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THE ROYAL ENGLISH GRAMMAR

OP 3

. James Greenwood

UNIVERSITY MICROFILMS

A Xerox Company Ann Arbor, Michigan, U.S.A.



Robert WK Smith

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POW THE 2/9 ROYAL ENGLISH

GRAMMAR,

What is necessary to the Knowledge

The OF THE 46/0/4

ENGLISH TONGUÉ.

Laid down in a Plain and Familiar Way.

For the Use of Young GENTLEMEN and LADYS.

By JAMES GREENWOOD Sur-Master of St. Paul's School.



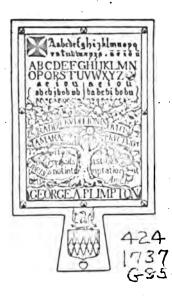
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TO

Her ROYAL HIGHNESS

THE

Princess of WALES.

May it please your Highness;

S Your prudent and affable
Behaviour has charmed
and gained the Hearts of all
Ranks of People: so they seem
to want only this additional
Pleasure to hear from your Royal
Person, the Expressions of your
Goodness to them in a Tongue
A 2 that

I therefore humbly beg leave to present your Royal Highness with this ENGLISH GRAMMAR; which, if it may be acceptable and entertaining to your Highness, will be a very great Satisfaction and Pleasure to

Your Royal Highness's

Most Obedient and

Devoted Servant,

JAMES GREENWOOD.

THE

PREFACE.

A Sall Readers generally expett fomething to be said by way of Preface; so it is a Compliment that is due to every candid and kind one. And indeed it was necessary for me to write a Preface, if it were but only to give the Reasons for my writing this Book. After I had published my Essay towards a Practical English Grammar; which met with an universal Approbation; I was told by my Friends that several a Per-

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Persons had been pleased to take such particular Notice of the Essay, as to make Abstracts and Abridgements of it. They therefore pressed me, Time after Time, to do it myself; adding to their own Desires, that of the Learned Dr. Watts; alledging also, that I should be wanting to my self, if I did not undertake it. How I have performed it, must be left to the Judgment of others. This I suppose will be allowed, that I am as capable of abstratting my own Book, as any other Person for me. I have here intirely left out the large Historical Preface, and all the Critical Notes; and have fo adapted Matters to the Understanding of the meanest Capacity, that they who never learnt any Latin, may attain to a good knowledge of the Nature and Genius of their Mother. TONGUE.

I have likewise endeavoured to make every Thing Easy and Familiar to the Fair Sex, whose Education, perhaps, is too much neglected in this Particular. And indeed the Study of English Grammar seems not to be . much minded by our Young Gentlemen. It is therefore worth the while of Persons of both Sexes to take some Pains in the Study of this useful and necessary Art. For tho' it is possible that a Young Gentleman or Lady may be enabled to speak well upon some Subjects, and entertain a Visiter with Discourse agreeable enough; yet I do not well see how. they should write any Thing with a tolerable Correctness, unless they have some Taste of Grammar, or express themselves clearly, or deliver their Thoughts by Letter or otherwise, so as not to lay themselves open to the Censure of their Friends, for thein

' (viii)

their blameable Spelling or false Syntax.

I hope therefore that whoever shall give this Book a diligent and careful perusal, will soon come to a good Knowledge, not only of Grammar in general, but of the English Tongue in particular.



THE

English Grammar.

PART I.

The INTRODUCTION.

HE Comfort and Advantage of Society, not being to be had without Communication of Thoughts; it was necessary that Man should find out some external or outward sensible Signs, whereby those invisible Ideas or Notions, which his Thoughts are made up of, might be made known to others. For this purpose nothing was so sit, either for Plenty or Quickness, as those Articulate Sounds, called Words, which with fo much Ease and Variety he found himself able to make. The Intentions of Men in Speaking are, or at least should be, to be understood; which cannot be, where Men do not use their Words according to the Propriety of the Language in which they speak; for Propriety of Speech is that which gives our Thoughts Entrance into other Men's Minds with the greatest Ease and Advantage; and therefore

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fore deserves some Part of our Care and Study. Wherefore those Persons, who are desirous to speak or write clearly and correctly in any Language, ought to study Grammar.

CHAPI.

Of Grammar, and its Parts,

Q. W Hat is Grammar?

A. Grammar is the Art of Speaking and Writing truly and properly.

Note, Dr. Wallis justly finds fault with our English Grammarians, where he says, All of them forcing our English Tongue too much to the Latin Method, have delivered many useless Precepts concerning Cases, Genders, and Declensions of Nouns; the Tenses, Moods, and Conjugations of Verbs; as also the Government of Nouns and Verbs, and other such like Things, which our Language hath nothing at all to do with.

Q. How many Parts of Grammar are there?

A. There are four Parts of Grammar.

1. Orthography. 2. Etymology. 3. Syntax. 4. Prosody.

Note. For fince Speech confifts or is made up of Words, a Word of Syllables, and a Syllable of Letsers: We may divide Grammar into four Parts.

1. That Part which treats of Letters, or of the convenient and proper Marks or Sounds for the Expression of Words; whether by Writing, called Orthography, or by Speech called Orthoepy, which ought to have been reckoned as a Part of Grammar priore Orthography, since Speech preceeds Writing.

* The

* The Answer might be made thus: Five, viz. Orthoepy, Orthoepy, &cc. making a Distinction between Orthoepy and Orthography, as there really is.

Questions relating to the first Chapter.

Q. What is Art?

A. Art is a Method or Way of doing any Thing well,

Q. What do you learn Grammar for?

A. To learn to speak and write truly and properly.

Q. What do you mean by speaking and writing

truly and properly?

A. Speaking and Writing after the Custom of

the best Speakers and Writers.

Q. What are those Sounds called, which Men frame or make in Speaking?

A. Words.

Q. What does Grammar treat of?

A. Words.

Q. What is the End or Design of Speech?

A. To declare our Meaning; or convey the Thoughts of our Minds from one to another.

Q. What is English?

A. A Language or Tongue which the People of England speak.

Q. What is English Grammar?

A. English Grammar is the Art of speaking and writing English truly and properly.

Q. When does a Man speak and write English

sruly and properly?

A. When he speaks according to the Custom or

Use of the best Speakers.

Q. Is there any real Difference between the Words
Language and Tongue?

A. No.

The English Grammar.

Q. Whence comes the Word Grammar? A. From Granna, a Letter.

Grammar begins with the Letters, which are the Foundation of Words, and proceeds to the explaining of the Properties of the Words themselves. It takes its Name from the Grecians, who, not much minding the Study of foreign Languages, fent their Children to School only to learn to read and write their own Language.

Hence Aristotle calls Grammar, The Knowledge

of Reading and Writing.

See the Effay.

CHAP. II.

Of Orthography, or Orthoepy, treating of the Letters and their Pronunciation.

Here I cannot differable my Unwillingness to fay any Thing at all on this Head; First, Because of the irregular and wrong Pronunciation of the Letters and Words, which if one should go about to amend, would be a Business of great Labour and Trouble, as well as fruitless and unfuccessful. ny have been the Endeavours of this Kind, but it has been found impossible to stem the Tide of prevailing Custom. Secondly, Because the multiplying of Rules for the Pronunciation, rather confounds A than helps the Learner: Since that Rule can be but of little Service, that admits of such a vast Number of Exceptions, as most of the Rules commonly laid down, generally do.

O. What is Orthography?

A. Orthography is the Art of true Writing, or that Part of Grammar which teaches us how to write every Word with proper Letters. For Example, ample, we must write, Bishop, not Bushop; so, did, foot, might, neither, frumenty; not, dud, sut, mought or med, nother, furmity.

Q. What is Orthocpy

A. Orthoepy is the Art of true Speaking, and gives Rules for the right pronouncing of Letters. For Example, we mult not pronounce flomp, shet, farvice, tunder, gove, eend, ommost; but, stamp, shut, service, tinder, gave, end, almost.

Q. What is the Difference between Orthography

and Orthoepy?

A. The Difference is, that Orthography relates to the true writing of Words, and Orthocpy to the true pronouncing of them.

Q. What are Words made of?

A. Words are made of Letters or Syllables, either one or more, as, I, We, Peter, Sufanna.

Q. What is a Letter?

A. A Letter is a Character or Mark of a simple Sound.

Q. How many Letters are there in English?

A. Twenty Six.

Q. Which are they?

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

Q. How are the Letters divided?

A. Into Vowels and Confonants.

Q. What is a Vowel?

A. A Vowel is a Letter that marks a full and prefect Sound of it felf, without the Help or Joining of any other Letter to it.

Q. How many Vowels are there?

A. Five; a, e, i, o, n. Q. What is a Confonant?

A. A Consonant is a Letter that cannot be founded, without adding a Vowel before or after it.

Q. Give me an Example.

B 3

A. M is founded as if it were written em: P is founded as if it were written pe.

Q. Howmany Consonants are there?

A. One and Twenty.

Q. Name shem.

A. B, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, v, w, x, y, z.

Q. What is a Syllable?

A. A Syllable is the Sound of one or more Letters expressed in one Breath.

Q. How many Letters may there be in a Syllable? A. Never more than feven or eight, as, Strength.

Q. If a Syllable confiss but of one Letter, what Letter is that?

A. A Vowel; as, A-men: For a Confonant cannot make a Syllable without a Vowel; as Ab-bot, not b-bot.

If a Word has but one Syllable, it is called a Monofyllable; if it has two, a Difyllable; if three, a Trifyllable; if more, a Polyfyllable.

Q Can there be any Syllable without a Vowel in it?

A. No.

Q. Is not y a Vowel?

A. Yes, it is used instead of i; but since it has the same Sound, you need not make it a distinct Vowel.

Q. Is not y sometimes also a Consonant?

A. Yes; when it comes before a Vowel it is a Confonant; as in yet, yes; but when it follows a Confonant it becomes a Vowel; as in dy, my, &c.

Note. It would have been well if the j and v Con-

onants had been called ja and vee.

CHAP. III. Of the VOWELS.

THE Vowels, A, E, I, O, U, and Y for I, when they end a Syllable are commonly long, but otherways are generally flort: Y and W differ not at all

all with us (as Vowels) in Sound from i and u; and in many Instances, are also indifferently used for the said Letters, e.gr. Mile, Chyle, Fowl, Sow, Cow, &cc.

Of the Vowel A.

Q. How is the Vowel A pronounced?

A. A is generally pronounced with a more small and slender Sound than among many other Nations.

But there are some Words in which A is pronounced broad or full: Namely, when A comes before ll in the End of a Word: As, All, Tall, Hall, Call, Wall, Ball, Fall, &c. In those also that come from these, or are compounded or made up of them; as, allthough, tallness, calling, Wall-stower.

Of the Vowel E

Q. How is the Vowel E pronounced?

A. E is pronounced with an acute and clear Sound.

But e simple, or alone at the End of the Words is altogether mute or silent, neither has it now-adays any Sound of its own: as in make, have, &c.

Except in the Article The, which is written with a fingle e (to diffinguish it from the Pronoun Thee,) and in some Proper Names; as, Phabe, Penelope, &c. for fingle e is seldom else pronounced at the End of Word. For, he, the, be, we, me, would be better written as they are sounded with ee; hee, thee, bee, wee, mee. But as often as the Sound of e is at the End of Words, it is expressed by another silent e being added to it; as, Pharisee, Saducce: Or else a is added to it, as in Sea, Pea, Flea, 1ex, Plea, Tea; or by adding y, as in Marshalfer, Langley, Hendley, &c. Though the e is now often lest out; as, Marshalfy, &cc.

Q. Do we write the e in the Active Participles?

A. It is usual in all the Active Participles to leave out the e before ing; as, for love ing, sive-ing, have-ing, we write loving, giving, having, &c.

R 🕇

N. B. But when the casting away the e would cause any Confusion in the Sense, it would be better to retain it; as, from the Verb singe, write singe-eth, singe-ing, to distinguish it from sing-eth, sing-ing.

Any Man that begins a new Spelling will run the hazard of his Discretion; and if he is not followed in it, it comes to nothing: For general Custom is at last the only Thing that can give Countenance

or Credit to it.

Of the Vowel 1.

Q. How is the Vowel i sounded?

A. When the Vowel i is short, it is sounded most commonly with a small Sound; as in bit, will, still, win, pin, sin, fill, &cc.

But when i is long, it is most commonly pronounced like the et or ei of the Greeks; as in bite,

wile, stile, wine, pine.

There is also a Third Sound of i, like ee, as in oblige [obleege] &c. And if at any time the Sound of the short i is to be lengthened, it is not always writ with i, but sometimes with ee, as in Steel, seen, feel; sometimes with ie, as in field, shield.

N. B. No English Word ends in i but has always an eafter it, as easie, not easi, though now ie is frequently changed into y.

Of the Vowel O.

Q. How is the Vowel o founded?

A. The Vowel o has three forts of Sounds; as in rose, go, &c. sometimes it is expressed by an or aw and a long; as in folly, fond, where the Sound of the first Vowel is the same with a in fall, and aw in sawn, only the last is long, and the former short; lastly, it is sometimes sounded like the obscure u, as when we carelestly pronounce Condition, London, Compasse; as if they were written Cundition, Lundon, Cumpasse, &c. And so likewise some pronounce

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come, done, some, Son, Love, Dove, as if they were

written cume, dune, sume, &c.

Few English Words end in o, except do, go, lo, no, fo, to, too, two, unto; the Sound of out the End of Words, being generally expressed by ow; except in Toe, Foe, doe, Roe.

Of the Vowel U.

Q. How is the Vowel u founded?

A. The Vowel u is either short or long. The short Vowel u is pronounced with an obscure

Sound: as in but, cut, burft, curft, &cc.

The long Vowel u is pronounced like the French u, with a finall or slender Sound; as in Lute, Mute, Mule, Cure, &c. with a Sound as it were made up This Sound might be distinguished of i and w. from the former by a Point or Accent placed at the Top of "; thus, ".

No English Word is ended by w, except thou, you; the Sound of u being commonly expressed by ue or

ew; as Ague, true, new, Nephew, few, &c.

Questions relating to the third Chapter. Q. What do you mean by a long Syllable?

A. A Syllable where the Vowel has a long Sound.

Q. What do you mean by a short Syllable?

A. A Syllable where the Vowel has a short Sound.

Q. What is E final?

 \mathcal{A} . An E that ends a Word.

Q. What do you mean by E mute or filent?

A. E that is not founded or pronounced in a Word; as in Heart, Hearth, which are founded bart, barth.

Q. What is the Use of the silent or unsounded E?

A. 1. It serves to preserve the Quantity of the foregoing Vowel.

2. It serves to soften the Sound of 6, g, th, as in

pace, page, breathe, fing, finge, &cc.
3. It serves to distinguish the V Consonan: from the Vowel U; a; have instead of hau.

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10' The ENGLISH Grammar.

Q. Is not silent E in the Singular often sounded in the Words of the Plural Number?

A. Yes: And it is likewise sounded in the third

Person Singular of Verbs.

Q. Give me some Examples.

Nouns.		Verbs.	
S. Age, S. Fijb, S. Box, S. House,		First Person. So I rage, I place, I rise,	Third Perfon. be rages. he places. he rifes. be parches.

Q. What is the Reason of this?

A. Because the Sound of s cannot immediately follow the Consonants, s, z, x, β , or ϵ , g, ϵb , pronounced soft.

Q. Is it not so before the other Letters?

A. No. For in other Nouns and Verbs the Syllable is not encreased.

A Hide makes Hides.

Wife,	Wives.	So to bide,	be bides.
Name, Rope,	Names. Ropes.	to pipe, to gape,	be pipes. be gapes.
Fire,	Fires.	to write,	be writes.

Q. What have you got farther to observe con-

cerning Vowels in general?

A. All fingle Vowels are fhort, where only a fingle Confonant comes after them in the fame Syllable; as, Cat, fin, not, Cur; and they have a long Sound if e be added at the End of a Word after a fingle Confonant; as, Cate, fince, note, eure.

CHAP.

CHAP. IV.

Of the Diphthongs or double Vowels.

Q. WHAT is a Diphthong?

A. A Diphthong or double Vowel, is the meeting of two Vowels in one, and the same Syllable.

Meeting, that is the Union or Coalition of two Vowels; which is better than to fay the Sounding of two Vowels; for in some Diphthongs the Sound of one of the Vowels is never heard: As in Meat, Pleasure, where the Sound of a is not heard. From what has been here observed, we may divide the Diphthongs into Proper and Improper.

Q. What is a Proper Diphthong?

A. A Proper Diphthong is where both the Vowels are founded. As in aid, hawk, &cc.

Q. Ishat is an Improper Diphthong?

A. An Improper Diphthong is where the Sound of but one of the two Vowels is heard: as in bead, bread, &c.
Q. Which are the Proper Diphthongs?

A. The Proper Diphthongs are ai or ay, an or aw, ee, oi or oy, oo, ou or ow.

But when a Proper Diphthong loses its natural Sound, and changes to any other simple Sound, it ceases to be a Proper, and becomes an Improper Diphthong, as having only the fingle Sound of some one single Vowel. Except where on sounds like oo; as in could, should, would; for oo is also a Proper Diplethonz.

Q. Which are the Improper Diphthongs?

A. The Improper Diphthongs are ea, eo, eu, ie, oa, and ui, and oe.

Where the Sound of only one of the Vowels is heard; and in most of them it is the Sound of the first Vowel that is heard: Though it is very likely that both the Vowels were formerly pronounced.

Q. How are these Diphthongs sounded?

A. Ai or ay expresses a Sound composed of one short a and y: as in Day, Praise.

In the middle of a Word it generally has its full Sound. At the end of a Word it is founded like a; as in may, pay, &cc. Also before r, it has the Sound of a; as in bair, fair, &c.

Before Words ending in n, it is better to write,

ei, than ei, as Fountain, &c.

N. B. Ai, is written in the beginning and middle of Words, but, ay, always at the end: (unless in aye) therefore we must always write, ay, at the end of Words, instead of, a, which ends no Engli/b Word.

A. Au, or, aw, rightly pronounced, would give us a Sound made up of the English short a and w: But it is now-a-days simply sounded, the Sound of a being expressed broad, and the Sound of the w quite suppressed.

For they do with the same Sound pronounce all,

aul, awl, call, caul, cawl, &c.

Aw, always ends a Word; au, not.

A. Ea, is now pronounced as the long e, the Sound of a being quite filenced and suppressed, and the Sound of e lengthened. For the chief Use of a is, that it makes the Syllable to be counted long: So, met, meat; fet, feat, &cc. have no difference in Sound, only the Vowel in the former is short, and in the latter it is long.

A. Ee, or ie, is founded like the French long i, that

that is slender i; for the French give the same Sound to fin, vin, as the English do to feen, ven, or perhaps, fien, vien, as we do in fiend, seen. Single Words in one Syllable in e, often sound ee, and ought therefore to be written with double ee; as in bee, bee, mee, wee, shee, &cc.

Ie is used for y at the end of Words; as signifie

or fignify.

Words written with ie; as friend, fiend, believe, grieve, &cc. might perhaps be better written with

a fingle i, short or long; or elong.

A. Ei or ey is founded by clear e, and y; or else simply by e long, the Sound of the y being suppressed; as in receive, feize, deceit; or else like ai, or a long, in reign, feign, eight, &c.

- A. Eu, ew, eau, are sounded by clear e, and w; or rather u long. As in neuter, sew, beauty, &c. But some pronounce them more sharp, as if they were to be written Niewter, siew, bieuty, or ninter, siw, biwty, &c. especially in the Words new, knew, shew. But the sirst way of pronouncing them is the better.
- A. Oo has its own natural Sound in good, flood, root, foot, &c.

Oo founds like long o in door, floor: But like long

win flood and blood.

A. Gi or oy are expressed by open or clear o, but short, and y. As in Noise, Boys, Toys, Oil, Oister, &c. But some do pronounce them like o, or obscure u; as oyl, oil, or tuyl, uyl, &c. In some Words it is sounded like i long; as in join, point, anoint, &c.

N. B. Oi is used at the beginning and middle of

Words; of at the end.

A. Ou and ow have two Sounds, one more

clear, the other more obscure.

In fome Words the Sound is expressed more clear by the open o and w. As in Soul, fnow, know,

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low, owe, bowl, &cc. With which Sound the simple o is sometimes expressed, namely before ld; as in Gold, scold, hold, cold, old, &cc. and before double ll; in Poll, roll, toll, &cc. But all these Words are pronounced by some by full O; as if they were written Sole, Sno, &c.

In other Words ou and ow are pronounced with a more obscure Sound; namely with a Sound com-

posed of the obscure o, and u, and w.

As in House, Mouse, our, out, Owl, foul, Fowl, bow, Bough, sow, &c.

But in could, would, should, course, court, ou is

negligently pronounced as oo.

A. Eo, in Leopard, feodary, jeopardy, &c. O is filent.

In People, eo is sounded ee.

A. Oa is sounded like o long, the a being added only to make the Sound long, and is neglected in the Pronunciation: as in Boat, float, goat. But it is sounded like au, in broad, abroad, groat, &c.

A. Ui is put for i short; as in Guilford, Guild-Hall, build, &c. 2. for i long, or a Diphthong; as in guide, guile, &c. 3. for eu, or eu long; as in Juice, fruit, bruisc, &c.

Q. Is ui always to be taken for a Diphthong?

A. No. For it is not a Diphthong in many

Words, as Fru-i-ti-on, Je-su-it, ge-nu-in.

A. Ae and O., at the beginning of Words are no English Diphthongs: Though some Authors do retain a in Latin Proper Names, and a in Greek Words, both a and a sound like e long: But as they are generally neglected in common Names, so they might be in proper ones. As Casar, Cesar, Oeconomy, &cc.

But of at the end of Words of an English Original, is a kind of improper Diphthong: As in Toe, ave, foe, floe, woe, where the e is filent, and the

o made long.

O. What is a Triphthong?

A. A Triphthong is when three Vowels meet together in one Syllable; as eau, in Beauty; but this we pronounce Buty.

But the English Tongue scarce admits of any

Triphthongs.

CHAP. V. Of the Consonants.

O Is there any Difficulty in the Pronunciation of the Consonants?

A. There is no great Difficulty in the Pronunciation of the Conjonants, fince they have the fame Sound with us, as they have for the most part among other Nations: Especially b, d, f, b, k, L m, n, p, q, r, z.

Q. What is a Consonant?

A. A Consonant is a Letter that cannot be founded without adding a Vowel before or after it; as m, which is founded as em; p, which is sounded as pe.

Q. How are the Consonants divided?

A. The Consonants are divided into Mutes and Semi-Vowels, or Half-Vowels. Four of the Half-Vowels are called Liquids.

Q. What is a Mute?

A. A Mute is a Letter which makes no Sound without a Vowel added.

Q. Which are they ?

A. B, c, d, g, p, q, t, z. Q. What is a Semi-Vowel?

A. A Semi-Vowel or Half-Vowel, is a Letter which makes an imperfect Sound, without any Vowel added; as S is expressed by hissing, R by a quivering of the Tongue.

Q. Which are they?

 \overrightarrow{A} . F, b, l, m, n, r, s, x.

Q. What is a Liquid?

A. A Liquid is a Letter which loses part of its Sound in another Consonant join'd with it.

Q. Which are they?

A. L, m, n, r.

Q. What is the natural Sound of C.

A. The genuine and natural Sound of c is hard like k, as when it comes before a, o, u, l, or r; as in can, cost, cub, clear, Crab. But c before the Vowels e, i, y, or before (') an Apollrophe denoting the Absence of e, has generally the soft Sound of S; as in Cement, City, Cypher, plac'd for

placed.

As often as the harder Sound of c comes before the Vowels e, i, y; k is always either added or put in its place; as in Skin, Skill, Publick, (for Publique is a French way of writing, who use qu, because they have no k:) Though we may write the Words Publick, &c. without a k, c at the end of a Word having always a hard Sound. But if by chance c has any where a softer Sound, as in the end of a Syllable, or before a Consonant, or the Vowels a, o, u, they add the silent e to render the Sound softer; as Chance, Advancement, forceable, specially, &c.

Q. How is S founded?

A. When S keeps its natural Sound, it is pronounced with an acute (sharp) or histing Sound:
But when it ends a Word, it has for the most
part a more obscure or soft Sound like z;
which Sound it also sometimes has when it comes
between two Vowels or Diphthongs.

Note, When S has this foft Sound, it would be convenient to write it with the shorter Character of that Letter; as his, advise, and in all other Places with the longer; as hisse, advise, (if it be write-

written with an s, and not with a c). These Words end in hards; us, this, thus, yes, Wherefore all Words of one Syllable, except these four which end with, and bear hard upon the Sound of s, must be written with double ff, but if they be Words of more than one Syllable, and end in us, the s is not doubled, but the o is inferted before w: as in tedious, gracious, &c.

N. B. Though we generally pronounce the ou in these Words like u, as gracius, rizhteus, &c.

Q. How is T founded?

A. When T comes before I, another Vowel following it, it has the Sound of the histing S, otherwise it keeps its own Sound.

· As in Potion, Nation, Meditation, expatiate, &c. which are founded Posion, Nasion, Meditasion, exspassate, &c. But when T comes after S or X, it keeps its own Sound; as in Question, Fustian, Combustion, bestial, Mixture, &c.

Q. How is X (ounded?

A. X is founded as Cs or Ks.

Q. What do you observe about W?

A. This Letter comes before all the Vowels except U; it also goes before R, and follows Th; as Want, went, Winter, wont, wrath, write, wry, &c. It follows as a Vowel A, E, O, and unites with them into the Diphthongs aw, ew, ow, just like U, as faw, few, sow, &c.

It likewise comes before the Letter H, though it is really sounded after it; as in when, what, which, that are sounded hwen, hwat, hwich, and so our Saxon Ancestors were wont to place it.

W is founded in English as U in the Latin Words quando, lingua, suadeo, and in others after Q, G,S. We always count this Letter a Consonant; yet its Sound is not very different from U.

Q. What do you observe with relation to Y?

A. This Letter is both a Consonant and a Vowel. Y at the beginning of a Syllable comes before only Vowels, especially A, E, O; and it also sollows these, and does with them make up the Diphthongs; as ay, ey, oy, which have the same Sound as au, eu, ou. At the end of a Word Y is more frequently written than I; but in the middle of Words it is not so frequently used as I is, unless it be in Words which come from the Greek written with Y.

Q. What do you observe about V?

A. We pronounce the V Consonant with a Sound very near the Letter F.

For Fand V have the same difference as P and B. It is now written with a different Character from the Vowel U. In our Language it comes only before the Vowels, but never before the Consonant R, as in the French Tongue, nor before L as in Dutch. It follows not only the Vowels, but also the Consonants L, R, in the last part of the same Syllable; but the silent E, or else an Apostrophe is put in its place, lest it should be taken for a Vowel; as Vain, Vein, Virene, Vice, Voice, Vulgar, bave, leave, live, Love, Carve, Calves, &c.

Q. IVbat do you observe of J?

A. It always begins a Syllable, and is placed only before Vowels: For if at any time its Sound comes at the end of a Word, it is expressed by soft G, or D_S, with the silent E after it, that the softer Sound of the Letter G may be perceived; as in Age, Raze, Knowledge.

It is now-a-days written with a longer Character thus, J, to diftinguish it from the Vowel I. We pro-

pronounce the J Consonant harder than most other People.

Q. What do you observe with relation to G?

A. G before A, O, U, is founded hard; as Game, Gone, Gun; but when it comes before E, I, Y, or before an Apostrophe, the Mark of an absent E. It has for the most part a softer Sound in all Words derived from Latin; like as in Gender, Ginger, Gypsie, judg'd for judged.

But as often as g is to be pronounced with a fofter Sound, it would be convenient always to have it marked with a Point placed over the head of g, to distinguish it from the hard g: which would be of a great Advantage to Foreigners. But g keeps its natural hard Sound in all Words not derived from the Latin or French; as in give, forgive, get, forget, beget, geld, begin, together, and in all the Words that come from them. Also in auger, hunger, linger, eager, Vinegar, swagger, stagger, Dagger, &c. And whenever gg come together, they are both hard, though e, i, or y follow. Also in Words derived from long, strong, big, beg, sing, bring, and in others whose Primitives, (or the Words they come from) end in hard g. In some Words w or h is added after g, which hardens its Sound; as Guide, Guilt, Guile, Tongue, Guest, gheffe, Ghoft, and to others where the u is not sounded.

Q. How is Q sounded?

A. 2 founds kue, having a after it, and beginning Words with that Sound.

N. B. Q is generally agreed upon to be nothing else than Cu, therefore it is reckoned superfluous. But as we always put a u after it, we make no more than a cof it.

Q. What do you observe of X and Z?

A.

A. X and Z are doubleConfonants; x containing the Sound of cs or ks; z, contains the Sound of ds.

CHAP. VI.

Of some Consonants joined together.

Q. How is Gh sounded?

A. Gb at the beginning of Words is pronounced as hard g: As in Ghost, ghess.

Though it is very seldom used: By some it is pronounced by the soft Aspiration b: As in Might, Light, Night, right, Sight, Sigh, weigh, Weight, though, Thought, wrought, taught, &c.

In some few Words it is pronounced like double ff; as Cough, Trough, tough, rough, laugh, are sounded Coff, Troff, tuff, ruff, laff.

Q. How is Ch founded ?

A. Ch is founded as T/b, T/burt/b, Church. But in foreign Words it is founded like or k; as Chymist, Baruch, Archippus, &c.

