H E R M E S:

OR, A

Philosophical Inquiry

Concerning LANGUAGE

AND

UNIVERSAL GRAMMAR.

-----είστεναι θαρράντας, είναι γαρ και ένταυθα θεύς.

Inf. p. 7.1

Ву Э. Н.

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M. DCC. LI.



To the Right Honourable
PHILIP Lord HARDWICKE,
Lord High Chancellor of Great
Britain.

My Lord,

S no one has exercised the Powers of Speech with juster and more universal applause, than yourself; I have prefumed to inscribe the following Treatife to your Lordship, its End being to investigate the Principles of those Powers. It has a farther claim to your Lordship's Patronage, by being connected in some degree with that politer Literature, which, in the most important scenes A 2

of Bufiness, you have still found time to cultivate. With regard to myself, if what I have written be the fruits of that Security and Leifure, obtained by living under a mild and free Government; to whom for this am I more indebted, than to your Lordship, whether I confider you as a Legislator, or as a Magistrate, the first both in dignity and reputation? Permit me therefore thus publicly to assure your Lordship, that with the greatest gratitude and respect I am, My Lord,

Your Lordship's most obliged,

and most obedient bumble Servant.

Salifbury, 08. 1, 1751.

James Harris.

PREFACE.

THE chief End, proposed by the Author of this Treatise in making it public, bas been to excite bis Readers to curiofity and inquiry; not to teach them himself by prolix and formal Lectures, (from the efficacy of which be has little expectation,) but to induce them, if possible, to become Teachers to themselves, by an impartial use of their own understandings. He thinks nothing more abfurd than the common notion of Instruction, as if Science were to be poured into the Mind, like water into a cistern, that passively waits to receive all that comes. The growth of Knowlege be rather thinks to resemble the growth of Fruit; however external causes may in some degree co-operate, 'tis the internal vigour, and virtue of A 3

the tree, that must ripen the juices to their just maturity.

This then, namely, the exciting men to inquire for themselves into subjects worthy of their contemplation, this the Author declares to have been his first and principal motive for appearing in print. Next to that, as he has always been a lover of Letters, he would willingly approve his studies to the liberal and ingenuous. He has particularly named these, in distinction to others; because, as bis studies were never prosecuted with the least regard to lucre, so they are no way calculated for any lucrative End. The liberal therefore and ingenuous, (whom he has mentioned already,) are those, to whose perusal he offers what he has written. Should they judge favourably of his attempt, be may not perhaps besitate to confess,

Hoc juvat et melli est.——
For

For the bopes, he cannot be charged with the foolish love of vain Praise, be has no desire to be thought indifferent, or insensible to honest Fame.

From the influence of these sentiments, be bas endeavoured to treat bis subject with as much order, correctness, and perspicuity as in his power; and if be bas failed, be can safely fay, (according to the vulgar phrase,) that the failure has been his misfortune, and not his fault. He scorns those trite and contemptible methods of anticipating pardon for a bad performance, that " it was the hasty " fruits of a few idle hours; written "merely for private amusement; " never revised; published against " consent, at the importunity of " friends, copies (God knows bow) " baving by stealth gotten abroad;" with other stale jargon of equal falfbood and inanity. May we not ask

A 4 such

fuch Prefacers, If what they allege be true, what has the world to do with them and their crudities?

As to the Book itself, it can say this in its behalf, that it does not merely confine itself to what its title promises, but expatiates freely into whatever is collateral; aiming on every occasion to rise in its inquiries, and to pass, as far as possible, from small matters to the greatest. Nor is it formed merely upon sentiments that are now in fashion, or supported only by such authorities as are modern. Many Authors are quoted, that now a-days are but little studied; and some perhaps, whose very names are bardly known.

The Fate indeed of antient Authors
(as we have happened to mention them)
is not unworthy of our notice. A
few of them survive in the Libraries
of

of the learned, where some venerable Folio, that still goes by their name, just suffices to give them a kind of nominal existence. The rest have long fallen into a deeper obscurity, their very names, when mentioned, affecting us as little, as the names, when we read them, of those subordinate Heroes,

Alcandrumque, Haliumque, Noemonaque, Prytanimque.

Now if an Author, not content with the more eminent of antient Writers, should venture to bring his reader into such company as these last, among people (in the fashionable phrase) that no body knows; what usage, what quarter can be have reason to expect?—Should the Author of these speculations have done this, (and 'tis to be feared he has) what method had he best take in a circumstance so critical?—Let us suppose

suppose him to apologize in the best manner he can, and in consequence of this, to suggest as follows—

He hopes there will be found a pleasure in the contemplation of antient sentiments, as the view of antient Architecture, tho' in ruins, bas something venerable. Add to this, what from its antiquity is but little known, has from that very circumstance the recommendation of novelty; fo that here, as in other instances, Extremes may be faid to meet. Farther still, as the Authors, whom be bas quoted, lived in various ages, and in distant countries; some in the full maturity of Grecian and Roman Literature; some in its declension; and others in periods still more barbarous, and depraved; it may afford perhaps no unpleasing speculation, to fee how the SAME REASON has at all times prevailed; how there is ONE TRUTH,

TRUTH, like one Sun, that has enlightened human Intelligence through every age, and saved it from the darkness both of Sophistry and Error.

Nothing can more tend to enlarge the Mind, than these extensive views of Men, and human Knowlege; nothing can more effectually take us off from the foolish admiration of what is immediately before our eyes, and help us to a juster estimate both of present Men, and present Literature.

'Tis perhaps too much the case with the multitude in every nation, that as they know little beyond themselves, and their own affairs, so out of this narrow sphere of knowlege, they think nothing worth knowing. As we Britons by our situation live divided from the whole world, this perhaps will be found to be more remarkably our case. And hence the reason, that our studies are

ere usually satisfied in the works of our own Countrymen; that in Philosophy, in Poetry, in every kind of subject, whether serious or ludicrous, whether sacred or profane, we think perfection with ourselves, and that 'tis superfluous to search farther.

by no means detract from the just bonours due to those of his Countrymen, who either in the present, or preceding age, have so illustriously adorned it. But tho he can with pleasure and sincerity join in celebrating their deserts, he would not have the admiration of these, or of any other sew, to pass thro blind excess into a contempt of all others. Were such Admiration to become universal, an odd event would follow; a sew learned men, without any fault of their own, would contribute in a manner to the extinction of Letters.

A

A like evil to that of admiring only the authors of our own age, is that of admiring only the authors of one particular Science. There is indeed in this last prejudice something peculiarly unfortunate, and that is, the more excellent the Science, the more likely it will be found to produce this effect.

There are few Sciences more intrinsically valuable, than Mathematics. 'Tis bard indeed to say, to which they have more contributed, whether to the Utilities of Life, or to the sublimest parts of Science. They are the moblest Praxis of Logic, or universal Reasoning. 'Tis thro' them we may perceive, how the stated Forms of Syllogism are exemplished in one Subject, namely the Predicament of Quantity. By marking the force of these Forms, as they are applied here,

here, we may be enabled to apply them of ourselves elsewhere. Nay farther still—by viewing the MIND, during its process in these syllogistic employments, we may come to know in part, what kind of Being it is; fince MIND, like other Powers, can be only known from its Operations. Whoever therefore will study Mathematics in this view, will become not only by Mathematics a more expert Logician, and by Logic a more rational Mathematician, but a wiser Philosopher, and an acuter Reasoner, in all the possible subjects either of science or deliberation.

But when Mathematics, instead of being applied to this excellent purpose, are used not to exemplify Logic, but to supply its place; no wonder if Logic pass into contempt, and if Mathematics, instead of surthering science, become in fast an obstacle.

For when men, knowing nothing of that Reasoning which is universal, come to attach themselves for years to a single Species, a species wholly involved in Lines and Numbers only; they grow insensibly to believe these last as inseparable from all Reasoning, as the poor Indians thought every horseman to be inseparable from his horse.

And thus we see the use, nay the necessity of enlarging our literary views, lest even Knowlege itself should obstruct its own growth, and perform in some measure the part of ignorance and barbarity.

Such then is the Apology made by the Author of this Treatise, for the multiplicity of antient quotations, with which he has filled his Book. If he can excite in his readers a proper spirit of curiosity; if he can help in the least degree to enlarge the bounds of

of Science; to revive the decaying taste of antient Literature; to lessen the bigotted contempt of every thing not modern; and to affert to Authors of every age their just portion of esteem; if he can in the least degree contribute to these ends, he hopes it may be allowed, that be has done a service to mankind. Should this service be a reason for his Work to survive, be bas confest already, 'twould be no unpleasing event. Should the contrary bappen, be must acquiesce in its fate, and let it peaceably depart to those destined regions, where the productions of modern Wit are every day departing,

----in vicum vendeatem tus et odores.

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HERMES:

OR, A

Philosophical Inquiry

CONCERNING

UNIVERSAL GRAMMAR.

BOOK I.

CHAP. I.

INTRODUCTION.

Design of the Whole.

F Men by nature had been framed Ch. I. for Solitude, they had never felt an Impulse to converse one with another. And if, like lower Animals, they had been by nature irrational, they could not have recogniz'd the proper Subjects of Discourse. Since Speech then is the B joint

Ch. I. joint Energie of our best and noblest Faculties (a), (that is to say, of our Reason and our social Affection) being withal our peculiar Ornament and Distinction, as Men; those Inquiries may surely be deemed interesting as well as liberal, which either search how Speech may be naturally resolved; or how, when resolved, it may be again combined.

HERE a large field for speculating opens before us. We may either behold Speech, as divided into its constituent Parts, as a Statue may be divided into its several Limbs; or else, as resolved into its Matter and Form, as the same Statue may be resolved into its Marble and Figure.

THESE different Analyzings or Resolutions constitute what we call Philosophical, or Universal Grammar.

WHEN,

⁽a) See V. I. p. 147 to 169. See also Note xv. p. 292, and Note xix. p. 296. of the same Volume.

WHEN we have viewed SPEECH thus Ch. I. analyzed, we may then consider it, as compounded. And here in the first place we may contemplate that (b) Synthesis, which by combining simple Terms produces a Truth; then by combining two Truths produces a third; and thus others, and others, in continued Demonstration, till we are led, as by a road, into the regions of SCIENCE.

Now this is that *superior* and most excellent *Synthesis*, which alone applies itself to our *Intellect* or *Reason*, and which to

⁽b) Aristotle says — τῶν δὶ καλὰ μηδεμίαν συμπλοκὰν λεγομίνων εδὶν ἔτε ἀληθὶς ἔτε ψευδίς ἐςτιν εἶν ἄδρωπ۞, λεῦκ۞, τρίχει, νικᾳ—Of those words which are spoken without Connection, there is no one either true or false; as for instance, Man, white, runneth, conquereth. Cat. C. 4. So again in the Beginning of his Treatise De Interpretatione, περί γὰρ σύνθετιν κὸ διάιρεσιν ἔςτι τὸ ψευδός τε κὸ τὸ αληθίς. True and salse are seen in Composition and Division. Composition makes affirmative Truth, Division makes negative, yet both alike bring Terms together, and so far therefore may be called synthetical.

HERMES.

Ch. I. conduct according to Rule, constitutes the Art of Logic.

AFTER this we may turn to those (c) inferior Compositions, which are productive

(c) Ammonius in his Comment on the Treatise Hegi Epunnias, p. 53. gives the following Extract from Theophrasius, which is here inserted at length, as well for the Excellence of the Matter, as because it is not (I believe) elsewhere extant.

Διίτης γαρ έσης τε λόγε σχέσεως, (καθα διώρεσεν έ Φιλόσοφο Θεόφεας Ο της τε ΠΡΟΣ ΤΟΥ Σ 'ΑΚΡΟΩΜΕΝΟΥΣ, οίς κό σημαίνει τι, κό της ΠΡΟ ΤΑ ΠΡΑΓΜΑΤΑ, υπέρ ων δ λέγων πείσαι προς θηται τες ακροωμένες, περί μεν ξη την σχέσιν αυθε την ΠΡΟ'Σ ΤΟΥ'Σ 'ΑΚΡΟΑΤΑ'Σ καθαγίνου αι ποιηθική κή ρηθορική, διότι έργου αυθαίς έκλέγεσθαι τὰ σεμνότερα τῶν ὀνομάτων, ἀλλὰ μὰ τὰ χοινὰ κό δεδημευμένα, κό τα τα έναρμονίως συμπλέχειν άλλήλοις, ώς ε δια τέτων κή των τέτοις επομένων, οίου σαφηνείας γλυκύτητο, κ των άλλων ίδεων, έτι τε μακεολογίας κ βραχυλογίας, καζά καιρου πάντων παραλαμβανομένων, οίσαί τε τον άκροατήν, κ) έκπληξαι, κό προς την πείθω χειρωθέν α έχειν' της δέ γε ΠΡΟΣ ΤΑ' ΠΡΑΓΜΑΤΑ τε λόγε χέσεως ο ΦιλόσοΦΟ προηγαμένως επιμελήσε αι, τό, τε ψευδω διελέγχων.

÷

ductive of the Pathetick, and the Plea-Ch. I. fant in all their kinds. These latter Compositions

κ) το αληθές αποδεικούς. The Relation of Speech being twofold (as the Philosopher Theophrastus hath fettled it) one to the HEARERS, to whom it explains fomething, and one to the THINGS, concerning which the Speaker proposes to persuade his Hearers: With respect to the first Relation, that which regards the HEARERS, are employed Poetry and Rhetoric. Thus it becomes the business of these two, to select the most respectable Words, and not those that are common and of vulgar use, and to connect such Words barmoniously one with another, so as thro' these things and their consequences, such as Perspicuity, Delicacy, and the other Forms of Elequence, together with Copiousness and Brevity, all employed in their proper season, to lead the Hearer, and strike him, and hold him vanquished by the power of Persuasion. On the contrary, as to the Relation of Speech to THINGS, here the Philosopher will be found to have a principal employ, as well in refuting the Falle, as in demonstrating the True.

Sanctius speaks elegantly on the same Subject. Creavit Deus hominem rationis participem; eui, quia Sociabilem esse voluit, magno pro munero dedit Sermonem. Sermoni autem persiciendo tres opisices adhibuit. Prima est Grammatica, quæ ab oratione solæcismos & barbarismos expelits. Secunda Dialectica, quæ in Sermonis veritate versatur. Tertia Thetorica, quæ ornatum Sermonis tantum exquirit. Min. 1. 1.

Ch. I. positions aspire not to the Intellect, but being addressed to the Imagination, the Affections, and the Sense, become from their different heightnings either RHETORIC or POETRY.

Nor need we necessarily view these Arts distinctly and apart. We may observe, if we please, how perfectly they co-incide. Grammar is equally requisite to every one of the rest. And though Logic may indeed subsist without Rhetoric or Poetry, yet so necessary to these last is a sound and correct Logic, that without it, they are no better than warbling Trisses.

Now all these Inquiries (as we have said already) and such others arising from them as are of still sublimer Contemplation, (of which in the Sequel there may be possibly not a few) may with justice be deem'd Inquiries both interesting and liberal.

At

AT present we shall postpone the whole Ch. I. synthetical Part, (that is to say, Logic and Rhetoric) and confine ourselves to the analytical, that is to say Universal Grammar. In this we shall follow the Order, that we have above laid down, first dividing Speech, as a Whole into its constituent Parts; then resolving it, as a Composite, into its Matter and Form; two Methods of Analysis very different in their kind, and which lead to a variety of very different Speculations.

SHOULD any one object, that in the course of our Inquiry we sometimes descend to things, which appear trivial and low; let him look upon the Effects, to which those things contribute, then from the Dignity of the Consequences, let him honour the Principles.

THE following Story may not improperly be here inferted. "When the Fame B 4 " of Ch. I. " of Heraclitus was celebrated through" out Greece, there were certain persons,
" that had a curiosity to see so great a
" Man. They came, and, as it happen'd,
" found him warming himself in a
" Kitchen. The Meanness of the place
" occasioned them to stop, upon which
" the Philosopher thus accosted them—
" Enter (says he) boldly, for here
" Too There are Gods (d)."

We shall only add, that as there is no part of Nature too mean for the Divine Presence; so there is no kind of Subject, having its soundation in Nature, that is below the Dignity of a philosophical Inquiry.

CHAP.

⁽d) See Ariftot. de Part, Animal. 1. 1. c. 5.

CHAP. II.

Concerning the Analysing of Speech into its smallest Parts.

ture, are not first to Man. Nature
begins from Causes, and thence descends
to Effects. Human Perceptions first open
upon Effects, and thence by slow degrees
ascend to Causes. Often had Mankind
seen the Sun in Eclipse, before they knew
its Cause to be the Moon's Interposition;
much oftner had they seen those unceasing
Revolutions of Summer and Winter, of
Day and Night, before they knew the
Cause to be the Earth's double Motion (a).

Even

⁽a) This Distinction of prior to Man, and prior to Nature, was greatly regarded in the Peripatetic Philosophy. See Arist. Phys. Auscult. 1. 1. c. 1. Themistius's Comment on the same, Poster. Analyt. 1. 1. c. 2. De Anima, 1. 2. c. 2. It leads us, when properly regarded, to a very important Distinction between

Ch. II. Even in Matters of Art and buman Creation, if we except a few Artists and critical

tween Intelligence Divine and Intelligence Human. God may be said to view the First, as first; and the Last, as last; that is, he views Effects thro' Causes in their natural Order. MAN views the Last, as first; and the First, as last; that is, he views Causes thro' Effects, in an inverse Order. And hence the Meaning of that Passage in Aristotle: wower yar τα των νυκλερίδων δμιμαλα πρός το Φέγιο έχει το μεθ' ήμεραν, Ετω κό της ήμετεράς ψυχης ο Νες πρός τα τη Φύσει Φαυερώτοδια πάνθων. As are the Eyes of Bats to the Light of the Day, fo is Man's Intelligence to those Objects, that are by Nature the brightest and most conspicuous of all Things, Metaph. l. 2. c. 1. See also 1. 7. c. 4. and Etbic. Nicom. 1. 1. c. 4. Ammonius. reasoning in the same way, says very pertinently to the Subject of this Treatife - Ayamnton th allowwinn Oursi, in tay eredes four if ourberm int ta dπλές ερα ε τελειότερα προϊέναι τα γαρ σύνθετα μάλλο συνήθη ήμιο, κ γνωριμώτερα. "Ουτω γεν κ ό παίς είραι μεν λόγου, κρ είπειν, Σωκράτης περιπαθεί, οίδε τρότου δε αναλύσαι είς δυομα κό ρήμα, κό ταυτα είς συλλαβάς, κάκεινα είς σοιχεία, υκέτι. Human Nature may be well contented to advance from the more imperfect and complex to the more simple and perfect; for the complex Subjects are more familiar to us, and better known. Thus therefore it is that even a Child knows how to put a Sentence together, and fay, Socrates walketh;

tical Observers, the rest look no higher Ch. II. than to the *Practice* and meer *Work*, knowing nothing of those *Principles*, on which the whole depends.

Thus in Speech for example—Al₁ men, even the lowest, can speak their Mother-Tongue. Yet how many of this multitude can neither write, nor even read? How many of those, who are thus far literate, know nothing of that Grammar, which respects the Genius of their own Language? How sew then must be those, who know Grammar universal; that Grammar, which without regarding the several Idioms of particular Languages, only respects those Principles, that are effential to them all?

"T is our present Design to inquire about this Grammar; in doing which we shall follow

walketh; but how to resolve this Sentence into a Noun and Verb, and these again into Syllables, and Syllables into Letters or Elements, here he is at a loss. Am. in Com. de Prædic. p. 28.

Ch. II. follow the Order confonant to buman Perception, as being for that reason the more easy to be understood.

We shall begin therefore first from a *Period* or *Scatence*, that Combination in Speech, which is obvious to all, and thence pass, if possible, to those its *primary Parts*, which, however essential, are only obvious to a few.

WITH respect therefore to the disferent Species of Sentences, who is there so ignorant, as, if we address him in his Mother-Tongue, not to know when 'tis we affert, and when we question; when 'tis we command, and when we pray or wish?

For example, when we read in Shakespeare*,

The Man, that hath no mufic in himself,

And is not mov'd with concord of sweet

founds,

Is fit for treasons ---

Or

^{*} Merchant of Venice.

Or in Milton *,

Ch. II.

O Friends, I bear the tread of nimble feet,

Hasting this way-

'tis obvious that these are affertive Sentences, one founded upon Judgment, the other upon Sensation.

WHEN the Witch in Macheth says to her Companions,

When shall we three meet again
In thunder, lightning and in rain?
this, 'tis evident is an interrogative Sentence.

WHEN Macheth says to the Ghost of Banquo,

—Hence, borrible Shadow, Unreal Mock'ry bence! —

he speaks an imperative Sentence, founded upon the passion of hatred.

WHEN

[•] P. L. IV. 866.

Ch. II. WHEN Milton says in the character of his Allegro,

Haste thee, Nymph, and bring with thee Jest and youthful Jollity,

he too speaks an imperative Sentence, tho' founded on the passion, not of hatred but of love.

WHEN in the beginning of the Paradise Lost we read the following address,

And chiefly thou, O Spirit, that dost prefer Before all temples th' upright heart, and pure,

Instruct me, for thou know'st -

this is not to be call'd an imperative Sentence, tho' perhaps it bear the same Form, but rather (if I may use the Word) 'tis a Sentence precative or optative.

WHAT then shall we say? Are Sentences to be quoted in this manner without ceasing, all differing from each other in their

their stamp and character? Are they no Ch. II. way reducible to certain definite Classes?

If not, they can be no objects of rational comprehension.—Let us however try.

"Tis a phrase often apply'd to a man, when speaking, that be speaks bis MIND; as much as to say, that his Speech or Discourse is a publishing of some Energie or Motion of bis Soul. So it indeed is in every one that speaks, excepting alone the Dissembler or Hypocrite; and he too, as far as possible, affects the appearance.

No w the Powers of The Soul (over and above the meer nutritive) may be included all of them in those of Perception, and those of Volition. By the Powers of Perception, I mean the Senses and the Intellect; by the Powers of Volition, I mean in an extended sense, not only the Will, but the several Passions and Appetites; in short, all that moves to Action, whether rational or irrational.

Ch. II. Ir then the leading Powers of the Soulbe these two, 'tis plain that every Speech or Sentence, as far as it exhibits the Soul, must of course respect one or other of these.

IF we affert, then is it a Sentence which respects the Powers of PERCEPTION. For what indeed is to affert, if we consider the examples above alleged, but to publish some Perception, either of the Senses or the Intellect?

AGEN, if we interrogate; if we command, if we pray, or if we wish (which in terms of Art is to speak Sentences interrogative, imperative, precative, or optative) what do we but publish so many different Volitions?—For who is it that questions? He that has a Desire to be inform'd.—Who is it that commands? He that has a Will, which he would have obey'd.—What are those Beings, who either wish

wish or pray? Those, who feel certain Ch. II. wants either for themselves, or others.

If then the Soul's leading Powers be the two above mention'd, and it be true that all Speech is a publication of these Powers, it will follow that EVERY SENTENCE WILL BE EITHER A SENTENCE OF ASSERTION, OR A SENTENCE OF VOLITION. And thus, by referring all of them to one of these two classes, have we found an expedient to reduce their infinitude (b).

THE

Ch. II. THE Extensions of Speech are quite indefinite, as may be seen if we compare the

ζητέσης, καθάπερ έπὶ τε ΠΥΣΜΑΤΙΚΟΥ κ ΕΡΩΤΗΜΑΤΙΚΟΥ καλυμένυ λόγυ, ή πράγμα, κ) έι πράγμα, ήτοι αυίδ έχεινε τυχείν έΦιεμένης, προς δν ο λόγ 🚱, ωσπερ έπὶ το ΚΛΗΤΙΚΟΥ, ਜ τινος παρ' ਕੰਪੀਓ πράξεως κ τάυτης, मैं ώς παρα κρείτου , ώς έπὶ της ΕΥΧΗΣ, η ώς παρά χείρονος, ως έπὶ τε πυρίως καλεμένης ΠΡΟΣΤΑΞΕΩΣ· μόνου ΔΕ το ΑΠΟ-ΦΑΝΤΙΚΟΝ από των γνως ικών, καὶ ές ι τέτο בּצָמץ בּאדנאסט דאָן אַבייסוְנפּטאר בּי אַנוּט אַנישׁרבּער דעי אוּבאר בּאַרער בּאַרער בּאַרער בּאַרער בּאַרער μάτων αληθώς, ή Φαινομένως, διο κ μόνον τέτο δεκτιχών ές το αληθείας η ψεύδυς, των δε άλλων έδεν. Meaning of the above passage being implied in the Text, we take its translation from the Latin Interpreter. Dicendum igitur est, cum anima nostra duplicem potestatem habeat, cognitionis, & vitæ, quæ etiam appetitionis ac cupiditatis appellatur; quæ vero cognitionis est, vis est, qua res singulas cognoscimus, ut mens, cogitatio, opinio, phantasia, sensus: appetitus vero sasultas eft, quâ bona, vel quæ sunt, vel quæ videntur, concupiscimus, ut sunt voluntas, confilium, ira, cupiditas: quatuor orationis species, præter enunciantem, a partibus animi proficiscuntur, quæ concupiscunt; non cum animus ipse per se agit, sed cum ad alium se convertit, qui ei ad consequendum, id quod cupit, conducere posse videatur; atque etiam vel rationem ab

the Eneid to an Epigram of Martial. But Ch. II. the longest Extension, with which Grammar has to do, is the Extension here consider'd, that is to say a Sentence. The greater Extensions (such as Syllogisms, Paragraphs, Sections, and complete Works) belong not to Grammar, but to Arts of higher order; not to mention that all of them are but Sentences repeated.

Now a SENTENCE (c) may be sketch'd in the following description—a compound

C 2 Quantity

en exquirit, ut in oratione, quam Percunctantem, aut Interrogantem vocant: vel rem: fique rem, vel tum ipfum confequi cupit, quicum loquitur, ut in optante oratione, vel aliquam ejus actionem: atque in bâc, vel ut a præstantiore, ut in Deprecatione; vel ut ab inseriore, ut in eo, qui proprie Jussus nominatur. Sola autem Enuncians a cognoscendi facultate proficiscitur: bæcque nunciat rerum cognitionem, quæ in nobis est, aut veram, aut simulatam. Itaque Hæc sola verum falsumque capit: præterea vero nulla. Ammon. in Libr. de Interpretatione.

⁽c) Λόγ & δε Φωνή συνθεί ή σημαντική, ής ένια μέρη καθ' αυλά σημαίνει τι. Arist. Poet. c. 20. See also de Interpret. c. 4.

Ch. II. Quantity of Sound fignificant, of which certain Parts are themselves also fignificant.

Thus when I say [the Sun shineth] not only the whole quantity of Sound has a meaning, but certain Parts also, such as [Sun] and [shineth.]

But what shall we say? Have these Parts agen other Parts, which are in like manner significant, and so may the progress be perfued to infinite? Can we suppose all Meaning, like Body, to be divisible, and to include within itself other Meanings without end? If this be absurd, then must we necessarily admit, that there is such a thing as a Sound significant, of which no Part is of itself significant. And this is what we call the proper character of a (d) Word. For thus, though the Words

⁽d) Φωτη σημανίικη,—πς μέρων εδά ές τ καβ αυίδ σημανίικόν. De Poetic. c. 20. De Interpret. c. 2. & 3. Priscian's Definition of a Word (Lib. 2.) is as follows:

[Sun] and [shineth] have each a Meaning, Ch. II. yet is there certainly no Meaning in any of their Parts, neither in the Syllables of the one, nor in the Letters of the other.

IF therefore ALL SPEECH whether in profe or verie, every Whole, every Section, every Paragraph, every Sentence, imply a certain Meaning, divisible into other Meanings, but Words imply a Meaning, which is not so divisible; it follows that Words will be the smallest parts of speech, in as much as nothing less has any Meaning at all.

C 3

To

lows—Dictio est pars minima orationis constructæ, id est, in ordine compositæ. Pars autem, quantum ad totum intelligendum, id est, ad totius sensus intellectum. Hoc autem ideo dictum est, nequis conetur vires in duas partes dividere, boc est, in vi & res; non enim ad totum intelligendum bæc sit divisio. To Priscian we may add Theodore Gaza.—Λίξις δὶ, μίς εν ἰλάχις ον καὶὰ σύνὶαξιν λόγε. Introd. Gram. 1. 4. Plato shewed them this characteristic of a Word—See Cratylus, p. 385. Edit. Serr.

Ch. II. To know therefore the species of Words

must needs contribute to the knowledge of

Speech, as it implies a knowledge of its

minutest Parts.

This therefore must become our next Inquiry.

CHAP.

CHAP. III.

Concerning the species of Words, the smallest Parts of Speech.

Let us first search for the Species of Ch. III. Words among those Parts of Speech, commonly received by Grammarians. For example, in one of the passages above cited.—

The Man, that bath no music in himself,
And is not mov'd with concord of sweet
founds,
Is fit for treasons—

Here the Word [The] is an ARTICLE;—

[Man] [No] [Music] [Concord] [Sweet]

[Sounds] [Fit] [Treasons] are all Nouns,

fome Substantive, and some Adjective—

[That] and [Himself] are Pronouns—

[Hath] and [is] are Verbs—[moved] a Participle—[Not] an Adverb—[And] a

Conjunction—[In] [with] and [For] are

C 4 Pre-

HERMES.

Ch. III. PREPOSITIONS. In one sentence we have all those Parts of Speech, which the Greek Grammarians are found to acknowledge. The Latins only differ in having no Article, and in separating the INTERJECTION, as a Part of itself, which the Greeks include among the Species of Adverbs.

24

WHAT then shall we determine? why are there not more Species of Words? why so many? or if neither more nor sewer, why these and not others?

To refolve, if possible, these several Queries, let us examine any Sentence that comes in our way, and see what differences we can discover in its Parts. For example, the same Sentence above,

The Man that bath no muße, &c.

ONE Difference foon occurs, that fome Words are variable, and others invariable. Thus the Word Man may be varied into Man's and Men; Hatb, into Have, Haft, Had,

Had, &c. Sweet into Sweeter and Sweetest; Ch. III. Fit into Fitter and Fittest. On the contrary the Words, The, In, And, and some others, remain as they are, and cannot be altered.

And yet it may be question'd, how far this Difference is essential. For in the first place, there are Variations, which can be hardly call'd necessary, because only some Languages have them, and others have them not. Thus the Greeks have the dual Variation, which is unknown both to the Moderns and to the ancient Latins. Thus the Greeks and Latins vary their Adjectives by the triple Variation of Gender, Case, and Number; whereas the English never vary them in any of those ways, but thro' all kinds of Concord preserve them still the same. Nay even those very Variations, which appear most necessary, may have their places supplied by other methods; some by Auxiliars, as when for Bruti, or Brute

Ch. III. Bruto we say of Brutus, to Brutus; some by meer Position, as when for Brutum amavit Cassias, we say, Cassius lov'd Brutus. For here the Accusative, which in Latin is known any where from its Variation, is in English only known from its Position or place,

Ir then the Distinction of Variable and Invariable will not answer our purpose, let us look farther for some other more esfential.

Suppose then we should dissolve the Sentence above cited, and view its several Parts as they stand separate and detached. Some 'tis plain still preserve a Meaning (such as Man, Music, Sweet, &c.) others on the contrary immediately lose it (such as, And, The, With, &c.) Not that these last have no meaning at all, but in fact they never have it, but when in company, or associated.

Now

Now it should seem that this Distinc-Ch.III. tion, if any, was essential. For if all Words are significant, or else they wou'd not be Words; and if every thing not absolute, is of course relative; then will all Words be significant either absolutely or relatively.

WITH respect therefore to this Distinction, the first sort of Words may be call'd fignificant by themselves; the latter may be call'd fignificant by relation; or if we like it better, the first sort may be call'd Principals, the latter Accessories. The first are like those stones in the basis of an Arch, which are able to support themselves, even when the Arch is destroyed; the latter are like those stones in its Summit or Curve, which can no longer stand, than while the whole subsists (e).

§ This

⁽e) Apollonius of Alexandria (one of the acutest Authors that ever wrote on the subject of Grammar) illustrates the different power of Words, by the

Ch.III. § This Distinction being admitted, we thus pursue our Speculations. All things what-

the different power of Letters. El. o. τράπου των σοιχείων τα μέν έσι Φωνίκδα, α κ καθ έαυδα Φωνίν αποτελεί τα δε σύμφωνα, απερ ανεν των Φωνηθίδων έκ έχει βητήν την έκφωνησιν τον αυθον τρόπου ές ιν έπινοησαι κάπὶ των λέξεων, αι μέν γαρ αυίων, τρόπου τινα των Φωνκύθων, ρίπαι είσι καθάπερ επί των ρημάτων, ονομάτων, ανθωνυμιών, ἐπιρρημάτων - αι δε, ώσπερεί σύμφωνα, αναμένεσι τα φωνήενία, ε δυνάμενα των άρθρων, των συνδέτμων τα γαρ τοιαύτα αξεί των μορίων συοσημαίνει. In the same manner, as of the Elements or Letters some are Vowels, which of themselves complete a Sound; others are Consonants, which without the help of Vowels have no express Vocality, so likewise may we conceive as to the nature of Words. Some of them, like Vowels, are of themselves expressive, as is the case of Verbs, Nouns, Pronouns, and Adverbs; others, like Confonants, wait for their Vowels, being unable to become expressive by their own proper strength, as is the case of Prepositions, Articles, and Conjunctions; for those parts of Speech are always Confignificant, that is, are only fignificant, when affociated to something else. Apollon. de Syntaxi. L. 1. C. 3. Itaque quibusdam philesophis placuit nomen & ver-TUM

whatever either exist as the Energies, or Af-Ch. III. fections of some other thing, or without being the Energies or Affections of some other thing. If they exist as the Energies or Affections of something else, then are they called ATTRIBUTES. Thus to think is the attribute of a Man; to be white, of a Swan; to fly, of an Eagle; to be fourfooted, of a Horse. If they exist not after this manner, then are they call'd SUB-STANCES. Thus Man, Swan, Eagle and Horse are none of them Attributes, but all Substances, because however they may exist in Time and Place, yet neither of these, nor of any thing else do they exist as Energies or Affections.

AND

vere, Adminicula vel Juncturas earum: quomodo navium partes sunt tabulæ & trabes, cætera autem (id est, cera, stuppa, & clavi & similia) vincula & conglutinationes partium navis, (hoc est, tabularum & trabium) non partes navis dicuntur. Prisc. L. IX. 913.

Ch.III. And thus all things whatsoever being either (f) Substances or Attributes, it follows of course that all Words, which are significant as Principals, must need be significant of either the one or the other. If they are significant of Substances, they are call'd Substantives; if of Attributes, they are call'd Attributives. So that ALL Words whatever, significant as Principals, are either Substantives or Attributives.

AGEN, as to Words, which are only fignificant as Accessories, they acquire a Signification either from being affociated to one Word, or else to many. If to one Word alone, then as they can do no more than in some manner define or determine, they may

⁽f) This division of things into Substance and Accident seems to have been admitted by Philosophers of all Sects and Ages. See Categor. c. 2. Metaphys. L. VII. C. 1. De Caelo, L. III. C. 1.

may justly for that reason be call'd De-Ch.III.

FINITIVES. If to many Words at once,

then as they serve to no other purpose than

to connect, they are 'call'd for that reason

by the name of CONNECTIVES.

And thus it is that all Words whatever are either Principals or Accessories; or under other Names, either fignificant from themselves, or significant by relation. — If fignificant from themselves, they are either Substantives or Attributives; if significant by relation, they are either Definitives or Connectives. So that under one of these four Species, Substantives, Attributives, Definitives and Connectives, are All Words, bowever different, in a manner included:

If any of these Names seem new and unusual, we may introduce others more usual, by calling the Substantives, Nouns; the Attributives, VERBS; the Definitives, ARTICLES;

Ch. III. ARTICLES; and the Connectives, Conjunctions.

Shou'n it be ask'd; what then are become of *Pronouns*, *Adverbs*, *Prepositions*, and *Interjections*; the answer is, either they must be found included within the Species above-mentioned, or else must be admitted for so many Species by themfelves.

§ THERE were various opinions in ancient days, as to the *number* of these Parts, or Elements of Speech.

Plato in his * Sophist mentions only two, the Noun and the Verb. Aristotle mentions no more, where he treats of + Propositions. Not that those acute Philosophers were ignorant of the other Parts, but they spoke with reference to Logic or Dialectic

^{*} Tom. I. p. 261. Edit. Ser.

⁺ De Interpr. c. 2 & 3.

Dialectic (g); considering the Essence of Ch. III. Speech as contain'd in these two, because these alone combin'd make a perfect assertive Sentence, which none of the rest without them are able to effect. Hence there-

fore

⁽g) Partes igitur orationis funt secundum Dialecticos due, Nomen & Verbum; quia bæ folæ etiam per se conjunctæ plenam faciunt orationem; alias autem partes συκαθηγορήμαθα, boc est, consignificantia appellabant. Priscian. 1. 2. p. 574. Edit. Putschii. Existit bic quadam quastio, cur duo tantum, Nomen & VERBUM, se (Aristoteles sc.) determinare promittat, cum plures partes orationis esse videantur. Quibus boc dicendum eft, tantum Aristotelem hoc libro diffiniss. quantum illi ad id, quod instituerat tractare, suffecit. Tractat namque de simplici enuntiativa oratione, que scilicet bujusmodi est, ut junctis tantum Verbis & Nominibus componatur. — Quare superstuum est quærere, cur alias quoque, quæ videntur orationis partes, non proposuerit, qui non totius simpliciter orationis, sed tantum simplicis orationis instituit elementa partiri. Boetius in Libr. de Interpretat. p. 295. Apollonius from the above principles elegantly calls the Noun and VERB, τὰ ἐμψυχότατα μέρη το λόγε, the most animated parts of Speech. De Syntaxi l. 1. c. 3. p. 24. Plutarch. Quest. Platon. p. 1009.

Ch. III. fore Aristotle in his * treatise of Poetry

(where he was to lay down the elements of a more variegated speech) adds the Article and Conjunction to the Noun and Verb, and so adopts the same Parts, with those establish'd in this Treatise. To Aristotle's authority (if indeed better can be required) may be added that also of the elder Stoics (b).

THE latter Stoics instead of four Parts made five, by dividing the Noun into the Appellative, and Proper. Others increas'd the number, by detaching the Pronoun from the Noun; the Participle and Adverb from the Verb; and the Preposition

from

[•] Poet. Cap. 20.

⁽b) For this we have the authority of Dienysius of Halicarnassus, De Struct. Orat. Sect. 2. whom Quintilian follows, Inst. 1. 1. c. 4. Diegenes Laertius and Priscian make them always to have admitted five Parts. See Priscian, as before, and Laertius, Lib. VII. Segm. 57.

from the Conjunction. The Latin Gram-Ch. III. marians went farther, and detach'd the Interjection from the Adverb, within which by the Greeks it was always included, as a Species.

We are told indeed by (i) Dionyfius of Halicarnassus and Quintilian, that Aristotle, with Theodectes, and the more early writers, held but three Parts of speech, the Noun, the Verb, and the Conjunction. This it must be own'd accords with the oriental Tongues, whose Grammars (we are (k) told)

⁽i) See the places quoted in the note immediately preceding.

⁽k) Antiquissima eorum est opinio, qui tres classes saciunt. Estque bæc Arabum quoque sententia — Hebræi quoque (qui, cum Arabes Grammaticam scribere desinerent, artem eam demum scribere cæperunt, quod ante annos contigit circiter quadringentos) Hebræi, inquam bac in re secuti sunt magistros suos Arabes.—Immovero trium classium numerum aliæ etiam Orientis linguæ retinent. Dubium, utrum eå in re Orientales imitatt D 2

Ch. III. admit no other. But as to Aristotle, we have his own authority to affert the contrary, who not only enumerates the four Species which we have adopted, but ascertains them each by a proper Definition *.

To conclude—the Subject of the following Chapters will be a distinct and separate consideration of the Noun, the Verb, the Article, and the Conjunction, which four, the better (as we apprehend) to express their respective natures, we chuse to call Substantives, Attributives, Definitives and Connectives.

CHAP.

funt antiques Gracerum, an hi potius secuti sunt Orientalium exemplum. Utut est, etiam veteres Graces tres tantum partes agnovisse, non selum autor est Dionysius, &cc. Voss. de Analog. l. 1. c. 1. See also Sanétii Miner. l. 1. c. 2.

[•] Sup. p. 34.

CHAP. IV.

Concerning Substantives, properly so called.

SUBSTANTIVES are all those principal Ch. IV. Words, which are significant of Subflances, considered as Substances.

THE first sort of Substances are the NA-TURAL, such as Animal, Vegetable, Man, Oak.

THERE are other Substances of our own making. Thus by giving a Figure not natural to natural Materials we create such Substances, as House, Ship, Watch, Telescope, &c.

AGEN, by a more refin'd operation of our Mind alone, we abstract any Attribute from its necessary subject, and consider it apart, devoid of its dependence. For example,

D 2 from

Ch. IV. from Body we abstract to Fly; from Surface, the being White; from Soul, the being Temperate.

And thus its we convert even Attributes into Substances, denoting them on this occasion by proper Substantives, such as Flight, Whiteness, Temperance; or else by others more general, such as Motion, Colour, Virtue. These we call ABSTRACT SUBSTANCES; the second fort we call ARTIFICIAL.

Now all those several Substances have their Genus, their Species, and their Individuals. For example in natural Substances, Animal is a Genus; Man, a Species; Alexander, an Individual. In artificial Substances, Edifice is a Genus; Palace, a Species; the Vatican, an Individual. In abstract Substances, Motion is a Genus; Flight, a Species; this Flight or that Flight are Individuals.

As therefore every (a) GENUS may be Ch. IV. found whole and intire in each one of its Species; (for thus Man, Horse, and Dog are each of them distinctly a complete and intire Animal) and as every Species may be found whole and intire in each one of its Individuals; (for thus Socrates, Plato, and Xenophon are each of them completely and distinctly a Man) hence it is, that every Genus, tho' ONE, is multiply'd into MANY; and every Species, tho' ONE, is also multiply'd into MANY, by reference to those beings, which are their proper subordinates. Since then no Individual has any such Suberdinates, it can never in strictness be con-

(a) This is what Plato seems to have express'd in a manner somewhat mysterious, when he talks of μίαν διά πολλών, ἐνὸς ἐκάς τε κειμένε χωρὶς, πάνθη διατεταμένη—» πολλάς, ἐτέρας ἀλλήλων, ὑπὸ μιᾶς ἔξωθεν περιεχομένας. Sophist. p. 253. Edit. Serrani. For the common definition of Genus and Species see the Isagoge or Introduction of Porphyry to Ariftotle's Logic.

D 4

fidered

Ch.IV. fidered as MANY, and so is truly an In-DIVIDUAL as well in Nature as in Name.

FROM these Principles it is, that Words following the nature and genius of Things, such Substantives admit of Number as denote Genera or Species, while those, which denote (b) Individuals, in strictness admit it not.

BESIDES

There feems more reason for such Plurals, as the Ptolemies, Scipios, Catos, or (to instance in modern names) the Howards, Pelbams, and Montagues; because

⁽b) Yet fometimes Individuals have plurality or Number, from the causes following. In the first place the Individuals of the human race are so large a multitude even in the smallest nation, that 'twould be difficult to invent a new Name for every new born Individual. Hence then instead of one only being call'd Marcus, and one only Antonius, it happens that many are called Marcus and many call'd Antonius; and thus 'tis the Romans had their Plurals, Marci, and Antonii, as we in later days have our Marks and our Anthonies. Now the Plurals of this sort may be well called accidental, because 'tis meerly by chance that the Names coincide.

Besides Number, another characteristic, Ch. IV. visible in Substances, is that of Sex. Every Substance is either Male or Female; or both Male and Female; or neither one nor the other. So that with respect to Sexes and their Negation, all Substances conceiveable are comprehended under this fourfold confideration.

Now

because a Race or Family is like a smaller fort of Species, so that the family Name extends to the Kindred, as the specific Name extends to the Individuals.

A third cause which contributed to make proper Names become Plural, was the high Character or Eminence of some one Individual, whose Name became afterwards a kind of common Appellative, to denote all those, who had pretentions to merit the same way. Thus every great Critic was call'd an Aristarchus; every great Warrior an Alexander; every great Beauty, a Helen, &c.

A Daniel come to Judgment! yea a Daniel, cries Shylock in the Play, when he would express the wisdom of the young Lawyer.

So Martial in that well known verse,

Sint Macenates, non deerunt, Flacce, Marones.

being rare, if not doubtful; hence Language, only regarding those distinctions which are more obvious, considers Words denoting Substances to be either MASCULINE, FEMININE, or NEUTER.

As to our own Species and all those animal Species, which bave reference to common Life, or of which the Male and the Female, by their size, form, colour, &c. are eminently distinguished, most Languages have different Substantives, to denote the Male and the Female. But as to those animal Species, which either less frequently occur, or of which one Sex is less apparently distinguished from the other, in these a single Substantive commonly serves for both Sexes.

In

In the English Tongue it seems a ge-Ch.IV. neral rule (except only when infringed by a figure of Speech) that no Substantive is Masculine, but what denotes a Male animal Substance; none Feminine, but what denotes a Female animal Substance; and that where the Substance bas no Sex, the Substantive is always Neuter.

But 'tis not so in Greek, Latin, and many of the modern Tongues. These all of them have Words, some masculine, some feminine (and those too in great multitudes) which have reference to Substances, where Sex never had existence. To give one instance for many. MIND is surely neither male, nor semale; yet is NOYE, in Greek, masculine, and mens, in Latin, seminine.

In

Ch.IV. In some Words these distinctions seem owing to nothing else, than to the meer casual structure of the Word itself: 'Tis of such a Gender, from having such a Termination; or from belonging perhaps to such a Declension. In others we may imagine a more subtle kind of reasoning, a reasoning which discerns even in things without Sex a distant analogy to that great NATURAL DISTINCTION, which (according to Milton) animates the World.

In this view we may conceive such Substantives to have been considered, as Masculine, which were "conspicuous" for the Attributes of imparting or communicating; or which were by nature active, strong, and efficacious, and that indiscriminately whether to good or to bad; or which had claim to Eminence, either laudable or otherwise."

THE

THE FEMININE on the contrary were Ch. IV.

"fuch, as were conspicuous for the At"tributes either of receiving, of contain"ing, or of producing and bringing sorth;
"or which had more of the passive in
"their nature, than of the active; or
"which were peculiarly beautiful and
"amiable; or which had respect to such
"Excesses, as were rather Feminine, than
"Masculine."

Upon these Principles the two greater Luminaries were considered one as Massculine, the other as Feminine; the Sun ("HAG., Sol) as Masculine, from communicating Light, which was native and original, as well as from the vigorous warmth and efficacy of his Rays; the Moon (Seation, Luna) as Feminine, from being the Receptacle only of another's Light, and from shining with Rays more delicate and soft.

Thus

Ch. IV. THUS Milton,

First in HIS East the glorious Lamp was seen,
Regent of Day, and all th' Horizon round
Invested with bright rays; jocund to run
HIS longitude thro' Heav'ns high road:
the gray

Dawn, and the Pleiades before HIM danc'd, Shedding sweet influence. Less bright the Moon

But opposite, in levell'd West was set, His mirrour, with full face borrowing HER Light

From HIM; for other light SHE needed none. P. L. VII. 370.

By Virgil they were confidered as Brother and Sifter, which still preserves the same distinction.

Nec Fratris radiis obnoxia surgere Luna.
G. I. 296.

THE SKY OF ETHER is in Greek and

Latin Masculine, as being the source of those

those showers, which impregnate the Earth. Ch. IV.
The EARTH on the contrary is universally
Feminine, from being the grand Receiver,
the grand Container, but above all from
being the Mother (either mediately or immediately) of every sublunary Substance,
whether animal or vegetable.

Thus Virgil,

Tum Pater omnipotens facundis im-

Conjugis in gremium LETE descendit,

Magnus alit magno commixtus corpore fætus. G. II. 325.

THUS Shakespear,

---- Common Mother, Thou,

Whose Womb unmeasurable, and infinite
Breast

Teems and feeds all— Tim. of Athens.

So Milton,

Whatever Earth, All-BEARING Mother, yields. P. L. V.

So

Ch.IV. So Virgil,

Non jam MATER alit TELLUS, viresque ministrat (c). Æn. XI. 71.

AMONG artificial Substances the SHIP (Navis, Navis) is feminine, as being so eminently a Receiver and Container of various things, of Men, Arms, Provisions, Goods, &c. Hence sailors, speaking of their Vessel, say always, "she rides at anchor," "she is under fail."

A CITY (Πόλις, Civitas) and a COUNTRY (Πάτρις, Patria) are feminine also, by being (like the Ship) Containers and Receivers, and farther by being as it were the Mothers and Nurses of their respective Inhabitants.

THUS

⁽c) — διο κ) ἐν τῷ ὅλῷ τὰν ΤΗΣ Φύσιν, ὡς ΘΗΛΥ κ) ΜΗΤΕ ΡΑ νομίζεσιν 'ΟΥΡΑΝΟ'Ν δὲ κ) "ΗΛΙΟΝ, κ) ἔι τι τῶν ἄλλων τῶν τοιέτων, ὡς ΓΕΝΩΝΤΑΣ κ) ΠΑ ΤΕΡΑΣ προσαγορεύεσι. Arist. de Gener. Anim. 1. 1. c. 2.

