ENGLISH
GRAMMAR
ARNOLD.

AN

ENGLISH GRAMMAR

FOR

CLASSICAL SCHOOLS,

WITH

QUESTIONS, AND A COURSE OF EXERCISES;

BEING A PRACTICAL INTRODUCTION TO ENGLISH

PROSE COMPOSITION.

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PREFACE

TO

THE SECOND EDITION.

THE following work is the offspring not so much of knowledge as of despair. It was drawn up for the use of my own pupils, after I had in vain attempted to meet with any thing like a sensible English Grammar of moderate extent. The former edition contained only the Accidence: undeterred by the dictum of Dr. Johnson, I have now added to it a Syntax, and also an accompanying course of Exercises, constructed on a new, and, in my opinion, very useful plan. In most works of the kind the correction of errours is the task proposed: it is here the changing of one construction into another equivalent one. Practice of this kind will be found to give the pupil a mastery over the idioms and laws of construction of his own language; to which he will soon learn to refer, for comparison, those of any foreign language he may happen to be studying. I may add, that without this kind of knowledge, it is impossible for any one

to translate Latin with freedom and idiomatic propriety; for as that language employs participles with a frequency that would be absolutely intolerable in English, a good translator *must* have acquired readiness and tact in changing participial clauses into accessory or even principal sentences.

T. K. A.

LYNDON,
November 4, 1841.

PREFACE

TO

THE FIRST EDITION.

EVERY one who has had any thing to do with teaching boys, knows by vexatious experience that there are some mistakes into which they all *do* and *must* fall. They are taught, for instance, that '*I did write*' is an *imperfect*, and '*was built*' is an *imperfect*, and so on; being then thus taught, what *can* they do, when they come to such a sentence as 'Caius *was made* Prætor,' but put *fiebat* for *factus est?* It is the object of this Grammar to *save* boys from these almost universal mistakes, by grounding them thoroughly in the English verb; especially in its *participles*, its *auxiliaries*, and that most important form of it, the *participial substantive.*

Of our English grammarians I have chiefly consulted Lowth, Pickbourn, and Crombie; but I am deeply indebted to some admirable essays in the Philological Magazine, and to Becker's German Grammar, of which an English edition has been written and published by the able and accomplished

author: to these I must add Rask, whose Anglo-Saxon Grammar I have often referred to, and Buttmann, Thiersch, &c. whose Greek Grammars are of the very highest authority on *all* grammatical questions that depend upon general principles. I may add, that I have seldom come to a decision upon any disputed point without determining, if possible, the practice of Middleton, who is referred to by the letter (M.).

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EXPLANATIONS OF THE MARKS USED IN THE EXERCISES ON MIDDLETON'S STYLE.

° denotes that the word to which it is prefixed is to be omitted.

* denotes that a sentence has some superfluous words that are to be omitted.

† denotes that the connexion between this and the following sentence is to be changed.

‡ denotes that the words to which it is prefixed are to be made a *sentence;* generally, of course, an adjective or adverbial accessory sentence.

§ denotes that a sentence is to be got rid of; i. e.

(1) turned into an *attributive* clause, an *apposition*, or a *participial* clause.

(2) ———— a participial or other subst. governed by a preposition.

(3) ———— an infinitive clause.

Words that are printed widely thus (p r i n t e d), without any mark prefixed, are to be changed into more idiomatic expressions.

Words in Italics without any mark prefixed, are to be changed from *simple* into *figurative* expressions.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

PART I.—ACCIDENCE.

§ 1. The Letters.

The English language has twenty-six letters: 1

A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z.

a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z.

Those letters which can be sounded *by themselves*, are called vowels[1]. 2

(*a*) There are five vowels, a, e, i, o, u.

Two vowels coming together form a *diphthong*, when the two sounds are blended into one, so that neither of them is quite lost. 3

The only proper diphthongs in our language are *eu, oi, ou;* but two vowels are often used to mark a *simple vowel sound.*

Those letters which cannot be sounded *by themselves*, are called *consonants*[2]. 4

Y is a *consonant* when it stands at the beginning of a word or syllable, but a vowel in other positions. 5

W after a vowel in *the same syllable*, is also a mere vowel. 6

[1] In Latin, *vocalis*, vocal, *sounding*.

[2] From consonare, *to sound with* (something else).

(*a*) The different parts of the mouth, principally the *palate*, the *tongue*, and the *lips*, are called the *organs* (that is, the *instruments*) *of speech*.

(*b*) The vowel sounds are formed rather by the voice passing through the cavity of the mouth more or less enlarged in different directions, than by the action of the palate, tongue, or lips. But in sounding a consonant there is always some *pressing of the organs*. No consonant can be spoken or heard without some *helping sound*. If it has not the distinct sound of a vowel, it must have something of a hiss, hum, or breathing.

7 Vowels pronounced by themselves, or with consonants, form *syllables*: *syllables*, by themselves or with other syllables, form *words*: *words* are used as signs of *notions* (or *conceptions*): and *words* are put together so as to form *sentences*, expressing *thoughts*, *opinions*, and the like.

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§ 2. The Parts of Speech.

8 The name of every *object* that has, or is conceived by the mind to have, *an independent existence*, is called a *noun substantive*, or merely a *substantive*.

(*Rose, flower, man, London, modesty.*)

9 Such words as can stand *immediately* before a substantive, to denote some *property* that we perceive in objects, is called a *noun adjective*, or merely an *adjective*[3].

(*Sweet, sour, sharp, heavy, light.*)

(*a*) It will be seen below, that a particular class of adjective-words are called *participles*. See 11 (*d*) (*e*).

10 The peculiar adjective-words '*a*' or '*an*' and '*the*' are called *articles*.

(*a*) *A* or *an* is called the *indefinite article*, and marks that we are speaking of *some one* of the objects named.

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[3] From the Latin adjectus, *thrown to, added to*. *Noun*, from nomen (Lat.), *a name*.

(*b*) *The* is called the *definite article*, and marks that we are speaking of a *particular object*.

Every word by which we express that persons or things *do* any thing, or *are* any thing, or *have* any thing *done* to them, is called a *verb*[4]. 11

(*To run, to walk, to hurt, to bless.*)

(*a*) *To be* (to which belong the forms *is*, *are*) is a peculiar verb, by means of which we *join* the name of a *property* to the name of a *thing*. 'The rose *is* red.' 'The colours *are* bright.'

(*b*) Since the properties that we perceive in things are subject to *change*, the words '*is*,' '*are*,' are altered to denote whether the property existed *at a former time*, or exists *now*, or will exist at a future time:

The rose *is* red.	The roses *are* red.
The rose *was* red,	The roses *were* red.
The rose *will be* red.	The roses *will be* red.

(*c*) *To become* is a similar verb, by which we mark the acquisition of a *new property*.—'The road *becomes* impracticable.'

(*d*) The notion of a verb may be added to a substantive without being *formally asserted* of it. The forms which are used for this purpose are called *participles*. 'A *sleeping* boy.' 'A *broken* stick.'

(*e*) Hence a *participle*[5] is an *adjective-word* that, besides the notion of a property, conveys that of *time*; or of a *completed* or *incompleted state*.

Such words as add to the notion of a *property* or *action* some circumstance of *time*, *place*, or *manner*, are called *adverbs*. 12

(*a*) Though called *ad-verbs*, or words joined to *verbs*, they are also added to *adjectives*.

A *very* nasty medicine. The storm rages *violently*. A *terribly* passionate man. He runs *swiftly*.

(*b*) "The *adjective* and *adverb* are essentially the same,

[4] From the Latin *verbum*, a *word*, as being the *principal word* in a sentence.

[5] Such words are called *participles*, because they *participate* in the nature of both adjectives and verbs.

both being *names* of *property*[5]." We shall find that sometimes the same word is both *adjective* and *adverb*.

13 A pronoun[6] is a word that stands for a noun.

(*a*) Pronouns save us from the necessity of repeating the noun; so that they are a convenient, but not a *necessary* part of speech. When the persons spoken of are known, they sometimes make it unnecessary to name them at all.

Suppose *Henry* speaking: he may say, '*I* think so and so,' instead of, 'Henry thinks so and so.' If he is speaking of himself and Charles, he may say, '*We* think so and so,' instead of, 'Henry and Charles think so and so.'

14 A word that marks the *relation* of one thing to another, is called a *preposition*[7].

(*a*) Hence *on, in, over, under, through, above, below, from,* &c. are prepositions. They stand immediately *before a substantive,* or some *adjective-word*[8] prefixed to a substantive.

(*b*) The primary relations marked by prepositions are relations in *space;* relations of *local* position. The prepositions used to denote these relations in space, were then transferred to analogous relations of *time.* Thus, 'He stood *before* me' (in *space*). 'He lived *before* Cæsar' (in *time*).

15 A word that *joins* notions or assertions together, is called a *conjunction*[9]. 'The rose is red *and* sweet.' 'I wish *that* I could see him.'

16 A word, generally a simple sound, used to express some inward feeling (such as *sorrow, surprise, anger, pain*) is called an *interjection*[1].

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[5] Thiersch.

[6] Latin, pro, *for:* a pronoun is therefore a *for-noun;* a word used *for a noun.*

[7] Præpositus, *placed before* (the noun it governs).

[8] By *adjective-word* is here meant any *adjective, pronoun, article,* or *participle* that is used *adjectively* with a substantive.

[9] Conjungere, *to join together.*

[1] From interjectus, *thrown in between* or *amongst;* it being *thrown into* the sentence, as it were, without belonging to its grammatical structure.

EXERCISE.

Find all the substantives in the following passages: 17

[And so on for all parts of speech.]

I. The herring, which lives in shoals, and the sheep, which lives in flocks, are not more happy in a crowd, or more contented amongst their companions, than is the pike or the lion with the deep solitude of the pool or the forest.—PALEY.

II. My dog, my dear, is a spaniel. (2) Till Miss Gunning begged him, he was the property of a farmer; and while he was his property, had been accustomed to lie in the chimney-corner, among the embers, till the hair was singed from his back, and till nothing was left of his tail but the gristle. (3) Allowing for these disadvantages, he is really handsome; and when nature shall have furnished him with a new coat, a gift which, in consideration of the ragged condition of the old one, it is hoped she will not long delay, he will then be unrivalled in personal endowments by any dog in this country. (4) He and my cat are excessively fond of each other, and play a thousand gambols together, that it is impossible not to admire.—COWPER.

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§ 3. DIVISION OF SUBSTANTIVES.

When a child has learnt to know that a *rose* is *a flower*, a *daisy a flower*, and so on, if you show it a *buttercup*, it will probably know that that is a *flower* too. If so, it will have got the notion of *a class of things*, which are *alike* in some considerable points, though *unlike* in others. 18

Such names as denote *any* of the *individuals* that are contained in a *class* of things, are called *common nouns* or *appellatives*. 19

(*Tree, flower, soldier, house.*)

(*a*) *Common*, because they are *common* to every individual comprised in the class. *Appellative* from *appellare* to call, because they are the names by which external objects are called.

20 In the *names of materials* no individual is distinguished.

(*Water, milk, sand, iron, money, grass.*)

21 The names of persons and places are called *proper names.*

(*a*) Proper from being *proper*, that is *peculiar*, to the individual bearing the name. (*John*, the *Thames*, *London.*)

22 Another class of substantives represent *qualities* or *modes of action* which are conceived by the mind as having an independent existence. When I have seen, or read of, a number of *virtuous* actions, I get the general notion of *virtue.* When I have seen a number of *red things*, I form the notion of *redness*, and so on. The names of such notions are called *abstract* substantives, from *abstrahere* to *draw away*, because the notions themselves are *drawn off*, as it were, from the mass of appearances presented to our view. Hence:

23 An abstract substantive is the name of a *quality* or *property* conceived by the mind as having an independent existence.

24 As distinguished from abstract substantives, the names of things that really exist are called *concrete.*

(*a*) *Concrete* from *concrētus*, *condensed* or *compacted*; the abstract notion being compressed, as it were, and fixed in an actually existing individual.

25 A *collective substantive*, or *noun of multitude*, is a singular substantive that expresses a *collection* of many individuals.

(*Flock, swarm, nation, people.*)

(*a*) The *whole body* forms *one notion* in the mind, which is quite distinct from our notion of *each of the individuals* composing it.

EXAMPLES.

26 What kind of noun is *man? tree? soldier? army? John? king? strength? grotto? gravity? prudence? iron? temperance? robber? Cæsar? London? soberness? laughter? silver? length?*

§ 4. Number. Formation of the Plural.

It would soon be found *convenient*, though not *necessary*, 27
to indicate by an *alteration in the form of a substantive*, whether *one* was spoken of, or *more than one*.

It would be *possible* to invent forms to indicate many 28
particulars with respect to number: but such forms would probably be very clumsy and unmanageable, and the end is more simply and conveniently attained by the addition of a *numeral* adjective to those forms of a noun which indicate that *more than one* are spoken of.

In some languages, as in Hebrew and Greek, there is 29
a form called the *dual* (from *duo*, *two*), which is used to indicate that *two* are spoken of. In English, as in Latin and many other languages, we have only two *numbers*, as they are called; the *singular*, which indicates that we are speaking of *one*; the *plural*, which indicates that we are speaking of *more than one*.

The *plural number* of a substantive is the 30
substantive *so altered* as to express that we are speaking of *more than one*.

The *plural* of a substantive is generally formed 31
by adding *s* to the *singular*, that is to the substantive itself.

But to this rule there are some exceptions. 32

(*a*) Substantives that end in ch, sh, s, x, or o *after a consonant*, add *es* to the singular.

(*b*) Many that end in f, and fe, form their plural in *ves*.

(*c*) Those that end in *y after a consonant*, form their plural in *ies*.

Counter-Exceptions. 33

(*a*) Of those in *o after a consonant*, canto, tyro, quarto, and occasionally some others, are generally written *cantos*, &c. in the plural.

(*b*) When *ch* is pronounced *hard*, like k, s only is added.

(*c*) Words that end in

oof,
ief (except *thief*, thieves)
ff (except *staff*, staves; *leaf*, leaves),
rf,
together with *strife*, *fife*,

} do not change *f* into *v*.

(*d*) Several nouns have peculiar forms in the plural. In some of these the vowels of the word are changed: in *goose*, *foot*, and *tooth*, *oo* is changed into *ee* (*geese*, *feet*, *teeth*); in *mouse* and *louse*, *ou* is changed into *i*, and *s* into *c* (*mice*, *lice*); others form the plural in *en*, which stands as an added syllable in *ox*, *oxen*, and *child*, *children*[2]; and takes the place of the singular termination in *man*, *woman* (*men*, *women*). *Die*, *sow*, and *penny*, have in the plural, *dice*, *swine*, *pence*. *Brother* (brother-en), *brethren*.

34 *Die* takes *dies*, when it means a *stamp for coining*. *Brother* makes *brothers*, except when it is used to denote persons of the same society or profession: 'The United Brethren;' 'My Christian brethren;' 'His medical brethren look shy upon him.' *Penny* makes *pennies*, when the *particular coin* is meant, and not the *sum* or *value*.

35 Abstract substantives, when used as such, have no plural.

(*a*) But *abstract* substantives are often used in the plural to express *particular acts* agreeing with the *general notion*. Thus we have in the Liturgy, *negligences* and *ignorances*, for *sins of negligence* and *ignorance*: and Hume uses *insolences* for *acts of insolence*. So *kindnesses* for *acts of kindness*, and sometimes *providences* for *acts of providential interference*.

(*b*) The plural of abstract substantives in *y* is used to compare the *different degree* in which the abstract quality exists in different substances. 'The respective *affinities* of lead and iron for manganese.' 'The specific *gravities* of oil and water.'

36 *Ashes*, *bellows*, *bowels*, *lungs*, *scissors*, have no singular.

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[2] For *childer-en*; apparently a double plural, the termination *er* being a plural termination in German.

(*a*) *Deer*, *sheep*, are both singular and plural. "*Fish* is used collectively for the *race of fishes*."—JOHNSON.

(*b*) Names of *materials* have no plural, except when different kinds or varieties are spoken of.

'*Sugar* is dear.' 'There is a heavy duty upon *wine*.' But we may say, 'Fine *sugars* are dearer.' 'There is a heavy duty upon *French wines*.'

(*c*) The names of sciences ending in *ics*, are *sometimes* used as singular nouns.

(*d*) *Folk* is properly a *noun of multitude*; but the plural is used to express individuals of a particular character.—'Merry *folks*,' 'plain *folks*.'

(*e*) *Means* is both *singular* and plural: *mean* is now used only to express the *middle between two extremes*; the point of neither too much or too little.

(*f*) *News* is generally singular, but is now and then found in the plural.

(*g*) *Pains* is generally plural, but is often found in the singular. Crombie observes that we can say, *much pains*, though *much* cannot be used with a plural noun.

(*h*) *Riches* and *alms* are now considered plural. The translators of the Bible used them as either singular or plural. They often use '*much* riches.' Tobit iv. 10: "Alms *do deliver*," &c.; and in the next verse, "Alms *is* a good gift unto all that give it in the sight of the Most High."

(*i*) *Wages* appears to be used as a singular noun in the Bible: "The *wages* of *sin is* death." Rom. vi. 23. "Appoint me thy *wages*, and I will give *it*." Gen. xxx. 28. Also Tobit iv. 14.

(*j*) *Amends* is used is a singular noun.

ON THE PLURAL OF PROPER NAMES, AND FOREIGN WORDS ADOPTED INTO THE LANGUAGE.

With respect to the plural of proper names, usage is 37
still unsettled. Some persons would say *the Miss Thompsons*, others *the Misses Thompson*: the former mode is clearly more in keeping with the general practice of the language, and one's leaning at first would be toward it: but those who plume themselves on their accuracy adopt the latter; and at

all events they can allege the authority of Swift, who writes, "I went to *the Ladies Butler*[3]."

38 Middleton writes, "Among the *Scipio's, Paullus's, Marius's, Pompey's,*" &c.; and he forms the plural of foreign words in *a* by adding *s*, with the mark of *apostrophe*. "He denounced *anathema's* against all who did so." "Three periods distinguished by as many remarkable *epocha's*."

In one of Cowper's letters (Southey's edition) I find, "you and all your *et ceteras* with you."

39 With respect to *the Miss Thompsons*, or *the Misses Thompson*, I am decidedly for the *Miss Thompsons:* no one would think of speaking as we are told we ought to write. I should form the plural regularly, except where the termination of the proper name would be altered by doing so. '*The Pompeys*,' '*the Scipios*,' '*the Mariuses*.'—"The *Miss Brady's*." I should also give a plural termination to the names of the vowels in this way. 'In the genitive of the fifth (Latin) declension, *e* is long when it stands between two i's.'

§ 5. CASES.

40 It is obvious that we think and speak of things that are *closely connected* with other things. We do not conceive every thing as standing *alone* and independent. We may think not only of *a crown*, but of *the king's* crown, a crown *of gold*, and so on.

41 When we think of a *king's crown*, we add to the notion of *a crown* the notion of its *belonging to the king*. When we think of a *crown of gold*, we add to the notion of a crown the notion of *its being made of gold*.

42 We can also think of an action that is done *for the benefit of a person*. We can think of such an action as being done *by* such a person, or *with* such an instrument, or *from* such a cause.

43 If by a *case* we understand one of the *altered forms* by which the various *relations* of a noun to other notions may be expressed, the English language has only *one case* for substantives, and *two* for some of the pronouns.

[3] Philological Mag. vol. i. p. 255.

But if by the *case* of a noun we understood the *expression of any of these relations*, whether indicated by its termination or in any other way, we have as many cases as any other nation. 44

NOMINATIVE CASE.—GENITIVE.—ACCUSATIVE.

The simple form of the noun, which is of course used when we consider it independently, is called the *nominative* case[4]. 45

(*a*) The *nominative* was placed at the head of the *cases*, though properly it is no case, but merely the word in its unaltered form. The word *case* means '*fall*:' the old Greek grammarians wrote the nominative in an *upright* line, and the other *cases* in lines inclined to it at certain angles, so that the forms of the genitive, accusative, &c. seem to be *falling*, as it were, from the original word. Hence these forms were called the *oblique cases*.

English substantives have only one *case* (the genitive) formed by *inflexion*. 46

(*a*) *Inflectere* is *to bend in; to bend.* The noun was *bent*, as it were, *into* a fitness to denote the relation to be expressed.

GENITIVE.

The *genitive* is now formed by adding *s* with an apostrophe (thus, '*s*) to the *nominative*. 47

In plural words ending in *s*, the genitive is like the nominative, but it is now customary to mark an *apostrophe* after the *s*. "On eagles' wings." 48

(*a*) So in the phrase, '*for righteousness' sake*:' but we also say, '*for conscience sake.*'

(*b*) The apostrophe after the genitive plural is *absurd*, for an apostrophe marks that a vowel has been dropt, whereas no vowel ever followed the *s* of the plural to form a genitive. "The present practice is scarcely of a hundred years standing." (Phil. Mag. i. 675.)

[4] From *nominare*, to name.

(*c*) The Anglo-Saxon genitive of the second declension ended in *es* (*leáf, leáfes: word, wordes*). Hence this is the only case we have kept, the *apostrophe* marking the omission of the *e*.

Probably therefore the apostrophe should never be marked, but where an *e* has been dropt. A notion came into fashion, "probably in the latter half of the sixteenth century," that the *s* of the genitive stood for *his:* under this notion the *his* was often written at length, especially where the substantive ended in *s*. Even good writers[5], such as Clarendon, Barrow, Dryden, Pope, followed the fashion; though its absurdity is immediately perceived, when we consider that *s* follows *feminine* nouns and *plurals*, where *his* can have no place[6].

(*d*) Many persons merely mark the apostrophe after the final *s*, to form the genitive of singular nouns ending in that letter. Thus "Æneas' young son." In the Bible we have "Mars hill" (now printed *Mars' hill*): and Spenser and Milton write, *Venus Sonne, Phœbus lamp, Morpheus train*, &c. This practice accords with that of the Germans, who regard names ending in *s* as indeclinable; *Tantalus Sohn, Æschylos Agamemnon*[7]. In Anglo-Saxon, proper names in *s* sometimes did, and sometimes did not, receive an additional *es* in the genitive. '*Mattheus* gerecednys,' Matthew's narrative; '*Urias* wif,' Uriah's wife. But also '*Philippuses*,' '*Remuses*[8].' Middleton writes the second *s* wherever we should pronounce it: "*Judas's:*" it would be far better to write *Judases, Remuses*, &c. if one durst.

49 When two or more words are so closely joined together as almost to form one complex notion, the sign of the genitive is added to the last word, so as to put the whole phrase in the genitive. "*Beaumont and Fletcher's* plays." "*Howell and James's* shop." "*The king of England's* palace."

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[5] *His* occurs in a letter of Cranmer's (1536): "the Bishop of Rome *his* authority." Vol. i. p. 173. Ed. Jenkyns.

[6] Phil. Mag. i. 669—678.

[7] Phil. Mag. i. 67.

[8] Rask, 35.

ACCUSATIVE.

The suffering object, that is, the object im- 50
mediately affected by the action expressed by the verb, stands in the *accusative* case.

The verbs that take an *accusative* case, or in other words express an action done to an object, are called *transitive* verbs.

The accusative case, therefore, assigns *the immediate object* affected by the action, in answer to the question *whom?* or *what?* "He struck *Richard.*"—*Whom* did he strike? *Richard.*

In English substantives the nominative and 51
accusative are alike; but in the personal pronouns the accusative is formed by inflexion (46).

{ *John* (*nom.*) struck Peter.
{ Peter struck *John* (*accus.*).

{ *I* (*nom.*) struck John.
{ John struck *me* (*accus.*).

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§ 6. The Gender of Nouns.

All animals are either *male* or *female*. In other 52
objects there is no distinction of sex. So that all things are either *masculine*, *feminine*, or *neuter*, —that is, *neither of the two*.

(*a*) We speak, however, of some inanimate things, as if they had a sex. In other words, we *may* (not *must*) speak of some *things* as if they were *persons*, and give them a sex. We consider the *Sun* as masculine, the *Moon* as feminine. *Time* and *Death* are masculine; *Religion*, *Virtue*, and all particular *Virtues*, feminine; the *Earth*, feminine; *Spring*, feminine; *Winter*, *Summer*, *Autumn*, *Love*, the *Winter*, &c. masculine: a *Ship*, a *State*, a *City*, our *Country*, *Law*, the *Mind*, *Health*, &c. feminine.

(*b*) When we are speaking of any animal in a general way, we often use a particular sex, making the more *fierce*, *robust*, and *vigorous*, masculine; the more *timid*, *quiet*, and *demure*, feminine.

Thus *elephant, horse, ass, dog, fox,* masculine; *hare, cat,* feminine.

§ 7. Adjectives—Comparison of Adjectives.

53 Adjectives are not declined in the English language.

54 An adjective undergoes a change of form to express a comparison between different objects.

55 When the form of an adjective is so altered, as to express that a property exists in the subject we are speaking of, in a *greater* degree than in some other or others, the adjective is said to be in the *comparative* degree.

(*a*) 'Summer is *hotter* than winter:' *i. e. Summer* possesses the property signified by the adjective *hot* in a higher degree than *winter* does. 'The Andes are *higher* than the Alps.'

56 When the form of an adjective is so altered, as to express that, *of all* the individuals compared together, the property belongs in the *highest degree* to that of which we are speaking, the adjective is said to be in the *superlative.*

(*a*) Hence the comparative and superlative are called '*degrees of comparison.*'

57 The comparative ends in *er*, the superlative in *est.*

(*a*) These endings are added to the adjective; but if it ends in *e* already, only *r* is added, which, however, increases the word by a syllable. (Safe, *safer.*) Those that end in *y* change *y* into *i* before *er* and *est.* (Lofty, *loftier.*)

(*b*) The adjective, in its simple form, is said to be in the *positive* degree[9].

[9] *Positivus, placed, put;* because the property is simply *put down* without any comparison made with other objects.

Adjectives of more than one syllable, with the exception of those of two syllables ending in a vowel, do not admit of this change. 58

(*a*) This is the *modern practice*. In Milton, *virtuousest*, *famousest*, &c.

(*b*) We use the adverbs *more* and *most*, when we wish to compare the properties that are expressed by such adjectives.

The following adjectives have peculiar forms for their comparatives and superlatives: 59

Good	better	best	Much	more	most
Bad	worse	worst	Many	more	most
Little	less	least			

Late and *near* have *last* and *next* for their *superlatives*, as well as *latest* and *nearest*. 60

There are also some superlatives in *most*: *nethermost*, *lowermost*, *undermost*; *hindmost* and *hindermost*; *upmost* and *uppermost*; *inmost* and *innermost*; *topmost*, *foremost*. 61

(*a*) Observe, that in some of these *most* is added to the *positive*, in some to the *comparative*, and in others to *adverbs*, or *prepositions* (used adverbially).

(*b*) *Further*, *furthest*, have nothing to do with *far*, but come from an old adjective *forth*: consequently, we should not write *farther*, *farthest*.

(*c*) The *comparative* and *superlative* are *more nearly defined* by such words of *quantity* as *much*, *far*, *considerably*,—*a little*, *somewhat*, &c., and the existence of any excess is denied by *no*, *not at all*, &c., with the *comparative*. 'She is *no better*.'

(*d*) In many languages the *superlative* is used without a direct comparison of the object with others, to express that it possesses the quality in a *very* high degree. The superlative thus used, is called the *superlative of eminence*. In English, we commonly use the adverb *very* for this purpose. 'A *very* good house.'

(*e*) Sometimes, however, our superlative is used as a superlative of eminence, especially when it is modified by such an adjective as *possible, imaginable, conceivable*, &c. It will generally, however, be found, that there is an *implied* reference to other objects: 'He received me in the *kindest possible* manner.' 'The *greatest imaginable* folly.' Here the reference is to all the *possible* degrees of kindness; to every *imaginable* species of folly.

(*f*) In most languages we find a few comparatives and superlatives from words which already denote the *highest degree* of a quality. One would not wish to get rid of such forms, when they have once obtained a firm footing, and may be considered as *naturalized* in the language.

(*g*) There seems to be authority for the following forms:—

Extremest. "The *extremest* of evils." Bacon. "The *extremest* verge." Shakespeare. "His *extremest* state." Spenser. Also Dryden and Addison. [So the Greek ἐσχατώτατος.]

Chiefest. "*Chiefest* of the herdmen." Bib. "*Chiefest* courtier." Shak. "First and *chiefest*." Milt.

Perfect. "Usage has given to it (*more perfect*) a sanction which we dare hardly controvert." Crombie. "Having *more perfect* knowledge of that way." Acts xxiv. 22.

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§ 8. Pronouns, and Words allied to the Pronoun.

62 Buttmann well observes, that "pronouns cannot be so precisely defined in theory, as not to admit many words which may also be considered as *adjectives*."

63 (*a*) All words may be considered *pronouns*, or at least to have a pronominal character, which are capable of being used as nouns, but carry with them a simply *relational* notion; or, in other words, which, instead of *naming* or *describing* an object, enable *us to recognize it* by some *relation*, of *definiteness* or *indefiniteness*, of *place*, of *kind*, &c.

(*b*) Thus a pronoun denotes whether the thing spoken of *is* or *belongs to the speaker himself*; whether it *is* or *belongs to* the *person he is addressing*; whether it *is* or *belongs to* some third person or thing, *of which he is speaking*; whether it is some object *near him*, or *near another*, and so on. In classing pronouns, the *speaker* is called the *first person* (*I*, *we*); the person *spoken to*, the *second person* (*thou*, *you*); the person or thing *spoken of*, the *third person* (*he*, *she*, *it*: *they*). There are five principal classes of pronouns: *Personal*, *Demonstrative*, *Relative*, *Indefinite*, and *Interrogative* pronouns.

(A.)

Personal Pronouns (which are all Substantive Pronouns).

64 (*a*) *I*, plural *we*, is called the pronoun of the *first* person.

(*b*) *Thou*, plural *you*, is called the pronoun of the *second* person.

(*c*) *He*, *she*, *it*, plural *they*, are the pronouns of the *third* person.

65 DECLENSION OF PRONOUNS.

		Nom.	Genitive.	Accus.
Pers. 1	Sing.	*I*	*my* or *mine*	*me*
	Plur.	*we*	*our* or *ours*	*us.*
Pers. 2	Sing.	*thou*	*thy* or *thine*	*thee*
	Plur.	*ye* / *you*	*your* or *yours*	*you.*
Pers. 3. Sing.	mas.	*he*	*his*	*him*
	fem.	*she*	*her* or *hers*	*her*
	neut	*it*	*its*	*it*
Pers. 3. Plur.		*they*	*their* or *theirs*	*them.*
Relative and Interrogative		*who*	*whose*	*whom*
		which	*of which* or *whose*	*which.*

Demonstrative { *this*, plural *these*. / *that*, plural *those*.

(*a*) Of the two forms of the genitive, the first is used when it is to stand before its substantive; the second, when it stands alone. 'This hat is *mine*.' 'This is *my* hat.'

(*b*) But formerly *mine* was used before a substantive beginning with a vowel or silent *h*.

(*c*) The forms set down for the *genitive* case are sometimes called *possessive* pronouns, and considered as *adjectives*.

As the genitive denotes possession, there is no determining whether they are genitives, or *possessive* (adjective) pronouns. In Anglo-Saxon, the possessive pronouns were formed from the *genitives* of the two first persons, by declining them as indefinite adjectives: the third person had no exclusive possessive pronoun; the genitive of the personal pronoun being used for it unchanged. (Rask, p. 55.) As then the possessive pronouns were the *genitives* of the personal pronouns with adjective terminations, when we lost our terminations, we lost all that made a difference between the possessive pronouns, and the genitives of the personal ones.

(*d*) [Since other languages express *possession* by *adjective pronouns*, as well as by *genitive cases*, in translating from English into another language, we must consider whether the word to be used is, or is not, *an adjective, equivalent in all its forms to our genitive case*. When it is, it must of course *agree* with its substantive. "*Suus* liber," *his* (own) book; because *suus* is an adjective meaning *his own*: but "*ejus* liber," *his book*, because *his* is not an adjective meaning *his* throughout.]

66 Personal pronouns are *reflexive*, when the thing or person denoted by the pronoun is the same with the *subject*; that is, with the *thing* or *person spoken of*.

67 Our *reflexive* forms for the nominative and accusative are obtained from the personal pronouns by the addition of *self*, plural *selves*.

	Sing.	Plur.	Obs.
1.	*myself*	*ourselves.*	
2.	*thyself*	*yourselves.*	The terminations are added to the *genitives* of the two first persons, to the *accusatives* of the third person.
3.	*himself*, *herself*, *itself*	*themselves.*	

To make the *genitive cases* (or *possessive* pronouns) *reflexive*, we use the pronominal adjective *own*.

'He killed himself with *his own* sword.'

(*a*) *Sylf* (*self, sealf*) is declined like an *adjective*, both definitely and indefinitely, in Anglo-Saxon. Rask, 54. *Own* is the Anglo-Saxon *agen*.

(B.)

Demonstrative Pronouns.

The *Demonstrative*[4] (or *pointing-out*) pronouns 68
are: '*this*,' pl. *these*; '*that*,' pl. *those*.

'*This*' points out what is near the speaker; 69
'*that*' what is further from him.

'*Such*' and '*same*' may also be considered de- 70
monstrative pronouns.

When '*this*' and '*that*' relate to two things 71
before mentioned, *this* means the *nearest*, which is of course the one last mentioned.

(*a*) Consequently, '*that*' is in such cases equivalent to *the former*; '*this*' to *the latter*.

(*b*) '*This*' is used of a *coming* statement, or one that has just been made; '*that*' generally refers to a *past* one.

(*c*) Crombie says, it is *abundantly evident* that '*this*' and '*that*' are not pronouns, *for they never represent a noun*. But surely, to go no further, '*that*' does stand for a noun in the example quoted by himself:

[4] From *de-monstrare*, to point out.

——— the only good on earth
Was pleasure; not to follow *that* was sin.

Here '*that*' stands simply for '*pleasure*:' there is no ellipse, for we cannot put in the word '*pleasure*,' without striking out *that*. '*That*' stands for '*pleasure*,' and not for '*that pleasure*.' So in such sentences as, "the first opportunity was *that* of the Prince of Denmark's death," '*that*' stands for '*the opportunity*.'

72 '*Such*' may be considered a *demonstrative pronoun*[5], indicating or *pointing out* the kind.

(*a*) If the substantive requires the article (which must be the *indefinite*[6] article), it stands after *such*. '*Such a* man.'

(*b*) '*Such*' may stand before another attributive adjective: the article, if necessary, must stand between them. "How long shall all the wicked doers speak so disdainfully, and make *such proud* boasting?" Ps. xciv. 4.

(*c*) Lindley Murray unfortunately took it into his head to order '*such*' to be turned into '*so*,' whenever and wherever it might be found in company with another attributive. According in Parker's Progressive Exercises, part ii. p. 12, we have a set of exercises on this *errour*.

The notion has no foundation in truth or reason; but it is necessary to combat it at some length. (1.) The German *solcher* stands before another attributive exactly as our *such*. *Solch schönes* Wetter, *such fine weather*. *Solch grosse Güte*, &c. (2.) The practice is found in almost every page of our best writers. "*Such moderate* showers." Prayer for Rain. "*Such worthy* attempts;" "*such* an *awful* repulse;" "*such* a *low* esteem." Milton. "*Such great* and *strange* passages." South. "*Such wretched* passions and prejudices." Middleton. "*Such palpable* sophistry;" "*such exquisite* delicacy:" "*such an exact* accord." Cowper. (3.) It is exactly like another idiom: '*What pernicious* influence.' Middleton. '*What a brutal*

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[5] "Since Mr. Newton went, and till this lady came, there was not in the kingdom a retirement more absolutely *such* than ours." In this instance *such* is used for the *noun*, retirement.

[6] It must be the *indefinite* article, because *such* denotes that the thing in question belongs to a particular class; it can therefore only be *an* individual of that class.

fellow! is just like '*such* a *brutal* fellow;' but no Lindley Murray, I believe, has ever ordered me to *correct* this into, '*How* brutal a fellow.' (4.) To say nothing of the close resemblance between adjectives and adverbs, it is obvious that the *such* modifies the substantive; '*Such palpable* sophistry,' *i. e.* palpable sophistry *of this kind.*

(*d*) '*Such*' is sometimes used to denote a *particular* thing, which it is not necessary to mention. 'I told him that he must pay me on *such* a day.' In this meaning we often find '*such and such:*' ("I would have given thee *such and such things,*" or, *such or such.* 'A law forbidding *such or such* an action.')

To this class belongs also '*the same,*' which 73
points out an object by means of the relation of *identity.*

"He that abideth in me, and I in him, *the same* bringeth forth much fruit." John xv. 5.

(*a*) By '*the same,*' we express not only *absolute* but *virtual* identity; that is, extreme *similarity,* sufficient to constitute one object *as good as the same* with another. The degree of similarity that is sufficient to constitute two objects virtually the *same,* must be determined by the *purposes* for which they are to be employed.

(C.)

Relative Pronouns.

The relative pronouns are: '*who*' for *per-* 74
sons, '*which*' for *things,* and '*that*' for either persons, or things.

(*a*) They are called *relative,* because they *refer* to an object already mentioned. 'The house, *which* you have bought: —the house, *which house* you have bought.'

'*What*' is also a *relative* pronoun, which is 75
equivalent to '*that which.*'

'*Who,*' '*what,*' and '*that*' are *substantive* pro- 76
nouns, and cannot stand before the substantive

they refer to. '*Which*' is an adjective pronoun, and can be immediately followed by its substantive.

(*a*) Our use of '*that*' as a *relative* comes to us from the Anglo-Saxon. "The demonstrative pronoun *thæt, se, seó,* is also used relatively, like the English *that,* and is, in general, repeated in the sentence, so that in the first clause it stands as a *demonstrative,* and in the next as a *relative.*" Rask, p. 58.

(*b*) '*Whose,*' as the genitive of '*which,*' has been objected to by many writers. Johnson says: "it is rather the poetical than the regular genitive of *which.*" It occurs in the Bible (as well as in Shakspeare, Milton, &c.): "Nebuchadnezzar the king made an image of gold, *whose* height was threescore cubits," &c. Dan. iii. 1.

(*c*) '*Which*' formerly took the definite article, *the.* "*In the which* ye also walked sometime." Col. iii. 7.

(*d*) From '*who,*' '*which,*' and '*what,*' are formed compounds by the addition of '*ever,*' '*soever.*' *Whoever, whichever, whatever; whosoever, whichsoever, whatsoever.*

Whoever is equivalent to *any man who:* and so of the rest.

Lindley Murray says of these compound pronouns, that "they are seldom used in modern style." This is by no means true of *whoever, whatever,* and *whichever.*

(*e*) *Whoso* is another compound of *who,* which is now out of use.

(D.)

Interrogative[7] (*or* question-asking) *Pronouns.*

77 '*Who,*' '*which,*' and '*what,*' are also interrogative pronouns.

(*a*) '*Which*' is used to ask *which individual* of a *known class* or *number* is the object we are enquiring about.

'*Who* did this?' carries with it no notion of our having any knowledge on the subject. '*Which* of you did it?' implies that I know it was done by one of *you.*

[7] From *interrogare,* to *ask.*

(*b*) '*Whether*' was formerly used instead of *which*, when the enquiry related to *two* objects. As a *pronoun*, it has gone out of use. "*Whether* of them *twain* did the will of his father?" Matt. xxi. 31.