Q. How are Sh, Ph, and Th sounded?

A. They have peculiar Sounds.

. A. Sb is pronounced as the French ch; as shall, shew. A. Ph. is sounded like f, but is seldom written but in Words that come from the Greek, written with o, or ph; as Philosopher, Physick.

A. Th has a double Sound; one foft, coming nigh the Letter D; the other strong, approaching

near the Letter T.

It hath a fofter Sound in all Pronouns, Relative Words, Conjunctions. As Thou, thee, thy, thine, be, this, that, thefe, thofe, they, them, their, there, thence, thither, whither, either, whether, -meither, though, although.

In

In a few Nouns and Verbs ending in ther. As Father, Mother, Brother, Leather, Weather, Feather, smooth, neather, seethe, wreathe, breathe, bequeathe, Clothe.

Elsewhere it generally has a stronger Sound.

As in the Prepositions with, without, within, through: In the Verbs think, thrive, throw, thrus, &c. loveth, teacheth, bath, doth, &c. In the Substantives thought, Thigh, Thing, Throng, Death, Breath, Cloth, Wrath, Length, Strength, &c. In the Adjectives thick, thin, &c.

Db and Tb are then of that Power which we commonly ascribe to the Letters D, T, aspirated or sounded thick.

N. B. There is one Thing which doth generally frem most disticult to Strangers in our English Tongue, that is, the pronouncing these Aspirations, (as they are called,) which are very frequently ard tamiliarly used amongst us, but hardly imitable by others, though these are but sew; these sive Words, as is said, comprehending all of them. What think the chosen Judges? Which a little Practice might

CHAP. VII.

foon overcome.

Of the Division of Syllables, and some Rules to be observed in writing of Words.

Spelling being the parting Words into convenient Parts, in order to shew their true Pronunciation, or for Decency of Writing; the Grammarians have given several Rules for the Performance of this Matter.

Q. What do you think is the best way of spelling or parting Words?

A. I

A. I am apt to believe that the easiest is not the best way, is in Reading or Pronouncing, to part the Syllables as they sound best to the Ear; and in Writing, as they shall appear best to the Eye.

But however I will add two or three Directions

for Spelling.

Q. What is the chief Rule for true Spelling?

A. In dividing Syllables aright, you must put as many Letters to one Syllable as make one distinct Sound in pronouncing that Word; as fi-nal, mortal, Re-sur-rec-ti-on, Phi-lo-so-pher, pe-cu-li-ar.

Q. What other Rule is there?

A. A Consonant betwixt two Vowels must be joined to the latter of them; as Pa-per, a-bide, na-ked; except before the Letter x, which is always joined to the Vowel that goes before; as Ox-en, Ex-er-cise.

Q. What other Direction have you?

A. When two Consonants of the same kind come together in the middle of a Word, they must be parted; that is, one to the former Syllable, and the other to the latter, as bor-row, com-mon, listle.

Q. What other Direction do you give?

A. When two Vowels come together in the middle of a Word, and both are fully pronounced in distinct Sounds, they must be divided in distinct Syllables, cre-ate, ru-in, No-ab.

Some Rules to be observed in the writing of Words.

Q. When are Capital or Great Letters to be used?

A. Great Letters are never to be used in the middle or end of Words, but at the beginning, and then only,

1. At the beginning of any Writing.

2. After a Period or full Stop, when a new Sentence begins.

3. At the beginning of every Verse in Poetry, or in the Bible.

4. At

4. At the beginning of Proper Names of all kinds; as of Men, Women, Cities, Rivers, &c.

5. At the Beginning of any Word of special Note;

as, God, Queen, Sir.

6. The Pronoun I, must always be a Capital or Great Letter.

Great Letters are also used to express Numbers; as, I, stands for 1, V for 5, &c.

CHAP. VII.

Of some Points used in Writing, and of the Abbreviation or Contraction of Words.

THERE are several Marks or Points that do more strictly relate to the Orthography, or Writing of Words.

Q What is a Hyphen?

A. A Hyphen, which is used at the End of a Line, when there is not room for all the Word, but one or more Syllables remain to be written at the Beginning of the next Line: The Mark is a strait Line thus (-). It is also used in the compounding or joining two Words into one; as, House-keeper, &c.

Q. What is an Apostrophe, or Apostrophy?

A. An Apostrophe, which denotes some Letter or Letters to be left out, for quicker Pronunciation; as, I'll, for I will, can't, for cannot, &c. the Mark is a Comma at the Top, which is thus written ('), as in don't.

But this drawing of two Words into one, has very much untuned our Language, and clogged it with Conforants, and is therefore to be avoided as much as possible; as, mayn't, sha'n't, don't, won't, and the like; for may not, shall not, do not, will not, &c.

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Q.

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Q. What is a Caret?

A. A Cares (A) is used when a Letter, Syllable, or Word happens to be left out in Writing: The Mark must be just under the Line where the Letter or Word is to come in.

the

As, Thou are Man. This is very properly called

a Note of Induction, or bringing in a Word.

Q. What is an Asterism?

A. An Afterism (*) directs to some Note or Remark in the Margin, or at the Bottom of the Page. In some Latin Books it denotes that some Thing is desective or wanting.

Q. What is an Index?

A. An Index () the Fore-finger pointing, fignifies that Passage to be very remarkable over-against which it is placed.

Q. What is an Obelisk?

A. Sometimes an Obelisk (†) or Spit is used upon the like Occasion as the foregoing Note.

Q. What is a Section?

A. Section (§) or Division is used in the Subdi-

viding of a Chapter into lesser Parts or Portions.

Q. IVbat is a Paragraph?

A. A Paragraph (¶) or a Note which denotes what is contained in the Sentence or Period.

Q. What is a Quotation?

A. Quotation (4) or a double Comma reversed at the Beginning of a Line, denotes that Passage to be quoted or transcribed from some Author in his own Words.

Q. What is an Abbreviation?

A. We have also in Writing Abbreviations or Words made short, and this is done for a quick and expeditious Way of Writing. But we shall only mention a few of them. We are to take Notice that a Point is always to be written after the Word thus abbreviated,

The ENGLISH Grammar.

unless when the Abbreviation is made by putting the Letter at the Top.

Answ. for Answer.

A. D. Anno Domini, or in the Year of our Lord.

Acct. for Account. Abt. about.

Ag. against.

B. A. Batchelor of Arts,

Bp. Bifliop. B. D. Batchelor in Divinity.

Bar: Baronet.

Chap. Chapter. D. D. Doctor of Divinity.

.Dr. Doctor.

Esq; Esquire:

i. e. idest, that is.

Empr. Emperor. Honb. Honourable.

Kt. Knight.

LL. D. Doctor of Laws. M. D. Doctor of Physick.

· Mr. Master.

Mrs. Mistress. Mty. Majesty.

Rev. Reverend.

S. T. P. Professor of, or Doctor in Divinity? Sr. Sir.

St. Saint. Obj. Objection.

Qu. Question.

Sol. Solution, < ye The.

yt That.

yu Tou. yn Then. yr Your.

ym Them.

& r.d.

&c. Et catera, and the Rest (or what follows.)

xaliled horally them But sugar plus ett

Tiller 11 my the whole light be read But one ought to avoid these Contractions of Words as much as possible, unless it be for one's own private Use, and where it would be ridiculous to write them in Letters at length; as, &r. for and so forth, or the rest, Mr. for Master, and Mrs. for Mistress, &c. It argues likewise a Disrespect and Slighting to use Contractions to your Betters, and is often puzzling to others.

PART II.

CHAP. I. Of Etymology.

Q. What is Etymology?

A. Etymology is that Part of Grammar which teaches you what belongs to each Part of

which teaches you what belongs to each Part of Speech.

Words are Primitive, or Derivative.

Q. What is a Primitive Word?

A. A Primitive Word is that which comes from no other Word in our Language: as, Fish, Babe.

Q. What is a Derivative Word?

A. A Derivative Word is that which comes from fome other Word in our Language; as, a Fisher, Fishy, from Fish; Babler, Babling, from Babe.

Of the Eight Parts of Speech.

TO fignify the Difference of our Thoughts or Notions in any Language, there is need of feveral forts of Words: Now every Word being coninder'd fider'd as a Part of our Speech or Discourse, the Grammarians (or those who write of Grammar) do reckon up eight forts of Words of a different Nature, which they call, Eight Parts of Speech.

The Eight Parts of Speech are,

Noun, Pronoun, Verb, Participle, Adverb, Conjunction, Preposition, Interjection.

Of all which we shall treat in their proper Place.

Questions relating to the first Chapter.

Q. What is Speech?

A. Speaking or Discourse.

Q. How many Parts of Speech are there?

A. Eight.

Q. What are their Names?

A. Noun, Pronoun, Verb, Participle, &cc.

Q. What do you mean by Eight Parts of Speech?

A. Eight Sorts of Words, which Men use in speaking.

Q Aretbereno more than eight Words in a Language?

A. There are thousands of Words, but yet there are but eight Sorts; for every Word which Men use in speaking, is either a Noun or an Adjective, i. e. a Word that signifies the Quality or Manner of of a Noun, or a Pronoun, or a Verb, or a Participle, or an Adverb, or a Conjunction, or a Preposition, or an Interjection.

Q. Why do they give different Names to the Parts

of Speech?

A. To distinguish one Part of Speech from another; in like manner as a Carpenter, to distinguish one Tool from another, calls one an Hammer, another a Chissel, another a Saw.

Q. Are the Parts of Speech the same in English

as in Latin?

A. Yes. For that which is a Noun in English, is

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2 Noun in Latin; and so of the rest. But as for Numbers, Cases, Genders, Declensions, Conjugations, &c. these are not the same in both Languages.

· CHAP. II. Of a NOUN.

Q. WHat is a Noun?

A. A Noun is a general Name expressing either the Thing it self, or any Property, Quality, or Attribute inhering in, or belonging to the Thing.

Q. What is a Noun Substantive?

A. A Noun Substantive is the Name of the Thing it felf; as, a Man, a Horfe, a Tree.

Q. What is an Adjective?

A. The Adjective is a Word that expresses the Qualities or Properties of a Thing: as good, bad, wife, foolish, great, small, &c.

Questions relating to the second Chapter.

Q. Is not a Noun the Thing it felf?

A. No: For Grammar treats of Words and not of Things.

Q. How do you make it appear that the Words

Man, Horse, Tree, are Substantives?

A. Because if any one says, I fee a Man, I fee a Horse, I see a Tree, in each Saying the Sense is plain and full, and I understand the Meaning.

Q. How do you make it appear that the Words, good, bad, wife, foolith, great, small, are Adjec-

tives?

A. Because if any one says, I see a good, I see a bad, I see a wise, I see a soolist, I see a great, I see a small, in these Sayings there is no Sense, nor do

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we understand the Meaning of them, but there needs to be put in a Substantive to each Adjective to make Sense, as, I see a good Man, I see a small Horse, I see a great Tree.

Q. In these Sayings following, tell me which Words are Substantives, and which are Adjectives, and the

Reason why.

The Cat catches Mice. The Boy writes a good, This is a foolish, Peter loves Pudding, We love sweet,

This is a wife. A wife reads Books. They play a small, Horses drink Water.

CHAP. III.

Of Substantives Proper, and Common.

THE far greatest Part of Words that make all Languages, are general Terms; but because there is Occasion to mention this or that particular Person or Thing, they must have their proper Names to be known and distinguished by.

Q. How are Nouns Substantive divided?

A. Nouns Substantive are either proper, or common.

Q. What is a Noun Substantive proper?

A. A Noun Substantive proper is a Word that belongs to some (individual) particular One of that Kind; as Anne, Peter, James, Mary, &c. Q. What is a Noun Substantive common?

A. A Noun Substantive common is a Word which

belongs to all of that Kind; as Man, Woman, Horse, Tree, &cc.

Note. Besides Persons, Countries also, Cities; Rivers, Mountains, and other Distinctions of Place, have usually found peculiar Names, they being such

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The English Grammar.

Words as Men have often Occasion to mark particularly.

Questious relating to the third Chapter.

Q. Is the Word Anne, a proper or common Name? A. It is a proper Name; because it belongs to some particular One of that Kind; for Anne is not the Name of every Woman.

Q. Is the Word Woman, a proper or common.

Name?

A. It is common, because it belongs to all of that Kind; for every Woman is called a Woman, but every Woman is not called Anne.

Q Are the Words Ship, River, Horse, proper

or cummon Names ?

A. They are common; for every Ship is called

a Ship, and every River is called a River, &c.

Q. Are the Words Albemarle [the Name of a. Ship | the Thames, Bucephalus, proper or common-Names?

A. They are proper, because they belong to forme particular Ones of that Kind; for every Ship is not called the Albemarle, neither is every River called the Thames, nor every Hotle Bucephalus.

CHAP. IV. Of NUMBERS.

Q. WHat is Number?

A. Number is the Distinction of One from Many.

Q. How many Numbers are there?

A. There are two Numbers, the fingular, and the plural.

Q. When do we nse the singular Number?

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A! The fingular Number is used when we speak of but one Thing or Person; as, a Stick, a Boy.

Q. When do we use the plural Number?

A: The plural Number is used when we speak of more than one Thing or Person; as Sticks, Boys.

Q. How is the plural Number in English made?

A. The plural Number in English is commonly made by putting s to the Singular; as Stick makes in the Plural Sticks; so Boy makes in the Plural Boys.

Q. Is it always thus made?

A. Not always: For when the Singular ends in ch, sb, ss, or x, then the Pronunciation requires that e be put before s, or (which is all one) that es: be added to the Singular, as,

makes Churches, Brushes, Witnesses, Boxes. Church, Witness,

Note, The Plural Number (when it is made by putting only s to the Singular) has no more Syllables than there are in the Singular; as in Boy there is but one Syllable, so the Plural, Boys, has likewise but one; and as in Father there are but two Syllables, so in the Plural, Fathers, there are no more. But when the Singular Number ends in se, ze, or in ce, ge, pronounced fost, then the s that is added cannot be heard in the Sound, except it makes another entire Syllable. For Example, Horse in the Singular hath but one Syllable, but Horfes, in the Plural, has two; so Face, in the Singular, has but one Syllable, but Faces, in the Plural, has two.

Formerly all Nouns received the Addition of es for the Plural, which is to this Day retained in se-

veral Counties of England.

O. How do Words that end in f or fc make their Pluralsa C4

A.

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A. Words that end in f or fe, do (for better Sound's sake) make the Plural by changing f and fe into ver; as,

Calf, Half, Half, Knife, Knives, Leaf, Loaves, Loaves, Wife, Wolf, Wolf,

Yet this is not always so, for these Words sollowing, with several others, are excepted; as,

Hoof, Roofs, Griefs. Hoofs, Griefs.

So Dwarf, Mischief, Handkerchief, Relief, Scarf, Wharf, Reproof, Strife, Scoff, Skiff, Muff, Ruff, Cuff, Snuff, Stuff, Puff, &cc. And generally speaking, Words ending in ff make the Plural by the

Addition of s. But Staff makes Staves.

So in Words ending in s and th, though the Writing is not changed, yet the Sound is softened; for in House, the Sound of s is changed into z, as House, Houses; so th is sounded as dh, as in Path, Paths [Padhs]; Cloth, Clothes, [Clodhes]; Sheath, Sheaths, [Sheadhs]. But Earth, Birth, keep their own Sound, and all that end in rth.

As Nouns ending in y do often change y into ie, fo ys in the Plural is often changed into ies, as,

Herefy, Herefys, or Herefies, Cherry, Cherrys, Cherries, Inquiry, Inquirys, Inquiries.

Q. Do all Words form or make their Plural by

adding s to the Singular?

A. No. Some Words do form or make the *Plural* otherwise than by taking s or es, and are therefore Irregular.

Singular

Singular.

Die, Dice, Mouse, Louse, Goose, Goose, Singular.

Plural.

Singular.

Plural.

Foot, Tooth, Teeth, Penne, Penne, Penne, Penne, Penne, Penny.

But these, Ox, Oxen; Child, Children; Brother, Brethren; are Imitations of the Dutch Plural which ends in s, and frequently in en. Man among the Saxons was an irregular Word, and makes Men in the Plural, also all the Compounds of Man make their Plural in en; as, Woman, Footman, Horseman, Statesman, in the Plural, Women, Footmen, Horsemen, Statesmen, &cc.

Some Words are used in both Numbers, as Sheep, Hose, Swine; Fern, Pease, Deer, Chicken is not

Plural, for we say Chickens.

Nose, Swine is a Contraction of Sowin; we likewife say Sown from Sow, which is spoken of the Female only; but Swine is used in both Numbers, and spoken of both Sexes. It is better also to say in the Singular a Pea, in the Plural Peas.

Brother makes also Brothers, for we seldom use Brethren but in Sermons, or in a Burlesque Sense.

Q. Have all Words a Singular and Plural Number?

A No. Some Words have no Singular Number:

· As Asbes, Bellows, Bowels, Breeches, Entrails, Lungs, Scissars, Sheers, Snuffers, Thanks, Tongs, Wages.

A. Some Words have no Plural Number; as, the proper Names of Cities, Countries, Rivers, Mountains; the Names of Virtues, Vices: So the Names of Metals; as, Gold, Silver, Copper, &c. The Names of most Herbs; as, Grass, Marjoram, Parsley, Sase, Mint, &c. except, Nettles, Poppies, Lillies, Coleworts, Cabbages. &c. The Names of several

veral forts of Corn and Pulse; as, Wheat, Rye, Barley, Darnel, &c. except Bean, which makes Beans, and Pea, Peas. So Bread, Wine, Beer, Ale, Honey, Oil, Milk, Butter, want the Plural, with many others; but these Examples may suffice for the present. And some of these, when they signify several Sores, are used in the Plural; as, Wines, Oils, &c.

Q. Have Adjectives any Difference of Numbers?
A. Adjectives have no Difference of Numbers.

Note, As we say, a good Boy in the Singular, so we say, good Boys in the Plural; where you see the Adjective is the same. Yet sometimes we meet Adjectives with an s added to make them Plurals; as Good, Goods; New, News; but then they become or are made Substantives; as, Goods, for good Things; so News for new Things; Blacks for black Men, or black Colours; White er red Colours.

Q. What is an irregular Word?

A That Word is faid to be Irregular, or excepted, which is contrary to, or that does not follow the general Rule.

The general Rule in this Place is, that the Plural Number is made by adding s or es to the Singular.

Q. What is a compounded Word?

A. It is a Word that is made up of two or more fingle Words; as Furtuan is made up of Foot and Man; so Ceach and Man.



CHAR

CHAP. V.

Of the English Genitive Case, with a Note concerning Gender.

THE Mind is not always employed about fingle Objects only, but compares likewise one Thing with another, in order to express the Relation and Respect that Things have to one another: in the Latin and Greek Tongues, and our ancient Saxon, following therein the Greek, they make different Endings of the same Noun, to denote these References or Respects, and these different Endings are called Cases. The Latins have six in each Number, whose Names are as follow.

The Nominative,
The Genitive,
The Dative,

The Accufative, The Vocative, The Ablative.

But the Respect of Things to one another in our Language is thewn by the Help of certain Words called Prepositions; such are of, to, from, &c. So that we have no Cases, except the Genitive; whereby we are freed from a great deal of Trouble and Difficulty that is found in other Languages.

Q. Have the English any Cases ?

A. They have but one, called the Genitive, which ends in the Singular and Plural Number in sor et (if the Pronunciation requires it;) as, Man's Nature, or the Nature of Man; Men's Nature, or the Nature of Men; Milton's Poems, or the Poems of Milton; the Churches Peace, or the Peace of the Church.

Q. If the English have but one Case, how do they express the Relation and Respect of Things to one another?

C 6

A. They do it by the Help of certain Words, called Prepositions; such are, of, to, from, with &cc.

Note, This Genitive Case answers to the Genitive of the Latins, and to the English Prepo-fition of, fignifying, 1. The Possessor. 2. The Anthor. 2. The Relation of a Thing, as Peter's Horse, or the Horse that Peter possesses, or has. So, Milton's Poems, or the Poems of Milton, that is, the Poems that Milton made; the King's Son, or the Son of the King.

Q. Suppose two s's to meet together in the Geni-

A. If the Substantive be of the Plural Number, the first s is cut off; as, the Warriour's Arms, or the Arms of the Warriours; the Stone's End, or the End of the Stones, for the Warriours's Arms, the Stones's End. (a)

Note,

⁽a) I cannot but be of Opinion with a Learned Divine, who conceives this Way of Speaking to be contrary to Analogy, and not justifiable: We have a good Way of denoting the Genitive in the Singular, which Way we derive from our Saxon Ancestors: But they never used it for the Genitive Plural; neither did we. I have observed several good Writers, who being offended at this Way of Speaking, have chosen to clap in their; as, Warriours their Arms, thinking thereby to make the Genitive Plural answer to the Singular; one by bis, and the other by their: But they have gene upon a false Supposition, in taking the 's to be a Contraction of his, in the Genitive Singular. I know. no justifiable way of coming off here, but to alter the Form of Expression, and to say Arms of the Warriours. No pretence that I can think of, will ever make the other pass for correct Writing. The ignorant Vulgar began it; and the Learned have followed it as ignorantly, not understanding the Nature of the Expression,

Note, I say, the first s is cut off, or lest out; for when the Substantive Plural ends in s (it sometimes ending in en, as Women) there will be a double s: \checkmark one s that makes the Plural, as Warriours, and another s that makes the Genitive Case, as Warriours's: then the former s is cut off, or left out for better Sound's Sake.

Q. When the Singular Number ends. in S, are both :

the s's to be written in the Genitive Case?

A. When the Singular Number ends in s, both thes's are for the most part expressed; as, Charles's Horse, St. James's Park.

Note, Yet here, when the Pronunciation requires it, you may leave out the first s; as, for Righteou [nefs

Sake.

Q. But if three Substantives come together, how

do you make the Genitive Case?

A. When three Substantives come together, the Genitive Case is made by adding s to the second; as, the Queen of England's Crown, the King of Spain's Court.

Q. How happens this?

A. S is added to the fecond Substantive, and for this Reason, because the Queen of England's, is reckoned but as one Substantive.

or whence it came. And yet every body almost at the first hearing, perceives that there is something amits, some Flaw in the Expression, and are not satisfied with it while they use it. We have really no distinct Genitive Plural, though we have a Genitive Singular: There is the Flaw. I was, indeed, for entirely giving up this Genitive Plural, but on consulting a very judicious Friend, I have let it stand. And indeed, when the Plural ends in en there seems to be a plain Genitive Plural; as, the Oxen's Feet; the Children's Bread; tho' it does not feem so when the Nominative Plural ends in 1. L'almend

Some-

Sometimes you will find two or three of these Genitives put together; as, Peter's Wife's Portion; that is, the Portion of the Wife of Peter; Peter's Brother's Wife's Portion; that is, the Portion of the Wife of the Brother of Peter.

Q. May not I fay, the Book Master's, as well as the Master's Book?

- 1. No: For this Genitive Case is always put before the Substantive it is to be joined to; as, Man's Nature, not Nature Man's; Milton's Poems, not Peems Milton's.
- N. B. But they are mistaken who think the s is added instead of his, (the first Part of the Word his being cut off) and therefore that an (') Apostrophe is either always to be written, or at least to be understood.

Q. Is not this s added instead of his, the first part

of his being cut off?

A. No: Mary's Book, would fignify, Mary his Book; So likewise when I say, Susan's Fan, the Sense would be, if s was put for bis, Susan bis Fan.

Q. Is it necessary that an (') Apostrophe should

be always written before thes?

A. No.

Q. When must I write it?

A. When some Letter or Letters are lest out in the Genitive Case.

A Note concerning Gender.

As we have just mentioned one great Advantage of our Language, in being freed from that Trouble and Difficulty which arises in the Greek and Latin from the Variety of Cases; so we shall now take notice of another Advantage it has, full as great as the former.

Of all the Languages both ancient and modern, there is none but what admits of a Difference of

Gender

Gender in their Nouns, except the English, and Chinese Languages.

Q. What is Gender?

A. Gender is the Distinction of Sex.

Q. How many Sexes are there?

A. There are two Sexes, the Male and Female.

Q. Has the English Tongue any Gender?

A. No. We have four ways of diftinguishing the Sex.

Q. How do we English distinguish the Sex?

A. I. When we would express the Difference of Sex, we do it (after the same Manner as we distinguish the Ages and other Accidents) by different Words.

So in the Relation of Persons.

Male,	Female.	Male,	Female.
Batchelour	Maid Virgin	King	Queen .
Boar	Sow	Lad	Lass (a)
Boy	Girl	Lord	Lady
Bridegroom	Bride	Man	Woman
Brother	Sifter	Master	Dame
Buck	Doe	Milter	Spawner
Bull	Cow	Nephew	Nicce
Bullock	Heif er	Ram	Ewe :
Cock	Hen	Sloven	Slut
Dog	Bitch	Son	Daughter
Drake	Duck	Stag	Hind
Drone	Bee	Uncle	Aunt
Father	Mother	Widower	Widow `
Friar	Nun	Wizard	Witch
Gander	Goofe	Whoremon-	
Horfe	Niare	ger	(Strumpet
Husba nd	Wife		•

II. But when there are not two different Words to express both Sexes, or when both Sexes are comprehended under one Word, then we add an Adjective to the Word to distinguish the Sex, as a Male

⁽a) Lass is a Contraction of Laddess.

AO The ENGLISH Grammar.

Child, a Female Child, a He-Goat for the Male, a She-Goat for the Female.

III. Sometimes we add another Substantive to the Word, to distinguish the Sex; as a Man-Servant, a Maid-Servant, a Cock-Sparrow, a Hen-Sparrow.

IV. There are likewise some sew Words which distinguish the Female Sex from the Male, by the Ending [ess.].

Male, Female. Male, Female. Abbess Tew Abbot lewess Actor Actress Lion Lioness Adulterer Adulteress Marquess Marchioness Ambassador Ambassadress Matter Mistress Baroness Patron Patroness Baron Count Countels Prince Princess Desconess Deacon · Prior Priores Duke Duchels Poet **Poetels** Electress Prophet Prophetess Elector Shepherdess Emperour Empress Shepherd Tutress Covernour Governess Tutor Heir Heiress Viscount Viscountess Huntres Hunter

And two Words in [ix,] Administratrix, Executrix.

O. What are the Words that you generally use?

when you speak of a Thing that is Male or Female?

A. The common Words that we use to express the Difference of Sex by, are He and She. When we speak of the Male Sex, we use the Word He; when we speak of the Female Sex, we use the Word She: But when we speak of a Thing that is neither of the Male nor Female Sex, we use the Word It. For Example, speaking of Butter, we do not say He or She melts, but It melts; so speaking of Beer, we do not say He or She is good; but It is good. It, is also sometimes used when

CHAP. VI. Of the ARTICLES.

BECAUSE Nouns commonly fignify Things in a general and large Sense and Manner, certain Words called Articles are made use of in some Languages, as in the Greek, Welch, English, and feveral others, to determine and fix their Signification, and apply them to a particular Thing.

Q. What is an Article?

A. An Article is a Word set before a Substantive, for the clearer and more particular expreding of it; as, a Man, that is, some Man or other; the Man, that is, fome certain Man, of whom you have spoke before.

Q. Howmany Articles are there in English?

A. There are two Articles, a, and The.

Note, These are really Adjectives, and are used almost after the same Manner as other Adjectives.

Q. What is the Use of the Articles?

A. To aetermine and fix the Signification or Sense of Nouns, and apply them to a particular Thing.

A is an Article that may be applied indifferently

to any one particular Person or Thing.

A is a Numeral Article, or an Article of Number, and fignifies as much as One; though less emphatically; that is, not in so strict a Sense as One, unless in this Phrase, all to a Man.

But when the Substantive begins with a Vowel, or h, then we write an, instead of a, if the b be founded:

founded; as, an Eye, an Hour; but a Hare, a Hand, an Habit, or a Habit.

Q. What is the Difference between a and the?

A. a or an, denotes or fignifies the applying of a general Word to some one particular Person or Thing, in a large and undetermined Sense; that is, not telling what particular Person or Thing you mean; as, Patience is a Virtue; and therefore is set only before Nouns of the Singular Number.

A. The is an Article that declares, or shews, what particular Thing or Person is meant in speaking or writing. It signifies as much as That, but

less emphatically, that is, not so fully.

. Note, The, is a Demonstrative Article, because it shews what Particular you mean.

The Article the is set both before the Singular and Plural Number; because we can speak determinately, or in a fixed Sense, as well of many as of one Particular; as, the Man, that is, he who wrote the Book; the Men, that is, they who robbed the House.

L Q. Are the Articles put to the Pronouns?

A. The Articles are not put to the Pronouns I, Thou, You, We, Ye, My, Thy, Our, &c. We do indeed use them before fame, self, he, she; as, the same, the self, a or the he, a or the she; yet here some Substantive is understood, as the same, that is, Person or Thing; and so of the rest.

Q. Are the Articles set before the particular

Names of Virtues, &C.

A. The Articles are not set before the particular Names of Virtues; as, Justice, Sobriety, &c. Of Vices; as, Drunkenness, &c. Of Metals; as, Gold, Silver, &c. Of Corn; as, Wheat, &c. Of Herbs; as, Marjoram, &c.

Q. Are the Articles put before proper Names?

A. No.

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Q.