Thus Virgil,

Ch.IV.

Salve, MAGNA PARENS FRUGUM, Saturnia Tellus,

Magna Virum-- Geor. II. 173.

So, in that Heroic Epigram on those brave Greeks, who fell at Chæronea,

Γαῖα δὲ Πάτρις ἔχει κόλποις τῶν πλείς α καμόντων

Σώματα ----

Their PARENT COUNTREY in HER bosom bolds

Their wearied bodies. --- *

So Milton,

The City, which Thou feeft, no other deem
Than great and glorious Rome, Queen of
the Earth. Par. Reg. L. IV.

As to the Ocean, tho' from its being the Receiver of all Rivers, as well as the Container

Demosth. in Orat. de Coronâ.

Ch. IV. Container and Productress of so many Vegetables and Animals, it might justly have been made (like the Earth) Feminine; yet its deep Voice and boisterous Nature have, in spight of these reasons, prevailed to make it Male. Indeed the very Sound of Homer's

--- μέγα σθέν . Ωχεανοίο,

would suggest to a hearer, even ignorant of its meaning, that the Subject was incompatible with *female* delicacy and softness.

TIME (Xpor@) from his mighty Efficacy upon every thing around us, is by the Greeks and English justly considered as Masculine. Thus in that elegant distich, spoken by a decrepit old Man,

'O γ Χρόν Φ μ' ἔκαμ ψ, πίκτων ε σοφός,

*Απανία δ' εργαζόμεν Φ ἀσθενές ερα *.

Me Time hath bent, that forry Artift, HE

That furely makes, whate're be handles,

worse.

So

^{*} Stob. Ecl. p. 591.

So too Shakespear, speaking likewise of Ch.IV.

Orl. Whom doth HE gallop withal?

Rof. With a thief to the gallows.—

As you like it.

THE Greek @avaros or "Asdns, and the English Death, seem from the same irrestible Power to have been considered as Masculine. Even the Vulgar with us are so accustomed to this notion, that a Female Death they would treat as ridiculous (d).

TAKE a few Examples of the masculine Death.

E 2

Calli-

(d) Well therefore did Milton in his Paradise Lost not only adopt DEATH as a Person, but consider him as Masculine: in which he was so far from introducing a Phantom of his own, or from giving it a Gender not supported by Custom; that perhaps he had as much the Sanction of national Opinion for his Masculine Death, as the ancient Poets had for many of their Deities.

Ch.IV. Callimachus upon the Elegies of his Friend Heraclitus—

'Αι ή τεαλ ζώσσιν απόσυες, ήσιν ο πάντων 'Αςπάντηρ 'Αίδης έκ έπλ χώρα βαλώ.

yet thy sweet warbling strains
Still live immortal, nor on them shall DEATH
His band e're lay, tho' Ravager of all.

IN the Alcestis of Euripides, Odvar O. or DEATH is one of the Persons of the drama; the beginning of the play is made up of dialogue between Him and Apollo; and towards its end, there is a fight between Him and Hercules, in which Hercules is conqueror, and rescues Alcestis from his hands.

'Tis well known too, that Sleep and Death are made *Brothers* by *Homer*.'Twas to this old *Gorgias* elegantly alluded, when at the extremity of a long life he lay flumbering on his Death-bed. A Friend

Friend asked him, " How he did?" ---- Ch. IV.

" SLEEP (replied the old Man) is just upon'

" delivering me over to the care of his

" BROTHER (e)."

Thus Shakespear, speaking of Life,

--- merely Thou art Death's Fool;

For HIM Thou labour'st by thy slight to shun,

And yet run'st tow'rds him still.

Meaf. for Meaf.

So Milton,

Dire was the tossing, deep the groans; Despair

Tended the fick, bufiest from couch to couch:

And over them triumphant DEATH HIS

Shook; but delay'd to strike ---

P. L. XI. 489 (f).

THE

Е 3

And

⁽e) "Ηδη με 'Ο "ΥΠΝΟΣ άξχεται παξακατατίθεθαι Τ'ΑΔΈΛΦΩ Ι. Stob. Ecl. p. 600.

⁽f) Suppose in any one of these examples we introduce a female Death; suppose we read,

Ch. IV. THE supreme Being (God, Oeds, Deus, Dieu, &c.) is in all languages Masculine, in as much as the masculine Sex is the superior and more excellent; and as He is the Creator of all, the Father of Gods and Sometimes indeed we meet with fuch words as Τὸ Πρῶτον, Το Θεῖον, Νυmen, DEITY (which last we English join to a neuter, faying Deity itself.) sometimes I fay we meet with these Neuters. reason in these instances seems to be, that as God is prior to all things, both in dignity and in time, this Priority is better characterized and exprest by a Negation, than by any of those Distinctions which are co-ordinate with some Opposite, as Male for

And over them triumphant Death HER dart Shook, &c.

What a falling off? How are the nerves and strength of the whole Sentiment weakened?

for example is co-ordinate with Female, Ch. IV. Right with Left, &c. &c (g).

VIRTUE ('Apen, Virtus) as well as most of its Species are all Feminine, perhaps from their Beauty and amiable Appearance, which are not without effect even upon the most reprobate and corrupt.

E 4 , — abash'd

(g) Thus Ammonius, speaking on the same Subject -ΤΟ΄ ΠΡΩ ΤΟΝ λέγομεν, εΦ' ῷ μη δὲ τῶν δια μυθολογίας παραδόντων ήμεν τας θεολογίας ετόλμησε τις ที่ ฉ่าว่าเพลง, ที่ θυληπρεπή (lege θηλυπρεπή) διαμόρθωσιν Φέρειν κὰ τᾶτο εικότως τῷ μὲν γὰρ ἄρρειι το θήλυ σύς οιχον το (lege τω) δε ΠΑ΄ ΝΤΗΙ ΆΠΛΩΣ ΆΙΤΙΩΙ σύς οιχον εδέν, αλλα 🕏 δ του άρσενικώς ΤΟ Ν ΘΕΟ Ν ονομάζομεν, [προς] το σεμνότερον των γενών τα ύΦειμένα προτιμώντες, έτως αυτον προσαγορέυομεν. PRIMUM dicimus, quod neme etiam eorum, qui theologiam nobis fabularum integumentis obvolutam tradiderunt, vel maris vel fæminæ specie singere ausus est: idque merito: conjugatum enim mari fæmininum eft. CAUSÆ autem omnino ABSOLUTÆ AC SIMPLICI nihil eft conjugatum. Immo vero cum Deum masculino genere appellamus, ita ipfum nominamus, genus præstantius submisso atque humili præserentes. Ammon. in Lib. de Interpr. p. 30. b.

Ch.IV.

His loss — P. L. IV. 846.

This being allowed, VICE (Karia) becomes Feminine of course, as being, in the συς οιχία or Co-ordination of things, Virtue's natural Opposite (b).

THE Fancies, Caprices, and fickle Changes of FORTUNE would appear but awkardly under a Character, that was Male: but taken together they make a very natural

⁽b) They are both represented as Females by Xenophon, in the celebrated Story of Hercules, taken from Prodicus. See Memorab. L. II. C. I. As to the συς-οιχία here mentioned, thus Varro.—Pythagoras Samius ait omnium rerum initia effe bina: ut finitum & infinitum, bonum & malum, vitam & mortem, diem & noctem. De Ling. Lat. L. IV. See also Arist. Metaph. L. I. c. 5. and Ecclesiasticus, Chap. Ixii. Verse 24.

tural *Female*, which has no fmall refem-Ch.IV. blance to the Coquette of a modern Comedy, bestowing, withdrawing, and shifting her favours, as different Beaus succeed to her good graces.

Transmutat incertos bonores, Nunc mibi, nunc alii benigna. Hor.

WHY the FURIES were made Female, is not so easy to explain, unless it be that female Passions of all kinds were considered as susceptible of greater excess, than male Passions; and that the Furies were to be represented, as Things superlatively outrageous.

Talibus Alesto dictis exarsit in iras.

At Juveni oranti subitus tremor occupat artus:

Diriguere oculi: tot Erinnys sibilat Hydris,

Tantaque se facies aperit: tum flammea torquens

Lumina

Ch.IV.

Lumina cunstantem & quærentem dicere plura

Reppulit, & geminos erexit crinibus an-

Verberaque insonuit, rabidoque bæs addidit ore:

En! Ego victa situ, &c.

Æn. VII. 445 (i).

HE.

(i) The Words above mentioned, Time, Death, Fortune, Virtue, &c. in Greek, Latin, French, and most modern Languages, tho' they are diversified with Genders in the manner described, yet never vary the Gender, which they have once acquired, except in a few instances, where the Gender is doubtful. We cannot say in april in or in april in, back Virtus or bic Virtus, la Vertu or le Vertu, and so of the rest. But 'tis otherwise in English. We in our language say, Virtue is its own Reward, or Virtue is ber own Reward; Time maintains its wonted Pace, or Time maintains bis wonted Pace.

There is a fingular advantage in this liberty, as it enables us to mark, with a peculiar force, the Distinction between the severe or Logical Stile, and the ornamental or Rhetorical. For thus when we speak of the above Words, and of all others naturally devoid of Sex, as Neuters, we speak of them

as

HE, that would see more on this Sub-Ch.IV. ject, may consult Ammonius the Peripate-tic

we give them Sex, by making them Masculine or Feminine, they are from thenceforth personified; are a kind of intelligent Beings, and become, as such, the proper ornaments either of Rhetaric or of Poetry.

Thus Milton,

—— The Thunder
Wing'd with red light'ning and impetuous rage,
Perhaps hath spent HIS shafts— P. Lost. I. 174.

The Poet, having just before called the Hail, and Thunder, God's Ministers of Vengeance, and so perfonished them, had he afterwards said its Shafts for bis Shafts, would have destroyed his own Image, and approached withal so much nearer to Prose.

The following Passage is from the same Poem.

Should intermitted Vengeance arm again
His red right hand—— P. L. II, 173.

In this Place His Hand is clearly preferable either to Her's or It's, by immediately referring us to God himself the Avenger.

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Ch. IV. tic in his Commentary on the Treatife de Interpretatione, where the Subject is treated at large with respect to the Greek Tongue. We shall only observe, that as all such Speculations are at best but Conjectures, they should therefore be received with

I shall only give one instance more, and quit this Subject.

At his command th' up-rooted Hills retir'd

Each to HIS place: they heard his voice and went

Obsequious: Heav'n HIS wonted face renew'd,

And with fresh flourets Hill and Valley smil'd.

P. L. VI.

Here all things are personified; the Hills hear, the Valleys smile, and the Face of Heaven is renewed. Suppose then the Poet had been necessitated by the laws of his Language to have said — Each Hill retir'd to ITS Place — Heaven renewed ITS wonted Face — how prosaic and lifeless would these Neuters have appeared; how detrimental to the Prospopeia, which he was aiming to establish? In this therefore he was happy, that the Language, in which he wrote, imposed no such necessity; and he was too wise a Writer, to impose it on himself. 'Twere to be wished, his Correctors had been as wise on their parts.

with candour, rather than scrutanized Ch. IV. with rigour. Varro's words on a Subject near akin are for their aptness and elegance well worth attending. Non mediocres enim tenebræ in silvå, ubi hæc captanda; neque eò, quò pervenire volumus, semitæ tritæ; neque non in tramitibus quædam objecta, quæ euntem retinere possunt *.

To conclude this Chapter. We may collect, from what has been faid, that both Number and Gender appertain to Words, because in the first place they appertain to Things; that is to say, because Substances are Many, and have either Sex, or no Sex; therefore Substantives have Number, and are Masculine, Feminine, or Neuter. There is however this difference between the two Attributes: Number in strictness descends no lower, than

to

^{*} De Ling. Lat. L. IV.

Ch.IV. to the last Rank of Species (k): GENDER on the contrary stops not here, but descends to every Individual, however diversified. And so much for Substantives, properly so CALLED.

CHAP.

⁽k) The reason, why Number goes no lower, is, that it does not naturally appertain to *Individuals*; the cause of which see before, p. 39.

CHAP. V.

Concerning Substantives of the Secondary

Order.

E are now to proceed to a Secon-Ch.V.

DARY RACE of SUBSTANTIVES,

a Race quite different from any already
mentioned, and whose Nature may be explained in the following manner.

EVERY Object, which presents itself to the Senses or the Intellect, is either then perceived for the first time, or else is recognized, as having been perceived before. In the former case 'tis called an Object In the former case the first knowledge or acquaintance (a); in the latter 'tis called

an

⁽a) See Apoll. de Syntaxi, l. 1. c. 16. p. 49. l. 2. c. 3. p. 103. Thus Priscian — Interest autem inter demonstrationem & relationem hoc; quod demonstratio, interrogationi reddita, Primam Cognitionem ostendit;

Ch. V. an Object & Seuripas you'rews, of the second knowledge or acquaintance.

Now as all Conversation passes between Particulars or Individuals, these will often happen to be reciprocally Objects & mounts vriotens, that is to fay, till that inflant unacquainted with each other. What then is to be done? How shall the Speaker address the other, when he knows not his Name? or how explain himself by his own Name, of which the other is wholly ignorant? Nouns, as they have been described, cannot answer the purpose. The first expedient upon this occasion seems to have been AREIS, that is, Pointing, or Indication by the Finger or Hand, some traces of which are still to be observed, as a part of that Action, which naturally attends our speaking. But the Authors of Language were not content

Quis fecit? Ego: relatio vero Secundam Cognitionem fignificat, ut, Is, de quo jam dixi. Lib. XII. p. 936. Edit. Putschii.

content with this. They invented a Race Ch. V. of Words to supply this Pointing; which Words, as they always stood for Substantives or Nouns, were characterized by the Name of 'Arranulian, or Pronouns (b). These also they distinguished into three several sorts, calling them Pronouns of the First, the Second, and the Third Person, with a view to certain distinctions, which may be explained as follows.

Suppose the Parties conversing to be wholly unacquainted, neither Name nor Countenance on either side known, and the

⁽b) Έχεινο ἐν ᾿Αντωνυμία, τὸ μεθὰ ΔΕΊΞΕΩΣ πὰ ἀναφορᾶς ᾿ΑΝΤΟΝΟΜΑΖΟ΄ ΜΕΝΟΝ. Apoll. de Synt. L. II. c. 5. p. 106. Priscian seems to consider them so peculiarly destined to the expression of Individuals, that he does not say they supply the place of any Noun, but that of the proper Name only. And this undoubtedly was their original, and still is their true and natural use. Pronomen est pars orationis, quæ pro nomine proprio uniuscujusque accipitur. Prisc. L. XII. See also Apoll. L. II. c q. p. 117, 118.

Ch.V. the Subject of the Conversation to be the Speaker bimself. Here, to supply the place of Pointing by a Word of equal Power, they furnished the Speaker with the Pronoun, I. I write, I say, I'desire, &c. and as the Speaker is always principal with respect to his own discourse, this they called for that reason the Pronoun of the First Person.

AGEN, suppose the Subject of the Conversation to be the Party addrest. Here for similar reasons they invented the Pronoun, Thou. Thou writest, Thou walkest, &c. and as the Party addrest is next in dignity to the Speaker, or at least comes next with reference to the discourse; this Pronoun they therefore called the Pronoun of the Second Person.

LASTLY, suppose the Subject of Conversation neither the Speaker, nor the Party addrest, but some third Object, distinct of the suppose of the subject of the

ferent from both. Here they provided an-Ch.III. other Pronoun, HE, SHE, or IT, which in distinction to the two former was called the Pronoun of the Third Person.

And thus it was that *Pronouns* came to be distinguished by their respective Persons (c).

As

(c) The Description of the different Persons here given is taken from Priscian, who took it from Apollonius. Personæ Pronominum sunt tres, prima, secunda, tertia. Prima est, cum ipsa, quæ loquitur de se pronuntiat; Secunda, cum de ed pronuntiat, ad quam directo sermone loquitur; Tertia, cum de ed, quæ nec loquitur, nec ad se directum accipit Sermonem. L. XII. p. 940. Theodore Gaza gives the same distinctions. Πρώτου (πρόσωπου sc.) ¾ περὶ ἐπίνω Φράζει ὁ λέγων δύθερου, ῷ περὶ τῦ, πρὸς δυ ὁ λόγων τρίτω, ῷ περὶ ἐτίρυ. Gaz. Gram. L. IV. P. 152.

This account of *Persons* is far preferable to the common one, which makes the First the *Speaker*; the Second, the Party addrest; and the Third, the Subject. For the the First and Second be as commonly described, one the Speaker, the other the Party addrest; yet till they become fubjects of the F₂

Ch.V. As to NUMBER, the Pronoun of each Person has it: (I) has the plural (WE),

discourse, they have no existence. Agen as to the Third Person's being the subject, this is a character, which it shares in common with both the other Persons, and which can never therefore be called a peculiarity of its own. To explain by an instance or two. When Eneas begins the narrative of his adventures, the second Person immediately appears, because he makes Dido, whom he addresses, the immediate subject of his Discourse.

Infandum, Regina, jubes, renovare dolorem.

From hence forward for 1500 Verses (tho' she be all that time the party addrest) we hear nothing farther of this Second Person, a variety of other Subjects filling up the Narrative.

In the mean time the First Person may be feen every where, because the Speaker every where is himself the Subject. They were indeed Events, as he says himself,

— quæque ipse miserrima vidi, Et quorum pars magna sui ——

Not that the Second Person does not often occur in the course of this Narrative; but then it is always by a Figure of Speech, when those, who by their absence are in fact so many Third Persons, are converted into Second Persons by being introduced as present. because there may be many Speakers at Ch.V. once of the same Sentiment; as well as one, who, including himself, speaks the Sentiment of many. (Thou) has the plural (you), because a Speech may be spoken to many, as well as to one. (He) has the plural (THEY) because the Subject of discourse is often many at once.

But the all these Pronouns have Number, it does not appear either in Greek, or Latin, or any modern Language, that those of the first and second Person carry the diffications

present. The real Second Person (Dido) is never once hinted.

Thus far as to Virgil. But when we read Euclid, we find neither First Person, nor Second in any part of the whole Work. The reason is, that neither Speaker nor Party addrest (in which light we may always view the Writer and his Reader) can possibly become the Subject of pure Mathematics, nor indeed can any thing else, except abstract Quantity, which neither speaks itself, nor is spoken to by another.

Ch.V. stinctions of Sex. The reason seems to be, that the Speaker and Hearer being generally present to each other, it would have been superfluous to have mark'd a distinction by Art, which from Nature and even Dress was commonly (d) apparent on both fides. But this does not hold with respect to the third Person, of whose Character and Distinctions, (including Sex among the rest) we often know no more, than what we learn from the discourse. And hence it is that in most Languages the third Person has its Genders, and that even English (which allows its Adjectives no Genders at all) has in this Pronoun the triple (e) distinction of He, She, and It.

HENCE

⁽d) Demonstratio ipsa seçum genus ostendit, Priscian. L. XII. p. 942. See Apoll. de Syntax. L. II. c. 7. p. 109.

⁽e) The Utility of this Diftinction may be better found in supposing it away. Suppose for example we should read in history these words — He caused him

Hence too we see the reason why a Ch. V. fingle Pronoun (f) to each Person, an I

him to destroy him-and that we were to be informed the [He], which is here thrice repeated, stood each time for something different, that is to say, for a Man, for a Woman, and for a City, whose Names were Alexander, Thais, and Persepolis. Taking the Pronoun in this manner, divested of its Genders. how would it appear, which was destroyed; which was the destroyer; and which the cause, that moved to the destruction? But there are no such doubts. when we hear the Genders distinguished; when instead of the ambiguous Sentence, He caused him to destroy bim, we are told with the proper distinctions, that she caused him to destroy it. Then we know with certainty, what before we could not s that the Promoter was the Woman; that her Instrument was the Hero; and that the Subject of their Cruelty was the unfortunate City.

(f) Quæritur tamen cur prima quidem Persona & secunda singula Pronomina habeant, tertiam vero sex diversæ indicent voces? Ad quod respondendum est, quod prima quidem & secunda Persona ideo non egent diversis vocibus, quod semper præsentes inter se sunt, & demonstrativæ; tertia vero Persona modo demonstrativa est, ut, Hic, Iste; modo relativa, ut Is, Ipse, &c. Priscian. L. XII, p. 933.

Ch.V. to the First, and a Thou to the Second, are abundantly sufficient to all the purposes of Speech. But 'tis not so with respect to the Third Person. The various relations of the various Objects exhibited by this (I mean relations of near and distant, present and absent, same and different, definite and indefinite, &c.) made it necessary that here there should not be one, but many Pronouns, such as He, This, That, Other, Any, Some, &c.

IT must be consest indeed, that all these Words do not always appear as Pronouns. When they stand by themselves, and represent some Noun, (as when we say, This is Virtue, or Sentinos, Give me That) then are they Pronouns. But when they are associated to some Noun (as when we say, This Habit is Virtue; or Sentinos, That Man destraided me) then as they supply not the place of a Noun,

Noun, but only serve to ascertain one, Ch. V. they fall rather into the Species of Definitives or Articles. That there is indeed a near relation between Pronouns and Articles, the old Grammarians have all acknowledged, and some words it has been doubtful to which Class to refer. The best rule to distinguish them is this—The genuine Pronoun always stands by itself, assuming the Power of a Noun, and supplying its place—The genuine Article never stands by itself, but appears at all times associated to something else, requiring a Noun for its support, as much as Attributives or (g) Adjectives.

As

⁽g) Το "Αρθρου με α ονόμα ο, κ η 'Αν ωνυμία αν 'ονόμα ο. ΤΗΕ ARTICLE stands WITH a Noun; but THE PRONOUN stands FOR a Noun. Apoll. L. I. c. 3. p. 22. 'Αν α αν τα αρθρα, της προς τα ονόμα α συναρτήσεως απος άντα, είς την ύποτεταγμένην αν ωνυμίαν μεταπίπ ει. Now Articles themselves, when they quit their Connection with Nouns, pas

Ch.V. As to the Coalescence of these Pronouns, it is, as follows. The First or Second

> pass into such Pronoun, as is proper upon the occasion. Ibid. Agen - 'Ο αν το 'Αρθρον μη με ι' ονόματ & παραλαμβάνη αι, ποιήση αι δε σύνταξιν ονόμα] 🕒 ทึ่ง προεκτεθέιμεθα, έκ πάσης ανάγκης είς ανθωνυμίαν μεθαληθθήσε αις είγε να έγενομενου με δονόματο δυνάμει αντι ονόματο παρελήφθη. When the Article is affumed without the Noun, and has (as we explained before) the same Syntay, which the Noun bas; it must of absolute necessity be admitted for a Pronoun, because it appears without a Noun, and yet is in power assumed for one. Ejusd. L. II. c. 8. p. 113. L. I. c. 45. p. 96. Inter Pronomina & Articulos hos interest, quod Pronomina ea putantur, quæ, cum fola fint, vicem nominis complent, ut QUIS, ILLE, ISTE: Articuli vero cum Pronominibus, aut Nominibus, aut Participiis adjunguntur. Donat. Gram. p. 1753.

Priscian, speaking of the Stoics, says as follows:
ARTICULIS autem PRONOMINA connumerantes, FINITOS ea ARTICULOS appellabant; ipses autem Articulos, quibus nos caremus, infinitos ARTICULOS dicebant. Vel, ut alii dicunt, Articulos connumerabant Pronominibus, & ARTICULARIA eos PRONOMINA vocabant, &c. Prisc. L. I. p. 574. Varto, speaking

Second will either of them by them-Ch.V. felves coalesce with the Third, but not with each other. For example, 'tis good sense, as well as good Grammar, to say in any Language—I AM HE—Thou ART HE—but we cannot say—I AM Thou—nor Thou ART I. The reason is, there is no absurdity for the Speaker to be the Subject also of the Discourse, as when we say, I am He; or for the Person addrest; as when we say, Thou art He. But for the same Person, in the same circumstances, to be at once the Speaker, and

speaking of Quisque and Hic, calls them both AR-TICLES, the first indefinite, the second definite. De Ling. Lat. L. VII. See also L. IX. p. 132. Voffius indeed in his Analogy (L. I. c. 1.) opposes this Doctrine, because Hic has not the same power with the Greek Article, o. But he did not enough attend to the antient Writers on this Subject, who considered all Words, as ARTICLES, which being associated to Nouns (and not standing in their place) served in any manner to ascertain, and determine their Signification. Ch.V. and the Party addrest, this is impossible; and so therefore is the Coalescence of the First and Second Person.

And now perhaps we have seen enough of *Pronouns*, to perceive how they differ from other Substantives. The others are *Primary*, these are their Substitutes; a kind of secondary Race, which were taken in aid, when for reasons already (b) mentioned the others could not be used. "Tis

moreover

⁽b) See for these reasons at the beginning of this chapter, of which reasons the principal one is, that on Noun, properly so called, implies its own Presence. 'Tis therefore to ascertain such Presence, that the Pronoun is taken in aid; and hence 'tis it becomes equivalent to designs, that is, to Pointing or Indication by the Finger.' 'Tis worth remarking in that Verse of Persius,

Sed pulchrum est digito monstrari, & dicier, Hic est,

how the designs, and the Pronoun are introduced together, and made to co-operate to the same end.

moreover by means of these, and of Ar-Ch.V. ticles, which are nearly allied to them, that "Language, tho' in itself only sig-" nisscant of general Ideas, is brought down " to denote that infinitude of Particulars, " which are for ever arising, and ceasing " to be." But more of this hereaster in a proper place.

As to the three orders of Pronouns already mentioned, they may be called *Pre-politive*, as may indeed all Substantives, because they are capable of introducing or leading a Sentence, without having reference

It may be observed too, that even in Epistolary Correspondence, and indeed in all kinds of Writing, where the Pronouns I and You make their appearance, there is a fort of implied Presence, which they are supposed to indicate, tho' the Parties are in fact at ever so great a distance. And hence the rise of that distinction in Apollonius, $\tau \grave{\alpha}_S \mu \grave{\nu} \nu \tau \check{\eta}_S \eth \psi \epsilon \check{\nu} \alpha \iota \delta \iota \check{\xi}_{EIS}$, $\tau \grave{\alpha}_S \eth \iota \nu \check{\kappa}$, that some Indications are ocular, and some are mental. De Syntaxi, L. II. c. 3. P. \$04.

Ch.V. ference to any thing previous. But besides those there is ANOTHER PRONOUN (in Greek &s, &gus (i); in Latin, Qui; in English, Who, Which, That) a Pronoun, having a character peculiar to itself, the nature of which may be explained as follows.

Suppose I was to fay — Light is a Body, Light moves with great celerity.—

These

⁽i) The Greeks it must be confest call this Pronoun υποτακλικον αρθρου, the subjunctive Article. Yet, as it should seem, this is but an improper Appellation. Apollonius, when he compares it to the wee-Tex | 120 or true prepositive Article, not only confesses it to differ, as being exprest by a different Word, and having a different place in every Sentence; but in Syntax he adds, 'tis wholly different. De Syntax. L. I. c. 43. p. 91. Theodore Gaza acknowledges the same, and therefore adds - 30 ss 33 ສ່ ຂໍ ໝາຍເພດ ຂຶ້ນ ຂ້າຍ ຂ້າຍ ຄວາ rauli - for these reasons this (meaning the Subjunctive) cannot properly be an Article. And just before he says, xuging years appear to mee-Tex | won bowever properly speaking 'tis the Prepositive is the Article. Gram. Introd. L. IV. The Latins therefore have undoubtedly done better in ranging it with the Pronouns.

These would apparently be two distinct Ch. V. Sentences. Suppose, instead of the Second, Light, I were to place the prepositive Pronoun, it, and say—Light is a Body; it moves with great celerity—the Sentences would still be distinct and two. But if I add a Connective (as for Example an AND) saying—Light is a Body, AND it moves with great celerity—I then by Connection make the two into one, as by cementing many Stones I make one Wall.

Now 'tis in the united Powers of a Connective, and another Pronoun, that we may
fee the force, and character of the Pronoun here treated. Thus therefore, if
in the place of AND IT, we substitute
THAT, or WHICH, saying LIGHT is a
Body, WHICH moves with great celerity
—the Sentence still retains its Unity and
Perfection, and becomes if possible more
compact than before. We may with just
reason

Ch. V. reason therefore call this Pronoun the Subjunctive, because it cannot (like the Prepositive) introduce an original Sentence, but only serves to subjoin one to some other, which is previous (k).

THE

(k) Hence we see why the Pronoun here mentioned is always necessarily the Part of some complex Sentence, which Sentence contains, either express or understood, two Verbs, and two Nominatives. Thus in that Verse of Horace,

QUI metuens vivit, liber mibi non erit unquam.

Ille non erit liber—is one Sentence; qui metuens vivit—is another. Ille and Qui are the two Nominatives; Erit and Vivit, the two Verbs; and so in all other inflances.

The following passage from Apollonius (though fomewhat corrupt in more places than one) will serve to shew, whence the above Speculations are taken. Το υποτακλικου άρθρου επὶ ρῆμα ιδιου Φέρεται, συνδεδεμένου διὰ τῆς ἀναΦορας τῷ προκειμένῳ ἐνόμαλι κὰ ἐντεῦδεν ἀπλῶν λόγου ἐ παρις άνει καλὰ τὰν τῶν δύο ρπμάσων σύνλαξιν (λέγω τὰν ἐν τῷ ὀνόματι, κὰ τὰν ἐν ἀντῷ τῷ ἀρθρφ) ὅπερ πάλιν παρείπετο τῷ ΚΑΙ συνδέσμφ. Κοινὸν μὲν (lege ΤΟ ΚΑΙ γαρ κοινὸν μὲν) παρελάμδωνε

The Application of this Subjunctive, Ch. V. like the other Pronouns, is universal. It

may

के विकास के महत्रोधिकार वर्षिकार के कि कि विकास अर्थिक สตรในร ม เราะอง อุทีมล สิตอุเมนที่เดิดหนุ หรื ชื่น รอ้า ΠΑΡΕΓΕΝΕΤΟ Ο ΓΡΑΜΜΑΤΙΚΟΣ, ΟΣ ΔΙΕΛΕΞΑΤΟ, δυνάμει τον αυθον αποτελεί το (forf. 14) O PPHMATIKOZ MAYETEN ETO. KAI MIRKBANTO. The subjunctive Article, (that is, the Prenoun have mentioned), is applied to a Verb of its own, and yet is connected withal to the antecedent Nun: Mente it can'never sirve to conflicute a simple Sentences, by reason of the Syntan of the two Verbs, I mean that which respects the Noun or Antecedent, and that which respects the Article or Relative. too follows as to the Conjunction, AND. This Copulative assumes the Antecedent Noun, which is capable of being applied to many Subjects, and by connecting to it a now Sentenie, of necessity assumes a netw Verb alfo. And beace 'tisebat the Words-the Grammarian came, WHO discoursed—form in power nearly the same senthick asif we were to so the Gibbin and came, AND discoursed. Apoll: de Syntaxi, L. I. c. 43. p. 92. See also an ingenious French Treatife, called Grummaire generale & raisonnée, Chap. IX.

The Latins, in their Structure of this Subjunctive, seem to have well represented its compound Nature of part Prenoun, and part Connective, in form-Voc. Illi G'ing

Ch.V. may be the Substitute of all kinds of Substantives, natural, artificial, or abstract; as well as general, special, or particular. We may say, the Animal, Wbich, &c. the Man, Wbom, &c. the Ship, Which, &c. Alexander, Who, &c. Bucephalus, That, &c. Virtue, Which, &c. &c.

NAY, it may even be the Substitute of all the other Pronouns, and is of course therefore expressive of all three Persons. Thus we say, I, who who now read, bave near finished this Chapter; Thou, who now readest; He, who now readest, &cc. &cc.

And thus is THIS SUBJUNCTIVE truly a Pronoun from its Substitution, there being no Substantive existing, in whose place it may not stand. At the same time, it is effentially distinguished from the other Pronouns,

ing their QuI & QuIs from QUE and 1s, or (if we go with Scaliger to the Greek) from KAI and 'OΣ, KAI and 'O. Scal. de Cauf. Ling. Lat. c. 127.

houns, by this peculiar, that 'tis not only Ch. V. a Substitute, but withal a Connective (1).

AND

(1) Before we quit this Subject, it may not be improper to remark, that in the Greek and Latin Tongues the two principal Pronouns, that is to fay, the First and Second Person, the Ego and the Tu are implied in the very Form of the Verb itself (yeapu, yedpus, scribo, scribis) and are for that reason never express, unless it be to mark a Contradistinction; such as in Virgil,

Nos patriam fugimus; Tu, Tityre, lentus in umbra Formosam resonare doces &c.

This however is true with respect only to the Casus reaus, or Nominative of these Pronouns, but not with respect to their oblique Cases, which must always be added, because the we see the Ego in Amo, and the Tu in Amas, we see not the Tx or Mx in Amat, or Amant.

Yet even these oblique Cases appear in a different manner, according as they mark Contra-distinction, or not. If they contradistinguish, then are they commonly placed at the beginning of the Sentence, or at least before the Verb, or leading Substantive. Thus Virgil,

— Quid Thesea, magnum Quid memorem Alciden? Es MI genus ab Jove summo.

Thus

Ch.V. And now to conclude what we have faid concerning Substantives. All SUB-

Thus Homer.

Iλ, A.

where the 'Tuir and the Mol standy as contra-distinguished, and both have precedence of their respective Verbs, the 'Tuin even leading the whole Sontence. In other infrances, these Pronouns commonly take their place behind the Verb, as may be seen in examples every where obvious. The Great Langauge went, farther fill. When the oblique Cafes. of these. Pronouns happened to contradistinguish, they affumed a peculiar Accent of their own, which, gave, them the name of ocharoppungus, or Pronouns, aprightly accented. When they marked no such opposition, they not only took their place behind the Verb, but even gave it their Accent, and (as it were) inclined; themselves upon it. And hence they as: quired the name of Eyakitikal, that is, Leaning or, Inclining Pronouns. The Greeks, too had in the first person 'Emi, 'Emi, 'Emi for Contradistingtives, and Mr, Moi, Mi for Enclitics. And hence 'twee that Apollonius contended, that in the passage above quoted from the first Iliad, we should read maila ? 'EMOI', for maida & MOI', on account of the Contradistinction.

condary, that is to say, according to a Language more familiar and known, are either Nouns or Pronouns. The Nouns denote Substances, and those either Natural, Artificial, or Abstract. They moreover denote Things either General, or Special, or Particular. The Pronouns, their Substitutes, are either Prepositive, or Subjunctive. The Prepositive is distinguished into three Orders, called the First, the Second, and the Third Person. The Subsumetive includes the powers of

G 3 all

distinction, which there occurs between the Grecians and Chryses. See Apoll. de Syntaxi L. I. c. 3, p. 20. L. II. c. 2. p. 102, 103.

This Diversity between the Contradistinctive Pronouns, and the Enclitic, is not unknown even to the English Tongue. When we say, Give me Content, the (Me) in this case is a perfect Enclitic. But when we say, Give Ms Content, Give Him his thousands, the (Me) and (Him) are no longer Enclitics, but as they stand in opposition, assume an Accent of their own, and so become the true offerous passas.

See before p. 37, 38.

Ch.V. all those three, having fuperadded, as of its own, the peculiar force of a Connective.

HAVING done with Substantives, we now proceed to Attributives.

CHAP.

CHAP. VI.

Concerning Attributives.

A TTRIBUTIVES are all those princi-Ch.VI.
pal Words, that denote Attributes,
considered as Attributes. Such for example are the Words, Black, White, Great,
Little, Wise, Eloquent, Writeth, Wrote,
Writing, &c (a).

However

⁽a) In the above lift of Words are included what Grammarians called Adjectives, Verbs, and Participles, in as much as all of them equally denote the Attributes of Subflance. Hence 'tis, that as they are all from their very nature the Predicates in a Proposition (being all predicated of some Subject or Substance, Snow is white, Cicero writeth, &c.) hence I say the Appellation PHMA or VERB is employed by Logicians in an extended Sense to denote them all, Thus Ammonius explaining the reason, why Aristotle in his Tract de Interpretatione calls Asunos a Verb, tells us πασαν Φωνήν, κακηγορέμενου όρου έν προτάσει Tower, 'PH'M A xadesichat, that every Sound articulate, that forms the Predicate in a Proposition, is called a Verb. G 4

Ch.VI. However proviously to these, and to every other possible Attribute, whatever a thing may be, whether black or white, square or round, wise or eloquent, writing or thinking, it must first of necessity EXIST, before it can possibly be any thing elfe. For Existence may be confidered as an universal Genus, to which all things of all kinds are at all times to be referr'd. The Verbs therefore, which denote it, slaim precedence of all others, as being effential to the very being of every Propolition, in which they may still be found, either express, or by implication; exprest, as when we say, The Sun is bright; by implica-

VERR. p. 24. Edit. Ven. Brissian's observation, tho' made an another occasion, is very pertinent to the present. Non Declinatio, sed proprietas excutienda est figuisticationis. L. II. p. 576. And in another place he says sometimed declinationis emaimed conjungit wel discernic partes orationis inter so, sed un insur seraiscationis. L. XIII. p. 040.

implication, as when we say, The Sun rises, Ch. VI. which means, when residued, The Sun 1s rising (b).

The Verbs, Is, Groweth, Becometh, Eft, Fit, oxigne, is in mine, physeres, are all of themused to express this general Genus. The Latins have called them Verba substantive, but the Greeks Physical variation, Verbs of Existence, a Name more apt, as being of greater latitude, and comprehending equally as well Attribute, as Substance. The principal of those Verbs, and which we shall here particularly consider, is the Verb, Est, Est, Is.

Now all Existence is either absolute or qualified — absolute, as when we say, B is an Animal; B is black, is round, &c.

WITH

⁽b) See Metaphys. Aristot. L.V. c. 7. Edit. Du-Vall.

Ch.VI. WITH respect to this difference, the Verb (18) can by itself express absolute Existence, but never the qualified, without subjoining the particular Form, because the Forms of Existence being in number infinite, if the particular Form be not exprest, we cannot know which is intended. And hence it follows, that when (1s) only serves to subjoin some such Form, it has little more force, than that of a mere Affertion. 'Tis under the same character. that it becomes a latent part in every other Verb, by expressing that Assertion, which is one of their Essentials. Thus, as was observed just before, Riseth means, is rifing; Writeth, is writing.

AGEN—As to Existence in general it is either mutable, or immutable; mutable, as in the Objects of Sensation; immutable, as in the Objects of Intellection and Science. Now mutable Objects exist all in Time, and admit the several Distinctions of present,

fent, past, and future. But immutable Ob-Ch.VI. jests know no such Distinctions, but rather stand opposed to all things temporary.

AND hence two different Significations of the substantive Verb (1s) according as it denotes mutable, or immutable Being.

For example, if we say, This Orange is ripe, (18) meaneth, that it existeth so now at this present, in opposition to past time, when it was green, and to future time, when it will be rotten.

But if we say, The Diameter of the Square is incommensurable with its side, we do not intend by (1s) that it is incommensurable now, having been formerly commensurable, or being to become so bereafter; on the contrary we intend that Perfection of Existence, to which Time and its Distinctions are utterly unknown. "Tis under

Ch. VI. under the fame meaning we employ this

Verb, when we say, Tauth is, or, God

1s. The opposition is not of Time present
to other Times, but of necessary Existence
to all comperary Existence whatever (c).
And so much for Verbs of Existence, commonly called Verbs substantive.

We are now to descend to the common Herd of Attributives, such as black and rebite, to write, to speak, to walk, &c. among which when compared and opposed to each other, one of the most eminent distinctions appears to be this. Some, by being joined to a proper Substantive, make

⁽c) Oum enim dicimut, Deus est, non eam dicimus nunc esse, sed tantum in Substantia esse, ut boc ad immutabilitatem potius substantia, quam ad tempus aliqued referente. Si untem dicimus, dies est, ad nullam diei substantiam pertinet, nisi tantum ad temporis constitutionem; bac enim, quod significat, tole est, tanquam si dicamus, nunc est. Quare cum dicimus esse, ut substantiam designemus, simpliciter est addimus; cum vero ita ut aliquid prasent significetur, secundum Tempus. Boeth. in Lib. de Interpt. p. 307. See also Plat. Tim. p. 37, 38. Edit. Serrani.

male without farther help a perfect offer-Ch.V.L. tive Sentence; while the rost, the other-wise perfect, are in this respect descions.

To explain by an example. When we lay, Gicero eloquent, Gicero, wife, these are imperfact Sentences, though they denote a Substance and an Attribute. The reafon is, that they want an Affertion, to, shew that such Attribute appertains to such Substance. We must therefore call in the help of an Assertion elsewhere, an (18) or a (WAS) to complete the Sentence, faying, Cicero 1s wife, Cicero WAS eloquent. On the contrary, when we say, Cicero writesb, Cicero walkesb, in instances like these there is no such occasion, because the Words (spriteth), and (walketh) imply, in their own Rorm not an Attribute only, but an Affertion likewise. Hence 'tis they, may be resolved, the one into Is and W.riting, the other into, Is and Walking.

Now all those Attributives, which have this complex Power of denoting both an Attribute Ch. VI. Attribute and an Affertion, make that Species of Words, which Grammarians call Verbs. If we resolve this complex Power into its distinct Parts, and take the Attribute alone without the Affertion, then have we Participles. All other Attributives, besides the two Species before, are included together in the general Name of Adjectives.

And thus is it, that ALL ATTRIBU-TIVES are either VERBS, PARTICIPLES, or ADJECTIVES.

Besides the Distinctions above mentioned, there are others, which deserve notice. Some Attributes have their Essence in Motion; such are to walk, to fly, to strike, to live. Others have it in the privation of Motion; such are to stop, to rest, to cease, to die. And lastly, others have it in subjects, which have nothing to do with either Motion or its Privation;

fuch are the Attributes of, Great and Lit-Ch.VI.
tle, White and Black, Wise and Foolish,
and in a word the several Quantities, and
Qualities of all Things. Now these last
are Adjectives; those which denote Motions, or their Privation, are either VERBS
or PARTICIPLES.

And this Circumstance leads to a farther Distinction, which may be explain'd as follows. That all Motion is in Time, and therefore where-ever it exists implies Time as its concomitant, is evident to all and requires no proving. But besides this, all Rest or Privation of Motion implies Time likewise. For how can a thing be faid to rest or stop, by being in one Place for one Instant only?—so too is that thing, which moves with the greatest velocity. To stop therefore or rest, is to be in one Place for more than one Instant, that is to fay, during an Extension between two Inflants, and this of course gives us the Idea of TIME. As therefore Motions and their Privation

tant, so Veres, which denote them, come to denote Trme also (d). And hence the Origin and Use of Tenses, "which are so many different Forms, assigned to each Verb, to shew, without altering its principal Meaning, the various Times in which such Meaning may exist." Thus Stribet, denote all equally the Attribute, To Write, while the difference between them, is, that they denote Writing in different Times.

SHOULD

⁽d) The amient Authors of Hislectic. or Logic: have well described this Property. The following, is part of their Definition of a Verb — fina di is to roi mpoonpation xebies, a Verb is something; which signifies Time over and above that? It may be answered over and above what? It may be answered over and above its principal Signification, which is to denote some naving; and emergizing Authorise. See Arist. de Interpret. c. 34 together with his Consmentators Ammonius and Boethius.

Should it be asked, whether Time it-Ch. VI. felf may not become upon occasion the Verb's principal Signification; 'tis answered. No. And this appears, because the fame Time may be denoted by different Verbs (as in the Words, writeth and speaketb) and different Times by the same Verb (as in the Words, writeth and wrote) neither of which could happen, were Time any thing more, than a meer Concomitant. Add to this, that when Words denote Time, not collaterally, but principally, they cease to be Verbs, and become either Adjectives, or Substantives. Of the Adjective kind are Timely, Yearly, Dayly, Hourly, &c. of the Substantive kind are Time, Year, Day, Hour, &c.

THE most obvious Division of TIME is into Present, Past, and Future, nor is any Language complete, whose Verbs have not Tenses, to mark these Distinctions.

H

But

Ch. VI. But we may go still farther. Time past and future are both infinitely extended. Hence 'tis that in universal Time past we may assume many particular Times past, and in universal Time future, many particular Times future, some more, some less remote, and corresponding to each other under different relations. Even present Time itself is not exempt from these Differences, and as necessarily implies. Some degree of Extension, as does every given Line, however minute.

Here then we are to seek for the Reason, which first introduced into Language that variety of Tenses. It was not it seems enough to denote indefinitely (or by Aorists) mere Present, Past, or Future, but 'twas necessary on many occasions to define with more precision, what kind of Past, 'Present, or Future. And hence the multiplicity of Futures, Præterits, and even Present Tenses, with which all Languages

Languages are found to abound, and with-Ch.VI. out which it would be difficult to ascertain our Ideas.

However as the Knowledge of Tenses depends on the Theory of Time, and this is a subject of no mean Speculation, we shall reserve it by itself for the sollowing Chapter.

H₂ CHAP.

CHAP. VII. Concerning Time, and Tenses.

nature things continuous, and as such they both of them imply Extension. Thus between London and Salisbury there is the Extension of Space, and between Yesterday and To-morrow, the Extension of Time. But in this they differ, that all the Parts of Space exist at once and together, while those of Time only exist in Transition or Succession (a). Hence then we may gain some Idea of Time, by considering it under the

⁽a) See Vol. I. p. 275. Note XIII. To which we may add, what is faid by Ammonius—ουδί γὰρ ο χρώ ο δλο δμα υθίς αται, άλλ η κατὰ μόνου τὸ ΝΤΝ ἐν γὰρ τῷ γῶνεσθαι κὸ Φείρεσθαι τὸ είναι ἔχει. ΤΙΜΕ doth not subsift the whole at once, but only in a single Now or Instant; for it hath its Existence in becoming and in ceasing to be. Amm. in Predicam. p. 82. b.

notion of a transfent Continuity. Hence C.VII. also, as far as the affections and properties of Transition go, Time is different from Space; but as to those of Extension and Continuity, they perfectly co-incide.

LET us take, for example, such a part of Space, as a Line. In every given LINE we may assume any where a Point, and therefore in every given Line there may be assumed infinite Points. So in every given TIME we may assume any where a Now or Instant, and therefore in every given Time there may be assumed infinite Nows or Instants.

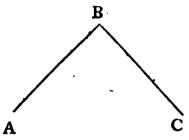
FARTHER still—A POINT is the Bound of every finite Line; and A Now or InstANT, of every finite Time. But altho' they are Bounds, they are neither of them Parts, neither the Point of any Line, nor the Now or Instant of any Time. If this appear strange, we may remember, that H 3

C.VII. the Parts of any thing extended are necesfarily extended also, it being essential to
their character, that they skould measure
their Whole. But if a Point or Now were
extended, each of them would contain
within it self infinite other Points, and infinite other Nows (for these may be assumed
infinitely within the minutest Extension)
and this, 'tis evident, would be absurd and
impossible.

THESE Affertions therefore being admitted, and both *Points* and *Nows* being taken as *Bounds*, but not as *Parts*(b), it will follow,

⁽b) — Φανερον ότι κός μόριου το Ν Τ Ν τε χρόνε, δίστερ κό αι ς ιγμαι της γραμμης αι δε γραμμαι δύο της μίας μόρια. 'Tis evident that A Now ar Infrant is no more a part of Time, than POINTS are of a Line. The Parts indeed of one Line are two other Lines. Natur. Ausc. L. IV. c. 17. And not long before. — Το δε Ν Τ Ν κ μέρων μετρεί, τε γαρ το μέρω, κ σύγκεισθαι δεί το όλου έκ των μερών ο δε ΧΡΟ΄ΝΟΣ κ δοκεί σύγκεισθαι έκ των Ν Τ Ν. Α Now is no Part of Time; for a Part is able to meafure its Whole, and the Whole is necessarily made up of its Parts; but Time doth not appear to be made up of Nows. Ibid. c. 14.

follow, that in the same manner as the same C. VII. Point may be the End of one Line, and the Beginning of another, so the same Now or Instant may be the End of one Time, and the Beginning of another. Let us suppose for example, the Lines, A B, B C.



I say that the Point B, is the End of the Line A B, and the Beginning of the Line. BC. In the same manner let us suppose AB, BC to represent certain Times, and let B be a Now or Instant. In such case I fay that the Inflant B is the End of the Time A B, and the Beginning of the Time, BC. I say likewise of these two Times, that with respect to the Now or Instant, which they include, the first of them is necessarily PAST TIME, as being previous to it; the other is necessarily FUTURE, as being HA

C.VII. being fubsequent. As therefore every Now or Instant always exists in Time, and without being Time, is Time's Bound; the Bound of Completion to the Past, and the Bound of Commencement to the Future: from hence we may conceive its nature or end, which is to be the Medium of Continuity between the Past and the Future, so as to render Time, thro' all its Parts, one Intire and Persect Whole (c).

