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THIRD EDITION.

LONDON:

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PREFACE

TO THE FIRST EDITION.

OF the numerous works on education which daily issue from the press, none which has yet appeared on the subject of English Composition seems fully to meet the wants of the public, or to afford the beginner that complete assistance which is necessary to the successful pursuit of this study. Without entering into a detail of the defects existing in the systems hitherto published, it may be sufficient to remark. that they all presuppose much more matured thought, and a much closer acquaintance with language, than children can have acquired by the time at which they ought to commence the practice of the art; and that, consequently. instead of assisting, they have, in many cases, the effect of producing a violent dislike to the study.

The present work differs materially from all others, on the subject, which have preceded it. It is founded on the application of the principle of IMITATION to the simplest expression of thought; and conducts the mind gradually, by imitative exercises of progressive difficulty, to the practice of connected composition. As a work of such a nature must of necessity be, in some measure, a compilation, the writer takes this opportunity of stating that he has not hesitated to adopt the ideas of others, whenever he has found them of assistance in the development of his plan. Among others, he begs more particularly to refer to the ingenious author of "Home Education," in accordance with whose views, the lists of words in the chapter on abstract language have been formed.

In conclusion, the opinion of a celebrated writer may be cited concerning the importance of the subject in question. "It can hardly be necessary," says Grant, "to demonstrate the importance of the English language as a study. Too much attention, surely, cannot be devoted to a subject which not only forms the vehicle of thought, but is, in a certain degree, the instrument of thought itself." On this assertion it is unnecessary to comment, as it is an opinion which fully accords with the author's own views;

he will therefore merely add, that his great object having been to draw the attention of those engaged in education to the subject, he will be fully satisfied if the work shall in any degree fulfil his intention.

Albany Street, Regent's Park, July, 1842.

ADVERTISEMENT

TO THE SECOND EDITION.

THE favourable notice which this work has met with, has convinced the author that the subject has lost none of its importance with the Public; and that nothing was wanting but a progressive work systematically arranged to secure it that attention to which it is so justly entitled. This question being now settled, the author has but to state, that he has spared no pains to render the Second Edition of this book deserving of the distinguished favour with which the First Edition was received.

Albany Street, Regent's Park, December, 1843.

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

						Page				
Introduction	-	-	-	-	-	ī				
On Languag		-	-	-	-	19				
On the Engl	ish Lang	age	-	-	_	23				
CHAPTER I OI	n the Me	chanica	l Consti	ruction	of					
Sentences	-	-	-	-	-	35				
CHAPTER II C	n Variet	y of Ex	pression	_	_	67				
CHAPTER III	On Abstr	act Lan	guage	-	_	108				
CHAPTER IV			-	-	_	135				
CHAPTER VH			graphica	l Subjec	ts					
CHAPTER VI. —	On Figur	ative L	anguage	_	-	215				
CHAPTER VII			- 0	-	-	227				
CHAPTER VIII			anh	-		263				
CHAPTER IX			-			305				
	4 T)	T-3-T-3-T-3	-							
APPENDIX.										
No. I List of	Profives	_	_	_	_	333				
No. II. — List of			-	-	_	336				
		D	- -			990				
No. III. — List		Roots	compoun	naea wi	tn					
Prepositions		•	• .	-		340				
No. IV. — The	Original	Signific	cation o	of certa	in					
Words		•	_	_	_	941				

ENGLISH;

OR,

THE ART OF COMPOSITION.

INTRODUCTION.

Or all the branches of education, there is none upon which so little attention has been hitherto bestowed, or which has been taught in so desultory a manner, as English composition; a study, indeed, which appears to be generally considered a matter of secondary importance, and which seldom, if ever, forms a part in any systematic plan of education.

Notwithstanding this strange neglect, it cannot be denied that there is nothing which more directly tends to develop the mental faculties, and induce habits of thinking, than an investigation of the principles of that power by which we express our thoughts; and as we are most frequently required to communicate our ideas in our own language, it would appear an object of the highest importance that we should study how to do so with perspicuity and elegance.

Another incentive to this study is the effect it has in forming and enlarging the mind; for whatever gives the intellect an opportunity of exercise, either in discovering differences, connecting ideas, or drawing conclusions, must be conducive to its strength; and since, in writing, the mind is of necessity occupied in these actions, it is fair to conclude that a habit of composing has the strongest tendency to improve the mental faculties.

It cannot have escaped the observation of those engaged in education, that young persons almost invariably exhibit a marked repugnance to express their thoughts in writing. In order to conquer this repugnance, therefore, it should be the main object of all those parents and teachers with whom the study of our language is a question of importance, to use every means by which this seemingly inherent aversion may be overcome. It must, however, be confessed. that the plans of teaching adopted by those who have bestowed any attention upon the subject, appear far from calculated to remove this reluctance. These plans are chargeable with two errors: they either impose upon the beginner a task beyond his strength, or defer the study for so long a time, that his aversion to it becomes inveterately confirmed. upon English composition seem generally to begin at the wrong end; for instead of training the mind by introducing it first to the use of simple terms, or proposing a plain narrative or description as an introductory exercise, they plunge at once into a sea of abstraction, and bewilder the young mind with questions on which it cannot possibly have formed any ideas. It is absurd to set children to compose upon subjects on which they can have had no opportunities of acquiring information; subjects which require a greater depth of thought; and more extensive reading and experience than can, with any reason, be expected from the

young.

The second, and perhaps still more fatal error, is the delay to which I have before referred. By many it has been considered wholly unnecessary to bestow any attention whatever on English composition, till the pupil shall have made a certain progress in other studies, and acquired such habits of observation, and such an extent of knowledge as shall enable him to enter upon it with greater advantage to himself. This view of the case is, however, replete with mischief. Common experience proves that every day increases an aversion once conceived, and weakens our resolution of reforming inveterate habits. procrastination of an unpleasant task magnifies its difficulties, and confirms our repugnance to encounter them.

These facts have been most unaccountably overlooked in all elementary works on English composition. The first subjects usually proposed to the learner are abstract ideas or moral qualities, such as education, perseverance, government, ambition, &c. The unlucky pupil, bewildered in a maze of perplexity, puzzles his brain to discover what to say, and finding

nothing to say, is soon obliged to abandon the

attempt in despair.

The plan upon which the present work is formed, will, it is hoped, obviate most of these difficulties; and, by gradually developing the construction and character of the language, will lead the pupil progressively from the formation of the simplest proposition to write with ease and perspicuity upon any subject which may be proposed to him. The principle upon which the system is based, is IMITATION. Words first, and then sentences of the simplest form, are laid before the pupil, who is required in his writing to use similar words, and to imitate a given model in the construction of These words and sentences are his sentences. not taken at random, but with due regard to the source of the ideas which they represent.

The words recommended to be chosen for the first use of the pupil are those only which have reference to material objects. Since our first ideas are drawn from objects of sense, it appears but reasonable to follow nature as our guide, and to make the learner first use in his compositions no words except those nouns, verbs, and adjectives, which relate to such objects. With this view, a very young pupil may be for some time confined to the simple proposition expressing the connection of a quality with an object. Let any material object be proposed, such as glass, stone, &c. Glass may be called transparent, brittle, hard, smooth, ground, coloured, cut, painted, blue, red, &c. The teacher should next instruct

the pupil how to make this simple proposition fuller and more explicit, by the addition of circumstances, and other qualifying expressions, still strictly confining him to words suggested by the senses, and interdicting the use of those representing moral or intellectual qualities.

Having proceeded thus far, he will now be qualified to consider the connection of several propositions in one sentence, and should be shown how to determine their respective importance, and the relation they bear to each other. By this time it will be found that, besides the command of a copious vocabulary, the pupil will have probably acquired some facility of expression.