Q. Why have not proper Names and the Pro-

nouns the Articles fet before them?

A. Because they do of themselves individually or particularly distinguish the Things or Persons of which one speaks; and they being thus particularly distinguished, need not any more particular Distinction. And for this reason the Word God, signifying the Sovereign Being, has no Article before it. So likewise the Names of Countries, Provinces, Rivers, Mountains, &cc. have no Articles before them.

Except. 1. When it is for Distinction sake; 253
He is a Churchil; that is, one whose Name is Churchil;
so, the Talbots, that is, the Family of the Talbots:
Or by way of Eminency; 25, the Alexanders, the Casars, the Marlboroughs, the Eugenes; 2ny brave and valiant Men being called by those Names.

2. When some Substantive is understood; as, the A'bemarle, that is, the Ship Albemarle. He was drowned in the Thames, in the Rhine, or in the Danube, i. e. in the River Thames, &c. River being

understood:

We shall take notice of the Division of the Articles into Definite and Indefinite.

Q. What is the Definite Article?

A. The Definite Article is, the, which restrains or determines the Sense of the Word it is put before, to some Particular.

Q. What is the Indefinite Article?

A: The Indefinite Article is a, which leaves the Sense of the Word to which it is prefixed, undetermined to what Particular you mean.

Q. Have all Languages the Articles?

A. No: For the Latin is without them:

CHAP.

C H A P. VII. Of the Adjective.

As the Noun Substantive is used to denote the Substance of any Thing, or the Thing it sulf; so the Adjective is used only to denote its Manner or Quality, according to the different Notions we conceive or form of it: For Example, the Word Plant denotes the Thing it self; but if I would express some Quality belonging to it, I add the Word Fine to Plant, and this Word Fine is called an Adjective.

Q. What is an Adjective?

A. The Adjective is a Word that expresses the Qualities or Properties of a Thing: as, good, bad,

wife, foolish, great, sinall, &c.

When two Substantives are put together in Composition, the first takes to it self the Nature of an Adjective, and is commonly joined to the following Substantive, by a (-) Hyphen; as, a Sea-Fish,

i. c. a Fifth of the Sea.

Note, But we may reckon these Words only compounded Substantives; since it is usual only for Adjectives to be joined to Substantives; and indeed in most of them, some other Word may be fairly understood; as, in Sun-spine, i. e. the Shine of the Sun; where of may be understood: So in Sels? Torment, i. e. the Torment of one's sels: So, a Gold-Ring, i. e. a Ring of Gold. Here we may observe, that in Substantives thus compounded, the Substantive that should be first, is, for better Sound Sake, placed last: as, the Head-ach, the Ach of the Head.

Adjectives are often used as Substantives; as, usivers, for other Men, or other Things: So, One has

has in the Plural Ones, as little Ones. But we shall have occasion to speak of this afterward.

Adjectives do also often take the Nature of Adverbs, and then are reckoned as such; as sll done, &c.

All the Ordinal Numbers, as first, second, &c.

are never added to a Substantive Plural.

It may not be amis to take notice of the Use of some Adjectives. Sundry and both are added only to Substancives Plural: as, fundry Times, both the Men. For both the Man and the Woman, is a particular way of speaking. All, being put to a Substantive of the Singular Number, signifies the whole Quantity; as, All the Wine, i.e. the whole Quantity of the Wine: But being put to a Substantive Plural, it fignifies the whole Number, as All the Boys, i. c. all the Number of the Boys. Every is joined only to a Subftantive Singular, as Every Man, every Boy, not Every Men, every Boys. Much, is added to a Substantive Singular, and denotes a great Quantity; as Much Wine, i. e. a great deal of Wine. Many, is joined with a Substantive Plural, and fignifies a great Number; as, Many Men, for a great Number of men. For Many a Man is a particular Phrase. More with a Substantive Singular, signifies a greater Quantity; as, More Wine, i.e. a greater Quantity of Wine. But when added to a Substantive Plural, it denotes a greater: Number: as, More Men, i. e. a greater Number. So Most, with a Substantive Singular, denotes the greatest Quantity; with a Substantive Plural, the greatest Number. Each, is joined only to a Substantive, as Each Man, not each Men. As to the Word Enough, whether it be joined to a Substantive Singular or Plural, as Wine enough, Books e- . nough, I see no reason for a different Spelling; though I grant it is usual to pronounce it when. joined to a Noun Plural more softly; as enow.

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For No, when the Substantive does not follow, we use None, as, Is there any Beer? There is none. We likewise use None with the Addition of these Words, of it, in the beginning, middle, or end of a Sentence.

CHAP. VIII.

Of the Comparison of Adjectives.

Q. WHAT is Comparison?

A. The comparing Things between one another, whereby we see that one Thing is such, another is more such, and another is most such. So of three soft Things, one is soft, another is softer, and the third is softest of all; where you see, that in order to make this Comparison between Things, Adjectives are turn'd into other Endings; to that we make three Steps, which are called Degrees.

Q. How many Degrees of Comparison are there? A. There are three Degrees of Comparison, the Positive, the Comparattue, and the Superlative;

as soft, softer, softest.

1. The Politive Degree is used to denote or fignify a Thing to be simply such; as, foft Wooll, a fair Woman; wherefore this is properly speaking no Degree, it denoting the Thing to be fuch, without having any Relation or Respect to any other Thing.
2. The Comparative Degree is used to denote a

Thing to be more such than another Thing, as softer or more soft Wooll, a fairer or more fair Woman.

And in this Degree the Comparison begins to be made, it having relation to some other Wooll that is not fo foft, or to some other Woman that is no fo fair.

3.

3. The Superlative Degree is used to denote the Thing to be most such; as, the softest, or most soft Wooll, the fairest, or most fair Woman.

Q. How is the Comparative Degree formed or

made?

A. The Comparative Degree is formed or made by putting er to the Positive: as, softer, fairer.

Which Words are made by putting er to the Po-

fitives foft and fair.

But it the Positive Degree ends in e, then you cut off the first e, or, which is all one, only add r, to make the Comparative: As wise, wiser; for if you were to add er to wise, and not cut off the first e, it would be wiseer.

Q. How is the Superlative Degree formed or made?

A. The Superlative Degree is formed or made by putting est to the Positive; as softest, fairest.

Which are made by putting est to the Positives

foft and fair.

But if the Politive ends in e, then the first e is cut off, or, which is all one, st is only added to make

the Superlative, as wifest, &c.

The Comparative Degree is likewise expressed by adding the Adverb more to the Positive; as, soft, more soft, or softer: so likewise the Superlative Degree is expressed by putting the Adverb most to the Positive; as, soft, most soft, or softest; so that soft denotes the Positive Degree; softer, or more soft, the Comparative; softest, or most soft, the Superlative.

But Adjectives, such chiesty as come from the Latin, and that end in ain, as certain; in ive, as sugitive; in cal, as angelical; in en, as golden; in ly, as fatherly; in less, as friendless; in ry, as necessary; in

Al.

Al as General
Able as Commendable
Ing as Loving
Ible as wifible
If as Peevifb
Eff as Honest
Our as Vertuous
Ant as Constant
Ent as Excellent
Ible as wifible
Ed as Wicked
Id as Rigid
Some as Troublesome

Form or make the Comparative Degree by putting the Word More before them, and the Superlative by putting the Word Moss before them.

Except Able and Handsome, which are com-

pared according to the Rule.

Some Adjectives are compared by putting the Word better to make the Comparative, and best to make the Superlative; as Learned, better Learned, best Learned; Natured, best Natured, best Natured.

Q. Are all Adjectives compared by adding er, or more to the Comparative, and est and most to the Superlative?

A. No: There are some Adjectives which are Irregular, that is, are not compared according to

the foregoing Rules; fuch are the

Positive, Comparative, Superlative.
Good, Better, Best (bettest).
Bad, Evil, or Ill, Worse, Worst from (worsest).
Little, Less, Lest (lessest).

Q. Can all Adjectives be compared?

A. No: There are some Adjectives that cannot be compared, or take the Words more, very, or most before them; because they do not admit of any Increase in their Signification: That is, in those Adjectives, we cannot say, one is such, another more such, and a third most such; as all, one, for of three ones, we cannot say, one is one, and another is more one, and the other is most one.

These want the Comparative Degree; Middle,

middlemost, very, veryest.

Some

Some Adjectives of the Comparative and Superlative Degree are formed from Prepositions; as from

Fore comes former, foremost, [and first, as it were, for st.] From Up, upper, upmost, and uppermost. From Neath, (obsolete) neather, neathermost. From hind, hinder, hindermost. From Late, later, and latter, latest, or last. Moe (formerly used) makes more, most, as it were more, most.

Questions relating to the Eighth Chapter.

Q. Tell me what Degrees of Comparison the following Words are of; Hard, harder, hardest, more hard, most hard; Fair, fairer, fairest, more fair, most fair, &c.

A. Hard and fair are of the Politive Degree.

Q. How do you know that?

A. Because they denote or fignify the Thing or Person to be simply so, and so without comparing them with any other Person or Thing: For it I say Mary is fair, that does not gainsay, but that Sarah may be as fair: So if I say that Irou is hard, I may also say, Steel is as hard.

Q. But of what Degree of Comparison are the Words, fairer, more fair; harder, more hard?

A. They are of the Comparative Degree.

Q. How do you know that?

A. Because when I make a Comparison between Mary and Anne, I find that Mary is fair, but Anne is fairer, or more fair, that is, exceeds Mary in Beauty.

Q. Of what Degree of Comparison are the Words

fairest, most fair, hardest, most hard?

A. Of the Superlative.

Q. How do you know that?

A. Because when I make a Comparison between Susanna, Elizabeth, and Lucy, I perceive that Susanna is fair, but that Elizabeth is sairer, or more D sire

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fair than Susana, and that Lucy is the fairest, or most fair, of either Susana or Elizabeth: That is, Lucy exceeds them both in the highest Degree of Beauty.

Q. Is it good English to fay, more stronger, most

ftrongest?

A. No: You ought to say, stronger, or else more strong; strongest, or else most strong; for more stronger would signify as much as more more strong, and most strongest, as much as most most strong.

Q. Do not Substantives form Comparison?

A. No: For though a Thing may have the Word more or less applied to it, as it is of a larger or less Extent than another Thing; yet it cannot be faid to be less a Substance than another Thing: For Example, a Plant cannot be more or less a Plant, than another Plant.

Q. Give me the Comparative and Superlative Degree of these Adjectives following; Sweet, ripe,

high, good, all, big, loud, Broad.

A. Sweet, sweeter, sweetest. Ripe, riper, ripest. High, higher, highest. Good, better, best. All is not compared. Big, higger, higgest. Loud, louder, loudest. Broad, broader, broadest.

CHAP: IX. Of the PRONOUN.

A S the too frequent Repetition of the same Words is disagreeable and unpleasant, so this Inconvenience could hardly have been avoided; since Men have occasion to make frequent Mention of the same Things; if certain Words had not been made use of to supply the place of Nouns, and prevent their being too often repeated; which Words are

are called *Pronouns*, that is, Words put for *Nouns*. For as *Nouns* are the Marks or Signs of Things, fo *Pronouns* are of *Nouns*.

Q. What is a Pronoun?

A. A Pronoun is a Word that may be used instead of any Noun-Substantive. As,

Instead of my Name, I say, I. Instead of thy Name, I say, Thou. Instead of his Name, I say, He. Instead of her Name, I say, She.

So instead of saying the Book of Peter, we say, bis Book; in speaking to Peter, we say, it is your

Book, &c.

Now we are to confider that all Discourse may be brought under, or confined to these three Heads: That is, We either speak of ourselves, to another, or of another. And these three Heads are called by the Name of Persons.

Q. How many Persons are there?

A. There are in Discourse three Persons.
Q. What do you mean by three Persons?

A. Three Heads which comprehend or contain all the Branches of our Discourse or Speech.

Q. What Pronouns are of the first, second, and third Persons?

I. In speaking of myself, I use the Word I; and if more than one speak of themselves, they use the Word we: which Words I and we, are said to be of the first Person.

2. When we speak to another, we use the Word thou or you; but when we speak to more than one, we use the Word ye or you; which Words thou or you, and ye, are said to be of the second Person.

3. In speaking of another, if of the Male-Sex, we say be; if of the Female-Sex, we say she: But if we speak of a Thing that is neither of the Male of Female-Sex, we use the Word it; and if we speak

of more Things than one, let them be of the Male or Female-Sex, or otherwise, we use the Word they: And these Words be, she, it, and they, are said to be of the third Person.

Hence we may observe:

I is of the first Person Singular.
We is of the first Person Plural.

2. Thou or you is of the second Person Singular.
You and ye are of the second Person Plural.
He, she, it, are of the third Person Singular.

3. They is of the third Person Plural.

And so likewise all other Nouns, when spoken of, are of the third Person : Of the third Person Singular, if only one be meant; of the third Perfon Plural if more than one be meant.

O. We use you when we speak only to one Per-son, how can that then be of the Plural Number?

A. It is customary among us, (as likewise among the French and others) though we speak but to one particular Person, to use the Plural Number: But then we say you, and not ye; and the Verb that is put to it is always of the Plural Number. For we fay, you love, which is the Plural; and not you lovest, which is the Singular. So likewise out of Complaifance, as we use you for thou and thee, fo. we frequently say your for thy, and yours for thine. When we speak in an emphatical manner, or make a distinct and particular Application to a Person, we often use thou; as, Remember O King, thou art a Otherwise if any one speaks to another, in the Singular Number, as, thou Thomas, it is reckoned a fign of Contempt or Familiarity.

We likewise generally use you for ye. We seldom use ye before the Verb, unless by way of Distinction, l'amiliarity, or Contempt: As, Te are the Men: But it is oftener used after the Verb or Prepo-

fition: As, I will give ye a Toste of it: And I will go away from ye.

Q. What do you mean by the foregoing and fol-

lowing State of the Pronoun?

A. The Pronouns have a twofold State, both in the Singular and Plural Number. The first State we shall call the foregoing State, as, I, we; the second State we shall call the following State, as, me, us.

The Pronoun is used in the foregoing State, when it is set alone; as, Who did it? I. Or, when it goes before the Verb; as, I love, not me love; we read, not us read. But it is used in the following State, when it follows the Verb or Preposition, as, The Man loves me, not The Man loves I; God bless us, not God bless we. So Peter gave to me, not to I; John wrote to us, not to we.

Who is an Interrogative Pronoun, (or a Pronoun that we commonly use in asking a Question) and is the same in both Numbers: Its following State is whom, which is also the same in both Num-

bers.

Whom, though it be naturally the following State, yet Use, in our Language, as well as in most others, places it before the Verb; as, He is the Man whom I saw, that is, He is the Man I saw whom. But it does for the most part follow the Preposition, as, He was the Man to whom I gave it: I say for the most part, because when the Preposition is put our of its natural Place, whom does then go before it; as, Whom did you give that to? for, To whom did you give that? Whom do you go with? for, With whom do you go? Whom is sometimes left out; as, He is the Person I gave it to; i. e. to whom I gave it.

Q. How are who, which, and what used?

A. Who is used when we speak of Persons; as, Who is that Man? But we do not say, Who is that D ?

Book?

Book? For when we speak of Things, we use what, as, What Book is that? And though what be used sometimes when we speak of Persons, yet then it seems to have another Sense than what the Pronum has, and is rather a Noun-Adjestive; as, What Man is he? that is, what sort of a Man?

Who and whom are also frequently used when no Question is asked, and signify Relation to some Person; as, Peter is the Man whom I faw. They are the Men who built the Church. See the Article

under the Word which.

Q. Which are the Pronouns-Possessive?

A. From the Pronouns abovementioned come several others, called Pronouns-Possessive, because, they signify Possessive: As, from me, come my and mine; from thee, come thy and thine; from us, our, and ours; from you, your, and yours, &c. So My Book, is the Book belonging to me; Your Book, is the Book belonging to you.

Yet these Pronouns-Possessive are not always used to denote Possession: for sometimes they are used to express the Cause or Author of a Ibing; as, This is your doing: that is, you are the cause or occasion of this. This is my Book, for, This is a Book of my writing, or, I am the Author of this Book.

Q. Is there any difference between my and mine,

thy and thine, &c.?

A. The Pronouns my, thy, her, our, your, their, are to be used when they are joined to Substantives; as, This is my House! This is my Book. But mine, thine, hers, yours, theirs, are to be used when the Substantive is lest out or understood, as This House is mine; This Book is mine; that is, This House is my House, &c. Likewise if own does not follow: as, It is your own, not yours own; so, our own, not ours own. Yet mine and shine are sometimes used when the Substantive is expressed,

if the Substantive begins with a Vowel, but not else; as, my Arm, or mine Arm; thyown, or thine own.

A Table of all the Pronouns.

Their Possessives to be used.

		The forego-	ing flate	Lic tellow-	ing flate	Wina Sub-	Azariur	Without A	Substantive
I. Pers. §	Sing.	F .5		Me		3 € My		Mine	
	Plur.	Wo		Ui O		нт	er ()nrs		
II. Perf. S	Sing.	Thou or you		Thee		Thy		Ibice	
5	Plur.	TOOF YOU		lou		Your		(one)	
III. Per.	Visic	He		Hun		His		His	
	remaic	1		Her		Her		Hes	
	Neure	It		11		Its		115	
LPlur.		They		lhen		Their		ibars	
The Inter- 5 of Persons		Wno		Whon.		in	Whole		boje
rogative 2 of	Tnings	What		•		libereof		f	

Q. Which Pronouns are Substantive, and which are Adjective?

A. The Pronouns are divided into Substantives and Adjectives; the Pronouns Substantive are, I, thou or you, we, ye or you, himself, and themselves: The Adjectives are, he, she, they, it, my, mine, thy, thine, our, ours, your, yours, ker, their, theirs, who, what.

The following Words, this, that, the same, are not Pronouns, but Adjectives.

7

For

For they are not put to supply the Place of the Noun Substantive; but are joined to Substantives, just as other Adjectives are; as, this Man, that Man, which Man, the same Man. And if at any time we meet them without their Substantives, which is not often, yet the Substantives are underflood.

This makes in the Plural Number thefe, and

that makes those.

1. That is often used instead of who, whom, or which; as, I faw a Man that [who] had been on the same Side that [which] I had been on. He is the Man that [whom] we saw.

2. This and that are called Demonstratives, because they show what particular Person or Thing you mean: And they frequently have very put after them, for the fuller and more clear Demonstration of what you mean.

This and That are said both of Persons and Things; as, this or that Man, this or that Book.

Which is an Adjective, and is the same in both Numbers; it is used when we speak of Things, as who and whom are when we speak of Persons.

Which is called an Interrogative when it is used in asking a Question; as, Which is the Place? And it is also called a Relative, when it has Relation to some Substantive expressed or understood; as. Which Thing will never do. Here is the Ring which [Ring] you loft.

Own which is used sometimes after the Pronouns Possessive in an emphatical or expressive manner, is also an Adjective; as, my own House, your

own Lands, Alexander's own Sword.

The Word self makes in the Plural selves, and and has always a Pronoun Adjective before it; as, my felf, thy felf, our felves, your felves.

But we commonly fay bimself, for his self, isself for its felf, and themselves for their selves; except

own be added; for then we say, his own self, its own self, their own selves.

CHAP. X.

Of the Verbs, with Notes concerning Tenses or Times, Persons, and Moods.

Q. WHat is a Verb?

A. A Verb is a Word that betokeneth being, doing, or suffering.

1. Being is here to be taken not only in its common Sense of Existence, but also in its largest Sense, as it denotes the being in some Posture or Situation, or Circumstance, or some way or other affected; as, to stand, to sit, to hang, to lie, to abide, to be cold; to be hot, to be wet.

2. Doing, denotes all manner of Action; as, to

fight, to write, to play, to dance, &c.

3. Suffering denotes the Impressions that Persons or Things receive: We are to consider, that as Persons or Things act or do, so they are often acted upon, or become the Subject of Action themselves; as, Charles beats, here beats denotes the Action of Charles; Charles is beaten, here is beaten denotes the Impression or Suffering that Charles receives; for Charles is the Subject on which the Action of Beating is exercised.

Q. What Words are Verbs?

A. All those Words that denote or signify Being,. Doing, or Suffering, are called Verbs.

Those Verbs that signify merely Being may be called Effential Verbs; those that signify Doing are called Verbs Assive; those that signify Suffering are D?

Called Verbs Passive. But we have, strictly speaking, no Verbs Passive.

NOTE I. Of Tenfe or Time.

Q. What is Tense?

A. Tense is the Time of the Verb.

Q. What is the Time of a Verb?

A. The Tense or Time of a Verb relates to a Thing a doing, done, or not done.

Q. How many Tenses are there?

A. As for Tenses or Times, the natural or proper Number is three, because all Time is either past, present, or to come: That is,

I. The Present Time, that now is.

II. The Preser Time, that is past.

III. The Future Time, that is yet to come.

If we consider whether an Action be perfect, or imperfect, we may make six Tenser or Times; that is, three times of the Imperfect Action, and three times of the Perfect Action. As,

I. The Prefent Time of the Imperfect Action; as, I fup, I do fup, or I am at Supper now, but have

not yet done.

II. The Preter Time of the Imperfect Action; as, I was at Supper then, but had not yet done it.

III. The Future Time of the Imperfect Action; as, I shall sup, or shall be yet at Supper; but not that I shall have then done it.

IV. The Present Time of the Persect Action;

25, I have supped, and it is now done.

V. The Preter Time of the Perfect Action; as,

I had then supped, and it was then done.

VI. The Future Time of the Perfect Action; as I shall have supped, and shall have done it.

Q. How many Tenses are there in English?

A. There are in English two Tenses or Times, the
Present Time, and the Preser Time.

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Q. How do you know them? A. The Present Tense or Time is the Verb itself, 23 burn.

A. The Preter Tense or Time is commonly made by adding ed to the Present Time, as burned.

But if the Present Tense ends in e, as Love, then the Preter Tenfe is made by only adding d to the Present; as loved. The frequent Contraction of this Tense is very blameable: As, lov'd for loved, drown'd for drowned; unless in Poetry, when the Verse requires it.

Q. But if we have but two Tenses, how do we express the other Times of the Verb?

A. We do it by the help of certain other

Words called Helping Verbs.

In some Words whose Present Tense ends in d or t, the Preter Tense is the same with the Present Tense; as read, read; and then the Sense of the Place, and the Helping Verbs must distinguish them. It is very probable they are Contractions, of ed, and so should be writ with a double dd or tt; as I have readd, sheadd, or shedd, shreadd, spreadd, caftt, hiftt, knitt, burtt, putt, fbutt, fett, flitt, fplitt, thrustt, west, sweatt.

Q. Does the Preter Tense always end in ed?

A. Not always; for sometimes it ends in t, or en. For there are a great many Irregularities in the Preter Tenfe, that is, there are a great many Words of this Tense which do not end in ed.

NOTE II. Of the Persons of the Verb.

When we spoke of the Pronouns, there was mantion made of the Persons, which are three in both Numbers; I, thou or you, he or she, for the Singular; We, ye or you, and they, for the Plural.

The Distinction of Persons and Numbers in the

English Verbs, is chiefly signified by these Pronouns being put before them; as, I burn, they burn; or D 6

the third Person by any other Substantive; as, the Line b srms, the Boys play.

In E iglish there is no Change at all made of the

Verbs; except in

The Second Person Singular of the Present Tense, and in the Second Person Singular of the Preter Tense, which Persons are distinguished by the Addition of est; as, thou burnest, thou readest,

thou burned ft, thou loved ft. So likewise

In the Third Person of the Present Tense, an Alteration is made by adding the ending eth, or s, (or es if the Pronunciation requires it;) as, he burneth or burns, he readeth or reads. In all the other Persons the Word is the same; as, I burn, we burn, je burn, they burn. So, I burned, he burned, we burned, ye burned, they burned, &c.

If the Present Tense ends in e, then st is added instead of est, in the Second Person, and th instead of eth in the Third Person; as, I love, thou lovest,

be lovetb.

Some Observations relating to the Second and Third' Persons of Venbs.

In the Second Person of the Helping Verbs, Will and Shall, we say wilt, shall, by a Figure called a Syncope, for will'st, shall'st: Likewise hast in the Second Person for ha'st, that is hav'st or havest; so in the Third Person, hath, that is, ha'th for hav'th or haveth; also had for hav'd.

Q. Do all Persons take eth in the Third Person

Singular?

A. The Helping Verbs will, shall, may, can, never take the ending eth in the Third Person; for we do not say, He willeth fight, he canneth fight; &c. but he will fight, he can fight, &c.

Q. How do the Persons Plural of Verbs end?

A. The Persons Plural keep the Termination of the First Person Singular.

Thefe

These Personal Terminations or Endings, estandesh, are omitted when the Verb is used in an Imperative or commanding Sense; as, fight thou, not fightest thou; let the Soldier fight, not let the Soldier fighteth, or fights. Sometimes also they are lest out after the Conjunctions, if, that, though, although, whether; as, If the Sense require it, for if the Sense requireth or requires it: He will dare, though he die for it, that is, though he dies for it. So, if I were, for was: These Endings of the Person of the Verb are also sometimes lest out after some other Conjunctions and Adverbs, especially when the Verb is used in a commanding or depending Sentence.

In the Endings est, eth, ed, and en, the Vowel e is oftentimes left out, unless the Pronunciation forbids it; and its Absence is, when it is necessary, denoted by an ['] Apostrophe; as, do'st for doest, do'th doth for doeth, did'st didst for didest, plac'd for placed, burn'd burnt for burned, know'n known for

knowen.

The Verb is also often used without expressing either the Person or Thing that is, does, or suffers, or the Number; and then the Preposition to

is fet before it; as, to burn, to love.

When the Verb is thus used, it is called a Verb Infinite or Infinitive, that is, not bounded; because its Signification is not determined to any Person or Number. This is used like the Infinitive Mood in Latin, and is placed after Verbs and Adjectives; as, I love to fight, it is good to labour: It is also used as a Substantive; as, To pray is a good Action, that is, to pray or Prayer is a good Action. But the Preposition to is sometimes omitted or left out, especially after the Helping Verbs do, will, shall, may, can, and their Preter Tenses, dist, would, should, might, could; also after must, let, bid,

NOTE III. Of the Moods.

Q. What is Mood?

A. As Cases are the different Endings of the Noun, which are used to denote the Respect or Reference that Things have to one another; so Moods are the different Endings of the Verb, that are made use of to express the Manners or Forms of its fignifying the Being, Doing, or Suffering of a Thing. The Being, Doing, or Suffering of a Thing, may be confidered not only fimply by itself, but also as to the Possibility of a Thing, that is, whether it can be done or not; as to the Liberty of the Speaker, that is, whether there be no Hindrance to prevent his doing of a Thing; as to the Inclination of the Will, that is, whether the Speaker has any Mind or Intention to the doing of it; or to the Necessity of the Action to be done, that is, whether there be any Obligation of any kind upon a Person to do a Thing.

They commonly reckon in Latin four Moods, the Indicative, the Imperative, the Subjunctive, and the Infinitive.

1. The Indicative declares, demands, or doubts;

28, I love, do I love.

2. The Imperative commands, entreats, exhorts,

or permits; as, let me love.

3. The Subjunctive depends upon some other Verb in the same Sentence, with some Conjunction between; as, he is mad, if he were there.

4. The Infinitive is used in a large undetermined

Sense; as, to love.

Q. Has the English Tongue any Moods?

A. There are no Moods, because the Verb has no Diversity of Endings, to express its Manners of signifying.

Q. How do you then express the different manners of Verbs, whether a Thing may or can be done,

&c?

A. We do all that by the Aid of Auxiliary or Helping Verbs, which in the Latin, and some other Languages, is done by the Diversity of Terminations or Endings.

For the Possibility of the Thing is expressed by can or could; the Liberty of the Speaker to do a Thing by, may or might; the Inclination of the Will is expressed by, will or would; and the Necessity of a Thing to be done by, must or ought, shall or should.

Questions relating to the Tenth Chapter.

Q. What do you mean by an Essential Verb?

A. A Verb that significs Being.

What do you mean by a Verb Active?

A. A Verb that fignifies Doing; as, to love, to eat, to read, to make.

Q. What do you mean by a Verb Passive? A. A Verb that significs Suffering.

Q. Have we any Passive Verbs?

A. No: For we have no one Word that denotes Suffering, but are obliged to make use of two or three Words to supply that Want.

Q. How do we distinguish the Persons of the

Verbs?

A. We distinguish the Second Person Singular of the Present and Preser Tense by the ending est; as, thou lovest, thou burnest: And the Third Perfon Singular of the Present Tense by the ending eth or s; as, he loveth or loves. But the Distinction of the Perfons and Numbers of Verbs, is chiefly performed by the Pronouns 1, we, &cq. being put before them, or in the Third Person by any Substantive; as, the Fire burns, Boys play.

Q. What do you mean by the Present Tense?

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A. The Time that now is.

Q. What do you mean by the Preter Tense?

A. The Time that is past.

Q. What do you mean by the Future Tense?

A. The Time that is yet to come, Q. Whence comes the Word Verb?

A. From Verbum a Word, it being so called by way of Eminence; for it is the chief Word in a Sentence, and there is no Sentence, wherein it is not either expressed or understood.

CHAP, XI. Of the PARTICIPLE.