FROM the above Speculations, there follow some Conclusions, which may be perhaps called Paradoxes, till they have been

⁽c) Το δε ΝΤΝ ες συνέχεια χρόνω, δισπερ ελέχθη συνέχει γαρ του χρόνω, του παρελθόνται κή εσόμενου, κή δλως πέρας χρόνω ες ών ες γαρ τω μεν αρχή, τω δε πλευτή. A Now or Instant is (as was said before) the Continuity or bolding together of Time; for it makes Time continuous, the past and the suture, and is in general its Boundary, as being the Beginning of one Time and the Ending of another. Natur. Auscult. L. IV. c. 19. Συνέχεια in this place means not Continuity, as standing for Extension, but rather that Junction or Holding together, by which Extension is imparted to other things.

been attentively confidered. In the first C.VII. place there cannot (strictly speaking) be any such thing as Time present. For if all Time be transsent as well as continuous, it cannot like a Line be present all together, but part will necessarily be gone, and part be coming. If therefore any portion of its Continuity were to be present at once, it would so far quit its transsent nature, and be Time no longer. But if no Portion of its Continuity can be thus present, how can Time possibly be present, to which such Continuity is effential?

FARTHER than this—If there be no fuch thing as Time Present, there can be no Sensation of Time by any one of the Senses. For ALL SENSATION is of the Present only, the Past being preserved not by Sense but by Memory, and the Future being anticipated by Prudence only and wise Foresight.

But if no Portion of Time be the object of any Sensation; farther, if the Prefent

E.VII. sent never exist; if the Past be no more; if the Future be not as yet; and if these are all the Parts, out of which Time is compounded: how strange and shadowy a Being do we find it? How nearly approaching to a perfect Non-entity (d)? Let us try however, since the Senses fail us, if we have not Faculties of higher power, to seize this sleeting Being.

THE World has been likened to a va_ riety of Things, but it appears to refemble no one more, than some moving Spectacle

⁽d) 'Ott μεν εν όλως εκ ες ιν, η μόγις κ αμυδρώς,
εκ των δε τις αν υποπτέυσειε το μεν γαρ αυθε γέγονε,
κ εκ ες το δε μέλλει, κ πω ες είν εκ δε τέτων κ
δ απειρω κ ο αει λαμβανόμενω χρόνω συίκειται
το δ εκ μη δντων συίκειμενου, αδύνατου αν δόξειε κατέχειν ποτε εσίας. That therefore Time exists not at
all, er at least bas but a faint and obscure existence, one
may suspect from hence. A part of it has been, and is
no more; a part of it is coming, and is not as yet; and
out of these is made that infinite Time, which is ever to
be assumed still farther and farther. Now that which
is made up of nothing but Non-entities, it should seem
was impossible ever to participate of Entity. Natural.
Aust. L. IV. c. 14.

tacle (fuch as a Procession or a Triumph) C. VII. that abounds in every part with splendid Objects, some of which are still departing, as fast as others make their appearance. The Senses look on, while the fight passes, perceiving as much as is immediately present, which they report with tolerable accuracy to the Soul's superior Powers. Having done this, they have done their duty, being concerned with nothing, fave what is present and instantaneous. But to the Memory, to the Imagination, and above all to the Intellest, the several Nows or Instants are not lost, as to the Senses, but are preserved and made Objects of fleady comprehension, however in their own nature they may be transitory and passing. "Now 'tis from contemplating two " or more of these Instants under one view. " together with that Interval of Continuity, " which subsists between them, that we " acquire infensibly the Idea of TIME (e)." For

⁽ε) Τότε Φαμέν γεγονέναι χρόνου, όταν τε προτέρυ ε) υξέρυ έν τη κινήσει αισθησιν λάβωμεν. Όριζομεν

C.VII. For example: The Sun rifes; this I remember; it rifes again; this too I remem-

ber.

दी गर्ने देंग्रेश के देंग्रेश धंमाश्रेयिक्त वेशमर्थ, के μεταξύ τε लागरका हमहरका. ब्रमका मैको मज ब्रमण हमहरक मह र्माहत अध्यानμεν, κ) δίο ειπη ή ψυχή τὰ ΝΥΝ, τὸ μὲν πρότερου, το δε ύς ερου, τότε κό τύτο Φαμέν είναι ΧΡΟΝΟΝ 'Tis then we fay there has been TIME, when we can acquire a Sensation of prior and subsequent in Motion But we distinguish and settle these two, by considering one first, then the other, together with an interval between them different from both. For as often as we conceive the Extremes to be different from the Mean, and the Soul talks of two Nows, one prior and the other subsequent, then 'tis we say there is TIME, and this tis we call TIME. Natural. Auscult. L. IV. c. 16. Themistius's Comment upon this passage is to the same purpose. "Oran yaie i vis anapunobeis ri Nur. δ χθές είπεν, έτερου πάλω έιπη το τήμερου, τότε 👟 γρόνου ευθώς ενενόησεν, υπο των δύο Νύν οριζόμενου, οίου שובף שובף מדשש שיניוני אל שוש אבץ בוו בצבו, פדו הסרכי בב". πεντεκάιδεκα ώρων, η έκκάιδεκα, οδον έξ απείρυ γραμμής πηχυαίαν δύο σημείοις αποτεμνόμευ. For when the Mind, remembring the Now, which it talked of yesterday, talks agen of another Now to-day, then 'eis it immediately has an idea of TIME, terminated by those two Nows, as by two Boundaries; and thus is it enabled to fay, that the Quantity is of fifteen, or of fixteen hours, as if it were to sever a Cubit's length from an infinite Line by two Points. Themist. Op edit. Aldi, p. 45. b.

ber. These Events are not together; there C. VII. is an Extension between them—not however of Space, for we may suppose the Place of rising the same, or at least to exhibit no sensible difference. Yet still we recognize fome Extension between them. Now what is this Extension, but a natural Day? And what is that, but pure Time? "Tis after the fame manner, by recognizing two new Moons, and the Extension between these: two vernal Equinoxes, and the Extension between these; that we gain Ideas of other Times, fuch as Months and Years, which are all fo many Intervals, described as above: that is to say, passing Intervals of Continuity between two Instants viewed together.

And thus 'tis THE MIND acquires the Idea of TIME. But this Time it must be remembred is PAST TIME ONLY, which is always the first Species, that occurs to the human Intellect. How then do we acquire the Idea of TIME FUTURE? The answer is, we acquire it by Anticipation.

Should

C.VII. Should it be demanded still farther, And robat is Anticipation? We answer, that in this case 'tis a kind of reasoning by analogy from fimilar to fimilar; from Successions of Events, that are past already, to similar Successions, that are presumed hereafter. For example: I observe as far back as my memory can carry me, how every day has been succeeded by a night; that night, by another day; that day, by another night; and so downwards in order to the Day that is now. Hence then I anticipate a similar Succession from the present Day, and thus gain the Idea of Days and Nights in futurity. After the same manner, by attending to the periodical Returns of New and Full Moons: of Springs, Summers, Autumns and Winters, all of which in Time past I find never to have failed, I anticipate a like orderly and diversified Succession, which makes Months, and Seasons, and Years, in Time future.

> WE go farther than this, and not only thus anticipate in these natural Periods, but even

even in matters of buman and civil concern C. VII. For example: Having observed in many past instances how Health hath succeeded to Exercise, and Sickness to Sloath; we anticipate future Health to those, who, being now fickly, use exercise; and future Sickness to those, who, being now healthy, are 'Tis a variety of such observations, all respecting one subject, which when systematized by just reasoning, and made habitual by due practice, form the character of a Master-Artist, or Man of practical Wisdom. If they respect the human Body (as above) they form the Physician; if matters military, the General; if matters national, the Statesman; if matters of private life, the Moralist; and the same in other All these several Characters in their respective ways may be said to possess a kind of prophetic discernment, which not only presents them the barren prospect of Futurity (a prospect not hid from the meanest of Men) but shews withal those Events, which are likely to attend it, and thus enables

cept those, who have had diviner assistances) we may justly say, as was said of old,

He's the best Prophet, who conjectures well (f).

FROM

(f) Μάντις δ' άρις 🚱 , δς ις εικάζει καλώς. There is nothing appears so clearly an object of the MIND or Intellect only, as the Future does, fince we can find no place for its existence any where else. Not but the same, if we consider, is equally true of the Past. For tho' it may have once had another kind of being, when (according to common Phrase) it actually was, yet was it then something Present, and not something Past. As Past, it has no existence but in THE MIND OF MEMORY. fince had it in fact any other, it could not properly be called Past. 'Twas this intimate connection between TIME, and the Soul, that made some Philosophers doubt, whether if there was no Soul, there could be any Time, fince Time appears to have its Being in no other region. Horepow de un Form Juxing ειη αν ο χρόνος, απορήσειεν αν τις, κ. τ. λ. Auscult. L. IV. c. 20. Themistius, who comments the above passage, expresses himself more positively. Εί τοίνο διχώς λέγεται τότε αριθμητον κό το αριθμέμενου, το μέν το αριθμητον δηλαδή δυνάμει, το δί ένεργεία, ταυτα δε έκ αν υπος αίν, μη όντος το αριθμήFROM what has been reasoned it ap-C. VII. pears, that Knowledge of the Future comes from Knowledge of the Past; as does Knowledge of the Past from Knowledge of the Present, so that their Order to us is that of PRESENT, PAST, and FUTURE.

Or these Species of Knowledge, that of the Present is the lowest, not only as first in perception, but as far the more extensive, being necessarily common to all animal Beings, and reaching even to Zoophytes, as far as they possess Sensation. Knowledge of the Past comes next, which is superior to the former, as being confined to those Animals, that have Memory as well as Senses. Knowledge of the Future comes last,

συτος μήτε δυνάμει μήτε ένεργεία, Φανερου ως σύκ το δ χρόνος είνη, μη έσης ψυχής. Them. p. 48. Edit. Aldi.

C. VII. last, as being derived from the other two, and which is for that reason the most excellent as well as the most rare, since Nature in her superadditions rises from worse always to better, and is never sound to sink from better down to worse *.

And now having seen, how we acquire the Knowledge of Time pass, and Time future; which is first in perception, which first in dignity; which more common, which more rare; let us compare them both to the present Now or Instant, and examine what relations they maintain towards it.

In the first place there may be Times both past and future, in which the prefent Now has no existence, as for example in Yesterday, and To-morrow.

AGEN,

^{*} See below, Note (r) of this Chapter.

AGEN, the present Now may so far be-C. VII. long to Time of either sort, as to be the End of the past, and the Beginning of the suture; but it cannot be included within the limits of either. For if it were possible, let us suppose C the present Now included

A B C D E

within the limits of the past Time AD. In such case CD, part of the past Time AD, will be subsequent to C the present Now; and so of course be future. But by the Hypothesis it is past, and so will be both Past and Future at once, which is absurd. In the same manner we prove that C cannot be included within the limits of a future Time, such as BE.

WHAT then shall we say of such Times, as this Day, this Month, this Year, this L2 Cen-

C. VII. Century, all which include within them the present Now? They cannot be past Times or future, from what has been proved; and present Time has no existence, as has been proved likewise *. Or shall we allow them to be present, from the present Now, which exists within them; so that from the Presence of that we call these also present, tho' the shortest among them has infinite parts always absent? If so, and in conformity to custom we allow fuch Times present, as present Days, Months, Years, and Centuries, each must of necesfity be a compound of the Past and the Future, divided from each other by some present Now or Instant, and jointly called PRESENT, while that Now remains within them. Let us suppose for example the Time XY, which

$f \dots X \quad A \quad B \quad C \quad D \quad E \quad Y \dots g$

let

Sup. p. 104.

let us call a Day, or a Century; and let C. VII. the present Now or Instant exist at A. I say, in as much as A exists within XY, that therefore XA is Time past, and AY Time future, and the whole XA, AY, Time present. The same holds, if we suppose the present Now to exist at B, or C, or D, or E, or any where before Y. When the present Now exists at Y, then is the whole XY Time past, and still more fo, when the Now gets to g, or onwards. In like manner before the Prefent Now entered X, as for example when it was at f, then was the whole XY Time future; 'twas the same, when the present Now was at X. When it had past that, then XY became Time present. And thus 'tis that TIME is PRESENT, while pasfing, in its PRESENT Now OF INSTANT. 'Tis the same indeed here, as it is in Space. A Sphere passing over a Plane, and being for that reason present to it, is only present to that Plane in a fingle Point at once, while

HERMES.

C. VII. while during the whole progression its Parts absent are infinite (g).

FROM what has been said, we may perceive that ALL TIME, of every demonimation,

(g) PLACE, according to the antients, was either mediate, or immediate. I am (for example) in Europe, because I am in England; in England, because in Wiltsbire; in Wiltsbire, because in Salisbury; in Salisbury, because in my own bouse; in my own house, because in my study. Thus far MEDIATE PLACE. And what is my IMMEDIATE PLACE? 'Tis the internal Bound of that containing Body (whatever it be) which co-incides with the external Bound of my own Bedy. To nepicatelog nepac, nal & ne-Now as this immediate Place ριέχει το περιεχόμενον. is included within the limits of all the former Places, tis from this relation that those mediate Places also are called each of them my Place, though the least among them so far exceed my magnitude. To apply this to TIME. The Present Century is present in the present Year; that, in the present Month; that, in the present Day; that, in the present Hour; that, in the present Minute. 'Tis thus by circumscription within circumfcription that we arrive at THAT REAL 'AND INDIVISIBLE INSTANT, which by being itself the very Effence of the Prefent, diffuses PRESENCE throughout

tion, is divisible and extended. But if so, C. VII. then whenever we suppose a definite Time, even though it be a Time present, it must needs have a Beginning, a Middle, and an End. And so much for TIME.

Now from the above Doctrine of TIME, we propose by way of Hypothesis the following Theorie of TENSES.

THE TENSES are used to mark Prefent, Past, and Future Time, either in-I 4 definitely

throughout all, even the largest of Times, which are found to include it within their respective limits. Nicephorus Blemmides speaks much to the same purpose. Ένες ώς ἔν χρόνος ἐς τὸ ὁ ἐψ ἐκάτερα παρακείμενος τῷ κυρίως ΝΤ΄Ν χρόνος μερικός, ἐκ παρελαλυθότος καὶ μέλλουτος συνες ως, κ) διὰ τῆν πρὸς τὸ κυρίως ΝΤ΄Ν γεινίασιν, ΝΤ΄Ν λεγόμενος κ) αυθός. Present Time therefore is that which adjoins to the REAL Now or Instant on either side, being a limited Time made up of Past and Future, and from its vicinity to that REAL Now said to be Now also itself. Ἐκίλ. Φυσικής Κεφ. θ'. See also Arist. Physic. L. IV. c. 6. L. VI. c. 2, 3, &c.

c. VII. definitely without reference to any Beginning, Middle, or End; or else definitely, in reference to such distinctions.

IF indefinitely, then have we THREE TENSES, an Aorist of the Present, an Aorist of the Past, and an Aorist of the Future. If definitely, then have we three Tenses to mark the Beginnings of these three Times; three, to denote their Middles; and three to denote their Ends; in all NINE.

THE three first of these Tenses we call the Inceptive Present, the Inceptive Past, and the Inceptive Future. The three next, the Middle Present, the Middle Past, and the Middle Future. And the three last, the Completive Present, the Completive Past, and the Completive Future.

And thus 'tis, that the Tenses in their natural Number appear to be Twelve;

three

three to denote Time absolute, and nine to C. VII. denote it under its respective distinctions.

Aorist of the Present.

· respo. Scribo. I write.

Aorist of the Past.

Eyenfa. Scripsi. I wrote.

Aorist of the Future. Tealw. Scriban. I shall write.

Inceptive Present.

Mina yesquer. Scripturus sum. I am going to write.

Middle or extended Present.

Τυγχών γεάφων. Scribe or Scribens fum. I am writing.

. Completive Present.

Inceptive Past.

"Εμελλον γεάφαν. Scripturus eram. I was beginning to write.

Middle

HERMES.

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I22

Middle or extended Past.

*Eyeaφον or ἐτύλχανον yedφων. Scribe-bam. I was writing.

"Completive Past.

Eyeyedφav. Scripseram. I had done writing.

Inceptive Future.

Meniow yedger. Scripturus ero. I shall be beginning to write.

Middle or extended Future.

"Εσιμαι γράφων. Scribens ero. I shall be writing.

Completive Future.

*Εσιμαι γεγεαφώ. Scripfero. I shall have done writing.

It is not to be expected that the above Hypothesis should be justified through all instances in every language. It fares with Tenses, as with other Affections of Speech; be the Language upon the whole ever so perfect,

perfect, much must be left, in defiance of C. VII all Analogy, to the harsh laws of mere Authority and Chance.

It may not however be improper to inquire, what traces may be discovered in favour of this System, either in Languages themselves, or in those authors who have written upon this part of Grammar, or lastly in the nature and reason of things.

In the first place, as to Aorists. Aorists are usually by Grammarians referred to the Past; such are into, I went; intero, I fell, &cc. We seldom hear of them in the Future, and more rarely still in the Present. Yet it seems agreeable to reason, that wherever Time is signified without any farther circumscription, than that of Simple present past or future, the Tense is an Aorist.

THUS

C. VII.

Thus Milton,

Millions of Spiritual creatures WALK the

Unseen, both when we wake, and when we sleep. P. L. IV. 277.

Here the Verb (WALK) means not that they were walking at that inftant only, when Adam spoke, but alogists indefinitely, take any instant whatever. So when the same Author calls Hypocrisy,

--- the only Evil, that WALKS Invisible, except to God alone,

the Verb (WALKS) hath the like aoriftical or indefinite application. The same may be said in general of all Sentences of the Gnomologic kind, such as

Ad pænitendum PROPERAT, cito qui judicat.

Avarus, nisi cum moritur, nil recte FACIT. Ec.

ALL

ALL these Tenses are so many Aorists C. VII. of the Present.

Gnomologic Sentences after the same manner make likewise Aorists of the future.

Tu nibil ADMITTES in te, formidine pana. Hor.

So too Legislative Sentences, Thou SHALT not kill, Thou SHALT not steal, &c. for this means no one particular future Time, but is a prohibition extended indefinitely to every part of Time future (b.)

WE

⁽b) The Latin Tongue appears to be more than ordinarily deficient, as to the article of Aorists. It has no peculiar Form even for an Aorist of the Past, and therefore (as Priscian tells us) the Prateritum is forced to do the double duty both of that Aorist, and of the perfect Present, its application in particular instances being to be gathered from the Context. Thus 'tis that fect means (as the same author

C. VII. We pass from Aorists, to The INCEP-

THESE may be found in part supplied (like many other Tenses) by Verbs auxiliar. ME'ΛΛΩ γεάφει. Scripturus sum. AM GOING to write. But the Latins go farther, and have a Species of Verbs, derived from others, which do the duty of these Tenses, and are themselves for that reason called Inchoatives or Inceptives. Thus from Caleo, I am warm, comes Calesco, I begin to grow warm; from Tumeo, I swell, comes Tumesco, I begin to swell. These Inchoative Verbs are so peculiarly appropriated to the Beginnings of Time, that they are defective as to all Tenses, which denote it in its Completion, and therefore have

anthor informs us) both reweines and incinca, I have done it, and I did it; VIDI both injure and side, I have just seen it, and, I saw it ence. Prisc. Gram. L. VIII. p. 814, 838. Edit. Putsch.

have neither Perfectum, Plus quam-per-C. VII. fectum, or Perfect Future. There is likewise a species of Verbs called in Greek Epertua, in Latin Desiderativa, the Desideratives or Meditatives, which if they are not strictly Inceptives, yet both in Greek and Latin have a near affinity with them. Such are Toleunosia, Bellaturio, I bave a desire to make war; species, Esurio, I long to eat (i). And so much for the Inceptive Tenses.

THE two last orders of Tenses which remain, are those we called (k) THE MIDDLE
TENSES (which express Time as extended and

⁽i) As all Beginnings have reference to what is future, hence we see how properly these Verbs are formed, the Greek ones from a future Verb, the Latin from a future Participle. From πολεμήσω and βςώσω come πολεμησείω and βρωσείω; from Bellaturus and Esurus come Bellaturio and Esurio.

⁽k) Care must be taken not to confound these middle Tenses, with the Tenses of those Verbs, which bear the same name among Grammarians.

C. VII. and passing) and the Perfect or Com-PLETIVE, which express its Completion or End.

Now for these the Authorities are many. They have been acknowledged already in the ingenious Accidence of Mr. Hoadly, and explained and confirmed by Dr. Samuel Clarke, in his rational Edition of Homer's Iliad. Nay, long before either of these, we find the same Scheme in Scaliger, and by him (1) ascribed to Grocinus, as its Author. The learned Gaza (who

⁽¹⁾ Ex his percipimus Grocinum acutè admodum Tempora divisisse, sed minus commode. Tria enim constituit, ut nos, sed quæ bisariam secat, Persectum & Impersectum: sic, Præteritum impersectum, Amabam: Præteritum persecsum, Amaveram. Rectè sanè. Et Præsens impersecsum, Amo. Recte hactenus; continuat enim amorem, neque absolvit. At Præsens persectum, Amavi: quis hoc dicat?——De Futuro autem ut non malè sentit, ita controversum est. Futurum, inquit, impersecsum, Amabo: Persectum, Amavero. Non malè, inquam: significat enim Amavero, amorem suturum & absolutum iri: Amabo persectionem nullam indicat. De Caus. Ling. Lat. c. 113.

(who was himself a Greek, and one of the C. VII. ablest restorers of that language in the western world) characterizes the Tenfes in nearly the same manner (m). What Apollonius hints, is exactly confonant (n).

Priscian

⁽m) The PRESENT TENSE (as this Author informs us in his excellent Grammar) denotes ro insapers of aredis, that which is now instant and incomplete; THE PERFECTUM, το παρεληλυθός aeli, z isledis të iver utos, that which is now immediately past, and is the Completion of the Present; THE IMPERFECTUM, To wasalelauson no areales रह सवpuxnuing the extended and incomplete part of the Paft; and THE PLUSQUAM-PERFECTUM, το παρεληλυθος πάλαι, भे छी ελές το παρακειμένο, that which is past long ago, and is the completion of the præteritum. Gram. L. IV.

⁽³⁾ Εντεύθεν δε πειθόμεθα, ότι ε παρωχημένε συνώ τέλεσαν σημαίνει ο παρακείμενος, τήν γε μήν ένες ώσαν --- Hence wie are persuaded that the Persectum doth not signify the completion of the Past, but PRESENT COMPLETION. Apollon. L. III. c. 6. The Reason which persuaded him to this opinion, was the application and use of the Particle av, of which he was then treating, and which, as it denoted Potentiality or Contingence, would affort (he fays) with any of the passing, extended, and incomplete Tenses, but

C. VII. Priscian too advances the same Doctrine from the Stoics, whose authority we esteem greater than all the rest, not only from the more early age when they lived, but from their superior skill in Philosophy, and their peculiar attachment to Dialectic, which naturally led them to great accuracy in these Grammatical Speculations (0).

BEFORE

but never with this Perfectum, because this implied such a complete and indefeasible existence, as never to be qualified into the nature of a Contingent.

(0) By these Philosophers the vulgar Present Tense was called THE IMPERFECT PRESENT. and the vulgar Præteritum, THE PERFECT PRESENT, than which nothing can be more consonant to the fystem that we favour. But let us hear Priscian, from whom we learn these facts. PRÆSENS TEM-PUS proprie dicitur, cujus pars jam præteriit, pars futura est. Cum enim Tempus, sluvii more, instabili volvatur curfu, vix punctum habere potest in præsenti, boc est, in instanti. Maxima igitur pars ejus (sicut dictum est) vel præteriit vel futura est.---Unde STOICI jure HOC TEMPUS PRESENS etiam IMPER-PECTUM vocabant (ut distum est) eo quod prior ejus pars, que præteriit, transacta est, deest autem sequens, id est, futura. Ut si in medio versu dicam, scribo versum, priore ejus parte scripta, cui adbuc deest BEFORE we conclude, we shall add a C. VII. few miscellaneous observations, which will be more easily intelligible from the Hypothesis here advanced, and serve withal to confirm its truth.

And first the Latins used their Prateritum Persectum in some instances after a very peculiar manner, so as to imply the very reverse of the Verb in its natural signification. Thus, VIXIT, signified, is

K 2 DEAD;

deest extrema pars, præsenti utor verbo, dicendo, scribo versum: sed Imperfectum est, quod deest adbuc versui, quod scribatur — Ex eodem igitur Præsenti nascitur etiam Persectum. Si enim ad sinem perveniat inceptum, statim utimur præterito perfect. To; continuo enim, scripto ad sinem versu, dico, scripsi versum. — And soon after speaking of the Latin Persectum, he says, — sciendum tamen, quod Romani Præterito Perfecto non solum in remodo completâ utuntur, (in quo vim habet ejus qui apud Græcos παρακείμενος vocatur, quem Stoici Te-ΛΕΙΟΝ ΕΝΕΣΤΩΤΑ nominaverunt) sed etiam pro 'Αορίς accipitur, &c. Libe VIII. p. 812, 813, 814.

C. VII. DEAD; FUIT, fignified, NOW IS NOT, IS NO MORE. 'Twas in this fense that Cicero addressed the People of Rome, when he had put to death the leaders in the Catalinarian Conspiracy. He appeared in the Forum, and cried out with a loud voice, VIXERUNT. So Virgil,

FUIMUS Troes, FUIT Ilium & ingens
Gloria Dardanidum — Æn. II.

And again,

—Locus Ardea quondam

Dictus avis, & nunc magnum manet

Ardea nomen,

Sed fortuna FUIT — Æn. VII.

THE reason of these Significations is derived from THE COMPLETIVE POWER of the Tense here mentioned. We see that the periods of Nature, and of human affairs are maintained by the reciprocal succession of Contraries. "Tis thus with Tempest and Calm; with Day and Night; with

with Prosperity and Adversity; with Glory C. VII. and Ignominy; with Life and Death. Hence then, in the instances above, the completion of one contrary is put for the commencement of the other, and to say, HATH LIVED, or, HATH BEEN, has the same meaning with, IS DEAD, or, IS NO MORE.

It is remarkable in Virgil, that he frequently joins in the same Sentence this complete and perfect Present with the extended and passing Present; which proves that he considered the two, as belonging to the same Species of Time, and therefore naturally formed to co-incide with each other.

---Tibi jam brachia contrahit ardens Scorpios, & cali justa plus parte reliquit. G. I.

——Si bracbia forte remisit,

Atque illum in præceps prono rapit abseus
amni. Ibid.

K 3

Terra

C. VII.

Terra tremit; fugere fera — G. I.

Prasertim si tempestàs a vertice sylvis
Incubuit, glomeratque ferens incendia
ventus. G. II.

——Tardis ingens ubi flexibus errat

Mincius, & tenera prætexit arundine

ripas. G. III.

——illa noto citius, volucrique sagittâ,

Ad terram fugit, & portu se condidit
alto.

Æn. V.

In the same manner he joins the same two modifications of *Time in the Past*, that is to say, the *complete* and *perfect* Past with the *extended* and *passing*.

Inruerant Danai, & tectum omne tenebant. Æn. II.

Tris imbris torti radios, tris nubis aquosæ Addiderant, rutuli tris ignis, & alitis austri.

Fulgores nunc terrificos, sonitumque metumque

Miscebant

Miscebant operi, flammisque sequacibus C. VII. iras (p). Æn. VIII.

As to the Imperfectum, it is sometimes employed to denote what is usual and

For thee the Scorpion IS NOW CONTRACTING his claws, and HATH ALREADY LEFT thee more than a just portion of Heaven. The Poet, from a high strain of poetic adulation, supposes the Scorpion so desirous of admitting Augustus among the heavenly signs, that though he has already made him more than room enough, yet he still continues to be making him more. Here then we have two Acts, one perfect, the other pending, and hence the Use of the two different Tenses. Some editions read reliquit; but reliquit has the authority of the celebrated Medicean manuscript.

The ship, quicker than the wind, or a swift arrow, CONTINUES FLYING to land, and IS HID within the losty harbour. We may suppose this Harbour, (like many others) to have been surrounded with high K A Land.

⁽p) The Intention of Virgil may be better seen, in rendering one or two of the above passages into English.

⁻⁻Tibi jam brachia contrahit ardens Scorpios, & cæli justa plus parte reliquit.

C. VII. and customary. Thus surgebat and scribebat, signify not only, be was rising, be
was writing, but upon occasion they signify, be used to rise, be used to write.
The reason of this is, that whatever is
customary, must be something which has
been frequently repeated. But what has
been frequently repeated, must needs require an Extension of Time past, and thus
we fall insensibly into the Tense here
mentioned.

AGEN, we are told by Pliny (whose authority likewise is confirmed by many Gems and Marbles still extant) that the ancient

Land, Hence the Vessel, immediately on entering it, was completely hid from those Spectators, who had gone out to see the Ship-race, but yet might still continue sailing towards the shoar within.

⁻⁻⁻ Inruerant Danai, & testum omne tenebant.

The Greeks had entered, and were then possessing the whole House; as much as to say, they had entered, and that was over, but their Possession continued still.

ancient Painters and Sculptors, when they C. VII. fixed their names to their works, did it pendenti titulo, in a suspensive kind of Inscription, and employed for that purpose the Tense here mentioned. "Twas 'Anex
\[\tilde{\pi} \] \[\int \tilde{\pi} \] \[\tild

It is remarkable that the very manner, in which the *Latins* derive these Tenses from

⁽q) Plin. Nat. Hift. L. I. The first Printers (who were most of them Scholars and Critics) in imitation of the antient Artists used the same Tense. Excudebat H. Stephanus. Excudebat Guil. Morelius, Absolvebat Joan. Benenatus, which has been followed by Dr. Taylor in his late valuable edition of Demostrance.

C. VII. from one another, shews a plain reference to the System here advanced. From the passing Present come the passing Past, and Future. Scribo, Scribebam, Scribam. From the perfect Present come the perfect Past, and Future. Scrips, Scripseram, Scripsero. And so in all instances, even where the Verbs are irregular, as from Fero come Ferebam and Feram; from Tuli come Tuleram and Tulero.

WE shall conclude by observing, that the Order of the Tenses, as they stand ranged by the old Grammarians, is not a fortuitous Order, but is consonant to our Perceptions, in the recognition of Time, according to what we have explained already (r). Hence it is, that the Present Tense

⁽r) See before p. 109, 110, 111, 112, 113. Scaliger's observation upon this occasion is elegant. — Ordo autem (Temporum scil.) aliter est, quam natura eorum. Quod enim præteriit, prius est, quam quod est, itaque primo loco debere poni videbatur. Verùm, quod primo quoque tempore offertur nobis, id creat primas species

BOOK THE FIRST.

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Tense stands first; then the Past Tenses; C. VII. and lastly the Future.

And now, having seen what authorities there are for Aorists, or those Tenses, which denote Time indefinitely; and what for those Tenses, opposed to Aorists, which mark it definitely, (such as the Inceptive, the Middle, and the Completive) we here finish the subject of Time and Tenses, and proceed to consider the Verb in other Attributes, which 'twill be necessary to deduce from other Principles.

CHAP.

species in animo: quamobrem Prasens Tempus primum locum occupavit; est enim commune omnibus animalibus. Prateritum autem iis tantum, qua memorid pradita sunt. Futuram verò etiam paucioribus, quippe quibus datum est prudentia officium. De Caus. Ling. Lat. 6, 113.

CHAP. VIII.

Concerning Modes.

II. WE have observed already (a) that the Soul's leading Powers are those of Perception and those of Volition, which words we have taken in their most comprehensive acceptation. We have observed also, that all Speech or Discourse is a publishing or exhibiting some part of our Soul, either a certain Perception, or a certain Volition. Hence then, according as we exhibit it either in a different part, or after a different manner, hence I say the variety of Modes or Moods (b).

IF

⁽a) See Chapter II.

⁽b) Gaza defines a Mode exactly consonant to this doctrine. He says it is— εκλημα, είτ εν πά-θημα ψυχης, δια Φωνης σημαι: όμενον — a Volition or Affection of the Soul, signified through some Voice, or Sound

IF we simply declare or indicate some-C.VIII. thing to be or not to be (whether a Per-ception or Volition, 'tis equally the same) this constitutes that Mode, called the DE-CLARATIVE or INDICATIVE.

A Perception.

— Nosco crinis, incanaque menta Regis Romani — Virg. Æn. VI.

A Volition.

In nova PBRT ANIMUS mutatas dicere formas

Corpora ---

Ovid. Metam. I.

IF we do not strictly affert, as of something absolute and certain, but as of something

Saund articulate. Gram. L. IV. As therefore this is the nature of Modes, and Modes belong to Verbs, hence 'tis Apollonius observes — τοῖς ρήμασιν ἐξαιρέτως παραπειται ἡ ψυχική διάθεσις—the Soul's Diffosition is in an eminent degree attached to Verbs. De Synt. L. III. C. 13. Thus too Priscian. Medi funt diversa inclinationes Animi, quas varia consequimar peclinatio Verbs. L. VIII. p. 821.

C.VIII.thing possible only, and in the number of Contingents, this makes that Mode, which Grammarians call the POTENTIAL; and which becomes on such occasions the leading Mode of the Sentence.

Sed tacitus pasci si posset Corvus, HA-BERET

Plus dapis, &c.

Hor.

YET fometimes 'tis not the leading Mode, but only fubjoined to the Indicative. In such case, it is mostly used to express the End, or final Cause; which End, as in human Life it is always a Contingent, and may never perhaps happen in despite of all our Foresight, is therefore express most naturally by the Mode here mentioned. For example,

Ut JUGULENT bomines, surgunt de nocle latrones. Hor.

Thieves rife by night, that they may cut mens throats.

HERE

HERE that they rife, is positively asserted C.VIII. in the Declarative or Indicative Mode; but as to their cutting mens throats, this is only delivered potentially, because how truly soever it may be the End of their rising, it is still but a Contingent, that may never perhaps happen. This Mode, as often as it is in this manner subjoined, is called by Grammarians not the Potential, but THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

But it so happens, in the Constitution of human affairs, that it is not always sufficient merely to declare ourselves to others. We find it often expedient, from a consciousness of our Inability, to address them after a manner more interesting to ourselves, whether to have some Perception informed, or some Volition gratisted. Hence then new Modes of speaking; if we interrogate, 'tis the Interrogate at the Requisitive. Even the

C.VIII. the Requisitive itself hath its subordinate Species. With respect to inferiors, 'tis an IMPERATIVE MODE; with respect to equals and superiors, 'tis a PRECATIVE or OPTATIVE.

And thus have we established a variety of Modes; the Indicative of Declarative, to assert what we think certain; the Potential, for the Purposes of whatever we think Contingent; the Interrogative, when we are doubtful, to procure us Information; and the Requisitive, to assist us in the gratification of our Volitions. The Requisitive too appears under two distinct Species, either as 'tis Imperative to inferiors, or Pregative to supperiors (c).

As

⁽c) The Species of Modes in great measure depend on the Species of Sentences. The Stoics increased the number of Sentences far beyond the Peripatetics. Besides those mentioned in Chapter II. Note (b) they had many more, as may be seen in

As therefore all these several Modes C.VIII. have their foundation in nature, so have certain

in Ammenias de Interpret. p. 4. and Diogenes Laertius, L. VII. 66. The Peripatetics (and it feems too with reason) considered all these additional Sentences as included within those, which they themfelves acknowleged, and which they made to be five in number, the Vocative, the Imperative, the Interrogative, the Precative, and the Affertive. There is no mention of a Potential Sentence, which may be supposed to co-incide with the Assertive, or Indicative. The Vocative (which the Peripatetics called the 1805 KANTINOV, but the Stoics more properly προεαγορευτομον) was nothing more than the Form of Address in point of names, titles, and epithets, with which we apply ourselves one to another. As therefore it seldom included any Verb within it, it could hardly contribute to form a verbal Mode. Ammonius and Boethius, the one a Greek Peripatetic, the other a Latin, have illustrated the Species of Sentences from Homer and Virgil, after the following manner.

×Ì

C.VIII.certain marks or figns of them been introduced into Languages, that we may be enabled

κ) τε 'ΕΡΩΤΗΜΑΤΙΚΟΤ', ως το',

Τίς, πόθεν εἴς ἀνδρῶν;

κ) τε ΈΤΚΤΙΚΟΤ', ως το',

"Αι γὰρ Ζεῦ τε πάτερ

κ) ἐπὶ τάτοις, τε 'ΑΠΟΦΑΝΤΙΚΟΤ', καθ' ον ἀποΦαινόμεθα περὶ ὁτουῦν τῶν πραγμάτων, οἶων

Θεοὶ δὲ τε πάντα ἴσασιν

ἐ περὶ παντος, &cc. Εἰς το περὶ Έρμ. p. 4.

Beethius's Account is as follows. Perfectarum vere Orationum partes quinque funt: DEPRECATIVA, ut,

Jupiter omnipotens, precibus si stetteris ullis, Da deinde auxilium, Pater, esque bas emina sirma.

IMPERATIVA, ut,

Vade age, Nate, veca Zepbyres, & labere pennis.

Interrogativa, ut,

Dic mihi, Damasa, cujum pecus? —— Vocativa, ut,

O! Pater, O! hominum rerumque æterna potestas. Enuntiativa, in quâ Veritas vel Falsitas invenitur, ut.

Principio arboribus varia est natura creandis.

Boeth. in Lib. de Interp. p. 291In

enabled by our discourse to signify them, C.VIII. one to another. And hence those various Modes or Modes, of which we find in common Grammars so prolix a detail, and which are in fact no more than "so many literal Forms, intended to express these natural Distinctions" (d).

ALL

In Milion the same Sentences may be found, as follows. The PRECATIVE,

—Universal Lord! be bounteous still
To give us nought but Good ———

THE IMPERATIVE,

Go then, Then mightieft, in thy Father's might.

THE INTERROGATIVE,

Whence, and what art that, execrable Shape?
THE VOCATIVE.

— Adam, earth's ballow'd Mold, Of God inspir'd —

THE Assertive on Enuntiative,

The conquer'd also and enslav'd by war Shall, with their freedom lost, all virtue lost.

(d) The Greek Language, which is of all the most elegant and complete, expresses these several Modes, L a and

C.VIII. All these Modes have this in common, that they exhibit some way or other

> and all diffinctions of Time likewife, by an adequate number of Variations in each particular Verb. These Variations may be found, some at the beginning of the Verb, others at its ending, and confift for the most part either in multiplying or diminishing the number of Syllables, or else in lengthening or shortening their respective Quantities, which two methods are called by Grammarians the Syllabic and the Temporal. The Latin, which is but a Species of Greek somewhat debased, admits in like manner a large portion of those Variations, which are chiefly to be found at the Ending of its Verbs, and but rarely at their Beginning. Yet in its Deponents and Paffives 'tis so far defective, as to be forced to have recourse to the Auxiliar, sum. The modern Languages, which have still fewer of those Variations, have been necessitated all of them to assume two Auxiliars at least, that is to say, those which express in each Language the Verbs, Have, and Am. As to the English Tongue, it is so poor in this respect, as to admit no Variation for Modes, and only one for Time, which we apply to express an Aorist of the Past. Thus from Write cometh Wrote; from Give, Gave; from Speak, Spake, &cc. Hence to express Time, and Modes, we are comgelled to employ no less than seven Auxiliars, viz. Do, Am, Have, Shall, Will, May and Can; which we use sometimes singly, as when we say, I am writing.

the Soul and its Affections. Their C.VIII. Peculiarities and Distinctions are in part, as follows.

THE REQUISITIVE and INTERROGA-TIVE MODE are distinguished from the Indicative and Potential, that whereas these last seldom call for a Response or Return, the two others at all times necessarily demand one.

THE Return to the Requisitive Mode is fometimes made in Words, and fometimes in Deeds. When Homer for example invoked his Muse——

'Ardpa' µoi invers µisa ——
Tell me, O Muse, the Man ——
L 3 the

writing, I bave written; sometimes two together, 28, I have been writing, I should have written; sometimes no less than three, as I might have been lost, he could have been preserved. But these Peculiarities are perhaps foreign to our Design, which is rather to inquire concerning Grammar Universal.

C.VIII. the Return, suitable to this Request, could be a Return only of Words, to wit, the informing him, by virtue of her divine Knowledge, in the History of Ulysses, whom he was about to celebrate. But when the unfortunate Chief, in beggary and blindness, was compelled to cry—date obolum Belisario—not Words alone were a suitable Return here, but rather some kind and charitable Ast.

This is true of the Requisitive Mode; but with respect to the Interregative, the Return is never made in any thing but in Words, that is to say, it necessarily calls for some definitive assertive Sentence. For example — Let the Interrogation be — Whose Verses are these? — the Return is a Sentence — These are Verses of Homer. How many Books constitute the Eneid? — Twelve Books constitute the Eneid. Was Brutus a brave and worthy Man?—Brutus was a brave and worthy Man. And hence the

the near affinity of this Interrogative Mode C.VIII. with the Indicative, in which last its Response or Return is mostly made. So near indeed is this Affinity, that in these two Modes alone the Verb retains the same Form (e), nor are they otherwise distinguished, than either by the Addition or Absence of some small Particle, or by some minute change in the collocation of the Words, or sometimes only by a change in the Tone, or Accent (f).

But

⁽e) Hy is προκειμένη όρις ική έγκλισις, τη έγκειμένην κατάφασιν ἀποδάλλυσα, μεθίς αται τε καλεϊσθαι όρις ική — ἀναπληρωθείσα δε της καταφάσεως,
υπος ρέφει είς το είναι όρις ική. The Indicative Mode,
of which we speak, by laying aside that Assertion, which
by its nature it implies, quits the name of Indicative—
when it reassumes the Assertion, it returns agen to its
proper Charatter. Apoll. de Synt. L. III. c. 21.
Theodore Gara says the same, Introd. Gram. L. IV.

⁽f) It may be observed of the INTERROGATIVE, that as often as the Interrogation is simple and definite, the Response may be made in almost the L 4

C.VIII. But to return to our comparison between the Interrogative Mode and the Requisitive.

THE

fame Words, by converting them into a fentence affirmative or negative, according as the Truth is either one or the other. For example—Are these Verses of Homer?—Response—These Verses are of Homer. Are those Verses of Virgil?—Response—Those are not Verses of Virgil. And here the Artists of Language, for the sake of brevity and dispatch, have provided two Particles, to represent all such Responses, Yes, for all the affirmative; No, for all the negative.

But when the Interrogation is complex, as when we fay—Are these Verses of Homer, or of Virgil?—much more, when it is indefinite, as when we say in general—Whose are these Verses?—we cannot then respond after the manner above-mentioned. The Reason is, that no Interrogation can be answered by a simple Yes, or a simple No, except only those, which are themselves so simple, as of two possible Answers to admit only one. Now the least complex Interrogation will admit of sour Answers, two affirmative, two negative, if not perhaps of more. The reason is, a complex Interrogation cannot consist of less than two simple ones; each of which may be

THE INTERROGATIVE (in the language C.VIII. of Grammarians) has all Persons of both

Numbers.

be separately affirmed and separately denied. For instance—Are these Verses Homer's, or Virgil's? (1.) They are Homer's-(2.) They are not Homer's-(2.) They are Virgil's-(A.) They are not Virgil's-we may add, (5.) They are of neither. The indefinite Interrogations go still farther; for these may be answered by infinite affirmatives, and infinite negatives. stance - Whose are these Verses? We may answer affirmatively-They are Virgil's, They are Horace's, They are Ovid's, &c .- or negatively-They are not Virgil's, They are not Horace's, They are not Ovid's, and so on, either way to infinity. How then should we learn from a fingle Yes, or a fingle No, which particular is meant among infinite Possibles? These therefore are Interrogations which must be always answered by a Sentence. Yet even here Custom hath confulted for Brevity, by returning for Answer only the single essential characteristic Word, and retrenching by an Ellipsis all the rest, which rest the Interrogator is left to supply from himself. Thus when we are asked—How many right angles equal the angles of a triangle?—we answer in the short monofyllable, Two - whereas, without the Ellipsis, the answer would have been - Two right angles equal the angles of a triangle.

The

C.VIII. Numbers. The REQUISITIVE or IMPERATIVE has no first Person of the singular, and that from this plain reason, that 'tis equally absurd in Modes for a person to request or give commands to bimself, as it is in Pronouns, for the speaker to become the subject of his own address.*

AGEN, we may interrogate as to all Times, both Present, Past, and Future. Who was Founder of Rome? Who is King of China? Who will discover the Longitude? —— But Intreating and Commanding (which are the Essence of the Requisitive Mode) have a necessary respect

to

The Antients distinguished these two Species of Interrogation by different names. The simple they called 'Ερώτημα, Interrogatio; the complex, πύσμα, Percontatio. Ammonius calls the first of these 'Ερώτησις διαλικτική; the other, 'Ερώτησις πυσματική, See Am. in Lib. de Interpr. p. 160. Diog. Lasri. VII. 66. Quintil. Inst. 1X. 2.

^{*} Sup. p. 74, 75.

to the Future (g) only. For indeed what C.VIII. have they to do with the present or the past,

(g) Apollonius's Account of the Future, implied in all Imperatives, is worth observing. Επί γαρ μά γικομένοις ή μή γεγουόσιν ή ΠΡΟΣΤΑΞΙΣ. के वह एमें प्राथमध्य में भूमे प्रश्निक्त, हं मानमेशार्गमाय के Prome sie vo Esselas, MEAAONTO Eier. A COMMAND has respect to those things which either are not doing, or have not yet been done. But those things, which being not now doing, or having not yet been done, beve a natural aptitude to exist bereafter. may be properly said to appertain to THE FUTURE. De Syntaki, L. I. c. 36. Soon before this he fays - Απαστα τα προς ακτικά έλεειμένην έχει την τε μέλλοι Τος διάθεσιν - χεδον γαρ έν ἴσφ ές τος 'Ο ΤΤΡΑΝΝΟΚΤΟΝΗΣΑΣ ΤΙΜΑΣΘΩ, τω, ΤΙΜΗΘΗΣΕΤΑΙ, καλά την χρόνε έννοιαν τη έκκλίσει διηλλαχός, καθό το μέν προς ακζικόν, το di opistion. All IMPERATIVES bave a disposition within them, which respects THE FUTUREwith regard therefore to TIME, 'tis the same thing to fay. LET HIM, THAT KILLS A TYRANT. BE HONOURED, or, HE, THAT KILLS ONE, SHALL BE HONOURED; the difference being only in the Mede, in as much as one is IMPERATIVE, the other Indicative or Declarative. Apoll. de Syntaxi, L. I. c. 35. Priscian seems to allow Imperatives a share of Present Time, as well as Future. But

C.VIII past, the natures of which are immutable and necessary?

Tis.

But if we attend, we shall find his Present to be nothing else than an immediate Future, as opposed to a more distant one. Imperativus vero Prasens & Futurum [Tempus] naturali quadam necessitate videtur posse accipere. Ea etenim imperamus, qua vel in prasenti statim volumus sieri sine aliqua dilatione, vel in sutura. Lib. VIII. p. 806.

'Tis true the Greeks in their Imperatives admit certain Tenses of the Past, such as those of the Persectum, and of the two Aorists. But then these Tenses, when so applied, either totally lose their temporary Character, or else are used to infinuate such a Speed of execution, that the deed should be (as it were) done, in the very instant when commanded. The same difference seems to subsist between our English Imperative, Br gone, and those others of, Go, or, Br going. The first (if we please) may be stiled the Imperative of the Persectum, as calling in the very instant for the completion of our Commands; the others may be stiled Imperatives of the Future, as allowing a reasonable time to begin first, and finish afterward.

'Tis thus Apollonius, in the Chapter first cited, distinguishes between σκαπθέτω τὰς ἀμπέλυς, Go to digging the Vines, and σκαψάτω τὰς ἀμπέλυς, Get the Vines dug. The first is spoken (as he calls it)

EiS

'Tis from this connection of Futurity C.VIII. with Commands, that the Future Indicative is sometimes used for the Imperative, and that to say to any one, You shall do this, has often the same Force with the Imperative, Do this. So in the Decalogue—Thou shalt not kill—Thou shalt not bear false witness—which

eig maparaous, by way of Extension, or allowance of Time for the work; the second, eig overtelesson. with a view to immediate Completion. And in another place, explaining the difference between the fame Tenses, Σκάπ]ε and Σκάψου, he says of the laft, ε μόνον τὸ μη γενίμενον προσάσσει, άλλα κ το γινόμενου έν παρατάσει απαγορεύει, that it not only commands fomething, which has not been yet done, but forbids also that, which is now doing in an Extension, that is to fay, in a flow and lengthened progress. Hence, if a man has been a long while writing, and we are willing to hasten him, 'twould be wrong to say in Greek, TPA' DE, WRITE (for that he is now, and has been long doing) but FPA'YON, GET YOUR WRITING DONE; MAKE NO DELAYS. Apoll. L. III. c. 24.

G.VIII. which denote (we know) the strictest and most authoritative Commands.

As to the POTENTIAL Mode, it is distinguished from all the rest, by its subordinate or subjunctive Nature. It is also farther distinguished from the Requisitive and Interrogative, by implying a kind of feeble and weak Affertion, and so becoming in some degree susceptible of Truth and Falshood. Thus, if it be said potentially, This may be, or, This might have been, we may remark without abfurdity, 'Tis true, or 'Tis false. But if it be said, Do this, meaning, Ply to Heaven, or, Can this be done? meaning, to fquare the Circle, we cannot say in either case, 'tis true or 'tis false, though the Command and the . Question are about things impossible. Yet still the Potential does not aspire to the Indicative, because it implys but a dubious and conjectural Affertion, whereas that of the Indicative 4

Indicative is absolute, and without re-C.VIII.