When this practice has been continued for some time, and the pupil has acquired the power of composing sentences containing words which express objects, actions, and qualities perceptible to the senses, he may be permitted occasionally to introduce abstract terms into his composition. This, however, should be done by slow degrees, and the teacher should be particularly careful that the pupil have a clear idea of the exact meaning of the word to be introduced. To ensure this, he should not only explain to him the proper sense and application of the word, but also show him the difference in meaning of those which approach in sense to the one in question. For instance, if the word proposed be relaxation, the teacher should lay down the difference between this, and words of a similar import, such as recreation, amusement, diversion, &c. The effect of this will be to stamp a clear outline of the shape and form of the several terms upon the learner's mind, and prevent confusion in his use of them.

This exercise, carefully and continually pursued, will be found productive of incalculable advantages to the learner. It is probable that he will not only have partially overcome that strong dislike to composition to which I have before alluded, but will understand the proper use of a large portion of his native language, and will have obtained a power of analysing and correcting his own composition, which no system of training hitherto adopted could have given him.

In pursuance of this plan, only those models for the mechanical construction of sentences have been laid down which are of most frequent occurrence; for as it is quite clear that in no work which could have been written would it have been possible to give examples of every form of sentence, I have considered it better to confine myself to those which are oftenest required, and most simple in construction. I have deemed it sufficient to carry out the system so far only as to direct the learner's attention to the philosophy of construction in general, and his powers of imitation having been thus awakened, he may pursue the principle to almost any extent, by a careful examination of the diction and forms of expression employed by the best authors in our language.

It has been my object, in the second chapter, to furnish the learner with rules for variety of expression. I cannot pretend that every mode of variety in language is here presented; indeed, it is evident from the nature of the subject, that this would have been impracticable; but as the chief intention of the whole work is to give young persons materials for thinking, and to direct the train of their thoughts to the resources of language, it may be presumed that these exercises will be attended with a beneficial result. Some, perhaps, may object, that several of the lessons contained in this chapter are too puerile, and scarcely befitting the gravity of the subject, as they appear to offer little else than an agreeable puzzle to the mind; but my experience has convinced me, that they have the effect of inducing habits of thinking, and giving a command of language to those who have put them in practice; and I can scarcely suppose that their novelty, or the amusement they may afford the youthful mind, ought to be sufficient grounds for objecting to them.

The reader will, no doubt, observe that nearly all the sentences and exercises in the two first chapters are either narrative or descriptive. They have been purposely so written; as, upon the principle before mentioned, I have thought it expedient that the pupil be made well acquainted with the descriptive portion of the language before he is introduced to those abstract and subtile expressions which require a deeper thought and more matured faculty to understand accurately and use pro-

perly.

After having attentively studied and practised the exercises given in the two first chapters, the learner will be fully prepared to enter on the study of abstract language. And here I earnestly recommend, that all who have an opportunity of learning Latin should avail themselves of so great an advantage. I am fully aware that several writers on the English language have successfully shown that a critical knowledge of Greek and Latin has not preserved many authors from grammatical inaccuracies or uncouth phraseology in their English compositions. It has even been insinuated, if not actually asserted, that a profound knowledge of the classics is incompatible with a good English style; but whatever motives may have dictated such opinions, it cannot be said that this appears to be a very just view of the question. It is true that many English authors have been so imbued with the spirit of classical literature, as to have introduced into their writings idioms unsuited to the character, and contrary to the established usage of the English language; but, admitting this fact, it is very unfair to infer from it that the study of the classics is injurious to an English style. This is, indeed, so far from true, that it is well known that the best writers in our language have all been classical scholars. In fine, if it be granted that a large class of English words may be traced to a Latin origin, it will follow that a certain knowledge of this language must give the student much clearer and more distinct ideas of the signification

of all the English words derived from that source.

But this is not the only reason why I ercommend the study of Latin to the attention of the young. A knowledge of a language in which the mutual relations and dependence of words are shown by inflection, is calculated to give much clearer ideas of grammatical construction than can be imparted by the study of any language which is not so formed. The cases of nouns, and the tense, number, and person of verbs, are all marked in Latin by termination; whilst in English we have but one or two changes in the noun; and to express all the modifications of tense, mood, person, and number, we admit but of five or six changes in the verb.

Another advantage to be derived from a knowledge of Latin, is the great assistance it affords us to a proper spelling of English. In fact, it offers us a complete key to the spelling of those words which are most likely to present us with difficulties; these being all spelt according to a certain analogy they bear to the Latin words from which they are derived.

I have been led to these observations on the study of Latin, from the nature of that part of the English language on which the student is now about to enter, and in which a close connection is observed between the two languages. The meaning and application of the words in the lists furnished, as well as the various senses in which they may be applied, should be made the subject of conversation between the teacher

and scholar, before any attempt be made to introduce the words in sentences. If necessary, the pupil himself may increase these lists in various ways: the name of an animal, for instance, may be made the subject of a list containing all the words relating to its parts, size, colour, shape, disposition, &c. A tree, again, would give rise to another collection of words both abstract and concrete, or a vocabulary may be formed of terms denoting the parts, materials, and qualities of a house. This is an excellent practice for the young writer at almost any period of his advancement, as it will bring him into continual intercourse with all parts of the language, and cannot fail to give him an extensive knowledge of things in general, as well as an increased command of expression.

In recommending the form of the fable for the pupil's first attempt at connected composition, I have been determined by several reasons. Its brevity, the attractive nature of the story. the plain style in which it should be written, and the opportunity it gives the pupil of introducing both abstract and descriptive terms in its construction, are qualities peculiarly adapted to the abilities of a beginner, and which no other form of composition possesses. Notwithstanding, however, all these advantages, I am so fully aware of the diffidence which most learners feel in their own powers of composition, and of the general aversion with which they regard the study, that, in order to facilitate the task, and render it as attractive as

possible, I have given sketches of several of Æsop's fables, which they are to complete by supplying the connective parts, and to present to the teacher in a finished form. pupils who have more confidence in their own abilities, and a greater natural disposition for writing, may be shown how to amplify the short sentence which expresses the moral of the fable, but those who are unequal to this task, must express the moral as briefly as possible; or in some cases, where the powers of the learner are not sufficiently developed to admit of his writing it at all, this part of the exercise may be altogether omitted in writing, but should, of course, be explained by the teacher verbally. The assistance given in the sketches may be gradually withdrawn, and the exercise occasionally varied by a fable written from memory on some well known subject, for which reference may be made to any edition of Æsop.

In the fifth chapter, the subjects submitted to the learner are all historical or biographical. The historical notices are taken from Goldsmith's "History of England." The sketches of the lives of the poets chiefly from Johnson. Gleig's "British Commanders" has furnished materials for the lives of military men, and Allan Cunningham's "Lives of the Painters" for the biographies of the artists. The authorities for the other sketches are referred to at the conclusion of each sketch. I am convinced that the habit of referring to given authorities, and the practice of working out these

sketches, will give a more complete and lasting information in every department of knowledge connected with English history, than any other plan of English education which has been yet adopted. Moreover, the increased habits of attention required to enable the pupil to write these lives, compared with that which is necessary in merely reading accounts of them, will greatly contribute to strengthen his understanding, and fix more firmly in his memory the facts of which they treat.

I think it advisable, in many cases, not to require a whole reign or life in one exercise, but merely a portion of it to be written; and the pupil should occasionally return to the fable, as a relief from the monotonous effect produced by writing for a length of time in one style. The teacher should employ every means which his ingenuity can suggest to place the study in as pleasing and attractive a light as possible, and should neglect no opportunity of diminishing the learner's aversion to composing.