Before we come to give you an Account of the Helping Verbs, it is necessary that we say something of that Part of Speech which is called a Participle, because it is frequently joined to those Verbs.

Q. What is a Participle?

A. A Participle is a Part of Speech derived of a Verb, and betokens Being, Doing, or Suffering, as a Verb does; but it is otherwise like a Noun Adjettive.

I. Derived of a Verb] It always comes from fome Verb; as from, to love, come the Participles loving and loved, from to burn come burned and burning.

II. Signifies being, doing, or suffering] 1. It sig-

nifics Being, I have been a Child, I was fitting.

2. It fignifies Doing; as, I am reading the Book, I was sweeping the House, I have burned the Wood.

3. It lignifies Suffering; as, I was burned, I was whipped, I was abused, &c.

Q. Are the Participles ever used as Adjectives?
A. Yes.

III. But is otherwise like a Noun-Adjective] that is, it is often joined to a Substantive just like an Adjective; as, a loving Child, a dancing Dog, a shaved Head, a ruined Man; yet in these Examples you see how they signify doing or suffering, as the Verb does: They signify Doing; as, a loving Child, i. c. a Child that loves; a dancing Dog, i. e. a Dog that dances: They signify Suffering; as, a shaved Head, i. c. a Head that is shaved; a ruined Man, i. c. a Man that is ruined.

Q. How many Participles are there?

A. There are two Participles, the Affive Participle, which ends in ing as loving, and the Passive Participle, which ends in ed as loved.

The Participle which ends in ing, is called the Altive Participle, because it has an Active Sense, or signifies doing; as, I am enting a Stick. The Participle which ends in ed, is called the Passive Participle, because we, having in English no Passive Voice, that is, no distinct Ending to distinguish a Verb that signifies doing, from a Verb that signifies suffering, make up this Want by the Help of the Verb am, and this Participle; as, I am loved, I am burned.

N. B. For this Participle cannot be properly called a Passive Participle from its Signification alone, it being also often used in an Astive Sense; as, I have loved the Man, I had burned the Papers.

The Active Participle is made by adding ing to the Verb; as, burn, burning, fight, fighting; but if the Verb ends in e, as love, then the e is left out in the Participle, as, loving.

Q. Does the Active Participle always end in

A. Yes.

Q. Why is the Participle in ing called the Active Participle?

A. Because it signifies Action or Doing.

This Participle is often used as a Substantive; as, In the Beginning, a good Understanding, an excellent

Writing.

This Participle is used in a peculiar manner with the Verb to be, especially in answer to a Question; as, Q. What was you doing? A. I was writing. Q. Have you been writing? A. I have been writing, &c. And in this Case a is often set before the Participle; as, he is a-going, it is a-doing, he was a-dying, &c. And particularly after the Verbs of Motion, to go, to come; as, he goes a-hunting, she came here a-crying: Why come you bither a-scolding?

Q. What is the meaning of a in he goes a-hunting,

he is a-dying?

A. The a is undoubtedly the Remains of the Prepolition on rapidly pronounced. John xxi. 3: in Saxon the Words of Peter are, It wille gan on fixeth, I will go a-fishing. And there is, And going on hunting, in Stow's Summary, p. 10.

The Passive Participle is made by adding ed to the Verb; as, burn, burned, kill, killed: But if the Verb ends in e, as love, then it is made by adding d, as love, loved.

Q. Why is the Participle in ed called the Passive Participle?

A. Because that, with the Verb to be, makes

up the whole Passive Voice.

Q. Doth the Passive Participle always end in ed?

A. The Preter Tense and the Passive Participle are regularly the same, both ending in ed, as burned. But are often subject to Contractions and other Irregularities, which are sometimes the same in both;

23, teach, taught, taught, bring, brought, brought: And sometimes different; as, fee, faw, feen; give,

gave, given.

. This Participle being used with the Verb to be, has the same Sense with Words which end in able or ible; such are admirable, visible, and it relates to the Future Time; as, it is to be admired, that is, it is admirable, it is to be seen, that is, it is visible, &¢.

Q. Are not the Participles really mere Adjectives }

A. We have already observed that the Partisiples often become Adjectives; but we cannot therefore by any means grant, that they are therefore always mere Adjectives, as some do affirm, they being often used in such a Sense where no Adjective can have place: For in these Examples, I am writing a Book, he is mending a Pen, we have burned the Coals, ye have praised the Horse, I cannot see how any of these Participles are used as Adjectives.

Questions relating to the Eleventh Chapter.

Q. Are the Participles ever used as Adjectives?
A. Yes.

Q. When are they so used?

- A. 1. When they have no respect to Time; as, a learned Book.
- 2. When they are joined to Substantives; as, an Understanding Man, a writing Desk, a carved Head.

3. If they may be compared, as, learned, more

learned, most learned.

4. If they are compounded with a Prepolition, that the Verb they come from cannot be compounded with; as, unbecoming, unbeard, unseen; or we do not fay, to unbecome, to unhear, &c.

ĊHAP.

CHAP XII.

Of the Helping Verbs which are defective.

XXE have already observed that the Verbs in English do not change their Endings as in the Latie, to denote the Times of Being, Doing, or Suffering, and the Moods or Manners of their fignifying: For in our Tongue all these Matters are performed by the Assistance of certain Words which we call Auxiliary or Helping Verbs: Of which we shall now treat, beginning with those that are defective.

Q. What do you mean by a Helping Verb?

A. A Verb that is put to another Verb to denote or fignify the Time, or the Mood or Manner of a Verb.

Q. Which Verbs are those?

A. Do, will, shall, may, can, with their Preter Tenses, did, would, should, might, could, as also must, which are set before any other Verbs, the Prepolition to being left out; except after ought.

So likewise these Verbs, bid, dare, let, make, being fet before an Infinitive Verb, the Prepolition to, is left out.

Q. What do you mean by a Defective Verb?

A. We call the Helping Verbs defective ones, because they are not used but in their own Tense. (that is, the Present Tense) and the Preter Tense; besides they have no Participles, neither do they admit any Helping Verbs to be put before them.

But these two, do and will, because they are sometimes used as Absolute Verbs, are therefore formed throughout all Tenses, that is, they have Par-

Participles, [doing, do'n, willing, willed] and do illo admit of the Auxiliary or Helping Verbs before hem, to express the Times, &c. that is, when they ire used as Verbs absolute, but not when they are Helping Verbs.

Q When a Helping Verb is joined to another Verb, does it change its Ending to make the Second

and Third Person Singular?

A. When the Helping Verb is put before another Verb, it changes its own Ending, but the Verb that t assists is always the same; for Example,

I do burn, thou dost burn, he doth burn, &c.

Here you see the Helping Verb do, changes its Ending, but in burn there is no change of Ending it all.

Do and Did.

Do does emphatically denote the Present Time, and did the Preter Time: As, I burn, I burned, or n a more emphatical or expressive manner, I do burn, I did burn. They are thus formed,

I do, thou dost or you do, he doth or does. Plural. Ve do, ye do or you do, they do.

I did, thou didst or you did, he did. Plural. We lid, ye did or you did, they did.

Shall and Will.

Shall and Will denote the Future Time, or the Time yet to come; as, It [ball burn, it will burn. Fhey are thus formed,

I shall, thou shalt or you shall, be shall. Plural.

Ve Shall, ye Shall Or you Shall, they Shall.

I will, thou wilt or you will, he will. Plural. Ve will, ye will or you will, they will.

Q. Is there any difference between shall and

A. Shall in the first Persons, as, I shall, we shall, simply expresses the future Action or Event: But in the second and third Persons; as, He shall, they shall, it promises, commands, or threatens.

A. Will in the first Persons; as, I will, we will, promises or threatens: But in the second and third Persons; as, thou wilt or you will, ye will or you

will, be will, they will, it barely foretells.

Thus when I say, I shall go, or I will go, I declare my Willingness or Resolution to go: But if I say, you shall go, there is a plain Command or Injunction. So in I shall burn, thou wilt (or you will,) be will, we shall, ye will, they will burn; here I barely foretell: But in I will, thou shalt (or you shall,) be shall, we will, ye shall, they shall burn; I promise that it shall be, or I will see that it shall be done.

Should and Would.

Shall makes should, and it is thus formed;

I should, thou shoulds or you should, he should. Plural. We should, ye should or you should, they should.

N. B. Shouldst is used for shouldest, as wouldst for

wouldest.

Should tells what was, or had been to come. Will makes in the Preter Tense would, and it is

thus formed;

I would, thou wouldst or you would, he would. Plural. We would, ye would or you would, they would.

Should tells what was, or had been to come.

Q. Is there any difference between should and would?

A. There is this difference between would and foodld, that would intimates the Will or Intention of the Doer, but flould the bare Fururity, or that the Thing will be; as, I would burn, that is I am will-ling to burn; I flould burn, i.e. I ought to burn.

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May, and its Preter Time might, denote or intimate the Power of doing a Thing. They are thus formed;

I may, then mayst or you may, be may. Plural.

We may, ye may or you may, they may.

I might, thou might ft or you might, he might. Plural. We might, ye might or you might, they might.

Can, and its Preter Time could, intimate the

Power of doing a Thing, and are thus formed;

I can, thou canst or you can, be can. Plural. We can, ye can or you can, they can.

I could, thou could or you could, he could. Plural.

We could, ye could or you could, they could.

Q. Is there any difference between may and can?

A. There is this difference between may and can, may and might, are spoken of the Right, Lawfulness, or at least, the Possibility of the Thing: But can and could, of the Power and Strength of the Doer. As, I might burn, i.e. It was possible or lawful for me to burn; I can burn, that is, I am able to burn; I could burn, i. c. I was able to burn.

N. B. Maift for mayest, mightst for mightest,

canst for canest.

Must and ought imply Necessity, or denote that the Thing is to be done; as, I must burn, I ought to read.

I must, thou must or you must, be must. Plural.

We must, ye must or you must, they must.

I ought, thou oughtest or you ought, he ought. Plural. We ought, ye ought or you ought, they ought.

Must comes from the Saxon, most, a Word of

the same signification.

Can, may, will, and must, are used with Relation both to the Present and Future Time. Shall is used only in the Future, and ought in the Present Time. But could, the Preter Time of can, might,

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the Preter Time may, and would, the Preter of will, have relation both to the Time past and to come: But should from shall, relates only to the Future Time.

But if bave follows must, ought, and should, then they relate to the Time past; as, I ought to have done it, I must or should have gone thither.

O. Give me the Preter Time of the defective

Helping Verbs?

A. Do in the Preter Tense makes did, may makes might, can makes could, will makes would, shall makes should. But must and ought have no Preter Tense.

CHAP. XIII.

Of the Perfett Helping Verbs, Have, and Am or Be.

THE Verbs mentioned in the foregoing Chapter, are called Defective, because they take no Helping Verbs before them, on any Occasion; neither are they used beyond the Preter Tense or Time: Now, for the contrary reason these following Verbs are said to be persect and entire; i. e. Have and Am or Be.

Q. Why are these Verbs called Persect Helping

A. Because they are formed like other Verbs.

Have.

Have is a Verb of very great use among us, and in all other modern Languages; for it is used to denote vers Times or Tenses of Verbs, both in an Acve and Passive Signification; and because it assists, or helps to denote the Times of Verbs, it is called Helping Verb. But when it is not joined with another Verb then it denotes Possession, and has a Noun always following it; as, I bave a Book, I bad a Horse. It is thus formed;

Present Tense.

I have, thou hast or you have, he hath or has. Plural. We have, ye have or you have, they have.

Preter Tenle.

I had, then hadft or you had, he had. Plural. We had, ye had or you had, they had.

The Active Participle is having; the Passive

Participle is had for haved.

Have denotes the Time of the Action to be just past when we spoke; as, I have dined. Had denotes the Action to have been finished at that time, when we were discoursing of the Matter; as, I had dined, that is, when Peter came to my House.

But had does likewise intimate the Time past of an Action not done, but intended to be done; I had go'n thither, but Peter prevented me; I had

dined with you, but the Rain hindered me.

But when fball or will is added to have, it signifies the Time that will be past; as, I shall have burned, he will have burned.

Am or Be.

To supply the want of Verbs Passive in our Language, Wc, as well as the other modern Languages, make use of the Helping Verb am or be.

Am or be being joined to the Passive Participle makes up the Passive Voice; as, I am loved: But

when it is used by itself, it signifies being.

Am or be is also sometimes used with the Active Participle to express Action or Doing: As, I am writing, for I write; I was writing, I have been writing, I had been writing.

This Verb is very irregular, as it often happens that those things which are most yulgar or com-

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The English Grammar. mon are most irregular: and it has a double or twofold Formation.

Present Time.

I am, thou art or you are, be is. Plural. We are, ye are or you are, they are. Or,
I be, thou be'st, he be. Plural. We be, ye be, . they be.

The Preter Tense.

I was, thou wast or you were, he was, Plural. We were, ye were or you were, they were. Or,

I were, thou wert, he were. Plural. We were,

ye were, they were.

When it is used infinitively, it makes to be; the Active Participle is being; the Passive Participle is been; for which some corruptly write bin.

Q. When are be and were to be used instead of

A. The second Formation or Ending of the 2m2 Present Tense, that is, be, best, be, &c. and the second Formation of the Preter Tense, that is, were, were, were, &c. is for the most part used after the Conjunctions if, that, although, whether; as, if I be then alive: I do not know whether it were be or no. Be is also used after the Verb let; as, let bim be, &c.

N. B. But some are for making this second For-

mation a Subjunctive Mood.

Do, did, Shall, Should, will, would, can, could, may, might, are always set before the Verb in the Present Time; as, I do burn, &cc. But have, bad, am, be, was, been, are set before the Active and Passive Participle; as, I have loved, I am loving.

These Helping Verbs are likewise often joined together; as, I might have died; but then one of them expresses the manner, the other the Time of

the Verbs lignifying; except in be or been, which is used to denote being or suffering, i. e. to be done.

CHAP. XIV. Of the Irregular VERBS.

WE shall now give you an Account of the Irregular Verbs of our Tongue: Where are two things to be taken notice of.

Q. Wherein does the Irregularity of the English

Verbs confift?

A. 1. The Irregularity relates only to the Formation of the Preter Tenle and the Pallive Participle.

For in our Irregular Verbs, we have nothing

else Irregular.

2. This Irregularity does not relate to foreign Words, but only to the Native Words of our

Tongue.

By foreign Words, I mean those that we have borrowed from the Latin, French, Italian, Spanillo, or Welch, of which there are a great number: But I call those native Words, which take their Original from the old Teutonick or Saxon Language; all which are Words of one Syllable, or derived from Verbs of one Syllable.

The first Irregularity, and that which is the most general, took its rife from our Quickness of Pronunciation, by changing the Contonant d into t, (the Vowel e in the regular Ending ed, being cur off) that the Pronunciation might be made more easy and free. And it seems indeed to be rather a

Contraction than an Irregularity.

For c, ch, fb, f, k, p, x, and the Confonants f, th, pronounced hard, and formetimes f, m, n, r, (when a short Vowel goes before) more easily

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take t after them than d. As plac't for plac'd or placed, susted't for susted'd or susteded, fish's for fish'd or fish'd or fished, sluff't for sluff'd or sluffed, claps for clap'd or clapped, mixt for mix'd or mixed, wak't for wak'd or waked, dwel't for dwell'd or dwelled, sinel't for smell'd or finelled, from the Verbs, to place, to susted, &c.

But sometimes when a long Vowel goes before, it is either shortened, or changed into a short ene, for the sake of quicker Pronunciation; as kept, slept, wept, crept, sweep, lept, from the Verbs to keep, to sleep, to weep, to creep, to sweep,

to leap.

But d remains after the Consonants b, g, w, w, z, and f, tb, when they are softly pronounced; and d likewise remains after l, m, n, r, when a long Vowel goes before; for they more easily unite and join together with d than with t, by reason of the like Direction of the Breath to the Nostrils. So, liv'd, smil'd, raz'd, believ'd, from live, smile, raze, believe.

Except when the long Vowel is shortened before l, m, n, r; or when b and v are changed into p or f, and the softer Sound of the Letters f, th, passes into their harder Sound: As, felt from feel, dealt from deal, dreamt from dream, meant from mean, left from leave, bereft from bereave, &c.

But in some Words whose present Tense ends in d or t, the Preter Tense is the same as the Present Tense; as in the Present read, Preter read; in the Present cast. But it is very probable they are Contractions of ed, and should be writ with a double dd or tt.

Verbs ending in y, either take a d with an A-postrophe; as, marry, marry'd, or else change y into ied; as married, tarried, carried, &c.

There is another common Irregularity, but which relates only to the Passive Participle; for

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the Passive Participle was formerly often formed in en, in Imitation of the Saxons: And we have a great many of this fort, especially when the Preter Time suffers any remarkable Irregularity. But this Ending may be reckoned as another Formation of the Participle; as, been, given, taken, flay'n, know'n, from the Verbs to be, to give, to take, to flay, to know.

We do also use, written, bitten, eaten, beaten, Motten, rotten, chosen, broken, as well as writ, bit, eat, beat, shot, rot, chose, broke, &c. in the Passive Participle, though not in the Preter Teuse; from the Verbs, to write, to bite, to eat, to beat, &c. For Example, we say, I eat, but not I eaten, but

we say, I have eaten, or eat.

So likewise we say, sow'n or sow'd, shewn or flew'd, hew'n or hew'd, mow'n or mow'd, loaden or loaded, laden or laded, from the Verbs to fow,

to flew, to hew, to mow, to load or lade.

But the Irregularities of the Verbs will best appear, if we put them alphabetically; first those that alter the Present Tense, the Passive Participle being the same with it; and then those that have a Passive Participle different from the Preter Tenfe.

Those that have this Mark (*) before them, are

not proper or usual.

TABLE E 3

TABLE I.

Pref. Tenfe	. Pret. Tenfe	Pres. Tense	Pret. Tenfe
• •	and Partic		and Partic.
Awake	Awoke	Gird	Girt and
Abide	Abode	1	Girded
Вe	Been	Grind	Ground
Bend	Bent	Hang	Hung
Unbend	Unbent	Have	· S Had for
. Bereave	Bereft	whence	
Befeech	Befought	Behave	Behaved
	t * besceched	Hear	Heard
Bind	Bound	Keep	Kept
B!ced	Bled ·	Lay	Laid
Breed	Bred	Lead	Led,
Bring	Brought	Leave	Left
Bay	Bought	Leap	Lept
Catch	Caught	Lend	Lent
Creep	Crept .	Lofe `	Loft
Deal	Deilt	but.	
Dig	Dug and	Loofe	Loosed and
	* Digged	Make	Made (loos'd
Dream	Dreamt	Mean	Meant
Dwell	Dwelt	Meet	Mct .
Feed	Fed	Rend	Rent
Feel	Felt	Say	Said '
Fight	Fought	Seek	Sought
Find	Found	Sell	Sold
Flee .	Fled	Send	Sent
Fling	Flung	Shine	Shin'd and
Fraight	Fraught	Sit	Sat (shone
Geld	Gelt and	Sleep	Slept \
	Gelded	Smell	Smelt .
Cild	Gilt and	Spell	Spelt
	Gilded	Spill	Spilt
•	. 1	•	Spend

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TABLE II.

Preter Tense

Present Tense

Bear	Bore or * Bare	Born
Begin	Began	Begun
Bid	Bid or Bad	Bidden:
	Beat	Beaten -
Bite .	Bit	Bit:en
Blow	Blew	Blown
Break	Broke or	Broken
2.0	* Brake	•
Chide	Chid	Chidden or Chid
Choose or Chuse	Chole	Chosen
	Clave	
Cleave	Cleft	Cleft or
Citary	Clove	* Cloven .
Come	Came	Come
Crow	Crew & Crow'd	Crow'd
Dare ·	Durst or Dared	
Die	Died	Dead
Do	Did	Do'n or done
Dearr	Draw	Drawn

Draw Drew Drawn
Drink Drank or Drunk
* Drunk

Drive Drove
Eat Eatcor Ate
E 4

Driven Eaten or Eat

Participle.

Fall id not

+ And did dare, when not is added; as, He did not dare.

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Prefent Tenfe. Preter Tenfe. Participle. .. Fall Fell Faln Flew and Fled Fly Flown Forfake Forfaken and for-Forfook Freeze Froze Frozen (fook Got Get Gotten or Got Give Gave Given Went from Go Go'n or Gone Wend Grow Grown Grew Help Helped or Help'd Helpt Hew Hewed Hewn Hide Hid Hidden and Hid Held Hold Holden Know Knew Known Lie Lay I.ay'n Mowed Mown Mow Rid or Rode Ridden or Rode Ride Ring Rang Rung Rife Rose Rifen Run Ran Run Sce Saw. Seen Sod Sodden Secth Shook Shake Shaken and Shook Shore Shorn Shear Shew or Show Shewed Shown Shot Shoot Shotten and Shot

Shrink Shrank Shrunk
Sing Sang and * Sung Sung
Sink Sank or Sunk Sunk
Slay Slew Slain

Slide Slid Slidden
Sling Slung Slung
Smite Smote Smitten
Snow Snowed Snown
Sow Sowed Sown

Speak Spoke * Spake Spoken and Spoke

Spring Sprang or fprung Sprung

Steal

Present Tense. Preter Tense. Participle.

Steal Stole Stolen and Stole

* Stank or ftunk Stunk Stink

Stricken and Struck Strike Struck Spitten, spit, & spat Spit Spat

Strive Strove Striven Swore and Sware Sworn Swear

Swell Swoin or Swell'd Sweld

Swing Swung and Swung

* Swang Swim Swum and Swum

* Swam

Take Taken and Took Took Tear Tore and # tare Torn and Tore

Thrive. Thriven Throve * Thrived

Throw Threw Thrown

· Trod Tread Troddenand Trod Win Won and * wan Won Wear Wore Worn .

Weave Wove Woven Write Writ and wrote Written, writ and

Wrote

CHAP. XV.

Of the Formation of the Times or Tenses of the Verb Active, or the Verb that signifies Doing.

W E shall first speak of the Formation of the

Time present, past, and to come.

The Present Time is thus formed or made. Singular Number. I burn, thou burnest or you burn, be burneth or burns. Plural. We burn, ye burn or you burn, they burn.

This Time you may call the first Present Time:

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The Preter or past Time is thus formed or made. Singu'ar. I burned, thou burneds or you burned, be burned. Plural. We burned, ye burned or you burned, they burned.

This Time is the first Preter Time.

These two Tenses are made by changing the End of the Verb in the second and third Persons of the Singular Number; but the Word denoting the other Time, is done by the Assistance of another Verb: As,

The Fu ure Time, or that Time which is yet to come, is expressed by the help of shall or will:

As.

Sirgular Number. I will burn, thou wilt burn or you will burn, he will burn. Plural. We will burn, ye will burn or you will burn, they will burn.

Sing. I shall burn, then shalt burn or you shall burn, he shall burn. Plural. We shall burn, ye shall

Lurn or you shall burn, they shall burn.

This Tenfe you may call the first Future Time.
There are also two other ways of expressing the
Present Time.

For when we would express the Action more distinctly and fully, we make use of the Helping Verb do; especially with the Adverb not; as, I do not burn.

Sing. I do burn, thou dost burn or you do burn, he doth or does burn. Plural. We do burn, ye do

burn or you do burn, they do burn.

Or when we would express more fully that it is now a-doing, or the Continuance in doing, we use

the Verb am and the Active Participle. As,

Sing. I am burning, thou are burning or you are burning, he is burning. Plural. We are burning, je are burning or you are burning, they are burning. And indeed,

All the Tenses of a Verb Active may be expressed by the Verb am, and the Active Participle; as,

I am burning, that is, I burn. I was burning, that is, I burned, &cc.

There are also four other ways of expressing the

Preter Time, or the Time past.

For we may say that a Thing is precisely or just done, or we may only say that it was done, without determining to a Day, a Week, a Month, a Year, &c.

When we only say that the thing was done, we express it by the Preter Tense, just mentioned, as, I burned; but when we express the Action to be precisely or just done, we do it by the Helping Verb bave.

The Preter Time of the Action precisely or just .

done, is thus expressed, as,

Singular. I have burned, thou hast burned or you have burned, he hath or has burned. Plural. We have burned, ye have burned or you have burned, they have burned.

N. B. This Time you may call the second Prefer Time; or the Present Time of the Persect or

finished Action.

But if we join any of these Words, formerly, beretofore, in Times past, to have; then have may denote or signify a greater Space of Time; as, I

have formerly loved him.

N. B. Have, with the Passive Participle immediately after it, always denotes Action; but if been comes between, it denotes suffering: Thus, 1 bave burned, is Active, but 1 bave been burned, is Passive. But wherever the Active Participle is, it denotes Action; as, 1 have been burning.

But if we consider the Action as imperfect, or not yet smished, we express the Time past by, was, and the Active Participle: And this Time is called the Preter-Imperfect Time, or the Tim imperfectly past, or the Preter Time of the imperfect Action.

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2. The Preter Time of an impersed Action, or an Action not finished, is thus expressed. As,

Singular. I was burning, thou wast burning or you were or was burning, he was burning. Plural. We were burning, ye were burning or you were burning,

they were burning.

But when we would express a Time as past, before some other Time past; as, I had supped before the Clock struck Six; or if we would express the Time past of an Action not done, only design'd; as, I had killed the Bird, if you had not kindred me, we do it by the Verb had, and the Passive Participle.

3. The Time confidered as Preter or past before some other Time past, or the Past Time of an Action not done, only designed, is thus expressed. As

Singular. I had burned, thou hadft burned or you had burned, ke had burned. Plural. We had burned, ye had burned or you had burned, they had

burned.

This Tense is called by some, the Preter-plupersect Tense, or the Preter Time more than past.

Lastly, When we would express the Preter or past Time, in an emphatical or full manner, we

make use of the Verb did.

4. The expressing of the Time past in an em-

phatical or full manner is as follows;

Singular. I did burn, thou didst burn or you did burn, he did burn. Plural. We did burn, ye did

burn or you did burn, they did burn.

This Word did denotes indeed the Time as abfolutely past, but when whilft is set before it, then it denotes the Time impersectly past; as, whilft I did write, that is, whilft I was writing.

Therc

There is also another way of expressing the Fu-

ture Time.

For if we consider the Time to come of the Action as finished; or if we consider two Things to come, one of which is supposed to be past, before the other will be done, we express that Time by the adding of bare to shall or will.

The Future Time of the Action not finished is

thus expressed: As,

Singular. I shall have burned, thou shalt have burned or you shall have burned, he shall have burned. Plural. We shall have burned, ye shall have burned or you shall have burned, they shall have burned.

This Tense you may call the second Future.

N. B. Shall is often omitted or left out; 2s, If he write, for shall write; If he have written, for shallhave written. The Present and Preter Times are also frequently used instead of this, and the other Future Time: As, When he writes, for when he shall write; when he has written, for when he shall have written.

A Scheme of the Tenses of the Verb Astive, confidering the Astion as impersest or not finished, or persect and finished.

1. The present Time of the imperfect Action.

Sing. I burn or do burn, thou burnest or dost burn, or you burn or do burn, he burneth [burns] or doth burn. Plural. We burn or do burn, ye or you burn or do burn, they burn or do burn.

II. The Preter Time of the imperfect Action.

Sing. I was burning, thou wast or you was burning, he was burning. Plural. We were burning, ye or you were burning, they were burning.

III. The Future Time of the imperfest Action.

Sing. I shall burn, thou shalt or you shall burn,
he

he shall burn. Plural. We shall burn, ye or you

shall burn, they shall burn.

Or, Sing. I will burn, thou wilt or you will burn, he will burn. Plural. We will burn, ye or you will burn, they will burn.

IV. The Present Time of the Perfect Action. As,

Sing. I have burned, thou hast or you have burned, he hath or has burned. Plural. We have burned, ed, ye or you have burned, they have burned.

V. The Preter Time of the Perfect Action.

Sing. I burned, thou burnedst or you burned, heburned. Plural. We burned, ye or you burned, they burned.

Or thus, Sing. I had burned, thou hadft or you had burned, he had burned. Plural. We have burned, ye or you had burned, they had burned.

Or thus, Sing. I did burn, thou didst or you did burn, he did burn. Plural. We did burn, ye or you did burn, they did burn.

VI. The Future Time of the Perfect Action.

Sing. I shall have burned, thou shalt or you shall have burned, he shall have burned. Plural. We shall have burned, ye or you shall have burned, they shall have burned.

Or, Sing. I will have burned, thou wilt or you will have burned, he will have burned. Plural. We will have burned, ye or you will have burned, they

will have burned.

Questions relating to the Sixteenth Chapter.

Q. When may I use the Present Tense without the Verb do?

A. When you simply or barely affirm the Thing to be so or so; as, I burn, I love. I read, &c.

Q When do you use do, to denote the Present

Tinje?

A. When you would express the Action more distinctly or fully, or when I deny the Thing to

be so or so; as, I de leve it dearly, I do read, I do~ not love him.

Q. When do you express the Present Time by am,

and the Active Participle?

A. When I would express that I am now a doing the Thing, or my Continuance in doing it; as, I am reading now, I am now burning. The Present Time is also most frequently thus expressed, in answer to the Question, What are you doing? A. I: am writing, I am reading.

And so likewise are the other Tenses often expressed by this Verb and the Active Participle; as, iVhat was you a doing? A. I was playing. IVhat have you been doing? A. I have been reading, œι.

Q. When do you use the Preter Tense without the .

Verbs, have, had, &c.