This therefore (the Indicative I mean) is the Mode, which as in all Grammars 'tis the first in order, so is it truly first both in Dignity and Use. "Tis this, which publishes our sublimest Perceptions: which exhibits the Soul in her pureft Energies, superior to the Impersection of Defires and Wants; which includes the whole of Time, and its minutest Distinctions; which, in its various Past Tenses, is employed by History, to preserve to us the Remembrance of former Events: in its Futures is used by Prophesy, or (in default of this) by wife Forefight, to instruct and forewarn us, as to that which is coming; but above all in its Present Tense ferves Philosophy and the Sciences, by just Demonstrations to establish necessary Fruth; THAT TRUTH, which from its nature

C.VIII.nature only exists in the Present; which knows no distinctions either of Past or of Future, but is every where and always invariably one (b).

THROUGH

(h) See the quotation, Note (e), Chapter the Sixth. Cum enim dicimus, Deus est, non eum dicimus nunc esse, sed, &cc.

Boethius, author of the sentiment there quoted, was by birth a Roman of the sirst quality; by religion, a Christian; and by philosophy, a Platonic and Peripatetic; which two Sects, as they sprang from the same Source, were in the latter ages of antiquity commonly adopted by the same Persons, such as Themissius, Porphyry, lamblichus, Ammonius, and others. There were no Sects of Philosophy, that lay greater Stress on the distinction between things existing in Time and not in Time, than the two above-mentioned. The Doctrine of the Peripatetics on this Subject (since 'tis these that Boethius here follows) may be partly understood from the following Sketch.

"THE THINGS, THAT EXIST IN TIME, are those whose Existence Time can measure. But if their Existence may be measured by Time, then there may be assumed a Time greater than the Existence of any one of them, as there may be assumed a number greater than the greatest multitude,

THROUGH all the above Modes, with C.VIII. their respective Tenses, the Verb being considered

"" multitude, that is capable of being numbred. And hence 'tis that things temporary have their 'Existence, as it were limited by Time; that they are confined within it, as within some bound; and that in some degree or other they all submit to its power, according to those common Phrases, that Time is a destroyer; that things decay thro' Time; that men forget in Time, and lose their abilities, and seldom that they improve, or grow young, or beautiful. The truth indeed is, Time always attends Motion. Now the natural effect of Motion is to put something, which now is, out of that state, in which it now is, and so far therefore to destroy that State.

"The reverse of all this holds with THINGS "THAT EXIST ETERNALLY. These exist not in "Time, because Time is so far from being able to "measure their Existence, that no Time can be "assumed, which their Existence doth not surpass." To which we may add, that they feel none of its effects, being no way obnoxious either to damage or dissolution.

"To instance in examples of either kind of Being. There are such things at this instant, as

M ** Stonhenge

C.VIII.confidered as denoting an ATTRIBUTE,

has always reference to some Person, or
SUBSTANCE. Thus if we say, Went, or,
Go, or Whither goeth, or, Might have gone,
we must add a Person or Substance, to
make the Sentence complete. Cicero went;
Cæsar might have gone; whither goeth the
Wind? Go! Thou Traitor! But there is
a Mode or Form, under which Verbs
sometimes appear, where they have no reference at all to Persons or Substances.
For example — To eat is pleasant; but to
fast

[&]quot;Stonhenge and the Pyramids. 'Tis likewise true at this instant, that the Diameter of the Square is incommensurable with its side. What then shall we say? Was there ever a Time, when it was not incommensurable, as 'tis certain there was a 'Time, when there was no Stonhenge, or Pyramids? or is it dayly growing less incommensurable, as we are assured of Decays in both those massie 'Structures?' From these unchangeable Truths, we may pass to their Place, or Region; to the unceasing Intellection of the universal Mind, ever perfect, ever full, knowing no remissions, languors, &c. See Nat. Ausc. L. IV. c. 19. Metaph. L. XIV. c. 6, 7, 8, 9, 10. Edit. Du Val. and Vol. Ist. p. 262. Note VII.

fast is wholesome. Here the Verbs, To eat, C.VIII. and, To fast, stand alone by themselves, nor is it requisite or even practicable to presix a Person or Substance. Hence the Latin and modern Grammarians have called Verbs under this Mode, from this their indefinite nature, INFINITIVES.

Sanctius has given them the name of Impersonals; and the Greeks that of Anapiu-quara, from the same reason of their not discovering either Person or Number.

THESE INFINITIVES go farther. They not only lay afide the character of Attributives, but they also assume that of Substantives, and as such themselves become distinguished with their several Attributes. Thus in the instance above, Pleasant is the Attribute, attending the Infinitive, To Eat; Wholesome the attribute attending the Infinitive, To Fast. Examples in Greek and Latin of like kind are innumerable.

Dulce & decorum est pro patria MORI.

Scire tuum nibil est —

M 2 'Ou

HERMES.

C.VIII. 'Ου κατθανών γάρ δωνον, άλλ' άιχρως θ

164

THE Stoics in their grammatical inquiries had this Infinitive in such esteem, that they

(i) 'Tis from the Infinitive thus participating the nature of a Noun or Substantive, that the best Grammarians have called it sometimes 'Ονομα ρήματικόν, A VERBAL NOUN; sometimes 'Ονομα ρήματος, THE VERB'S NOUN. The Reason of this Appellation is in Greek more evident, from its taking the prepositive Article before it in all cases; τὸ γράφειν, τῷ γράφειν. The same construction is not unknown in English. Thus Spencer,

For not to have been dipt in Lethe lake
Could fave the Son of Thetis FROM to DIE-

απο τῦ θανεῦ. In like manner we say, He did tī, to be rich, where we must supply by an Estipsis the Preposition, For. He did it, for to be rich, the same as if we had said, He did it for gain—

ενεκα τῶ πλυτεῦ, ενεκα τῶ κέρδυς— in French, pour senricher. Even when we speak such Sentences, as the following, I choose το Philosophize, rether than το be rich, τὸ Φιλοσοφεῦν δύλομαι, πάνο τὸ πλυτεῦν, the Infinitives are in nature as much Accusatives, as if we were to say, I choose Philosophy

they held this alone to be the genuine C.VIII. PHMA or VERB, a name, which they denied to all the other Modes. Their reafoning was, they considered the true verbal character to be contained fimple and unmixed in the Infinitive only. Thus the Infinitives, Theoretical, Ambulare, To walk, mean fimply that Energy, and nothing more. The other Modes, besides expressing this Energy, superadd certain Affections, which respect Persons and Circumstances. Thus Ambulo and Ambula mean not simply To walk, but mean, I walk, and, Walk Thau.

M₃ And

SOPHY rether than RICHES, την Φιλοσοφίαν δέλομαι, ήπερ τον πλύτου. Thus too Priscian, speaking of Infinitives — Currer enim est Cursus; & Scribere, Scriptura; & Legere, Lectio. Itaque frequenter & Nominibus adjunguntur, & aliis casualibus, more Nominum; ut Persius,

Sed pulcrum oft digito monstrari, & dicier, hic est.

And soon after—Cum enim dico, Bonum est legere, nibil aliud significo, nisi, Bona est lectio. Lib. XVIII. p. 1130. See also Apoll. L. I. c. 8. Gaza Gram. L. IV. Τὸ δὲ ἀπαρέμφαθου, δνομά ἐςτι βήμαθος κ. τ. λ.

into the Infinitive, as their Prototype, together with some Sentence or Word, expressive of their proper Character. Ambulo, I walk; that is, Indico me ambulare, I declare myself to walk. Ambula, Walk Thou; that is, Impero te ambulare, I command thee to walk; and so with the Modes of every other species. Take away therefore the Assertion, the Command, or whatever else gives a Character to any one of these Modes, and there remains nothing more than the mere Infinitive, which (as Priscian says) significat insame, quam continet Verbum (k).

THÈ

⁽k) See Apollon. L. III 13. Καθόλη πῶν πὰς ηγμίνου ἀπό τινος κ. τ. λ. See also Gàza, in the note before. Igitur a Constructione quoque Vim rei Verborum (id est, Nominis, quod significat ipsam rem) habere Infinitivum possumus dignoscere; res autem in Personas distributa facit alios verbi motus.— Itaque omnes modi in bunc, id est, Infinitivum, transumuntur sive resolvuntur. Prisc. L. XVIII. p. 1131. From these Principles Apollonius calls the Infinitive Υρίμα γενικώτατον, and Priscian, Verbum generale.

THE Application of this Infinitive is C.VIII. somewhat singular. It naturally coalesces with all those Verbs, that denote any Tendence, Defire, or Volition of the Soul, but not readily with others. Thus 'tis Sense as well as Syntax, to say Guzomai Chy, Cupio vivere, I desire to live; but not to say 'Eodio (nr., Edo vivere, or even in Englife, I eat to live, unless by an Ellipsis, instead of, I eat for to live; as we say man to Kny, or pour vivre. The Reafon is, that though different Actions may unite in the fame Subject, and therefore be coupled together (as when we say, He walked and discoursed) yet the Actions notwithstanding remain separate and distinct. But 'tis not so with respect to Volitions, and Actions. Here the Coalescence is often so intimate, that the Volition is un-intelligible, till the Action be exprest. Cupio, Volo, Desidero - I defire, I am willing, I want - What? -The M 4

C.VIII. The sentences, we see, are desective and impersect. We must help them then by Infinitives, which express the proper Actions to which they tend. Cupio legere, Volo discere, Desidero videre, I desire to read, I am willing to live, I want to see. Thus is the whole rendered complete, as well in Sentiment, as in Syntax (1).

And so much for Modes, and their several Species. Were we to attempt to denominate them according to their most eminent Characters, it may be done in the following manner. As every necessary Truth, and every demonstrative Syllogism (which last is no more than a Combination of such Truths) must always be express under positive Assertions, and as positive

⁽¹⁾ Priscian calls these Verbs, which naturally precede Infinitives, Verba Voluntativa; they are called in Greek Προαιρετικά. See L. XVIII. 1129. but more particularly see Apollonius, L. III. c. 13. where this whole doctrine is explained with great Accuracy.

fitive Affertions only belong to the Indi-C.VIII. cative, we may denominate it for that reafon the Mode of Science (m). Agen, as the Potential is only conversant about Contingents, of which we cannot say with certainty that they will happen or not, we may call this Mode, The Mode of Conjecture. Agen, as those that are ignorant and would be informed, must ask of those that already know, this being the natural way of becoming Proficients; hence we may call the Interrogative, The Mode of Proficiency.

Inter cuncta leges, & PERCONTABERE doctos,

Qua ratione queas traducere leniter ævum, Quid pure tranquillet, &c. Hor.

Farther still, as the highest and most excellent use of the Requisitive Mode is legislative

⁽m) Ob nobilitatem præivit Indicativus, solus Modus aptus Scientiis, solus Pater Veritatis. Scal. de Caus. L. Lat. c. 116.

C.VIII gillative Command, we may stile it for this reason the Mode of Legislature. Ad Divos adeunto caste, says Gicero in the character of a Roman lawgiver; Be it therefore enacted, say the Laws of England; and in the same Mode speak the Laws of every other nation. "Tis also in this Mode that the Geometrician, with the authority of a Legislator, orders lines to be bisected, and circles described, as preparatives to that Science, which he is about to establish.

There are other supposed Affections of Verbs, such as Number and Person. But these surely cannot be called a part of their Essence, nor indeed are they the Essence of any other Attribute, being in sact the Properties, not of Attributes, but of Substances. The most that can be said, is, that Verbs in the more elegant Languages are provided with certain Terminations, which respect the Number and Person of every Substantive, that we may know

know with more precision, in a complex CVIII.

Sentence, each particular Substance, with its attendant verbal Attributes. The same may be said of Sea, with respect to Adjectives. They have Terminations which vary, as they respect Beings male or ferminate, the Substances past dispute are alone sufficientible of sex (n). We therefore pass

(n) 'Tis formewhat extraordinary, that so acute and rational a Grammarian as Sanctius, should justly deny Genders, or the distinction of Sex to Adjectives, and yet make Persons appertain, not to Substantives, but to Verbs. His commentator Perizonius is much more confistent, who says --- At vero si rem recte consideres, ipsis Nominibus & Pronominibus vel maxime, immo unice inest ipsa Persona; & Verba se habent in Personarum ratione ad Nomina plane ficuti Adjectiva in ratione Generum ad Substantiva, quibus solis autor (Sanctius scil. L. I. c. 7.) & rette Genus adscribit, exclusis Adjettivis. Sanct. Minerv. L. I. c. 12. There is indeed an exact Analogy between the Accidents of Sex and Person. There are but two Sexes, that is to fay, the Male and the Female; and but two Persons (or Characters essential to discourse) that is to say, the Speaker, and the Party addrest. The third Sex and third Person are improperly so called, being in fact but Negations of the other two.

as being rather among the Elegancies, than the Essentials of Language, which Essentials are the Subject of our present Inquiry. The principal of these now remaining is THE DIFFERENCE OF VERBS, AS TO THEIR SEVERAL SPECIES, which we endeavour to explain in the following manner.

CHAP.

CHAP. IX.

Concerning the Species of Verbs, and their other remaining Properties.

A LL Verbs, that are strictly so called, C. IX. denote (a) Energies. Now as all Energies are Attributes, they have reference of course to certain energizing Substances. Thus 'tis impossible there should be such Energies, as To love, to sty, to wound, &c. if there were not such Beings as Men, Birds, Swords, &c. Farther, every Energy doth not only require an Energizer, but is necessarily conversant about some Subject. For example, if we say, Brutus loves—we must needs supply—loves Cato, Cassus,

⁽a) We use this word ENERGY, rather than Motion, from its more comprehensive meaning; it being a fort of Genus, which includes within it both Motion and its Privation. See before, p. 94, 95.

C. IX. Cassius, Portia, or some one. The Sword wounds - i. c. wounds Hettor, Sarpedon, Priam, or some one. And thus is it, that every Energy is necessarily situate between two Substantives, an Energizer which is active, and a Subject which is passive. Hence then, if the Energizer lead the Sentence, the Energy follows its Character, and becomes what we call A VERB ACTIVE. — Thus we fay Brutus amat, Brutus loves. On the contrary, if the pasfive Subject be principal, it follows the Character of this too, and then becomes what we call A VERB PASSIVE. - Thus we fay, Portia amatur, Portia is loved. "Tis in like manner that the fame Road between the Summit and Foot of the same Mountain, with respect to the Summit is Afcent, with respect to the Foot is Descent. Since then every Energy respects an Ener-- gizor or a passive Subject; hence the reafor why every Verb, whether active or pasfive, has in Language a necessary, Re-· ference

ference to some Noun for its Nominative C. IX. Case (b).

has been already observed. Brutus loved Portia. — Here Brutus is the Energizer; loved, the Energy, and Portia, the Subject. But it might have been, Brutus loved Cato, or Cassius, or the Roman Republic; for the Energy is referable to Subjects infinite. Now among these infinite Subjects, when that happens to occur, which is the Energizer also, as when we say Brutus loved bimself, slew bimself, &cc. in such Case the Energy hath to the same Being a double Relation, both Active and Passive. And this 'tis which gave rise among

⁽b) The doctrine of Imperional Verbs has been justly rejected by the best Grammarians, both antient and modern. See Sanci. Min. L. I. c. 12. L. III. c. 1. L. IV. c. 3. Priscian. L. XVIII. p. 1134. Apoll. L. III. sub fin. In all which places they will see a proper Nominative Supplied to all Verbs of this supposed Character.

C. IX. among the Greeks to that Species of Verbs, called Verbs middle (c), and such was their true and original Use, however in many instances they may have since happened to deviate. In other Languages the Verb still retains its active Form, and the passive Subject (se or bimself) is exprest like other Accusatives.

AGEN, in some Verbs it happens that the Energy always keeps within the Energizer, and never passes out to any foreign extraneous Subject. Thus when we say, Casar walketh, Casar sitteth, 'tis impossible

⁽c) Τὰ γὰρ καλύμενα μεσότητος χήματα συέμπθωσιν ἀνεδέξατο ἐνεργετικῆς κὰ παθητικῆς διαθέσεως.

The Verbs, called Verbs middle, admit a Co-incidence
of the active and paffive Character. Apollon. L. III.
c. 7. He that would fee this whole Doctrine concerning the power of the middle Verb explained and confirmed with great Ingenuity and
Learning, may confult a small Treatise of that able
Critic Kuster, entitled, De vero Usu Verborum Mediorum. Mr. Leeds, the Master of Bury School, has
lately favoured the Publick with a neat edition of
this scarce piece.

ble the Energy should pass out (as in the C. IX. case of these Verbs called by the Grammarians VERBS TRANSITIVE) because both the Energizer and the Passive Sub-Jest are united in the same Person: For what is the Cause of this walking or sitting? - "Tis the Will and Vital Powers belonging to Cafar. And what is the Subject, made to to move or to fit? Tis the Body and Limbs belonging also to the same Casar. "Tis this then forms that Species of Verbs, which Grammarians have thought fit to call VERBS NEU-. TER, as if indeed they were void both of Action and Passion, when perhaps (likeVerbs middle) they may be rather faid to imply both. Not however to dispute about names, as these Neuters in their Energizer always discover their passive Subject (c), which other

⁽c) This Character of Neuters the Greeks very happily express by the Terms, 'Aυτοπώθεια and 'Idenactera, which Priscian renders, qua ex se in series in strinsfecus Passio. L. VIII. 790:

N It

C. IX. other Verbs cannot, their passive Subjects being infinite; hence the reason why 'tis as super-

It may be here observed, that even those Verbs, called Actives, can upon occasion lay aside their transitive Character; that is to say, can drop their subsequent Accusative, and assume the Form of Neuters, so as to stand by themselves. This happens, when the Discourse respects the mere Energy or Assument on only, and has no regard to the Subject, be it this thing or that. Thus we say, we older arguments from This Man knows not how to read, speaking only of the Energy, in which we suppose him deficient. Had the Discourse been upon the Subjects of reading, we must have added them. we older are justiced in the course of the knows not how to read Homer, or Virgil, or Cicero, &c. Thus Horace,

Qui cupit aut metuit, juvat illum sie domus aut res,

Ut lippum pietæ tabulæ----

He that DESIRES or FEARS (not this thing in particular nor that, but in general he within whose breast these affections prevail) has the same joy in a House or Estate, as the Man with had Eyes has in sine Pictures. So Casar in his celebrated Laconic Epistle of, VENI, VIDI, VICI, where two Actives we see follow one Neuter in the same detached Form, as that Neuter it self. The Glory it seems was in the rapid Sequel of the Events. Conquest came as quick,

Subject exprest, as in other Verbs it is necessary, and cannot be omitted. And thus 'tis that we are taught in common Grammars that Verbs Active require an Accusative, while Neuters require none.

OF the above Species of Verbs, the Middle cannot be called necessary, because most Languages have done without it. The Species of Verbs therefore remaining are the Active, the Passive and the Neuter, and those seem essential to all Languages whatever. (d)

N 2

THERE

quick, as he could come himself, and look about him. Whom he saw, and whom he conquered, was not the thing, of which he boasted. See Apoll. L. III. C. 31. P. 279.

(d) The Stoics, in their logical view of Verbs, as making a part in Propositions, considered them under the four following Sorts.

When

C. IX. THERE remains a Remark or two farther, and then we quit the Subject of Verbs.

When a Verb, co-inciding with the Nominative of fome Noun, made without further help a perfect affertive Sentence, as Σωαράτης περιπατεί, Socrates walketh; then as the Verb in such case implied the Power of a perfect Predicate, they called it for that reason Κατηγόρημα, a Predicable; or else, from its readiness συμβαίνειν, to co-incide with its Noun in completing the Sentence, they called it Σύμβαμα, a Co-incider.

When a Verb was able with a Noun to form a perfect affertive Sentence, yet could not affectate with fuch Noun, but under some oblique Case, as Σωκράτει μεταμέλει, Socratem paraitet: Such a Verb, from its near approach to just Co-incidence, and Predication, they called Παρασύμθαμα or Παρακατηγόρημα.

When a Verb, tho' regularly co-inciding with a Noun in its Nominative, still required, to complete the Sentiment, some other Noun under an oblique Case, as Πλάτων Φιλεῖ Δίωνα, Plato loveth Dio, (where without Dio or some other, the Verb Loveth would rest indefinite:) Such Verb, from this Desect they called ¾τ]ον ἡ σύμεαμα, or ἡ κατηγόρημα, something less than a Co-incider, or less than a Predicable.

Laftly,

Verbs. 'Tis true in general that the greater C. IX. Part of them denote Attributes of Energy and Motion. But there are some which appear to denote nothing more, than a mere simple Adjective, joined to an Assertion. Thus is a can in Greek, and Equalleth in English, mean nothing more N 3 than

Lastly, when a Verb required two Nouns in oblique Cases, to render the Sentiment complete; as when we say Σωαράτει Αλαιδιάδυς μέλει. Tadet me Vita, or the like: Such Verb they called τιου, οr ελαιου παρασύμδαμα, οr παρακατηγόρημα, Something less than an impersect Co-incider, or an impersect Predicable.

These were the Apellations which they gave to Verbs, when employed along with Nouns to the forming of Propositions. As to the Name of 'PH'MA, or VERS, they denied it to them all, giving it only to the Infinitive, as we have shewn already. See page 164. See also Ammon. in Lib. de Interpret. p. 37. Apollon. de Syntaxi L. I. c. 8. L. III. c. 31. p. 279. c. 32. p. 295. Theed. Gaz. Gram. L. IV.

From the above Doctrine it appears, that all Verbs Neuter are Συμβάματα; Verbs Active, πτίουα π συμβάμαια.

C. IX. than loos equ, is equal. So Albeo in Latin is no more than albus sum.

-Campique ingentes osibus albent. Virg.

THE same may be said of Tumeo. Mons tumet, i. e. tumidus est, is tumid. To express the Energy in these instances, we must have recourse to the Inceptives.

Fluctus uti primo cæpit cum Albescere

Vento.

Virg.

Freta ponti
Incipiunt agitata TUMESCERE.

Virg.

THERE are Verbs also to be found, which are formed out of Nouns. So that as in Abstract Nouns (such as Whiteness from White, Goodness from Good) as also in the Infinitive Modes of Verbs, the Attributive is converted into a Substantive; here the Substantive on the contrary is converted into an Attributive. Such are Kurizen from niver, to act the part of a Dog, or be a Cynic;

Cymic; Φιλιππίζειν from Φίλιππος, to Philip-C. IX. pize, or favour Philip; Syllaturire from Sylla, to meditate acting the same part as Sylla did. Thus too the wise and virtuous Emperour, by way of counsel to himself— ορα μπ αποκαισαρουθής, beware thou beeft not BECÆSAR'D; as though he said, Beware, that by being Emperor, thou dost not dwindle into A MERE CÆSAR (e). In like manner one of our own witty Poets,

STERNHOLD bimself be Out-Stern-HOLDED.

And so much for that Species of AT-TRIBUTES, called VERBS IN THE STRICT-EST SENSE.

N₄ CHAP.

⁽e) Marc. Antonin. L. VI. §. 30.

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CHAP. X.

Concerning those other Attributives,

Participles and Adjectives.

HE Nature of Verbs being understood, that of PARTICIPLES is no way difficult. Every complete Verb is expressive of an Attribute; of Time; and of an Affertion. Now if we take away the Affertion, and thus destroy the Verb, there will remain the Attribute and the Time, which make the Essence of a PAR-TICIPLE. Thus take away the Assertion from the Verb, Tegoes, Writeth, and there remains the Participle, reaper, Writing, which (without the Affertion) denotes the same Attribute, and the same Time. After the same manner, by withdrawing the Affertion, we discover Tedtas in Eyeats, Teator in Teats, for

we

we chuse to refer to the *Greek*, as being Ch. X. of all languages the most complete, as well in this respect, as in others.

AND so much for PARTICIPLES (a),

THE

(a) The Latins are defective in this Article of Participles. Their Active Verbs, ending in or, (commonly called Deponents) have Active Participles of all Times (fuch as Lequens, Lecutus, Locuturus) but none of the Passive. Their Actives ending in O, have Participles of the Present and Future (such as Scribens, and Scripturus) but none of the Past. On the contrary, their Passives have Participles of the Past (such as Scriptus) but none of the Present or Future, unless we admit such as Scribendus, and Docendus for Futures, which Gram-The want of these Participles marians controvert. they supply by a Periphrasis—for year they say, com scripsisset - for yeard uevos, dum scribitur, &c. In English we have sometimes recourse to the same Periphrasis; and sometimes we avail ourselves of the same Auxiliars, which form our Modes and Tenses.

The English Grammar lays down a good Rule with respect to its Participles of the Past, that they all terminate in D, T, or N. This Analogy is perhaps

Ch. X. The Nature of Verbs and Participles being understood, that of Adjectives becomes easy. A Verb implies (as we have said) both an Attribute, and Time, and an Assertion; a Participle only implies an Attribute, and Time; and an Adjective only implies an Attribute; that is to say, in other Words, an Adjective bas no Assertion, and only denotes such an Attribute, as bath not its Essence either in Motion or its Privation. Thus in general the

haps liable to as few Exceptions, as any. Confidering therefore how little Analogy of any kind we have in our Language, it seems wrong to annihilate the few Traces, that may be found. It would be well therefore, if all Writers, who endeavour to be accurate, would be careful to avoid a Corruption, at present so prevalent, of saying, it was wrote, for, it was written; he was drove, for, he was driven; I have went, for, I have gene, &c. in all which instances a Verb is absurdly used to supply the proper Participle, without any necessity from the want of such Word.

the Attributes of Quantity, Quality, and Ch. X. Relation (such as many and few, great and little, black and white, good and had, double, treble, quadruple, &cc.) are all denoted by ADJECTIVES.

IT must indeed be confessed, that sometimes even those Attributes, which are wholly foreign to the Idea of Motion, asfume an Affertion, and appear as Verbs. Of fuch we gave instances before, in albeo, tumeo, iou'(w, and others. These however, compared to the rest of Verbs, are but few in number, and may be called, if thought proper, Verbal Adjectives. 'Tis in like manner, that Participles infenfibly pafs too into Adjectives. Thus Doctus in Latin, and Learned in English lose their power, as Participles, and mean a Person possessed of an habitual Quality. Thus Vir eloquens means not a man now speaking, but a man, who possesses the babit of speaking, whether

Ch. X. whether he speak or no. So when we say in English, he is a Thinking Man, an Understanding Man, we mean not a person, whose mind is in actual Energy, but whose mind is enriched with a larger portion of those powers. 'Tis indeed no wonder, as all Attributives are homogeneous, that at times the several Species should appear to interfere, and the Difference between them be scarcely perceptible. Even in natural Species, which are congenial and of kin, the specific Difference is not always to be discerned, and in appearance at least they seem to run into each other.

We have shewn already (b) in the Instances of Φιλιππίζειν, Syllatufire, 'Αποπαισαςωθήναι, and others, how Substantives
may be transformed into Verbal Attributives.

⁽b) Sup. p. 182, 183.

tives. We shall now shew, how they Ch. X. may be converted into Adjectives. When we fay the Party of Pompey, the Stile of Cicero, the Philosophy of Socrates, in these cases the Party, the Stile, and the Philosophy spoken of, receive a Stamp and Character from the Persons, whom they respect. Those Persons therefore persorm the part of Attributes, that is, to stamp and characterize their respective Subjects. Hence then they actually pass into Attributes, and assume, as such, the Form of Adjectives. And thus 'tis we say, the Pompeian Party, the Ciceronian Stile, and the Socratic Philosophy. 'Tis in like manner for a Trumpet of Brass, we say a Brazen Trumpet; for a Crown of Gold. a Golden Crown, &c. Even Pronominal Substantives admit the like mutation. Thus instead of faying, the Book of Me, of Thee, and of Him, we say My Book, Thy Book, and His Book; instead of saying the CounCh. X. try of Us, of You, and of Them, we say, Our Country, Your Country, and Their Country; which Words may be called so many Pronominal Adjectives.

IT has been observed already, and must needs be obvious to all, that Adjectives, as marking Attributes, can have no Sex (c). And yet their having Terminations conformable to the Sex, Number, and Case of their Substantive, seems to have led Grammarians into that strange absurdity of ranging them with Nouns, and separating them from Verbs, tho' with respect to these they are perfectly homogeneous; with respect to the others, quite contrary. They are homogeneous with respect to Verbs, as both Sorts denote Attributes: they are heterogeneous with respect to Nouns, as never properly denoting Sub-Rances.

⁽c) Sup. p. 171.

BOOK THE FIRST.

191

flances. But of this we have spoken be-Ch. X. fore (d).

THE Attributives hitherto treated, that is to fay, VERBS, PARTICIPLES, and ADJECTIVES, may be called ATTRIBUTIVES OF THE FIRST ORDER. The reason of this Name will be better understood, when we have more fully discussed ATTRIBUTIVES OF THE SECOND ORDER, to which we now proceed in the following Chapter.

CHAP.

⁽d) Sup. C. VI. Note (a). See also C. III. p. 28, &c.

CHAP. XI.

Concerning Attributives of the Second
Order.

Ch.XI. A S the Attributives hitherto mentioned denote the Attributes of Subftances, so there is an inferior Class of them, which denote the Attributes only of Attributes.

when we say, Cicero and Pliny were both of them eloquent; Statius and Virgil both of them wrote; in these instances the Attributives, Eloquent, and Wrote, are immediately referable to the Substantives, Cicero, Virgil, &c. As therefore denoting the Attributures of Substances, we call them Attributures of the first order. But when we say, Pliny was moderately eloquent, but Cicero exceedingly eloquent; Statius wrote indifferently, but Virgil wrote admirably;

in

in these instances, the Attributives, Mo-Ch. XI. derately, Exceedingly, Indisferently, Admirably, are not referable to Substantives, but to other Attributives, that is, to the words, Eloquent, and Wrote. As therefore denoting Attributes of Attributes, we call them ATTRIBUTIVES OF THE SECOND ORDER.

GRAMMARIANS have given them the Name of Empirinana, Adverbia, Adverbia, Adverbia, Adverbia, Adverbia, Adverbia, Adverbia, And indeed if we take the word Phias, or, Verb, in its most comprehensive Signification, as including not only Verbs properly so called, but also Participles and Adjectives [an usage, which may be justified by the best authorities (a)] we shall

⁽a) Thus Aristotle in his Treatise de Interpretatione, instances "Ανθρωπος as a Noun, and Λεῦκος as a Verb. So Ammonius—κατὰ τε θ το σημαινόμενου, τό μὲν ΚΑΛΟΣ κὰ ΔΙΚΑΙΟΣ κὰ ὅσα τοιαῦτα— 'PHMATA λίγισθαι κὰ ἐκ 'ONOMATA. According to this Signification (that is of denoting the Attributes of Substance,

Ch. XI. shall find the name, Exippnus, or Adverb, to be a very just appellation, as denoting A PART OF SPEECH, THE NATURAL APPENDAGE OF VERBS. So great is this dependence in grammatical Syntax, that an Adverb can no more subsist without its Verb, than a Verb can subsist without its Substantive. 'Tis the same here, as in certain natural Subjects. Every Colour for its existence as much requires a Superficies, as the Superficies for its existence requires a solid Body (b).

AMONG

stance, and the Predicate in Propositions) the words, FAIR, JUST, and the like, are called VERBS, and not Nouns. Am. in libr. de Interp. p. 37. b. Arist. de Interpr. L. I. c. 1. See also of this Treatise, Chap. 6. Note (a). p. 87.

In the same manner the Stoics talked of the Participle. Nam PARTICIPIUM connumerantes Verbis, PARTICIPIALE VERBUM vocabant vel CASUALE. Priscian. L. I. p. 574.

⁽b) This notion of ranging the Adverb under the fame Genus with the Verb (by calling them both Attributives) and of explaining it to be the Verb's Epithet or Adjective (by calling it the Attributive of an Attributive)

Among the Attributes of Substance are Ch. XI. reckoned Quantities, and Qualities. Thus we say, a white Garment, a high Mountain. Now some of these Quantities and Qualities are capable of Intenfion, and Remiffion. Thus we fay, a Garment EXCEED-INGLY white: a Mountain TOLERABLY 0 2

high,

butive) is conformable to the best authorities. Theodore Gaza defines an ADVERB, as followsμέρος λόβα απίωτου, κατα ρήματος λεγόμευου, η έπιλεγόμενου ρήματι, κλ οίου επίθετου ρήματος. APart of Speech devoid of Cases, predicated of a Verb, or subjoined to it, and being as it were the Verb's Adjective. L. IV. (where by the way we may observe, how properly the Adverb is made an Aptote, fince its Principal sometimes has cases, as in Valle Sapiens: sometimes has none, as in Valde amat). Priscian's definition of an Adverb is as follows-ADVER-BIUM est pars orationis indeclinabilis, cujus significatio Verbis adjicitur. Hoc enim perficit Adverbium Verbis additum, quod adjectiva nomina appellativis nominibus adjuncta; ut prudens homo; prudenter egit; felix; Vir; feliciter vivit. L. XV. p. 1003. And before, speaking of the Stoics, he says-Etiam ADVERBIA Nominibus vel Verbis connumerabant, et quafi ADJECTIVA VERBORUM nominatant. L. I. p. 574. See also Apoll. de Synt. L. I. c. 3. sub fin.

The Ch. XI. bigb, or Moderately bigb. 'Tis plain therefore that Intension and Remission are among the Attributes of such Attributes. Hence then one copious Source of secondary Attributives, or Adverbs, to denote these two, that is, Intension, and Remission. The Greeks have their θαυμας ως, μαλις α, πάνυ, ὅκις α; the Latins their valde, vebementer, maxime, satis, mediocriter; the English their greatly, vastly, extremely, sufficiently, moderately, tolerably, indifferently, &c.

FARTHER than this, where there are different Intensions of the same Attribute, they may be compared together. Thus if the Garment A be exceedingly White, and the Garment B be moderately White, we may say, the Garment A is more white than the Garment B.

In these instances the Adverb More not only denotes Intension, but relative Intension

Intension. Nay we stop not here. We Ch.XI. not only denote Intension merely relative, but relative Intension, than which there is mone greater. Thus we not only say the Mountain A is more high than the Mountain B, but that 'tis the most high of all Mountains. Even Verbs, properly so called, as they admit simple Intensions, so they admit also these comparative ones. Thus in the following Example — Fame he LOVETH MORE than Riches, but Virtue of all things he LOVETH MOST—the Words MORE and MOST denote the different comparative Intensions of the Verbal Attributive, Loveth.

And hence the rise of Comparison, and of its different Degrees; which cannot well be more, than the two Species above mentioned, one to denote Simple Excess, and one to denote Superlative. Were we indeed to introduce more degrees than these, we ought perhaps to introduce of a sinfinite

C. XI. infinite, which is abfurd. For why stop at a limited number, when in all subjects, fusceptible of Intension, the intermediate Excesses are in a manner infinite? There are infinite Degrees of more White, between the first Simple White, and the Superlative, Whitest; the same may be said of mare Great, more Strong, more Minute, &c. The Doctrine of Grammarians about three fuch Degrees, which they call the Positive, the Comparative and the Superlative, must needs be absurd; both because in their Positive there is no Comparison at all, and because their Superlative is a Comparative, as much as their Comparative it felf. Examples to evince this may be found every where. Socrates was the MOST WISE of all the Athenians — Homer was the MOST SUBLIME of all Poets .-

> —Cadit et Ripheus, Justissimus unus Qui fuit in Teucris— Virg.

> It must be confessed these Comparatives, as well the *simple*, as the *superlative*, seem sometimes

fometimes to part with their relative Na-C. XI. ture, and only retain their intensive. Thus in the Degree, denoting simple Excess,

Tristior, et lacrumis oculos suffusa nitentes. Vir.

Rusticior paullo est-

Hor.

In the Superlative this is more usual. Vir doctissimus, Vir fortissimus, a most learned Man, a most brave Man,—that is to say, not the bravest and most learned Man, that ever existed, but a Man possessing those Qualities in an eminent Degree.

THE Authors of Language have contrived a method to retrench these Comparative Adverbs, by expressing their force in he Primary Attributive. Thus instead of More fair, they say FAIRER; instead of Most fair, FAIREST, and the same holds true both in the Greek and Latin. This Practice however has reached no farther than to Adjectives, or at least to Participles,

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Sharing

Ch.XI. sharing the nature of Adjectives. Verbs perhaps were thought too much diversified already, to admit more Variations without perplexity.

As there are some Attributives, which admit of Comparison, so there are others, which admit of none. Such for example are those, which denote that Quality of Bodies arifing from their Figure; as when we fay, a Circular Table, a Quadrangular Court, a Conical Piece of Metal, &c. The reason is, that a million of things, participating the same Figure, participate it equally, if they participate it at all. To fay therefore that while A and B are both quadrangular, A is more or less quadrangular than B, is abfurd. The same holds true in all Attributives, denoting definite Quantities, whether continuous or discrete, whether absolute or relative. Thus the two-foot Rule A cannot be more a two-foot Rule, than any other of the same length. Twenty Twenty Lions cannot be more twenty, than Ch. XI. twenty Flies. If A and B be both triple, or quadruple to C, they cannot be more triple, or more quadruple, one than the other. The reason of all this is, there can be no Comparison without Intension and Remission; there can be no Intension and Remission in things always definite; and such are the Attributives, which we have last mentioned.

In the same reasoning we see the cause, why no Substantive is susceptible of these Comparative Degrees. A Mountain cannot be said More to Be, or to Exist, than a Mole-bill, but the More and Less must be sought for in their Quantities. In like manner, when we refer many Individuals to one Species, the Lion A cannot be called more a Lion, than the Lion B, but if more any thing, he is more sierce, more speedy, or exceeding in some such Attribute. So again, in referring many Species to one

C. XI. one Genus, a Crocodile is not more an Animal, than a Lizard; nor a Tiger, more than a Cat, but if any thing, they are more bulky, more strong, &c. the Excess, as before, being derived from their Attributes. So true is that saying of the acute Stagirite — that Substance is not susceptible of More and Less (c). But this by way of digression, to return to the subject of Adverbs.

Or the Adverbs, or secondary Attributives already mentioned, these denoting Intension or Remission may be called Adverbs of Quantity continuous; Once, Twice, Thrice, are Adverbs of Quantity discrete; More and Most, Less and Least, to which may be added Equally, Proportionally, &c.

BIC

⁽c) vix αν iπιδέχοιτο ή νίσια το μαλλου κ) το ήτλου. Categor. Cap. 5. See also Sanctius, L. I. c. 11. L. II. c. 10, 11. where the Subject of Comparatives is treated in a very masterly and philosophical manner.

are Adverbs of Relation. There are others C. XI. of Quality, as when we say, Honestly industrious, Prudently brave, they fought BRAVELY, be painted FINELY, a Portice form'd CIRCULARLY, a Plain cut Triangularly, &c.

And here 'tis worth while to observe, how the same thing, participating
the same Essence, assumes different grammatical Forms from its different relations. For example, suppose it should be
asked, how differ Honest, Honestly, and
Honestly. The Answer is, they are in
Essence the same, but they differ, in as
much as Honest is the Attributive of a
Substantive; Honestly, of a Verb; and
Honestly, being divested of these its attributive Relations, assumes the Power of a
Substantive, so as to stand by its self.

THE Adverbs, hitherto mentioned, are common to Verbs of every Species; but there

Ch.XI. there are some, which are peculiar to Verbs properly so called, that is to say, to such as denote Motion or Energy, with their Privations. All Motion and Rest imply TIME and PLACE, as a kind of necessary Coincidents. Hence then, if we would express the Place of Time of either, we must needs have recourse to the proper Adverbs; of Place, as when we fay, be flood THERE; be went HENCE; be travelled FAR, &c. of Time, as when we say, be food then; be went Afterward; be travelled FORMERLY, &c. Should it be asked -why Adverbs of Time, when Verbs have Tenses? The Answer is, tho' Tenses may be sufficient to denote the greater Distinctions of Time, yet to denote them all by Tenses would be a perplexity without end. What a variety of Forms, to denote Yesterday, To day, To morrow, Formerly, Lately, Just now, Now, Immediately, Presently, Soon, Hereafter, &c? 'Twas this then that made

made the *Temporal* Adverbs necessary, over Ch. XI. and above the *Tenses*.

To the Adverbs just mentioned may be added those, which denote the Intensions and Remissions peculiar to Motion, such as speedily, bastily, swiftly, slowly, &c. as also Adverbs of Place, made out of Prepositions, such as we and xdrw from wad and xara, in English upward and downward, from up and down. In some instances the Preposition suffers no change, but becomes an Adverb by nothing more than its Application, as when we say, CIRCA equitat, he rides ABOUT; PROPE' cecidit, he was NEAR falling; Verum ne POST conferas culpam in me, But do not AFTER lay the blame on me (d).

THERE

⁽d) Sosip. Charisii Inst. Gram. p. 170. Terent. Eun. Act. II. Sc. 3.

C. XI. THERE are likewise Adverbs of Interrogation, such as Where, Whence, Whither, How; of which there is this remarkable, that when they lose their Interrogative power, they assume that of a Relative, so as even to represent the Relative or Subjunctive Pronoun. Thus Virgil,

Et Seges est, UBI Troja fuit — translated in our old English Ballad,

And Corn doth grow, WHERE Troy town food.

That is to say, Seges est in eo loco, IN QUO, &c. Corn groweth in that place, IN WHICH, &c. the power of the Relative, being implied in the Adverb. Thus Terence,

Hujusmodi mibi res semper comminiscere, UBI me excarnusices— Heaut. IV. 6.

where UBI relates to res, and stands for quibus rebus.

TIS!

'Tis in like manner that the Relative C. XI. Pronoun upon occasion becomes an Interrogative, at least in Latin and English.
Thus Horace,

QUEM Virum aut Heroa lyrâ, vel acri Tibiâ sumes celebrare, Clio?

So Milton,

Who first seduc'd them to that foul revolt?

The reason of all this is as follows. The Pronoun and Adverbs here mentioned are all alike, in their original character, Relatives. Even when they become Interrogatives, they lose not this character, but are still Relatives, as much as ever. The difference is, that without an Interrogation, they have reference to a Subject, which is antecedent, definite and known; with an Interrogation, to a Subject which is subsequent, indefinite, and unknown, and which

Ch. XI. which 'tis expected that the Answer should express and ascertain.

Who first seduc'd them?

The very Question itself supposes a Seducer, to which, tho' unknown, the Pronoun, Who, has a reference.

Th' infernal Serpent ----

Here in the Answer we have the Subject, which was indefinite, ascertained; so that the Who in the Interrogation is (we see) as much a Relative, as if it had been said originally, without any Interrogation at all, 'Twas the Infernal SERPENT, WHO sirst Seduced them.

AND thus is it that *Interrogatives* and *Relatives* mutually pass into each other.

AND so much for ADVERBS, peculiar to Verbs properly so called. We have already spoken of those, which are common to all Attributives. We have likewise attempted tempted to explain their general Nature, Ch. XI. which we have found to confist in being the Attributes of Attributes. There remains only to add, that ADVERBS may be derived from almost every Part of Speech. From Prepositions, as when from After we derive Afterwards -- from PARTICI-PLES, and through these from Verbs, as when from Know we derive Knowing, and thence Knowingly; from Scio, Sciens, and thence Scienter — from ADJECTIVES, as when from Virtuous and Vitious, we derive Virtuoufly and Vitioufly - from Substan-Tives, as when from Ilone, an Ape, we derive Πιθήπειον 6λέπειν, το look APISHLY; from News, a Lion, Aportwo ws, Leoninelynay even from Proper Names, as when from Socrates and Demosthenes, we derive Socratically and Demosthenically. 'Twas Socratically reasoned, we say; 'twas Demosthemically spoken. Of the same fort are many others, cited by the old Grammarians, fuch

P

Ch. XI. as Catiliniter from Catilina, Sisenniter from Sisenna, Tulliane from Tullius, &c. (e).

Nor are they thus extensive in Derivation, but in Signification also. Theodore Gaza in his Grammar informs us (f), that Adveres may be found in every one of the Predicaments, and that the readiest way to reduce their Infinitude, was to refer them by classes to those ten universal Genera. The Stoics too called the Advers by the name of Marshalm, and that from a view to the same multiform Nature. Omnia in se capit quasi collata per satiram, concess ship rerum varia potessate. Tis thus that Sosipater explains the Word (g), from whose authority

we

⁽e) See Prisc. L. XV. p. 1022, Sos. Charis. 161. Edit. Putschii.

⁽f) — διὸ δη κραμεινου τους δέκα κρατών επιβρημάτων γένη θέσθαι έκεῖνα, κοτών, ποιόν, ποσού, πρός τι, κ. τ. λ. Gram. Introd. L. II.

⁽g) Sofip. Char. p. 175. Edit. Putschii.

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we know it to be Stoical. But of this Ch. XI.
enough.

AND now having finished those PRIN-CIPAL PARTS of Speech, the SUBSTAN-TIVE and the ATTRIBUTIVE, which are SIGNIFICANT WHEN ALONE, we proceed to those AUXILIARLY PARTS, which are only SIGNIFICANT, WHEN ASSO-CIATED. But as these make the Subject of a Book by themselves, we here conclude the first Book of this Treatise.

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HERMES:

OR, A

Philosophical Inquiry

CONCERNING

Universal Grammar.

BOOK II.

CHAP. I.

Concerning Definitives.

is a matter of less difficulty, it being the same here, as in some Historical Picture; when the principal Figures are once formed, 'tis an easy labour to design the rest.

P 3

DE-

Ch. I. DEFINITIVES, the Subject of the prefent Chapter, are commonly called by
Grammarians, ARTICLES, ARTICULI,
"Aplea. They are of two kinds, either
those properly and strictly so called, or else
the Pronominal Articles, such as This, That,
Any, &c.

WE shall first treat of those Articles more strictly so denominated, the reason and use of which may be explained, as sollows.

The visible and individual Substances of Nature are infinitely more numerous, than for each to admit of a particular Name. To supply this defect, when any Individual occurs, which either wants a proper Name, or whose proper Name is not known, we ascertain it, as well as we can, by referring it to its Species; or, if the

the Species be unknown, then at least to Ch. I. some Genus. For example—a certain Object occurs, with a head and limbs, and appearing to possess the powers of Self-motion and Sensation. If we know it not as an Individual, we refer it to its proper Species, and call it Dog, or Horse, or Lion, or the like. If none of these Names sit, we go to the Genus, and call it, Animal.

But this is not enough. The Thing, at which we are looking, is neither a Species, nor a Genus. What is it then? An Individual.—Of what kind? Known, or unknown? Seen now for the first time, or seen before, and now remembred?—"Tis here we shall discover the use of the two Articles (A) and (The.) (A) respects our primary Perception, and denotes Individuals as unknown; (The) respects our secondary Perception, and denotes Individuals as known. To explain by an explain

Ch. I. ample — I fee an object pass by, which I never saw till then. What do I say? —

There goes A Beggar, with A long Beard.

The Man departs, and returns a week after. What do I say then? — There goes

THE Beggar with THE long Beard. The Article only is changed, the rest remains un-altered.

YET mark the force of this apparently minute Change. The Individual, once vague, is now recognized as fomething known, and that merely by the efficacy of this latter Article, which tacitly infinuates a kind of previous acquaintance, by referring the present Perception to a like Perception already past (a).

THE Truth is, the Articles (A) and (THE) are both of them definitives, as they circumscribe the latitude of Genera and Species,

⁽a) See B. I. C. 5. p. 63, 64.

cies, by reducing them for the most partCh. I. to denote Individuals. The difference however between them is this; the Article (A) leaves the Individual itself unascertained, whereas the Article (The) ascertains the Individual also, and is for that reason the more accurate Definitive of the two.

"Tis perhaps owing to the imperfect manner, in which the Article (A) defines, that the Greeks have no Article correspondent to it, but supply its place, by a negation of their Article, 'O. 'O ἀνθρωπ . ἔπεσεν, ΤΗΕ man fell — ἀνθρωπ . ἔπεσεν, A Man fell, without any thing prefixed, but only the Article withdrawn (b). Even in English, where the

⁽b) Τὰ γὰρ ἀορις ωδῶς πότε νούμενα, ἡ τῦ ἄρθρυ παράθεσις ὑπὸ ὁρισμὸν τῦ προσώπα ἄγει. Those things, which are at times understood indefinitely, the addition of the Article makes to be definite as to their Person.

Ch. I. Article (A) cannot be used, as in plurals, its sorce is exprest by the same Negation. Those are the Men, means those are Individuals, of which we possess some previous Knowledge. Those are Men, the Article apart, means no more than that they are so many vague and uncertain Individuals, just as the Phrase, A Man,

in

Parfan. Apoll. L. IV. c. 1. See of the same author, L. I. c. 6, 36. ποιεί (το *Αρθρον fc.) δ' αναφ πόλησιν προεγνωσμένε τε έν τη συντάξει οίον έι μέν λέγοι τις, "ΑΝΘΡΩΠΟΣ "ΗΚΕ, άδηλου τίνα άτθρωπου λέγει ει δε 'Ο 'ΑΝΘΡΩΠΟΣ. Επλαν. προεγνωσμένου γάρ τινα ανθρωπον λέγει. άυτο δάλονται κό οι Φάσκοντες τ' άρθρου σημαντικός πρώτης γνώσεως κ δευτέρας. The Article causes a Review within the Mind of something known before in the texture of the Discourse. Thus if any one says "Andown TOS THE MAN IS COME (which is the same, as when we say in English A man is come) it is not evident, of whom he speaks. But if he says o and pures inte THE MAN IS COME, then 'tis evident; for be speaks of some Person known before. And this is what those mean, who say that the Article is expressive of the First and Second Knowledge together. Theod. Gazz, L. IV.