The list of subjects for historical composition given at the end of Chap. V., will furnish the pupil with an exercise for dividing his subject into heads. I should recommend that before he begins to write, the teacher require him to draw up a sketch of these heads or divisions of the subject, in order that he may treat it according to a fixed plan, and thereby avoid the confusion into which he is likely to fall in attempting to write upon a subject without some previously determined system; for it is not suf-

ficient that the pupil express each thought individually with clearness and case, but it is also necessary that his whole composition should possess unity and connection. It is this very part of the study which generally presents the learner with the greatest difficulty. His sentences, taken separately, and considered singly, may be sensibly, forcibly, and elegantly expressed, and yet the whole writing may produce a broken and disjointed effect, from the want of that unity which is required in every well-written composition. The teacher should. therefore, strongly impress upon the learner the necessity of producing an exercise, the various parts of which shall be all distinguishable, and yet connected in such a manner as to enable the reader to consider them separately, at the same time that he receives a lively impression of the whole subject.

I now proceed to offer some remarks upon the Theme. This form of composition, which is generally given as a first exercise, has long enjoyed a popularity of which it is wholly undeserving. This popularity, however, is confined entirely to teachers, for with learners the theme has ever been a disagreeable task. It is not an easy exercise even to those who have had some practice in writing, but it presents peculiar difficulties to the beginner; and when we consider the natural reluctance of the young to any sort of composition, it is no wonder that their dislike to it should be confirmed by the very unattractive shape in which it has been first laid before them.

It has been argued that the theme is useful in a moral point of view, as it leads the young to reflect upon the nature and effects of right and wrong, and exercises a salutary influence over their moral conduct. If this were the certain result of such an exercise, no one could hesitate to admit its utility; but I not only entertain strong doubts of the fact, but even think it very questionable whether general disquisitions upon virtue or vice have any practical effect upon the youthful mind. With the young, as, indeed, with those of more advanced age, example is more efficacious than precept, and I do not believe that all the themes that were ever written have contributed to effect the least moral improvement in any one of the children who composed them.

Besides this, it should be remembered that the theme is a form of composition never likely to be of much practical utility in after life. A knowledge of theme-writing will be of no assistance in writing a letter or a description, neither is it indispensable to the construction of a sermon or a moral treatise.

Notwithstanding these objections, practice in this species of writing is attended with results worthy of consideration. Its great effect is, that it teaches the pupil to think correctly. It is not so efficacious in making him write elegantly, as in assisting his mind to arrive at just conclusions upon things in general. That this is an important object no one can with reason deny. But the theme should be studied by slow degrees, and with the greatest care, and

the pupil be confined, for some time, to the consideration of the definition, which should be well understood and practised before he is allowed to advance any opinion on the subject proposed, or make any assertion with respect to its effects. The other divisions should be then gradually added until all the arguments are collected which bear upon the judgment delivered, and the composition assumes a complete form. To facilitate this process, I have drawn up, under each of the subjects proposed, some questions which are generally applicable to each of the divisions under which the theme is usually treated.

The whole of Chapter VIII., in which I have treated of the PARAGRAPH, and laid down models for its construction, contains an exercise. which, as far as I am aware, has never yet been adopted in any plan of instruction. exercise is intended to guide the pupil in the manner of conducting the reasoning he may determine to pursue in his future compositions, and the models laid down are to be considered rather as forms of argument than as examples of style. With the view of instructing him how to reason, I have explained the forms of argument adopted by some of our most eminent authors, and shown him how similar arguments may be exhibited in the same form, in the treatment of any question or assertion which may be proposed for discussion. In writing this exercise, the pupil must remember, that the arguments are not used so much for the purpose of proving the truth of the asser-

tion made, as to corroborate that which is already assumed to be true; and he must take especial care, that in every paragraph he writes, all his remarks refer to the leading proposition. There is no error which the beginner is more likely to commit in this exercise, than that of wandering from the subject in question, so that upon reading over his composition, he frequently finds, towards the conclusion of the paragraph, that he has been making some observations which have no connection with the assertion to which all the propositions of his paragraph should refer. To prevent this error, therefore, as the ideas rise in his mind, he should ascertain, before expressing them in writing, what relation they bear to the leading assertion, and should not think of committing to paper one thought which may have the effect of leading him from his subject, or which will not strictly perform the office required of it in the model upon which he constructs his sentences.

I have generally found that the apparent difficulty of this excreise has filled with alarm the minds of those who have been required to attempt it. On my explaining its nature, and proposing a model for their imitation, they have all immediately pronounced it far beyond their strength, and many have even expressed a positive conviction that they should never be able to overcome its difficulties. These same pupils, however, after a few trials, have never failed to accomplish every thing which could be reasonably expected of them; and, after some practice, have generally not

only succeeded in imitating the models, but have unconsciously employed similar forms of reasoning in their other exercises; thus clearly proving the salutary effects of giving the mind habits of observation, and the excellent results of the culture of the *Imitative Faculty*.

The learner should be warned against another error into which he may fall in composing upon these models. I mean that of closely imitating their style of expression, as well as the form of reasoning which they exhibit. He should endeavour, as far as he is able, to avoid forming his sentences upon the same grammatical construction in which they appear in the model before him. The question with him should be, after every sentence which he adds to the paragraph, not whether it resembles in construction that which occupies the same place in the model, but whether it performs the same office towards the other parts of the composition. He must also remember, that although it may be allowable to form his general style upon that of some eminent writer, yet that a close and servile imitation of the style of any author will lead him to copy its faults as well as its beauties; and if it be true that no style can be pronounced wholly free from defects, the imitator must of course add to his own errors those of the writer whom he imitates, and thus render his compositions doubly exceptionable.

I have furnished the pupil with these forms of reasoning with the view of giving an impulse to his powers of observation, and attracting his attention to the arrangement of thought and mode of arguing pursued by those who have been considered excellent in this particular. Besides these, there are numberless other forms employed in writing, to which the learner's attention should now be directed; for, the habit of examining the logic as well as the style used by those English authors who are regarded as models of skill in the art of composing, will tend still further to develop the pupil's powers, and give his compositions correctness and accuracy, as well as grace and elegance.

Since paragraphs are to be considered but as component parts of a whole composition, the pupil, in writing the essay, must bear in mind the directions I have laid down for their con-Then, after finishing his essay, he struction. should carefully peruse each paragraph separately, and observe whether the assertion with which each commences is well supported or clearly elucidated by the sentences which immediately succeed it. He should next observe whether the paragraphs themselves are properly connected, and whether they all bear the necessary relation to the subject itself of the essay. In all cases, throughout the whole course of instruction, the pupil's exercise should undergo a strict scrutiny from himself, and he should always be required to improve it with his own hand, as far as he is able, before it is presented to the teacher for correction.

In conclusion, I have to remark, that the system here explained, is no ideal speculation or fanciful theory, unsupported by positive evidence of its effects; but the practical result of my own

observation and attention, which have been constantly directed to the subject for many years. It is one which is generally admitted to be of the highest importance, and which, notwithstanding, is more neglected than any other branch of English education. This neglect, I am inclined to think, may be chiefly ascribed to the want of a regular system, gradually and progressively developed, in which the reasoning faculty should be conducted from the expression of the simplest proposition to the exercise of its more powerful efforts in the treatment of abstract subjects. This desideratum I have endeavoured to supply, and with whatever success my efforts may be attended, I shall, at all events, have the satisfaction of reflecting that I have contributed to draw public attention to a subject of acknowledged importance, and which ought to form a leading feature in the education of every Englishman.

ON LANGUAGE.

An investigation of the principles and characteristics of language is one of the most useful and interesting pursuits in which the human mind can be engaged. Language is the means by which we are enabled to communicate our ideas to others, and perpetuate our thoughts to future ages. It makes us acquainted with the learning and science of our forefathers, and gives us the power of the daily interchange of sentiment with our fellow-creatures, in which our opinions and ideas may be conveyed to each

other almost with the rapidity of thought itself. It is this power which, in conjunction with reason, raises man to the exalted rank which he holds in the scale of created beings, and which, in proportion as it is polished and refined, is a sure criterion of the advancement made by one nation beyond another in arts and civilisation.