A. When I would denote the Action as past, without determining or naming the Time when the Thing was done; as, Iloved, I turned, I wrote, I tauzist.

Q. When do you express the Preter Time by the

belp of the Verb have?

A. When I say that the Thing is precisely or just done, or that it is already done; as, I bave fought, or I have been fighting; I have burned the Paper, or I have been burning it. The Preter Time is always thus expressed in answer to the Question, Have you done it? As, Have you danced? I have [danced]. Has Charles played? He has [played].

N. B. Danced and placed are put into Crotchets; because in answer to the Question made by have, the Participle Passive is seldom expressed; as, Have you supt? A. I have.

Have, is also used in the Question How esten? and in answer to it, when the particular Time is not specified. How often bave you feen the King!? I have seen him fifty times. But if the precise Time is exprest, we use did, an Interrogative, and the Preter Time without the Helping Verb in the Answer; as, Did you fee the King when you were at Kenfington? Yes, I saw him twice.

Q. When is the Preter Time to be expressed by

the Verb was, and the Active Participle?

A. When we would express the Time past of an imperfect or unfinished Action, (or when we would express, that at some Time past something was then a doing, but not finished;) as, I was supping, or - I was then at Supper.
Q. When do you express the Preter or past Time

by the Verb had?

A. When we would denote a Time as past, before some other Time past; as, I had read it be-

fore he came.

Or, when we would denote or mark the Time past of an Action not done, only designed; as, I I had watered the Garden, if I could have found the Pot.

Q. When is the Preter or past Time to be expressed

by did?

A. when we would express the Time past in an emphatical or full manner; as, I did burn it, not Peter.

Or, when the Adverb not is added to the Verb; as, I did not burn the House, I did not do it.

Q. When do you express the Future Time by will? A. When I promise or threaten to do a Thing;

as, I will study, I will punish you.

Q. When is the Future Time to be expressed by fhall?

A. When one simply foretells the Thing; as, I hall go, I shall lose it, I shall die.

Q. When must I use the second Future Time?

A. When you would denote or express an Action that will be past, before another will be finished; as, I shall have dined, before be will come.

CHAP. XVII.

Of the Formation of the Times of the Verb Passive.

THE Verb Passive is expressed by the selp of the Verb am or be, and the Passive Participle; as, I am burned.

The Present Time is thus expressed,

Sing. I am burned, thou art or you are burned, he is burned. Plural. We are burned, ye or you are burned, they are burned.

But the other Formation be, is used in a depending Sentence, after the Conjunctions if, although, &cc. As, If I be burned, although he be burned, &cc.

N. B. When the Passive Participle ends in en, (for there are several irregular ones, that end thus) this en is frequently neglected in the Tenses of the Active Verb formed by have and had; as, I have or I had spoke to him. Yet when this Participle is used as an Adjective, or helps to make the Passive Verb, it is better and more usual to use the Ending en; as, It is a written Book, not a writt Book; it is spoken abroad, not spoke abroad; it was written, not writ.

There are three Preter Times; which are thus expressed,

The first Preter absolute, commonly called the Preter-impersect Time; as,

Sing.

Sing. I was burned, thou wast or you were burned, be was burned. Plural. We were burned, ye or you were burned, they were burned.

The second Preter Tense, commonly called the

Preter-perfect; as,

Sing. I have been burned, thou haft or you have been burned, he hath or has been burned. Plural. We have been burned, ye or you have been burned, skey have been burned.

The third Preter, commonly called the Preter-

pluperfect; as,

Sing. I had been burned, thou hadst or you had been burned, he had been burned. Plural. We had been burned, ye or you had been burned, they had been burned.

The first Future is thus expressed,

Sing. I shall be burned, thou shalt or you shall be burned, be shall be burned. Plural. We Shall be burned, ye or you shall be burned, they shall be burned.

Or, Sing. I will be burned, thou wilt or you will be burned, he will be burned. Plural. We will be burned, ye or you will be burned, they will be burned.

The second Future is thus expressed, as,

Sing. I shall have been burned, thou shalt or you Shall have been burned, he shall have been burned. Plural. We shall have been burned, ye or you shall have been burned, they shall have been burned.

Or, I will have been burned, thou wilt or you will

bave been burned, &c.

N. B. Not being able to please myself in the Description of the Times of the Verb Passive, they differing in some respects from the Tenses in the Verb Active; I have contented my felf with barely fetting them down by the old Names, though I am afraid my Reader will not be much benefited thereby.

CHAP.

CHAP. XVIII.

Of the Method of expressing the Moods or Manners of a Verb, signifying, Being, Doing, or Suffering.

E have no Moods, that is, no different Endings of the Verb, to denote the Manner of the Verbs fignifying Being, Doing, or Suffering.

The bare or simple afferting a Thing to be so or

not so, is thus expressed,

I burn or do burn, I do not burn, I will burn, I

will not burn, &c.

This Manner of signifying is called the Indicative Mood in Latin.

The Manner of Verbs fignifying Command, or Exhortation, is thus expressed,

In an Active Sense. In a Passive Sense.

Singular.

Singular. Burn thou or do thou burn. Be thou burned.

Plural.

Plural. Burn ye or do ye burn. Be ye burned.

Note, The second Person Singular and Plural are oftener exprest without a Nominative Case than with; as, Go, and preach to all Nations, &c. for Go ye, and Preach ye.

But this manner of fignifying in the other Per-

fons, is expressed by the Verb let; as,

In an Active Sense. Singular.

In a Passive Sense. Singular.

Let him burn.

Let him be burned. Plural. Plural.

Let us burn. Let them burn. Plural

Let us be burned.
Let them be burned

Sometimes the first Person is thus expressed, Sing we unto the Lord, but this manner of speaking is not to be imitated. The third Person is also thus expressed, Be it so, Know all Men by these presents, &c. But here the Word Let may be understood.

This Manner of the Verbs fignifying, is called in

Latin the Imperative Mood.

The Manner of the Verb's fignifying the Power of doing a Thing, is expressed in the Present Time by can, and in the Preter or past Time by could; as,

Present Time.

Singular. I can burn, thon canst or you can burn, he can burn. Plural. We can burn, ye or you can burn, they can burn.

The Preter Time.

Sing. I could burn, thou couldst or you could burn, be could burn. Plural. We could burn, ye or you could burn, they could burn.

This Manner in a Passive Sense is thus expressed,

Present Time.

Sing. I can be burned, thou canst or you can be burned, &cc.

Preter Time.

I could be burned, thou couldst or you could be burned, &cc.

The Manner of a Verb's signifying the Liberty of a Person to do a Thing, or of a Thing to be done, is expressed by may in the Present Time, and might in the Time past; as,

Present Tense.

Sing. I may burn, thou mayst or you may burn, be may burn. Plural. We may burn, ye or you may burn, they may burn.

Past

Past Time.

Sing. I might burn, thou might for you might burn, be might burn. Plural. We might burn, ye or you might burn, they might burn.

This Manner in a Passive Sense is thus expressed;

25,

Present Time.

Sing. I may be burned, thou mayst or you may be burned, &c.

Preter Time.

Sing. I might be burned, thou might ft or you might be burned, &c.

This Manner is called in Latin the Potential or Subjunctive Mood. It is called the Potential, because it denotes the Power of doing: And it is called the Subjunctive Mood, because it is subjoined or added to the first Sentence by some Cople or Tye; as, Peter comes that he may preach, where that joins the two Sentences together.

N. B. Can and may are used with relation both to the Time present and to come; could from can, might from may, have a relation both to the Time

past and to come.

The Manner of expressing the Inclination of the Will is done by will and would; and the Necessity of a Thing to be done, by shall and should, and also must and ought.

But the Difference between shall and will, and should and would is, that shall and will denote the Future Time absolute, and should and would denote

the Future Time as conditional.

The Manner of the Verbs fignifying Being, Doing, or Suffering, without expressing either the Person or Thing, that is, does, or suffers, or the Number, is denoted by setting the Preposition to before the Verb; as, to be, to burn, to love, to be loved.

This Manner is called in Latin the Infinitive

Mood.

CHAP.

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CHAP. XIX.

Of the Verb Aslive and Neuter.

A Verb Active, is a Verb that can have after it a Noun fignifying the Subject of the Action or Impression that the Verb is used to denote; as, to create the World, to receive a Wound: Or,

A Verb Active, is a Verb that fignifies to to act, as that the Action passes over on some other Thing:

As, to read a Book, to beat a Dog.

A Verb Neuter, is a Verb that signifies the State or Being, and sometimes the Action of a Person or Thing; but then it can have no Noun after it, to denote the Subject of Action.

But then it can have no Noun after it.] That is when it denotes Action, the Action does not pais upon any other Thing: For we do not say, to walk

a Thing, &cc.

This Verb is also called a Verb Absolute, because the Action is terminated in the same Person or Thing; as, Peter grieves, &c. For the Action does not pass upon a Subject, different from him who acts.

From what has been said it appears, that, There are two sorts of Verbs Neuter:

1. One fort that does not fignify Action, but denotes the Being or State of a Person or Thing, either in respect to its Posture or Situation; as, 10

fit, to hang, &c.

2. The other Sort of Verbs Neuter fignify Action, but in such a manner that the Action does not pass upon a Subject different from what acts; as, to craul, to creep, to walk, &c. So in this Sentence, the Worm creeps; here the Action of creeping

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ing does not pass upon any other Subject, for we do not say, to creep a Thing, but the Action is terminated in the Worm itself.

The Signification of Verbs Absolute (or Neuter, which fignify Action) is in a manner Patlive: And therefore Verbs Absolute and Passive are frequently uted for each other; as, I am grieved, for I grieve. I am rejoiced, for I rejoice; I am laid, for I lie.

So the Verb to go, may be expressed also passively in the Present and Future Tenses; as, I go, or I

am gone, I will go, I will be gone, &c.

These Verbs following, arrive, come, decay, fall, fly, go, grow, pass, return, stray, wither, run, &c. commonly take the Passive Formation, I am, I was, for the Active Formation, I have, I had,

I am come, thou art come, he is come, we are come, ye are come, they are come; for I have come, thou hast come, &c. So, I was come, thou wast come, he was come, &c. for I had come, thou hadft come, he kad come, &c.

Questions relating to the Nineteenth Chapter.

Q. What is a Verb Neuter?

A. A Verb Neuter, is a Verb which fignifies the State or Being, and sometimes the Action of a Perfon or Thing; but then it can have no Noun after it, to denote the Subject of Action.

Q. How many forts of Verbs Neuter are there?

A. Two. One fort that fignifics only the Being or State of a Thing; and the other fort which fignifies Action, but in such a manner, that the Action does not pass upon a Subject different from him that acts.

Q. Are not some Verbs Neuter expressed like Verbs

Pallive?

A. Yes. As, I grieve, or I am grieved, &c.

Q. What do you mean by a Verb Transitive?

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A. A Verb which fignifies so to act, as that the Action passes over on some other Thing.

Q. What do you mean by a Verb Intransitive?

A. A Verb that fignifies to act, but the Action does not pass on any other Thing.

Q. Do Verbs Neuter ever become Transitive?

A. Sometimes, as, Walk the Horse, &c.

CHAP. XX.

Of the A D V E R B.

E are now come to speak of those Parts of Speech which are by some called Particles, as it were little Parts of Speech; and it is in the right Use of these, that the Clearness and Beauty of a good Stile does more particularly consist. And we shall begin with the Adverb.

Q. What is an Adverb?

A. An Adverb is a Word that is joined to a Verb, to an Adjective, to a Participle, or another Adverb, to denote or mark some Circumstance, some Quality, or Manner signified by them.

[Joined to a Verb] The Verb signifies Being, Doing, or Suffering; the Adverb is joined to it, to show how, or whether or no, or when, or where, one is, does, or suffers: As, the Boy paints neatly, he writes ill, he writes now, the Book is read there, ore.

[To an Adjective.] As, he is very good, no Man is

always wife, &c.

[To a Participle.] As, A Man truly fearing God, beit always living well, &c.

[To another Adverb.] As, he lives very happily,

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Q.

Q. Is an Adverb joined only to a Verb?

A. No. For it is also joined to Adjectives, Participles, and to other Adverbs.

Q. What is the Use of the Adverb?

A. To denote some Quality, Manner, or Circumstance, which the Word it is put to fignifics.

We shall, without troubling the Reader with unnecessary Divisions, divide the Adverbs into Adverbs of Time, of Place or Situation, of Order or Rank, of Quantity or Number, of Quality, of Manner, of Affirmation, of Negation or Denying,

of Doubting, and of Comparison.

Adverbs of Time refer either to the Time present, past, to come, or to an undetermined Time, or to a Time not fixed: Those that relate to the Time Present are, Now, i e. at this Time; to Day, i. e. in this Day. Those that refer to the Time past, are, Yesterday, i. e. the preceding Day, or the Day before the present Day; already, i.c. before this Time, or having been before, or which is now done; beretofore, i. e. before this Time. Those that refer to the Time to come, are, to morrow, i. e. the Day following this, or the next Day to this Day; henceforth, i.c. from or after this Time; hereafter, i. c. after this Time ; by and by, i. c. in some Time that is near to this Time. Those that relate to an undetermined Time, when alone, are, often or oftentimes, i. e. frequently; always, i. e. in all Times. When is used in asking a Question, i. c. in what Time; then, i.c. at that Time; ever, i.c. at all Times; never, i.e. at no Time.

Adverbs of Place relate to all Sorts of Place indifferently, and serve only to mark the Difference of the Distances and Situation in regard either to the Person that speaks, or to the Things that are spoken of; as, Where, i. e, in which Place, or in what Place? (this Word is used in asking a Question.) Here, i.e. in this Place; there, i. c. in

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That Place; whither, i. c. to which Place, or to what Place; hither, i. c. to this Place; thither, i. c. to that Place; upward, i. c. towards the top; downward, i.e. towards the bottom; whence, i. c. from which Place, or from what Place; hence, i.c. from this Place; Thence, i.c. from that Place; by, Or hard by, i. e. near such a Place; far, or far of, i. c. a great way distant from such a Place; asunder, denotes Separation, or the Space between. No where, i. c. in no Place; elsewhere, in some other Place. The Notion of Order or Rank, is inseparable from that of Place, under which they are naturally comprised, and a great many of them refer both to Order and Place; as, before, behind, &c. But these are rather Prepositions. Those that relate to Order, as, second'y, thirdly, fourthly, afterwards; for first, second, &c. are really Nouns Adjective, some Substantive being understood.

Adverbs of Number are, once, i. e. one Time, swice, i. e. two Times, thrice, i. e. three Times. But afterwards we express the Number by two Words; as, four times, five times, &cc. rarely, seldom, are also counted Adverbs of Number. Frequently, often, lignify also an indefinite Number.

quently, often, fignify also an indefinite Number.

Adverbs of Quantity, or those which serve to denote the Price or Value of Things, as well as any Quantity of them, are, bow much, i. e. bow great, when it fignifies Quantity: But how many when it fignifies the Number: Enough, i. e. what is sufficient, &cc. So much, little, which are really Adjectives.

Adverbs of Affirming or of Consent are, yea,

yes, I.

Tes is more usual and modish than yea, I for yes, is used in a hasty or merry way; as, I Sir, I Sir. And sometimes we use ay, but this way of affirming is rude and ungenteel.

Adverbs of Denying arc, no, not, and nay.

No and may are used absolutely, that is, without being joined to any other Word; as, Will you do it? A. No. Not is used when joined to some other Word; as, I do not love it, where we must. not fay, I do no love it, neither may we use I do no read, be is no well, for I do not read, be is not well, &c. But no before a Substantive is an Adjective for none; as, no Man, or no body did it.

Nay is emphatically and elegantly used to correct: an Error in ourselves or others: As, He is as good

a Scholar as you are, nay, a better.

N. B. Two Negatives, or two Adverbs of de-

nying, do in English affirm.

We put our Adverb of denying after the Verb: as, I do not love him, I love not him, or I love him nos: But the other Adverbs may be placed indifferently either before or behind. Only you may observe, that the Adverbs which end in ly, are commonly placed next to the Verb.

Nor is always in the second Member of a Sentence, and then neither is in the first; as, I have eaten neither Meat nor Bread to day. But if not be in the first Member, neither, but rather nor, is in the second: As, I have not tasted Bread to day,

nor [neither] have I seen any.

Adverbs of Doubting whether it be so or not, are, perhaps, or peradventure, i.e. it may be so or

not fo.

These are applicable both to Affirmation and Negation, and are conjectural, doubtful, and contingent: perhaps and peradventure are used adverbially, though strictly speaking they are no Adverbs, but a Preposition compounded with a Substantive: As, perhaps is by Hap or Accident, per-adventure is by adventure, or rather by an Adven-ture; as also, indeed, which is compounded of a Preposition and a Substantive.

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But these Words relate to Certainty, or Confidence, that the Thing is so, or not so; truly, sure-

ly, indeed, verily, &c.

Adverbs of Comparison; those Adverbs which do themselves mark Comparison, or the Difference of Degree in Persons or Things, are, bow, as, lo, bow much more, lest, lest, most, very, rather, than.

The Adverbs of Comparison, more, lest, and most, are joined to any Adverbs, that are capable of re-

ceiving more or less.

O. What fort of Adverbs are Adverbs in ly?

A. Adverbs of Quality, or of the Manner; from most Adjectives in our Language are formed Adverbs which end in ly, and these for the most part denote the fame Quality or Manner, as the Adiectives do, from whence they are derived; as,

that was nobly done, or that was a noble Deed; God's Mercy is infinite, or God is infinitely mercy ful. So from just, wife, prudent, brave, right, constant, &c. come the Adverbs justly, wisely, prudently, bravely, rightly, constantly, &c.

This fort of Adverbs commonly admit of Com-

parison; as, happily, more happily, most happily.

N. B. There are abundance of Words which are reckoned for Adverbs and are not; and there are great numbers of Adjectives that are used adverbially, or as Adverbs: But these, and those that are formed from them ending in ly, and several Prepositions that are reckoned as Adverbs, I have defignedly omitted.

Q. Are not Adverbs somesimes compared?

A. Some Adverbs are also compared; as, often, oftener, ofteneft, &c.

Adverbs in ly are compared by more and most; 23, wifely, more wifely, most wifely.

Some-

Sometimes the Article The is used in an emphatical manner before the Comparative; as, The less I see him, the better; the more I talk with him, the less I like bim.

Motion from one Place to another, is commonly expressed by the Adverbs that end in ther; as,

hither, to this Place; thither, to that Place.

Hither is sometimes used as an Adjective; as, on the hither side of it, in contradistinction to the other side, or the farther side of it.

The Adverb is also often in the modern Languages explained by the Noun and the Preposition; as, with justice, for justly; with wisdom, for wisely, &c.

CHAP. XXI.

Of the Conjunction.

Q. WHat is a Conjunction?

A. A Conjunction is a Part of Speech that joins Sentences together, and shows the manner of their Dependence upon one another.

. Q. What is the use of the Conjunction? A. It is used to join Sentences.

Q. Does it join Words together?

A. Strictly speaking it does not; for in this Sentence, Peter and Paul preaches, preaches is under-flood in the first part of the Sentence; that is, Peter preaches, and Paul preaches, where you fee there are two Sentences joined together by the Couple or Conjunction and.

I shall divide the Conjunctions into Conjunctions Copulative; into Disjunctive, or of Division; into. Adversative, or of Opposition, and of Exception; into Conditional; into Suspensive,

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Or

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or of Doubting; into Concessive; into Declarative; into Interrogative; into Comparative; into Augmentative and Diminutive; into Causal, or Causative; into Illative, or Conclusive; into Conjunctions of Time, and of Order; and into Conjunctions of Transition.

Conjunctions Copulative,

Are those Words which serve to join or coup!e two Propositions or Sentences under the same Assimation, or under the same Negation. And, also, are those which are used for the Assimation; nor, or neither, for the Negation.

There is no Conjunction of such general Use as and. As, Bread and Cheefe, Beer and Ale, and yet,

and therefore, &c.

Conjunctions Disjunctive,

Are those Words which do serve in such a Manner for the Connection of Discourse, that they mark at the same time Division or Distinction in the sense of the Things spoken of: These are, or, and whether, either; as, it is one or the other. I do not know whether is be good or bad.

Conjunctions Adversative; or,

Conjunctions of Opposition, are those Words which are used to couple two Sentences, in marking the Opposition in the second Sentence, with regard to the first. The chief of these is but, the others are nevertheless, however, &c.

Conjunctions of Exception or Restriction are unless, but, otherwise, &c. as, I will not go unless

you will go with me.

Conjunctions Conditional are such as, in connecting one Part of the Discourse to the other, serve to put between the two Sentences that they join, a Condition or Clause without which, that which is expressed in the principal Sentence ceases

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to have its Effect. These Conjunctions are, if, but if, also save and except; if they may be allowed to be Conjunctions.

The Conjunctions Suspensive or Dubitative, which serve to mark Suspension or Doubting in Discourse, are whether, &cc. 25, I do not know

whether it be so or no.

Conjunctions Concessive, or such as grant the

Thing to be so, are, although, &c.

Conjunctions Declarative, are such as are used to explain the Thing more clearly; as, as, namely,

to wit, for example, &c.

As, There are four Elements, namely, or for example, or to wit, Earth, Water, Air, Fire. But if any one should insist that namely is an Adverb; for Example, a Preposition and a Substantive; to wit, a Preposition and a Verb; I shall not dispute it. To wit, comes from the Saxon, witan, to know.

Conjunctions Interrogative, are such as are used in asking a Question, or the reason of a Thing: These are, why, wherefore, &c. as, Why did you

do it?

The Conjunctions not yet mentioned are, for, because (i.e. by cause, as it was wrote formerly;) that, therefore, whereas, since, likewise, thereupon, &c.

If any shall reckon some of these Words as Adverbs, and some of the Adverbs as Conjunctions, they being often used in both Senses, there will be

no great Harm done.

CHÁP:

CHAP. XXII. Of the PREPOSITIONS.

THE Prepositions, of which we shall now treat, and the Conjunctions, of which we have spoke already, are, as it were, the Nerves and Ligaments of all Discourse; and we cannot attain to a right Knowledge of any Language, without a good Understanding of these two Parts of Speech.

Q. What is a Preposition?

A. A Prepolition is a Part of Speech, which being added to any other Parts of Speech, serves to mark or signify their State or Reservence to each other. Or you may take it thus;

A. A Prepolition is a Word added to other Words, to show the Respect or Relation one

Thing has to another.

Note, By a Part of Speech is meant a Word, for every Word is a Part of our Speech. I use the Word added; for though the Preposition is added chiefly to the Noun Substantive, yet it is also added to other Parts of Speech; as for Example, before the Pronoun; as, he came to bim, or from me; before the Verb; as, to fight, to read, &c. Before the Participle; as, after having read: Before the Article; as, with the Help of a Sword: Before the Adverb; as, from hence; and sometimes after the Word it governs; as, What did you sell this for?

It serves to mark or signify their State or Refe-

It ferves to mark or fignify their State or Reference to each other: That is, it shows what Respect or Relation one Thing has to another; as, Peter goes over the Bridge, or under it: I go to the Place, or from it: So as to its State; John dwells at the

the Market; Charles lives in the College; he lives within the City, or without it.

The English Tongue has no Diversity of Cases, (which the Greeks and Latins especially have) but does all that by the help of Prepositions, which the Greeks and Latins did partly by Prepositions, and partly by the Diversity or Difference of Cases.

I shall treat of the Prepositions in an Alphabetical manner.

ABOVE. Above chiefly relates to Place, and answers to below or beneath; as His Chamber is above mine.

It hath also divers other Acceptations.

1. It denotes being higher in Greatness, Excellency, or any Degrees of Honour, &c. As, Cafar could not abide to have any above him, i. e. in Power, &c. He is above bim in Learning.

2. Above signifies beyond, or more than; as, 2bove his Strength, i.e. beyond. He minded none of

those above the rest, i.e. more than the rest.

3. It denotes more, or longer than: As, be fought above two Hours, i.e. more or longer than, &c.

4. It denotes besides: As, over and above these Evils, there was, &cc. i.c. besides.

ABOUT. About relates both to Place and Time: As, about Noon; about the Field.

1. About is used to denote within the Compass, or in some part of; as, They have fet up a Shop about Cheaplide, i. e. in some part of, or near Cheapside.

2. It signifies round about: As, They made a Hedge about the Ditch, i. c. round about, &c. They made a Mount about the House, i. c. round about.

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Concerning or of: As, He wrote about the Circulation of the Blood, i.e. concerning, or of, &c. F 5 Nigh, Nigh, Nigh, at: As, It was about Night, i.e. nigh,

er at Night.

Abous being put to Words of Measure signifies almost, near upon, more or less than that Measure: As, about four Fingers long; about five Bushels.

About being put to Verbs, signifies ready to do, or the future Time of Action: As, He is about to fight, i. e. he is ready to fight; he is

about to depart to morrow, i.e. he will.

It denotes also the present Time of Action, and imports one's being bushed and employed in the doing of any Thing; as, I am about Business, i. e. doing or deligning it.

AFTER. After is a Preposition which relates to Time and Place.

It serves to denote Posteriority of Time, and Inferiority of Place or Order, and is put in opposition

to before.

1. Posteriority of Time, i. e. a being or coming after: As, after the Deluge Abraham was born, i. e. Abraham came into the World, or his Birth was after the Deluge. After Julius Casar our Saviour was born, i. e. Our Saviour came into the World after the Reign of Julius Casar.

2. Inseriority of Place or Order, i.e. a lower Degree of Place or Order: As, The Lieutenant comes after the Captain: His Place is after the

Master's.

But after, when it is put to Verbs, has then re-

ference only to Time: As, after he arrived.

There is a particular Sense of after used in Painting; as when one says, To paint after Raphael: To paint after Titian, i. e. To copy a Picture made by Raphael, made by Titian. But we may here render after, by according to: As also in the sollowing Phrase, He writes after his Copy, i. e. according to.

There

There are several other Senses in which after is taken; as, He longs after it, i.e. be wishes for it with an ardent Desire. After all, i.e. after having well examined all Things; every Thing being well considered. So likewise in, after that, i. e. Is being so. And this Expression is used by way of Connection to Discourse.

AGAINST. Against hath two particular Significations very different from one another. In one it is used to denote Opposition, Contrariety; in the other Situation of Place.

And each of these two Significations has also two distinct Uses from one another.

1. In the first Acceptation, against sometimes serves to denote a direct Opposition by which one defigns to fight, to attack, to destroy a Person or Thing: As, To march against the Enemy. To conspire against the Queen. To speak against Religion.

So likewise, to speak for or against, where for and against are Prepositions, Thing or Person being

understood.

Against, also, as it relates to Place, signifies, First, Over-against; as, His House is against mine. He lodges against the Church. I was placed against bim.

Secondly, It denotes Contiguity, or joining to; as in the following Instances, To fasten a Thing against the Wall: He ran up a Wall against our House.

It signifies also as much as from; as, To defend

the Myrtle against the Cold, i.e. from the Cold.

For. As, He prepares a Dinner against to mor-

row, i.e. for, &c.

Lastly, against joined with over, i.e. over against, is only used when Reference is made to the oppolite Polition of some Thing, Person, or Place; as, That House was straight over against the o-F 6 ther. The English Grammar.

other. Over against that Place. He stood over against bim.

AMONG, or AMONGST. Signifies as much : as between or betwint; but there is a Distinction to be observed in the use of them. Between or betwixt properly fignifies between two; and therefore when we speak of more than two Persons or Things, it is better to use among. Though I confels between or betwixt is sometimes used when the Discourse is of more than swo; but it is an improper way of speaking.

AT. At denotes Nearness to a Thing or Place; alfo, Time, Price, the Instrument, Cause, Manner, &cc. and fignifies as much as,

In. As, at School, at Church, at London, i.e. in the School, &c. It lies at the Bottom, i. e. in the Bottom. At the Beginning, i. c. in the Be-Liuning.

About. As, at Sun-set. At Break of Day, i. of

about Sun-set, &c.

Near, or close by. As, He watches at the Door,

i.e. near the Door.

For. He fold it at a great Rate, i. e. for a great, &c. What do you fell it at? i. e. For what do you. fell it ?

With. As, He plays at Bowls, i.e. with Bowls. According to. As, at bis Pleasure, i.e. according to bis Pleasure.

On, or Upon. As, Shore is excellent at the Trumpet, and at the Lute, i. c. on, de. Lully is

skillful at the Hautboy, i. e. on, &c.

It is used also to denote all sorts of Business or Action: As, To be at Study. To be at Dinner. To Be at writing, i.e. He studies. He dines. He writes, &c.

BEFORE. Before is used to denote Priority of Time, Order, Rank, Situation, &C. 1. I: 1. It denotes Priority of Time: As, Before the Creation of the World. Before the Birth of Christ.

2. It denotes Priority of Order: As, the Capiain marches before the Soldiers. The Horse goes before the Cart.

3. It is used to mark the Setting or Placing of a Person or Thing; and when thus used, it does likewise denote nearness; as, put it before the Fire, i. e. over against, or near; he layed down the Child before St. Paul's Church, i. e. over against, or near.

It is used by way of Comparison, and denotes Preference of any Kind: as, he values Gold before Learning, i. e. more than, &c. And in this Sense

it fignifies, as much as

Beyond. As, In many Arts before all, and in Rhetorick behind none; before all, i. c. beyond all.