3

in the fingular, implies one of the fame Ch. I. number.

But the the Greeks have no Article correspondent to the Article (A,) yet nothing can be nearer related, than their 'O, to the Article, The. 'O Cariatio, The King; TO' Sugar, The Gift, &c. Nor is this only to be proved by parallel examples, but by the Attributes of the Greek Article, as they are described by Apollonius, one of the earliest and most acute of the old Grammarians, now remaining.

Ές το το καθό τη δικοκ απεφηνώμεθα, Γιον άρθρων ή άναφορες, ή ές ι περκατείλεςμένα περσώπα παρας ατικί.—Now the peculiar Attribute of the Article, as we have
shewn elsewhere, is that Reference, which
implys some certain Person already mentioned. Agen — 'Ου βδήγε τα ὀνόματα
εξ άντων αναφοράν παρίς κοιν, ε μη συμπαραλάδως» Ch. I. παεαλάβοιεν τὸ ἄρθρον, ε εξαίριτος ες ιν π άναφοεά. For Nouns of themselves imply not Reference, unless they take to them the Article, whose peculiar Character is Reservence. Agen — Τὸ ἄρθρον περοϋφες ῶσαν γνῶσιν δηλοι.—The Article indicates a presentablished Acquaintance (c).

His reasoning upon Proper Names is worth remarking. Proper Names (he tells us) often fall into Homonymie, that is, different Persons often go by the same Name. To solve this ambiguity, we have recourse to Adjectives or Epithets. For example—there were two Grecian Chiefs, who bore the name of Ajax. Twas not therefore without reason, that Menestheus uses

⁽c) Apoll. de Synt. L. I. c. 6, 7. His account of Reference is as follows— 'Ιδίωμα ἀναφορᾶς προκατειλεγμένε προσώπε δευτέρα γνῶσις. The peculiar character of Reference is the second or repeated Knowledge of some Person already mentioned. L. II. c. 3.

uses Epithets, when his intent was to di-Ch. I. stinguish the one of them from the other.

'And mep oils it to Tenausins annus.

Hom.

If both Ajaxes (says he) cannot be spared,

- at least alone

Let mighty Telamonian Ajax come.

Apollonius proceeds — Even Epithets themselves are diffused thro' various Subjects, in as much as the same Adjective may be referred to many Substantives.

In order therefore to render both Parts of Speech equally definite, that is to say the Adjective as well as the Substantive, the Adjective itself assumes an Article before it, that it may indicate a Reference to some single Person only, morasum arapoed, according to the Author's own Phrase. And thus 'tis we say, Tpupper & Temmarian; Amondosup G. Kupnyai G., Apollodorus THE Cyrenean, &cc. The

Ch. I. The Author's Conclusion of this Section is worth remarking. Asorres dea & & rd rowros dea & & residente & & rowros dea & & residente & rowros dea & & residente & rowros dea & &

We may carry this reasoning farther, and shew, how by help of the Article even common Appellatives come to have the force of proper Names, and that un-affished by epithets of any kind. Among the Athenians Masior meant Ship; "Erdeng, Eleven; and "Arbour G., Man. Yet add but the Article, and To Masior, the ship, meant that particular Ship, which they sent annually to Delas; Or Erdeng, the Eleven, meant, certain Officers of Justice; and O "Arbour G., the MAN, meant their pub-

lic

⁽d) See Apoll. L. I. c. 12. where by mistake Menelaus is put for Menestheus.

lic Executioner. So in English, City, is a Ch. I.

Name common to many places; and

Speaker, a Name common to many Men.

Yet if we prefix the Article, THE CITY

means our Metropolis; and THE SPEAKER,

a bigb Officer in the British Parliament.

And thus 'tis by an easy transition, that the Article from denoting Reference, comes to denote Eminence also; that is to say, from implying an ordinary pre-acquaintance, to presume a kind of general and universal Notoriety. Thus among the Greeks O Mounth's, THE POET, meant Homer (e); and O Stayespites, THE STAGIRITE, meant Aristotle; not that there were not many Poets, beside Homer; and many Stagirites,

⁽e) There are so few exceptions to this Observation, that we may fairly admit it to be generally true. Yet Aristotle twice denotes Euripides by the Phrase of moinsing, once at the end of the seventh Book of his Nicomachean Ethics, and again in his Physics, L. H. 2.

Ch. I. Stagirites, beside Aristotle; but none equally illustrious for their Poetry and Philostophy.

Tis on a like principle that Aristotle tells us, 'tis by no means the same thing to affert— in the indom's analor, or, To' analor — that, Pleasure is a Good, or, The Good. The first only makes it a common Object of Desire, upon a level with many others, which daily raise our wishes; the last supposes it that suppreme and sovereign Good, the ultimate Scope of all our Actions and Endeavours (f).

But to pursue our Subject. It has been faid already that the Article has no meaning, but when affociated to some other word.—To what words then may it be affociated?—To such as require defining,

for

⁽f) Analyt. Prior. L. I. C. 40.

BOOK THE SECOND.

for it is by nature a Definitive. — And Ch. I. what Words are these?—Not those which already are as definite, as may be. Nor yet those, which, being indefinite, cannot properly be made otherwise. It remains then they must be those, which though indefinite, are yet capable three the Acticle, of becoming definite.

Upon these Principles we see the reason, why 'tis absurd to say, 'O'EFΩ', The I, or 'O ΣΥ', The Thou, because nothing can make those Pronouns more definite, than they are (g). The same may be afferted of

⁽ξ) Apollonius makes it part of the Pronoun's Definition to refuse co-alescence with the Article. 'Entho is 'Arrowousa, το μετα δείξεως η αναφορώς εντημική έμπες το πρίξεως η αναφορώς εντημική μετα κατά τη Επρική κατά τη Επρική κατά του με του κατά κατά του μετα κατά του που κατά του κατά προκού κατά προκού κατά προκού κατά του κατά

Ch. I. of Proper Names, and though the Greeks lay & Songaris, & Zarbirun, and the like. yet the Article is a mere Pleonasm, unless perhaps it serve to distinguish Sexes. the same rule we cannot say in Greek OI 'AMOO'TEPOI, or in English, THE BOTH, because these Words in their own nature are each of them perfectly defined, so that to define them farther would be quite superfluous. Thus if it be said, I bave read BOTH Poets, this plainly indicates a definite pair, of whom some mention has been made already; Duds in worth, 2 known Duad, as Apollonius expresses himself (b) when he speaks of this Subject. On the contrary, if it be faid, I bave read

Two

num, que fine dubio demonstrative sunt, articults eljungi non possunt; nec tertia, quando demonstrative est.

L. XII. p. 938.—In the beginning of the same
Book, he gives the true reason of this. Supra emass
alias partes erationis FINIT PERSONAS PRONOMEN.

⁽b) Apollon. L. I. c. 16.

Two Poets, this may mean any Pair out Ch. I. of all that ever existed. And honce this Numeral, being in this Sense indefinite (28 indeed are all others, as well as it felf) is forced to assume the Article, whenever it would become definite. And thus 'tis, THE Two in English, and 'OI $\Delta \Upsilon'$ O in Greek, mean nearly the same thing, as BOTH or 'AMOO'TEPOI. Hence also it is, that as Two, when taken alone, has reference to some primary and indefinite Perception, while the Article, THE, has reference to fome fecondary and definite *; hence I say the Reason, why 'tis bad Greek to say ΔΥΌ 'OI "ANΘΡΩΠΟΙ, and bad Englifb, to say Two the Men. Such Syntax is in fact a Blending of Incompatibles, that is to say of a defined Substantive with an undefined Attributive. On the contrary to say in Greek 'AMΦO'TEPOI 'OI 'ANΘPΩ-MOI, or in English, Both the Men, is good and allowable, because the Substantive cannot possibly be less apt, by being defined,

^{*} Sup. p. 215, 216.

Ch. I. defined, to coalesce with an Attributive, which is defined as well as it self. So likewise, 'tis correct to say 'OI ΔΤ'O 'ANΘΡΩΠΟΙ, The Two Men, because here the Article, being placed in the beginning, extends it's Power as well three Substantive as Attributive, and equally contributes to define them both.

As some of the words above admit of no Article, because they are by Nature as definite as may be, so there are others, which admit it not, because they are not to be defined at all. Of this fort are all Interrogatives. If we question about Substances, we cannot say OTI'S OTTOS, The who is this; but TI'S OTTOS, Who is this? (i) The same as to Qualities and both kinds of Quantity. We say without an Article NOIO'S, NO'-

ΣOI.

⁽i) Apellouius calle TIE, iverreurare rue differen, a Part of Speech, most contrary, most averse to Arti-

ΣΟΙ, ΠΗΛΙΚΟΣ, in English, WHATCh. I. sort of, now MANY, now GREAT. The Reason is, that the Articles O, and The respect Beings already known; Interrogatives respect Beings, about which we are ignorant; for as to what we know, Interrogation is superfluous.

In a word the natural Affociators with Articles are all those common Appellatives, which denote the several Genera and Species of Beings. 'Tis these, which by affurning a different Article, serve either to explain an Individual upon its first being perceived, or else to indicate, upon it's return, a Recognition, or repeated Knowlege (k).

WE shall here subjoin a few Instances of the peculiar Power of ARTICLES.

Q3

EVERY

⁽k) What is here faid respects the two Articles, which we have in English. In Greek, the Article does no more, than imply a Recognition. See before p. 216, 217, 218.

EVERY Proposition consists of a Subject. Ch. I. and a Predicate. In English these are distinguished by their Position, the Subject standing first, the Predicate last. Happiness is Pleasure—Here, Happiness, is the Subject; Pleasure, the Predicate. If we change their order, and fay, Pleasure is Happiness; then, Pleasure, becomes the Subject, and Happiness, the Predicate. In Greek these are distinguished not by any Order or Polition, but by help of the Article, which the Subject always assumes, and the Predicate in most instances (some few excepted) rejects. Happiness is Pleasure-ison i tudasporia-Pleasure is Happiness - i ison evsasporla - Fine things ere difficult - χαλεπά τὰ καλά - Difficult things are fine-ra yahena naha.

> In Greek 'tis worth attending, how in the fame Sentence, the fame Article, by being prefixed to a different Word, quite changes

changes the whole meaning. For ex-Ch. I. ample--'Ο Ππλεμαι 🚱 γυμνασιαργήσας έτιμήθη-Ptolemy, baving presided over the Games, was publickly bonoured. The Participle γυμνασιαρχήσας has here no other force, than to denote to us the Time, when Ptolemy was honoured, viz. after having presided over the Games. But if, instead of the Substantive, we join the Participle to the Article, and say, O yourasiapxious Πτολεμαι. Θ. ἐτιμήθη, our meaning is then —The Ptolemy, who presided over the Games, was bonoured. The Participle in this case, being joined to the Article, tends tacitly to indicate not one Ptolemy but many, of which number a particular one participated of honour (1),

In English likewise it deserves remarking, how the Sense is changed by changing of the Articles, tho' we leave every O4 other

⁽¹⁾ Apollon. L. I. c. 33, 34-

The Man. In that single, the, that diminutive Particle, all the force and essimated for first possible this Assertion may appear at first somewhat strange; but let him, who doubts it, only change the Article, and then see what will become of the Prophet and his reasoning.—And Nathan said unto David, Thou art a Man. Might-not the King well have demanded upon-so-impertment a position,

Non dices bodie, quorsum biec tam putide tendant?

But enough of such Speculations. The only remark, which we shall make, is this; that "minute Change in PRINCIPLES "leads to mighty Change in EFFECTS; so that well are PRINCIPLES intitled to our regard,

^{*} ΣΤ' ΕΓ 'O 'ANH'P. Βασιλ. Β'. ×εφ. ιδ'.

" regard, however in appearance they Ch. I.
" may be trivial and low."

THE ARTICLES already mentioned are those strictly so called; but besides these there are the Pronominal Articles, such as This, That, Any, Other, Some, All, No, or None, &cc. Of these we have spoken already in our Chapter of Pronouns (m), where we have shewn, when

⁽m) See B. I. c. 5. p. 72, 73. It seems to have been some view of words, like that here given, which induced Quintilian to they of the Latin Tongue-Nofter serme Articules non desiderat; ideeque in alias partes orationis sparguntur. Inst. Orat. L. I. C.4. So Scaliger. His declaratis, fatis constat Gracerum Articules non nælettes a nobis, fed eorum ufum superfluum. Nam ubi aliquid præscribendum est, quod Graci per articulum efficiant (Exeger o delos) conflictur to Listinis per Is out ILLE; In, aut, the servus dixit, de que serve antea facta mentie sit, aut qui alie que pacto notus sit. Additur enim Articulus ad rei mensoriam renovandens, cufas antea non nefiii funts, aut ad præscribendam intellectionem, que latins patere queat; veluti cum dicimus, C. Cæsar, Is qui postea dictator fuit. Nam alii suere C. Casares. die Grace Καισαρ ο αυθοχράτως. De Caus. Ling. Lat. c. 131.

Ch. I. when they may be taken as Pronouns, and when as Articles. Yet in truth it must be confessed, if the Essence of an Article be to define and ascertain, they are much more properly Articles, than any thing else, and as fuch should be considered in Universal Grammar. Thus when we fav. This Picture I approve, but THAT I dislike, what do we perform by the help of these Definitives, but bring down the common Appellative, to denote two Individuals, the one as the more near, the other as the more distant? So when we say, Some men are virtuous, but ALL men are mortal, what is the natural Effect of this ALL and SOME, but to define that Universality, and Particularity, which would remain indefinite, were we to take them away? The same is evident in such Sentences, as-Some substances bave sensation; others want it—Chuse any way of acting, and some men will find fault, &c. For here some, other, and any, ferve all of them to define different Parts of a given

given Whole; Some, to denote a definite Ch. I. Part; Any, to denote an indefinite; and Other, to denote the remaining Part, when a Part has been assumed already. Sometimes this last Word denotes a large indefinite Portion, set in opposition to some single, definite, and remaining Part, which receives from such opposition no small degree of heightening. Thus Homer exalts the Character of Jove, by telling us, that while other Gods and Men were sleeping, Jove alone remain'd awake.

"ΑΛΛΟΙ μέν ρα θεοί τι εξ ανέρες ίπποκορυς αλ Εύδον παννύχει "ΔΙ'Α δ' δυκ έχε νήθυμιος ύπνος, Ιλ. Β.

So Virgil,

Excudent ALII spirantia mollius æra; (Credo equidem) vivos ducent de marmore vultus;

Orabunt causas melius, cælique meatus

Descri-

236

Ch. L.

Describent radio, et surgentia sidera dicent:

Tu regere imperio populos, ROMANE, memento, &c. Æ. VI.

NOTHING can be stronger or more sublime, than this Antithesis; one Ast set as equal to many other Asts taken together, and the Roman singly (for it is Tu Romane, not Vos Romani) to all other Mon; and yet this performed by so trivial a cause, as the just opposition of Alls to Tu.

But here we conclude, and proceed to treat of CONNECTIVES.

CHAP.

CHAP. IL

Concerning Connectives, and first those called Conjunctions.

Connectives are the subject of what Ch. IL follows; which, according as they connect either Sentences or Words, are called by the different Names of Conjunctions, or Parrositions. Of these Names, that of the Prepasition is taken from a mere accident, as it commonly stands in connection before the Part, which it connects. The name of the Conjunction, as is evident, has reference to its effential thereafter.

OF these two we shall consider the Congunction sirst, because it canneds, not Words, but Sentences. This is conformable to the Analysis, with which we began this inquiry *, and which led us, by parity

^{*} Sup. p. 11, 12.

Ch. II. parity of reason, to consider Sentences themselves before Words. Now the Definition
of a Conjunction is as follows—a Part
of Speech, void of Signification it self, but
so formed as to belp Signification, by making
two or more significant Sentences to be one
significant Sentence (a).

THIS

(a) Grammarians have usually considered the Conjunction as connecting rather fingle Parts of Speech, than whole Sentences, and that too with the addition of like with like, Tense with Tense, Number with Number, Case with Case, &c. This Santius justing explodes. Conjunctio neque casus, neque alias partes -erationis (ut imperiti docent) conjungit, ipfe enim partes inter se conjunguntur - sed conjunctio Orationes inter se conjungit. Miner. L. III. c. 14. He then establishes his doctrine by a variety of examples. He had already faid as much, L. I. c. 18. and in this he appears to have followed Scaliger, who had afferted the same before him. Conjunctionis autem notionem veteres paullo inconsultius prodidere; neque enim, quod aiunt, partes alias conjungit (ipfæ enim partes per se inter se conjunguntur)-sed Conjunctio est, que conjungit Orationes plures. De Caus. Ling. Lat. ·c. 165.

This Doctrine of theirs is confirmed by Apellonius, who in the several places, where he mentions the This therefore being the general Idea Ch. II. of Conjunctions, we deduce their Species

in

the Conjunction, always confiders it in Syntax as connecting Sentences, and not Words, tho' in his works now extant he has not given us its Definition. See L. I. c. 2. p. 14. L. II. c. 12. p. 124. L. III. c. 15. p. 234.

But we have stronger authority than this to support Scaliger and Santiius, and that is Aristotle's Definition, as the Passage has been corrected by the best Critics and Manuscripts. A Conjunction according to him, is Φωνή ασημος, έχ πλειόνων μέν Οωνών μιας, σημανδικών δε, ποιεώ πεφυκίζα μίαν φωνών THE COLUMN AN articulate Sound, devoid of Signification, which is fo formed as to make ONE significant articulate Sound out of several articulate Sounds, which are each of them fignificant. Poet. c. XX. In this view of things, the one fignificant articulate Sound, formed by the Conjunction, is not the Union of two or more Syllables in one simple Word, nor even of two or more Words in one fimple Sentence, but of two or more fimple Sentences in one complex Sentence. which is confidered as ONE, from that Concatenation of Meaning effected by the Conjunctions. For example, let us take the Sentence, which follows. If Men are by nature social, tis their Interest to be just, the' it were not so ordained by the Laws of their Country. Ch. II. in the following manner. Conjunctions, while they connect fentences, either connect

alfo

Country. Here are three Sentences. (1.) Men are by nature focial. (2.) 'Tis Man's Interest to be just. (3.) 'Tis not ordained by the Laws of every Country that Men should be just. The first two of these Sentences are made One by the Conjunction, Iv; these, One with the third Sentence, by the Conjunction, Tho'; and the three, thus united, make that $\varphi_{\omega \nu \dot{\nu}}$ μ_i α $\sigma u_i \alpha' \dot{\nu}_i \dot{\nu}_i$, that one significant articulate Sound, of which Aristotle speaks, and which is the result of the conjunctive Power.

This explains a passage in his Rhetoric, where he mentions the same Subject. 'O yap súrdisques he monti tà πολλά "ως ε ià» iξαιρεθή, δήλου δτι τοναντία ες αι τὸ εν πολλά. The Conjunction makes many, one; so that if it be taken away, tis then evident on the contrary that one will be MANY. Rhet. III. c. 12. His instance of a Sentence, divested of its Conjunctions, and thus made many out of ane, is, idda, awartnea, idioma, veni, occurri, regari, where by the way the three Sentences, resulting from this Difforntion, (for halo, awas nea, and ideam, me each of them, when unconnected, so many person sentences) prove that these are the proper Subjects of the Conjunction's connective saculty.

Ammonias's

ample: let us take these two Sentences—
Rome was enslaved—Casar was ambitious—
and connect them together by the Conjunction, Because. Rome was enslaved, Because Casar was ambitious. Here the Meanings, as well as the Sentences, appear to be connected. But if I say,—Manners must be reformed, or Liberty will be lost—here the Conjunction, or, tho' it join the Sentences,

Ammonius's account of the use of this Part of Speech is elegant. Διο κρ των λόγων ο μεν υπαρξιν -ριμ ως κιί κα 👁 τολοχος είς, ανάλος 👁 αν είη τω μηδέπω τετμημένω ξύλω, κ δια τέτο έτ λεγομένω δ δε πλείσιας υπάρξεις δηλών, ενα (lege δια) τινά δε εύνδεσμου ที่งωσθάι πως δοκών, αναλογεί τῷ κηὶ τῷ ἐκ πολλών συγκειμένη ξύλων, ύπο δε των γόμφων Φαινομένην εχύση την ένωσιν. Of Sentences that, which denotes one Existence simply, and which is strictly ONE, may be considered as analogous to a piece of Timber not get sever'd, and called on this account One. That, which denotes several Existences, and which appears to be made ON B by some Conjunctive Particle, is analogous to a Ship made up of many pieces of Timber, and which by means of the nails has an apparent Unity. Am. in Lib. do Interpret. p. 54. 6.

Ch. II. Sentences, yet as to their respective Meanings, is a persect Disjunctive. And thus
it appears, that the all Conjunctions conjoin Sentences, yet with respect to the Sense,
some are Conjunctive, and some Disjunctive; and hence (b) its that we derive their different Species.

Sentences and their Meanings, are either Copulatives, or Continuatives. The principal Copulative in English is, And. The Continuatives are, If, Because, Therefore, That, &c. The Difference between these is this—The Copulative does no more than barely couple Sentences, and is therefore applicable to all Subjects, whose Natures are not incompatible. Continuatives, on the contrary, by a more intimate connection, consolidate Sentences into

one

⁽b) Thus Scaliger. Aut ergo Sensum conjunguni, at Verba; aut Verba tantum conjungunt, Sensum vere dijungunt. De C. L. Lat. c. 167.

one continuous Whole, and are therefore ap-Ch. II. plicable only to Subjects, which have an effential Co-incidence.

Improper to say, Lysippus was a Statuary, AND Priscian was a Grammarian—The Sun shineth, AND the Sky is clear—because these are things that may co-exist, and yet imply no absurdity. But 'twould be absurd to say, Lysippus was a Statuary, BECAUSE Priscian was a Grammarian; tho' not to say, the Sun skineth, BECAUSE the Sky is clear. The Reason is, with respect to the first, the Co-incidence is merely accidental; with respect to the last, 'tis essential, and sounded in nature. And so much for the Distinction between Copulatives and Continuatives (c).

As

⁽c) Copulativa est, quae copulat tam Verba, quam Sensum. Thus Priscian, p. 1026. But Scaliger is more explicit—si Sensum conjungunt (conjunctiones R 2

Ch. II. As to Continuatives, they are either Suppositive, such as, If; or Positive, such as, Because, Therefore, As, &c. Take Examples of each—you will live bappily, if you live honestly—you live bappily, Because you live bonestly. The Difference between these Continuatives is this—The Suppositives denote Connection, but affert not actual Existence; the Positives imply both the one and the other (d).

FARTHER

fc.) aut necessario, aut non necessario: &, si non necessario, tum fiunt Copulativæ, &c. De C. Ling. Lat. c. 167. Priscian's account of Continuatives is as follows. Continuativæ sunt, quæ continuationem & consequentiam rerum significant—ibid. Scaliger's account is—caussam aut præstituunt, aut subdunt. Ibid. c. 168. The Greek name for the Copulative was Σύνδισμος συμπλεκτικός; for the Continuative, συναπικός; the Etymologies of which words justly distinguish their respective characters.

⁽d) The old Greek Grammarians confined the name Συμαπίμοι, and the Latins that of Continuativæ to those Conjunctions, which we have called Suppositive or Conditional, while the Positive they called

FARTHER than this, the Positives above Ch. II. mentioned are either CAUSAL, such as,

BECAUSE,

called παρατυναπίικοι, or Subcontinuativa. They agree however in describing their proper Characters. The first according to Gaza are, δι υπαρξιν μέν ν, ακολυθίαν δί τινα κ) τάξιν δηλύντες.—L. IV. Prifcian says, they signify to us, qualis est ordinatio & natura rerum, cum dubitatione aliqua essentia rerum—p. 1027. And Scaliger says, they conjoin sine subsistentia necessaria; potest enim subsistere & non subsistere; utrumque enim admittunt. Ibid. c. 168. On the contrary of the Positive, or παρασυναπίκοι (to use his own name) Gaza tells us, δτι κ) υπας-ξιο μετά τάξεως σημάννωσην δτοιγε— And Priscian says, causam continuationis ostendunt consequentem cum essentia rerum—And Scaliger, non ex hypothesi, sed ex eq, qued subsistit, conjungunt. Ibid.

It may feem at first somewhat strange, why the Positive Conjunctions should have been considered as Sub-ordinate to the Suppositive, which by their antient Names appears to have been the fact. Is it, that the Positive are confined to what assually is; the Suppositive extend to Possibles, nay even as far as to Impossibles? Thus 'tis false to affirm, As it is R 3

Ch. II. BECAUSE, SINCE, As, &c. or Collective, such as, Therefore, Whererore, Then, &c. The Difference between these is this—the Causals subjoin
Causes to Effects—The Sun is in Eclipse,
BECAUSE the Moon intervenes—The Collectives subjoin Effects to Causes—The Moon
intervenes, Therefore the Sun is in Eclipse.
Now we use Causals in those instances,
where, the Effect being conspicuous, we
seek its Cause; and Collectives, in Demonfrations, and Science properly so called,
where

Day, it is Light, unless it actually be Day. But we may at midnight affirm, If it be Day, it is Light, because the, Ir, extends to Possibles also. Nay we may affirm, by its help (if we please) even Impossibles. We may say, If the Sun be cubical, then is the Sun angular; If the Sky fall, then shall we catch Larks. Thus too Scaliger upon the same occasion—amplitudinem Continuative percipi ex eo, quad etiam impossible aliquando prasupponis. De C. L. Lat. C. 168. In this sense then the Continuative, Suppositive or Conditional Conjunction is (as it were) superior to the Positive, as being of greater latitude in its application.

where the Cause being known first, by Ch. II. its help we discern consequences (e).

All these Continuatives are resolvable into Copulatives. Instead of, Because it is Day, it is light, we may say, It is Day, AND it is Light. Instead of, If it be Day, it is Light, we may say, 'Tis at the same time necessary to be Day, and to be Light, and so in other Instances. The Reason is, that the Power of the Copulative extends to all Connections, as well to the essential, as to the casual or fortuitous. Hence therefore the Continuative may be resolved into a Copulative and something more, that is to say, into a Copulative implying an essential Co-incidence (f) in the Subjects conjoined.

R 4

As

⁽e) The Latins called the Causals, Causales or Causative; the Collectives, Collective or Illative: The Greeks called the former 'Airiological, and the latter Zulloyis icol.

⁽f) Resolvuntur autem in Copulativas omnes be, Propierea quod Caussa cum Effettu Sudpte natura conjunta est. Scal. de C. L. Lat. c. 169.

Ch. II. As to Caufal Conjunctions (of which we have spoken already) there is no one of the four Species of Causes, which they are not capable of denoting. For example, THE MATERIAL CAUSE - The Trumpet founds, BECAUSE 'tis made of Metal-THE FORMAL—The Trumpet founds, BECAUSE 'tis long and bollow - THE EFFICIENT - The Trumpet founds, BECAUSE an Artist blows it -THE FINAL-The Trumpet founds, THAT it may raife our courage. Where 'tis worth observing, that the three first Causes are exprest by the strong affirmation of the Indicative Mode, because if the Effect actually be, these must of necessity be also. But the last Cause has a different Mode. namely, the Contingent or Potential. The Reason is, that the Final Cause, tho' it may be first in Speculation, is always last in Event. That is to fay, however it may be the End, which set the Artist first to work, it may still be an End beyond his Power

Power to obtain, and which like other Ch. II. Contingents, may either happen, or not (g).

Hence also it is connected by Conjunctions of a peculiar kind, such as, That, sna, UT, &c.

THE Sum is, that ALL CONJUNCTIONS, which connect both Sentences and their Meanings, are either Copulative, or Continuative; the Continuatives are either Conditional, or Positive; and the Positives are either Causal or Collective.

AND now we come to the Disjunc-TIVE CONJUNCTIONS, a Species of Words which bear this contradictory Name, because while they disjoin the Sense, they conjoin the Sentences (b).

With

⁽g) See B. I. c. 8. p. 142. See also Vol. I. Note VIII. p. 271. For the four Causes see Vol. L. Note XVII. p. 280.

 ⁽b) *Oι δι διαζουκτικοί τὰ διαζουγμένα συστθέασι,
 κ) ἢ πρᾶγμα ἀπὸ πράγματ۞, ἢ πρόσωποι ἀπὸ
 προσώποι

Ch. II. WITH respect to these we may observe, that as there is a Principle of Union diffused throughout all things, by which this Whole is kept together, and preserved from Dissipation; so there is a Principle of Diversity diffused in like manner, the Source of Distinction, of Number, and of Order (i).

Trans. L. IV. Disjunctive funt, que quamvis dictiones conjungant, sensum tamen disjunctum habent. Prisc. L. XVI. p. 1029. And hence it is, that a Sentence, connected by Disjunctives, has a near resemblance to a simple negative Truth. For the this as to its Intellection be disjunctive (its end being to disjoin the Subject from the Predicate) yet as it combines Terms together into one Proposition, 'tis as truly synthetical, as any Truth, that is assume to the continuative. See Chap. I. Note (b). p. 3.

be said to heighten by degrees, and as it passes to different Subjects, to become more and more intense. Some things only differ when considered as Individuals, but if we recur to their Species, immediately lose all Distinction. Such for instance are Secretes and Plate. Others differ as to Species, but

Now 'tis to express in some degree the Ch. II. Modifications of this Diversity, that DISJUNCTIVE

as to Genus are the same. Such are Man and Lien. There are others agen, which differ as to Genus, and co-incide only in those transcendental Comprehensians of Ens, Being, Existence, and the like. Such are Quantities and Qualities, as for example an Ounce, and the Colour, White. Lastly ALL BEING whatever differs, as Bring, from Non-being.

Farther, in all things different, however moderate their Diversity, there is an appearance of Opposi-TION with respect to each other, in as much as each thing is it felf, and not any of the rest. But yet in all Subjects this Opposition is not the fame. RELATIVES, such as Greater and Less, Double and Half, Father and Son, Cause and Effect, in shele 'tis more striking, than in ordinary Subjects, because these always shew it, by necessarily inferring each other. In GONTRARIES, such as Black and White, Even and Odd, Good and Bad, Virtuous and Vitious, in these the Opposition goes still farther, because these not only differ, but are even destructive of each other. But the most potent Opposition is that of 'Avipacis, or Contradiction, when we oppose Proposition to Proposition, Truth to Falshood, afferting of any Subject, either it is, or is not. This indeed is an Opposition, which extends ir

Ch. II. JUNCTIVE CONJUNCTIONS seem first to have been invented.

OF these Disjunctives, some are Simple, some Adversative—Simple, as when we say, either it is Day, or it is Night—Adversative, as when we say, It is not Day, but it is Night. The Difference between these is, that the simple do no more, than merely disjoin; the Adversative disjoin, with an Opposition concomitant. Add to this, that the Adversative are definite; the Simple, indefinite. Thus when we say, The Number Three is not

an

it felf to all things, for every thing conceivable must needs have its *Negative*, tho' multitudes by nature have neither *Relatives*, nor *Contraries*.

Besides these Modes of DIVERSITY, there are others that deserve notice; such for instance, as the Diversity between the Name of a thing, and its Desimition; between the various Names which belong to the same thing, and the various things, which are denoted by the same Name; all which Diversities upon occasion become a Part of our Discourse. And so much, in short, for the Subject of DIVERSITY.

disjoin two opposite Attributes, but we definitely affirm one, and deny the other. But when we say, The Number of the Stars is EITHER even OR odd, tho' we affert one Attribute to be, and the other not to be, yet the Alternative notwithstanding is left indefinite. And so much for simple Disjunctives (k),

. As

(k) The simple Disjunctive \hat{n} , or Vel, is mostly used indefinitely, so as to leave an Alternative. But when it is used definitely, so as to leave no Alternative, 'tis then a perfect Disjunctive of the Subsequent from the Previous, and has the same force with \hat{n} , or, Et non. 'Tis thus Gaza explains that Verse of Hemer,

Βόλομ' έγω λαον σάου έμμεναι, η απολέσθαι.

Ιλ, Α,

That is to fay, I defire the people should be faved, AND wor be destroyed, the Conjunction \tilde{n} being dvaiperixde, or substitute. It must however be confest, that this Verse is otherwise explained by an Ellipsis, either of $\mu \tilde{a} \lambda \lambda \delta v$, or dv lee, concerning which see the Commentators.

Ch. II. As to Adversative Disjunctives, it has been said already that they imply Opposition. Now there can be no Opposition of the same Attribute, in the same Subject, as when we say, Nireus was beautiful; but the Opposition must be either of the same Attribute in different Subjects, as when we say, Brutus was a Patriot, But Casar was not—or of different Attributes in the same Subject, as when we say, Gorgias was a Sophist, But not a Philosopher—or of different Attributes in different Subjects, as when we say, Plato was a Philosopher, But Hippias was a Sophist.

THE Conjunctions used for all these purposes may be called ABSOLUTE ADVERSATIVES.

But there are other Adversatives, besides these, as when we say, Nireus was more beautiful, THAN Achilles—Virgil was As great

great a Poet, As Cicero was an Orator. Ch. II.

The Character of these latter is, that they
go farther than the former, by marking
not only Opposition, but that Equality or

Excess, which arises among Subjects from
their being compared. And hence 'tis they
may be called Adversatives of ComPARISON.

Besides the Adversatives here mentioned, there are two other Species, of which the most eminent are unless and altho'. For example—Troy will be taken, unless the Palladium be preserved—Troy will be taken, altho! Hector defend it. The Nature of these Adversatives may be thus explained. As every Event is naturally allied to its Cause, so by parity of reason'tis opposed to its Preventive. And as every Cause is either adequate (1) or in-adequate (in-adequate,

⁽¹⁾ This Distinction has reference to common Opinion, and the form of Language, consonant thereto. In strict metaphysical truth, No Cause, that is not adequate, is any Cause at all.

cffectual) so in like manner is every Preventive. Now adequate Preventives are express by such Adversatives, as unless—Troy will be taken, unless the Palladium be preserved, that this, This alone is sufficient to prevent it. The In-adequate are express by such Adversatives, as Altho'—Troy will be taken, Altho' Hestor defend it, that is, Hestor's Defence will prove in-effectual.

THE Names given by the old Grammarians to denote these last Adversatives, appear not sufficiently to express their Natures (m). They may be better perhaps called Adversatives, Adequate, and In-Adequate.

AND thus it is that all DISJUNCTIVES that is CONJUNCTIONS, which conjoin Sentences,

 ⁽m) They called them for the most part without fufficient Distinction of their Species, Adversative, от "Екантыратнюй.

tences, but not their Meanings, are either Ch. II. SIMPLE or ADVERSATIVE; and that all ADVERSATIVES are either Absolute or Comparative; or else Adequate or In-adequate.

We shall finish this Chapter with a few miscellany Observations.

In the first place it may be observed, through all the Species of Dis-junctives, that the same Dis-junctive appears to have greater or less force, according as the sub-jects, which it dis-joins, are more or less dis-joined by Nature. For example, if we say, Every Number is even, or odd—Every Proposition is true, or salse—nothing seems to dis-join more strongly than the Dis-junctive, because no things are in Nature more incompatible than the Subjects. But if we say, That Object is a Triangle, or Figure contained under three right lines—the (or) in this case hardly seems to dis-join, or indeed to do more, than distinctly

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Ch. II. to express the Thing, first by its Name, and then by its Definition. So if we say, That Figure is a Sphere, or a Globe, or a Ball—the Dis-junctive in this case, tends no farther to dis-join, than as it distinguishes the several Names, which belong to the same Thing (n).

AGEN—the Words, When and Where, and all others of the same nature, such as, Whence, Whither, Whenever, Wherever, &c. may be properly called Abverbial Conjunctions, because they participate the nature both of Adverbs and Conjunctions—of Conjunctions, as they conjoin Sentences;

⁽n) The Latins had a peculiar Particle for this occasion, which they called Subdisjunctiva, a Subdisjunctive; and that was SIVE. Alexander five Paris; Mars five Mawors. The Greek 'Est' is feeting to answer the same end. Of these Particles, Seeling thus speaks—Et same nomen Subdisjunctivarum reste ecceptum est, neque enim tam plane disjunctivarum Disjunctiva. Nam Disjunctiva sunt in Contrariis—Subdisjunctiva autem etiam in non Contrariis, sed Diversis tam bum; ut, Alexander sive Paris. De C.L. Lat. c. 170.

tences; of Adverbs, as they denote the Ch. II.
Attributes either of Time, or of Place.

AGEN—these Adverbial Conjunctions, and perhaps most of the Prepositions (contrary to the Character of accessory Words, which have strictly no Signification, but when associated with other words) have a kind of observe Signification, when taken alone, by denoting those Attributes of Time and Place. And hence its, that they appear in Grammar, like Zoophytes in Nature; a kind of middle Beings, of amphibious character, which by sharing the Attributes of the higher and the lower, conduce to link the Whole together (o).

And

^{(0) &#}x27;Tis somewhat surprizing that the politest and most elegant of the Attic Writers, and Plato above all the rest, should have their Works silled with Particles of all kinds, and with Conjunctions in particular; while in the modern polite Works, as well of our selves as of our neighbours, scarce such a Word as a Particle, or Conjunction is to be found.

Ch. II. And so much for Conjunctions, their Genus, and their Species.

Is it, that where there is Connection in the Meaning, there must be Words had to connect; but that where the Connection is little or none, such Connectives are of little use? That Houses of Cards, without cement, may well answer their end, but not those Houses, where one would chuse to dwell? Is this the Cause? or have we attained an Elegance, to the Antients unknown?

Venimus ad summam fortune, &c.

CHAP.

CHAP. III.

Concerning those Connectives, called Prepositions.

PREPOSITIONS by their name express Ch. III. their Place, but not their Character.

Their Definition will distinguish them from the former Connectives. A PREPOSITION is a Part of Speech, devoid it self of Signification, but so formed as to unite two Words that are significant, and that resuse to coalesce or unite of themselves (a). This connective

⁽a) The Stoic Name for a Preposition, was Προθετικός Σύνδεσμος, Prapositiva Conjunctio, A Prepositive Conjunction. 'Ως μεν εν κ' κατα τας άλλας παραθέσεις αι προθέσεις συνδεσμικής συντάξεως γίνονται παρεμΦατικάι, λέλεκλαι ήμων εξ ων κ' αφορμή ευρηται παρα τους Στωικούς τε καλεύσθαι αυλας Προθετικές Συνδέσμες. Now in what manner even in other applications (besides the present) Prepositions give proof of their Conjunctive Syntax, we have mentioned already; whence too the Stoics took occasion to call them Presented took the Stoics took occasion to call them Presented took the Stoics took occasion to call them Presented took the Stoics took occasion to call them Presented took the Stoics took occasion to call them Presented took the Stoics took occasion to call them Presented took the Stoics took occasion to call them Presented took the Stoics took occasion to call them Presented took the Stoics took occasion to call them Presented took the Stoics took occasion to call them Presented to the Stoics took occasion to call them Presented to the Stoics took occasion to call them Presented to the Stoics took occasion to call them Presented to the Stoics took occasion to call them Presented to the Stoics took occasion to call them Presented to the Stoics took occasion to call them Presented to the Stoics took occasion to call them Presented to the Stoics took occasion to call them Presented to the Stoics took occasion to call them Presented to the Stoics took occasion to call them Presented to the Stoics took occasion to call them Presented to the Stoics took occasion to call them Presented to the Stoics took occasion to call them Presented to the Stoics took occasion to call them Presented to the Stoics took occasion to call them Presented to the Stoics took occasion to call them Presented to the Stoics took occasion to call the stoics to th

Ch. III. nective Power, (which relates to Words only, and not Sentences) will be better understood from the following Speculations.

Some things co-alefae and unite of themfelves; others refuse to do so without belp,
and as it were compulsion. Thus in Works
of Art, the Mortar and the Stone co-alefae
of themselves; but the Wainscot and the
Wall not without Nails and Pins. In Nature
this is more conspicuous. For example;
all Quantities, and Qualities co-alesce immediately with their Substances. Thus 'tis we
say, a fierce Lion, a vast Mountain; and
from this Natural Concord of Subject and
Accident, arises the Grammatical Concord of
Substantive and Adjective. In like manner
Actions co-alesce with their Agents, and
Passions

positive Conjunctions. Apollon. L. IV. c. 5. p. 313. Yet is this in fact rather a descriptive Sketch, than a complete Definition, since there are other Conjunctions, which are Prepositive as well as these. See Gaz. L. IV. de Præposit. Prisc. L. XIV. p. 283.

Passions with their Patients. Thus 'tis we Ch. III. Say, Alexander conquers; Darius is conquered. Nay, as every Energy is a kind of Medium between its Agent and Patient, the whole three, Agent, Energy, and Patient, coalesce with the same facility; as when we fay, Alexander conquers Darius. And hence, from these Modes of natural Co-alescence, arises the Grammatical Regimen of the Verb by its Nominative, and of the Accufative by its Verb. Farther than this, Attributives themselves may be most of them characterized, as when we say of such Attributives as ran, beautiful, learned, he ran fwiftly, the was very beautiful, he was moderately learned, &c. And hence the Co-alescence of the Adverb with Verbs, Participles, and Adjectives.

The general Conclusion appears to be this. "Those Parts of Speech unite " of themselves in Grammar, whose original Archetypes unite of \$4.54 Them-

Ch.III.", THEMSELVES IN NATURE." To which we may add, as following from what has been faid, that the great Objects of Natural Union are Substance and Attribute. Now the Substances naturally co-incide with their Attributes, yet they absolutely refuse doing so, one with another (b). And hence those known Maxims in Physics, that Body is impenetrable; that two Bodies cannot possess the same place; that the same Attribute cannot belong to different Substances, &c.

From these Principles it follows, that when we form a Sentence, the Substantive without difficulty co-incides with the Verb, from the natural Co-incidence of Substance and Energy—The Sun Warmeth. So likewise the Energy with the Subject, on which

⁽b) Causa, propter quam duo Substantiva non ponuntur sine copulà, e Philosophia petenda est: neque enim duo substantialiter unum esse potest, sicut Substantia et Accidens; itaque non dicas, Cæsar Cato pugnat. Scal. de Caus. Ling. Lat. c. 177.

which it operates - WARMETH THE Ch. III. So likewise both Substance and Energy with their proper Attributes. -THP SPLENDID SUN, -GENIALLY WARM-ETH-THE FERTILE EARTH. pose we were desirous to add other Substantives, as for instance, AIR, or BEAMS. How would these co-incide, or under what Character could they be introduced? Not as Nominatives or Accusatives, for both those places are already filled; the Nominative by the Substance, Sun; the Accusative by the Substance, EARTH. Not as Attributes to these last, or to any other thing; for Attributes by nature they neither are, nor can be made. Here then we perceive the Rise and Use of Preposi-TIONS. By these we connect those Substantives to Sentences, which at the time are unable to co-alesce of themselves. Let us assume for instance a pair of these Connectives, Thro', and, With, and mark their Effect upon the Substances here mentioned.

Ch. III. mentioned. The splendid Sun WITH his Beams genially warmeth THRO' the Air the fertile Earth. The Sentence, as before, remains intire and one; the Substantives required, are both introduced; and not a Word, which was there before, is detruded from its proper place.

IT must here be observed that most, if not all Prepositions seem originally formed to denote the *Relations of Place (c)*. The reason is, this is that grand *Relation*, which *Bodies* or *natural Substances* maintain at all times one to another, whether they are contiguous or remote, whether in motion, or at rest.

IT may be faid indeed that in the Continuity of Place they form this UNIVERSE

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⁽c) Omne corpus aut movetur aut quiescit: quate opus suit aliquâ notâ, qua TO NOT significaret, sive esset inter duo extrema, inter qua motus sit, sive esset in altero extremorum, in quibus sit quies. Hint eliciemus Prapositionis essentialem desinitionem. Scal. de Caus. Ling. Lat. c. 152,

or visible Whole, and are made as Ch. III. much ONE by that general Comprehension, as is confishent with their several Natures. and specific Distinctions. Thus 'tis we have Prepositions, to denote the contiguous Relation of Body, as when we fay, Caius walked WITH a Staff; the Statue flood upon a Pedestal; the River ran OVER a Sand; others for the detached Relation, as when we say, He is going to Italy; the Sun is risen ABOVE the Hills; these Figs came PROM Turky. So as to Motion and Reft, only with this difference, that bere the Preposition varies its character with the Verb. Thus if we say, that Lump bangs FROM the Ceiling, the Preposition, FROM, assumes a Character of Quiescence. But if we say, that Lamp is falling FROM the Ceiling, the Preposition in such case assumes a Character of Motion. So in Milton,

— To support uneafie Steps
OVER the burning Marle—Par. L. I.
Here OVER denotes Motion,

Agen

Ch. III. Agen —

—He—with looks of cordial Love
Hung over ber enamour'd—Par. L.IV.
Here over denotes Rest.

Bur tho' the original use of Prepositions was to denote the Relations of Place, they could not be confined to this Office only. They by degrees extended themselves to Subjects incorporeal, and came to denote Relations, as well intellectual, as local. Thus because in Place, he who is above, has commonly the advantage over him who is below, hence we transfer over and under to Dominion and Obedience; of a King we say, he ruled over his People; of a common Soldier, be ferved UNDER fuch a General. So too we say, with Thought; without Attention; thinking over a Subject; under Anxiety; from Fear; out of Love; through Jealousy, &c. which instances, with many others of like kind.

kind, shew that the first Words of Men, Ch. III. like their first Ideas, had an immediate reference to sensible Objects, and that in after Days, when they began to discern with their Intellect, they took those Words, which they found already made, and transferred them by metaphor to intellectual Conceptions. There is indeed no Method to express new Ideas, but either this of Metaphor, or that of Coining new Words, both which have been practised by Philosophers and wise Men, according to the nature, and exigence of the occasion (d).

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And

⁽d) Among the Words new coined we may ascribe to Anaxagoras, 'Ομοιομέρεια; to Plato, Ποιότπε; to Cicero, Qualitas; to Aristotle, 'Ενδελέχεια; to the Stoics, 'Όνδις, κεράτις, and many others.— Among the Words transferred by Metaphor from common to special Meanings, to the Platonics we may ascribe 'Ιδία; to the Pythagoreans and Peripatetics, Καθηγορία, and Καθηγορείν; to the Stoics, Καθάληψις, ὑπόληψις, καθήκου; to the Pyrrhonists, 'Έξες, ἐνδέχεται, ἐπέχω, &cc.

Ch. III. In the foregoing use of Prepositions, we have seen how they are applied nard magaster, by way of Juxta-position, that is

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And here I cannot but observe, that he who pretends to discuss the Sentiments of any one of these Philosophers, or even to cite and translate him (except in trite and obvious Sentences) without accurately knowing the Greek Tongue in general; the nice differences of many Words apparently fynonymous; the peculiar Stile of the Author whom he prefumes to handle; the new coined Words, and new Significations given to old Words, used by fuch Author, and his Sect; the whole Philosophy of fuch Sect, together with the Connections and Dependencies of its feveral Parts, whether Logical, Ethical, or Physical; - He, I say, that without this previous preparation, attempts what I have faid, will shoot in the dark; will be liable to perpetual blunders; will explain, and praise, and cenfure merely by chance; and tho' he may possibly to Fools appear as a wife Man, will certainly among the Wife ever pais for a Fool. Such a Man's Intellect comprehends attient Philosophy, as his Eye comprehends a distant Prospect. He may see perhaps enough, to know Mountains from Plains, and Seas from Woods, but for an accurate discernment of particulars, and their character, this without farther helps 'tis impossible he should attain.

to fay, where they are prefixt to a Word, Ch. III. without becoming a Part of it. But they' may be used also mara street, by way of Composition, that is, they may be prefixt to a Word, so as to become a real Part of it (e). Thus in Greek we have Eniqually, in Latin, Intelligere, in English, to Underfland. So also, to foretel, to overact, to undervalue, to outgo, &c. and in Greek and Latin, other Instances innumerable. In this case the Prepositions commonly transfuse fornething of their own Meaning into the Word, with which they are compounded; and this imparted Meaning in most instances will be found ultimately resolvable into some of the Relations of PLACE. (f) as used either in its proper or metaphorical acceptation.

LASTLY,

⁽e) See Gez. Gram. L. IV. Cap. de Præpositione.

⁽f) For example, let us suppose some given Space. E & Ex, signify out of that Space; PRR, thro' it, from beginning to end; IN, within it; SUR, under

Ch. III. LASTLY, there are times, when Prepofitions totally lose their connective Nature, being

it. Hence then E and Per, in composition augment; Enormis, something not simply big, but big in excess; something got out of the rule, and beyond the measure; Dico, to speak, Edico, to speak out, whence Edictum, an Edica, something so effectually spoken, as all are supposed to hear, and all to obey. So Terence,

Dice, Edico vebis-Eun. V. 5. 20.

which (as Donatus tells us in his Comment) is an "Augnous. Fari, to speak, Effari, to speak out—hence Effatum, an Axiom, or self-evident Proposition, fomething addressed as it were to all Men, and calling for universal Assent Cic. Acad. II. 29. Permagnus, Peruvilis, great throughout, useful thro' every part.