As words are but the signs of ideas, the extent of our general knowledge must greatly depend upon our acquaintance with their use and signification. By an examination and study of the former, the latter become distinct and complete; and in proportion as we convey our meaning in a clear and intelligible manner, we are less likely to be misunderstood, or to be involved in error. But it must not be forgotten, that words and ideas are allied by a conventional, not by a natural connection; and that the true signification of a word entirely depends on the sense which is given it by custom.

No one who confines his studies solely to his own language will ever be able to understand it perfectly, or ascertain with accuracy its beauties or defects. He who is acquainted with a variety of languages has procured for himself a great addition to his stock of ideas, and has opened fresh and innumerable sources of mental improvement; he can not only communicate with the natives of foreign countries without the aid of an interpreter, but is not obliged to rely on translations to acquire a knowledge of their authors. He has also opportunities of comparing different languages with each other, and of drawing conclusions with respect to their com-

parative merits; and lastly, by observing the changes which a language has undergone in the lapse of ages, he will discover that language, so far as it is a record of human feelings and human genius, constitutes an important part in the his-

tory of man.

The formation of the modern languages of Europe may be dated from the commencement of the middle ages. In the fifth century, when the Goths and Lombards, nations of German origin, had established themselves in Italy, modern Italian began to assume its form; its deviation from the Latin being marked by the use of articles and prepositions, instead of the variation of inflection, and by the introduction of auxiliary verbs to show the changes of person and tense. As the Goths extended their conquests over the Roman empire, the language of the victors blended with that of the vanquished, and the barbarous dialects of many neighbouring tribes contributed to the composition of the modern Italian language. If it has lost much of the force and dignity of its parent, it still retains an elegance of expression and harmony of cadence which never fail to charm every reader of cultivated taste in the works of its great writers.

Towards the close of the fifth century, the Franks, a people of northern Germany, under the command of Clovis, invaded Gaul, and subjugated its ancient inhabitants. Modern French is a mixture of the Germanic dialects with Latin, which, together with the ancient Celtic, had been the common language of Gaul during

its subjection to the Roman dominion. The rudeness of expression observable in its early writers has been gradually polished, and the language has now attained a high degree of elegance. Its character is favourable to graceful and witty expression, and its idiom possesses an epigrammatic point not to be met with in any other modern European language. On the other hand, it is deficient in dignity, force, and copiousness; and, compared with other languages, is found wanting in that energetic simplicity required in all the higher productions of eloquence or literature.

Between ancient and modern languages one remarkable difference is found to prevail. the former, all the variations as to circumstance, time, or manner in which objects or actions may be represented, were marked by termination; in the latter, these changes are supplied by prepositions and auxiliary verbs. This latter form of expression contributes greatly to the simplicity of modern languages, and renders them much less difficult of acquirement: still, it must be allowed that they possess defects which more than counterbalance this advantage. What they have gained in simplicity, they have lost in dignity and harmony; they are more philosophical in their construction, but weaker in expression, and less gratifying to the imagin-The improvements and discoveries which have been made in latter times in every branch of the arts and sciences, have greatly increased the vocabularies of modern languages. we may perceive that the moderns far excel the

ancients in copiousness and variety of expression. Of this, numerous instances occur: thousands of names of animals, plants, machines, and implements—terms used in agriculture, manufactures, navigation, chemistry, and all the branches of natural philosophy are peculiarly modern, and have no corresponding expressions in the languages of antiquity.

ON THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

Of all the causes which are found to exercise an influence upon the language of any particular nation, the changes made by foreign invasion are the most marked and permanent, especially when followed by a settlement of the conquerors in the country. A close and frequent intercourse with the inhabitants of neighbouring states, and the result of commercial relations, will also contribute to produce a change in its character. To these causes may be added others, arising from a caprice of fashion; a pedantic affectation of foreign idiom; peculiarities of expression used by favourite writers, &c. Among all nations, then, language seems to be undergoing a silent but gradual change: many words are daily becoming obsolete, to make way for new expressions, which, in their turn, are destined to resign their place to others perhaps equally short-lived.

This change may be ascribed to the various impulses which the human mind receives from political or other causes, and may be clearly traced by examining the character and forms of

expression used in the language of any people after a long term of political prosperity or popular excitement. Thus, in the latter ages of the empire of the Romans, the enervated state of the public mind is clearly perceptible in the writings of their authors: the majestic simplicity and dignity which characterised their earlier writers, had then given way to inflated extravagance and puerile affectation; the whole body of their language and literature had fallen into decay, and had become corrupted and debased in proportion as the people themselves had sunk into luxury and effeminacy.

No language of Europe has been more frequently or more strongly affected by external influences than English, the cause of which may be chiefly ascribed to the many revolutions by which this country was convulsed during its early history. Scarcely had one language planted itself and begun to take root in the land, when, in consequence of a fresh irruption of invaders, it was partially destroyed, and another dialect, imported by the conquerors, was grafted on its stem. Thus, one people continually succeeding another in the possession of the country, the temporary language had no sooner begun to assume a fixed form, than it was interrupted in its progress by some overwhelming influence which obscured its character, and deranged for a time its whole fabric. Roman, Saxon, Danish, and Norman were successively the prevailing languages of this country within the space of seven hundred years; which may partly account for the fact, that it was not until long after the other languages of Europe had become fixed and settled, that English first assumed that distinct shape and character in which it now appears. The obstacles which it encountered in its growth do not appear, however, to have impaired its vigour; and as that which is long in arriving at maturity is generally more solid, and, consequently, more durable, we may hope that English, which has taken so many centuries to perfect, will continue for as long a time, not only to flourish in its native land, but to extend the enlightening influence of its literature over every portion of the civilised world.

When Julius Casar made his first descent upon our island, the country was inhabited by a tribe of the Celts, an ancient race, whose origin has never been accurately determined. The British, a dialect of the Celtic, was then the common language of the country. We have no authentic accounts by which we can judge of the effects produced on the language by the long residence of the Romans in Britain; but, from the relative position of victors and vanquished, we may suppose that the language of government and judicial proceedings was Roman, and that a knowledge of Latin was necessary to those natives who aspired to any employment of dignity under the administration.

The Saxons, who succeeded the Romans in the possession of the country, having dispossessed of their property the owners of the soil, and driven them into the remote parts of the land, introduced into the island their own language, which was a dialect of the Gothic or Teutonic. Of the Saxon language we have still a sufficient number of monuments extant to prove clearly that it possessed a considerable degree of force and copiousness, and was capable of expressing with much energy the sentiments of a civilised people.

Few variations took place in the language from the settlement of the Saxons till the Norman invasion, a period of six hundred years, during which time the intercourse of the inhabitants with other nations was scanty and infrequent. Notwithstanding the repeated incursions of the Danes, and the permanent settlement they ultimately acquired in this country, their inroads produced no material change in the language, as the Danish and Saxon were both branches of one common root, the Gothic or Tentonic.

When the Normans gained possession of the island in 1066, the Conqueror left no means untried of destroying every vestige of the Saxon language in this country, and promoting the use of the Norman-French in its stead. this view, it is well known that he carefully excluded the Saxons from every office of dignity in church or state, and ordered all the records and ordinances of the kingdom to be perpetuated to posterity in his native tongue. But the pertinacity with which the people clung to their own customs and language scemed to increase with the cruel policy of their haughty conqueror, and was for a long time an effectual obstacle to his desires. The Saxons, indeed, had conceived so rooted an aversion towards their cruel masters, and regarded them with such utter abhorrence, that it was not till some generations had passed away, and the wrongs of ancestors were at length forgotten or unfelt by their posterity, that anything resembling a cordial unanimity prevailed between the two nations. There is little doubt that this long-cherished animosity on the part of the Saxons, and their obstinate determination not to intermix with the Normans, are the causes of all that simplicity and energy which are so strongly characteristic of modern English, and the origin of which may be traced to the Saxon portion of our language.

Saxon and Norman-French may be considered the grand sources of the modern English language, the course of which has been increased at various times by the tributary streams of other languages, in proportion as our cultivation of commerce, literature, or the fine arts has brought us into communication with the inhabitants of other countries.

