this and the end of the week;' ' *by* Christmas next;' ' *within* the month;' ' *about* an hour;' ' *above* a generation;' ' *near* six o'clock.'

The expression of time may be rendered more specific and emphatic by a variety of phrases : ' at the moment of,' ' on the eve of,' &c.

14. III. AGENCY. The agent, instrument, or means of an action is indicated by the Prepositions ' by,' ' through,' ' with ;' and by the *phrases*, ' by means of,' ' by virtue of,' ' through the instrumentality of,' ' by help of,' ' by force of,' &c.

The simple prepositions have been already explained. The phrases derive their signification of agency from the noun : ' *by means of* a powerful connection; ' *by virtue of* his position as judge;' ' *through the instrumentality of* a skilful agent;' ' *by help of* favourable circumstances ;' ' *by force of* earnest solicitation.'

15. IV. END, purpose, motive, or reason : ' for,' ' from.' *Phrases :* ' out of,' ' on account of,' ' by way of,' ' for the sake of,' ' for the ends of,' ' in consideration of,' ' on the score of,' ' from a regard to,' ' with a view to,' ' with an eye to.'

As all the actions of human beings are for some end, the statement of the end is often required. The leading preposition is ' for :' ' he works *for* his bread.' When the *feeling* to be gratified is pointed out, ' from ' is employed : ' he works *from* hunger ;' ' he reads *from* curiosity (*for* information).' ' *Out of* kindness ;' ' *on account of* mere ambition ;' ' *by way of* strengthening his case ;' ' *for the sake of* peace ;' ' *for the ends of* justice ;' ' *in consideration of* his former good conduct ;' ' *on the score of* ill health ;' ' *from a regard to* character ;' ' *with a view to* a good education.' The meaning of the noun suggests the suitable application of the prepositional phrases. We should say, ' *in consideration of* his youth, he was slightly punished,' but ' *on account of* the serious character of the offence ;' *consideration* implying a *favourable* sentiment.

16. V. REFERENCE : ' on,' ' of,' ' about,' ' touching,' ' concerning,' ' with reference to,' ' as for,' ' as to,' ' as regards,' ' on the subject of,' ' on the matter of,' ' on the point of,' ' in respect of.'

' *On* the beautiful ;' ' I sing *of* war ;' ' he came to speak to me *about* his journey ;' ' *touching* the law ;' ' *concerning* his interests ;' ' *with reference to* your application ;' ' *as for* that ;' ' *as to* him ;' ' *as regards* the progress of the suit ;' ' *on the subject of* explosive mixtures ;' ' *on the matter of* the sale ;' ' *in respect of* your wishes.'

Allied to reference is Supposition, for which there are several prepositional phrases, although the meaning

is more usually expressed by conjunctions: 'in the event of,' ' on the supposition of,' ' in case of.'

'*In the event of* his not arriving ;' ' *on the supposition of* there being an abundant supply ;' ' *in case of* failure.'

17. VI. SEPARATION and Exclusion : 'without,' 'save,' 'except,' 'besides,' 'setting aside,' 'putting on one side,' 'other than,' 'more than,' 'apart from,' 'far from,' 'but.'

' *Without* arms;' ' *save* one;' ' *except* England;' ' *besides* his own ;' ' *setting aside* the question of compensation ;' ' *putting (leaving) on one side* the fear of consequences;' ' no man *other than* a soldier ;' ' what reason *more than* a wandering inclination ;' ' *apart from* his companions ;' ' *far from* home;' ' none *but* him.'

18. VII. INCLINATION and Conformity : ' for,' ' according to,' ' in accordance with,' ' agreeable to,' ' in pursuance of.'

' *For the ends of* justice ;' ' *according to* use and wont ;' ' *in accordance with* the views of both parties ;' ' *agreeable to* your instructions ;' ' *in pursuance of* the arrangements already entered on.'

19. VIII. AVERSION, Opposition : ' against,' ' athwart,' ' in spite of,' ' in defiance of.'

' A decree *against* law ;' ' *athwart* the wishes of friends ;' ' *in spite of* fate ;' ' *in defiance of* his professions.'

20. IX. SUBSTITUTION : ' instead of,' ' in room of,' ' in place of,' ' on the part of,' ' as a substitute for.'

' *Instead of* his brother ;' (by way of evasion) ' fair words *instead of* deeds ;' ' *in room of* the deceased ;' ' *in place of* one of the officials ;' ' *as a substitute for* a bridge.' *Scot.* ' *In place of* (instead of) pitying him they laughed at him.'

21. X. POSSESSION, Material : ' of,' ' belonging to,' ' the property of,' ' made of.'

22. It has been seen that some words are both prepositions and adverbs. A preposition is known by its governing a noun, or a phrase corresponding to a noun. Thus, a participial or infinitive phrase is frequently governed by a preposition : ' *on* coming home ;' ' *on* breaking the seal ;' ' *after* considering the case ;' ' *without* straining hard ;' ' the reason *of* his answering so soon.'

THE CONJUNCTION.

1. Conjunctions join together sentences, parts of sentences, and single words: ' day ends, *and* night begins;' ' they were equal in power, *but* not in estimation ;' ' he is *neither* a fool *nor* a rogue.'

The primary use of conjunctions is to unite together distinct affirmations, or sentences, and this is their ordinary use. Even in most cases where they seem to connect single words, we shall find that there is a union of affirmations, only in an abbreviated form. ' Napoleon *and* Wellington were great generals ' is a condensation of the two separate sentences, ' Napoleon was a great general, *and* Wellington was a great general.' But this does not hold with ' two *and* two is four,' ' if they stand between you *and* me,' ' to *and* fro,' ' up *and* down.' To meet those instances, it is laid down that conjunctions also couple words in the same construction, or in the same subject or object relation. Some grammarians would consider ' and ' in these cases as a preposition equal to ' with,' ' together with :' ' two together with two ' makes four. But no one would contend that the expression ' he *and us is* going together' is good grammar, which it would be if we were ever allowed to treat ' and ' as a preposition.

It is necessary to understand the precise way that conjunctions join words together, in order to distinguish them from prepositions. A conjunction never governs a case ; the two words joined are both in the same case under a common concord or government: ' *you and I* will accompany *him and them* ;' ' let us ride *and* tie.' The two words conjoined by a preposition are directly related to each other, and not put under the common regimen of the clause ; as ' the house *by the river* is old.'

' I see six, *if not* seven;' ' men are, *if* wise, temperate,' may each be considered either as two sentences contracted into one, or as words conjoined under a similar construction, or relation to the rest of the sentence.

2. Conjunctions are divided into CO-ORDINATING and SUBORDINATING. Co-ordinating Conjunctions join co-ordinate clauses ; that is, independent affirmations : ' and,' ' but,' ' either,' ' or,' ' neither,' ' nor,' are of this class. Subordinating Conjunctions unite subordinate or dependent clauses to the principal clause of a sentence : ' if,' ' for,' ' since,' ' as,' ' though,' ' because,' ' whether,' ' unless,' ' except,' ' lest,' ' that,' ' after,' ' before,' ' ere,' ' until,' are of this class.

These are the conjunctions strictly and properly so called. There are, however, many adverbs that serve to connect one clause with another, from their having a relative meaning. ' He is industrious, *therefore* he is happy;' ' therefore ' is an adverb qualifying ' he is happy,' by assigning a circumstance or condition of the fact stated ; but, being a relative word, it has no meaning in itself, and derives its meaning from another statement, ' he is industrious,' and so connects the two statements in the manner of a conjunction. Such words are called relative adverbs, conjunctive adverbs, or adverbial conjunctions. They are ' likewise,' ' also,' ' still,' ' yet,' ' nevertheless,' ' notwithstanding,' ' however,' ' therefore,' ' consequently,' ' hence' ' ac-

cordingly.' These are all co-ordinating connectives. As most of them are exact equivalents of the proper conjunctions, it is right to enumerate them here, and to characterize their peculiar meanings. We may also include the adverbs formed from the relative pronouns; namely, ' when ' and ' where;' these may be viewed either as conjunctions, or as substitutes for relative pronouns. The clauses they introduce are co-ordinating or subordinating according to circumstances. In analyzing sentences we may, if we think proper, treat these adverbial conjunctions as adverbs, and the clauses introduced by them as adverbial clauses.

It is also to be observed that several of the conjunctions in the fore-going list, 'before,' 'after,' ' until,' ' since,' are really prepositions, governing, not a noun, but a clause. ' I have not seen him *since* he arrived,' if fully expressed, as was common in old English, would be ' *since that* he arrived.' ' *After that* I was turned I repented, and *after that* I was instructed,' &c. Taking together, therefore, the true conjunctions, the conjunctive adverbs, and the prepositions governing clauses, the entire list of connective words employed in the English language may be exhibited as follows :—

3. The CO-ORDINATING Conjunctions are, first, such as unite clauses whose meaning *adds* to, or accords with, what precedes. These are, ' AND,' ' also,' ' likewise,' ' as well as,' ' not only — but,' ' partly — partly,' ' first — then,' ' secondly,' &c., ' further,' ' moreover,' ' now,' ' well'. These Conjunctions and Conjunctive Adverbs may be called *Cumulative.*

' And.' This is the chief of the class; it is a strict conjunction; the rest are adverbs having the same general effect, but with additional circumstances or shades of meaning. ' And ' couples, or unites two affirmations, and does no more.

' Both—and,' serve to put a special emphasis on the *second* of the two connected sentences, or clauses.

' Also.' In connecting one periodic sentence with another, we may use 'also' to introduce the second, when there is some similarity to be marked. Very often, however, there is little implied in it beyond what would be signified by 'and.'

' Likewise ' is nearly the same as 'also.'

It was considered that there was point in the remark made on the son of a famous Scotch judge, who had succeeded to his father's office, but not to his ability: ' he was a judge *also*, but not *likewise*.' ' Likewise ' often connects one sentence with a preceding, having nearly the force of ' and.'

' As well as.' In joining words under the same construction, ' as well as ' gives an especial emphasis to the connection. ' He as well as you ' is more forcible than ' he and you.' ' No less than' has a similar effect.

' Not only—but.' Instead of saying ' England and all the rest of Europe,' we may say, when we mean to put stress on the circumstance of England not standing alone, '*not only* England, *but* all the rest of Europe;' ' not England alone, but all Europe.'

'Partly—partly.' 'He spoke partly from conviction, partly from prudence.' This is another way of coupling or adding two predications, introducing at the same time a circumstance that seems suitable to the case.

'First, then, secondly,' &c. We use the numeral adverbs to indicate cumulation; the additional circumstances being definite order and a means of reference.

'Further.' As much as to say the case is not yet exhausted, there is more to be said upon it. 'Moreover,' is substantially identical in meaning.

'Now.' The effect of 'now' commencing a sentence is to follow up a statement by something that completes it, so as to enable an inference to be drawn. Thus if a condition be premised from which something follows, the compliance with the condition would be expressed by 'now,' and the conclusion by 'therefore.' 'He was promised a holiday if he executed his task; now he has done the task, therefore he is entitled to the holiday.' (The minor premise of the syllogism is correctly introduced by 'now.') 'Not this man, but Barabbas; now Barabbas was a robber.' Here 'now' adds an explanatory circumstance, which is a recognized mode of using the word.

'Well.' In introducing a new statement, this is a sort of declaration that hitherto all is satisfactory and indisputable, and that the way is clear for proceeding another step.

It is in the consecutive sentences of a paragraph that these adverbial connectives come most frequently into play, and they add much to the clearness of the connection when carefully employed.

The omitting to use a conjunction has the force of cumulation; the mere fact of stating one thing after another, with no word expressing opposition, or conditionality, or other relationship, leaves it to be understood that they are to the same general effect, just as if we were to employ 'and' to unite them. In poetry this omission also suggests inference : 'The wind passeth over it; it is gone.'

4. (2.) The second class of Co-ordinating Conjunctions are the *Adversative*; they place the one Sentence or Clause in some kind of opposition to what precedes. This class is subdivided into three species.

(*a.*) *Exclusive :* 'not—but,' 'else,' 'otherwise.'

'Not—but.' 'A struggle, *not* for empire, *but* for existence.' 'He did *not* speak, *but* he fought.' When we wish to exclude or put aside one fact to bring another into prominence, we make use of this combination.

'Else,' 'otherwise,' 'on any other supposition.' These have a definite and important signification; 'it is so, had it not been so, something would have happened.' 'He came to town yesterday, *otherwise* I should not have met him.'

(*b.*) *Alternative :* 'either—or,' 'whether—or,' 'neither —nor.'

The general meaning of each of these couples is well known, but there are some special meanings worth noting.

'Or.' This sometimes expresses a mere alternative name, or synonyme, the thing being the same: 'Christ, *or* (that is) the Messiah.' (In judicial proceedings this is expressed by *alias*.) We are hence, sometimes, at a loss to know whether an alternative is merely verbal, or in the subject.

'Or' is also used for otherwise: 'you must study hard, *or* you cannot succeed.'

'Nor.' This word is sometimes a contraction for 'and not:' 'he foresaw the consequences, *nor* were they long delayed' (*and* they were *not*).

These alternative conjunctions are not always confined to two things: 'a bird, quadruped, *or* fish.'

(c.) The *Arrestive*, represented by 'but:' 'but then,' 'still,' 'yet,' 'only,' 'nevertheless,' 'however.' *Phrases:* 'for all that,' 'at the same time.'

'But.' The characteristic meaning of 'but' is seen when something has been said that suggests, according to the usual course of things, a certain other fact, or conclusion, which, however, does not follow in this case. 'He was honest, *but* he was not esteemed.' An honest man usually gains the esteem of his fellows, and when we hear the attribute of honesty affirmed, we are naturally disposed to go on and assume the accompaniment of respect; this is prevented by the use of 'but,' hence the designation 'arrestive.' It is the conjunction of exception and surprise. 'The meeting dispersed;' the conclusion is that everybody went away; to check this inference, which may be too hasty and sweeping, we add, '*but* the leaders remained.' 'He is rich, *but* not happy;' 'he tries hard, *but* he does not prosper,' &c.

It is a loose employment of this forcible word, to bring it in where there is no exception taken, or no arrest put upon a natural inference. 'No man taketh it from me, *but* I lay it down of myself;' 'but' is here unnecessary. It is also a common mistake to use it in the sense of 'now,' as signifying the completing of a case in order to draw an inference. 'Men are mortal; *but* (for 'now') we are men; therefore we are mortal.' The mere stating of a contrast does not justify 'but;' 'when pride cometh, then cometh shame; *but* with the lowly is wisdom.' The last assertion is in accordance with the first (the denial of the opposite is another mode of affirming the same fact), and therefore there is no sufficient case for 'but.' 'While' is a suitable word in this connection; so is the phrase 'on the other hand.'

In the following sentence the propriety of 'but' depends on the facts of the case: 'the Commons passed the bill, *but* the Lords threw it out.' If it were usual for the Lords to agree with the Commons, their opposition would be a surprise, and would be expressed by 'but.' Where there is no surprise, a cumulative conjunction is to be

preferred. 'Parliament passed the measure, *but* the King refused his consent,' would, under the custom of the English Constitution, be a proper construction.

'But' is the conjunction of epigram.

'But then.' A more special form of 'but;' equal to ' but in that case, or on that supposition.'

'Still.' An equivalent of 'but,' and even more emphatic. It suggests a pause to hear what is to be said by way of exception or opposition to the previous statements. 'Everything went against him ; *still* he persisted.' As it is a greater break in the flow of the composition than 'but,' it is a preferable word for commencing a period, or the second member of a period divided by a semicolon.

'Yet.' The peculiar force of 'yet' is brought out by its connection with 'though:' 'Though deep, *yet* clear.' When 'though' is not expressed, it is understood, and the meaning of 'yet' is almost the same. The intention is as it were formally to concede a point that would seem to carry a certain consequence with it, and at the same time to forbid that consequence.

'Nevertheless.' In conveying the same general meaning as the foregoing, this long word makes a considerable break or pause, and is therefore suitable for introducing a longer declaration, as in commencing a period, or an extended member of a period.

'However.' A word of like purport to the foregoing. It has the peculiarity of being often placed in the middle of the sentence or clause qualified by it. 'That course, *however*, he was not inclined to take.' The advantage of such an arrangement is, that the conjunction does not stand between the two connected statements, and so permits the reference to be emphatically close.

'Only.' Placed at the beginning of an assertion 'only' has the effect of 'but.' 'Do as you please ; *only* let your intention be apparent;' that is, your doing so is still to permit this one thing, namely, &c.

'For all that,' 'in spite of all that,' 'notwithstanding all that,' are phrases that produce the arrestive effect, and are suitable to be made use of when a more than ordinary emphasis is demanded. This emphasis they give partly from the force of the words, partly from their occupying the attention by their length.

'At the same time.' Another phrase belonging to the arrestive class, without much specialty in its application.

5. (3.) The last class of Co-ordinating Conjunctions are those expressing effect, or consequence, called *Illative :* 'therefore,' 'wherefore,' 'hence,' 'whence,' 'consequently,' 'accordingly,' 'thus,' 'so,' 'so that,' 'then,' 'so then.'

'Therefore' is the typical word of the class, and the most frequently made use of. The rest do little more than afford synonymes to vary the composition. 'Wherefore' is equal to 'and therefore ;' 'hence,' the same as 'from this ;' 'whence,' like 'wherefore,' dispenses with 'and' when we should say 'and hence.'

'Consequently' is the equivalent of 'as a consequence.' 'Accord-ingly' may mean 'consequence' or 'effect,' like the preceding; it is also suited by its etymology to a rather different meaning some-times important to be signified,—'in harmony with.' 'The arrange-ments are that the cavalry and artillery shall move in advance; *accordingly,* you (the cavalry) are to leave your position,' &c.

'Thus' and 'so,' like 'accordingly,' are words originally implying comparison or similarity of manner, and extended to signify infer-ence or consequence. 'Thus' is employed after stating a principle to introduce an example or case in point; as much as to say 'we shall give an instance of what is intended.' It also expresses a comparison in the strict sense; as in the passage from the *Pleasures of Hope:* 'At summer's eve, when heaven's ethereal bow,' &c.—'*thus* with delight we linger.' The existence of these two distinct uses renders the word less apt as an illative conjunction, although still admis-sible. 'So,' whose primary function is to make a comparison, can also express a consequence. 'There was nothing to be seen, *so* we went our way.' 'So that' is more specific than 'so;' the addition of 'that' excludes the meaning of comparison; hence this combination is one of our most precise forms of signifying inference. Its most charac-teristic import is, 'to such a degree that.'

'Then.' From having as an adverb the force of 'after that,' or 'in the next place,' 'then' has been included among illative conjunctions; the fact of one thing *following* another being given as showing causation or inference. (This explains the adoption of 'conse-quently,' 'it follows that,' as words signifying cause and effect.) 'Then' is more commonly used in a compound phrase, 'so then,' and then;' but it may, standing alone, have the full force of 'therefore,' in drawing an inference, or stating an effect, or a consequence. '*So then* the cause was gained,' signifies 'by those means it came about as an effect that,' &c.

To vary the expression of this important relationship, as well as to make it occasionally more emphatic and precise, we use phrases of greater length; as 'the effect, consequence, result, upshot was;' 'the inference is;' 'it follows;' 'it may be concluded, inferred,' &c.

6. The SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS are divided ac-cording to the various relations or modes of dependence, as Reason (because), Condition (if), End (that), Pre-caution (provided that), Time (when).

(1.) Conjunctions of *Reason* and Cause: 'because,' 'for,' 'since,' 'as,' 'whereas,' 'inasmuch as,' 'for that reason.'

When we invert an illative connection, stating the consequence as the main clause, the other is then assigned as the reason : 'he is in earnest, *therefore* he will succeed' (illative); 'he will succeed, *because* he is in earnest' (reason). The clause '*because* he is in earnest,' is a subordinate or dependent clause; in other words, the fact

is given not for its own sake, but as bearing out something else. The conjunctions introducing these clauses are, therefore, called subordinating.

'Because,' by its derivation, is the word for assigning a cause. Moral causes, or motives acting on the mind, are expressed by this conjunction : 'he reads *because* he has thought himself hungry ; he writes because he has read himself full.' Physical causation is stated in this example : 'the crops failed, *because* the season was dry.'

'For' is used in assigning causation, in giving what is called the *logical* reason or proof, and in explaining or accounting for a thing : 'The brook will be very high, *for* a great deal of rain fell in the night' (physical cause) ; 'a great deal of rain must have fallen, *for* the brook is high ' (the logical reason or proof). 'He pressed on, *for* his ambition was still unsatisfied ' (explanation). The word is especially appropriate in this last sense. A characteristic application is seen in such a sentence as 'do as you are told, *for* much depends on it ;' here there is a blank or ellipsis, and when that is filled up, the conjunction shows itself in the sense of giving the reason or proof : 'do as you are told ; if you fail, the consequences will be serious, *for* (or the proof of which is) much depends on it.'

'*Since*' literally means something that is past, and hence settled and fixed, so that whatever consequences depend on it must now arise. 'Since you desire it, I will look into the matter.' It declares a certain circumstance to have occurred, and gives that as a reason for the main affirmation.

'As.' This word adds to its many uses that of a subordinating conjunction of reason. It derives this meaning also from the original idea of declaring similarity or comparison. '*As* we are at leisure, let us see what is to be seen ;' the 'as' here assigns a reason for our seeing, &c., and it does so by indicating a sort of similarity or harmony between the positions of our being at leisure and our seeing all we can : 'it is in accordance with our situation to see,' &c. 'Let us act out, conform to, or resemble our position,' &c. Although ' as ' is thus included among the subordinating conjunctions of reason, there is more frequent danger of ambiguity with it than with the others of the class.

'Whereas.' This conjunction introduces the preamble in every Act of Parliament, giving the reason or motive of the enactment, or the evil to be remedied by the provisions that follow. Hence it is strictly a conjunction of reason, but its employment in this sense is mostly confined to legal compositions. The meaning belonging to the word in ordinary style is different. 'I offered to take the lot entire, *whereas* every one else wished it divided.' Here it plainly indicates a contrast between two things, with a view of showing the superiority of the one expressed in the principal clause. We may explain this application by supposing the word to be a compound relative (like wherein, whereat), implying ' in circumstances wherein ;' ' or with reference to which.'

'Inasmuch as,' 'forasmuch as.' These are other equivalents of

'since,' 'as,' and 'whereas' (in the sense of a preamble). 'Forasmuch as many have taken in hand to set forth in order,' &c.

'Seeing that,' 'considering that.' '*Seeing that* you cannot get what you ask, take what you can get.' '*Considering that* the world is so intricate, we are not to be surprised that science has progressed slowly.' The only peculiarity of these phrases as conjunctions of reason is derived from the meaning of the words 'seeing,' 'considering,' which have a special appropriateness when the reason grows out of circumstances reflected on by the mind.

'For that reason.' This is of course a phrase directly suited to the purpose of assigning a reason.

7. (2.) Conjunctions of *Supposition, Condition*, or *Qualification* : 'if,' 'supposing that,' 'if not,' 'unless,' 'except,' 'without,' 'otherwise,' 'whether,' 'as if,' 'though,' 'notwithstanding,' 'albeit.'

'If.' When a thing is stated not absolutely or unconditionally, but under a certain condition, supposition, or qualification, 'if' is the principal word for expressing the condition. 'I will, *if* I can ;' '*if* I could, I would.' This is the main use of the conjunction, to which it adheres with considerable uniformity. A peculiar and somewhat ambiguous employment of the word is seen in the fable, where the ant says to the grasshopper, '*If* you sung in summer, dance in winter,' where 'if' has the force of a reason, the condition being a realized fact, 'since, or as you sung.' These are cases where the conjunction is always followed by the indicative mood.

'Supposing that,' 'on the supposition, presumption, allegation, hypothesis that,' are phrases that vary the mode of introducing conditional statements ; they carry their own meaning with them. 'In case that' is a very convenient and often-wanted phrase for anticipating contingencies or eventualities. The prepositional phrase 'in the event of' is of the same tenor.

'If not' is the conjunction of negative condition, for which there are many equivalents. 'Aristotle, the most sagacious, *if not* the most comprehensive, mind of antiquity,' conveys an insinuation of doubt, although the context and the manner will often show that the speaker either believes or disbelieves the statement.

'Unless' is one of the most usual conjunctions of negative condition : '*unless* I hear to the contrary, I will be there.'

'Except' is another word for the negative condition : '*except* (unless) ye repent, ye shall all likewise perish.'

'Without' was formerly used to signify 'if not :' '*without* you go, I will not.' The connection of this sense with the usual force of the preposition is apparent.

'Otherwise,' which has been already classified as a co-ordinating conjunction (*adversative*, exclusive), may be employed in the present sense on the same principle as the preposition 'without :' 'write by return of post, *otherwise* I shall conclude,' &c. This form, however, is an ellipsis of the negative condition rather than the expression of it ; 'otherwise' is equal to 'if you do not.'

'Whether.' In the expression 'I know not *whether* he will come,' the word 'if' sometimes takes the place of 'whether,' as if conditionality were suggested. The transition from stating conditionality to implying mere doubt is an obvious one; the meanings are still distinct.

'As if' is a compound conjunction carrying out the sense of both words. 'He started *as if* he saw a spirit,' that is, 'as he would have done *if* he,' &c.

'Though,' 'although.' These are the words for expressing *concession*, which is condition, with the circumstance that parties are willing to allow something that they might perhaps refuse. '*Though* all men deny thee, yet will I not;' 'grant the supposition that all men,' &c. When something is given as true with a certain limitation, we may use this word: 'they advanced steadily, *though* slowly.' The use of 'yet' to preface the principal clause increases the emphasis of that clause, but does not affect the meaning of 'though' in connection with the subordinate clause. The omission of 'though' in the above example would make the clauses co-ordinate, united by the co-ordinating arrestive conjunction 'yet.' We have a variety of phrases for the present meaning: 'provided that,' 'allowing that,' 'granting that,' &c. 'Supposing that,' also frequently implies that a concession is made.

'Notwithstanding' falls under the same head as the foregoing. It is a verbal phrase converted into a preposition in the first instance, and then into a conjunction. It obviously means 'I am prepared to do a certain thing, granting what appears to be strong considerations or forces on the other side.' 'For all that,' 'in spite of all that,' are expressive synonymes. 'Anyhow,' 'at all events,' are other phrases of allied signification.

'Albeit' is an expressive combination, and ought not to be considered as obsolete, or old-fashioned.

8. (3.) Conjunctions of *End*, or *Purpose* : 'that,' 'in order that,' 'so—as,' 'as—as,' 'lest.'

'That' is the demonstrative pronoun, converted into our chief conjunction of end. 'We sow, *that* we may reap;' 'men toil, *that* they may attain to leisure.' The transference of the demonstrative to this peculiar use may be explained by supposing that after a fact is stated the hearer is ready to ask 'what then?' 'what next?' 'what of it?' 'for what end?' whereupon the demonstrative supplies the information desired, '*that* (namely) we may reap.' Without assuming the natural desire to know *why* a thing is, or why an assertion is made, we cannot well account either for this conjunction, or for the still greater blank of connecting words shown in the gerund construction : 'We sow to reap ;' 'they stoop to rise ;' 'born but to die ;' in all which the action expected to follow is simply named in its most naked form, the hearer being looked upon as asking why? or wherefore?

'In order that' is somewhat more explicit than the simple 'that;' still it fails to express the fact of *end* by a direct meaning : the words 'in order' mean only 'this first, that next;' the hearer must

himself suppose that the one leads to, or points to, the other.   The same phrase is interposed in the gerund construction ; 'we read in order to be informed.'

'So—as.'   'He *so* acted, *as* to gain the confidence of others.'   This is a kind of relative construction, the 'so' being demonstrative, the 'as' relative.   'He acts in that manner, by which manner he gains.' The end is still a matter of inference more than of direct information. The effect of the construction is to indicate not merely end, but a certain express suitability in the means employed to compass the end.

'Lest' is the end of avoidance : 'in order not to.'   'They set a strong guard, *lest* any one should escape.'   In the use of this conjunction we should notice that if the principal verb contains the meaning of avoidance, 'that' is preferable to 'lest :'   'I *feared* that (not lest, I should be deceived.'

Precaution is indicated by the phrases, 'provided that,' 'with the understanding that,' 'with this proviso,' &c.

Precaution may be viewed either as condition or as end.   It is a collateral object to be kept in view, and fulfilled along with the main purpose.   In doing what is chiefly aimed at, we are to secure certain other things : 'provided that all is safe, you may depart.'   In Acts of Parliament the phrase used is 'provided always that.'

9. (4.) The relative Adverbs introducing clauses of time may be called Subordinating Conjunctions of *Time :* 'when,' 'while,' 'as,' 'until,' 'ere,' 'before,' 'after.'

'I will come *when* I am at leisure ;' 'I will praise thee *while* (so long as) I live ;' '*as* I looked, some one came near ;' 'they remained *until* night set in ;' 'it will be long *ere* you have such a chance ;' 'the truth will come out *before* we are done ;' '*after* the vote was taken, the assembly broke up,'

Immediate consequence is signified by various compound connectives :   'no sooner—than,' 'just—when,' hardly—before,' 'the moment—that,' 'as soon as,' &c.

The INTERJECTION is not properly a part of speech, as it does not enter into the construction of sentences.   It is a sudden exclamation prompted by some strong feeling or emotion.   There are various utterances suited to the different emotions of the mind ; as, *joy,* 'huzza !' 'hurra !' *grief,* 'O !' ah !' 'alas !' *wonder,* 'hah !' *approbation,* 'bravo !' *aversion,* 'pugh !' 'tush !'   For calling *attention,* 'hark !' 'lo !' 'hush !' &c.

EXCLAMATION, one of the figures of rhetoric, employs words of ordinary language in the manner of interjections :   'what !' 'for shame !' 'ah me !' 'how strange !'

INFLECTION.

The second part of Etymology, called Inflection, treats of the changes made on words to express various relations and meanings. Thus the Noun and Pronoun are changed in three ways, viz., for Gender, Number, and Case. These changes constitute DECLENSION.

The Adjective is inflected for Degree, which is named COMPARISON, and applies also to Adverbs.

The Verb is changed to signify Person, Number, Time, &c. This is called CONJUGATION.

The uninflected Parts of Speech are the Preposition, Conjunction, and Interjection.

INFLECTION OF NOUNS.

GENDER.

1. Beings possessing animal life are divided into the two sexes, male and female, or masculine and feminine; as 'man, woman;' 'bull, cow.' Plants and things destitute of life have no sex in grammar.

To this distinction corresponds the division of names according to Gender: names for individuals of the male sex are of the masculine gender, as 'king;' names for the female sex are of the feminine gender, as 'queen.' Names for things without sex are sometimes said to be of the Neuter Gender, but should be simply left as of no gender; as 'gold,' 'mountain,' 'bread,' 'oak.'

Many words are applied to both Genders alike; as 'parent,' 'child,' 'cousin.' These are said to be of the Common Gender.

The names applied to the greater number of the inferior animals are of this sort, it being only in the more important and best known species that we are at the pains to note the sex. Thus, trout, ant, lizard, are common to both sexes. If we wish, on occasion, to mark the sex we use a special designation, as the prefix 'he' or 'she,' or the adjectives 'male,' 'female.' Man, and mankind, are often used comprehensively for both sexes. We also use other designations, such as actor, author, painter, poet, for both sexes, although they are properly masculine, and have feminine derivatives (actress, &c.). The effect of this is to give two meanings to the two phrases : 'the greatest of living actors,' and 'the greatest of living actresses,' applied to a woman. By the one she is designated the first actor of either sex, by the second the first of her own sex.

In English, gender follows sex (with a few exceptions); that is, masculine words and forms are confined to the male sex, feminine forms to the female sex. But in many other languages, as Latin, Greek, &c., a poetical or figurative process of personifying things without life was in extensive operation, by which the distinction of gender was extended to nouns generally; and the adjective was regularly inflected in three forms for masculine, feminine, and neuter. In French, every noun is either masculine or feminine.

There are three ways of distinguishing the Genders of Nouns.

2. I. By employing different words; as 'king, queen;' 'husband, wife;' 'boy, girl;' 'cock, hen.'

This is a question of the meaning of words, and not of grammar. The number of such cases is not great. The following are the chief :—

MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.
Bachelor	Maid	Earl	Countess	Monk	Nun
Boar	Sow	Father	Mother	Nephew	Niece
Boy	Girl	Gander	Goose	Papa	Mamma
Brother	Sister	Gentleman	Lady	Ram	Ewe
Buck	Doe	Hart	Roe	Sir	Madam
Bull	Cow	Horse or Stallion }	Mare	Sire	Dame
Bullock or Steer }	Heifer			Sloven	Slut
Cock	Hen	Husband	Wife *	Son	Daughter
Colt	Filly	King	Queen	Stag	Hind
Dog	Bitch	Lord	Lady	Uncle	Aunt
Drake	Duck	Mallard	Wild duck	Wizard	Witch
		Man	Woman		

Some of these names are distinct only in appearance, being modifications of the same original word. Thus, 'slut' and 'sloven' are both derived from 'slow;' 'uncle' and 'aunt,' 'nephew' and 'niece,' 'lord' and 'lady,' are remotely connected. 'Countess' is the derivative feminine of 'count,' the French name for 'earl.' 'Girl' was originally of either gender, being derived from a Saxon word signifying 'a little churl.'†

The giving of different words to denote gender is an exceptional

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* 'Man and wife,' for 'husband and wife,' is a Scotticism.

† 'Man,' in Anglo-Saxon, was of both genders ; 'woman' was 'wif-man,' or 'weft-man,' that is, the man that weaves ; this being a feminine occupation.

usage, and is accounted for in most cases by the great difference of function of the two sexes. Thus men and women perform offices so different, and sustain characters so distinct through the various relationships of life, that we are not surprised at their being designated by different words. A 'daughter' is literally 'the milker,' or 'milk-maid,' because that was the office that the daughters of the house fulfilled in early pastoral times. So the 'horse' and 'mare,' the 'bull or ox,' and 'cow,' the 'ram' and 'ewe,' &c., have broadly marked distinctions in their uses and employments, which probably suggested the difference of appellation in each case.

In a few instances there is a noun of common gender as well as separate designations of the sexes. Thus, 'child' (son or daughter), 'deer' (hart or roe), 'fowl' (cock or hen), 'horse' (stallion or mare), 'monarch,' 'sovereign' (king or queen), 'parent' (father or mother), 'pig' (boar or sow), 'sheep' (ram or ewe).

We have also such compounds as 'foster-father, foster-mother;' 'gaffer (grand-père), gammer' (grand-mère); 'gentle-man, gentle-woman;' 'grand-father, grand-mother;' 'land-lord, land-lady;' 'mer-man, mer-maid;' 'moor-cock, moor-hen;' 'pea-cock, pea-hen;' 'step-father, step-mother;' 'step-son, step-daughter;' 'turkey-cock, turkey-hen;' 'French-man, French-woman.'

3. II. By *prefixing* a word indicating the sex; as 'he-goat, she-goat;' 'cock-sparrow, hen-sparrow;' 'buck-rabbit, doe-rabbit;' 'bull-calf, cow-calf;' 'man-servant, maid-servant;' 'man-kind, woman-kind.'

III. By the use of *suffixes*, or terminations; as 'author, authoress;' 'hero, heroine.' The suffixes are 'ess,' 'ix,' 'en,' or 'in;' 'ster,' for adding to the masculine to make the feminine; and 'er,' 'rake,' for adding to the feminine to make the masculine.

ess. This is the termination most extensively employed. It is derived from the Norman-French, and is attached principally to words so derived. In many instances the vowel of the masculine is modified to make the feminine more easy and agreeable to pronounce; as 'master, mistress.' The following are the chief examples:—

MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.
Abbot	Abbess	Governor	Governess	Peer	Peeress
Actor	Actress	Heir	Heiress	Poet	Poetess
Baron	Baroness	Host	Hostess	Priest	Priestess
Benefactor	Benefactress	Instructor	Instructress	Prince	Princess
Chanter	Chantress	Jew	Jewess	Prophet	Prophetess
Count	Countess	Lad	Lass	Protector	Protectress
Dauphin	Dauphiness	Lion	Lioness	Shepherd	Shepherdess
Deacon	Deaconess	Marquis, (Marchio in Latin)	Marchioness	Songster	Songstress
Duke	Duchess			Sorcerer	Sorceress
Emperor	Empress	Master	Mistress	Tiger	Tigress
Enchanter	Enchantress	Mayor	Mayoress	Traitor	Traitress
Founder	Foundress	Negro	Negress	Tutor	Tutoress
Giant	Giantess	Patron	Patroness	Viscount	Viscountess
God	Goddess				

The termination ' ix ' (the original form of the French ' ess ") came direct from the Latin, and is employed for a small number of words :—

MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.
Administrator	Administratrix	Heritor	Heritrix
Director	Directrix	Testator	Testatrix
Executor	Executrix		

in, ine, ina, en, are different forms of a termination occurring in various European languages. All the examples in English are derived from other languages, except ' carl, carl-inn ' (an old woman), ' fox, vix-en.' The others are ' hero, heroine ;' ' landgrave, landgravine ;' ' margrave, margravine ;' ' czar, czarina.' Names of women are formed by this ending, as ' Josephine,' ' Caroline,' ' Pauline,' &c.

' Don, donna ;' ' sultan, sultana ;' ' signore, signora ;' ' infante, infanta ;' exemplify one mode of forming the feminine in words of foreign origin.

ster is the proper English feminine termination. In Anglo-Saxon, it was ' estre,' or ' istre.' It is now preserved as a sign of the feminine gender only in ' spinster,' and ' foster-mother ' (food-ster). As in early times the occupations of brewing, baking, weaving, spinning, fulling, &c., were carried on by women, the names of operatives in those crafts took this termination : ' maltster,' ' brewster or browster,' ' baxter or bagster,' ' webster,' ' spinster,' ' kempster.' A bar-maid was signified by ' tapster,' the barman being ' tap-er ;' ' fruitster ' was a female fruitseller, ' chidester,' a female scold. In ' seam-str-ess ' and ' song-str-ess,' we have the Saxon and French endings combined. In the words ' youngster,' ' punster,' ' gamester,' ' trickster,' the suffix expresses depreciation and contempt.

As a general rule, the feminine is formed from the masculine ; but in the words ' drake,' ' gander,' ' widower,' ' bride-groom,' the masculine is formed from the feminine. The two first (drake and gander) are explained by the circumstance that the flocks are mainly composed of female birds ; these, therefore, were designated in the first instance, and the males afterwards by a derivative name. ' Rake ' was a suffix in other Gothic dialects, and the present example is derived from the Scandinavian : ' duck ' and ' drake,' however, are different words. The syllable ' er,' the English suffix of agency (as seen in reader, writer), was originally a masculine suffix, being a word signifying a man. ' Widow ' was in old English both masculine and feminine ; but on its becoming restricted to women, a modification to express the other sex became necessary. ' Bridegroom ' is formed by adding the word ' goom ' (in Anglo-Saxon *guma*, man), which was corrupted into ' groom.'

4. Besides these various modes of expressing gender, we make extensive use of the Adjectives ' male ' and ' female,' ' masculine ' and ' feminine,' for the same purpose : ' a male child,' ' a female elephant,' ' the feminine temperament ' (for the temperament of women).

This usage does not properly fall under declension, or inflection for gender.

5. Inanimate objects are sometimes spoken of as male or female, and are then said to be personified. Thus, it is customary with us, as with the Greeks and Romans, to speak of the Sun as masculine, and of the Moon as feminine.

The sun, time, summer, winter, the dawn, the morn, death, are made masculine; the moon, the earth, night, are feminine. The planets are some masculine and some feminine, according to the sex of the deities that they owe their names to: Jupiter, Saturn, Mercury, &c.; Venus, Pallas, Vesta, &c. This is now considered a poetic licence.

The English practice of confining distinction of gender to difference of sex, renders those occasional deviations very impressive, by actually suggesting to the mind the idea of personal existence and attributes; whereas in such languages as Greek, Latin, and French, the assigning of gender to things inanimate produces no effect on the mind. A German speaks of his spoon as *he*, his fork as *she*, and his knife as *it*.

The motives for assigning the masculine gender to some things, and the feminine gender to others, are supposed to be the following:—Things remarkable for strength, superiority, majesty, sublimity, as Death, Time, Winter, War, have been looked upon as masculine. Gentleness, beauty, and grace, fertility or productiveness, belonging, or imagined to belong to things, suggest a feminine personification, as the Earth, Spring, Hope, Virtue, Truth, Justice, Mercy, Peace. Things very much identified with their owner are occasionally spoken of as *she*; the seaman calls his ship 'she:' to call a watch or a clock 'she' is a common Scotticism.

6. The knowledge of the Gender of a Noun is necessary in order to the correct use of the Pronouns, 'he,' 'she,' 'it,' and their inflections and derivatives.

The concord of the common gender is arranged thus. For the more distinguished beings, we may use the masculine, in its representative sense; as in speaking of a member of the human family, we may say 'he,' although women are also included. The most correct form, although somewhat clumsy, is to say 'he or she.'

(See SYNTAX—Concord of the Pronouns.)

NUMBER.

1. When a Noun (or Pronoun) names a single object it is said to be of the Singular Number, as 'book,' 'man;' when more than one are named, the Noun usually undergoes a change, and is then said to be of the Plural Number, as 'books,' 'men.'

The singular is the original form of the noun.

In the Anglo-Saxon a dual number existed in the personal pronouns of the first and second persons.

2. The Plural is formed in English, with a few exceptions, by adding 's' to the Singular: 'ship, ships.'

In Anglo-Saxon there was a select class of nouns forming the plural by the addition of 'as' to the singular, which in later English became 'es,' as bird, bird-*es*. This came very near the usage of the Norman-French, and the consequence was that the form in 'es,' was extended to English nouns generally, all the other Saxon plural endings being dropped. The change is said to have been in operation as early as the thirteenth century. The 'es' finally became 's,' which led to the loss of a syllable in plural nouns : 'bird*es*,' 'birds.'

a. When the Noun ends in a *sharp mute* (*p, f, t, th* [in *thin*], *k*), the 's' has its sharp sound (sea): 'crops,' 'beliefs,' 'cats,' 'wreaths,' 'books.'

This is a necessity of pronunciation ; we are unable to pronounce a sharp and a flat mute together ; we cannot say 'crop*z*,' 'belief*z*,' 'cat*z*,' without such a pause between the letters as would constitute a new syllable. The same reason determines the next rule.

b. When the Noun ends in a *flat mute* (*b, v, d, th* [*the*], *g*), in a liquid (*m, n, l, r*), or a vowel, the 's' is sounded in its flat sound *z*; as 'cabs,' 'graves,' 'dogs,' 'brothers,' 'bogs,' 'hens,' 'pans,' 'bells,' 'masters,' grottos.'

c. When the Noun ends in a sibilant or hissing sound (*s, z, sh, ch, x*) the original 'es' is retained ; as 'cross, crosses ;' 'prize, prizes ;' 'fish, fishes ;' 'church, churches ;' 'box, boxes.'

Without constituting a new syllable, it would be impossible to form a plural in such cases, the sound added being identical with that concluding the word. The vowel is a break in the articulation of the hissing consonant.

These three rules express a general principle of euphony, or accommodation, applicable wherever words are inflected by the addition of 's ;' as in the possessive case of nouns, and in the third person singular of verbs.

As a caprice of *spelling*, the 'es' is added to some other words, but without affecting the pronunciation ; such are 'calicoes,' 'cargoes,' 'echoes,' 'heroes,' 'manifestoes,' 'mulattoes,' 'negroes,' 'potatoes,' 'volcanoes,' &c.

Nouns ending in 'y' preceded by a consonant change the 'y' into 'ies' to form the plural, as 'duty, duties.' But 'boy,' 'valley,' &c., having a vowel before *y*, are regular : 'boy, boys,' 'valley, valleys.' A reason for this irregularity may be found in the fact that formerly

such words as 'duty,' 'glory,' were written 'dutie,' 'glorie;' and
the regular plurals of these,—'duties,' 'glories,' have been retained
unaltered, while the singular has undergone a change. But this too
is a mere matter of spelling, and not a proper inflection, or modifica-
tion of the word.

d. Nouns of Anglo-Saxon origin ending in 'f,' and
preceded by a long vowel, change the 'f' into 'v,'—
'loaf, loaves;' 'half, halves;' 'wife, wives;' 'calf,
calves.'

The 's' in this instance is sounded z, as a consequence of the
second rule above given : the 'e' is unnecessary. The singulars of
those words in Anglo-Saxon ended in 've,' and the plural has followed
the old singular instead of the new.* Thus 'life' was 'live,' as in
the compounds 'lively' and 'alive;' so 'self' in old English was
'selve.' With a short vowel preceding, as in 'muff,' the general
rule is preserved—'muffs;' so in 'mischief,' 'chief,' 'grief,' 'relief,'
'handkerchief;' but 'thief,' has 'thieves.' 'Dwarf' is an excep-
tion, being 'dwarfs;' and 'beef,' a word of French origin, follows
the Saxon rule, 'beeves.' 'Roof' and 'reef' make 'roofs, 'reefs;'
'staff' in its usual sense is 'staves,' in the military sense, 'staffs;'
'turf' is both 'turfs' and 'turves;' so with 'wharf.' 'Fife' and
'strife' are also exceptions to the general rule—'fifes,' 'strifes.'

The foregoing are the regular and modern processes of forming
the plural in English.

3. A small number of Nouns form their plurals by
obsolete modes of inflection; as 'ox, oxen;' 'man,
men;' 'brother, brethren;' 'cow, kine;' 'child,
children.'

One mode of forming the plural in Anglo-Saxon was to affix 'en'
to the singular; 'oxen' is the only instance remaining in modern
English. Other examples are found in old English and in provincial
dialects, as 'pull-en' (fowls), 'peat-en,' 'hos-en,' 'hous-en,' 'shoon'
(shoe-en), 'een' (eye-en), 'pease-en.' 'Swine' is singular.

In 'men,' 'geese,' 'mice,' 'feet,' we see a modification of the
vowel of the singular. This process did not take place by itself, but
along with the addition of 'en,' as in 'brother, brethren;' 'man,
mannen.' The 'en' was dropped in some cases, leaving the plural
to be denoted by the vowel change alone. This is seen in 'cow,
kine, kye.'

A third mode of signifying the plural consisted in suffixing 'er,'
or 'ry.' This ending has a collective meaning in modern English,
as is seen in 'heronry,' 'yeomanry,' 'jewry,' 'rookery,' 'shrubbery,'
'Irishry,' (for the Irish, used by Macaulay). In old English 'childer'

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* The irregular pronunciation of the words—youths, cloths, paths, oaths, truths
(opposed to the general principle seen in 'mouthz '), is explained on a similar his-
torical circumstance ; in Anglo-Saxon they ended in 'th' flat.

is the plural of 'child,' and consequently 'children' (child-er-en) is considered a double plural. 'Lambren' (lamb-er-en), 'eyren' (ey-er-en, eggs), are other examples from the old writers. Another view is that the syllable 'er' in those words has merely a diminutive force.

The 'er' may be another form of 'es,' a not uncommon substitution in European philology. With regard to 'es,' or 's,' a plural ending in various languages besides ours, the supposition has been made that it is a form of the demonstrative pronoun of the third person. The nominative singular of masculines and feminines ending in 's' (equu-s, fini-s) contains this pronoun (which had an ancient form 'sa'); and the plural is probably a corruption of the same pronoun put twice (pisci-sa-sa, i. e., fish that and that), the doubling being thus symbolical for repetition or plurality.— (Chambers's *Encyclopædia*, art. Inflection.)

4. Some Nouns have the same form in both numbers; as 'deer,' 'sheep,' 'swine,' 'grouse,' 'teal,' 'mackerel,' 'trout,' 'salmon,' 'heathen,' 'cannon.'

5. Many words borrowed from other languages retain their original plurals: 'focus, foci;' 'genus, genera;' 'beau, beaux;' 'cherub, cherubim.'

The following are a few of the most usual :—

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Formula	Formulæ	Phenomenon	Phenomena	Vortex	Vortices
Larva	Larvæ	Stratum	Strata	Series	
Nebula	Nebulæ	Criterion	Criteria	Species	
Tumulus	Tumuli	Miasma	Miasmata	Superficies	Unchanged
Magus	Magi	Analysis	Analyses	Apparatus	
Radius	Radii	Basis	Bases	Sir	Messieurs
Animalculum	Animalcula	Axis	Axes	Madam	Mesdames
Effluvium	Effluvia	Focus	Foci	Bandit	Banditti
Datum	Data	Appendix	Appendices	Virtuoso	Virtuosi
Medium	Media	Radix	Radices	Seraph	Seraphim
Momentum	Momenta				

When a foreign word passes into common use, the tendency is to adopt the English plural. Thus we have 'genius-es,' 'crocus-es,' 'vivariums,' 'memorandums,' 'encomiums,' 'dogmas,' 'formulas,' 'cherubs,' 'seraphs,' 'bandits.' Some foreign words have currency chiefly in the plural; as 'errata,' 'arcana,' 'dilettanti,' 'antipodes.'

6. Some Nouns have two plurals, with separate meanings.

'Penny, pennies' (a number of separate coins); 'pence' (for a collective sum) as 'fourpence;' 'die, dies' (stamps for coining); 'dice' (for gaming); 'genius, geniuses' (men of original power); 'genii' (spirits); 'brother, brothers' (by blood); 'brethren' (of a community); 'cloth, cloths' (different kinds of cloth); 'clothes' (garments); 'index, indexes' (to a book); 'indices' (signs in Algebra); 'shot, shot' (the number of balls); 'shots' (the number of times fired).

7. The Plurals of a few Nouns differ in meaning from the Singulars: 'compass, compasses;' 'corn, corns;' 'iron, irons;' 'salt, salts;' 'content, contents;' 'domino, dominoes;' 'good, goods;' 'vesper, vespers.'

Some nouns have two meanings in the plural, one corresponding to the singular, the other distinct from it: 'pain, pains' (trouble); 'custom, customs' (revenue duties); 'number, numbers' (in poetry); 'letter, letters' (literature).

8. Some Nouns are used only in the Plural.

'Aborigines,' 'amends,' 'annals,' 'antipodes,' 'assets,' 'archives,' 'banns,' 'bellows,' 'billiards,' 'bowels,' 'calends,' 'credentials,' 'dregs,' 'entrails,' 'filings,' 'hustings,' 'ides,' 'lees,' 'matins,' 'measles,' 'molasses,' 'news,' 'nones,' 'nuptials,' 'oats,' 'obsequies,' 'odds,' 'pincers,' 'pliers,' 'premises,' 'scissors,' 'shears,' 'snuffers,' 'spectacles,' 'summons,' 'thanks,' 'tidings,' 'tongs,' 'trappings,' 'trousers,' 'tweezers,' 'vespers,' 'victuals,' 'vitals,' 'wages.'

For words like 'tongs,' 'scissors,' &c., the reason lies in the nature of the instrument designated. As regards the others, we must look to some circumstance in the history of each.

Some of these words are used with a verb in the singular, and often it is a matter of doubt which is the correct construction.

'News' in old English was commonly plural: 'these are news indeed'—*Shakspeare;* but now it is uniformly singular: 'ill news runs apace.' The singular form 'new' never existed.

'Means,' according to most grammarians, is to be used in the singular when the signification is singular, and in the plural when the signification is plural. We may say accordingly, 'this means,' or 'those means,' as the case requires. The singular form 'mean' is to be found.

'Tidings' is plural. It is commonly used by Shakspeare as a plural noun, but in some instances he makes it singular: '*that* tidings came.' The singular 'tiding' is unknown to the language.