It fignifies also sometimes

Rather or Sooner. As, I will do any Thing before I will comply, i. e. rather or fooner. I shall want Voice before I shall want Words, i. e. fooner, &c.

BEHIND. Behind is a Preposition relating to Place, and is used to mark the Situation that is directly opposite to that which is expressed by before. As, behind the Door, behind your House.

It is used likewise when we discourse of Things that have not, strictly speaking, any Face or Forepart; as, he hides himself behind the Tree. He lies behind the Bulb.

It is used also in a figurative manner, when we speak of a Person that excels others in any Thing; as, In that Part of Learning be leaves all others far behind him, i.e. be excels all others.

BENEATH, or BELOW. Beneath or below is generally used in respect to Place or Situation, and

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and answers to above: As, beneath the Firmament.

It is used also to denote the being inferiour, or less than another in any Kind. As, He is beneath him in Houser, i. c. not so honourable. He is beneath, or below him in Birth, i.e. not so well born or descended.

This is a particular Phrase. It is beneath, or below bim to do so and so, i.e. He would scorn,

&c.

BETWEEN. Between or betwixt relates to Time and Place, and is spoken of two Terms or Words, in which the Space of Time or Place, of which we speak, is included; as, Between the Promise made to Abraham, and the coming of the Messias; i.e. the Space of Time which was from the Time when the Promise was made to Abraham, and to the Time of the coming of our Saviour. Between Heaven and Earth, i.e. the Space that is between the Places Heaven and Earth.

- 1. And in these Phrases, Between or betwixt Hope and Fear: Between the Father and Son: Between you and me: There are always two Terms considered, as being equally distant from the Subject of which we speak. As for Instance, in the first Sentence, The Man is between Hope and Fear, i. e. The Man is as distant, or far from Hope, as he is from Fear; or, he has as much Hope as he has Fear.
- 2. It signifies as much as in the middle, or thereabouts; as, The River ran between the two Fields, i. e. in the Middle, &cc. He fat at Dinner, between or betwixt them, i. e. in the middle of them, &c.
- 3. It serves to denote Society or Union: As, there was a Conference between them. There is a great Friendship between him and me.

4. It denotes Participation, or Sharing: As, The Grey is between the White and the Black, i.e. The grey Colour partakes of part of the white, and part of the black Colour.

5. It denotes Privacy; as, That was done between them both, i. e. privately, or that no Person joined

with them, in doing a Thing.

BEYOND. Beyond relates chiefly to Place, or to the farther fide of which any Thing is or goes. As, beyond the Mountain, beyond Cheapside.

It is used also to denote any sort of Excess, either good or bad, and is applied to any Moral Things; or Things relating to the Manners of Men: as, He goes beyond all in Justice, i.e. be excells all, &c. It pleases him beyond Imagination, i.e. It exceeds your Imagination to think how it pleases him. He rewarded him beyond his Merits, i.e. The Reward was greater than be deserved.

It fignifies Superiority in any Thing; as, He wens beyond all in Valour, in Strength, i. c, he excelled

them, &cc.

Beyond signifies also as much as, over; as, He is

gone beyond Sea, or over Sea.

It signifies also on the other side, and answers to Behither, or on this side.] Behither is used to denote a Place that is near, as beyond denotes that which is more distant or farther off: As, The Parlour lies behither or on this side the Kitchen. The Army lies behither, or on this side the River.

BY. By denotes the Efficient Cause of a Thing or Action; (or the Cause by which a Thing is performed or done) the Motive which makes one do a Thing, and the Means which contribute to that end: As, He was slain by his Enemy, but was wounded first by his own Fear, then by his Enemy's Sword.

1. It denotes the Efficient Cause of a Thing or Action; as, All Things were created by the Word of God.

2. It denotes the Motive which makes one do a

Thing; as, She is hurried on by her Paffin.

3. It is used to denote the Means by which one uses to do a Thing, or which contributes any way to the doing of it; as, He satisfies all the World by bis Conduct. He received the Letter by the Post. He persuades by bis Reasons. It signifies also as much as

In. As, by Day, by Night, i. c. In the Day-

time, &c.

Through. As, by Cheapfide, i. e. through Cheapside.

Besides. As, by the Mark, Besides, &c. At. As, To come by, i.e. to obtain or come at. There are abundance of other Acceptations, but we must not enlarge.

Beside.] Beside (i.e. by the Side) denotes Near-

ness, and signifies as much as

By, or nigh to. As, He fate beside the River, i. e. by or nigh to the River. Lay my Bones beside his Bones, i. c. nigh to, &c.
It denotes Erring or Wandering. As, He shoots

beside the Mark, i. e. from, &cc. He is beside kim-

felf, i.e. mad.

Except, fave, or but. As, No body thinks fo beside myself, i.e. except, but, &c.

But its chief use is to denote Augmentation or

Addition; as,

More, more than, over and above; as, There were many Things besides these, i. e. more than, &c.

FOR. The Preposition for has a great many Significations; and denotes chiefly for what Purpose, End, or Use, or for whose Benefit or Damage any Thing is done; as, Christ died for us. He got Dinner for Peter.

1. For

1. For, serves to denote the End or Object which one proposes in any Action; as, To fight for the Publick Good.

2. It serves to mark the Motive, the Cause, the Subject of any Action, and may be tendered by, in consideration of; as, God bath done all things for his own Glory. He does all Things for the love of Virtue. I will write the Book for your fake.

3. It is used to mark the Use for which a Thing

is done; 23, Chelsea Hospital was built for disabled

Soldiers. He has the Beef for his Dinner.

4. It is used likewise to denote Profit, Advantage, Interest, and may be rendered by, in favour of; as, the Lawyer pleads for his Client. I do it for your Interest. I wrote for your Satisfaction.

5. It is used to denote for what a Thing is proper or not; as, A good Horse for the Chariot. It is fit for a Cabinet. It is a good Remedy for the Fever. In which last example, to cure is to be understood; and so likewise in all such fort of Phrases; for for is never used to signify against, wherefore some Verb is always to be understood. For,

6. This Preposition is used to denote Agreement, or Help, in Opposition to against; as, Peter is for me, John is against me. The Soldier fights for the

King.

7. It is used to denote the Convenience or Inconvenience of a Thing; as, The Coat is too big for him. The House is too listle for him. He is big enough for his Age. Under this Head we may reduce

the Phrase, It is well Sir for you.
8. It is used to denote Exchange, or Trucking, Recompence, Retribution, or Requital, and Payment; as, He changed Silk for Lace. He gave a Diamond for the Crystal. He rewarded him for his good Services. To render Evil for Evil. He gave him Money for the Book. Hither we may likewise refer these Phrases, Eye for Eye, Fault for Fault.

9. It

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9. It is used to denote, instead of, in the Place of; 25, I will grind for bim, i.e. in his stead. I will watch for yeu, i. e. in your Place. Sometimes it serves to denote a Mistake; as, He speaks one Word for another: To take one Person for another: And in this Sense we are to take this Phrase, Whom do you take me for? When a Man supposes all that Respect is not paid him which he counts his due.

10. It is used to denote the Distribution of Things by Proportion to several Persons; as He sets down

twelve Acres for every Man.

11. It denotes the Condition of Persons, Things, and Times: He was taxed enough for his Estate, i. c. considering his Estate. He was a learned Man for those Times, i.e. considering those Times.

12. It likewise is used to denote in the Quality of; as, He had him for a Tutor. He hired him for a Coachman. He suborned him for a Witness.

It fignifies likewise as much as because of, or, by Reason of. As, to punish a Man for his Crimes, i. e. because of, &c. To imprison him for Debt, i. e. because of, &c. He could not walk faster for Age, i. e. by reason, or because of, &c.

It lignifies as, or to be. As, He was fent for a

Pledge, i. e. as, or to be a Pledge.

During. As, He was chosen for Life, i.e. during

Life.

This Preposition is often used to denote the Future Time, or Time to come, as in the foregoing Example.

Concerning, about, as to; as for me, i.e. con-

cerning me.

Notwithstanding. As, after having spoke of the Faults of a Man, we add, for all that, he is an bonest Man, i. e. notwithstanding all that, &c.

FROM. From fignifies Motion from a Place, and then it is put in opposition to To; as, He goes from London to York, he goes from School.

r. It

1. It is used to denote the Beginning of Time. As, from the Creation of the World. From his Birth.

2. It denotes the Original of Things. As, It grew so big from a small Seed. He is descended from the Family of the Stuarts.

3. It denotes the Order of a Thing. As, from

Head to Foot. From first to last.

And in these three last Senses it is put before Adverbs. As, From thence, i. c. from that Place. From hence, i. e, from this Place. From henceforth, i.c. from this Time, or at all Times after this. 4. It fignifies Off. As, He took me from the Ground, i.e. off the Ground.

IN or INTO. In serves chiefly to denote or mark, Time, Place, the Manner of Being, of Thinking, and of Asting, or Doing, the Motive which eauses one to act, and the Means we use to act by.

In relates to Rest, Into to Motion As, Peter lives in the House; not into, &c. But Peter goes into the Cellar.

1. It relates to Time; as, In the Summer, in the Winter.

2. It relates to Place, as, In the City, in the

3. It is used to denote or mark the different Postures and Dispositions of the Body, and the diverse Manners of Existence or Being, either of Persons or Things, with relation either to Art or Nature; 25, To be in a suppliant Posture. To be in good Health. An Army in Battle Array. He is in his Shirt. He is in a Robe of State.

4. It serves likewise to denote the different Circumstances of a Person's Fortune and Affairs; as, To be in Favour. To be rich in Land, in ready Money, To be in If ar. To have his Affairs in a good

Condition.

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5. It serves also to express the different Manners of Being, with relation to the Passions and Affections of the Soul, to the Thoughts and Operations of the Mind; as, To be in Fear. To be in Doubt. To put bim into good Humour. To take it in good part. His Memory is in Esteem.

6. It denotes also the Motive and Object; as, He

did it in Revenge; he works in Hope.

7. It fignifies as much as among; as, The wicked has not God in all his Thoughts, i.e. among all his

Thoughts.

8. It denotes the Changes of a Person or Thing, whether it be into better or worse; as, They turn Brass into Gold. Narcissus was changed into a Flower, &cc.

9. In lignifies sometimes against or into; as, He ran the Poker in my Face. He put in his Mouth.

- OF. Of answers to the Genitive Case of the Latins, and admits of the same Variety of Signification with it, whether it be put after Substantives, Adjectives, or Verbs.
 - 1. It fignifies the Author of a Thing; as, The Works of Cicero, i. e. the Works which Cicero wrote.

2. It signifies the Possessor, or Owner of a Thing;

as, The Palace of the Ling.

3. As it lignifies all fort of Relation or Respect that the latter Substantive has to the former, so it fignifies natural relation; as, The Son of the Earl, or the Earl's Son.

4. It fignifies the Subject; as, A Cup of Water,

a Piece of Bread.

5. It fignifies the Object; as, A Treatife of Phyfick, i.e. concerning Physick. He writes of the Mathematicks.

6. It fignifies the Matter of which a Thing is made; as, A Cup of Gold, a Building of Marble, i. c.

i.e. A Cup made of Gold, a Building made of Marble; which Phrases may be turned into an Adjective; as, A Golden Cup, a Marble Building.

7. It is used to signify the Means or Cause; as, To

die of Hunger, to die of a Consumption.

8. It is used to mark or denote the Quality of a Person or Thing; as, A Man of Honour, an Affair

of Importance.

9. It sometimes denotes an Allive Sense; as, The Providence of God, i. e. the Providence by which God takes care of all Things. Sometimes it denotes a Passive Sense; as, The Fear of God, i. e. by which he is feared. Sometimes it serves to denote both these Senses; as, The Love of God, i. e. the Love with which God loves his own People, or, the Love with which good Men love God.

10 It is sometimes only a Note of Explication or Specification; as, The City of London, the City of

Rome.

Lastly, It signifies as much as among; as, of four Daughters three were blind, i.e. among four Daughters.

From. As, South of London, i. e. South from,

But sometimes we express of, especially when it signifies Possession, by the Genitive Case; as, The King's Palace, i. c. the Palace of the King; Peter's Horse, i. c. the Horse of Peter.

OFF. Off lignifies Separation or Distance; as, To put off his Cloaths. He stood off from the Fire.

I. It denotes Delay; as, He puts me off, i.e.

delays.

2. Off and On being joined together denote Inconstancy or Unsettleaness; as, He is off and on with me, i. c. He sometimes agrees, and sometimes will not.

ON.

ON or UPON. On or Upon relates both to Time and Place; as, on or upon that Day. On or upon the Table.

1. When on or upon relates to Place it has diverse Uses, where it is employed in a Sense more or less proper, but it every where denotes the Superiority of the Situation [that is, being uppermost or over of Persons or Things in respect to one another; as, To put the Fish on or upon the Table.

To lie on or upon the Bed. To put his Hat on or upon his Head. A Bridge on or upon the Thames.

2. And in allusion to this Acceptation, it is used in speaking of the Imposition or raising of Taxes, Contributions, &c. And then it serves to denote either the Persons of whom the Taxes are demanded, or the Funds from whence the Taxes are railed; as, He layed Contributions on or upon all the Enemies Country. It is paid out of the Tax upon Malt, and upon Coals, Candles, &c.

3. In speaking of Business it is used to denote what we are doing, and the Matter or Subject of our Conversation, Deliberation, or Application; 23, To dispute on or upon the Subject of, &c. To deliberate on or upon such a Proposition. To make Notes on or upon Juch an Author.

4. It serves also to denote the Cause or Occasion of doing any Thing; as, Upon the News of her Arrival be presently departed. On or upon the

Advice of the Approach of the Enemy they fled.
5. It serves to denote by the Virtue or Considederation of what a Person says, does, or designs any Thing; as, On or upon those Hopes we married. He ventured, relying upon the publick Faith, i.e. by virtue of, in consideration of, &c.

6. It serves also to denote the Terms which one makes use of to affirm any Thing; as, I protest on er upon my Honour. On or upon my Conscience. To swear on or upon the Gospels.

On or upon does also signify

Concerning; as, He bas agreed on that Matter,

i. c. concerning, &c.

Also after: And denotes the Reiteration or Repeating of something already done or spoken; as, He thanks me with Letter upon Letter. Herepeats Line upon Line, and Precept upon Precept.

When it is added to Verbs, it signifies as much as firward or Continuation; as, To go on, i.e. to go forward, &cc. and answers to off, as, To put on,

Tuput off.

OUT, or OUT OF. Out or out of refers to the Matter, Place, Time, Number, or Multitude from whence any Person or Thing comes, goes, is sought, fetcht, taken, &c. As He took it out of the Fire. He came out of the Church.

It denotes the Reason or Cause of a Thing; as, She did it out of Spite, i. e. by reason of Spite.

It signifies Distance; as, Go out of my Sight, i.e.

from my Sight.

It fignifies not within the Reach of; as, Out of

Gun-flot, i. c. not within the Reach of, &c.

It signifies Not in; as Out of date. Out of Place. Out of Fashion. Out of Heart, i.e. Not in Date, &c.

OVER. Over refers to the Height of Place, above which any Thing is faid to be, or to be done; as, A black Shower hangs over his Head. He holds the Sword over her Head.

It refers to the Distance of Place, beyond or cross or overthwart which any Thing moveth or is made to move; as, He goes over Sea, i.e. beyond or cross, &cc.

Over

· Over denotes Excess; as, It comes by over much Ease, i. e. too much, &c. No body is over happy, i. e. too, &c.

It signifies above; as, It is not two Fingers over,

i. e. above, or.

It fignifies through; as, He is known all over the

World, i.e. through the whole, &c.

It fignifics Power or Authority; as, The Captain is over the Soldiers, i. e. above in Command or Dignity.

Besides; as, He gave me four over, i. e. besides,

Фc.

Being put after Verbs it signifies to desist or leave

off; as, He gives over, i. e. he delitts, &c.

THOROUGH or THROUGH. Thorough or abrough, ferves to mark the efficient Cause (or the Cause that brings a Thing to pass) of a Thing or Action, the Motive of doing a Thing, and the Means that conduce thereto.

1. The efficient Cause; as, Nothing is done but through the Permission of God. The World was created through the Power of God, i.e. by.

2. The Motive; as, She does it through Envy.

3. Thorough or through relates likewise to Place, and is used to denote Presence and Movement into Place; as also the Medium or Middle of Place; as, The Power of God is seen throughout the World. He ran him through the Body. The Beams of the Sun pass from Heaven through the Air to the Earth.

Quite through, i. e. through both Sides.

'TILL or UNTILL. 'Till or untill relates only to Time; as, He staid till four a Clock.

'Till signifies before; as, They did not dare to begin the War, 'till the Ambassadors were come back from Rome, i.e. lefore.

It denotes Delay; as, He bath bern gently wish me till or until now.

TO. To (or unto, which is not so much used as formerly) tignifies,

1. Motion to a Place; as, I go to Rome, to France, &c.

2. Relation; 2s, Good to his Friends. Favourable to the Church. I give Money to Peter. Like to me.

3. It likewise denotes the Use for which a Thing is designed; as, a Mill to grind Coffee. A Bason to wall Hands.

4. It denotes the Capacity, Aptitude, and present Disposition; as, A Man qualified to undertake any Thing. It is easy to do. Wine fit to drink.

It denotes also Design, or Intent; as, To invite to Dinner. To bave somewhat to do. It likewise

fignifies as much as,

In. As, To Day, i. e. In this Day. To morrow,

i.e. In the next Day.

For. He did it to the End, i.e. for the End. He gave ker 500 Found to her Portion, i.e. for, or to be ker Portion.

Before. As, Hemade an Oration to the Queen, i.e. before the Queen. He commends him to his Pace, i.e. before his, &cc.

About, Of, Concerning. As, It follows that I speak to that one part of Hunesty, i. e. about, of, &c.

Towards. As, Your Kindness to me is great, i.e.

towards me, &c.

Until. As, The Parliament is prorogued to November, i. e. Until November, &c. And here it denotes Delay.

In Comparison of me. As, He is notking to me, i.e.
In Comparison of me. He thinks them Clowns to
bim,

bim. i. e. In Comparison of bim, and sometimes it tignifies,

May or Can. As, I have none to comfort me, i. e.

aubo may, can, or will comfort me.

Lastly, This Preposition being put before our Verbs, answers to the Infinitive Mood of the Latins; as, to fight, pugnare, to teach. docere: Where we may farther observe, that to fight is as much as fighting; so, to teach, teaching; as, I love to fight, to teach, i. e. I love fighting, teaching.

This Preposition is frequently left out both in speaking and writing; as when we say, like me, give me, sell me, near me, &c. In all which Places

me is put for to me.

To is ordinarily left out after Verbs of one Syllable that imply a Relation, whether of Acquisition or Motion, especially before the personal Pronouns, when the Nouns or Pronouns immediately follow the Verbs; as, Give me the Cup. Send me my Book. Bring me your Sword. And also after the helping Verbs can, let, &c. And likewise before the Infinitive Mood.

TOWARD. Toward or towards has much the fame Signification as Ward, and is used to denote both Time and Place, though it does more naturally refer to Place than to Time.

1. It is used to denote Time, but without any precise fixing of it; as, Towards the Spring, towards

Noon, towards the End of Winter.

2. But it gives you a more precise and exact Distinction, when it is applied to Place; as, The Troops march towards the Rhine. To have his Eyes turned towards Heaven.

From Ward (see Ward,) comes bither-ward, up-ward, down-ward, fore-ward, back-ward.

UNDER. Under is a Preposition that refers both to Place and Time.

But

But as it relates to Time, it is ordinarily restrained to the marking the Time of a Reign or Government; as, Under the Reign of Queen Anne, Under the Government of Augustus Christ was born; and by Abbreviation, or for shortness sake, we say, Under Queen Anne. Under Augustus. And we use it in the same Acceptation or Sense in speaking of the Time of the Birth of any fortunate Person, as, He was born under a happy Planet, under a favourable Constellation, i.e. a happy Planet, a favourable Constellation ruled at his Birth.

Under, as it relates to Place, denotes being lower in Situation or Place; as, Every Thing that is under

Heaven, or under the Earth.

And it is in Allusion to this Acceptation, when we say, He resired under the Cannon of such a Place: To put a Thing under Lock and Key.

It fignifies privately or fecretly; as, To do a Thing

under Hand, i. e. privately.

Lower, as, under Lip, under Side, i.e. lower.

WARD. Ward is a Preposition that is always set behind another Word, and denotes the Tendency of Persons or Things to one another; as, Heaven ward, i. e. to Heaven, or toward Heaven.

Ward comes from the Saxon Weard. The Saxons say Eastweard, Westweard, as we do Eastward, Westward, the East, &c.

Of this Word and the Prepolition to is com-

pounded the Prepolition toward.

WITH. With is used to denote Conjunction, Union, Mixture, Society, Accompanying, Means, Infrument, Manner, &c.

1. It serves to denote Conjunction, Union; He is Friends with all the World.

2. It denotes Mixture: To put a little Vinegar With a great deal of Oil.

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3. It denotes Society, or Accompanying; as, To eat with his Friends. To go with him.

4. It is used to mark the Means; as, With the Grace of God. With the Help of his Friend. He purges bim felf with Buckthorn.

5. It marks the manner of Being or Doing; as, To speak with Eloquence. To answer with Sweesness,

with Haughtiness, &c.

6. The Instrument; as, He killed him with the Sword.

7. Opposition or Against; as, The Duke of Marlborough fights with the French, i. e. against, Ćε.

WITHIN. Within is a Preposition referring both to Time and Place.

1. When within refers to Place, it serves to denote, that the Person or Thing of which we speak is contained or comprehended in that Place; as, Peter is within the House. He walks within the Garden.

2. When it refers to Time, it serves to fix and determine the Space of Time, with respect to the Thing that is doing; as, He will go within. three Days. It will be finished within two Hours. .

WITHOUT, Without is put in Opposition to within; as, He is not within the House, for he is without Doors.

It denotes what they call Privation or Exclusion. It is used to denote Privation, that is, in speaking of a Good or Advantage we have not; as, nothing can be without the Grace of God. He passes the Night without Sleep, i. c. not having any, &c.

Exclusion, or being exempt or free from; as, He spoke without Passion, i. c. free from, &c.

Without

Without lignifies not with; as, He did it without the Authority of Parliament, i.e. not with, &cc. without jesting; i.e. not with, &cc.

It fignifies void of; as, He is without Wisdom, i.e. void of, &cc. He is without Riches, i.e. void

of, &cc.

It lignifies unless or except; as, He will not come without being sent for, i. c. unless or except, &c. for, without he be fent for, is not good English

It fignifies besides; as, There were two Hundred without the Boys, i. e. besides, or not counting the

Boys.

As to the Words, touching, concerning, according to, belonging to, during, &c. these are rather Participles than Prepositions.

Q. What does above relate to?

A. Above relates to place, and answers to below or beneath, &c. And so you may repeat the Question-relating to the rest of the Prepositions.

C'HAP: XXIII.

Of the Prepositions used in Composition.

Q. WHat is a Compounded Word?

TVV A. A Compounded Word is, when two more Words go to the making up of one.

Words in English are compounded, either with a Preposition, or with some other Part of Speech.

The Prepositions are of two sorts, Separable and Inseparable; the Separable Prepositions are such as may be used alone, the Inseparable are such as are not used in English unless in Composition.

But we shall consider the chief Senses of the Prepositions in an Alphabetical Order. We shall begin with the English Prepositions, then we shall

Speak

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speak of those that are Latin, and lastly of those

that are Greek.

A, is used for on or in; as, asot, asbore, for on Foot, on Shore; abed, adays, anights, for in Bed, in the Days, &c. This a is also oftentimes redundant or superstuous, at the Beginning of a great many Words; as in abide for bide, arise for rise, awake for wake, above, abroad, &c.

Be is often redundant or of no Signification at the Beginning of a great many Words; as bemoan, &c But it sometimes is significant, and signifies about; as in besprinkle, i. e. to sprinkle about; to bestir, i. e. to stir about; to bestir, i. e. to stir about; to bestir, i. e. to have his Thoughts about him, &c. To besiege, &c. It signifies by or nigh; as, beside, i. e. by or nigh the Side. It signifies in; as betimes, i. & in Time, or early. It signifies for or bestore; as, to bespeak, i. e. to speak for, &c.

For fignifies Negation or Privation, i.e. it denies or deprives; as in to forbid, i.e. bid it not to be done; to forfake, i.e. not to feck it any more; to forgive, i.e. not to give or reckon it to one, or c. to for wear, i.e. to swear the thing not to be

that is so, e.

Fore, fignifies as much as before; as, to foresee, to see before it comes to pass; to forebode, to tell

or fay before it happens.

Mis, is always used in a bad Sense, it denotes Descet or Errour; as, Missed, i.e. an ill Deed, or not done right; so from take, to missake, to take it wrong, or otherwise than it is; so to missake, to missimpley, to missapply, &cc.

Over, fignifies Eminency or Superiority; as, to over-come, to over-fee, to over-rule: It denotes also Excess; as, over-bafly, i.e. too hasty, over-

joyful.

Out, fignifies Excess, Excellency or Superiority in any thing; as, to out-de, to out-run, to out-go, &c. Un,

Un, denotes Negation and Contrariety, or the not being so or so; also Dissolution or the undoing a Thing already done: For Example, we being prefixed or fet before Adjectives, fignifies not; as, pleasant, unpleasant, i. e. not pleasant; so un worthy, i. e. not worthy; unfound, i. e. not found, &c. Here un answers to the Latin Preposition in. But when un is put to Verbs, it deltroys, makes void, or undoes what has been already done; as, to fay, to unfay, which fignifies not only not to fay, but to call back and deny what has been said to be said; so to undo, is to deftroy what has been already done; to unweave, is to undo what has been already weaved. This is an Imitation of the Saxon On or Un, which is also compounded with Adjectives and Verbs; as, unlytel, not little, i. e. great; so unenytan, to untie, &c. Thus the Scots say unwell, i. e. not well.

Up, denotes Motion upwards, or Place and Things that lie upwards; as, upland, i.e. the upper Land, or the Land that lies high in respect of some

other; upside, i. e. the Side that is highest.

With lignifies against; as, to withstand, i.e. to stand against; sometimes it signifies as much as from or back; as, to withhold, i.e. to hold from one; to withdraw, i.e. to draw from or back,

Of the Latin Prepositions, that are used in the Composition of English Words.

Ab or Abs, i. e. from, when it is compounded, denotes some Excels or encreasing the Sente of the Words, as, to abhor, to abuse, absurd, &c. or else it signifies Parting or, Separation; as, to abstain, to abolish, to abdicate, &c.

Ad lignifies to or at; as, Advocate, Advent, Adverb, Adjective, Adjacent, &c. Where Advocate,

vocate is one that is called to, &c. Adjacent, that

which lies at or nigh.

Ante, fignifics before; as, antecedent, the foregoing Word, or the Word that goes before another in a Sentence: To antedate, or date it before, &cc.

Circum, fignifies about; as, Circumlocution, a round about way of speaking, as when one Word is expressed by many; Circumvallation, a disching about, Circumstance, what stands, as it were, about a Matter, as Time, Place, Person, &cc.

Con from cum, signifies with or together; as, Conrocation, a calling or meeting together; Colloquy, a talking with or together; Copartner, a Partner with

another; Commerce, trading together.

Contra, signifies against; as, to contradict or gainsay; and denotes Opposition or Contrariety: And hence comes the Preposition Counter, as to counterfeit, &c.

De, signifies a kind of motion from, as, decant, detract, deduce, decay, defile, for filing off, to decamp, that is to move the Camp, &cc. Sometimes it only extends the Sense of the Word; as, to demonstrate, to

deplore, &c.

Dis, fignifies Separation, Difference or Diversity, fand does every where give a Signification contrary to the Word it is compounded with; as, disagree, not to agree; disbelieve, not to believe; disadvantage, no advantage; dislike, not to like.

Di, has hardly any other Use than the extending

Di, has hardly any other Use than the extending or stretching out the Sense of the Word it is compounded with; as, to direct, to diminish, &c.

E or Ex signifies out; as, Event, the falling out; to ejest, to call out; to exclude, to shut out: So to express, exhibit, expest, explain; Eloquence, Elocution, &cc.

En, see under In.

Enter,

Enter, comes from the French entre, and that

from the Latin inter, i.e. between, &cc.

Extra, lignifies beyond, over and above; as, extravagant, one that goes beyond Bounds; extravalated Blood, Blood that is thrown out or beyond:

the Veilels, &c.

In generally denotes the Polition or Disposition. or an Action, whereby one Thing is as it were put into another, or the impression whereby a Thing: receives such or such a Form, and becomes such or such; as, to import, to impale, to inclose, to invelop, to inroll, to insuse: In these Words in marks the Action, by which one Thing comes to be put into another. But in these Words, to inchant, to inrage. to incourage, to inrich, in denotes the Impression. by which one Thing receives such or such a Format and becomes such or such, ore.

In is also used at the beginning of Words to denote Privation or not, and gives a contrary Sense: to the Word it is conpounded with; as, indecent, i.c. not decent; inbumane, not bumane; injustice, not justice; innocent, not nocent, i.c. hurtful; in-

vincible, not to be conquered.

En, is a Prepolition that we use in the spelling. of Words that come from the French; as, to enrage, encourage; though we do not always observe this. Distinction; for we sometimes write in instead of en: This en has much the same Signification as in, but it never denotes Privation or not, which in citen denotes.