The constant intercourse which subsisted for many centuries between this country and France contributed largely to the introduction of French terms, many of which are used by Chaucer, Gower, and Spenser, with scarcely any variation from their original form. From the Italian we have borrowed technical terms referring to music, painting, and sculpture; the Flemish and Dutch have supplied us with nautical terms; most of the terms used in military affairs and fortification are derived from the French; terms of science and philo-

sophy are almost exclusively Latin and Greek; and the substance of the language, especially the familiar terms in agriculture, words expressing degrees of kindred, large natural objects, metals, &c., may be traced to a Saxon origin.

The heterogeneous materials of which our language is compounded have contributed to make it the most flexible in character of all the languages of modern Europe, and the most easily accommodated to every style of writing. Of this, any one may be convinced who will take the trouble to examine the stately dignity of Johnson — the neatness and elegance of Addison — the purity of expression and plain sense of Swift—and the tender pathos of Gold-In all these, the dignity and majesty smith. of expression may be traced to Latin and Greek, the simplicity and energy to Saxon, and the wit and elegance to French. Thus English enjoys advantages which no continental language possesses. Many others excel it in some particular style of writing, but the literature of no other European nation can produce examples of such excellence in every variety of style andsubject.

Notwithstanding the various and dissimilar sources from which our language is derived, no modern tongue is more simple, or less irregular in its structure. Lowth remarks, that this very simplicity of construction has probably led to the neglect into which it has fallen. Other languages, which cost infinitely more time and trouble to acquire, are mastered with a degree of industry and perseverance which can be

accounted for only by the fact, that they are looked upon as accomplishments forming a necessary part of a fashionable education. In the mean time, our mother tongue is scarcely thought worthy of our notice, or occupies no greater share of our attention than is sufficient to preserve us from glaring errors in ortho-

graphy or grammar.

One leading cause of the uniformity and philosophical character of our language, is the order required in arranging the words in a The collocation in English differs considerably from that which prevailed in ancient languages. In Latin, the system of expressing circumstance, time, place, manner, &c. by inflection, gave a considerable licence in arrangement, which tended greatly to increase the harmony of the language. English is much circumscribed in this respect. Certain inversions are occasionally allowed when the subject requires vivacity, or when the writer finds it expedient to appeal to the imagination; but such transpositions are exceptions to the general rule, which requires one uniform order. This is, firstly, the subject; secondly, the verb; thirdly, the object. All qualifying expressions, whether belonging to the subject, verb, or object, are placed as near as possible to the qualified words, and the same general rule is followed with respect to the principal and subordinate propositions in a sentence. This arrangement has been called the order of the understanding, from the perspicuity with which it enables the mind to comprehend the sense of a sentence.

The English language may be said to have assumed a fixedness of form and character from the beginning of the sixteenth century. Whatever accessions its vocabulary or style of expression may have received since that period, with respect to its structural character and in all its essential qualities it remains in the same state.

An inquiry into the philosophy of the English idiom would occupy more space than the limits of this work will allow, and is a subject of sufficient interest to deserve to be treated separately. It may, however, be remarked, that those who are desirous of gaining an insight into the character and national feelings of a people, have no more certain way of accomplishing their object than by examining the nature and peculiarities of their idiomatic ex-Thus, the simple cordiality and metaphysical turn of the Germans, the lively imagination of the Italians, the light elasticity of the French, and the solid, reflective cast of the English, may be all discovered in the idiom of their several languages, and are the visible reflections of the turn of thought peculiar to each of these nations.

The roots of that part of English which is derived from Latin or Greek have long been satisfactorily traced; but it was not until Horne Tooke had directed his attention towards investigating the origin of the connective parts of our language, that we had any idea of their real nature. Before his time, it had been advanced by many philologists, that our conjunctions,

prepositions, and adverbs had no signification except as they were related to other words; and that when detached from sentences, and considered apart, they were wholly devoid of meaning. It is most clearly proved, however, in the "Diversions of Purley," that all these connectives are in reality parts of nouns or verbs; and that, in the early ages of society, the want of frequently expressing the same relations caused the adoption of some noun or verb to perform that office. This discovery, which originated with our countryman, has thrown much light upon the subject of Etymology, and done much to remove from it the mass of absurdity and the fanciful theories in which it was before enveloped.

The disadvantages under which our language is said to labour, in being formed of so many and apparently such incongruous materials, are certainly more than compensated for by the richness and variety resulting from such a formation. In these qualities, no modern language can vie with the English. In depicting the violent passions of the heart, or the calm dignity of moral sentiment, it displays inimitable power, and infinite variety of expression; and its idiom is peculiarly fitted to grave and dignified subjects. In history, philosophy, criticism, and morality, we have works which will bear comparison with those of any age or country.

Notwithstanding these beauties, it must be admitted that the English language possesses many defects, to which a natural partiality to our native tongue ought not to render us

The very nature of its structure insensible. involves many disadvantages. The continual recurrence of monosyllables, most of them ending in consonants, not only greatly tends to enfeeble the expression, but produces a barsh and grating effect on a cultivated car, which is particularly disagreeable to the natives of more southern climates, who are accustomed to softer and more harmonious sounds. Another defect with which our language has been justly charged, is that peculiarity in its genius which removes the accent farther from the last syllable of the word than is allowed in any other language. English, many words are accented on the fourth or fifth syllable from the end. Instances of this peculiarity occur in the words — législature, nécessarily, congrátulatory, imprecatory, many others. The necessity of pronouncing so many short syllables together, produces a rugged and unmusical effect, and is frequently an insuperable obstacle to foreigners in attempting to master the difficulties of our language.

Before concluding these observations, I cannot refrain from calling the reader's attention to the extraordinary degree of diffusion the English language has attained, from political and other causes, throughout all parts of the civilised earth. It may be said with truth, that no other language in the world is so extensively spread or so diligently studied as English. Throughout a great portion of North America, it is, though corrupted, the vernacular language of the country, and it prevails in many parts of the West Indies. In addition to this, it is

diffused over an immense extent of territory in Asia, and, with all the inhabitants of civilised Europe, is considered an essential part of a liberal education. Though it would be unreasonable to expect that language, the nature of which is so essentially fluctuating and changeable, should be exempt from the vicissitudes to which every thing human is subject, still we cannot help indulging the pleasing hope that the productions of our great authors will remain, through centuries yet to come, the glory of our nation, and the lasting monuments of her genius; and that our language will continue through distant ages to enlighten and improve mankind, and perpetuate the rich treasures of her learning to the remotest generations of posterity.

CHAPTER I.

ON THE MECHANICAL CONSTRUCTION OF SENTENCES.

THE simplest elements of written language are letters, each of which is a symbol representing some particular position of the organs of speech. These elements have in themselves no meaning, and become significative only when combined together and formed into syllables and words.

A syllable is that division of a word which can be pronounced alone, and which produces but one tone.

All words are the signs of our ideas; that is, they represent, either when spoken or written, the impressions which our minds have received. These impressions or ideas are various; they are received into the mind through the senses, and are again sent forth or expressed by means of language, either spoken or written. Every word, therefore, which we write or speak, must represent an idea existing in the mind. These ideas may be derived either from objects, qualities, or actions. The word table, for instance, will represent the idea of an object, the word long stands for a certain quality, and the word strike expresses an action. These words are termed, in grammar, nouns and yerbs,

Words, considered separately, represent ideas only; but in order to express a thought, we must employ at least three ideas. The three words essential to the expression of a thought are called: 1st. the subject; 2d. the copula; and 3d. the predicate.

The *subject* is the person or thing concerning which we write or speak.

The copula is always some part of the verb to be, and its office is to connect the subject with the predicate.

The predicate is that which is affirmed of the

subject.