'Summons' might be considered as a true singular, for it has a regular derived plural, 'summonses.'

'Nuptial,' 'thank,' and 'wage,' occur in old English. The words 'mathematics,' 'physics,' 'optics,' represent plurals in the Greek language, but they are construed by us as singular: 'Optics *is* the science of light.'

There are some nouns apparently plural, but in reality singular, as 'alms' (Anglo-Saxon, 'œlmesse'), 'riches' (French, 'richesse'). Hence the following are mistakes: 'the alms they receive *are*—,' 'riches *profit* not.'

9. Proper Nouns sometimes apply to one person, and are therefore Singular, and sometimes to several persons, and then admit of the Plural: 'There are no Ciceros in our age.'

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10. Names of Materials have no Plural; as 'gold,' 'air,' 'butter.'

But when there are different qualities of the material, the plural is occasionally used, as 'sugars,' 'wines,' 'clays,' 'airs.' Also at a hotel a waiter talks of 'three teas,' 'two soups,' these being detached portions of tea and of soup. 'Sands' is used because the material is made up of distinct particles, which we can therefore suppose to be numbered.

11. Abstract Nouns have no Plural; as 'wisdom,' 'pride,' 'baseness,' 'might,' 'whiteness,' 'elasticity,' 'opacity.'

Occasionally these nouns are found in the plural, but then they signify, not the abstract quality, but particular actions or particular varieties of the quality, as 'liberties,' 'virtues,' 'vices,' 'negligencies,' 'lengths,' 'forces.'

Or they may really signify something in the concrete, as 'transparencies.'

12. Nouns of Multitude, although singular in form, have a Plural meaning and construction: 'vermin,' 'cattle,' 'crowd,' 'people,' 'folk,' 'infantry,' 'tenantry,' 'Englishry.'

13. The omission of the Indefinite Article in Nouns that take that Article before them, is a sign of the Plural.

The proper declension of a noun is: (singular) 'a house, (plural) houses;' 'a man, men;' 'a sheep, sheep.'

14. With a numeral, the sign of the Plural is often dispensed with: 'five pound,' 'ten sail,' 'two brace of birds,' 'four pair,' 'two dozen,' 'a three-foot rule,' 'twenty year,' 'forty head of cattle,' 'a thousand horse.'

This omission evidently arises out of the circumstance that the numeral indicates the fact of plurality, and therefore renders the plural inflection unnecessary. Indeed the means of making known plurality are superabundant, as we may see from such an instance as the following: 'Four children were at their lessons, the good creatures.' Here the plurality is expressed by *six* different marks; 1st, the numeral; 2nd, the plural inflection, 'children;' 3rd, the verb 'were;' 4th, by 'their;' 5th, by the plural of the word in apposition, 'creatures;' 6th, by the omission of the article.

15. Strictly speaking, the Plural form declares only that there are more than one of the thing named; but we are able often to infer besides something as to the extent of the number.

'We are to have friends this evening,' means some or a few. 'He keeps horses,' implies the same. 'He sells books,' refers to the nature of his occupation. 'Men say' is men in general; all that have an opportunity of speaking on the subject. 'Sheep are meek animals;' the whole race of sheep. 'Men are mortal;' all men. Thus the context may indicate sufficiently that the number spoken of is a few, a great number, or the whole of the thing spoken of.

16. The **Plural of Compound Nouns** is generally formed by inflecting the principal Noun; as 'sons-in-law,' 'goings-out,' 'maids of honour,' 'maid-servants,' 'man-stealers.'

Where the words are so closely allied that the meaning is incomplete till the whole is known, the 's' is added at the end, as 'pailfuls,' the 'three per cents,' 'forget-me-nots.'

We may say either 'the Misses Brown,' or 'the Miss Browns,' or even 'the Misses Browns.' 'The Misses Brown' has a collective effect; 'the Miss Browns' rather implies separate action. But in commercial life we say 'the Misses Brown.' Such an example as 'Knights Templars,' where the two nouns in apposition are inflected, is an unusual form.*

There are some Scotticisms connected with the plural inflection : 'He has no *objections* (objection) ;' 'I was in his *favours* (favour) ;' 'they were dressed in *blacks* (black).'

CASE.

1. **Case** is an inflection of the Noun, showing its relation to other words; as 'the master's voice,' where the addition of *s* to 'master' shows that 'voice' is the property of 'master.'

In many languages these inflections are more numerous. Besides the relation expressed above, called the possessive or genitive relation, there are others in Latin, denominated dative, ablative, &c. In English, prepositions serve the purpose served in those languages by their various case-endings; *patri* is 'to a father,' *patre* is 'by a father.' We can also substitute for the possessive inflection in our own language the preposition 'of;' 'the voice *of* the master.'

2. There are said to be three cases in English, Nominative, Possessive, and Objective; but in nouns the Possessive is the only case where inflection occurs. *Nominative*, 'man;' *possessive*, 'man's;' *objective*, 'man.'

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* Dr. Angus on the English Tongue, art. 206.

Except for the pronouns, the distinction of nominative and objective would not be kept up, as the form of the noun can never show whether it is nominative or objective. These names have a meaning only in construction with verbs; the one corresponding to the subject (the nominative), the other to the object of the sentence.

3. The Possessive is formed by adding to the Noun the letter 's' preceded by an apostrophe: 'John, John's.' In the Plural no addition is made, except the apostrophe: 'fathers, fathers'.' If the Plural does not end in *s*, the general rule for the Singular is then applied: 'the children's bread.'

The reason for not adding 's' to the regular plurals is the difficulty of pronunciation: 'fathers, fathers's.'

In Anglo-Saxon, the possessive ending was 'es:' 'bird, birdes.' This survives in 'Wedn-es-day' (Woden-es-day).

The omission of the vowel, and the consequent sounding of the 's' in the same syllable as the letter preceding, leads to varieties of pronunciation, such as those described for the formation of plurals; the 's' being sometimes sounded sharp, as 'life's,' and sometimes flat: 'God's,' 'Jacob's.' (See *Number*.)

4. The 's' is omitted in the Singular when too many hissing sounds would come together; 'Socrates' wife,' 'for conscience' sake,' 'for goodness' sake,' 'for Jesus' sake.'

We say 'St. James's and St. Giles's,' 'Moses's,' 'Douglas's,' 'Burns's.' The general rule is adhered to as much as possible. When the word consists of more than two syllables, the 's' is dropped, as 'Euripides' dramas.' In poetry it is frequently omitted: 'Bacchus',' 'Æneas',' 'Epirus',' 'Hellas'.'

5. In Compound Nouns the suffix is attached to the last word; as 'heir-at-law's,' 'the queen of England's.'

Even when there are two separate names, the *s* is added only to the last, as, 'Robertson and Reid's office;' 'John, William, and Mary's uncle.'

6. The Possessive Inflection is principally limited to persons, animals, and personified objects. We may say 'John's occupation,' 'the king's crown,' 'the lion's mane,' 'the mountain's brow;' but not 'the house's roof' (for the roof of the house), 'the street's width,' 'the book's price.'

Thus it is only a select number of nouns that admit of inflection: for the great mass we must use the preposition 'of.' This very much diminishes the importance of the only case-inflection that the lan-

guage owns, rendering it an exception rather than the rule. The examples of its use may be classified as follows :—

1. Proper names : 'Peter's pence,' 'John's farm.' For these the possessive inflection is preferred, although it is not exclusively employed ; 'David's psalms' (the psalms of David); 'Plato's philosophy' (the philosophy of Plato).

2. Class designations : as 'judge,' 'farmer,' 'soldier.' 'The *hero's* harp,' 'the *lover's* lute,' 'the *enemy's* camp.'

> And Zion's daughters pour'd their lays
> With *priest's* and *warrior's* voice between.

3. The lower animals : 'the cat's mew,' 'the eagle's flight,' 'the ant's industry,' 'the elephant's tusk.' The other form is equally common.

4. Dignified objects that we are accustomed to hear personified : 'the sun's rays,' 'the moon's rising,' 'the earth's surface,' 'the torrent's rage,' 'the lightning's flash,' 'the volcano's heavings,' 'the morning's ray,' a 'man-of-war's rigging,' 'fortune's smile,' 'melancholy's child,' 'the last trumpet's awful voice;' 'and love's and friendship's finely pointed dart, 'the clamour of the Church's being in danger;' 'this day's operations,' 'time's follower, 'nature's voice,' 'eternity's stillness,' 'perdition's dream.'

The powers of the human mind are sometimes personified ; whence we have, 'reason's voice,' 'passion's lure,' 'for conscience' sake,' 'imagination's range,' 'fancy's flight.' The collective interests of humanity may be treated in the same way : 'history's business,' 'society's well-being,' 'the law's delay.'

Poets naturally carry the usage farther than prose writers :—

> Seeking the bubble reputation at the cannon's mouth.—*Shak.*
> He sat him down at a pillar's base.—*Byron.*

There are instances in ordinary speech, where the possessive is used without personification, but they are rare ; as 'for appearances' sake,' 'for acquaintance's sake ;' and even in these the other form, with the preposition, is more usual. In old English the inflection was less uncommon : 'upon his *beddis feet* '—*Chaucer;* 'though I of *mirthis* food,' 'the *town's* wall '—*James I. of Scotland;* '*landes* law '—*Dame Berners.**

There are certain phrases where a period of time is governed in the possessive by the action or state that the time relates to : 'a day's leave ', 'a month's holiday,' 'a few hours' intercourse,' 'the Thirty-years' war.'

But we are not now permitted to make indiscriminate use of this inflection ; such expressions as 'what is the cheese's weight? 'who was gunpowder's inventor?' 'copper's value,' 'heat's laws,' would be a violation of all usage.

7. It would be correct to call the Possessive in 's' the inflection of *personal* possession, or attribute.

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* Harrison on the English Language, p. 137.

Sentient beings may have their possessions, properties, or attributes expressed by being inflected in this manner : ' the merchant's wealth,' ' the ambassador's credentials,' ' the tiger's ferocity.' When an inanimate object so far impresses the mind that we think of it as having sense and will, we may bestow upon it the personal ending ' s,' just as we may ascribe to it human passions and features : ' the tempest's fury,' ' Time's hoary locks,' ' Death's fatal arrow.'

For the meanings of the genitive in English as regularly expressed by the preposition ' of,' see *Prepositions.*

8. In Anglo-Saxon there was a genitive suffix in ' en,' or ' n.' This is still seen in ' *mi-ne,*' ' *thi-ne,*' and ' *no-ne,*' and in the adjective suffix ' en,' as ' *golden.*'

9. In the plural and in the feminine singular, the genitive in Anglo-Saxon sometimes ended in ' re ;' this is found in the pronouns ' *thei-r*' and ' *he-r.*'

10. There was also, in Anglo-Saxon, a *dative* ending in ' *um,*' probably remaining in ' *hi-m,*' ' *the-m,*' ' *who-m,*' which are now objective (or accusative) cases, and in the adverbs ' *seld-om,*' and ' *whil-om.*'

11. The dative singular feminine of adjectives in Anglo-Saxon is ' re.' This may be supposed to be preserved in ' *he-r,*' ' *the-re,*' ' *whe-re,*' ' *he-re.*' The dative singular of nouns was ' e,' but no trace of it remains.

12. The dative case now represented in English by ' to,' originally meant nearness in place ; ' I am here,' ' I am in this place.' Its common meaning, implied in the name (the dative or *giving* tense), may be easily connected with this, although the ' going to ' tense would be a more exact designation.

13. In Anglo-Saxon there was an accusative suffix, ' n,' still seen in ' *whe-n,*' ' *the-n,*' ' *tha-n.*'

14. The suffix of the ablative in Anglo-Saxon was ' y.' This survives in ' *wh-y,*' ' *ho-w,*' ' *so,*' and ' *the*' (properly ' *thi*') before comparatives (the more).

INFLECTION OF PRONOUNS.

1. Pronouns are principally inflected for Case.   A Pronoun differs from a Noun in having a distinct form called the Objective Case, used when it stands as the object after a Verb or a Preposition ; as ' I saw *him ;*' ' he saw *me,* and spoke to *me.*' A Pronoun has thus three Cases.

There is no inflection for gender in the pronouns. Those that alone express difference of sex, namely, the demonstratives (he, she), have different words for the masculine and for the feminine. The same remark applies to number ; the plural is not expressed by an addition to the singular, but by a distinct word in each case : ' I, we ;'

'thou, you;' 'he, she, it,—they;' while the relative and interrogative pronouns are the same for both singular and plural.

2. The PERSONAL Pronouns are thus declined :—

SINGULAR.

Nominative.	Possessive.	Objective.
1st person, I	Mine	Me.
2nd person, Thou	Thine	Thee.

PLURAL.

1st person, We	Ours	Us.
2nd person, Ye or you	Yours	You.

The pronominal adjectives, 'my,' 'thy,' 'our,' 'your,' may be regarded as other forms of the possessive case of the pronouns. We say 'this hat is *mine*' (pronoun); 'this is *my* hat' (adjective).

3. The DEMONSTRATIVES, or Pronouns of the third person, are declined as follows :—

Nominative,	He	Possessive,	His	Objective,	Him.
„	She	„	Hers	„	Her.
„	It	„	Its	„	It.

'Its' is a remarkable instance of an inflection formed within historical times. The form was unknown before the sixteenth century, occurring but rarely in Shakspeare, and not at all in the translation of the Bible; the want being supplied by 'his' and 'thereof.' The old neuter pronoun was *hit*, possessive, *his*, which thus stood for both masculine and neuter, creating an obstacle to the personifying power of the word. Milton seems to have felt this, and never uses the form 'his' in the neuter sense, while he evades the occasions of resorting to 'its.' Dryden, on the other hand, adopted the new form fully, and from his time we may reckon it as established in English literature.—Craik's *English of Shakspeare*, p. 91.

There is a curious contrast between the possessive inflection of nouns and this possessive. The nouns so inflected are almost exclusively names of persons, while 'it' is the pronoun of things. We cannot say 'the room's height,' but we can say '*its* height.'

The form 'of it' is sometimes to be preferred. When the noun is emphatic, the preposition is preferable: thus, 'the weight of it,' 'the value of it,' better enables us to throw the emphasis on the noun, than if we were to say 'its weight,' 'its value.'

Another use of the possessive 'its' is to form a compound genitive: 'the fact of its being remembered.' 'The fact of the being remembered of it,' would not be sense. We are able, as it were, to decline a participial clause: 'it being remembered,' 'its being remembered.' We are also permitted to use the strong emphatic form, 'its own.' Compare the parallel use of 'his:' 'the deep damnation of *his* taking off.'

PLURAL.

Nominative,	They	Possessive,	Theirs	Objective,	Them.

The second form of the possessive of 'they,'—'their,' is the adjective. 'This' and 'that,' which are looked upon as pronouns as well as adjectives, have no case-inflection; they have a plural inflection, 'these,' 'those.' These plural forms are more frequently used without a noun than is the singular, which would give them to a greater degree the nature of the pronoun : '*these* are not drunken as ye suppose.'*

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* Angus on the English Tongue, art. 229.

The INDEFINITE pronoun ' one,' in the sense of ' one cannot be sure of that,' is declined in the singular, but has no plural : ' one's legitimate expectations should be respected.'

' One' the numeral, ' the young *ones*,' is declined like a noun : ' one, one's ;' *plural*, ' ones.'

4. The RELATIVE Pronouns that undergo declension are ' who' and ' which.'

' Who' is declined—*possessive*, ' whose,' *objective*, ' whom. '

' Which' is declined—*possessive*, ' whose, *objective*, · which.'

' What' and ' that' are indeclinable.

When we come to discriminate the two relatives—the co-ordinating and the restrictive—we find the modes of expressing the case-meanings of them in practice to be somewhat complicated.

To begin with ' who.' When we have occasion to express the idea of strict personal possession, we may say ' whose,' and also ' of whom :' ' God, whose offspring we are,' ' of whom we are the offspring.' Of course when the meaning is not personal possession, but reference, ' of whom ' is used, or ' whom—of :' ' he encountered the keeper, of whom he knew nothing,' ' whom he knew nothing of.'

' Which.' When we have to use a possessive form of the neuter relative of co-ordination, we have a choice between ' of which,' ' whereof,' and ' whose.' The preferable form is ' of which,' and ' which—of,' the other forms are better suited to the restrictive relative ; ' the alkaline bases, *of which* the peculiarity is ;' ' the doctrines in question, *of which* this is the sum,' ' which this is the sum of.' The forms ' whose,' ' whereof,' are also admitted ; but perspicuity is gained by reserving them for the other relative. ' They agreed in regarding the national voice, *whose* (co-ordinating) independence they maintained, as expressed by the representatives of the people in parliament.'

' That.' No inflection is provided for the relative of restriction. To express the meaning corresponding to the possessive inflection, these are the forms : that—of,' ' whereof,' and ' whose.' The first is unmistakable, and to be preferred. The others serve for the co-ordinating relatives ; but they have, to the ear familiar with idiomatic English, still more the restrictive effect : ' the person *that* I gave you the name *of* ;' ' the person *whose* name I gave you ;' ' the tribunal of public opinion is one *whose* decisions it is not easy to despise ;' ' one *that* it is not easy to despise the decisions *of* ;' ' I could a tale unfold, *whose* lightest word,' &c., could not be conveniently changed into ' that—of.'

The form ' whereof' is only one of a class of compounds —' wherein,' ' whereto,' &c.—that possess great convenience in expressing the prepositional constructions of the relative. They correspond by preference, but not exclusively, to the restrictive relative ' that.' ' The point *wherein* I erred,' ' the point that I erred in ' (restrictive). ' And be not drunk with wine, *wherein* is excess ' (co-ordinating, ' in which ').

Some grammarians would confine the use of ' whose ' to persons, but the restriction has never been in force ; there is nothing to justify it.

5. The INTERROGATIVE Pronouns being the same as the Relative, their inflection is the same : 'whose dog is this ?' ' whom do you seek ?' ' of what use is it to discuss the matter ?'

Many good writers and speakers use the forms ' who do you speak to ?' ' who to ?' 'who for ?' ' who from ?' making a construction analogous to ' where to ?' ' where shall I take it to ?' If these forms be admissible, the objective of ' who' is 'whom,' or ' who.'

The objectives ' him,' ' them,' ' whom,' were in their origin datives. 'Me' and ' thee' are also considered datives as well as objectives. The dative construction is traced in the forms ' methinks,' ' meseems,' and in the idiom 'light me (for me, to me) a candle.'

As regards the possessive inflection generally, it is to be noted that the noun governing a plural possessive should not be made plural, unless the sense require it; as ' we have changed our mind,' ' we would lay down our life;' 'men's reason should bid them regard their health.' The plural is not required in such an expression as ' let not your hearts be troubled.'

Scotticism in the possessive case : ' To-morrow's morning,' for ' to-morrow morning;' ' Sunday's morning.'

INFLECTION OF ADJECTIVES.

1. Adjectives are inflected to signify differences of degree : ' great, greater, greatest.' This is called their Comparison.

In many languages adjectives are inflected to mark the gender of the nouns they are joined to; in English no difference is made on this account. Nor does the case or number of the noun affect the adjective in English. Our language gains in simplicity and ease by discarding these adjective inflections, and loses only a certain power of varying the order of words.

2. There are said to be three Degrees of Comparison ; the *Positive*, ' great;' the *Comparative*, ' greater;' the *Superlative*, ' greatest.' The Positive is the Adjective in its simple or uninflected form; the Comparative is formed by adding ' er ' to the Positive; the Superlative by adding ' est ' to the Positive.

The suffix ' er ' appears in the ancient languages under the forms ' ter,' ' ther,' and means ' one of two.' It constituted an inflection for *duality*, and occurs in a number of words involving that significa-

tion : 'ei-ther,' 'nei-ther,' 'whe-ther,' 'far-ther,' 'fa-ther,' 'mo-ther,' 'bro-ther,' 'sis-ter,' 'daugh-ter.'

'Est' is one of two forms of the superlative. The other was 'ema,' and occurs now only in such words as 'for-*m*-ost,' 'hind-*m*-ost,' 'mid-*m*-ost,' &c.

3. When the Adjective ends in '**y**' preceded by a Consonant, the '**y**' is changed into '**i**;' 'holy, holier, holiest.'

4. A final Consonant preceded by a short Vowel is usually doubled : 'red, redder, reddest.'

5. When a word has more than two syllables, or is a compound, the comparison takes place by means of the Adverbs '**more**' and '**most**;' '*more* singular, *most* singular;' '*more* fruitful, *most* fruitful.'

This is for the sake of euphony. When a word has already three syllables, the addition of the inflection for degree makes it too hard to pronounce, and painful to hear. So when a word is already a compound, as 'faith-ful,' there is a similar objection to compounding it still farther.

Even with dissyllables generally, the effect of adding 'er' and 'est' may occasionally sound harsh; and therefore the second method is followed, as 'more earnest,' 'more prudent.'

Another reason for preferring 'more' and 'most' is that 'er' and 'est' are Saxon suffixes, and best suited to Saxon words. Most words of three syllables and upwards are of classic origin, and their inflection would produce hybrids. The old writers, however, were not bound by these rules. We find in Bacon, 'ancienter' and 'honourablest;' in Fuller, 'eloquenter,' 'eminentest;' in Hooker, not only 'learnedest' (a Saxon word), but 'famousest,' 'solemnest,' 'virtuousest;' in Sidney, 'repiningest.'

Any adjective may be compared by 'more' and 'most,' if the ear is better satisfied with the combination of sounds produced. 'It is *most* true;' 'a *more* worthy course.'

6. Certain comparatives in 'ior,' derived from the Latin, as 'interior,' 'exterior,' 'superior,' 'inferior,' 'anterior,' 'posterior,' 'prior,' 'ulterior,' 'senior,' 'junior,' 'major,' 'minor,' are not proper English comparatives. They have not the English ending; nor are they followed by 'than' in composition; we do not say 'senior *than* his brother.'

7. Some words are irregularly compared, as 'good, better, best;' 'bad, worse, worst;' 'much, more, most;' 'little, less, least.'

The simple word 'bet,' which is another form of 'good,' is found in Anglo-Saxon, and in provincial English. We also find in Anglo-Saxon the full forms 'bet-est,' 'bet-st.' In 'worse' the 'se' is another

Anglo-Saxon comparative form. ' Wor-st ' is contracted from ' wor-est.'
The root ' wor ' means ' crooked,' ' out of the right path.'

' Much ' is contracted from Anglo-Saxon ' micel ;' ' mo-re ' is from
' ma-re ' (mag-re) ; and ' most ' is the Anglo-Saxon ' mœst ' (mag-est).

' Little,' ' less,' ' least.' The root is ' lite,' and in ' less ' it is sup-
posed that the 't' is assimilated to the 's' of the comparative suffix
' se.' A modification of the vowel (i being changed into e) also
occurs. ' Least ' is contracted from ' let-est.'

A few adjectives have no positive, as ' under, undermost ;' others
have no comparative, as ' top, topmost.'

8. Double comparatives and superlatives are to be avoided ; as
' more surer punishments,' ' worser far,' ' the most boldest,' ' the
most unkindest cut of all.' The double comparative ' lesser ' is es-
tablished as a second form of the comparative of ' little ;' ' the *lesser*
Asia,' ' the *lesser* grey centres of the brain.'

So when a word has of itself the force of a comparative or super-
lative it should not be compared ; as ' the *chiefest* among ten thou-
sand,' ' the *extremest* verge,' ' a *more perfect* way.'

9. Adjectives expressing qualities that do not admit of change of
degree are not compared. Such are the pronominal adjectives (this,
that, his, their, &c.), the definite numeral adjectives (two, fourth,
both, &c.), and many adjectives of quality.

The following are examples : ' Almighty,' ' certain,' ' chief,' ' circular,' ' continual,'
' dead,' ' empty,' ' extreme,' ' eternal,' ' false,' ' filial,' ' fluid,' ' full,' ' golden,' ' infi-
nite,' ' living,' ' paternal,' ' perfect,' ' perpetual,' ' royal,' ' supreme,' ' universal,' ' void.'
Some are already words expressing the highest possible degree of the quality
(Almighty) ; others have no shades of meaning ; a thing must be either perpen-
dicular or not, dead or not dead ; there are no degrees. Figuratively, however, we
ascribe degrees to some of these attributes : we speak of an assertion being more or
less certain ; more or less full, fluid, &c. Milton's description of Satan's despair
is hyperbolical :

> And in the *lowest* deep, a *lower* deep.

Another mode of expressing the superlative degree is exemplified in the ' King of
kings,' the ' Lord of lords,' the ' bravest of the brave.'

To express comparison there is also the peculiar idiom seen in the
examples, ' too evident to require proof ;' ' too much a man of the
world to be imposed upon.'

10. The Comparative is used when two things are compared, the Superlative when more than two.

> Of *two* such lessons, why forget
> The *nobler* and the *manlier* one ?

But the rule is not strictly adhered to. Writers and speakers
continually use the superlative in comparing two things : ' the best
of two,' ' the least of two ;' and less frequently the comparative for
the superlative. We can say ' more than all,' ' more than any,' as
well as ' most of all,' ' most of any.' Like many other dual forms,
the comparative degree is superfluous ; and perspicuity would be
equally served by using the same form of comparison for two, as
for more than two.

11. The Comparative and Superlative are sometimes used by way of eminence ; as ' the *most* High.'

In expressing mere intensity, the adverbs ' more ' and ' most ' are made use of instead of ' very,' ' greatly,' &c. ' His argument was *most* (very) convincing.' There is in such cases no express comparison, and hence the name, the superlative of *eminence*.

12. The Demonstrative Adjectives, ' this,' ' that,' are inflected for number.   The Indefinite Numeral Adjectives, ' other,' ' another,' when used alone, like Pronouns, are inflected for Number and Case : ' for *another's* good,' ' for the sake of *others*.'

In such expressions as ' the tens, ' ' the hundreds,' a ten, a hundred, may be looked upon as collective nouns, like ' a dozen dozens.' The phrase ' to walk on all-fours ' is an idiom that can scarcely come under any rule.

INFLECTION OF ADVERBS.

1. The only inflection of Adverbs is Comparison. Some, from the nature of their meaning, cannot be compared, as ' now,' ' then,' ' there,' ' never,' ' secondly,' ' infinitely.'   When the signification admits of degree, they are compared in the same manner as Adjectives : ' soon, sooner, soonest ;' ' often, oftener, oftenest ;' ' pleasantly, more pleasantly, most pleasantly.'

Adverbs are usually longer than the corresponding adjectives, and therefore more rarely admit of comparison by ' er ' and ' est.'   Such cases as ' latelier,' ' gentlier ' (Tennyson), are exceptions, allowed by euphony.   In the old writers, such terms were more common : ' wiselier,' ' easilier,' ' rightlier,' ' hardliest,' ' earliest,' are instances, but not for imitation.   Coleridge uses ' safeliest.'

2. A few Adverbs coincide with irregular Adjectives : ' well, better, best ;' ' badly or ill, worse, worst ;' ' much, more, most,' &c.

INFLECTION OF VERBS.

1. The Verb is the Part of Speech that makes an affirmation ; and in making an affirmation we may have

reference to such circumstances as time, conditionality or unconditionality, person, and number.

Methods exist in every language for expressing these numerous relations. In some languages, as the Greek, the verb itself is changed or inflected for nearly every variety of time, person, number, &c. In English the actual inflections are few; but by means of auxiliary words we can express all the various circumstances of affirmation.

2. The commonly enumerated relations of the Verb are Voice, Mood, Tense, Person, Number.

3. With reference to VOICE, Verbs are *Active* or *Passive*. Every Transitive Verb has an active form, or voice, and a passive form, or voice. ' Cæsar *defeated* Pompey' (Active); ' Pompey *was defeated* by Cæsar' (Passive).

Since in the passive voice the *object* of the verb becomes the subject of the affirmation, where there is no object (as in *intransitive* verbs) there can be no change of voice. ' His ardour *cooled* ' is intransitive, and admits no such variation as occurs in the sentence, ' he struck *the ball*,' '*the ball* was struck.'

The passive voice expresses the same fact as the active, but in a form that calls attention to the object, rather than to the subject of the action. Indeed, the subject may be unknown, and therefore there would be a blank in the affirmation if we had not the passive form. ' The glass was broken,' is a complete assertion, although we may not be able to name the agent, or consider it unimportant to do so.

The English has no inflection for the passive voice. No language nearly allied to the English (except the Icelandic) contains a passive inflection. This inflection, where it exists, seems to have arisen from a mode of applying a reflective pronoun. When an act took place, with the agent unknown, it was usual to ascribe the act to the object itself, as if we were to say, ' the bird (found dead) had killed itself,' ' the room heated itself,' for ' the room was heated.'

4. The MOODS are the *Indicative, Subjunctive, Imperative*, and *Infinitive*. Under the same head we may include the *Participle* and the *Gerund*.

Mood means the manner of the action. One important distinction of manner is the distinction of unconditional and conditional. ' I see the signal,' is unconditional : 'if I see the signal,' is the same fact expressed in the form of a condition. The one form is said to be in the *Indicative* mood; the other form is in the *Subjunctive*, conditional, or conjunctive mood. There is a slight variation made in English, to show that an affirmation is made as a condition. The mood is called ' subjunctive,' because the affirmation is *subjoined* to another affirmation : ' *if I see the signal*, I will call out.'

Such forms as ' I may see,' ' I can see,' have sometimes been considered as a variety of mood, to which the name ' Potential ' is given. But this cannot properly be maintained. There is no trace of any inflection corresponding to this meaning, as

we find with the subjunctive. Moreover, such a mood would have itself to be sub-divided into indicative and subjunctive forms: 'I may go,' 'if I may go.' And farther, we might proceed to constitute other moods on the same analogy, as for example, an obligatory mood—'I must go,' or 'I ought to go;' a mood of resolution—'I will go, you shall go;' a mood of gratification—'I am delighted to go;' of depre-cation—'I am grieved to go.' The only difference in the two last instances is the use of the sign of the infinitive 'to,' which does not occur after 'may,' 'can,' 'must,' 'ought,' &c. Some grammarians consider the form 'I do go,' a separate mood, and term it the emphatic mood. But all the above objections apply to it likewise.

The *Imperative* mood is the expression of command, desire, en-treaty. From the nature of the meaning, it can be used only in the second person. In English, there is no inflection for it; the simple form of the verb is employed : 'see,' 'go.' The term imperative is somewhat misleading, as the mood is employed in supplication as well as in command ; and for the strongest forms of command it is insufficient. The legislature uses 'shall' to signify its commands; another form used in common life is 'must.'

5. The *Infinitive* 'to go' is not a mood in the same sense as the others. It is the form of the verb that contains neither affirmation nor command, but merely names the action in the manner of a noun : 'to *reign* is worth ambition,' for 'the act of reigning.' There is no time signified by the infinitive as there is by the other moods. The name 'infinitive' expresses the fact that it is not *limited* in those circumstances of time that limit the other parts, which parts are called collectively the *Finite verb*. The preposition 'to' is not essential to the infinitive, and is dropped before certain verbs.

The form 'going' is also an infinitive of the verb, called sometimes the infinitive in 'ing.' It fulfils the function of a noun in the same manner as the other : '*going* is sad,' 'he dreads going.'

6. The *Participle* is a name for two forms : 'going,' 'gone :' 'call-ing,' 'called.' The first is the same in appearance as the infinitive in 'ing ;' but different in use. The name is given because of the sup-posed *participation*, or sharing, in the functions of the verb, the adjec-tive, and the noun.

Speaking correctly, the participle is neither an adjective nor a noun. Adjectives are derived from participles, and verbal nouns occur with the form of the participle in 'ing,' but derived in reality from other sources. The participle coincides with the verb in having a subject and an object, and in expressing some varieties of the action ; but it has no power of independent affirmation. In con-struction it is subsidiary to a verb in some of the finite moods (indica-tive, &c.), and derives its affirmative force from the verb thus coupled. '*Ascending* the mountain, we had a wide prospect.' This is a con-venient and elegant abbreviation for 'we ascended the mountain, and,' &c. '*Beaten* at one point, we made for another,' 'we were beaten, *and* made—.' 'I saw him crossing the street :' 'I saw him, and when I saw him, he was crossing the street.'

The participle in 'ing' is called the imperfect, or incomplete parti-ciple ; the other, 'gone,' 'struck,' 'called,' expresses an action as perfect, or complete. In transitive verbs, the first has also an active signification : 'calling,' 'making,' 'striking ;' and the second has a

passive signification : 'called,' 'made,' 'struck :' and is the basis of our passive voice. In intransitive verbs, the only difference of meaning is that of incomplete and complete : 'coming,' 'come.'

In many languages the participle is inflected to agree with the subject in gender, number, and case, which gives it the appearance of an adjective. But it is still essentially a verb with the limitations above stated.

The phrase, '*making* an *unopposed landing*' contains participle (making), adjective (unopposed), and noun (landing), all with the participial form. So, 'a person *passing*' (part.), 'a *passing* thought ' (adjective), ' the *passing* of the Douro' (noun). ' After *satisfying* the church ' (part.), 'a *satisfying* portion' (adj.), 'a tempest *dropping* fire' (part.) ; 'now is the *witching* time of night ' (adj.).

The participle is known by its governing a noun like a verb, which neither an adjective nor a noun can do. But a participial phrase (that is a participle with its government) may be itself governed by a preposition : 'on hearing the news,' ' by following the straight course,' 'after warming himself,' &c. These are brief and elegant substitutes for a conjunction and a clause : ' when they heard the news,' ' if you follow,' 'after he had warmed.' The passive participle (the equivalent of a clause with a passive verb) is known by its reference to a subject : 'after being *well warmed, we* went our way.'

A participial phrase seems to have the farther peculiarity of being joined to a possessive : '*John's* leaving the course,' '*our* meeting the party,' '*my* admitting the fact,' ' the *king's* dissolving parliament,' are short expressions for ' the fact that John left,' 'we met,' ' the king dissolved,' &c. Likewise a demonstrative adjective may be joined in the same way : '*this* longing after immortality ;' ' *the* sending them the light of thy Holy Spirit ;' '*that* burning the capitol was a wanton outrage.'

These phrases may perhaps be best considered as infinitives governing nouns.

7. The *Gerund* is not a separate form in English, but a peculiar application of the two infinitive forms, 'to write,' and 'writing.' When these have the sense of *purpose* or intention, they are called gerunds : 'I come *to write*,' ' I have work *to do*,' 'the course *to steer by*,' 'ready *for sailing*,' 'sharpened *for cutting*.' It is useful to point out this signification of these forms, partly to facilitate translation into the classical languages, and partly to explain some idioms of our own language. 'A house *to let*,' 'I have work *to do*,' 'there is no more *to say*,' are phrases where the verb is not in the common infinitive, but in the form of the gerund. ' He is the man *to do* it, or *for doing !*' In old English, the preposition ' for ' preceded the infinitive form of the gerund : ' what went ye out *for to* see ?' 'they came *for to* show him the temple.'*

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* In Anglo-Saxon the infinitive was formed by a suffix, and had cases like a noun. Nom. and acc. ' writ-an,' to write; dat. ' to writ-ann-e,' for writing. This last case had the meaning of purpose, and corresponded to what is now called the gerund. The simple form ' writ-an ' was the same as our infinitive. When the case-endings, 'an,' 'anne,' were lost, the sign ' *to* ' remained, and, not only so, but was erroneously prefixed to the other cases of the infinitive, instead of being confined to the dative or gerund case. By this mistake we have the same form for both applications.

Farther, the form ' writ-an ' changed in another direction. The termination *an* became first ' en ' and then ' ing;' thus producing the form ' writing ' as an infinitive form, which explains our having an infinitive and a gerund in 'ing.' This change seems to have been facilitated by the existence of a class of abstract nouns in ' ing ' (Anglo-Saxon, *ung*), which by their nature are nearly allied to the infinitive.

To increase the confusion still farther, the imperfect participle originally ending in 'ende,' ' ande,'—' writende '—became a form in ' ing.' Thus the same ending in English represents four different verbal endings in Anglo-Saxon : the infinitive, the infinitive of purpose (gerund), the verbal noun, and the participle.

8. TENSE is the variation of the verb to express the *time* of an action, modified by the other circumstances of completeness and incompleteness above mentioned in connection with the participle : ' I come,' *present ;* ' I came,' *past*. These are the only tenses made by inflection ; but by combination with other words, *future* time is also expressed,—' I shall come,' and likewise a great variety of modes of past, present, and future. These are represented in the full scheme of the verb.

9. PERSON. There are certain distinctions of form according as the subject of the verb is the speaker, the person spoken to, or the person or thing spoken about, that is, for the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd persons ; as ' I write, thou write*st*, he write*s*.'

10. NUMBER is indicated by the difference between ' *John writes,*' and ' *they* write.' In old English, there was a plural ending in *n,* ' loven,' ' sungon.' This was dropped, and led to the loss of a short syllable, which has been regretted by poets. But for general purposes, all the inflections of number and person might have been dispensed with at the same time.

11. The English Verb undergoes but a small number of inflections compared with other languages : ' write,' ' wrote,' ' writing,' ' written,' ' writes,' ' writest,' ' wrotest,' —being seven forms,— are all the changes of an ordinary Verb. The Verb ' love,' and the class it belongs to, has only six forms.

12. To bring together all the forms of the Verb is to *conjugate* it. There are said to be in English *two* conjugations. The one is exemplified in ' love :' ' I love, I loved, I am loved.' The other is seen in ' I shake, I shook, I am shaken.'

Verbs that, like *love,* take ' d ' (or ' ed '—sometimes ' t ') in their past tense, and perfect participle, form one class or conjugation ; those resembling ' shake ' form another. The first-named class is by far the most numerous ; but the other includes the most commonly used, and the oldest verbs in the language. The mode of change seen in ' shake,' ' shook,' ' shaken,' is believed to be the more ancient of the two, and is therefore called the old conjugation, and sometimes the strong conjugation ; the other being the new, or weak. The verbs belonging to the old conjugation are all of Saxon origin, and are primitive or root verbs ; while all derivatives and all words adopted from other languages belong to the other. The name formerly given to the old class was the Irregular verbs.

The whole number of verbs in the English language has been estimated at upwards of four thousand. The verbs of the old conjugation amount to about one hundred and seventy.

13. The conjugation of the two kinds of Verbs is as follows :—

NEW CONJUGATION.

To LOVE.

Present Tense.	Past Tense.	Perfect Participle.
Love.	Loved.	Loved.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1st *Person*, I love	1st *Person*, We love
2nd „ Thou lovest	2nd „ Ye *or* you love
3rd „ He loves.	3rd „ They love.

PAST TENSE.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. I loved	1. We loved
2. Thou lovedst	2. Ye *or* you loved
3. He loved.	3. They loved.

Imperative, Love. *Infinitive*, To love.

Participles.

Imperfect, Loving. *Perfect*, Loved.

OLD CONJUGATION.

To WRITE.

Present Tense.	Past Tense.	Perfect Participle.
Write.	Wrote.	Written.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. I write	1. We write
2. Thou writest	2. Ye *or* you write
3. He writes.	3. They write.

PAST TENSE.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. I wrote	1. We wrote
2. Thou wrotest	2. Ye *or* you wrote
3. He wrote.	3. They wrote.

Imperative, Write. *Infinitive*, To write.

Participles.

Imperfect, Writing. *Perfect*, Written.

Of the Auxiliary Verbs.

14. The auxiliary verbs, which are joined to the other verbs to assist in expressing the relations not marked by inflection, are 'be,' 'have,' 'shall,' and 'will.' 'Do,' 'may,' and 'can' would be ranked as auxiliaries if we were to admit the emphatic and potential moods into the conjugation of the verb. They are all verbs of importance in the language.

H

15.   **To Be.**

| *Present Tense.* | *Past Tense.* | *Perfect Participle.* |
| Am. | Was. | Been. |

PRESENT TENSE.

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

PAST TENSE.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
1. I was		1. We were
2. Thou wast		2. Ye *or* you were
3. He was.		3. They were.

Imperative, Be.   *Infinitive*, To be.

Participles.

Imperfect, Being.   *Perfect*, Been.

The verb ' be ' has a peculiar inflection to express contingency or conditionality; it is the only real conditional or subjunctive mood in English, and is in the past tense.

CONDITIONAL MOOD OF THE VERB TO BE.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
1. If I were		1. If we were
2. If thou wert		2. If ye were
3. If he were.		3. If they were.

The present subjunctive, ' if I be,' ' if thou be,' ' if he be,' seems to be an elliptical form for, ' if I should be,' &c.   So is ' if he love,' and the like.

By joining the perfect participle of a verb to the verb ' be ' throughout, we form the passive voice; as ' he *is* loved,' ' we *were* loved,' ' to *be* loved,' ' *being* loved.'

By similarly joining the imperfect participle, there arises another form of the active voice, peculiar to the English language, called the progressive, incomplete, or imperfect form ; as ' I *am* writing,' ' I *was* writing,' &c.

16.   **To Have.**

| *Present Tense.* | *Past Tense.* | *Perfect Participle.* |
| Have. | Had. | Had. |

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
1. I have		1. We have
2. Thou hast		2. Ye have
3. He has.		3. They have.

PAST TENSE.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
1. I had		1. We had
2. Thou hadst		2. Ye had
3. He had.		3. They had.

Imperative, Have.   *Infinitive*, To have.

Participles.

Imperfect, Having.   *Perfect*, Had.

Followed by the perfect participle of another verb, 'have' forms two tenses : 'I have loved' (present perfect), 'I had loved' (past perfect). Now, as the participle 'loved' merely expresses completed action, without reference to time, and as 'I have' means 'I possess' (at this moment), the union of the two comes to express perfect action likewise. 'I have written a letter' means 'I now possess a written letter ;' whence it follows that the writing of the letter is an action finished, perfect, or complete.

The imperfect participle 'having,' joined to the perfect participle of a verb, yields a perfect participle *active :* 'having loved,' 'having written.'

By combining the imperfect participle of a verb with 'have,' 'had,' &c., followed by 'been,' tenses of *continued action* are formed : 'I *have been* writing,' 'I *had been* writing.' The same combinations with the perfect participle make the present perfect, and the past perfect (pluperfect) *passive :* 'I have been loved,' 'I had been loved.'

'Have' followed by the infinitive has a *future* meaning, and is one of the ways of expressing the future : 'I have to write.' There is also a past combination—'I had to write'—which expresses past obligation or intention.

The form 'I have to write' is illustrative of the origin of the inflections of the verb. In French the future tense is made up by suffixing 'ai' (have) to the main verb : 'aimer—ai' ('to love—I have'), 'I shall love.'

17.   SHALL.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. I shall	1. We shall
2. Thou shalt	2. Ye shall
3. He shall.	3. They shall.

PAST TENSE.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. I should	1. We should
2. Thou shouldst	2. Ye should
3. He should.	3. They should.

WILL.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. I will	1. We will
2. Thou wilt	2. Ye will
3. He will.	3. They will.

PAST TENSE.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. I would	1. We would
2. Thou wouldst	2. Ye would
3. He would.	3. They would

18. 'Shall' and 'Will' are employed to form the future tenses in English : 'I shall go,' 'he will go.'

19. 'Shall' originally means obligation, debt. Chaucer says 'the faith I *shall* (I owe) to God.' 'He shall suffer,' is, 'he owes to suffer,' 'he is about to suffer.'

20. 'Will,' on the other hand, means intention or resolution, on the part of the agent, he being free to do as he pleases in the matter. 'I will go,' means that it is in my option to go or not to go, and that I decide for going.

Thus there is a radical contrast of situation implied in the two words, namely, the difference between being under outward control, coercion, compulsion, influence, or pressure, and being free to follow one's own feelings and wishes. 'I shall not be at home' is as much as to say that circumstances compel me to be absent ; 'I will not be at home' implies that neither any other person's will nor any external compulsion whatsoever prevents me, but that it is my own free will and pleasure to be absent.

This great opposition of meaning determines the appropriate employment of the two words as auxiliaries of the future. 'I shall be at home' implies that some influence is at work that will determine me to be at home, and therefore the event may be expected to happen.   The form, 'I will be at home,' is not used unless to imply also that the speaker chooses of his own will to be at home.   The following phrases are wrong, although in common use by Scotchmen and Irishmen :—'I *will* be obliged to you,' 'I *will* be under the necessity,' 'we *will* beat a loss,' 'we *will* be compelled,' 'I *will* be much gratified.' As the very nature of these expressions supposes obligation, or some influence from without, the use of 'will,' which expresses the absence of all external pressure, is a contradiction ; we ought to say, 'I *shall* be obliged,' 'I *shall* be under the necessity,' 'I *shall* be much gratified,' &c. 'Shall' is not necessarily limited to compulsion in the painful sense : if outward events (and not inward determinations) concur to impart benefits to an individual, the expression is 'shall :' 'I shall be a great gainer,' 'I shall be delightfully placed.'

21. The auxiliary of the future in the first instance is 'shall.'   In other words, the bare fact of futurity is signified by the word expressing the compulsion of events.   'Will,' the sign of self-determining choice, would not have been brought into use, but for a peculiar refinement, seen in our earliest literature, by which 'shall' became restricted to the first person. We say 'I *shall* come,' to make known the future coming of the speaker, but not 'you *shall* come,' 'he *shall* come ;' the auxiliary for these persons is changed to 'you *will* come,' 'he *will* come,' when simple futurity is meant.   The conjugation of the future tense of the verb is, therefore, as follows :—

I *shall* come	We *shall* come
Thou *wilt* come	You *will* come
He *will* come.	They *will* come.

22. The explanation of this curious change of auxiliary in passing from the first to the other persons is found in considerations of courtesy or politeness. When a person says 'I shall come,' he uses a phrase which originally means that he is to be under external influence or compulsion, and he so far speaks humbly of himself, a thing quite becoming. But the case is altered when, addressing a second person, we say 'you shall come;' this is equal to saying, 'the power of external events will leave you no choice but to come.' To use this form of language to another person struck our ancestors as a want of due courtesy and consideration for the feelings of others, and they accordingly departed from it, and adopted 'will,' which was the same as to say, 'your, or their, free will and pleasure will induce you, or them, to come.' This was considered to be polite and deferential, and became the form of futurity when persons other than self were concerned. Hence the correct usage is, 'I shall be at the gardens, and so will you and James.'*

23. As 'will' in the second and third persons corresponds to 'shall' in the first, as constituting the future tense of the verb, so when the aim is to express, not futurity, but self-determination on the part of the speaker, he says 'I *will*' for the first person, and 'you *shall*,' 'he *shall*,' for the second and third. Here the speaker's determination is the controlling power throughout; it is 'will' for himself, because he is the agent, but it is 'shall' for the others, because they are acted on by him, that is, by an influence external to them. To say 'will' in their case, would be not to exercise compulsion, but to record their own independent or free determination. Hence 'shall' is the highest form of command and authority : 'thou *shalt* not kill.' It is the form for imposing legal obligations and penalties in our English Acts of Parliament.† But, as remarked above, not the hand of power and painful constraint simply, but also influence for good, has to be expressed in the same way. 'He shall be blessed in all that belongs to him,' is a correct expression if it be implied that the instrumentality is not his own wishing and acting, but a controlling influence beyond. Hence the common rule that 'shall' in the second and third persons commands, threatens, and *promises*.‡

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* In addressing the Deity the requirement of change of auxiliary is dispensed with, doubtless from the feeling that the very nature of the subject excludes constraint : 'thou *shalt* endure, and thy years *shall* not change.'

† When a superior is giving directions to a subordinate, he sometimes uses, as a courtesy form, 'you will :' 'you will see that due precautions are taken.' It is assumed that the subordinate is perfectly disposed to do his duty, and the language of authority is softened down to the form of prediction, or futurity. This is another example of the influence of considerations of courtesy in these constructions.

‡ The distinction of the two words is illustrated by the supposed exclamation of an Irishman on falling into the water, 'I *will* be drowned, and nobody *shall* help me.' While intending to express his apprehensions, and to invoke help, he in reality declares with emphasis that it is his determination to drown himself, and to resist any one that would rescue him. The following passage discriminates the two auxiliaries with precision : 'The spirit of my father grows strong in me, and I *will* no longer endure it. He that escapes me without some broken limb *shall* acquit him well (ironical *promise*). Charles, I thank thee for thy love to me, which thou *shalt* find I *will* most kindly requite.'—*Shakspeare.*

24. In what is called indirect speech, ' shall' expresses futurity in all the persons, and this apparent exception illustrates the rule ; for in that case the reason for changing from ' shall ' to ' will ' no longer exists. ' You say, you *shall* write,' ' he says, he *shall* write,' are no breach of courtesy, because the saying is put into the mouth of the person that performs the action. These are the exact parallels of ' I shall write ;' the speaker speaks only for himself. The following expressions are correct : ' he promises that his part *shall* be fulfilled ;' ' we pledge ourselves that our future actions *shall* (not ' will ') be in accordance with our vows.' If, on the other hand, determination is expressed, ' will ' is used in all the persons : ' I will write,' ' you say, you will write,' ' he says, he will write.'*

25. Whenever the action of external events comes into play, the speaker, using the first person, must pass from ' will ' to ' shall.' ' If I draw a catgut, or any other cord, to a great length between my fingers, I *will* make it smaller than before '—*Goldsmith.* The proper word here is ' shall,' because the making it smaller did not depend immediately upon the speaker's will, but grew out of the previous action. A similar consideration dictates the use of ' shall ' when the speaker has once pledged himself to a certain cause, and is merely following out that pledge. An author states at the outset the plan of his work, and as he proceeds with the execution of that plan, he says, ' I shall next consider.' The following may be explained on this principle : ' We *shall* now proceed to mention some of the most famous ;' ' I *will* begin with a passage of considerable beauty.' The first expression is justifiable, as being a continuation or following up of the author's plan, to which he had committed himself ; the other indicates a new start, and he therefore reverts to the auxiliary of resolution. ' I will ' may be softened into ' I shall,' even in cases of determination, to give less of the appearance of egotism ; the speaker pretending, as it were, that he is the humble instrument of events in what he is about to do ; but the substitution of ' I will ' for ' I shall ' is always an error.†

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* In dependent clauses the construction is somewhat complicated. In a sentence with two co-ordinate parts, like the following, the usage is plain : ' I will be there at six o'clock, when it *will* be light ;' this means, ' I resolve to be there at six, and at that time it will be light.' But if the second clause is a condition of the first, the case is altered : ' I will be there when it *shall* be light ;' ' when ' here stands for ' whenever,' and the fact of its being light is no longer an assertion of futurity, but of *eventuality ;* in the event of its being light, or when the course of things brings about that circumstance. In the sentence ' how heavy their punishment will be who *will* at any time resist,' there is a meaning distinct from what would have been given by ' who *shall* at any time resist.' The first supposes a *definite* case of resistance ; there are actual persons resolved upon resisting, and their punishment will be heavy. The second is a mere supposition or contingency : ' if it should arise that any persons are found to resist.'—Sir F. Head, on *Shall* and *Will.*

† The following examples are given in Connon's Grammar as incorrect, but they may all be defended : ' An extract from Mr. Hallam *shall* close the present section and introduce the next.' ' Here, then, the present introductory course of lectures *shall* close.' ' Theocritus, in an epigram, which *shall* be cited in the next note, dedicates myrtles to Apollo.' These may all be interpreted as promises or pledges on the part of the authors to do a certain thing, and for this the expression in the third

26. In Interrogative Sentences, the second person takes the place of the first; but it is only for *determination* that the three persons can be all made use of: 'will you go?' 'shall I go?' 'shall he go?' The corresponding expression in the case of mere futurity exists only for two persons: 'shall you?' 'will he?' 'will it?'