On the contrary, In and Sub, diminish and lessen. Injustus, Iniquus, unjust, inequitable, that lies within Justice and Equity, that reaches not so far, that falls short of them; Subniger, blackish, Subrubicundus, reddish; tending to black, and tending to red, but yet under the standard, and below persection.

Emo, originally fignified to take away; hence it came to fignify to buy, because he, who buys, takes away

being converted into Adverbs, and used Ch. III. in Syntax accordingly. Thus Homer,

-Γέλασε ή πασα περί χθών.

-And Earth smil'd all around.

Iλ. T. 362.

But of this we have spoken in a preceding Chapter (g). One thing we must however observe, before we finish this Chapter, which is, that whatever we may be told of Cases in modern Languages, there are in fact no such things; but their force and power

away his purchase. INTER, Between, implies Difcontinuance, for in things continuous there can nothing lie between. From these two comes, Interimo,
to kill, that is to say, to take a Man away in the midst
of Life, by making a Discontinuance of his vital Energy.
So also Perimo, to kill a Man, that is to say, to take
him away thoroughly; for indeed what more thorough
taking away can well be supposed? The Greek Verb,
'Avaipeso, and the English Verb, To take off, seem
both to carry the same allusion. And thus 'tis that
Prepositions become Parts of other Words.

⁽g) See before p. 205.

Ch.III. power is exprest by two Methods, either by Situation, or by Prepositions; the Nominative and Accusative Cases by Situation; the rest, by Prepositions. But this we shall make the Subject of a Chapter by itself, concluding here our Inquiry concerning Prepositions.

CHAP.

CHAP. IV.

Concerning Cases.

S CASES, or at least their various Ch. IV. Powers, depend on the know-ledge partly of Nouns, partly of Verbs, and partly of Prepositions; they have been referved till those Parts of Speech had been examined and discussed, and are for that reason made the Subject of so late a Chapter, as the present.

THERE are no CASES in the modern Languages, except a few among the primitive Pronouns, such as I, and ME; JE, and Moy; and the English Genitive, formed by the addition of s, as when from Lion, we form Lion's; from Ship, Ship's. From this defect however we may be enabled to discover in some instances what a Case is, the Periphrasis, which supplies

Ch. IV. plies its place, being the Case (as it were)
unfolded. Thus Equi is analyzed into Du
Cheval, Of the Horse; Equo into Au Cheval,
To the Horse. And hence we see that the
Genitive and Dative Cases imply the
joint Power of a Noun and a Preposition,
the Genitive's Preposition being A, De, or
Ex, the Dative's Preposition being Ad, or
Versus.

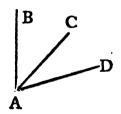
WE have not this affistance as to the Accusative, which in modern Languages (a few instances excepted) is only known from its position, that is to say, by being subsequent to its Verb, in the collocation of the words.

THE VOCATIVE we pass over from its little use, being not only unknown to the modern Languages, but often in the antient being supplied by the *Nominative*.

THE ABLATIVE likewise was used by the Romans only; a Case they seem to have adopted

adopted to affociate with their Prepositions, Ch. IV. as they had deprived their Genitive and Dative of that privilege; a Case certainly not necessary, because the Greeks do as well without it, and because with the Romans themselves 'tis frequently undistinguished.

THERE remains the NOMINATIVE, which whether it were a Case or no, was much disputed by the Antients. The Peripatetics held it to be no Case, and likened the Noun, in this its primary and original Form, to a perpendicular Line, such for example, as the line AB.



The Variations from the Nominative, they confidered as if A B were to fall from its perpendicular, as for example, to A C, or A D. Hence then they only called these Variations, $\Pi T \Omega' \Sigma E I \Sigma$, Casus, Cases, or

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FAL-

Ch. IV. FALLINGS. The Stoics on the contrary, and the Grammarians with them, made the Nominative a CASE also. Words they conlidered (as it were) to fall from the Mind, or discursive Faculty. Now when a Noun fell thence in its primary Form, they then called it IITO'SIS 'OPOH', CASUS REC-TUS, AN ERECT, OF UPRIGHT CASE OF FALLING, such as AB, and by this name they distinguished the Nominative. When it fell from the Mind under any of its variations, as for example in the form of a Genitive, a Dative, or the like, such variations they called ΠΤΩΊΣΕΙΣ ΠΛΑΓΙΊΑΙ, CA-SUS OBLIQUI, OBLIQUE CASES, OF SIDE-LONG FALLINGS (such as A C, or A D) in opposition to the other (that is A B) which was erect and perpendicular (a). too Grammarians called the Method of enumerating the various Cases of a Noun, KAIΣIΣ, DECLINATIO, a DECLENSION, it being

⁽a) See Ammon. in Libr. de Interpr. p. 35.

being a fort of progressive Descent from the Ch. IV.

Noun's upright Form thro' its various de
clining Forms, that is, a Descent from

AB, to AC, AD, &c.

OF these Cases we shall treat but of four, that is to say, the Nominative, the Accusative, the Genitive, and the Dative.

IT has been said already in the preceding Chapter, that the great Objects of natural Union are Substance and Attribute. Now from this Natural Concord arises the Logical Concord of Subject and Predicate, and the Grammatical Concord of Substantive and Attributive (b). These Concords in Speech produce Propositions and Sentences, as that previous Concord in Nature produces natural Beings. This being admitted,

⁽b) See before, p. 264.

Ch. IV. admitted, we proceed by observing, that when a Sentence is regular and orderly, Nature's Substance, the Logician's Subject, and the Grammarian's Substantive are all denoted by that Case, which we call the Nominative. For example, CÆSAR pugnat, Æs fingitur, Domus ædificatur. We may remark too by the way, that the Character of this Nominative may be learnt from its Attributive. The Action implied in pugnat, shews its Nominative CASAR to be an Active efficient Cause; the Passion implied in fingitur, shews its Nominative Æs to be a Passive Subject, as does the Passion in adificatur prove Domus to be an Effect.

As therefore every Attributive would as far as possible conform itself to its Substantive, so for this reason, when it has Cases, it imitates its Substantive, and appears as a Nominative also. So we find it in such instances as—Cicero est ele-

QUENS; VITIUM eff TURPE; Homo eff Ch. IV.

ANIMAL, &c. When it has no Cases,

(as happens with Verbs) it is forced to
content itself with such affimilations as it
has, those of Number and Person *; as
when we say, Cicero Loquitur; nos
Loquimur; Homines Loquintur.

FROM what has been said, we may make the following observations—that as there can be no Sentence without a Sub-stantive, so that Substantive, if the Sentence be regular, is always denoted by a Nominative—that on this occasion all the Attributives, that have Cases, appear as Nominatives also—that there may be a regular and perfect Sentence without any of the other Cases, but that without one Nominative at least, this is utterly impossible. Hence therefore we form its Character and Description—The Nominative is that Case, without which there can be no regu-

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^{*}What fort of Number and Person Verbs have, see before p. 170, 171.

Ch. IV. lar (c) and perfect Sentence. We are now to fearch after another Case.

When the Attributive in any Sentence is some Verb denoting Action, we may be assured the principal Substantive is some active efficient Cause. So we may call Achilles and Lysippus in such Sentences as Achilles vulneravit, Lysippus fecit. But the this be evident and clearly understood, the Mind is still in suspence, and finds its conception incomplete. Action, it well knows, not only requires some Agent, but it must have a Subject also to work on, and it must produce some Effect. 'Tis then to denote one of these (that is, the Subject or the Effect) that the Authors of Language

⁽c) We have added regular as well as perfect, because there may be irregular Sentences, which may be perfect without a Nominative. Of this kind are all Sentences, made out of those Verbs, called by the Stoics Παρασυμεάματα or Παρακατηγογήματα, such as Σωκράτει μετάμελει, Socratem pænitet, &c. See before, p. 180.

guage have destined THE Accusative. Ch.IV. Achilles valueravit HECTOREM-here the Accusative denotes the Subject. Lypopus fecit statuas-here the Accusative dedenotes the Effect. By these additional Explanations the Mind becomes fatisfied, and the Sentences acquire a Perfection. which before they wanted. In whatever other manner, whether figuratively, or with Prepositions, this Case may have been used, its first destination seems to have been that here mentioned, and hence therefore we shall form its Character and Description - THE ACCUSATIVE is that Case, which to an efficient Nominative and a Verb of Action Subjoins either the Effect or the passive Subject. We have still lest the Genitive and the Dative, which we investigate, as follows.

It has been faid in the preceding Chapter (d), that when the Places of the Nominative

⁽d) See before, p. 265.

Ch. IV. minative and the Accusative are filled by proper Substantives, other Substantives are annexed by the help of Prepositions. Now, though this be so far true in the modern Languages, that (a very few instances excepted) they know no other method; yet is not the rule of equal latitude with respect to the Latin or Greek, and that from reasons which we are about to offer.

Among the various Relations of Substantives denoted by Prepositions, there
appear to be two principal ones; and these
are, the Term or Point, which something
commences from, and the Term or Point,
which something tends to. These Relations the Greeks and Latins thought of
so great importance, as to distinguish them,
when they occurred, by peculiar Terminations of their own, which express their
force, without the belp of a Preposition.
Now 'tis here we behold the Rise of the
antient Genitive, and Dative, the Geni-

TIVE

TIVE being formed to express all Relations Ch. IV. commencing FROM itself; THE DATIVE, all Relations tending To itself. Of this there can be no stronger proof, than the Analysis of these Cases in the modern Languages, which we have mentioned already (e).

"Tis on these principles that they say in Greek—Δεομαί ΣΟΥ, δίδωμί ΣΟΙ, Ος thee I ask, To thee I give. The reason is, in requests the person requested is one whom something is expected from; in donations, the person presented, is one whom something passes to. So agen—

Πεποίηται λίθυ, 'tis made of Stone. Stone was the passive Subject, and thus it appears in the Genitive, as being the Term from, or out of which. Even in Latin, where the Syntax is more formal and strict, we read—

Implentur

⁽e) See before, p. 275, 276.

Ch.IV. Implentur veteris Bacchi, pinguisque ferina. Virg.

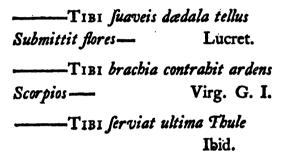
The old Wine and Venison were the funds or stores, of or from which they were filled. Upon the same principles, Ilivo ru usaros, is a Phrase in Greek; and, Je bois de l'eau, a Phrase in French, as much as to say, I take some or a certain part, FROM or out of a certain whole.

WHEN we meet in Language such Genitives as the Son of a Father; the Father of a Son; the Picture of a Painter; the Painter of a Picture, &c. these are all of them Relatives, each of them being reciprocally a Term or Point to the other, from which it derives its Essence, or at least its Intellection (f).

THE

⁽f) All Relatives are said to reciprocate, or mutually infer each other, and therefore they are often express by this Case, that is to say, the Genitive. Thus Aristotle, Πάνλα δὲ τὰ πρός τι πρὸς ἀντις ρίσους

THE Dative, as it implies tendency to, Ch. IV. is employed among its other uses to denote the Final Cause, that being the Cause to which all events, not fortuitous, may be said to tend. Tis thus used in the following instances, among innumerable others.



And so much for Cases, their Origin and Use; a Sort of Forms, or Terminations,

Φουλα λέγεται, ολου ο δέλο δεσπότε δέλο, κ) ο δεσπότης δέλε δεσπότης λέγεται είναι, κ) το διπλάσιου ήμίσεο διπλάσιου, κ) το ήμισυ διωλασίε ήμισυ. Omnia vero, quæ funt ad aliquid, referuntur ad ea, quæ reciprocantur. Ut fervus dicitur domini fervus; et dominus, fervi dominus; necnon duplum, dimidii duplum; et dimidium, dupli dimidium. Categor. C. VII.

Ch. IV. tions, which we could not well pass over, from their great importance both in the Greek and Latin Tongues; but which however, not being among the Essentials of Language, and therefore not to be found in many particular Languages, can be hardly said to fall within the limits of our Inquiry.

C HAP.

CHAP. V.

Concerning Interjections—Recapitulation—
Conclusion.

ESIDES the Parts of Speech above Ch. V. mentioned, there remains THE IN-TERJECTION. Of this Kind among the Greeks are O, Dev, Ai, &c. among the Latins, Ab! Heu! Hei! &c. among the English, Ab! Alass! Fie! &c. These the Greeks have ranged among their Adverbs; improperly, if we consider the Adverbial Nature, which always co-incides with some Verb, as its Principal, and to which it always serves in the character of an Attributive. Now Interjections coincide with no Part of Speech, but are either utter'd alone, or else thrown into a Sentence. without altering its Form, either in Syntax or Signification. The Latins seem there-U fore

Ch. V. fore to have done better in separating them by themselves, and giving them a name by way of distinction from the rest.

SHOULD it be ask't, if not Adverbs, what then are they. It may be answered, not so properly Parts of Speech, as adventitious Sounds; certain Voices of Nature, rather than Voices of Art, expressing those Passions and natural Emotions, which spontaneously arise in the human Soul, upon the View or Narrative of interesting Events (a).

« AND

⁽a) Interjectiones a Græcis ad Adverbia referuntur, atque eos sequitur etiam Boethius. Et reste quidem de iis, quando casum regunt. Sed quando mationi solum inseruntur, ut nota affectús, velut suspirii aut metús, vix videntur ad classem aliquam pertinere, ut quæ naturales sint notæ; non, aliarum vecum instar, ex instituto significent. Vost. de Anal. L. I. c. 1. Interjectio est Vox affectum mentis significans, ac citra verbi opem sententiam complens. Ibid. c. 3. Restat classium extrema, Interjectio. Hujus appellatio non similiter se habet ac Conjunctionis.

"And thus we have found that ALL Ch. V.
"Words are either significant by

" THEMSELVES, OR ONLY SIGNIFICANT,

U 2 . "

Nam cum bæt dicatur Conjunctio, quia conjungat; Interjectio tamen, non quia interjacet, sed quia interjicitur, nomen accepit. Nec tamen de Loia ejus est, ut interjiciatur; cum per se compleat sententiam, nec raro ab ed incipiat oratio. Ibid. L. IV. c. 28. INTER-JECTIONEM non esse partem Orationis sic oftendo: Quod naturale est, idem est apud omnes : Sed gemitus & figna lætitiæ idem sunt apud omnes : Sunt igitur naturales. Si vero naturales, non funt partes Orationis. Nam eæ partes, secundum Aristotelem, ex instituto, non natura, debent constare. Interjectionem Graci Adverbiis adnumerant; sed falso. Nam neque, &c. Sanct. Miner. L. I. c. 2. Interjectionem Graci inter Adverbia ponunt, quoniam hac quoque vel adjungitur verbis. vel verba ei subaudiuntur. Ut si dicam-Papæ! quid video? - vel per se-Papæ! - etiamsi non addatur, Miror; habet in se ipsius verbi significationem. Qua res maxime fecit Romanarum artium Scriptores seperatim banc partem ab Adverbiis accipere; quia videtur affectum babere in sese Verbi, et plenam motus animi signisicationem, etiamsi non addatur Verbum, demonstrare. Interjectio tamen non solum illa, quæ dicunt Græsi σχετλιασμον, significat; sed etiam voces, que cujuscunque passionis animi pulsu per exclamationem interjici. untur. Prifc. L. XV.

Ch. V. " WHEN ASSOCIATED—that those, figni-" ficant by themselves, denote either Sub-" STANCES or ATTRIBUTES, and are called " for that reason Substantives and At-" TRIBUTIVES - that the Substantives are " either Nouns or Pronouns—that the " ATTRIBUTIVES are either PRIMARY or " SECONDARY — that the Primary Attri-" butives are either VERBS, PARTICIPLES, " or ADJECTIVES; the Secondary, AD-" VERBS-Agen, that the Parts of Speech, " only significant when associated, are either " DEFINITIVES or CONNECTIVES—that " the Definitives are either ARTICULAR, " or PRONOMINAL—and that the Connec-" tives are either PREPOSITIONS or CON-"junctions."

And thus have we resolved Language, as a Whole into its constituent Parts, which was the first thing, that we proposed, in the course of this Inquiry (b).

But

⁽b) See before p. 7.

BUT now as we conclude, methinks ICh. V. hear some Objector, demanding with an air of pleasantry, and ridicule-" Is there " no speaking then without all this trouble? " Do we not talk every one of us, as well " unlearned, as learned; as well poor Pea-" fants, as profound Philosophers?" We may answer by interrogating on our part -Do not those same poor Peasants use the Levar and the Wedge, and many other Instruments, with much habitual readiness? And yet have they any conception of those Geometrical Principles, from which those Machines derive their Efficacy and Force? And is the Ignorance of these Peasants, a reason for others to remain ignorant; or to render the Subject a less becoming Inquiry? Think of Animals, and Vegetables, that occur every day-of Time, of Place, and of Motion -of Light, of Colours, and of Gravitation U .3

Ch. V. tion—of our very Senses and Intellect, by which we perceive every thing else—That they are, we all know, and are perfectly satisfied—What they are, is a Subject of much obscurity and doubt. Were we to reject this last Question, because we are certain of the first, we should banish all Philosophy at once out of the world (c).

But a graver Objector now accosts us. "What (fays he) is the UTILITY? "Whence the Profit, where the Gain?" Every Science whatever (we may answer)

⁽c) 'Αλλ' ες πολλα των δυτων, α την μεν σπερξυ

Εχει γυωριμωτάτην, αγυως οτάτην δε την εσίαν · ωσπερ

"Εχει γυωριμωτάτην, αγυως οτάτην δε την εσίαν · ωσπερ

"Εχάς ε γαρ τύτων το μεν είναι γπάριμον κε αναμφίτ

λεκτου τίς δε ποτέ ές νι αυτών η εσία, των χαλιπωτάτων όραθήναι. "Ες: δε δη τι των τοι έτων κε ή ψυχή

το μεν γαρ είναι τι την ψυχην, γυωριμώτατον κε φανιτό

το μεν γαρ είναι τι την ψυχην, γυωριμώτατον κε φανιτό

Αλεξανδ. 'Αφροδ. Περι ψυχης, Β.

P. 142.

fwer) has its Use. Arithmetic is excellent Ch. V. for gauging of Liquors; Geometry, for measuring of Estates; Astronomy, for making of Almanacks; and Grammar perhaps, for drawing of Bonds and Conveyances.

Thus much to the Sordid—If the Liberal ask for something better than this, we may answer and assure them from the best authorities, that every Exercise of the Mind upon Theorems of, Science, like generous and manly Exercise of the Body, tends to call forth and strengthen Nature's original Vigour. Be the Subject it self immediately lucrative or not, the Nerves of Reason are braced by the mere Employ, and we become abler Actors in the Drama of Life, whether our Part be of the busier, or of the sedater kind.

U 4 PERHAPS

Ch. V. PERHAPS too there is a Pleasure even in Science it self, distinct from any End, to which it may be farther conducive. Are not Health and Strength of Body desirable for their own sakes, tho' we happen not to be fated either for Porters or Draymen? And have not Health and Strength of Mind their intrinsic Worth also, tho' not condemned to the low drudgery of fordid Emolument? Why should there not be a Good (could we have the Grace to recognize it) in the mere Energy of our Intellect, as much as in Energies of lower degree? The Sportsman believes there is Good in his Chace; the Man of Gaiety, in his Intrigue; even the Glutton, in his Meal. We may justly ask of these, wby they pursue such things; but if they answer, they pursue them, because they are Good, 'twould be folly to ask them farther, WHY they PURSUE what is Good.

It might well in such case be replied on Ch. V. their behalf (how strange soever it may at first appear) that if there was not something Good, which was in no respect useful, even things useful themselves could not possibly have existence. For this is in fact no more than to affert, that some things are Ends, some things are Means, and that if there were no Ends, there could be of course no Means.

It should seem then the Grand Question was, what is Good—that is to say, what is that which is desirable, not for something else, but for it self; for whether it be the Chace, or the Intrigue, or the Meal, may be fairly questioned, since Men in each instance are far from being agreed.

In the mean time 'tis plain from daily experience, there are infinite Pleasures,

Amuse-

Summer, others for Winter; some for Country, others for Town; some, easy, indolent and soft; others, boisterous, active, and rough; a multitude diversified to every taste, and which for the time are enjoyed as PERFECT GOOD, without a thought of any End, that may be farther obtained. Some Objects of this kind are at times sought by all men, excepting alone that contemptible Tribe, who, from a love to the Means of life wholly forgetting its End, are truly for that reason called Misers, or Miserable.

IF there be supposed then a Pleasure, a Satisfaction, a Good, a Something valuable for its self without view to any thing farther, in so many Objects of the sub-ordinate kind; shall we not allow the same praise to the sublimest of all Objects? Shall THE INTELLECT alone seel no pleasures

in

in its Energy, when we allow them to the Ch. V. groffest Energies of Appetite, and Sense? Or if the Reality of all Pleasures and Goods were to be controverted, may not the Intellectual Sort be defended, as rationally as any of them? Whatever may be urged in behalf of the rest (for we are not now arraigning them) we may fafely affirm of INTELLECTUAL GOOD, that 'tis " the "Good of that Part, which is most ex-" cellent within us: that 'tis a Good ac-" comodated to all Places and Times; " which neither depends on the will of " others, nor on the affluence of external " Fortune; that 'tis a Good, which de-" cays not with decaying Appetites, but " often rifes in vigour, when those are no " more (d)."

THERE is a Difference, we must own, between this *Intellectual* Virtue, and *Moral* Virtue.

⁽d) Sec Vol. I. p. 119, 120, &c.

Ch. V. Virtue. Moral Virtue, from its Employment, may be called more Human, as it tempers our Appetites to the purposes of human Life. But Intellectual Virtue may be surely called more Divine, if we consider the Nature and Sublimity of its End.

INDEED for Moral Virtue, as it is almost wholly conversant about Appetites, and Affections, either to reduce the natural ones to a proper Mean, or totally to expel the unnatural and vitious, 'twould be impious to suppose the Deity to have occasion for such an Habit, or that any work of this kind should call for his attention. Yet God Is, and Lives. So we are assured from Scripture it self. What then may we suppose the Diving Life to be? Not a Life of Sleep, as Fables tell us of Endymion. If we may be allowed then to conjecture with a be-

coming reverence, what more likely, than Ch. V. A PERPETUAL ENERGY OF THE PUREST INTELLECT ABOUT THE FIRST, ALL-COMPREHENSIVE OBJECTS OF INTELLECTION, WHICH OBJECTS ARE NO OTHER THAN THAT INTELLECT ITSELF? For in pure Intellection it holds the reverse of all Sensation, that THE PERCEIVER AND THING PERCEIVED are ALWAYS ONE AND THE SAME (e).

'Twas

⁽e) 'Ei sin strus εῦ ἔχει, ὡς ἡμεῖς ποτὲ, ὁ Θεὸς ἀεὶ, θαυμασιών ἐι δὲ μᾶλλου, ἔτι θαυμασιώντερου ἔχει δὲ ὧδε, κὸ ζωὴ δὲ γε ὑπάρχει ἡ γὰρ Νε ἐνέργεια, ζωή ' Ἐκεῖνος δε, ἡ ἐνέργεια ' ἐνέργεια δε ἡ καθ' ἀυτὴν, ἐκείνε ζωὸ ἀρίς η κὸ ἀἰδιος. Φαμὲν δὶ τὸν Θεὸν εἶναι ζῶον ἀἰδιον, ἄρις ου ຝς ε ζωὴ κὸ ἀιῶν συνεχὴς κὸ ἀἰδιος ὑπάρχει τῷ Θεῷ ' ΤΟΥΤΟ γὰρ' 'ΘΕΟ΄ Σ. Τῶν μετὰ τὰ Φυσ' Λ΄. ζ΄. 'Tis remarkable in Scripture that God is peculiarly characterized as A Living God, in opposition to all false and imaginary Deities, of whom some had no pretensions to Life at all; others to none higher than that of Vegetables or Brutes; and the best were nothing better than illustrious Men, whose existence was circumscribed by the short period of Humanity.

"Twas Speculation of this kind con-Ch. V cerning THE DIVINE NATURE, which induced one of the wifest among the Antients to believe—" That the Man, " who could live in the pure enjoyment " of his Mind, and who properly culti-" vated that divine Principle, was bappiest " in bimself, and most beloved by the Gods. · " For if the Gods had any regard to " what past among Men (as it appeared "they had) 'twas probable they should " rejoice in that which was most excellent, " and by nature the most nearly allied to " themselves; and, as this was MIND, " that they should requite the Man, who " most loved and honoured This, both " from

To the passage above quoted, may be added another, which immediately precedes it. 'Αυτου δι νοεῖ ο νοῦς κατα μετάληψιν το νοητος γας γίνεται, θιγλάνων κὸ νοῶν ὡς τΑΤΤΟΝ ΝΟΓΣ ΚΑΙ ΝΟΗΤΟΝ.

BOOK THE SECOND.

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" from his regard to that which was Ch. V.

" dear to themselves, and from his act-

" ing a Part, which was laudable and

" right (f)."

And thus in all Science there is something valuable for itself, because it contains within it something which is divine.

End of the SECOND BOOK.

HER-

⁽f) 'Hθικ' Νικομαχ' τὸ Κ΄, κεΦ, ή.

HERMES:

OR, A

Philosophical Inquiry

CONCERNING

UNIVERSAL GRAMMAR.

BOOK III.

CHAP. I.

Introduction—Division of the Subject into its principal Parts.

OME things the MIND performs Ch. I. thro' the Body; as for example, the various Works and Energies of Art. Others it performs without fuch Medium; as for example, when it thinks, and reasons, and concludes. Now tho' the

the Principle or Source, yet are these last more properly its own peculiar Acts, as being immediately referable to its own inmate Powers. And thus is MIND ultimately the Cause of all; of every thing at least that is Fair and Good.

Among those Acts of Mind more immediately its own, that of mental Separation may be well reckoned one. Corporeal Separations, however accurate otherwife, are in one respect incomplete, as they may be repeated without end. The smallest Limb, favered from the imales Animalcule (if we could suppose any instrument equal to such diffection) has still a triple Extension of length, breadth, and thickness; has a figure, a colour, with perhaps many other qualities; and fo will continue to have, tho' thus divided to infinity. But the Mind furmounts all power of Centretion, and can place in the famplest manner EVERY

every Attribute by itself; convex without Ch. I. concave; colour without superficies; superficies without Body; and Body without its Accidents, as distinctly each one, as the they had never been united.

And thus 'tis that it penetrates into the recesses of all things, not only dividing them, as Wholes, into their more confpicuous Parts, but persisting, till it even separate those Elementary Principles, which, being blended together after a more mysterious manner, are united in the minutest Part, as much as in the mightiest Whole (a).

Now if MATTER and FORM are among these Elements, and deserve perhaps to be esteemed as the principal among them, it may not be foreign to the Design of this Treatise, to seek whether these, or any things analogous to them, may be found in X 2 Speech

(a) See below p. 312.

Ch. I. Speech or Language (b). This therefore we shall attempt after the following method.

EVERY.

(b) See before p. 2. 7. MATTER and FORM (in Greek "TAH and E"IAOE) were Terms of great import in the days of antient Philosophy, when things were scrutinized rather at their Beginning than at their End. They have been but little regarded by modern Philosophy, which almost wholly employs itself about the last order of Substance, that is to say, the tangible, corporeal or concrete, and which acknowledges no separations even in this, but those made by mathematical Instruments or Chemical Process.

The original meaning of the Word TAH, was SYLVA, a WOOD. Thus Homer,

Τρέμε δ' έρεπ μαπρά κζ ΤΛΗ, Ποοσίο ὑπ' ἀθανάθοισι Ποσειδάωνος ἰψθος.

As Neptune past, the Mountains and the Wood
Trembled beneath the God's immortal Feet.

Hence as Wood was perhaps the first and most useful kind of Materials, the Word "This, which denoted it, came to be by degrees extended, and at length to denote MATTER OF MATERIALS in general. In this sense Brass was called the "This or Matter of a Pillar; and so in other instances. The Platenic Chalcidius, and other

Every thing in a manner, whether Ch. I. natural or artificial, is in its constitution

com-

other Authors of the latter Latinity use SYLVA under the same extended and comprehensive Signification.

Now as the Species of Matter here mentioned, (Stone, Metal, Wood, &c.) occur most frequently in common life, and are all nothing more than natural Substances or Bodies, hence by the vulgar Matter and Body have been taken to denote the same thing; Material to mean Corporeal; Immaterial, Incorporeal, &c. But this was not the Sentiment of Philosophers of old, by whom the Term Matter was seldom used under so narrow an acceptation. With these, every thing was called "TAH, or Matter, whether corporeal or incorporeal, which was capable of becoming something else; or of being moulded into something else, whether from the operation of Art, of Nature, or a higher Cause.

In this fense they not only called Brass the "Υλη of a Statue, and Timber of a Boat, but Letters and Syllables they called the "Υλαι of Words; Words or simple Terms, the "Υλαι of Propositions; and Propositions themselves the "Υλαι of Syllogisms. The Stoics held all things out of our own power, (τὰ ἐκ ἰψ ἡμῖ) such as Wealth and Poverty, Howard Y 3 nour

Ch. I. compounded of fomething Common, and fomething Peculiar; of fomething Com-

mon,

nour and Dishonour, Health and Sickness, Life and Death, to be the Thai, or Materials of Virtue or Moral Goodness, which had its effence in a proper conduct with respect to all these. (Vid. Arr. Epick. L. I. c. 29. Also Vol. the first of these miscellaneous Treatises, p. 187, 309. M. Ant. XII, 29. VII, 29. X, 18, 19. where the 'Thixov and Alliades are opposed to each other). The Peripatetics, tho' they expressly held the Soul to be acompalos, or Incorporeal, yet still talked of a Nes Thixos, a material Mind or Intellect. This to modern Ears may possibly found something harsh. Yet if we translate the Words, Natural Capacity, and confider them as only denoting that original and native Power of Intellection, which being previous to all human Knowledge, is yet necessary to its reception; there seems nothing then to remain, that can give us offence. And fo much for the Idea of TAH, or MATTER. Alex. Aphred. de Anjm. p. 144. b. 145.

As to E'IAOE, its original meaning was that of FORM OF FIGURE, confidered as denoting vifible Symmetry, and Proportion; and hence it had its name from Eidw to fee, Beauty of person being one of the noblest, and most excellent Objects of Sight-Thus Euripides,

Πρώτον μέν Είδος άξιον τυραννίδος.
Fair Form to Empire gave the first pretence.

Now

and of something *Peculiar*, by which it

is

Now as the Form or Figure of visible Beings tended principally to diffinguish them, and to give to each its Name and Essence; hence in a more general sense. subatever of any kind (subether corporal or incorporeal) was peculiar, essential, and distinctive, so as by its accession to any Beings, as to its Tan or Matter, to mark them with a Character, which they had not before, was called by the Antients E I'AO E or FORM. Thus not only the Shape given to the Brais was called the Rides or Form of the Statue; but the Proportion assigned to the Drugs was the Riles or Form of the Medicine; the orderly Motion of the human Body was the Eides or Form of the Dance; the just Arrangement of the Propositions, the Eldos or Form of the Syllogism. In like manner the rational and accurate Conduct of a wife and good man, in all the various Relations and Occurences of life, made that Eldos or Form, described by Cicero to his Son, --FORMAM quidem ipsam, Marce sili, et tanquem faciem Honesti vides: que, fi oculis cerveretur, mirabiles amores (ut ait Plato) excitaret sapientia, &c. De Offic. I.

We may go farther still—THE SUPREME IN-TELLIGENCE, which passes thro' all things, and which is the same to our Capacities, as Light is to X A our Ch. I. is distinguished, and made to be its true and proper self.

HENCE

our Eyes, this supreme Intelligence has been called $E^{\dagger}I\Delta O\Sigma$ $E^{\dagger}I\Delta \Omega N$, the Form of Forms, as being the Fountain of all Symmetry, of all Good, and of all Truth; and as imparting to every Being those effential and distinctive Attributes, which make it to be itself, and not any thing else.

And so much concerning FORM, as before concerning MATTER. We shall only add, 'tis in the uniting of these, that every thing, which is generable, may be faid to commence; as on the contrary, in their Separation, to perish and be at an end - that while they co-exist, 'tis not by mere juxta-position, like the stones in a wall, but by a more intimate Coincidence, complete in the minutest part—that hence, if we were to perfift in dividing any substance (for example Marble) to infinity, there would fill remain after every fection both Matter and Form, and these as perfectly united, as before the Division began-lastly, that they are both pre-existent to the Beings, which they constitute; the Matter being to be-found in the world at large; the Form, if artificial, pre-existing within the Artificer, or if natural, within the fupreme Cause, the Sovereign Artist of the Universe.

—Pulchrum pulcherrimus ipse
Mundum mente gerens, similique in imagine son mans:

Even

HENCE LANGUAGE, if compared ac-Ch. I. cording to this notion to the murmurs of

a

Even without speculating so high as this, we may see among all animal and vegetable Substances, the Form pre-existing in their immediate generating Cause; Oak being the parent of Oak, Lion of Lion, Man of Man, &c.

Cicero's account of these Principles is as follows.

MATTER.

Sed subjectam putant omnibus sine ulla specie, atque carentem omni illa qualitate (faciamus enim tractando usitatius hoc verbum et tritius) MATERIAM quandam, ex qua omnia expressa atque essista sint: (quæ tota emnia accipere possit, omnibusque modis mutari atque ex omni parte) eóque etiam interire, non in nihilum, &c. Acad. I. 8.

FORM.

Sed ego sic statuo, nibil esse in ullo genere tam pulchrum, quo non pulchrius id sit, unde illud, ut ex ore aliquo, quasi imago, exprimatur, quod neque oculis, neque auribus, neque ullo sensu percipi potest: cogitatione tantum et mente complestimur.—— HAS RERUM FORMAS appellat Ideas ille non intelligendi solum, sed etiam dicendi gravissimus austor et magister, Plato: easque gigni negat, et ait semper esse, ac ratione et intelligentia Ch. I. a Fountain, or the dashings of a Cataract, has in common this, that like them, it is a Sound. But then on the contrary it has in peculiar this, that whereas those Sounds have no Meaning or Signification, to Language a Meaning or Signification, to Language a Meaning or Signification is essential. Agen, Language, if compared to the Voice of irrational Animals, has in common this, that like them, it has a Meaning. But then it has this in peculiar to distinguish it from them, that whereas the Meaning of those Animal Sounds is derived from Nature, that of Language is derived, not from Nature, but from Compact (c).

FROM

telligentià contineri: cætera nasci, occidere, sluere, labi; nec diutiùs esse uno et eodem statu. Quidquid est igitur, de quo ratione et vià disputetur, id est ad ultimam sui generis Formam speciemque redigendum. Cic. ad M. Brut. Orat.

⁽c) The Peripateties (and with just reason) in all their definitions as well of Words as of Sentences, made it a part of their character to be fignificant 6

From hence it becomes evident, that Ch. I. LANGUAGE, taken in the most comprehensive view, implies certain Sounds, baving certain Meanings; and that of these two Principles, the Sound is as the MATTER, common (like other Matter) to many different things; the MEANING as that peculiar and characteristic FORM, by which the Nature or Essence of Language becomes complete.

unlà evolum, by Compact. See Aristot. de Interp. c. 2. 4. Boethius translates the Words nalà ovolumny, ad placitum, or secundum placitum, and thus explains them in his comment—Secundum positionem, placitum-que ponentis aptatur: nullum enim nomen naturaliter constitutum est, neque unquam, sicut subjecto res à natura est, ita quoque a natura veniente vocabulo nuncupatur. Sed bominum genus, quod et ratione, et oratione vigeret, nomina posuit, eaque quibus libuit literis syllabisque conjungens, singulis subjectarum rerum substantiis dedit. Boeth. in Lib. de Interpret. p. 308.

CHAP.

CHAP. II.

Upon the Matter, or common Subject of Language.

Ch. II. THE "TAH or MATTER OF LANGUAGE comes first to be considered,
a Subject, which Order will not suffer us
to omit, but in which we shall endeavour
to be as concise as we can. Now this
"TAH or Matter is Sound, and Sound is
that Sensation peculiar to the Sense of Hearing, when the Air bath felt a Percussion,
adequate to the producing such Effect (a).

As

⁽a) This appears to be Priscian's Meaning when he says of a Voice, what is more properly true of Sound in general, that it is—fuum sensibile aurium, id est, quad proprie auribus accidit. Lib. I. p. 537.

The following account of the Stoics, which refers the cause of Sound to an Undulation in the Air prepagated circularly, as when we drop a stone into a Cistern of water, seems to accord with the modern Hypothesis,

As the Causes of this Percussion are Ch. II. various, so from hence Sound derives the Variety of its Species.

FARTHER, as all these Causes are either Animal or Inanimate, so the two grand Species of Sounds are likewise Animal or Inanimate.

THERE is no peculiar Name for Sound Inanimate; nor even for that of Animals, when made by the trampling of their Feet, the fluttering of their Wings, or any other Cause, which is merely accidental. But that,

Hypothesis, and to be as plausible as any—'Ακούειν εξε, τε με αξύ τε τε Φωνοῦνίος κ) τε κακόνιος αίρος πλατιομένε σΦαιροειδώς, είλα κυμαλουμένε, κ) ταῖς ακοαῖς προσπίπτονλος, ώς κυμαλεται το ἐν τῆ δεξαμενῆ εδωρ καλὰ κύκλους ὑπὸ τε ἐμβληθένιος λίθε—Porrò audire, cum is, qui medius inter loquentem, et audientem est, aer verberater orbiculariter, deinde agitatus auribus institut, quemadmodum et cisternæ aqua per orbes injecto agitatur lapide. Diog. Laert. VII.

Ch. II. that, which they make by proper Organs, in consequence of some Sensation or inward Impulse, such Animal Sound is called a Voice.

As Language therefore implies that Sound called Human Voice; we may perceive that to know the Nature and Powers of the Human Voice, is in fact to know the Matter or common Subject of Language.

Now the Voice of Man, and it should seem of all other Animals, is formed by certain Organs between the Mouth and the Lungs, and which Organs maintain the intercourse between these two. The Lungs furnish Air, out of which the Voice is formed; and the Mouth, when the Voice is formed, serves to publish it abroad.

WHAT these Vocal Organs precisely are, is not in all respects agreed by Philosophers and

and Anatomists. Be this as it will, 'tixCh. II. certain that the mere primary and sample. Veice is completely formed, before ever it reach the Mouth, and can therefore (as well as Breathing) find a Passage thro' the Nose, when the Mouth is so sar stopt, as to prevent the least utterance.

Now pure and simple Voice being thus produced, is (as before was observed) transmitted to the Mouth. Here then, by means of certain different Organs, which do not change its primary Qualities, but only superadd others, it receives the Form or Character of ARTICULATION. For AR-TICULATION is in fact nothing else, than that Form or Character, acquired to simple Voice, by means of the Mouth and its feveral Organs, the Teeth, the Tongue, the Lips, &c. The Voice is not by Articulation made more grave or acute, more loud or foft (which are its primary Qualities) but it acquires to these Characters certain

Ch. II. certain others additional, which are perfectly adapted to exist along with them (b).

THE

(b) The feveral Organs above mentioned, not only ferve the purposes of Speech, but those very different ones likewise of Mastication and Respiration; so frugal is Nature in thus assigning them double duty, and so careful to maintain her character of doing nothing in vain.

He, that would be informed, how much better the Parts here mentioned are framed for Discourse in Man, who is a Discursive Animal, than they are in other Animals, who are not so, may consult Aristotle in his Treatise de Animal. Part. Lib. II. c. 17. L. III. c. 1. 3. De Animâ. L. II. c. 8. §. 23, &c.

And here by the way, if such Inquirer be of a Genius truly modern, he may possibly wonder how the Philosopher, considering (as 'tis modestly phrased) the Age in which he lived, should know so much, and reason so well. But if he have any taste or value for antient literature, he may with much juster cause wonder at the Vanity of his Contemporaries, who dream all Philosophy to be the Invention of their own Age, knowing nothing of those Antients still remaining for their perusal, tho' they are so ready on every occasion to give the Preserence to themselves.

The following Account from Ammonius will shew whence the Notions in this Chapter are taken, and what

THE simplest of these new Characters Ch. II. are those acquired thro' the mere Openings

of

what authority we have to diffinguish Voice from mere Sound; and ARTICULATE VOICE from SIMPLE VOICE.

Kai TÖDO ulir istu, nangi alipor alibilit αιοή· ΦΩΝΗ δὶ, ψόφο εξ εμψύχε γινόμειο, रेंग्का केंग्रे नमेंद्र συς ολής नह ઉર્αρμά છે έκθλιβόμει છે थेमठे 📆 कार्राधाला 🕒 र्व श्रोतकाराधिश्रोद योगेव काववकार्त्तीम संविव्वेश्वद राष्ट्री καλυμένη τραχεία αρθηρία, κο τη υπερώα, ήτοι τώ **ในประเภท หลู ดิสิ หรืร ส**ลัทษทีร ผิสปียลที่ ที่เขต ที่หูอ^ม बाक्रिमीके, मबीब राज्य केंग्रामेश क्येंट किए मेंट हमां क्या έμπτευς ών παρά τοϊς μυσιχοϊς χαλυμένων όργάνων συμβαίνει, διου αυλών κὸ συρίγγων της γλώτης, ΛΕΚΤΟΝ αναγπαίων διίων, προς δε ΤΗΝ 'AII-ΛΩΣ ΦΩΝΗ'Ν ε πάνως συμβαλλεμένως, ----Estque Sonus, istus aeris qui auditu sentitur: Vox autem est sonus, quem animans edit, cum per thoracis compressionem aer attractus a pulmone, olisus simul totus in arteriam, quam asperam vocant, et palatum, aut Eurgulionem impingit, et ex istu sonum quendam sensibilem pro animi quodam impetu perficit. Id quod in instrumentis qua quia instant, ideo immveus à a musicis dicuntur, usu venit, ut in tibiis, ac fistulis contingit,

Ch. II. of the Mouth, as these Openings differ in giving the Voice a Passage. 'Tis the Variety of Configurations in these Openings only, which gives birth and origin to the several Vowels; and 'tis from hence they derive their Name, by being thus eminently Vocal (c), and easy to be sounded of themselves alone.

THERE

eum lingua, dentes, labiaque ad loquelam necessarie since ad vocem vero simplicem non omnino conferant. Ammon, in Lib. de Interpr. p. 25. b.

It appears that the Stoics (contrary to the notion of the Peripatetics) used the word ΦΩΝΗ to denote Sound in general. They defined it therefore to be— Το ίδιον οἰρθηδον ακοῆς, which justifies the definition given by Priscian, in the Note preceding. Animal Sound they defined to be— 'Αὴρ ὑπὸ ορμῆς πεπληγμένος, Air struck (and so made audible) by some animal impulse; and Human or Rational Sound they defined— Έναρθρος κὸ απὸ διανόιας ἐκπεμπομένη, Sound articulate and derived from the discursive saculty. Diog. Lactt. VII. 55.

(c) ΦΩNHENTA.

THERE are other articulate Forms, which Ch. II. the Mouth makes not by mere Openings, but by different Contacts of its different parts; such for instance, as by the Junction of the two Lips, of the Tongue with the Teeth, of the Tongue with the Palate, and the like.

Now as all these several Contacts, unless some Opening of the Mouth either immediately precede, or immediately sollow, would rather lead to Silence, than to produce a Voice; hence 'tis, that with some such Opening, either previous or subsequent, they are always connected. Hence also it is, that the Articulations so produced are called Consonants, because they sound not of themselves, and from their own powers, but at all times in company with some auxiliary Vowel (d).

Y 2 THERE

⁽d) ETMOONA.

Ch. II. THERE are other subordinate Distinctions of these primary Articulations, which to enumerate would be foreign to the design of this Treatise.

'Tis enough to observe, that they are all denoted by the common Name of ELEMENT (e), in as much as every Articulation of every other kind is from them derived?

⁽e) The Stoic Definition of an ELEMENT is as follows- "Ere de roixeion, if of apoile pipelae ra ywópena, z się o tozalor aradúslas. An ELEMENT is that, out of which, as their first Principle, things generated are made, and into which, as their last remains, shey are resolved. Diog. Laert. VII. 176. What Aristotle says upon ELEMENTS with respect to the Subject here treated, is worth attending to - During Toixeia, if wu ouprellai में Puri, में siç के केवाहर रिकट Egyala. exeiva be muxet, eit appat Omig erebat in Midel aulan. The ELEMENTS OF ARTICULATE Voice are these things, out of which the Voice is compounded, and into which, as its last remains, it is divided: the Elements themselves being no farther divifible into other articulate Voices, differing in Species from them. Metaphys. V. chap. 3.

derived, and into them resolved. Under Ch. II. their smallest Combination they produce a Syllable; Syllables properly combined produce a Word; Words properly combined produce a Sentence; and Sentences properly combined produce an Oration or Discourse.

AND thus is it that to Principles apparently fo trivial (f), as about twenty plain elementary

We shall here add a remarkable passage from Aristotle, which shews in what estimation he held Principles, and what difficulty he imagined to attend their invention. METIETON γὰρ ἰσως ΑΡΧΗ πανίδς, ιδσπερ λέγελαι διὸ κὰ ΧΑΛΕ-ΠΩΤΑΤΟΝ ὅσφ γὰρ κράλις τον τῆ δυνάμει, τοσόυλω μακρόλαλου δο τῷ μεγέθει, χαλεπώλαδο ἐς το ἐΦθηναι τάυλης δὲ ἐυρημένης, ρᾶου τὸ προδείναι κὰ συνάξειν τὸ λοιπόν ἐς το. Nam Principium fortasse est maxima totus pars, ut dici solet: ideoque est difficillimum. Cum Y 3

⁽f) The Egyptians paid divine honours to the Inventor of Letters, whom they called THRUTH; and Socrates, when he speaks of him, considers him either as a God, or as some Godlike Man. Plat. Phileb. T. 2. p. 18. Edit. Serran.

Ch. II. elementary Sounds, we owe that variety of articulate Voices, which have been fufficient to explain the Sentiments of for innumerable a Multitude, as all the present and past Generations of Men.

IT appears from what has been faid, that THE MATTER OF COMMON SUBJECT OF LANGUAGE IS that Species of Sounds called Voices ARTICULATE.

What remains to be examined in the following Chapter, is Language under its characteristic and peculiar Form; that is to fay, Language consider'd, not as a Sound, but as a Meaning.

CHAP.

enim quo potentiore est sacultate, eo minore sit magnitudine, dissicilimum est visu. Hoc autem reperte, sacilius est adjungere et conserre quod reliquum est. De Sophist. Elench. c. 34.

CHAP. III.

Upon the Form, or peculiar Character of Language.

HEN to any articulate Voice there Ch. III. accedes by compact a Meaning or Signification, such Voice by such accession is then called A Word; and many Words, possessing their Significations (as it were) under the same Compact (a), unite in constituting a PARTICULAR LANGUAGE.

Y 4

IT

(a) See before Note (c) p. 314. See also Vol. I. Treatife II. c. 1. Notes (a) and (c).

The following Quotation from Ammonius is remarkable... Καθάπερ εν το μεν καθά τόπον κινείδαι, Φόσει, το Α όρχείδαι, θέσει το καθά συθήκη, το μεν φωνείν, ξόλου, Φύσει, π δε θόρα, θέσει το τω το μου Φωνείν, Φύσει, το δε δι δνομάτων η βημάτων σημαίνειν, θέσει το των μεν Φωνείικου δίναμιν, δργακού έσαν των ψυχικών

Ch. III. IT appears from hence, that A Word
may be defined a Voice articulate, and
fignificant

મુંગ્રાયાલા દેર મામાં જારતાલા માહદામાં મું કે કે કે કાર્યાયલા માની છે છે σιν έχειν ο άνθρωπ@· παραπλησίως τοῖς αλόγοις ζώοις· τὸ δὲ ονόμασιν, ἢ ρήμασιν, ἢ τοῖς ἐχ τέτων συγκειμένοις λόγοις χρήθαι πρός τὰν σημασίαν, (ἐκέτι Φύσει હੌσιν, αλλα Βέσει) έξαίρεθον έχειν προς τα άλογα ζώα, εντική μεθέχει ψυχές, αυτοκινήτε μεθέχει ψυχές, के परश्रासमेंद्र रेशर्ट्युमाँ विभव्यक्षित्रद्र, तेंक को है विपास पूर्व Φωνείν મ τεχνική αυίης διακρίνη αι δύναμις δηλέσι & ταυτα οι είς κάλλο συν ιθέμενοι λόγοι με α μέτρων, À aven métapon. In the same manner therefore, as local Motion is from Nature, but Dancing is something pefitive; and as Timber exists in Nature, but a Door is fomething positive; so is the Power of producing a vocal Sound founded in Nature, but that of explaining ourfelves by Nouns, or Verbs, something positive. And hence it is, that as to the simple power of producing vocal Sound (which is as it were the Organ or Instrument to the Soul's faculties of Knowlege or Volition) as to this vocal power I fay, Man seems to possess it from Nature, in like manner as irrational animals: but as to the employing of Nouns, or Verbs, or Sentences composed out of them, in the explanation of our Sontiments (the things thus employed being founded not in Nature, but in Position) this be seems to possess by way of peculiar eminence, because be alone of all mortal Beings partakes of a Soul, wbich

fignificant by Compact—and that LAN-Ch.III.
GUAGE may be defined a System of such

Voices, so fignificant.