These three parts, when combined, form what is called a proposition, which word signifies an opinion laid down, thus:

Here, the subject, that is, the thing concerning which we write, is paper; the copula, is, serves to join the subject, paper, to the predicate, white; which last word shows what is affirmed of the subject. This sentence is then a proposition, or an opinion declared that the thing called paper possesses the quality expressed by the word white.

A proposition may, however, be expressed in two words; though we shall find that these two will contain the three parts necessary for the expression of an opinion: this takes place when an active or neuter verb is used with the subject, thus: "John comes." Here, John is the subject, and the word comes is in itself both

the copula and the predicate, for it declares something of John, and it also shows that he exists, or is; so that the phrase, "John comes," may be explained thus: John — is — (that is, exists) performing the action expressed by the word come; or, according to the other form of the English present tense, John — is — coming.

Whatever expressions may be added to a

proposition are called its complement.

This word complement means a filling up, and is used here to signify that which fills up or completes the sense of the sentence, thus:

Here the subject is men, with its complement good; the copula are, and the predicate, beloved, also accompanied by its complement by all. It will be readily perceived that the complements good, and by all, contribute materially to determine the sense of the sentence, which would be otherwise much more indefinite: Men are beloved.

Simple propositions may be considered under three heads:

- (1.) Enunciative.
- (2.) Active.
- (3.) Passive.
- (1.) A proposition is said to be enunciative when the predicate expresses the simple state of the subject, as:

Ink is black.

(2.) A proposition is called *active*, when its predicate shows an active quality, as:

John strikes*.

which, as before explained, may be resolved into "John is striking." And,

(3.) A proposition is passive when the predicate expresses a passive quality, thus:

John was struck.

Subjects are either simple or compound; they are simple when they express but one single thing, or things taken collectively of the same species, as: "Virtue is desirable, but riches are often preferred." They are compound when they express several things not of the same species, as: "Faith, hope, and charity are theological virtues."

- If a neuter verb be employed to form a proposition, the proposition will nevertheless be active; "John comes" will be equally an active proposition with "John strikes," for in both cases an action is declared.
- + A passive proposition always implies an active. If "John was struck," John must have been struck by some person or thing. Suppose by a person: then, John was struck by him: here the active proposition implied will be "He struck John." Suppose by a thing: "John was struck with a rope." This will imply the active proposition "The rope struck John."
- ‡ It must, however, be remembered that whenever either the subject or predicate is compound, the proposition is elliptical, and will imply as many simple propositions as it has subjects or predicates. Thus, the above proposition, "Faith, Hope, and Charity are theological virtues," will imply these three: 1. Faith is a theological virtue. 2. Hope is a theological virtue; and, 3. Charity is a theological virtue. Again The expression, "God is just and omnipotent," contains two propositions: 1. God is just; and 2. God is omnipotent.

The predicate is simple when it declares but one quality of the subject, as: "The skies are bright."

The predicate is compound when it expresses more than one quality of the subject, as: "God is just and merciful."

Subjects may be expressed in various ways:

1. By a pronoun, as: "He is kind;" 2. By a substance, as: "Iron is a metal;" 3. By an animal, as: "The dog is faithful;" 4. By the infinitive mood of a verb, as: "To act honestly is the duty of all men," &c.

Predicates also may be expressed variously:
1. By an adjective, as: "The scholars are industrious;" 2. By a substantive, as: "Music is an art;" 3. By a participle, as: "The boys are taught;" 4. By the active quality contained in a verb, as: "The man spoke;" and, 5. sometimes by a preposition followed by a substantive, as; "The affair is of consequence," &c.

LESSON I.

Subjects for Propositions.

The pupil is required to compose simple propositions*, in which the following words are to be employed as subjects, thus:

* Note. — These propositions should consist of nothing but their three essential parts, viz. the subject, copula, and predicate. The articles a and the, and the possessive pronouns, my, thy, his, our, and its, may, however, be occasionally introduced as complements, in cases where the pupil finds any difficulty. It should be remembered that any tense of the verb to be may be used as a copula, and that the copula and predicate together may be expressed in one word by using an active or neuter verb.

From the above list the discretion of the teacher will

Ex. The bread is wholesome.

Bread — fruit — school — books — pens pencils — scholars — master — slate — exercise - writing - wood - water - sea - earth air — sky — trees — pen-knife — paper — ink — king — queen — lords — wafers — gloves hat — riband —table —pictures — workman metal — forest — carpet — jug — ruler — to sing — to play — to dance — to work — to study - to walk - to read - to see - to cry - to write — to run — the sister — the brother the child — uncle — aunt — cousin — house horse — carriage — wheel — we — they — you - thou - I - he - she - it - door - roof gold — silver — copper — iron — lead — marble - stone - cupboard - lock - wall - brick curtain — blinds — brush — table — chair map - fire, &c.

LESSON II.

Predicates for Propositions.

The learner is required to introduce the following words as predicates in simple propositions:

Ex. The way was long.

Tall — short — narrow — white — black — grey — blue — green — bright — broad — thick — nice — sweet — bitter — warm — hot — cold

suggest a choice of those words which may best suit the capacity of the learner. The list itself may be extended, if expedient, but the learner should on no account be required to use abstract subjects in his propositions.

— dry — smooth — rough — light — dark — strong — weak — kind — strict — clever — stupid — idle — diligent — full — good — bad. — bright — clear — red — blind — loud — soft — low — high — large — wide — small — short — empty — fresh — angry — heavy — light — weak — taught — struck — shown — seen — burnt — shot — covered — hidden — blotted — stained — cried — screamed — spoke — talked — passed — shivered — trembled — boiled — roasted — melted — looked — saw — found — by him — with me — at home — abroad — indoors — far off, &c.

Here, as in Lesson I., it is left to the teacher's option to employ all, or only a selection from the above list of predicates. The greatest care should be taken that the learner thoroughly understand the nature of the proposition in every form, as well as of its three essential parts, since his future progress will entirely depend upon this knowledge. He should therefore be repeatedly required to point out and explain the nature of the subject, copula, and predicate, in all the propositions which he composes.

LESSON III.

Complements.

I have already explained that complements are those words, which, together with the subject, copula, and predicate, make up or complete the sense of a proposition. These complements

belong either to the subject or predicate, but never to the copula of a proposition, which must be considered merely as the link connecting the state or quality of the subject with the subject itself. Complements are not necessary to the sense of all propositions; that is, it is very possible sometimes to express ourselves intelligibly without them. There are, however, many cases in which their removal would make the sense of a proposition very indefinite; and some in which their absence would deprive it of all meaning, for example: "An avaricious man is a miserable being." If, from this proposition, the complements, avaricious and miserable be taken away, the remainder, "man is a being," will convey but an indefinite signification; and it is readily perceived how much those words which qualify the "man" and the "being," contribute to render the sense of the sentence full and intelligible.

But if, from the following sentence of Dr. Blair, we remove all the complements, we shall be at a loss to discover any meaning whatever in its remaining parts. He says: "The great source of a loose style is the injudicious use of synonymous terms." Take away the complements of the subject, "great" and "of a loose style;" and those also which qualify the predicate, "injudicious," and "of synonymous terms," and the proposition, thus stripped of its complements, will present us with "The source is the use," the signification of which sentence would puzzle any one to explain.

A proposition is simple when complements

are not necessary to its sense; that is, when it makes full sense without their assistance.

When complements are necessary to the meaning of a proposition, that is, when their removal would alter or destroy its sense, the proposition is *complex*.

Those words, taken collectively, which serve to limit or fix the meaning of the subject or predicate, are called its complement.

Complements are of various sorts: -

- 1. Of qualification, as: "Good men are happy."
 - 2. Of time, as: "Yesterday he was better."
 - 3. Of manner, as: "I was easily persuaded."
 4. Of the object, as: "He is writing a letter."
- 5. Of circumstance, as: "Scarcely able to speak, he fell, &c."
- 6. Of place, as: "In England the climate is foggy."
- 7. Of the agent, as: "The letter was brought by the post-boy."
- 8. Of the person, as: "He gave me the letter."
- 9. Of explanation, as: "My brother George is returned," &c. &c.