The meanings of the first forms are 'Is it your will to go' (will you)? 'is it your will that I go' (shall I)? 'is it your will that he go' (shall he)? The second person is appealed to as the source of will and authority, and corresponds to the first person in affirmatory speech.

But we cannot, for simple inquiry as to the future, reverse the forms throughout thus: 'shall you go?' 'will I go?' 'will he go?' By attending to the original meaning of the auxiliaries we shall be able to comprehend the force of these several interrogatories.

The first, 'shall you go?' on a strict interpretation, may be supposed to mean, 'will events permit or require you to go?' whence it seems the appropriate interrogative for mere futurity. When we are in total ignorance of the determining circumstances, or are unable to say whether events or the person's own will are to decide the point, we may be expected to say 'shall you?' This form is not objected to on the ground of representing the person addressed as at the mercy of outward circumstances; it is a well-established English usage. The form 'will you?' is less seldom employed, although admissible; it seems to suppose that the person's mind is not yet made up. We must regard it as suitable to the case where we appeal to another person, to state what their determination is in a case depending on them. But 'shall you?' is more generally applicable. The form 'will I?' is an absurdity, as the speaker asks the other party what he himself alone can know, namely, his own will and determination. There is no possible situation where this expression is admissible. It is a common Scotticism nevertheless.

'Will he?' would naturally mean, 'is it his will to do so and so?' and this is probably in accordance with usage. When we are in doubt as to how a person will act in matters within his own power, we say, 'but will he?' When we are inquiring into mere futurity, however, we must still use the same form in preference to 'shall he?' which puts the case as depending upon the person addressed. 'We must say, 'will he be there?' 'will it be fine?' 'will there be a large assembly?' all intending to mean futurity. We often prefer forms

person is 'shall.' 'I hereby give assurance that the present course *shall* close,' is perfectly consistent with the meaning of 'shall.' 'Will' might have been used in those cases, and then we should have interpreted the speaker as expressing only the mere fact of futurity. The following is more questionable : 'Now, in an inquiry into the credibility of history, the first question which we *will* consider is.' Here 'will' is not absolutely wrong, but 'shall' would have been preferable, because the writer is supposed to be committed by his subject to a certain course. This is one of the doubtful situations where either usage can be justified.

different from either for the simple future : ' is he to be there ?' ' do you expect him there ?' ' is the meeting to take place ?'

There is a Scotticism committed in responding to the interrogative ' shall you ?' or ' will you ?' it consists in saying ' I shall,' for ' I will.' ' I shall ' is objectionable, as indicating, not hearty goodwill and concurrence to do the thing required, but a mere acquiescence in the compulsion of circumstances.   It is a still more vulgar error to say ' *will* that be all you want ?' for ' *is* that all you want ?'*

27. ' Would ' and ' should ' follow the rules of ' shall ' and ' will ' when employed in parallel circumstances : ' I should,' ' you would,' ' he would,' express contingent futurity ; ' I would,' ' you should,' ' he should,' signify the past or recorded determination of the first person.

As a past future is a contradiction, the form ' I should ' is taken to express a future that is doubtful, conditional, or merely supposed. If we were discussing an arrangement that is as yet undetermined one way or other, it would be admissible to say ' I should take part,' ' you would,' ' they would.'   When actually fixed and settled, the language becomes ' I shall,' ' you will,' ' they will.'   This mode of converting future verbs into forms for contingency is not uncommon. The French modify ' irai ' (I shall go) by a slight addition into ' irais ' (I should go), called the conditional mood.

As regards determination, ' would ' exactly tallies with ' will.'   It expresses past, or recorded, determination.   ' I would go ' is a record of my resolution on some past occasion.   So ' you would go,' ' they would go,' in like manner record that ' you ' or ' they ' had in a certain past instance the resolution to go.

But when the determination proceeds from the speaker to the second and third persons, ' should ' comes in as a matter of course : ' I said, you and they *should* go ;' it was my will that you were to go.

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* The following are a few miscellaneous illustrations of the uses of these important auxiliaries :—

When Tennyson makes Enone say ' I shall not die alone,' he intimates that the course of fate will overwhelm other persons along with her.   ' I *will* not die alone' is, ' I am determined that others shall die with me.'

The following is incorrect : ' there is not a girl in town, but let her, in going to a mask, and she *shall* dress as a shepherdess.'   As no one compels her to dress in this way, but she does so at her own caprice, ' will ' is the right auxiliary.

In the Litany,—' Glory be to the Father—as it was in the beginning, is now, and ever *shall* be,'—the ' shall ' means emphatically that a power has ordained this to be.

Lindley Murray considers the translation of the concluding verse of the 23rd Psalm to be incorrectly rendered.   ' Surely goodness and mercy *shall* follow me all the days of my life, and I *will* dwell in the house of the Lord for ever ;' he would make it ' will follow ' and ' shall dwell.'   But this is a question of meaning.   As now rendered, the first clause is a promise, ' goodness and mercy are ordained to follow me,' which is not improbably the true meaning.   The second clause would imply, ' it is my determination and preference to dwell in the house of the Lord ;' but if the meaning be, ' I am destined to have bestowed upon me a dwelling in the house of the Lord,' the suitable auxiliary is ' shall.'

The distinctive usage of ' shall ' and ' will ' occurs in Chaucer.

28. When past time is not involved, 'I would' is contingent determination; 'I should' means duty, obligation, or being under the influence of events. 'I *would* do it if I were you;' 'I *should* do it' (it would be my duty to do it). So with 'you should,' 'they should,' obligation is implied.

The same errors are committed with 'would' and 'should' as with 'shall' and 'will.' When one is under influence from without, 'I would' is improper; it is wrong to say 'I *would* be surprised,' 'I *would* be obliged,' 'I *would* be under the necessity,' 'I *would* be delighted;' in none of these cases is the effect dependent on the speaker's will. The correct expression is, 'I *should* be surprised,' &c.

29. The Future Subjunctive is 'I should,' 'thou should,' 'he should,' &c.: 'if I, you, he, *should* find what you wish.'

In dependent statements there are necessarily two clauses. The one states what is conditional, the other states the condition, and is introduced by one of the conjunctions of condition, 'if,' 'though,' 'unless,' &c. The condition is in the subjunctive mood; the conditional statement is variously expressed. 'If he should fail, I should have to make it good,' or 'I shall have to make it good;' or 'I will,' or 'would, make it good.'

The following is an error : 'if I *would* declare them, and speak of them, they are more than can be numbered.' In the sentence, 'if I *should* declare them, and speak of them, they *should* be more than I am able to express,' the first is right, the second is wrong, as being a case of mere contingent futurity, without obligation. The sense of 'should' is, 'they *ought* to be more than I am able to express.' 'Were he more diligent, he *would* be more successful,' not 'should.'[*]

30. In Interrogation, 'would you?' 'should I?' 'should he?' inquire what is the determination of the person addressed. 'Should you?' can scarcely be used; 'would I?' is wholly inadmissible. 'Would he?' asks information as to the probable intentions of the party spoken of: 'do you think he would go?'

These are in exact accordance with the usage of 'will' and 'shall' in interrogation.

It is to be remarked that 'should' and 'would' are, in many instances, softened forms of 'shall' and 'will.' 'I *should* be very much surprised' may refer to an

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[*] The following instances serve to bring out the difference of 'would' and 'should,' in conformity with their original meaning : 'Were he to do such a thing in England, he *would* be hanged,' expresses simple futurity or consequence ; but '*should* be hanged' means that he would deserve to be hanged, owing to some aggravation connected with the performance of the act in England. 'This man was taken of the Jews, and *should* have been killed of them;' this conveys to our ears the meaning that he *ought to* have been killed.—Harrison on the English Language, p. 260.

actual future, and is the same as 'I *shall* be very much surprised.' In such a sentence as the following, 'should' is used as an expression of diffidence:—'I have so much confidence in the sagacity of the Romans within the somewhat narrow sphere of their thoughts, that I *should* be cautious in criticising their military and diplomatic administration;' that is, I am disposed to be cautious, I prefer to be cautious. If the writer had been more confident and dogmatic, he would have used an indicative form, 'I am' or 'shall be cautious.' In Shakspeare we have 'What should be in that, Cæsar?' for 'what is there?' In other words, 'I should be glad to know what is in that, Cæsar?'

31.   To Do.

Present Tense.	Past Tense.	Perfect Participle.
Do.	Did.	Done.

PRESENT TENSE.—I do, thou doest, *or* dost, he does, doeth, *or* doth.

PAST TENSE.—I did, thou didst, &c.

Imperfect Participle.—Doing.

'Do' makes the *emphatic* form of the verb; as 'I *do* love,' 'he did write.' 'Perdition catch my soul, but I *do* love thee.'

It is the form of *interrogation*: '*do* you write?'

It is also the negative form : 'you *do* not write.'

Besides these three uses, 'do' has a form peculiar to itself; it can be put as a substitute for other verbs : 'he speaks as well as you *do*' (for 'speak') : 'he spoke better than you could have *done* (spoken);' 'he loves not plays, as thou dost.' This corresponds with the power of the pronoun to act as a substitute for the noun, and we might therefore call '*do*' the *pro-verb*. The verbs that cannot be substituted by it are 'be' and the other verbs of incomplete predication.

32.   MAY.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
1. I may		1. We may
2. Thou mayst		2. Ye may
3. He may.		3. They may.

PAST TENSE.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
1. I might		1. We might
2. Thou mightst		2. Ye might
3. He might.		3. They might.

CAN.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
1. I can		1. We can
2. Thou canst		2. Ye can
3. He can.		3. They can.

PAST TENSE.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
1. I could		1. We could
2. Thou couldst		2. Ye could
3. He could.		3. They could.

These are the verbs that are employed to make the so-called potential mood. Their discrimination is important, as errors are sometimes committed in using them.

33. 'May' expresses permission; 'Can,' power. 'I *may* go' is 'I am permitted to go;' 'I *can* walk,' 'I am physically able to walk;' 'I can solve that question,' 'I have the ability or skill requisite to solve the question.'

This difference somewhat resembles the distinction of 'shall' and 'will.' It is the contrast between the operation of a power without or above, and a power inhering in the individual. In giving or asking permission we must use 'may :' 'you *may* go,' 'may I come?' The Scotch erroneously use 'can' for this meaning. In giving permission they often say 'you can go;' and in asking permission 'can I see it?' A porter at a gate on being applied to for liberty to enter, will say, 'I cannot,' when he means that he is forbidden by his instructions, and is not free to admit any one : the real meaning of 'I cannot' would be, that he is physically unable to open the gate. 'Can I cross the field?' means, 'is there a way?' 'may I cross the field?' is, 'am I allowed to cross? is there a right of way?' 'I cannot lift that weight,' 'I cannot play the flute,' 'I cannot see the hills,' all imply incapability on the part of the individual. 'He may not' would mean that he has the capability to do these things, but is forbidden by some authority.*

34. 'May' also means possibility or concession ; as 'he *may* come yet;' 'that *may* be so, but I doubt it;' 'you *may* recover your loss.'

This is merely a peculiar case of the principal meaning : it is as it were, permission in the midst of difficulties.

In the phrase 'he hastens that he *may* be in time,' we have an example of another application of the word, still under the main idea ; 'that it *be permitted* to him to be in time.'

35. Placed before its subject, 'may' expresses a wish : '*may* you be happy.'

There is here a shortening, or ellipsis, of a roundabout expression : 'it is my wish that you may be happy, or that it be permitted you to be happy.'

36. 'Could,' besides being the past of 'can' (he *could* not go yesterday), expresses present power condi-

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* In Lord Chatham's celebrated utterance—' The Englishman's house is his castle; every wind may enter it, but the king *cannot*, the king dare not enter,' 'cannot' is used for 'may not' by a figure of speech ; so secure is the Englishman in this inviolability of his house, that the king is as it were physically unable to pass his threshold.

tionally: 'he *could* go to-day if he would.' 'Might' expresses past permission as reported in the present: 'he told me that I *might* go.' More rarely it expresses past permission simply: 'I might not go,' for 'I was not allowed to go.'

37.   MUST.

'Must' is invariable for Tense, Number, or Person. It means necessity in various forms. 1. Compulsion from without: 'he *must* work.' 2. Uncontrollable desire, amounting almost to physical necessity: 'he *must* have society.' 3. Certainty, or necessary inference, something that we can count on: 'it *must* be so; Plato, thou reasonest well.'

38.   OUGHT.

'Ought' is the old Past Tense of the Verb 'owe.' It is used as a present Verb to signify moral obligation; when past time has to be expressed, it is joined to a perfect infinitive: 'he *ought* to have gone.'

39.   GO.

Present Tense.—I go, thou goest, he goes.
Past Tense.—I went, thou wentest, he went.
Past Participle.—Gone.

By employing the imperfect participle of this verb as an auxiliary we obtain a series of forms for expressing an *intention* about to be executed; as 'I am going to write,' 'I have been going to write,' 'I was going to write,' 'I had been going to write,' 'I shall be going to write,' 'I shall have been going to write,' &c. Almost the very same meaning is stated by the adverb 'about:' 'I am about to write.'

40. The following is a complete scheme of the verb as made up by means of the various auxiliaries:—

CONJUGATION OF AN ACTIVE VERB.

Indicative Mood.

PRESENT.

Indefinite.—I write, thou writest, he writes, we, ye *or* you, they—write.
Progressive.—I am, thou art, he is, we, ye *or* you, they are—writing.
Perfect.—I have, thou hast, &c.—written.
Continuous.—I have, thou hast, &c.—been writing.

PAST.

Indefinite.—I wrote, thou wrotedst, he, we, ye *or* you, they—wrote.
Progressive.—I was, thou wast, he was, we, ye *or* you, they were—writing.
Perfect.—I had, thou hadst, &c.—written.
Continuous.—I had, thou hadst, &c.—been writing.

FUTURE.

Indefinite.—I shall, thou wilt, he will, we shall, you will, they will—write.
Progressive.—I shall, thou wilt, he will, we shall, you will, they will—be writing.
Perfect.—I shall, thou wilt, he will, &c.—have written.
Continuous.—I shall, thou wilt, he will, &c.—have been writing.

Imperative Mood.

PRESENT.

Write.

Subjunctive Mood.

PRESENT.

Indefinite.—(If) I, thou, he, we, ye *or* you, they—write.
Progressive.—I, thou, he, we, ye *or* you, they—be writing.
Perfect.—I, thou, he, we, ye *or* you, they—have written.
Continuous.—I, thou, he, we, ye *or* you, they—have been writing.

PAST.

Indefinite.—I thou, he, we, ye *or* you, they—wrote.
Progressive.—I, thou, he, we, ye *or* you, they—were writing.
Perfect.—I, thou, he, we, ye *or* you, they—had written.
Continuous.—I, thou, he, we, ye *or* you, they—had been writing.

FUTURE.

Indefinite.—I, thou, he, we, ye *or* you, they—should write.
Progressive.—I, thou, he, we, ye *or* you, they—should be writing.
Perfect.—I, thou, he, we, ye *or* you, they—should have written.
Continuous.—I, thou, he, we, ye *or* you, they—should have been writing.

Infinitive Mood.

Indefinite.—(To) write ; writing.
Progressive.—(To) be writing.
Perfect.—(To) have written.
Continuous.—(To) have been writing.
        Gerund.—To write ; (for) to write ; writing.

Participle.

Imperfect.—Writing.   *Perfect.*—Having written.
          Continuous.—Having been writing.

CONJUGATION OF A PASSIVE VERB.

Indicative Mood.

PRESENT.

Indefinite.—I am, thou art, he is, &c.—loved.
Progressive.—I am being, thou art being, &c.—loved.
Perfect.—I have been, thou hast been, &c.—loved.

PAST.

Indefinite.—I was, thou wast, he was, &c.—loved.
Progressive.—I was, thou wast, he was, &c.—being loved.
Perfect.—I had, thou hadst, he had, &c.—been loved.

FUTURE.

Indefinite.—I shall, thou wilt, he will, we shall, &c.—be loved.
Perfect.—I shall, thou wilt, he will, &c.—have been loved.

Imperative Mood.

PRESENT.

Be loved.

Subjunctive Mood.

PRESENT.

Indefinite.—I, thou, he, &c.—be loved.
Perfect.—I have, &c.—been loved.

PAST.

Indefinite.—I, thou, he, &c.—were loved.
Progressive.—I, thou, &c.—were being loved.
Perfect.—I had, &c—been loved.

FUTURE.

Indefinite.—I, thou, &c.—should be loved.
Perfect.—I, &c.—should have been loved.

Infinitive Mood.

Indefinite.—(To) be loved.   *Perfect.*—(To) have been loved.

Participle.

Indefinite.—Being loved.   *Perfect.*—Having been loved.

MEANINGS OF THE MOODS.

The Subjunctive Mood.

41. In a Clause expressing a condition, and introduced by a Conjunction of condition, the Verb is sometimes, but not always, in the Subjunctive Mood: 'if I *be* able,' 'if I *were* strong enough,' 'if thou *should* come.'

The only subjunctive inflection in English is in the verb 'be:' 'I were, thou wert, he were,' which is a past tense. For the present

tense of the verb, we use the simple form of the verb, without any inflections for persons : 'if I be, thou be, he be, we be,' &c. It is the same for all other verbs : 'if I write, thou write, he write.' We might suppose that there is here an ellipsis of some auxiliary, as 'should :' 'if I should be, I should write.' (§ 15.) But this will not apply to the past, which is, ' if I wrote, he wrote,' the inflections of person being dropped in like manner.

The following is the rule given for the use of the subjunctive mood :

42. When in a Conditional Clause it is intended to express *doubt* or *denial*, use the Subjunctive Mood.* ' If I *were* sure of what you tell me, I would go.'

When the conditional clause is affirmative and certain, the verb is indicative : ' if that is the case ' (as you now tell me, and I believe) 'I can understand you.' This is equivalent to a clause of assumption, or supposition, 'that being the case,' 'inasmuch as that is the case,' &c.

As *futurity* is by its nature uncertain, the subjunctive is extensively used for future conditionality : ' if it *rain*, we shall not be able to go ;' ' if I *be* well ;' ' if he *come* shortly ;' ' if thou *return* at all in peace ;' ' though he *slay* me, yet will I trust in him.' These events are all in the uncertain future, and are put in the subjunctive.†

The subjunctive is used to express a future consequence in such instances as these : ' I will wait till he *return* ;' ' no fear lest dinner *cool* ;' ' thou shalt stone him with stones, that he *die* ;' ' take heed lest at any time your hearts *be* overcharged with surfeiting.'

But we may have uncertainty as to a past event, through our own ignorance, in which case the subjunctive is properly employed, and serves the useful purpose of distinguishing our ignorance from our knowledge. 'If any of my readers *has* looked with so little attention upon the world around him ;' this would mean, 'as I know that they have.' The meaning intended is probably, 'as I do not know whether they have or not,' and therefore the subjunctive 'have ' is preferable. 'If ignorance *is* bliss,' which I (ironically) admit. Had Pope been speaking seriously, he would have said 'if ignorance *be* bliss,' he himself dissenting from the proposition.

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* Dr. Angus on the English Tongue, art. 527.

† In the following passages, the indicative mood would be more suitable than the subjunctive : ' If thou *be* the Son of God, command that these stones be made bread ;' ' if thou be the Son of God, come down from the cross.' For although the address was not sincere on the part of the speakers, they really meant to make the supposition, or to grant that he was the Son of God ; 'seeing that thou art the Son of God.' Likewise in the following : ' Now if Christ *be* preached, that He rose from the dead, how say some among you that there is no resurrection from the dead ?' The meaning is, 'seeing now that Christ is preached.' In the continuation, the conditional clauses are of a different character, and 'be' is appropriate : ' But if there *be* no resurrection from the dead, then is Christ not risen. And if Christ *be* not risen, then is our preaching vain, and your faith is also vain.' Again, 'if thou *bring* thy gift to the altar, and there remember*est*, &c.' Consistency and correctness require ' remember.'—Harrison on the English Language, p. 287.

A wish contrary to the fact takes the subjunctive : ' I wish he *were* here ' (which he is not). An intention not yet carried out is also subjunctive : 'the sentence is that you *be* imprisoned.'

43. By using the Past Subjunctive, we can express a certain denial ; as ' if the book *were* in the library (as it is not), it should be at your service.'

' If the book *be* in the library,' means, ' I do not know whether it be or not.' We have thus the power of discriminating *three* different suppositions. ' If the book *is* in the library ' (as I know it is); ' if it *be* ' (I am uncertain); ' if it *were* ' (as I know it is not). So, ' if it rains,' ' if it rain,' ' if it rained.' ' Nay, and the villains march wide between the legs, as if they *had* gyves on,' implying that they had not.

The same power of the past tense is exemplified in ' if I could, I would,' which means, ' I cannot ;' whereas, ' if I can, I will,' means, ' I do not know ;' ' Do it, if thou *canst*,' would imply ' you can. '

44. The Past Subjunctive may be expressed by an inversion : ' *had* I the power,' ' *were* I as I have been.'

45. The *principal* clause in a conditional statement also takes the Subjunctive form when it refers to what is future and contingent, and when it refers to what is past and uncertain, or denied. ' If he should try, he *would* succeed ;' ' if I had seen him, I *should* have asked him.'

The forms of the subjunctive in the principal clause, are ' would,' ' should,' ' would have,' ' should have.' The English idiom permits the use of a past indicative for these subjunctive forms.

> If 'twere done, when 'tis done, then 'twere (would be) well
> It *were* (should be) done quickly.

' Many acts, that *had* been otherwise blameable, were employed ;' ' I *had* fainted, unless I had believed,' &c. A present indicative is used in the following passage :—

> Which else *lie* furled and shrouded in the soul.

But we may suppose that there is an ellipsis of ' would,'—' would lie.' The employment of the past indicative admits of no such explanation. We must refer it to the general tendency, as already seen in the uses of ' could,' ' would,' ' should,' &c., to express conditionality by a past tense. ' I *had* fainted ' is, in construction, analogous to ' I *should* have fainted ;' the word for futurity, ' shall,' not being necessary to the sense, is withdrawn, and its past inflection transferred to ' have.'

The only correct form of the future subjunctive is ' if I should.' We may say ' I do not know whether or not I *shall* come ;' but ' if I shall come,' expressing a condition, is not an English construction.

If I write ' is an ellipsis, not of ' shall,' but of ' should :' ' if I should write.' ' If he will ' has a real meaning, as being the present subjunctive of the verb ' will :' ' if he be willing ;' ' if he have the will.' It is in accordance with good usage to express a future subjunctive meaning by a present tense; but in that case the form must be strictly subjunctive, and not indicative. ' If any member *absents* himself, he shall forfeit a penny for the use of the club ;' this ought to be either ' absent,' or ' should absent.' ' If thou *neglectest*, or *doest* unwillingly, what I command thee, I will rack thee with old cramps ;' better, ' if thou *neglect*, or *do* unwillingly,' or ' if thou should neglect.'

The Infinitive.

46. The perfect form of the infinitive ' to have written,' is often erroneously used for the simple, or indefinite form, ' to write.' ' I intended to have written,' should be, ' I intended to write.' The perfect infinitive is properly used only when the action is completed previous to the date of the governing verb; as ' I am glad to have met you.'

' It is ' should be followed by the infinitive with ' to,' and not by the infinitive in ' ing.' ' It is easy *distinguishing*,' ought to be, ' it is easy to distinguish.'

MEANINGS OF THE TENSES.

The Present Indefinite.

47. The principal use of the Present Indefinite is to express what is true at all times : ' the sun *gives* light ;' ' twice two *is* four ;' ' man *is* mortal ;' ' conscience *makes* cowards of us all.'

Hence a more suitable name would be the universal tense. It expresses present time only as representing all time. The permanent arrangements and laws of nature, the peculiarities, habits, and propensities of living beings, and whatever is constant, regular, and uniform, have to be represented by the present indefinite.

> The mountains *look* on Marathon,
> And Marathon *looks* on the sea.

So in expressing men's characters and habitual occupations; as ' he works hard ;' ' he superintends the harbour ;' ' he sings a good song ;' ' he has a good name.'

48. It is only by a special Adverb, or by the context, that we can confine this tense to mean a present act solely : ' I *now charge* this jar ;' ' *at present* I *do* duty for another person ;' ' *now tread* we a measure, said young Lochinvar.'

Frequently we know from the context that the affirmation is for the present only. When any one says ' the door is open,' we under-

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stand that it is not always open, but is so at present. 'The wind blows hard,' 'we are late,' 'the stranger speaks to you,' 'Mr. Speaker is in the chair,' are declarations known from the circumstances to be strictly present, as opposed to past and future.

49. This Tense has sometimes a future meaning; as 'Duncan *comes* here *to-night*;' 'I *go* to my father.'

In the first example, the futurity is determined by the adverb 'to-night,' and not by the verb. In the second example, the meaning of the verb points to the future; the action 'I go' is a continuing action.

Also in such a phrase as, 'how is the government to be carried on?' futurity is involved in the gerund form 'to be carried on.'

We have seen that by an ellipsis of an auxiliary, a future subjunctive is expressed by a present tense.

There is a rhetorical employment of the tense known as the *historic present*. This consists in describing past events as if the narrator saw them passing before his eyes:

> Fierce as he *moves*, his silver shafts *resound*.

The Present Progressive, Imperfect, or Incomplete.

50. The Progressive form, 'I am writing,' expresses the continuance of the action over some time. It is, moreover, a true or strict present tense.

This peculiarly English form enables us both to confine an action or a fact to the present, instead of extending it over all time, and to intimate that the agent is now engrossed, and is barred from other occupation. Even when the indefinite tense is limited by the context to a present operation, it does not mean the same as the progressive. 'He writes,' merely states the *action* that he is engaged in, and implies that he does not read, or walk, or talk, or sit idle. 'He is writing,' indicates that he is now fully occupied, and is not available for any other work. Hence in describing occupation, this tense is employed: 'he is balancing his books;' 'he is revising his mathematics;' 'he is pursuing his investigations;' 'the boys are playing.'

The Past Tenses.

51. The Past Indefinite states something that was formerly true, but is no longer so: 'at Athens the poets *sang*, and the sages *taught*;' 'there my young footsteps in infancy *wandered*;' 'he *died*, no one *knew* how.'

The very nature of this tense implies limitation as compared with the present. It may indicate various degrees of extent of time. 'In the geological ages, the air had more carbon,' may apply to a period of millions of years; it is a law of nature applicable to a period of

great duration, but now passed. Or it may denote a single act of the least possible extent of time : 'the lightning flashed,' 'the tree was shivered.' The tense does not indicate how far back in the past the event took place.

52. The Past Progressive, like the Present, affirms continuance : ' I was *musing ;*' ' he was *speaking ;*' ' the sun was *shining.*'

The progressive tenses, both present and past, are often errone-ously used for the indefinite. When the object is merely to specify an action, and not to point out the fact of its continuing for some time, the indefinite forms are to be preferred : ' I walk;' ' he rides ; ' you go in the boat ;' ' I read ;' ' he sketched ;' ' they stood by.' In all these expressions nothing further is intended than to assign to each party concerned their several actions : it is not meant to say whether the actions are of longer or shorter continuance. But, ' I am walk-ing,' ' I was riding,' ' they were gazing at the scene,' signify that the action lasted for some time, and constituted the occupation of the per-sons concerned. When, therefore, without wishing to signify continu-ance or occupation, we employ a progressive tense, we violate the best English usage. The expressions, ' the master is calling you,' ' he is speaking to you,' ' were you ringing ?' ' I was supposing,' ' he is not intending,' are Scotticisms for ' the master calls,' ' he speaks to you,' ' did you ring ?' ' I supposed,' ' he does not intend.' ' I talked yester-day with a foreigner,' ' I saw in the papers,' ' I heard in the morn-ing,' are more in accordance with idiom than would be the progres-sive form in those instances, if we suppose no stress laid on the con-tinuance of the action. ' He *leaves* town to-morrow,' is better than ' he is leaving town to-morrow.' ' He is leaving for India,' may be justified on the ground that he is to be occupied for some time with the preparations implied in so distant a migration.

The Perfect.

53. The Present Perfect expresses (1) an action just finished, (2) an action done in a space of time not yet exhausted, (3) something whose consequences still re-main. 1. ' I have sent the letter ;' ' the messenger has come.' 2. ' It has rained all the week (up to this time) ;' ' we have seen great events this year.' 3. ' I have been a great sinner ;' meaning I was so in my youth, and now bear the consequences.

From expressing the finishing of an action, the perfect has been used to signify the state of vacuity that follows: ' he has been ;' ' he is no more ;' ' he is dead ' (vixit, ' he has lived '). ' I have been young,' is ' I am now old.'

The perfect of continued action, 'I have been working,' is correctly understood by combining the meaning of a progressive and of a perfect tense. It is an action expressed as going on up to the present time.

The so-called present intentional, 'I am going (or about) to write,' is the exact opposite of the perfect. The one is an action just finished, the other an action just commencing.

The perfect, by expressing that an action is finished or complete, indicates that it is past; but it is a mistake to use it to express past time without some of the accompaniments above described. 'This mode of expression *has been* formerly very much admired,' should be 'was.'

The Progressive Tenses of the Passive Voice.

54. In the Passive Voice, the Progressive Tenses are, 'I am being loved,' 'I was being loved;' but these forms, which are of recent introduction, are to be used as little as possible.

The English verb has no imperfect participle *passive*. Hence, although we can constitute a progressive tense in the active voice, by the active participle and the verb ' be,'—'he is living,' we have no corresponding passive form. To supply this want it had long been the usage to employ the active participle in a passive sense, as well as in the active : 'the house is building.' It is of course an evil to employ the same form in two meanings, which is now obviated by saying 'the house is being built.'

This form is objectionable, partly as being cumbrous and partly because it still fails to convey the sense of a progressive mood. 'Being built' really implies a finished action; as we may see in such a sentence as 'Napoleon, *being defeated* at Waterloo, surrendered to the English.'

Moreover, it is very seldom that the old usage causes any ambiguity or hesitation, as numberless examples would show. Johnson says 'my Lives are reprinting.' We constantly say 'the house is finishing,' 'the declaration was reading,' 'the debt is owing,' 'the paper is missing,' 'five pounds is wanting,' 'the cows are milking,' 'the drums are beating,' 'the trumpets are sounding,' 'the fountains are playing,' 'the fires are blazing,' 'the cannon are firing,' 'the troops are arming,' 'the walls are tumbling.'

The use of active forms in passive significations, a result of the absence of a passive inflection in English, is not confined to this peculiar construction. We have it in such phrases as 'a house to let,'* 'hard to understand (to be understood),' 'good to eat,' 'books to sell,'* 'he is to blame,' 'drinking-water (fit to be drunk),' 'a riding-horse ;'

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* These, and not 'a house to be let,' 'to be sold,' are the genuine English forms.

also in the expression, ' *considering* the shortness of life, it is presump-
tuous,' &c., for ' the shortness of life being taken into consideration.'
Milton says, ' that cannot but by *annihilating* die.'

The old idiom allowed the forms, ' the house is *a*-building ;' ' forty-
and-six years was this temple *in* building.' The circumlocution ' in
course of' serves the same purpose.

55. Intransitive verbs, properly speaking, have no passive voice,
yet we find two forms capable of expressing active and passive mean-
ings. We say ' *has* come,' ' *is* come ;' the one is suitable to the case
of an active agent,—' John has come ;' the other to something passive,
—' the box *is* come.' Hence for ' the noble Brutus is ascended,' we
should prefer ' *has* ascended.' This distinction recommends itself,
although our best writers have not observed it. ' He *was* (had)
entered into the connection' is a Scotticism.

In the phrase ' he is gone,' the participle may be interpreted as an
adjective, and the expression is then equivalent to ' he is absent.' So
in ' this house is built of stone,' ' built ' is an adjective ; ' *built* of stone '
being a quality predicated of ' this house.' ' He was *terrified* at the
sight ' is another instance. Strong participles are the most liable to
this construction.

Irregularities in the Conjugation of Verbs.

56. The New Verbs in English have the Past Tense
and Perfect Participle formed by adding ' d,' ' ed,' or
' t,' to the simple Verb: ' love, loved, loved ;' ' learn,
learned ;' ' dip, dipt.'

It is necessary to modify the letter ' d ' when the final letter of the
verb is *k*, *p*, or *s*, after which *d* is unpronounceable.

In several verbs the vowel is shortened or otherwise changed,
and sometimes also the consonant is modified, before the *d* or *t* is
added ; as ' feel, felt ;' ' lose, lost ;' ' flee, fled ;' ' tell, told ;' ' seek,
sought ;' ' teach, taught.' The following are of this class : ' be-
reave,' ' beseech,' ' bring,' ' buy,' ' catch,' ' cleave,' ' creep,' ' deal,'
' dream,' ' hear,' ' keep,' ' kneel,' ' leap,' ' leave,' ' lose,' ' mean,' ' reave,'
' say,' ' seek,' ' sell,' ' shoe,' ' sleep,' ' sweep,' ' teach,' ' tell,' ' think,'
' weep,' ' work.'

Along with these might be classed verbs like ' meet, met ;'
' lead, led ;' ' bend, bent ;' ' send, sent ;' ' cut, cut ;' ' set, set ;' ' let,
let.' To account for their present form we must go back to the
Anglo-Saxon. In that language the past tense was formed by adding,
not ' ed,' but ' de ' (or ' te ' if the preceding consonant was a sharp
letter, as ' t '). Thus : ' læde (I lead), ledde ' (I led) ; ' mete (I
meet), mette' (I met). As the Anglo-Saxon passed into modern
English, the final ' e ' ceased to be pronounced, and with it the addi-
tional ' d ' or ' t ' disappeared as useless. ' Made ' is a contraction of
the Anglo-Saxon ' macode,' and ' had ' of ' hæfde.' ' Could ' ought to
have been ' coud ;' the ' l ' was inserted from a mistaken resemblance
of the word to ' should ' and ' would.'

The following, like 'bend,' 'send,' simply change the 'd' into 't:' 'blend,' 'build,' 'gild,' 'gird,' 'lend,' 'rend,' 'spend,' 'wend.'

The foregoing irregularities do not prevent the verbs from being classed under the first conjugation, called also the new conjugation, in contrast to the commonly called irregular verbs, which are said to be of the old conjugation. It is by the addition of *ed* that all newly formed verbs are conjugated, all that are derived from other languages, and the greater number even of the Saxon verbs.

57. The Old, improperly called Irregular, Verbs are conjugated by internal changes in the words, which cannot be reduced to general rules. The most general process has been to modify the root vowel for the past tense, and to add *en* for the perfect participle : ' rise, rose, risen;' 'write, wrote, written;' 'cleave, clove, cloven;' 'tear, tore, torn.'

This shows the original tendency of the language, and applies to a very large number of the old verbs; as 'arise,' 'beget,' 'bid,' 'bite,' 'break,' 'chide,' 'choose,' 'drink,' 'drive,' 'eat,' 'fall,' 'forbid,' 'forsake,' 'freeze,' 'get,' 'give,' 'hide,' 'hold,' 'ride,' 'rise,' 'shake,' 'shrink,' 'shrive,' 'sink,' 'smite,' 'speak,' 'steal,' 'stride,' 'strike,' 'take,' 'thrive,' 'tread,' 'weave.'

Some have dropped the *e* from the participle; as 'bear,' 'blow,' 'draw,' 'fly,' 'grow,' 'know,' 'lie,' 'see,' 'slay,' 'swear,' 'tear,' 'throw,' 'wear.'

A considerable number, while modifying the root vowel, have dropped the *en* entirely, although in old English many of them still possessed that termination; as 'come, came, come' (old English, 'comen'); 'fight, fought, fought' (old English, 'foughten'). The verbs of this class are 'awake,' 'begin,' 'behold,' 'bide,' 'bind,' 'bleed,' 'breed,' 'cling,' 'dig,' 'feed,' 'find,' 'fling,' 'grind,' 'lead,' 'read,' 'ring,' 'run,' 'shine,' 'shoot,' 'sing,' 'sit,' 'slide,' 'sling,' 'slink,' 'spin,' 'spring,' 'spit,' 'stand,' 'stave,' 'stick,' 'sting,' 'stink,' 'string,' 'swim,' 'wake,' 'win,' 'wind,' 'wring.'

The following form the participle by adding *en*, but in the past tense take *ed*, like the new or regular verbs: 'lade (laded, laden), 'mow,' 'rive,' 'saw,' 'sew,' 'show,' 'sow,' 'strew,' 'wax (waxed, waxen).'

A small number of verbs neither modify the root vowel nor add *en* : 'beat,' 'bet,' 'bid,' 'burst,' 'cast,' 'cut,' 'durst,' 'hit,' 'hurt,' 'let,' 'put,' 'rid,' 'set,' 'shed,' 'shred,' 'shut,' 'slit,' 'split,' 'spread,' 'thrust,' 'wed.' Some of them may have had modifications now disused, while others never appear in any other shape than they have now.

A considerable number of verbs have passed from the old or strong conjugation to the new : abide (*abode*), carve (*curf, carven*), climb (*clomb, clomben*), clothe (*clad*), crow (*crew*), fold (*fald*), fret (*frat*), gnaw (*gnew*), grave (*grove*), hang (*hung*), heat (*het*), heave (*hove*,

hoven), help (*halp, holp*), knit (*knat*), laugh (*leugh*), light (*lit*), leap (*lap, luppen*), melt (*molt*), reach (*raught*), shape (*shope*), speed (*sped*), stretch (*straught*), sweat (*swat*), swell (*swal, swol*), &c.*

This list shows the tendency of the English to reject the old formation in favour of the new.

The following are a few of the most common errors in the conjugation of the more irregular verbs, whether old or new. The chief misleading circumstance is that in the new verbs we are habituated to the identity of the past tense and the past participle; whence we are apt to apply the same rule to the old verbs. 'The letter was *wrote* (for *written*);' 'the wine was *drank* (for *drunk*);' 'he has *broke* (*broken*) the window;' 'I have much *mistook* your passion;' 'I have *struck*' is now in use for the ancient form, 'I have *stricken*;' 'I had neither *ate* nor *drank*,' should be 'eaten nor *drunk*;' 'and now the years a numerous train have *ran*' (for *run*). There is a confusion between the verbs 'lay' and 'lie,' and we see such errors as 'the book *lays* (for *lies*) on the table.' 'To have *forgot* (*forgotten*);' 'I *begun* (*began*);' 'I have *gotten* (*got*);' 'could be *proven* (*proved*).'

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* Adams on the English Language, second edition, pp. 115, 121.

DERIVATION.

SOURCES OF ENGLISH WORDS.

1. The English vocabulary, although composed of words from many languages, has two principal sources, —Anglo-Saxon, and Roman or Latin.

By Anglo-Saxon is meant a certain dialect of the tribes that invaded England from the north of Germany in the early centuries of the Christian era, under the names of Angles, Saxons, and Jutes. The year 449 is assigned as the date of the landing of the Jutes in the Isle of Thanet, in Kent, under Hengist and Horsa. Other invasions followed; and in the course of a hundred years the Jutes, Saxons, and Angles were established over the greater part of England. There were different dialects spoken among these several tribes, although they were closely allied to each other. The Anglo-Saxon compositions that have come down to us exemplify one dialect,—the dialect of the western counties; and it is now generally believed that modern English partakes more of a different dialect, spoken in the midland counties. Thus, although the Anglo-Saxon writings are valuable as illustrating an early Saxon tongue not far removed from ours, we do not reckon it as the immediate parent of the English language. This circumstance does not prevent us from using the name Saxon, or Anglo-Saxon, as describing the basis or foundation of English.

The grammar of our language is exclusively Saxon.

The other great element is the Roman, by which is meant the aggregate of words originating in the Latin language, but derived by us for the most part through the French. The Saxon and Latin together constitute the mass of our vocabulary.

' By counting every word in the dictionaries of Richardson and Webster, M. Thommerel has established the fact that the number of Saxon or Teutonic words in English amounts to only 13,330, against 29,354 words which can either mediately or immediately be traced to a Latin source.'—(Max Müller).

The remaining constituents are: words from languages belonging to the common stock called Teutonic, of which Saxon is a member,— Dutch, German, and Scandinavian; words from the Celtic languages

spoken in Britain before the Anglo-Saxon conquest,—Welsh and Gaelic; words from the Greek; and words from the languages of distant countries connected with us by colonization, trade, &c.

Assuming Saxon as the basis, we shall now enumerate the other sources in detail.

2. The classical element of our language, by which is meant the Latin, together with the Greek, was introduced at different periods.

3. I. During the Roman occupation of the island, between A.D. 43 and A.D. 418.

The words that remain from this period are chiefly local names connected with military stations.

From *castra* (a camp) are derived 'Lancaster,' 'Gloucester,' 'Exeter,' &c.

Strata (paved roads), 'Stratford,' 'Streatham,' 'street,' &c.

Colonia (a Roman settlement), 'Lincoln.'

Portus (a harbour), 'port,' 'Portsmouth,' 'Porchester.'

Vallum (a palisaded rampart), 'bailiff,' 'Old Bailey,' 'Wallbury.'

Fossa (a trench), 'Fossway,' 'Fosbrook,' 'Fossbury.'

4. II. During the four centuries following the introduction of Christianity, A.D. 596. The contributions during this interval include many words of a religious character, and the names of institutions and natural productions introduced by the missionaries.

ECCLESIASTICAL. *Latin.*—Altar, chalice, cloister, cowl, creed, cross, disciple, feast, font, mass, offer, pagan, pall, porch, preach, saint, shrine, sacrament.

Greek.—Alms, angel, apostle, bishop, canon, church, clerk, deacon, heretic, hymn, martyr, minster, monk, priest, psalm, psalter, stole, synod.

NATURAL OBJECTS. *Latin.*—Beet, box, cedar, chalk, cherry, cucumber, elm, fig, laurel, lettuce, lily, lion, mallow, marble, millet, mule, oyster, palm, pard, pea-*cock*, pearl, pine, pumice, rue, tiger, turtle, vulture.

Greek.—Agate, anise, camel, crystal, hellebore, myrrh, phœnix, sponge, sycamore.

MISCELLANEOUS. *Latin.*—Acid, anchor, axle, ark, belt, bench, bile, candle, capital, chest, circle, city, crown (?), crest, chancellor, cook, coulter, crisp, ell, empire, fever, fork, gem, grade, mile, mortar, muscle, nurse, ounce, palace, plant, plume, pound, prone, provost, purple, rule, sack, senate, spade, table, temple, title, verse.

Greek.—Cymbal, epistle, giant, metre, plaster, philosopher, rheum, school, theatre.*

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* Adams on the English Language, p. 8.

The words 'baptize,' 'synagogue,' 'disciple,' 'resurrection,' 'parable,' 'repentance,' superseded names of Saxon origin for the same things.

5. III. The great accession of Latin words took place subsequent to the Norman conquest, forming what is called the Norman-French element of our language.*

The Normans gave the names pertaining to feudalism, war, law, and the chase.

Feudalism and war.—Aid, armour, array, assault, banner, baron, battle, buckler, champion, chivalry, dower, esquire, fealty, guardian, hauberk, harness, herald, homage, joust, lance, mail, peer, relief, scutage, scutcheon, tallage, tenant, trumpet, truncheon, vassal, vizor, war, ward, warden.

Law.—Advocate, approver, arrest, assize, case, contract, estate, fee, felony, judge, justice, larceny, paramount, plaint, plea, sentence, statute, sue, suit, surety.

The Chase.—Bay, brace, chase, couple (v.), covert, falconer, forest, leash, mew, quarry, reclaim, sport, tiercel, venison, verderer.

But in addition to the names on these special subjects, many hundreds, if not thousands, of words of French origin were incorporated with the general vocabulary in the course of three or four centuries. In Layamon, in Chaucer, in Wycliffe, the acquisition of French words is seen going on.

Few words seem to have been derived at this period from the Latin direct. It cannot, however, in all cases be known whether words from the Latin have passed through the French; but nouns in 'our' (ardour), 'ier' (cavalier), 'chre' (sepulchre), 'eer' (auctioneer), adjectives in 'que' (unique), and words beginning with 'counter,' 'pur,' and 'sur' (counteract, purpose, surprise) are of this class. And, generally speaking, when words of classical origin are greatly altered in the English spelling, they have not come directly from the Latin; as 'reason' (*Lat.* ratio, *Fr.* raison), 'journal' (*Lat.*

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* 'The Normans were originally Scandinavians, who settled in France as their brethren had done in England. In 912, Charles III. ceded to them the province called Normandy after them. Here they came into contact with a people speaking a language derived from the Latin, and, like the Franks and the other barbarian invaders of Gaul, Italy, and Spain, they gradually ceased to use their own Scandinavian tongue, and adopted the language spoken by the inhabitants of their new home. This language has obtained the name of French, from the Franks, who conquered Gaul in the fifth century, and, like the Italian, Spanish, and other languages derived from the Latin, is frequently called a Romance language, to commemorate its Roman origin. The first introduction of French into England dates from the time of the later Saxon kings. Ethelred II. married Emma, daughter of Richard, Duke of Normandy; and his son, Edward the Confessor, who was brought up at the Norman court, and spoke the French language, gave great offence to his English subjects by his partiality for this tongue, and by his introducing French ecclesiastics into the kingdom. But the important event, which firmly planted the French language in England, was the conquest of the country by William, Duke of Normandy, in the year 1066. For two centuries French was the language of the English court; Norman settlers, speaking French, were spread over the country, and filled all the ecclesiastical and civil posts; and French was spoken in the courts of law and taught in the schools. In this way a large mass of the population must have become acquainted with French; and a very great number of French words was gradually introduced into the English language.'—Marsh's Lectures, II.

diurnus, *Fr.* journal), 'ally' (*Lat.* allegare, *Fr.* allier), 'accomplice' (*Lat.* complex, *Fr.* complice), 'beauty' (*Lat.* bellus, *Fr.* beauté), 'obey' (*Lat.* obedire, from audire, *Fr.* obéir).*

6. IV. After the Revival of Learning, many words were taken direct from the Latin, and a smaller number from the Greek.

The greater number of words bearing evidence of being obtained directly from the Latin, have been introduced since the revival of letters in the beginning of the sixteenth century.

A few are selected by way of specimen:—abdicate, abhor, abject, abjure, abnegate, abominate, absent, accelerate, accede, address, adhere, admire, adopt, affirm, agent, aggravate, alacrity, allocate, alternate, announce, beatify, benevolence, biennial, biped, calamity, callous, camp, cant, capillary, carbon, cardinal, case, cause, celebrate, celestial, chain, chance, charity, circumference, circle, cogitate, command, council, commit, common, compassion, complacent, compose, concord, confess, constitute, &c.

Our abstract nouns ending in *y* and *ion*—a pretty numerous class—are very slightly altered from the Latin original: calamity (calamitas); compassion (compassio).

The diffusion of Latin words in English is most comprehensively seen by examining a list of Latin roots, and noting their respective prevalence in the language. The following are a few of the best known:—

(Verbs.) *Ago, cado, cerno, claudo, credo, curro, dico, do, duco, eo, esse,* FACIO, FERO, *geno, habeo, jaceo, jungo, lego, levo,* MITTO, *moneo, nascor, pendeo, plico,* PONO, *porto, premo, probo, pungo, puto, quæro, rego, salio, scribo, sentio, sequor, servo, solvo, specio, spiro, statuo,* STO, *struo, sumo, tango, tendo, teneo, traho, venio,* VERTO, *video, voco, volvo.* (Nouns.) *Anima, caput, cor, cura, forma, gratia, jus, lex, manus, munus, nomen,* PARS, *signum, tempus, testis.* (Adjectives.) *Æquus, alter, bonus, firmus, fortis, gravis, magnus, malus, medius, primus, similis, unus.*

The number of Greek roots is smaller, but some of them are fruitful of compounds.

Ago (to lead), *archo* (to begin), *demos* (the people), *grapho* (to write), *hudor* (water), *cyclos* (a circle), *logos* (speech), *odé* (a song), *pan* (all), *pathos* (feeling), *phaino* (to show, appear), *philo* (to love), *polis* (a city), *poieo* (to make), *scopo* (to see), *techné* (art), *tithemi* (to place), *topos* (a place), *zoon* (an animal), are conspicuous examples.

Of the words derived from these roots, the following are a few examples:—demagogue, archeology, hydrography, cyclopædia, melody, pantheon, sympathy, phenomenon, telescope, technical, hypothesis, topography, zoology.

'The importance of these roots may be seen from the fact that from *pono* and *positum* we have in English two hundred and fifty words; from *plico,* two hundred; from *fero* and *latum,* one hundred and ninety-eight; from *specio,* one hundred and seventy-seven; from *mitto* and *missum,* one hundred and seventy-four; from *teneo* and *tentum,* one hundred and sixty-eight; from *capio* and *captum,* one hundred and ninety-seven; from *tendo* and *tensum,* one hundred and sixty-two; from *duco* and *ductum,* one hundred and fifty-six. *Logos* gives us one hundred and fifty-six; and *graphein,* one hundred and fifty-two. These twelve words, therefore, enter into the composition of nearly two thousand five hundred English words. *One hundred and fifty-four* Greek and Latin primitives yield nearly thirteen thousand words.'—Angus on the English Language, p. 46.

A great many Latin and Greek words are still imperfectly incorporated in the language. All the nouns that make the plural according to classical forms, and not according to the English form, are of this kind.

The demands of science, and even of industry and the common arts, lead to the unceasing introduction of new classical words: telegraph, photography, locomotive, terminus, caloric, basic, colloid, aeronaut, diagnosis, amalgam, cataclasm, onomatopeia, &c.

7. CELTIC dialects existed at an early period, and still partly exist in Britain.

The Celtic dialects now remaining are the Welsh, Gaelic, and Irish. One large class of names derived from them are names of places.

Rivers.—Don, Dee, Thames, Avon, Stour, Severn, Trent, Ouse.

Hills.—Malvern, Mendip, Cheviot, Chiltern, Grampian, &c.

Islands.—Wight, Man, Arran, Bute, Mull.

Counties.—Kent, Devon, Glamorgan, Dor-*set*, Dur-*ham*, Wilt-*s*, &c.

Towns.—Liver-pool, Carlisle, Penzance, Pen-rith, Cardiff, Landaff.*

Among Celtic names of places we are to include those beginning with *Aber* (the mouth of a river), as Aberdeen, Aber-brothwick (Arbroath), Aber-wick (Berwick), Aber-ystwith; with *Auchin* (a field), Auchindoir; *Ard*, or *Aird* (high), Ardrishaig; *Bal* (a village), Balgownie; *Ben* or *Pen* (a mountain) Benlomond, Penmaenmawr; *Blair* (a field, clear of wood), Blairgowrie; *Bottom* (a valley of low ground), common in Sussex, and in proper names; *Brae* (a hilly, rough piece of land), Braemar; *Caer* (a fort or town), Caerleon (Carlisle); *Cairn* (a heap of stones, a rocky hill), Cairngorum; *Combe* or *Comp* (the hollow or *bent* side of a hill), Compton, Ilfracombe; *Craig*, *Carrick*, *Crick* (a craggy hill); *Cul* (the back or hind part); *Dun* (a hill, or part of a hill), Dumbarton, the Downs; *Glen* (a narrow valley), Glenshee; *Inch*, or *Ennis* (an island), Inchkeith; *Inver* (mouth of a river, land fit for tillage), Inverary; *Kill* (a cell, chapel, or burying ground), Kilmarnock; *Kin*, *Ken*, or *Chin* (a cape or head), Kent, Kinethmont; *Lin* (a deep pool), Linlithgow, King's Lynn; *Llann* (a church), Llandaff; *Ros* (a promontory or peninsula), Ross; *Strath* (a broad valley), Strathmore; *Tre* (a town), Coventry.†

The words in the general vocabulary derived from the Celtic dialects are given in the Appendix I.