When an interrogative pronoun stands at the head of a *dependent clause*, there is danger of mistaking it for a relative. 78

(*a*) To determine whether '*who*,' '*which*,' or '*what*' is an interrogative, turn the sentence on which it depends into a question. If the dependent clause gives the *answer* to such a question, the pronoun is an interrogative. 'I asked *who* was there.' What did you ask? *Ans.* '*Who* was there.' 'I asked *what* he was going to do.' *What* did you ask? *Ans.* '*What* he was going to do.' In these sentences *who* and *what* are interrogative pronouns.

(E.)

Reciprocal Pronouns.

A *reciprocal* pronoun is one that denotes the mutual action of different agents upon each other. 79

(*a*) '*Each other*,' and '*one another*,' are our *reciprocal* forms, which are treated exactly as if they were *compound* pronouns, taking for their genitives, '*each-other's*;' '*one-another's*.' '*Each other*' is used of *two* or *more*; '*one another*' can only be used of *more than two*.

Numerals.

Numerals express the relations of *number* and *quantity*. 80

Numerals are *definite*, if they denote a particular number, as *one*, *two*, *three*. 81

Numerals are *indefinite*, if they denote no particular *number* or *quantity*; as *many*, *some*, *much*. 82

(F.)

Indefinite Numerals.

83 The indefinite numerals[8] are *each*, *every*; *either*, *neither*; *many*, *much*; *few*, *several*; *all*, *no*, *more*, *some*, *any*, *enough*; *other*, *another*; *one* (used indefinitely), *only*, *alone*, &c.

(*a*) '*Each*,' '*every*,' are used to separate, as it were, a number into the individuals of which it is made up.

(*b*) '*Every*' can only be applied to each of *more than two* individuals.

'*Each*' can be applied to each of *two* or *any greater number*.

Johnson says that *each*, in the sense of *every one* of *more than two*, is *rare* except in poetry. It is *not rare* in the Bible. "Cloven tongues sat upon *each* of them;" "the *four* beasts had *each* of them six wings." It comes from the Anglo-Saxon *ælc*, which is applicable to *each* of *any* number.

(*c*) '*Either*' and '*neither*' relate to *two* objects.

(*d*) '*Either*' means *the one or the other*; and also *which of the two you please*.

(*e*) '*Either*' has also the meaning of *each*, *both*. "On *either* side of the river."

"Sev'n times the sun hath *either* tropic viewed."

84 *Many*, *few*, *several*, denote *number*: *much* denotes *quantity*. *Many* shillings: *much* money.

(*a*) '*Many*' is used with a singular substantive, with the indefinite article *a* between it and the substantive. "You, I know, have *many a time* sacrificed your own feelings to those of others."

We also find "*a great many*."

(*b*) Is it possible that this idiom came from a substantive, the German *Menge* (Anglo-Saxon, *menegu*)? "*Eine Menge* Hasen," is exactly "*a many* hares," as country people often

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[8] The indefinite pronouns are, not without reason, called also indefinite numerals. Rask, p. 60.

speak, and indeed as Shakespeare often spoke: "told of *a many* thousand warlike French."

(*c*) '*Few*' is joined with a *plural substantive*, but may take the indefinite article *a* before it, although that article cannot be used with a plural word. 'Can you lend me *a few* shillings?'

(*d*) '*Few*' is equivalent to *but few, if any.*
'*A few*' ——————— *some, though not many.*

When we use '*few*,' we are approaching to a denial of there being *any;* we use '*a few*,' when we wish to assert that there *are some.*

'There are *few men* who would have acted as he did.' 'I know *a few men* who would have acted precisely as he did.'

(*e*) Just so, '*little*' is equivalent to '*but little, if any;*' '*a little,*' to '*some, though not much.*'

All, no, none, some, any, enough, denote either *number* or *quantity.* 85

(*a*) *All men* (number); *all the cloth* (quantity).—When *all* denotes *quantity*, the noun will *commonly* have *the*, or the *genitive case of a personal pronoun* with it.

(*b*) *No* and *none* differ as *my* and *mine*, &c. (65 *a.*) 'I have *no paper*.' 'As to paper, I have *none*.'—*None*, like *mine*, was formerly used before a vowel. "This is *none other* but the house of God." Gen. xxviii. 17.

(*c*) '*None*,' though compounded of *no one*, is used as either singular or plural. "All King Solomon's vessels were of gold . . . . . there *were none* of silver." 1 Kings x. 21.

Some. 86

(*a*) *Some men* (number); *some beef* (quantity).

(*b*) '*Some*' is used with numerals to signify *about.* "*Some fifty years ago.*" Mr. Crombie considers "this phraseology highly objectionable;" but it is a good old Saxon idiom. "*Sum* is often found combined with the genitive plural of the cardinal numbers, and signifies '*about*,' '*some*;' as . . . . *sume ten gear*, some ten years." (Rask, p. 61.) So fut. *aliqui viginti dies*, and Germ. *einige zwanzig* Tage.]

87 '*Any*' has several meanings which must be carefully distinguished, because in other languages these meanings are not all expressed by the same words.

(*a*) After *negative* words, and such words and phrases as have a negative force, '*any*' marks the exclusion of *all*: '*He did it without* any *hesitation.*' '*We cannot make* any *difference between you.*' So after '*scarcely,*' '*without,*' and *comparatives*, and in 'questions of appeal' where the expected answer is *nobody, none.* 'Scarcely *any one.*' 'Without *any* difficulty.' 'He is taller than *any* of his schoolfellows.' 'Can *any* man believe this?'

(*b*) It is sometimes equivalent to '*any you please,*' '*every body.*'—'*Any body* can do that.'

(*c*) Again it is sometimes *indefinite*, being equivalent to *some one.* 'Shall we tell *any body* of our misfortunes?' the particular person being left undecided.

88 *Enough* (*enow*).

Johnson says: "It is not easy to determine whether this word be an *adjective* or *adverb;* perhaps, when it is joined to a substantive, it is an adjective, of which *enow* was the *plural.* In other situations it seems an adverb; except that after the verb *to have*, or *to be*, either expressed or understood, it may be accounted a substantive."—It comes from the Anglo-Saxon *genoh, enough,* "which follows the indefinite declension of *adjectives.*" (Rask, p. 61.) So in German, *genug* is an adjective, and, as in English, commonly stands after its *substantive:* '*Geld genug,*' money enough.

89 '*Other*' takes a plural *others*, when it is used without a substantive.

'The *other* day' means *a day or two ago; a few days ago.* Johnson confines it to "the *third* day past."

90 '*Another*' means *one more, some one other.*

91 '*One,*' when not a *numeral*, has two principal uses:

(1.) It is used (like the German '*man,*' and the French '*on*') in a general and indefinite way for *a man, any man.* "*One* would imagine these to be the expressions of a man

blessed with ease, affluence, and power." "*One's* leaning at first would be towards it."—From this *one* is formed a *reflexive* pronoun, *oneself*. [There is no more reason for writing *one's self* than there is for saying *his self* instead of *himself*. See 67.]

(2.) '*One*' often stands as a *substitute* for a substantive already mentioned. Johnson says: "this relative mode of speech, whether singular or plural, is in my ears not very elegant, yet is used by good authors."

It will be seen from the examples, that Middleton's ears were less fastidious on this point than Dr. Johnson's. "There are many whose waking thoughts are wholly employed on their sleeping *ones*." Addison. "But I have already undergone, he says, the worst sort of banishment a liberal mind can suffer; a total *one* from the hearts and affections of all good men." Middleton. "You say withal, that you did not intend to attack all my quotations, but only the original *ones*." Middleton.

(*a*) *One* has also a plural when it stands for persons indefinitely, as 'the great *ones* of the world.'

(*b*) '*One*' often stands in company with *every*, *any*, *no*.

'*Only*' commonly stands after its substantive, as '*Man only*:' except when the substantive has an *article* or *possessive pronoun* (genitive of a *personal* pronoun) with it. 'The only way;' '*an* or *his* only son.' 92

'*Alone*' stands after its substantive. 93

(*a*) To complete the indefinite numerals, we may add, *aught*, *naught*; *something*, *nothing*; *somewhat*, *a little*. *Naught* is used in the sense of *worthless*, of *no value*.

(*b*) These are generally used as *substantives*, but sometimes as adverbs. (See 94.)

Of the indefinite numerals or pronouns, those that relate to *quantity*, whether *exclusively* or *not*, are used adverbially, with comparative adjectives to express the degree. 94

(*a*) 'Are you *any* better?' 'I am *all* the better for'—'I am *no* better for'—'I am *none* the better for'—'I am *something*, *somewhat*, *a little* better for.'—She "had spent much money, and was *nothing* bettered."—'I am *much* better,' &c.

(*b*) '*Enough*' naturally goes with the positive. 'Good *enough*.'

(*c*) '*Much*' sometimes has the force of *nearly, pretty nearly*. "Clemens and Eusebius say *much* the same thing."

(G.)

Definite Numerals.

95 *Numerals* denote the *number* of things. A few numerals are *substantives:* a *unit*, a *pair*, a *couple*, a *dozen*, a *score*, a *hundred*, a *thousand*, a *million*, &c.[9]

(*a*) After numerals, the words *pair, couple,* &c. do not take the plural form, '*six pair* of shoes,' &c.

(*b*) So in German: '*zwei Paar* Schuhe,' two pair of shoes; '*drei Dutzend* Aepfel,' three dozen of apples; '*sechs Fuss* lang,' which Becker translates, 'six *foot* long.'

(*b*) In such examples as 'a hundred altars,' &c. Johnson considers *hundred* an adjective; but the omission of the preposition *of* does not make it necessary to suppose this. He himself does not call *dozen* an adjective, merely because we can say '*a dozen miles*' (one of his own examples).

96 Such numerals as answer to *how many?* are *cardinals: one, two, three, four*, &c.

97 Such as express *what place in a series* the thing we are speaking of occupies, are called *ordinals: first, second, third*, &c.

98 Such as express *how many times* one thing exceeds another, or *what multiple* it is of itself, are called multiplicatives: *double, twofold, triple, treble, threefold, fourfold*, &c. *Single* may stand at the head of this class, to begin the series.

99 Numeral adverbs answer to the question, *how often?* *Once, twice, thrice*, &c.

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[9] *Half* and *quarter* are also substantives. After *half, of* is omitted: *half an acre.*

In *compound* numerals of the ordinal series, it is only the last number that takes the ordinal termination. 100

The *twenty-fifth* year. The *five hundred* and *eighty-fourth* year.

(*a*) Thus *five hundred and sixty seven* is turned into the *ordinal* form, by merely giving the ordinal termination (*th*) to the last number, 'seven.' 'The five hundred and sixty *seventh* year.' We may compare this with our mode of adding a *genitive* termination to such a phrase as '*the King of England*;' '*the King of England's* crown.' As we consider *King-of-England* a sort of compound substantive, and add the mark of the genitive to the end of it, so we consider *five-hundred-and-sixty-seven* a compound adjective, and are satisfied with having the mark of its class put on to the end.

When the units are combined with tens, they are placed either *first with* '*and*,' or *last without* '*and*' (*twenty-four*, or *four and twenty*): but after a *hundred* the smaller number is always last—*hundred and twenty four*[1]. 101

To express number *distributively* (to express, that is, parties *of so many together*), the cardinal number is repeated: '*two* and *two*;' '*three* and *three*.' 102

"And he called the twelve, and began to send them *two and two*." Mark vi. 7. Tyndale's translation.

(*a*) Sometimes *by* is used before the repeated numeral ("*by two and two*" in the same passage of the English Bible); sometimes *by* with the numeral not repeated ("I hid them *by fifty* in a cave"), the numeral being generally in the *plural*: "We are not to stay all together, but to come by him, where he stands, *by ones*, *by twos*, and *by threes*." Shakespeare.

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[1] *i. e.* The *tens* follow the *hundreds*; the *units* the *tens*. In "*six* hundred and thirty," the *six* denotes how many hundreds are taken.

The sun has long been set,
The stars are out *by twos and threes*,
The little birds are piping yet
Among the bushes and trees.—Wordsworth.

One by one = one at a time; or, *in single file.*

(*b*) It has been fashionable of late to write the *first three*, and so on, instead of the *three first*. Thus where Thiersch writes, "Declination *der vier ersten* Zahlwörter," his translator has, "Declension of *the first four* Numerals." People write in this way to avoid the seeming absurdity of implying that more than *one* thing can be the *first;* but it is *at least* equally absurd, to talk about the *first four*, when (as often happens) there is no *second four.*

It may perhaps remove the scruples of those who ask *how* there can be more than one first, to consider that as soon as *the first* is removed, *another first* succeeds, and so on. "The fathers of the *five first* centuries." Middleton. (Misc. 333.) "I have not numbered the lines, except of the *four first* books[2]." Cowper. (Vol. v. p. 73. Southey's ed.)

THE VERB.

§ 9. Division of Verbs.

103 Every verb, except *to be*, combines the notion of some *property*, the notion of *being*, and generally the notion of *time.*

(*a*) John *runs* = John *is now* in that state which we call *running.* Cæsar *will conquer* = *will be* in that state which we call *victorious.*

(*b*) Some *properties* may be considered as being confined, as it were, to the person or thing spoken of, without affecting any thing else. 'He *breathes;*' 'the tree *blossoms;*' 'the stone *falls.*'—The verbs that denote such properties, convey a complete notion, without requiring the mention of any object conceived to be affected by it. They are called *neuter* or (better) *intransitive* verbs.

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[2] So in Latin. Thus the *Decem-primi* were magistrates in municipal towns.

(*c*) There are properties, however, which *go forth*, as it were, from the subject, and produce an effect upon some external object. "Samuel *reproved Saul*." "Faith *overcomes the world*." The verbs that denote such properties, are called *transitive* verbs: *transitive* from the Latin word *transire* (to pass over), the action being considered to *pass over*, as it were, to some external object: 'Rain *fertilizes the soil*.' Here the *fertilizing* is considered as something imparted to the soil; as something *passing over* to it.

Verbs are called *transitive*, if their notion is *incomplete* without the supplementary notion of an object conceived to be affected by the action which the verb expresses. 104

Verbs are called *intransitive*, if their notion is *complete* without the addition of any supplementary notion. 105

(*a*) Strictly speaking this is not a division of verbs, but a division of their *uses*, for many verbs are sometimes *transitive*, sometimes *intransitive*; and this is especially the case with the oldest and simplest verbs of the language: 'The fire *burns* bright' (intrans.); 'The fire *has burnt* my finger' (trans.); 'He *has broken* the glass' (trans.); 'Glass *breaks* easily' (intrans.); 'The earth *moves* round the sun;' 'You must *move* the table.'

(*b*) It is not easy, if possible, to frame a definition that will take in all the verbs that are usually considered transitive. Take, for instance, *to require care*; there is no *passing over* of the notion of the verb to the object denoted by the noun; nor is there any thing of the kind, when we speak of *begging a favour*. The best mark of a transitive verb is the *incompleteness* of the notion; but then there is room for a good deal of arbitrary choice in fixing upon the notion that shall be considered to complete the notion of the verb. For instance, after such a notion as *begging* or *requesting*, one nation considers *the person of whom the favour is asked* to be the object immediately affected; whilst another chooses to express that relation by a preposition or a genitive case, and makes the *favour asked* the immediate object of the verb [3].

[3] "Individual instances, where the object is in the *accusative* in one language, as proximate to the verb, and in another as more

§ 10. The Tenses.

106 We naturally divide *time* into that which is *past*, that which *now is*, and that which *is to come*. And as we can think and speak of *past* actions and states, of *present* actions and states, and *future* actions and states; it is convenient to mark whether we are speaking of what *has been*, what *is*, or what *will be*, by appropriating a particular form of the verb to each division of time.

107 Hence arise three principal forms of the verb, one for *present time*, one for *past time*, and one for *future time*. Each of these forms is called a *tense;* and hence we get a *present* tense; a *past* tense, or *preterite*[4]; and a *future* tense.

108 The *present* tense is the verb itself.

109 The *preterite* tense is generally formed by *inflexion*, and that in two ways:

Either (1) *d* or *ed* is added to the verb; or
(2) the vowels of the verb, and sometimes its final consonants, are changed; but
(3) sometimes the preterite is of the same form as the present.

EXAMPLES.

(*a*) (1) Love, *loved;* move, *moved*; try, *tried*.
(2) Strive, *strove;* catch, *caught;* bring, *brought*.
(3) Put, *put;* cast, *cast*.

110 When the verb ends in a single consonant following a short vowel, and has the accent on the

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remote in the *genitive* or *dative*, or construed with a *preposition*, can be learnt only by practice and from dictionaries; as, for instance, *to imitate a person* requires the *dative* in German, while in Greek, Latin, French, and English, it governs the *accusative*."—Buttmann, Larger Greek Grammar, p. 333.

[4] From *præteritum*, past. It is called also the *perfect*.

last syllable, the final consonant is *doubled* before *ed:* refer, *referred.*—Y *impure*[5] is changed into *i* before *ed:* try, *tried.*

The future tense is not formed by inflexion, 111
but by the *auxiliary* (or *helping*) verbs, *shall* and *will.*

I *shall love.*—I *will come.*—He *will* know better next time.

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§ 11. On the Persons.

A person may represent *himself* as doing so 112
and so; or the person or persons *he is speaking to;* or *any other* person or persons.

(*a*) In most languages each tense has a particular form to denote *so far* the subject or subjects of which the verb is predicated. Each of these forms is called a *person* of that tense.

(*b*) The *first person* refers to the *speaker himself* (*I*); the *second* to the person *spoken to* (*thou*); the *third* to any other person or thing *spoken of.* So, in the plural, the *first person* refers to the *speaker himself and some others* (*we*); the *second* to the persons *spoken to,* or the *person spoken to* and *some others* (*ye* or *you*); the *third* to any other persons or things *spoken of.*

(*c*) The persons *might be* more numerous: for instance, there *might* be separate forms for every possible number of persons; for every possible combination of so many men and so many women, and so on[6].

(*d*) Some languages have three persons for the *dual* number, and others separate forms to be used when the subject is a *female.*

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[5] That is, *y following a consonant.*

[6] "An Englishman or a Frenchman has only one word for *we,* but a native of Hawaii or Tahiti has perfectly distinct terms for I and thou, I and he, I and you, I and they, I and my company." —Quarterly Review, cxiii. 109.

113 The English language has *distinct forms* for only two of the persons, the *second* and *third* singular.

114 All the persons of the plural, and in the preterite the third person singular also, are like the first person singular.

115 The second person singular is formed by adding *st*, or *est*, to the first person.

(*a*) The *st* is added when the first person ends in *e*: the addition forms a new syllable.

(*b*) When the verb ends in a single consonant after a short vowel, and has the accent on the last syllable, the final consonant is *doubled* before *est* (defer, *deferrest*; put, *puttest*).

(*c*) Preterites ending in *ed* form the second person *singular* in *edst*.

116 In English the second person plural is generally used instead of the second person singular. '*You say*' instead of '*thou sayest*.'

(*a*) We find a similar peculiarity in other languages. It is felt, we must suppose, a point of courtesy not to make our approaches to one another *so directly*, as we do when we use the second person singular.

(*b*) The Quakers, oddly enough, think it a deviation from truth, to say *you* to a single person; they keep therefore to *thou* and *thee*.

(*c*) In English the use of '*thou*' is confined to poetry, and to addresses to the Deity, to whom it would be natural to appropriate the form, when once it had become a peculiar one.

117 The third person singular of the present tense is formed by adding *s* to the first person.

(*a*) When the verb ends in *y impure* [see p. 33, note 5], the *y* is changed into *ie* (fly, *flies*; but delay, *delays*).

(*b*) When the verb ends in a consonant or consonants after which *s* could not be pronounced, *es* is added, exactly as in

forming the plural of nouns (brush, *brushes*; hoax, *hoaxes*; fish, *fishes*; hiss, *hisses*).

(*c*) Formerly, the third person singular ended in *th*, as it now stands in the English Bible, and occasionally in poetry.

Examples of the personal forms. 118

	Singular.			*Plural.*		
	1	2	3	1	2	3
	I	*thou*	*he*, *she*, or *it*	*we*,	{*ye* or *you*,}	*they*
Present.	*write*	*writest*	*writes*		*write*	
	delay	*delayest*	*delays*		*delay*	
	catch	*catchest*	*catches*		*catch*	
	take	*takest*	*takes*		*take*	
	refer	*referrest*	*refers*		*refer*	
Perfect.	*wrote*	*wrotest*	*wrote*		*wrote*	
	delayed	*delayedst*	*delayed*		*delayed*	
	caught	*caughtest*	*caught*		*caught*	
	took	*tookest*	*took*		*took*	
	referred	*referredst*	*referred*		*referred*	

§ 12. The Participles[7].

A *participle* is a *verbal adjective*, differing from other adjectives by carrying with it a notion of *time*. 119

We have in English only two *participles* formed by inflexion, the *present* and the *past* participle. 120

The *present participle* ends in *ng*, and has an *active* meaning. 121

[7] So called from *participare*, to partake, because they *partake* of the nature both of verb and adjective.

122 The *past participle* mostly ends in *d*, *t*, or *n*, and has a *passive* meaning when the verb is *transitive;* it is then no further expressive of a *past time*, than as an action suffered is generally a completed action.

123 The past participle of an *intransitive* verb has an *active* meaning, and expresses *past* time.

124 The past participles of both transitive and intransitive verbs are used with *have*, to form some of the compound tenses of the *active* voice (I have *loved;* I have *run;* I have *written*).

125 The present participle is formed by adding the termination *ing* to the verb.

(*a*) When the verb ends in *e* after a consonant, the *e* must be thrown away before the termination is added (move, *moving;* see, *seeing*).

(*b*) When the verb ends in *ie*, the *ie* is changed into *y* (die, *dying*).

(*c*) The final consonant of the verb must be doubled when the accent is on that syllable, if the verb ends in a single consonant following a short vowel (refér, *referring*).

126 It is better not to double the final consonant when a termination is added to a word that is not accented on the last syllable.

(*a*) There are, however, many words in which the doubling of the consonant before a syllabic termination is the *usual* mode of spelling (*worshipper*, *travelling*, &c.).

127 When the preterite is formed by the addition of *d*, or *ed*, the same form serves also for the past participle.

128 When the preterite is formed by changing the vowel sound of the present, the past participle regularly ends in *en*, but is often of the same form with the preterite. See 226.

§ 13.

Table of the Auxiliary Verbs *am*, *have*, *do*. 129

Infinitive.	Participles. Present.	Past.
To be	*being*	*been.*
To have	*having*	*had.*
To do	*doing*	*done.*

	Singular.			*Plural.*		
	1 *I*	2 *thou*	3 *he, she,* or *it*	1 *we*	2 *ye* or *you,*	3 *they*
Present.	*am*	*art*	*is*		*are*	
	have	*hast*	*has*		*have*	
	do	*dost*	*does*		*do*	
Perfect.	*was*	*wast*	*was*		*were*	
	had	*hadst*	*had*		*had*	
	did	*didst*	*did*		*did*	

(*a*) *To be* has a *conditional* form for the *present* (If I *be*, if thou *beest*, if he *be*, &c.); and for the *imperfect* (If I *were*, if thou *wert*, if he *were*, &c.)

(*b*) *To do* sometimes makes *doest* in the second pers. sing. when it is not used as an auxiliary. Its old forms of the third person are *doeth*, *doth:* from *have*, the old third person is *hath.*

(*c*) *Be*, as well as *am*, is the *present* in old writers. The Anglo-Saxon had two verbs: *eom*, *eart*, *is*, or *ys*—plur. *synd:* and *beó*, *byst*, *byth*—plur. *beóth.*

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§ 14. Forms for Present Time.

Besides the leading tenses which express 130 time *absolutely*, there are several that express it

relatively; that is, as compared with *some other time.*

131 An action may be conceived as *doing*, *done*, or *about to be done;* and that at *any* time: so a state may be conceived as *existing*, or *having existed*, or *about to exist;* and that at *any* time.

132 Hence for each time we have three forms that denote the state of the act on.

For *present* time these forms are, *I am writing* (now); *I have written* (now); *I am* (now) *going*, or *about, to write.*

133 We have also a form that represents the action, whether finished or unfinished, as having been in progress for some time. *I have been writing.*

134 The forms for present time are five: *I write; I do write; I am writing; I have been writing; I have written; I am going* (or *about*) *to write.*

135 The present, *I do write*, is used instead of *I write*, after *negative* words, and in *questions* and *strong affirmations.*

(*a*) *Negative* words are such as express a *denial*, from *negare*, to deny. *Not, neither, nor.*

(*b*) This rule does not apply to *poetry*, where the simple present is often used after negatives and interrogatives.

136 The forms *I write*, and *I do write*, mark *present time* in the *least definite* way, and are, therefore, the natural forms for such assertions as are *true at all times.*

Charles *writes* a good hand. Henry *dances* well. Virtue *is* its own reward.

These are general assertions, the truth of which may be proved *at any time.*

(*a*) The present tense is used of assertions found in the

extant works of authors, no matter when they lived. "Cicero *tells* us, in his book '*of a commonwealth*,' that a legislator should take especial care not to lodge the greatest power in the hands of the greatest number."

(*b*) Sometimes the present is used for the future, when the action is to be described as *nearly certain* to happen. 'I *go* to London next week.'

(*c*) When two actions are spoken of, one of which must precede the other, the *futurity* of the preceding action is carefully marked in many languages; and also its *completion*, if it is to be completed before the commencement of the other. But in English we often use "the *present* tense to point out the relative time of a future action: 'When he *arrives*, he will hear the news.' 'He will not hear the news *till* he *arrives*.'"—Pickbourn.

(*d*) Thus in Rom. xv.—"Whensoever I *take* my journey into Spain, I *will* come to you." "When I *have performed* this, I *will come* by you into Spain." "When I *come*, I *shall*," &c.

[In Latin we must say: *when he shall have arrived; till he shall have arrived.*]

137. *I have written* is called the 'perfect *definite*.'

(*a*) It is called *definite*, because it defines the action as having happened in a *portion of time which is not yet expired:* it brings a past action into connexion with present time, and is therefore a *present-perfect* tense.

(*b*) The portion of time may be of *any length:* "Great men *have been* among us." The poet here begins with the beginning of our history; but he uses *have been*, because the time for producing *great* men is, we trust, not yet over with us.

(*c*) The forms I *am writing*, and I *have been writing*, present no difficulty: the former represents the action as now going on: the latter as having been carried on for some time, and continued up to, or nearly up to, the present time. It does not however decide, whether it be now finished, or not.

(*a*) From some intransitive verbs that denote *motion*, &c. the *perfect definite* is formed with *an:* '*I am come.*'

§ 15. Forms for Past Time.

138 The forms that represent an action as *doing*, *done*, or *about to be done;* or a state as *existing*, *having existed*, or *about to exist*, at some past time, are: *I was writing* (when, &c.); *I had written* (when, &c.); *I was going*, or *about, to write* (when, &c.).

The form that represents the action, whether finished or unfinished, as having been in progress for some time, is, *I had been writing*. Hence,

139 The forms for past time are: *I wrote; I did write; I was writing; I had written; I had been writing; I was going to write; I had been going to write.*

140 The forms *I wrote* and *I did write* are indefinite[8] with respect to time.

(*a*) The only intimation of time, that *I wrote* or *did write* carries with it, is that the action was done at *some* past time. They are therefore *indefinite* past tenses; for the exact description of time, they must be *defined* by the addition of a date.

(*b*) From this indefinite character, they are naturally used to express *habits* and *repeated actions*, when the habits existed, or the actions used to take place, in past time.

'My eldest son *wrote* a beautiful hand.'

141 I *was writing* is the *imperfect* (or *preter-imperfect*) *tense:* it describes an action begun and still going on at a *past time.*

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§ 16. Forms for Future Time.

142 The forms for future time that represent an action as *doing*, *being done*, or *going to be done;*

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[8] That s, they are *aorists: ἀ, not; ὁρίζειν*, to *limit.*

or a state as *existing*, *having existed*, or *going to exist*, are: *I shall be writing; I shall have written;* and, *I shall be going*, or *about, to write.—I shall have been writing*, represents that the action, whether finished or unfinished, will *have been in progress* for some time. Hence:

The forms for future time are: I *shall* or 143
will write; I *shall* or *will be writing;* I *shall* or *will have written;* I *shall* or *will be going* (or *about*) *to write.*

(*a*) *Shall*, in the first person, simply foretells; in the other persons it *commands.*

Will in the first person declares the speaker's *intention* in a positive manner; in the other persons it simply foretells.

(*b*) Brightland's rule is:

> In the first person, simply *shall* foretells;
> In *will* a threat or else a promise dwells:
> *Shall* in the second and the third does threat;
> *Will* simply then foretells the coming feat.

(*c*) *Will* is still an independent verb, expressing *volition*, an act or resolution of a man's *will.* Hence, in the first person it denotes the *intention* to act in a particular way; this declaration of an *intention* is all that the word denotes, though such a declaration will obviously amount in many cases to a *promise* or *threat.* For the other persons, '*will*' *simply foretells:* it can only be understood as a declaration of what we think will take place in the mind of other persons. It is now however used as the *simple* future, whether we are speaking of *events* or *persons.—Shall* denotes moral necessity enforced by the will of the speaker; it naturally, therefore, implies *command*, and the intention *to compel.* But, for the first person, it simply foretells:—its notion of compulsion, since it is only exercised by the speaker on himself, does not affect the thought; and our acknowledging that we *ought* to do this or that, should come to the same thing as a declaration of our *intention* to do it[9].

[9] See Mitford, Harmony of Language, and Note 5 in Rev. R. Twopeny's Dissertations on the Old and New Testament.

§ 17. Of the Moods of a Verb.

144 The *being* or *doing* of a thing may be conceived and spoken of in different ways, or *modes*. The *altered forms* which the verb assumes to express the different *modes* of our conceptions, are classed together in what are called the *moods* of a verb.

145 The *indicative mood* expresses *actual* existence.

146 The *subjunctive mood* expresses what *may be;* such as *purposes*, *conditions*, &c.

147 The *imperative* mood *commands.*

148 The *infinitive* mood is the notion of the verb, standing in its simplest form, without reference to any particular subject.

(*a*) *Indicative*, from *indicare* to express or *indicate* (simply and absolutely). *Subjunctive*, from *subjungere* to subjoin, because the tenses of the subjunctive, as implying dependent notions, are generally *subjoined* to other verbs and propositions. *Imperative*, from *imperare* to command. *Infinitive*, from *infinitus* unlimited, from its not being limited or restricted to a particular subject.

(*b*) The *subjunctive*, in Greek, was appropriated to what was contemplated as *actually possible under certain conditions;* the *optative* was a mood used to express that, the *possibility of which was conceivable.* It took its name from *optare*, to wish, from one of its uses.

(*c*) The *conditional* is sometimes considered a separate mood, and sometimes included in the subjunctive. The *conditional* forms express that 'possibility which is not *conceived* as really existing.' (Becker.)

(*d*) The *infinitive* is not properly a mood, for it represents no *modification* of the notion of the verb, but the simple notion itself. It is reckoned, however, amongst the *moods*, just as the nominative is amongst the cases.

§ 18. The Imperative Mood.

The imperative mood is used, not only to *command*, but also to *request*, to *exhort* or *encourage*, to *permit*, and with negatives to *forbid*. 149

(*a*) A command *not to do a thing* is of course a *prohibition*; and the other uses of the imperative flow naturally from the principal use, that of *commanding*. A *command*, of course involves *a wish*: when then I *command* a man for whom I am known to entertain a kindly feeling, to do any thing, I virtually *encourage* him to do it, and wish him success. Again, if I have the power to prevent, my command implies *permission*; and when we use the language of command, without having any power to *enforce* it, our commanding comes to no more than a *request*.

(*b*) Since our commands are commonly addressed to a person or persons in company with us, the second person is the principal person of the imperative. As a command laid by the speaker upon himself, is little more than an expression of his will, the first person singular is generally wanting.

The imperative in English has no distinct form: the verb itself is used for the second person singular and plural, the nominative case being generally omitted. If expressed, it follows the verb. 150

Come (thou): come (ye).
Dò thou come. Do ye *or* you come.

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§ 19. The Infinitive.

The simple infinitive, or infinitive of the present tense, is the verb itself with the preposition *to* before it. 151

(*a*) But *to* is omitted after the *verbs* of *mood* (i. e. *auxiliary* verbs), and *see, hear, feel, bid, dare, make.*

The following are the compound infinitives for the active voice: *to be writing; to have been writing; to have written; to be going*, or *about, to write.* 152

(*a*) "*To write, to be writing*, always denote something *contemporary with*, or *subsequent to*, the time of the governing verb: *to have been writing*, and *to have written*, always denote something antecedent to the time of the governing verb."—Pickbourn.

§ 20. The Compound Participles.

153 The compound participles for the active voice are: *having written*, *having been writing*, *going* (or *about*) *to write*.

154 The form of the *infinitive passive* is often employed as a (*virtually*) participle implying *possibility*, *duty*, or *necessity*. It answers to the Latin *gerundive* (participle *indus*).

'A consummation devoutly *to be wished*.' 'The thing *to be aimed at* is this.'

(*a*) In Anglo-Saxon "eom with the gerund expresses *duty* or *obligation:* as, *he is tó lufigenne*, he is to love; i. e. is to be, *or* ought to be loved."—Rask. So in German, the future participle (passive) is formed from the supine; der zu fragende Schüler, 'the scholar to be examined.' In the same way the form of the infinitive active is used participially in a future sense.—'There are many things *to do*.' 'For the time *to come*.' 'Art thou he that is *to come?*' Wiclif translates this: "Thou that art *to comynge?*" for which the Anglo-Saxon is "the *to cumenne* eart." Horne Tooke speaks of such expressions as *to comynge*, as shifts to which the translators were driven; but his last editor, Mr. Taylor, justly remarks that they were "ancient forms in common use, evidently having their origin from the ancient derivative or future infinitive" (the gerund). He remarks that Grimm considers the infinitive as declinable, and makes the gerund a dative case. Vol. i. p. 33.

§ 21. The Voices.

155 When a verb is put in the form which expresses that the subject spoken of is *acted upon*, it is said to be in the *passive voice*.

(*a*) *Passus* is a Latin word, meaning '*having suffered.*' The *passive* voice is so called, because it expresses that an object *suffers* an action; the active voice expresses that the subject *does* an action, or is in a state which is not represented as *produced* by some external power.

(*b*) *Transitive verbs* have a passive voice; but *intransitive* ones have not.

(*c*) No object can *suffer* without being *acted upon;* hence its *suffering* cannot be expressed by those verbs which express only such notions as *do not affect*, or *act upon*, any object.

(*d*) It may, however, happen, that an *intransitive* verb comes to the same thing as a *passive* verb; '*I burn* with rage'='*I am inflamed* with rage.'

156 The passive forms are in English made up of the verb *to be* and the *past participle.*

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§ 22. Passive Voice.

(A.)

Present Time.

157 The past participle with the verb *I am*, is sometimes the *present* of the *passive* voice, sometimes the *preterite of the passive voice*, and sometimes the *preterite* (*perfect definite*) of the *active voice.*

'*I am defended* by all the best citizens' (pres. pass. *defendor*); 'The house *is built*' (preter. pass. *ædificata est*); 'Henry *is come*' (preter. act. *venit*).

158 When the passive participle marks a *completed* action, and a *permanent* state consequent upon it, the passive participle with the *present tense*, of the verb *to be*, is equivalent to a *preterite.*

The verbs that have their passive preterites of this form, denote definite actions, such as are likely to advance to their completion, be completed, and remain permanently in their

effects. *To build, to make, to prepare :* preter. pass. 'the house *is built,*' 'the box *is made,*' 'the room *is prepared.*'

159 The same form may be in one sense the present passive, in another the preterite: '*I am dressed* every morning by a servant.' '*I am dressed*, and ready for my breakfast.'

160 When the participle, though passive in form, is the past participle of a neuter verb, this participle, with the present tense of the verb *to be*, forms a preterite of the active voice: 'My *servant is come*' (venit).—See 137, *d*.

161 When the passive participle with the present tense of *to be* forms the preterite, the present and imperfect are formed with what is, *in form*, the participle of the present active; but it is probably the participial substantive (162), which used to be governed by the preposition *on* or *in*, shortened into *a*.

(*a*) *The house is building, the house was building,* &c.; or *the house is a building.* In the Bible we have *a* and *in:* "While the ark was *a preparing*" (I Pet. iii. 20); and so Tyndale: "While the arcke was *a preparynge.*" So also Cranmer's Bible. The Rhemish version is: "when the arke was *a building.*" "Forty and six years was this temple *in building.*" "Was this temple *abuyldinge*" (Tyndale), "*a byldynge*" (Cranmer). (John ii. 20; and so 1 Kings vi. 7. 38.)

(*b*) "The propriety of these imperfect passive tenses," says Mr. Pickbourn, "has been doubted by almost all our grammarians; though, I believe, but few of them have written many pages without condescending to make use of them." It would be an absurdity, indeed, to give up the only way we have of denoting the incomplete state of action by a passive form. The form can be used only where it occasions no ambiguity; that is, in other words, where the subject spoken of cannot be mistaken for the *agent*, or *doer* of the action.

§ 23. The Participial Substantives.

Connected with the verb are the *participial substantives*, which are the same *in form* with the participles, but differ from them in being substantives in use, though retaining the power of taking an *object* (163). 162

(*a*) Though *identical* in form with the participles, they are more nearly allied to the *infinitive* in use, expressing the notion of a verb *substantively*.

The *participial substantives* belonging to transitive verbs, may take an object in the accusative; but the object is often joined to them, as it is to other substantives by '*of*.' 163

(*a*) The use of these forms is of great extent in the English language, and the learner must be taught at once to distinguish them, by their *use*, from *participles*.

(*b*) When they are of the *present active* form, they nearly answer to the *Latin gerunds*; but they occur in the nominative case, which the gerunds do not.

(*c*) The *past participle* has no corresponding participial substantive.

Examples. 164

(1) Truth is a great strong-hold, fortified by God and nature; and diligence is properly the understanding's *laying* siege to it.—South.

(2) I was considering the fate of those men, who have in all ages, through an affectation of *being distinguished* from the vulgar, or some unaccountable turn of thought, pretended either to believe nothing at all, or to believe the most extravagant things in the world.

(3) The warlike king next engaged in hostilities with the Sabines, on the pretext of their *having seized* some Roman traders at the fair held at the temple of Feronia.

(4) The *carrying* about in his person the supreme dignity of the empire, added no small authority to his cause, by *making* the cities and states abroad the more cautious of

acting against him, or *giving* them a better pretence, at least, for *opening* their gates to the consul of Rome.

(5) Is it not strange, that after *having been revolving* and *tumbling about* in his mind one poor sentence for above four years together, his memory should happen to fail him just in the nick, when he came to the very use and application of what he had so long been thinking about?

(6) These persons are now making atonement for *having been betrayed* into any appearance of virtue, by a quick return to their natural character.

(7) To require sycophants to blush is *exacting* too great departure from the decorum of their character.

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24. On the Verbs of Mood and Subjunctive Forms.

165 **Table of the Verbs of Mood.**

	I	*thou*	*he, she,* or *it*	*we, ye* or *you, they*
Present Preterite	*may* *might*	*mayest* *mightest*	*may* *might*	*may* *might*
Present Preterite	*can* *could*	*canst* *couldst*	*can* *could*	*can* *could*
Present Preterite	*shall* *should*	*shalt* *shouldst*	*shall* *should*	*shall* *should*
Present Preterite	*will* *would*	*wilt* *wouldst*	*will* *would*	*will* *would*
Present	*ought*	*oughtest*	*ought*	*ought*
Present	*must*	*must*	*must*	*must*

(*a*) These verbs all agree in not taking *s* as the termination of the third person singular; and with the exception of *ought*, they are followed by the infinitive without *to*.

