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

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

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

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

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

CHAPTER VIII.

Of Prepositions.

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

The following is a list of the principal prepositions:

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

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

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

One great use of prepositions, in English, is, to express those relations, which, in some languages, are chiefly marked by cases, or the different endings of nouns. See page 54. The necessity and use of them will appear from the following examples. If we say, "he writes a pen," "they ran the river," "the tower fell the Greeks," "Lambeth is Westminster-abbey," there is observable, in each of these expressions, either a total want of connexion, or such a connexion as produces falsehood or nonsense: and it is evident, that, before they can be turned into sense, the vacancy must be filled up by some connecting word: as thus, "He writes *with* a pen;" "they ran *towards* the river;" 'the tower fell *upon* the Greeks;" "Lambeth is *over against* Westminster-abbey." We see by these instances, how prepositions may be necessary to connect those words, which in their signification are not naturally connected.

Prepositions, in their original and literal acceptation, seem to have denoted relations of place; but they are now used *figuratively* to express other relations. For example, as they who are *above* have, in several respects, the advantage of such as are *below*, prepositions expressing high and low places, are used for superiority and inferiority in general: as, "He is *above* disguise;" "we serve *under* a good master;" "he rules *over* a willing people;" "we should do nothing *beneath* our character."

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

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

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

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

By is generally used with reference to the cause, agent, means, &c.; as, "He was killed *by* a fall:" that is, "a fall was the cause of his being killed;" "This house was built *by* him;" that is, "he was the builder of it."

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

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

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

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

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

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

Some of the prepositions have the appearance and effect of conjunctions; as, "*After* their prisons were thrown open," &c. "*Before* I die;" "They made haste to be prepared *against* their friends arrived:" but if the noun

time, which is understood, be added, they will lose their conjunctive form; as, "After [the time when] their prisons," &c.

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

CHAPTER IX.

Of Conjunctions.

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

Conjunctions are principally divided into two sorts, the copulative and the disjunctive.

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

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

The following is a list of the principal Conjunctions.

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

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

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

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

A relative pronoun possesses the force both of a pronoun and a connective. Nay, the union by relatives is rather closer than that by mere conjunctions. The latter may form two or more sentences into one; but, by the former, several sentences may incorporate in one and the same *clause* of a sentence. Thus, "thou seest a man, *and* he is called Peter," is a sentence consisting of two distinct clauses, united by the copulative *and*: but, "the man *whom* thou seest is called Peter," is a sentence of one clause, and not less comprehensive than the other.

Conjunctions very often unite sentences, when they appear to unite only words; as in the following instances: "Duty *and* interest forbid vicious indulgences;" "Wisdom *or* folly governs us." Each of these forms of expression contains two sentences, namely; "Duty forbids vicious indulgences; interest forbids vicious indulgences;" "Wisdom governs us, or folly governs us."

Though the conjunction is commonly used to connect sentences together, yet, on some occasions, it merely connects words, not sentences: as, "The king *and* queen are an amiable pair," where the affirmation cannot refer to each; it being absurd to say, that the *king* or the *queen only*

is an amiable pair. So in the instances, "two *and* two are four;" "the fifth *and* sixth volumes will complete the set of books." Prepositions also, as before observed, connect words; but they do it to show the relation which the connected words have to each other: conjunctions, when they unite words only, are designed to show the relations, which those words, so united, have to other parts of the sentence.

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

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

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

"Till men began to think in a train, and to carry their reasonings to a considerable length, it is not probable that they would make much use of conjunctions, or of any other connectives. Ignorant people, and children, generally speak in short and separate sentences. The same thing is true of barbarous nations: and hence uncultivated languages are not well supplied with connecting particles. The Greeks were the greatest reasoners that ever appeared in the world; and their language, accordingly, abounds more than any other in connectives.

"Conjunctions are not equally necessary in all sorts of writing. In poetry, where great conciseness of phrase is required, and every appearance of formality avoided, many of them would have a bad effect. In passionate language too, it may be proper to omit them: because it is the nature of violent passion, to speak rather in disjointed sentences, than in the way of inference and argument. Books of aphorisms, like the Proverbs of Solomon, have few connectives; because they instruct, not by reasoning, but in detached observations. And narrative will sometimes appear very graceful, when the circumstances are plainly told, with scarcely any other conjunction than the simple copulative *and:* which is frequently the case in the historical parts of Scripture.—When narration is full of images or events, the omission of connectives may, by crowding the principal words upon one another, give a sort of picture of hurry and tumult, and so heighten the vivacity of description. But when facts are to be traced down through their consequences, or upwards to their causes; when the complicated designs of mankind are to be laid open, or conjectures offered concerning them; when the historian argues either for the elucidation of truth, or in order to state the pleas and principles of contending parties; there will be occasion for every species of connective, as much as in philosophy itself. In fact, it is in argument, investigation, and science, that this part of speech is peculiarly and indispensably necessary."

CHAPTER X.

Of Interjections.

An Interjection is a word used to express some passion or emotion of the mind: as, "Oh! I have alienated my friend; alas! I fear for life."

Such modes of expression as the following, may be termed *Interjectional Phrases.* "What a grand prospect!" "How amiable is virtue!" "Peace be with you!"