8. Our intercourse with the Danes and other Scandinavian nations has brought us a considerable number of words.

The Scandinavian nations are the Icelanders, Danes, Norwegians, and Swedes. The oldest Scandinavian language is the Old Norse of

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* Adams on the English Language, p. 5, second edition.
† Angus on the English Language, p. 18.

Norway, now spoken with little alteration in Iceland. The Danish invasions of Great Britain have left us a number of Scandinavian words. In the counties north of the Wash and the Mersey many of the names of places are from this source.

Arkholm (*ark*, a temple), Caldbeck (*beck*, a brook), Norbrek (*brek*, a steep), Grimsby (*by*, a town, by-law, by-path), Borrowdale (*dale*, a valley), Danby (*dane*, Dane), Orkney (*ey*, an island), Scawfell (*scaw*, a wood, *fell*, a rocky hill), Senford (*ford*, *forth*, an inlet), Mickleforce (*force*, a waterfall), Dalegarth (*garth*, an enclosure), Sandgate (*gate*, a way), Ormesgill (*Orm*,* *gill*, a valley), Grimsdale (*Grim**), Kirkhaugh (*haugh*, high pasture land), Langholm (*holm*, an island), Kelby (*kell*, a spring), Laurencekirk (*kirk*, a church), Bowness (*ness*, a headland), Thurso (*o*, a river), Scarborough (*scar*, a steep rock), Skipwith (*skip*, a ship), Ulbster (*ster*, a place), Sutherland (*suther*, *soder*, the south), Tarnsyke (*tarn*, a mountain lake), Dingwall (*ding*, *thing*, a place of meeting), Thurlow (*Thor**), Woolthorpe (*thorpe*, *drop*, a village), Lowestoft (*toft*, a small field), Sandwich (*wick*, *wig*, *wich*, a creek or bay), Langwith (*with*, a wood).

The termination 'son' appended to names is Norse : 'Swainson,' 'Ericson.' 'Ulf' or 'Ulph,' found in proper names, is Norse for wolf.

The Scandinavian words in the general vocabulary are given in the Appendix II.

9. Various members of the Gothic stock of languages (to which Saxon-English belongs) have contributed words to the English vocabulary.

It happens that a certain number of English words are not found in Anglo-Saxon writings, but occur in Dutch, German, Flemish, &c. We thence infer that such words have been derived from those languages, although it is also possible that they may have existed in the ancient Saxon dialect that English has sprung from. We do not know the history of the actual introduction of all our foreign words.

The words derived from the Gothic languages are given in the Appendix III.

10. Words of recent introduction from the FRENCH, and more or less perfectly assimilated, have reference to military affairs; as 'aid-de-camp.' 'picquet,' 'bivouac,' 'bayonet :' to cookery ; as 'omelet,' 'fricassée,' 'entremets,' 'déjeûner :' to manners and pleasure; as 'etiquette,' 'naïveté,' 'ridicule,' 'grimace,' 'foible,' 'brusque,' 'bonhomie,' 'débonnaire,' 'la beau monde,' 'éclat' 'ennui,' 'billet-doux,' 'bon-mot,' 'bouquet,' 'soirée,' 'trousseau :' to dress; as 'vest,' 'blonde,' 'coif,' 'busk.'

11. ITALIAN has contributed words relating to music, sculpture, and painting, with some miscellaneous words.

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* Names of ancient Scandinavian heroes.

Akimbo, alert, ambassador, arquebuss, askance, askaunt, altitude, avast, banquet, bass, bassoon, bawdekin, bigot, boa, brace, brigand, brigantine, brigandine, brocade, bronze, brush, bubble, burlesque, buzz, cannon, canteen, cape, caper, captain, caravel (a kind of ship), caricature, carminative, carnival, carriage, cartel, cartoon, castle, citadel, clarion, company, companion, conceit, concert, cosset, cozen, crate, crimini, crypt, cuff, cupola, curry, currier, cutlas, curtal-axe, despatch, domino, dram, embrocation, fib, fit (an attack of pain), freak (a sudden wanton whim or caprice), freak (streaked), gabion, gallant (showy in dress), galley, ganch, garnet, gazette, gotch, granite, grapple, grasp, grate, grime, grotto, grotesque, group, inveigle, invoice, langet, lanyel, list, lupines, lush, luscious, macaroni, madrigal, mend, mere, mongrel, motto, napery, napkin, nun, opera, paladin, palette, parapet, parasol, pedestal, pigeon, pilgrim, pistol, policy, porcupine, profile, punch (a stage puppet), purl, puttock, regatta, scaramouch, sketch, soprano, stanza, stiletto, stucco, studio, tenor, terra-cotta, torso, umbrella, virtuosa, vista, volcano, zany.

12. SPANISH.—

Alembic, algebra, alligator, battledoor, bezel (basil), booby, borachio, brig, calenture, canoe, caparison, capon, caracol, cargo, cask (casket, casque), castanets, chape, chili, clarinet, cochineal, cockatrice, cope, cork, corsair, crab (a windlass), discard, dismay, embargo, embarrass, filigree, fillibuster, fumadoes, gallánt (a. attentive to women), garl (v. to cleanse from dross), grange, hazard, jade, javelin, juice, lawn, levant (v.), molasses, mulatto, negro, ninny, pail, pamphlet, pawn (a common man at chess), pickaroon, pillion, pint, pit (the pit of a theatre), plate (vessels of gold and silver), potato, pounce (the talon of a bird of prey), savannah, sherry, tornado, verandah.

13. PORTUGUESE.—To carp, caste, cocoa, coil, commodore, cove, fetish, mandarin, marmalade, maroon, pagoda, palanquin, porcelain, palaver.

14. The following words are traced to the WALLOON, a dialect spoken in some districts in the north-east of France and in Belgium :—await, crank, fester, funk, harridan.

15. SWISS.—Daw, dismal, distaff, fetlock, glimpse, haggle, mart.

16. TURKISH.—Bosh, caliph, candy, divan, horde, janizary, sash, tulip, seraglio.

17. ARABIC.—

Admiral, alchemy, alcohol, alcove, alkali, almanac, ambergris, amulet, arrack, arsenal, artichoke, assassin, altar, azimuth, cadi, camphor, carat, chemistry, cipher, civet, coffee, cotton, dragoman, elixir, emir, fakir, firman, gazelle, giraffe, harem, hazard, jar, lemon, lute, magazine, mameluke, mattress (?), minaret, moslem, mosque, mufti, mummy (?), nabob, nadir, naphtha, nard, opium, saffron, salaam, scullion, shrub, sirocco, sofa, sultan, syrup, tabor, talisman, tamarind, tambourine, tariff, vizir, zenith, zero.

18. HEBREW.—Abbey, abbot, amen, behemoth, cabal, cherub, ephod, gehenna, hallelujah, hosanna, jubilee, leviathan, manna, sabbath, seraph, shibboleth.

19. PERSIAN.—Azure, balcony, barbican, bashaw, bazaar, caravan, check-mate, chess, dervise, emerald, hookah, howdah, indigo, jackal, jasmin, kaffir, lilac, musk, orange, pasha, saraband, scimitar, sepoy, shawl, sherbet, simoom, taffeta, tiffin, turban.

20. HINDU.—Banian, betel, buggy, bungalow, calico, coolie, cowrie, dimity, jungle, lac, loot, mullagatawny, muslin, pagoda, pariah, punch, pundit, rajah, rupee, sandal (wood), sugar, suttee, toddy.

21. MALAY.—A-muck, bamboo.

22. CHINESE.—Bohea, caddy, congou, gong, hyson, nankeen, pekoe, satin, tea.

23. POLYNESIAN.—Tattoo, taboo, kangaroo.

24. AMERICAN.—Conder, hammock, hurricane, jerked (beef), lama, maize, moccasin, pampas, squaw, wigwam, tobacco, tomahawk, tomata.

25. Names of PERSONS have given words:—Tantalize, herculean, philippic, hermetic, galvanism, davy (safety lamp), lazaretto, simony, macadamize, maudlin, ottoman, pander, orrery, stentorian, quixotic &c.

26. Names of PLACES, in like manner :—Arras, bayonet, currants (Corinth), copper (Cyprus), cambric (Cambray), damask, ermine (Armenian rat), guinea, japan, magnet, parchment (Pergamos), peach, (Persia), muslin (Mussoul), spaniel (Spain), worsted (Worstead).

27. For practical purposes it is useful to be able to discriminate the words of classical origin from those belonging originally to the Anglo-Saxon. This may be done to a considerable extent by the help of a few general rules.

28. I. The articles, pronouns, pronominal adjectives, numeral adjectives, prepositions, and conjunctions, are Saxon; also adjectives of irregular comparison, the simple adverbs of time and place, and the auxiliary and defective verbs.

29. II. All words undergoing vowel changes are from the Saxon. These are: adjectives forming nouns by vowel changes (strong, strength; long, length); nouns forming verbs (bliss, bless); the old or strong verbs; the new verbs making vowel changes (bereave, bereft); the causative verbs formed by vowel changes (lie, lay); nouns with changes in the plurals (foot, man); words modifying the final consonant (stick, stitch).

30. III. Most words with distinctive Anglo-Saxon endings are from the Anglo-Saxon.

If we had a complete list of the *Hybrids*, formed by joining Saxon roots to classical endings, or the converse, such a list would give all the exceptions to this rule. These words are very numerous, and have never yet been fully collected. The following are examples :—

Classical roots with Saxon endings : principally, politely, roundly, beastly ; rudeness, aptness, briskness, passiveness, righteousness ; artful, grateful, mindful, direful, graceful, peaceful ; armless, artless, useless, motionless, cheerless, viewless, resistless ; humoursome, falsehood, subscriber, martyrdom, hero-worship, suretiship, blandish.

Saxon words with classical endings :—shepherdess, songstress, wondrous, witticism, mystify, furtherance, behaviour.

31. The principle extends also to prefixes. Some of these, however, are ambiguous. Thus 'a' and 'in' are Saxon, Latin, and Greek ; 'mid' is Saxon and Latin. But where there is no ambiguity, we may presume that a Saxon prefix betokens a Saxon word, and a

classical prefix a classical word. There are exceptions, or hybrids, as yet incompletely enumerated. The following are a few :—because, belabour, besiege, thorough-bass, thorough-paced, out-face, super-fine.

The unmistakable English prefixes are, 'al,' 'after,' 'be,' 'for,' 'ful,' 'mis,' 'on,' 'over,' 'out,' 'under,' 'with.' 'Mis' is frequently joined to classical words.

When we meet with such compounds as, 'grace*ful*,' 'peace*ful*,' we ought also to take notice that these roots,—'grace,' 'peace,' are far more frequently allied with classical prefixes and endings; as 'gracious,' 'ingratitude,' 'ingratiate,' 'gratify,' 'pacify,' 'appease.' If it is the habit of any word to contract classical alliances, we may presume that it is classical, unless it is recognized as a hybrid.

When we find words commencing with the prefixes 'contra,' 'circum,' 'omni,' 're,' 'retro,' 'inter,' 'prop,' 'extra,' 'ob,' 'pro,' 'super,' we may almost always take for granted that they are of Latin origin : when we find 'epi,' 'peri,' 'pan,' 'hyper,' 'hypo,' 'cata,' 'sym,' we may infer a Greek origin. Some of these are in hardly any case joined with Saxon roots ; for example, the frequently occurring prefix 're.'

32. III. Most words of one syllable are taken from the Anglo-Saxon, or allied tongues. The list of exceptions, that is to say, of words of one syllable derived from the Latin, French, or Greek, is given in the Appendix IV.

33. IV. Most words of more than one syllable are of classical origin. The words of more than one syllable of Saxon origin almost all occur in the following illustrations of the things denoted by Saxon names. A few not otherwise mentioned are here subjoined :—behalf, behest, biestings, brustle, buxom, caltrop, chafer, commark (a frontier), dimple, dwindle, harbinger, hobnob, holster, leger, nether, slobber, snattock, staddle, utter, wither.

34. Provincial terms are to be assumed as not of classical origin. If not Saxon, they are Celtic, Scandinavian, or Gothic.

35. The things denoted by Saxon terms are to a great extent distinct from those denoted by names of classical origin.

36. I. From Anglo-Saxon we obtain the names connected with kindred, home, domestic life, and the strong natural feelings and their expression :—father, mother, husband, wife, friend, kindred, leman (sweetheart), widow, neighbour, henchman, carle, gaffer, gammer ; home, hearth, roof, fireside, shelter, ashes, embers, cinder, smoulder, cradle, swaddle, kettle, bellows, kitchen, oven, hovel, threshold, ladle, flagon, ewer, bucket, pillow, bolster, bundle, slumber, taper, marrow, tidbit, wallet, wassail, fiddle, welcome, token, midwife, mingle, naked, early, morrow, errand, sunder, bottom, lumber, besom, gossip, riddle; (*attire*) mantle, pocket, tippet, breeches, drawers, stockings ; (*feelings*) hunger, sorrow, anger, wonder, weary, bitter, tear, smile, blush, laugh, groan, weep, yearn, burden.

37. II. From the same source are derived the names of the familiar objects of sense, and the familiar movements of moving things—sun, moon, star, welkin, world, fire, water, day, night, morn, even, twilight, light, heat, cold, rain, snow, storm, wind, thaw, frost, cloud, shower, thunder, lightning, weather, summer, winter, harvest, hill, dale, wood, morass, stream, land, sea, billow, eddy, earth, dingle, mildew, brimstone, iron, silver, pearl, pebble; acorn, aspen, apple, barley, berry, bramble, blossom, briar, bristle, cluster, daisy, elder, elm, fennel, hemlock, honey, holly, hollyhock, ivy, kernel, linden, mallows, medlar, misletoe, mugwort, nettle, poppy, radish, sallow, sorrel, teasel, thistle, turnip, walnut, willow, yarrow; adder, barnacle, beaver, beetle, chafer, chicken, cockle, culver (a dove), emmet, eyry, feather, fish, fowl, godwit, herring, hornet, lamprey, laverock, linnet, lobster, maggot, marten, mouldwarp (a mole), otter, ousel (a blackbird), owlet, oyster, peacock, periwinkle, raven, reindeer, ruddock (a redbreast), sparrow, starling, swallow, tadpole, throstle (the thrush), turtle, weasel, weevil (an insect), worm; sit, stand, lie, walk, run, leap, stagger, stride, yawn, gape, wink, fly, swim, creep, crawl, hobble, follow; (vocal utterances) bellow, hollo, jabber, snivel, stammer, whisper, whistle.

Names of parts of the body—body, head, ear, tongue, lip, chin, whiskers, throttle, lungs, weasand (the windpipe), bosom, nipple, shoulder, elbow, finger, knuckle, midriff, liver, navel, belly, bladder, ankle, sinew, pimple, wrinkle, tetter (a scab), sight, touch, taste, smell.

Many of the familiar actions of human beings are named from the Saxon—allow, answer, behave, bluster, burrow, defile, elope, gather, gibber, giggle, grapple, harry, hearken, hinder, linger, listen, rimple, rumple, scatter, scuffle, shuffle, smother, spatter, sprinkle, straddle, straggle, swallow, trundle, tumble, twinkle (with the eyes), wander, welter, whittle, worry, wrangle, wrestle.

The more obvious qualities of natural things have Saxon names—barren, brinded (streaked), brittle, callow, comely, dingy, dwindle, enough, even, flicker, garish, ghastly, glisten, glitter, gnarled, grisly, handsome, heavy, narrow, lukewarm, pretty, sallow, uncouth.

A few of the mental habits and characteristics are also named—blatant, busy, chary, cunning, dizzy, doughty, eager, earnest, fickle, frolic, froward, fulsome, gallow (to terrify), giddy, greedy, haggard, idle, leasing (lies), merry, nimble, silly, sulky, surly, stalworth, wicked.

But for states of the mind that have not a strong outward expression, the Saxon vocabulary is very scantily supplied; such as the various modes of thought and intelligence. 'Think,' 'mind,' 'believe,' 'trust,' and a few others are to be found, but the great mass of words for the mental operations are of classical origin.

This rule may be otherwise expressed by saying that the names of the *objective* world are, by preference, Saxon; of the *subjective* world, by preference, classical.

38. III. The kinds of industry practised by our Saxon ancestors are shown by the names that have come down to us. Thus in agri-

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culture and its allied operations—acre, bacon, barrow, bread, bridle, barm, barn, bull, calf, clover, cow, corn, fallow, farm, farrow (litter of pigs), fodder, furrow, halter, horse, gander, garlic, grass, heifer, hurdle, wattle, mattock, twibill, meadow, mongrel, orchard, pig, plough, reap, runnet, saddle, sickle, sow, stirrup, tallow, udder, waggon, wether, winnow.

In the other industrial arts, we have—addice (adze), anvil, angle (to fish), arrow, bugle, coal, cobble (a boat), distaff, earn, fathom, felly (rim of a wheel), ferry, filter, furlong, habergeon, hammer, halter, halser (hawser), hamper (a basket), harbour, haven, hauberk, leather, ladder, level, madder, needle, oakum, peat, pier, raddle (to twist together), riddle (sieve), scaffenger, sempster, shackle, shuttle, slaughter, shambles, staple, swivel, target, timber, tower, turf.

Bearing more particularly upon trade and commerce, we have—borrow, buy, chapman, cheap, dear, firkin, handsel, market, monger, farthing, pedlar, penny, shilling, reckon, sell.

39. IV. The civil and religious institutions of our ancestors are indicated in their language—alderman, beadle, borough, bury, corsnead (in trial by ordeal), earl, embassy, fetter, gallows, hamlet, hustings, lady, murder, ordeal, sheriff, Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Friday, Saturday, easter, gospel, hallow, holy, holiday, heathen, heaven, lammas, steeple, steward, whitsuntide, witness, wizard, worship, yeoman, wapentake.

40. National proverbs are naturally derived from our primitive speech.

41. The language of invective, contempt, pleasantry, humour, satire, and colloquial wit is Saxon. The strong terms, 'curse,' 'darling,' 'dastard,' 'fangle,' 'lazy,' 'nidget' (a coward), 'rascal,' 'shabby,' 'slut,' 'sly,' 'termagant,' 'ugly,' are of native growth.

42. The particular or individual objects of nature, as opposed to the general or abstract, are named by Saxon words. This is merely the second rule in another aspect. Thus the specific movements, 'walk,' 'run,' 'fly,' 'creep,' &c., are Saxon; but the general idea is expressed by a Latin word—*motion*. 'Black,' 'blue,' 'red,' 'green,' 'auburn,' 'yellow,' &c., are Saxon: *colour* is Latin. 'Hum,' 'buzz,' 'squeak,' 'speak,' 'grunt,' 'hiss,' 'rustle,' 'sing,' 'whistle,' &c., are Saxon: *sound* is Latin. So while special modes of crime are Saxon— 'murder,' 'theft,' 'rob,' 'kill,' 'lie,' the general terms—'crime,' 'offence,' 'injury,' are Latin. The special numbers are Saxon: the general word 'number' is Latin.

43. These rules must be taken with some latitude, and are not to be employed as decisive of the origin of any given word. For although the more familiar objects of sense and of the outer world are described by Saxon names, we have appropriated classical names to add to our means of expressing the same things; as 'face,' 'river,' 'mountain,' 'plain,' 'forest,' 'district,' 'country,' 'lake,' 'firmament,' 'season,' 'minute,' 'animal,' 'beast,' 'serpent,' 'stomach,' 'palace,' 'chapel,' 'furniture,' 'garment,' 'harness,' 'mutton,' 'family,' 'commerce,' 'people,' and innumerable others.

44. It has also been seen that when articles or occupations were imported from other nations, the names, as was to be expected, came too.

45. Then again a few of our own Saxon words have been employed as terms of the highest generality; as 'being,' 'well-being,' 'truth,' 'falsehood,' 'will,' 'feeling,' 'good,' 'evil.' 'right,' 'wrong.'

This, however, is rare. We might, like the Germans, have constrained our native vocabulary to serve for general and abstract terms, but we have preferred to derive these from the classical sources. We also in many instances use a native word and also the corresponding words in Greek and Latin: 'good,' 'moral,' 'ethical;' 'one,' 'unit,' 'monad;' 'truth,' 'principle,' 'axiom;' 'happiness,' 'felicity;' 'glue,' 'viscid,' 'colloid.'

In all such cases the Latin and Greek words serve to indicate new meanings or shades of meaning, thereby extending our vocabulary.

COMPOSITION OF WORDS.

1. Most of the words of the language are compounds. The process of composition takes place in two ways: first, by adding to the roots syllables or words, called prefixes, and suffixes or endings, which may or may not have an independent existence; as '*out*-run,' 'one-*ly*' (only); and secondly, by putting together words each having an independent meaning; as 'break-water,' 'lion-hunter.'

As regards the first process, there are a number of recognized prefixes and suffixes habitually employed in forming compound words, nearly all of them imparting a definite signification to the compounds.

PREFIXES.

2. The prefixes of Saxon origin used for all purposes may be enumerated as follows:—

a. (1.) a shortened form of the preposition 'on,' 'abed,' 'abroad,' 'abroach,' 'ado' (?), 'adrift,' 'afoot,' 'aghast,' 'agog,' 'ajar,' 'alive,' 'amain,' 'amiss,' 'aside,' 'aslope,' 'astir,' 'atop,' 'aweary.' This is a source of adverbs.

(2.) a shortened form of the Anglo-Saxon 'ant,' or 'an,' joined to verbs: 'abate,' 'abet,' 'alight,' 'allay,' 'arise,' 'awake.' This converts intransitive verbs into transitive, or else strengthens the meaning.

In 'ago' it is supposed we have the combination 'y-gone.'*

all (all): 'always,' 'almighty,' 'alone,' 'although.'

after : 'afterthought,' 'afternoon.'

be (1) ('by'): 'before,' 'beside,' 'betimes.'

(2) Prefixed to verbs: 'become,' 'bestir,' 'befit.' Converts intransitive verbs into transitive, and adds intensity to the meaning.

by (Scandinavian *by*, a hamlet): 'by-law,' 'by-path,' 'by-road,' 'by-way,' 'by-lane.'

by (preposition): 'by-stander,' 'by-play.'

em, en, in (Anglo-Saxon *in*): 'endear,' 'embody,' 'inlay,' 'inborn,' 'inbred,' 'insight.'

for (the contrary), privation or prohibition: 'forbid,' 'for-go,' 'for-swear.'

for (before): 'foretell,' 'forefather,' 'forward.'

ful (full): 'fulfill.'

mis (failure): 'misbehave,' 'mistake.'   *Hybrids:* 'misplace,' 'misfortune,' 'mishap,' &c.

n (not): 'n-either,' 'n-ever,' 'n-aught,' 'n-or.'

on (upon): 'on-set,' 'on-slaught,' 'on-looker.'

over (above): 'overthrow,' 'overdo,' 'overlay.'

out (excelling): 'outdo,' 'outlive,' 'outrun.'

to (this): 'to-day,' 'to-morrow.' ' *The* day,' for 'to-day,' is a Scotticism.

un (before nouns, adjectives, and participles has a negative force): 'unbelief,' 'untruth,' 'unwise,' 'unseen,' 'unknown.'

un (before verbs means to *reverse*): 'unbind,' 'undo.'

under (a comparative of the preceding, and not to be confounded with the preposition 'under '): 'undergo,' 'undertake,' 'understand.'

under (preposition): 'undergrowth,' 'underlay.'

up (upwards): 'upheave,' 'uphold,' 'upstart,' 'uproar.'

with (opposition): 'withstand,' 'withhold,' 'withdraw.'

In the words 'lump, 'ram,' 'rob,' 'rumple,' 'wrack,' 'rumble,' it is supposed that a prefixed letter is dropped; 'clump,' 'cram,' 'crib,' 'crumple,' 'crack.' But 'slash,' 'smash,' 'smelt,' 'smoulder,' 'swelter,' 'shout,' 'spatter,' 'steep,' 'stumble,' 'scrunch,' 'scream,' are formed by prefixing 's' to 'lash,' 'mash,' 'melt,' 'moulder,' 'welter,' 'hoot,' 'patter,' 'dip,' 'tumble,' 'crouch,' 'cry.'

So 'sway,' 'swing,' 'swagger,' are considered to come from 'weigh' and 'wave.' 'Spank' is from 'bang.' Letters are sometimes added merely to strengthen the sound; thus, 'yon*d*er,' from 'yon;' 'soun*d*,' from French, 'son;' 'hin*d*' (a peasant), from 'hine;' so 'swoon*d*ed' in Shakspeare; 'drown*d*ed' in vulgar speech.—Craik's *Julius Cæsar*, p. 120.

3. There are a number of prefixes derived from the classical languages. Such of them as are still employed

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* 'y' is an old English form of the Anglo-Saxon participial prefix 'ge,' and is seen in the old words 'y-clept,' 'y-clad.'

to form new compounds may be considered as English prefixes; as 'ante' in 'antedate.'

Some of the Latin and Greek prefixes and suffixes are known only as parts of the words that they are found in, and we never think of their separate meaning, nor employ them to make new combinations. Such are the Greek 'a' in 'atrophy,' 'anarchy;' 'cata' in 'catastrophe,' and many others. A good many of the Latin prefixes and suffixes, and a small number of the Greek, may be regarded as of living application, being adopted in their separate character into the English language.

The following Prefixes are from the *Latin* :—

a, ab, abs (from): 'avert,' 'abuse,' 'absolve,' 'abstract.'
ad (to): 'adjoin,' 'adhere,' 'attract,' 'affirm' (adfirm).
ante (before): 'anteroom,' 'antedate,' 'antecedent.'
bene (well): 'beneficence.'
bi, bis (twice): 'bisect,' 'bivalve.'
circum (round): 'circumvent,' 'circumnavigate,' 'circumscribe.'
co, con, &c. (company): 'co-partner,' 'co-operate.'
contra (against): 'contradict,' 'contravene.'
de (down): 'descend,' 'deplete.'
dis, di (apart): 'dissolve,' 'displace,' 'disarm,' 'disjoin, 'disagree.'
e, ex (out): 'elect,' 'express,' 'emigrate,' 'ex-king,' 'exchange.'
extra (beyond, used as a separate word): 'extraordinary.'
in (in, into): 'inside,' 'imprint,' 'involve,' 'imprison.' Supposed to be intensive in 'improve.'
in (not), joined to adjectives: 'inactive,' 'inert,' 'impure,' 'immortal.'
inter (between): 'interview,' 'intercommunication.'
intro (within): 'introduce.'
non (not): 'nonsense,' 'non-attendance,' 'nondescript.'
ob, oc, of, op (against): 'obstruct,' 'occur,' 'offend,' 'oppose.'
per (through): 'pervade.'
post (after): 'postdate,' 'postpone.'
præter (beside): 'pretermit.'
pro (forth): 'project.'
pre (before): 'prefix,' 'prepay,' 'prejudge,' 'preoccupy.'
re (motion from, change of place, back, again): 'recall,' 'return,' 'repay,' 'restore,' 'renew,' 'remove.'
retro (backwards): 'retrospect.'
se (apart): 'separate.'
sub (under): 'submerge,' 'submarine,' 'subjoin,' 'subdue,' 'sub-collector.'
subter (underneath): 'subterfuge.'
super (over): 'superstructure,' 'superadd,' 'supervisor,' 'superintendent,' 'superfine.'
trans (across): 'transport,' 'transalpine,' 'transplant.'
ultra (beyond): 'ultramarine,' 'ultramontane.'

The following Greek affixes may be specified :—

anti (opposed to): ' antichrist,' ' anti-slavery,' ' antarctic.'
eu (well): ' euphony,' ' euphemism.'
hyper (over): ' hypercritical.'
philo (friendly to): ' philo-Athenian,' ' philo-Spartan ' (Grote).
syn (with): ' synthesis,' ' sympathy.'

As regards the Greek prefixes generally the knowledge of them is useful only as a key to etymology; the words that they are found in being nearly always Greek words: ' amphi (on both sides), amphitheatre;' ' an, am, a (without), anarchy;' ' ana (up), anatomy;' ' anti, ant (against), antipathy;' ' apo, aph (away from), apostle;' ' arch (ruler), archbishop;' ' auto (self), autocrat;' ' cata (down), catastrophe;' ' dia (through), diameter;' ' dys (difficulty), dyspepsia;' ' ec, ex (out from), exodus;' ' en, em, el (in), emblem;' ' epi (upon), epitaph;' ' eso (within), esoteric;' ' hemi (half), hemisphere;' ' hyper (over), hyperbole;' ' meta (change), metaphor;' ' mon (alone), monarch;' ' pan (all), panorama;' ' para (beside), paragraph;' ' peri (around), period;' ' poly (many), polyglot;' ' pro (before), programme;' ' pros (to), prosody.'

DERIVATION OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH.
The Noun.

4. Some Nouns are simple, primitive, or underived words. These are sometimes called *roots*; as ' eye,' ' ear,' ' hand,' ' foot,' ' cow,' ' sheep,' ' heart,' ' hope.'

These are root words as far as concerns English grammar. In the comparison of languages they may sometimes be traced to forms still more radical or fundamental. To do so is the province of comparative grammar, or philology.

5. Derived Nouns are formed from simple Nouns, from Adjectives, and from Verbs, by various prefixes. They are also formed by a change in the vowel, in the consonants, or in both. But most of the derivatives are formed by suffixes or endings, of which there are a great number both Saxon and Classical.

Nouns derived from other Nouns.

By change of vowel, or of vowel and consonant, we have such derivatives as ' kit ' (from cat), ' stick ' (stake), ' tip ' (top), ' chick ' (cock). In such cases as ' tip,' from ' top,' we must infer from the nature of the case, or from analogy, which is the primitive and which the derivative. ' Kit ' and ' chick ' are abbreviations of ' kitten,' ' chicken.' These are all diminutives.

The following are the most important suffixes used in the derivation of nouns from other nouns :—

Anglo-Saxon Suffixes.

dom (signifying state or quality): ' serfdom ' (the state of the serf), ' heathendom,' ' martyrdom.' ' Kingdom ' has passed from the condition of the king (kingship) to the domain of his authority. ' Freedom ' and ' wisdom ' are from adjectives.

ship (the same general signification): 'lordship,' 'friendship,' 'worship' (worth-ship), 'apostleship,' 'guardianship,' 'ladyship,' 'fellowship.'

hood (the same idea): 'manhood,' 'childhood,' 'brotherhood' (a collective meaning), 'knighthood.'

red (the same): 'kindred,' 'hatred.'

age (the same): 'anchorage,' 'bondage,' 'brigandage,' 'peerage,' 'parentage,' 'patronage.' 'Hermitage,' from 'hermit,' is, like 'kingdom,' from 'king.'

These five suffixes seem to be employed indiscriminately. The preference is probably governed by suitability of sound. When the same root is found combined with more than one suffix, a distinctive meaning is connected with each compound; as 'kingdom,' 'kingship.'

ric (jurisdiction, territory): 'bishopric.' 'Kingdom' should have been 'kingrick.'

yer (profession): 'sawyer,' 'lawyer.' The same as 'er.'

ry or **ery** (from the Anglo-Saxon plural *ru*, collection): 'rookery,' 'musketry,' 'peasantry,' 'gentry,' 'Englishry' (Macaulay), 'scenery;' (a science, art, or practice), 'chemistry,' 'poetry,' 'heraldry,' 'falconry,' 'buffoonery,' 'revelry,' 'rivalry,' 'knavery.' In such words as 'masonry,' 'pastry,' 'drapery,' 'napery,' 'scullery,' 'lottery,' we may still trace the primary idea of a collection. The French termination *try* in 'poultry,' 'pantry,' has nearly the same force.

y (a place): 'treasury,' 'Germany,' 'smithy,' 'foundry,' 'colliery,' 'brewery,' 'pottery,' 'rectory,' 'barony.' In other compounds with the names of agents it indicates the art, profession, or action; as 'gluttony,' 'gunnery,' 'archery,' 'mastery,' 'monarchy.'*

ing (Anglo-Saxon 'ing,' diminutives): 'farthing,' 'shilling,' 'herring,' 'whiting,' 'morning,' 'evening.'

ow (diminutives): 'pillow' (pile), 'shallow' (shoal), 'window' (to let in wind), 'meadow,' 'shadow.'

en (diminutives): 'chicken,' 'kitten,' 'maiden,' 'bairn,' 'garden' (yard). 'Kitchen' (from cook) is an exception.

el, le (diminutives): 'satchel' (from 'sack'), 'kernel,' 'hustel,' 'trammel,' 'paddle,' 'spaddle' (from 'spade'), 'nozzle' (nose), 'muddle' (mud), 'muzzle' (mouth). Also an instrument: 'girdle' (gird), 'handle' (hand), 'prickle' (prick), 'shovel,' 'peckle,' 'stool.'

er (a modification of the foregoing): 'splinter,' 'whisper.'

ock (diminutives): 'hillock,' 'bullock,' 'paddock,' 'lassick' (lassie), 'laddock' (laddie).*

ikin, kin (*ock* and *en*): 'mannikin,' 'bootikin,' 'lambkin,' 'ladkin,' 'kidkin,' 'napkin,' 'pipkin' (little *pipe*, 'pipe of wine'), 'firkin' (four). Also proper names: 'Perkin' ('Peterkin,' little Peter), 'Tomkin,' 'Wilkin' (Will), 'Hawkin' (Hal), 'Watkin' (Wat, Walter).

lock (*el* and *ock*): 'warlock.'

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* We may suppose that 'baby,' 'mammy,' &c. are derived from the same source. Latham and Mason make 'y,' 'ie,' a separate diminutive termination. Adams would derive the whole from 'ock.'

ling (*el* and *ing*) : 'darling,' 'duckling,' 'gosling,' 'firstling,' 'yearling,' 'dumpling,' 'kidling,' 'witling,' 'stripling.'

let (*el* and *et*) : 'hamlet,' 'streamlet,' 'armlet,' 'bracelet,' 'cutlet,' 'tartlet.'

erel, rel (*er* and *el*) : 'cockerel,' 'pickerel,' 'puckerel' (small fiend).

6. The following are classical suffixes in English use :—

ier, eer [French] (occupation) : 'grenadier' (grenade-thrower), 'bombardier,' 'brigadier' (brigade-handler), 'musketeer,' 'cannoneer,' 'pioneer,' 'cashier,' 'engineer,' 'auctioneer.'

logy (the sciences) : 'geology,' 'philology,' 'mineralogy,' &c.

nomy (the same) : 'astronomy.'

one, oon (largeness or intensity ; from the Italian) : 'balloon,' 'basoon,' 'cartoon,' 'trombone,' 'pontoon,' 'million,' 'billion.'

et (diminutive ; of French origin, *ette*) : 'billet,' 'blanket' (a *white* covering), 'owlet,' 'jacket,' 'pocket,' 'bullet,' 'ticket,' 'plummet,' 'socket,' 'puppet,' 'lancet,' 'crotchet' (crook), 'bight' (bay).

It is to be remarked that by far the greater number of the above suffixes fall under two heads. First ('dom,' 'ship,' 'hood,' 'red,' 'age') those signifying the *state*, quality, or condition in the abstract of the thing named by the simple word. These are in fact a species of abstract nouns formed from others that are concrete. The demand for this special formation is great, and hence the variety of endings for the purpose. The second class is the *diminutives* ('y,' 'ing,' 'on,' 'en,' 'el,' 'le,' 'er,' 'et,' 'ock,' 'kin,' 'lock,' 'ling,' 'let,' 'rel'). There must have been some powerful motives at work to lead to so many forms of expressing diminution. In this case we must look to the feelings even more than to the intellect. The two strong sentiments of endearment and contempt are gratified by these modes of designating things. They are also applied to the young of all living beings, and to the instances of things occurring below the average size. Many of the terms have now lost their diminutive force, and are applied to discriminate things specifically or generically different, so that the emotional impulses have here, as in other instances, contributed to extend the number of words available for the objects of nature and art.*

7. Nouns are derived from Adjectives by means of the suffixes 'ness,' 'th,' 'dom,' 'ship,' 'hood,' 'ry,' 'ard,' &c.

ness. This is the chief suffix for converting the adjective into the corresponding abstract noun : 'whiteness,' 'sharpness,' 'kindness,' 'boldness,' &c. There are thirteen hundred of these compounds in English.

th, t, serves the same function as the foregoing, but in a small number of words : 'dearth' (dearness), 'wealth,' 'truth,' 'strength,'

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* Mr. Ernest Adams gives also the endings 'ck,' 'k' (speck, park); 'ch' (winch, scratch); 'ng' (prong, sting, spring); 'ff,' 'f' (staff, stuff, sheat); 'v,' 'b,' 'p' (grave, groove, club, step); but in most of the examples given by him, the word remaining when the ending is cut off is something not now in use. These remainders had probably once a meaning.

'height,' 'breadth,' 'width,' 'health' (whole), 'drought' (dry), 'mirth' (merry), 'sloth' (slow).

Still more rare is the employment of the others: **dom,** 'wisdom,' 'freedom;' **ship,** 'hardship;' **hood,** 'likelihood,' 'hardihood;' **ry,** or **ery,** 'finery,' 'bravery,' 'pleasantry.'

ard, art, heart, rd (augmentative; said to have been introduced by the German conquerors of the Roman empire into the languages of France, Spain, and Italy): 'sweetheart' (endearment), 'dullard,' 'coward,' 'sluggard,' 'wizard,'' 'lennard' (male linnet). **Leonard,'** 'Richard,' are from 'hart,' bold, hardy.

8. Nouns are derived from Verbs in various ways. It has been seen (PARTS OF SPEECH—*Noun*) that the English language favours the employment of Nouns as Verbs, and of Verbs as Nouns without any change.

9. Nouns are derived from Verbs: I. by a change in the vowel sound:

'Bliss' (bless), 'food' (feed), 'song' (sing), 'stroke' (strike).

II. By modifying the final consonant:

'Ditch' (dig), 'belief' (believe), 'speech' (speak), 'advice' (advise).

III. By modifying both vowel and consonant:

'Choice' (choose), 'breach' (break), 'life' (live), 'watch' (wake), 'breath' (breathe), 'loss' (loose), 'hilt' (hold).

10. Nouns are derived from Verbs by means of a number of suffixes:

er, ar, or (the agent in performing a certain act; a most extensive class of words): 'speaker,' 'thinker,' 'singer,' 'printer,' 'digger,' 'skirmisher,' 'idler,' 'beggar,' 'liar,' 'sailor,' 'director,' 'collector,' 'visitor,' 'dictator,' &c. From an adjective, 'stranger;' from a noun, 'islander.'

man: 'ploughman,' 'pressman,' 'watchman,' 'workman,' 'fireman,' 'milkman;' the same meaning as the foregoing, but confined to men. From nouns: 'churchman,' 'footman,' 'prizeman,' 'countryman.' From adjectives: 'nobleman,' 'gentleman.' This ending illustrates the origin of the suffixes in significant words.

ster (also the agent, originally feminine): 'brewster,' 'baxter' (bake), 'spinster,' 'gamester,' 'punster,' 'trickster,' 'songster,' 'youngster.'

ard, art : 'drunkard,' 'laggard,' 'braggart,' 'dotard.' Also means the agent in doing a certain thing, and mostly with an opprobrious meaning.

en, n: 'heaven' (heave), 'main' (may, 'might and main').

th or **d** (the action of the verb): 'growth,' 'stealth,' 'birth,' 'filth,' 'flood,' 'seed,' 'brand' (burn), 'cold.' These last were originally perfect participles.

t (the same, often accompanied with vowel changes) : ‘flight,’ ‘theft,’ ‘cleft,’ ‘gift,’ ‘drift.’

ter (the same) : ‘laughter,’ ‘slaughter.’

el, l, or **le** (mostly instruments) : ‘shovel’ (shove), ‘spindle,’ ‘girdle,’ ‘nipple,’ ‘puzzle,’ ‘spittle.’

er (not the agent) : ‘supper,’ ‘dinner,’ ‘dower.’ From a noun : ‘platter.’

m (the result of the act indicated by the verb) : ‘team’ (tow), ‘seam’ (sow), ‘qualm’ (quail), ‘bloom’ (blow), ‘scream ’ (cry).

age (either the act or the result) : ‘breakage,’ ‘leakage,’ ‘tillage,’ ‘pillage,’ ‘stowage,’ ‘coinage,’ ‘ salvage.’

ing (the same meaning ; verbal nouns) : ‘meeting,’ ‘building,’ ‘painting,’ ‘writing,’ ‘drawing,’ ‘wedding,’ ‘reasoning,’ ‘blessing,’ ‘suffering,’ ‘cleansing,’ ‘kneeling,’ ‘beginning,’ ‘ending.’ This suffix is different from the imperfect participle, although spelt the same in English. In Anglo-Saxon it was *ung :* ‘clœns-ung,’ ‘knylung.’ These words are most apt to be confounded with the infinitive in ‘ing ;’ but they are true nouns, and take a plural : ‘beginnings,’ ‘blessings.’

y (the act) : ‘delivery,’ ‘flattery,’ ‘recovery,’ ‘mastery,’ ‘embroidery’ (act or result). This and the following are foreign suffixes in English use.

ment (the act or result of the act) : ‘bewilderment,’ ‘commandment,’ ‘attachment,’ ‘banishment,’ ‘government,’ ‘punishment,’ ‘judgment,’ ‘defilement,’ ‘estrangement,’ ‘employment,’ ‘nourishment.’

The nouns derived from verbs thus fall for the most part into two classes : those signifying the *agent,* and those signifying the *action,* or the consequence of the action. Both meanings are of frequent occurrence.

Derivation of Adjectives.

11. Adjectives are derived from Nouns by means of suffixes.

ed (analogous to the perfect participle) : ‘ragged,’ ‘wretched,’ ‘left-handed.’   Compound adjectives usually take this termination : ‘right-minded,’ &c. The great mass of adjectives in ‘ed ’ are the perfect participles of verbs.

en, n (the material of a thing) : ‘golden,’ ‘wooden,’ ‘leathern,’ ‘brazen,’ ‘woollen,’ ‘waxen,’ ‘flaxen,’ ‘wheaten.’ This was the Anglo-Saxon genitive in ‘an.’

ern : ‘northern,’ ‘southern,’ ‘eastern,’ ‘western.’ Another form for the same meaning is, ‘northerly,’ &c.

ful (full of) : ‘joyful,’ ‘truthful,’ ‘beautiful,’ ‘mindful.’

ish (having the quality of the noun) : ‘slavish,’ ‘selfish,’ ‘foolish,’ ‘boyish,’ ‘Romish ’ (belonging to).

less (privation or negation) : ‘artless,’ ‘fearless,’ ‘lawless,’ ‘senseless,’ ‘sleepless,’ ‘cheerless,’ ‘friendless,’ &c.

like, ly (resemblance, *likeness*) : ‘manlike,’ ‘warlike,’ ‘godlike,’ ‘childlike,’ ‘lordly,’ ‘yearly,’ ‘courtly,’ ‘lovely,’ ‘homely.’

some (possession of the quality of the noun in a considerable degree) : ' quarrelsome,' ' frolicsome,' ' troublesome,' ' handsome,' ' toilsome,' ' burdensome.'

ward (direction of) : ' southward,' ' homeward.' These words are probably to be considered as adverbs.

y, ey (the quality of the noun) : ' airy,' ' lofty,' ' grassy,' ' balmy,' ' watery,' ' flowery,' ' oily,' ' cloudy,' ' seedy,' ' foggy,' ' silvery,' &c.

The following are of Foreign origin :—

ous (the quality of the noun) : ' pompous,' ' zealous,' ' scandalous,' ' mountainous,' ' beauteous,' ' righteous,' ' courteous,' ' laborious,' ' gracious,' ' spiritous,' ' sensuous,' ' contemptuous.'

ory : ' transitory.'

These derivatives fall chiefly under two heads ; those expressing the quality of the noun : ' ful,' ' ish,' ' y,' ' ous,' ' like,' ' ly,' ' some ;' and those (in ' less '), denoting the absence of the quality.

12. Adjectives are formed from Adjectives, partly by prefixes and partly by suffixes.

The prefixes are : **a,** ' aweary ' (little difference of meaning) ; **be :** ' begirt ;' **un** (the negative) : ' untrue,' ' unwise,' ' unfair ;' **dis** (negative) : ' dishonest ;' **ish** (diminutive) : ' blackish,' ' dullish.'

The suffixes are : **some** (slightly augmentative) : ' lightsome,' ' wearisome,' ' fulsome,' ' blithesome ;' **ly** (developing new meanings) : ' likely,' ' only,' ' purely,' ' lively,' ' goodly ;' **fold** : ' tenfold,' ' manifold ;' **teen** (cardinal number) : ' fourteen ;' **th** (ordinal numbers) : ' fourth,' ' fifth ;' **ty** (multiples by ten) : ' twenty,' ' thirty.'

Thus, in the adjectives formed from adjectives, we have, (1) some variety of the positive quality, and, (2) the negative of the quality.

13. Many Adjectives are formed from Verbs. The Imperfect Participle of the Verb is often converted into an Adjective : ' a *paying* occupation ;' ' a *roaring* lion.'

The verbal adjective is distinguished from the true participle by expressing a general attribute, and by agreeing with a noun in the manner of an adjective. The participle, like the verb, is limited in its action to time and manner, and may have a subject and object : ' the general, *having addressed the soldiers,* gave orders to advance.' Here, ' having addressed ' is under a certain condition of time, and has its subject (the general) and its object (the soldiers).

Adjectives are formed from Verbs by Suffixes as follows :—

some (quality of the verb) : ' tiresome,' ' irksome,' ' winsome.'

y : ' sticky,' ' flabby,' ' needy.'

ble, if not English, is fully naturalized. It has properly a *passive* signification. ' Bearable ' is what can be borne. So, ' eatable,' ' readable,' ' passable,' ' teachable,' ' enjoyable,' ' avoidable,' ' clubbable,' &c. There are a few cases where the ending has an active signification, but it is desirable to avoid multiplying these. ' Sensible ' properly

means what can be felt; as 'sensible warmth:' but 'a sensible man' is a man possessing sense, 'a man of sense.' 'Delectable' is giving delight; 'comfortable,' causing comfort.

ive (the active termination): 'sensitive,' 'apprehensive,' 'repressive,' 'active,' 'passive,' 'combative,' 'talkative,' 'imaginative,' 'commemorative,' 'forgetive.' It is an error to use these in the passive signification; as when Shakspeare says, 'nor the *insuppressive* mettle.'

Derivation of Verbs.

14. Verbs are derived from Nouns in various ways.

I. By Prefixes.

be (giving the noun an active or verb force): 'becloud,' 'befool,' 'befriend,' 'beguile,' 'belabour,' 'bedew.'

en, em: 'empower,' 'embody,' 'encamp,' 'encompass,' 'enshrine.'

dis (removal, or undoing): 'disburden,' 'disguise,' 'dismann.'

un (negation): 'unkennel,' 'unbosom,' 'unsex.'

II. By Suffixes.

en: 'lengthen,' 'strengthen,' 'heighten.'

l, le: 'muffle,' 'quibble '(quip), 'kneel '(knee), 'sparkle,' 'nettle,' 'throttle.'

III. By change, (1) of Vowel, or (2) of Consonant, or (3) of both.

(1.) 'Gild' (gold), 'bleed' (blood), 'feed' (food).

(2.) 'Calve,' 'halve,' 'bulge' (bulk), 'soothe' (sooth), 'wreathe,' 'thieve,' 'house,' 'prize' (price), 'shelve,' 'clothe.'

(3.) 'Bathe' (bath), 'graze' (grass), 'glaze,' 'breathe,' 'hitch' (hook).

Many words are nouns or verbs according to the place of the accent: 'ábstract,' 'abstráct;' 'áccent,' 'accént;' 'áugment,' 'augmént;' 'cómpound,' 'compóund;' 'cónflict,' 'conflíct;' 'cóntrast,' 'contrást;' 'dígest,' 'digést;' 'ímport,' 'impórt;' 'súbject,' 'subjéct;' 'súrvey,' 'survéy;' 'tórment,' 'tormént.' These are all of Latin origin.

It has also been seen that our language permits the free conversion of a noun into a verb, and the opposite, without any change.

The general effect of these derivations is to enable the meaning of the noun to become active, or to express the fact of its being imparted to something. The chief exception is seen in the two negative prefixes, **dis, un.**

15. Verbs are derived from Adjectives, by prefixes and suffixes.

Prefixes.—**be** (to make): 'bedim,' 'begrime' (grim).

en, em (the same): 'endear,' 'embitter,' 'enable,' 'emboss.'

Suffixes.—**en** (the same): 'shorten,' 'sweeten,' 'fatten,' 'blacken,' 'ripen.'

er (the same) : 'lower,' 'linger' (long), 'hinder.'
se : 'cleanse,' 'rinse.'
By change of vowel : 'fill,' (full).
The effect of this conversion is almost uniformly to signify the imparting of the quality connoted by the adjective.

16. Verbs are extensively derived from Verbs.

1. By *prefixes.*—**a** : 'awake,' 'await,' 'arise,' 'arouse,' 'abide,' 'amount,' 'amend.'

be : 'bestride,' 'besmear,' 'bestir,' 'besprinkle,' 'bedaub,' 'beseech' (seek), 'betake.' In many instances it converts intransitive verbs into causative, and therefore transitive verbs ; it also occasionally intensifies the simple verb.

dis (negative) : 'disembody,' 'disbelieve,' 'dispraise,' 'distrust.'

un (negative) : 'undo,' 'unbind,' 'untie.'

mis (a kind of negation) : 'mislead,' 'misstate,' 'misplace,' 'misjudge.'

for, fore (negative, or done in a bad sense) : 'forbid,' 'forego,' 'foreclose,' 'forswear,' 'forget,' 'forgive.'

gain (against) : 'gainsay ;' **with** (opposite to) : 'withstand.'

en, in (in) : 'engrave,' 'embody,' 'engraft,' 'inlay,' 'enfold.'

re (do over again) : 'retouch,' 'replace,' 'rebuild.' A naturalized Latin prefix.

2. *Suffixes.*—**er** (diminutive and frequentative) : 'glimmer' (gleam), 'sputter' (spit), 'batter' (beat), 'patter' (pat).

le, el (the same) : 'dazzle' (daze), 'girdle' (gird), 'settle' (set), 'straddle' (stride), 'grapple' (gripe), 'dribble' (drip); 'gamble' (game), 'waddle' (wade), 'crumple' (crimp).

on : 'reckon,' 'blazon,' 'beckon.'

ish : 'burnish.'

y : 'sully' (soil), 'worry' (wear).

om : 'blossom' (blush), 'gleam' (glow). These four last endings appear to have a diminutive force.

3. By modifying the vowels, or consonants, or both. 'Rise, raise ;' 'fall, fell ;' 'sit, set ;' 'roll, reel ;' 'sniff, snuff ;' 'drop, drip ;' 'rest, roost ;' 'wring, wrench ;' 'drink, drench ;' 'blink, blench ;' 'drag, dredge ;' 'dog, dodge ;' 'tweak, twitch ;' 'wake, watch.' Most of these derivatives are causative verbs.

4. By postfixing adverbs and prepositions ; as 'find out,' 'pluck out,' 'bear with,' 'bring in,' 'fall in,' 'climb up,' 'heave to,' 'despair of.' These postfixed words are to be considered in many cases as part of the verb, although not only not fused with it, like the ordinary suffixes, but susceptible of being removed to a distance by the object coming between : 'find *him* out ;' 'pluck *it* out ;' 'bring *the messenger* in ;' 'send *the things* away.' They often acquire a meaning not explained by the separate meanings of the parts : 'find out ' is no more to be parsed as two words than 'invent.' Moreover, we find verbal nouns formed from them : the 'looker on,' 'entrance in,' 'goings out ; ' the 'climber upward '— (Shakspeare). We may

have two different meanings from the same constituents differently placed; as 'overcome,' 'come over.'