(*b*) The verb *need* is also used without *s* in the third person singular, when followed by the infinitive; and *to* is omitted. Our common grammars do not sanction this usage, but I am persuaded it is correct. It is probable, that the rejection of the *s* by the verbs of mood, arises from the close connexion between such verbs and the following infinitive, to which the *s* would form a disagreeable impediment. Thus in the formation of Greek words, wherever *s* would stand between two consonants, it was rejected.

"For the age of these books of Clement and Hermas, one *need* only enquire for the time of Clement's death."—Wall on Infant Baptism, i. 58. "How little weight *need* be attacht to his opinion," &c.—Niebuhr, ii. 408 (Hare and Thirlwall's Translation). "Tracing the remnant of the Apostolical tradition *need* not prove such a very overwhelming task."—Keble, Apost. Trad. p. 41.

(*c*) For the same reason *dare* often drops the *s*, at least in conversation; and I find it so used by Middleton: "Our Editor knows full well, that he has no right to the style of Doctor; and whenever he speaks or acts in his own person, *dare* not so much as assume it himself."—Miscell. p. 358.

166 The English verb (with *a partial* exception in the case of *to be*) has no *inflected forms* for the subjunctive mood; but supplies the place of such a mood by the auxiliary verbs, *may*, *can*, *&c.*

167 It must be particularly remembered, that *may*, *can*, *&c.* are not always *verbs of mood;* but are often used as *indicative verbs*, to express *permission*, *power*, *duty*, *&c.* as *actually existing* states or conditions.

(*a*) "The mere expression of will, possibility, liberty, obligation, &c. belong to the indicative mood: it is their *conditionality*, their being subsequent, and depending upon something preceding, that determines them to the subjunctive mood."—Lowth.

(*b*) After *if*, *though*, *although*, and sometimes *that* and

whether, the present tense of the verb often stands without its personal endings (*est* and *s*).—'*Though* he *slay* me,' &c. Lowth, Johnson, &c., consider this a *present tense of the subjunctive mood*, and at all events it is virtually a subjunctive form.

168 *May* (preterite *might*) expresses *liberty* and *permission*.

'He *may* purchase the field, if he pleases.' 'He *might* purchase the field, if he pleased.'

169 *May*, in a sentence beginning with *that*, often[9] expresses *a purpose*.

'I am come, that I *may* see it with my own eyes.' 'He went there that he *might* see it with his own eyes.'

170 *May* is also used of events, the possibility of which is granted by the speaker.

'It *may* rain to-morrow.' 'The vessel *may* have arrived in port.' 'He *may* have set out already.' In such expressions *may* means no more than that the speaker knows of no reason against the event in question.

171 In sentences dependent on another, *may* is used when the verb of the principal sentence is in the *present*, *future*, or *perfect definite*. *Might* follows the *past* tenses of the indicative.

172 (*a*) *May*, when it stands before its *subject*, expresses a *wish*. '*May* he come.' '*Might* it but turn out to be no worse than this!'

(*b*) In *negative* and *interrogative* sentences it denotes *possibility*. ['*May* not a book be very amusing though disfigured by many blemishes?'] So also in '*might* have.' ['I *might* have seen it.']

173 *Can* (preterite *could*) expresses *possibility*, *power*, &c.

(*a*) '*Cannot* sometimes expresses, not actual, but moral or conditional impossibility. Thus the Angel said to Lot: "I *cannot* do any thing till thou be come thither;" that is, *I cannot* without disobeying Him that sent me.

[9] The principal *exception* is after verbs of *declaring* and *feeling*.

(*b*) *Can* and *cannot* are often followed by *but* with the infinitive; 'You *can but try*:' i. e. 'You can do no more than that,—generally with the notion of its being advisable to do that at all events. "As he is your son, and worthy of you, I *cannot but look* upon him as my brother." I can do nothing else: I feel constrained to do that.

(*c*) *Can* is used in questions as a more courteous form than *will*. It implies that the person addressed *will not refuse* to comply with the request, if it *should so happen*, that he *is able* to do the thing required. In this way *could* is still *more courteous* and more *pressing* than *can*. "*Can* you lend me a penknife?" "*Could* you have the kindness to inform me, &c.?"

174 *Should* (preterite of *shall*) expresses *duty*, *suppositions*, and *future events* dependent on verbs of *past time*.

'You *should* pay the money immediately (*duty*).' 'If it *should* rain to-morrow, I shall not be able to keep my promise (*supposition*).' 'You *promised* me, that he *should* go to-morrow (*fut. event* dependent on a *past* tense).'

(*a*) '*Should*' is used, in such sentences as the following, without implying any thing of contingency or doubtfulness: 'It is strange that you *should* say so;' i. e. your (*actually*) saying so is strange.

175 *Should* is also used to express an opinion doubtfully or modestly.

(*a*) Such an opinion may be firmly and deliberately held though doubtfully expressed.—It is probable that this use arose from its use in conditional sentences: 'I should think so,' i. e. if you did not hold a contrary opinion; if your authority did not make me hesitate.

176 *Would* (preterite of *will*) properly implies *volition*; but is frequently used as a *simple future* dependent on a verb of past time.

'He said that it *would* rain to-day.' 'He said that he *would* come next week.'

(*a*) The difference between *would* and *should*, when used as futures in connexion with past tenses, is the same as that between *will* and *shall*; that is, '*would*' *promises* or *threatens* in the first person, and *simply foretells* in the others.

'*Should*' *simply foretells* in the first person, and *promises* or *threatens* in the other persons.

177 *Would* is often used, without any thing of conditional meaning, to express volition.

"I often requested them, but they *would not*" (*noluerunt*).

178 *Would* is often used to express a *wish*.

(*a*) In the Anglo-Saxon, *willan*, to will, had *wolde* for the imperfect of the subjunctive, as well as for the imperfect of the indicative; hence, *would God*, as in German *wollte Gott*, is, *might God will*, or *please*; and '*I would*,' a softened form of expressing an *actual wish* (*vellem*). Hence, '*I would* that,' &c.; and, '*would God* that,' &c.

(*b*) But we have also, 'Would *to* God;' [where the *to* may possibly be the *termination* of *wolde* (*woll-te.*)] '*I would to God*;' and *would* sometimes stands as a mere *particle*, its *subject* being omitted. '*Would* that you had seen him.'

"In the morning thou shalt say, *Would God* it were even! and at even thou shalt say, *Would God* it were morning!" Deut. xxviii. 67. "*I would* there were a sword in mine hand." "And *I would to God* that ye did reign, that we also might reign with you." 1 Cor. iv. 8.

(*c*) In "ye *would* none of my reproof" (Prov. i. 25), the word expresses *inclination for* a thing, *willingness to receive it*.

179 There is a peculiar use of *would* in the expression of *habitual* actions. Their being habitual implies their conformity with the agent's *inclination*.—'He *would* talk [= *used* to talk] upon the subject for hours together.'

180 *Let*, signifying permission, is used to make up our *Imperative* forms.

(*a*) Like other imperatives, *let* may express *wishes*, *requests*, *commands* and *exhortations*. Lættan, in Anglo-Saxon, implied, not only *permission*, but also command and *causation*; as *lassen* does in German.

"*Let us* go." "*Let me* die the death of the righteous." "*Let the* soldiers seize him." "*Let my* orders be carefully attended to." [It has, of course, a noun or pronoun in the accusative between it and the infinitive.]

§ 25. TABLE OF THE ENGLISH VERBS. 181

Indicative Mood.

	ACTIVE VOICE.	PASSIVE VOICE.
Present.	*Defend* / *Am defending* / *Do defend*	*Am defended.*
Imperfect.	*Was defending*	(*None.*)
Perfect Definite	*Have defended*	*Have been defended.*
Preterite (*or* Perf.)	*Defended* / *Did defend*	*Was defended.*
Pluperfect.	*Had defended*	*Had been defended.*
Future.	*Shall* or *will defend*	*Shall* or *will be defended.*
Future Perfect.	*Shall* or *will have defended*	*Shall* or *will have been defended.*

Imperative Mood.

S.	*P.*	*S.*	*P.*
Defend (*thou*).	*Defend* (*ye*).	*Be thou defended.*	*Be ye defended.*

Forms that answer (in dependent sentences) to the tenses of the Latin subjunctive.

Present.	*May* (*should*) *defend*	*May* (*should*) *be defended.*
Imperfect.	*Might, should,* or *would defend*	*Might, should,* or *would be defended.*
Perfect.	*May* (*should*) *have defended*	*May* (*should*) *have been defended.*
Pluperfect.	*Might, should,* or *would have defended*	*Might, should,* or *would have been defended.*

Infinitive Mood.

Present.	*To defend*	*To be defended.*
Perfect.	*To have defended*	*To have been defended.*
Future.	*To be going,* or *about to defend*	*To be going,* or *about to be defended.*

Participles.

Present.	*Defending*	*Defended* (past part.). / *Being defended.*
Perfect.	*Having defended*	*Having been defended.*
Future.	*Going to defend* / *About to defend*	*Going to be defended.* / *About to be defended.*

182 NOTES ON THE TABLE.

(*a*) The present '*do defend*,' and the perfect '*did defend*,' are used in *questions*, *denials*, and *strong affirmations*.

(*b*) The *perfect definite* (or *present perfect*) is used of actions that have taken place in a space of time[1] not *yet expired*.

(*c*) The past participle is not passive in meaning, unless the verb is transitive.—The past participle of an intransitive verb belongs to the active voice.

(*d*) There is no trusting the *mere look* of a form, as the following tables will show:

1 He . . . is coming . . . . *present active.*
2 The house . is building . . . . *present passive.*
3 This . . . is asking (too much) '*is*' with *the participial substantive.*
1 He . . . is come . . . . . *preterite active.*
2 The house . is built . . . . . *preterite passive.*
3 He . . . is loved (by all) . . *present passive.*

(*e*) There is also a *progressive form*, *I am defending*, which may be conjugated throughout. *I was defending* (imperf.); *I have been defending*; *I had been defending*; *I shall be defending*; *I shall have been defending*, &c. *I had been defending* is the pluperfect of *the progressive form*.

(*f*) In the verbs that can take a present passive of the form '*is building*,' the imperfect is '*was building*.' These verbs, which can only be so used in the third person, are the only verbs that have an imperfect of the passive voice.

§ 26. THE PARTICLES.

183 The difference between a *preposition* and an *adverb* is, that the preposition does not denote any property that *belongs* to a thing or notion considered by itself, but merely the manner in which it depends on some other thing or notion.

[1] The space of time may be of *any length*: a week, a year, a century.

Prepositions denote such connexions or mutual relations as we consider to belong to *notions themselves*, not merely to the mind that joins them together. 184

Conjunctions, on the other hand, denote such connexions as are formed between notions and the mind that perceives them and puts them together, contemplating them as *true*, or *probable*, or *necessary*. 185

When a word that is usually an *adverb* is joined to a noun, it should be considered a *preposition*; and so a *preposition*, when it stands without a noun, should be reckoned an *adverb*. For the difference between a preposition and an adverb, is a difference in the *use* and *meaning* of words, not a difference in their *form*; so that the same word should be considered sometimes as an adverb, and sometimes as a preposition.—Hermann, *De emendandâ*, &c. c. 13. 186

(*a*) Adverbs.

The simplest adverbs of *place* are: *here*, *there* (=in *this* place, in *that* place, respectively); *hither* and *thither* (=to *this* place, to *that* place); *hence* and *thence* (=from *this* place, from *that* place). 187

(*a*) These adverbs, which are *demonstrative*, have corresponding *relative* and *interrogative* forms, as given in the following table.

Correlative Adverbs of Place. 188

Demonst.	Relat. and Interrog.	Obs.
Here, *There*	*Where*	The forms beginning with *h* belong to *this* place, those with *th* to *that* place; and those that begin with *wh* are *relative*, *interrogative*, and sometimes *indefinite*.
Hither, *Thither*	*Whither*	
Hence, *Thence*	*Whence*	

(*a*) The forms for *in* a place, have almost superseded the proper forms for *to* a place. Thus we say: '*Where* are you going?' 'He is coming *here* to-morrow,' &c.

(*b*) The forms for *from* a place, though they express by themselves the relation of *motion from*, are often preceded by the preposition: '*from whence*,' &c.

(*c*) These adverbs, with '*then*' and '*when*' for time, have been called *pronominal* adverbs; and when compounded with *of, in, by, with, for* (written *fore*) *after, forth*, &c. are equivalent to pronouns governed by prepositions.

Hereof, thereof; herein, therein, &c.

(*d*) '*Hence*' and '*thence*' with '*forth*' and '*forward*,' form adverbs, not of *place*, but of *time* (*henceforth, thenceforth; henceforward, thenceforward*). So '*here*' compounded with '*after*,' is an adverb of *future time*; but '*thereafter*' an adverb of *manner*.

(*e*) Instead of '*hence*,' '*thence*,' '*whence*,' we sometimes find *from here, there, where*. When '*where*' is used with '*from*' the preposition generally stands last: '*Where* do you come *from*?'

189 The adverb *where* is compounded with *else*, and the indefinite numerals, *any*, *no*, *some*, with which it loses its *relative* and *interrogative* character. (*Elsewhere, anywhere, nowhere, somewhere.*)

(*a*) The two words are often written separately, just as if *where* were a substantive. Perhaps it would be better to do so; at all events in the compound adverbial form, '*some where or other*.' So with the adverb of manner, '*some how or other*.' Middleton writes many compounds of *every, any, no*, as separate words: *any body, every body, no body, every where*.

190 Adverbs of place ending in *ward* or *wards*, signify the direction of *motion towards* an object, or in a particular direction. *Forward, forwards; backward, backwards; westward; southward; upwards, downwards.*

It is not necessary to enumerate the other adverbs of *time* and *place*, of *quality*, of *limitation* and *degree*, of *affirmation* and *denial*, &c.

Many adverbs modify other adverbs: *just now*, *very lightly*, &c. 191

Many phrases (for instance, substantives governed by prepositions) are quite *adverbial* in meaning, denoting simply some circumstance of *time*, *place*, or *manner*: *on this side*, *on that side*; *to the right*, *to the left*, &c.; *of a sudden*, *at random*, *at present*, *of late*, *in general*, &c. 192

(*a*) The adverb '*rather*' has two very different meanings: it sometimes *limits* a property to a very small degree, and sometimes expresses *preference*. 'She is *rather* pretty.'—'Will you take that *rather* than this?' A few adverbs have degrees of comparison: as *soon*, *sooner*, *soonest*.

(*b*) Prepositions.

Prepositions express primarily the relation of *place*, and also the relations of *time* and *causality*. 193

(*List of Prepositions.*) 194

Above	before	in	throughout
about	behind	into	till / until
across	below	near	to / unto
after	beneath	next	toward / towards
against	beside	nigh	under / underneath
along	between / betwixt	of	up
among / amongst	beyond	off	with
amid / amidst	by	over	within
around / round	down	over-against	without
at	during	on / upon	
athwart	except	save	
	for	since	
	from	through	

As several phrases have an *adverbial* meaning, so there are several that have a *prepositional* meaning; e. g. *on account of*, *for the sake of*, *on this side*, *on that side*, &c. '*Out of*' is a compound preposition. 195

196 (*c*) Conjunctions.

Hermann says, that, since adverbs denote some condition *inherent in things*, it follows that they can both be understood by themselves, and can actually stand alone, whenever there is some notion to which they may be referred; but such is the nature of conjunctions, that they cannot be understood by themselves, but necessarily require to be associated with some thoughts before their force can be understood. Buttmann says, "Any connecting *particle* should properly be called a *conjunction*; especially when it has on the *verb* an influence similar to that of the preposition on the noun, and requires one of the dependent moods."

(*a*) The following particles are generally considered as conjunctions: *and, also; either—or, neither—nor; though, although, albeit, yet, still, nevertheless, but, however, for, that, because, since, as, so, lest, than; therefore, wherefore, then, else; if, unless, except.*

197 All relative adverbs, and indeed all relatives, have a *conjunctive* force. So have many adverbs and prepositions, that mark the relation of *time*; such as, *before, after, since, till, until, when.*

(*a*) They may be called *conjunctional adverbs* and *prepositions*, or adverbs and prepositions *used conjunctionally.*

198 There are many conjunctional forms that "consist of two or more separate, but mutually dependent words." (Rask.) Such are, *as well—as; not only—but* (or *but also*), &c.

199 There are also many phrases, expressive of *time, purpose*, &c. which have the force of conjunctions: *the moment, the instant;—in order that, seeing that*, &c.

200 Obs. Some of the conjunctions are also adverbs or prepositions: e. g. *then*, conjunct. and adv.—*for*, conjunct. and prepos. &c.

(*v*) Horne Tooke is probably right in supposing that all particles *were* originally verbs or nouns; but it does not follow from this, that they *are not* distinct parts of speech. The principle of division for the parts of speech is not origin or derivation, but use.

(*b*) The same author supposes two *buts*, of different use and origin. In Anglo-Saxon there is a *preposition butan* (without, except), and a *conjunction butan*, which takes the subjunctive in the sense of *unless*, the indicative in the sense of *but*. (Rask, p. 131.)

PART II.—ETYMOLOGY.

§ 27. Division of the Letters.

201 The English alphabet is very imperfect. With respect to the vowels, it employs some single characters to express diphthongs; and some combinations of two vowels, to express simple vowel sounds.

202 Every simple vowel sound may be pronounced as either *long* or *short* at pleasure.

203 There are three *a* sounds: the *broad*, as in *hall* (long), *folly* (short); the *middle* as in *father* (long) *fathom* (short); the *close* or *slender*, as in *mane* (long), of which the *e* in *men* gives nearly the corresponding short sound[1].

(*a*) The sound of *broad a* is also expressed by *au*, *aw*, and *o*: *fault*, *raw*, *frost*.

(*b*) The sound of *middle a* is sometimes, though seldom, expressed by *au*, as in *laugh*: and in the proper name *Derby* by *e*.

(*c*) The *slender* sound of *a* is represented by *e* in the alphabet of most other languages. In English it is represented in several ways: by *ai*, *ay*, *ea*, *ei*, and *e* followed by *silent e*: *taint*, *may*, *bear*, *heir*, *there*.

204 There is only one *e* sound, as in *evil* (long), and *bed* (short.)

[1] The remarks on the vowels are from Mitford, "On the Principles of Harmony in Language."

(*a*) The long sound is also represented by *ee, ea, ie, ei, i,* and *e* followed by *silent e: seen, tear, belief, receive, machine, scene.*

(*b*) The short sound is represented, not only by short *i,* but also by *e,* and *y* final; of which the two last syllables of *enemy* give examples.

There is only one *o* sound: *long* as in the last, and *short* as in the first syllable of *jocose.* 205

(*a*) The long sound is also represented by *oa, ou, ow, oo: load, soul, bowl, door.*

There are two *u* sounds: the *close,* as in *chuse* (long), *bull* (short); and the *open,* as in *dull* (short), of which there is no long sound. 206

(*a*) The long *close* sound is also represented by *o* with *silent e,* by *oo, ew, oo, ue: move, noose, blew, blue.*

(*b*) The short sound of *close u* is also represented by *oo, ou: book, could.*

(*c*) The open sound of *u,* which is always short, is also represented by *o, o with silent e, ou, oo, e* and *i* before *r: son, done; rough, young; blood, err, stir.*

I and *u* are often diphthongs; that is, they often represent the combination or union of two vowel sounds. 207

The concurrence of three vowels (*eau, ieu, iew*) is sometimes called a *triphthong,* but absurdly, because such combinations do not represent a union or blending of *three* vowel *sounds,* which the name would indicate. They are all pronounced like *eu* (*beauty, adieu, view*); but *eau,* like *o* in French words *(flambeau).* 208

The following consonants are called *mutes:* 209

p	k	t	(*smooth* mutes),
b	g (hard)	d	(*middle* mutes);

to which may be added *c* hard, which is equivalent to *k.*

(*a*) Lowth adds *q*, which is always followed by *u*; *qu* being equivalent to *kw* (as in *queen*); or to *k*, in words borrowed from the French (*pique*). Ben Jonson speaks of "This halting *q*, with her waiting-woman *u* after her."

(*b*) C is a useless character, representing sometimes *k* (*carry*), sometimes *s* (*certain*).

210 Mutes are either *smooth*, *middle*, or *aspirate*; but the English alphabet has no *single character* for the aspirate mutes:

	Smooth.	Middle.	Aspirate.
p sounds	p	b	ph
k sounds	k[2]	g[3]	ch[4]
t sounds	t	d	th

f and *v* are nearly related to *ph*: *f* gives the sound of *ph* without the aspiration; *v* is the same sound pronounced *flatter*.

211 *L*, *m*, *n*, *r*, are called *liquids*, from their *flowing* or *gliding* easily into combination with other consonants.

212 The *liquids* with *s*, *f*[5], and *v*, are called by English grammarians *semivowels*: the names of all but *v*, have the vowel *before* the consonant.

(*a*) The p sounds (*p*, *b*, *f*, *v*) with *m*, are *labial*, or *lip-sounds*; the k sounds (*k*, *g* hard) *palatals*, or *palate sounds*; the t sounds (*t*, *d*) with *l*, *n*, *r*, and *s*, *linguals* or *dentals* (*tongue* or *teeth* sounds).

(*b*) H is no consonant, but a mere aspiration. Ch, pronounced as in *chemist*, is an *aspirated* mute, the Greek *Chi*; and all the words in which it has this sound are derived from the Greek.

(*c*) CH, as in *chain*, is the sound of *tsh*.

(*d*) NG final (*sing*), is a simple sound.

(*e*) "*X* is a double consonant (*cs* or *ks*); *z* seems not to be

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[2] C hard is the same sound.

[3] G hard: not as in *ginger*.

[4] As in *chemist*.

[5] F should be reckoned a mute.

a double consonant in English:—it has the same relation to *s* that *v* has to *f*, being a thicker and coarser expression of it." —Lowth.

213 "*Th* and *sh* are simple consonants, and should be marked by single letters. J, as the English pronounce it, is a double consonant, and should have two characters."

214 "In the following table the seven couple of simple consonants differ each from its partner by no variation whatever of articulation, but singly by a certain unnoticed and almost imperceptible compression of or near the larynx[6]."

Without the compression.	(sharp)	(flat)	With the compression.
	p	b	
	k	g	
	t	d	
	s	z	
	th (in *thing*)	th (in *that*)	
	f	v	
	sh	j	

215 As we cannot pass from a *flat* to a *sharp* without altering the conformation of the larynx, the facility of utterance makes it a rule for *all* languages, that if two of these consonants concur, they will be *pronounced* as *both flats*, or *both sharps*; i. e. both *with*, or both *without*, the compression of the larynx[7].

(*a*) Hence in Greek two concurring mutes were of the same *order of breathing*; and Quintilian says, that in *obtinuit* the *ear* heard *optinuit*.

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§ 28. On the Verbs usually called Irregular.

216 In the Anglo-Saxon, as in all the Gothic

[6] Horne Tooke, vol. i. p. 93.

[7] Not a *universal* rule.

languages, there were two principal ways of forming the preterites and past participles of verbs.

(1) The first class formed the preterite and past participle by changing the radical vowel; and the past participle ended in *en* or *n*.

(2) The second class formed the preterite by the addition of *de* or *te*; and the past participle ended in *d* or *t*.

217 The English language still forms its preterites and past participles in nearly the same ways: in some the vowels are changed, and the past participle ends in *en*—these are the oldest and simplest verbs of the language; in others the unaccented syllable *ed* is added to the verb.

218 It has been usual to call those verbs *regular*, which form their preterites and past participles in *d* or *ed*; and to throw all the others together in one list of *irregular* verbs.

This clumsy method of proceeding makes the greater part of our old Anglo-Saxon verbs *irregular*. Cobbett, who knew nothing of the history of the language, and unfortunately thought that such knowledge was of no use, made it his particular business to rescue as many verbs as he could from the heap of these miscalled *irregulars*; and many are the strong genuine English forms, which it pleased him to cashier in favour of the weak termination *ed*.

The great grammarian, Grimm, calls the formation of the preterites and past participles by the addition of *ed*, the *weak conjugation*; and that by modifying the vowel sound, the *strong* conjugation. I prefer, however, to call, with Becker, the former the *modern*, and the latter the *ancient* form of conjugation.

(*a*) Modern Form.

219 In the *modern form* of conjugation the preterite and past participle are formed, as we have seen, by adding *ed* or *d* to the verb.

(*a*) In conversation, the *e* of the weak unaccented syllable *ed* is often dropt, so that the word loses its additional syllable,

and the principle given in 215 forces us to pronounce a *t* instead of a *d*. When the *e* of the termination is dropt, the *d* will naturally pass into *t* after *p* and *sh*; after *s* (when it has not the sound of *z*), after *x*, *ch*, and *ck*.

Thus *heaped, fished, kissed, fixed, preached, checked*, when they are pronounced as one syllable, *must* be pronounced *heapt, fisht, kist, fixt, preacht, checkt*.

(*b*) So after the liquids *l*, *m* (following a *short* vowel-sound), and *n*, it is more natural to us to sound a *t* than a *d*. *Spilt, dreamt, leant*.

(*c*) Our forefathers spelt these words as they pronounced them; and it is greatly to be wished (*wisht*) that we could be persuaded to return to their more sensible practice. In a page or two of Milton's prose works, I meet with *bedeckt, fetcht, fixt, stiff-neckt, dampt*; and so in South, and most of the writers of his day. The title of one of Withers's poems, "Abuses *stript* and *whipt*[8]."

Many therefore of the verbs usually called irregular, are verbs of the modern form that have rejected the final *d*, or turned it into *t* for the sake of easier pronunciation. 220

N.B. In all the lists the verbs in italics have the *modern forms* also.

The following in *d* and *t* have their *preterites* and *past participles* like the present. 221

Burst[9]	hit	put	shed	spread
cast	hurt	rid	shred	sweat[1] (intr.)
cost	*knit*	set	shut	thrust
cut	let	*slit*	*split*	

(*a*) In this class Lowth puts *lift* ("I have lift up mine hand unto the Lord." Gen. xiv. 22.) *light, wet*, and some others. *Quit* may have *quit* for the perfect.

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[8] On this subject see the admirable article in Phil. Mag. i. 640. Even Lowth says: "Verbs ending in ch, ck, p, x, ll, ss, in the past time active, and the participle perfect or passive, *admit* the change of *ed* into *t*; as *snatcht, checkt, snapt, mixt*."

[9] Formerly *bursten* for partic.

[1] "How the drudging goblin *swet*."—Milton.

222 The following take *t* instead of *d*, and reject the final *d* or *l*. They have all a *liquid* before their final consonant (bend, *bent*).

bend[2]	gird	send	*spell*
build[3]	lend	spend	*spill*
gild	rend	*dwell*	

223 The following reject the final *d*, but shorten the vowel sound by changing *ee* into *e*; *ea long* into *ea short*, or *e*; *oo* into *o*.

bleed	feed	meet	shoot
breed	lead (led)	read (read)	

224 The following verbs turn the terminative *d* into *t*, and shorten the vowel sounds, as in 223 (*keep*, *kept*).

keep	creep	weep	*leap*
kneel	sleep	*deal*	*learn*[4]
feel	sweep	*lean*	*mean*

Obs. In this list the verbs with *ea* keep *ea* (*short*).

225 By contraction are formed also, cleave (to split), *cleft*; leave, *left*; flee, *fled*; bereave, *bereft*; lose, *lost*; shoe, *shod*. *Lay*, *pay*, and *say*, make *laid*, *paid*, *said*.

(*b*) Ancient Form[5] and Irregular Verbs.

226

(1)	forsake	foresook	forsaken.
	shake	shook	shaken.
	take	took	taken.
(2)	swear[6]	swore	swōrn.
	tear[6]	tore	torn.
	wear[6]	wore	worn.

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[2] *Bended* in "with *bended* knees." [3] *Builded* in Bible.

[4] *Learned* when used adjectively.

[5] I have not attempted, from want of knowledge, to reduce these verbs to order and *law*; but Lowth's arrangement, which I have nearly followed, seems better than a merely alphabetical list.

[6] Also pret. *sware*, *tare*, *ware*, formerly.

	bear [7]	bŏre	bŏrn.
	break	broke	broken.
	cleave [8]	clove	cloven.
	shear	shore	shorn.
	speak	spoke	spoken.
	steal	stole	stolen.
	weave	wove	woven.
	tread	trŏd	trodden.
(3)	bīte	bĭt	bitten [9].
	chide	chid [1]	chidden.
	hide	hid [2]	hidden.
	slide	slid	slidden.
(4)	drīve	drōve	drĭven.
	arise	arose	arisen.
	rise	rose	risen.
	shrive	shrove	shriven.
	strive	strove	striven.
	thrive	throve	thriven.

(The *t* sounds double the consonant in the participle.)

	rīde	rōde	ridden.
	smite	smote	smitten.
	stride	strode	stridden [3].
	write	wrote	written.
(5)	blow	blew [4]	blown.
	grow	grew	grown.
	know	knew	known.
	throw	threw	thrown.

bid	bade [5]	bidden	do	did	done	227
choose	chose	chosen	draw	drew	drawn	

[7] *Bear*, to *carry*, makes *borne* for its past participle.

[8] *Cleave*, to *cling to*, has preterite *cleaved* or *clave*; *cleave*, to *split*, has either *clove*, *cloven*, or *cleft*, *cleft*.

[9] Also, *bit*.

[1] *Chode* in the Bible.

[2] Also, partic. *hid*.

[3] Also, perf. *strid*.

[4] So *shew* from show, in South. Wallis gives snow, *snew*.

[5] Also, *bid*, *bid*. "He hath *bid* his guests." Zeph. i. 7.

eat	ate	eaten	lie	lay	lain[8]
fly	flew	flown[6]	see	saw	seen
fall	fell	fallen	seethe	sod[9]	sodden
forget	forgot	forgotten[7]	sit	sat	(sitten) sat
freeze	froze	frozen	slay	slew	slain
get	got	(gotten) got	spit	spat	spitten
give	gave	given		spit	spit
hold	held	(holden) held			

228 Many verbs form the preterite by changing the vowel of the present, but do not take the preterite in *en*. These are *really* irregular.

So—

(1) begin	began	begun . . .	drink.
cling	clang, clung	clung . .	ring, shrink, sing, sink, slink, spin, spring, stink, swim.
fling	flung	flung	*dig*, slink, sting, string, swing, stick.

Nearly so—

strike, *struck*, *struck* (*stricken*)

(2) bind	bound	bound . . .	find, grind, wind[1].

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229 abide	abode	abode	run	ran	run
come	came	come	*shine*	*shone*	*shone*
clothe	*clad*	*clad*	stand	stood	stood
hang	*hung*	*hung*	win	won	won
light	*lit*	*lit*			

230 Some form the preterite and past participle in *ought*, *aught* (in Anglo-Saxon, *ohte*).

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[6] *Overflown* used as part. from *overflow*, by Bentley, Swift, &c.

[7] Also, *forgot*.

[8] *Lie, lay, lain*, intrans. *lay, lay, laid*; trans. *Lie* has partic. *lien* in the Bible.

[9] Also *seethed*.

[1] Also preterite, *winded*.

bring	brought	teach	taught
buy	bought	think	thought
catch	caught	seek	sought
fight	fought	*work*	*wrought*

(*a*) *Fraught* from *freight* is only used in the figurative sense. *Reach* used to make *raught*.

The following take the past participle in *en* 231
without change of vowel: the preterite being of the modern form.

grave	*graven*	*shave*	*shaven*
hew	*hewn*	shew, or show	shewn, or shown
lade	laden	*sow*	*sown*
load	*loaden*	*strew*, or *strow*	*strewn*, or *strown*
mow	*mown*	wax	waxen
rive	riven	writhe	writhen
saw	*sawn*		
shape	*shapen*		

(*a*) Besides which we find *baken*, *folden* (in the Bible), *washen* (in *unwashen hands*): *molten* from *melt*, and *swollen* from *swell*.

Go, *gone*, takes perf. *went*, from to *wend*. *Wot* 232
is preterite from *wit* or *wot*, the Anglo-Saxon *witan*.

The following have their preterites of the ancient 233
and past participles of the modern form.

awake	*awoke*	awakened
cleave (cling to)	*clave*	cleaved
climb	*clomb* [2]	climbed
crow	*crew*	crowed
dare [3]	*durst*	dared

§ 29. On Gender.

Many words that denote *males*, have corre- 234
sponding words to denote *females* of the same

[2] Obsolete, except in poetry. [3] Dare, to *challenge*, is regular.

kind: bachelor—*spinster;* boy—*girl;* buck—*doe;* bull—*cow;* bullock—*heifer;* boar—*sow;* drake—*duck;* friar—*nun;* gander—*goose;* milter—*spawner;* ram—*ewe;* sloven—*slut;* widower—*widow;* wizard—*witch;* with many others.

(*a*) Many titles are thus distinguished: as king—*queen;* earl—*countess*, &c.

235 Some feminine appellatives are formed from the masculine by adding *ess;* sometimes the final syllable of the masculine is thrown away; sometimes its vowel only.

(*a*) The terminations *tor, ter,* become, by rejection of the vowel *tress; dor, ger,* become *dress, gress,* respectively. In *governor, sorcerer,* the terminations are rejected (*governess, sorceress*); *master* makes *mistress; duke, marquis,* have *duchess, marchioness,* respectively.

236 A few masculines in *tor* which are Latin words, have corresponding feminine forms in *trix* (executor, *executrix*).

237 The sex is sometimes designated by a word prefixed; a *cock-sparrow,* a *hen-sparrow;* a *he-goat,* a *she-goat,* &c.

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§ 30. On the Plural of Foreign Nouns.

238 The Hebrew words *cherub* and *seraph* form the plural in *im* (*cherubim, seraphim*).

239 Words in *us* (Latin) make the plural in *i;* but the plural of *genus* is *genera.*

240 Words in *on* (Greek) and *um* (Latin) make the plural in *a,* after throwing off the *on* or *um* (phenomen*on*, *phenomena;* arcan*um*, *arcana*).

Words in *is* (Greek and Latin) m
in *es* (thesis, *theses*).

Words in *ix*, *ex* (Latin), make the plural 241
(vortex, *vortices*).

(*a*) *Genius* makes plural *geniuses*, when it means 242
genius. Index, as the *index* of a book, has *indexes*. *St*
makes *stamina*.

(*b*) The sing. *a* makes plural *æ*: *lamina*, *laminæ*; and
minutiæ, of which the sing. is not used. 1

Words from the French in *eau* form their 243
plurals in *eaux*.

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§ 31. Derivation.

(*a*) Prefixes.

Some syllables impart the idea of *negation*, 244
deterioration, *opposition*, &c. to the words to which they are prefixed. Among these are *un*, *mis*, *for*, *with*.

(*a*) *Un* signifies *not*; *mis* "insinuates some errour" (= *ill*, *wrongly*); *for* (the German *ver*[4], distinct from *vor*, *fore*) seems to mark opposition; *with* marks *opposition*. *For* occurs in *for*bid, *for*sake, &c.

(*b*) When *un* is prefixed to a present participle, it turns it into an adjective (*unpitying*). Before verbs it denotes the *undoing* of what was done: to *unbind*, &c.

Be usually gives a transitive signification to 245
verbs. To *bestride*, *bemoan*, &c.

(*a*) *Out*, *over*, and *up*, retain their obvious meanings. *Over* implies *superiority* in *overcome*.

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[4] The German *ver* marks *loss*, *deterioration*, or *mistake*; but sometimes appears to have no effect on the verb, as in verschönern, *to embellish*.

b) Terminations.

Saxon: *or* Latin) denotes the *doer*

246 That end in *hood* and *head*, *ship*, *dom*, ess, *y*, are mostly abstract substantives
24 g a *quality*, *state*, *condition*, or the like. hood, *priesthood*, *the Godhead*, *worship* (worth-), *friendship*, *kingdom*, *wisdom*, *worth*, *might*, *avery*.

(*a*) Those in *ness* are abstract nouns formed from adjectives. A final *y* is changed into *i* before a syllabic termination: *likelihood*, *holiness*.

(*b*) The vowel sound of the root is often modified before *th* (*length*, *depth*, from *long*, *broad*); and there is frequently some further change, in the way of contraction or rejection; as *mirth*, *truth*, from *merry*, *true*.

(*c*) "Not only in poetry, but also in popular language, the meanings of words in the abstract and concrete frequently run one into the other."—Buttmann.

248 *Ing* denotes the *doing* of an action, but sometimes the *action done*: e. g. a *whipping*.

(*a*) The Anglo-Saxon *lac*, which also signified an *action*, *condition*, or *quality*, remains in *wedlock*. *Rich* or *rick*, and *wick*, especially denote *dominion* or *jurisdiction*; *bishopric*, *bailywick*.

249 *Ful*, *ous*, *y*, denote the *possession* of the property expressed by the root.

(*a*) Adjectives with these endings are generally derived from substantives.

(*b*) Before *ful*, and all syllabic terminations beginning with a consonant *y* is changed into *i*: as *plentiful*.

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[5] A few in *er*, not appended to *verbal* roots, are not *agents*: *bolster*, *fodder*.

(c) *Ful* is the adjective *full*. Middleton writes these adjectives with *ll*.

Ly (Anglo-Saxon, *lic*) denotes *agreement with*, 250
or *suitableness to*, the notion of the root.

(a) These adjectives were formed by the addition of the adj. *like* to a substantive or adjective. *Like* is still retained in *childlike*, &c.

Ish appended to substantives, expresses *manner* 251
(like *ly*); appended to adjectives, it diminishes the notion of the root: *childish*, *reddish*.

(a) *Ish* is also the termination of adjectives denoting *country*: *British*, *Irish*.

(b) When a language possesses two forms, they are soon discriminated in practice. Thus, *childlike* refers to the simplicity and innocence, *childish* to the weakness and folly, of a child.

En (*adj.*) denotes especially the material of which 252
a thing is formed: *oaken*, *earthen*, &c.

Ern chiefly denotes the regions of the globe: 253
southern, &c.

Ed indicates that a person or thing is furnished 254
or provided with that which is expressed by the root: horn, *horned*.

(a) These adjectives resemble past participles, but there is often no verb to which they can be referred.

(b) This termination is often appended to an adjective and substantive, or even to two substantives (of which the first is used adjectively), thus forming a compound adjective. *Tender-hearted*, *pale-faced*, *pig-headed*.

(c) The same termination is added to other combinations: e. g. "an *out-of-humoured*, tea-drinking, arithmetic fop." Bashfulness is "the only *out-of-fashion'd* thing that is agreeable."—Wycherly, Phil. Mag. ii. 225.

(d) From some of these compound adjectives in *ed*, are formed substantives in *ness*: as *stoutheartedness*.

255 *Ward* expresses *situation* or *direction*. A *forward* course; a *southward* direction.

256 *Ty* 'forms *tens* in numeration.' *Twenty*, &c.

257 *Less* implies the *absence* or *want* of what the root expresses. *Fearless.*

258 *Able* (properly a *Latin* termination: see below, 267) from having an English meaning, was readily received into the language, and used to form adjectives from our simplest words: as *drinkable.* Cudworth uses *knowable;* and Chillingworth *knowable, understandable*, &c. Tooke, ii. 488.

259 *En* is the simplest termination of our derivative verbs: it is appended to nouns and adjectives, and denotes the *making* or *causing* what the root expresses. To *frighten;* to *quicken.*

(*a*) Several of these verbs have an *intransitive* meaning (to *grow* or *become* what the root expresses), as well as the *transitive* one which usually belongs to verbs of this class. 'The plot *thickens.*'

260 The terminations of English *diminutives* are *ling, kin*, and *ock*. Duckling, lambkin, bullock.

(*a*) Diminutives express diminution, either simply or with some accessary notion, which is either that of *tenderness* and *endearment*, or that of *contempt*. See Phil. Mag. i. 679.