But it is to be observed, that as all Latin Words. compounded with in do not denote Privation; for neither do all English Words which are written. with in: For we have many of them from the French, but which are for the most part originally. Latin, that are promiscuously written with en or in, in which the genuine Signification of the Latin. Preposition in is preserved; as, inzender, implant,. G. s.

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Ingrave, &cc. which are also written with en, as engender, engrave, &cc. and their Participles engendered, engraven, &cc. And it were to be wished, for the fake of Foreigners, that en were preserved in those Words that come from the French, rather than that the Latin in should be restored, whence the en came: By this means all Ambiguity or Uncertainty concerning the Signification of this Preposition would be removed; for un is always privative, or fignifies as much as not; en never is: but in is sometimes privative and sometimes not; for it is not privative in the Words that are promifcuously written with en or in. But in other Words it is most commonly privative, namely in those which come from Latin Words that are originally

Inter, fignifies between; as to intervene, to comebetween; Interval, the Space between; interrupt, to break in between other Business; but in interdist it signifies as much as for in forbid, &cc. Some-times we use enter in Words that come from the French, and they are written entre, which

comes from the Latin inter-

Intro, is a Latin Adverb from the Prepolition intra, or a various Ending of the same Prepofition, and fignifies within; to introduce, to bring. into, of.

Ob, signifies against; as, Obstacle, i. e. what stands in the way; to oppose, to put against.

Per, i. e. through, it denotes a certain Degree of Excellency or Excess; perfect, i. e. throughly done; perforate, to pierce through, to perfecute, to per suade.

Post, after; as Postscript, i. e. written after; a Posthumous Work, that is published after the Author's

Death.

Pre, comes from the Preposition Pre, and Egnifics before; as, to premeditate, to meditate of before;

before; Preface, prepare, prefer, prevent; pre-

ingage, or to engage before-hand, &c.

Pro, signifies for, or forth; but it has also a great many other Senses; as, to profess, pronounce, prorogue, promise, &cc.

Preter, significs against; as, Preternatural, 2-

gainst Nature.

Re, generally implies a repeated Action; as, to repeat, i.e. to fay over again; to relapse, to fall ill again; to return, i.e. to come again; to re-enter, to enter again: Sometimes it denotes Opposition or azainst; as, to repulse, to beat back: It often denotes only the enlarging the Sense of the simple Verb; as, to repose, repast, &c.

Retro, signifies backward; as, Retrograde Mo-

tion, i. e. a going backward.

Se, for Sine Without, or Seorsum, by itself, interfuch Words as these, secure, (i. e. Sine eura, or Seorsum, à Cura) semote, separate, seclude, and the like.

Sub, signifies under; as, to subscribe, to write

under.

Subter, under; as, Subterfluous, flowing under,

જ∙.

Super, upon, over, or above; as, Superscription; the writing upon a Letter; superstuents, over and above: This Preposition is changed in some Words that come from the French into Sur, upon or over;

as, Surface, &cc.

Trans, fignifies over or beyond; as, to transport; to carry over; to transgress, to go beyond; and it fignifies in a great many Words the moving from one Place to another; as, to transplant, to transpose, Transmigration, &c. In other Words it denotes the changing of one Thing into another; as, to transform, transsigure, Transubstantiation, &c.

G.6

The

The Greek Prepositions; the chief of these are,

A, which fignifies Privation or not; 2s, Anonymous, without a Name; Anarchy, without Government.

Amphi, fignifics on every fide.

Anti, fignifies against; as, Antagonist, one that is against you; Antichrist, one that is in Opposition to Christ.

Hyper, over or above.

Hypo, under.

Meta, is the same as trans, i. e. beyond; or else denotes the changing of one Thing into another as, Metaphor, Metamorphosis, i.e. Transformation

Peri, about.
Syn, with or together; as, Synod, that is, Con-

vocation; Syntax, that is Construction.

The Prepositions do often change their last Letter into the Consonant that the Word begins with: As, in Con, n is changed into 1, as, Colloquy; and sometimes they lose a Letter, as in coeternal; where n is lest out, &c. But we must not now enlarge.

Questions relating to the Twenty third Chapter.

Q. What does Ab signify?

A. From, and denotes Separation, &c.

Q. What does Ante signify?

A. Before: And so you may repeat the Question with respect to any of the other Prepositions.

CHAP

CHAP. XXIV. Of the INTERJECTION.

Q. What is an Interjection?

A. An Interjection is a Part of Speech; that denotes some sudden Motion or Passion of the Soul.

They may be divided into Solitary and Passive, being used by us when we are alone, or not so directly tending to Discourse with others, in which the Party speaks as suffering some Change in himself. They are the Result, either of a surprized Judgment, denoting either Admiration, as beigh; Doubting or Considering, as, hem, by; Desputing, as, pilb, lby, tulb, &cc. or such as denote a surprized Affection, moved by the Apprehension of Good or Evil, denoting Mirth; as, Ha, Ha, Ha; Sosrow, as, Hoi, Oh, Oh, Ah; Love and Pity, as, Ah, Alack, Alas; Hate and Anger, as, Vaugh, Hau, Phy, Fob.

The other Sort may be stiled Social and Astive; being never used by us when we are alone, but immediately tending to Discourse with others, in which the Party speaks with design to procure some Change in his Hearers. These are such as denote exclaiming, or crying out, as, Oh, Soho; Silencing, as, St, Hulb; Such as are used to dispose the Senses of the Hearer, bespeaking his Attention, Ho, Oh; expressing Attention, as, Ha; such as are used to dispose the Assections of the Hearer, by way of Institution or Blandishment, as, Now; or by way of Threatning, as, Ve, IVoe: But Woe is rather a Substantive; for Wo's me, is Woe is to, or for me.

PART

PART III.

CHAP. I.

Of Etymology or Derivation.

AVING in the former Part treated of the feveral Parts of Speech; I shall now come to observe the Agreement or Affinity of each to the other, or how one Word comes or is derived from another: And this Part of Grammar is called Erymology.

Q. What do you mean by Etymology?

A. Etymology, as it is here treated of, relates to the Derivation of Words, or shows how one Word comes from another.

From any Substantive, or Adjective, put for a Substantive, (in the Singular Number) is formed the Geniuse Case, by adding s.

Every Substantive put for an Adjective, becomes-

an Adjective.

Q. Do Subflaatives ever become Verbs?

A. Yes: Many Substantives, and some Adjectives (and sometimes the other Parts of Speech) being put for Verbs, become Verbs; and denote or signify some fort of Application of the same Thing, or the Thing signified by the Substantive:

The:

The Vowel being commonly made long, and the Confonant foftned.

. As from a House comes to bouse, i.e. to go into a House, or to receive into a House. From Brass, to braze, i.e. to cover with Brass: So from Glass, to glaze; Grass, to graze.

Sometimes the Syllable en is added especially to Verbs that come from Adjectives; as, from Short, comes shorten, that is, to make short; Fast, to

fasten; White, to whiten, or to white.

Q. Do Substantives come from Verbs?

A. Yes. From Verbs are formed the Participles: the Passive one that ends in ed, or en; as, loved, given: And the Active Participle that ends always in ing, as, loving: From which Verbs, by the Addition of er to the Ending of the Present Tense, comes a Substantive signifying the Agent or Doer. As from Hear comes the Noun Hearer, i. c. one that hears: From Run, Runner, i. c. one that runs.

Q. What do Adjectives that end in y denote?

A. From Substantives, by adding the Termination or Ending y, are formed Adjectives of Plenty, or of Abounding.

As, from a Loufe, comes loufy, i.e. one that has a great many Lice; Wealth, wealthy; Health,

bealthy; Might, mighty.

Some Adjectives end in en, and fignify the Matter out of which any Thing is made; as, Asben, Birchen, Oaken, Beachen; an Oaken Stick, i. e. a. Stick made of Oak.

Q. What do Adjectives that end in ful fignify?

A. From Substantives come also Adjectives, denoting Fulness, by adding the Termination ful.

As from Joy comes joyful, i. e. full of Joy;. Eruit, fruitful; Youth, youthful.

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Q. What do Adjectives that end in some de-

A. Sometimes the Termination some is added, having much the same Sense with ful.

As, from Trouble comes troublesome, i.e. full of Trouble; Delight, delight some; Game, gamesome; Burden, burden fome.

Q. What do Adjectives in less denote?

A. The Termination less, being added to Substantives, forms Adjectives lignifying Want.

As, Worthless, i.e. of no worth, or that wants

Worth; Witlefs, Heartlefs, Joylefs, Carelefs.

The same Thing is also signified by wn, or in, prefixed to Adjectives, though in is only used in Words derived from the Latin.

As, Pleafant, unpleafant, i.e. not pleafant; wife, urvife; profitable, unprofitable; innocent, i. c.

not hurtful; impatient, i.e. not patient,

By adding the Termination ly to Substantives, and formetimes to Adjectives, are formed Adjectives which denote Likenefs.

As, from Giant comes giantly, i.e. like a Giant; Earth, earthly; Heaven, heavenly; God, godly;

Gon l, gondly, &c.
The same Termination ly, being also added to Acjectives, forms Adverbs of Quality, as from Mighty comes mightily; Rich, richly, &c.

Q. What do Adjettives in ish fignify?

A. Adjectives Diminutive, or Adjectives that denote leftening of the Signification are made by adoing ilb to Adjectives, and often to Substantives.

As, Green, greenifb, i.e. a little or fomewhat green; Suft, foftijb; Thief, thienifb; Wolf, wolf-

N.B. But these Words in ith, if they come from *Substantive, they generally denote Likene/s; as,

Wolfib, i.e. like a Wolf, from the Substantive Wolf; but if they come from an Adjective, they denote Diminution, or lessening the Sense of the Word they come from; as fiftib, i.e. somewhat soft; from the Adjective soft.

There are also some National Names which end

There are also some National Names which end in i/b; as, Engli/b, Spani/b, Dani/b, Scotti/b, (by

Contraction Scots) Swedifb, &cc.

CHAP. II.

Of Substantives Diminutive, &c.

Q. What is a Diminutive Noun?

A. A Noun Diminutive is a Word, that commonly, by the Addition of some Letter or Syllable to the Word from whence it comes, serves to denote a Diminution or Lessening the Sense of that Word from whence it comes; as, Lambkin, from Lamb.

Here kin being added to Lamb denotes the lessening the Signification of the Word, for Lambkin is a little Lamb.

Ing is mostly the Diminutive Termination as to Animals: Gosling, Duckling, and the like. Ing there seems to signify Young. So that Lambkin is for Lamb-ing: Lamb-young. The k being put in here for better Sound's sake.

So these are Forms of Diminutives; from Hill, Hillock, i. e. a little Hill; Part, Particle, Parcel, Poke, (an old Word) Pocket, i. e. a little Poke; I will not buy a Pig in a Poke, i. e. Bag. A Goose, a Gossing. So Wilkin, i. e. little Will; Tomkin, little Tom.

Q.

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Q. What do Nouns that end in ship denote?

A. Words ending in ship denote or signify Office,
Employment, or Condition.

As, King/hip, i.e. the Office of a King; Steward-fbip, the Office or Employment of a Steward; so Fellow/hip, Partner/hip, Chancellor/hip, Head/hip, Lord/hip, Wor/hip, whence Worfhipful, and to wor/hip.

Q. What do Nouns ending in dom denote?

A. Words ending in dom denote first Office, or Charge with Power and Donninion, or without them; as, Popedom, Kingdom; secondly, the State, Condition, Quality, and Propriety, and also the Place in which a Person exercises his Power; as, Freedom, Thraldom, Whoredom, Wisdom, &c. Dukedom, which denotes the Authority or Power of a Duke, as also the Place where he exercises that Power.

Q. What do Nouns that end in rick and wick denote?

A. Words ending in rick and wick denote also Office and Dominion; as, Bishoprick, Bailywick.

From Adjectives by adding neft, come also Substantives, which signify the Essence of the Thing.

As, from white, whiteness; hard, bardness;

great, greatues; skilful, skilfulnes, &cc.

Q. What do Words that end in hood or head de-

A. Nouns that end in bood and bead, denote the State, Condition, and Quality; as, Godhead, Man-bood, Widowbood, Knighthood, Liklihood, Falsebood, &c.

There are also other Substantives (derived from Adjectives and Verbs) which are made by adding the Ending th; there being sometimes some small

Change made.

As,

As, from long, comes length, strong, strength; broad, breadth; wide, width; deep, depth; bigh, beight, (or as formerly beighth;) true, truth.

- CHAP. III.

Of Words borrowed from the Latin.

W E have a great many Words borrowed from the Latin, (and indeed almost all that are not Words of one Syllable, or that do not come from Words of one Syllable, are Latin:) but the greatest part of these the French or Italians borrowed from the Latin, and we from them.

Nouns Substantive as well as Adjectives, are made English from the Latin by some little Alteration or Change in the Words, which is common to us

with the French; as,

Nature comes from the Latin Word Natura; Grace from gratia, Clemency, elementia, Synod finedus, ingenious, ingeniofus, ingenuous, ingenuus,

Ornament, ornamentum, Vice, vitium.

Our Verbs that come from the Latin are formed or made from the Present Tense, or from the Supines, by laying aside the Termination or Ending, and making some other small Alteration.

From the Present Tense are formed extend from extendo; spend and expend from expendo; conduce, conduce; despise, despise, approve, approbe;

conceive, concipio.

From the Supines Supplicatum demonstratum, are formed supplicate, demonstrate: So dispose, suppress, collect, come from the Supines by throwing away the Ending, dispositum, suppressum, collectum.

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There are also many Nouns and Verbs which we have brought into our Tongue, that are purely *French*, and which are not derived from the *Latin*: As,

Garden, garter, buckler, to advance, to cry, to plead, which come from the French Jardin, jartiere, boucier, avance, crier, plaider, &c. Though indeed there are not many Words in the French Tongue that are purely French, and which are not originally derived from the Latin.

But there are many Words which are for the most part common to us with the Germans, of which it is doubtful whether the antient Teutones received them from the Latins, or the Latins from them, or whether they did not both receive

them from the same common Fountain.

As, Wine, vinum, Sax. win, 81905; wind, ventus, Sax. Wind; went, veni, Sax. wendan, windan; for to wend in old English is to go.

Q. What are the Rules whereby to know when a Word is derived from the Latin, and how it may be made Latin again?

A. These eight Rules will direct you to the

knowledge of what you ask after.

1. Most English Words ending in nee or ey, are derived from Latin Words in tia; Temperantia, Clementia, Temperance, Clemency.

2. Words in ion in English, are made Latin by casting away n; as, Question Questio; Religion,

Religio:

3. Words ending in ty are made Latin by changing ty into tas; as, Liberty, Libertas; Charity, Charitas.

4 Words ending in ude are derived from the Latin by changing o into e; Fortitude, Fortitudo; Gratitudo, &cc..

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7. Adjectives which end in d, do for the most part become Latin by the Addition of w; as,

Rigid, Rigidus, Putrid, Putridus, &c.

6. Words ending in t, n, or r, between two Vowels become Latin by changing the last Vowel into us; as, Mute, Mutus; Obscure, Obscurus; Obscene, Obscurus, &cc.

7. Most Words ending in nt, are made Latin by changing nt into ns; as Latent, Latens; Vigilant,

Vigilans, &c.

8. Many Words ending in al, by the Addition of is become Latin; as, Liberal, Liberalis; Substantial, Substantialis,

PART IV.

CHAP. I. Of the Syntax.

E are now come to speak of that Part of Grammar which treats of the right placing or joining of Words together in a Sentence, called Syntax. And this Part is the End of Grammar. For to what purpose is it to have Words, if we do not join them together? and yet this is not sufficient, unless we rightly join them, that is, as the best Speakers used to do; for Example, A Stone the Parrot the Boy with killed. Here are Words joined together, but here is no Syntax; that is, there is no right joining of them:

for

for the best Speakers would thus join them; The Boy killed the Parrot with a Stone.

Q. What is Syntax?

A. It is a right joining of Words in a Sentence.

O. Where is the Nominative Word, or the Sub-

stantive that Verb relates to, to be placed?

A. The Substantive that is, does, or suffers, comes before the Verb; as, I am, Peter loves, the Men read, the Book is read.

Q. Is it always placed before the Verb?

1. For in an Interrogative Sentence, or where a Question is asked, the Substantive is put after the Verb; as, Is John at home?

If there be an Helping Verb, then the Substantive comes after that; as, Does Peter love? Will you read?

If there be two Helping. Verbs, then the Substantive is set after the first of them: As, Could be have done it? Might Charles have brought it?

Except, 2. In an Imperative or commanding Sentence, where the Substantive is likewise set after the Verb; as, burn thou, burn ye.

3. Also when the Verb is used by way of yielding or Concession; as, Had I [if I had] known, he should not have done it. Were I a bad Man, &c.

4. The Substantive or Nominative Word is put after the Verb, when there is let before the Verb; as, There came a Man to me. There was the Boy in the Dirt. There is Heat in the Sun, i.e. Heat is in the Sun.

s. When the Substantive or the Nominative is more particularly denoted or pointed at, we often fet it before the Verb, and put the Substantive after it; as, It was John that spoke last. It was the Glass that fell.

Sometimes the Substantive is also set after the Verb, when none of these foregoing Exceptions

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hap-

happen; as, Then followed the General, &c. Says I, for I say; said he, for he said; Peter writes, and so do I, i.e. and I do so, &c.

Q. How is the Genitive Case to be placed?

A. When the Genitive Case and another Sub-stantive come together, the Genitive Case is always put first: As, John's Horse, not Horse John's.

Q. How is the Adjective to be joined?

A. The Adjective is joined to its Substantive without any difference of Case, Gender, or Number.

Except in the Words this, which makes these; and that, which makes those in the Plural. Also in whose and whom from who, his from he, hers from her, its from it.

Q. How is the Adjective placed?

A. The Adjective is immediately placed before its Substantive; as, a good Boy, a good Girl, a good Thing; good Boys, good Girls, good Things.

Q. Is the Adjective always to be placed before the

Substantive?

A. Yes. Unless a Verb comes between the Adjective and its Substantive; as, Happy is the Man, the Man is happy: Or when some other Word dependeth on the Adjective; as, A Subject loyal to his Prince. Also frequently in Poetry, for the more harmonious sounding of the Verse: as,

Human face divine.

MILTON.

Q. When two or more Adjectives come together, where are they to be placed?

A. When there are more Adjectives than one joined together, or one Adjective with other Words depending on it, the Adjective is generally set after the Substantive; as, A General both wife and valiant, a General very wife, a General skillful in political and military Matters.

Q. May a Substantive have more Adjectives than

one joined with it? A. A Substantive with its Adjective is reckoned as one compounded Word, (and to is any governing Word with the Words that depend on it;) whence the Substantive and Adjective so joined, do often take another Adjective, and sometimes a third, and so on: As, A Man, an old Man, a good old Man, a very good old Man, a very learned, judicious,

fober Man. Q. How are the Articles a and the joined?

A. The Article a is joined only to Substantives of the Singular Number; the, to Substantives either Singular or Plural.

Q. How are the Articles to be placed?

A. They are generally placed before the Sub-Stantive; as, a Man, a Boy, a Girl.

But when the Adjective goes before the Substantive, as it generally does, the Article is put before the Adjective; as, a wife King, a pretty Bird.

Except after fuch and what, and the Adverbs of Comparison, as, so, too; (and scarcely after any other Words) when the Article a is put between the Adjective and Substantive; as, Such a Man, he gave me such a Book, too little a Coat, what a Man is he? he is as great a Clown as you.

Q. How is the Pronoun to be placed?

A. The Pronoun has two States: the Foregoing

State, which goes before the Verb.

A. The Following State, which follows the Verb or Prepolition; as, I love, we love, love me, love us, to me, to us. But whom is generally placed before the Verb; as, he is the Man whom I faw.

Q. Is the Foregoing State of the Pronoun never placed after the Verb? A. A. Yes. When a Question is asked in a commanding Sentence; as am I, is he, fight thou, &c.

But more particularly it goes before and follows

am and be; as, I am, I am he.

But after the Verb am or be, the Foregoing State of the Pronoun is used; as, It is I, not me.

Q. What do you mean by the Nominative Word?

A. The Word that answers to the Question, Who is? Who does? Who suffers? Or, What is? What does? What suffers? is the Substantive to which the Verb relates, and is called the Nominative Word; as, I love, who loves? I, that is the Nominative Word. We read, who reads? We, where We is the Nominative. The Book is read, what is read? The Book, here Book is the Nominative Word.

N. B. When we speak of Persons, the Question is to be made by who, when we speak of Things, it is to be made by what.

This Nominative Word is what the Latins call

the Nominative Case.

Q. Is not the Verb put infinitively, and sometimes a Sentence, counted us a Nominative to the Verb?

A. Yes. For not only Nouns, and the Pronouns Substantive, but whatever denotes that which is, or does, or is done, is accounted a Nominative Word to the Verb.

So the Verb put infinitively, that is, with the Preposition so before it, often tells what is, does, or suffers, and therefore is a Nominative Word to the Verb; as, so play will please, what will please? To play; therefore so play is as a Nominative Word to the. Verb please. To laugh will fasten. And so may any Sentence, that shews what is, does, or suffers, be as a Nominative Word to the Verb: As, That the Sun shines is clear, or it is clear that the Sun shines? What is clear? That the Sun shines; there-fore.

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fore, that the Sun shines, is a Nominative Work

to the Verb, is clear.

If a Verb put infinitively (that, is with the Pre position to before it) or if a Sentence be as a Nominative Word to a Verb, we usually set the Verb infinitive, or the Sentence, after the other Verb and put It before it; as, It is an evil Thing to lye, i.e. to lye is an evil Thing. It is the Custom of Boys to neglect their Books, i.e. to neglect their Books is the Custom of Boys.

So likewise when the Nominative Word, or the Substantive to which the Verb relates, is lest out or understood, we put It before the Verb; as, It rains, it snows, it thunders, &c. Where Rain or Cloud, or some other Word is understood: For there can be no Verb that signifies being, doing, or suffering, but what refers or has relation to some Person or Thing, that is, does, or suffers.

Q. How mift the Verb agree with the Nomina-

tive Word?

A. The Verb must be of the same Number and Person as the Nominative Word or Substantive is of, to which it relates; as, Peter loveth, Menlove.

* Where you see loveth is of the Singular Number, and of the Third Person, because Peter is so; love

is of the Plural because Men is so.

Now Peter love, or Men loveth, would be false Grammar. So, I art, we am, ye is, thou are, it false Grammar; for we ought to say, I am, ware, thou art, ye are, &c.

Q. If two Substantives Singular come together

how must the Verb be put?

A. When two Substantives Singular are joine together, they speak of more than one, and s being of the Plural Number, must have a Ver

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Plural; as, Robers and Mary love, not lovesh or loves.

Q. How shall I know what Persons they are

of?

A. 1. I and another is as much as we the first Person Plural.

2. Thou and another is as much as ye the second Person Plural.

3. He [she or it] and another, is as much as they

the Third Person Plural.

Sometimes the Verb may be put in the Singular Number, when there are two Substantives; as, His Justice and Goodness was great: But then here, was great is left out in the first Sentence; as, His Justice was great, and his Goodness was great.

Q. Is not the Verb fometimes of the Plural Number, though the Nominative Word be of the Sin-

gular ?

A. Yes. Though the Noun be of the Singular Number, yet if it comprehend many Particulars, the Verb may be put in the Singular or Plural Number; as, The Committee has examined the Prisoner, or, the Committee have examined the Prisoner: Where has is of the Singular Number, and have of the Plural.

Where, in the first Example, the Verb bas is of the Singular Number, because the Substantive, Committee, is so; and, in the second Example, the Verb bave is of the Plural Number, because the Substantive includes more than one Person. So Pars

is gone, Part are gone.

Sometimes the Endings est, eth, or s of the Verb are left out after the Conjunctions, if, that, though, although, whether, &c. As, If the Sense require it, for, If the Sense requireth or requires it. He will dare though he die for it, that is, though he dieth or dies fir it. These Endings of the Person of the H 2 Vero

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Verb are also sometimes lest out after some other Conjunctions and Adverbs, especially when the Verb is used in a commanding or depending Senfe.

Not, the Adverb of denying, is put after the Verb; as, It burned not, it did not burn, it burned

me not.

We shall just take notice that a Sentence or Saying is either fingle or compounded.

Q. What is a fingle or simple Sentence?

A. A single Sentence is that which has but one Verb Finite in it; as, Life is fhort.

Q. What is a Verb Finite?

A. By a Verb Finite, you are to understand any Verb but what is put infinitively, i.e. that has to put before it; as, to love, to read.

Q. What is a Compounded Sentence?

A. A compounded Sentence is when two fingle Sentences are joined together by some Cople or Tye: So then in a compounded Sentence, there is,

1. One simple or single Sentence; as, Life is

Mort.

2. Another fingle Sentence after it; 25, Art is long. 3. Between these two a Cople is put to join them

together; as, Life is short, and Art is long. Life is short, but Art is long.

Q. What Words are those that couple or join Sen-

tences together ?

A. The Coples are Conjunctions, whose only Use is to join two Sentences together; as, and, &cc.

2. A Relative Word, or a Word which fetcheth back a foregoing Substantive; as, who, which, that.

3. A Comparative Word whereby two Things are compared together; fo, as, fuch, fo many, as many, more than. Ex-

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Examples where a Conjunction is the Cople; Peter died, and so did John: Will you play, or will you not? Examples where a Relative is the Cople; as, This is the Man which [Man] I saw; He is the Man that stole the Horse; This is the Boy who came to our House.

Examples where a Comparative Word is the Cople; as, As you do, so will I; I eat more than be; I beard such a Story as you never beard in your

Life.

Questions relating to the first Chapter.

Q. How is the Article a to be placed?

A. Only before Substantives of the Singular Number; 25, a Man, a Boy, not a Men, a Boys.

Q. How is the Article the to be placed?

A. Before Substantives either of the Singular or Piural Number; as, The Man, the Men, the Boy, the Boys.

CHAP. II.

Of Transposition, or the transplacing of Words and Sentences.

THE Syntax, or the Construction of Words into Sentences may be distinguished into two kinds: 1. That which is natural and regular; or, 2. That which is customary and figurative. That Syntax may be called regular, which is according to the natural Sense and Order of the Words. Customary or Figurative Syntax, is that which is used in the Forms of Speech peculiar to several Languages.

Q. What is Transposition?

H 3

A.

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A. Transposition is the putting the Words in a Sentence, or Sentences, out of their natural Order; that is, putting Words or Sentences before, which should come after, and Words or Sentences after, which should come before.

The Substantive is often put out of its Place, especially when there or it is set before the Verb; as, There was a Man, i. c. a Man was; It is the Custom, i. c. The Custom is.

So always in an Interrogative Sentence.

So Adjectives, especially if a Verb come between the Substantive and the Adjective; as, Happy is the

Man, for the Man is bappy.

The Preposition is frequently transplaced; as, Whom do you dine with? for, With whom do you dine? What Place do you come from? for, From what Place do you come?

Q. Why do they place Words out of their natural

Order ?

A. To render the Words more harmonious or agreeable to the Ear.

Q. May we then transplace all Words in every

Sentence as we please?

A. No; not always, but we must in this, as in all other things, follow the Use of the best Speakers.

We shall observe one Thing, which is, that the best and clearest Writers have the sewest Transpositions in their Discourses; and that they are more allowable in Poetry than in Prose, because it is there generally sweeter and more agreeable to the Ear. For Example: Any Thing, though never so listle, which a Man speaks of himself, in my Opinion, is still too much. The natural Order is thus: Any Thing is too much, in my Opinion, which a Man speaks of himself, though never so little.

.

So; ——Tes not the more,
Cease I to wander where the Musics haunt;
Clear Spring, or shady Grove, or sunny Hill,
Smit with the Love of sucred Sonz; but chief
Thee Sion, and the flowey Brooks beneath
That wash thy hallowed Feet, and warbling flow,
Nightly I visit, &c.

The natural Order is thus: Yet finit with the Love of facred Song, I cease not to wander, &c. But chief, I nightly visit thee Sion, &c.

Of Man's first Disobedience, and the Fruit
Of that forbidden Tree, whose mortal Taste
Brought Death into the World, and all our Woe,
With Loss of Eden, till one greater Man
Restore us and regain the bissful Seat,
Sing heavenly Muse, &cc.

The Order is thus: Heavenly Muse sing of Man's first Disobedience:

CHAP. III.

Q. WHat is Ellipsis?

A. Elliptis is the leaving out of Words in a Sentence.

Q. May We leave out what Words we please in a Sentence?

A. No. But whatever Words may be as well understood when left out, as they would be if they were mentioned, may be left out in a Sentence.

Q. Upon what account may Words be left out?

A. Words may be left out upon four 2cCounts.

H 4

I. When a Word has been mentioned just before, and may be supposed to be kept in Mind, then it is often left out. As, Cafar came, and faw, and conquered; where you need not fay, Cicfar came, Casar saw, and Casar conquered: So, ye have eaten more than we, i. c. than we have eaten. This Book is the Master's, i.e. Book. Whose Horse is this? Ours, i.e. our Horse.

Therefore in a Relative Sentence, (a Sentence having who, which, or that in it) the Antecedent [foregoing] Word is seldom repeated: As, I bought the Horse which you sold, i.e. which Horse, &c. The Wine is bad which you fent me, i.e. which Wine, &c. What Words I spoke, those I deny, i. c.

those Words, &c.