To sum up; in deriving verbs from verbs, we have sometimes little more than a synonyme (arise); in other cases, a diminutive, or frequentative force; and in some instances an intensive effect. The causative verbs are a distinct class. But the most important derivatives are those that negative in some way or other the meaning of the simple verb.

Derivation of Adverbs.

17. Adverbs are formed principally from Adjectives, but also from other parts of speech.

By *prefixes.*—**a** (nouns and adjectives) :' asleep,' 'aground,' 'ahead,' 'aloft' (luft, left, the air), 'astern,' 'adrift,' 'afloat,' 'aloud.'

al : 'almost,' 'always,' 'alone,' 'also.'

be : 'before,' 'besides,' 'betimes.'

to : 'to-day,' 'to-night,' 'to-morrow.'

Suffixes.—**ly** (a corruption of like) : 'softly,' 'smoothly,' 'cheerily,' daily,' 'monthly,' 'carelessly,' &c. This is the principal mode of deriving adverbs from the corresponding adjectives.

es, se, ce, s : 'unawares,' 'sometimes,' 'besides,' 'mornings' (of a morning), 'else,' 'once,' 'hence,' 'thence,' 'needs,' 'outwards.' Supposed to be old genitives.

wise, ways : 'otherwise.'

om : 'whilom,' 'seldom.'   Old datives.—**n :** 'then,' 'than.'

re : 'here,' 'there,' 'where.' **ther :** 'hither,' 'thither,' 'whither.' Derived from the demonstrative and relative pronouns.

Classical prefixes.—**a :** 'apart,' 'apace,' 'across;' **per :** 'perchance,' 'peradventure,' 'perhaps.'

For the cases where adjectives appear to be used as adverbs without change, see PARTS OF SPEECH—*Adverb.*

The end sought in most of these instances is to obtain adverbs from other parts of speech so as to retain the original meaning of the word. In some, old case inflections appear to be used; in others, a significant syllable is joined.

Derivation of Prepositions.

18. The chief Prepositions are primitive words of the English language, and have corresponding forms in the other languages of the Indo-European class : 'of,' 'from,' 'to,' 'for,' 'by,' 'with,' 'over,' 'under,' &c. They are among the most fundamental roots of language, and can be traced as giving birth to very many words in the general vocabulary. A few are compound, and are derived from other Prepositions, from Nouns, or from Adjectives.

Prefixes.—**a** : 'abaft,' 'aboard' (ship), 'across,' 'afore,' 'amid,' 'along,' 'around,' 'against,' 'anent,' 'astride,' 'athwart.'

be (by) : 'beside,' 'beyond,' 'behind,' 'before,' 'beneath,' 'below,' 'between' (by two).

The suffix *st* exists in many prepositions. Its true nature is not as yet understood, but it may be a superlative, adding intensity to the simple word : '*a-mid*,' in the middle of ; '*amidst*,' in the very middle.

There are several prepositions that are the participles of verbs ; as 'except,' 'concerning,' 'regarding.' With the exception of 'notwithstanding,' these are of classical origin.

19. CONJUNCTIONS are either simple words of the language ('and,' 'but,' 'if,' &c.), or are appropriations of words from other parts of speech ; 'for,' 'nor,' 'that,' 'before,' 'since,' 'except,' &c. 'Therefore' is a demonstrative adverb with a preposition suffixed. 'Because' is 'by cause.' 'Than' is derived from 'then,' itself an old accusative of the demonstrative pronoun.

Of Classical Suffixes.

20. The greater number of these do not need to be considered in English, except as indicating the words of classical origin. Some of those that are naturalized have been already pointed out. The following also deserve notice : 'fy,' 'ize,' 'ism,' 'ist,' 'ite,' 'ion.'

fy (to make) : 'verify,' 'personify,' 'purify,' 'glorify,' 'Frenchify,' 'terrify.' This is from the Latin.

ize (the same, from the Greek) : 'civilize,' 'colonize,' 'localize,' 'utilize,' 'centralize,' 'Anglicise,' 'Judaize,' 'maximize,' 'sympathize,' 'fraternize.' In such a word as 'baptize,' the termination came to us in the word itself, but many of the others have been made up in the course of English usage ; consequently this is a naturalized ending. We have thus three endings of the same force : 'en' (English), 'fy,' 'ize.' Euphony determines us in our selection. We could not say 'civilen,' 'colonen,' we ought to say (avoiding hybridism) ; 'civilify,' 'naturalify ;' but we prefer, for the sake of sound, 'civilize,' 'naturalize.'

ism (the name of a system ; Greek) : 'Buddhism,' 'fatalism,' 'monachism ;' **ist** (the name of the follower or believer) : 'Buddhist,' 'fatalist,' 'pantheist ;' **ite** (patronymic, and also the member of a sect) : 'Israelite,' 'Hivite,' 'Benthamite,' 'Peelite.'

ion (a form expressing action or an active faculty) : 'perception,' 'conception,' 'imagination,' 'deduction,' 'approbation.' Some of these words express also the result of the action, thereby causing ambiguity on very important questions. Hence the introduction of the forms 'percept,' 'concept,' 'exhibit,' to express the things perceived, conceived, or exhibited, and to save circumlocution.

ana is a naturalized suffix ; as 'Johnsoniana.' It is even used independently : 'a collection of *ana*.'

ation : ' qualification,' ' botheration,' ' mystification,' ' celebration,'. ' cerebration.'

arian : ' latitudinarian.'

In the sciences, as chemistry, classical Suffixes as well as Prefixes are used freely for making new words : ' sulphate,' ' *meta*-phosphor-*ic*.'

To assist in distinguishing words of classical origin, the following more complete list of Latin and Greek suffixes is here given. (The prefixes are given above, sect. 3.)

Derivation of Nouns: (*Latin*) ace (populace), acy (fallacy), ade (cannonade), age (advantage), al (classical), an (publican), ance (entrance), ancy (pliancy), ar (registrar), ary (aviary), aster (poetaster), ate (consulate), bule (vestibule), cle (barnacle), cule (reticule), ee (committee), el (morsel), ence .(cadence), eur (grandeur), ic (caloric), ice (service), ine (famine), ion (region), men (regimen), ment (commandment), or, our (colour), ory (armory), ped (quadruped), sor (sponsor), ure (tonsure), tic (fanatic), tive (captive), tor (doctor), try (poultry), ty (honesty), ule (globule), y (mastery). (*Greek*) ac (zodiac), ad (Iliad), arch (hierarch), ene (Nazarene), cracy (aristocracy), gram (telegram), graph (photograph), ian (physician), ine (iodine), isk (obelisk), ma, m (drama), meter (barometer), pod (tripod), scope (telescope), sis (crisis), sm (chasm), ete (athlete), taph (epitaph).

Derivation of Adjectives: (*Latin*) al (regal), an, ane (Roman), ar (polar), ary (stationary), ent (latent), eous (righteous), esque (picturesque), fic (terrific), ian (plebeian), ic (public), il, ile (fertile), ine (leonine), olent (violent), ory (obligatory), ose (verbose), ive (competitive), ple (simple), que (oblique), sive (persuasive), t (fact), te (innate). (*Greek*) ad (monad), ic (graphic), ical (philosophical), id (mastoid).

Derivation of Verbs: (*Latin*) ate (criminate), eer (domineer), esce (coalesce), ish (cherish), ite (expedite). (*Greek*) ize.

21. Of all the purposes of forming derivatives, none is of more consequence than the signifying of negation, contrariety, or opposition. After expressing a thing, quality, or action, we need to have the means of expressing the absence or negation of the thing. This has been largely provided for in our system of Prefixes and Suffixes, but still not adequately ; and it is useful to know the circumlocutions that are in reserve when these fail us.

The chief prefixes are, ' in,' ' un,' ' non,' ' n,' ' dis,' ' mis,' ' re ;' and the suffix is ' less.' The employment of these is capriciously limited ; as we may see in such words as ' inconsequence,' ' unreason,' which have been suggested, but never adopted.

In some cases we have separate words for the opposite of a meaning. ' Light,' ' dark ;' ' hot,' ' cold ;' ' light,' ' heavy ;' ' hard,' ' soft ;' ' rich,' ' poor ;' ' industrious,' ' idle ;' ' north,' ' south ;' ' pleasure,' ' pain ;' ' action,' ' passion ;' ' clever,' ' stupid ;' ' seeing,' ' blind.'

In technical and scientific language we can prefix ' not.' To signify all colours except white, we may say ' not-white ;' ' me,' ' not-me ;' ' round,' ' not-round.'

The chief circumlocutions are seen in such examples as the following :— ' That was the *very opposite* (or *reverse*) of candour ;' ' that would be *anything but* reasonable ;' ' *very far from* reasonable ;' ' his

conduct showed a *great want (absence)* of selfishness.' These forms are often used to avoid the harshness of the other more direct negative forms : ' to relate disagreeable truths of a neighbour is *far from innocent ;*' so, ' far from pretty ' is softer than ' ugly ;' ' a great want of consideration ' is not so strong as ' inconsiderate.'

COMPOUND WORDS.

22. Compound words are those that are made up of simple words of independent significance ; as ' day-star,' ' sun-beam,' ' free-man,' ' rose-tinted,' ' stout-hearted,' ' commander-in-chief.'

As a general rule the first word qualifies the second. ' Finger-ring ' is a ring for the finger ; ' ring-finger ' is the finger that wears the ring. ' Rose-tree ' is a tree of the kind that grows roses ; a ' tree-rose ' is a rose of the kind that grows on trees. A ' ground-nut ' is a nut growing in the ground ; a ' nut-ground ' is a ground for producing nuts.

A change of accent is usually required to make two words into a compound word. The crow is a ' bláck bírd,' not a ' bláck-bird ;' a ' réd hóuse ' is a house that is *red.* A ' mád hóuse ' would be a family all gone deranged ; but a ' mád-house ' is a house for receiving mad persons.

> Lay thy bow of pearl apart
> And thy *silver shining* quiver.

This is either ' thy shining quiver made of silver ' (sílver shíning), or ' thy quiver shining like silver ' (sílver-shining). Euphony may sometimes interfere with this rule ; as ' monkshood,' ' well-head,' ' hop-pole,' which are accented on both members.

These compound words are often connected with the hyphen. The compound with the hyphen enables us to express a distinction, seen in comparing ' *horse-hair* ' with ' *a horse's hair ;*' the one is the material, without regard to quantity ; the other the hair of one horse.

Composition of Nouns.

23. Nouns are combined with other Nouns.

' Moonlight,' ' handbook,' ' corn-field,' ' coppersmith,' ' rose-bud.' To these we should add ' turning-lathe,' ' drawing-room,' ' riding-whip,' as the words ' turning ' and ' riding ' are gerunds of the verb, and equivalent to nouns. In ' self-love ' we have a pronoun and a noun.

Nouns with Adjectives :

' Redbreast,' ' highway,' ' highland,' ' midday,' ' greensward,' ' goodwill.'

Nouns with Verbs :

' Turncoat,' ' stopgap,' ' singsong,' ' spitfire,' ' daredevil,' ' pickpocket.' In these words the verb governs the noun, and the meaning

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is some person or thing that performs the action indicated. The same meaning is expressed in another class of words by adding 'er' to the compound : 'shipbuilder,' 'peacemaker,' 'talebearer.' By suffixing 'ing' the act is expressed : 'shipbuilding,' &c. A verb preceded by a noun is rare; as 'godsend.'

Nouns with Adverbs :

'Instep,' 'outlaw,' 'onset,' 'forethought,' 'by-word,' 'by-play,' 'out-rider,' 'up-rising,' 'out-going,' 'in-gathering.' These adverbs are to be distinguished from the same words used as prepositions, as will be seen in the following class :—

Nouns with Prepositions :

'Forenoon,' 'afternoon.' In these the noun is under government by the preposition. In 'afterthought,' the meaning of after is adverbial, something 'thought *after.*'

Adverb and Verb :

'Outlay,' 'offset,' 'welcome,' 'thoroughfare.'   Verb preceding : 'cast-away,' 'drawback,' 'run-away.'

Verb and Verb (rare) : 'hear-say,' 'make-believe.'

It is unusual to inflect the qualifying word. Sometimes a genitive case-ending is retained : 'mark-s-man,' 'Thur-s-day,' 'land-s-man,' (sea-man). In 'Jack-o'-lantern' an 'of' is retained.

Composition of Adjectives.

24. Noun and Adjective :

'Sea-green,' 'sun-bright,' 'pitch-dark,' 'heart-whole,' 'child-like.' The noun in most of these instances adds its meaning to or defines the adjective: 'green like the sea,' &c. In 'heart-whole,' 'head-strong,' 'sin-ful,' the noun is the subject of reference : 'whole as regards the heart.'   Numeral and the noun 'fold :' 'twofold.'

Noun and Imperfect Participle :

'Heart-breaking,' 'spirit-stirring,' 'fruit-bearing,' 'truth-telling,' 'all-seeing.'

Noun and Perfect Participle :

'Terror-stricken,' 'moth-eaten,' 'tempest-tossed,' 'woe-begone,' 'sea-borne,' 'lion-hearted,' 'thunder-riven.'

Adverb and Adjective or Participle :

'Well-bred,' 'down-right,' 'over-done,' 'home-grown,' 'high-born,' 'inbred.'

Compounds with the suffix *ed.*

Noun and noun; 'lion-hearted,' 'ox-eyed,' 'shame-faced.'

Adjective and noun: 'able-bodied,' 'sober-minded,' 'long-headed,' 'four-sided.'

Adverb and verb: 'far-fetched,' 'over-charged,' 'well-meant.'

25. Composition of Verbs.

Noun and verb: 'back-bite,' 'brow-beat,' 'way-lay.'

Adjective and verb: 'ful-fill,' 'white-wash,' 'rough-hew.'

Adverb and verb: 'gain-say,' 'fore-tell,' 'cross-question.'

26. Composition of Adverbs.

Noun and noun: 'side-ways,' 'length-ways.'

Noun and adjective: 'sometimes,' 'always,' 'otherwise,' 'knee-deep.'

Adverbs and adverbs: 'thereabout,' 'thenceforward,' 'whereas.'

Adjectives and adverbs: 'somehow,' 'nowhere.'

Complex compounds: 'nevertheless,' 'notwithstanding,' 'more-over.'

27. Prepositions are compounded of one another: 'into,' 'within,' 'without,' 'upon,' 'throughout.'

'But' (both as preposition and as conjunction) is compounded of 'by' (be) and 'out' (like the Scotch phrase 'out by'). Originally it signified close but separate, and its various meanings are in accordance with this.

28. The expressions 'time and tide,' 'might and main,' 'rhyme and reason,' 'fair and square,' 'cut and come again,' are phrases, and not compound words.

There are in the language compounds in disguise, and also simulated compounds.

Compounds in disguise are such as 'daisy' (said to be day's eye), 'vinegar' (vin aigre, sour wine), 'vouchsafe' (vouch us safe), 'biscuit' (bis coctus, *Lat.*).

Simulated compounds are a numerous class; as 'beef-eater,' from 'bœuffetier;' 'sparrow-grass,' from 'asparagus;' 'Billy Ruffian,' from 'Bellerophon;' 'charter-house,' from 'chartreuse' (French); 'humble bee,' from 'bombilus' (Latin), &c.

SYNTAX.

Syntax explains the mode of arranging words in sentences.

The syntax of English is comparatively simple, from the absence of inflections.*

There are three leading processes or principles that regulate the joining together of words into sentences: these are concord, government, and order. The syntax of our language depends principally upon the last; the two first, concord and government, presuppose inflections and terminations, and are wanting in a language according as these are wanting.

Syntax is rendered more simple and intelligible by the analysis of sentences, which ascertains what is common to all sentences, and shows how the different parts are related to each other.

THE ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

1. Every sentence consists of two parts, the Subject and the Predicate: 'gold is precious;' 'gold' (*subj.*) 'is precious' (*pred.*).

For the purpose of explaining the parts of speech, it was necessary at the outset to describe the two principal divisions of the sentence, and the manner of enlarging or extending each of them by the use of qualifying words.

2. Sentences are SIMPLE, COMPLEX, and COMPOUND. A Simple Sentence contains one Subject or Nominative, and one finite Verb: 'the patience of Job is proverbial.' A Complex Sentence, while containing but one principal Subject and one principal Predicate, has two or more

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* Dr. Johnson, in his grammar, dismisses the subject of syntax in a few lines, remarking that 'our language has so little inflection or variety of terminations, that its construction neither requires nor admits many rules.'

finite Verbs : ' the event *happened,* as it was *foretold.*' A Compound Sentence contains two or more principal Sentences : ' the individual dies, but the race endures.'

<div align="center">THE SIMPLE SENTENCE.</div>

3. The Simple Sentence contains one Subject, or Nominative, and one finite Verb.   These may, however, assume enlarged and complicated forms.   The most elementary form is seen in such examples as ' the sun warms,' ' water drowns.'   The more extended forms may be considered as growing out of this.

4. (1.) The primary elements (Subject and Predicate) may have one or more secondary elements or adjuncts tacked on to them ; as ' the (tropical) sun (thoroughly) warms (the ground).'

Here the *subject* is enlarged by the qualifying word ' tropical ;' the *predicate* is enlarged by adding an object,—' the ground,' and by the adverb ' thoroughly.'   This exemplifies the enlarged simple sentence, containing both the primary elements (noun and verb) and the secondary elements (adjective and adverb.)

5. (2.) Both the primary and the secondary elements, as represented by the Noun, Verb, Adjective, and Adverb, may undergo transformations and expansions.

6. The Subject, whose type is the Noun, may be also a Pronoun, or an Infinitive (PARTS OF SPEECH—*Noun*) : ' *he* lives ;' ' *to work* is the lot of men ;' ' *working* is often fatiguing.'

There are two infinitive forms, both taking the place of the noun as the subject or object of a sentence. These forms have so much of the nature of the verb as to be able to take an object and qualifying words, whence it is very common to have an expanded infinitive phrase as the subject of a sentence : ' to hear *a good orator* is rare ;' ' *to work hard* is the fate of many ;' ' to speak *the truth at all times* is reckoned a duty ;' ' *reading much* is not the only way to knowledge.'

The infinitive may have a subject, as well as an object and qualifying words; this is effected by prefixing ' for :' ' *for a prince* to be reduced by villany to my circumstances is calamity enough.' This contains all the parts that could be admitted into a separate sentence.

The subject is still farther transformed by being converted into a clause ; but when this occurs the sentence is not simple, but complex.

The Object, or completion of the Predicate, having

also a Noun for its type, undergoes the same transform-
ations as the Subject: 'the dog follows *him ;*' 'John
likes *working* (to work) ;' 'leave off *shrieking*, and begin
considering ;' 'every one likes *to hear good news.*'

The rule that one verb governs another in the infinitive is merely a
way of saying that an infinitive can be the object of a sentence in
place of a noun, or that one verb can govern another only by con-
verting that other into a noun form: 'I begin to move,' means 'I
begin the act of moving ;' 'to move,' is the same as 'the act of
moving.'

'To' is not necessary to the infinitive : it is not inserted after the
verbs 'have,' 'may,' 'can,' 'shall,' 'will,' 'do,' 'dare,' 'bid,' 'let,'
'make,' 'must,' 'durst,' 'feel,' 'hear,' 'see.' 'To' is also dropped after
the preposition 'but :' 'he did nothing but read.'

**7. The Enlarged Subject or Object may be formed by
(1) an Adjective, (2) a Possessive Case, (3) a Noun in
Apposition, (4) a Phrase made up of a Preposition and a
Noun, (5) a Participial Phrase ; these being the various
means of qualifying or modifying the Noun.**

(1.) The Adjective :   '*much* anxiety shortens life ;'
' we met an *old* soldier.'

This is the regular and usual mode of expressing the attribute of a
noun, whether the subject or the object of a sentence.   We may in-
clude under it the many cases where a noun is used as an adjective:
'*stump* orator,' '*iron* duke,' '*tram*-way,' &c.; and the few cases were
an adverb is so used : 'the church *here*,' &c.*

(2.) A possessive case ; as '*the king's* prerogative ;' '*his*
death.'

Here the possessive acts the part of the adjective by specifying some
individual instance of the thing named by the other noun : 'of all

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* A phrase formed by the infinitive in '*ing*' may sometimes take an adjective :
'*that* (burning the capitol) was a wanton outrage.'   The similar construction, '*the*
sending them the light,' was objected to by Lowth, who considered that there are two
equivalent constructions, and these alone admissible, '(by) sending them,' and '*the*
sending *of* them :' in this last case, 'sending' being a verbal noun.   But these are not
in all cases equivalent : 'he expressed the pleasure he had in hearing the philosopher,'
and 'in the hearing of the philosopher,' have different meanings.

With a verbal noun it is a mistake to omit the article : 'by (the) *observing* of this
rule you will gain your point;' 'at (a or the) *meeting* of council ;' 'by (the) com-
paring of authorities.'   As the prefixing of the article usually implies that the word is
a verbal noun, we are liable to error in omitting the 'of' after it, or rather we make
a total change of the meaning : 'the meeting *of* the council,' and 'the meeting the
council,' are both allowable, but for different significations.   'When the Lord saw it,
he abhorred them, because of *the* provoking *of* his sons and daughters;' 'because of
provoking his sons,' and 'because of *the* provoking his sons,' all convey different
ideas.   In the first, 'provoking' is a participle, in the second, a verbal noun, and in
the third, an infinitive.—Crombie on the English Language, p. 218.

prerogatives, the one here spoken of is the one belonging to the king.'

(3.) A Noun in apposition : ' Havelock, *the hero*, is dead ;' ' and David, *the king*, answered Joab, *the captain of the host*,' &c.

A phrase may be in apposition as well as a noun. ' The rule, *to love thy neighbour as thyself*, comprehends our duty to man ;' ' his proposal *to raise the siege* was approved of by the Government.'

It is a general principle of language, that words placed together are to be understood as modifying each other, if there be nothing indicated to the contrary.

(4.) A Phrase made up of a Preposition and a Noun : ' a man *of letters* ' (a literary man); ' the right *of pasture ;* ' ' a word *in season ;* ' ' the house *by the wood ;* ' ' men *with wives*.'

We may specify a thing by any circumstance of position or relation to other things, which relationship is usually expressed by a preposition : ' the door *on your right hand ;* ' ' the property *for sale ;* ' ' the church *on the hill ;* ' ' the road *to ruin ;* ' ' the battle *of Hastings ;* ' ' the captain *with his men ;* ' ' five *of the seven ;* ' ' the chief *among ten thousand*.' The infinitive being the same as a noun, we may include such cases as ' a desire *to rise*.' The same remark applies to the gerund : ' a house *to let*.'

(5.) A Participial Phrase ; that is, a Participle having an object, or qualified by an Adverb, like a Verb : ' a man *carrying a burden* passed a cow *quietly grazing*.'

The participle sometimes qualifies or restricts the noun as an adjective would do. In such a sentence as ' the minister *having obtained information of the conspiracy*, ordered all those *concerned in it* to be arrested,' the second participle,—' concerned in it,' restricts or defines ' those,' and is therefore a *restrictive* adjunct; but the first,— ' having obtained,' &c., does not define the ' minister,' but supposes him to be defined or ascertained already, and imparts additional information respecting him : it is a contracted form of a compound sentence,—' the minister obtained information, *and* ordered,' &c. It is a *co-ordinating* adjunct.

This mode of contracting a compound sentence exhibits one of the characteristic functions of the participle. The participial phrase depends for its subject and for its power of affirmation on the finite clause. ' Having gained our purpose, we departed,' is the same as ' we gained our purpose, and we departed ;' but in the contraction, the subject of the first clause is omitted, and the form of affirmation dropped. There is a very common error with reference to this construction ; thus, ' having failed in this attempt, no farther trial was made.' Here the participle ' having ' is without a subject, the finite

clause supplying a different subject. The mistake probably arises from confounding the co-ordinating participial adjunct with the participle in the absolute construction: it would be correct to say, ' the attempt having failed, no farther trial,' &c. The participial phrase is then complete in itself.

8. The Subject (or the Object) may be enlarged by a combination of two or more of these modes.

(1.) Instead of the simple adjective, we may have an adjective followed by a phrase of reference or of regimen; as 'a man *sufficient in himself,*' ' anxious for nothing,' ' desirous to please,' 'blameless in his life,' ' careless of appearances.'

The most usual case of this construction is when the noun phrase implies a *reference* to something, or indicates in what point or direction the meaning of the adjective is to be taken; thus ' careless ' is qualified or limited by stating the exact matter that the carelessness applies to : ' careless in his person,' ' of his money,' ' of his life.'

When an adjective seems to govern an infinitive like a verb, it is because of its close alliance to some verb; thus, ' desirous to please,' scarcely differs from ' *desiring* to please,' which is the infinitive or participle (as the case may be) of ' desire.' For the very same reason a noun may seem to have a regimen, as ' *the desire* to please.' These are examples of the great freedom that our language allows in substituting one part of speech for another.

(2.) It is very common to have two or more adjectives qualifying the same subject; as ' the *deep Stygian* recesses,' ' the *old* man *eloquent,*' ' a *good* and *faithful* servant,' ' the *Victoria Hotel* Company, *limited.*' Also the possessive and the adjective may be frequently found conjoined : ' *Wellington's Peninsular* army.'

(3.) The noun of the prepositional phrase may be qualified by an adjective : ' a man *of any sense ;*' ' a pearl *of great price.*' With or without this qualification, the prepositional phrase may be conjoined with an adjective : ' a *grown* man *of sense ;*' ' a *goodly* pearl *of great price ;*' ' a *wary* statesman *in difficult times.*'

(4.) The participial phrase may be combined with other qualifications : ' a *powerful* mind *engaged on great problems.*' Here ' mind ' is restricted both by the adjective and by the participle.

As every noun occurring in a phrase may be the subject of new qualifications, the main subject may be enlarged without any other limit than that of becoming too complicated to be easily understood.

All the attributes that constitute the enlargement of the subject may also be predicated of it, as will be seen presently. Things in the attributive relation to a subject are *assumed* to belong to it, instead of being predicated of it: ' a *valiant* man,' ' a man *of bravery,*' ' a man *having a stout heart,*' &c., suppose or assume the characteristic of bravery as belonging to a man, and distinguishing him from the rest of men. If this cannot be assumed, and needs to be asserted, we must predicate it; as ' he *is* valiant, is a man of bravery, a man of stout heart,' &c.

9. The Predicate may be a single Verb, in which case it is called *simple ;* as ' the dog *runs,*' ' the sky *brightens.*' The Predicate is called *complex* when it is

made up of a Verb of incomplete Predication and its complement : 'the dog *is running ;*' 'the sky *grows clear ;*' 'he *seemed honest.*'

The verb 'be,' called the *copula,* is by pre-eminence the verb of incomplete predication. Except in the case where it has its proper meaning of *existence,* this verb always requires some subject or attribute joined to it to make a complete predicate : 'Pitt was a *statesman*' (noun) ; 'the sky is *blue*' (adjective) ; 'he is *here*' (adverb) ; 'that was *of no consequence*' (phrase).

The other verbs of incomplete predication are the *intransitive* verbs,—'become,' 'get,' 'grow,' 'fall,' 'live,' 'die,' 'seem,' 'can,' 'do,' 'shall,' 'will,' &c., and the *transitive* verbs,—'make,' 'call,' 'deem,' 'think,' 'consider,' 'choose,' 'elect,' 'constitute,' 'appoint,' &c. : 'Napoleon *became first consul ;*' 'he *got better ;*' 'I *fell asleep ;*' 'he *grows a man ;*' 'he *grows tall ;*' 'he *seemed clever ;*' 'I *can write ;*' 'you *do well.*'

The transitive verbs of incomplete predication have two constructions, active and passive. In the passive voice they closely resemble the intransitive ; as 'he was *made,* chosen, elected, appointed, constituted, declared, *first consul ;*' 'he is *thought,* deemed, considered, *a man of ability.*'

With intransitive verbs, and also with transitive verbs used passively, the completion of the predicate is something affirmed of the *subject* of the sentence : 'he *seemed a god.*' 'the wine *tastes sour ;*' 'the rope is *made fast.*' Hence the predicate, if a noun or adjective, agrees in case with the subject ; in other words, is considered to be in the nominative.

This remark, however, is of very little importance in the English language, since, in the absence of noun inflections, it can apply only to the pronouns, as 'I am *he.*' Even as regards the pronouns, the expression 'It is I,' has been called in question by some grammarians, as not in accordance with the genius of our language.

When the verb is transitive, and in the active voice, the complement of the predicate is an attribute of the *object* of the verb ; as 'they elected him *captain,*' 'he left me *behind,*' 'they made the house *secure.*' When the complement is a verb in the infinitive (he can *write*), the object is attached to this infinitive : 'he can write *French.*'

10. The form of Negation is not to be looked upon as *enlarging* the Predicate : 'the sun does *not* shine ;' 'he laughs *not ;*' 'the course is *inexpedient.*'

Every declaratory sentence either affirms or denies, and the denial is not more complicated than the affirmation. In other words, the negative 'not' is considered a part of the predicate rather than an adverbial enlargement of it : 'he laughs *merrily*' is an enlargement of the predicative, not so 'he does *not* laugh.'

11. The Predicate is enlarged by means of an object :

' Cæsar conquered *Gaul ;* ' ' he defies *opposition ;* ' ' they con-
stituted *me* umpire.'

It has already been seen that the object is of the same nature as
the subject. It may be a noun, pronoun, or an infinitive ; it may be
enlarged by an adjective, a possessive case, a noun in apposition, a
phrase made up of a preposition and noun, a participial phrase.

12. The Predicate is further enlarged by an Adverb,
or an Adverbial phrase : ' he rose *early ;* ' ' she sings *well ;* '
' they returned *in good order.*' These are called Adverbial
Adjuncts of the Predicate.

An adverb or adverbial phrase, as has been seen, expresses any
circumstance of place, time, degree, certainty or uncertainty, cause,
instrument, manner, connected with the action : ' we met *in the
town ;* ' ' it happened *long ago ;* ' ' it concerns us *little ;* ' ' *assuredly* you
will find it so ;' ' he died *of fever ;* ' ' the city was taken *by stratagem ;* '
' he cried *with a loud voice ;* ' ' the brook murmured *pleasantly ;* ' ' he
was *naturally* (by nature) *kind.*'

13. The Adverbial phrase may be a Noun, a Preposi-
tion and a Noun, a Participle, a Participial Phrase, an
Infinitive, or a Gerund.

(1.) A Noun : ' we walked *a mile ;* ' ' it weighs *a pound ;* '
' they ran *a race.*'

(2.) A Preposition and Noun : ' he went *of necessity ;* '
' they watched *by day* and *by night.*'

The adverbial adjunct of Preposition and Noun is
sometimes spoken of as the *indirect object :* ' he gave
money *to the poor ;* ' ' they accused him *of conspiracy,* and
condemned him *to a fine.*'

In these examples the verb has a direct object which it governs,
—' gave *money,*' ' accused *him,*' ' condemned *him,*'—and what seems
a second object required to specify the action completely. But
these indirect objects may also be viewed in the light of adverbial
adjuncts, or as qualifying the action of the verb. When we say ' they
condemned him *to a fine,*' we indicate by these words something
regarding the *manner* of his condemnation.

In such constructions as ' they saluted him *Emperor,*' some gram-
marians consider ' emperor ' (the completion of the predicate) as a
second or indirect object.

(3.) A Noun qualified by some adjunct : ' he rose *his
height ;* ' ' we arrived *last night ;* ' ' we saw a pyramid *one
hundred feet in height ;* ' ' let me die *the death of the righteous.*'

The noun in these constructions is in the objective case. In some
instances there is an ellipsis of a preposition : ' we arrived *on,* or

during last night.' Also in the case of the simple noun used adverbially,—'they ran *a race*,' the noun is in the objective. In the expression 'let me die *the death of the righteous*,' the meaning is 'after the *manner* that the righteous die,' which is obviously an adverbial signification.

(4.) A Participle, or a Participial Phrase : 'they went along *singing ;*' 'he stood *gazing on the scene below*.'

In many instances this adjunct may also be considered as a separate clause contracted into a participial phrase : 'they went along, *and sang* (as they went) ;' 'he stood, *and gazed*.' For it will be seen that the participle is in apposition with the *nominative* to the verb : 'they—singing,' 'he—gazing.'

When the Participle agrees with a Noun different from the Nominative of the Verb, the Phrase is said to be in the Nominative Absolute : '*the sun having risen*, we commenced our journey ;' '*this said*, he sat down.'

The absolute case, or the case of a detached participial clause, differs in different languages, but grammarians have for the most part agreed that in English it is the nominative ; accordingly, the following are deemed correct constructions :—

> Then I shall be no more ;
> And Adam wedded to another Eve,
> Shall live with her enjoying : *I extinct*.—*Milton.*

> I shall not lag behind, nor err
> The way, *thou leading*.—*Milton.*

> On these and kindred thoughts intent I lay
> In silence musing by my comrade's side,
> *He also silent.*— *Wordsworth.*

Hence it is common to regard as wrong the expression of Tillotson,—'he made as wise and true proverbs as anybody else has done since, *him* only excepted, who,' &c.*

In these lines of Cowper we have an adverbial adjunct made up of two participial phrases used absolutely :—

> Then, as a gallant bark from Albion's coast
> (The *storms* all weather'd and the *ocean* cross'd)
> Shoots into port, &c.

The following has been erroneously given as an example of the absolute construction : 'and finding disciples, we tarried there seven days.'

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* Mr. Ernest Adams dissents from grammarians generally on this subject, and maintains that the *dative* ought to be the absolute case in English, as it was in the Anglo-Saxon. He properly remarks that the '*meaning* conveyed by these absolute words cannot be expressed by a true *nominative*.' In the classical languages the absolute case is not the nominative. Dr. Latham is of the same opinion. In all probability, the nominative was fixed upon from some random instances, without any deliberate consideration. As it is only in the pronouns that the case is seen, and as examples of both constructions are to be found in good writers, there is some ground for contending that usage leaves the matter open.

The Substantive in the Participial construction is sometimes omitted, and then the Participle is used *impersonally* : '*granting* this to be true, what is to be inferred from it ?'

There might seem to be here an omission of 'I,' or 'we,'—'I granting,' &c.; but as regards the common expression '*considering* all these things,' &c., a different view is taken. In old English the words 'being' and 'considered' often introduced absolute phrases. 'Natheless, *considered* his distresse'—(*Chaucer*) ; that is, 'his distress considered,' 'all things considered.' In modern English the active participle has been substituted for the passive, either from overlooking the true construction, or from the disposition to use the active participle with a passive meaning. Hence we may suppose that the expression 'granting this to be true,' is an equivalent of 'this granted.'

'Notwithstanding,' 'pending,' 'during,' which seem to govern a noun in the manner of a preposition, are in reality absolute constructions : '*notwithstanding our losses* we shall persevere ;' 'during the day ;' 'pending the trial.' The natural order would be 'our losses notwithstanding,' 'the day during, or continuing,' 'the trial pending ;' and in the instance of 'notwithstanding,' this order is not uncommon.

'Except' is a remnant of the Latin ablative absolute (*ea excepta*): '*except this*,' or '*this excepted*.' 'Save' was also an ablative absolute.

The phrase 'generally speaking,' which is an absolute construction, may be best explained by supposing an omission of the substantive or pronoun ('I,' 'we,' or 'one ').

(5.) An Infinitive or a Gerund : 'he is a fool *to throw away such a chance*' (infinitive) ; 'the courtier stoops *to rise*' (gerund).

The infinitive is so closely allied to the noun as to act the part of a noun-phrase when preceded, as it usually is, by the preposition 'to.' 'He is a fool,' and the manner or circumstance or explanation of his being so is 'the throwing away of the chance.'

The gerund is known from its expressing end, or purpose : 'What went ye *to see* ?' Hence it is an adverbial adjunct of purpose or intention when following another verb : 'he went abroad *to make* his fortune.'

The adverbial adjunct may be a clause, in which case the sentence is no longer simple, but complex.

THE COMPLEX SENTENCE.

14. A Complex Sentence, while consisting of one principal Subject and Predicate, contains two or more finite Verbs : 'I *saw* that something *was* wrong ;' 'no one can say how the thing happened.'

The part containing the principal Subject and Predicate is called the principal clause; the other part, the Subordinate Clause, or Clauses: ' I saw ' (principal) ' that something was wrong ' (subordinate).

We may have a plurality of subordinate clauses in the same relation to the principal; as ' we were told *that the messenger had just arrived, and had seen the general.*' At other times the subordination is carried to the second or even a higher degree; as ' I know not by *what fate it comes* (1) *that he is always against me* (2).'

15. Subordinate Clauses are of three kinds, according as they are the representatives of the Noun, of the Adjective, or of the Adverb. They are thus divided into Noun Clauses, Adjective Clauses, and Adverbial Clauses.

It has been seen that among the substitutes for the noun is included a Clause, and so for the adjective and for the adverb.

The Noun Clause.

16. The Noun Clause occupies the place of the Noun, and may be the subject or object of the Principal Clause; as ' *that he had been rash* was apparent to all;' ' I saw *that the waters had risen ;*' ' I dreamt *that I dwelt in marble halls.*'

The noun clause is, as it were, the expansion or equivalent of a noun or noun phrase: ' *his rashness* was apparent ;' ' I saw *the rise* of the waters.' ' I wish *the happiness of all men* ' (*that* all men should be happy).

The Noun Clause may be in apposition to some other Noun; as ' the idea *that any one should challenge his right* had never crossed his mind.'

It may be the completion of the Predicate : ' the consequence was *that we achieved a victory.*'

When a noun clause is the subject of a sentence it is very common to use the word ' it ' as the grammatical subject of the principal verb, and to place the noun clause at the end : ' *it* is certain *that the river may be crossed.*' The noun clause is then in apposition to ' it.'

The objective relation, which belongs properly to verbs, may be sustained also by nouns and adjectives, hence these are sometimes followed by noun clauses ;* thus, ' there is no *proof that he did this ;*' ' I am *sure that this is so ;*' ' I do this in the *hope that he will deserve it.*' But, as already remarked (p. 152 , these nouns and adjectives have the full force and meaning of verbs: they are the same as, ' it is not *proved* that he did this ;' ' I *believe* that this is so ;' ' I do this because *I hope* that he will deserve it.'

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* Mason, p. 111.

17. Noun Clauses are introduced by 'That,' or by some interrogative word; as 'what,' 'when,' 'whence,' 'how,' 'why,' &c.

'That' is the most usual connective. Properly speaking it is the demonstrative 'that,' followed by a clause instead of a noun: 'I know *that*'—viz., a certain fact or circumstance affirmed in the noun clause —'we shall soon arrive.'

The conjunction is frequently omitted: 'I fear *we shall be late;*' 'he said *he would do it forthwith.*'

The verb 'doubt,' preceded by 'not,' is sometimes followed by 'but that:' 'I do not doubt *but that* we shall know the whole.' The 'but' in this case is, however, unnecessary and inelegant.

The interrogative connectives are seen in the following examples: '*how* it happened is a mystery;' 'you know *who* I am, and *where* I came from;' 'we cannot say *how* America was first inhabited;' 'tell me *where* I shall find the master;' 'it is uncertain *whether* he will come;' 'science teaches us *why* the fall of the mercury portends rain;' 'he asked me *how* old I was;' '*whoever* gives information will be rewarded.'

In such cases the subordinate clause is really a question which the principal clause embodies in some form or other. This construction is sometimes called the *indirect question.*

It is interesting to note the contraction of these clauses into infinitive phrases: 'they knew not *where to go,* what to do, who to look to, how to act, when to begin;' 'how not to do it;' 'I believe the man (to be) *guilty;*' 'he denied *having used that expression*' (Infin. in *ing*).

Instead of the interrogative 'whether,' we find the conjunction 'if' sometimes employed: 'he asked *if* that was my opinion.' Being against analogy, and also uncalled for, this practice should not be followed.

The Adjective Clause.

18. When a clause limits or defines a Noun or Pronoun, it is of the nature of an Adjective: 'men *that are selfish* (*selfish* men) never win our esteem;' 'I remember the place *that he occupied* (the-by-him-occupied place).' Hence these are called Adjective Clauses.

An Adjective Clause may be found in any place of the sentence where a Noun may occur for an Adjective to qualify.

1. With the subject: 'the rains *that have just fallen* will do much good;' 'joy *that is noisy and intemperate* is of short duration;' 'he *that sows* will reap.'

2. With the object: 'we met the man *that we had seen in the morning;*' 'I love *them that love me.*'

3. In adverbial adjuncts: 'in the day *that thou eatest thereof,* thou shalt die.'

19. The Adjective Clause, being by its nature restrictive, should be introduced by the restricting relative 'that,' or its equivalents, rather than by 'who' or 'which,' the relatives more properly adapted for co-ordination.   'The man *that* is wise' (meaning the same as 'the *wise* man') is preferable to 'the man who is wise.'

'The house *that* Jack built,' 'any one *that* chooses to inquire,' 'I want a man *that* will share my burdens,' are constructions with the adjective clause, and are best introduced by 'that.' The equivalents of 'that' are 'such as,' 'when,' and 'where,' with its compounds 'whereof,' &c. 'Where' is perhaps equally admissible for restriction and for co-ordination; but its compounds are restrictive rather than co-ordinating : 'a horse *such as* you want is not easily to be found;' 'he came at the time *when* I expected him;' 'the son of man had not a place *where* to lay his head;' 'the point *wherein* you are mistaken is this;' 'I know a bank *whereon* the wild thyme grows.'

We have also seen that participial apposition is sometimes restrictive : 'men *destined to mould their age* are first moulded on it.' Being not uniformly so applied, this construction is liable to ambiguity; but on noticing that the subject is of itself vague and undetermined, as in this case (men), we are prepared for regarding the accompanying phrase as restrictive. When, on the other hand, the subject is sufficiently defined, we then look upon the participial accompaniment as adding new facts; in other words, as a co-ordinating phrase. This consideration, and the context generally, are all that we have to guide us in interpreting the meaning of the relatives 'who' and 'which' in modern English style, where they are used in both the senses now mentioned.

When the relative is in the objective case it is often omitted : 'I have found the book (that) you want.' We may also say (colloquially) 'this is all I have.' The omission in the nominative case leads to an ungrammatical construction (p. 171, § 64).

Some attention is necessary to distinguish adjective clauses preceded by 'who,' 'what,' 'when,' 'where,' 'wherein,' from noun clauses expressing the indirect question : 'tell me where he lives' (noun clause) ; 'this is the place where he lives' (adjective clause). The adjective clause must always have a substantive which it qualifies.

The adjective clause may in certain cases be contracted into an infinitive phrase, thereby becoming more terse : 'the son of man had nowhere to lay his head' (no place *that he might lay his head in*).

The Adverbial Clause.

20. An Adverbial Clause is the equivalent of an Adverb : 'he went away *after the sun had risen*' (after sunrise).

Adverbial clauses form the greater number of subordinate clauses, and may be divided into as many classes as adverbs, and, like them, may qualify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs.

(1.) Place : ' we remain *where we are ;*' ' *wherever you go* I will go.'

Such clauses are introduced by the relative adverbs of place : ' where,' ' whither,' ' whence,' ' wherever,' ' wheresoever,' &c.   These adverbs both relate the dependent clause to the principal, and also qualify the verb of the dependent clause. Thus, in the expression ' it stands *where it was,*' ' where ' connects ' it was' with ' it stands.' and also qualifies ' it was' by an adverb of place (there): ' it was *there,* and it stands there still.'

(2.) Time : ' he wrote *as soon as the news arrived ;*' ' we left *while he was speaking ;*' ' you may go there *as often as you please.*'

Adverbial clauses of time are introduced by the relative adverbs of time,—' when,' ' while,' ' whenever,' and the conjunctions of time.— ' before,' ' after,' ' since,' ' ere,' ' until,' ' as soon as,' ' no sooner than,' ' just when,' ' the moment that,' &c.

(3.) Degree : ' the sea is *as* deep *as the mountains are high ;*' ' the result was greater *than I anticipated ;*' ' *the more you have, the more* you want.'

There is always some expression denoting comparison in clauses of degree.   They are introduced by ' than,' ' as,' ' the.' They are attached to adjectives and adverbs rather than to verbs ; the reason being that degree applies more properly to *qualities* than to actions : ' he is *stronger than I am ;*' ' he behaves as *well* as was anticipated.'

These adverbial clauses of degree undergo the peculiar ellipsis seen in such examples as ' he is as rich as Crœsus (is rich) ;' ' he works harder than ever (he worked hard).'

(4.) Certainty or Uncertainty : ' *as sure as I speak,* you will repent of this.'   Here we have merely the phrase-ology of *degree* applied to assurance, doubt, or denial.

(5.) Cause or Reason : ' the garrison surrendered, *because their provisions failed.*'

These clauses are introduced by the conjunctions ' because,' ' as,' ' since.'

We may also include under this head the relation of Condition, intro-duced by ' if,' ' unless,' ' except,' ' though,' ' however,' &c. : ' we shall reap *if we faint not ;*' ' *though he slay me, yet* will I trust in him ;' ' *however you may try,* you will not gain your end.'   In sentences con-taining a condition, the clause expressing the consequence is the prin-cipal clause, and the clause expressing the condition, supposition, or concession is the subordinate clause : ' I will go (*principal*) if it should rain Duke Georges for nine days' (*subordinate*).

Consequence is expressed by ' so that : ' ' a storm arose, *so that* we could not leave the harbour.' For signifying end or purpose, ' that,' ' in order that,' are employed.

(6.) Manner in general. Among the relations not included in the foregoing heads are likeness, unlikeness, and various unclassifiable modes of action : ' he did as he was told.'

' Manner ' is often expressed by an adverbial adjunct containing an adjective clause ; as ' train up a child in the way *that it should go.*' Here the clause ' that it should go ' qualifies the noun ' way,' and is not an adverbial clause, though occurring in an adverbial adjunct. The words ' mode,' ' manner,' &c., occur in the same construction. In the sentence ' we should have arrived sooner, but *that we met with an accident,*' the subordinate clause is considered to be a noun clause, governed by ' but ' as a preposition ; the entire expression following ' arrived ' being of the nature of an adverbial adjunct.

21. The Adverbial Clause is contracted by omitting the Verb, or by changing it into a Participle : ' *while* (I am) *on this part of the subject,* I may remark ;' ' *riding* (as we rode) *through the wood,* we met an old man; ' ' *on reviewing the whole case,* I am still of the same opinion.'

THE COMPOUND SENTENCE.

22. A Compound Sentence contains two or more Co-ordinate Sentences united : ' the sun rose, and the mists disappeared ;' ' he came, but we did not see him ;' ' he was there, else I should not have seen him.'

In these examples the separate clauses are noways dependent on each other. Either assertion might have been made alone ; we might have said ' the sun rose,' or ' the mists disappeared,' separately, without incompleteness of sense ; whereas we could not break up a complex sentence into clauses with independent meaning : ' I will, if I can.' It is true, that when assertions are coupled together in the same period, there is an intention that they should be thought of together, but still they are not such that the one is dependent on the other for a complete meaning.

The co-ordinating conjunctions (PARTS OF SPEECH—*Conjunction*) are so called because they unite co-ordinating clauses.

Contracted Sentences.

23. When the Co-ordinate Clauses of a Compound Sentence have the same Subject, the same Predicate, or any other part in common, we may avoid repeating the common part and thereby shorten or contract the expression of the sentence ; as ' the sun gives light and (the sun gives) heat ;' ' either you (must go) or I must go.'

M

One subject may have two or more Predicates, as in the first example now given.   One predicate may have a plurality of Subjects ; as 'Hannibal and Cæsar were great generals.'

There may be a plurality of Objects; as 'whosoever shall leave houses and lands for my sake.' The Adverbial adjunct of the predicate may be the common part : 'he advances slowly, but surely.'

Often the common part is a Subordinate Clause : 'the evil that men do lives after them ; the good (that men do) is often interred with their bones ;' 'he died glorious, though (he died) unfortunate.'

The cumulative conjunction 'and' does not always indicate a compound sentence, as there are cases where it joins words or phrases without joining assertions (PARTS OF SPEECH—*Conjunction*).   But the alternative conjunction 'or,' can couple only clauses.   When we say 'he drove a carriage and pair,' 'carriage and pair' makes but one object ; but the use of 'or' excludes a combination of this kind : 'bring either a carriage *or* a saddle horse' is a contracted sentence.

In co-ordinate contracted sentences the parts joined by the conjunction must stand in the same relation to the common part.   'I add no more, and believe me yours truly' is an irregular construction, for the conjunction couples a verb in the indicative—'add,' with another in the imperative—'believe,' and the contracted subject—'I,' is not the subject of both verbs.

The following are irregular contractions : —

'This dedication may serve for almost any book that *has, is,* or *shall be* published ;' 'has been, is, or shall be, published.' 'There are principles in man which *ever have,* and *ever will* incline him to this offence ;' 'ever have inclined, and ever will incline.'

When clauses are placed side by side without a conjunction expressed, or other grammatical link (as a relative pronoun, or a relative adverb), they are sometimes termed '*collateral* ;' as 'I came, I saw, I conquered ;' 'this is the way ; that road goes nowhere ;' 'I believed, therefore have I spoken.'   In such constructions a certain rhetorical effect is produced by the ellipsis of the conjunctions.

EXAMPLES OF ANALYSIS.

SIMPLE SENTENCES.

24. In analyzing Simple Sentences the manner of proceeding is as follows :—

I. Set down the subject of the sentence.

II. Set down the enlargement, or attributive adjuncts of the subject.

III. Give the predicate verb.   If this is a verb of incomplete predication, state the complement also.

IV. When the predicate is a transitive verb, state the object.

V. Set down the enlargement, or attributive adjuncts of the object.

VI. Give the adverbial adjuncts of the predicate.

25. Example :—

> 'Night, sable goddess, from her ebon throne,
> In rayless majesty, now stretches forth
> Her leaden sceptre, o'er a slumbering world.'

I. *Subject,* 'night.'

II. *Attributive adjunct of subject, noun in apposition,* 'sable goddess.'

III. *Predicate,* 'stretches forth.'

IV. *Object,* 'sceptre.'

V. *Attributive adjuncts of object,* { 1. *Possessive adjective,* 'her.' 2. *Adjective,* 'leaden.' }

VI. *Adverbial adjuncts of predicate,* { 1. 'o'er a slumbering world.' 2. 'from her ebon throne.' 3. 'in rayless majesty.' 4. 'now.' }

26. 'The neglect to lay down in distinct terms the opposition between the true and the false, has been the occasion of the generally unintelligible character of metaphysics.'

I. *Subject,* 'neglect.'

II. *Attributive adjuncts of subject,* { 1. 'the.' 2. 'to lay down in distinct terms the opposition between the true and the false.' }

III. *Predicate,* { 1. *Verb of incomplete predication,* 'has been.' 2. *Complement of predicate,* 'the occasion.' }

VI. *Adverbial adjunct of complement of predicate,* { 'of the generally unintelligible character of metaphysics.' }

The adjuncts both of the subject and of the predicate contain a succession of subordinate parts, which might be specified in detail. Thus, 'to lay down,' is the object of the noun 'neglect;' 'in distinct terms,' adverbial adjunct of the verb 'to lay down;' 'the (attribute to) opposition,' object of 'to lay down;' 'between the true and the false,' prepositional phrase forming an adjunct to 'opposition.' So in the adjunct of the noun (complement) of the predicate : 'of the generally unintelligible character,' prepositional phrase qualifying 'occasion' (capable of being itself analyzed farther); 'of metaphysics,' prepositional phrase qualifying character.