(*b*) Many diminutives, probably of endearment, were formed from Christian names, and have given rise to various surnames: Tomkin, Watkin (from *Wat* or Walter), Dicken, Hawkin, for *Halkin*, from Hal, Henry.

Principal Terminations of Words derived from Latin and Greek.

261 "While the primary words in our language are almost all Saxon; the secondary, as they may

be called, are mostly of French, the tertiary of Latin origin." Phil. Mag. i. 654.

N.B. Œ, æ, ph, rh, ch (hard, as in *chemist*), and y as a *vowel* in any syllable but the last, mark many words that are formed from the Greek.

Tion, *sion*, *ure* (tio, sio, ūra), denote the *doing* 262
of the action expressed by the root.

(*a*) But they sometimes express the *result* of such an action: the *thing done*. A *fiction*, a *creature*, a *fixture*.

(*b*) "*Relative* has indeed, within my memory, by a ridiculous affectation of false and unfounded accuracy, crept forward into improper use, to the exclusion of *relation* .... but these petty fopperies will pass away of themselves, and when the whim is over, we shall all find our *relations* again, as safe and sound as ever."—Tooke, ii. 496.

Ity, *ty*, *ice*, *cy*, *nce*, *tude*, mostly denote *quality* 263
or *habit*; the *being* what the root (an adjective) expresses. *Atrocity*, *cruelty*, *avarice*, *constancy*, *elegance*.

(*a*) [These terminations answer to *itas*, *ia*, *tia*, *tudo*, all *fem.*]

Tor, *sor*, is, as we have seen, the *doer* of an 264
action; and *tor* has a corresponding feminine *trix*.

(*a*) Many in *or* (or *our*) after some other consonant (that is not *t* or *s*) express *qualities*.

(*b*) The Latin nouns in *or*, end in *eur* in French; and since they come to us from that language, "it will be well to leave such affectations as *honor* and *favor* to the great vulgar for their cards of invitation. In *honorable* and *favorable*, on the other hand, the *u* would be an intruder, having no more business in them than in the second syllables of *clamorous* or *laborious*; for they are not home-made derivatives, but were imported ready-formed from France. A like rule, as has been observed by others, would be the best guide for our choice, with regard to the use of *in* or *en* in compound words; that is to say, to write *in* where a word has come to us immediately from the Latin, *en* where it has past through the

French. The same principle may be applied to a great variety of cases; and among other advantages of such a practice would be its supplying us at a glance with a mass of evidence concerning the history of our language."—Phil. Mag. i. 648.

265 *Ant* and *ent* (adj.) imply *doing*, and also *habit;* the *being* what the root requires. *Tolerant*, *patient.*

266 *Tive* and *sive* (Lat.), and *ic* (Greek), denote a *tendency* or *aptness* to do what the root expresses. *Detersive*, *purgative*, *cathartic.*

(*a*) *Ic* is also a termination of *national names* (*Gallic*).

(*b*) Wilkins proposed *unwalkative* for—one *who cannot walk.* Tooke, ii. 493. Tooke calls these, *Potential Active Adjectives.*

267 *Able*, *ible*, denote *fitness to be done.*

(*a*) Tooke calls these *Potential Passive Adjectives.*

(*b*) But many English adjectives end in *ble*, that have simply the meaning of a habit. These come, not from the Latin *bilis*, but from the Italian *vole* (our *ful*), which the French turned into *ble* (as in *diable* from *diavolo*). So Tooke, ii. 485.

268 A few less common terminatives are *ose*, abounding in (*verbose*); *ean* (Greek), belonging to persons (*Epicurēan*, *Pythagorēan*); *īne* belonging to animals (*canine*, *feline*), &c.

269 From adjectives are formed many abstract substantives.

270 From *ant*, *ent*, come substantives in *ancy*, *ency;* or *ance*, *ence.*

271 From adjectives in *able*, *ible*, are formed abstract substantives in *ability*, *ibility;* besides which, we have many abstracts from the Latin that end in *ty*, from the termination *tas* in that language. *Placability*, *sensibility.*

Ize is the termination of verbs signifying to *make* or *produce* the property expressed by the root; and also *to be* or *have* that property. 272

(*a*) This is properly a Greek termination (as in *catechize*), but is appended to many adjectives that come to us from the Latin: *humanize*, &c. with which it signifies to *make*.

So many words are borrowed from Greek and Latin, that it is necessary to know the meaning of the prepositions of those languages. 273

(*a*) Latin prepositions (or *prepositional prefixes*), as used in compound words: 274

Prefixes.

ab, *away, from.*
ad, *to.*
amb, } *round; about; on*
ambi-, } *both sides.*
ante, *before.*
circum, *around.*
con, *with;* in some words *completely.*
contra, *against.*
de, *down; away:* in some words it adds the notion of *disagreeableness* or *deterioration.*
dis, di, *asunder; in different directions; away from; un-.*
ex, *out of, thoroughly.*
in, *into, on, against:* with adjectives, *not.*
inter, *between, amongst.*
intro, *within.*
ob, *against:* sometimes *about.*
per, *through, thoroughly;* (with adj.) *very.* It sometimes adds a *bad* meaning to the word.
post, *after.*
præ, *before;* (with adj.) *very.*
præter, *by.*
pro, *forth, forwards.*
re, *back, again, away, un-;* (sometimes *very*, or *forth from within.*)
retro, *backwards.*
sē, *aside, apart from.*
sub, *under, away from beneath, from below upwards, somewhat.*
subter, *underneath, away from underneath.*
super, *above.*
trans, *across, through, over to the other side.*

The final consonant of *ad*, *in*, *ob*, *sub*, is often changed, by *assimilation*, into the initial consonant of the word to which it is prefixed. *Annex*, *affect*, &c. 275

(*a*) *E* or *ex* becomes *ef* before *f*: *con* and *in* become *com*, *im*, be-

fore *b*, *m*, *p*. Before *noble* it becomes *ig*[6]. *Imbibe, imminent, imprudent, ignoble.*

(*b*) *Trans* appears sometimes as *tra*: *traduce.*

276 The following are Greek prepositions:

Amphi . . *around, on both sides. Amphitheatre.*

Anti . . . *against. Anti-christ, anti-jacobin.*

Hyper . . *over, beyond, too. Hypercritical,* too critical.

Hypo . { *under. Hypothesis* (thĕsis, a *placing, that which is placed*) that which is *placed under*, to support a theory; a supposition.

Meta . { denotes *transposition, change.*—To *metamorphose,* to change the shape.

Para . { *by, beyond, against.*—A *paralogism,* an argument *against*, or contrary to sound reasoning.

Peri . . . . *round. Periphrăsis,* a circumlocution.

Syn . . . . (by assimilation *syl, sym*) *with, together.*

(*a*) *Syn* is *sym* before *b* and *p*. *Sympathy*, a suffering with, fellow-feeling; *symbol.*

(*b*) A,—*not, without.*

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[6] But this *g* really belongs to the *root* of the word, which was *gno*, not *no*.

APPENDIX.

On Punctuation.

The *stops* used in English books are the *comma* (,), 277
the *semi-colon* (;), the *colon* (:), the *full stop* (.), the *note of interrogation* (?), the *note of admiration*, better called the *note of exclamation* (!), and the double mark *parenthesis* [( )].

(*a*) Comma means *a portion cut off*; colon *a member* (of a sentence); semi-colon, *a half-member*; parenthesis *a putting in by the by*. These names are from the Greek.

It is of great importance to settle beforehand 278
the principle of punctuation, which should be this: *It is the business of punctuation to divide written language into such portions as a correct speaker would divide it into.*

(*a*) "From such traces of the practice of this doctrine as we find in old manuscripts and old scholia, we discover, that its fundamental principle was laid in the natural divisions of animated delivery, and not in the strict logical succession of the thoughts."—Buttmann, i. 69.

(*b*) The principle just laid down will save us from that perverse mode of punctuation, which attends only to the grammatical structure of a sentence, and forbids us to separate "the subject from the predicate; the case governed from the verb that governs it," &c.—Matthiæ's Greek Grammar, i. 107.

(*a*) The Comma.

279 The purposes for which *commas* are required for the convenience of the reader, are principally three: (1) To keep together what should be kept together; (2) To prevent the reader from connecting words that *might be*, but *are not to be*, connected; (3) To give *due prominence* to words or phrases, the force of which would be injured, if they were passed over too rapidly.

(*a*) Buttmann remarks, that *writers* often deprive themselves of strong expressions which a *speaker* would not hesitate to use, by fearing to employ *commas* for the *second* of these purposes.

280 I shall now give Lindley Murray's rules, and try them by the fundamental principles just given. [When inverted commas are *not* used, the rules are his *in substance*, but not in words.]

281 "A simple sentence, when it is a long one, and the nominative case is accompanied with inseparable adjuncts, may admit of a pause immediately before the verb."

(*a*) This rule agrees with *the principle*; that is to say, with *our practice in speaking*; when the mind has fairly taken in the notion of a complex subject of this kind, it can wait for what is to be predicated of it. In such cases, to keep the subject and the predicate each by itself, consults the convenience of the speaker, without making the sentence less intelligible for the hearer. So Middleton: "The injustice and barbarity of this censure on all former editors of the New Testament, will appear . . . ." &c.

282 "When the connexion of the different parts of a simple sentence is interrupted by an imperfect phrase, a comma is usually introduced before the beginning, and at the end of this phrase."

(*a*) This seems unnecessary except when we wish to give *prominence* to such an insertion, or to guard against its being improperly connected with some word near it.

When a conjunction is omitted, the words 283
that it *would have connected* are separated by a comma; and when the last of *more than two* such words has the conjunction expressed, a comma is used before that conjunction, as well as between the other words. "The *husband*, *wife*, and *children*." "Virtue *supports* in adversity, *moderates* in prosperity."

(*a*) When *two* words or phrases are joined by a conjunction, a comma is unnecessary; but it may be inserted when "the parts connected are not short." "Wisdom and folly." "She is modest and retired." "Whether we eat or drink." "Intemperance destroys *the strength of our bodies*, and *the vigour of our minds*."

(*b*) The comma seems unnecessary in the last example: it may be used when the phrases connected are long, and where there is danger of *mis-connecting*.

The last adjective *is not stopt off*[1] from its 284
noun, but the last noun *is* stopt off from its verb.

(*a*) Middleton observes the first rule but not the second. "The *absolute*, *immediate*, and as it were *personal direction* of their affairs." But: "what an odd accident, what a fortuitous concourse of atoms gave birth to this mighty work!"

So, the translators of Niebuhr: "Their lamentations, his mother's threatened curse bent his mind." (ii. 240.) I am inclined to agree with Murray, except where there is not meant to be much *distinction* between the nouns in point of meaning; e. g. when the last is a *strengthened expression* of the preceding ones.

A noun in *apposition* to another, "when 285
accompanied with adjuncts," and participles or

[1] By *stopt off* is to be understood, separated by a comma or commas.

adjectives with dependent words are generally stopt off.

"The king, *approving the plan*, put it into execution." "Paul, *the Apostle of the Gentiles*, preached," &c. "But he, *anxious to refer the cause to arbitration*, refused," &c.

286 "When a conjunction is divided by a phrase or sentence from the verb to which it belongs, such intervening phrase" is usually stopt off.

(*a*) This will often be unnecessary. "The people, in the mean time, grew impatient and clamorous for the death of the pirates, whom all other prætors used to execute as soon as taken; *and knowing the number of them to be great, could not be satisfied* with the few old and decrepit, whom Verres willingly sacrificed to their vengeance."—Middleton.

287 Vocative cases, &c. are generally stopt off. "My son, give me thy heart."

288 "The case absolute and the infinitive mood absolute" are stopt off. "*His father dying*, he" &c. "*To confess the truth*, I was much in fault."

(*a*) Middleton often uses a semi-colon or colon after what Murray here calls the infinitive absolute. "But to pursue the objection of our Catholic; he declares," &c. "But to pursue his argument a little farther: while the Mosaic worship," &c.

(*b*) I would here add that an infinitive clause expressing the *purpose;* and a clause containing a participial substantive governed by a preposition, and with some dependent words attached to it, are often stopt off. "Catiline was ready with his Tuscan army, to take the benefit of the public confusion." "Thus far however he must be allowed to act like a generous adversary, in referring the merit of his argument to the trial of the press."

289 Simple members of sentences connected by comparatives (*as*, *than*), are generally stopt off, unless the comparative sentences are short.

"As the hart panteth after the water-brooks, so," &c.

"Better is a dinner of herbs with love, than a stalled ox and hatred with it." But, "It is better to get wisdom *than* gold." "I think *as you do.*"

Words placed in opposition to each other, or 290
with some marked variety, are stopt off; but the comma is better omitted after the last of two prepositions, when it stands before a single word.

"Though deep, yet clear; though gentle, yet not dull." "Not only *in union with*, but *in opposition to, the views and conduct of others.*" "In alliance *with*, and under the protection *of Rome.*"

(*a*) Middleton does not put a comma after the second of two words that have a phrase dependent upon both. "This tends rather *to confirm* than to *confute the inference*, which I have drawn from them."

(*b*) The use of the second comma will depend on whether the suspension of the voice at that place will, or will not, assist the hearer, in perceiving that the following words are dependent upon *both* the preceding ones.

"A remarkable expression, or a short observa- 291
tion, somewhat in the manner of a quotation, may be properly" stopt off.

"It hurts a man's pride to say, *I do not know.*" "Plutarch calls lying, the vice of slaves."

(*a*) Here the comma is useful in giving *prominence* to the words.

Relative sentences are generally stopt off, 292
except when they are closely connected with the other sentence, "restraining the general notion of the antecedent to a particular sense."

(*a*) Middleton generally stops off a relative sentence however short, whether restrictive or not. But I agree with Murray, in thinking that a comma has no business before the relative, when it is restrictive; e. g. when the predicate is only true of the antecedent, as *limited* by the relative clause. "A man who is of a detracting spirit, will misconstrue the most innocent words."

293 A dependent sentence is generally stopt off; e. g. sentences introduced by *how*, *that*, *when*, &c.

(*a*) This should depend on the length of the sentence; Murray adds, "if the members succeeding each other are very closely connected, the comma is unnecessary." "Revelation tells us how we may obtain happiness."

294 When an infinitive mood or a sentence is the *subject*, but is placed after the verb, it has generally a comma before it.

"It ill becomes good and wise men, to oppose and degrade one another." "The most obvious remedy is, to withdraw from the company of bad men." So Middleton: "It is certain however, that they could have had," &c. But not always: "The effectual way of ruining a fabric, is to charge it with a greater load than it was made to bear."

(*a*) Here again the comma *may*, or *may not* be convenient.

295 "Where a verb is understood, a comma may often be properly introduced."

"From law arises security; from security, curiosity."

(*a*) A comma *may be useful* in such a case; that is to say, a suspension of the voice may make a *spoken* sentence of this kind more intelligible.

296 The words *nay*, *so*, *hence*, *again*, *first*, *secondly*, *formerly*, *now*, *lastly*, *once more*, *above all*, *on the contrary*, *in the next place*, *in short*, and other words and phrases of the same kind, must generally be separated from the context by a comma. [This will often be unnecessary.]

(*b*) Colon and Semi-colon.

297 The chief use of these stops is, to separate the members of a compound sentence.

When a sentence is of such a kind as to *require* 298
an answering sentence, it is often enough to separate them by a comma; but it is generally better to use a semi-colon, when the sentences are somewhat long, especially when several commas are employed in them.

'When you come, I will tell you.' 'When you come to me bringing a testimonial of good character, from the clergyman, or some other respectable inhabitant of your town; then I will,' &c.

(*a*) We should remember as a general rule; that a *semi-colon* may be used instead of a *comma*, *whenever* and *wherever* a longer pause is required; i. e. would make the *spoken* sentence more *intelligible*.

(*b*) So too a *colon* may be used on all such occasions, when a still longer pause appears desirable. It will be generally well to employ it, when the subsequent member of a compound sentence is not *required* by the construction of the preceding one; but contains some "supplemental remark, or further illustration." But a good deal will depend on the *degree of connexion*.

(*c*) Murray says: "the colon is commonly used when an example, a quotation, or a speech, is introduced." Middleton more frequently uses the *semi-colon*, and often only a *comma*.

(*c*) Notes of Interrogation and Admiration.

The note of interrogation (?) is to be used at the 299
end of all questions that are asked directly; but *not* after *indirect* or *dependent* questions.

(*a*) The translators of Niebuhr use it after independent questions: "If we ask, who was the gainer by the death of his great ancestor? the answer is, the patricians."

The note of exclamation (!) stands after *exclama-* 300
tions, *invocations*, and *direct addresses*.

(*d*) Parenthesis.

301 Murray says a sentence included within a parenthesis, "ought to terminate with the same kind of stop which the member has that precedes it; and to contain that stop within the parenthetical mark." He excepts cases of interrogation and exclamation.

(*a*) This stopping *within* the parenthetical marks is quite useless. The following examples are from Middleton: "I have followed Origen, Didymus, and Apollinaris, (who all certainly hold opinions contrary to each other) in such a manner, that," &c. "The learned Huetius (in his, &c. . . . . prefixed to Origen's Commentaries) has collected," &c.

(*b*) Perhaps the best rule would be to consider the parenthetical marks sufficient without any other stop, unless where it is necessary to intimate, whether the parenthetical clause belongs to the words that go before or to those that follow; which may be done by putting a stop *before*, or *after*, the parenthetical remarks.

"The night (it was the middle of summer) was fair and calm."—Thirlwall's Greece.

"He has by a number of citations (proving what everybody knew before), shown," &c.

"So says Cicero (as your grace knows), or so he might have said."

302 (*a*) It should be remembered that a full stop is marked after every *abbreviated* word. "It was carried *nem. con.*" "He is an M.P."

(*b*) Inverted commas are used to mark quotations.

SYNTAX.

§ i. Predicative Combination.

Every sentence either *asserts* something; or *asks* a question; or expresses a *command* or *wish*. 303

The person or thing about which something is asserted or asked, is called the *subject*. 304

When a *command* is expressed, the *person commanded* is the subject; when a *wish*, the person or thing *about which the wish is uttered*, is the subject. 305

What is said about the subject, is called the *predicate*, from *prædicare* (to publish, to say). 306

Every predicate must be joined to the subject by the verb *to be*; or be itself a verb, with or without some other words. 307

Where the verb *to be* is used to join the predicate to the subject, it is called the '*copula*,' or *link*. 308

The most usual predicates with the verb *to be*, are adjectives and substantives; but adverbs, and prepositions used adverbially, are frequently employed as predicates. 309

'The rose is *red*.' 'He is *a barrister*.' 'The play is *over*.'

Substantives governed by prepositions often stand as predicates. 310

'He is *on his guard*.' 'She is *in good spirits*.'

(*a*) The adverb '*so*' is often used as a predicate, instead of some other predicate already mentioned. 'I am in good spirits, but my brother *is* not *so*' (= *in good spirits*).

311 The *form* of the infinitive passive (which is then equivalent to the Latin *gerundive*, or 'participle in *dus*') often stands as the predicate, and expresses (1) what *may* or *can be done*, (2) what *ought to be done*, or (3) what it is *intended to have done*.

'The passage is *to be found* (= *may* be *found*) at the seventh page.' 'Conscientious scruples are *to be treated* (= *ought* to be treated) with delicacy.' 'The man is to be hanged to-morrow;' i. e. it is *settled* or *intended* that the man should be hanged to-morrow.

312 The *form* of the infinitive active (which is then equivalent to a future participle of the active voice) often stands as a predicate with the verb *to be*, and expresses what is *proposed* or *settled* to do.

'He is *to come* to-morrow.' 'I am *to look* at the horse for him.'

313 The subject is generally a *substantive*, or *substantive-pronoun*. But sometimes an *infinitive mood*, with or without some dependent words, and sometimes *a sentence* introduced by the conjunction '*that*,' or by *some interrogative* pronoun or adverb, stands as the subject.

(*a*) "*To err* is human; *to forgive*, divine." '*That Cato should have said this*, is incredible.' '*Whether this problem is a possible one*, remains to be seen.' '*Whether he will come*, is still uncertain.'

(*b*) An *adjective* (or even *adverb*) with *the* is *substantivized* (330), and may be the subject. "The *rich* too often despise the poor."

(*c*) The subject, which always stands in the nominative case, is often called by English Grammarians *the nominative case to the verb*.

314 The verb *agrees* with its nominative case in number and person.

[By *agreeing with* is meant being of the *same* number and person.]

A *collective noun*, or *noun of multitude*, is sometimes joined to a plural verb, when what is asserted is true of the *individuals* represented by the noun. 315

('The *council were* divided in their opinions.')

(*a*) If the statement is true only of *the whole body*, the verb must be in the singular. ('Parliament has determined otherwise.')

When the same predicate refers to two or more subjects, the verb is in the plural. 316

(*a*) The verb is sometimes found in the singular, when the two subjects may be considered as forming one complex notion. 'The *assumption* and *dogmatism* of this sect *was* little likely to satisfy such an inquirer.'

After *couple, dozen, score,* &c. the verb must be in the plural; but after *pair* in the singular. 317

When the verb *to be* is itself the *predicate*, it takes the adverb '*there*,' and stands before its subject. 318

(*a*) In this case it expresses *existence*, and is not merely a copula to join the predicate to the subject. "*There is* no such thing as a unicorn" (= no such thing as a unicorn *exists*).

(*b*) The adverb '*there*' may be used with other verbs: it is convenient to use it in this way, when we wish the nominative case to stand after its verb, that it may be better connected with a clause that modifies it. "*There followed him* great multitudes."

When an infinitive mood, or a sentence, is the nominative case to a verb, it generally follows it, the pronoun '*it*,' standing as its *representative* before the verb. 319

'*It* is easy *to deceive a child*' (= *to deceive a child* is easy).

320 When the infinitive has a *subject* of its own it is preceded by '*for*.'

'It is hard *for* a poor man to have the necessaries of life highly taxed' (= that a poor man should have the necessaries of life highly taxed, is hard).

321 An important use of the construction explained in 319, is to give emphasis to whatever word or phrase we wish to be emphatic.

'The freedom of the city was not, however, bestowed only *on individuals*.' If we wish the emphasis to be on '*individuals*,' it must be: 'It was not, however, only on *individuals*, *that* the freedom of the city was bestowed.'

[Hence, when the emphasis in Latin or Greek is upon an *oblique case*, this idiom must be employed.]

322 '*It*' stands as the nominative to the verb in phrases descriptive of the weather.

Instead of 'the night is dark,' we generally say: '*it* is a dark night.'

323 The personal form '*it is*,' may also be used to give emphasis, where it is desired, when the nominative case is a noun or pronoun; and it may be followed by a *plural verb*.

'They have done all the mischief.' 'It is *they* who have done all the mischief.'

324 So a noun of time is used in the *plural* after *it is*.

'*It is* now *six weeks* since he left me.'

(*a*) "*It is odds*, that Ibycus is not a patriot." The colloquial phrase, '*it is odds*,' is equivalent to, '*is a case in which one would bet odds*.'

325 Verbs of *becoming*, *turning out*, &c.: passive verbs of *calling*, *appointing*, *making*, *considering*, *thinking*, take a substantive or adjective (in the nom. case) to form the predicate with them. (Compare 375.)

'He will turn out *a villain.*' 'He becomes more and more *troublesome* every day.' 'He is called *Peter.*' 'He was appointed *commander* in chief.' 'He was chosen *king.*'

(*a*) The verbs that take a predicate in the nominative, are contained in the following lines:

Verbs of *becoming, being, seeming,*
And passive verbs of *making, calling, deeming.*

Under *making* are included *electing, appointing,* & c.

(*b*) A verb of *designation, choice,* &c. in the passive voice, is a strengthened copula, being used to join the *predicate* to the verb, but with the addition of some notion which forms part of the *predicate.*

'He *is chosen* general' = 'He *is* (*by election*) general.'
'He *is thought* weak' = 'He *is* (*in the opinion of many*) weak.'

(*c*) These verbs may therefore be called *copulative* verbs, from the resemblance of their use to that of the copula.

(*d*) They are sometimes called *apposition-verbs;* the second nominative standing in a sort of *apposition* (see 338) to the first. [Compare 375.]

326 Many English verbs take an adjective with them to form the predicate, where an adverb would be used in other languages. 'He fell *ill;*' 'he looks *pale;*' 'he feels *cold;*' 'he grew *warm.*'

(*a*) In such phrases as 'to *go* unfurnished; 'to *stand* open;' 'here *lies* the difficulty;' 'to *grow* wiser,' &c. the verbs are equivalent to a *strengthened copula.*

(*b*) In '*to be sent ambassador,*' &c. *as* may be understood.

327 The *subject* follows the verb in *questions* and *exclamatory* sentences; after '*nor,*' '*neither,*' &c., and whenever the predicative adjective stands first.

'What think *you?*'—'Neither will *he* come.' 'Nor did *he* say so.' "Great is *Diana* of the Ephesians."

(*a*) If the verb is of a compound tense, the nominative case comes between the auxiliary and the verb. "*Is he* dressed?" "Nor *will he* do it?"

(*b*) The verb stands before the *subject* when '*if*' is omitted, and also not unfrequently in the *consequent* clause of a *conditional* proposition.

'*Had* you told me this before, it would have made a great difference.' 'If that had happened, then *had* all been lost.'

328 The participial substantive (of the *present active* form) with *no* is found as the *subject* to '*there is*' (which it always *follows*), and signifies what *cannot be done.*

'There is *no bearing* your impertinence' = *no bearing* your impertinence *exists* (as a possible thing).

329 (*a*) The verb is sometimes omitted, especially in some *interrogatory* and *exclamatory* forms.

'*What*, if he should refuse?' i. e. *what would happen if*, &c.? "*Hard* indeed, not to allow me capable of translating even Latin." "But *no matter* for that, if they hit men's tempers, and suit their apprehensions, 'tis just the same we see to this pious observator."

(*b*) The *subject* is omitted after *imperative* verbs '*speak*' (= speak *thou*, or *you*): and in some other cases e. g. before *as follows* (= as *it* follows); *as concerns myself*, &c.

330 Any part of speech *may* be used to express the notion it conveys, as a *substantive*; in other words, may be used substantively.

'*Once* is too often.' '*Red* and *green* are different colours.' '*Over* is not *under*.' '*Ah!* is an exclamation.'

(*a*) An adjective is always used substantively when it stands *alone* with the definite article.

'The good' = *good men.*

'The sublime' = *sublimity*, in the abstract.

(*b*) Even a compound phrase may be used substantively. "*From infancy to manhood* is rather a tedious period[1]."

[1] Cowper, vol. xv. p. 85 (Southey's ed.).

(*Simple Interrogative Sentences.*)

Simple interrogative sentences are of two kinds : 331
questions *for information*, and *rhetoriçal* questions, or questions of *appeal*.

(*a*) In a *rhetorical* question, or question *of appeal*, the speaker does not need information, but implies that the person or persons he is addressing *must* agree with him in opinion.

In questions of *appeal*, a question put positively 332
expects a *negative* answer, and *vice versâ*. Thus: 'Is pleasure to be pursued at the expense of health?' expects the answer '*No*;' and is therefore equivalent to 'Pleasure is *not* to be pursued at the expense of health?' 'Is *not* the reward great?' implies that the reward *is* great. Hence,—

To turn a question for assent into an *affirmative* 333
sentence, if the question has a negative we must reject it; if it has not, we must insert one.

§ ii. ATTRIBUTIVE COMBINATION.

Any notion added to a substantive for the pur- 334
pose of *describing* it more exactly, *but not asserted of it in the form of a sentence*, is said to be joined to it *attributively*[2].

Any word or phrase that is capable of being 335
used predicatively with the verb *to be*, may be used attributively.

(*a*) Thus an attributive may be an adjective,

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[2] A predicative combination (or *sentence*) expresses one *thought*: an attributive combination, on the other hand, expresses one *notion* only. (Becker.)

a participle, a pronoun, a substantive in apposition (see 338), a substantive in the genitive case, a substantive governed by a preposition, and even sometimes an adverb.

('A *red* house.' '*Running* water.' '*This* book.' 'William *the Conqueror*.' '*The boy's* father.' 'A leg *of mutton*.' 'The *under* side.')

336 From our having so few terminations, the *position* of words in a sentence admits of hardly any variation. Thus a word or phrase standing immediately before a substantive, is *felt* to be equivalent to an *adjective* modifying it; and hence we are able to use another noun or almost any short phrase *adjectively*.

'A gold *ring*.' 'A *barn* door.' 'The *marriage* act.' 'An *off-hand* manner.' '*Last Tuesday* night.'

(*a*) This is a valuable idiom. How much more compact is 'the marriage act,' than 'the act for regulating marriages.'

(*b*) 'A *Savings* Bank' is a Bank *for the Savings* of the Poor. It is quite unnecessary to write "*Savings*' Bank," as some people do.

337 There is very little difference in use between the genitive case and an adjective, when the genitive case is used to modify the notion of a noun; i. e. used *attributively*.

'*Cæsar's* party' = the *Cæsarian* party.

338 When one substantive is put in the same case with another *for the purpose of defining it more exactly*, it is said to be *in apposition* to that substantive.

339 Substantives in apposition are, by the definition, in the same case. '*Maia, the daughter* of Atlas.' A *personal-pronoun* may have a substantive *in apposition*: '*I Themistocles*,' &c.

340 Though the name of a river stands in apposition to the generic term *river* ('the *river*

Thames'), the names of towns and islands follow their generic terms under the government of the preposition '*of*.' 'The city *of Rome*;' 'the island *of Malta*.'

A substantive often stands in apposition to a 341
sentence. "The weather forbids walking; a *prohibition* hurtful to us both." (Cowper.)

When the genitive marking possession follows 342
the noun to which it belongs, it is joined to it by the preposition *of*; thus giving the appearance of a double genitive to those who call the case with *of* a genitive.

"A picture *of* the *king's*."

(*a*) This is generally explained to mean a *picture of the king's pictures*. "I confess, however, that I have some doubt whether this phrase is indeed to be regarded as elliptical. It has sometimes struck me that this may be a relic of the old practice of using the genitive after nouns as well as before them, only with the insertion of the preposition *of*. Else it may be that we put the genitive after the noun in such cases, in order to express those relations which are most appropriately expressed by the genitive preceding it. *A picture of the king* is something very different from *the king's picture*: and so many other relations are designated by *of* with the objective noun, that, if we want to denote possession thereby, it leaves an ambiguity: so, for this purpose, when we want to subjoin the name of the possessor to the thing possest, we have recourse to the genitive, by prefixing which we are wont to express the same idea. At all events as, if we were askt whose castle Alnwick is, we should answer, *the Duke of Northumberland's*, so we should also

say, *what a grand castle that is of the Duke of Northumberland's!* without at all taking into account whether he had other castles besides: and our expression would be equally appropriate whether he had or not[3]."

(*b*) On this I would observe, that the form would *not* be equally appropriate, if the notion of the person's having more than one were *inadmissible*. '*I met a cousin of yours abroad*,' would be right; but '*I met a wife of yours*,' would be wrong.

343 One attributive word or phrase may often be expressed by another.

'The *royal* authority' = the *king's* authority. 'A *wooden* box' = a box *of wood*.

(*a*) As no two languages exactly agree, it will often be necessary, in translating from one language into another, to translate an adjective by the genitive of a noun, or a noun governed by a preposition; and conversely.

344 The genitive often stands alone by an omission of—*house*, *palace*, *church*, *shop*, &c.

"I am going to *St. Paul's*, and afterwards to *St. James's*. shall call at *Rivingtons'* on my way."

(*a*) Though we may say '*at Johnson the bookseller's*; yet "if the explanatory term be complex, or if there are more explanatory terms than one, the sign of the genitive must be affixed to the name or first substantive; thus, 'I left the book at *Johnson's, a respectable bookseller, a worthy man, and an old friend.*'"—Crombie.

345 When one notion is thus joined *attributively* to another, an assertion is *assumed* which may be more formally expressed by a relative sentence, whenever it is convenient or necessary to do so.

'Honesty, the best policy' = *which is* the best policy.

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[3] Phil. Mag. ii. 261.

The attributive adjective, participle, or pronoun agrees with its substantive in case, gender, and number. 346

(*a*) This is a law of universal grammar, though in English it is only *perceptible* in the case of demonstrative pronouns.

This man: *these* men. *That* boy: *those* boys.

(*b*) *Kind*, *sort*, &c. are *singular*, and must have singular pronouns; though as nouns of multitude they may have *plural* verbs. '*This* kind of potatoes.'

(*c*) Such expressions as '*a rogue of a lawyer*,' '*a rascal of an attorney*,' &c. are equivalent to '*a roguish lawyer*,' '*a rascally attorney*.' [So in French; *un fripon* de *valet*, &c.]

(*d*) The singular word '*every*' stands with a plural word of time in such phrases as '*every three years*' = '*at the end of each third year*;' or '*once in each third year*.'

'In *every three words* he named and threatened me.'

Attributive Genitive. Preposition 'of.'

A substantive in the *genitive case*, or under the government of the preposition '*of*,' is said to be in the genitive relation, when it is joined to a substantive attributively. 347

The different kinds of (*attributive*) genitive relations are— 348

(1) The relation of the *possessor* to the thing *possessed*. (*The king's* crown; *the poet's* garden; the crown *of the king*.)

(2) The relation of an *agent* to an action or effect. (*Solomon's* temple = the temple built by Solomon. *A bird's* nest = a nest built by a bird. The march *of an army*.)

(3) The mutual relation of persons. (My brother's servant; the girl's father, &c.)

(4) The relation of a *whole* to its parts (*partitive genitive*). (The roof *of a house* ; the wheels *of a carriage*.)

(5) The relation of a *quality* to a person or thing. (A man *of great talents* ; *a man of honour*.)

(6) The relation of a *substance* or *material* to something made of it. (A rod *of iron*.)

☞ The genitive formed by inflexion is generally used to express the relation of the *possessor* ; and, sometimes, to express the relation of the *agent* to an action or effect, and the mutual relation of persons.

349 A substantive stands in the *objective* (or *active*) genitive relation, when it expresses the *object* of some feeling or action.

Thus, the love *of our country* ; the perusal *of books* ; the desire *of praise*, &c.

The injuries of the Helvetii { = the injuries done *by* them. (*subjective gen.*) / = the injuries done *to* them. (*obj. gen.*)

350 Various other prepositions are in English used to connect substantives *attributively*.

'An enemy *to* his country.' 'A friend *to the cause*.'
'Milk *for babes*.' 'The man *in the moon*.'

(*b*) Such relations are frequently not expressed *attributively* in other languages, but by relative or participial clauses.

Thus 'milk *for* babes' = such milk *as is suited* for babes, &c.

§ iii. *Objective Combination.*

351 The *object* in grammar is the noun that represents that which is immediately affected by the *action* denoted by the transitive verb ; i.e. 'the *accusative* case *after* the verb.'

352 But every notion *referred to a verb* or *adjective*, in whatever form it be expressed, is to be considered *as an objective factor*. (Becker.)

'He will come *to-morrow*.' 'He will stay *at home*.' 'He works *hard*.' 'Inflamed *with anger*.' '*Grievously* mistaken.'

The accusative after the active verb becomes the nominative before the passive verb. 353

The nominative before the active verb is joined to the passive verb by the preposition *by*. 354

'Cæsar conquered *Pompey* at Pharsalia.'
'*Pompey* was conquered *by Cæsar* at Pharsalia.'

A verb with its accusative case is often equivalent to a single verb. Thus, *to end* = to *put an end* (to). To *assist* = to *afford assistance* (to). 355

The passive verb does not take an accusative case after it; but in English there are two important exceptions to this rule: 356

(1) When a verb with its accusative case is equivalent to a single verb (355), it may take this accusative after it in the passive voice.

'This *has been put an end* to.'

(2) "Verbs signifying to *ask*, *teach*, *offer*, *promise*, *pay*, *tell*, *allow*, *deny*, and some others of like signification, are sometimes, especially in colloquial language, followed in the passive by an objective case." (Crombie.)

'They are allowed *sixpence* a day.' 'I was offered a *lucrative situation*.'

(3) Many passive verbs are followed by an Infinitive, which must be considered as an objective case.

'I am permitted to go;' 'allowed to do it;' 'exhorted to do it,' &c. See 362.

Prepositions are often *used objectively* with intransitive verbs, which then become *transitive* in meaning, and may be used in the passive voice. 357

(*a*) In most languages the preposition is prefixed to the verb, so as to form a part of it, as it is in some English compounds, to *up*hold, to *over*throw, &c.

(*b*) "To *cast* is to *throw*; but to *cast up*, or compute, an account is quite a different thing: thus to *fall on*, to *bear out*, to *give over*." Lowth.

(*c*) We may observe that in some of these verbs the following noun appears to be strictly under the government of the preposition; in others not. *Him* may be considered as governed by *at*, in to *laugh at him*; but *account* cannot well be supposed under the government of *up*, in to *cast up an account*.

358 Intransitive verbs may take an accusative case of the substantive, denoting the meaning of the verb in the *abstract*.

'To *sleep* a sound *sleep*.'

(*a*) This rule holds good of other nouns that express *some kind* of the action or state denoted by the verb. 'To *run* a *race*.' [This is called: 'the accusative of *kindred* signification.']

359 In nearly the same way a transitive verb often takes an accusative case of this kind. 'To strike a severe blow.' 'To fight a good fight.'

360 A transitive verb may thus take two *accusatives*; one of the object, and one of the *kind* of *action* or *state*.

'*He* struck *him* a severe *blow*.'

Infinitive Mood.

361 The infinitive mood is joined *objectively* to many *verbs*, *participles*, *adjectives*, and *substantives*.

'I desire *to please* all reasonable men.'
'Desiring *to please*,' &c. 'Desirous *to please*,' &c.
'My desire *to please*,' &c.

362 The verbs that are followed by an infinitive *objectively*, are such as express *feelings*, *powers*, or *operations* of the mind; or some simple action, state, or endeavour, proceeding from the will or the understanding.

(*a*) Such verbs are (1) *to be willing ; to wish, desire, strive, endeavour, seek ; resolve, determine, design, purpose, intend, undertake, venture, dare ; to demand, require, request, command, persuade, incite, encourage, admonish, warn, exhort ; to let, permit, allow, grant, promise, vouchsafe ;*—together with their opposites, *to forbid, refuse, hesitate, delay,* &c. (2) *to believe, think, suppose,* &c. (3) *to be able ; to understand ; to know, to bear, suffer, endure ; to cause, make,* &c. (4) *to learn, teach,* &c. (5) *to rejoice, grieve, am glad, am sorry,* &c.

363 The manner in which the infinitive is used must be carefully attended to. 'I wish *to learn*.' Here *to learn* is the infinitive after 'I wish.' 'I read *to learn*.' Here *to learn* is the infinitive expressing the *purpose*.

364 Some of the verbs that are immediately followed by an infinitive when the subject is the same, are followed by the *accusative and infinitive* when the subject is different.

'I wish to go.' 'I wish *him to go*' (= I wish that he should go).

365 (*a*) But many of the verbs enumerated in 362, are never followed by the infinitive without an accusative, except in the passive voice.

'I advised him *to do* it.' 'I ordered him *to do* it.' 'I asked him *to do* it.' 'I permitted him *to do* it.' 'I persuaded him *to do* it.'

But passively—I am advised, asked, persuaded, &c. *to do* it.

(*b*) The following classes of verbs are followed by the accusative and infinitive.