The English Interjections, as well as those of other languages, are comprised within a small compass. They are of different sorts, according to the different passions which they serve to express. Those which intimate earnestness or grief, are, *O! Oh! Ah! Alas!* Such as are expressive of contempt, are, *pish! tush!* of wonder, *heigh! really! strange!* of calling, *hem! ho! soho!* of aversion or disgust, *foh! fie! away!* of a call of the attention, *lo! behold! hark!* of requesting silence, *hush! list!* of salutation, *welcome! hail! all hail!* Besides these, several others, frequent in the mouths of the multitude, might be enumerated; but, in a grammar of a cultivated tongue, it is unnecessary to expatiate on such expressions of passion, as are scarcely worthy of being ranked among the branches of artificial language.—*See the Octavo Grammar.*

CHAPTER XI.

Of Derivation.

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

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

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

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

1. Substantives are derived from verbs: as, from "to love," comes "lover;" from "to visit, visiter;" from "to survive, surviver;" &c.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

litude or tendency to a character; as, "Child, childish; thief, thievish."

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

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

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

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

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

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

Substantives ending in *ship,* are those that signify office employment, state, or condition: as, "Lordship, stewardship, partnership, &c." Some substantives in *ship,* are derived from adjectives: as, "Hard, hardship," &c.

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

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

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

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

Some substantives have the form of diminutives; but these are not many. They are formed by adding the terminations, *kin, ling, ing, ock, el,* and the like: as, "Lamb, lambkin; goose, gosling; duck, duckling; hill, hillock; cock, cockerel," &c.

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

It is highly probable that the system of this acute grammarian is founded in truth; and that adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions, are corruptions or abbreviations of other parts of speech. But as many of them are derived from obsolete words in our own language, or from words in kindred languages, the radical meanings of which are, in general, either obscure or unknown; as the system of this very able etymologist is not universally admitted; and as, by long prescription, whatever may have been their origin, the words in question appear to have acquired a title to the rank of distinct species; it seems proper to consider them, as such, in an elementary treatise of grammar: especially as this plan coincides with that, by which other languages

must be taught; and will render the study of them less intricate. It is of small moment, by what names and classification we distinguish these words, provided their meaning and use are well understood. A philosophical consideration of the subject, may, with great propriety, be entered upon by the grammatical student, when his knowledge and judgment become more improved.

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

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

"When the ancient Britons were so harassed and oppressed by the invasions of their northern neighbours, the Scots and Picts, that their situation was truly miserable, they sent an embassy (about the middle of the fifth century) to the Saxons, a warlike people inhabiting the north of Germany, with solicitations for speedy relief. The Saxons accordingly came over to Britain, and were successful in repelling the incursions of the Scots and Picts; but seeing the weak and defenceless state of the Britons, they resolved to take advantage of it; and at length established themselves in the greater part of South-Britain, after having dispossessed the original inhabitants.

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

"The Saxons did not long remain in quiet possession of the kingdom; for before the middle of the ninth century, the Danes, a hardy and adventurous nation, who had long infested the northern seas with their piracies, began to ravage the English coasts. Their first attempts were, in general, attended with such success, that they were encouraged to a renewal of their ravages; till, at length, in the beginning of the eleventh century, they made themselves masters of the greater part of England.

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

"The next conquerors of this kingdom, after the Danes, were the Normans, who, in the year 1066, introduced their leader William to the possession of the English throne. This prince, soon after his accession, endeavoured to bring his own language (the Norman-French) into use among his new subjects; but his efforts were not very successful as the Saxons entertained a great antipathy to these haughty foreigners. In process of time, however, many Norman words and phrases were incorporated into the Saxon language: but its general form and construction still remained the same.

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

Spanish, Italian and German words, gleaned during their foreign excursions; and the connexions which we maintain, through the medium of government and commerce, with many remote nations, have made some additions to our native vocabulary.

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

See the Twelfth chapter of the OCTAVO *Grammar.*

PART III.

SYNTAX.

THE third part of grammar is SYNTAX, which treats of the agreement and construction of words in a sentence.

A sentence is an assemblage of words, forming a complete sense.

Sentences are of two kinds, simple and compound.

A simple sentence has in it but one subject, and one finite * verb: as, "Life is short."

A compound sentence consists of two or more simple sentences connected together: as, "Life is short, and art is long." "Idleness produces want, vice, and misery."

As sentences themselves are divided into simple and compound, so the members of sentences may be divided likewise into simple and compound members: for whole sentences, whether simple or compounded, may become members of other sentences, by means of some additional connexion; as in the following example: "The ox knoweth his owner, and the ass his master's crib; but Israel doth not know, my people do not consider." This sentence consists of two compounded members, each of which is subdivided into two simple members, which are properly called clauses.

There are three sorts of simple sentences; the *explicative*, or explaining; the *interrogative*, or asking; the *imperative*, or commanding.

An explicative sentence is when a thing is said to be or not to be, to do or not to do, to suffer or not to suffer, in a direct manner: as, "I am; thou writest; Thomas is

* *Finite* verbs are those to which number and person appertain. Verbs in the *infinitive* mood have no respect to number or person.