27. 'Having first procured guides, we began our ascent of the mountain.'

I. *Subject*, ' We.'
II. *Attributive adjunct* { *(Participial phrase of co-ordination)*
    of subject,   {   ' having first procured guides.'
III. *Predicate*, ' began.'
IV. *Object*, ' ascent.'
V. *Attributive adjuncts* { 1. *Adjective*, ' our.'
    of object,   { 2. *Prepositional phrase*, ' of the moun-
                            tain.'

The attributive adjunct of the subject here is a co-ordinating clause contracted into the participial apposition phrase, ' having first procured guides,' which might be farther analyzed into verb, object, and adverb.

28. ' There is a pleasure in being alone after the excitement of much society.'

I. *Subject*, ' pleasure.'
II. *Adjuncts of subject,* { 1. *Article*, ' a.'
                          { 2. *Participial phrase*, ' in being alone.'
III. *Predicate*, ' is ' (exists).
VI. *Adverbial adjuncts* { 1. ' there.'
    of predicate,   { 2. ' after the excitement of much so-
                          ciety.'

This example is introduced to show how we should analyze our idiomatic phrase, ' there is,' employed to give a more emphatic assertion of existence than the parts of the verb ' be ' standing alone can give.

' He gave me a letter to read.'
I. *Subject*, ' he.'
III. *Predicate*, ' gave.'
IV. *Object of verb*, ' letter.'
V. *Attributive adjunct of object*, ' a.'
VI. *Adverbial adjuncts* { 1. ' me ' (*i. e.*, ' to me ').
    of predicate,   { 2. ' to read,' (gerund).
29. ' It is vain to pretend ignorance of the fact.'
I. *Subject*, ' it.'
III. *Predicate,* { *Verb of incomplete predication*, ' is.'
                   { *Complement of predicate*, ' vain.'
VI. *Adverbial adjunct of complement of predicate*, ' to pretend igno-rance of the fact.'
30. ' Who are you ?'
I. *Subject*, ' you.'
III. *Predicate,* { *Verb of incomplete predication*, ' are.'
                   { *Complement of predicate*, ' who.'

COMPLEX SENTENCES.

31. These are to be analyzed in the first instance as if each subordinate clause were a single word or phrase.

The subordinate clauses are then to be analyzed separately.

<center>Examples containing Noun Clauses:—</center>

32. 'That he committed the fault, could be judged from his looks.'
I. *Subject, noun clause,* 'that he committed the fault.' (*a*)

III. *Predicate,* { *Verb of incomplete predication,* 'could be.' *Complement of predicate,* 'judged.'

VI. *Adverbial adjunct of predicate,* 'from his looks.'

<center>(Analysis of *a*.)</center>

I. *Subject,* 'he.'
III. *Predicate,* 'committed.'
IV. *Object,* 'fault.'
V. *Attributive adjunct of object,* 'the.'
The conjunction 'that' does not enter into the construction of the dependent clause.

33. 'I told him, that we should be there.'
I. *Subject,* 'I.'
III. *Predicate,* 'told.'
IV. *Object, noun clause,* 'that we should be there.' (*a*)
VI. *Adverbial adjunct of predicate,* 'him.'

<center>(Analysis of *a*.)</center>

I. *Subject,* 'we.'

III. *Predicate,* { *Verb of incomplete predication,* 'should be.' *Complement of predicate,* 'there.'

In these constructions the practice has been to term 'him' the indirect object of the verb, but we may also regard it as an adverbial word indicating a circumstance connected with the act of telling. It is important to compare this example with the following :—

34. 'I strongly warned him that disaster would follow such perversity.'
I. *Subject,* 'I.'

III. *Predicate,* { *Verb of incomplete predication,* 'warned.' *Complement of predicate, noun clause,* 'that disaster would follow such perversity.'

IV. *Object of verb,* 'him.'
VI. *Adverbial adjunct of predicate,* 'strongly.'
Here 'him' is the *direct* object of 'warned.' We might say, 'I *told* the fact that we should be there;' but not 'I *warned* the fact that disaster should follow.' Hence in the one case the noun clause is the real object of the verb; in the other case it is not the object, and must be considered a part of the predicate.

35. 'It is singular that you should make that mistake.'
I. *Subject,* 'it.'
II. *Attributive adjunct of subject, noun clause in apposition,* 'that you should make that mistake.' (*a*)

III. *Predicate,* { *Verb of incomplete predication,* 'is.' *Complement of predicate,* 'singular.'

<center>(Analysis of a.)</center>

I. *Subject*, 'you.'
III. *Predicate*, 'should make.'
IV. *Object*, 'mistake.'
V. *Attributive adjunct of object*, 'that.'

36. 'Tell me how you are.'
I. *Subject*, 'you' (understood).
III. *Predicate*, 'tell.'
IV. *Object, noun clause*, 'how you are.' (*a*)
VI. *Adverbial adjunct of predicate*, 'me.'

<center>(Analysis of a.)</center>

I. *Subject*, 'you.'

III. *Predicate*, { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'are.'
  { *Complement of predicate*, 'how.'

37. 'I wish to know where you live.'
I. *Subject*, 'I.'
III. *Predicate*, 'wish.'
IV. (1) *Object of predicate, infinitive*, 'to know.'
IV. (2) *Object of dependent infinitive, noun clause*, 'where you live.' (*a*)

<center>(Analysis of a.)</center>

I. *Subject*, 'you.'
III. *Predicate*, 'live.'
VI. *Adverbial adjunct of predicate*, 'where.'

<center>*Examples containing Adjective Clauses :—*</center>

38. 'The hill that you see in the distance commands a fine prospect.'
I. *Subject*, 'hill.'

II. *Attributive adjuncts* { 1. *Article*, 'the.'
    of the subject, { 2. *Adjective clause*, 'that you see in the
        distance.' (*a*)

III. *Predicate*, 'commands.'
IV. *Object*, 'prospect.'
V. *Attributive adjuncts* { 1. *Article*, 'a.'
    of object, { 2. *Adjective*, 'fine.'

<center>(Analysis of a.)</center>

I. *Subject*, 'you.'
III. *Predicate*, 'see.'
VI. *Adverbial adjunct of predicate*, 'in the distance.'

39. 'Who was it that told you?'
I. *Subject*, 'it.'
II. *Attributive adjunct of subject, adjective clause*, 'that told you.'

III. *Predicate*, { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'was.'
  { *Complement of predicate*, 'who.'

40. 'We saw the place where the Jacobite standard was raised.'
Here 'place' is qualified by the adjective clause 'where the Jacobite standard was raised,' which is analyzed thus:—

I. *Subject*, 'standard.'
II. *Attributive adjuncts* { 1. *Article*, 'the.'
    of subject, { 2. *Adjective*, 'Jacobite.'
III. *Predicate*, 'was raised.'
VI. *Adverbial adjunct of predicate*, 'where' (and *there*).

Examples containing Adverbial Clauses :—

41. 'When I look upon the tombs of the great, every emotion of envy dies in me.'

I. *Subject*, 'emotion.'

II. *Adjuncts of subject*, { 1. 'every.'
      { 2. 'of envy.'

III. *Predicate*, 'dies.'

VI. *Adverbial adjuncts* { 1. 'in me.'
    of predicate,   { 2. *Adverbial clause*, 'when I look upon
               the tombs of the great.' (*a*)

(Analysis of *a*.)

I. *Subject*, 'I.'
III. *Predicate*, 'look upon.'
IV. *Object*, 'tombs.'

V. *Adjuncts of object*, { 1. 'the.'
         { 2. 'of the great.'

VI. *Adverbial adjunct of predicate*, 'when' (and *then*).

42. 'He is proud that he is noble.'
Principal clause, 'he is proud.'
Subordinate adverbial clause, '(that) he is noble.'
The expression 'that he is noble' expresses the reason, the 'why,' of his being proud ('because' might have been used instead), and is therefore an adverbial clause.

43. 'He ran so fast that I could not overtake him.'
Principal clause, 'he ran so fast.'
Subordinate adverbial clause (attached to the adverb 'so,' which it modifies or defines), 'that I could not overtake him.'
I. *Subject*, 'he.'
III. *Predicate*, 'ran.'
VI. *Adverbial adjunct of predicate*, 'so fast that I could not overtake him.' (*a*)

(Analysis of *a*.)

I. *Subject*, 'I.'

III. *Predicate*, { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'could not.'
         { *Complement of predicate*, 'overtake.'

IV. *Object*, 'him.'
VI. *Adverbial adjunct of predicate*, 'that.'
'That' here is not a conjunction, but the equivalent of an adverb; 'he ran so fast, and *so*, or, *by that*, I could not overtake him.'

44. This example may be compared with the following :—'He spoke loud, that I might hear him.'
Principal clause, 'he spoke loud.'
Subordinate adverbial clause, 'that I might hear him.'

In this case 'that' is still an adverb qualifying the verb of the subordinate clause; it is equal to 'so as,' and states the circumstance, manner, or end of my hearing him.

If we employ 'in order that' as the connective, the case is different; the phrase 'that I might hear him' is then a noun clause, qualifying 'order.' (Mason, art. 534.)

45. 'The sea is as deep as the mountains are high.'

Principal clause, 'the sea is as deep.'

Subordinate adverbial clause, 'as the mountains are high.'

I. *Subject (with adjunct)*, 'the sea.'

III. *Predicate*,   { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'is.'
                      { *Complement of predicate*, 'deep.'

VI. *Adverbial adjunct* of complement of predicate, 'as'—'as the mountains are high.' (*a*)

(Analysis of *a*.)

I. *Subject*, 'the mountains.'

III. *Predicate*,   { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'are.'
                      { *Complement of predicate*, 'high.'

VI. *Adverbial adjunct* of the complement, relative adverb, 'as.'

46. In adverbial clauses introduced by the subordinating conjunctions 'if,' 'though,' 'because,' 'that,' &c., the conjunction does not enter into the construction of the clause. It is the adverbial conjunctions, 'when,' 'where,' 'whatever,' 'wherever,' that are considered as qualifying the subordinate clause introduced by them.

47. 'We must not think the life of a man begins when he can feed himself.' Resolved as follows :—

Principal clause, 'We must not think.' (A)

Subordinate noun clause, '(that) the life of a man begins.' (*a*)

Adverbial clause subordinate to (*a*), 'when he can feed himself.' (*a²*)

Here we have subordination of the second degree, and the whole may be symbolically expressed $(A + a + a^2)$.

COMPOUND SENTENCES.

48. The Co-ordinate Sentences are to be analyzed separately, and the link of connection indicated. These separate sentences, when complex, are to be analyzed as such.

'The house fell, and great was the fall thereof.'

[A] 'The house fell; [B] great was the fall thereof.'

'He goes [A], (but) it is intended that I should remain' [B+*b*].

CONTRACTED SENTENCES.

49. In these the omitted parts must be expressed at full length, after which the analysis proceeds as above.

'Frogs and seals live on land and in water.' Here there are four

sentences. ‘ Frogs live on land ;’ ‘ frogs live in water ;’ ‘ seals live on land;’ ‘ seals live in water.’

‘ I am the first and (I am) the last.’

In the following example the contraction takes place in the subordinate part of a complex sentence : ‘ when a man is from necessity his own tailor, tent-maker, carpenter, cook, huntsman, and fisherman, it is not probable that he will be expert at any of his callings.’ So in this : ‘ say first, for Heaven hides nothing from thy view, nor the deep tract of Hell.’

Again : ‘ In all times and in all places, man has sought to understand the language of nature.’

50. Let us present an analysis of the following compound sentence : ‘ The theory of the Mahometan government rests upon the maintenance of a clear separation from the unbelievers ; and to propose to a Mussulman of any piety, that the Commander of the Faithful should obliterate the distinction between Mahometans and Christians would be proposing to obliterate the distinction between virtue and vice : the notion would seem to be not merely wrong and wicked, but a contradiction in terms.’

Analysis of sentence :—A. ‘ The theory—unbelievers.’

I. *Subject (with adjuncts)*, ‘ the theory of the Mahometan government.’

III. *Predicate*, ‘ rests upon.’

IV. *Object (with adjuncts)*, ‘ the maintenance,’ &c.

B. ‘ and to propose—virtue and vice.’

I. *Subject, infinitive*, ‘ to propose,’ *governing a noun clause*, ‘ that the Commander of the Faithful should obliterate the distinction between Mahometans and Christians,’ (b) *and qualified by an adverbial phrase*, ‘ to a Mussulman of any piety.’

III. *Predicate*, ‘ would be proposing.’

IV. *Object of verb, infinitive*, ‘ to obliterate,’ *followed by an object and adjunct*, ‘ the distinction between virtue and vice.’

(Analysis of b.)

I. *Subject (with adjuncts)*, ‘ the Commander of the Faithful.’

III. *Predicate*, ‘ should obliterate.’

IV. *Object (with adjuncts)*, ‘ the distinction between Mahometans and Christians.’

The third division of the sentence is greatly contracted ; the full expression is, ‘ the notion would seem to be not merely wrong [c] and (the notion would seem to be not merely) wicked [D], but (the notion would seem to be) a contradiction in terms ’ [E]. Sometimes such an expression as ‘ wrong and wicked ’ may be viewed as a compound predicate, the two words being intended to convey but one notion to the mind.

ELLIPTICAL SENTENCES.

51. Ellipsis is the omission of some part essential to a complete construction, for the sake of brevity and

strength. What is left is regarded as sufficient to con-
vey the intended meaning.

The Contracted Sentences above spoken of are one
class of Elliptical Sentences ; the part common to two
or more Co-ordinate Sentences being expressed only
once. Another class, somewhat more difficult, are
those involving the comparative Adverbs ' as ' and
' than.'

52. ' He is as tall as I am,' is in full, ' he is as tall as I am *tall.*'
Principal clause, 'he is tall ;' *adverbial adjunct of the complement of
the predicate,* ' as,' (modified by the adverbial clause) 'as I am tall.'
The predicate of the elliptical or dependent clause is ' tall,' and
this is compared, by means of the relative adverb ' as,' with the
degree of tallness expressed in the principal clause. It is analogous
to the sentence already given,—' the sea is as deep as the mountains
are high.'

53. ' He is taller than I am,' is ' he is taller than I am tall.'
Principal clause, ' he is taller ;' *adverbial clause,* ' I am tall than,'
where ' than ' (which is originally ' then ') is the adverb qualifying
' tall.' ' He is taller, *then* (next) I am tall.'

54. ' He is more industrious than clever,' ' than he is clever,' ana-
lyzed thus :—

I. *Subject,* ' he.'

III. *Predicate,*   { *Verb of incomplete predication,* ' is,'
                     { *Complement of predicate,* ' industrious.'

VI. *Adverbial adjunct of the complement,* ' more—than he is clever'
(*a*), (analyzed, ' he is clever than'). Literally, this construction
means, ' he is industrious *more—then* he is clever.' There would seem
to be a tautology in the English idiom, for either word, ' more ' or
' than,' would have expressed the comparison.

55. ' He has not written so much as I have,' is in full, ' so much as
I have written much.' The adverb ' as ' is an adverb of degree
qualifying ' much ' understood. ' I have written much, he has not
written much (to the same degree '), is the mode of rendering the
construction. Or ' I have written much *so* (compared by a certain
quantity), he has not written much *so* (compared by the same
quantity ').

56. ' He has written more letters than you,' is in full, ' he has
written more letters than you have written many letters ;' ' he has
written many letters *more—then* you have written many letters.'

57. ' He does not write so well as you (write well ') ; ' you write
well *so,* he does not write well *as* (or *so*).'

58. ' I would as soon die as suffer that,' ' I would as soon die, as (I
would soon) suffer that.' In other words, ' I would soon suffer that
as, or *so,* I would soon die, *as* or *so*.'

59. ' Such as,' employed as the equivalent of the restrictive rela-
tive, is a case of ellipsis. ' The house is not such as I like.' ' The

house is not such as a house is that I like.' 'A house that I like is *so*, the house is not *such* (or *so*).'

60. 'I am not such a fool as to believe that.' In full, 'I am not such a fool as (I should be a fool) to believe that.' 'I should be a fool to believe that, I am not a fool *such*, or *so* (to the degree implied in believing that ').

61. 'Our habits are costlier than Lucullus wore ;' 'than Lucullus wore costly habits,' or 'than the habits were costly that Lucullus wore.' 'Our habits are costly *more—then* Lucullus wore costly habits.'

62. 'Moderation in the use of food is a better remedy than medicine (is a good remedy) for an oppressed state of the circulation.'

63. To resolve a compound sentence into the simple or complex sentences composing it, often enables us to detect a fault in its construction. Ex. 'Because he had committed a crime, he was shut up in prison and let out again only yesterday.' As it stands the sentence is resolvable into these two : 'because he had committed a crime, he was shut up in prison,' and 'because he had committed a crime, he was let out only yesterday.' It should be, 'because he had committed a crime, he was shut up in prison, and *he was* let out again only yesterday ;' or 'and it was only yesterday that he was let out again.'

64. In the sentence 'there was a man showed me the way,' the analysis will determine exactly what is wrong. There is but one subject 'man' to two finite verbs, making up two distinct assertions. Now this is admissible only in a compound contracted sentence ; but the form of such a sentence would be 'a man was there *and* showed me the way.' Every assertion, and consequently every finite verb, must have a subject, and every subject must have a predicate or finite verb. The insertion of the relative would supply a subject to the second verb in the above sentence.

CONCORD.

1. The general principles or processes regulating the grammatical union of words in sentences are three in number,—CONCORD, GOVERNMENT, and ORDER or arrangement of words.

When two connected words are of the same Number, Gender, Case, or Person, they are said to *agree* with one another, or to be in Concord. Speaking of a man we have to say *he*, of a woman *she*, of a plurality of persons *they* ; these are agreements or concords.

In point of fact, these concords are already taught under Ety-

mology. We have seen that 'he' means a man, 'she' a woman, &c.;
that when a noun is in the plural, there is a peculiar inflection of the
verb to correspond with it : 'they call ' (not *calls*), and also a certain
inflection of the demonstrative adjectives : 'these ' (not *this*).   Hence
the expressions, 'the trees grows,' 'those sort of things,' are errors of
Etymology as well as of Syntax.   What is left to Syntax is merely
to explain some difficult and doubtful cases, where we are not quite
sure what the number, gender, person, or case of a word really is.

CONCORD OF NOMINATIVE AND VERB.

2. A Verb must agree with its Subject in Number
and in Person, and the subject of the Verb is always in
the Nominative Case.

This is the rule of the concord of nominative and verb.   The verb
and the subject being both spoken of the same thing, they must agree
with one another, otherwise there would be a contradiction in terms.
If 'John' is the name for one individual, and 'write' is the form that
predicates the action,—'writing,' of a plurality of individuals, ' John
write ' is a discord, or wrong combination.

This rule is seldom transgressed in short sentences except by per-
sons altogether untaught.   Such expressions as 'says I,' 'he do,' 'we
sees,' 'the shops is not open,' are mistakes of the grossest kind.   But
in longer sentences, where several names occur, the verb is sometimes
inadvertently referred to what is not the real subject.   The following
are examples of the kind of structure referred to : ' the *origin* of the
city and state of Rome *is* involved in great uncertainty ;' 'the mo-
mentary *junction* of several tribes *produces* an army.'   These are
correct ; but many instances of errors arising in similar constructions
could be produced.

'His reputation was great, and somewhat more durable than that
of similar poets *have* generally been.'   'Railroads seem now, however,
to be likely to supersede most other methods of conveyance, in so far,
at least, as the *transit* of goods and passengers *are* concerned.'   'The
patronage which the British Colonies *affords* to the home government
is immense.'   'The lighting and cleaning of the streets *is* not nearly so
good as in the large towns of England.'   'The opinion of several
eminent lawyers *were* in his favour.'

3. Collective Nouns, though Singular in form, take a
Plural Verb if the Predicate applies to the objects
taken individually ; as 'the peasantry *go* barefooted, and
the middle sort *make* use of wooden shoes ;' ' one half of
men *do* not know how the other half *live*.'

When what is affirmed of the noun is an action that can be true
of the whole mass in its collective unity, the verb is then singular;
as 'the fleet *is* under orders to set sail.'   When we say ' the British
nation *has* not sprung up in a generation,' we speak of the nation as

a collective organized whole. So 'the House (of Lords, or of Commons) *resolves;*' 'the Assembly *has* decreed;' 'the Senate *is* of opinion;' 'the army *was* disorganized;' 'the mob *was* dispersed;' 'the invading force (army and fleet) *was* in progress towards Attica;' 'one fourth of the men at the diggings *is* composed of convicts.'

Contrast these with the cases where the predicate applies to the individuals of the collection acting separately. 'The people of the rude tribes of America *are* remarkable for their artifice and duplicity.' Here what is affirmed applies to the individual Americans acting singly and apart. 'The generality of his hearers *were* favourable to his doctrines;' 'the public *are* often deceived by false appearances and extravagant pretensions;' meaning the members of the community taken individually; 'a considerable number *were* induced to quit the body.' The following sentence sounds awkward, but it is strictly correct : 'The Megarean sect *was* founded by Euclid, not the mathematician, and *were* the happy inventors of logical syllogism, or the art of quibbling '—*Tytler.* In the first part, the sect is spoken of in its collective capacity ; and, in the second, as individuals. 'There *is* a certain class of men who never *look,*' &c., may be justified on the same ground. So 'the people *is* one, and *they have* all one language.'

There are a few cases where usage is not invariable. In speaking of small bodies, such as those indicated by a Board, a Commission, a Council, a Court, the plural verb is frequently used : 'the Board are of opinion ;' 'the Committee consider ;' 'the Court are disposed.' This may be explained on the ground that the members in a body of, say two, three, or six, stand forward more prominently in their individual capacity, whereas in an assembly of three hundred, the individual is entirely merged in the collective vote. Still there are cases where a plural verb would be obviously wrong ; as ' the Council were divided ;' the idea of division could in no sense be applicable to the individual members.

The following examples are incorrect :—' The meeting *were* large ' (would mean that it was composed of large men) ; 'Stephen's party *were* entirely broken up ;' 'mankind *was* not united by the bonds of civil society ;' 'the Church *have* no power to inflict corporal punishments ;' 'in this business the House of Commons *have* no weight ;' 'a detachment of two hundred men *were* immediately sent ;' ' one man of genius accomplishes what a crowd of predecessors *has* essayed in vain ;' 'not one fourth of provincial tradesmen or farmers ever *take* stock ; nor, in fact, *does* one half of them ever *keep* account-books deserving of the name.' The following is at least inconsistent : 'when a nation *forms* a government, it is not wisdom, but power, which *they* place (*it* places) in the hands of the Government,' &c. A judge charging a jury, vacillated in the construction of the word Court, thus,: ' It was satisfactory to the Court to find that it would be incumbent on *them,*' &c. ' The Court, therefore, in the discharge of *their* duty.' ' The Court *believe.*' ' The Court *is* not entirely satisfied with the finding of the jury.' ' The Court, in the sentence which *it is* about to pronounce by my mouth,' &c.

When the form of a noun is plural, but the meaning singular, a singular verb is generally preferred : 'this news *is* not true ;' 'no pains is taken ;' 'the wages of sin is death.'*

'The *Pleasures of Memory* was published in 1792, and became at once popular.' The pronoun in the following should be singular : 'His (Thomson's) *Seasons* will be published in about a week's time, and a most noble work *they* will be.' Johnson says 'my Lives *are* reprinting,' which it might be harsh to alter, owing to the great prominence of the notion of plurality.

But those nouns that have plural forms on account of a plurality of the subject, such as 'bellows,' 'scissors,' 'snuffers,' 'lungs,' 'ashes,' &c., are more usually found with plural verbs.

Although we should say, 'there are two, there are three,' yet usage permits in familiar language the singular contracted form, 'there's two or three.'—(Craik's *English of Shakspeare*, p. 123.)

4. If the subject of a sentence consists of two Nouns or Pronouns united by the Conjunction 'and,' the Verb must be put in the Plural : 'John and James *are* in the field ;' 'Mars and Jupiter *are* visible.'

If the two nouns are names for the same subject, the rule does not hold ; the plurality is apparent only, and not real.

'The spectator and historian of his exploits *has* observed.'

> A laggard in love and a dastard in war
> *Was* to wed the fair Ellen of brave Lochinvar.

In cases where two names almost synonymous are employed for the sake of emphasis, there is still a kind of unity in the subject, and the verb is often made singular : 'wherein *doth* sit the dread and fear of kings ;' 'the head and front of his offending *was* this ;' 'the hardship and exposure of a savage life speedily *destroys* those who are not of a robust constitution ;' 'why *is* dust and ashes proud ?' In such cases it is not always easy to draw the line, or to decide when the subject is singular and when plural. 'Fair and softly goes far;' 'poor and content is rich enough.'

A singular verb may sometimes be justified on the ground of an ellipsis : 'there *was* a hen and (there were) chickens in the court ;' 'there *was* racing and (there was) chasing on Cannobie Lea.'

Another exception to the general rule is exemplified in the following constructions : 'the wheel and axle *was* out of repair ;' 'a block and tackle *was* made use of ;' 'bread and butter *is* my usual breakfast.' In these instances, the two things named make but one subject by their combination, called a compound subject. We may say, 'a needle and a thread *were* given to her, but she could not thread the needle ;' and 'a needle and thread *was* given to her, but she could not sew the button on ;' the reason of the difference being apparent. 'Hanging and beheading *is* the punishment of treason,' means that

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* Dr. Angus would prefer the plural, as least likely to call attention to the mere grammar of the sentence : 'the means used were not commendable;' 'great pains were taken.'

the criminal is both hanged and beheaded ; 'hanging and beheading *are*,' would mean that there are two separate punishments, and that sometimes one is made use of and sometimes the other. 'Sand and salt and a mass of iron *is* easier to bear than a man without understanding,' is allowable on the supposition that we mean a mixture of those several ingredients.*

The 'and' is sometimes omitted, but the rule remains the same if there be a plurality of idea in the subject : 'honour, justice, religion itself, were involved.'

Instead of 'and,' the preposition 'with' is sometimes used to connect the parts of an aggregate subject, and then it is a disputed point whether the verb should be singular or plural. Thus : 'the captain with his men *were* taken prisoners.' The sense requires the plural, but grammatically the subject is singular. 'The king, with the lords and commons, constitute (or constitutes) our government;' 'the purse, with its contents, *was* found on the person of the thief.'

The true solution of the difficulty is to employ 'and' if the sense is plural. The phrase 'with his men' is an adjunct of 'captain,' being as much as to say 'accompanied with his men,' and should be used only when the attention is concentrated upon him. If the men are also to be taken notice of, we should say 'the captain and his men were,' or 'the captain was taken with his men ;' 'the king, the lords, and the commons make up our government.'

Nouns coupled by 'as well as' take the singular or the plural according to the context. If the predicate is meant to be affirmed of both, the plural is employed, the phrase being then a synonyme for 'and :' 'Pompey as well as Cæsar *were* great men.' But if the 'as well as' merely quotes an illustrative comparison, the predication must then be understood as confined to the first noun : 'Africa as well as Gaul (after the manner of Gaul) *was* gradually fashioned by imitation of the capital.'

The following expressions are erroneous : 'that leisure which fortune and your own wisdom *has* given you ;' 'the diminution of his influence and restraint on his activity *was* an essential injury to the colony ;' 'the number and variety of the laws which we find established in the universe *is* so great.'

It has been doubted whether we could say 'every officer and soldier claim a superiority in regard to other individuals ;' or even, 'every officer and every soldier claim.' Plurality is certainly implied, but there is a disagreeable effect produced by joining 'every' with a plural verb, and we might take shelter under the elliptical usage, and say 'every officer (claims) and every soldier *claims*.' On the same ground, we must uphold the expression, 'every clergyman and

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* We hear sometimes 'two and two *are* four;' 'three times four *are* twelve ;' but the 'are' is scarcely defensible in either case. It would be correct to say 'two pounds and five pounds are (or make) seven pounds;' but with numbers in the abstract, what we mean is that the numerical combination of 'two and two' is the same as four. So 'twice one *are* two' must be wrong, because there is no plurality in the strict sense; and 'three times four' should be regarded as a combination or unity made up in a particular way.

every physician *is* a gentleman.' It would be in accordance with the general rule to say 'are,' but the ear prefers 'is,' and we may allege an ellipsis in justification. So we may defend the following : ' it has been observed by writers on physiognomy, that every emotion and every operation of the mind *has* a corresponding expression of the countenance;' 'every limb and feature *appears* with its appropriate grace.' ;

When the same noun is coupled with two adjectives, so as to mean different things, there is a plurality of sense, and the plural is required: ' in the latter also religious and grammatical learning *go* hand in hand ;' 'the logical and the historical analysis of a language generally in some degree *coincide*.'

When a verb separates its nominatives it agrees with the first, and is understood of the rest: ' the earth is the Lord's, and the fulness thereof.'

5. Two or more Singular Nouns, connected by ' or' or ' nor,' implying that they are separately taken, must have a Singular Verb : ' John, James, or Andrew *intends* to accompany you;' 'neither this nor that *is* the thing wanted.'

Such sentences are always contracted co-ordinate sentences, and their construction is singular. So in the example ' my poverty, and not my will, *consents*,' there is a contraction ; ' my poverty consents, but my will does not consent.' The omission of the connective makes no difference if the meaning is the same : 'a word, an epithet, paints a whole scene.'

Sometimes ' or' is used when the real meaning would require ' and.' ' To win *or* to lose (at cards) is unpleasant.' Here there is a partial alternation of meaning from the circumstance that we cannot both win and lose at the same time ; still the sense is that both the one and the other are unpleasant. If we were speaking of one game, where we must either win or lose, the ' or' is suitable; but speaking generally it would be better to say ' winning and losing *are* both unpleasant.' In an instance above quoted (hanging and beheading, &c.) we might have a third form : ' hanging *or* beheading *is* the punishment of treason,' to show still more decisively that the judge must sentence a man to one, and not to both ; which might be left uncertain by the form ' hanging and beheading are,' &c.

We find in Shakspeare, ' Nor heaven, nor earth have been at peace to-night,' and Dr. Craik remarks on the passage, that where, as here, the two singular substantives are looked at together by the mind, it is more natural to regard them as a plurality, and to use the plural verb, notwithstanding the disjunctive conjunction.

When one of two nominatives separated by ' or' or ' nor' is in the plural, the verb should be plural : ' he or his servants *were* to blame.' It is proper in such cases to place the plural nominative next the verb.

6. When the Nominative is a Relative Pronoun we must look to the antecedent in order to determine the number of the Verb : ' all ye that *pass* by.'

The following is a common error :—'one of the most valuable books that *has* appeared in any language.'

The phrase 'as follows,' applied to a plural antecedent, is now a settled usage. If 'as' were a true relative pronoun, there would be a breach of concord ; but we must consider the expression as adverbial, like 'as regards,' or 'so far as concerns.'

7. When two or more Pronouns of different persons, and of the Singular Number, are connected by the Alternative Conjunctions, the following rules are observed (Latham) :—

I. When the words 'either' or 'neither' precede the Pronouns, the Verb is in the third person : 'either he or I *is* in the wrong;' 'neither he nor I *is* in the wrong.'

II. When the Pronouns are not preceded by 'either' or 'neither,' the Verb agrees with the first : 'I or he *am* in the wrong;' 'he or I *is* in the wrong;' 'you or he *are* in the wrong;' 'he or you *is* in the wrong.'

8. When the completion of the Predicate is a Noun, it may not be always apparent what is the real subject, seeing that the order is not decisive.

Hence the expression 'his pavilion *were* dark waters and thick clouds of the sky,' may be justified on the ground that the sentence is inverted, 'pavilion' being the completion of the predicate, and not the subject.

CONCORD OF NOUN AND ADJECTIVE.

9. The Pronominal Adjectives in English being alone inflected, questions of concord are confined to them.

The rules for the Concord of the Demonstratives 'this' and 'that,' are the same as for the Concord of the Nominative and the Verb: 'these means *are*—this means *is*—not enough.'

When we decide that a noun should have a plural verb, we must apply the same rule to the demonstrative adjectives (and pronouns) agreeing with it. The word 'means' furnishes the chief doubtful instance ; and we may either adopt the suggestion of making it uniformly plural, on account of the form, or look to the sense, and consider it plural when we have a plurality of agencies involved.

We find such expressions as 'this forty years;' 'this many summers;' they are defended on the ground that a period of time may be treated as a unity.

10. The Distributive Adjectives, 'each,' 'every,' &c.,

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are joined to a Singular Verb: 'every tree *is* known by its fruits.'

They also take a Singular Pronoun when applied to one Gender: 'England expects every man to do *his* duty ;' 'it seems natural that every mother should suckle *her* own child.'

But when both Genders are implied, it is allowable to use the Plural: 'let each esteem other better than *themselves*.'

Grammarians frequently call this construction an error: not reflecting that it is equally an error to apply 'his' to feminine subjects. The best writers furnish examples of the use of the plural as a mode of getting out of the difficulty. 'Every person's happiness depends in part upon the respect *they* meet in the world.'—*Paley*. 'Every one must judge of *their* own feelings.'—*Byron*. 'If the part deserve any comment, every considering Christian will make it to themselves as *they* go.'—*Defoe*. 'Everybody began to have *their* vexation.' 'Everybody around her was gay, was busy, prosperous, and important : each had *their* objects of interest, their part, their dress, their favourite scene, their friends and confederates.' 'Had the doctor been contented to take my dining tables, as anybody in *their* senses would have done.'—*Miss Austin*.

Sometimes strict grammar is preserved thus : 'Everybody called for *his* or *her* favourite remedy, which nobody brought.' But this construction is felt to be too cumbrous to be kept up, as we see in the following example :—' The institution of property, reduced to its essential elements, consists in the recognition, in each person, of a right to the exclusive disposal of what *he* or *she* has produced by *their* own exertions,' &c.—*J. S. Mill*.

No doubt there are more instances of the employment of 'his,' but it must not be maintained that this form is exclusively right.

The following examples also illustrate the preference of the plural when both genders are involved : 'if an ox gore a man or a woman, so that *they* die.' 'Not on outward charms should man or woman build *their* pretensions to please.'—*Opie*. 'If I value my friend's wife or son, on account of *their* connection with him.'—*Angus*, p. 279.

GOVERNMENT.

1. Government means the power that a word has to regulate the case of a Noun or a Pronoun ; as when a Pronoun coming after a Preposition takes the objective form : 'after *me* (not after *I*).'

There being only one case inflection in English nouns, and that occurring only in a limited number, the rules of government apply principally to pronouns.

In those nouns that take a possessive, it is used to signify personal possession, and the thing possessed is placed after : ‘John's gospel ;’ ‘a father's pride.’

2. Transitive Verbs, with their Participles and Gerunds, and Prepositions, govern the objective case.

This rule is not often violated when the objective immediately follows the verb or preposition. It is when the object is at a distance from the governing word that a nominative is liable to be used. ‘ He that promises too much, do not trust,’ for ‘ him that,’ &c. ; ‘ my father allowed my brother and I to accompany him ;’ ‘ between you and I ;’ ‘ let you and I advance.’

On the supposition that the interrogative ‘who’ has ‘whom’ for its objective, the following are errors :—‘ who do you take me to be ?’ ‘ who should I meet the other, day ?’ ‘ who is it by ?’’ ‘ who did you give it to ?’ ‘ who to ?’ ‘ who for ?’ But considering that these expressions occur with the best writers and speakers, that they are more energetic than the other form, that they lead to no ambiguity, and that the use of ‘whom’ is more probably an ill-judged imitation of Latin or French than a correct interpretation of our native idiom, it may be doubted whether grammarians have not exceeded their province in condemning them. The following are a few examples to show the usage of some of our greatest writers :—‘ Who servest thou under ?—Shakspeare. ‘ Who should 1 meet the other day but my old friend ?’—Steele. ‘My son is going to be married to I don't know who.’—Goldsmith.

3. The Verb ‘be’ has the same case after it as before it : ‘ it is I ;’ ‘ ye are they.’

This follows from the principle that when the complement of the predicate is a noun, it is of the same case as the subject.

Notwithstanding that most grammarians have laid down this rule, we hear in the actual speech of all classes of society such expressions as ‘ it was me,’ ‘ it was him,’ ‘ it was her,’ perhaps more frequently than the prescribed form. ‘This shy creature, my brother says, is me ;’ ‘ were it me, I'd show him the difference.’—Clarissa Harlowe. ‘ It is not me* you are in love with.’ — Addison. ‘ If there is one character more base than another, it is him who,’ &c.—Sydney Smith. ‘ If I were him ;’ ‘ if it had been her,’ &c.

Probably the best way of reconciling grammar and usage on this point is to consider that there are two forms of the nominative case ; one to be used when a verb immediately follows, and another when the pronoun has to stand alone. The analogy of the French language is in favour of this view ; for while ‘ I am here’ is ‘ je suis ici,’ the

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* It may be confidently affirmed that with good speakers, in the case of negation ‘ not me ’ is the usual practice.

answer to ' who is there ?' is ' *moi* ' (me); and ' c'est *moi* ' (it is *me*), is the legitimate phrase, never ' c'est *je* ' (it is *I*).*

On the same ground we may defend the use of ' me,' ' him,' after the conjunctions 'than,' 'as,' &c., in whose favour there is the authority of an extensive if not predominating usage. ' He is taller than *me*.' 'No mightier than thyself, or *me*.'—*Shakspeare*.† 'She was neither better bred nor wiser than you or *me*.'—*Thackeray*.

> ' Satan, than *whom*
> None higher sat.'

The construction ' nobody said so *but him*,' is defended by some grammarians on the ground that ' but ' is a preposition as well as a conjunction. (Adams, art. 525.) Still ' but he ' is of frequent occurrence: ' no man hath ascended up to heaven but *he* that came down from heaven;' 'there is none justified but *he* that is in measure sanctified.'

ORDER OF WORDS.

1. The most general principles of the arrangement of words are, that what is to be thought of first should be mentioned first, and that things to be thought of together should be placed in close connection.

In inflected languages, the connection of one word with another is indicated by means of inflections. The English, on this point, trusts chiefly to position, and hence the order is more fixed than in the classical languages.

SUBJECT AND VERB.

2. The Subject precedes the Verb: ' the stars twinkle.'

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* It is remarked by Dean Alford that 'It is I' is suitable to an occasion of dignity; as ' He said unto them, It is I be not afraid.' ' Who does not feel that here there is a majesty and prominence given by the nominative person; which makes the assurance what it was to the disciples? But from this very prominence it is that we shrink in ordinary talk. We shelter ourselves in the accusative case " me," which, though ungrammatical, yet is acquiesced in, as better suiting the feeling of the mind. We all remember the story of George III. reading Paley's fable about a pigeon, and exclaiming " *Why, that's me !*" The king was just as right in the expression of the interpretation, as he was in the interpretation itself. He could not have said, " Why, that's I !"'—*Good Words*, March, 1863.

† On this Dr. Craik remarks : ' Of course, in strict grammar, it should be *than I.* But the personal pronouns must be held to be, in some measure, emancipated from the dominion or tyranny of syntax. Who would rectify even Shelley's bold
> " lest there be
> No solace left for *thou* and me" ?
The grammatical law has so slight a hold that a mere point of euphony is deemed sufficient to justify the neglect of it.'—*English of Shakspeare*, p. 117.

Exceptions.—1. When a question is asked, without an interrogative pronoun in the nominative case : ' *are ye* alone ?'

2. With the imperative mood : ' *come ye.*'

3. In the conditional mood, when the conjunction is suppressed : ' had I known that ;' ' *were I* in his place.'

4. When a wish or exclamation is expressed : ' may she be happy ;' ' how *would we* wish that Heaven had left us still—.'

5. When ' neither ' or ' nor,' signifying ' and not,' precedes the verb : ' this was his fear, nor *was the apprehension* groundless.'

6. In introducing the parts of a dialogue : ' *said he* ;' ' thought I ;' ' replied James.'

7. For the sake of emphasis ; as when a sentence is introduced by ' there,' ' here,' ' where,' or other adverbs : ' up *started he* ;' ' now abideth faith, hope, charity.'

The complement of the predicate follows the predicate : ' the day is *clear.*' When the complement is a noun, we distinguish it from the subject by its position : ' angels are spirits.'

VERB AND OBJECT.

3. The Transitive Verb precedes its object.

Exceptions.—1. When the objective is a relative or interrogative pronoun : ' this is the letter *that* he *wrote.*'

2. For emphasis : ' *treason and murder* he had been taught early in life to expect from everybody.'

3. For the sake of a closer connection with a previous sentence.

This inversion cannot often be practised in English, on account of causing ambiguity. Apart from the context, our only means of knowing which is subject and which is object is the order ; hence the following expressions are of themselves uncertain : ' when thus the son the fervent sire addressed ;' ' life every man holds dear.' Inversion is admissible when either the subject or the object is a pronoun.

In the construction of verbs of ' giving,' ' sending,' ' telling,' the personal adjunct is placed last : ' give it me ;' ' tell it him ;' ' he sent it us.' The form ' give me it,' is a Scotticism.

NOUN AND ADJECTIVE.

4. The Adjective immediately precedes the Noun : ' *bright* prospects.'

Exceptions.—1. When the adjective is accompanied by another adjective ; as ' a man just and wise.'

2. When the adjective is enlarged by qualifying phrases ; as ' a question too important to be neglected ;' ' a patriot disinterested in a high degree ;' ' in other words, the country was to be absolutely governed by a hereditary aristocracy, *the most needy, the most haughty, the most quarrelsome* in Europe.' Hence the adjectives ' averse,' ' afraid,' ' conformable,' which require an enlargement to make complete sense, always follow the noun they qualify.

In poetry the adjective is often placed last; as ‘ the garden *fair ;*’ ‘ my own mother *dear.*’

Certain titles of French origin show the inverted arrangement: ‘ Prince Regent,’ ‘ Heir Apparent,’ Poet Laureate,’ &c.

The most general direction is to keep the noun and its qualifying adjuncts as close together as possible. Accordingly such sentences as the following are ill arranged: ‘ the *death* is announced *of Mr. Henry Archer,* inventor,’ &c.; ‘ the country beyond which the *arts* cannot be traced *of civil society* or domestic life ;’ ‘ the ignorance of the age in mechanical arts rendered the *progress* very slow *of this new invention.*’

When the enlargements are of great length we are to avoid entangling them with other parts of the sentence. In the following passage some of the adjuncts precede, and the others follow, the noun :— ‘ *Born to inherit the most illustrious monarchy in the world, and early united to the object of her choice, the amiable* PRINCESS, *happy in herself, and joyful in her future prospects,* little anticipated the fate that was so soon to overtake her.’

Sometimes the enlargement is resumed after the verb : ‘ the spirit of Francis Bacon was abroad ; a spirit admirably compounded of audacity and sobriety ;’ ‘ ye shall die, all of you.’

We are always disposed to take the word preceding a substantive as a word modifying it ; and hence our facility in using nouns and phrases adjectively : ‘ a *gold* ring ;’ ‘ a *carriage* gentleman ;’ ‘ the *house-to-house* visitation.’ Strictly regarded, these are highly condensed or elliptical expressions, interpreted by their juxtaposition : ‘ a ring *made of gold ;*’ ‘ a gentleman *that rides in a carriage ;*’ ‘ visitation from house to house.’

The three first, or *the first three ?* Great doubt exists as to which of these expressions is correct. Difficulties seem to attach to both. When we say the *three first,* it is asked, how can *three* be first? and when we say the *first three,* we seem to imply that this should be followed by a second three, a third three, and so on. The form most commonly used is the ‘ first three ;’ ‘ the first six books of Euclid ;’ ‘ the first ten men you meet ;’ ‘ the first forty years of the century.’ But there are occasions when good writers think the other form preferable ; thus, ‘ the *three first* gospels ;’ ‘ the *two eldest* of the family ;’ ‘ the *six nearest* your hand ;’ ‘ the fathers of the *five first* centuries.’—*Middleton.* ‘ I have not numbered the lines except of the *four first* books.’—*Cowper.* We may conceive the ground for the distinction on some such principle as this. Suppose a number of persons waiting for admission to a public spectacle. The director wishes to give directions as to the order of admission. Now if we suppose it settled beforehand that three shall be admitted at a time, the only question remaining is *which* three, to which the answer is the three *first.* But if it be understood that they are to be admitted in the order that they stand in, the question is how many at a time, and the answer is the first *three.* The place of special emphasis is the second word, the first *three,* the three *first.* This is indicated in the phrase, ‘ the first *six* books of Euclid ;’ for it is taken for granted that in geometry the order of proceeding is fixed, and the only inquiry that remains is, *how many* books are prescribed : the first *two,* the first *four,* the first *six.* In speaking of the ‘ three first gospels,’ it is supposed that a division is made of the gospels into two groups (there might be more if the number were greater) ; and that the first group contains three, and the second group one. The question then is supposed to be put—which are the three situated, and where the one ? and the reply is, the three *first,* the one *last ;* or it might have been the two *first,* the two *last.* If, as in Euclid, it had been necessary to study the gospels in a fixed consecutive order, the question would then have arisen, how many is to make the first division ? and we might have said the first *two,* the first *three,* as many actually do say.

5. *Placing of the Article.*—The rule of most practical importance as to the articles is to this effect : When two or more substantives following each other denote the same object, the article is placed only with the first ; as ' a (*or* the) secretary and treasurer,' the two offices being held by the same person. On the other hand, when the substantives denote different objects, the article is repeated before each ; as ' the secretary and the treasurer.' Violations of this rule are frequent. ' The old and new method' is wrong ; but we may say correctly ' the old and new methods,' ' the Old and New Testaments.'

The following are examples of the rule :—' and He shall come again with glory to judge both *the* quick and *the* dead ;' ' by their tumultuous election, a Syrian, a Goth, or an Arab was exalted to the throne of Rome, and was invested with despotic power over *the* conquests, and over *the* country of the Scipios ;' ' he had compassion on the *poor and needy ;*' ' *a* cool head, *an* unfeeling heart, and *a* cowardly disposition, prompted him, at the age of nineteen, to assume the mask of hypocrisy, which he never after laid aside.'

The incorrect construction may be seen in these examples :—' when therefore the chief priests and (the) officers saw him ;' ' some of the most sacred festivals in the Roman ritual were destined to indulge the pious remembrance of *the dead and living.*'

' He made a better soldier than *a* poet,' means a better soldier than a poet would make.

The same principle applies to the repetition of other words, as prepositions, conjunctions, &c. : ' eternity invests every state, whether *of* bliss, or *of* suffering, with an importance entirely its own ;' ' I speak *as* a father and *as* a friend.'

PRONOUN AND ANTECEDENT.

6. **Every Pronoun should have a distinct Antecedent.**
When there are two words in a Clause, each capable of being an antecedent, the determining circumstances are Proximity and Importance.

1. As regards proximity : ' Solomon, the son of David, *who* slew Goliath.' Here the relative ' who ' refers to the word immediately preceding,—' David.' ' John gave James the book : he was very much in want of it,' *i. e.*, James, the last mentioned.

2. As regards importance : ' Solomon, the son of David, who built the temple,' might be justified on the ground that ' Solomon ' is the *principal subject,* and the ' son of David ' is merely an apposition, or explanatory clause, which should not interfere with the reference of the relative to Solomon. In fact ' Solomon-the-son-of-David ' is, as it were, a many-worded name. ' He hath made *him* to be sin for us, *who* knew no sin,' is to be interpreted on the rule of prominence ; otherwise ' who ' might apply to ' he ' or to ' us.'

The rule of proximity should be observed as the preferable plan. The following are examples of a confusion of pronouns :—

' *They* were summoned occasionally by *their* kings, when compelled

by (*their*) **want** (s) and (by *their*) **fear**(s) **to have recourse to** their aid.'

'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.* Here there are two subjects, and we cannot tell from the construction which of the two the pronouns severally refer to.

Again: '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) from thinking *he* (the chancellor) had some share in the affront *he* (the treasurer) had undergone.'—*Clarendon.*

The neuter pronoun 'it' gives rise to the greatest ambiguity, as will be afterwards shown.

PLACING OF THE ADVERB.

7. The Adverb is placed before the Adjective it qualifies; with an Intransitive Verb it is placed after. Ex. 'A *very* good man;' 'she dances *well*.'

When the Verb has an object, the Adverb usually follows it: 'he treated them *handsomely*.'

When the Verb is made up of an auxiliary and a participle, the Adverb is placed between the two: 'I have *gently* hinted my intentions.' But the most general rule is to place Adverbs, and Adverbial Adjuncts, or qualifying circumstances, so as to affect what they are intended to affect.

8. The word requiring most attention is 'only.'

According to the position of 'only,' the very same words may be made to express several very different meanings.

(1.) 'He *only* lived for their sakes.' Here 'only' must be held as qualifying '*lived* for their sakes,' the emphasis being on 'lived,' the word immediately adjoining. The meaning then is 'he *lived*,' but did not *work*, did not *die*, did not do any other thing for their sakes.

(2.) 'He lived *only* for their sakes.' 'Only' now qualifies 'for their sakes,' and the sentence means he lived for their sakes, and not for any other reason.

(3.) 'He lived for their sakes *only*.' The force of the word when placed at the end is peculiar. It has then a diminutive or disparaging signification. 'He lived for their sakes,' and not for any more worthy reason. 'He gave sixpence *only*' is an insinuation that more was expected.

(4.) By the use of 'alone' instead of 'only,' another meaning is

expressed : 'he lived for their sakes *alone*,' that is not for the sake of any other persons.*

It has already been seen (page 67) that 'only' preceding a sentence or clause has the force of an adversative conjunction : 'I should be ashamed to offer at saying any of those civil things in return to your obliging compliments in regard to my translation of Homer, *only* (but, yet, still) I have too great a value for you not to be pleased with them.'—*Pope.*

9. Errors frequently arise in the use of 'not—only,' to understand which we must attend to the force of the whole expression. 'He did *not* pretend to extirpate French music, but *only* to cultivate and civilize it.' Here the 'not' is obviously misplaced. 'He pretended, or professed, *not* to extirpate.'

10. There is still greater complication when we have 'not only' followed by 'but,' or 'but also.' We may illustrate the construction of these as follows :—Suppose it is said, (1) 'He gave them food and clothing.' This means simply that he gave those two things. (2) 'He gave them both food and clothing ;' that is, it would have been liberal to give either, but he gave both. (3) 'He gave not only food, but also clothing :' food he might have been expected to give, but besides that, he gave, what was hardly to be expected, clothing. The 'but' has its usual power of causing a surprise ; the 'not only' gives the ordinary course of things ; the 'but' marks an exception, or something not included in our natural expectations. In the following sentence 'not only—but' does not give the author's meaning : —'We are monished here of charity, and taught that God is *not only* a private Father, *but* a common Father to the whole world.' Here the meaning is that God is *not* a private Father, the expression supposes that he *is* a private Father. The 'only' should be omitted.

In the passage from Addison,—'By greatness I do *not only* mean the bulk of any single object, but the largeness of the whole view,' the same error is committed, and there is also a misplacement of the 'not.' 'By greatness I mean *not* the bulk of any single object, *but* the largeness of the whole view.' Shorter, 'By greatness I mean largeness, not only in any single object, but in a whole view.'