(*a*) *To cause, to make, to have, to suffer, to allow, to permit, to bid, to order.*

(*b*) *To beg, to desire, to wish, to want.*

(*c*) *To see, to feel, to hear, to observe, to perceive, to discover, to know, to find, to remember, to suspect, to imagine, to believe.*

(*d*) *To show, to discover, to prove, to allow, to demonstrate, to deny, to hold, to take, to think.*

366 In this construction the accusative may be considered as both the *object* to the finite verb and the *subject* to the infinitive mood.

367 (*a*) The Infinitive may then be *resolved* into a *sentence*. Thus: '*I exhorted him* to do it' = *I exhorted him*, (in order) that he might do it[3].—Becker considers such Infinitives (and also Participles and Participial substantives when they may be *expanded* in a similar way), *abridged accessory sentences*. For the term '*accessory sentence*,' see 403.

(*b*) Even after some of those which are followed *immediately* by the Infinitive, it must be considered an *abridged sentence*. Thus: 'We all *desire to have* our share of &c.' = we all *desire that we may have* &c. 'We *profess to be* lovers of justice, &c.' = we *profess that we are* &c. Hence in other languages we shall often find that the corresponding verbs are followed by *accessory sentences*.

368 The '*to*' of the infinitive is dropt after the verbs of mood, and ***bid, dare, need, make, see, hear, feel, let.***

(*a*) The '*to*' is also dropt in the phrase '*to do nothing but*,' &c.—'He does nothing but *complain*.'

369 '*Would have*' followed by an infinitive (the '*to*' being often omitted) means *would wish*, *would make*, &c.

'Are these your grand theories, to which you *would have* heaven and earth *to bend?*'

370 *To be sure* = '*certainly*,' '*indeed*,' '*I allow:*' often with something of irony. "There is nothing agreeable, *to be sure*, in being chronicled for a dunce."

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[3] Thus the English infinitive after *ask, command, advise, strive*, &c. is translated in Latin by *ut* with an accessory sentence.

The Present Infinitive of the *active* voice, standing as the accusative after *have* expresses a *duty*, or *task*, or *necessity*: what *is to be*, or *must be* done. 371

'I have *to work* hard for my bread.'

The Infinitive passive standing as the accusative after *have* expresses what remains to be done, or is to be done. 372

'A good deal *has* yet *to be done* to it.'

When an Infinitive clause stands as the accusative to a verb, the pronoun '*it*' is often placed immediately after the verb, and the Infinitive placed in apposition to it. [The Infinitive may here too be considered an *abridged sentence*. See (*a*).] 373

"I found *it* to no purpose *to lay much stress on those texts that are usually alledged on the occasion.*" (Middleton.)

(*a*) '*It*' (whether *nom.* or *acc.*) may be used in the same way, as the representative of a sentence introduced by '*that.*'

"I lay *it* down as a fundamental principle, *that in a republican government, which has a democratical basis, the rich require an additional security beyond what is necessary to them in monarchies.*" (Burke.) "*It* may be considered a fundamental principle, that &c.

(For the Infinitive of *purpose*, see 422.)

Copulative (or *Apposition*) *Verbs.*

A substantive or adjective is used objectively in the *accusative*, with the *active voice* of such verbs as to *call*, *appoint*, *make*, *consider*, *think*, &c. 374

'They call him a hero.' 'They chose Marius *general.*'

(*a*) Also 'to consider a man *as* a hypocrite:' 'to choose such a one *for* their general.'

☞ It thus appears that the verbs *to make*, *to render*, *to appoint*, *to elect*, *to think*, *to consider*, are (in this use of them) *incomplete predicates*, requiring a nominative, if they are in the passive voice (see 375

325), and a second accusative, if they are in the active voice, to *complete their predication*.—This second *nom.* or *acc.* may be called 'the *Complement* of the Predicate.'

376 Also some verbs that involve the notion of *making* a thing, *together* with the proper notion of the verb, take a predicate of this kind.

'He painted the door *green*.' 'The door was painted *green*' (= was *made* green by painting). 'To *shut* one's eyes *close*.' And so with other predicates: 'to run myself *out of breath*.'

Relations of the Cases.—Objective Genitive Relations.

377 The following *objective* relations expressed by '*of*,' may be considered *genitive* relations:

(1) Substantive expressing *the whole* after partitives.

(*a*) The partitive genitive follows *numerals*, both definite and indefinite, *comparatives*, *superlatives*, &c.

'Some *of them*;' 'few of them;' 'the taller of the two;' 'the most learned of the Greek orators.'

(2) The *supplementary* notion of various adjectives; especially of such as form no complete notion without the mention of an object.

(Such adjectives are *mindful*, *desirous*, *certain*, *guilty*, *fearful*, *conscious*, &c.)

(3) The charge of which a man is *accused* or *acquitted*.

(4) That of which a man is *ashamed* or *repents*.

(5) That of which a man *is deprived* or a vessel *emptied*.

(The last of these relations is, however, expressed by the ablative in Latin.)

378 (Other relations expressed by '*of*.')

(1) Of = *about*, *concerning*.

(To think *of*; to boast *of*; to complain *of*; to persuade a man *of*, &c.)

(2) *Of* = *from* (especially after notions of *extricating*).

(To ask a favour *of* a man ; to rid oneself *of ;* to wean oneself *of ;* to cure a man *of*, &c.)

(3) *Causal relation* [4].

(To die *of* hunger ; to be weary *of ;* to be sick *of ;* proud *of*, &c.)

Dative Relations. Prepositions 'to,' 'for.'

'To' is generally used to express the relations which other languages express by the *dative* case. 379

The following relations expressed by '*to*' may be considered *dative* relations: 380

(*a*) The person *to whom* the action is done, after transitive verbs which take an accusative of the suffering object.

(Such verbs are *tell, bring, give, offer, lend, send, reach show, dedicate, promise*, &c.)

(*b*) The person *to whom*, or thing *to which*, after adjectives denoting *agreeableness, likeness, contrariety, hurtfulness*, &c.

'*To*' after verbs of *motion* does not express a *dative relation*. 381

(*a*) But after '*bring*,' '*send*,' the '*to*' *may* be considered as expressing a dative relation, when the person to *whom* a thing is brought or sent is the person for whose benefit the action was intended.

(*b*) In this case the '*to*' may be omitted. 'I have sent *you* the book ;' but we cannot say 'I have sent them (= *to them*) for the book.'

After many verbs the preposition '*to*' is omitted, and thus the verb *appears* to govern two accusatives. 382

'Lend *me* the stick' (= to me) ; 'give *me* the ball' (= to me).

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[4] Language conceives and represents every causation as a *motion*. The relation of an object which is conceived as a *cause*, properly so called, corresponds to the direction *from ;* whereas, on the contrary, the relation of an object conceived as *suffering* the action, or as an *effect* or *purpose*, corresponds to the direction *towards*. The direction *from* is represented by the *genitive* (in Latin) and *ablative* cases, and by *of, from ;* the direction *towards* by the *accusative*, and by *to, into, for*. (Becker.)

383 So after the adjective '*like*,' the preposition '*to*' is omitted.

'He is like his *brother*.'

384 The preposition '*to*' also denotes:

(1) That with respect to which an assertion is to be understood.

'Sharp *to* the taste;' 'deaf *to* his prayers;' 'our duty *to* our neighbour' (= *towards*).

(2) The point up to which a thing is carried.

'They were *to* the number of 300 horse.' 'One crow's nest is like another's *to* the laying of a stick.' 'They are the same *to* all intents and purposes.'

(3) The second term of a proportion or comparison.

'They are as ten *to* one.' 'She is nothing *to* him.'

(4) The effect or consequence of an act.

'It must be confessed, *to the reproach of our country*, that—&c.'

385 A word under the government of '*for*' is also considered to be in the *dative relation*, when it expresses the person to whose *satisfaction* or *advantage*, *displeasure* or *disadvantage*, the action is done, or the thing exists.

('He made it *for me*.' 'No roses are blooming *for us*.' 'He is singing *for you*.' 'The shoe is too tight *for me*.')

(*a*) The '*for*' is sometimes omitted.

'He has made *me* a shoe' (= *for me*). 'I will sing *you* a song' (= *for you*).

386 '*For*' often expresses a *cause* or *motive* (*for* pity, *for* shame—eyes sparkling *for* very wrath: to be sorry *for*), especially a *preventive cause*, generally after negative words ('I could not see him *for* the crowd.' 'I shall do it *for* all that.' So '*but for that*,' and '*were it not for*,' which express a cause, without which any thing would, or would not, have been done): the *purpose*, *object*, or *use* (good *for*, fit *for*, to ask *for*, to serve *for*, to long *for*, to wish *for*): *substitution*, *exchange*, *price* ('to translate word *for* word;' 'to give silver *for* gold;' 'to buy a thing *for* so much'). It is often *restrictive* ('I will do it *for* once;' '*for* this time;' '*for* me;' '*for* my part.' 'This is a good exercise *for* so young a boy,' &c.). With the Participial Substantive, '*to be for*' expresses *inclination* ('He was *for stopping* the proceedings').

'To *take* a man for a simpleton' = to *consider* him a simpleton.

Ablative Relations. With, by, &c.

387 The principal *ablative relations* are the relations of *cause*, *manner*, and of the *instrument* with which an action is done.

(*a*) Hence the prepositions *from*, *in*, *with*, &c. frequently denote ablative relations.

('They proceeded *in silence*;' 'he sings *from vanity*;' 'he judges *from* experience;' 'he was scourged *with rods*.'

388 Obs. '*With*,' when it denotes *companionship* (= *together with*; *in company with*), does not express an ablative relation.

389 '*With*' sometimes stands in an *adversative relation* to the principal sentence, and is equivalent to *for*, *notwithstanding*, or to an accessory sentence introduced by *though*. It is then followed by '*all*,' '*no*,' '*no more*,' &c.

'He is a great bear *with* all his learning and penetration' = '*though he possesses great learning and penetration*, he is a great bear.'

(*a*) '*With* that she told me,' &c. = '*upon* that,' &c. denoting any thing immediately followed by an action.

(*On some particular uses of other Prepositions.*)

390 '*Against*' sometimes denotes the time '*by*' which a thing is to be done; generally when the time so mentioned is the occasion for which the thing is wanted.

391 '*At*' stands in the relation of the cause after to be *angry*, *rejoice*, &c. It also stands, like *on*, *with*, before a cause or occasion that is immediately followed by an event ('*at this news*, he dies;' '*at this*, he turns'). It denotes the being in a particular state ('*at peace*,' '*at ease*,' '*at a loss*'—'to be taken *at a disadvantage*'). With *Superlatives* it is equivalent to a sentence introduced by *even when* or *if*. ("Life is short *at the longest*, and unquiet *at the best*.")

392 '*By*' often marks the time before which something is to be done ('it will be finished *by* to-morrow'); an *external mark* by which a judgement is formed ('I know him *by* his coat'); with the plural of a substantive, or between the singular repeated, it has a *distributive* force ('piece by piece,' 'limb by limb;' 'they carried it away by pieces,' &c.); 'to do a thing *by halves*,' is to do it half at one time and half at another, instead of finishing it at once.—'*To know by heart*,' is to be able to repeat a thing from memory.

(*a*) After Comparatives and Superlatives the preposition '*by*' may be considered omitted before words denoting the degree of excess or defect.

'Much greater' = greater *by* much.

'A thousand times greater' = greater *by* a thousand times.

393 '*From*' often denotes a cause. ('To act *from* prejudice.')

394 '*Into*.' Many verbs are used with '*into*,' to denote the *bringing* a person or thing *into* some state by the action which the verb denotes. ('He *fooled* himself *into* irrecoverable misery.' 'A man cannot *think* himself *into* Atheism.' 'He *tired* her *into* compliance.' 'He had *cultivated* it *into* a profitable business.')

395 '*On*' is frequently used to express an event that has some immediate consequence, especially with demonstrative pronouns. ('*On this*, he went away.' '*On the receipt of these letters*, the senate decreed,' &c.)

Space and Time.

396 The measure of *time* and *space* is put in the *accusative* case.

'That was *last year*.' 'I am to go to Cambridge *next October*.' 'He came *yesterday*.' 'He lived in Italy *three years*.' 'Stamford is *eighty-nine miles* from London.' 'The cloth is *four yards* wide.'

397 With *morning*, *evening*, &c. the preposition '*in*' is used; and many other words denoting time must be governed by the prepositions '*at*,' '*on*,' &c. ('*At sunrise*,' '*at twelve o'clock*,' &c.; '*on Wednesday*.')

(*a*) 'He goes to church *every Sunday*.' But indefinitely; 'he goes to church *on Sundays*.'

(*b*) It will be seen that both a *point of time* ('he came *yesterday*') and *duration* of time ('he lived here *two years*') are put in the accusative.

398 The phrase *so many years old*, is sometimes put under the government of a preposition. "*From a month old to five years old*[5]." "An heifer *of three years old*[6]."

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[5] Lev. xxvii. 6.

[6] Isa. xv. 5.

(*a*) '*To be turned* (seven),' &c. is an idiomatical expression for having *completed* the age of seven years.

(A Sentence.)

(1) From what has been said, it appears that every sentence must contain a *subject* and a *predicate;* in other words, a *nominative* and a *verb.* 399

(2) Again, every substantive in the sentence may have a word or phrase joined to it *attributively.*

(3) Lastly, the verb and every adjective in the sentence may have one or more notions made dependent upon it; i. e. *joined to it objectively.*

To take an example: 400

'Henry wrote.' [Add an *object* to the predicate.] 'Henry wrote *a letter.*' [Add a notion *attributively* to both substantives.] 'The *anxious* Henry wrote a *long* letter.' [Add notions *objectively* to both adjectives.] 'Henry, anxious *to hear from him,* wrote a *very* long letter.' [Add a notion objectively to the verb.] 'Henry, anxious to hear from him, *immediately* wrote a very long letter.' [Add another notion to the verb *objectively,* and another to the substantive *attributively.*] '*His cousin* Henry, anxious to hear from him, immediately wrote a very long letter *to him.*' And so on.

"Hence every sentence, to whatever extent the relations which it comprehends may have been multiplied, is composed of only three kinds of combinations, the *predicative, attributive,* and *objective.*" (Becker.) 401

§ iv. *On Compound Sentences* (from Becker).

402 Two sentences are connected either by way of *subordination*, or by way of *co-ordination*.

403 A sentence is *subordinate* to another, when it can be considered as standing in place of a *substantive*, *adjective*, or *adverb*, belonging to that sentence.

(1) He reported | *that the king was dead.*
He reported | *the death of the king.*

(2) The trees, | *which were planted by me,* are growing.
The trees | *planted by me* are growing.

(3) He was at work | *before the sun rose.*
He was at work | *early.*

In (1) the first sentence, '*that the king was dead*,' stands as a substantive, and may be called a *substantive accessory sentence*; in (2) '*which were planted by me*,' stands as an adjective to *trees*, and is an *adjective accessory sentence*; in (3), '*before the sun rose*,' stands as an *adverb* marking the *time* of his being at work, and is an *adverbial accessory sentence*.

404 Two sentences are connected by way of *co-ordination*, when they are not dependent one upon another in this manner.

(*a*) The conjunctions or conjunctional words that join a sentence *subordinately*, are generally *relative* words referring to a *demonstrative* in the other sentence, which, however, is often omitted.

(1) I know | *what* you mean = I know *that*, *what* you mean.
(2) I found it | *where* I left it = I found it *there*, *where* I left it.

(*b*) Such subordinate conjunctional words as are not

relatives referring to a demonstrative pronoun or adjective expressed or understood, are either *demonstratives* referring to a relative understood, or mere *prepositions*, the demonstrative and the relative being both understood.

Thus '*before* you came' = before *the* time *when* you came.
— '*since* you came' = since *the* time *when* you came.

Here *before* and *since* are prepositions that have acquired a conjunctional power.

Substantive Accessory Sentences.

Substantive accessory sentences are either sen- 405
tences introduced by '*that*,' or sentences introduced by *interrogatives*.

(*a*) (Accessory sentences introduced by interrogatives are treated of in 464, sqq.)

'*That*' connects three kinds of subordinate sen- 406
tences:

(1) Sentences that stand in apposition to a nominative or accusative expressed or understood in the principal sentence.

(2) Sentences that express a *purpose*.

(3) Sentences that express an *effect* or *consequence*.

Obs. When '*that*' introduces a *purpose*, it is 407
followed by *may* or *might*: when it introduces an *effect* or *consequence*, it refers to a *so* or *such* in the principal sentence.

Examples. 408

(1) '*It* is strange | *that you think so.*' Here the clause '*that you think so*' is in apposition to *it*; i. e. *this thing*.

'I am glad | *that you are come*' = I am glad of *this*; namely, *that you are come*.

(2) 'I am come, *that I may see it with my own eyes*' (purpose).

(3) 'The noise was *such, that I could not hear a word*' (consequence).

409 Many verbs that express *operations* and *feelings* of the *mind*, are followed by sentences introduced by '*that*.'

(*a*) Such verbs are to *think*, to *say*, to *know*, to *believe*, to *remember*, to *wish*, to *rejoice*, to be *glad*, to be *sorry*, to *wonder*, &c.

(*b*) After these verbs the clause with '*that*' may be considered as the *accusative*, in apposition to a demonstrative understood.

'I wonder | that you say so' = I wonder at *this*; namely, *that you say so.*

410 When '*that*' is followed by *should*, the verb with *should* is *either* the *future* in the form it takes after a *past tense*; or the *conditional* used for the *indicative*, to avoid positiveness of expression (see 175).

'He said that he *should come*' (*future*).

'It is strange that you *should* say so' (= that you say so, is strange; *or*, your *saying* so is strange).

ADJECTIVE SENTENCES (or, *Accessory Sentences that are equivalent to an Attributive Adjective*).

411 Adjective accessory sentences are introduced by a *relative pronoun*, referring to a *demonstrative* adjective pronoun, expressed or understood in the principal sentence.

(*a*) The substantive to which the relative refers is called the *antecedent* (from *antecedere*, to go before).

412 The relative agrees with its antecedent in *number* and *person*; but not in *case.*

'He, who *says* this, cannot be mistaken.'
'I, who *say* this, am sure that it is so.'
'Thou, who *dwellest*,' &c.

The *case* of the *relative* depends on its position in its own clause. 413

The pronoun to which *whoever*, *whosoever*, is generally omitted, even when it would be under the government of a preposition. 414

'Elizabeth publicly threatened that she would have the head of *whoever* had advised it.'

(*a*) *What* (= *that which*) may also follow a preposition in the preceding clause.

It is generally convenient to use '*that*' after superlatives, after the interrogative *who*, and when both *persons* and *things* are referred to. 415

'*That*' is generally used as the relative to *the same*, when the relative is not under the government of a preposition. 416

(*a*) Middleton does not observe this rule.

'*But*' is sometimes equivalent to a relative with *not* after negative sentences. 417

"There is nothing born *but* has to die."

(*a*) The personal pronoun is sometimes expressed ("There is scarce any matter of duty, *but it* concerns them both alike"): and sometimes *but* = *that — not*, introducing a *consequence*, after a negative sentence.

"No cliff so bare, *but* on its steep
Thy favours may be found."—*Wordsworth.*

'*That*' is used after expressions of *time* instead of a relative governed by a preposition. 418

"In the day *that* thou eatest thereof, thou shalt surely die."

(*a*) The *that* is sometimes omitted. "From the day *the king departed* till," &c.[7]

[7] 2 Sam. x. 24.

419 '*As*' is the proper relative word after *such*.

"There are in these writings *such* inconsistencies and contradictions, *as* are sufficient to blast their authority."

(*a*) We may suppose this use of '*as*' to have arisen from an ellipse of the object of comparison.

'Such inconsistencies *as (those inconsistencies which)* are sufficient, &c.

420 The relative pronoun is often omitted in English; never in Latin.

'Æneas left Troy the very night it was taken.'

421 The relative pronoun is often under the government of a preposition at the end of a sentence.

(*a*) When a relative under the government of a pronoun is omitted, the preposition which would govern the relative is still used.

'The proposition you object *to* is not mine.'

(*b*) An absurd rule has been given, that the preposition should *not* stand last in a proposition. In the relative clause this is very frequently the best place for it; so that it cannot be prefixed to the relative without spoiling the flow of the sentence.

"What is it, therefore, *that* I must now exhort you *to*?"—Middleton.

422 The Infinitive often stands as the sole verb in a relative sentence, to express the *purpose*. "Nothing else is given us, by which *to ascertain* or *enter into* it" (= by which *we may as certain* it, &c.). Here the Infin. = an abridged accessory sentence (367).

(*a*) The relative is often omitted: and here too (see 421, *a*) if the relative would have been governed by a *preposition*, it is retained. Its place is at the end of the sentence.

'He sought a place *to lie in*' (= in which he might lie). 'For old men life has no new story to make them smile' (= *which might* make them smile). 'He gave me a knife to cut *with*.'

Relative adverbs are often used for relative pronouns under the government of prepositions. 423

"We met a servant at the door with a small basket of fruit, which he was carrying into a grove, *where* he said his master was with the two strangers."

§ v. *Adverbial Accessory Sentences.*

Such accessory sentences as stand in the relation of *place*, *time*, or *manner*, are termed *adverbial accessory sentences.* 424

(*a*) ☞ An adverbial sentence is very often *abridged* by the omission of its *subject* and *verb*. Thus '*when*' often stands immediately before a substantive or adjective, which is really the *predicate* of an *abridged accessory sentence.*

'Newton, *when intent* upon working out a problem, used sometimes to leave his dinner untasted for hours' (= when he *was* intent).

Time.

Co-existence with another action or state is marked by *when*, *as*, *whilst*; and, for the whole continuance of the action or state, by *as long as*, *so long as.* 425

(*a*) The Participial Substantive under the government of *on*, *upon*, *after*, *in*, is equivalent to an adverbial accessory sentence of time. Here, therefore, the *Participial Substantive* (with its preposition) may be considered as equivalent to an *abridged accessory sentence* (367).

"*Upon examining his notes*, I find that in the whole he gives us but three various readings from Origen" (= *when I examine* his notes). See 477.

426 Relation to a preceding event is marked *indefinitely* by *after*, *since*.

'I saw him *after* he had left you' (*postquam*, Lat.).

427 The *immediate subsequence* of one event to another is marked by *no sooner — than*; *just — when*; *hardly — before*; *the moment*, *the instant*, *as soon as*, &c.

"He had *no sooner* reviewed the troops, *than* he received an account from Antiochus, that the Parthians had passed the Euphrates."

"We were *just* sitting down to supper, *when* a hasty rap alarmed us." "All these pleas are overruled *the moment* a lady adduces her irrefragable argument, *you must*." "My readers will *hardly* have begun to laugh, *before* they will be called upon to correct that levity, and peruse me with a more serious air." "*As soon as* our visitor was gone, I asked what the company thought of him."

(*a*) The *principal* sentence is that which describes the *subsequent* event.

428 The *speedy*, but not *immediate* subsequence of one event to another, is marked by *not long—before*; *not long — when*; *soon after*; *not long after*; *a short time after*, &c.

"She had *not* been *long* seated in her pew, *before* she was attacked with the most excruciating pains."

429 Relation to a following event is marked indefinitely by *before*.

'I told you so *before* you came.'

430 Relation to a following event, *up to which* the action or state is to continue, is marked by *till*, *until*.

It has been mentioned that the English idiom does not *require* us to mark the *futurity* of the second event. In the English Bible the conditional form (167, *b*) of the present is used. "*Occupy till I come*." Luke xix. 13.

431 The constant co-existence of two events is marked by *whenever*, and sometimes by *when*.

When has often a *conditional* force; not *in itself*, 432
but because a promise (for instance) to do a thing *when* an event takes place, comes to the same thing as a promise to do it, *if* that event should take place.

'*When* he begs my pardon, I will forgive him;' = 'I will forgive him, *if* he begs my pardon.'

Whilst has often an *adversative* force; i. e. points 433
out the *co-existence* and *co-duration* of two things that should not co-exist.

'He is living in luxury, *whilst* his poor tenants are starving.'

Adverbial Sentences of Comparison.

The conjunctions of comparison are, '*than*,' to 434
mark *excess* or *defect*; '*as*,' to mark equality.

The pronoun '*that*' is used as a substitute 435
for a noun which would otherwise occur in each clause.

'The song of the nightingale is more various than *that* of the thrush;' i. e. than *the song* of the thrush.

As — as, affirm equality in degree; *so — as*, are 436
now generally used when the principal sentence is *negative*.

'This is *as* good *as* that.' 'This is not *so* good *as* that.'

Equality in *manner* is expressed by *so — as*; but 437
the *so* is generally omitted, except when the sentence with *as* is placed first.

'He speaks *as* he thinks.' '*As* he thinks, *so* he speaks.'

When any thing is affirmed to be *great* or 438
small, not *in itself*, but with reference to some other thing with which it is compared; that thing

is governed by '*for* ;' or, if it be a sentence, is put in the infinitive mood.

'This is a good exercise *for a boy of nine years old.*' 'This is an unusually high office, *to be held* by a foreigner.'

(*a*) When the infinitive has a subject of its own, '*for*' must be used. 'This is an unusually high office *for* a foreigner to hold.'

439 When a quality is said to exist in *too high a degree*, with reference to something with which it is compared, the object of comparison, if a substantive, is governed by '*for* ;' if a preposition, is put in the infinitive mood.

'This exercise is *too good to be the performance of so young a boy.*' 'That task is *too* laborious *for me.*'

(*a*) Like other predicates, phrases of this construction may be used attributively. 'He showed me an exercise *too good to be the performance of so young a boy.*'

(*b*) If the infinitive has a subject of its own, *for* must be inserted.

'It is *too* late *for* me to begin Greek.'

440 If the comparison be made by the comparative '*more*,' instead of '*too*,' '*than*' must be used.

'I had more prudence *than* to take her counsel.'

441 After *do*, the *to* of the infinitive will be omitted in a sentence of this kind.

"He had done little more than *cast* a bridge across the chaos over which he ruled."

(*a*) So when *but* follows *do* with a negative, the *to* is omitted.

'He did nothing but *laugh.*'

Proportionate equality is marked by *the*—*the* with comparatives. 442

'*The more* you study, *the more* you will learn.'

The verb *to do* is used in the second clause of a comparative sentence, as a substitute for the other verb. 443

(*a*) Cobbett supposes this to be wrong, except where the tense of the verb *to do* may be considered as the *auxiliary verb*, and so might be completed by expressing the participle; e. g. 'I don't work so hard as I formerly *did*,' i. e. *did work*. But our best writers use it as the regular substitute for the principal verb.

"He examined me closer than my judge *had done*" (= *had examined* me). Landor.

Cause.

The conjunctions that express a *cause* are—*as*, *because*, *since*, *for*. 444

There are two kinds of causes: a cause that produces an *effect*; and a *cause* (or more properly a *reason*) from which we infer a *conclusion*. 445

(*a*) In other words, we may infer the cause from the effect, or the effect from the cause; and in both cases we use the same particles.

"The brook will be very high, *for* a great deal of rain fell last night." "A great deal of rain must have fallen last night *for* the brook is very high." Whateley.

(*b*) *Because* is, however, principally used of a *cause* in the strict sense; *since* of a *reason*.

Under the causes that produce an effect, are included moral causes; that is, *motives*. 446

'I will do it, *because* you wish it.' '*Since* you wish it, I will.'

Condition.

A *real* condition is that which is necessary to the happening of an event. 447

(*a*) Hence every *cause* is a *condition;* but every condition is not a cause.

(*b*) As distinguished, however, from a cause, a condition is *that which is necessary to the happening of an event, without being in any way the* cause *of it.*

448 A logical condition is a limitation by which we make our assertion of the truth of any proposition depend upon something else.

(*a*) The conditional particle is *if.* The sentence with *if* is called the *conditional clause;* the sentence without *if*, the *consequent clause*, or simply the *consequence.*

449 '*If*' is often omitted. The conditional clause will then take the verb before its nominative case, and thus assume the form of a direct question.

'Had you told me this, I would have called upon him.'

450 '*Had*' is often used for '*would have*' in the consequence.

[So in Lat. the *pluperfect indic.* for the *pluperfect subj.*]

"If Pompey had fallen by the chance of war on the plains of Pharsalia, in the defence of his country's liberty, he *had died* still glorious, though unfortunate."

451 The conditional clause is sometimes expressed as a question.

"Is any man pinched with hard want? Charity, if it cannot succour, it will condole."

452 The conditional clause is often put in the form of a command (in the *imperative* mood).

'Prove that to me, and I will be satisfied.' [*If* you *prove* that to me, I will be satisfied.]

Provided (*that*) and *so* (*that*) are also conditional particles. 453

(*a*) To which may be added, the Imperative *suppose* (*that*), and the forms '*in case*,' and '*in the event of*' (with a participial substantive).

(*b*) *Unless* and *except* denote a condition without which the consequence *cannot* (or *could not*) follow.

(*c*) *But* (*that*) may also be used *conditionally*: e.g. 'A convent would have been her choice, *but* (*that*) she feared its idleness and ennui.'

'*If*' is omitted before *were*. A negative or preventive clause is introduced by '*were it not for*,' &c.; or, '*were it not that*,' &c. 454

Thus, '*were I to say* this' = '*if I should say* this.'

'*If*' is often followed by the conditional forms (mentioned 167, *b*), but it is not necessary to use these forms, except where the contingency is to be strongly marked. 455

Adversative Accessory Sentences.

By *adversative* sentences are meant those that seem to have a kind of opposition between them, the assertion in the principal sentence being one which the fact asserted in the subordinate sentence would lead us not to expect. 456

(*a*) Adversative propositions are connected by *though* (or *although*) — *yet*; or by the single adversative conjunctions, *though*, *but*, *however*, &c.

(*b*) *Yet* is often omitted after *though*.

Whoever, *whatever*, *however*, &c. have often an adversative force. 457

The first of two *adversative* propositions is often thrown into an *imperative* form; and sometimes into the form of a comparative sentence of equality. 458

"Remove a devil where you will, he is still in hell" (= *though* you were to remove a devil . . . . he would *still be in* hell).

"*As shallow as you think them* (or, *shallow as you think them*), they may probably be full of deep, recondite senses" (= *though you may think them very shallow*).

(*a*) A participial substantive under the government of '*without*' often stands in an adversative relation.

"He sets up for a critic, *without understanding* a word of the original language" (= *though he does not understand*).

(*b*) So also *substantives* governed by *with, without:* 'A book may be very amusing *with* numerous errours (= *though it contain* numerous errours): or it may be very dull *without* a single absurdity.'

Purpose: Consequence. The Conjunction 'that.'
(Compare 405—411.)

459 A *purpose* may be expressed by '*that*,' with '*may*' or '*might*,' or by the *infinitive mood.*

(*a*) [It must be remembered that the infinitive mood never expresses the *purpose* in Latin prose.]

460 If an infinitive mood expressing the *purpose* is to have a *subject* which is not that of the principal verb, the preposition 'for' must be used.

'I have brought this *for* you to look at.'

(*a*) The infinitive expressing the purpose is often said to be used *absolutely*, when it stands at the head of a sentence, as in the following examples:

'*To confess the truth*, I was grossly mistaken.' '*To speak properly and strictly*, nothing can begin to be.' 'But, *to turn to another matter*, I had said,' &c.

461 Instead of the simple infinitive, we sometimes find the infinitive after '*in order*,' '*with intent*,' &c.; and a purpose may also be expressed by '*for the purpose of*,' '*with the intention of*,' &c. with the participial substantive.

462 A *consequence* is expressed by '*that*' after '*so*,' '*such*,' &c. or by the *infinitive mood* after '*as*.'

(*a*) The demonstrative pronoun '*that*' is sometimes used for '*such*.'

"Few or none of the proconsuls behaved themselves with *that* exact justice, *as to leave* no room for complaint." Middleton.

(*a*) Sometimes the consequence is placed first, and the reason follows as (in form) an independent proposition.

"The other basket had very naughty figs, which could not be eaten, *they were so bad*." Jer. xxiv. 2.

A *consequence* to be guarded against (i. e. a negative purpose) is expressed by '*lest*,' or '*that not*.' 463

"His greatest concern was, *lest* his brother and nephew should hurt themselves, rather than him, by their perfidy."

Dependent Interrogative Sentences.

A question depending on another verb is introduced by interrogative pronouns, or by the conjunction *whether* (sometimes *if*). 464

If a dependent question consists of two members, of which if either is asserted, the other must be denied, they are connected by *whether — or*. 465

(*a*) There is another use of *whether — or*, which must be distinguished from this. The use referred to is, when the speaker or writer leaves it undecided, which of two suppositions or names is the correct one. *Whether* has then nearly the force of '*if either*.'

'*Whether* you are a friend *or* a foe, I shall disregard your words' (sive — sive).

(*b*) When the second question is only the negative of the first, it may be expressed by '*or not*' or '*or no*.'

"It is in the power of the will, *whether* it will suffer the understanding thus to dwell upon such objects, *or no*."

466 Interrogative pronouns and particles are often found with an infinitive mood.

(*a*) This is never done in Latin.

'I know not *what to do*.' 'Quid faciam nescio.'

'I am at a loss *how to act*.'

467 The preposition that governs the interrogative pronoun often stands after the verb.

"*What* are you smiling at, Tate."

Participles.

468 Participles (and all attributives) assume an assertion. Thus, when I say, 'Balbus, having a sword, drew it;' besides stating that he drew his sword, I mention that he *had* one.

469 Whenever it is necessary or convenient to do so, the assertion thus assumed may be formally stated; e. g. 'Balbus, *who had a sword*, drew it.'

470 Hence participles may often be resolved into *adjective* or *adverbial accessory* sentences.

That is, into relative sentences; or sentences introduced by *when, as, if, for, though, after*, &c.

"This is not mine; it is a plaything *lent* me for the present, I must leave it soon" (a plaything *that is lent me*). "*Returning* in a few minutes, I missed him" (*when* I returned). "Already *overwhelmed* with despair, I was not yet sunk into the bottom of the *gulf*" (*though* I was already overwhelmed, &c.). "Baptized children, *dying* in their infancy, are certainly saved" (*if* they die, &c.).

471 A participle may often be turned into a verb of the same tense, &c. as the principal verb of the sentence.

"His ashes *being conveyed* to Rome, were deposited in a vault of his Alban villa" (*were conveyed* to Rome, *and* deposited).

(*a*) Conversely, a verb may often be turned into a participle; and by this change we may get rid of too many verbs connected by '*and*.'

472 It has been before mentioned, that the relative time of two connected actions is not so precisely marked in English as in Latin. We have an instance of this in the use of our *present participle*, even when the action expressed by the participle must precede that expressed by the verb.

"And he, *leaping up*, stood and walked, and entered with them into the temple" (i. e. *having leapt up*, he stood).

473 Particles of *time*, *condition*, &c. are often joined to participles and adjectives.

(*a*) A participle so used may be considered an *abridged adverbial* sentence.

"I shall enlarge upon the happiness of retirement, *when managed* as it ought to be." "He will extend his care to the outposts, *as knowing* that, when these are gone, it may be difficult to preserve the rest."

474 A participle is sometimes equivalent to a substantive, though much less commonly so than in Latin.

"The Roman soldier, after much valour *shown*, swam back safe to his general" (after *showing* much valour; after the *exhibition* of much valour).

475 When a noun substantive or substantive-pronoun stands with a participle in a sentence, with the general construction of which it is totally unconnected, it is said to be put *absolutely*.

"The two *armies* being thus *employed*, Cælius began to publish several violent and odious laws."

(*a*) A noun and participle put absolutely, are an *abridged sentence*, and may be resolved into

a sentence introduced by the proper conjunction or adverb.

476 When a participle only is so resolved, the nominative of the new sentence will be either a substantive that already stands in the principal one, or a pronoun representing such a substantive. But when a substantive and participle *put absolutely* are so resolved, the nominative of the new sentence will *not* be a substantive that stands already in the principal one.

(*a*) The particle '*being*' is sometimes understood.

"*The wisdom* or *the want of wisdom*, that we observe, or think we observe, in those that rule us, *entirely out of the question*, I cannot look upon," &c. Cowper.

477 Abridgment of sentences by the *participial substantive*.

Participial substantives are, as we have seen, often equivalent to abridged accessory sentences: e. g.

(*a*) *To abridged substantive sentences.*] The true test of a great man is *his having been* in advance of his age (= *that he has been*, &c.).

(*b*) I cannot deny *being the* author of this work (= that I am the author, &c.).—In the former instance it is virtually the *nominative;* in the latter the *accusative.*

(*c*) *To abridged accessory sentences of time.*] Here *at, after, on, upon*, &c. are used.—The silkworm *after having spun* her task, lays her eggs and dies (= *when she has laid*, &c.). *In buying goods* it is best to pay ready money = (when one buys goods, &c.) See 425 (*a*).

(*d*) *To an adverbial sentence of manner.*] This occurs after *without*. To bear one's hard fate *without repining* (= *in such a* manner *as not to* repine).

(*e*) *To a causal accessory sentence.*] Here *by, for* are used. The boy was scolded *for coming* too late to school (= *because he came*). William the Conqueror caused a considerable change in the speech of the nation *by introducing* his French.

QUESTIONS ON THE ACCIDENCE.

How many letters has the English language?—Name them. Which are vowels? What is the meaning of a vowel? What is a diphthong?—Mention the proper diphthongs. Can a consonant be sounded by itself? Explain what is meant by the organs of speech. Point out in the following words where *w* and *y* are consonants, and where vowels: *beyond, ready, awake, awe, blew.*

What is a substantive? What is an adjective? What is an article? Which is the definite, which the indefinite article? What is a verb? What is a participle? What is an adverb? What is a pronoun? What is a preposition? What is a conjunction? [Mention some substantives. Mention all the substantives you can see in the room. Add an adjective to ———. Say something about ———. What is the principal word you have used to say this? Add an adverb to *great;* to *shines;* to *fierce.*]

What are *common* nouns? By what other name are they called? What are *proper names?* What is an *abstract* noun? What is a *concrete* noun? What is a *collective* noun, or *noun of multitude?*

How is the plural generally formed? Have abstract nouns, *when used as such,* any plural? Mention some nouns that have no singular. Have the *names of materials* any plural?

When is the plural formed in *es?* What is often the plural of nouns in *f, fe?* When is *y* changed into *ie* before the *s* of the plural?

(*Genitive Case.*)

What is the only English case formed by *inflexion?* How is the genitive formed? What is the genitive of a plural noun ending in *s?* Can *King-of-England* be put in the genitive? How?

[Should the genitive plural properly have an apostrophe after the final *s?* Why not? How old is the present fashion? How was the *king's crown* often written in the seventeenth century?]

(*Degrees of Comparison.*)

What is the comparative degree of an adjective? What is the superlative degree of an adjective? What is the *ending* of the comparative degree? What ending marks the superlative degree? What adjective must not be changed in this way? When is an adjective said to be in the positive? What adverbs are used to give a comparative and a superlative meaning to adjectives which do not take the ending *er, est?* Give the comparative and superlative of *good, bad, little, much, many.* Give the superlatives of *late, near.* Mention some superlatives ending in *most.*

[Should we write *further, furthest,* or *farther, farthest?* What words of quantity are used with comparatives and superlatives? Explain the *superlative* of *eminence.* Mention some adjectives that are often found in company with superlatives.]

[What does Buttmann say of pronouns? What does he consider to be the peculiarity that entitles a word to be reckoned amongst the pronouns?]

GO THROUGH THE PRONOUNS.

What are the pronouns of the first, second, third persons? When do you use *my?* when *mine?*

When are pronouns called reflexive? What are the reflexive forms of the first, second, and third persons? How is *his* made reflexive?

What pronouns are *this* and *that* called? Which points out the object nearest to the speaker? Which is equivalent to the *latter?* In alluding to a coming statement would you use *this* or *that?* Is *such* a demonstrative? May you say, 'such flimsy excuses?'