II. When any Word is to be mentioned straight or presently, if it can be well understood, it may be left out in the former Part. As, I ever did, and ever will love you, i.c. I ever did love, &c. Drink ye white or red Wine, i.c. Drink ye White Wine, or, &c. The best of the Churches is Paul's, i.e. the best Church of the Churches is Paul's Church; or to put it into the natural Order; Paul's Church is the best Church of the Churches.

III. When the Thought is expressed by some, other means; as, Who is he? Pointing to a Man,

you need not fay, What Man is that Man?

IV. Those Words which, upon the mentioning of others, must needs be supposed to be meant, may be left out; as, When you come to Paul's then turn to the left, every body knows you mean Paul's Church, and the left Hand, therefore those Words need not be expressed. The Preposition to is often left out; as, Reach me the Book, for Reach the Book to me. Hand is often left out; as, turn to the Right, turn to the Left, i. c. to the right Hand, to the left Hand, &c.

Thing,

Thing and All are frequently left out when they may be understood: As, It is bard to travel through the Snow, i.e. It is a hard Thing, &cc. It is easy to do fo, i. e. It is an easy Thing or Act, &c.

The Cople that is often left out in a compounded Sentence, &c. 2s, I desire (that) you would write for me. I think I saw him, i. c. that I saw,

&c.

The Relatives, that, which, who, whom, may be omitted or left out; as, This is the Man I killed, i.e. that or whom. Give me the Horse you stole, i.c. which you stole, &c. Is this the Man ye spoke of? i.c. of whom ye spoke.

CHAP. IV.

Of the Points or Pauses in a Sentence. .

THE Method of diftinguishing the Sense in a Sentence, properly belongs to that Part of Grammar that is called Syntax. For in a Sentence, not only its Structure or Order is to be regarded, but also Distinction. For the Use of Stops is not only to mark the Distance of Time in pronouncing, but also to prevent any Confusion or Obscurity in the Sense, by diffinguishing Words from Words, and Sentences from Sentences.

Q. Howmany chief Points or Stops are there?

A. The Points or Stops that direct what kind of Pause is to be observed, are four: A Commas, 2 Semicolon (;) a Colon (:) A Period or full Stop (.).

Note, Of these we shall immediately treat, after having taken notice, that Writing being the Picture or Image of Speech, ought to be adapted unto all the material Ciscumstances of it; and consequently,

H s mut must have some Marks to denote these various Manners of Pronunciation: Which may be sufficiently done by these six kinds of Marks or Points.

Q. How many Points or Marks are there to de-

note the various Manners of Pronunciation?

A: Six.

Q. Which are they?

A. 1. Parenthesis. 2. Parathesis. 3. Erotesis. 4. Ecphonesis. 5. Emphasis. 6. Irony.

Q. What is Parenthelis?

A. A Parenthesis or Interposition serves for the Distinction of such an additional Part of a Sentence, as is not necessary to perfect the Sense of it; and is usually expressed by the inclosing of such Words betwirt two curve or crooked Lines, (). As, Your Kindness to me, (which I account a very great Happiness) makes me undergo, &c.

Note, Some do use this Point wrong, when they include as I think, as be says, &c. in this Point; where it is sufficient to set only a Comma, or at most a Semicolon on each Side. We ought also to take care that our Parenthesis's be not too frequent or too long, nor crammed one into another, for that obscures and darkens the Sense.

Q. IPhat is a Parathelis?

A. A Parathesis or Exposition is used for Distriction of such Words as are added by way of Explication, or of explaining something that preceeds or goes before, and is usually expressed by inclosing such Words between two angular Lines, []. As, Angular Lines, [Brackets] mark the Point called a Parathesis.

Q. IVkat is an Erotesis, or an Interrogative

Point? .

A. An Exotesis or Interrogation is a kind of Period for the Distinction of such Sentences as are pro-

proposed by way of Question, and is usually thus marked (?). As, Does he yet doubt of it?

Q. What is an Ecphonesis?

A. An Ecphonesis, Admiration or Wonder, and Exclamation, is a Note of Direction for raising the Tone or Voice, upon occasion of such Words, denoting some vehement Passion; and is marked thus, (!). As, O the Fully of Men!

Note, Somedo often omit this Note; and they had better do fo, than in such Sentences to make a Note of Interrogation as some do.

Q. What is an Emphasis?

A. An Emphasis is used for the Distinction of fuch Word or Words, wherein the Force of the Sense doth more peculiarly confist, and is usually expressed by putting such kind of Words into another Character, as the Italick, &c. Some do also express it by beginning the Word with a Capital or ? great Letter: Wherefore for the better keeping up the Use of Distinction Emphatical, one ought not promiscuously to write every Noun with a great Letter, as is the Fashion of some now-a-days. But we have in the Orthography laid down some Rules when to write Words with Capital Letters.

Q. What is Irony?

A. An Irony is for the Distinction of the Meaning and Intention of any Words, when they are to be understood by way of Sarcafm or Scotf, or in a contrary Sense to that which they naturally fignity.

Q. What is the Mark for it?

A. Though there be not (for ought I know) any Note defigned for this, in any of the instituted ' Languages, yet that is from their Deficiency or Imperfection: For if the chief Force of Ironies does confitt in the Pronunciation, it will plainly; follow, that there ought to be fonce Mark for Di-Ή6 rection, rection, when Things are to be so pronounced. As, He's a special Fellow: Suppose this Mark <. I have lately learnt from a German Writer, that the Germans make use of the Note of Exclamation turn'd up to mark the Irony; as, O good Sir; which Mark may do very well.

Q. Ilbat is the Comma?

A. The Comma is the shortest Pause or Resting in Speech, and is used chiefly in distinguishing Nouns, Verbs, and Adverbs. As, A good Man, and Learned. To exhort, to pray. Sooner, or later, every body must die. It distinguishes also the Parts of a shorter Sentence; as, Life is short, and Art is long.

Q. What is a Semicolon?

A. A Semicolon is the Mark of a Pause that is greater than a Comma, and less than a Colon. The proper Place for this Point is in the Subdivision of the Members or Parts of a Sentence: Example, As the Shadow moves, and we do not perceive it; or as the Tree grows, and we do not apprehend it; So Man, &c. It is also of great Use in the distinguishing of Nouns of a contrary Signification: As, Things domestick, Things foreign; publick Things, Things private; Things sacred and profune.

Q. What is a Colon?

A. A Colon is used when the Sense is perfect, but the Sentence not ended: As, If you sing, you sing

ill: If you read, you fing.

The Colon is generally used before a Comparative Conjunction in a Similitude: Example, As the Ape commonly kills her young ones by too much fondling: So some Parents spoil their Children by too much Indulgence.

Also if the Period runs out pretty long, the Colon

is often made use of.

Q. What is a Period?

A. A Period or full Stop is the greatest Pause, and is fet after the Sentence when it is compleat and fully ended: As, God is the chiefest Good.

We may also add a crooked Line, which they call Braces; which is used to couple two or more Words or Lines together, that have a relation to one another. It is also often used in Poetry when three Lines have the same Rhytne or Ending, which is called a Triples. The Mark of the Braces is this 3

of PROSODY.

Q. What is Prosody?

A. Projody is the Art of pronouncing of Words according to due Accent and Time.

But for a full and large Account of Profody, we shall refer you to the Effay itself.



A

PRAXIS

ON THE

GRAMMAR.

AVING finished the Grammar, I thought it might be necessary to add a few Pages relating to the Praxis, Prassice, or Use of the Parts of Speech, and the joining of Words together in a Sentence. And I shall first speak of the Distinction of one Part of Speech from another. In these Sentences following, tell me what Part of Speech every Word is, and why:

Good Boys love good Books. Where is the School?
We will go with you to the Temple. I walk in the
Shade because it is pleasant. The Book is published.

I faw a prancing Horfe. .

What Part of Speech is Good? An Adjective, because it shews the Manner of a Thing; (see Page 44.) Boys, is a Noun Substantive, because it signifies the Thing itself; (p. 28.) It is the Plural Number, s being added to it; as, Boy, Boys; (p. 31.) Love is a Verb Active, because it signifies dring; (p. 57.) Good is an Adjective, as before; Books is a Substantive, as before. Where is an Adverb; (p. 96.) And it is an Adverb of Place;

· (**p**. 97·)

(p. 97.) Is is a Verb Essential or Neuter, because it signifies Being; (p. 57.) The is an Article, (or Adjective) (p. 41.) School is a Substantive; (p. 28.) We is a Pronoun, because it is put instead of a Noun. Will is a Helping Verb, p. 68. Go is a Verb, as before. With is a Preposition, because it shews the Relation or Respect that one Thing has to another; (p. 104, 123) You is a Pronoun, (p. 51.) To is a Preposition, as before, (p. 104.) The, an Article, as before; (p. 41.) Temple, 2... Substantive, as before, (p. 28.) I, a Pronoun, (p. 51.) IValk, is a Verb Neuter, because the Action does not pass on some other Thing, (p. 104, and 115.) In, is a Preposition, (p. 28.) The, as before. Shade, is a Substantive, (p. 101.) Because, is a Con-Junction, for it joins Sentences together, (p. 51.) It, is a Pronoun, (p. 44.) Is, a Verb Neuter, as before. Pleasant, is an Adjective, (p. 64, and 66.) The, as before. Book, as before. Is, a Verb Neuter, as before. Published, is a Participle, (p. 64.) and a Participle Passive, because it ends in ed, (p. 65.) But, is published, being taken together, is called a Verb Passive, (p. 89.) I, is a Pronoun, as before. Saw, a Verb Active, (p. 41.) A, is an Article, (or Adjective) (p. 41.) and a Numeral Article, (p. 41.) Prancing, is a Participle, (p. 85.) and an Active Participle. Herse, a Substantive. p. 28.

The Second PRAXIS.

The LORD'S PRAYER.

OUR Father which art in Heaven: Hallowed be thy Name: Thy Kingdom come: Thy will be done in Earth, as it is in Heaven; Give us this Day our daily Bread: And forgive us our Trespasses, as we forgive them that trespass against us: And lead us not into Temptation; but deliver us from Evil. For thine is the Kingdom, the Power and the Glory, for ever and ever. Amen.

The Is an Article Demonstrative, (p. 42.) and answers to le of the French: It denotes or fignifies the Determination or fixing the Sense of one or more Particulars, and it shows what Particular you mean. So, the Lord is put by way of Eminence: Namely, our Saviour Jesus Christ.

Lord Is a Noun Substantive, (p. 28.) It has no

Difference of Cases, except the Genitive. (p. 35.)

Lord's The final or ending s, is the Letter that forms or makes the English Genitive Case, (p. 35.) It answers to the Genitive Case of the Latins, and signifies the Author, (p. 36.)

Prayer Is a Noun Substantive.

The Lord's Prayer That is, the Prayer of the Lord.

Our Is a Pronoun Possessive put for the first Person of the Plural Number, (p. 54. and 54.) It is Our, not Ours, because the Substantive Father is expressed. The Pronouns my, thy, our, are to be used when they are joined to Substantives. Our, like other Adjectives, has no difference of Cases, Genders, or Numbers, (p. 143.)

Father] Is a Noun Substantive, (p. 28)

Which] Is a Relative, (p. 56.) It is spoken both of Things and Persons, (though chiefly of Things;) as, who and whom are used when we speak of Persons, (p. 53, 54.) And who would have been in this Place more proper, because it speaks of a Person, and is now-a-days more frequently used. Hence it is, that in our English Liturgy, or Common Prayer-Book, where formerly they used which, it is in the latter Editions changed almost always into who or whom, as being more elegant when we speak of Persons. But in this Prayer of our Lord, it has not been thought convenient to vary from the received Form, which is so very familiar with the common People.

Art] Is a Verb Essential or Neuter, (p. 57, and 63.) It is the second Person Singular of the Verb Am, (p. 74.) It is the second Person Singular, because it agrees with thou understood, (p. 142.) For thou is the Nominative Word of the second Person Singular, (p. 51.) N.B. This Verb is very

irregular, (p. 73.)

In A Preposition, (p. 104, 115.) But we do all by the Help of Prepositions, which the Greeks and Latins did, partly by Prepositions, and partly by the Diversity or Difference of Cases, (p. 105.)

Heaven] A Noun Substantive, (p. 28.)

Hallowed A Participle Passive which ends in ed, (p. 65.) By the help of which Participle and the Verb am or be, we express what the Latin Grammarians call the Passive Voice. Of the Formation of the Verb Passive, see p. 89. N. B. Hallowed comes from the Verb to ballow, that is, to sanctify or consecrate, from boly, or rather the old Word baly: And to this Day, the Abbey of the Holy Cross near Edinburg in Scotland, is called Haly-Rood-House, i. e. The House of the Holy Cross. For Rood or Rude is a Cross; and Haly-Rood-Day is the Day of exalting or showing the Holy Cross.

Be] Is a Verb from am, and is used here in an Imperative or Commanding or Bidding (i. e. praying) Sense, (p. 74.) And therefore it is put before the Nominative Word, (p. 142.) Except. 2d. How the Imperative Manner is expressed, see

Thy] Is a Pronoun Possessive, (p. 54.) It is put for thou the second Person Singular. It is thy and not thine, because it does not come before a Word beginning with a Vowel, and because the Substantive is not lest out, (p. 54, 55.) all which come from the Latin Tu, or the Dorick, i. e. Greek, 70.

for où.

Name] A Substantive, p. 28. But this Sentence thight be thus placed, Hallowed be thy Name, as it is in this Place; or, Thy Name be ballowed, (as in the next Clause, Thy Will be done) or Be thy Name Hallowed. But the first way is the best.

Thy] As before.

Will A Substantive, from the Verb. to will, or else this may come from that.

Be As before.

Doke It would be better written Do'n or Doen, for it is the Participle Passive from to do, p. 76,77, and 79.

In] As before.

Earth] A Substantive.

As] An Adverb, p. 96, 100.

11] A Pronoun of the third Person Singular, p. 51, 52. It is spoken of a Thing that is neither of the Male nor Female Sex, p. 51. For when we speak of the Male Sex, we say be; if of the Female Sex, we say spe.

Is a Verb Neuter, the third Person Singular of am, I am, thou art, he is, &c. p. 74. Is, is the third Person Singular, because the Nominative Word is so, p. 142. Is, is used, and not be, because

it is put in an Indicative Sense, and not in an Imperative or Subjunctive, nor after the Conjunctions if, whether, &c.

In Heaven.] As before.

Give A Verb; it is used in an Imperative Sense,

the Pronoun thou being left out, for Give thou.

Us] Is the following State of the Pronoun we, and it is thus put, because it follows the Verb give, or rather the Preposition to understood, p. 53. Give us is used by an Ellipsis for give to us, p. 122.

This] Is an Adjective, p. 55, 56. And it is a demonstrative Adjective. This makes in the Plural These. This, is spoken both of Persons and

Things.

Day A Noun Substantive, p. 28. But this Day is spoken for in this Day, by an Ellipsis; as Hodie in Latin for Hoc Die, for in hoc Die.

Our As before.

Dayly] An Adjective from the Substantive Day, it signifies what we have every Day, or what is sufficient for a Day.

Bread.] A Substantive.

And] A Conjunction, p. 101. It is a Copulative, and joins Sentences together, p. 102.

Forgive A Verb used in an Imperative Sense. For, in Composition, denies or deprives, p. 126.

Us As before.

Our As before.

Trespasses A Noun Substantive, s is added to make the Plural Number, from Trespasse, p. 31. But it is made by this Addition a Word of three Syllables, because if the Sound of the Vowel were not pronounced, the last s would not be heard, p. 31.

Ar As before.

We] A Pronoun, and in the foregoing State, because it comes before the Verb forgive, p. 53

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Forgive A Verb, the Ending in the Plural Num-

ber is never changed, p. 60.

Them] Is the following State of they. See the Table, p. 55. It is them, and not they, because it

follows the Verb, p. 53.

That] An Adjective Relative, or an Adjective that has relation to some other Word, and is used for who or which, p. 55. It is spoken both of Per-

sons and Things, p. 56.

Trespass A Verb. It is used in a declaring (or as the Latins call it, an Indicative) Manner, p. 62. It is the Present Tense or Time, p. 59. It is thus formed, I trespass, thou trespasses, he trespasseth.
Plural, We trespass, je trespass, they trespass. p.

Against A Preposition, p. 107. What a Prepolition is, see p. 104.

Us] As before. And As before.

Lead A Verb. It is here used in an Imperative Sense, p. 91. But the Nominative Word is left out; as, lead, for lead thou.

Us As before.

Not] An Adverb of denying, p. 99. What an Adverb is, see p. 96. When it is used absolutely, that is, not being joined to any other Word, we say. ne, p. 99. But when it is joined to a Verb or Noun, we say not; as, Lead us not, p. 99. Not is here put after the Verb, p. 99.

Into A Preposition. In relates to rest, Into

to Motion, p. 115.

Temptation] A Substantive.

But] A Conjunction, p. 102. What a Conjunction is, see p. 101.

Deliver A Verb.

Us] Is a following State of the Pronoun, because it follows the Verb deliver, for deliver we would be false English.,

From]

From A Preposition, p. 114. N. B. They formerly used fro for from; whence froward, that is, one that turns from others, that will not agree to Things: And as from is used in opposition to to, so froward is to toward, and towardly: A toward Touth, that is, a Youth that applies his Mind or Will to Things; fit, or made, for any Thing. We do also now say to and fro, for to and from; hither and thither.

Evil] Is an Adjective, but is here used as a Substantive, that is without having another Word joined to it; as, the evil (Thing or Person) p. 44.

For Is here a Conjunction, p. 103. There is

also for a Preposition, p. 112.

Thine A Pronoun. Thine is here used, and not thy, because the Substantive is lest out, p. 54. The natural Order of the Words is this, The Kingdom is thine, that is, the Kingdom is thy Kingdom; but because the Kingdom in the last place is left out, therefore thine is used rather than thy: And the Words are put out of their natural Order, the Nominative Word, the Kingdom, being put after the Verb is, that it might more smoothly and easily join with the following Words, The Power and the Glory. Thine is the Kingdom, that is, Thou haft the Kingdom.

Is A Verb, the third Person Singular from am; and agrees with the Nominative Word Kingdom :

fee p. 142.

The As before. But here it is used in an emphatical or expressive Manner, by way of Eminence

or Distinction, p. 42.

Kingdom A Substantive. It is a Substantive Common, p. 29. It comes from King, by adding the Termination dom; and denotes the Kingly State or Government, and the Place governed, p. 138.

The] As before.

Power A Substantive.

And

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And the As before.

Glory A Substantive.

For ever and ever A folemn Form, for throughout

all Ages or Times.

For] Is a Preposition, p. 112.

Ever Is originally an Adverb; but is used here as a Substantive, denoting an everlasting Duration.

Amen.] The usual Epilogue, Conclusion or Ending of Prayers: It is a Hebrew Word, but common

to almost all Languages.

The Lord's Prayer in its natural Order, with the Words that are left out.

(O) OUR Father which art in Heaven: Hallowed be thy Name (thy Name be hallowed): (Let) thy Kingdom come; thy Will be done in Earth, as it is (done) in Heaven: Give (thou to) us our daily Bread (in) this Day: And forgive (thou to) us our Trespasses, as we forgive (to) them (their Trespasses) that trespass against us: And lead (thou) us not into Temptation; but deliver (thou) us from Evil: For the Kingdom is thine, the Power (is thine) for ever and ever. Amen.

The Third PRAXIS.

The Apostles Creed.

I Believe in God the Father Almighty, Maker of Heaven and Earth. And in Jesus Christ his only Son our Lord: Who was conceived by the Ho'y Ghost, born of the Virgin Mary, suffered under Pontius Pilate, was crucified dead and buried:

He

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'He descended into Hell: The third Day he rose again from the Dead: He ascended into Heaven: And sitteth on the right Hand of God the Father Almighty; from thence he shall come to judge the Quick and the Dead. I believe in the Holy Ghost: The Holy Catholick Church; the Communion of Saints; the Forgiveness of Sins; the Resurrection of the Body; and the Life everlasting. Amen.

The A Demonstrative Article added to the Substantive Apostle's: Or to Apostle's Creed, which is

reckoned but as one Substantive, p. 42.

Aposties | Apostle is a Substantive, p. 28. By the Addition of s it is the Plural Number Apostles, p. 31. and by the Addition of the others it is made as the Genitive Case, p. 36. Apostles's; but for better . Sound fake the first s is cut off, p. 37. and an Apostrophe is added, as Apostle's, p. 37.

Creed.] A Compendium or Abstract of Things to be believed. From the Verb Credo, I believe: Which is the initial or beginning Word of the Creed

in Latin.

I] A Pronoun of the first Person of the Singular Number, p. 52. It is the foregoing State of the Pronoun, because it comes before the Verb believe P. 53.

Believe] A Verb. The Present Tense or Time, I believe, or I do believe. Be is a Preposition set be-fore Verbs and Participles, &c. p. 126.

In God Or on God, in the same Sense. In is a Preposition, p. 115. God is a Substantive.

The Father] As before.

All-Mighty A Compounded Adjective of All and Mighty, i. c. Powerful. Mighty is formed or made from the Substantive might, by the Addition of y; for from Substantives, by adding the Ending y, are formed Adjectives of Plenty, or Abounding, p. 135. And might comes from may.

Maker]

Maker] A Substantive, signifying the Doer; for from make comes the Verbal Substantive Maker, by adding the Ending er, p. 135.

Of A Preposition, and answers to the Genitive

Case of the Latins, p. 116.

Heaven and Farth. As before.

Andin As before.

Jesus Christ Jesus is a Proper Name, or a Sub-Pstantive Proper, p.29. N. B. It signifies a Saviour. Christ is also a proper Name, and signifies Anointed.

His] Is the Genitive Case of be, the Pronoun of the third Person Singular, and denotes the Male Sex,

p. 55. His, see the Table.

Only] Is an Adjective in this Place; for sometimes it is used Adverbially. An and one have this difference, that an is less emphatical than one, p. 41.

Son] A Substantive.

Our] As before.

Lord A Substantive common, p. 29.

Who or which. Who is spoken of Personsonly,

which of Things, p. 53, 56.

Was] The Preter Time of the Verbam, p. 74. I was, show wast, &c. But here, was being joined to the Participle Conceived, denotes the first Preter Time of the Passive Voice, as the Latins call it, p. 90.

Conceived] A Participle Passive, from the Verb conceive, by the Addition of the formative Termi-

nation ed, p. 66.

By A Preposition, signifying the Efficient Cause,

p. 112.

The Holy Ghost The, as before. Holy, see Hallowed. Ghost, is a Substantive, it signifies Spirit, which Word we now use instead of Ghost. Though it is yet retained, from antient Custom, as the Title of the Holy Spirit, less the common People should think there was some Change or Innovation in the Doc-

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Doctrine, if the Name was altered. But we do also say the Holy Spirit. From the Substantive Ghoss, by the addition of ly, comes the Word Ghossly, that is Spiritual, p. 136. which is now also more frequently used.

Born A Participle Passive from to bear, which makes in the Preter Tense bare or bore, p. 79. Whence comes the Participle boren, p. 77. which

by Contraction is made bor'n born.

Of A Preposition, p. 97. The Virgin A Substantive.

Mary A Substantive proper, p. 29.

Suffered The Preter Tense of the Verb to suffer, which is made by adding the Ending ed, p. 59. and is thus formed, I suffered, &c. p. 83.

Under] A Preposition, p. 116.

Pontius Pilate] Substantives proper-

Was] As before.

Crucified] A Participle Passive from eracify. Was crucified is the first Preter Tense of the Passive Verb, see p. 90.

Dead] An Adjective from to die, whence also

Death, p. 138.

And] As before.

Buried] A Participle, from to bury; was buried, is also the first Preter Tense of the Passive Verb, p. 90.

He] A Pronoun of the third Person Singular, p.

52. It is the Numinative Word to the Verb.

Descended The first Preter Time of the Verb descend, p. 59. See the Formation of it, p. 82. N. B. It comes from the Latin Word descend, to descend, that is, to go down, descended, i. c. went down, (from the old Word wend) p. 140. Of the Sense of de in Composition, see p. 128.

Into] A Preposition, p. 115.

Hell] A Substantive.

The] As before.

Third] Is an Adjective, and is called an Ordinal Number; as three is a Cardinal Number.

Day] A Substantive. The third Day is put by an Ellipsis, for in the third Day, or on the third Day.

He] As before. It is the Nominative word to

the Verb, and comes before the Verb, p. 53. Rose] Is the Preter Tense of the Verb to rise; it is an irregular Preter Tenfe, p. 80.

Again] An Adverb.

From A Prepolition, as before.

The dead] Here, as also before, the Substantive Persons or People may be understood.

Hel As before.

Sittetk] Is the third Person Singular Present Tense, of the Verb to sit; for the third Person of the Present Tense generally endeth in eth, p. 60. It is the third Person Singular, because the Nominative Word, He is so, p. 146. He is the third Person, p. 52. He is here lest out, because it was mentioned just before; He ascended into Heaven. and (he) fitteth, &c. p. 152.

On or A1] A Preposition, p. 118. On signifies at or nigh: For we fay, at the right hand, or on

the right hand.

The Right hand] Right is an Adjective, and agrees with the Substantive Hand, p. 143, and it is placed before the Substantive, p. 143.

Of God the Father Almight) As before.

From thence] From is a Preputition, p. 114. What a Preposition is, p. 104. It is here added to the Adverb thence, p. 104. From is here a fort of Expletive, p. 98. Thence is an Adverb of Place, and fignifies as much as from that Place, p. 68. For bence, thence, whence, in some Places they say herence, therence, wherence: But this Manner of Expression is not to be imitated.

He shall come He, as before. Shall is a Helping Verb, p. 69. It is thus formed, I shall, thou shalt,

be shall; Plural. We shall, &c. p. 69. Shall and Will denote the Future Time, or the Time to come. p. 70. Shall in the third Person, does here promise, but sometimes it commands or threatens, p. 93. Come is a Verb; when two Verbs come together, the latter has the Preposition to placed before it, p. 68. (This the Latins call the Infinitive Mood;) but after the Helping Verb, (such a one is, so is lest out, p. 79. Come makes in the Preter Time came.

To judge] Is the latter of two Verbs, and therefore has the Preposition to placed before it, p. 93, .

This is called the Infinitive Manner.

The Quick] An Adjective, which is joined to its Substantive without any difference of Caje, Gender, or Number, p. 143. Men, the Piural of Man, is understood, p 33. Quick is now-2-days used chiefly to fignify swift, nimble, &c. but formerly (whence in the Creed it does now retain its ancient Sense) it more often, and now it signifies alive; so that the Quick and Dead is the Living and Dead. From Quick comes the Verb to quicken, p. 135. But now for Quick we generally use Living and Alive; the Saxons for Quick faid Cuice, Cuce, (for 2 was not very usual with them;) the Dutch, Quick; we say Quick-silver, to pare the Nails to the Quick, &c.

And the Dead] As before.

I believe in the Holy Ghost] As before.

The Holy] As before.

Catholick] An Adjective, and fignifies General, Universal.

Church] A Substantive.

Communion] A Substantive from the Latin, Communio; for Words in ion are made Latin by casting away n; as, Communion, Communio, p. 140.

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Of Saints] Of, is a Preposition. Saints, is a Substantive of the Plural Number, which is made by adding s to the Singular Saint, p. 31. It is put into the Plural Number, because it is spoken of more than one Saint, p. 31.

The Fergiveness A Substantive made from the Verb Forgive, by adding the Ending ness, p. 138. Which Sort of Words are often fortned from Ad-

jectives, but very feldom from Verbs

Of Sins] Sins is the Plural of the Substantive Sin,

and is made by adding s, p. 31.

The Resurression That is, the Up-rising, or the Rising again; it is a Substantive from the Latin, Resurrection, p. 140. The force of Re in Composition, see p. 131.

Of the Body A Substantive.

And the Life] A Substantive. Hence comes the Verb to live, p. 134. Thence comes the Active Participle, living, and lively, p. 136. also
lifeles, or liveless, i. e. without Life, p. 136.

Everlasting] It is a compounded Adjective, or a Word made up of the Adverb ever, and the Participle lasting, from the Verb eo last, to continue or atide, p. 143. Life everlasting, and the Father Almighty for everlasting Life, and the Almighty Father: Where you see the Adjective is put after the Substantive.

Amen] As before.

The Creed placed in the Order of Construction, or in the natural Order, with the Ellipses, or the Words that are left out.

I lelieve is Almighty God the Father (the) Maker of Heaven and Earth. And (I believe) in Jesus Christ his only Son our Lord; who was conceived by the Holy Ghost, (who was) born of the Virgin Mary, (who) suffered under Pontius Pilate, (who) was crucisted, (who was) dead, and (who

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was) buried; He descended into Hell; He rose again from the Dead (People) (in or on) the third Day; He ascended into Heaven; and (He) sitteth on the Right Hand of Almighty God the Father; from thence he shall come to judge the Quick (People) and the Dead (People). I believe in the Holy Ghost; (I believe) the Holy Catholick Church; (I believe) the Communion of Saints: (I believe) the Foreiveness of Sins; (I believe) the Resurrection of the Body: And (I believe) the Life Everlasting. Amen.

FINIS.



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