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* Examples of the construction of 'only :'—'When men grow virtuous in their old age, they *only* make a sacrifice to God of the Devil's leavings.'—*Pope.* Here 'only' is rightly placed. 'Think *only* of the past, as its remembrance gives you pleasure,' should be 'think of the past, *only* as its remembrance.' 'As he did not leave his name, it was *only* known that a gentleman had called on business :' 'it was known *only*.' 'I can *only* refute the accusation by laying before you the whole ;' this would mean 'the only thing I am able to do is to refute'; I may not retaliate, or let it drop, I must *refute* it.' 'The negroes are to appear at church *only* in boots ;' that is, when the negroes go to church they are to have no clothing but boots. 'The negroes are to appear *only* at church in boots,' might mean that they are not to appear anywhere but at church, whether in boots or out of them. The proper arrangement would be to connect the adverbial adjunct 'in boots' with its verb 'appear,' and to make 'only' qualify 'at church,' and no more : 'the negroes are to appear in boots *only* at church.' 'Others killed partridges—he *only* killed time ;' this might imply that he did nothing else but kill time. This is a proper case for the diminutive position of the word. 'Others killed partridges, he killed time *only*,' *i. e.* (sarcastically) nothing of more consequence than time.

11. Another point is raised by the following :—' not only Lydia, but all were concerned ;' *i. e.*, it was understood that Lydia was concerned, but not that all (*including* Lydia) were concerned. It would be necessary to say ' not only Lydia, but all the rest of the family were concerned ;' or, ' not Lydia *alone*, but all were concerned.' ' Not only England, but also France and Austria protested ' is correct ; ' not only England, but all Europe was alarmed ' would involve the same error as above : ' not England *alone*, but all Europe,' or ' not only England, but also the rest of Europe.'*

' It is *not only* hard to distinguish between too little and too much reform, but between the good and evil intentions of different reformers.' We here expect ' not only hard, *but impossible*.' ' It is hard to distinguish not only between too little and too much reform, but between the good and (the) evil intentions of different reformers.'

12. The wrong placing of ' not ' often gives rise to an imperfect form of negation. ' John and James were *not* there,' means that John and James were not there in company. It does not exclude the presence of one of them. The negative should precede in this case : ' neither John nor James was there.' ' Our company was *not* present ' (as a company, but some of us might have been) ; ' no member of our company was present.'

13. ' The Romans understood liberty, *at least*, as well as we.' This must be interpreted to mean ' the Romans understood liberty as well as we understand liberty.' The intended meaning is ' that whatever things the Romans failed to understand they understood liberty.' To express this meaning we might put it thus :—' the Romans understood at least liberty, as well as we *do* ;' ' liberty, at least, the Romans understood as well as we do.' ' A tear, at least, is due to the unhappy ;' ' at least a tear is a due to the unhappy ;' ' a tear is due at least to the unhappy ;' ' a tear is due to the unhappy at least ;' all express different meanings. ' This cannot, often at least, be done ;' ' this cannot be done often, at least.' (1. ' It often happens that this cannot be done.' 2. ' It does not often happen that this can be done '). So, ' man is *always* capable of laughing ;' ' man is capable of laughing *always*.'

14. *Misplaced circumstances, or adverbial adjuncts, generally.* To bring every clause into juxtaposition with the part that it is meant to qualify is as requisite as to place single words properly. The following are a few examples of misplaced clauses and adjuncts :—

' All these circumstances brought close to us a state of things

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* The translation of Paul's appeal to Agrippa is not in strict accordance with the English idiom. ' I would to God that not only thou, but also all that hear me this day, were both almost and altogether such as I am, except these bonds.' He here wishes both Agrippa and all that heard him to be as himself. But Agrippa was *one* that heard him, and should be excluded. Then again, they could not be *both* almost and altogether. The following rendering would avoid these objections : ' I would to God that not thou alone, but all that hear me this day, were not almost merely, but altogether such as I am, except these bonds.'

' I say *not* unto thee, Until seven times, but until seventy times seven.' Here the ' not ' is manifestly out of its place. ' I say unto thee, *not* until seven times only, but until seventy times seven.'

which we never thought to have witnessed (to witness) in peaceful England. *In the sister island, indeed, we had read of such horrors,* but now they were brought home to our very household hearths.'— *Swift.* 'We had read, indeed, of such horrors occurring in the sister island,' &c.

'The savage people in many places of America, except the government of small families, have no government at all, and live at this day in that savage manner as I said before.'—*Hobbes.* The second and third clauses ought to be transposed.

'Some dozen years afterwards, I had an editorial successor (in the *Examiner*), Mr. Fonblanque, who had all the wit for which I toiled, *without making any pretensions to it.*'—*Leigh Hunt.* Here the concluding clause, if we were to judge by its position, would qualify *I*; but it is meant to qualify 'who' (Mr. Fonblanque). More explicit thus: 'without *his* making any pretensions to it.'

'I shall have a comedy for you, in a season or two at farthest, *that* I believe will be worth your acceptance.'—*Goldsmith.* Place the second clause first, in order to connect the relative with its antecedent,—'comedy.'

PLACING OF PREPOSITIONS.

15. Prepositions should be placed as near as possible to the words they govern.

The following sentence is faulty in this respect:—'appears Lausanne—*with* at its foot *the little village* of Ouchy.'

But it is to be remarked that there is a certain inversion allowable in English, whereby a preposition is far removed from its regimen. The principal case is when it governs a relative or interrogative word. But there are other cases, as may be seen from this example:—'now *Sir Francis*, though he was for a long time our hero, we never exchanged a word *with.*'

16. In addition to the three great processes, named concord, government, and order of words, grammarians consider that certain cases of the syntax of sentences are explained by ELLIPSIS, which would therefore be ranked as a fourth binding process of composition. Many examples of ellipsis have already occurred. 'I sent to the bookseller's (shop);' 'whose is this image and superscription?' 'that (point) is the point;' 'the greatest man (of the men) on earth;' 'they love each (loves the) other;' 'come (you);' 'how shall I curse (him) whom God hath not cursed?' 'who's that knocks?'

> An honest man, close buttoned to the chin,
> Broad cloth *without*, and a warm heart *within.*

Here there is an ellipsis of the participle. 'Can you sing?' 'I will try to;' '(I) thank you;' 'nothing (is) so good, but it may be abused;' 'they applied to the Duke, of all men.'

17. The opposite of Ellipsis is PLEONASM, or excess of words, which is sometimes permitted for rhetorical force: 'for *the deck, it* was their field of fame;' 'my banks, *they* are furnished with bees;' 'the night *it* was gloomy, the wind *it* was high.'

18. If we were to dwell on incidental and exceptional constructions, we might note the following as a case of PARENTHESIS, or the insertion of an unconnected expression in the middle of a sentence : ' our ideas are movements of the nerves of sense, as of the optic nerve, in recollecting visible ideas, *suppose* of a triangular piece of ivory.'

EXAMPLES OF THE USE OF THE RELATIVES.

It is proposed here to give an extensive series of examples to illustrate the application of the relative pronouns and their substitutes.

1. The distinction observed by our idiomatic writers between ' that,' on the one hand, and ' who ' and ' which,' on the other, although for the present very much lost sight of, deserves to be revived, both for perspicuity and for lightening the composition. The following examples will serve to illustrate the distinction :—

' In general, Mr. Burchell was fondest of the company of children, *whom* he used to call harmless little men.' ' Whom ' is here correctly used, being the equivalent of ' *and them* he used to call,' &c.

> Bacon at last, a mighty man, arose,
> *Whom* a wise king and nation chose
> Lord Chancellor of both their laws.

Here also ' whom ' is equal to ' and him.'

In the following instance the relative is restrictive or defining, and ' that ' would be preferable : ' the conclusion of the *Iliad* is like the exit of a great man out of company *whom* he has entertained magnificently.'

Addison may be quoted as an authority for the use of ' that ' in restrictive clauses ; for example :—' a man of polite imagination is let into a great many pleasures *that* the vulgar are not capable of receiving.'

Both relatives are introduced correctly in this passage :—' she had learned that from Mrs. Wood, *who* had heard it from her husband, *who* had heard it at the public-house from the landlord, *who* had been let into the secret by the boy *that* carried the beer to some of the prisoners.'

The following sentences are ambiguous under the modern system of using ' who ' for both purposes :—' I met the boatman *who* took me across the ferry.' If ' who ' is the proper relative here, the meaning is ' I met the boatman, and he took me across,' it being supposed the boatman is known. But if there be several boatmen, and I wish to indicate one in particular by the circumstance that he had taken me across the ferry, I should use ' that.' ' The youngest boy *who* has learned to dance is James.' This means either ' the youngest boy is James, *and he* has learned to dance,' or ' of the boys, the youngest that has learned to dance is James.' This last sense is restrictive, and ' that ' should be used.

2. Turning now to ' which,' we may have a series of parallel examples : ' the court, *which* gives currency to manners, should be exemplary.' Here the meaning is ' the court should be exemplary, *for the court* gives currency to manners.' ' Which ' is the correct relative in this case :—' The cat, *which* you despise so much, is a very useful animal.' The relative here also is co-ordinating, and not

restrictive. If it were intended to point out one individual cat speci-
ally despised by the person addressed, ' that ' would convey the sense.
' A theory *which* does not tend to the improvement of practice is
utterly unworthy of regard.'   The meaning is restrictive ; ' a theory
that does not tend.'   The following sentence from Goldsmith gives
' that ' instead of ' which :'—' age, *that* lessens the enjoyment of life,
increases our desire of living.'   This error is uncommon.

' Their faith tended to make them improvident ; but a wise instinct
taught them that if there was one thing *which* ought not to be left to
fate, or to the precepts of a deceased prophet, it was the artillery ;' a
case where ' that ' is the proper relative.

' All words, *which* are signs of complex ideas, furnish matter of
mistake.'   This gives an erroneous impression, and should be ' all
words that are signs of complex ideas.'

3. It is necessary for the proper understanding of ' which ' to advert to
its peculiar function of referring to a whole clause as the antecedent :
' William ran along the top of the wall, *which* alarmed his mother very
much.'   The antecedent is obviously not the noun ' wall,' but the fact
expressed by the entire clause,—' William ran,' &c. ' He by no means
wants sense, *which* only serves to aggravate his former folly,' namely,
(not sense, but) the circumstance ' that he does not want sense.' ' He
is neither over-exalted by prosperity, nor too much depressed by misfor-
tune ; *which* you must allow marks a great mind.'   ' We have done
many things *which* we ought not to have done,' might mean ' we
ought not *to have done many things ;*' that is, ' we ought to have done
few things.' ' That ' would give the exact sense intended : ' we have
done many things that we ought not to have done.' ' He began to look
after his affairs himself, *which* was the way to make them prosper.'

' In all cases of prescription, the universal practice of judges is to
direct juries by analogy to the Statute of Limitations, to decide against
incorporeal rights *which* have for many years been relinquished ;'
say instead, ' incorporeal rights *that* have for many years,' and the
sense is clear.

4. We must next allude to the cases where the relative is governed
by a preposition. We can use a preposition with ' who ' and ' which,'
but when the relative is ' that,' the preposition must be thrown to the
end of the clause. Owing to an imperfect appreciation of the genius
of our language, offence was taken at this usage by some of our lead-
ing writers at the beginning of last century, and to this circumstance
we must refer the disuse of ' that ' as the relative of restriction.*

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* Speaking of Dryden, Hallam says, ' His *Essay on Dramatic Poesy*, published in
1668, was reprinted sixteen years afterwards, and it is curious to observe the changes
which Dryden made in the expression. Malone has carefully noted all these ; they
show both the care the author took with his own style, and the change which was
gradually working in the English language. The Anglicism of terminating the sen-
tence with a preposition is rejected. Thus, " I cannot think so contemptibly of the
age I live in," is exchanged for " the age in which I live." " A deeper expression
of belief than all the actor can persuade us to," is altered, " can insinuate into us."
And, though the old form continued in use long after the time of Dryden, it has of
late years been reckoned inelegant, and proscribed in all cases, perhaps with an un-
necessary fastidiousness, to which I have not uniformly deferred, since our language

'It is curious that the only circumstance connected with Scott, and related by Lockhart, *of which* I was a witness, is incorrectly stated in the *Life of Sir Walter.'—Leslie's Memoirs.* The relative should be restrictive, and, if corrected, must be ' that I was a witness of.'

'There are many words *which* are adjectives *which* have nothing to do with the qualities of the nouns to *which* they are put.'—*Cobbett.* Corrected : 'there are many words that are adjectives that have nothing to do with the qualities of the nouns (that) they are put to.'

'Other objects, *of which* we have not occasion to speak so frequently, we do not designate by a name of their own.' This, if amended, would be : 'other objects that we have not occasion to speak of so frequently, we do not,' &c.

'Sorrow for the dead is the only sorrow from which we refuse to be divorced ;' ' the only sorrow (that) we refuse to be divorced from.'

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is of Teutonic structure, and the rules of Latin or French grammar are not always to bind us.'

On the same subject Dr. Campbell remarks :—' Now that I am on the subject of the prepositions, it will not be improper to consider a peculiarity which is often to be found with us in their arrangement. In every other language the preposition is almost constantly prefixed to the noun which it governs ; in English it is sometimes placed not only after the noun, but at a considerable distance from it, as in the following example : " The infirmary was, indeed, never so full as on this day, *which* I was at some loss to account *for,* till upon my going abroad I observed it was an easterly wind." Here no fewer than seven words intervene between the relative *which* and the preposition *for* belonging to it. Besides, the preposition doth not here precede its regimen, but follows it. One would imagine, to consider the matter abstractly, that this could not fail in a language like ours, which admits so few inflections, to create obscurity. Yet this, in fact, is seldom or never the consequence. Indeed the singularity of the idiom hath made some critics condemn it absolutely. That there is nothing analogous in any known tongue, ancient or modern, hath appeared to them a sufficient reason. I own it never appeared so to me.'—*Rhetoric,* Book III., Chap. 4.

The following examples, taken from Massinger's *Grand Duke of Florence,* will show what was the usage of the Elizabethan writers :—

' For I must use the freedom *I was born with.'*

' In that dumb rhetoric which you *make use of.'*

'—— if I had been heir
Of all the globes and sceptres mankind *bows to.'*

'—— the name of friend
Which you are pleased to *grace me with.'*

'—— wilfully ignorant in my opinion
Of what it did *invite him to.'*

' I look to her as on a princess
I dare not be ambitious of.'

'—— a duty
That *I was born with.'*

'—— must supply me
With all *I am defective in.'*

'—— a copious theme
Which would, discoursed at large *of,* make a volume.'

So in Shakspeare, to take an example out of many :—

' To have no screen between the part he played
And him he *played it for.'*

5. 'Whose,' although the possessive of 'who,' is yet frequently employed for the purpose of restriction :

> He spoke of love, such love as spirits feel,
> In worlds *whose* course is equable and pure.

This is not felt to be so great a departure from idiom as the prepositional forms 'of whom,' 'of which,' are when used to define or restrict the subject.

'We are the more likely to guard watchfully against those faults *whose* deformity we have seen fully displayed in others.' This is better than 'the deformity *of which* we have seen.'

6. 'Where,' and its compounds,—'wherein,' 'whereof,' &c., are substitutes for both relatives. They may therefore be used instead of 'that,' without the misleading effect of 'which.' The following are examples :—'the happiest condition of society is (that) *where* the greatest number of persons is (should be *are*) found possessing a moderate yet sufficient subsistence ;' 'I know of no rule *whereby* it may be done ;' 'they (great virtues) often save, and always illustrate the age and nation *in which* (*wherein*) they appear ;' for 'the age and nation that they appear in.'

7. 'Such as,' is most usually restrictive, and is a convenient mode of varying the relative construction :

> Hard fare ! but *such as* boyish appetite
> Disdains not, nor the palate, undepraved
> By culinary arts, unsavoury deems.—*Cowper.*

8. 'What,' the contraction of 'the—that,' 'that which,' has the advantage of taking a preposition : 'ruin seemed impending and inevitable, though no one could tell *in what* precise form it would come,' for 'the precise form that it would come in.'

> What is in me dark,
> Illumine; what is low, raise and support.

'It is probable that any attempt to establish a different classification of the parts of speech, from *that which* (what) is commonly received, will be found of little utility.'

9. We have also seen that a clause in participial apposition may have a restrictive force : 'a truth *long forgotten* may have to be rediscovered.' 'What man among you, having a hundred sheep,' equal to 'that has.' 'We give the papers *showing* (for 'that show') the concord *existing* between the four Powers at the time when England and France were engaging in a separate course of action.'—*Kinglake.* 'But it would be absurd to expect mercy, justice, or wisdom from a class of men first *abased* by many years of oppression, and then *maddened* by the joy of sudden deliverance, and *armed* with irresistible power.'—*Macaulay.*

10. In the following examples we shall avail ourselves, as may seem fit, of all the foregoing devices, with a view to amending the relative construction.

'There are one or two objections *which* have been brought against the study of political economy *which it* may be useful to notice,' may be amended thus : 'there are one or two objections (that have been)

brought against the study of political economy which (and these) it may be useful to notice;' 'it may be useful to notice one or two objections brought against the study of political economy.'

'There are two objections, however, *by which* (whereby) its justness may be possibly controverted.'

'A spirit more amiable, but less vigorous, than Luther's would have shrunk back from the dangers which he braved and surmounted;' 'that he braved;' 'the dangers braved and surmounted by him.'

'Nor is it at all improbable that the emigrants had been guilty of those faults *from which* civilized men *who* settle among an uncivilized people are rarely free.'—*Macaulay.* 'Nor is it at all improbable that the emigrants had been guilty of the faults that (such faults as) civilized men *that settle* (settling, *or* settled) among a civilized people are rarely free from.'

11. The form 'those who' applied in a restrictive sense is the modern substitute for the ancient idiom 'they that,' an idiom in accordance with the true meaning of 'that.' '*They that* told me the story, said;' 'blessed are *they that* mourn;' 'and Simon and *they that* were with him;' 'I love *them that* love me, and *they that* seek me early shall find me;' '*they that* are whole have no need of a physician;' 'how sweet is the rest of *them that* labour!' 'I cannot tell who to compare them to so fitly as to *them that* pick pockets in the presence of the judge;' '*they that* enter into the state of marriage cast a die of the greatest contingency'—*J. Taylor.*

<blockquote>*That* man hath perfect blessedness
Who walketh not astray,</blockquote>

if expressed according to the old idiom would be, '*the* man hath—*that* walketh.'

'That,' 'those,' as demonstrative adjectives refer backward, and are not therefore well suited for the forward reference implied in making use of 'that which,' 'those who,' as restrictive relatives. It is also very cumbrous to say 'that case to which you allude,' for 'the case (that) you allude to.'

12. Take now the following :—'the Duke of Wellington is not one of those who interferes with matters over which he has no control;' 'the Duke is not one of them that interfere in matters that they have no control over (matters that they cannot control, beyond their control, out of their province).' If 'them that' sounds too antiquated, we may adopt as a convenient compromise, 'the Duke is not one of *those that*;' or 'the Duke is not one to interfere in matters out of his province;' 'the Duke is not one that interferes with what he has no control over.'

13. 'Prejudices are notions or opinions which the mind entertains without knowing the grounds and reasons of them, and which are assented to without examination.'—*Berkeley.* The 'which' in both cases should be 'that,' but the relative may be entirely dispensed with by participial conversion : 'prejudices are notions or opinions entertained by the mind without knowing the grounds and reasons of them, and assented to without examination.'

'The political and moral system of Mahomet is *that which* (what,

such as) might be expected from one *who aimed* (aiming) only at personal aggrandizement, and *who had* (having) no generous views beyond.'

'He who thinks that sovereign power is too great, and would desire to limit it, can only do so by setting up a greater;' 'he that, thinking sovereign power too great, desires.'

14. The too frequent repetition of 'who' and 'which' may be avoided by resolving them into the conjunction and personal or other pronoun : 'In such circumstances, the utmost that Bosquet could be expected to do was to hold his ground, (which) *and this* he did.'

THE PRONOUN 'IT.'

We have seen that the variety of reference of this pronoun is a frequent cause of ambiguity. The peculiar English idiom 'it is,' 'it brings,' 'it comes to pass,' *followed* by the thing referred to, makes a clash of meaning such as does not occur with the other pronouns. 'I am going to mention the matter. *It* is right that *it* should be mentioned.' The first 'it' here is prospective, and refers to the clause 'that it should be mentioned;' the second refers back to 'the matter.'

'*It* had been well both for England and (for) Scotland that there had been more of such good and moderate kings, as *it* would have prevented many long wars.' 'It' in both instances points to the same clause (that there had been more of such good and moderate kings), but the first precedes, and the other follows the clause.

'There are so many advantages of speaking one's own language well, and being a master of *it*, that let a man's calling be what *it* will, *it* cannot but be worth our taking some pains in *it*.' The variety of reference is here very great. The first 'it' has 'language' for its antecedent, the *prominent* subject of the previous clause, and is therefore unexceptionable; the second 'it' readily refers us to the noun immediately preceding, 'calling;' but the third changes the reference to something prospective, 'our taking some pains;' and the fourth carries us back to 'language.' To remedy the confusion, the third 'it' should be done away with, and the second removed to the end: 'the advantages of speaking one's own language well are so many, that the taking of some pains to be master of *it*, cannot but be worth while to every man let his calling be what *it* will.' The pronouns remaining are so placed that their antecedents are obvious.

When we intend to employ the prospective 'it,' 'it is,' &c., we should not bring the retrospective use into collision with the other. 'The best way in the world for a man to seem to be anything is really to be what he would seem to be. Besides, that *it* is many times as troublesome to make good the pretence of a good quality as to have *it*; and if a man have *it* not, *it* is ten to one but he is discovered to want *it*, and then all his pains and labours to seem to have *it* are lost.' Here the two modes of reference are inextricably confused together. One of them ought to be done away with. 'Besides, to make good the pretence of a good quality is many times as troubl -

some as to have *it;* and if a man have *it* not, ten to one but he is discovered to want *it,* and then all his pains and labour to seem to have *it* are lost.' The sole reference now is to the one subject 'quality.'

'If *it* were spoken with never so great skill in the actor, the manner of uttering that sentence could have nothing in *it* which could strike any but people of the greatest humanity,—nay, people elegant and skilful in observations upon *it.*' The first 'it' refers to 'sentence,' the others to 'manner.' The first might be left out, the clause being converted into a participial phrase which would be readily interpreted as in apposition with 'that sentence:' 'if spoken with never so great skill.'

'*It* is a sign of great prudence to be willing to receive instruction; the most intelligent persons sometimes stand in need of *it.*' 'The willingness to receive instruction is a sign of great prudence; the most intelligent persons sometimes stand in need of *it*'—is better; although the natural antecedent would still be, not 'instruction,' but 'willingness.'

OF PURITY.

Besides observing the rules of grammar, we must employ only such words as really belong to the language, and must use them in their correct sense. To attend to these conditions is to have regard to purity.

The errors against purity are classed under three heads: Barbarism, Solecism, and Impropriety.

BARBARISM.

This consists in using words that are not English. These are—1. Obsolete words.

Many words occur in old writers that have ceased to be current; some of them being no longer intelligible. Such are 'hight,' 'clept,' 'erst,' 'umwhile,' 'behest,' 'addulce,' 'surcease,' 'uneath,' 'whilom,' &c.

2. New words not fully adopted into the language.

New words are in part borrowed from foreign languages. Some are introduced for good reasons, as new scientific terms, and the names of new materials ('gutta-percha,' for example). But many are used without much necessity. Such are most of the following words from the French :—'sortie,' 'dernier resort,' 'beaux arts,' 'belles lettres' (polite literature), 'politesse,' 'délicatesse,' 'hauteur,' 'connoisseur,' 'reconnoitre,' 'agréments,' 'opine,' 'ignore,' 'fraîcheur,'

'esprit de corps,' 'cortége,' 'soubriquet,' 'habitué,' 'boudoir, 'espionage,' Some indicate shades of meaning that we cannot express by English words, and hence the pretext for using them; for example : 'ennui,' 'prestige,' 'naïveté,' 'dolce far niente' (Ital.), 'verbiage,' 'solidarity.'

It is a special objection to the employment of these words, that the pronunciation of them is totally different from the pronunciation of our language. In books they are generally printed in italics, to mark that they are not English.

A number of Latin words and phrases have obtained currency in their original form; as 'onus probandi,' 'obiter dictum,' 'sub judice, 'res gestæ,' 'a priori,' 'a posteriori,' 'a fortiori,' 'non sequitur,' 'ad hominem,' 'verbatim et literatim,' &c. It is well to employ such phrases as little as possible.

Newly-coined words are barbarous until their adoption has become general. There is a constant tendency to coin new words, a great number of which never obtain currency. Thus, 'martyrized,' for 'martyred,' 'incumberment' for 'encumbrance :' 'proclivity,' 'productivity,' 'acquests,' are words suggested, but not adopted.

Many new words and phrases have come from America; as 'outsiders,' 'coincidences,' 'immigrants,' 'progress' (as a verb), 'to feel of,' &c.

'Talented' is a word not yet in good use. We say 'a man of talent.'

SOLECISM.

The words employed may be English, but they may be combined in a form that is not English. This is Solecism. Bad Syntax is included in the definition, but there may be Solecisms that do not violate grammar; they are then said to be violations of *idiom*.

If we say 'I have hunger,' we do not commit bad grammar; still the combination is not English: it is French. 'I feel a smell' is grammatical, but not according to idiom. 'I will speak my mind,' 'get thee gone' (we cannot say 'make thee gone'), 'many a man,' 'you had best,' 'do honour to,' (Shakspeare says 'do *grace* to Cæsar's corpse,') 'once and again,' are English idioms, for which no reason can be given but that they are in use.

IMPROPRIETY.

This means employing words in a wrong sense.

1. Impropriety in single words. Goldsmith says 'whatever may be thought of the *veracity* of this story,' for 'the *truth* of this story.' Veracity is the quality of the 'narrator.' 'There was a *quantity* of people present,' 'there *were a number*.' These are examples of one kind of impropriety.

It often happens that two words have similar, but not identical meanings, so that the one cannot be used for the other on every oc-

casion. Such terms are called *synonymous*, or *synonymes*. The following are examples:—'all, every, each;' 'allow, permit;' 'assist, help;' 'astonish, surprise;' 'belief, faith;' 'pleasure, delight, joy;' 'repentance, remorse;' 'principle, truth;' 'observe, remark;' 'on the contrary, on the other hand.'

Another class of improprieties originate in not adverting to the *composition* of a word, or to the precise force of the prefix or the suffix combined with the root. Thus: 'Ramus published a Greek grammar, with many important *variances* from his precursors,' for 'variations;' 'the *observation* of the Sabbath,' 'the *observance;*' 'the Greek is a language superior in *riches*,' '*richness;*' 'he felt himself compelled to acknowledge the *justice* (*justness*) of my remark;' 'the *negligence* (*neglect*) of this leaves us exposed;' 'you are *like* (*likely*) to be late.'

Sometimes we are misled by similarity of sound, as in using the word 'demean' (signifying 'to behave,' 'to conduct one's self,' as in 'demeanour') in the sense of 'lowering,'|'debasing,' 'making mean.' 'They form a procession to *proceed* (precede) the palanquin of the ambassador;' 'he *rose* (raised) the price of bread last week;' 'it *lays* (lies) on the table;' 'they *wrecked* (wreaked) their vengeance.'

2. Impropriety in phrases. This refers to expressions that contain, when analyzed, some inconsistency or absurdity. A common instance of the class is seen in the following example:—'it celebrates the Church of England as the most perfect *of all others*,' meaning 'the most perfect of all.' So,

> The comeliest man of men *since born* ᵂʸ
> *His sons*. The fairest of her daughters Eve.

This makes Adam one of his sons, and Eve one of her daughters! 'I had like to have gotten one or two broken heads for my impertinence;' 'I was once or twice likely to get my head broken for my impertinence.'

> Like kings we lose the conquests gained before,|
> By vain ambition still to make *them* more.

'Conquests gained before,' cannot be made 'more.'

It is a rule in English that two negatives make a positive; the one neutralizes the other; as 'I entertain a *not unfavourable* opinion of him.' Hence, when denial is intended, it is an inconsistency to use more than one negative. 'They cannot utter the one, *nor* will they *not* utter the other;' 'this is *not* always the case *neither*.'

'These two men are *both* equal in strength,' is an inconsistent expression, if it be meant that one is equal to the other.

There is a congruity to be observed in the use of two or more verbs in a sentence under a similar construction. 'It *were* well for the insurgents, and fortunate for the king, if the blood that was now shed *had been* thought a sufficient expiation for the offence;' 'it *had been* well,' is the tense suiting 'had been thought.' 'If you *please* to employ your thoughts on that subject, you *would* easily conceive the miserable condition many of us are in;' this should be either 'if you *please*, you *will*,' or, 'if you *pleased* (it pleased you) you *would*.'

' Fierce as he *moved*, his silver shafts *resound*,' is incongruous, different tenses being applied to contemporaneous actions.—*Crombie*, pp. 301, 302.

Many improprieties are provincialisms, or district peculiarities. Thus, we have Scotticisms, Irishisms, Americanisms, Cockneyisms.

The Scotticism does not consist in the employment of purely Scotch words, but in English words used in a Scotch meaning or construction. A list of Scotticisms is here appended, in addition to those already noticed.

SCOTTICISMS.

(1. *Wrong Use of Words*.)

He was *amissing*.—Missing.

I have nothing *ado*, or nothing else *ado*.—To do.

A few days *after*.—Thereafter.

He has been *ailing* for some weeks.—Unwell.

I lost *altogether* fifty pound.—In all.

I would rather go *as* stay.—Than.

He is *away*.—He is absent, not present.

How are you to day? Very *bad*.—Ill. *Badly*.—Ill.

Let him *be*.—Alone.

His watch is *before*.—Fast.

Your watch is *behind*.—Slow. I fear I shall be *behind*.—Late.

When I shall be *beside* you.—With.

Smith the grocer *broke*.—Failed, became bankrupt.

By-gone, by-past. — Past. Shakspeare has *gone-by*.

A sugar-*bowl*.—Basin.

He walked at the *burial*.—Funeral.

They never *cast-out*. — Disagree, or quarrel.

I was his *caution*.—Security.

The affair *comes to be* serious.—Becomes.

Close the door.—Shut.

For common.—Commonly.

Compliment.—A present.

Corn the horses.—Feed.

A couple of hens.—Two hens.

A coarse day; *coarse* weather.—Bad. But we may say, a *fine* day, and *fine* weather.

Are your children *at the counting ?*—Studying arithmetic.

A *cloth-brush.*—A clothes-brush.

To *crave* a man for a debt.—To dun him or demand payment of him. *To crave a debt*, or *to crave payment*, might be proper.

Were you *crying* on me?—Calling.

To disabuse is sometimes used for to abuse.

I am very *dry*.—Thirsty.

He is *dull*.—Deaf. . The day is *dull*.—Overcast.

An oaken *deal*.—Plank. Deals, or deal boards are made of fir or pine.

He is much *distressed* with an *inward trouble*.—He is much pained with an internal disease.

Give me a *drink*.—Give me drink, some drink, or something to drink.

A *faint*.—A fainting-fit; a swoon.

I *feel* afraid.—I am afraid.

I *feel* a sweet smell.—I smell a sweet smell, I smell something agreeable. To *feel a smell* is as repugnant to the English idiom as to *see a sound*.

He *fevered*; he *took a fever*. — He had fever; or was taken, or seized, with fever.

I *find* no pain.—Feel.

Monday *first*.—Next.

Flesher.—Butcher.

A *flower* (bunch of flowers).—A nosegay.

Fog is a Scotch name for moss.

He sits at the *foot* of the table.—The lower end.

To *follow out* a plan.—To execute, or carry on a plan.

For ordinary.—Ordinarily, usually, commonly.

A *four*-square table.—A square table.

Fresh weather.—Soft, open, not frosty.

Friend.—Used for a relation (in blood).

Frighted.—Afraid, frightened.

The *frost* is slippery.—The ice.

Gear.—Wealth or riches.

I was unable to *get*.—Get away.

Have you found my *glasses ?*—Spectacles.

Goblet.—Saucepan.

Greedy and greediness are English, but *greed* is Scotch.

The boy was ill-*guided*.—Ill-used, ill-treated.

He fell in the *gutter*.—In the dirt.

What's o'clock? *Half six*.—Half an hour past five, or half-past five. Five minutes *from* twelve.—Five minutes to twelve, or before twelve; or, it

wants five minutes of twelve. (By *five minutes from twelve* an Englishman would understand *five minutes past twelve*.)

Hard fish.—Dried fish, or salt fish.

I was in London last *harvest*.—Autumn.

Head of the table; *head* of a street.—Upper end.

Sore-head.—Headache.

A *hirer* in Scotland is one who lends a horse for hire. In England it is one who borrows a thing, and pays money for the use of it; or who employs another and pays him wages.

I am *hopeful* that.—I hope that.

Inkholder.—Inkhorn.

To *ken*.—To know. In modern poetical English *to ken* is to descry, to see at a distance.

Kindle a fire.—(Not improper, but the more usual English word is 'Light.')

To *labour* the ground. — To till the ground.

Fodder is *large*.—Plentiful, in plenty.

Every *lawful* day.—Every week-day.

In old English and in Scotch, *to learn* means both to give and to receive instruction; but in English it is now confined to the latter meaning.

He is still *in life*.—Alive.

I *lifted* a pin from the carpet.—Picked up.

Lime for *mortar* is Scotch. Mortar is the cement when prepared; and lime, sand, and water are the materials.

He was *lost* in the river.—Drowned. Or if the body be carried away, or not found, the person may be said to be lost.

In old English and in Scotch *meat* means food in general. In modern English it denotes flesh-meat.

I do not *mind* that I ever saw you before. — Remember. To *mind* is in English to attend to, or to put in mind.

The project *misgave*.—Failed, or miscarried. My mind misgave me, is correct.

The boy *misguides* his clothes.—Abuses or sullies. To *misguide* is to mislead.

On the *morn*.—Morrow.

Napkin.—Pocket-handkerchief.

To *notice*.—To take notice of, to mention.

The omission of a point sometimes makes great *odds* in the sense.—A great difference.

If I had it in my *offer*, I would not accept of it.—In my choice. The offer is here supposed to be not *mine*, but made by another.

This bread is *old*.—Stale.

Cut *out* your hair.—Off.

Take *out* your glass.—Take your glass.

In an *overly* manner.—Cursory, or superficial.

A *pair* of ducks; a *pair* of partridges.—Two ducks; a brace of partridges.

The *park* is well ploughed.—Field.

Plainstones.—Pavement.

He was *pointed* in his answers.—Exact and concise. Pointed, in the figurative sense, applied to language, conveys the idea of wit or conceit.

A gentleman's *policies*. — Pleasure-grounds.

Pouch is used in Scotland, and was used in England, for *pocket*. But a pocket is inserted in the clothes, a pouch is not.

He lives *presently* in London. — At present.

To *pull* up by the roots.—To pluck up by the roots. To *pull* a flower.—To pluck a flower. One might *pull* a flower without *plucking* it. Separation seems to be implied in the latter word.

Queer, in English, is odd, strange, particular. In Scotland it is used in the sense of comical, humorous.

He will not *readily* do that.—He is not likely to do that. One would *readily* imagine. — Naturally. *Readily*, in English, denotes with little delay or hindrance.

Considerable arrears being now *resting* to the soldiers.—Remaining.

The babe *roars*.—Cries.

Roasted cheese.—Toasted cheese.

Roof of a room.—Ceiling.

He *roves* in a fever.—Raves. To *rove* is to roam or wander.

I am *scarce* of fodder.—Short of fodder, have not a sufficiency.

A *Scots* idiom.—A Scotch idiom.

He *scoured* the knives.—Cleaned.

That dress *sets* her well.—Becomes.

For my *share* I can only say, &c.—For my part.

Shearers.—Reapers. A shearer, in England, is one that cuts with shears. 'A sheep before her shearers is dumb.'

The ship is at the *shore*.—Quay, wharf. The shore is the coast of the sea.

Have you any *silver ?*—Change.

Simply impossible.—Absolutely.

I will answer the letter *so* soon as I receive it.—As. It is correct to say, 'I did not receive the letter *so* soon as I expected it.'

A *soft* day.—Wet.

The candlestick is *sitting* in the press.—Stands in the cupboard.

Some better.—A little, something. You will *some* day know it.—One.

Do you *snuff ?*—Take snuff.

The servant was *sorting* the room at the time.—Putting in order.

Is your watch out of *sorts?* — Out of order.

Speak to me.—Listen to me.

In Scotland *spice* is used for pepper, and *corn* for oats. But pepper, cloves, cinnamon, mace, are different sorts of spice; and oats, barley, rye, wheat, are different kinds of corn.

A *winding stair* goes from top to bottom.—Winding stairs.

The horse *stammers.*—Stumbles.

He *stopped* three months with them.—Remained, resided, stayed.

In Scotland the word *storm* is used to signify a storm of snow, or snowy weather. Even the expression *lying storm* is made use of.

A man's *subjects.*—Effects.

Send me a *swatch* of the cloth.—Sample.

Sweet butter.—Fresh butter.

Sweet milk.—New milk.

Tell the man to come here.—Bid the man come here or hither. Or tell the man that I wish to speak to him.

The two boys *strove.*—Quarrelled.

Pope was a *tender* man.—Weakly.

This donation was the more acceptable, *that* it was given without solicitation.—Because.

He is twenty years old, or *thereby.*—Thereabout, or thereabouts.

The church was very *throng.*—Full, crowded.

A *timber* candlestick.—Wooden.

It is not easy for him to speak three sentences *together.*—Consecutively.

Tradesman, in Scotland, is one who works with his hands at a trade. In England it is a shopkeeper, who either does or does not work with his hands.

Sore trouble.—Painful disease.

James is *turned* a great student.—Has become.

Wainscot, for oak, is a Scotticism.—Wainscot, in the English sense, is the inner lining of a wall with any sort of wood.

Lend me your knife. I cannot *want* it.—Do without it.

The *water of* Don.—The River Don.

I *weary* when I sit alone.—Become weary. *Weary*, in England, is an active verb; as 'walking wearies me.'

The *weaving* or *working* of stockings is a great manufacture in Aberdeenshire.—Knitting.

I rose *whenever* I heard you call.—When, as soon as. *Whenever* is at *what ever* time.

Whitsunday.—Whitsuntide.

Some say that our *whole* actions are selfish.—All our actions. His *whole* friends forsook him.—All his friends.

An old *wife.*—An old woman. A wife is a woman who has a husband.

What's your *will?* — What do you want?

I never *witnessed* anything so ridiculous.—Beheld, or saw. Last night I *witnessed* a very agreeable conversation.—Was present at.

Mr. —— is come ; I hear his *word.*—Voice. Have you any *word* to your brother.—Have you any message?

Carpenters, joiners, cabinet-makers, &c. are, in Scotland, called *wrights*, and sometimes *square-wrights*. Wright is workman or artificer; but in England is used in composition only; as 'ship-wright,' 'wheel-wright.'

A *writer.*—An attorney. In England a writer is an author.

A *yard.*—A garden.

Yesternight.—Last night.

(2. *Wrong Phrases.*)

Butter and bread.—Bread and butter. In all similar phrases bread has the precedency; as 'bread and milk,' 'bread and cheese,' &c.

I behoved to go.—It behoved me to go. I was obliged to go.

I would die *before I would* break my word.—Rather than break.

A *bit bread*, a *bit paper.*—A bit of bread, a bit of paper.

To *cause him to do it*, is better than to *cause him do it*. But *to make him do it* is better than *to make him to do it* ; which last phrase, however, though uncommon, is not without authority. Again, *I made him do it* is right ; but

he was made do it is wrong. It must be, *he was made to do it.*

I would have you *to know.*—I would have you know.

To *play cards.*—To play at cards.

To *cast up a fault to* one.—To upbraid one with a fault.

A letter *conceived in* the following words.—Containing.

To hinder *to do.*—To hinder from doing.

What *like is it?*—What is it like?

Well, *there* is no matter.—No matter, or it is no matter.

The child *took the pox.*—Was seized with, or taken ill of, small-pox.

Give me *a clean* plate.—Change my plate.

A *piece bread.*—A piece of bread.

To *think shame.*—To be ashamed.

He *thinks long* for summer.—He longs for summer.

Everything succeeds *to a wish.*—As one would wish, according to our wishes.

He *was in use* to walk every day.—He used to walk, or was wont to walk.

He *has a good hand of write.*—He writes well.

I am going *to play myself.*—To play.

Who do you sit under ?—Whose church do you go to ?

You may *lay your account with* opposition.—You may expect, or reckon upon opposition.

The clock *is standing.*—Has stopped.

He *wants out.*—He wishes to go out.

I *slipped a foot* and fell down.—My foot slipped and I fell.

James and John are perpetually *quar-*

relling with one another.—Are perpetually quarrelling.

It is ten *years ago since* he died.—It is ten years since he died.

I can sing none.—I cannot sing at all.

When *does the church go in ?*—When does service begin ?

Take it (*to*) yourself.

Are you for any pudding ?—Will you take ?

Getting *his* breakfast.—Taking breakfast. I take an egg *to* (for) breakfast.

I can't *get into* my box.—I can't open.

I will *let you see* it.—Show it you.

Going *the length of* the pier.—As far as.

I am going to (*my*) bed—(*my*) dinner.

Almost never.—Seldom or never.

Almost nothing.—Little or nothing.

If I *am not mistaken.*—Mistake not.

How far does he go with you ? No *more* than to Edinburgh.—Farther.

This is *far* neater.—Much.

PUNCTUATION.

Punctuation divides paragraphs and sentences by points or stops, with a view to assist us in discovering readily the connections of the words, and to indicate the pauses required in reading.

It has been seen that the reference of qualifying adjuncts is to be determined principally by their proximity to the words they qualify. Punctuation is an additional help.

The chief stops are these : the *comma* (,), the *semicolon* (;), and the full stop, or *period* (.). The *colon* (:) is something intermediate between the semicolon and full stop, but is not often required.

The other stops are—the interrogation (?), put at the end of a question ; the parentheses ( ), and the brackets [ ], to indicate a remark thrown in without connection with the rest of the sentence ; the dash (—) ; and the exclamation (!).

THE COMMA.

Simple Sentences.

1. The comma is used before the verb if the subject is rendered very long by means of adjuncts : 'The circumstance of his being

unprepared to adopt immediate and decisive measures, was represented to the Government.' But in ordinary cases a stop should not be placed between the subject and the verb : ' To be totally indifferent to praise or censure is a real defect of character.'

2. It is used before and after a participle or participial phrase when co-ordinating and not restrictive : ' The jury, having retired for half an hour, brought in a verdict for the defendant;' ' encouraged by his first successes, he redoubled his efforts.' But when the participial phrase is restrictive, the comma is not used, it being improper to separate a qualifying adjunct from the word qualified by it : ' A king depending on the support of his subjects cannot rashly go to war.'

The same rule extends to adjectives and nouns in apposition, when they are qualified by other words, and are in their effect co-ordinating rather than restrictive : ' The stranger, unwilling to obtrude himself on our notice, left in the morning ;' ' Rome, the city of the Emperors, became the city of the Popes.' Even without adjuncts, a word in apposition, especially when adding new information, is often enclosed in commas : ' Paul, the Apostle,' &c. But it is advisable so to punctuate as to maintain the distinction between restrictive and co-ordinating adjuncts.

3. An adverbial phrase preceding the verb, or its subject, is followed by a comma : ' In truth, I could not tell ;' ' to sum up, the matter is this ;' ' everything being ready, they departed ;' ' by looking a little deeper, the reason will be found.' When complex adverbial phrases come between the subject and the verb, they are placed between commas.

4. When the subject of a sentence consists of several nouns not coupled by ' and,' they are separated by commas : ' Peter, James, Thomas, and Mary formed the party.'

5. The name of a person addressed is separated from the rest of the sentence by commas : ' John, come here ;' ' tell me, boy, what is your name ?'

6. A phrase or quotation that is either the subject or the object of the verb, is preceded or followed by a comma : ' He said, Let us go hence.'

Complex and Compound Sentences.

1. A noun clause that is the subject of a verb should be followed by a comma : ' That the work of forming and perfecting the character is difficult, is generally allowed.'

If the clause follows the verb, a comma does not usually precede : ' It is known that a full examination took place.'

So an object noun clause is not usually preceded by a comma, unless it is of very great length.

2. An adjective clause is not separated by a comma from the noun. This is on the principle already laid down concerning restrictive adjuncts.

On the other hand, a co-ordinating clause, introduced by the rela-

tive, is preceded and, if need be, followed by a comma: 'I went to view the river, which I found greatly swollen.'

An adjective clause has a comma placed after it when it has the effect of very much lengthening the subject of the principal verb: 'Any one that refuses to earn an honest livelihood, is not a subject for charity.' This is on the same principle as Rule 1, for the simple sentence. A comma is also necessary at the end of such clauses if followed by an adverbial adjunct of the principal verb, which otherwise might be referred to the subordinate clause: 'I refused to employ the man that he recommended, because of his unfitness for the post.'

3. Adverbial sentences are separated by commas unless they are short and closely connected with the main sentence: 'If the premises were admitted, I should deny the conclusion;' 'where your treasure is, there will your heart be also;' 'send me word before you come.'

4. Co-ordinate sentences, expressed at full length, are generally separated by commas: 'But his pride is greater than his ignorance, and what he wants in knowledge he supplies by sufficiency.' A slight amount of contraction does not dispense with the rule: 'A man of polite imagination can converse with a picture, and find an agreeable companion in a statue.' But when the sentences are very closely related to each other, and connected by the conjunctions 'and,' 'or,' 'nor,' the comma is omitted: 'I made haste and overtook him;' 'neither money nor men were wanting.' A clause introduced by an arrestive conjunction, 'but,' &c., must be separated by a comma from what precedes, owing to the break in the sense: 'He went to market, but did not find what he wanted.'

When the conjunction is omitted between two co-ordinate sentences, they must be separated by a comma if short, and by a semi-colon if long and complicated. (This is in accordance with Rule 4, for the simple sentence.) 'He came, he saw, he conquered.' When such sentences (sometimes called collateral) are contracted, the remaining portions are still divided by commas: 'Early to bed and early to rise, makes a man healthy, wealthy, and wise;' or 'healthy, wealthy, wise.'

These rules are all pervaded by one general principle, namely, that when words are closely connected in grammar or in sense they must not be separated in the pointing;* but if an interruption takes place, or a transition is made, a point is necessary. An expression enclosed between commas is in some sort parenthetical; there would be no break in the grammatical connection, or in the sense, if it were passed over.

THE SEMICOLON.

This is introduced when a greater pause is required than what is usually indicated by the comma. In the construction of sentences, or periods, we may have some clauses more closely connected than others,

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* The only exception to this is Rule 1 (simple sentence); but that is justified on the ground of the inordinate length of the subject rendering a pause desirable.

and the degree of connection may be suggested by the absence of a stop, by a comma, or by the semicolon : 'Children without any design imitate the language, the tone, the pronunciation, the looks, the gestures, the gait of those with whom they live; and if the imitation be continued sufficiently long, no efforts in after life can overcome the effects of it, the flexibility or docility, so to speak, of the tissues or organs concerned seeming to diminish rapidly with the approach to maturity, or the cessation of growth.' Here it is felt that the break or pause is much greater after 'they live,' than at the end of the various words where commas are used. There is also a considerable break in the sense after 'can overcome the effects of it,' where also there would have been no impropriety in placing another semicolon.

When a pause is not sufficiently marked by the semicolon, the COLON may be used at the writer's discretion. But no fixed rules can be laid down respecting the use of this stop. One application of it is to introduce a quotation, a narrative, or an argument : 'He spoke as follows :—'

THE PERIOD OR FULL STOP.

This stop is used at the close of a complete sentence. The rules for its use are the rules for the composition of periods and paragraphs. The most usual error is to include in one period the matter that should be divided into two, or perhaps more.

The full stop is used after abbreviations, 'MS.,' 'LL.D.,' 'Lond.,' 'Mr.,' 'Esq.,' 'Bart.'

The note of interrogation must not be used after *indirect* questions ; as 'he asked me who called.'

The parentheses enclose some remark that does not enter into the construction of the sentence :

> The bliss of man (could pride that blessing find)
> Is not to act or think beyond mankind.

The dash marks an unexpected or emphatic pause, or a sudden break or transition : 'Why, perhaps it is—but what was his intention?'

Sometimes it is used to mark words in apposition, or in explanation :

> They plucked the seated hills, with all their load—
> Rocks, waters, woods—and by the shaggy tops
> Uplifting, bore them in their hands.

Two dashes may be used to enclose an explanatory parenthetic clause : 'In truth, the character of the great chief was depicted two thousand five hundred years before his birth, and depicted—such is the power of genius—in colours which will be fresh as many years after his death.'

Inverted commas are used to mark quotations.

The note of exclamation or admiration is used after interjections and passionate exclamations, or after any passages that are intended to be especially emphatic : 'A dread eternity ! how surely mine !'

PARSING.

In giving a complete account of a sentence, we might parse it *five* times, for as many different purposes. We might state first the part of speech of each word; secondly, the inflection of every inflected word; thirdly, the derivation of each word; fourthly, the analysis of the sentence; and fifthly, the application of the syntactical rules of concord, government, and order to the sentence. But there being very little to do under the second head—inflection, we may conveniently join that with the first. Also, the analysis and the other parts of syntax are so closely allied, that we may take the whole under one parsing. There will thus be three distinct parsings applicable to any one passage.

1. Parsing for parts of speech (including inflection). Under this we state the part of speech of each word (whether noun, pronoun, &c.), and also the class or subdivision that the word belongs to. It is necessary even for this limited purpose to understand the syntax of the sentence, for we must often treat a phrase of two or more words as grammatically one. Moreover, we must determine the part of speech according to the actual function of the word in each case; seeing that the same word falls under different parts of speech at different times. We shall take as an example the following passage from Milton :—

> Far less abhorred than these
> Vex'd Scylla, bathing in the sea that parts
> Calabria from the hoarse Trinacrian shore.

'Far :' an adverb of degree, qualifying 'less.'

'Less :' adverb of degree, the comparative; qualifying 'abhorred.'

'Abhorred :' an adjective of quality (derived from the perfect participle of the verb 'abhor'); limits or qualifies 'hell-hounds,' understood.

'Than :' a relative or conjunctive adverb, qualifying a verb understood (were abhorred), the completion of the clause commencing with 'these.'

'These :' demonstrative adjective, plural number; qualifies 'hell-hounds,' understood; *or* demonstrative pronoun, plural number; having for its antecedent 'hell-hounds.'

'Vex'd :' transitive verb; in the active voice, indicative mood, past indefinite tense, third person, plural number; subject (or nominative) 'hell-hounds,' understood.

'Scylla :' noun, proper and singular (or simply proper);* the object of the verb 'vexed.'

'Bathing :' intransitive verb, imperfect (or incomplete) participle, in apposition with Scylla, having a sub-ordinating effect. The verb has also a transitive application.

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* See Note in next page.

' In :' preposition, place, rest in ; governs the noun ' sea.'

' The :' demonstrative adjective (usually called the definite article) ; qualifies ' sea.' [Give the meanings of ' the.' What classes of nouns can take the article ?' &c.]

' Sea :' a noun, general and significant (or simply general, or common),* governed by ' in.'

' That :' pronoun, relative, restrictive ; antecedent ' sea ;' subject (or nominative) to the verb ' parts.'

' Parts :' transitive verb; active voice, indicative mood, present indefinite tense, singular number, third person.

' Calabria :' noun, proper and singular (or simply proper) ;* governed by the verb ' parts.'

' From :' preposition (one of the case prepositions), place, motion with direction ; governs ' shore.'