What are the relative pronouns? Why called relatives? What is the relative *what* equivalent to? Enumerate the compound relative pronouns. Mention the interrogative pronouns. What pronoun was formerly used to ask which of *two* things? What word stands before *which* in the Bible? What forms are used as reciprocal pronouns?

When are numerals called definite? When indefinite? Mention some of the indefinite numerals. May *each* be used to denote *each of more than two?* Are *each* and *every* singular or plural? What are the meanings of *either?* To how many objects do *either* and *neither* refer? What peculiarity is there in the use of *many?* of *few?*

[Point out where number is meant, and where quantity, in the following examples: much beef; many eggs; a few peas; all the house; no chicken, I thank you; I have no chickens left; have you any split peas? any ham? any mutton? any lead? Will you take any ham? Have you lead enough?—What is the meaning of 'some fifty years ago?']

What does Dr. Johnson say about *enough?* what part of speech is it? with what words is it used substantively? where is it generally placed? is it ever used adverbially? Give an instance. Does *other* ever take a plural? When? Does *one* ever take a plural? When? Where does *only* (generally) and *alone* (always) stand? Mention some other words that are allied to indefinite numerals.

What do numerals denote? Mention some numeral substantives. What are the *cardinal* numbers? What are the *ordinal* numbers? What are *multiplicatives?* Mention some numeral adverbs. Turn *four thousand eight hundred and two* into the corresponding ordinal number. Turn *forty-five, two hundred and seven,* into the corresponding ordinals. Is it right to say, 'the *two first* declensions?'

Do the words 'Brutus stabbed,' convey a complete meaning? [Add: I have cut; the horse has kicked; I will throw; we have caught.] What are those verbs called which convey an incomplete meaning? Is there a complete meaning, in 'I shall go?' [Birds fly. Fishes swim. Dogs bark. The clock stands.]

'I go to-day;' for 'to-day' put 'yesterday.' [Add *yesterday* to the following verbs, with the necessary alteration: I laugh; I think; I shall take (courage); my legs ache; my horse is in the stable; I shall dig my garden over; I shall sow some mignionette; I shall buy a pencil.] Have you been obliged to alter the form of the verb? What are such alterations of the form of a verb called? 'I went to Coventry, yesterday.' For *yesterday* put *to-morrow.* [I bought a new hat. He killed his prisoners. He paid him a visit. He went a shooting.] Is the preterite formed by *inflexion,* or not? Is the future formed by *inflexion,* or not? How is the future formed?

I think: for *I* put *he.* What change have you made in the verb? He *comes:* what person is *comes?* They *come;* you *come;* thou *comest.* For *I* put *thou,* in *I* refer [compel, compelled, delay, moved, move, see, run, put, bid, lead, led, try, buy]. Put *he* in the same examples.

Which *person* is seldom used? What is used for it? What peculiarity of language do the Quakers observe? In what did the third person singular formerly end?

What is a participle? How does it differ from an adjective? How many participles do we form by *inflexion?* What are they?

In what does the *present participle* always end? In what does the *past participle* generally end? When has the *past participle* a passive meaning? When has it an *active meaning?* Are the past participles used to form any tenses of the *active* voice? With what verbs? When is the final consonant of the verb to be *doubled*, before *ing* is added to form the present participle? Form the present participle of *lie, die, see, lay.*

Give all the forms for present time. When is *I do write* used instead of *I write?* Which of the forms for present time express habits, general truths, &c.? In what case may we use the present tense of assertions made in books? For what tense is the present sometimes used? What is the name of the form, *I have written?* When is the *perfect definite*, or *present-perfect*, used? Does *I have been writing*, imply that I have now given over writing?

What are the forms for past time? Why are *I wrote*, and *I did write*, called indefinite? Which of the past tenses are used to express habits, &c.?

Mention the forms for future time. Explain the difference between *shall* and *will.* Are the following right or wrong? Why? 'I will be killed: nobody shall come to help me.' 'They say they shall give me the place.'

What are the moods of a verb? What does the indicative mood express? the subjunctive? the imperative? the infinitive? Is the infinitive properly a mood?

Mention the compound participles of the active voice. What infinitives are sometimes used as participles? What is the force of the infinitive passive when used participially?

What does the imperative express besides *commands?* Point out its uses in the following: *Kill him; Don't hurt me; Go, and success attend you; Come back* as soon as you can; *Take* it then if you like.

What verbs have, and what have not, a passive voice? Of what are the forms that serve for the passive voice made up in English?

What may *I am* with the past participle be, besides the present passive? 'Patents are preparing:' is '*are preparing*' active or passive? Explain the origin of this form. When only can it be used?—'My friends are gone:' tell the voice and tense of '*are gone*.' What is the general meaning of the verbs that form a *perfect definite*[1], or *present perfect*, with *am* and the past participle?

With what do the participial substantives agree in form? How may they be distinguished from the participles? Can they govern a case? Are they ever followed by *of?*

GO THROUGH THE VERB 'TO DEFEND.'

(*Particles.*)

What forms signify: *in this place? in that place? in which place? from which place? from that place? to that place? to what place?* What do adverbs ending in *ward, wards,* signify? Enumerate the prepositions; the conjunctions. Give an instance of an *adverbial* phrase; a *prepositional* phrase; a *conjunctional* phrase.

Which consonants are called *mutes?* which *liquids?* Repeat the corresponding pairs of *sharp* and *flat* consonants. Go through the *p, k,* and *t* sounds.

What are the two principal ways of forming the *preterites* and past participles of verbs? Which of these is the *ancient* (or *strong*), and which the *modern* (or *weak*) form?

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[1] 'When I was come near Piræus, Acidinus's boy met me. All the rest, they said, *were* fled.'

Form the plural of *phenomenon, seraph, radius, crisis, genus, hypothesis, beau, arcanum, stratum, vortex, genius* (man of genius), *automaton, metamorphosis.*

Express by single words: *not-lovely, not-generous;* to *take-wrongly;* to *stand-against* (a person); to *bid* (him) *not to do* (a thing).

Form abstract nouns in *th* or *t*, from *wide, deep, slow, warm, dear, high, broad, young;* from *grow, steal, bear* (to bring forth), *weigh, fly.* Form nouns in *hood, dom,* or *ship,* from *free, king, guardian, fellow, brother, steward, sister, man, child, likely, false, worth, neighbour.* Form substantives in *ity* from *admissible, amiable, culpable, indivisible, eligible, feasible, possible.* Form substantives in *ness,* from *white, bashful, poor, rich, yellow.*

Form adjectives in *ful* from *joy, fruit, youth, care, use, beauty, delight, plenty;* in *some,* from *trouble, burthen, toil, full;* in *y,* from *wealth, health, might, worth, earth, hand, heart;* in *en,* from *earth, wood, silk, brass, leather, gold;* in *less,* from *wealth, comfort, help, heart.*

Form nouns to express the *doer* from *hunt, visit, govern, rob.* Form verbs in *en* from *light, quick, haste;* in *ize,* from *human, tranquil, Christian, harmony.*

Form *diminutives* from *man, goose, hill, dear.*

QUESTIONS ON THE SYNTAX.

The Predicative Combination.

1. WHAT is the subject of a proposition? what the predicate? 2. When the verb *to be* joins the subject to the predicate, what is it called? 3. To what is the *infin. passive* equivalent, when it follows *is*, *are*, &c.? (311.) 4. How many and what meanings has the infin. pass. in this use of it? 5. Explain the idiom, 'he *is to come*.' (312.) 6. When the infin. mood or a sentence stands as the nom., what is generally its place in the sentence, and what stands as the *apparent* nominative to the verb? (319.) 7. When may a noun of multitude take a plural verb? (315.) 8. What number should the verb be in after *couple*, *dozen*, *score*, *pair*? [In the sing. after *pair*, in the plur. with the others.] 9. When the verb *to be* is itself the predicate, what *adverb* goes with it, and where does it stand? (318.) 10. When an infinitive has a subject of its own, by what is it preceded? [By *for*.] 11. Make *you* emphatic in '*you did it*.' [*It was you* who did it.] 12. Make *nobody* emphatic in '*nobody thinks* so.' ['*There is nobody*, who thinks so.'] 13. May '*it is*' be followed by a plural noun? [Yes (323).] 14. What verbs are followed by a *nom.*?

[Verbs of *becoming*, *being*, *seeming*,
And passive verbs of *making*, *calling*, *deeming*.]

15. What may these verbs be called? [*Copulative* verbs.]

16. What verbs are sometimes used as strengthened copulas, instead of *to be*? [*To go*; *to lie*; *to stand*; *to grow*, &c.]

17. When does the nominative follow the verb? (327.) 18. What is the meaning of the idiom, 'there is *no bearing* this?' ['This *cannot be* borne.'] 18*. May other parts of speech be used substantively? [Yes (330).] 19. What are the

two kinds of *questions?* (331.) 20. In a question of *appeal*, if there is a *not* in it, is the expected answer '*yes*' or '*no*'? [Yes.]

Attributive Combination.

21. When is a notion said to be joined to a substantive *attributively?* 22. May a substantive be used *adjectively?* [Yes, when it stands immediately before a substantive.] 23. Which case is nearly an *adjective* in use? [The *genitive* is nearly a *possessive adjective* in use (337).] 24. When is a substantive said to be in *apposition* to another? 25. With what words do we use '*of*,' though the second substantive is in apposition to the first? [After *city, town, island;* but not after *river.*] 26. Explain 'a picture of the king's.' ['One of the king's pictures;' *or* 'a picture belonging to the king.'] 27. 'I am going to St. Paul's'—what word is omitted in this sentence? [The word *church.*] 28. By what kind of sentence may an *apposition*, or other attributive be resolved? [By a relative sentence.] 29. Is *every* sing. or plural? 30. When does *every* go with a plural noun? [In such phrases as '*every three years.*'] 31. In what relation does a substantive governed by '*of*,' stand, when joined to another substantive? [In the relation of the *genitive* case.] 32. Explain the *objective* genitive. (349.)

Objective Combination.

33. What is, in the strictest sense, the *object* in grammar? [The accusative after the transitive verb.] 33*. What other notions are considered as *objective* factors? [Every notion referred to a verb or adjective.] 34. Is the pass. verb followed by an accusative? [No.] 35. What exceptions are there to this? [The acc. after such forms as *put an end*, which are equivalent to single verbs, may follow them in the passive; and *ask, teach, offer, promise, pay, tell, allow, deny, vouchsafe*, &c. are sometimes followed by an accusative.] 36. Is there any other exception? [The infin. stands as an accus. after some passive verbs (356, 3).] 37. What change of meaning do some verbs undergo when prepositions are added to them *objectively?* [From *intransitive* they become *transitive.*] 38. To what parts of speech is the infinitive joined objectively? (361.) 39. What classes of verbs are

followed by the *infinitive*, or *accus.* with *infinitive?* (362.) 40. Explain the idiom '*I would have you go.*' ['I would *wish* you to go' (369). 41. Explain the idiom, 'I *have* to do so and so.' ['It is my *task* or *duty* to do so:' or 'I *must* do so.'] 42. What verbs are followed by two accusatives? [*Copulative* verbs; i. e. those that in the passive are followed by a *nominative.*] 43. Do any other verbs take a second accusative? [Yes; such as, with their own notion, involve the notion of *making* a thing what the second accus. denotes; e. g. 'to paint a door *green.*']

Cases, &c.

44. What is a *partitive?* [An adjective denoting a *part* of some larger number considered as a *whole.*] 45. What case follows *ordinal numerals* and other partitives? [A substantive governed by '*of,*' standing in the relative of the genitive case.] 46. Does '*of*' always mark the gen. relation? [No.] 47. Mention the principal uses of '*of,*' when it does not denote a genitive relation? [It often stands for *about, concerning, from*; and often introduces a *cause*, as in 'to die *of* hunger.'] 48. When does *to* not mark a *dative relation?* [After verbs of *motion.*] 49. What question should you ask yourself when a verb *seems* to govern two accusatives? [Whether one of them is not governed by *to* omitted, and thus stands in the relation of a dative.] 50. When does *with* not denote an ablative relation? [When it denotes merely *companionship.*] 51. Explain "he is a great bear *with* all his learning." [He is a great bear, *though* he possesses great learning: the *with* has here an adversative force.] 52. Explain such a construction as "to *think* himself *into* atheism." [It is equivalent to "to *bring* himself into atheism *by thinking.*" 53. In what case does the measure of *time* and *space* stand? [In the accusative.] 55. Is the phrase '*so many years old,*' ever put under the government of a preposition? (398.)

Compound Sentences.

56. When is a sentence considered as *subordinate* to another? [When it stands in the place of a *substantive, adjective*, or *adverb* belonging to the sentence.] 57. When are sentences

co-ordinate? [When they do not depend one upon another in this manner[1].]

Subordinate Sentences.

58. What sentences are *substantive* accessory sentences? [Sentences introduced by *that*, and dependent sentences introduced by an interrogative.] 59. What are the three kinds of sentences introduced by *that?* [*Apposition* sentences: sentences expressing a *purpose;* and sentences expressing a *consequence* —which follow *so* or *such.*] 60. Is '*that,*' ever omitted? [Yes, frequently after verbs of *feeling* and *declaring*[2]; such, that is, as denote operations and feelings of the mind, and the declaration of them[3].] 61. In what relations does *should* follow '*that?*' [It either denotes *duty;* or is the *future* after a *past tense;* or the *conditional* used for the *indicative,* to avoid positiveness of expression.] 62. What are *adjective* accessory sentences? [Relative sentences.] 63. In what respects does the relative *agree* with the antecedent? [In gender, number, and person, but not in *case.*] 64. To what is '*but*' sometimes equivalent, and when? [To a relative with *not* after negatives.] 65. How is *that* used after expressions of time? [As a relative governed by a *preposition.*] 66. What word is used as a relative after *such?* [*As.*] 67. Is the relative pronoun ever omitted in English? 68. Explain the use of *of, to,* in such sentences as the '*conduct you complain of;*' '*the man you spoke to.*' [*Of* and *to* refer to the relative pronoun omitted[4].] 69. How does the infinitive often stand in a relative clause? [As the only verb in it.] 70. What are often used for relative pronouns under the government of prepositions? [Relative adverbs.] 71. What are *adverbial* accessory sentences? [Such as stand in the relation of *place, time,* or *manner.*] 72. Are adverbial sentences ever *abridged* by the omission of the copula?

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[1] Hence with respect to a given sentence *subordination* is *inherence;* but *co-ordination* merely *co-herence,* or *external connection.*

[2] Sentiendi et declarandi.

[3] Such as *think, say, know, believe, remember, promise, doubt, fear,* &c.

[4] The conduct *of which* you complain.

[Yes.] 73. To what is such a phrase as '*upon* hearing this' equivalent? [To an adverbial sentence of time.] 74. To what is a sentence introduced by '*when*' often equivalent? [To a *conditional* sentence.] 75. To what is a sentence introduced by '*whilst*' often equivalent? [To an *adversative* sentence; that is, a sentence introduced by *though*.] 76. What pronoun is used in the second member of a comparative sentence, to denote a substantive already expressed in the first member? [That, *pl.* those.] 77. Explain the following idiomatic sentences:

(1) This is a hard task *for* a boy.
(2) This is a hard task *to be undertaken* without careful preparation.
(3) This task is too hard *for* a boy.
(4) This task is too hard *to be undertaken* without careful preparation.

78. Parse *make*, *laugh*, in the following sentences:

(1) He has done little more than *make* a beginning.
(2) He did nothing but *laugh*.

79. What verb is used in the second member of comparative sentences to denote a verb already expressed? [The verb *to do*.] 80. What conjunctions introduce a *cause* or *reason*? 81. What word is often omitted in a conditional clause? [*If*, especially before '*were*.'] 82. What tense is often used in the consequent clause, instead of *would* or *should have* — ? [The pluperfect indicative.] 83. How is the condition sometimes expressed? [Sometimes as a *question*, and sometimes in the imperative mood.] 84. Mention some other *conditional* particles and phrases. [*Provided*; *so*; *in case*; *in the event of*.]

Adversative Sentences.

85. What are the *adversative* conjunctions? 86. What pronouns and adverbs have often an adversative force? [*Whoever*, *whatever*, *however*, &c.] 87. What forms do adversative propositions sometimes assume? [Sometimes the first is in the imperative mood; sometimes in the form of a comparative sentence of equality.] 88. Is the participial substantive ever equivalent to an adversative clause? [Yes, when governed by the preposition *without*.]

Purpose: Consequence.

89. How is the *purpose* expressed? [By the infinitive mood; or by a *substantive* accessory sentence introduced by *that.*] 90. If the infin. of purpose has a *subject* which is not that of the principal verb, what preposition must be used? [*For.*] 91. What words are sometimes used with an infinitive, to express the purpose? ['*In order,*' '*with intent,*' &c.] 92. Does the participial substantive ever express the purpose? [Not itself; but it is often used with '*for the purpose* (of);' '*with the intention* (of).'] 93. How is a consequence expressed? [By a *substantive* accessory sentence introduced by '*that*' referring to a preceding '*so*' or '*such;*' or by the infinitive with '*as.*'] 94. What is sometimes used for '*such?*' [The demonstrative pron. '*that.*'] 95. How is a consequence to be guarded against (that is, a *negative purpose*) to be expressed? [By *lest* or *that—not,* with a *substantive* sentence.]

Dependent Interrogative Sentences.

96. What sort of sentences are introduced by *whether?* [Dependent interrogative sentences.] 97. What are the conjunctions for *double* interrogative sentences of this kind? [*Whether—or.*] 98. What word is sometimes used for *whether* in single dependent questions? [*If.*] 99. Has *whether—or* any other meaning? [Yes: *whether* is sometimes equivalent to '*if either;*' and '*whether—or*[5],' then leaves it undecided which of two statements or names is the correct one.] 100. Do interrogative pronouns and particles ever go with the infinitive mood? [Yes, in dependent clauses.]

Participles.

101. Into what sentences may participles often be resolved? [Into *adjective* (that is *relative*) or *adverbial* accessory sentences.] 102. Give the principal *adverbial* relations in which participles may stand.

[(1) In the relation of *time* (*when, as, whilst; after*).
(2) ——————— a *cause* (*for, since, because, as*).
(3) ——————— a *condition* (*if*).
(4) ——— *adversative* relation (*though, although*].

[5] In Latin, *sive—sive.*

103. May a participle ever be translated by a *principal* verb? [Yes: it must then be joined to the verb already in the sentence by *and*, or some other conjunction.] 104. In what tense will it generally stand? [In the same tense as the verb to which it is to be joined; but this is not always the case.]

105. Does our present participle ever denote an action that must have preceded that expressed by the principal verb? [Yes, when the action of the verb *immediately follows* that expressed by the participle.] 106. How are adverbial sentences sometimes abridged? [By omitting the verb, and thus leaving the participle (or other attributive) to stand alone with a conjunctional adverb.] 107. When is a substantive said to be put *absolutely* with a participle? [When the substantive and participle are totally unconnected with the general construction of the sentence.] 108. May a noun and participle put absolutely be resolved into a sentence? [Yes, into an adverbial accessory sentence.] 109. Will the nominative of this sentence be a noun or pronoun that already stands in the principal sentence? [No.]

EXAMPLES OF PARSING.

[This method of Parsing by *groups* of words will be found both to lessen the dulness of the operation, and to lead to a far clearer view of the construction of sentences.]

I.

'I left you with a heavy heart.'

1. Find the subject. [The personal pron. *I.*]
2. ———— predicate. [The verb *left*, in the indicative mood, preterite tense, active voice.]
3. What notions are joined *objectively*[1] to the verb? [The pron. *you* in the accus. case; and a substantive *heart* under the government of the preposition *with*: and having an attributive adjective with it, '*heavy.*']

II.

'Soon after this last separation, my troubles gushed from my eyes.'

Find the subject. [The plural substantive *troubles.*]

———— predicate. The intransitive verb *gushed*, in the indicative mood, preterite tense.]

What notions are joined *objectively* to the verb? [Notions to describe *when* and *whence.*]

What words describe *when?* [Soon after this last separation.]

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[1] Or thus: 'I left you *how?*' [With a heavy heart.]
To what word and *how* is this notion joined? [It is joined *objectively* to *left.*]

Which notion describes *whence?* [From my eyes.]
What notion is joined attributively to the nominative case?
[*My;* the gen. of the personal pronoun *I.*]

III.

'We must now prepare for our visit to the General.'

Find the subject. [We.]
——— predicate. [Must.]

Parse *must.*

[A verb of mood; in the present tense, indicative mood, first person plural.]

What notions are joined *objectively* to *must?* [An adverb of time *now;* and an infinitive mood *prepare* with *to* omitted.]

What notions are joined objectively to *prepare?* [A substantive *visit* governed by a preposition *for.*]

What notions are joined attributively to the substantive *visit?* [A gen. pronoun *our,* and a substantive *General,* governed by the preposition *to.*]

IV.

'At our first arrival, after a long absence, we find a hundred orders to servants necessary; a thousand things to be restored to their proper places; and an endless variety of minutiæ to be adjusted.'

Find the subject. [We.]
——— predicate. [Find.]

To what peculiar class of verbs does *find* belong? [*Find,* in this use of it, is a *copulative* verb, requiring a substantive or adjective to complete its predication.]

What word completes the predication of *find?* The acc. adjective *necessary.*]

What do we *find necessary?* [A hundred orders.]

What notion is joined attributively to *orders?* [The substantive *servants,* governed by the preposition *to.*]

What do we find besides? [A thousand things.]

What completes the predication of *find* in this clause? ['*To be restored:*' the form of the infinitive passive, used as the passive participle, implying *duty, necessity,* &c.]

What notion is joined *objectively* to *to be restored?* [A plural

substantive *places* governed by the preposition *to*, and having a gen. pron. *their*, and an adj. *proper* joined to it *attributively*.]

V.

'All the opportunities I have of displaying heroism are of a private nature.'

How many sentences have you here? [Two.]

Which is the principal sentence? [All the opportunities of displaying heroism are of a private nature.]

What is the other sentence? [I have.]

Is that a complete sentence? and, if not, what does it require? [It requires an object in the accusative.]

Supply it. [*Which*—'which I have.']

Find the subject. [Opportunities.]

———— predicate. [Of a private nature.]

———— copula. [The substantive verb *are*, in the third person plural of the present tense.]

What notions are joined attributively to the subject *opportunities?* [An attributive adjective *all*; the definite article *the*; a participial substantive *displaying* of the present active form; and a relative sentence, '*which I have.*']

To what class of sentences do relative sentences belong? [They are adjective accessory sentences.]

What notion is joined objectively to the participial substantive *displaying?* [The substantive *heroism*, in the *accusative* case.]

PRACTICAL

ENGLISH EXERCISES.

PART I.—ACCIDENCE.

Exercise 1. (32, 33, p. 7.)

[The singular substantives are to be turned into the plural. The indefinite article (*a, an*) must be changed into '*some*,' '*any*,' or a numeral (*two, three*, &c.): '*this*,' '*that*,' make plural '*these*,' '*those*.'—For the plur. of *is, was, has*, &c., see p. 37.]

I HAVE travelled through a beautiful valley. Do you hear the echo? The boy was playing on a fife. Give me a potato. I like my tall folio. He has built a new church. She gave me a crumpled rose-leaf. The poor widow told me her [1] grief. Set a thief to catch a thief. Tell me the proof of your assertion. The old woman has a favorite goose. Mind the child. My brother gave me this. He [2] is gone to have a tooth drawn. That was a severe reproof. I will add a short account of his crime. He [2] attempted to screen the criminal. This was the usual method of governing a province.

[1] Change *her* into *their*.

[2] Change *he* into *they*.

I have a good history of Rome. You have a fine quarto. He[2] has his emissary at work. That is a good quality. This is a heavy penalty. He[2] shall have it for his life. He[2] reproached him[3] with his[3] cruelty. This statue was an ornament to Messana. I have written a whole canto. His[3] book is intended for the use of a tyro. I have seen an attorney. The constable used his[3] staff. I have a pain in my foot. The cat has caught a mouse. That is a fine ox. Does your goose lay golden eggs? Does the chimney smoke? Has Domitian[4] killed a fly ~~to-day~~? Have you sold the calf?

EXERCISE 2.

[The singular substantives and pronouns[5], except those to which an asterisk is prefixed, to be turned into the plural.]

He quoted a distich of old *Cato's. The poor woman was very importunate. This is a die for coining. Of this he pretended to have proof enough, as well from the *testimony of a credible witness, as from that of his own letter. His *ardour excited a cry of *approbation from the most stupid. He defeated a formidable conspiracy. You have engaged an attorney. That chimney is ill-built. The Duke has built and endowed a new church. He was engaged in a traitorous practice. Pleasure is not to be pursued at the *expense of *health.

[2] Change *he* into *they*.

[3] Change *him*, *his*, into *them*, *their*.

[4] '*Domitian*' is not to be altered.

[5] For the plural of the pronouns, see 65 (page 17): for the plural of the auxiliary verbs (*am*, *is*, *do*, *was*, *have*, &c.), see 129 (p. 37).

Exercise 3.

[Put an *abstract*[6] *substantive* in the place of the words in Italics. (See article 35, *a*.)]

He could not bear the *acts-of-rudeness* of an uneducated mob. He put a stop to these horrible *acts-of-cruelty*. This raised great *feelings-of-terrour* in the city (*m*). It is long since I had any experience of those *acts-of-communication* from above. We have received from them numerous *acts-of-civility*. I see how much I have been indebted to yours and to Mrs. Hill's *acts-of-solicitation*. The *courteous-acts* of life are not to be neglected. I mean to give a short summary of the Jewish story; especially of the miraculous *acts-of-interposition* in behalf of that people. The difference between dreams and *real-occurrences* long since elapsed seems to consist chiefly in this,—that a dream passes like an arrow through the air, leaving no trace of its flight behind it; but our actual *experienced-events* make a lasting impression. I suggest this to you as a plea against those *acts-of-self-accusation*, which I am satisfied that you do not deserve.

Exercise 4.

[The words in Italics to be turned into the plural. See 37—39.]

I have had no *tête-à-tête* with him, since I sent you the last production. I have not seen *Boscawen*[7] since you left the country. A mount *Ætna* is not found in every country. A *Gentoo* or a *Mahometan* would be welcome here, if recom-

[6] That is, an *abstract* substantive, that is also used to express a *concrete* notion.

[7] Add '*the*' before the plural.

mended by you. I tremble lest, my *Æsculapius* being departed, my infallible remedy should be lost for ever. *Elliot*[7] has sent me a fine cod with oysters. This *quidnunc* of Olney makes no small figure. The *caveat* you have entered, deters me from proceeding. *Finch*[7] has graciously condescended. *Perry*[7] will come. I have just seen *Miss Martin* and her niece. I have just left *Maurice*. *Hayley* adds his affectionate respects.

EXERCISE 5.

[The genitive formed by *inflexion* is to be used. The *genitive* alone will *imply* the other words in Italics[8]. See 47—49.]

He is going to the shop *kept by Howell and James*. He flies on the wings of an eagle. The house *belonging to Cicero* was in flames. It was a part of the commission *given to Cato* to restore certain exiles of Byzantium. Cicero defeated the conspiracy of Catiline. We should be prepared to suffer death itself for the sake of righteousness. I would suffer greater things than these for the sake of conscience. The presence of Quintus at home was necessary to their common interests. The zeal and affection of the province would afford him the safest retreat both on his own account and (that) of his brother. He was actually besieged in his own house by a freedman *belonging to Clodius*. Metellus perceived which way the inclination of Pompey was turning.

[7] Add '*the*' before the plural.

[8] For instance, '*Charles's* hat,' is 'the hat *belonging to* Charles.'

EXERCISE 6. (See § 7, p. 14.)

[Turn *as—as* into compar. with *them;* and the words in Italics into the *plural.* Positive adjectives, without '*as,*' are to be changed into the comparative, if followed by (*c*); into the superlative, if followed by (*s*); into the *superlative of eminence,* if followed by (*s, e*).

☞ It will generally be necessary to prefix '*the*' to the superlative.]

This plum is as red as *that cherry.* This ground lies as high as any in the country. Henry is as honest as his father. This is as glorious a victory as that of Waterloo. He is my near (*s*) neighbour. Yours is the easy (*s*) task. Set me an easy (*s, e*) task. Yours is a good (*s*) exercise. Yours is as good an exercise as his. John's is a good (*s, e*) exercise. The senate is as eager as the people to revenge his death. He is as unhappy as his poor nephew. You have *little* (*s*) cause to complain. You have as little cause to complain as any body. Yours is as bad a hat as Henry's. This was agreeable (*s, e*) to Pansa. This was as agreeable to Pansa as to Hirtius. He exhorts them to act with great[1] (*s, e*) vigour. They committed terrible (*s*) excesses. They sent a pacific[1] (*s, e*) embassy. This dress is of a new (*s*) fashion. Many (*s*) men have something of dishonesty about them. This is as eligible as that.

[*In the following examples, use the strengthened superlative forms, given in* 61, *e.*] I have travelled with the greatest rapidity. This is the wildest notion! You have behaved with the greatest insolence! He showed me his cabinet with the greatest readiness.

[1] A superlative in *est,* or with *most,* is often a superlative of eminence when it has *the* before it. See 61, *e.*

EXERCISE 7.

[In the following examples, '*by*' may be omitted: see **61**, *c* (compared with **94**). For '*by nothing*,' substitute *nothing*, or (which is the more common form now) *no*[2]: on the difference of '*a little*,' and '*little*,' see **84**, *e*.]

This bonnet is prettier *by far* than your sister's. Is not your brother's exercise easier *by somewhat* than yours? Is your sister better *by nothing* this morning? She is better *by a little* than she was last night. This was not *by any means* agreeable to the senate. His exercise is better *by far* than yours. Your exercise is better *by little* than George's. Her exercise is not better *by much* than yours. Frederick's exercise is better *by a considerable quantity* than Digby's.

EXERCISE 8. (Pronouns.)

[☞ Words in Italics are to be changed into the plural.]

[*In the following examples, when the pron. precedes the subst., place it after the verb, and* vice versâ.] This is my hat. These gloves are mine. That is your *stick*. This is her parasol. This *cherry* is mine.

[*In the following examples substitute* that *or* those *for the repeated substantives.*] Our spelling is more irregular than the *spelling* of any other European nation. Our state-papers are more carefully drawn up than *the state-papers* of most other nations. The ears of the ass are longer than *the ears* of the horse.

[*In the following change* so *into* such, **72**, *c*.] We seldom have weather so hot in April. Censures so unmeasured are believed by few.

[2] For '*by any means*,' '*in any degree*,' substitute *at all*.

EXERCISE 9. (Pronouns.)

[Use pronouns wherever you can in the following passages: some places that might otherwise have been overlooked, are printed in Italics.]

In the uneasy state *I have described*[3] both of Cicero's private and public life, Cicero was oppressed by a new and most cruel affliction, the death of Cicero's beloved daughter Tullia; *the death of Tullia* happened soon after Tullia's divorce from Dolabella: Dolabella's manners and humours were entirely disagreeable to Tullia. Cicero had long been deliberating with Cicero and Cicero's friends, whether Tullia should not first send the divorce; but a prudential regard to Dolabella's interest with Cæsar *(for Dolabella's interest with Cæsar* was of use to Cicero in the times *I have described)* seems to have withheld Cicero. The case was the same with Dolabella; Dolabella was willing enough to part with Tullia, but did not care to break with Cicero: *for Cicero's* friendship was a credit to Dolabella, and gratitude obliged Dolabella to observe and reverence Cicero; since Cicero had twice preserved Dolabella in capital causes.

EXERCISE 10.

Many men are quite unable to support their families. (*Change* men *into* man.) I was at Chester about twenty years ago. (*Use* some, 86, *b*.) A man might wish that they had given their reasons more at length. (*Use an indefinite numeral for* a man, 91.)

[*Use indefinite numerals in the following examples.*] You except to a few of my quotations, but

[3] '*This*' may be used for what *has recently been described.*

there is hardly a single *quotation* of yours, that I could not charge with falsehood and misrepresentation. Kings and the mighty men of the earth. It matters not what other people (*omit* people, 89) do. You use many bad arguments, and a few good *arguments*.

[*Correct the errours in the following example, see* 95.] Every gentleman-cadet must come provided with the following articles: eight pairs of short cotton stockings; four pairs of stocking web drawers, &c.

[*Use the form* 'by two's' *in the following sentence.*] They are so numerous that you may catch *fifty of them at a time.*

EXERCISE 11.

[Turn the verbs into the preterite, 109 (1), 110, and 118.]

My legs ache. I refer the cause to you. He confers a great benefit on the State. He is trying his coat on. He is dying by inches. He is moving my heart. He proves their fidelity. They concur with me. One of them demurs. This immense fissure will divide all Europe, and swallow up its rivers. The whole affair pleased me much. He is travelling through Switzerland. He deceives himself. All credit the tidings. He will die very suddenly. You shall dye this cloth green. He is increasing his attentions. He will defer his journey. He is journeying through the wilderness. He furnishes me with books. They gut the house. I shall courtesy to my uncle.

Exercise 12.

[For the present tense use *am*, *is*, *are*, &c. with the present participle, 125.]

He begins his exercise. He lies on the grass. He dies. He dyes his face. He refers the cause. This entitles us to a reward. He mortifies her pride. They deify their leader. They allay our fears. They move the table. They listen in expectation. They flay him alive. They flee. He repines at his barrenness. They weary their hearers. They comply with our wishes. They play at cricket. The tree decays. He pays his labourers. He suffers for his folly. He ever defers his journey. He conquers all these difficulties. He worships money. He travels through Italy. He quarrels with his best friends. He rambles through the wood.

EXERCISES ON THE (*SO-CALLED*) IRREGULAR VERBS.—*See the Lists.*

Exercise 13.

[In the following Exercises turn the verbs (1) into the preterite; (2) into the *perfect definite*.]

He will only take a flying leave of me. Thanks for the pains you are taking to furnish me with a dictionary. He will burst his bonds asunder. I will cast up your account in a few minutes. He will hit the mark. You will cut your finger. The victory will cost them dear. I will put the book on the shelf. Let us split the difference. The marriage of these princes will knit both realms into one. I will set down my sum. He will hurt himself. You will shed bitter tears for this. He will rid the State of its secret enemies. Nature will spread us a verdant carpet. The cook will shred the leeks.

Exercise 14.

He will spend his youth in classical pursuits. He will build a magnificent mansion. He will gild the bitter pill. He will bend the hearts of the people to his will by his impassioned eloquence. He will gird himself with fine linen. I will dwell alone. He will spell the word correctly. He will mis-spell the word. She will spill the milk. He will bleed profusely. Idleness breeds many evils. He leads him by the hand. Being a forward man, he meets with many rebuffs. He reads the newspaper. He will feed his cattle on the hills. He shoots well. She keeps guinea-fowls. They kneel, as suppliants, at his feet. I feel cold. He creeps on all fours. He sleeps soundly. He deals kindly with him. He is leaning out of the window. He learns to deceive his father. He means well. He weeps for your apostasy. He lays a wager. The smith shoes the horse. He pays dear for his whistle. He says whatever he pleases. He leaves behind him a worthy successor. The enemy flee before us. He is bereaving me of my children.

Exercise 15.

He forsakes his early friends. He will only take a flying leave of me. Thanks for the pains you are taking to furnish me with a dictionary. He is shaking off the acorns. He bears a heavy burden. He will break faith with him. He speaks fairly. He swears rashly. The dog will bite you. He will drive a carriage-and-four through it. I ride fast. The wind blows keen. He tears up the odious document. He shears his sheep. He hides nothing from me. The age grows suspicious. He slides unconsciously into a repetition of his old

arguments. The child thrives on spoon-meat. Here arises a difficulty. I will strive to reconcile the contending parties. He smites him to the ground. He will throw him down. We know each other. I shall tread a beaten path. He chides the boy. I shall throw no impediments in your way. He is stealing his neighbour's grapes.

EXERCISE 16.

He bids me hold my tongue. He will choose the best. He will do the best he can. We are drawing lots. He eats too heartily. The bird is flying away. The boy will fall. The colossus bestrides the world. I shall forget my own name. I will draw you some water. The bird flies through the air. The quicksilver freezes. He will get it done. He gives them sixpence a day. The earth lies heavy upon him. I hold sixteen shares. He is seething a kid. I shall sit in parliament for Exeter. The witch spits fire. He is slaying his enemies.

EXERCISE 17.

I will begin to clear away the rubbish. I cling to this hope. He flings off the traitor with indignation. I am ringing the bell. He is drinking Champagne. I shrink from the contest. She sings correctly. We sink into despondency. I am swimming with corks. The corn springs up. The girl spins well. The bee is stinging me. We are sticking in the mud. He is striking his father. He binds him with an iron chain. He is grinding him to powder. This errour winds itself about our hearts. You are finding a mare's nest. He is digging over his little brother's garden.

Christmas is coming. He clothes himself in purple. He is hanging his hat on the peg. I am lighting on a mysterious truth. She runs there in less time than her brother. The maid-servant is lighting the fire. He stands the trial. He is winning the wager. He is bringing in the tea. He is buying a[4] pair of stockings. She teaches her little brother. I think worse of him. He is working industriously. The tortoise is catching the hare. He is fighting valiantly. Diogenes, with his lighted lantern, is seeking for a man.

EXERCISE 18.

He is graving an image. He is hewing the stone. He is lading the ass. The farmer loads the wagon. Richard is mowing the meadow. He is sawing the trunk of the old oak. The sempstress is shaping the body of the gown. He is shaving himself with a blunt razor. They are sowing the seeds of strife. He shows me much civility. They strew flowers before his carriage. The hypocrite writhes in agony. The little boy awakes. The daughter cleaves to these old associations. He dare not accept the challenge. The dunghill cock crows loudest. The lightning rives the oak.

[4] Alter this word to *three*.

PART II.

EXERCISES ON THE SYNTAX.

Exercise 1.

[*Use prepositions or adverbs as predicates in the following examples.*] The fire is *extinguished.* I shall *depart* to-morrow. Clodius was *in that place.* She is *in good health.* It is ungenerous and cowardly to attack a man when he is *prostrate.* I have been a little *mistaken* in my definition.

[*Use substantives under the government of prepositions as predicates in the following examples.*] Your life is *exposed to danger.* He is *condemned to die.* He is *too honest to deceive.* This particular humble way to greatness is now *unfashionable.* Our friends are *disheartened.*

[*Turn the verbs in the following examples into the idiom explained in* 311.] What offence, what contradiction to reason, *may be found* in every single article of the account? Every false step a man makes in discourse *ought not to be insisted on. It was necessary that he should enrich* all these hungry friends and dependents by the spoils of the province. When a bird hath flown through the air, no token of her way *can* be found. As they were under no engagement to his cause but what was voluntary, so *it was necessary to humour them,*

lest through disgust they should desert it. Cato *could not be moved* from his purpose by compliments.

[*Substitute an adverb for the predicate in Italics*, 310, *a*.] If the Pompeians are so insolent when conquered, how much more *insolent* they will be when conquerors, it will be your lot to feel.

Exercise 2.

[*Turn the following examples into the construction explained in* 312.] *It is settled that he should learn* Greek next year. *The arrangement is that I should pay* for Mr. H. *What I have to do is this*, to cut this cake into twelve pieces. There were seven nations in the land, which *was to be subdued* by the Israelites.

He has the finest army in the world, and his enemies are *prostrate*. (*Use an adv. or prepos. as predicate.*) *To be* loud and vehement either against a court, or for a court, is no sign of patriotism. (*Use a participial subst. for nom. case.*) All knaves are thorough knaves. (*For* all, *use* every.) I am not of the number of those who can ascribe passages so great and strange to chance. (*Change* so *into* such.)