Complements for Subjects.

The pupil is here required to compose propositions, in which he must employ the following expressions as complements to the subject.*

* The learner, after he has written the exercise, should be expected to explain the various sorts of complements he has used in his sentences; whether of time, place, manner, &c.

Ex. The little girl was quiet.

Diligent — of the painting — in school — at play — this young — the little — the long-promised — his kind — his father's — a useful of the chair in the church an honest the last — of this book — this * the landscape — the north-western (America — the () deprived of employment — the) during one whole hour) acquired by men — the (of this stick - a well educated - few good - several fine - many excellent - all vulgar and low — here mentioned — an honest of England - the rich and prosperous - of that animal — eaten by those men — that very obedient — a very useful — sitting in the workroom - deprived of her children - mounting on horseback — of his eyes — on the earth not any — the greatest () of the soil the original — of his health — the general) of the island — of ancient times — a wooden - the celebrated though unfortunate their principal—a clever—the most convenient) of quadrupeds — the first the most perfect - a very different - the) of silk — an elegant — a broad twoedged — the beautiful — very much surprised - wrapped in a shaggy coat - bursting with rage — much disappointed — the necessary the fearful — a well-looking — of about forty years - bent with age to the ground - suffer-

^{*} Wherever this sign () occurs, it is intended to be filled up by the subject of the proposition.

ing much pain — advanced in life — of immense strength — of enormous size — of various ages — of a bright green colour — of the softest texture — a very clever () — not surprised at this — that beautiful — of the organ — belonging to my father — my sister's — in my grammar — of France.

LESSON IV.

It is evident that actions and states of being may be qualified to an almost endless variety. These actions and states of being are expressed in a proposition by the predicate, which it will be the business of the pupil here to modify by the addition of the following expressions. To show how this may be done, take the following simple active proposition - "He gave." This, as was before shown, may be resolved into -He - was - giving. Now, though this sentence conveys a meaning, its signification is certainly capable of being much extended. We may naturally ask, what did he give? the answer to which question may be, bread, - to whom did he give bread? - to the poor during the winter season - how? With these additions, which declare the object, time, persons, manner, &c., of the action, the proposition will now present a very different appearance, and much more defined in signification. He kindly gave bread to the poor during the winter season.

The same may be observed of the passive simple proposition. "He was instructed"—when?

in his youth — by whom? by a tutor — of what sort? eminent for his talents and virtues. — He was instructed in his youth by a tutor eminent for his talents and virtues.

The enunciative simple proposition is also capable of being much extended in meaning, though, from the nature of its predicate, it cannot be followed by an object, as in the active, or by an agent, as in the passive proposition — for example: "He was kind," when? always — to whom? to his friends — under what circumstances? in their difficulties.— He was always kind to his friends in their difficulties.

Complements for Predicates.

Let the pupil write propositions in which the complements to the predicate may be supplied from the following list of expressions*:—

Many reasons—with a train of dependents—in security—all set at liberty—under the protection of the officers—in the most exemplary manner—overgrown with weeds—the advantages of education—by the council—by his only son—at the will of the people—the highest mountain—to prison—to his own residence—these friends—tempting fruits before his eyes—to execute the prisoner—the army of the English—the criminal to the gaoler—with people—with numbers of men—well prepared to receive them—of fighting the

^{*} The pupil is not here confined to any one sort of proposition; they may be enunciative, active, or passive, as may best suit his convenience.

enemy - by the sailors - to the archbishop's palace — of the prince's servants — the difficulty of escaping — the king's horse — a crowd of people - a month in the country - on a white charger to town — his friend kindly — a long list - a letter from my cousin - the bright stars — his purse in great haste — the high road — nothing since the day before — to assist him — to mount my horse — a vessel of water upon the table - in the park - the inhabitants of England — from the court — for want of proper assistance — a long journey — very much fatigued - all his friends - with the sight - a very large library — close to a village for fifty years — by his three sons — in his best clothes in the orchard - early every morning his plant destroyed by the heavy shower through the county of Kent — in torrents upon us - shelter in a forest.

LESSON V.

The learner being now acquainted with the nature of complements, is required to compose propositions in which he is to qualify both the subject and the predicate. The following propositions will serve as models upon which he is to construct his sentences:

Ex. 1.* A man of about forty years of age

^{*} In the first example, the subject is, A man, qualified by its complement of qualification, of about forty years of age; the copula, was; and the predicate, conducted, also qualified by its complement of time, then, and its complement of place, unto the room.

(copula) (comp. to pred.) (predicate) (comp. to predicate) conducted into the room. was then

(subject)(comp. to subject)(copula)(predicate) . Ex. 2.* The tree in my garden is growing

(complement to predicate) more beautiful every day.

(comp. to subject) (subject) (comp. to subject) Ex. 3.† The bright colours of the rain-(copula and pred.) (comp. to predicate.)

bow extended across the whole sky.

The pupil is to amplify the following propositions by the addition of complements to both the subject and the predicate:

A hermit lived—the earth was his bed we marched—a man dropped—the horses were left—the soldier fell—the prisoner was obliged-wood was found-I swallowedthe men drank—the city is surrounded—you will find—the buildings are erected—the streets are unpaved—the vine is cut down—a noise was heard—the sails were stretched— I closed my eyes—the foundations remain the hill overlooked - I can read - drawings are admired—people pretend—I am glad— Buonaparte was an artillery-officer—the son has been at school — London is supplied —

• In the second example, the subject is The tree; with its complement of place, in my garden; the copula is; and the predicate, growing, with its complement of qualification, more beautiful, and its complement of time, every day.

† The third example shows the subject, The colours, qualified by its complements of qualification, bright, and of the rainbow: the copula and predicate expressed in one word, extended, followed by the complement of place of the predicate, across the whole shy.

trunks are carried — the criminal stood — threads may be divided — hemp is used — they were taken — the inhabitants were obliged — the father procured — the pillar stands — they arrived at the spot — a man was despatched — the inhabitants flocked.

LESSON VI.

The Introductory Clause.

In order to add to the grace and harmony of composition, the complement of the subject, when it expresses time, place, manner, or circumstance, is frequently placed at the beginning of a sentence, and followed by a comma. This form of the complement may be termed the introductory clause. It gradually introduces the reader to the subject, informs him of the various circumstances in which it is situated, or under which it acts, and serves to relieve him from the monotonous effect which would otherwise be caused by constantly adhering to one mode of construction. Care should be taken, however, that the introduction to the sentence be not too long, as in this case the mind of the reader will be fatigued by the perusal of words which do not in themselves form perfect sense, and his attention will be too long withheld from the subject of the proposition. The following sentences will serve to illustrate these remarks:

"In the year 1492, the continent of America was discovered by Christopher Columbus, a native of Genoa."

"In the midst of these dangers, the king preserved a steady and undaunted spirit."

"During his residence at Pavia, Charles made several additions to the laws he had enacted for the regulation of his subjects."

The following expressions are to be used by the pupil as introductory circumstances to pro-

positions: -

In the mean time—Early the next morning— Notwithstanding these obstacles—In every part of England-In ancient times-In the beginning of the 17th century—Thus situated On the thirtieth of July - On the first meeting of the members — After a few months —In this situation of things—Ever since the beginning of spring — Soon after these successes -In the northern parts of Europe-For some time past - Being thus freed from his enemies -At the conclusion of the war - About the same time — In the following year — In this respect — Having uttered these words — The affair being thus terminated—After steadfastly looking at him for some time - Riding furiously up to the door - In this dreadful state - On our arrival in town - With this single exception - Having refreshed ourselves at a clear spring-Deprived of the common necessaries of life - Not knowing how to proceed-With the greatest kindness—By pursuing this path— In this manner — Having thus disposed of my mule — From these considerations — &c. &c.

LESSON VII.