' Hoarse :' adjective of quality ; qualifies ' shore.'

' Trinacrian :' adjective, derived from a proper name; qualifies ' shore.'

' Shore :' noun, general (or common) ;* governed by the preposition ' from.' (The combination ' Trinacrian shore' constitutes a singular name, partly significant and partly proper.)

II. Parsing for Derivation. This consists of *two* parts; first, assigning the source of each word; as ' Saxon,' ' French,' &c.; and secondly, giving account of its composition when it is a compound word.

The rules and lists given under DERIVATION,—*Sources of Words,* together with the lists given in the Appendix, are intended to afford the means of determining the etymological origin of all our words. The rules to be absolutely relied on are those in sections 28, 29, 32, 33. It is to be seen first whether a word belongs to the parts of speech, &c., that are of Saxon origin (28, 29). If this is not decisive, the rules relating to the number of syllables (32, 33) are to be referred to, together with the lists of exceptions.

The pupil should gradually master all the smaller lists of the languages given in the text,—Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, Arabic, &c. He should also master the Saxon words of more than one syllable, of which a tolerably complete enumeration is given in the account of the things named from the Saxon; in which account the examples are purposely drawn from dissyllabic words. When a word of more than one syllable occurs, it should be stripped of any known

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* I consider that instead of the two commonly recognized classes of nouns—proper and common—there ought to be four classes (NOUN, 4—7); but it would be too much trouble to keep up these distinctions on all occasions, and I should therefore propose that when a noun is a proper (or *meaningless*) name, and also the name of *one* object, it should simply be called ' proper ;' as the names that are proper and *not* singular are the exception, and may be noted when they occur. The significant nouns are nearly all ' general,' and might be parsed as ' general ' (or if preferred ' common '), and therefore ' general ' or ' common ' might be held to mean ' general and significant,' unless the contrary be stated. The parsing of nouns would thus continue as at present, except that when such a word as the ' Browns ' or the ' Jameses ' occurred, it would be stated as ' proper and common ;' and when ' Providence ' or the ' emperor ' occurred, it would be stated as ' singular and significant.'

prefix or ending, and reduced to its simplest form; as 'foot-step,' 'mis-behave,' 'under-go,' 'out-strip,' 'with-draw,' 'faith-ful.' It is the uncompounded form that we are to deal with according to the rules (32, 33). The question will then be decided by a reference to the lists in the Appendix. The first of these lists—the Celtic, might be readily mastered; the Scandinavian list is somewhat longer, but if the pupil were familiar with it likewise, the actual reference would be confined to two lists—the Gothic and the list of classical mono-syllables. A key is thereby furnished to the sources of the language, upon a plan preferable to the use of the dictionary, as it deals with classes and not with individuals, and renders it possible ultimately to master the entire language.

The rules drawn from the endings and prefixes (30, 31) are very useful for giving the probable origin of words at the first glance; but in consequence of the great number of hybrids, of which no com-plete list has been made, they are not the rules that are depended on. In distinguishing between a Latinized and a Saxon style generally, they are a tolerably safe guide.

If pupils have been disciplined in Latin, Greek, and Saxon roots, or if they have made some progress in Latin and Greek, or in French, they will have an additional means of discriminating the sources of our vocabulary; and the teacher will then appeal to this part of their knowledge in parsing for derivation.

To take a few examples: 'abide,' Saxon (old verb); 'never,' Saxon (simple adverb of time); 'gather,' Saxon (examples, sec. 37); 'aunt,' classical, Latin (Appendix IV.); 'cipher,' Arabic; 'azure,' Italian; 'belt,' Saxon (not in the list of classical monosyllables, nor in any other list); 'button,' classical (not among Saxon dissyllables, nor in any other list; (which of the three classical sources is not determined); 'clumsy,' Icelandic (Scandinavian list); 'bachelor,' Welsh (Celtic list).

The other exercise under Derivation consists in reducing words that are not simple to their simple elements. Thus 'greatness' is made up of the adjective 'great' and the suffix 'ness;' 'embitter' is the adjective 'bitter' combined with the prefix 'em,' which is em-ployed to convert adjectives into verbs, with the meaning of 'to make;' 'powder-horn' is a compound word made up of two nouns.

III. Parsing for Syntax. The analysis of sentences has been sufficiently exemplified. There remains only the illustration of the rules of concord, government, and order, as given under those several heads.

EXAMPLES OF ERRORS.

(*The arrangement is designedly made promiscuous.*)

The separation did not take place till after the language had attained the ripeness of maturity.

The Church has, through its Committee on Education, in their last report, recommended a more liberal endowment, so that we have now reason to count upon their cordial co-operation.

What is the reason that our language is less refined than those of Italy, Spain, or France?

Prompted by the most extreme vanity, he persisted in the writing bad verses.

By letters, dated the third of May, we learn that the West India fleet arrived safely.

If I want skill or force to restrain the beast that I ride upon, though I bought it and call it my own; yet, in the truth of the matter, I am at that time rather his man than he my horse.

This great philosopher, with whom I am always unwilling to differ, refers, &c.

It is not so unwieldy as to make it necessary to have recourse to the complex mechanism of double elections.

A history now by a Mr. Hume, or a poem by a Mr. Pope, would be examined with different eyes than had they borne any other name.

One species of bread, of coarse quality, was only allowed to be baked.

The party whom he invited was very numerous.

The Duke of Manchester died at Rome on the 18th of March, 1843. His grace in 1793 married the daughter of the late Duke of Gordon, and was 71 years of age.

There is not a girl in town, but let her have her will, in going to a mask, and she shall dress like a shepherdess.

It is now about four hundred years since the art of multiplying books has been discovered.

An officer on European and on Indian service are in very different situations.

For I remember that among your ancient authors, not only all kings, but even Jupiter himself is so termed.

My old friend, after having seated himself, and trimmed the boat with his coachman, who, being a very sober man, always serves for ballast on these occasions, we made the best of our way to Fox-hall.

Man never is, but always to be blest.

Indeed, were we to judge of German reading habits from these volumes of ours, we should draw quite a different conclusion to Paul's.

I know no duty in religion more generally agreed on, nor more justly required by God.

The doctor, in his lecture, said that fever always produced thirst.

Alarmed by so unusual an occurrence, it was resolved to postpone their departure.

The *Annals of Florence* are a most imposing work.

Without having attended to this, we will be at a loss in understanding several passages in the classics.

They have no other standard on which to form themselves, except what chances to be fashionable.

The Earl of Huntly, conformable to the crafty policy which distinguishes his character, amused the leaders of the congregation.

Luxuriance of ornament and the fondness for point are certain indications of the decline of good taste.

Such expressions sound harshly.

To engage a private tutor for a single pupil, is, perhaps of all others, the least eligible mode of giving literary instruction.

In every ward one of the king's council took every man's book, and sealed them, and brought them to Guildhall to confront them with the original.

This diffused a secret joy through the whole assembly, which showed itself in every look and feature.

They introduced the taste of science and religion which distinguished Medina as the city of the book.

What can be the cause of the parliament neglecting so important a business?

Either you or I are in the wrong.

You seem neither to care for yourself nor for any one else after what you have lost.

On either side of the river was there the tree of life.

If a stranger should hear these furious outcries of ingratitude against our general, he would be apt to inquire.

I have lost the game, though I thought I should have won it.

Let the elders that rule well be counted worthy of double honour, especially they who labour in the word and doctrine.

He would not be persuaded but what I was greatly in fault.

I do not think that leisure of life and tranquillity of mind, which fortune and your own wisdom has given you, could be better employed.

It is a long time since I have been devoted to your interest.

Give me it.

This haughty and imperious style sounded harshly to Scottish nobles, impatient of the slightest appearance of injury.

The family with whom I have long lived in intimacy is gone to the country.

That is seldom or ever the case.

The fact of me being a stranger to him does not justify his conduct.

It is one of the most satisfactory and valuable emendations which have ever been made.

Accordingly on their approaching they were refused admittance within, and were violently and unceremoniously driven from the gates.

Much depends on this rule being observed.

The salt-merchants, the grocers, the confectioners conspired together to adulterate the articles in which they dealt in a thousand ways.

Let you and I go together.

The seeming importance given to every part of female dress, each of which is committed to the care of a different sylph, &c.

I am the more impatient of pain, that I have long enjoyed good health.

It is more good to fall among crows than flatterers, for these only devour the dead, those the living.

Let me awake the king of Morven, he that smiles in danger, he that is like the sun of Heaven rising in a storm.

But I will doubtless find some English person at whom to make inquiries.

The Romans had no other subsistence but the scanty pillage of a few farms.

There are few words in the English language which are employed in a more loose and uncircumscribed sense than those of the fancy and the imagination.

The light must not be suffered to conceal from us the real standard, by which only his greatness can be determined.

We were no sooner come to the Temple stairs but we were surrounded with a crowd of watermen.

The inattention to altered circumstances is a fault of most universal application in all political questions.

This is a question which we ought to have expected to have found answered in the 'Seventh Report of the Commissioners of Her Majesty's Inland Revenue.'

Not only England, but all Europe was in a blaze.

At present the trade is thought to be in a depressed state if less than a million of tons are produced in a year.

We are now poor, and wisdom bids us to conform to our humble situation.

'Tis resolved; for nature pleads that he should only rule who most resembles me.

I could heartily wish there was the same application and endeavours to cultivate and improve church music, as have been lately bestowed on that of the stage.

Men were no sooner settled in their rights to their possessions, but there was a third order proclaimed.

If we look within the rough and awkward outside, we will be richly rewarded by its perusal.

In constructing and depicting of characters, Werner indeed is little better than a mannerist.

He has eaten no bread nor drunk no water these two days.

But they kept off other evils which would have been worse.

> Just to thy word, in every thought sincere;
> Who knew no wish but what the world might hear.

They who opulence has made proud, and who luxury has corrupted, cannot relish the simple pleasures of nature.

Either the young man or his guardians has acted improperly.

None, I am sure, can be of more honour to God, nor of more ease to ourselves.

In the Latin language, there are no two words we would more readily take to be synonymous than *amare* and *diligere*.

I have frequently been assured by great ministers that politics were nothing but common sense

I had several men died in my ship of yellow fever.

He is an author of more credit than ——, or any other, that write lives so hastily.

He or you are in the wrong.

During the last century no prime minister, however powerful, has become rich in office.

The following treatise, together with those that accompany it, were written many years ago, for my own private satisfaction.

The person who immediately walked before him, was remarkable for an embroidered garment, who not being well acquainted with the place, was conducting him to an apartment appointed for the reception of fabulous heroes.

He addressed several exhortations to them suitably to their circumstances.

When the Emperor Alexander elevated the standard of the cross, he invoked the only power that ever has, or ever will, arrest the march of temporal revolution.

I do not question but they have done what is usually called the king's business.

Can parliament be so dead to its dignity and duty as to give their support to measures thus intruded and forced upon them?

The duke had not behaved with that loyalty, as he ought to have done.

These are not the dreams of a few poets, here and there, but man is an analogist, and studies relations in all objects.

He that can doubt whether he be anything or no, I speak not to.

A talent of this kind would, perhaps, prove the likeliest of any other to succeed.

The ends of a divine and human legislator are vastly different.

Be not too tame neither.

The ancestors of the human race knew poverty in a partial degree.

He was scarce gone, when you arrived.

I would feel myself blighted in the eyes of all my acquaintances, I would be overpowered by the feelings of my own disgrace.

They entreated to read to me, and bade me not to cry, for I was now too old to weep.

He need not proceed in such haste.

On your conduct at this moment depends the colour and complexion of their destiny.

One day, being brought before the king, and being asked whom he was, Diogenes replied, 'A spy on your cupidity.'

I, that did never weep, now melt in woe.

I must confess, after having surveyed the antiquities about Naples and Rome, I cannot but think that our admiration of them does not so much arise out of their greatness as uncommoness.

Reconciliation was offered on conditions as moderate as was consistent with a permanent union.

I have never seen Major Cartwright, much less enjoy the honour of his acquaintance.

Sailing up the river, the whole town may be seen.

The masterly boldness and precision of his outline, which astonish those who have trodden parts of the same field, is apt to escape an uninformed reader.

It makes us to walk warily.

Neither the houses nor the garden were sold.

I should be obliged to him, if he will gratify me in that particular.

The next New Year's day, I shall be at school three years.

But there is a general correctness of delineation which must strike the eye at once of any person slightly experienced in geography.

Both of the scholars, or one of them at least, were present at the transaction.

That is either a man or a woman's voice.

Scarce had the *Spirit of Laws* made its appearance than it was attacked.

He comes; nor want nor cold his course delay.

P

I think the longest times of our worst princes scarce saw many more executions than the short one of our best reformer.

It was great in him promoting one to whom he had done some wrong.

If you were here, you would find three or four in the parlour, after dinner, whom you would say, passed their afternoons very agreeably.

Whatever would prove prejudicial to our future prosperity, however enticing it may seem at present, we must resolutely reject it.

Great numbers were killed on either side.

They here began to breathe a delicious kind of ether, and saw all the fields about them covered with a kind of purple light, that made them reflect with satisfaction on their past toils.

Hence he considered marriage with a modern political economist, as very dangerous.

Olympus with its multitude of stately, celestial natures, dwindle before the solitary, immutable throne of Jehovah.

Mr. Broadhurst is a very good sort of man, who has not written a very bad book, on a very important subject.

That opinion is too universal to be easily corrected.

The temper, as well as knowledge, of a modern historian, require a more sober and accurate language.

Wherever the giant came, all fell before him; but the dwarf had like to have been killed more than once.

Man, though he has great variety of thoughts, yet they are all within his own breast.

Not only he found her busy, but pleased and happy even.

This is wonderful ridiculous from so solid an orator.

In reality more than one principle has been contended for at one time.

The first thing impressed on us from our earliest infancy is that events do not succeed one another at random, but with a certain degree of order, regularity, and connection.

APPENDIX.

I.—CELTIC WORDS.

(*W. Welsh, G. Gaelic, I. Irish.*)

[The asterisk signifies that the word is not confined to the dialect specified.]

Alpine. G.
Bachelor. W.
Bag. G.
Bald. G.
Balderdash. W.
Bale. (v.) G.
Bard. W.
Barrack. G.
Basket. W.
Bastard. W.
Batten. G.
Bauble. G.
Bay-tree. W.
Beak. G.
Beast. G.
Beg. G.
Bog. G.
Boggle. W.
Boisterous. W.
Bole. W.
Bonfire. W.
Booth. G.
Bother. I.
Bott. G.
Bourn. G.
Bragget. W.
Brake. G. (*a bit for horses.*)
Bran. W.*
Brand. G.
Brush. G.
Buck. G.
Bug. W. (*a ghost.*)
Burn. (n.) G.
Buss. G. (*a kiss.*)
Button. G.*

Cabin. W.
Calf (*of the leg.*) G.
Cant. G.
Card. G.
Clan. G.
Clog. G.
Cloy. G.
Club. W.
Coil. G.
Coke. G.
Combe. W.
Coot. W.
Crag. G.
Crockery. W.*
Crone. G. (*an old woman.*)
Crowder. W.
Crown. W.
Cuddle. W.
Curd. W.
Cut. W.
Dad. W.
Dainty. W.
Dale.—Dell. W.*
Dandruff. W.
Darnock.—Dannock. G.
Decant. G.
Flannel. W.
Flummery. W.
Frith. G. (*muirland.*)
Geck. G. (*to toss up the head.*)
Gown. W.
Grid-iron. W.

Gruel. W.
Gyves. W.
Harlot. W.
Havock. W.
Hilding. W.
Hog. W.
Hover. W.
Ingle. G.
Jerk. W.
Jolt. W.
Kecks.—Kecksy. W.
Kid. W. (*a brush faggot.*)
Kiln. W.
Lick. W. (*to beat.*)
Loop. G.
Marigold. W.*
Mine. G.
Minnow. G.
Murle. W.
Noggin. G.
Pall. (v.) W.
Pall. (n.) W.
Pallet. G.
Paw. W.
Peel. W. (*a small fortress.*)
Pellet. W.
Perk.—Pert. W.
Piggin. G.
Pike. Bret. (*fish.*)
Pikelet. W.
Pin. W.
Plait.—Pleat. W.
Plaid. G.

Plea. W.
Plight. W.
Pour. W.
Pumpkin. W.
Put. W.
Quip. W.
Rasher. Cel.
Sham. W.
Size. W. (?) (*glue.*)
Slab. W.
Soggy. W.
Solder. W.
Spree. W.
Suet. W.
Tabard. W.
Tackle. W.
Tall. W.
Tanist. G.
Tankard. G.
Tarry. W.
Tether. W.
Tingle. W.
Toll. W.
Toss. W.
Tuck. W.
Wabble. W.
Waist. W.
Wanton. W.
Welt. W.
Whiff. W.
Whim. W.
Whisky. I.
Wimble. W.
Whip. W.
Wicket. W.
Wire.

II.—SCANDINAVIAN WORDS.

(I. Icelandic, D. Danish, N. Norwegian, S. Swedish.)

Arch. I. sly.
Awk. — Awkward. I.
Backgammon. D.
Ballast. D.
Barge.—Bark.—I.
Bark. I. (of a tree.)
Bask. I.
Beck. I. a brook.
Beer. D. (a pillow.)
Big. I.
Bilberry. D.
Bloat. — Bloated.—Bloater. S.
Blond. I.*
Blunderbuss. S.
Bound.—Bown. I.
Box. D. (v.)
Bulk. I. (as in bulk-heads.)
Bunch. — Bunk. — Bung. I.
Bush.—Busk. I.
Busk. I. (v.).
Bustle. I.
Cackle.—Gaggle.S.*
Cade. I. (as a cade lamb.)
Cake. S.
Call. I.
Cast. I. (v.)
Chamm. — Champ. I.
Champion. I.
Chuckle. I.
Clamour. S.
Clear. I.
Clump. I.
Clumsy. I.
Cod. I. (a husk.)
Cock. D. (a boat.)
Collow.—Colly. I. soot.
Cope. I. (v.)
Cow. D. (v.)
Crank. S. (a.) (nautical.)
Crinkle. D.
Cripple. I.
Cross. I.*
Crouch. I.
Cub. I.
Cucking-Stool. I.
Culm. I.
Dairy.—Dey. S.

Dale.—Dell. I.*
Dangle. S.*
Dewlap. D.
Dilling.—D ill.I
Dog. I.
Doggrel. I.
Dor. I. (v.)* (to be-fool.)
Dowdy. I.
Draggle. S.
Drake. S.
Drazel.—Drossel. D.
Dredge.—Drizzle. D.
Drivel. D. and I.
Drub. I.
Dug. S.
Dunch. D. (to thump.)
Dusky. S.
Ferly. I. (wonder.)
Fettle. I.
Filly. N.
Flit. D.
Flizz. S.
Flounce. S. (v.)
Flounder. S.
Flume. N.
Fluster. I.
Fog. D. mist.
Fond. I.
Forse. I. (a water-fall.)
Freak. I. a man.
Freckle. I.
Frith.—Firth. I.
Froth. I.
Gaby. D. a simple-ton.
Gag-tooth. I.
Gain.—Gainly. I.
Gale. I. (v.)
Gale. N. (n.)
Galley. I.
Gammon. D. (an exclamation.)
Gar. I.
Gauntlet. S.
Gat-toothed. S.
Gem. I.
Gill. S. (of a fish.)
Gizen. N.
Glare. I.
Glamour. I.
Glede. I. (a live coal.)

Glidder. D. (slip-pery.)
Glop.—Gloppen. I.
Glout.—Gloat. S.
Guash. D.
Grains. D.
The Grains. D. (a harpoon.)
Groin. D.
Grow. — D. to be troubled.
Grovel. I.
Gull. D. a dupe.
Gust. I.
Haberdasher. I.
Haggle. I.
Halse. I. to salute.
Hamble. — Ham-mel. I. (to lame.)
Harrow. D.
Haze.—Hazle. N.
Hit. I.
Hoggins. I.
Hoity-toity. S.
Housel. I.
Hugger-mugger. S.
Hull. N. (v.) to coax.
Inkling. I.
Jeer. I.
Jolly-boat. D.
Kedge. I. (1) an an-chor ; (2) brisk.
Kedge-belly. I.
Keelson. — Kelson. D.
Keg. N.
Kelter. S. (ready.)
Kenspeckle. N.
Kickle.—Kittle. N.
Kid. I. a young goat.
Kid. I. (as in kid-nap.)
Kilt. S.
Kindle. I. to set fire to.
Kitten.—Kitling.—Kittle. N.
Lam. I. (v.) to beat.
Lawn. N.
Leam. I. (gleam.)
Leg. I.
Levin. N. (light-ning.)

Ling. I. a kind of heath.'
Link. I. (1) a sau-sage ; (2) a joint of a chain.
Linstock. S.
Loover. I.* (a chimney.)
Lout. I. (v.)
Low. I. (flame.)
Lurch.—Lurk. N.
Mane. I.
Mare. I. (as in nightmare.)
Marram. I.
Marrow. I.
Maul. I. (v.)
Mermaid. I.
Midden. I.
Mire. I.
Mitten. I.
Morkin. I. carrion.
Mort. I. a great quantity.
Moskered. I. de-cayed.
Muck. N. (dung.)
Mulled ale. I.
Nagging. — Naggy. N.
Narwhal. I. (the sea-unicorn.)
Neive.I.
Niggard. N.
Nightingale. I.
Nithing. I. (a vile fellow.)
Oaf. I. a simpleton.
Odd. N.
Pawn. I.*
Peal. I.
Pedigree. I.
Peevish. D.
Pet. S. a fit of dis-pleasure.
Pippin.—Pip. D.
Pod. D.
Prog. N. (n. and v.)
Prune.—Proin. I.
Pug-mill. D.
Pulse. D. a sau-sage.
Rake. D. a vicious man.
Ransack. S.

Rate. S. *to chide.*
Root. S.
Rove. D.
Scald.—Scalder. D.
Scant. D.
Score. I.
Screak. S.
Scrip. S.
Scull. I. (*a small boat.*)
Scut. I. (*a short tail.*)
Shirt. D.
Shriek. S.
Shrill. S.
Silt. S. *mud, slime.*
Skew. D.
Skip. I.

Skirt. D.
Skit. I.
Skull. I.
Sky. S.
Slag. D.
Slake. I.
Slant. S.
Slash. I.
Sleave. I.
Slot. I. (*the track of a deer.*)
Slug. D.
Smatter. D.
Smicker. S.
Smile. S.
Smug. D. (*neat.*)
Snare. D.
Sneap.—Snub. D.

Snudge. D.
Snug. D.
Spirt. S.
Spoon. I.
Sprain. S.
Sprawl. D.
Spud. D.
Squall. S.
Squeak. S.
Squeal. S.
Stack. D.
Staff. I. *a stanza.*
Stumble. I.
Stump. D.
Swig. I.
Switch. S.
Tag. I.

Tang.—Tangle. S.
Tarn. I.
Thrive. D.
Thrum. I.
Thurs-*day.* D.
Tramp. S.
Trap. S.
Trigger. D.
Wail. I.
Warlock. I.
Weld. S.
Whim. I.
Whirl. I.
Wicker. D.
Window. D.
Wing. S.
Wisp. S.

III.—GOTHIC WORDS.

(D. Dutch, G. German, F. Flemish.)

Average. G.
Awning. G.
Bad. G.
Badge. G.
Bamboozle. D.
Bast.—Bass. D.
Begone. — *Woe-be-gone.* D.
Belong. D.
Bent. G. *rushes.*
Bill. D.
Blear. D.
Blight. G.
Bluff. D.
Blunder. D.
Boast. G.
Boom. D. (*n. & v.*)
Boor. D.
Botch. D. (*n. & v.*)
Boult — Bolt. G. (*v.*)
Bounce. D.
Boy. G.
Brabble. D.
Brack. — Brackish. G.
Brandy. G.
Brattice.—Bartisan. G.
Buckwheat. G.
Buff. G. *dull of colours, &c.*
Bull. G. *animal.*
Bully. — Bullyrook. D.
Bulwark. D.
Bum. — Boom. — Bump. D.

Bum-*bailif.* D.
Bumpkin. G.*
Bunch. — Bunk. — Bung. G.
Buoy. D.
Buskin. D.*
Bush.—Bushel. D.
Buss. D. *a vessel.*
Butter.— Butterfly. G.
Buttock. D.
Carouse. G.
Catkin. D.
Caterpillar. D.
Chaff. D. (*v.*)
Chaffer. G. (*v.*)
Chaldern. — Chawdron. G.
Chap. — Chip. — Chop. D.
Charcoal. D.
Chimb. D. *rim of a vase.*
Chink - cough. — Chin-cough. D.
Chitter. D.
Chitterling. D.
Chub. G.
Clamber. G.
Clamp.—Clump. D.
Clang.—Clank. G.
Clash. G.
Clatter. D.
Clever. G.
Click.—Clicket. D.
Clench.—Clinch. D.
Clink. D.
Cloister. G.

Closhe. D.
Cloud. D.
Clown. D.
Cockle. D. (*v.*)
Cocker. D.
Codger. G.
Comber. D.
Coomb. D.
Copes - *man,* or -*mate.*—D.
Cotquean. — Quot-quean. D.
Cough. D.
Cower. G.
Cramp. D.
Craunch. D.
Craw. G. *the neck, &c.*
Crawl. D.
Creek. D. *a brook.*
Crewel. G.
Cricket. D. *an insect.*
Crone. D. *an old sheep.*
Cruise. D.
Cudgel. D.
Cur. D.
Curl. D.
Cumber. D.
Damp. G. (*n. & v.*)
Dandle. G.
Dank. G.
Dapper. D.
Dare. G. *to be terrified.*
Daunt. D.
Decoy. D.

Deuce.—Dickens. G.
Dew-*berry.* G.
Diamond. G.
Didapper. D. *a water bird.*
Dock. G. (1) *a bundle;* (2) *a sluice.*
Dolley. D.
Dolt. D.
Dole. G. *a slip of pasture.*
Doll. G.
Dollar. D.
Dot. D.
Dote. D.
Dotterel. D.
Down. G. *as thistle-down.*
Drabble. D.
Dragoon. D.
Drake.—Drawk. D.
Drape-*sheep.* D.
Drawl. D.*
Dream. G. or D.*
Dredge. D. *an anchor.*
Dretch. G.
Drill. G. *a kind of cloth.*
Drowsy. D.
Duck. D. (*v. & n.*)
Dumps. D.
Ember-*days.* D.
Err. G.*
Etch. G.
Fade. D.
Fetlock. D.

Fey. G.
Filberd. G.*
Fimble. G.
Fine. G.*
Finical. — Finikin. D.
Fir. G.
Fix. D.
Flaik. D.
Flail. G.
Fleech. G.
Flew. G. (1) tender; (2) shallow.
Flew-net. D.
Flews. G.
Flook. G.
Flunkey. G.
Flush. G. a number.
Flush. D. immediate.
Flutter. G.
Fob. G. (v.)
Fog. G. (v.)
Fop. G.
Ford. G.
Forge on. D.
Fraught. G.
Furlough. G.
Gain. G. (in composition.)
Gallipot. D.
Garden. G.
Gas. D.
Gash. G. to cut.
Geck. D. to sport, deride, &c.
Gherkin. G.
Gibbet. D.
Girl. G.
Glance. D.
Glaver. D. (v.)
Glib. D.
Glimmer. G.
Goit. — Gote. — Gowt. D. a sluice, &c.
Gooseberry. G.
Gossomer. G.
Graves. — Graving-dock. G.
Groat. G.
Groom. D.
Grout. D.
Grub. D. (v.)
Guess. D.
Guile. D.
Haberdine. D.
Hackbut. D.
Hale.—Haul. G.
Halibut. D.
Halloo. G.
Halm.—Hawm. G.

Halse. D. to embrace.
Halse.—Hawse. G. the neck.
Hank. D.
Hantle. G.
Hap. — Happy. — Happen. D.
Harsh. G.
Hatch. G. (said of birds.)
Hatch. D. to fasten.
Hackle. — Heckle. D.
Haunch. G.
Heyday. G.
Higler.—Higgle. D.
Hind-berry. G.
Hob. D.
Hobbedehoy. D.
Hocus - pocus. — Hoax. D.
Hoddipeak. D.
Hodge-podge. D.*
Hoe. D.
Hog. — Hoggel. — Hoggrel. D.
Hogshead. D.
Hoyden. D.
Hoop. D.
Hop. D.
Howlet. D.
Hoy. D.
Huckle-backed. D.
Huckle-bone. D.
Huckster. G.
Hurst. D.
Husk. D.
Hustle. D.
Hut. D.
Ingot. G.
Interloper. D.
Isinglass. G.
Jib. D. (v.)
Kaw.—Keck. G.
Kebbers. D.
Keel.—Kayle. G.
Kemlin. — Kemnel. D.
Kerb. G.
Kilderkin. D.
Kink. D. a twist.
Kit. D. (1) a pail; (2) a brood.
Knap. G. or D.
Knapsack. G. or. D.
Lack. D. want.
Lane. D.
Larboard. D.
Larrup. D.
Lash. D. to bind.
Lass. G.
Lath. G. or D.*

Lary. D.
Leaguer. D. a lying, &c.
Leaguer. G. a small cask.
Leak. D.
Leat. (of a mill.) G.
Ledger. D.
Leet. D. a peasant tenant.
Left. D.
Less. G. termination.
Lessel. G. a portico.
Lights. G.
Lime. G. a lime-tree.
Linen. G.
Line. G. (v.)
Ling. D. a cod fish.
Link. D. a torch.
Litmus. D.
Lobby. G.
Log. D.
Lombard-house. D.
Loof. D.
Lop. G.
Loon.—Lown. D.
Loop-hole. D.
Loover. D.*
Lour. G.
Lout. D.
Lukewarm, D.
Lusk. G. a slug, &c.
Mangle. G. (n. & v.)
Marigold. D.*
Marl. D.
Mask. D.
Maulstick. G.
Manther. D.
Mazer. D.
Mazzard. G.
Measles. D.
Mellow. G.
Menild. — Meanelled. G. speckled.
Mew. G.
Miff. G. ill-humour.
Mizzle. D. to rain fine.
Mob-cap. D.
Mole. — Mould-warp. G.
Monk. D.
Moor. D. (v.)
More. G. root of a tree, &c.
Moult. D.
Mud. D.
Muff. D. a fool.

Mug. G. an earthen pot.
Mulberry. G.
Mullock. D. rubbish.
Mum. G. beer.
Mumps. G.
Musty. D.
Nick. G. Old Nick.
Nick. G. as in nickname.
Nozzle. D.
Nudge. G.
Oast. D. a kiln.
Offal. G.
Ogle. G.
Pack. G.
Palm. G. tree.
Pay. D. to daub with pitch.
Pea-jacket. D.
Peer. G. (v.)
Pet. D.
Pew. D.
Pickle. D.
Piddle. G.
Pig. D. (1) animal; (2) iron.
Pinfold. — Pindar. D.
Pip. G.
Pismire. D. the ant.
Platform. G.
Plash. G.
Plight. O.
Plough. G.
Plug. D.
Ply. G.
Poll.—Pollard. D.
Porthole. G.
Prank.—Prance. G.
Prime. D. (v.)
Prim. D.
Prop. D.
Pudgy. G.
Puke. G.
Punt. D.
Purblind. D.
Purl. D. (v.)
Quack. G.
Quartz. G.
Queer. G.
Quoit. D.
Rabbit. D.
Race. D.
Raff. G.
Rail. G. an iron bar.
Rail. D. to mock.
Ramble. D.
Rant. D.
Rash. D.
Rattle. D.

Rave. D.
Ravel. D.
Reef. D. (*nautical term*).
Reef. G. *a chain of rocks.*
Revel. D.
Riff-raff. G.
Rifle. G.
Rob. G.
Roe. G.
Rouse. G. *a bumper.*
Rout. G.
Rub. G.
Rudder. G.
Rumble. G.
Rummer. D. *a large glass.*
Rump. G.
Runt. D.
Rutter. D. *a trooper.*
Sable. G.
Sasse. D. *a sluice.*
Scallop. D.
Scalp. D.
Scamble. D.
Schooner. G.
Scold. D.
Sconce. G.
Scoop. D.
Scowl. G.
Scrabble. D.
Scramble. D.
Scratch. G.
Screw. D.
Scrub. G.
Sculk. D.
Scum. G.
Seem. G.
Shalm. — Shawm. G. *a musical pipe.*

Shatter. D.
Shingle. G.
Shive. D. *a slice.*
Shore. D.
Shrimp. G.
Shudder. G.
Shy. G.
Simnel. G. *a cake.*
Skate. D. *ice shoe.*
Skellum. G.
Sketch. D.
Skiff. G.
Skim. G.
Skipper. D.
Slabber. G.
Slap. D.
Slatter. G
Slave. G.
Slaver. G.
Sled.—Sledge. D.
Sleek. G.
Sleight. G.
Slender. D.
Slice. G.
Slight. G.
Slim. G.
Sloop. D.
Slottery. G. *squalid.*
Sloven. G.
Slubber. G.
Sluice. D.
Slur. D.
Slut. D.
Smalt. D.
Smelt. D. (*v.*)
Smuggle. G.
Snack. D.
Snaffle. D.
Snap. D.
Snarl. G.
Snast. G.
Snatch. D.

Sniff. D.
Snip. D.
Snipe. D.
Snort. D.
Snout. G.
Snub. D.
Snuff. D.
Sod. D.
Sop. D.
Souse. G.
Spang. G.
Spite. D.
Splice. D.
Splinter. D.
Split. D.
Sport. G. (?)
Spot. D.
Spout. D.
Sprat. D.
Squander. G.
Squint. D.
Stadtholder. D.
Stagger. D.
Stamp. D.
Start. D.
Steep. G.
Stilt. D.
Stop. D.
Stout. D.
Strip. D.
Strive. D.
Strut. G.
Stubble. G.
Stuff. G.
Sturdy. G.
Stutter. G.
Sutler. D.
Swash. D.
Sway. D.
Swerve. D.
Swindle. D.
Tafferel. D.

Talc.—Talk. G. *a mineral.*
Tallow. G.
Tattle. D.
Teal. D.
Thrack. G. *to load.*
Tick. D. (*n. & v.*)
Tight. G.
Tip. D.
Touse. G. *to pull.*
Toy. D.
Trail. D.
Trifle. D.
Trip. D.
Troll. G. *to roll.*
Trollop. D.
Trull. G.
Tub. D.
Twinge. D.
Twirl. D.
Twist. D.
Twitter. D.
Uproar. D.
Vampire. G.
Vane. D.
Veneer. G.
Wad. G.
Wafer. D.
Wage. G.
Wainscot. D.
Waltz. G.
Wamble. D.
Wand. D.
Warble. G.
Wee. G.
Whelp. D.
Whimper. G.
Whisk. G.
Wreck. D.
Wriggle. D.
Yacht. G.
Zinc. G.

IV.—MONOSYLLABLES OF CLASSICAL ORIGIN.

(*L. Latin, F. French, G. Greek.*)

Ace. F.
Aid. F
Aim. F.
Air. L.
Aisle. F.
Arc. L.
Ark. L.
Asp. G.
Ass. L.
Aunt. L.
Ball. F.
Bale. F.
Bale. F. (*v.*)

Ball. F. *a dance.*
Balm. G.
Bar. F.
Barbe. L.
Barque. F.
Base. F.
Bay. L. (*colour.*)
Bay. F. (*to bark.*)
Bay. F. (*tree.*)
Beak. F.
Beef. F.
Beet. F.
Bill. F.

Blame. F.
Blanch. F.
Bland. L.
Blank. F.
Boil. L.
Boon. L.
Boot. F.
Boss. F.
Bound. F. (*to spring.*)
Bowl. F.
Box. F. (*a shrub.*)
Brace. G.

Branch. F.
Brave. F.
Brawl. F.
Bream. F.
Breeze. F.
Bribe. F.
Brick. F.
Brisk. F.
Broach. F.
Broil. F.
Bronze. F.
Brooch. F.
Brush. F.

Bud. F.	Crape. F.	Feast. L.	Gage. F.
Budge. F.	Crass. L.	Feat. L.	Gain. F.
Bull. L. (*Pope's edict.*)	Craze. F.	Feign. F.	Gall. F. (*gall-nut.*)
Buoy. F.	Cream. F.	Fence. F.	Gall. F. *to fret.*
Cade. L. *a cask.*	Crest. L.	Fief. F.	Gaol. F.
Cage. F.	Crisp. L.	Fierce. F.	Garb. F.
Call. L.	Croak. F.	Fife. F.	Gaud. L.
Calm. F.	Crude. L.	Fig. L.	Gauge. F.
Camp. L.	Crush. F.	File. L.	Gauze. F.
Cane. L.	Crust. L.	Fine. F. *showy.*	Gay. F.
Cape. L.	Cry. F.	Fine. L. *a penalty.*	Germ. L.
Car. L.	Cue. F.	Firm. L.	Gest. L.
Carp. F. *a fish.*	Cull. L.	Fisc. L.	Gig. F.
Case. F. *a chest.*	Curb. F.	Fit. F.	Gill. L. *a measure.*
Case. L. *state.*	Cure. L.	Fitch. L.	Gland. L.
Cash. F.	Curt. L.	Flame. L.	Glave. L.
Cask. F.	Cusp. L.	Flank. F.	Glean. F.
Caul. F.	Cyst. G.	Flawn. F.	Glebe. L.
Cease. L.	Dam. F.	Fletch. F.	Globe. L.
Cede. L.	Dame. F.	Flock. L. *a lock of wool.*	Glue. L.
Cell. L.	Danse. F.		Glut. L.
Chafe. F.	Dart. F.	Flog. L.	Gnome. G.
Chain. L.	Daunt. F.	Flour. F.	Goal. F.
Chair. F.	Date. L.	Flute. F.	Gob. F.
Chaise. F.	Dean. L.	Flux. L.	Gorge. F.
Chance. F.	Deuce. F.	Foil. F.	Gouge. F.
Change. F.	Die. F.	Foil. F. *leaf.*	Gourd. F.
Chant. F.	Dire. L.	Foin. F.	Gout. L.
Charge. F.	Disc. G.	Foist. F.	Gout. F.
Charm. F.	Dome. L.	Font. L.	Grace. L.
Chart. L.	Don. L.	Fool. F.	Grade. L.
Chase. F.	Dose. G.	Force. L.	Grail. F.
Chaste. L.	Doubt. F.	Forge. F.	Grain. F.
Chat. F.	Drab. F.	Form. F.	Grand. L.
Check. F.	Drachm. G.	Fort. F.	Grant. F.
Chief. F.	Dram. G.	Fosse. L.	Grape. F.
Chine. F.	Drape. F.	Found. L. *in building.*	Grate. L. (*noun.*)
Choir. F.	Dredge. F.		Grate. F.
Chord. G.	Dress. F.	Found. L. *to cast.*	Grave. F.
Chuck. F.	Droll. F.	Fount. L.	Grease. F.
Chum. F.	Drug. F.	Fract. L.	Greaves. F
Chyme. G.	Duct. L.	Frail. L.	Grief. F.
Chyle. G.	Due. F.	Frank. F.	Grill. F.
Cist. L.	Duke. F.	Fraud. L.	Gross. L.
Clack. F.	Dure. L.	Fray. F.	Group. F.
Clang. G.	Ease. F.	Frieze. F.	Guard. F.
Clause. L.	Eyre. L.	Fringe. F.	Guide. F.
Close. L.	Face. L.	Frizz. F.	Guise. F.
Coach. F.	Fact. L.	Frock. F.	Gules. F.
Coarse. L.	Fail. L.	Frond. L.	Gulf. G.
Coast. L.	Faint. F.	Front. L.	Gurge. F.
Coat. F.	Fair. F.	Frounce. F.	Gust. L. *taste.*
Code. L.	Faith. L.	Frown. F.	Gyre. G.
Coin. F.	False. L.	Fruit. L.	Hack. F.
Cone. G.	Fame. L.	Frush. F.	Hash. F.
Cook. L.	Fane. L.	Fry. F. (*cooking.*)	Hatch. F.
Coop. L.	Farce. F.	Fry. F. *spawn.*	Haught. F.
Cord. G.	Fard. F.	Fume. L.	Haunch. F.
Couch. F.	Fate. L.	Fund. L.	Haunt. F.
Count. F.	Fault. F.	Fur. F.	Hearse. F.
Course. L.	Faun. L.	Furl. F.	Heir. F.
Crack. F.	Fawn. F.	Fuse. L.	Herb. L.
	Fay. F.	Fust. F.	Host. L. *landlord.*

Host. L. *army.*
Hour. G.
Hoy. F.
Hue. F.
Hulk. G.
Ides. L.
Ire. L.
Isle. F.
Jack. L.
Jail. F.
Jamb. F.
Jaw. F.
Jay. F.
Jest. L.
Jet. G.
Jet. F.
Jig. F.
Join. L.
Joke. L.
Jot. G.
Joust. F.
Joy. F.
Judge. L.
Juice. F.
June. L.
Just. L.
Ketch. F.
Lace. F.
Lache. F.
Lamp. G.
Lance. L.
Lapse. L.
Lar. L.
Larch. L.
Lard. L.
Large. L.
Laud. L.
Lave. L.
Lawn. L. (?)
Lax. L.
Lay. G. *the laity.*
Lay. F. *a song.*
League. F.
Lease. F.
Leash. F.
Lees. F.
Lens. L.
Liege. F.
Lieu. F.
Lime. F.
Limn. F.
Line. L. (*noun*)
Link. G.
Lint. L.
List. F.
Loach. F.
Lobe. G.
Long. L. (*adj.*)
Lote. L.
Lounge. F.
Luce. L.
Luff. F.
Lure. F.

Lute. F.
Lymph. L.
Lynx. L.
Lyre. L.
Mace. L. *a club.*
Mace. L. *a kind of of spice.*
Mail. F. *armour.*
Mail. F. *a bag.*
Male. F.
Mall. L.
Mange. F.
Map. L.
March. L. *the month.*
March. F.
Marque. F.
Mars. L.
Mask. F.
Mass. L. *a heap.*
Mass. L. (*religious ceremony.*)
Match. F.
Mate. F.
Maund. F.
May. L. *the month.*
Meal. F.
Mean. L. *middle.*
Merd. L.
Merge. L.
Merle. L.
Mess. F.
Mew. F.
Mien. F.
Mime. G.
Mine. L.
Mix. L.*
Moat. F.
Mob. L.
Mock. G.
Mode. F.
Moil. F.
Moist. F.
Mole. L. *a mound.*
Mome. F.
Mood. L. *in grammar.*
Moor. L. *an African.*
Mop. L.
Mosque. F.
Mount. F.
Move. L.
Mulct. L.
Mule. L.
Mull. L. *wine.*
Mumm. G.
Munch. F.
Mure. L. *to wall.*
Muse. L.
Musk. L.
Must. L.
Must. F.

Mute. L.
Mute. F.
Naeve. L.
Nard. G.
Neat. F.
Nep. L. *a plant.*
Nerve. L.
Net. F.
Niche. F.
Niece. F.
Node. L.
Noise. F.
Nome. G.
Noose. F.
Note. L.
Noun. L.
Nude. L.
Null. L.
Nurse. F.
Nymph. G.
Ode. G.
Orb. L.
Orc. L.
Ounce. L.
Oust. F.
Pace. F.
Pact. L.
Page. L.
Page. F.
Pall. G.
Paint. F.
Pair. L.
Pale. L. (*n.*)
Pale. L. (*a.*)
Pall. L.* *a cloth.*
Palm. L.
Pane. F.
Pant. F.
Pap. L.* *a teat.*
Pap. L.* *soft food.*
Par. L. *equality.*
Pard. L.
Pare. F.
Parse. L.
Part. L.
Pasch. G.
Pass. L.*
Paste. L.
Paunch. L.
Pause. G.
Pave. L.
Pay. F.
Peace. L.
Peach. F.
Peel. F.
Peep. L.*
Peer. F.
Peg. G.
Pegm. G.
Pelt. L. (*n.*)
Pelt. L. (*v.*)
Pen. L.
Perch. F. *a measure.*

Perch. L. *a fish.*
Phlegm. L.
Phrase. G.
Pie. F.
Piece. F.
Pierce. F.
Pike. F.
Pile. L. *a heap.*
Pile. L. *a hair.*
Pile. L. *an arrowhead.*
Pill. L. (*n.*)
Pinch. F.
Pine. L. *a tree,*
Pip. L.*
Pique. F.
Pix. L.
Place. F.
Plague. G.
Plain. L.
Plan. F.
Planch. F.
Plane. L.
Plank. F.
Plant. L.
Plasm. G.
Plat. G.
Plate. G.
Plea. G.
Pleach. L.
Please. F.
Pledge. F.
Plight. L. *to weave.*
Plinth. G.
Plumb. F.
Plume. L.
Plunge. F.
Poach. F.
Point. L.
Poise. F.
Pole. G.
Pomp. G.
Poop. L.
Poor. F.
Pope. L.
Porch. F.
Pore. G.
Pork. L.
Port. L. *mien.*
Port. L. *a gate.*
Port. L. *a harbour.*
Post. L.
Pot. F.
Potch. F.
Poule. F.
Poult. L.
Pounce. F. *powder.*
Pout. F.
Praise. F.
Pray. F.
Preach. F.
Press. L.
Prest. F.

Prey. F.
Price. F *
Prime. L.
Prince. F.
Print. F.
Prize. F.
Prompt. L.
Prone. L.
Prore. L.
Prose. L.
Prow. F. (nautical.)
Prow. F. valiant.
Prude. F.
Prune. L.
Psalm. G.
Pule. F.
Pulp. L.
Pulse. L.
Pump. F.
Pure. L.
Purge. F.
Purse. F.
Pus. L.
Push. F.
Pyre. G
Quaff. F.
Quail. F. a bird.
Quaint. L.
Quart. F.
Quay. F.
Quest. F.
Quill. F.
Quilt. L.
Quince. F.
Quint. F.
Quire. G.
Quire. F. sheets of paper.
Quit. F.
Quite. F.
Quote. F.
Race. F. lineage.
Raft. L.
Rag. G.
Rage. F.
Ramp. F.
Range. F.
Rap. L.
Rape. L.
Rape. L. a plant.
Rare. F.
Rase. L.
Rate. L.
Ray. F. light.
Ray. L. a fish.
Raze. L. a root of ginger.
Raze. L.
Rear. L.
Reign. F.
Rein. F.
Reins. L. kidneys.

Rest. L. as 'the rest of,' &c.
Rheum. G.
Rhomb. G.
Rice. G.
Rill. L.
Risk. F.
Rite. F.
Roan. F.
Roast. F.
Robe. F.
Rock. F.
Roist. F.
Roll. F.
Rook. F.
Rose. F.
Rouge. F.
Round. F.
Rout. F.
Route. F.
Rude. F.
Rule. F.
Ruse. F.
Rut. F. the track of a wheel.
Sack. F. sweet wine.
Safe. F.
Sage. F.
Sage. F. a plant.
Saint. F.
Salt. L. a leap.
Sane. F.
Sans. F.
Sap. F. (verb.)
Sash. F.
Sate. L.
Save. F.
Say. F.
Scald. F.
Scale. L.
Scan. L.
Scar. G.
Scarf. F.
Scene. G.
Scent. L.
Scheme. G.
School. G.
Scoff. G.
Scope. L.
Scot. F. tax, share.
Scout. F.
Scourge. F.
Screen. F.
Scribe. F.
Scroll. F.
Scroyle. F.
Seal. L. a stamp.
Searce. F. to sift.
Search. F.
Seat. L.
Sect. L.
See. L. (noun.)
Seel. F.

Seize. F.
Sell. L.
Sense. L.
Serf. F.
Serge. F.
Serr. F. †
Serve. F.
Sex. F.
Sheet. F. (nautical.)
Shock. F.
Shot. F.
Sice. L. (at dice.)
Siege. F.
Sign. F.
Sine. L.
Sir. F.
Sire. F.
Site. L.
Skain.—Skein. F.
Slate. L.
Sneer. L.
Soar. F.
Sock. L.
Soil. L. earth.
Sole. F. (noun.)
Sole. L. (adj.)
Solve. L.
Sore. F.
Sort. L.
Sound. L.
Source. L.
Souse. L.
Space. L.
Sparse. L.
Sphere. G.
Sphinx. G.
Spice. F.
Spike. L.
Spine. L.
Spire. G.
Spiss. L.
Spleen. G.
Spoil. L.
Sponge. L.
Spouse. L.
Spume. L.
Spurge. L.
Spy. F.
Squad. F.
Square. L.
Squill. L.
Staff. F. (military.)
Stage. F.
Stanch. F.
State. L.
Stay. F.
Stew. L.
Still. L. distillation.
Stole. L.
Strain. L.
Strait. L.
Strange. F.
Strict. L.

Style. L.
Sue. F.
Sug. L.
Suit. F.
Sum. F.
Surd. L.
Sure. F.'
Surge. L.
Sylph. G.
Syrt. L.
Tack. F.
Taint. L.
Tan. F.
Tang. G.
Tank. F.
Tap. F.
Tare. F.
Tart. F.
Task. F.
Taste. F.
Taunt. F.
Tax. F.
Teil. L.
Tempt. L.
Tench. L.
Tend. L.
Tense. L. in grammar.
Tense. L. tight.
Tent. L.
Terse. L.
Test. L.
Text. L.
Theme. G.
Threne. G.
Throb. G.
Throne. L.
Thrust. L.
Thyme. G.
Tick. F.
Tierce. F.
Tiff. F.
Tinge. F.
Toast. L.
Toil. L.'
Tomb. G.
Tome. G.
Tone. L.
Tope. F.
Toph. L.
Torch. F.
Tort. F.
Touch. F.
Tour. F.
Trace. L.
Track. L.;
Tract. L.
Trade. L.
Train. F.
Trait. F.
Trance. L.
Trap. F.

Trave. F.	Truck. G.	Vault. L. (n.)	Vex. 'L.
Tray. L.	Trump. F.	Vault. L. (v.)	Vice. L.
Treat. F.	Trunk. L.	Vaunt. F. to boast.	Vice. F. a press.
Trench. F.	Truss. F.	Vaunt. F. the first	View. F.
Tress. F.	Try. F.	part.	Vile. L.
Tret. L. (?)	Tube. L.	Veal. F.	Vine. L.
Trey. F.	Tuft. F.	Veer. F.	Vive. L.
Tribe. L.	Tune. L.	Veil. L.	Vogue. F.
Trick. L.	Type. G.	Vein. L.	Void. L.
Trine. L.	Urge. L.	Vend. L.	Vote. F.
Tripe. F.	Urn. L.	Venge. L.	Vouch. L.
Trist. L.	Use. L.	Vent. L. (?)	Vow. F.
Trite. L.	Vail. F.	Verb. L.	Wage. L.
Troop. F.	Vain. L.	Verge. L. (n.)	Wait. L.
Trope. G.	Vale. L.	Verge. L. (v.)	Wall. L.
Trot. F.	Valve. L.	Verse. L.	Wince. L.
Trounce. F.	Van. F.	Vert. L.	Zeal. G.
Truce. F.	Vase. L.	Vest. F.	Zone. G.*
Truck. F.	Vast. L.	Vetch. L.	

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* In the preparation of these lists, and of the others contained under DERIVATION, I have followed Mr. Hensleigh Wedgwood's *Etymological Dictionary* (so far as that work extends), Mr. Ernest Adams's *Elements*, Dr. Latham's *English Language*, Dr Angus's *Handbook*, and Dr. Reid's *Dictionary*.

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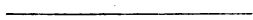THE SENSES AND THE INTELLECT.
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