Exercise 3.

[*In the following examples, turn the verb* exist *into the verb* to be, 318.] Hot springs *exist* in Germany. Your book may serve to convince others, that grace, truth, and efficacy *may exist* in the ministry of our Apostolical Church. No occasion *exists* to exhort, but to congratulate with you.

Either no republic at all will *exist*, or it will be saved by him and his accomplices. A poet or orator never *existed*, who thought any one preferable to himself. No way *existed* of doing it.

[*In the following examples, place the nominatives in Italics after the verb, with the necessary alteration*, 318, *b*.] As he was journeying to Rome, *six* of Clodius's followers met him. When he came the evening before to my neighbour Philip's, the house was so crowded with soldiers that scarce *a room* was left empty for Cæsar to sup in: about two thousand were invited. *Nothing* was wanting to his freedmen and his slaves, but the better sort were elegantly treated. He used to say that *two things* were necessary to acquire and support power, —soldiers and money, which yet depended mutually on each other. A new *actor* now appeared on the stage.

Ought not the liberty of our country to be preferred to the life of any friend? (*Alter according to* 311.) No occasion can exist for new measures, when there is nothing new in the case itself. (*Change* to exist *into* to be.)

EXERCISE 4.

[*Alter the following sentences according to rule* 319.] To see a young consul, the scholar, as it were, of my discipline, flourishing in the midst of applause, will be glorious to me. To err is the case of every man, but to persevere in errour is the part only of a fool. To reflect that I have never promised any thing rashly of myself to you, is a pleasure to me. To send him to be secured on ship-board from either doing or suffering any farther mischief was necessary. That on the very

day of the victory there was actually a conference between the two first, is evident. If the robber, upon hearing of my arrival, should run back again into Italy, to meet him there will be Brutus's part.

An original *medal* is still remaining, that gives no small confirmation to this notion: on the one side is *the head* of a Silenus, or rather of Pan; and on the other, ALBINUS BRUTI F. (*Place the nominatives in Italics after their respective verbs*, 318, *b*.) That the Senate should *decree* that a province is preserved to the empire by the mildness and innocency of the general, rather than by the force of arms and the favour of the gods, is much more honorable than any triumph. (*Turn the verb in Italics into the infinitive mood. Attend to* 319 *and* 320.)

EXERCISE 5.

[*Alter the construction of the following sentences so as to give emphasis to the words in Italics*, 321, 323.] He had not taken this step *for his own sake*. Remember that I am to be with you *on Wednesday*. The farmers complained of oppressive taxation *not without reason*. *A vanquished chief* endeavours to throw the blame of his defeat upon others. *A bad workman* complains of his tools. *The dishonest* are always suspecting dishonesty in others. *You* have done all the mischief. *They* employed the vile informer. *They* hired the services of an unprincipled band.

[*Alter the verbs* to elapse, to pass, *into the verb* to be, 324.] Ten weeks have now elapsed since you entered these doors. Three months have now elapsed since you have contributed one farthing to the relief of his necessities. A whole year has past since I received a letter from you.

That people long for what they have not, and overlook the good in their possession, *is* an observation that naturally occurs upon the occasion, and which many other occasions furnish an opportunity to make. (*Place the subject of the verb* is, *after its verb*, 319.)

EXERCISE 6.

[*In the following sentence, use such verbs and predicates as are explained in* 326. *Obs.* 'to be,' 'to have,' *are to be changed into some other verb.*] The door *was* open at the time. He *experiences the sensation of warmth.* This experience will be bought *at a high price.* A Christian ought to be ever on his guard against the danger *of becoming* proud of his graces. My labour must *be* unrewarded.

[*Turn* and—not, *into* nor, *in the following sentences.*] That I shall not give him an opportunity is certain: *and* he will *not* find it an easy matter to steal one. The sound of the wind in the trees, and the singing of birds, are much more agreeable to our ears, than the incessant barking of dogs, and screaming of children: *and* a sweet-smelling garden is *not* a bad exchange for the putrid exhalations of Silver End. The rich man would be miserable: *and* the clown would *not* find the accession of so much unwieldy treasure an unmixed blessing. I know not yet whether he will add '*Conversation*' to those poems already in his hands, *and* I do *not* much care.

[*Place the predicative adjective first in the following sentences*, 327.] May the hour be *cursed!* Babylon is *fallen.*

[*Turn the following assertions into questions.*] It is three weeks since you left us. He acts under

the controul of others. You were earnestly invited. A new scene will soon open.

[*Use adjectives for adverbs in the following sentences*, 326.] The east wind blew rather *sharply* over the top of the hill. He shuts his eyes as *closely* as he does his hands, and resolves not to be convinced.

EXERCISE 7.

[*Use the idiom explained in* 328.] An opportunity cannot be stolen. One cannot understand what you mean. It is impossible to hear what you say. One cannot learn without taking pains. As to my books, it is impossible to save them from the flames. You cannot safely trust[5] to dictionaries and definitions.

[*Omit the verbs in Italics*, 329.] It *is* no wonder that they should uphold his authority. It *were* better for a man never to have seen them, or to see them with the eyes of a brute, stupid and unconscious of what he beholds, than not to be able to say, "The Maker of all these wonders is my friend!" A state of contempt is not a state for a prince: it *were* better to get rid of him at once!

Here *is* the difference between you and me. (*Use a stronger verb for* is, 326, *a*.) Our time ought to be employed to better purpose (311). Fresh plumes will be added to the wings of time. (*Turn this sentence into a question*)

[5] *Safely* must be turned into *safe*.

EXERCISE 8.

Turn assertions into 'questions of appeal,' and vice versâ, 332, 333.] Is not happiness to be pursued as the chief good of man? Is every rich fool to hold his head higher than his poor neighbour? Will any man venture to maintain this? Time steals from us days, months, and years, with such unparalleled address, that even while we say they are here[6], they are gone. From infancy to manhood is rather a tedious period. Do we not find ourselves at the bottom of the vale of years, before we have reflected upon the steepness of the declivity that leads us into it? This will at any rate serve to speculate and converse upon. In two years not only this project, but all the projects in Europe may be disconcerted. Is not the situation as favorable to your purpose as you could wish? When our animal spirits are depressed, dulness is the consequence. It proves that he is capable of great dispatch, when he is pleased to use it. Have I not, in a state of dejection, such as they are absolutely strangers to, sometimes put on an air of cheerfulness and vivacity, to which I myself am in reality a stranger, for the sake of winning their attention to more useful matter?

EXERCISE 9.

[*Turn the sentences in Italics into attributives*, 335, &c.] Books, *which are the only remedy I can think of*, are a commodity we deal but little in at Olney. If, therefore, it may consist with your other concerns, *which are multifarious*, I shall be obliged to you if you will be so good as to

[6] See 330 (*b*).

subscribe for me to some circulating library, *which is well-furnished.* This is a circumstance that obtains always in a degree *that is exactly in proportion* to the badness of the tenant. It was the occasion of an agreeable surprise, *which is a sensation* that deserves to be ranked among the pleasantest that belong to us. I do not know that a poet is bound to write always with a philosopher at his elbow, *who is prepared* always to bind down his imagination to mere matters of fact. In the letters *which are mislaid* I took notice of certain disagreeable doubts you had expressed in one *which was enclosed to us and unsealed* concerning your visit next spring to Olney. Dames *who reside in villages* have various receipts for curing cuts and burns. (*Alter according to* 336.)

EXERCISE 10.

[*Correct the following example by* 342.] Rollo, the ancestor[7] of William the Conqueror.

[*Express the following sentences according to* 342.] He was one of Sir Josiah Child's creatures. He was one of my friends. That was one of the poet's pictures. I met one of your uncles in Italy last year.

[*In the following examples place the substantives in Italics, in apposition to the sentence.* See 341.] Its arrival was unexpected, which is *a circumstance* always sure to be the occasion of an agreeable surprise. You wrote to say that you would visit us in the summer: which *promise* you did not fulfil. I ventured to prophesy an illustrious consummation of the war, which *prediction* proved

[7] A *particular* ancestor is not meant, but merely *an ancestor.*

false, and exposed me to the ridicule of more prudent speculators. He will dine with us next Saturday, *which is a fortunate circumstance*, as I shall have an opportunity to introduce him to the liveliest and most entertaining woman in the country.

[*Turn the attributive factors in Italics, into relative sentences.*] Our acquaintance, *so lately begun*, must be soon suspended. An old man *thus qualified* cannot fail to charm the lady in question. A thousand other *far less profitable* amusements divert their attention.

Are not the designs of Providence inscrutable? (*Turn the question into an assertion.*)

EXERCISE 11.

[*Leave out the unnecessary words in the following sentences*, 344.] I have sent up the three first books to Johnson's house. Have you seen St. Peter's church? St. Peter's church at Northampton is a fine old church.

[*Alter the following sentence of Cowper's into another admissible form*, 344, *a*.] A little cousin of mine suggested to me that it might not be amiss to advertise the work at Merril's, the bookseller.

[*Change the attributive words and phrases in Italics, into others of the same meaning.*] The distress *of the agriculturist is now very great.* The subject of our policy *towards our colonies* must be fully discussed. A man *of great respectability.* A *very important* question. He regarded him with *paternal* affection. This was one of the most bloody battles *that are recorded.*

[*Introduce the idiom explained in* 346, *c, into the following sentence.*] I am glad that you have seen the last Northampton dirge, for the *roguish* clerk sent me only half the number of printed copies, for which I stipulated at first.

[*Express the following sentence according to the idiom given in* 328, *a.*] It is impossible to wander out of the reach of this: it is impossible to slip through the hands of Omnipotence.

EXERCISE 12. (Objective Relation.)

[*In the following examples, turn the active into the passive, and* vice versâ, 353.] Cæsar entertained the city with the most splendid triumph that Rome had ever seen: but the people considered it a triumph over themselves, purchased by the loss of their liberty. He had before given the same proof of his discontent. The people were at last put into good-humour by Cicero's exertions. This wanton profanation of the sovereign dignity raised a general indignation in the city. You are desired by me to come home. It is thought that the Queen will not go to Brighton before Christmas. Be received into the bosom of mother-church! Hope may visit even me! You could see the fires from your windows. Never sure did men manifest religious zeal more terribly, or more to the prejudice of its own cause. Red, brown, and yellow, have supplanted the universal verdure. I received an anonymous eulogium about a week ago. My good state of health is accompanied by frequent fits of dejection. We now expect Lady Hesketh, but not immediately. One of the best qualified judges of that university compared the sixth book of the Iliad with Pope and with the original.

EXERCISE 13.

[*Turn the verbs in Italics into the passive voice*, 356.] The Gospel, wherever it is planted, will have its genuine effect upon some few; upon more, perhaps, than men *take* notice of in the hurry of the world. Did I ever *deny* you access to me? They *allow* me sixpence a day. Cornwall elects as many members as Scotland: but does Parliament *take* better care of Cornwall than of Scotland? Death soon *put* an end to the enterprises of Francis the First and Henry the Eighth.

[*In the following examples, instead of the verbs in Italics, most of which are from the Latin, use simple Saxon verbs with adverbs or prepositions used objectively*, 357.] The wicked will be *excluded* from heaven. The publication is *postponed* till Christmas. He *acceded* to my proposal. You must *expunge* that passage. Some mention of this should be *inserted* here. People will *deride* you. He *cheated* his employer. You must *dismiss* these prejudices. Can impure sacrifices *avert* the wrath of God? Which of the three candidates was *rejected*? Can you *discover* the sense of these words? He is said to have *destroyed* himself. Will these tardy civilities *compensate* such an unprovoked attack?

EXERCISE 14.

[*In the following examples, turn the participial substantives into the infinitive mood*, 361.] This left them a liberty *of choosing*, after a free inquiry, whatever was found most agreeable to reason and nature. *Trusting* in God must needs imply belief in him.

[*Express the following sentences by the idiom given in* 368, *a.*] His sole occupation is to laugh at the mistakes of others. The perverse little child is crying all the day long.

[*In the following, use the idiom given in* 369.] Is this the idol to which you *would wish* the whole world to bow? *Would you wish* me to write to my uncle? Is this the incorruptible integrity, to the majesty of which *you would wish* all men to do homage? *Would you wish* me to refuse to relieve his necessities?

[*Use the idiom explained in* 371, 372.] *I am obliged* to pay eight pounds for my folly. You are the person whom *I must* thank for your seasonable interposition.

I shall be obliged to him, if, when he has finished the revisal of the eighth book, he will send it to General Cowper's house in Charles Street. (*Alter by* 344.) In my situation I can contribute *very little* to it myself. (*Make* very little *emphatic*, 321.)

EXERCISE 15.

[*Omit the unnecessary words*, 382.] We have returned thanks to him for a turbot and a lobster. Have you sent the book to Henry? Can you spare a few sheets of it for me?

[*Express the following sentences according to* 384 (2).] His writing is like his brother's, *so exactly that the t's are crossed in the very same manner.* She is *so exactly* like her sister, *that every single tone of her voice is the same.*

[*Alter to the form of* 384 (3).] He is nothing *compared* with Wordsworth. Your exertions are

nothing *compared with* the sacrifices which he has been making for many years.

[*Use the idiom in* 384 (4).] It must be confessed, *though the confession should fill us with shame*, that we have not valued our glorious privileges at any thing like their real worth. He told me, *and the statement filled me with astonishment*, that he had never been in the possession of more than sixty pounds a year. He asserted, *and the assertion filled us with horrour*, that a rebellion was on the point of breaking out.

[*Introduce the preventive clause by* for, 386.] I could not see the beacon in consequence of the fog. The crowd prevented me from getting near him.

EXERCISE 16.

[*Express the attributive factors in Italics by relative sentences.*] A viper was darting his forked tongue at the nose of a kitten *almost in contact with his lips*. To avoid the evils of inconstancy and versatility, *ten thousand times worse than those of obstinacy and the blindest prejudice*, we have consecrated the state, that no man should approach to look into its defects but with due caution. (*Burke.*)

This is an admirable performance, *when we consider that the author of it is an uninstructed day-labourer*. (*Express the restrictive clause by* for, 386.) He was of opinion that they should be executed at once. (*Use the idiom* 'to be for' doing so and so, 386.) The evils of versatility and inconstancy are worse by ten thousand times than those of obstinacy and the blindest prejudice. (*Turn this asser-*

tion into a question, 333, *and omit the unnecessary word*, 392, *a*.) The defects of the state ought not to be approached without due caution. (*Use the idiom in* 311.) It is impossible to exaggerate the evils of versatility and inconsistency. (*Use idiom in* 328.) Would that I were a Hottentot, or even a dissenter, so that my views of a *future state*[7] were more comfortable! (*For* future state, *use an adverb substantively*, 330.)

EXERCISE 17.

[*Alter the following sentences according to the idioms explained in* 398, *a*.] Take a kid *of the age of three months*. Children *of the age of seven years* are capable of considerable application. Have you *completed the age of seven years?* There are manuscripts above a thousand years *of age*.

The roguish undertaker has clothed all the maid-servants in black silk. (*Change* roguish *into the idiom given in* 346, *c*.) We speak of our money-getting, worldly spirit, under the smooth phrase of prosperity *caused by commerce*. (*Use one adjective derived from* commerce, *to express the words in Italics*.)

[*Turn the following assertions into* questions of appeal, *and* vice versâ, 332, 333.] The struggle lay between Lentulus and Pompey. By his own conduct and professions he seems to have Lentulus's interest at heart. He can restore me without an army. Can even Pompey restore me without an army? Cannot that consummate statesman restore me without an army? It seems dan-

[7] Cowper, vol. vii. 45, Southey's edition.

gerous to the republic, that the king should be restored without an army. This was not what he had most at heart.

EXERCISE 18.

[*Insert in the following sentences the parts of speech, or* factors, *named in the parentheses.* See 399.] Q. Metellus Celer[8] (*relat. sentence*) wrote a (*attributive word*) letter to his friend Cicero. The (*attributive factor*) general (*relat. clause*) could not be prevailed upon (*objective factor*, by what?) to countenance the (*attributive factor*) proceeding. If any (*attributive*) saying of mine provokes you, why do not you urge me with that, rather than with the contumely of a groundless calumny? He protested that he (*relat. clause*) had never met with a (*attributive*) hint or suspicion of Sylla's name in it. Q. Fufius Calenus[1] (*attributive factor*), supported by all the faction *of Clodius*[2], would not permit the law to be offered to the suffrage of the citizens. Hortensius was persuaded that no judge (*attributive, with* however) could (*adv.*) absolve him, and that *a leaden*[3] sword, as he said, would destroy him. Hortensius proposed an expedient[4] (*attributive relat. clause*), that (*attributive word, in apposition*) Fufius[1] should publish a law[5] (*objective factor*) for the trial of Clodius.

[8] He then commanded in Gaul.

[1] He was one of the tribunes.

[2] For *of Clodius*, use an adjective. See 337.

[3] Use a subst. governed by '*of*.'

[4] It was accepted by both parties.

[5] The law was to be for his trial by the prætor, with a select bench of judges.

Exercise 19.

(Substantive accessory sentences.)

	[Clauses to form substantive accessory sentences with *that*.]
He produced men to swear . .	he was at Interamna, about two or three days' journey from Rome.
He was persuaded	the growing disorders of the city would soon force all parties to create him Dictator.
I had observed before . . .	he had conceived some secret disgust.
He was shameless and abandoned	he used to value himself for doing what his very adversaries could not object to him with modesty (*consequence*).
He shows	Dolabella was still the more unhappy of the two.
I shall let them see	I have no dislike to the man, but to the cause.
He proposed an expedient . .	[This expedient was] to have the cause tried by the prætor and twelve select judges. (*Use the passive voice.*)
He is drunk	he cannot stand (*consequence*).

Exercise 20.

[*Omit the words that are not absolutely necessary in the following sentences.*] I am glad that you have changed your mind. I am sorry that you are not well. I am convinced that your exertions are to no purpose.

[*Turn the following assertions into* questions of appeal, *and* vice versâ, 332, 333.] Ought not public thanks to be given to all the people of Italy who came to Rome for this great man's defence? This was the general voice of the Senate; of the Knights; of all Italy. We proceeded to several new and vigorous votes. One cannot help pausing

for a while, to reflect on the great idea which these facts imprint, of the character and dignity of Cicero. These clauses fell, of course, when the laws themselves were repealed. Was not this an ugly precedent for succeeding Tribunes? I am entirely devoted to Cicero. He took the trouble of a journey into Gaul, to solicit Cæsar's consent to his restoration.

Exercise 21.

	[Clauses to be added as relative clauses to the sentences on the other side.]
He was a man (*rel. clause*).	His prudence was not easily imposed upon.
I am a man (*rel. clause*).	I approve no peace but on Antony's submission.
There was some secret wound (*rel. clause*) in Antony's affairs.	The public was not acquainted with this wound.
Thou (*rel. clause*) must be punished.	(*The person addressed*) is perpetually sending and receiving letters from him.
You (*rel. clause*) produce no proofs of your assertion.	You assert that we have made a false step.
I (*rel. clause*) shall not be caught a second time.	I have been grossly deceived once.
You are one (*rel. clause*).	Your greatness of mind prefers death to slavery.
He is so far happy as to have caught you with this bait (*rel. clause*).	He brags to have caught Cæsar with this bait.

Exercise 22.

He has caught you with the same bait, that he brags to have caught Cicero with. (*Change* that *into* which.)

[*Use* but *in the following sentence*, 417.] There's not one commentator of note *who* would *not* have set him right. Scarce any one has disowned the receiving of his being from God, *who* has *not* also,

in a manner, disavowed his own being what he is. There's no man *who* does *not* disapprove of the peace. There's no honest man *who* will *not* support me in so good a cause. There is no one *who* does *not* shrink from so fearful a risk. (*Attend to* 417, *a*.)

[*Alter the following examples into the idiom given in* 418.] We have not had so rainy a day since the day *on which* you left us. I have not seen so fine a crop since the day *on which* I left Hartlepool.

[*In the following attend to* 418, *a*.] We have had no company since the day *on which* you left us. I have seen nobody since the day *on which* I returned.

Is there no way of reconciling Antony and his friends? (*Change the participial substantive into the infin*.) Antony and his friends are to be reconciled. (*Turn this into a question*.)

EXERCISE 23.

[*Omit the relatives*, 421, *a*.] The man on whom you so grossly imposed, threatens to bring an action against you. The remedies with which you relieved me were very dangerous. The men with whom you acted were of very indifferent character. The crime with which you charge me is of a very heinous nature. What is the crime of which you are accused? A friend with whom I met in Italy will take care of this.

[*For* 'the things which,' *or* 'that which,' *substitute* 'what,' 414, *a*.] I thought it of service to the public, that you should be informed of *the things which* have since happened. As soon as I

was informed of *that which* had been done, I resolved, without delay, to support Lepidus in the execution of his good intentions.

[*Alter the following sentences by the omission of one of the relatives.* See 421, *b.*] The man on whom you imposed, and whom you betrayed, is loud in his execrations against you. You owe some reparation to one at whom you have so often laughed, and whom you have so often exposed. This is he on whom you smiled, and whom you ruined.

If we have any tolerable fortune for the republic, we shall here put an end to the audaciousness of the desperate. (*Turn the verb of the principal sentence into the passive.*)

EXERCISE 24.

[*Turn the relative clauses into the infinitive mood*, 422; 422, *a.*] This is the only rule we have *by which we may go.* Would that I had a friend *with whom I might consult!* I have nobody *with whom I may converse.* If, in a case so important and so necessary, there could be any occasion for words, *with which one might excite and confirm you*, there is no hope that you will do what I wish, and what is proper.

It were otherwise impossible, that a man naturally shrewd and sensible could have satisfied himself with palpable sophistry, which has not even the grace of fallacy to recommend it. (*Insert* such *before* palpable, 419.) Wherefore *Lepidus* is cruel to his children, not he who adjudges Lepidus an enemy. (*Make* Lepidus *emphatic*, 321.) Is not our greatest hope in you and in your army? (*Turn the question into an assertion*, 333.)

[*Substitute* what *for* 'that which,' 'the thing which,' &c.] *That*, against *which* your mother and sister are now soliciting, in favour of the children, the very same, and much worse, Antony, Lepidus, and our other enemies, are, at this very moment, threatening to us all. But *the thing which* gave the greatest shock to the whole republican party, was a law contrived by Cæsar, and published by his colleague Pedius. He began to think it his best scheme to concur in *that which* seemed to be more peculiarly his own part, the design of revenging the death of his uncle.

EXERCISE 25.

[*For* every thing that, &c., *substitute* whatever.] If I obtain this of you, you will not scruple, I am sure, to do *every thing that* you can for them.

[*Use a relative adv. for* in which, 423.] He was engaged in an inexpiable war, in which he must either conquer or perish with the republic itself.

His legions must be not only supported, but rewarded. (*Use the idiom given in* 311.) Is he the less to be pitied for not keeping a better guard against so detestable a villain? (*Turn into an assertion.*) He was present at a conference of Cn. Pompey, the Consul, and P. Vettius, the general of the Marsi, *held between the two camps.* (*Turn the attributive clause in Italics into a relative sentence.*) Since the republic, *that I may speak the most moderately*, has no occasion for this embassy, yet, if I can undertake it with safety, I will go. (*Turn the sentence in Italics into an infinitive clause.*) If I do not deceive myself, *they*, by their watchings, cares, and votes, have managed matters so, that all the attempts of my enemies have not yet been able to do me any harm. (*Make* they *emphatic*, 323.)

EXERCISE 26.

[*The event described in the second of each pair of sentences is to be expressed as immediately following the first*, 427.] (1.) I saw the surmise. I began to write. (2.) This principle is admitted. It is subverted. (3.) We were sitting down to supper. A hasty rap alarmed us. (4.) I had reached the yard-door, and opened it. Lady Austen appeared, leaning on Mr. Scott. (5.) He was invested with this office. He marched to Brundisium. (6.) The peace was made. It was broken (*use* hardly—before). (7.) My remarks were published. I began, one may imagine, to be in no small pain for myself.

[*Express the speedy, but not immediate subsequence of the second event in the sentences just given*, 429.] This, one would think, might have induced you to suffer a man to be quiet, who suffers every body else to be quiet. (*Get rid of the second* quiet, 310, *a*.) It is now in a manner become necessary for him to publish some apology for himself, and not to suffer his person and character to be exposed to the world, under such [6] false and detestable colours as *those* in *which* our editor has painted them. (*Omit the unnecessary words*, 419.) I subjoin here a specimen of it, in which I have taken no other liberty with his words than the liberty of collecting and ranging them into some kind of order. (*Get rid of the second* 'liberty,' *and use a rel. adv. for* in which.)

EXERCISE 27.

[*Express the speedy, but not immediate subsequence of the second event*, 428.] (1.) My remarks were

[6] This is an instance of Middleton's use of '*such*' with another attributive.

published. I found that I was threatened with an answer. (2.) He had entered into the engagement. He found that he had been entrapped by the artful representations of able but unprincipled men.

Though his title promised us a full answer to my remarks, yet I observed that he had passed over many material remarks without any answer at all. (*Get rid of the second* remarks.) He would *wish* them to be looked upon as trifling and contemptible; yet will needs have them written by a person eminent and distinguished in the university for his learning. (*Alter* wish *according to the idiom given in* 369.) He constantly disclaimed the imputation in a public and open manner, which must of necessity come to the knowledge of our editor. (*Insert* such *before* a public.) For the senseless unpointed ribaldry, with which every paragraph of his is filled, 'tis enough for me to leave it to that merited contempt, with which I am sensible it has met. (*In each of the relative clauses, place* which *before the preposition, and make the necessary alterations*[7], 421.)

[*Express the immediate subsequence of the second proposition.*] His answer appeared. All my fears were at an end.

EXERCISE 28.

[*Omit the unnecessary auxiliary verbs in the following sentences*, 430.] I will offer you no apology, till you shall have retracted your offensive expressions. I shall remain incredulous till you shall have assured me that it was strictly and entirely

[7] The sentence will then stand as Middleton wrote it.

of your own composing. When you shall have completed your important work, no man will congratulate you more heartily than your old colleague.

[*Abridge the adverbial sentences in Italics*, 424, *a*.] This will pass with him for mere begging the question, or, what's worse, will, *when it is examined*, be found to be false. I shall look upon you as sincere, *till I am forced to think otherwise*. This, *till it is supported by facts and proofs*, will pass with men of sense for crude and senseless cant. The secrets of our hearts, *though they are studiously disguised*, have all been discovered by your penetration. Marcus, *when he was yet a mere boy*, had given proofs of an unusually powerful understanding. I shall proceed to consider what he has to say in justification of himself, in this answer of his which I am now examining: all which, *when it is laid together*, is, in substance and effect, just what follows.

This must needs have been a fitter engine *by which you might insinuate your poison*. (*Put the relative clause in the infinitive mood*, (1) *retaining the relative*, (2) *omitting it*.) I shall at present only enquire into the true state of the manuscripts, about which he makes such a noise. (*Put* which *before its governing proposition*.)

EXERCISE 29.

[*Turn the sentences in Italics into the form of adverbial sentences of time*, 433.] We are making great exertions to publish the Gospel to the heathen; *though our own land is filled with dense masses, to whom the Gospel tidings are never proclaimed*. Mr. A. is an ardent supporter of foreign

missions, *though his own mills are crowded from morning to night* with the miserable victims of his insatiable avarice.

These are the only crimes of which I have been guilty against religion. (*Change* which *into* that.) Strange character of friends! whom neither old acquaintance, nor esteem, nor a long intercourse of friendly offices, could restrain from discarding me, *when I was discovered* to think differently from them. (*Abridge the last clause*, 424, *a*.) I suffer for *that which* is merely speculative. (*Use* what.) It is strange, that a man can be so silly as to imagine, that, were I disposed to recant, I should not do it in my own words, rather than his! (*Abridge the principal sentence*. See 329.) All at which this good man aims, is to make me odious and detestable to every body. (*Change* which *into* that.) This, after all, does the greatest hurt to our cause. (*Make* this *emphatic*.)

EXERCISE 30.

[*Invert the order of the following sentences*, 437.] You will reap as you sow. Your reward will be as your labour. He acts as he believes.

This is a high honour for a man of humble rank *to receive*. (*Turn* receive *into the passive*, 438.)

[*Turn the following sentences into the form given in* 439.] The quantity of salt is so small, that it cannot season the whole mass. Pompey might reasonably contemn the thought of it, as of an attempt so rash, that no prudent man will venture upon[8]. This argument is so precarious, that it

[8] Turn this clause (1) into an active, (2) into a passive form. See 439, *a*.

cannot satisfy a man of judgment. The legislators, who formed the ancient republics, knew well that their business was an arduous one, that could not be accomplished with no better apparatus than the metaphysics of an undergraduate, and the mathematics and arithmetic of an exciseman.

All of them, except a few favorite ones, must now be discarded. (*Express this according to the idiom given in* 311.) This is a piece of grimace which will hardly pass upon the world. (*Insert* such *before* a piece.) All other writers, who have ever noticed the passage, take it in the same sense that I take it in. (*Get rid of the second* take.)

EXERCISE 31.

[*Turn the following sentences into the idioms given in* 440, 441.] He is cunning enough not to fall into that snare. He has done little *beyond preparing* the way for others. I have done little *beyond clearing* away some popular objections.

Mocking at sin was the only thing he did. (*Express this according to* 441, *a.*)

[*Turn the following sentences into the form* the—the *with comparatives*, 442.] The rich are endangered *in proportion as* the objects of ambition are multiplied and made democratic. Truth attracts the most strongly, when it is the most exposed. When there are many methods in a state for acquiring riches without industry or merit, there will be but very little of either in that state. In proportion as they are more numerous, so they better clear and ascertain the genuine text.

The amusements of the country, and the necessity of reforming a rude farm into a tolerable

habitation, have engrossed my time and thoughts *so entirely*, as to leave me neither leisure nor inclination to take a pen in hand. (*Substitute* too *for* so, *and make the necessary alteration*, 489.) This is even less than what we find performed in the single edition of Dr. Mills. (*Express this as a question of appeal.*)

EXERCISE 32.

[*Turn the following sentences into the form given in* 439.] The world happens to know him so well, as not to be easily imposed upon. This business is so deep, that the line of their understanding cannot fathom it.

Your progress will be in proportion to your diligence. (*Express this in the form* the more—the more, 442.)

[*Consequence* or *effect.*]	[*Cause, reason, motive,* or *ground, from which an inference is drawn.*]
He may do his business full as well with any four as with them all.	He does not understand a tittle of any one of the versions here mentioned. (*As.*)
It may very well take its title too.	The Alexandrian manuscript is, we find, to be extinguished. (*Since.*)
I have had neither time nor inclination to take a pen in hand.	The amusements of the country, and the necessity of reforming a rude farm into a tolerable habitation, have engrossed all my time and my thoughts.
Our editor, it seems, hates them.	Though they had no hand in it, they were capable of doing it.
This he reckons conclusive.	It is the only answer he has given to the charge of impropriety and false Latin which I had made to his title-page.

EXERCISE 33.

[*Omit* if *in the following conditional clauses*, 449.] If men felt this adequately, they would have little heart to indulge in random speculations. If Cicero's advice had been followed, Cæsar must inevitably have been ruined. He could easily make excuses more plausible than any adduced by the old man you mention, if he were disposed to trespass against his duty and his conscience.

[*Express the following consequent clauses by the pluperfect indicative*, 450.] If Pompey had fallen by the chance of war on the plains of Pharsalia, he would have died still glorious, though unfortunate. Had any of these counsels been followed, Pompey would have preserved his life and honour, and the republic its liberty.

[*Turn the following conditional clauses into the imperative mood*, 452.] If you take away the waters from your river, it is no river, but a den or dry ditch: if you take away the banks, it is a pool, or lake, or flood. If you tell a miser of bounty to a friend, or mercy to the poor, and point out his duty with an evidence as bright and piercing as the light, yet he will not understand it. All other circumstances remaining the same, if you change but the situation of some objects, they shall present different colours to the eye. If you do but discover a wish to please her, she will never forget it.

A want of exactness in the speaking, or reasoning, may be overlooked, *if only* the doctrine be wholesome or edifying. (*Use* so *or* provided.)

EXERCISE 34. (Adversative relation, 456.)

[*Arrange the following sentences, so as to introduce an adverbial adversative clause, that is, a clause introduced by* though.] He was willing enough to make the best penny he could of them; but all he could do was to publish again Dr. Mills's Testament in Holland. He has but one, but he will soon make it as valuable as the rest. One furnishes tools, but the other must find the use of them. He flies to the law himself as an injured libelled person, but he makes no scruple we see to libel me, and others too, as much as he pleases.

[*In the following sentences, turn the adverbial sentence into the imperative form.*] Though a mere verbal critic should have all the learning in the world, he will still be nothing more than a critic of words.

Though the discoveries of Sir Isaac Newton were great and admirable, they were, according to him, but useless empty speculations. (*Turn the adverbial sentence into the form of a comparative sentence of equality*, 458.) Though such readings might appear to him very probable, they were not however demonstrable. (*Change* though *into* however, *with the necessary alteration.*) One would imagine, *when one reads this passage*, that he had at this time in his hand all the copies he speaks of. (*Get rid of the adverbial sentence*, 425, *a.*) If you leave him but one to set his foot upon, like another Archimedes, he will shake the world. (*Put the conditional clause in the imperative*, 452.) *Though our editor has no more than four copies*, he will be content with nothing less than a new original edition of his own. (*Get rid of the adverbial clause by the use of* with, 389.)

EXERCISE 35.

[*Use the infinitive mood to express the purpose*, 459, 460.] He, good man, was all on fire and impatient that he might do this public service to his country. I have brought a passage, that you may explain it. Something great and popular must, in appearance at least, be undertaken, that he may recover esteem and applause to himself. The reader will think it high time that I should come to the point in question. I have been the more particular in this, that I may show the truth of the short abstract I had given of it in my remarks.

[*Express the consequence by the infinitive mood*, 462.] Is any one so stupid that he believes this? He was so foolish, that he built a house without consulting an experienced architect. I am so candid that I allow him the sole and entire credit of it.

Errours of judgment have no more relation to candle-light than errours of the memory. (*Get rid of the second* errours.) The world happens to know him so well that it will not be easily imposed upon. (*Change* so *into* too, &c.) Though I pretend but little to criticism, I would undertake to throw out a great part of them myself. (*Turn the adverbial clause into the form of a comparative sentence of equality*, 458.)

EXERCISE 36.

[*In the following sentences let* order *be followed by the accusative and infinitive*[9].] He has wisely ordered that all the rest should be burnt. He ordered that the house should be stormed, and Clodius dragged out and murdered.

[9] E. g. 'ordered *him* to be burnt.'

Is any one so mad that he courts his own destruction? (*Express the consequence by the infin.*, 462.) If he had ordered the house to be stormed, Clodius would have been dragged out and murdered. (*Omit the* 'if.') These pursuits are so frivolous, that they are not fit to engross all my time and thoughts. (*Use* too frivolous, *&c.*)

[*Use* in order to, *to express the purpose.*] *That I may set* this matter in a clear light, let us take a review of the whole passage. That I may get at the truth, I shall first ask a few seemingly irrelevant questions.

These pursuits must not engross my time and thoughts so entirely as to leave me no leisure to take a pen in hand. (*Turn into a* question of appeal.) There is not one of these who has not made the experiment in many more manuscripts, and as old manuscripts as he himself. (*Use* but *for* who—not, *and get rid of the second* manuscripts.)

EXERCISE 37. (469, &c.)

[*Turn the participles in Italics into adjective or adverbial sentences.*] If it were not so, these balances, never *to be settled*, of individual rights, population and contribution, would be useless. The new settlers, *being* all habitually adventurers, will purchase, to job again. *Neglecting* this, I should have betrayed my subject. *Being* weary of one plaything, I take up another. I remember a line in the Odyssey, which, literally translated, imports that there is nothing in the world more impudent than the belly. I delight in baubles and know them to be so, for, *rested* in and *viewed* without reference to their author, what is the earth—what are the planets—what is the sun itself but a

bauble? Aquila was a translator of this kind, *rendering* word for word. We must now consider him as an ambitious courtier, *applying* all his thoughts and pains to his own advancement. *Having laid* this foundation for the laudable discharge of his consulship, he took possession of it, as usual, on the first of January. The publication of a law *conferring* powers so excessive, gave a just alarm to all who wished well to the public tranquillity.

EXERCISE 38. (471.)

[*Make the participles in Italics principal verbs.*] Your government will have none even of those false splendours, which, *playing* about other tyrannies, prevent men from feeling dishonoured, even whilst they are oppressed. *Acting* as conquerors, they have imitated the policy of the harshest of that harsh race. *Pursuing* the tribune into his own dominion, the forum, he gave such a turn to the inclination of the people, that they rejected this agrarian law, with as much eagerness as they had ever before received one. *Accused* by Titus Labienus, he went into voluntary exile. *Enrolling* a considerable body in Etruria, he formed them into a regular army. *Representing* the whole as the fiction of his enemy Cicero, he offered to give security for his behaviour. Still *keeping* on the mask, he had the confidence to come to this very meeting in the capital. Cicero, *provoked* by his impudence, instead of entering upon any business, addressed himself directly to Catiline. *Breaking* out into a most severe invective against him, he laid open the whole course of his villanies, and the notoriety of his treasons.

EXERCISE 39.

[*Change the adverbial accessory sentences into participial clauses*, 476.] As all thoughts of peace were now laid aside, he made active preparations for war. There can be no need of Mr. Haweis, as the point in dispute has been already tried. As my neckcloths are all worn out, I intend to wear stocks. Since that day was a festival, Quintus was obliged to spend it at Arcanum. When the fowls were taken out of the coop, one of them appeared distempered. As some weeks have passed without any proposal of accommodation, I am persuaded that none are intended. If these laws are repealed, the fences of our civil peace and quiet are gone. As Cæsar has refused his consent, there remains no hope of my speedy restoration. As eight of the tribunes were Cicero's friends, one effort more was made to obtain a law in his favour. As it was penal by the Clodian law, to move any thing for him, no one could be induced to propose such an act. As Pompey was disgusted, every thing went wrong.

EXERCISE 40.

[*Substitute the participial substantive for the words in Italics.*] It is *to plunge* and *sink* year after year into still greater depths of calamity. Their native land is an indulgent parent, to whose arms even they who have been imprudent and undeserving may, like the prodigal son, betake themselves without any fear of *rejection*. I will not suppose my judges to be so unfaithful to their oath as, *when* they *give* judgment, to be guided by their feelings instead of their reason, and their sense of justice. *When* Cæsar *went* to Spain, he had engaged Crassus to stand bound for him to his

creditors. Clodius began, without *loss* of time, to sue for the tribunate. After *he had shown* by what scandalous methods this accusation was procured, he declared that the true Grecians were on his side. He gave a remarkable proof at this time *that* he *was* no temporiser. I have no fear that he will *fancy* himself neglected. He cured him of all his jealousy by a free *offer* of his assistance and patronage in pleading his cause. Your *two rejections* are the subject of considerable mirth at your expense. He assigned the task of Sextius's *prosecution* to one of his confidants.

EXERCISE 41.