IT is from notions like these concerning Language and Words, that one may be tempted to call Language a kind of PICTURE OF THE UNIVERSE, where the Words are as the Figures or Images of all particulars,

And

which can move itself, and operate artificially; so that even in the Subject of Sound his artificial Power shews itself; as the various elegant Compositions both in Metre, and without Metre, abundantly prove. Ammon. de Interpe. p. 51. 2.

It must be observed, that the operating artificially, (inspyrin TEXPINATE) of which Ammonius here speaks, and which he considers as a distinctive Mark poculiar to the Human Soul, means something very different from the mere producing works of elegance and design; else it could never be a mark of Distinction between Man, and many other Species of Animals, such as the Bee, the Beaver, the Swallow, &c. See Vol. I, p, 8, 9, 10, 158, 159, &c.

Ch. III. And yet it may be doubted, how far this is true. For if Pictures and Images are all of them Imitations, it will follow, that whoever has natural faculties to know the Original, will by help of the fame faculties know also its Imitations. But it by no means follows, that he who knows any Being, should know for that reason its Greek or Latin Name.

THE Truth is, that every Medium thro' which we exhibit any thing to another's Contemplation, is either derived from Natural Attributes, and then it is an IMITATION; or else from Accidents quite arbitrary, and then it is a Symbol (b).

Now.

⁽b) Διαφέρει & το 'OMOISIMA το ΣΤΜΒΟΛΟΤ, καθόσοι το μετ διμείωμα το φέσει αυθό
το πράγμαλος καλά το διαθό άπεικοιζείδαι βέλελαι,
εξ εκ ές το έφ' ήμα αυλό μελαπλάσαι το γαρ ε το εποίκ

Now, if it be allowed that in far the Ch. III. greater part of things, not any of their natural

είκινι γεγραμμένα τα Σωκράτας όμοιωμα, ει μή καὶ τὸ Φαλακρὸν, κὸ τὸ σιμον, κὸ τὸ ἐξώΦθαλμον ἔχει τὰ Σωκράτας, ἀκέτ' ἀν ἀυθα λέγοιθο είναι ὁμοίωμα τὸ ἔκ γε σύμβολον, ἤτον σημεῖον, (ἀμΦότερα γὰρ ὁ ΦιλόσοΦΦ ἀνθὰ ὀνομάζει) τὸ ὅλαν ἐΦ' ἡμῖν ἔχει, ἀτε κὸ ἐκ μόνης ὑΦις-άμενον τᾶς ἡμεθέρας ἐπινοίας. ἀτο, τὰ πόθε ἀεῖ συμβάλλειν ἀλλήλοις τὰς πολεμάνθας, δύναθαι σύμβολον ἔίναι κὸ σάλπιγίος ἀπήχησις, κὸ λομπάδος ἐριψις, καθάπερ Φησίν Ευριπίδης,

Έπελ δ΄ άφείθη πυροός, ώς τυροηνικής Σάλπεγίος ήχος, σήμα Φοινίου μάχης.

Avalan & tis ono Sidan & dopal & avalation, & Bedus Apren, & Edda pupin.—A Representation or Resemblance differs from a Symbol, in as much as the Resemblance aims as far as possible to represent the very nature of the thing, nor is it in our power to shift or vary it. Thus a Representation intended for Socrates in a Picture, if it have not these circumstances peculiar to Socrates, the bald, the stat-nosed, and the projecting Eyes, cannot properly be called a Representation of him. But a Symbol or Sign (for the Philosopher Aristotle uses both names) is wholly in our own power, as depending singly for its existence on our own imagination. Thus for example, as to the time

Ch. III. natural Attributes are to be found in articulate Voices, and yet thro' such Voices are things of every kind exhibited, it will follow that Words must of necessity be Symbols, because it appears that they cannot be Imitations.

But here occurs a Question which deferves attention—" Why in the common "intercourse of men with men have "Imitations been neglected, and Symbols "preferred, altho' Symbols are only "known by Habit or Institution, while "Imitations are recognized by a kind of "natural Intuition?" — To this it may be answered, that if the Sentiments of the Mind,

when two armies should engage, the Symbol or Sign may be the sounding of a Trumpet, the throwing of a Terch, (according to what Euripides says,

But when the flaming Torch was burl'd, the fign Of purple fight, as when the Trumpet founds, &cc.)

or else one may suppose the elevating of a Spear, the dorting of a Weapon, and a thousand ways besides. Ammen. in Lib. de Interp. p. 17. b.

Mind, like the Features of the Face, were Ch. III. immediately visible to every beholder, the Art of Speech or Discourse would have been perfectly superfluous. But now. while our Minds lie inveloped and hid, and the Body (like a Veil) conceals every thing but itself, we are necessarily compelled, when we communicate our Thoughts, to pass them to each other thro' a Medium which is corporeal (c). And hence it is that all Signs, Marks, Imitations, and Symbols must needs be fensible, and addressed as such to the Senses. Now the Senses, we know, never exceed their natural Limits; the Eye perceives no Sounds :

⁽t) Ai ψυχαὶ αὶ ἡμέ [εραι, γυμναὶ μὶν ἔσαι τῶν σωμά]ων, ἀδύναν]ο δι ἀνοιῶν τῶν νοημά]ων σημαίνειν ἐλλήλαις τὰ πεάγμα]α. Ἐπειδη δι σώμασι συνδίδεν]αι, δίκην νέθνς περικαλύ προιν ἀνοιῶν τὸ νοερον, ἐδεήθησαν τῶν ὀνομά]ων, δι ὧν σημαίνεσιν ἀλλήλαις τὰ πράγμα]α. Animi nostri a corporis compage secreti res vicissim animi conceptionibus significare possent: cum autem corporibus involuti sint, perinde ac nebulá, ipsorum intelligendi vis obtegitur: quocirca opus eis suit nominibus, quibus res inter se significarent. Ammon. in Prædicam. p. 18. a.

Ch. III. Sounds; the Ear perceives no Figures nor Colours. If therefore we were to converse, not by Symbols but by Imitations, as far as things are characterized by Figure and Colour, our Imitation would be necessfarily thro' Figure and Colour also. Agen, as far as they are characterized by Sounds, it would for the same reason, be thro' the Medium of Sounds. The like may be said of all the other Senses, the Imitation still shifting along with the Objects imitated. We see then how complicated such Imitation would prove.

Ir we fet Language therefore, as a Symbol, in opposition to fuch Imitation; if we consider the Simplicity of the one, and the Multiplicity of the other; if we consider the Ease and Speed, with which Words are formed (an Ease which knows no trouble or fatigue; and a Speed, which equals the Progress of our very Thoughts) if we oppose to this the difficulty and length

length of Imitations; if we remember Ch. III. that some Objects are capable of no Imitations at all, but that all Objects universally may be typified by Symbols; we may plainly perceive an Answer to the Question here proposed "Why, in the common intercourse of men with men, Imitations have been rejected, and Symbols preferred."

Hence too we may perceive a Reason, why there never was a Language, nor indeed can possibly be framed one, to express the Properties and real Essences of things, as a Mirrour exhibits their Figures and their Colours. For if Language of itself imply nothing more, than certain Species of Sounds with certain Mations concomitant; if to some Beings Sound and Motion are no Attributes at all; if to many others, where Attributes, they are no way essential (such as the Murmurs and Wavings of a Tree during a storm) if this be true—

'tis

Ch.III.'tis impossible the Nature of such Beings should be expressed, or the least essential Property be any way imitated, while between the Medium and themselves there is nothing CONNATURAL (d).

Tis true indeed, when Primitives were once established, 'twas easy to follow the Connection and Subordination of Nature. in the just deduction of Derivatives and Compounds. Thus the Sounds. Water. and, Fire, being once annexed to those two Elements, 'twas certainly more natural to call Beings participating of the first, Watry, of the last, Fiery, than to commute the Terms, and call them by the reverse. But why, and from what natural Connections the Primitives themselves might not be commuted, 'twill be found, I believe, difficult to affign a Reason, as well in the instances before us, as in most others.

⁽d) See Vol. I. Treatise II. c. 3. p. 70.

others. We may here also see the Reason, Ch. III. why ALL LANGUAGE IS FOUNDED IN COMPACT, and not in Nature; for so are all Symbols, of which Words are a certain species.

THE Question remains if Words are Symbols, then Symbols of what?—
If it be answered, of Things, the Question returns, of what Things?—If it be answered, of the several Individuals of Sense, the various particular Beings, which exist around us—to this, 'tis replied, may be raised certain Doubts. In the first place every Word will be in fact a proper Name. Now if all Words are proper Names, how came Lexicographers, whose express business is to explain Words, either wholly to omit proper Names, or at least to explain them, not from their own Art, but from History?

AGEN, if all Words are proper Names, then in strictness no Word can belong to Z more

Ch. III. more than one Individual. But if so, then, as Individuals are infinite, to make a perfect Language, Words must be infinite also. But if infinite, then incomprehensible, and never to be attained by the wisest Men; whose labours in Language upon this Hypothesis would be as idle as that study of infinite written Symbols, which Missionaries (if they may be credited) attribute to the Chinese.

AGEN, if all Words are proper Names, or (which is the fame) the Symbols of Individuals; it will follow, as Individuals are not only infinite, but ever passing, that the Language of those, who lived ages ago, will be as unknown now, as the very Voices of the Speakers. Nay the Language of every Province, of every Town, of every Cottage, must be every where different, and every where changing, since such is the Nature of Individuals, which it follows.

AGEN,

Agen, if all Words are proper Names, Ch. III. the Symbols of Individuals, it will follow that in Language there can be no General Proposition, because upon the Hypothesis all Terms are particular; nor any Affirmative Proposition, because no one Individual in nature is another. It remains, there can be no Propositions, but Particular Nega-But if so, then is Language incapable of communicating General Affirmative Truths-If fo, then of communicating Demonstration-If so, then of communicating Sciences, which are so many Systems of Demonstrations—If so, then of communicating Arts, which are the Theorems of Science applied practically-If fo, we shall be little the better for it either in Speculation or in Practice (e). And so much

⁽e) The whole of Euclid (whose Elements may be called the basis of Mathematical Science) is founded upon general Terms, and general Propositions,

Ch.III.much for this Hypothesis; let us now try another.

IF WORDS are not the Symbols of external Particulars, it follows of course, they must be THE SYMBOLS OF OUR IDEAS: For this is evident, if they are not Symbols of things without, they can only be Symbols of something within.

HERE then the Question recurs, if Symbols of Ideas, then of what Ideas?—Of sensible Ideas.—Be it so, and what follows?—Every thing in fact, which has followed already from the supposition of their being the Symbols of external Particulars; and that from this plain and obvious reason, because the several Ideas, which

tions, most of which are affirmative. So true are those Verses, however barbarous as to their stile,

Syllogizari non est ex Particulari, Neve Negativis, resiè concludere si vis.

which Particulars imprint, must be needs Ch. III. as infinite and mutable, as they are them-felves.

If then Words are neither the Symbols of external Particulars, nor yet of particular Ideas, they can be SYMBOLS of nothing else, except of GENERAL IDEAS, because nothing else, except these, remains. -And what do we mean by GENERAL IDEAS?—We mean such as are com-MON TO MANY INDIVIDUALS; not only to Individuals which exist now, but which existed in ages past, and will exist in ages future; fuch for example, as the Ideas - belonging to the Words, Man, Lion, Cedar. -Admit it, and what follows?-It follows, that if Words are the Symbols of fuch general Ideas, Lexicographers may find employ, tho' they meddle not with proper Names.

IT follows that one Word may be, not bomonymously, but truly and essentially com-

Ch. III. mon to many Particulars, past present and future; so that however these Particulars may be infinite, and ever fleeting, yet Language notwithstanding may be definite and steady. But if so, then attainable even by ordinary Capacities, without danger of incurring the Chinese Absurdity.

AGEN, it follows that the Language of those, who lived ages ago, as far as it stands for the same general Ideas, may be as intelligible now, as it was then. The like may be said of the same Language being accommodated to distant Regions, and even to distant Nations, amidst all the variety of ever new and ever changing Objects.

AGEN, it follows that Language may be expressive of general Truths; and if so, then of Demonstration, and Sciences, and Arts;

[•] See p. 338.

Arts; and if so, become subservient to Ch. III. purposes of every kind (f).

Now if it be true "that none of these "things could be afferted of Language, "were not Words the Symbols of general "Ideas—and it be further true, that these "things may be all undeniably afferted of "Language"—it will follow (and that necessarily) that Words are the Symbols of General Ideas.

And yet perhaps even here may be an Objection. It may be urged, if Words are the Symbols of general Ideas, Language may answer well enough the purpose of Philosophers, who reason about general, and abstract Subjects—but what becomes of the business of ordinary Life? Life we know is merged in a multitude of Particulars, where an Explanation by Language

Z 4

is

⁽f) See before Note (e).

Ch. III. is as requisite, as in the highest Theorems.

The Vulgar indeed want it to no other End.

How then can this End in any respect be answered, if Language be expressive of nothing farther than general Ideas?

To this it may be answered, that Arts furely respect the business of ordinary Life; yet so far are general Terms from being an Obstacle here, that without them no Art can be rationally explained. How for instance should the measuring Artist ascertain to the Reapers the price of their labours, had not he first thro' general Terms learnt those general Theorems, that respect the doctrine and practice of Mensuration?

But suppose this not to satisfy a persevering Objector—suppose him to insist, that, admitting this to be true, there were still a multitude of occasions for minute particularizing, of which 'twas not possible for

for mere Generals to be susceptible-fup-Ch. III. pose, I say, such an Objection, what should we answer? - That the Objection was just: that 'twas necessary to the Perfection and Completion of LANGUAGE, that it should be expressive of Particulars, as well as of GENERALS. We must however add, that its general Terms are by far its most excellent and effential Part, fince from these it derives "that com-" prehensive Universality, that just pro-" portion of Precision and Permanence, " without which it could not possibly " be either learnt, or understood, or ap-" plied to the purposes of Reasoning " and Science;"—that particular Terms have their Utility and End, and that therefore care too has been taken for a fupply of these.

ONE Method of expressing Particulars, is that of PROPER NAMES. This is the least artificial, because proper Names being

Ch. III. ing in every district arbitrarily applied, may be unknown to those, who know the Language perfectly well, and can hardly therefore with propriety be confidered as parts of it. The other and more artificial Method is that of Definitives or Ar-TICLES (g), whether we assume the pronominal, or those more strictly so called. And here we cannot enough admire the exquisite Art of Language, which, without wandring into infinitude, contrives bow to denote things infinite; that is to fay, in other Words, which by the small Tribe of Definitives properly applied to general Terms, knows how to employ these last, tho' in number finite to the accurate expression of infinite Particulars.

To explain what has been faid by a fingle example. Let the general Term be Man. I have occasion to apply this Term

to

⁽g) See before p. 72, &c. 233, &c.

to the denoting of some Particular. Let Ch. III. it be required to express this Particular. as unknown; I say, A Man-known; I say, THE Man-indefinite; ANY Man-definite: A CERTAIN Man-present and near; THIS Man-present and distant; THAT Manlike to some other; such a Man-an indefinite Multitude; MANY Men-a definite Multitude; A THOUSAND Men; - the ones of a Multitude, taken throughout; EVERY Man-the same ones, taken with distinction: EACH Man-taken in order; FIRST Man. SECOND Man, &c.—the whole Multitude of Particulars taken collectively; ALL Men -the Negation of this Multitude; NO Man. But of this we have spoken already, when we inquired concerning Definitives.

THE Sum of all is, that Words ARE
THE SYMBOLS OF IDEAS BOTH GENERAL
AND PARTICULAR; YET OF THE GENERAL, PRIMARILY, ESSENTIALLY, AND
IMMEDIATELY; OF THE PARTICULAR,
ONLY

HERMES.

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Ch.III.only secondarily, accidentally, and mediately.

"guage this double Capacity?"—May we not ask, by way of return, Is it not a kind of reciprocal Commerce, or Intercourse of our Ideas? Should it not therefore be framed, so as to express the whole of our Perception? Now can we call that Perception intire and whole, which implies either Intellection without Sensation, or Sensation without Intellection? If not, how should Language explain the whole of our Perception, had it not Words to express the Objects, proper to each of the two Faculties?

To conclude — As in the preceding Chapter we confidered Language with a view to its MATTER, so here we have confidered it with a view to its Form. Its MATTER is recognized, when 'tis confidered

dered as a Voice; its Form, as 'tis fignifi-Ch. III. cant of our several Ideas; so that upon the whole it may be defined—A System of ARTICULATE VOICES, THE SYMBOLS OF OUR IDEAS, BUT OF THOSE PRINCIPALLY, WHICH ARE GENERAL OR UNIVERSAL.

CHAP

CHAP. IV.

Concerning general or universal Ideas.

Ch.IV. MUCH having been said in the preceding Chapter about GENERAL OR UNIVERSAL IDEAS, it may not perhaps be amiss to inquire, by what process we come to perceive them, and what kind of Beings they are; since the generality of men think so meanly of their existence, that they are commonly considered, as little better than Shadows. These Sentiments are not unusual even with the Philosopher now a days, and that from causes much the same with those, which influence the Vulgar.

THE VULGAR merged in Sense from their earliest Infancy, and never once dreaming any thing to be worthy of pursuit, but what either pampers their Appetite, or fills their Purse, imagine nothing to be real, but what may be tasted, or touched.

touched. THE PHILOSOPHER, as to these Ch. IV. matters being of much the same Opinion, in Philosophy looks no higher, than to experimental Amusements, deeming nothing Demonstration, if it be not made ocular. Thus instead of ascending from Sense to Intellect (the natural progress of all true Learning) he hurries on the contrary into the midst of Sense, where he wanders at random without any end, and is lost in a Labyrinth of infinite Particulars. then the reason why the sublimer parts of Science, the Studies of MIND, INTELLEC-TION, and INTELLIGENT PRINCIPLES, are in a manner neglected; and, as if the Criterion of all Truth were an Alembic or an Air-pump, what cannot be proved by Experiment, is deemed no better than mere Hypothesis.

AND yet'tis somewhat remarkable, amid the prevalence of such Notions, that there should still remain two Sciences in fashion, and Ch. IV, and these having their Certainty of all the least controverted, which are not in the minutest article depending upon Experiment.

By these I mean ARITHMETIC, and GEOMETRY (a). But to come to our Subject concerning GENERAL IDEAS.

Man's

(a) The many noble Theorems (so useful in life, and so admirable in themselves) with which these two Sciences to eminently abound, arise originally from Principles, THE MOST OBVIOUS IMAGI-NABLE; Principles, so little wanting the pomp and apparatus of Experiment, that they are felf-suident to every one, possessed of common sense. would not be understood, in what I have here said. or may have faid elsewhere, to undervalue Experi-MENT; whose importance and utility I freely acknowlege, in the many curious Nostrums and choice Receipts, with which it has enriched the necessary Arts of life. Nay, I go farther - I hold all justifiable Practice in every kind of Subject to be founded in Experience, which is no more than the refuls of many repeated Experiments. But I must add withal, that the man who acts from Experience alone, tho' he act ever so well, is but an Empiric of Quack. and that not only in Medicine, but in every other Subject. 'Tis then only that we recognize ART, and that the EMPIRIC quits his name for the more honourable one of ARTIST, when to his EXPERI-ENCE

MAN'S FIRST PERCEPTIONS are those Ch. IV. of the Senses, in as much as they commence from his earliest Infancy. These Perceptions, if not infinite, are at least indefinite, and more fleeting and transfent, than the very Objects, which they exhibit, because

ENCE he adds SCIENCE, and is thence enabled to tell us, not only, WHAT is to be done, but WHY 'tis to be done; for ART is a composite of Experience and Science, Experience providing it Materials, and Science giving them A FORM.

In the mean time, while EXPERIMENT is thus necessary to all PRACTICAL WISDOM, with respect to PURE and SPECULATIVE SCIENCE, as we have hinted already, it has not the least to do. For who ever heard of Logic, or Geometry, or Arithmetic being proved experimentally? 'Tis indeed by the application of these that Experiments are render'd useful; that they are assumed into Philosophy, and in some degree made a part of it, being otherwise nothing better than puerile amusements. But that these Sciences themselves should depend upon the Subjects, on which they work, is, as if the Marble were to sashion the Chizzle, and not the Chizzle the Marble.

Ch. IV. because they not only depend upon the existence of those Objects, but because they cannot subsist, without their immediate Presence. Hence therefore it is, that there can be no Sensation of either Pest or Future, and consequently had the Soul no other Faculties, than the Senses, it never could acquire the least Idea of TIME (b).

BUT happy for us we are not deserted here. We have in the first place a Faculty, called IMAGINATION or FANCY, which however as to its energies it may be subsequent to Sense, yet is truly prior to it both in dignity and use. This 'tis which retains the sleeting Forms of things, when Things themselves are gone, and all Sensation at an end.

THAT this Faculty, however connected with Sense, is still perfectly different, may

⁽b) See before p. 105. See also p. 112. Note (f).

be seen from hence. We have an Imagi-Ch. IV. nation of things, that are gone and extinct; but no such things can be made objects of Sensation. We have an easy command over the Objects of our Imagination, and can call them forth in almost what manner we please; but our Sensations are necessary, when their Objects are present, nor can we controul them, but by removing either the Objects, or ourselves (c).

As

When we view some relief of sensation reposed within us, without thinking of its rise, or referring it to any sensible Object, this is PHANSY OF IMAGINATION.

When we view some such relies, and refer it withal to that sensible Object, which in time past was its cause and original, this is Memory.

A a 2

Lastly

⁽c) Besides the distinguishing of Sensation from Imagination, there are two other Faculties of the Soul, which from their nearer alliance ought carefully to be distinguished from it, and these are MNH'MH, and 'ANA'MNHΣΙΣ, MEMORY, and RECOLLECTION.

Ch. IV. As the Wax would not be adequate to its business of Signature, had it not a Power to retain, as well as to receive; the same holds

Lastly the Road, which leads to Memory thre' a feries of Ideas, however connected whether rationally or casually, this is RECOLLECTION. I have added casually, as well as rationally, because a casual connection is often sufficient. Thus from seeing a Garment, I think of its Owner; thence of his Habitation; thence of Woods; thence of Timber; thence of Ships, Sea-sights, Admirals, &c.

If the Distinction between Memory and Phansy be not sufficiently understood, it may be illustrated by being compared to the view of a Portrait. When we contemplate a Portrait, without thinking of whom it is the Portrait, such Contemplation is analogous to Phansy. When we view it with reference to the Original, whom it represents, such Contemplation is analogous to Memory.

We may go farther. IMAGINATION OF PHANSY may exhibit (after a manner) even things that are to come. 'Tis here that Hope and Fear paint all their pleasant, and all their painful Pictures of Futurity. But MEMORY is confined in the strictest manner to the past.

What

holds of the Soul, with respect to Sense Ch. IV. and Imagination. Sense is its receptive.

Power; IMAGINATION, its retentive.

Had it Sense without Imagination, 'twould not be as Wax, but as Water, where tho' all Impressions may be instantly made, yet as soon as made they are as instantly lost.

Thus then, from a view of the two Powers taken together, we may call SENSE (if we please) a kind of transfent Imagination; and IMAGINATION on the contrary a kind of permanent Sense (d).

A a 3

Now

What we have said, may suffice for our present purpose. He that would learn more, may consult Aristot. de Anima, L. III. c. 3, 4. and his Treatise de Mem. et Reminisc.

⁽d) Τί τοίνυν ές τον ή Φανίασία છેંગ દેશ γνωρίσαιμενδεί νοείν ἐν ήμιν ἀπό τῷν ἐνεργειῶν τῶν περὶ τὰ ἀιδιπίὰ, Τιον τύπιον (lege τύπον) τινὰ κὰ ἀναζωγράΦημα ἐν τῷ Βινομένης κινήσεως, ἐγκαϊάλειμμά τι τῆς ὑπὸ τῷ ἀιδιπίὰ γινομένης κινήσεως, ἐκ ὰ καρόνιος, ὑπομένει τὲ κὰ σώζείαι, ἐν ὧσπερ ἐικών τις ἀυίᾶ, ἐκὸ

Ch. IV. Now as our Feet in vain venture to walk upon the River, till the Frost bind the Current, and harden the yielding Surface; so does the Soul in vain seek to exert its higher Powers, the Powers I mean of Reason and Intellect, till Imagination first fix the fluency of Sense, and thus provide a proper Basis for the support of its higher Energies.

AFTER

της μυήμης ήμιο σωζόμενου αιίου γίνείαι το τοιντοι έγκα αλειμμα, κό του τοιστου ωσπερ τύπου. ΦΑΝ-Now what PHANSY or IMA-ΤΑΣΙΆΝ καλέσιν. GINATION is, we may explain as follows. We may conceive to be formed within us, from the operations of our Senses about sensible Subjects, some Impression (as it were) or Picture in our original Sensorium, being a relies of that motion caused within us by the external object; a relief, which when the external object is no longer present, remains and is still preserved, being as it were its Image, and which, by being thus preferred, becomes the cause of our having Memory. Now such a fort of relieft and (as it were) Impression they call PHANSY OF IMAGINATION. Alen. Aphred. de Anima, p. 135. b. Edit. Ald.

AFTER this manner, in the admirable Ch. IV. Oeconomy of the Whole, are Natures subordinate made subservient to the higher. Were there no Things external, the Senses could not operate; were there no Sensations, the Imagination could not operate: and were there no Imagination, there could be neither Reasoning nor Intellection, such at least as they are found in Man, where they have their Intentions and Remissions in alternate succession, and are at first nothing better, than a mere CAPACITY or Power. Whether every Intellect begins thus, may be perhaps a question; especially if there be any one of a nature more divine, to which " Intension and Remission " and mere Capacity are unknown (e)." But not to digress.

Tis

⁽e) See p. 162. The Life, Energy, or Manner of Man's Existence is not a little different from that of the DEITY. THE LIFE OF MAN has its Essence in A a 4 Motion.

Ch.IV. 'Tis then on these permanent Phantasms that THE HUMAN MIND first works, and by

MOTION. This is not only true with respect to that lower and subordinate Life, which he shares in common with Vegetables, and which can no longer subsist than while the Fluids circulate, but 'tis likewise true in that Life, which is peculiar to him as Man. Objects from without first move our faculties, and thence we move of ourselves either to Practice or Contemplation. But the Life or Existence of God (as far as we can conjecture upon so transcendent a Subject) is not only complete throughout Eternity, but complete in every Instant, and is for that reason IMMUTABLE and SUPERIOR TO ALL MOTION.

Tis to this distinction that Aristotle alludes, when he tells us—Ου γαρ μόνου κινήσεως ές το ενέργεια, αλλα κὶ ακινησίας κὶ ηδουή μαλλου ἐν ἡρεμία ἐς τὸ, ἢ ἐν κινήσει με αβολή δὲ πανίων γλυκὸ, καλα τὸν ποιηίη, δια πουηρίαν τινά ωσπερ γαρ απθρωπος ἐυμε-λάβολος ὁ πουηςὸς, κὶ ἡ Φύσις ἡ δεομένη με αβολής ἐ γαρ απλη, οὐδ ἐπιεικής. For there is not only an Energy of Motion, but of Immobility; and Pleasure or Felicity exists rather in Rest than in Motion; Change of all things being sweet (according to the Poet) from a principle of Pravity in 1866

by an Energy as spontaneous and familiar Ch. IV. to its Nature, as the seeing of Colours is familiar

those who believe so. For in the same manner as the had man is one sickle and changeable, so is that Nature had that requireth Variety, in as much as such Nature is neither simple nor even. Eth. Nicom. VIL 14.

'Tis to this UNALTERABLE NATURE OF THE DEITY that Boethius refers, when he says in those elegant verses,

Tempus ab Evo
Ire jubes, STABILISQUE MANENS das cunsta.
moveri.

From this fingle principle of Immobility, may be derived some of the noblest of the Divine Attributes; such as that of Impassive, Incorruptible, Incorporeal, &c. Vide Aristot. Physic. VIII. Metaphys. XIV. c. 6, 7, 9, 10. Edit. Du-Val. See also V. I. of these Treatises, p. 262. to 266—also p. 295, where the Verses of Boethius are quoted at length.

It must be remembred however, that the we are not Gods, yet as rational Beings we have within us something Divine, and that the more we can become superior to our mutable, variable, and irrational part, and place our welfare in that Good, which is immutable, permanent, and rational, the higher

Ch.IV. familiar to the Eye, it discerns at once what in MANY is ONE; what in things DISSIMILAR and DIFFERENT is SIMILAR and the SAME (f). By this it comes to behold

higher we shall advance in real Happiness and Wisdom. This is (as an antient writer says)— 'Ομοίωσις τῷ θεῷ καλὰ τὸ ἐναλὸν, the becoming tike to God, as far as in our power. Τῶς μὰν γαρ θεος πῶς ὁ βίθν μακάριθν τοῖς δ' ἀνθρώποις, ἐψ' ὅσον ὁμοίωμά τε τῆς τοιαύλης ἐνεργέιας ὑπάρχει. For to THE Gods. (as says another antient) the whole of life is one continued happiness; but to Men, 'tis so far happy, as it rises to the resemblance of so divine an Energy. See Plat. in Theætet. Arist. Eth. X. 8.

(f) This CONNECTIVE ACT of the Soul, by which it views ONE IN MANY, is perhaps one of the principal Acts of its most excellent Part. 'Tis this removes that impenetrable mist, which renders Okjests of Intelligence invisible to lower faculties. Were it not for this, even the fensible World (with the help of all our Sensations) would appear as unconnected, as the words of an Index. 'Tis certainly not the Figure alone, nor the Touch alone, nor the Odour alone, that makes the Rose, but 'tis made up of all these, and other attributes united; not an unknown Constitution of insensible Parta, but

behold a kind of *Superior* Objects; a new Ch. IV. Race of Perceptions, more comprehensive

than

a known Constitution of fensible Parts, unless we chuse to extirpate the possibility of natural Knowlege.

WHAT then perceives this Constitution or Union?—Can it be any of the Senses?—No one of these, we know, can pass the limits of its own province. Were the Smell to perceive the union of the Odour and the Figure, it would not only be Smell, but it would be Sight also. 'Tis the same in other instances. We must necessarily therefore recur to some Higher collective Power, to give us a prospect of Nature, even in these her subscribed wholes, much more in that comprehensive Whole, whose Sympathy is universal, and of which these smaller Wholes are all no more than Parts.

But no where is this collecting, and (if I may be allowed the expression) this unifying Power more conspicuous, than in the subjects of PURE TRUTH. By virtue of this power the Mind views One general Idea in many Individuals; One Proposition in many general Ideas; One Syllogism in many Propositions; till at length by properly repeating and connecting Syllogism with Syllogism, it ascend into those bright and steady regions of Science,

Quas neque concutiunt venti, neque nubila nimbis Adspergunt, &cc. Lucr.

Even

Ch.IV. than those of Sense; a Race of Perceptions, each one of which may be found intire

Even negative Truths and negative Conclusions cannot subsist, but by bringing Terms and Propositions together, so necessary is this UNITING Power to every Species of KNOWLEGE. See p. 3. 250.

He that would better comprehend the diffinction between sensitive Perception, and intellec-TIVE, may observe that, when a Truth is spoken, it is heard by our Ears, and under flood by our Minds. That these two Acts are different, is plain, from the example of fuch, as hear the founds, without knowing the language. But to shew their difference still stronger, let us suppose them to concur in the same Man, who shall both bear and understand the Truth proposed. Let the Truth be for example, The Angles of a Triangle are equal to two right Angles. That this is ONE Truth, and not two or many Truths, I believe none will deny. Let me ask then, in what manner does this Truth become perceptible (if at all) to SENSATION?—The Answer is ob. vious; 'tis by fuccessive Portions of little and little at a time. When the first Word is present, all the Subsequent are absent; when the last Word is present, all the previous are absent; when any of the middle Words are present, then are there some absent, as well of one fort as the other. No more exists at once than a fingle Syllable, and the Remainder as much is not, (to Sensation at least) as tho' it never had

and whole in the separate individuals of an Ch. IV.
infinite and sleeting Multitude, without departing

had been, or never was to be. And so much for the Perception of Sense, than which we see nothing can be more dissipated, fleeting, and detached. - And is that of the MIND, fimilar?—Admit it, and what follows?—It follows, that one Mind would no more recognize one Truth, by recognizing its Terms. fuccessively and apart, than many distant Minds would recognize it, were it distributed among them, a different part to each. The case is, every TRUTH is ONE. tho' its TERMS are MANY. It is in no respect true by parts at a time, but 'tis true of necesfity at once, and in an instant. What Powers therefore recognize this Oneness or Unity?—Where even does it reside, or what makes it? - Shall we answer with the Stagirite, To de EN HOIOTN TITO O NOTE Exactor - If this be allowed, it should seem, where SENSATION and INTELLEGE TION appear to concur, that Sensation was of MANY. Intellection was of ONE; that Sensation was temperary, divisible and successive; Intellection, instantaneous, indivisible, and at ence.

If we consider the Radii of a Circle, we shall find at the Circumference that they are MANY; at the Center that they are ONE. Let us then suppose SENSE and MIND to view the same Radii, only let Sense view them at the Circumference, Mind at the Center;

Ch. IV. parting from the unity and permanence of its own nature.

AND

Center; and hence we may conceive, how these Powers differ; even where they jointly appear to operate in perception of the same object.

There is ANOTHER ACT OF THE MIND, the very reverse of that here mentioned; an Act, by which it perceives not one in many, but MANY IN This is that mental Separation, of which we have given some account in the first Chapter of this Book; that Resolution or Analysis, which enables us to inveftigate the Caufes, and Principles, and Elements of things, 'Tis by Virtue of this, that we are enabled to abstract any particular Attribute, and make it by itself the Subject of philosophical Contemplation. Were it not for this, it would be difficult for particular Sciences to exist; because otherwife they would be as much blended, as the feveral Attributes of fenfible Substances. How. for example, could there be fuch a Science as Optics, were we necefficated to contemplate Colour concreted with Figure, two Attributes, which the Eye can never view, but affociated? I mention not a multitude of other fensible qualities, some of which still prefent themselves, whenever we look on any coloured Body.

Those two noble Sciences, ARITHMETIC and GROMETRY, would have no basis to stand on, were

AND thus we see the Process by which Ch. IV.

we arrive at GENERAL IDEAS; for the

Perceptions

were it not for this separative Power. They are both conversant about QUANTITY; Geometry about CONTINUOUS Quantity, Arithmetic about Dis-EXTENSION is effential to continuous Quantity; Monads, or Units, to Discrete. separating from the infinite Individuals, with which we are furrounded, those infinite Accidents, by which they are all diversified, we leave nothing but those simple and perfectly similar Units, which being combined make NUMBER, and are the Subject of ARITHMETIC. Agen, by separating from Body every possible subordinate Accident, and leaving it nothing but its triple Extension of Length, Breath, and Thickness, (of which were it to be deprived, it would be Body no longer) we arrive at that pure and ummixed MAGNITUDE, the contemplation of whose properties makes the Science of Grometry.

By the same analytical or separative Power, we investigate Definitions of all kinds, each one of which is a developed Word, as the same Word is an invested Definition.

To conclude—In Composition and Division consists the whole of Science, Composition

Ch. IV. Perceptions here mentioned are in fact no other. In these too we perceive the obiects of Science and REAL KNOWLEGE. which can by no means be, but of that which is general, and definite, and fixt (g).

Here

TION MAKING AFFIRMATIVE TRUTH, AND SHEWING US THINGS UNDER THEIR SIMILARI-TIES AND IDENTITIES; DIVISION MAKING. NEGATIVE TRUTH, AND PRESENTING THEM. TO US UNDER THEIR DISSIMILARITIES AND DIVERSITIES.

. And here, by the way, there occurs a Question. -If all Wisdom be Science, and it be the business of Science as well to compound as to separate, may we not say that those Philosophers took Half of Wisdom for the Whole, who distinguished it from Wit, as if Wisdom only separated, and Wit only brought together?—Yet so held the Philosopher of Malmesbury, and the Author of the Essay on the Human Under standing.

(g) The very Etymologies of the Words 'EUI-TH'MH, Scientia, and Understanding, may serve in some degree to shew the nature of these Faculties, as well as of those Beings, their true and proper Objects. ΈΠΙΣΤΗ ΜΗ ωνόμα-STAIL dia to EII TET A'EIN & open tun maymales Here too even Individuals, however of Ch. IV. themselves unknowable, become objects of

Knowlege,

äγειν ἡμῶς, τῆς ἀορισίας κỳ με αβολῆς τῶν ἐπὶ μέρις ἀπάγισα ἡ γὰς ἐπισήμη περὶ τὰ καθόλε κỳ ἀμε [άστισία κατωγίνεται. Science ('ΕΠΙΣΤΗ'ΜΗ) bas its name from bringing us ('ΕΠΙ' ΣΤΑ΄ ΣΙΝ) το some Stop and Boundary of things, taking us away from the unbounded nature and mutability of Particulars; for it is conversant about Subjects, that are general, and invariable. Nicephi. Blem. Epit. Logic. p. 21.

This Etymology given by Blemmides, and long before him adopted by the Pertpateties, came originally from Plato, as may be seen in the following account of it from his Gratylus. In this Dialogue Secrates, having first (according to the Heraclitean Philesophy, which Crasylus favoured) etymologized a multitude of Words with a view to that Flow and unceasing Mutation, supposed by Herackitus to run thro' all things, at langth changes his System, and begins to etymologizo from another, which supposed something in nature to be permanent and fixed. On this principle he thus proceeds __ \(\sum_{\text{norm}}\vec{u}=\) μευ और है संग्राम संग्रह्म अवस्थितिक प्रदेश मही करें। όνομα την ΈΠΙΣΤΗΜΗΝ, ως αμφίβελόν έστι, κή μάλλου ίσικε σημαϊών τι ότι ΈΣΤΗ ΣΙΝ έμών LIII τοις πράγμασι τη φυχήν, η ότι συμπεριφέρεται. Let us consider then (says he) some of the very Words ВЬ already

Ch. IV. Knowlege, as far as their nature will permit. For then only may any Particular

be

already examined; and in the first place, the Word Science; how disputable is this (as to its former Etymology) how much more naturally does it appear to signify, that it stops the Soul at things, than that it is carried about with them. Plat. Cratyl. p. 437. Edit. Serr.

The disputable Etymology, to which he here alludes, was a strange one of his own making in the former part of the Dialogue, adapted to the flowing System of Heraclitus there mentioned. According to this notion, he had derived 'EII I-ZTH'MH from **Intellate and uters, as if it kept along with things, by perpetually following them in their motions. See Plato as before p. 412.

As to Scientia, we are indebted to Scaliger for the following ingenious Etymology. Ratio-CINATIO, metus quidam est; Scientia, quies: unde et nomen, tum apud Graces, tum etiam nostrum. Haçà tò 'E II I' I E T A E O A I, 'E II I E TH'M H. Sistitur enim mentis agitatio, et sit species in animo. Sic Latinum Scientia, öti yivetai EXE E I E T O T ON TOE. Nam Latini qued nomen entis simplex ed usu abjectrunt atque repudiarunt, omnibus activis participiis iidem adjunxerunt. Audiens, anovor Iv. Scients, xão Scal. in Theophr. de Causio Plant. Lib I. P. 17.

The

be faid to be known, when by afferting it Ch. IV. to be a Man, or an Animal, or the like,

we

The English Word, Understanding, means not so properly Knowlege, as that Faculty of the Soul, where Knowlege resides. Why may we not then imagine, that the framers of this Word intended to represent it as a kind of firm Basis, on which the fair Structure of Sciences was to rest, and which was supposed to stand under them, as their immoveable Support?

Whatever may be faid of these Etymologies, whether they are true or false, they at least prove their Authors to have confidered Science and Un-DERSTANDING, not as fleeting powers of Perception, like the Sense, but rather as steady, permanent, and durable Comprehensions. But if fo, we must somewhere or other find for them certain seady, permanent, and durable OBJECTS; fince if PERCEP-TION OF ANY KIND BE DIFFERENT FROM THE THING PERCEIVED, (whether it perceive strait as crooked, or crooked as strait; the moving as fixed, or the fixed as moving) such Perception MUST OF NECESSITY BE ERRONEOUS AND The following passage from a Greek Platonic (whom we shall quote again hereafter) seems on the prefent occasion not without its weight-Εί देड़ी γνώσις ακριβες έρα της αιθήσεως, देंग αν κ If there be A γνως α αληθες έρα των αιδητών. B b 2 Knowlege Ch. IV. we refer it to some such comprehensive, or general Idea.

Now 'tis of these comprehensive and permanent Ideas, the Genuine Perceptions of pure Mind, that Words of all Languages, however different, are the Symbols. And hence it is, that as the Perceptions include, so do these their Symbols

Knowlege more accurate than Sensation; there must be certain objects of such knowlege more true than objects or Sense.

The following then are Questions worth considering,—What these Objects are?—Where they reside?—And how they are to be discovered?—Not by experimental Philosphy 'tis plain; for that meddles with nothing, but what is tangible, corporeal, and mutable—nor even by the more refined and rational speculation of Mathematics; for this, at its very commencement, takes such Objects for granted. We can only add, that if they reside in our own MINDS, (and who, that has never looked there, can assume they do not?) then will the advice of the Satirial be no ways improper,

NEC TE QUESIVERIS EXTRA.

Perf.

Particulars only, but all indifferently, as they bappen to occur. Were therefore the Inhabitants of Salisbury to be transferred to York, the new particular objects would appear on every fide, they would still no more want a new Language to explain themselves, than they would want new Minds to comprehend what they beheld. All indeed that they would want, would be the local proper Names; which Names, as we have said already *, are hardly a part of Language, but must equally be learnt both by learned and unlearned, as often as they change the place of their abode.

'Tis upon the same principles we may perceive the reason, why the dead Languages (as we call them) are now intelligible; and why the Language of modern England is able to describe antient B b 2 Rome;

• Sup. p. 345, 346.

Ch. IV. Rome; and that of ancient Rome to describe modern England (b). But of these matters we have spoken before.

§. 2. And now having viewed the process, by which we acquire general Ideas, let us begin anew from other Principles, and try to discover (if we can prove so fortunate) whence 'tis that these Ideas originally come. If we can succeed here, we may discern perhaps, what kind of Beings they are, for this at present appears somewhat obscure.

LET

⁽b) As far as Human Nature, and the primary Genera both of Substance and Accident are the seme in all places, and have been so thro' all ages; so far all Languages share one common IDENTITY. As far as peculiar Species of Substance occur in different regions; and much more, as far as the positive Institutions of religious and civil Policies are every where different; so far each Language has its peculiar Diversity. To the Causes of Diversity here mentioned, may be added the distinguishing Character and Genius of every Nation, concerning which we shall speak hereafter.

LET us suppose any man to look for Ch. IV. the first time upon some Work of Art, as for example upon a Clock, and having sufficiently viewed it, at length to depart. Would he not retain, when absent, an Idea of what he had seen?—And what is it, to retain such Idea?—'Tis to have A FORM INTERNAL correspondent to THE EXTERNAL; only with this difference, that the Internal Form is devoid of the Matter; the External is united with it, being seen in the metal, the wood, and the like.

Now if we suppose this Spectator to view many such Machines, and not simply to view, but to consider every part of them, so as to comprehend how these parts all operate to one End; he might be then said to possess a kind of INTELLIGIBLE FORM, by which he would not only understand, and know the Clocks, which he had seen already, but every Work also of B b 4

Ch.IV. like fort, which he might see bereafter.—
Should it be ask'd "robich of these Forms
" is prior, the External and Sensible; or
" the Internal and Intelligible;" the Answor is obvious, that the prior is the
Sensible.

Thus then we see, THERE ARE INTEL-LIGIBLE FORMS, WHICH TO THE SENSI-BLE ARE SUBSEQUENT.

But farther still—If these Machines be allowed the Work not of Chance, but of an Artist, they must be the Work of one, who knew what he was about. And what is it, to work, and know what one is about?—'Tis to have an Idea of what one is doing; to possess a Form internal, correspondent to the external, to which external it serves for an Exemplar or Archetype.

Here then we have An interligible FORM, which is prior to the sensi-

BLE FORM; which, being truly prior as Ch. IV.
well in dignity as in time, can no more become subsequent, than Cause can to Effect.

Thus then, with respect to Works of ART, we may perceive, if we attend, A TRIPLE ORDER OF FORMS; one Order. intelligible and previous to these Works; a fecand Order, sensible and concomitant; and a third agen, intelligible and subsequent. After the first of these Orders the Maker may be faid to work; thro' the second, the Works themselves exist, and are what they are; and in the third they become recognized, as mere Objects of Contemplation. To make these Forms by different Names more easy to be understood; the first may be called THE MAKER'S FORM; the second, that of THE SUBJECT; and the third, that of the Contemplator.

LET us pale from hence to Works of NATURE. Let us imagine ourlelves viewing

Ch. IV. ing some diversified Prospect; " a Plain. " for example, spatious and fertile; a " river winding thro' it; by the banks " of that river, men walking and cattle " grazing; the view terminated with " distant hills, some craggy, and some " covered with wood." Here 'tis plain we have plenty of Forms NATURAL. And could any one quit so fair a Sight, and retain no traces of what he had befield?—And what it is, to retain traces of what one has beheld?—"Tis to have certain Forms Internal correspondent to the EXTERNAL, and resembling them in every thing, except the being merged in Matter. And thus, thro' the fame retentive and collective Powers, the Mind becomes fraught with Forms natural, as before with Forms artificial.—Should it be asked, " which of these natural Forms are " prior, the External ones view'd by the " Senses, or the Internal existing in the " Mind;" the Answer is obvious, that the prior are the External. THUS

Thus therefore in Nature, as well as Ch. IV. in Art, there are intelligible

Forms, which to the sensible are subsequent. Hence then we see the meaning of that noted School Axiom, Nil est in Intellectu, quod non prius fuit in Sensu; an Axiom, which we must own to be so far allowable, as it respects the Ideas of a mere Contemplator.

But to proceed somewhat farther—Are natural Productions made by Chance, or By Design?—Let us admit by Design, not to lengthen our inquiry. They are certainly more exquisite than any Works of Art, and yet these we cannot bring ourselves to suppose made by Chance.—Admit it, and what follows?—We must of necessity admit a Mind also, because Design implies Mind, wherever 'tis to be found.—Allowing therefore this, what do we mean by the Term, Mind?—We mean something

Ch.IV. something, which, when it alls, knows what it is going to do; something stored with Ideas of its intended Works, agreeably to which Ideas those Works are fashioned.

THAT such Exemplars, PATTERNS, Forms, Ideas (call them as you please) must of necessity be, requires no proving, but sollows of course, if we admit the Cause of Nature to be a Mind, as above mentioned. For take away these, and what a Mind do we leave without them? Chance surely is as knowing, as Mind without Ideas; or rather, Mind without Ideas is no less blind than Chance.

The Nature of these Ideas is not difficult to explain, if we once come to allow a possibility of their Existence. That they are exquisitely beautiful, various, and orderly, is evident from the exquisite Beauty, Variety, and Order, seen in natural Substances, which are but their Copies or Pictures.

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tures. That they are mental is plain, as Ch. IV.

they are of the Essence of MIND, and consequently no Objects to any of the Senses,
nor therefore circumscribed either by Time
or Place.

HERE then, on this System, we have plenty of Forms intelligible, which are truly previous to all Forms sensible. Here too we see that Nature is not desective in her triple Order, having (like Art) her Forms previous, her Concomitant, and her Subsequent (i).

THAT

⁽i) Simplicius, in his commentary upon the Predicaments, calls the first Order of these intelligible Forms, τὰ πρὸ τῆς μεθίξεως, those previous to Participation, and at other times, ἡ ἐξηρημένη κοινότης, the transcendent Universality or Sameness; the second Order he calls τὰ ἐν μεθέξει, those which exist in Participation, that is, those merged in Matter; and at other times, he calls them ἡ καθαθεθαγμένη κοινότης, the substitute Universality or Sameness; lastly, of the third Order he says, that they have no independent

Ch.IV. THAT the Previous may be justly so called is plain, because they are essentially prior

pendent existence of their own, but that - imeis ἀΦελόν]ες αὐθα દેν ταῖς খμεθέραις ἐννοίαις, καθ ἐαυθά ines nouper, we ourselves abstracting them in our own Imaginations, have given them by fuch abstraction an existence as of themselves. Simp. in Prædic. p. 17. In another place he faye, in a language formewhat mysterious, yet still conformable to the same doctrine - Mทัพอใจ ซึ่ง รองราใจง ภทพาใช้อง รอง หององ, รอง แล้ว อัฐพองprime मार्क प्रकार देशका मार्क हैं। विशेष मार्क हैं। विशेष प्रकार मार्किक मार καੀ α τη μίαν έαυ ν Φύσιν, ασπερ κ της διαφορότη ος καθα την πολυειδή πρόληψιν — δεύθερου δε ές το κοικον, το από κοινε αιθία τοις διαφύροις ειδεσιν ενδιδόμενος 🥦 ένυπάρχου αὐθοῖς-τρίτου δε, τὸ ἐν ταῖς ἡμετέραις διαvoiais if apaieteus upis apever, us reogents de-Perhaps therefore we must admit a TRIPLE ORDER OF WHAT IS UNIVERSAL AND THE SAME; that of the first Order, transcendent and superior to Particulars, which thre' its uniform nature is the cause of that Sameness existing in them, as thre' its multiform pre-conception it is the cause of their Diversity-that of the second Order, what is infused from the first univerfal Cause into the various Species of Beings, and which has its existence in those several Species - that of the third Order, what subsists by abstraction in our own Understandings, being of subsequent origin to the other Ibid. p. 21.

prior to all things else. The WHOLE VISI-Ch. IV.
BLE WORLD exhibits nothing more, than

ſo

To Simplicius we shall add the two following Quotations from Ammonius and Nicephorus Blemmides, which we have ventured to transcribe, without regard to their uncommon length, as they so fully establish the Doctrine here advanced, and the works of these Authors are not easily to be procured.