However bad they may have been before, they were certainly good consuls. (*Turn* however *into* whatever[1].) He always thought them sincere: they did not, however, in all cases, act up to his wishes. (*Arrange the latter clause as an adverbial accessory clause.*) If they had lived to reap the fruits of your victory, their power and authority would have been sufficient to restrain Octavius within the bounds of his duty. (*Omit the* 'if.') Sustain the tottering republic till the arrival of Brutus to our assistance. (*Mark the time by an adverbial accessory sentence*, i. e. *change* arrival *into a verb.*) The death of the two consuls placed Octavius at once above controul, *because* it left him the master of both armies. (*Get rid of the accessory sentence by using the participial substantive.*) They could not be induced to follow D. Brutus, because they were disaffected to him. (*Express the cause by a participle.*) The death of the consuls fell out so lucky and apposite to all Octavius's views, that it

[1] This will make it necessary to omit the adj. *bad.*

gave rise to a general persuasion that they had received foul play. (*Turn* gave *into the infin.*) The chief ground of that notion seems to have *been* the fortunate coincidence of the facts with the interests of Octavius. (*For* been, *use a strengthened copula.* See 326, *a.*)

EXERCISE 42.

M. Brutus, in the most pressing manner, begged of Cicero to procure Glyco's enlargement, *because he was* a most worthy man, incapable of such a villany, and who of all others suffered the greatest loss by Pansa's death. (*Express the ground of his application by a participle, using* 'as' *with it.*) I *have* occasionally *expressed* opinions upon the course of public events, and *given* vent to feelings as national interest excited them. (*Turn the two first verbs into the pass. voice.* See 356 (1).) If the author were conscious of being able to do justice to those important topics, he might avail himself of the periodical press for offering anonymously his thoughts, such as they are, to the world. (*Omit* 'if.') Is there not reason for apprehension, that some of the regulations of the new act have a tendency to render the principle nugatory by difficulties thrown in the way of applying it? (*Turn the question into an assertion.*) His studies were chiefly philosophical, *of which* he had been fond from his youth, and *which* he now resumed with great ardour. (*Get rid of the second* 'which' *by altering the place of* 'of.') *Calling* to mind the doctrines of political economy which are now prevalent, the author cannot forbear to enforce the justice of the principle, and to insist upon its salutary operation. (*Change the participle into a verb.*)

Exercise 43.

If the value of life be regarded in a right point of view, may it not be questioned, whether this right of preserving life at any expense short of endangering the life of another, does not survive man's entering into the social state? (*Turn the conditional clause into the imperative form*, 452.) To waive this, is it not indisputable, that the claim of the state to the allegiance involves the protection of the subject? (*Turn the infin. into a participle.*) As all rights in one party impose a correlative duty upon another, it follows that the right of the state to require the services of its members, even to the jeopardy their lives in the common defence, establishes a right in the people (which is not to be gainsaid by utilitarians and economists) to public support, when, from any cause, they may be unable to support themselves. (*Turn the principal sentence into a* question of appeal, *and abridge the relative sentence.*) As long as any due weight shall be given to this principle, no man will be forced to bewail the gift of life in hopeless want of the necessaries of life. (*Omit the unnecessary auxiliary verb.* See 430.)

Exercise 44.

He wrote[1] to Damasippus, who was then prætor of the city, to call a meeting of the senators. (*Abridge the relative sentence.*) It is not strange that Pompey, *who was* young and ambitious, should pay more regard to the power of Sylla, than to a scruple of honour or gratitude. (*Turn this into*

[1] Obs. that 'to write,' is followed by an infinitive mood of an order given. 'I *wrote* to you *to pay* the bill' = '*I ordered* you by letter to pay the bill.'

a question of appeal, *and abridge the relative clause into a simple apposition.*) Sylla, since he had now subdued all who were in arms against him, was at leisure to take his full revenge on their friends and adherents. (*Express the* cause *by a participial* clause.) The proscription was not confined to Rome, but carried through all the towns of Italy, *in which*, besides the crime of party which was pardoned to none, it was fatal to be possessed of money, lands, or a pleasant seat; *for* all manner of licence was indulged to an insolent army, of carving for themselves what fortunes they pleased. (*Use relat. adv. for* in which, *and express the cause by the* '*nominative absolute.*') Cæsar, who apprehended something worse, thought it prudent to retire, and conceal himself in the country. (*Turn the rel. sentence into a participial clause.*) Sylla saw many a Marius in one Cæsar. (*Use the plural of Marius.*)

EXERCISE 45.

By the experience of these times Cæsar was instructed *how* he *might* both *form* and *execute* that scheme which was the grand purpose of his whole life, of oppressing the liberty of his country. (*In the dependent interrogative clause, use the infin. mood.*) As soon as the proscriptions were *terminated*, and the scene *become* a little calm, L. Flaccus, being chosen inter-rex, declared Sylla dictator, for settling the state of the republic, without any limitation of time. (*For* terminated *use an adverb; for* become, *substitute a stronger word.*) The law of Flaccus, though it was pretended to be made by the people, was utterly detested by them. (*Use the gen. formed by inflection; abridge the accessory sentence.*) The law of Flaccus, though it was pretended to be made by the people, was utterly

detested by them. (*Make the same changes as before, and turn the principal sentence into the active voice.*) Sylla advanced the prerogative of the Senate, and depressed the prerogative of the people. (*Get rid of the second* prerogative.) These practices have grown so general that they cannot be controuled. (*Substitute* too *for* so.) The greatest part were guilty, in some degree, of every kind of oppression with which Verres himself was charged. (*Turn this into a* question of appeal.

EXERCISE 46.

Before I dismiss the case of Verres, it may not be improper to add a short account of some of his principal crimes, *that I may give* the reader a clearer notion of the usual method of governing provinces. (*Express the purpose by* 'in order,' *&c.*) The greatest part of the governors were guilty, in some degree, of every kind of oppression with which Verres himself was charged; *but* few of them ever came up to the full measure of Verres's iniquity. (*Combine these propositions* periodically[1], *by changing the proposition beginning with*, but, *into an adversative accessory sentence*[2].) On his return he found what he suspected, a strong cabal formed to prolong the affair by all the arts of delay which interest or money could procure, *that he might throw* it off at least to the next year, when Hortensius and Metellus were to be consuls. (*Express the purpose by* 'with design.') The statues were erected ac-

[1] ☞ A period is a sentence enlarged by one or more *subordinate* accessory sentences. To combine propositions *periodically* is, therefore, to change *co-ordinate* propositions into *subordinate* ones.

[2] This will make a change in the order of the propositions necessary; of course, *governors* should be expressed in the first clause, and represented by a pronoun in the second.

cording to the will: yet Verres, who had found some little pretence for cavilling, suborned an obscure Sicilian to sue for the estate in the name of Venus. (*Turn the rel. sentence into a participial clause.*) To this Sopater readily submitted, without any apprehension of danger, because he trusted to his innocence. (*Turn the sentence that expresses the* reason *into a participial clause.*) Sopater, who was surprised at this intimation, did not know what answer he should make. (*Turn the rel. sentence into a participial clause, and the verb of the dependent interrogative sentence into the infin. mood.*) I except the duck, he *used* to say: That bird, which Nature hath made free of earth, air, and water, loses, *by servitude*, the use of one element, the enjoyment of two, and the freedom of all three. (*Express* 'he *used* to say,' *differently; and for* 'by servitude,' *substitute a participial substantive with its complement.*) To make bears and elephants dance, to teach dogs to enact ballets, and horses to exhibit tricks at a fair, he considered as the freaks of man's capricious cruelty. (*Turn the infinitives* 'to make,' *&c. into participial substantives.*)

PART III.

EXERCISES ON MIDDLETON'S STYLE.

Exercise 1.

Writers entertain different opinions[a] about the precise time § when the puerile was changed for the manly gown: what seems the most probable is, that in the old republic it was never done till the end of the seventeenth year; but ‡ on the gradual relaxation of the ancient discipline, parents, out of indulgence to their children, advanced this era of joy one year earlier, and * gave them the gown at the age of sixteen, which was the custom in Cicero's time. Under the emperors, it was granted § whenever they pleased, and to ° boys of any age, to the great, or their own relations; for Nero received it from Claudius ‡ on his first entering into his fourteenth year, which, as Tacitus says, was given before the regular season.

Exercise 2.

But this was not the point at which[1] Cicero aimed, to guard the estates only of the citizens; his views were much larger; and the knowledge of the law was but one ingredient of many, in the character to which he aspired[2], of a universal patron, not only of the fortunes, but of the lives and liberties of his countrymen: for that was the

[a] For the meaning of this type, and of the marks used, see the beginning of the volume.

proper notion of an orator, or pleader of causes; whose profession it was to speak aptly, elegantly, and copiously, on every subject which could be offered to him, and whose art therefore included in it all other arts of the liberal kind, and * could not be acquired to any degree of perfection, ° by any one § who did not possess a competent knowledge of § all that [2] was great and laudable in the universe. This was his own idea of what he had undertaken; and his present business therefore was, to *acquire the preparatory knowledge* [4] fit to sustain the weight of this great character: so that while he was studying the law under the Scævolas, he spent a large share of his time in attending the pleadings at the bar, and the public speeches of the magistrates, and never passed one day § that he did not write and read something at home; § and he constantly took notes, and made comments on ‡ the subjects of his reading.

[1] Use *that*. [2] Begin with *which* (as Middleton does).
[3] Use *whatever*.
[4] Use a figure borrowed from the art of *building*.

EXERCISE 3.

§ When this war broke out, the Romans gave the freedom of the city to all the towns which remained faithful to them; and § when it was ended, after § three hundred thousand lives had been destroyed, thought fit, for the sake of their future quiet, to grant it to all the rest: but this step, ‡ considered by them ° as the foundation of a perpetual peace, was, ‡ according to the observation of an ingenious writer, one of the causes that hastened their ruin: for the enormous bulk to which the city was swelled by it, *produced* many new disorders, that gradually corrupted, and at last

destroyed it; and the discipline of the laws, § which were calculated for a people whom the same walls would contain, was too weak to keep in order the vast body of Italy; so that, from this time chiefly, all affairs were decided by faction and violence, and the influence of the great; for these[1] could bring whole towns into the Forum, from the remote towns of Italy; or * could pour in a number of slaves and foreigners, under the form of citizens; for when the names and persons of real citizens could no longer be distinguished, it was not possible to know whether any act had passed regularly, by the genuine suffrage of the people.

[1] For '*these*,' use *relat. pronoun.*

EXERCISE 4.

But the greatest *encouragement* to his industry was the fame and splendour of Hortensius, who *was the first man* at the bar, and whose praises *filled* him with such an ambition of acquiring the same glory, that he scarce allowed himself any rest from his studies, either * by day or by night: he had in his house with him Diodotus the stoic, as his preceptor in various parts of learning, but more particularly in logic; which Zeno, as he tell us, used to call a close and contracted eloquence; as he called eloquence an enlarged and dilated logic: § he compared the one to the fist, or hand doubled; the other, to the palm opened. Yet, § though he paid great[1] attention to logic, he never suffered a day to pass without some exercise in oratory; chiefly that of declaiming, which he generally performed with his fellow-students, M. Piso and Q. Pompeius, two young noblemen, § who were a little older than himself, with whom he had contracted

an intimate friendship. They declaimed sometimes in Latin, but much oftener in Greek; because the Greek furnished a greater variety of elegant expressions, and an opportunity of imitating and introducing them into the Latin; and because the Greek masters, ‡* being by far the best, could not correct and improve them, unless they declaimed in that language.

[1] Use '*with.*'

EXERCISE 5.

In this general destruction of the faction of Marius[1], J. Cæsar, § who was then about seventeen years old, had much difficulty to escape with life: he was nearly allied to old Marius, and had married Cinna's daughter; but he could not be induced to divorce her[2], by all the threats of Sylla; who § considered him for that reason as irreconcileable to his interests, and deprived him of his wife's fortune and the priesthood, which he had obtained. Cæsar, therefore, § who apprehended still somewhat worse, thought it prudent to retire, and conceal himself in the country, where § he was discovered accidentally by Sylla's soldiers, * and was forced to redeem his head by a very large sum: but the intercession of the Vestal virgins, and the authority of his powerful relations, extorted a grant of his life very unwillingly from Sylla; who bade them take notice, that he, for whose safety they were so solicitous, would one day be the ruin of that aristocracy, which he was then establishing with so much pains, for that he saw many a Marius[3] in one Cæsar.

[1] Express '*of Marius*' by an adjective. [2] Use the *rel. pron.*
[3] Use the *plural.*

EXERCISE 6.

Having occasion, in the course of his pleading, to mention that remarkable punishment ‡ contrived by their ancestors for the murder of a parent, of sewing the criminal alive in a sack, and throwing him into a river, he says, "That the meaning of it was, to strike him at once, as it were, out of the system of nature, by taking from him the air, the sun, the water, and the earth; * in order that he, who had destroyed the author of his being, should lose the benefit of those elements, from which [1] all things derive their being. They would not throw him to the beasts, lest the beasts themselves should be made more furious by the contagion of so great [2] wickedness [3]: they would not commit him naked to the stream, lest the very sea, ‡ the purifier of all other pollutions, should be polluted by him [3]: they left him no share of any thing natural, * how vile or common soever it might be [4]: for what is so common as breath to the living, earth to the dead, the sea to those who float, the shore to those who are cast up? Yet these wretches live so, as long as they can, as not to draw breath from the air; die so, as not to touch the ground; are so tossed by the waves, as not to be washed by them; so cast out upon the shore, as to find no rest even on the rocks." Though [5] this passage was received with acclamations of applause; yet, § when he spoke of it afterwards himself, he calls it, "the redundancy of a juvenile fancy, which wanted the correction of his sounder judgment; and, like all the compositions of young men, was not applauded so much for its own sake, as for the hopes * which it gave of his more improved and ripened talents."

[1] Use a *relat. adverb.*
[2] Use *such.*
[3] Turn this sentence into the active.
[4] Abridge this sentence.
[5] Make this a principal sentence (i. e. omit *though*).

Exercise 7.

§ When Cicero returned from Greece, there reigned in the forum two orators of noble birth and great authority, Cotta and Hortensius, whose glory *excited* him with an emulation of their virtues. Cotta's way of speaking was calm and easy, § and flowed with great elegance and propriety of diction: Hortensius's was sprightly, elevated, and warming, both by his words and action; § and as that °orator[1] was nearer to him in age, about eight years older, and excelled in his own taste and manner, he was considered by him more particularly as his pattern, or competitor rather, in glory. The business of pleading, * though it was a profession of all others the most laborious[2], yet was not mercenary, or undertaken for any pay; ‡ it being illegal to take money, or to accept even a present for it: but the richest, the greatest, and the noblest of Rome freely offered their talents to the service of their citizens, as the common guardians and protectors of those § who were innocent and distressed.

[1] Use the *relat. pronoun.* [2] Abridge this sentence.

Exercise 8.

The quæstors were the general receivers or treasurers of the republic: their[1] number had been gradually enlarged with the bounds and revenues of the empire from two to twenty, as it now stood from the last regulation of Sylla. They were sent annually into the several provinces, one with every proconsul or governor, to whom they were next in authority, and had the proper equipage of magistrates, the lictors carrying the fasces before

them; which was not, however, allowed to them at Rome. Besides the care of the revenues, it was their business also to provide corn and all sorts of grain to be used[2] by the armies abroad, and consumed[2] by the public at home.

This was the first step in the legal ascent and gradation of public honours, which gave an immediate right to the senate, and § when the °period of office was over, an actual admission into it during life: and though, strictly speaking, none were held to be complete senators, ‡ before their enrolment at the next lustrum in the list of the censors, yet that was only a matter of form, and what could not be denied to them, unless § they were accused or notoriously guilty, for which every other senator was equally liable to be degraded.

[1] Use *relat. pronoun.*

[2] Use the substantives '*use*' and '*consumption.*'

EXERCISE 9.

The consuls of this year were Cn. Octavius and C. Scribonius Curio; ‡ the first being Cicero's particular friend; a person of singular humanity and benevolence, but cruelly afflicted with the gout; whom Cicero therefore urges as an example against the Epicureans, for the purpose of showing[1], that a life § which was supported by innocence could not be made miserable by pain. The second was a professed orator, or pleader at the bar, and sustained some credit there[2], though he possessed no other[3] accomplishment of art or nature, than a certain purity and splendour of language, § which he had derived from the institution of a father ‡esteemed for his eloquence: his action was vehement, with so absurd a manner of waving his body from one side to the other, as to give occasion to

a jest upon him, that he had learned to speak in a boat. They were both of them, however, good magistrates; such as the present state of the republic required, firm to the interests of the senate, and the late establishment § which had been made by Sylla, * but which the tribunes were labouring by all their arts to overthrow.

[1] Use the *infinitive*. [2] Use the *relat. adverb*.
[3] Use *without*.

EXERCISE 10.

‡ Before leaving Sicily, he made the tour of the island, to see every thing ‡ curious, and especially the city of Syracuse, which had always *been the most distinguished* in its history. Here his first request to the magistrates when they[1] showed him the curiosities of the place, was, that they would[2] let him see the tomb of Archimedes, whose name had done so much honour to it; but he was much surprised to perceive[3] that they knew nothing at all of the matter, and even denied that there was any such tomb remaining: yet, as he was assured of it beyond all doubt, by the concurrent testimony of writers, and remembered the verses § which were inscribed, and that there was a sphere with a cylinder engraved on some part of it, he would not be dissuaded from the pains of searching it out. When they had carried him therefore to the gate, where the greatest number of their old sepulchres stood, he observed in a spot § which was overgrown with shrubs and briars, a small column, the head of which[4] just appeared above the bushes, with the figure of a sphere and cylinder upon it; this, he presently told the company, was the thing that they were looking for; and § sent in some men to clear the ground of the

brambles and rubbish, and found the inscription also *which he expected •to find, though the latter part of all the verses was effaced. "Thus," says he, "one of the noblest cities of Greece, and once likewise the most learned, would have [5] known nothing of the monument of its most deserving and ingenious citizen, if it had not been discovered to them by a native of Arpinum."

[1] Use the *relat. pronoun.* [2] Use the *infinitive.*

[3] Make *perceive* the principal verb, getting in the notion of *surprise* in another form.

[4] Use *relat. pronoun.* [5] Use *pluperf. indicative.*

EXERCISE 11.

He came away extremely pleased with the success of his administration; and § flattered himself that all Rome was celebrating his praises, and that the people would readily grant him whatever [1] he desired: in this [2] imagination he landed at Puteoli, a considerable port § which adjoined to Baiæ, the chief seat of pleasure in Italy, to which [3] there was a perpetual resort of all the rich and the great, as well for the delights of its situation, as the use of its baths and hot waters. But here, as he himself pleasantly tells the story, he was not a little mortified by the first friend whom he met; who asked him, "How long he had left Rome, and what news there?" ‡ on his answering, "That he came from the provinces"—"From Africa, I suppose," says another: and § when he replied with some indignation, "No; I come from Sicily:" a third, who stood by, and wished to be thought wiser, said presently, "How! did you not know that Cicero was quæstor of Syracuse?" Upon which § he perceived it in vain to be angry, and fell into the humour of the place, and made himself one of the

company who came to the waters. This mortification gave some little check to his ambition, or taught him rather how § he might [4] apply it more successfully; "and did him more good," he says, "than if he had received all the compliments that he expected."

[1] Use *every thing*. [2] Use *relative*.
[3] Use *relat. adverb*. [4] Use the *infinitive*.

EXERCISE 12.

But the city of Messana continued obstinate to the last, and firm to its engagements with Verres; so that, ‡ on Cicero's coming thither, he received no compliments from the magistrates, no offer of refreshments or quarters; but was left to shift for himself, and to be taken care of by private friends. [0] This, he says, § was an indignity ‡ never offered before to a senator of Rome; whom there was not a king or city upon earth, but [1] was proud to invite and accommodate with a lodging. But he mortified them for it severely at the trial, and threatened to call them to an account before the senate, as for an affront of the whole order. After his business in Sicily was finished [2], § as he had reason to apprehend some danger in returning home by land, not only from the robbers, who infested all those roads, but from the malice and contrivance of Verres, he chose to come back by sea, and surprised his adversaries, by arriving [3] at Rome much sooner than he was expected, and full charged with most manifest proofs of Verres's guilt.

[1] Use *relat.* (*that*) with *not*. [2] Use the active voice.
[3] Make *arrived* principal verb.

EXERCISE 13.

He was now in the thirty-seventh year, § which was the proper age for holding the ædileship, ‡ the first public preferment that was properly called a magistracy; § for the quæstorship was an office only or place of trust, § and had no jurisdiction [1] in the city, as the ædiles had. These ædiles, as well as all the inferior officers, were chosen by the people voting in their tribes; a manner of electing of all the most free and popular; in which Cicero was declared ædile, as he was before elected quæstor, by the unanimous suffrage of all the tribes, and preferably to all his competitors.

There were originally but two ædiles, § who were chosen from the body of the people, on pretence § that the tribunes would [6] thus be eased of a share of their trouble: their [2] chief duty, from which the name itself was derived, was the care [3] of the edifices of the city; and the inspection [3] of the markets, weights, and measures; and the regulation [3] of the shows and games, which were publicly exhibited on the festivals of their gods. The senate afterward § took an opportunity when the people were in good humour, and prevailed to have two more created from their order, and of superior rank, § who were called curule ædiles, from the arm-chair of ivory in which they sat. But the tribunes presently ‡ repenting of their concession, forced the senate to consent ‡ to the choice of these new ædiles indifferently from the patrician or plebeian families. But though there might be a great [4] difference at first between the curule and plebeian ædiles, their province and authority seem, in later times, to be the same, without any distinction but what was nominal; and the two ‡ first

chosen were probably called the curule ædiles, as we find Cicero to be now styled.

[1] Use *without.*
[2] Use *relative.*
[3] Use *infin. mood.*
[4] Use *whatever.*

EXERCISE 14.

§ After he had impeached Verres, Cicero entered upon the ædileship, and, in one of his speeches, gives us a short account of the duties of it: "I am now chosen ædile," says he, "and am sensible of what is committed to me by the Roman people: it is my [0]business[1] to exhibit, with the greatest solemnity, the most sacred sports to Ceres, Liber, and Libera; to appease and conciliate the mother Flora to the people and city of Rome, by the celebration of the public games; to furnish out those ancient shows, the first which were called Roman, with all possible dignity and religion, in honour of Jupiter, Juno, Minerva; to take care, also, of all the sacred edifices, and indeed, of the whole city," &c. The people were passionately fond of all these games and diversions; and § as the public allowance for them was but small, according to the frugality of the old republic, the ædiles supplied the rest at their own cost, and were often ruined by it. For every part of the empire was ransacked for ‡ rarities and curiosities, to adorn the splendour of their shows: the forum in which they were exhibited, was usually beautified with porticos, built for the purpose, and filled with the choicest statues and pictures which Rome and Italy afforded.

[1] Use the idiom *I am to*, &c.; repeat the *am* before the other infinitives.

EXERCISE 15.

The prætor was a magistrate next in dignity to the consuls; § he was created originally as a colleague or assistant to them in the administration of justice, and to supply their place also § when they were absent. At first there was but one; but ‡ on the increase of the dominion and affairs of the republic, so the number of the prætors was gradually enlarged from one to eight. They were chosen, not as the inferior magistrates, by the people voting in their tribes, but in their centuries * as the consuls and censors also were chosen. In the first method, the majority of votes in each tribe determined the general vote of the tribe, and a majority of tribes determined the election, in which the meanest citizen had as good a vote as the best: but in the second, the balance of power was thrown into the hands of the better sort, by a wise contrivance of one of their kings, Servius Tullius: this[1] °prince divided the whole body of the citizens into a hundred and ninety-three centuries, according to a census or valuation of their estates; and then reduced these centuries into six classes, according to the same rule; § ° and assigned to the first or richest class ninety-seven of these centuries, or a majority of the whole number: so that ‡ the centuries of the first class agreeing, the affair was finished[2], and the votes of all the rest insignificant.

The business of the prætors was to preside and judge in all causes, especially of a public or criminal kind, in which[3] their several jurisdictions were assigned to them by lot; * and it fell to Cicero's lot to sit upon actions of extortion and rapine, brought against magistrates and governors of pro-

vinces, in which, as he tells us himself, he had acted as an accuser, sat as a judge, and presided as prætor.

[1] *Relative.* [2] Use an *adverb* for the predicate. [3] Use *adverb.*

EXERCISE 16.

☞ Cicero, § when the time of his prætorship was expired, would not accept any foreign province, the usual reward of that magistracy, and the chief fruit which the generality proposed from it. He had no particular love for money, nor genius for arms, so that those governments *were not looked upon as desirable by him:* the glory which he pursued was to shine in the eyes of the city as the guardian of its laws, and to teach the magistrates how § they should[1] execute, the citizens how § they should[1] obey them. But he was now preparing to sue for the consulship, § which was the great object of all his hopes; and his whole attention was employed how § he might obtain it in his proper year, and without a repulse. There were two years necessarily to intervene between the prætorship and consulship; the first of which was usually spent in forming a general interest, and soliciting for it, as it were, in a private manner; the second in suing for it openly, in the proper form and habit of a candidate. The affection of the city, § which had been so signally declared for him in all the inferior steps of honour, gave him a strong presumption of success, § when he now pretended to the highest: but ‡ having reason to apprehend a great opposition from the nobility, who looked upon the public dignities as a kind of birthright, and could not brook § that they should

be intercepted and snatched from them by new men; so he resolved to put it out of their power to hurt him, by omitting no pains which could be required of a candidate, of visiting and soliciting all the citizens in person.

[1] Use the *infinitive.*

EXERCISE 17.

‡‡ On the approach of the election of consuls, Cicero's interest appeared to be superior to the interest[1] of all the candidates: for the nobles themselves, though they were[2] always envious, and desirous to depress him, yet out of regard to the dangers which threatened the city from many quarters, and seemed ready to burst out into a flame, began to think him the only man § who was qualified to preserve the republic and break the cabals of the desperate, by the vigour and prudence of his administration; for, in cases of danger, as Sallust observes, pride and envy naturally subside, and yield the *first and most honorable place* to virtue. The method of choosing consuls was not by an open vote, but by a kind of ballot, or little tickets of wood, § which were distributed to the citizens, with the names of the candidates severally inscribed upon each: but in Cicero's case, the people were not content with this secret and silent way of testifying their inclinations; but, ‡ before coming to any scrutiny, loudly and universally proclaimed Cicero the first consul.

[1] Use a *pronoun* for '*interest.*' [2] Abridge this sentence.

EXERCISE 18.

Cicero was now arrived through the usual gradation of honours, at the highest which the people could regularly give, or * an honest citizen could desire. The offices which he had already borne had but a partial jurisdiction, § which was confined to particular branches of the government; but the consuls *guided* and directed the whole machine with an authority § which was as extensive as the empire itself. § Since the subordinate magistracies, therefore, were the steps only to this sovereign dignity, they were not valued so much for their own sake, as § because they brought the candidates still nearer to the principal objects of their hopes, who, through this course of their ambition, were forced to the practice[1] of all the arts of popularity: to court the little as well as the great, to espouse the principles and politics § which were in vogue, and to apply their talents for the conciliation[1] of friends, rather than the service[1] of the public. But the consulship put an end to this subjection, and with the command of the state gave them the command of themselves: so that the only care left was, how § they might execute this high office with credit and dignity, and employ the power § which was intrusted to them for the benefit and service of their country.

[1] Use *infinitive*.

EXERCISE 19.

He had another project[1] likewise, which he *eagerly desired to accomplish*, and made it one of the capital points of his administration, to unite the equestrian order with the senate, into one

common party and interest. This body of men, next to the senators, consisted of the richest and most splendid families of Rome; °and these[2], § since they °possessed easy and affluent fortunes[3], were naturally well-affected to the prosperity of the republic; and § since they were also the constant farmers of all the revenues of the empire, had a great part of the inferior people dependent upon them. Cicero imagined, that the united weight of these two orders would always be an overbalance to any other power in the state, and a secure barrier against any attempts of the popular and ambitious upon the common liberty. He was the only man in the city capable of effecting such a coalition, § as he was now at the head of the senate yet the darling of the knights; who considered him as the pride and ornament of their order, whilst he, *in order to ingratiate himself the more with them, affected always in public to boast of that extraction, and to call himself an equestrian; and made it his special care to protect them in all their affairs, and to advance their credit and interest: so that, as some writers tell us, the authority[4] of his consulship first distinguished and established them into a third order of the state.

[1] Make '*another project*' emphatic. [2] Use *relative*.
[3] Use *substantives* governed by *from*.
[4] Make '*the authority*' emphatic.

EXERCISE 20.

(*Catiline.*)

"He had in him," says he, "many, though not express images, yet sketches of the greatest virtues; was acquainted with a great number of wicked men, *yet was a pretended admirer of

virtuous men[1]. His house was furnished with various[2] temptations to lust and lewdness, yet with several incitements also to industry and labour: though it was[3] a scene of vicious pleasures, yet [4]it was a school of martial exercises. Such a monster never existed[4] on earth, compounded of passions so contrary and opposite. Who was ever more agreeable at one time to the best citizens? * who was more intimate at another with the worst? * who was a man of better principles? * who was a fouler enemy to this city? * who was more intemperate in pleasure? * who was more patient in labour? who more rapacious in plundering? who more profuse in squandering? He had a wonderful faculty of engaging men to his friendship, and obliging them by his observance, sharing with them in common all[5] that he *possessed;* serving them with his money, his interest, his pains, and, when there was occasion, by the most daring acts of villany; moulding his nature to his purposes, and bending it every way to his will. With morose men[6], he could live severely; with the free, gaily; with the old, gravely; with the young, cheerfully; with the enterprising, audaciously; with the vicious, luxuriously. By this variety[7], and pliability of temper[7], he gathered about him the profligate and the rash from all countries, yet held attached to him at the same time many brave and worthy men, by the specious show of a pretended virtue."

[1] Get rid of the second *men.*

[2] For *various,* use a substantive derived from it.

[3] Make this a principal sentence (i. e. get rid of the conjunction).

[4] Substitute *was* for *existed.*

[5] Use *whatever.*

[6] Get rid of *men.*

[7] Use the corresponding adjectives.

EXERCISE 21.

(*Effect of Cicero's first Oration against Catiline.*)

Catiline, § who was astonished by the thunder of this speech, had little to say for himself in answer to it; yet, with downcast looks and suppliant voice, he begged of the fathers not to believe too hastily what was said against him by an enemy; that his birth and past life offered every thing to him that was hopeful; and it was not to be imagined, that a man of patrician family, whose ancestors as well as himself had given many proofs of their affection to the Roman people, should want to overturn the government: while Cicero, * being a stranger and late inhabitant of Rome, was so zealous to preserve it. But, as he was going on to give foul language, the senate interrupted him by a general outcry, § ° and called him traitor and parricide: § when this ° occurred, being furious and desperate, he declared again, aloud, what he had said before to Cato, that ‡ being * now circumvented and driven headlong by his enemies, he would quench the flame ‡ raised about him by the common ruin, and so rushed out of the assembly. ‡ Being come to his house and ‡ beginning to reflect on what had passed, § he perceived it vain to dissemble any longer, ° and resolved to enter into action immediately, before ‡ any augmentation of the troops of the republic, or the making of any new levies; so that § after he had had a short conference with Lentulus, Cethegus, and the rest, about what had been concerted in the last meeting, § he gave fresh orders and assurances of his speedy return at the head of a strong army, ° and left Rome that very night, and enclosed himself within the mountains.

EXERCISE 22.

(*Death of Catiline.*)

Antonius himself had no inclination to fight, or at least, with Catiline; but would willingly have given him an opportunity to escape, if[1] his quæstor Sextius, who was Cicero's creature, and his lieutenant Petreius, had not urged him on against his will, to force Catiline to the necessity of a battle; who § when he saw all things desperate, and nothing left but either to die or conquer, resolved to try his fortune against Antonius, though he was[2] much the stronger, rather than Metellus; § for he was in hopes still, that out of regard to their former engagements, he might possibly contrive some way, at last, to throw[3] the victory into his hands. But Antonius happened to be seized at that very time with a fit of the gout, or pretended, at least, to be seized with such a fit[4], that he might have no share in destroying[5] an old friend; so that the command fell, of course, to a much better soldier and honester man, Petreius; who after a sharp and bloody action, in which he lost a considerable part of his best troops, destroyed Catiline and his whole army, § though they fought desperately to the last man. They all fell in the very ranks in which they stood, and, as if they were inspired with the genuine spirit of their leader[2], fought, not so much for victory[6], as to sell their lives as dear as they could; and, as Catiline had threatened in the senate, to mingle the public calamity with their own ruin.

[1] Omit *if*.
[2] Abridge this sentence.
[3] Use *partic. substantive.*
[4] Express '*to be seized with such a fit*,' by one *adverb.*
[5] Use a substantive.
[6] Use *infinitive.*

EXERCISE 23.

Though Cicero was restored to his former dignity[1] yet he was not °restored to his former fortunes; nor was any satisfaction yet made to him for the ruin of his houses and estates: a full restitution indeed had been decreed, but was reserved § till he should have returned: which came now before the senate, to be considered and settled by public authority, where it met still with great obstruction. The chief difficulty was about his Palatine house, which he valued above all the rest, and which Clodius, for that reason, had contrived to alienate as he hoped irretrievably, by demolishing the fabric, and dedicating a temple upon the area to the goddess Liberty; where, *in order to make his work more complete, he pulled down also the adjoining portico of Catulus, that he might build it up anew, of the same order with his temple; and by blending the public with private property, and consecrating the whole to religion, might make it impossible to separate or restore any part to Cicero; since the legal performance of a consecration[2] made the thing § that was consecrated unapplicable ever after to any private use.

[1] Make this a principal sentence.

[2] Make '*consecration*' the nominative.

EXERCISE 24.

At this solemn[1] dedication, Pompey entertained the people with more[2] magnificent shows than had ever been exhibited in Rome: in the theatre were stage-plays, prizes of music, wrestling, and all kinds of bodily exercises: in the circus, horse-races, and huntings of wild beasts, for five

successive[3] days, in which five hundred lions were killed, and on the last day twenty elephants; whose lamentable howling, when they were mortally wounded[4], raised such a commiseration in the multitude, from a vulgar notion of their great sense and love to man, that it destroyed the whole diversion of the show, and drew curses on Pompey himself, for being the author of so much cruelty: so true it is, what Cicero observes of this kind of prodigality, that there is no real dignity or lasting honour in it: that it satiates while it pleases, and is forgotten as soon as it is finished[5]. It gives us, however, a genuine idea of the wealth and grandeur of these principal subjects of Rome; inasmuch as[6], from their private revenues, they could raise such noble buildings, and provide such shows, from the several quarters of the world, which no monarch on earth is now able to exhibit.

[1] Use the subst. *solemnity*.
[2] Use *superlative*.
[3] Use *adverb*.
[4] Abridge this sentence.
[5] Use *adverb* for predicate.
[6] Use *relative*.

EXERCISE 25.

Cæsar was now upon his second expedition into Britain, which raised much talk and expectation at Rome, and gave Cicero much[1] concern for the safety of his brother, who, as one of Cæsar's lieutenants, was to bear a considerable part in it. But the accounts which he received from the place soon eased him of his apprehensions; § for they informed him, that there was nothing either to fear or to hope from the attempt; no danger from the people, no spoils from the country. In a letter § which he wrote to Atticus, "We are in suspense," says he, "about the war against the Britons[2]: it is certain that the access of the island

is strongly fortified; and it is known also already that there is not a grain of silver in it, nor any thing else but slaves: [0]and of these[3] you will scarce expect any, I dare say, skilled in music or letters." In another to Trebatius; "I hear that there is not either any gold or silver in the island; if so, you have nothing to do but to take one of their chariots, and fly back to us."

[1] Use *no* with another adjective.
[2] Express this by an *adjective*. [3] Use *relative*.

EXERCISE 26.

(*Cicero chosen an Augur.*)

By the death of young Crassus a place became vacant in the college of Augurs, and Cicero declared himself a candidate for it[1]; and[2] no one was so hardy as to appear against him, except Hirrus, the tribune, who, from confidence[3] in the popularity of his office, and Pompey's favour, had the vanity to pretend to it: but a competition so unequal furnished matter of raillery only to Cicero, who was chosen without any difficulty or struggle, with the unanimous approbation of the whole body. This college, from the [0]time § that it was last regulated by Sylla, consisted of fifteen, ‡ all persons of the first distinction in Rome: it was a priesthood for life, of a character indelible, which no crime or forfeiture could efface: the priests of all kinds were originally chosen by their colleges, till the choice of them, about fifty years ago, was transferred[4] by Domitius, a tribune, to the people, whose authority was held to be supreme in sacred as well as civil affairs. ‡ This act being reversed by Sylla the ancient right was restored to the colleges; but Labienus, when he was tribune[5] in Cicero's

consulship, recalled the law of Domitius, [9]for the purpose of facilitating[6] Cæsar's advancement to the high priesthood: it was necessary, however, that every candidate should be nominated to the people by two augurs, who gave a solemn testimony, upon oath, that he was a. worthy person and fit for the office[7]: this was done in Cicero's case by Pompey and Hortensius, § who were the two most eminent members of the college; and after § he was elected he was installed with all the usual formalities, by Hortensius.

[1] Use *relative.* [2] Use *nor.* [3] Use a *participle.*
[4] Use the *active.* [5] Abridge this sentence.
[6] Use the *infinitive.* [7] Use *worth—fitness.*

EXERCISE 27.

(*Death of Clodius.*)

Their meeting was wholly accidental, on the Appian road, not far from the city; Clodius § was coming home from the country towards Rome; Milo § was going out about three in the afternoon; the first on horseback, with three companions, and thirty servants, well armed: the latter in a chariot, with his wife and one friend, but with a much greater retinue, and, among them, some gladiators. The servants on both sides began presently to insult each other, when Clodius § turned briskly to some of Milo's men, who were nearest to him, and having threatened[1] them with his usual fierceness, received a wound in the shoulder from one of the gladiators; and, after receiving several more in the general fray which instantly ensued, § found his life in danger, [9]and was forced to fly for shelter into a neighbouring tavern. Milo, § who was heated by this success, and the thoughts of

revenge, and § reflected that he had already done enough to give his enemy a great advantage against him, if he was left alive to pursue it, resolved, however serious the consequence might be[2], to have the pleasure of destroying him, and so ordered the house to be stormed, and Clodius to be dragged out and murdered. The master of the tavern was likewise killed, with eleven of Clodius's servants, while the rest saved themselves by flight; so that Clodius's body was left in the road, where it fell, till S. Tedius, a senator, § who happened to come by, took it up into his chaise, and brought it with him to Rome, where it was exposed in that condition, all covered with blood and wounds, to the view of the populace, who flocked about it in crowds to lament the miserable fate of their leader.

[1] Turn this into the *pres. participle.* [2] Use *whatever.*

EXERCISE 28.

§ Soon after Clodius was murdered Cicero seems to have written his Treatise on Laws, after the example of Plato, whom, of all writers, he most loved to imitate; for, as Plato, ‡ after writing on government in general, drew up a body of laws, adapted to that particular form of it, which he had been delineating; so Cicero chose to deliver his political sentiments in the same method; not by translating Plato, but imitating his manner in the explication of them. § Since then this work was designed as a supplement, or second volume, to his other upon the republic, [0] it was distributed, probably, as that other was, into six books; for we meet with some quotations among the ancients, from the fourth and fifth; though there are but

three now remaining, * and those are in some places imperfect. In the first of these, he lays open the origin of law, and the source of obligation, ‡ deriving them from the universal nature of things, or, as he explains it, from the consummate reason or will of the supreme God: in the other two books, he gives a body of laws, conformable to his own plan and idea of a well-ordered city: first, those ‡ relating to religion and the worship of the gods; secondly, those which prescribe the duties and powers of the several magistrates, from which the peculiar form of each government is denominated. These laws are generally taken from the old constitution or custom of Rome, with some little variation and temperament, contrived to obviate the disorders to which that republic was liable, and to give it a stronger turn towards the aristocratical side.

THE END.

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