Έννοείδω τοίνυν δακθύλιός τις εκθύπωμα έχων, εί τύχοι, 'Αχιλλίως, κ κηρία πολλά παρακείμενα' ο δε δακθύλι το σφραγιζέτω τους κηρές πάνθας υς ερου δέ τις είσελθών κ) θεασάμενος τα κηρία, έπισήσαι ότι πάνλα έξ ένός είσιν έχλυπώματος, έχέτω παρ αυτώ το ἐκτύπωμα τη διανοία. Ἡ τοίνυν σΦραγίς ή ἐν τῷ δακτυλίω λέγεται ΠΡΟ' ΤΩΝ ΠΟΛΛΩΝ είναι. ή δε εν τοις κηρίοις, ΈΝ ΤΟΙ Σ ΠΟΛΛΟΙ Σ· ή δὶ ἐν τῆ διανοία τε ἀπομαξαμένε, ἘΠΙ ΤΟΙ Σ ΠΟΛΛΟΙΣ, κλ ύς ερογενής. Τουτο ούν έννοείδω κλ έπὶ τῶν γενῶν κὰι ἐιδῶν· ο΄ γὰρ Δημιουργός, ποιῶν πάντα, έχει παρ ίαυτῷ τὰ πάντων παραδείγματα. οίου, ποιών ανθρωπου, έχει το είδος παρ' έαυτώ τΕ ἀνθρώπε, προς δ ἀΦορών, πάντας ποιεί. 'Ει δέ τις ένς αίη λέγων, ώς οὐκ ἐισὶ παρὰ τῷ Δημιουργῷ τὰ ἔιδη, ἀκουέτω ταυτα, ώς ο Δημιουργος δημιουργεί, η ειδώς τα υπ' αυτέ δημιουργόυμενα, η ουκ ειδώς. Άλλ ει μεν μη ειδώς, σύχ αν δημιουργήσει. Τίς γαρ, μέλλων ποιήσειν

Tie

Ch. IV. fo many passing Pictures of these immutable

Archetypes. Nay thro' these it attains even

τો, αγροδί δ μέλλει ποιεινς ού γαρ, ώς ή Φόσις, क्रेर्ट्रक देकक्तिश अणहा. (१६६० त्रका अण्युः क् केत्रके क्रम क्रम क्रम rávousa yous inuis tr yigropány) is de to nay lie dopund meiel, tedent marres et populume de abri. 'Le roin un प्राकृत में प्रवास विभी कार के कि के अंग्रेस की है नहे रेन' कोन्ड प्रमुण्डिमाल है। में विसेश है नवार, वर्ष्यही, δηλου, ως ές τυ εν τῷ Δημιουργος τὰ είση. "Es s de το είσος έν τῷ Δημιουργῷ, ὡς ὁ ἐν τῷ δακτυλίφ τύπος κ λέγεται τύτο το είδος ΠΡΟ ΤΩΝ ΠΟΛΛΩΝ. m xwpis on the Uhns. "Est de to kides to antewne m en rois xal Exactor arbeundes, us ra er rois empois exτυπώματα: κ λέγεται τα τοιαυτά ΈΝ ΤΟΓΣ ΠΟΛΛΟΊΣ ίσαι, η άχώρις α της ύλης. Θιασάμετοι ανθρώπε έχυσιν, (ως έπὶ το δε τρου έλθουλος, καὶ θεα-दर्भार्म प्रमुख्य प्रमुख्य विष्युक्ष मार्थिक केर्नि हो पूर्व केर्यान मही λίγεται τέτο ΈΠΙ ΤΟΙ Σ ΠΟΛΛΟΙΣ, Αγου μελά τα πολλα, και ύς ερογενές. Intolligatur annulus, qui alicujus, utpote Achillis, imaginem insculptam babeat: multæ insuper ceræ sint, et ab annule imprimentur: veniat deinde quispiam, videstque ceras emnes unius annuk impressione formates, annulique impressionem in mente contincat : figillum onnulo infeulptum, ANTE MULTA dicetur: in cerulis impressum, in MULTIS: quod vero in illius, qui illo venerat, intelligentià remanferit, POST MULTA, et posterius genitum dicetur. Idem in

a Semblance of Immortality, and con-Ch. IV.

in generibus et formis intelligendum censeo: etenim ille optimus procreator mundi Deus, omnium rerum formas, atque exempla habet apud se : ut si hominem efficere velit, in hominis formam, quam habet, intueatur, et ad illius exemplum cæteros faciat omnes. At si quis restiterit, dicatque rerum formas apud Creatorem non esse: quaso ut diligenter attendat : Opifex, quæ facit, vel cognoscit, vel ignerat : sed is, qui nesciet, nunquam quicquam faciet: quis enim id facere aggreditur, qued facere ignorat? Neque enim facultate quâdam rationis experte aliquid aget, prout agit natura. Ex que conficitur, ut nature etiam agat, etsi quæ faciat, non advertat: si vero ratione quadam aliquid facit, quodcunque ab eo factum est omnino cognovit. Si igitur Deus non pejore ratione, quam homo, facit quid, quæ fecit cognovit : si cognovit quæ fecit, in ipso rerum formas esse perspicuum eft. Forme autem in opifice funt periude ac in annulo figillum, bacque forma ANTE MULTA, et avulfa a Atqui bominis species in unoquoque moterià dicitur. homine est, quemadmodum etiam sigilla in ceris; et 118 MULTIS, nec avulsa a materià dicitur. At cum singulos bomines animo conspicimus, et candem in unoquoque formam asque effigiem videmus, illa effigies in mente nostrà insidens POST MULTA, et posterius genita dice. tur: veluti in illo quoque dicebamus, qui multa sigilla in cerà uno et eodem annulo impressa conspexerat. Ammon. in Porphyr. Introduct. p. 29. b.

Λέγονίας

Ch. IV. tinues throughout ages to be SPECIFF

Λέγουλαι δε τα γένη και τα είδη ΠΡΟ ΤΩΝ ΠΟΛΛΩΝ, ΈΝ ΤΟΙΣ ΠΟΛΛΟΙΣ, ΈΠΙ ΤΟΙΣ ΠΟΛΛΟΙΣ οίον έννοείδω τι σΦραγικτήρια, Εχω καὶ ἐκθύπωμα τὸ τυχὸν, ἐξ οῦ κηρία πολλά μεθαλαβέτω το έκθυπώμα Ο χαί τις υπ' όψιν αγαγέτω ταυτα, μη προκαλιδών μηδάλως το σΦραγις ήριου έωραχως ਹੈहे τα है। οίς το εκίσπωμα, και επις ήσας ότι παίθα τε αυίε μείεχεσιν έκιυπώμαί 🚱, και τὰ δοκενία πολλά τῷ λόγῳ συναθροίσας εἰς ἐν, ἐχέῖω τῦτο καῖα διάνοιαν. Τὸ μὲν εν σφραγις ήριον τύπωμα λέγε αι ΠΡΟ ΤΩΝ ΠΟΛΛΩΝ· τόδ' έν τοῖς κηρίοις, ΈΝ ΤΟΙΣ ΠΟΛ-ΛΟΙΣ· το δε εξ αυίων καθαληθθέν, και καθά διάνωση αύλως ύπος αν. ΈΠΙ ΤΟΙ ΣΠΟΛΛΟΙ Σ. Ουτως Ευ κάι τὰ γένη και τα είδη ΠΡΟ ΤΩΝ ΠΟΛΛΩΝ μέν είσιν έν τῷ Δημιουργῷ, καθὰ τὸς ποιηλικὸς λόγες. દેν τω Θεω γαρ οι ουσιοποιοί λάγοι των συθων έναιως προυφες ήκασι, καθ' δυς λόγως δ υπερώσι 🕒 τα δύλα πάνλα καλ προώριτε καλ παρήγαγεν, υΦες κείκαι δέ λίγον αι τὰ γένη καὶ τὰ ἔιδη ΕΝ ΤΟΓ ΣΠΟΛΛΟΓΣ. औਰ का कार्र का राज कर है। जिस्से कि मार्थ के प्रति का कार्र के किस कार्र के किस कार्र के किस कार्र के किस कार्र हेर्रा, και τοις καλά μέρο ιπποις το το ιππο είδο : . ανθρώποις όξ, και επποις, και τοις άλλοις ζώοις το γάθ בישף ומאב או דמוע דמוע בולשין לאבף בין דם לשטי אמי דפוב ζώοις όμε καὶ τοῖς ζωοΦύτοις το καθολικώτερου γένος το αιωπηικον, έξειαζειαι συναχθώνων δε και των Φυίως SEUDETTAL TO EMPUNOU EI DE OUD TOIS EMPUNOIS ESENTIS ÉTIGNATE ... CALLY ONE, amid those infinite particular Ch. IV. changes, ——

έπισκοπεῖ καὶ τὰ ἄψυχα, τὸ σῶμα σύμπαν καθόψε αι συνδραμεσών δε τοῖς ειρημενοις των ασωμάτων εσιών, το πρώτου γέν Φανείται και γενικώτα ου και δυίω μέν ΈΝ ΤΟΙΣ ΠΟΛΛΟΙΣ υφές παι τὰ ἔιδη κὶ τα γένη. Καθαλαβών δέ τις έκ των καθά μέρ 🖨 ανθρώπων τη αυίο Φύσιν, την ανθρωπότη α, έκ δε των καλα μέρω रिक्रमध्य बेर्गीमेर रमेर निकर्णस्मीय, καὶ चैरक रकेर καθόλε ανθρωπον, καὶ τὸ καθόλε Ιππου ἐπινοήσας καὶ τὸ καθόλε ζῶου ἐκ τῶν καθέκας α τῷ λόγφ συναγαγών καὶ τὸ καθόλε αιθητικόν, και το καθόλε ξμψυχου, και το καθόλε σωμα, και την καθολικωβάτην εσίαν εξ άπάνβων συλλογισάμειο, ο τοιδτο εν τη έαυθε διανοία τα γευπ κὶ ταὶ εἰθη αίτλως, ὑπές ησεν ἘΠΙ' ΤΟΓΣ ΠΟΛΛΟΙΣ, τυίες, μεία τα πολλά και ύς ερογενώς. verd et Species dicuntur esse ANTE MULTA, IN MUL-TIS, POST MULTA. Ut puta, intelligatur sigillum, quamlibet figuram habens, ex quo multæ ceræ ejufdem figuræ sint participes, et in medium aliquis has proferat, nequaquam præviso sigillo. Cum autem vidisset eas ceras in quibus figura exprimitur, et animadvertisset omnes eandem figuram participare, et que videbantur multæ, ratione in unum coegisset, hoc in mente teneat. Nempe sigillum dicitur esse species ANTE MULTA; illa vero in ceris, IN MULTIS; qua vero ab iis desumitur, et in mente immaterialiter subsissit, POST MULTA. Sic igitur et Genera et Species ANTE MULTA in Creatore funt, secundum rationes efficientes. In Deo enim rerum effectrices rationes una et simpliciter C c 2

Ch. IV. changes, that befal it every moment (k).

præ-existunt; secundum quas rationes ille supra-substantialis omnes res et prædestinavit et produxit. Existere autem dicuntur Genera et Species IN MULTIS, quaniam in singulis hominibus hominis Species, et in singulis equis equi Species est. In hominibus æque ac in equis et aliis animalibus Genus invenitur harum specierum, qued In animalibus etiam una cum Zoopbytis magis universale Genus, nempe sensitivum exquiritur. Additis vero plantis, spessatur Genus animatum. Si verò una cum animatis quisquam velit perscrutari etiam inanimata, totum Corpus perspiciet. Cum autem entia incorporea conjuncta fuerint iis modo tractatis, apparebit primum et generalissimum Genus. Atque ita quidem IN MULTIS subsistunt Genera et Species. Comprehendens . vero quisquam ex singulis hominibus naturam ipsam bamanam, et ex fingulis equis ipsam equinam, asque ita universalem hominem et universalem equum considerans. et universale animal ex fingulis ratione colligens, et universale sensitivum, et universale animatum, et universale corpus, et maxime universale ens ex omnibus colligens, hic, inquam, in sua mente Genera et Species immaterialiter constituit 'ENT TOIE ΠΟΛΛΟΓΣ, boc est, Post Multa, et posterius genità. Niceph. Blem. Log. Epit. p. 62. Vid. etiam Akin. in Platonic. Philosoph. Introduct. C. IX. X.

(k) THE following elegant lines of Virgil are worth attending to, tho' applied to no higher a subject than Bees.

Erge

MAY we be allowed then to credit those Ch. IV. speculative men, who tell us, "'tis in these

Ergo ipsas quamvis angusti terminus ævi Excipiat: (neque enim plus septima ducitur ætas) At Genus immortale manet — G. IV.

We have subjoined the following extract from Boethius, to serve as a commentary on this description of TIME. — ÆTERNITAS igitur est, interminabilis vitæ tota simul et perfesta possessio. Quod ex collatione temporalium clarius liquet. Nam quidquid vivit in TEMPORE, id præsens à præteritis in sutura procedit: nihilque est in tempore constitutum, quod totum vitæ suæ spatium pariter posset ampletti; sed crastinum quidem nondum apprehendit, hesternum vero jam perdidit. In hodierna quoque vita non amplius vivitis, quam

C c 3

Ch.IV." these permanent and comprehensive FORMS

"that THE DEITY views at once, without

"looking

in illo mobili transitorioque momento. Quod igitur Temporis patitur conditionem, licet illud, ficut de munde censuit Aristoteles, nec caperit unquam esse, nec definat, vitaque ejus cum temporis infinitate tendatur, nondum tamen tale est, ut æternum esse jure credatur. enim totum simul infinitæ licet vitæ spatium comprebendit, atque complectitur, sed futura nondum transacta jam non habet. Quod igitur interminabilis vitæ plemitudinem totam pariter comprehendit, ac possidet, cui neque futuri quidquam absit, nec præteriti sluxerit, id ETERNUM esse jure perhibetur : idque necesse est, et fui compos præsens sibi semper assistere, et infinitatem mobilis temporis babere præsensem. Unde quidam nen reste, qui cum audiunt vi fum Platoni, mundum bune nec habuisse initium, nec habiturum esse defectum, bet modo conditori conditum mundum fieri co-æternum putant. Aliud est enim per interminabilem duci VI-TAM, (quod Mundo Plato tribuit) aliud INTERMI-NABILIS VITÆ TOTAM PARITER COMPLEXAM ESSE PRÆSENTIAM, quod Divinæ Mentis proprium esse manifestum est. Neque enim Deus conditis rebus antiquior videri debet temporis quantitatæ, sed simplicis potius proprietate naturæ. Hunc enim vitæ im-MOBILIS PRÆSENTARIUM STATUM, INFINITUS ILLE TEMPORALIUM RERUM MOTUS IMITATUR; cumque eum effingere, at que æquare non poffit, ex immobilitate deficit in motum; ex simplicitate prasentia decrescit " looking abroad, all possible productions Ch. IV.

" both present, past, and future—that this

" great and stupendous View is but a View

" of himself, where all things lie inveloped in

" their Principles and Exemplars, as being

" essential to the fulness of his universal In-

" tellection?"—If so, 'twill be proper, that we invert the Axiom before mentioned. We must now say—Nil est in Sensu, quod non prius fuit in Intellectu. For tho' the contrary may be true with respect to Knowlege merely buman, yet never can it be true with respect to Knowlege uni-

Cc4

verfally,

decrescit in infinitam suturi ac præteriti quantitatem; et, cum totam pariter vitæ suæ plenitudinem nequeat possidere, hoc ipso, quòd aliquo modo nunquam esse desinit, illud, quod implere atque exprimere non potest, aliquatenus videtur æmulari, alligans se ad qualemcunque præsentiam bujus exigui volucrisque momenti: quæ, quoniam manentis illius præsentiæ qua, quoniam manentis illius præsentiæ qua, id præstat imaginem, quibuscumque contigerit, id præstat, ut esse videantur. Quoniam vero manere non potuit, infinitum Temporis iter arripuit: eoque modo sastum est, ut continuaret vitam eundo, cujus plenitudinem complesti non valuit permanendo. Itaque, &c. De Consolat. Philosoph. L. V.

Ch. IV. versally, unless we give Precedence to Atoms
and Lifeless Body, making Mind, among
other things, to be struck out by a lucky
Concourse.

§. 3. "Tis far from the defign of this Treatife, to infinuate that Atheism is the Hypothesis of our later Metaphysicians. But yet 'tis somewhat remarkable, in their several Systems, how readily they admit of the above *Precedence*.

For mark the Order of things, according to their account of them. First comes that huge Body, the sensible World. Then this and its Attributes beget sensible Ideas. Then out of sensible Ideas, by a kind of lopping and pruning, are made Ideas intelligible, whether specific or general. Thus, should they admit that MIND was coeval with Body, yet till Body gave it Ideas, and awakened its dormant Powers, it could at best have been nothing more, than

than a fort of dead Capacity; for INNATECH.IV.

IDEAS it could not pessibly have any.

AT another time we hear of Bodies for exceedingly fine, that their very Exility makes them susceptible of fensation and knowlege; as if they shrunk into Intellect by their exquisite subtlety, which rendred them too delicate to be Bodies any longer. Tis to this notion we owe many curious inventions, such as fubtle Æther, animal Spirits, nervous Ducts, Vibrations, and the like; Terms, which modern Philosophy, upon parting with occult Qualities, has sound expedient to provide itself, to supply their place.

But the intellectual Scheme, which never forgets Deity, postpones every thing corporeal to the primary mental Cause. 'Tis bere it looks for the origin of intelligible Ideas, even of those, which exist in buman Capacities. For the' sensible Objects may be the destined medium.

Ch. IV. medium, to awaken the dormant Energies of Man's Understanding, yet are those Energies themselves no more contained in Sense, than the Explosion of a Cannon, in the Spark which gave it fire (1).

In

(1) The following Note is taken from a Manuscript Commentary of the Platonic Olympiodorus, (quoted before p. 371.) upon the Phado of Plato; which tho' perhaps some may object to from inclining to the Doctrine of Platonic Reminiscence, yet it certainly gives a better account how far the Senses affist in the acquisition of Science, than we can find given by vulgar Philosophers.

Oddénole yah ta Xeipu nd deutega ahxal a alliau itol two neeltouns et de dei nd tais elynunkiois ekynymeter neel edau, nd ahxhv eineiv thi aldnow the enter neel edau, nd ahxhv eineiv thi aldnow the enter neel edau, nd ahxhv ahxhv eis avalumeur two nadohn epelkoun thukhv eis avalumeur two nadohn — nala tail nu de this evolan eighlai nal to evolan endohn of the general and and and the train eighlain eis avalumeur endohn yeud, dioti en two aldnow eis avalumeur endohn yeud, dioti en two aldnow eis avalumeur endohn yeud, are by no means the Principles or Causes of the more excellent; and the we admit the common interpretations, and allow Sense to be a Principle of Science, we must bowever call it a Principle, net as if it was the efficient Cause, but as it rouses our Sense

In short ALL MINDS, that are, are SI-Ch.IV.

MILAR and CONGENIAL; and so too are

their

Soul to the Recollection of general Ideas.— According to the same way of thinking is it said in the Timæus, that through the Sight and Hearing we acquire to ourselves Philosophy, because we pass from Objects of Sense to Reminiscence or Recollection.

And in another passage he observes— 'Eweid's yap πάμμορφου άγαλμά ές το ή ψυχη, πάυων των όγων έχεσα λόγως, έριθιζομένη υπό των άιθηδω άναμμονήσκε αι δυ ένδου έχει λόγων, κ) τέτες προβάλλε αι. For in as much as the SOUL, by containing the Principles of all Beings, is a sort of omniform Representation or Exemplar; when it is rouzed by objects of Sense, it recollects those Principles, which it contains within, and brings them forth.

Georgius Gemistus, otherwise called Pletho, writes upon the same subject in the following manner. Την ψυχην Φασίν οι τα είδη τιθέμενοι αναλαμβάννσαν εσγε επισήμην της εν τοις αιαθηθοίς λόγης, απριβές ερου αυτής έχουλας κη τελεώτερον εν εαυλή εχειν, η εν τοις αιαθηθοίς έχυσε. Το συ τελεώτερον τύτο κη απριβές ερου κα αναδηθοίς έχυσε. Το συ τελεώτερον τύτο κη απριβές ερου κα αναδηθοίς εχυσε. Το συ τελεώτερον τύτο κη απριβές ερου κα αναδηθοίς εχυσε. Το συ τελεώτερον τύτο κη απριβές ερου κα αναδηθοίς εχυσε. Οι δια αναδημών εξείν την ψυχην, όγε μη ες εν εν διλοίς. Οι δια μηδαμών αλλόθι δυ ανίλην εξείν εν βιανοειώδαι ου δι γκρ πεφυκέναι την ψυχην μηδαμή δυ,

Ch. IV. their Ideas, or intelligible Forms. Were it otherwise, there could be no intercourse between

τι διανοείδαι τας γαρ ψευδείς των δοξών έχι μή δίθων באל פיןשי שלי, באאשי פני אבן באאשי בויםו ביושלנדנוב τινάς, ε καλά το όρθου γιυομένας. Λέιπεδαι δι άΦ έτέρας τινός Φύσεως πολλή έτι κρείτθαίς τε κό τελεωθέρας æΦήκειν τη ψυχη το τελεώτερου τέτο των έν τοις αιθηίοις λόγων. Those who suppose IDEAL FORMS, say that the Soul, when she assumes, for the purposes of Science, those Proportions, which exist in sensible objects, possesses them with a superior accuracy and perfection, than that to which they attain in those sensible objects. New this fuperior Perfection or Accuracy the Soul cannot bave from sensible objects, as it is in fact not in them; nor yet can she conceive it herself as from berfelf, without its having existence any where else. For the Soul is not formed fo as to conceive that, which has existence no where, since even fuch opinions, as are faile, are all of them compositions irregularly formed, not of mere Non-Beings, but of various real Beings, one with ano-It remains therefore that this Perfection, which is superior to the Proportions existing in sensible abjects, must descend to the Soul from SOME OTHER NATURE, WHICH IS BY MANY DEGREES MORE EXCELLENT AND PERFECT. Pleth. de Arifotel, et Platonic. Philosoph. Diff. Edit. Paris. 1541.

The AO'FOI or Proportions, of which Gemissus here speaks, mean not only those relative Proportions between Man and Man, or (what is more Ch. IV. important) between Man and God.

For

Proportions of Equality and Inequality, which exist in Quantity, (such as double, sesquialter, &c.) but in a larger sense, they may be extended to mathematical Lines, Angles, Figures, &c. of all which $\Lambda \delta \gamma o$ or Proportions, tho' we posses in the Mind the most clear and precise Ideas, yet it may be justly questioned, whether any one of them ever existed in the sensible World.

To these two Authors we may add Boethius, who, after having enumerated many acts of the MIND OF INTELLECT, wholly distinct from Sensation, and independent of it, at length concludes,

Hac est efficiens magis Longè caussa potentior. Quam quæ materiæ mode Impressas patitur notas. Precedit tamen excitans, Ac vires animi movens. Vivo in corpore passio. Cùm vel lux oculos ferit, Vel vox auribus instrepit., TEM MENTIS VIGOR excitus, QUAS ENTUS SPECIES TENET, Ad motus simileis vocans, Notis applicat exteris, INTRORSUMQUE RECONDITIS FORMIS miscet imagines. De Consolat. Philosoph. L. V.

For what is Conversation between Mart and Man?—"Tis a mutual intercourse of Speaking and Hearing.—To the Speaker, 'tis to teach; to the Hearer, 'tis to learn.-To the Speaker, 'tis to descend from Ideas to Words; to the Hearer, 'tis to ascend from Words to Ideas.—If the Hearer, in this ascent, can arrive at no Ideas, then is he said not to understand; if he ascend to Ideas diffimilar and heterogeneous, then is he said to misunderstand.—What then is requifite, that he may be faid to understand? -That he should ascend to certain Ideas, treasured up within himself, correspondent and fimilar to those within the Speaker. The same may be said of a Writer and a Reader; as when any one reads to day or to morrow, or here or in Italy, what Euclid wrote in Greece two thousand years ago.

> Now is it not marvelous, there should be so exact an Identity of our Ideas, if they were

were only generated from fenfible Objects, Ch. IV. infinite in number, ever changing, distant in Time, distant in Place, and no one Particular the same with any other?

AGEN, do we allow it possible for Gon to fignify his will to Men; or for MEN to fignify their wants to GoD?—In both these cases there must be an Identity of Ideas, or elfe nothing is done either one way or the other. Whence then do these common IDENTIC IDEAS come?—Those of Men. it feems, come all from Sensation. And whence come God's Ideas?—Not surely from Sensation too; for this we can hardly venture to affirm, without giving to Body that notable Precedence of being prior to the Intellection of even God bimself .- Let them then be original; let them be connate, and essential to the divine Mind .- If this be true, is it not a fortunate Event, that Ideas of corporeal rife, and others of mental, (things derived from subjects so totally distinct) should Sa

Ch. IV. so bappily co-incide in the same wonder feel

HAD we not better reason thus upon so abstruse a Subject?—Either all MINDS have their Ideas derived; or all have them original; or some bave them original, and some derived. If all Minds have them derived. they must be derived from something. which is itself not Mind, and thus we fall insensibly into a kind of Atheism. all have them original, then are all Minds divine, an Hypothesis by far more plausible than the former. But if this be not admitted, then must one Mind (at least) have original Ideas, and the rest have them derived. Now supposing this last, whence are those Minds, whose Ideas are derived, most likely to derive them? -From Mind. or from Body ?-From MIND, a thing bomogeneous; or from Body, a thing beterogeneous? MIND, such as (from the Hypothesis) has - original original Ideas; or from Body, which we Ch. IV. cannot discover to have any Ideas at all?—
An Examination of this kind, pursued with accuracy and temper, is the most probable method of solving these doubts.
"Tis thus we shall be enabled with more assurance to decide, whether we are to admit the Doctrine of the Epicurean Poet,

CORPOREA NATURA animum constare, animamque;

or trust the Mantuan Bard, when he sings in divine numbers,

Igneus est ollis vigor, et CELESTIS ORIGO
Seminibus.

But 'tis now time, to quit these Speculations. Those, who would trace them farther, and have leisure for such studies, may perhaps find themselves led into regions of Contemplation, affording them

D d prospects

HERMES.

Ch.IV. prospects both interesting and pleasant.

We have at present said as much as was requisite to our Subject, and shall therefore pass from hence to our concluding chapter.

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CHAP.

CHAP. V.

Sub-ordination of Intelligence—Difference of Ideas, both in particular Men, and in whole Nations—Different Genius of different Languages—Character of the English, the Oriental, the Latin, and the Greek Languages—Superlative Excellence of the Last—Conclusion.

most intimate connection with the fupreme Intelligence, may be said (as it were)

to

⁽a) Those Philosophers, whose Ideas of Being and Knowlege are derived from Body and Sensation, have a short method to explain the nature of TRUTH. 'Tis a fastitious thing, made by every man for himself; which comes and goes, just as 'tis remembred and forgot; which in the order of things makes its appearance the last of any, being not only subsequent to sensible Objects, but even to our Sensations of them. According to this Hypothesis, there are many Truths, which have been, and are no longer; others, that will be, and have

Ch. V. to shine with unchangeable splendour; enlightening throughout the Universe every possible Subject, by nature susceptible of its

never exist at all.

not been yet; and multitudes, that possibly may

But there are other Reasoners, who must surely have had very different notions; those I mean, who represent Truth not as the last, but the first of Beings; who call it immutable, eternal, omnipresent; Attributes, that all indicate something more than human. To these it must appear somewhat strange, how men should imagine, that a crude account of the method how they perceive. Truth, was to pass for an account of Truth itself; as if to describe the road to London, could be called a Description of that Metropolis.

For my own part, when I read the detail about Sensation and Restlection, and am taught the process at large how my Ideas are all generated, I seem to view the human Soul in the light of a Crucible, where Truths are produced by a kind of logical Chemistry. They may consist (for ought we know) of natural materials, but are as much creatures of our own, as a Bolus or Elixir.

If Milton by his URANIA intended to represent TRUTH, he certainly referred her to a much more antient, as well as a far-more noble origin.

----Heav'nly

obstacles may prevent indeed its efficacy, as clouds and vapours may obscure the Sun; but it self neither admits Diminution, nor Change, because the Darkness respects only particular Percipients. Among these therefore we must look for ignorance and errour, and for that Subordination of Intelligence, which is their natural confequence.

WE have daily experience in the works of ART, that a partial Knowlege will suffice for Contemplation, tho' we know not enough, to profess ourselves Artists. Much

D d 3

more

Heav'nly born!

Before the hills appear'd, or fountains flow'd,
Thou with eternal Wisdom didst converse,
Wisdom thy Sister; and with her didst play
In presence of th' almighty Father, pleas'd
With thy celestial Song.— P. L. VII.

See Proverbs VIII. 22, &c. Jeremiah X. 10. Marc. Autonin. IX. 1.

Ch. V. more is this true, with respect to NATURE; and well for mankind is it found to be true. else never could we attain any natural Knowlege at all. For if the constitutive Proportions of a Clock are so subtle, that few conceive them truly, but the Artist himself; what shall we say to those seminal Proportions, which make the effence and character of every natural Subject?— Partial views, the Imperfections of Sense; Inattention, Idleness, the turbulence of Paffions; Education, local Sentiments, Opinions, and Belief, conspire in many instances to furnish us with Ideas, some too general, some too partial, and (what is worse than all this) with many that are erroneous, and contrary to Truth. These it behoves us to correct as far as posible, by cool suspence and candid examination.

Νήφε, καὶ μέμνης ἀπιζείν, ἄρθρα ταῦτα τῶν φρειών.

And

AND thus by a connection perhaps little Ch. V. expected, the Cause of Letters, and that of Virtue appear to co-incide, it being the business of both to examine our Ideas, and to amend them by the Standard of Nature and of Truth (b).

In this important Work, we shall be led to observe, how Nations, like single Men, have their peculiar Ideas; how these peculiar Ideas become THE GENIUS OF THEIR LANGUAGE, since the Symbol must of course correspond to its Archetype (c); how

⁽b) How useful to ETHIC SCIENCE, and indeed to Knowlege in general, a GRAMMATICAL DISQUISITION into the Etymology and Meaning of Words was esteemed by the chief and ablest Philosophers, may be seen by consulting Plato in his Cratylus; Xenoph. Mem. IV. 5, 6. Arrian. Epist. I. 17. II. 10. Marc. Anton. III. 11. V. 8. X. 8.

⁽c) ΉΘΟΥΣ ΧΑΡΑΚΤΗ Ε΄ τ' ἀνθεώπι ΛΟΓΟΣ.

D d 4

Ch. V. how the wifest Nations, having the most and best Ideas, will consequently have the best and most copious Languages; how others, whose Languages are motley and compounded, and who have borrowed from different countrys different Arts and Practices, discover by Words, to whom they are indebted for Trings.

To illustrate what has been said, by a few examples. We Britons in our time have been remarkable borrowers, as our multiform Language may sufficiently shew. Our Terms in polite Literature prove, that this came from Greece; our Terms in Music and Painting, that these came from Italy; our Phrases in Cookery and War, that we learnt these from the French; and our Phrases in Navigation, that we were taught by the Flemings and Low Dutch. These many and very different Sources of our Language may be the cause, why it is so deficient in Regularity and Analogy.

Yet we have this advantage to compensate Ch. V. the desect, that what we want in *Elegance*, we gain in *Copiousness*, in which last respect few Languages will be found superior to our own.

LET us pass from ourselves to the REGIONS OF THE EAST. The Eastern World, from the earliest days, has been at all times the Seat of enormous Monarchy. On them fair Liberty never shed its genial insluence. If at any time civil Discords arose among them (and arise there did innumerable) the contest was never about the Form of their Government; (for this was an object, of which the Combatants had no conception;) 'twas all from the poor motive of, who should be their Master, whether a Cyrus or an Artaxerxes, a Mahomet or a Mustapha.

Such was their Condition, and what was the consequence?— Their Ideas became

Ch. V. came consonant to their servile State, and their Words became confonant to their fervile Ideas. The great Distinction, for ever in their fight, was that of Tyrant and Slave; the most unnatural one conceivable, and the most susceptible of pomp, and empty exaggeration. Hence they talk'd of Kings as Gods, and of themselves, as the meanest and most abject Reptiles. Nothing was either great or little in moderation, but every Sentiment was heightened by incredible Hyperbole. Thus tho' they fometimes ascended into the Great and Magnificent (d), they as frequently degenerated into the Tumid and Bumbaft. The Greeks too of Afia became infected by their neighbours, who were often at times not only their neighbours, but their mafters;

⁽d) The truest Sublime of the East may be found in the Scriptures, of which perhaps the principal cause is the intrinsic Greatness of the Subjects there treated; the Creation of the Universe, the Dispensations of divine Providence, &c.

sters; and hence that Luxuriance of the Ch. V. Afiatic Stile, unknown to the chaste eloquence and purity of Athens. But of the Greeks we forbear to speak now, as we shall speak of them more fully, when we have first considered the Nature or Genius of the Romans.

AND what fort of People may we pronounce the Romans?—A Nation engaged in wars and commotions, some foreign, fome domestic, which for feven hundred years wholly engrossed their thoughts. Hence therefore their LANGUAGE became, like their Ideas, copious in all Terms expressive of things political, and welladapted to the purposes both of History and popular Eloquence.-But what was their Philosophy? — As a Nation, 'twas none, if we may credit their ablest Writers. And hence the Unfitness of their Language to this Subject; a defect, which even Cicero is compelled to confess, and more fully

Ch. V. fully makes appear, when he writes Philosophy himself, from the number of Terms, which he is obliged to invent (e).

Virgil seems to have judged the most truly of his Countrymen, when admitting their inferiority

The Epicurean Poet LUCRETIUS, who flourished nearly at the same time, seems by his silence to have over-looked the Latin writers of hisown Sect; deriving all his Philosophy, as well as Cicero, from Grecian Sources; and, like him, acknowleging the difficulty of writing Philosophy in Latin, both from the Poverty

⁽e) See Cic. de Fin. I. C. 1, 2, 3. III. C. 1, 2, 4, dec. but in particular Tusc. Diff. I. 3. where he says, PHILOSOPHIA jueuit usque ad hanc atatem, nec ullum babuit lumen LITERARUM LATINARUM; quæ ildustranda et excitanda nobis est; ut si, &cc. See also Tusc. Diff. IV. 2. and Acad. I. 2. where it appears. that 'till CICERO applied himself to the writing of Philosophy, the Romans had nothing of the kind in their language, except some mean performances of Amafonius the Epicurean, and others of the same How far the Romans were indebted to Cicero for Philosophy, and with what industry, as well as eloquence, he cultivated the Subject, may be feen not only from the titles of those Works that are now loft, but much more from the many noble ones, still fortunately preserved.

inferiority in the more elegant Arts, he Ch. V. concludes at last with his usual majesty,

Tu .

verty of the Tongue, and from the Nevelty of the Subject.

Nuc me animi fallit, GRAIORUM obscura reperta
Disficile inlustrare LATINIS versibus esse,
(Multa novis rebus præsertim quom sit agendum,)
Propier EGESTATEM LINGUE et RERUM NOVITATEM:

Sed tua me virtus tamen, et sperata voluptas Suavis amisitiæ quemvis perserre laborem Suadet——— Lucr. I. 1371

In the fame age, VARRO, among his numerous works, wrote some in the way of Philosophy; as did the Patriot BRUTUS, a Treatise concerning Kirtus, much applauded by Cicero; but these Works are now lost.

Soon after the Writers above mentioned came Horacz, fome of whose Satires and Epistles may be justly ranked among the most valuable pieces of Latin Philosophy, whather we consider the Punity of their Stile, or the great Address, with which they treat the Subject.

After Horace, the with as long an interval as from the days of Augustus to those of Nero, came the Satirist Persius, the friend and disciple of the Stoice

HERMES.

414

Ch. V.

Tu regere imperio populos, Romane, memento,

(Hæ tibi erunt arțes) pacisque imponere morem,

Parcere subjectis, et debellare superbos.

FROM

Stoic Cornutus; to whose precepts as he did honour by his virtuous Life, so his works, tho' small, shew an early proficiency in the Science of Morals. Of him it may be said, that he is almost the single difficult writer among the Latin Classics, whose meaning has sufficient merit, to make it worth while to labour thro' his obscurities.

In the same degenerate and tyrannic period, lived also Seneca; whose character, both as a Man and a Writer, is discussed with great accuracy by the noble Author of the Characteristics, to whom we refer.

Under a milder Dominion, that of *Hadrian* and the *Antonines*, lived Aulus Gellius, or (as some call him) Agellius, an entertaining Writer in the miscellaneous way; well skilled in Criticism and Antiquity; who the he can hardly be entitled to the name of a *Philosopher*, yet deserves not to pass unmentioned here, from the curious fragments of Philosophy interspersed in his works.

With Aulus Gellius we range Macrobius, not because a Contemporary, (for he is supposed to have lived

FROM confidering the Romans, let us Ch. V. pass to the Greeks. The Grecian Common-

lived under Honorius and Theodofius) but from his near refemblance, in the character of a Writer: His Works, like the other's, are miscellaneous; filled with Mythology and antient Literature, some Philosophy being intermixed. His Commentary upon the Somnium Scipionis of Cicero may be considered as wholly of the philosophical kind.

In the same age with Aulus Gellius, flourished APULEIUS of Madaura in Africa, a Platenic Writer, whose Matter in general far exceeds his perplexed and affected Stile, too conformable to the false Rhetoric of the Age when he lived.

Of the same Country, but of a later Age, and a harsher Stile, was MARTIANUS CAPELLA, if indeed he deserve not the name rather of a Philosopher.

After Capella, we may rank CHALCIDIUS the Platonic, tho' both his Age, and Country, and Religion are doubtful. His manner of writing is rather more agreable than that of the two preceding, nor does he appear to be their inferior in the knowlege of Philosophy, his work being a laudable Commentary upon the Timeus of Plato.

The

Ch. V. Commonwealths, while they maintained their Liberty, were the most heroic Confederacy, that ever existed. They were

The last Latin Philosopher was BOETHIUS, who was deformed from some of the noblest of the Raman Families, and was Conful in the beginning of the fizzh Century. He wrote many philosophical Works, the greater part in the Lagical way. But his Ethic piece, On the Consolation of Philosophy, and which is partly profe, and partly verle, deferves great encomiums both for the Matter, and for the Stile; in which last he approaches the Purity of a far better age than his own, and is in all respects preferable to those grabbed Africans already mentioned. By command of Theodoric king of the Oothi, 'twee the hard fate of this worthy Man to fuffer death a with whom the Latin Tongue, and the last remains of Roman Dignity, may be faid to have funk in the weffern World.

There were other Romans, who left Philosophical Writings; such as Musonius Rurus, and the two Emperors, Marcus Antoninus and Julian; but so these presented the use of the Greek Tongue their own, they can hardly be considered among the number of Latin Writers.

And so much (by way of sketch) for THE LATIN AUTHORS OF PHILOSOPHY; a small number for so vast an Empire, if we consider them as all the product of near six successive centuries. the politest, the bravest, and the wisest of Ch. V. men. In the short space of little more than a Century, they became such Statesimen, Warriors, Orators, Historians, Physicians, Poets, Critics, Painters, Sculptors, Architects, and (last of all) Philosophers, that one can hardly help considering THAT GOLDEN PERIOD, as a Providential Event in honour of human Nature, to shew to what perfection the Species might ascend (f):

Now

The

⁽f) If we except Homer, Hefiod, and the Lyric Poets, we hear of few Grecian writers before the expedition of Xerxes. After that Monarch had been defeated, and the dread of the Persian Power was at an end, the Effulgence of Grecian Genius (if I may use the expression) broke forth, and shone till the time of Alexander the Macedonian, after whom at disappeared, and never rose again. This is that Golden Period spoken of above. I do not mean that Greece had not many writers of great merit subsequent to that period, and especially of the philosophic kind; but the Great, the Striking, the Sublime (call it as you please) attained at that time to a height, to which it never could ascend in any after age.

Ch. V. Now the Language of these Greeks was truly like themselves; 'twas

COD-

The same kind of fortune besel the People of Rome. When the Punic wars were ended, and Cartbage their dreaded Rival was no more, then (as Horace informs us) they began to cultivate the politer arts. 'Twas soon after this, their great Orators, and Historians, and Poets arose, and Rome, like Greece, had her Golden Period, which lasted to the death of Octavius Casar.

I call these two Periods, from the two greatest Geniuses that sourished in each, one THE SOCRATIC PERIOD, the other THE CICERONIAN.

There are still farther analogies subsisting between them. Neither Period commenced, as long as sollicitude for the common welfare engaged men's attentions, and such wars impended, as threatned their destruction by Foreigners and Barbarians. But when once these sears were over, a general security soon ensued, and instead of attending to the arts of desence and self-preservation, they began to cultivate those of Elegance and Pleasure. Now, as these naturally produced a kind of wanton insolence (not unlike the vitious temper of high-sed animals) so by this the bands of union were insensibly dissolved. Hence then among the Greeks that

conformable to their transcendent and uni-Ch. V. versal Genius. Where Matter so abounded.

Words

that fatal *Pelopoune fron* War, which together with other wars, its immediate confequence, broke the confederacy of their Commonwealths; wasted their strength; made them jealous of each other; and thus paved a way for the contemptible kingdom of *Macedon* to inslave them all, and ascend in a few years to universal Monarchy.

A like Juxuriance of prosperity sowed discord among the Romans; raised those unhappy contests between the Senate and the Gracchi; between Sylla and Marius; between Pompey and Casar; 'till at length, after the last struggle for Liberty by those brave Patriots Brutus and Cassus at Philippi, and the subsequent defeat of Antony at Assium, the Romans became subjects to the dominion of a Fellow-Citien.

It must indeed be consessed, that after Alexander and Octavius had established their Monarchies, there were many bright Geniuses, who were eminent emder their Government. Aristotle maintained a friendship and epistolary correspondence with Alexander. In the time of the same Monarch lived Theoprassus, and the Cynic, Diegenes. Then also Demosthenes and Eschines spoke their two celebrated Ocations. So likewise in the time of Octavius, Virgil wrote his Eneid, and with Horace, Varius, E e 2

Ch. V. Words followed of course, and those exquisite in every kind, as the Ideas for which they stood. And hence it followed, there was not a Subject to be found, which could not with propriety be express in Greek.

HERE were Words and Numbers for the Humour of an Aristophanes; for the native

and many other fine Writers, partook of his protection and royal munificence. But then it must be remembred, that these men were bred and educated in the principles of a free Government. 'Twas hence they derived that high and manly spirit, which made them the admiration of after ages. The Successors and Forms of Government left by Alexander and Octavius, foon stopt the growth of any thing farther in the kind. So true is that noble faying of Longinus - Opival te yar marn ta Φρονήμαλα των μεγαλοΦρόνων ή ΈΛΕΥΘΕΡΓΑ. κὶ ἐπελπίσαι, κὰ ἄμα διωθείν το πρόθυμου τῆς πρὸς αλλήλυς έριδος, κό της περί τα πρωίδια Φιλοιιμίας. *Tis LIBERTY that is formed to nurse the sentiments of great Geniuses; to inspire them with hope; to push forward the propenfity of contest one with another, and the generous emulation of being the first in rank. De Subl. Sect. 44.

native Elegance of a Philemon or Me-Ch. V. nander; for the amorous Strains of a Mimnermus or Sappho; for the rural Lays of a
Theocritus or Bion; and for the sublime
Conceptions of a Sophocles or Homer. The
fame in Prose. Here Isocrates was enabled
to display his Art, in all the accuracy of
Periods, and the nice counterpoise of
Diction, Here Demosthenes found materials for that nervous Composition, that
manly force of unaffected Eloquence,
which rushed, like a torrent, too impetuous to be withstood.

Who were more different in exhibiting their Philosophy, than Xenophon, Plato, and his disciple, Aristotle? Different, I say, in their character of Composition; for as to their Philosophy itself, 'twas in reality the same. Aristotle, strict, methodic, and orderly; subtle in Thought; sparing in Ornament; with little address to the Passions or Imagination; but exhibiting the whole E e 3 with

Ch. V. with fuch a pregnant brevity, that in every fentence we feem to read a page. How exquisitely is this all performed in Greek? Let those, who imagine it may be done as well in another Language, satisfy themselves either by attempting to translate him, or by perusing his translations already made by men of learning. On the contrary, when we read either Xenophon or Plato, nothing of this method and strict order appears. The Formal and Didactic is wholly dropt. Whatever they may teach, 'tis without professing to be teachers; a train of Dialogue and truly polite Address, in which, as in a Mirrour, we' behold human Life, adorned in all its colours of Sentiment and Manners.

And yet the these differ in this manner from the Stagistie, how different are they likewise in character from each other?——Plate, copieus, figurative, and majestic; intermixing at times the facetious and satiric;

fatiric; enriching his Works with TalesCh. V. and Fables, and the mystic Theology of ancient times. Xenophon, the Pattern of perfect simplicity; every where smooth, harmonious, and pure; declining the sigurative, the marvelous, and the mystic; ascending but rarely into the Sublime; nor then so much trusting to the colours of Stile, as to the intrinsic dignity of the Sentiment itself.

THE Language in the mean time, in which He and Plato wrote, appears to fuit fo accurately with the Stile of both, that when we read either of the two, we cannot help thinking, that 'tis he alone, who has hit its character, and that it could not have appeared so elegant in any other manner.

AND thus is THE GREEK TONGUE, from its Propriety and Universality, made

E e 4 for

Ch. V. for all that is great, and all that is beautiful, in every Subject, and under every Form of writing.

GRAIIS ingenium, GRAIIS dedit ore rotundo

Musa loqui.

"Twere to be wished, that those amongst us, who either write or read, with a view to employ their liberal leisure (for as to such, as do either from views more fordid, we leave them, like Slaves, to their destined drudgery) 'twere to be wished, I say, that the liberal (if they have a relish for letters) would inspect the finished Models of Grecian Literature; that they would not waste those hours, which they cannot recall, upon the meaner productions of the French and English Press; upon that sungous growth of Novels and of Pamphlets, where 'tis to be feared, they rarely find any

any rational pleasure, and more rarely Ch. V. Rill, any solid improvement.

To be competently skilled in antient learning, is by no means a work of fuch infuperable pains. The very progress itfelf is attended with delight, and resembles a Journey thro' some pleasant Country, where every mile we advance, new charms. arise. 'Tis certainly as easy to be a Scholar, as a Gamester, or many other Characters equally illiberal and low. The same application, the same quantity of habit will fit us for one, as completely as for the other. And as to those who tell us, with an air of feeming wisdom, that 'tis Men, and not Books we must study to become knowing; this I have always remarked from repeated experience, to be the common confolation and language of Dunces. They shelter their ignorance under a few bright Examples, whose transcendent abilities,

been fufficient of themselves to great and important Ends. But alas!

Decipit exemplar vitiis imitabile-

In truth, each man's Understanding, when ripened and mature, is a composite of natural Capacity, and of super-induced Habit. Hence the greatest Men will be necessarily those, who possess the best Capacities, cultivated with the best Habits. Hence also moderate Capacities, when adorned with valuable Science, will far transcend others the most acute by nature, when either neglected, or applied to low and base purposes. And thus for the honour of Culture and Good Learning, they are able to render a man, if he will take the pains, intrinsically more excellent than his natural Superiors.

And so much at present as to GENERAL IDEAS; bow we acquire them; whence they are

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are derived; what is their Nature; and Ch. V. what their connection with Language. So much likewise as to the Subject of Language, and Universal Grammar.

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ERRATA

Page 4. for Stapent, read, Stapent; for myoribilat, read, mperbo bilat. P. 28. for any, read, anu; for Vertum. P. 29. for Prifc. L. IX. read, Prifc. L. XI. P. 67. for Ch. III. read, Ch. V. P. 78. for its, read, its. P. 87. for zamyopiusum, read, zalmyapiusum. P. 96. for mposumative, read, mposumative; for Proposition, Preposition. P. 155. for myopiusum, read, mposum, preposition, read, mposum, read, morter. P. 374. for Policies, read, Politics. There are moreover a few errors in the accenting, which the critical reader is defined to correct, as they occur.

'ERRATA in the INDEX.

Under the word Both, for page 237, read, 227. Under Grammarians, for 178, read, 198. Under Heraclitus, for 360, 361, read, 369, 370. Under Matter, for 300, read, 308; and in the next line, for 216, read, 316. Under Peripatetic Philosophy, for 143, read, 144. Under Priscian, for 255, 256, read, 225, 226. Under Sanctius, for 391, read, 291. Under Science, for 3, read, 5.

ADVERTISEMENT.

The Reader is defired to take notice, that as often as the author quotes V. I. p. &c. he refers to Three Treatifes published by himfelf, in one Volume, Octavo, in the year 1745.