The subject of a proposition is frequently preceded by two circumstances, as in the following examples:—

Ex. 1. Dying with thirst, and overcome with the fatigue of a long journey, he had scarcely

the power to drag himself into the hut.

Ex. 2. Being led to the stake, and the fire beginning to be kindled round him, he stretched forth his right hand, &c.

The following expressions must be used by the pupil in his propositions, as double introductory clauses, in the same way as in the above examples:

Examples.

Deserted by all his friends, and reduced to beggary - On the following day, having made the necessary arrangements—The next morning calling his comrades together — In the county of Hertfordshire, not more than twenty miles from London—/Yesterday afternoon, walking in the garden - With these words, and with a look of disdain -Last year, about the middle of August - Formerly, when I lived in the country—Firstly, supposing this to be true—Having made his will, and arranged all his affairs-- Taking off his coat, and putting himself in a posture of defence - Panting for breath, and scarcely able to stand- Locking the door, and quietly putting the key in his pocket - On looking in at the window, and perceiving no one in the room — Taking the good woman's hand, and looking earnestly in her face - Hearing a

loud noise in the street, and fearing some

danger.*

A circumstance is sometimes placed immediately after the subject of a proposition, as in the following examples:—

"His cousin, though three years younger, was

much above him in the school."

"Man, considered in himself, is a very helpless and a very wretched being."

I do not think it necessary here to give any list of expressions to be introduced in the situation shown in the above examples; but I recommend as an exercise for the pupil's ingenuity, that he should search for them himself. His sentences then will be constructed upon the following model:—

1. Subject qualified; 2. Circumstance; 3.

Copula; 4. Predicate qualified, &c.

LESSON VIII.

On Propositions distinguished as Principal and Subordinate.

Sentences are called simple when they contain but one proposition: those which are made up of several, are termed compound. The number of propositions in a sentence may

* Here, as in the foregoing lessons, if the pupil should find great difficulty, the teacher can select from these examples those which he may judge best suited to the scholar's capacity, or may increase them at his own discretion. The greatest care is necessary that the learner should thoroughly understand and correctly imitate every form of sentence set before him. be easily ascertained by examining the whole period, in which as often as we can discover a subject with its copula and predicate, so many propositions will it contain. It will be proper, however, that the pupil not only be able to point out their number and parts, but that he should also know how to distinguish them as regards their importance.

In this view, all propositions may be classed under two heads; principal and subordinate.

The PRINCIPAL PROPOSITION in a sentence is that upon which all the others depend. Take the following sentence: "The general, who saw no other way to save his honour, determined upon coming to an engagement with the enemy, and immediately gave the signal for battle." Here, there are three propositions, of which two are principal, and one subordinate: 1. The general determined, -2. who (which general) saw, - and 3. (the general) gave, &c. The first principal proposition expressed in a sentence may be called the absolute principal; the other principals are termed relative. In this sentence, "the general determined" is the absolute principal; "the general gave," &c. the relative principal; and "who saw no other way," &c. the subordinate. In the same way, then, that a simple proposition is attended by circumstances, some of which precede, and others follow it, so is the principal proposition, in a sentence of this sort, accompanied by other propositions, expressing either its cause or effects. In the example above laid down, the cause of the general's determination was the reflection expressed by the words "who saw," &c.; and the effect of his determination is shown in the last proposition, "he gave immediate orders," &c.

Though the cause of an action must in thought precede that action, yet, in the written order of words, the subordinate proposition expressing the cause of the action shown in the principal, is not always placed before it; but when expressed by a relative clause, it is placed between the principal subject and the principal copula, just as in the above example, "who saw," &c. is placed between the principal subject, "the general," and its copula and predicate, "determined."

The pupil may now proceed to construct sentences of his own composition on the following model, in which he must bear in mind two things: 1stly, that the conjunction "and," which precedes the principal relative proposition, is not considered as belonging to any proposition in the sentence, but merely as connecting the propositions with each other; and, 2ndly, that the *subject* may be understood in the concluding proposition of the sentence.

Model.

Principal absolute subject, comp. . . . (subordinate subject, copula, and predicate; complement,) princip. absol. cop. and pred.; . . . || conjunction, || complement. principal relative subj. (understood) cop. pred. and complement. The following sentences will illustrate the mechanism of this model:—

(1.) "The 2nd regiment of guards, which had been hitherto kept as a body of reserve, was now ordered into action; and, by the firmness and bravery of the men, soon decided the engagement in favour of the English."

(2.) "Philip, king of Spain, whose extensive power gave him grounds to hope for success, now began to put his project into execution; and made preparations to attack

England with a powerful armament."

(3.) "The monarch, who was now growing old, at length began to think of naming a successor; and, after some deliberation, appointed the Duke, his brother, heir to the crown."

SUBORDINATE PROPOSITIONS may be divided into two classes — determinative, and

explanatory.

A determinative subordinate is added to another proposition, to determine or limit the sense of the term which it qualifies, or to express some indispensable quality respecting it: so that the determinative subordinate cannot be removed from the sentence without affecting or destroying the sense of the proposition which it qualifies.

"The messengers who brought the news of our army's defeat were immediately seized and

imprisoned by order of the magistrates."

In this sentence, the proposition, "who brought the news of our army's defeat," is a determinative subordinate, the removal of which

would entirely alter the meaning of the sentence.

The office of the explanatory subordinate proposition in a sentence is, merely to explain more fully, or express some circumstance belonging to the term to which it relates; so that it is very possible to suppress the explanatory subordinate proposition without destroying, or even in the least degree injuring the sense of the sentence.

"Shakspeare, who lived in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, was the greatest of all the English

poets."

Here, the proposition, who lived in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, is an explanatory subordinate; and it is evident that its removal will not in the slightest degree affect the sense of the remaining proposition, which will then stand thus: "Shakspeare was the greatest of all the English poets."

General Rule. (1.) A proposition is principal when it begins either with a noun, a personal

pronoun, or an infinitive mood.

(2.) Propositions are *subordinate* when they begin with a relative pronoun, a conjunction, or an adverb.

LESSON IX.

Analysis.

The pupil is to copy out the following sentences, and analyse them according to the rules he has already learnt; pointing out all the propositions which they contain, and showing

their number, nature, parts, &c.; and then to construct similar sentences on any subjects proposed by the teacher:—

1. While the servants were getting ready the horses, I employed my time in making pre-

parations for my departure.

2. When returning home, I dismounted, and

led my horse by the bridle.

3. In the course of the afternoon, I sent my portmanteau and trunk to the wharf, to be put on board the frigate.

4. Prince Charles, who had taken advantage of the wind, which blew from the south-west, moved to the ground on the right of the English, in order that he might come down upon them with greater impetuosity from the heights.

5. The hall, which is of great extent, was hung round with heavy folds of black velvet in

deep festoons.

6. The river Somme separates Abbeville into two parts, and dividing itself into several branches, forms three islands, on which a great number of mills and factories have been built at various periods.

7. The river, which is navigable, and rises at least six feet at the flowing of the tide, enables the inhabitants, in number about 14,000, to

carry on a good trade.

8. I crossed the new bridge, near which I saw two boatmen preparing for their work of the day; then, entering a narrow street between some old wooden houses, I endeavoured to obtain a sight of the cathedral.

9. At the commencement of the long vacation, which I had resolved to spend at home in Lincolnshire, an acquaintance introduced me to a family whom a change of residence had made our neighbours.

10. In his prison, and deprived, by the cruelties of the Spanish tyrant, of the sight of her who had soothed all his former sorrows, Adrian Haranguer was tortured by many bitter

thoughts.

- 11. For the purpose of viewing this sublime spectacle with greater satisfaction, the captain and several of his companions had left the garrison, and climbed to the summit of the mountain.
- 12. After being here for some time, the king found it difficult to make himself believe that what he saw was real.
- 13. He saw mountains and valleys lighted up with a divine splendour, and watered by rivers which swept over their beds with a sound like that of sweet music.
- 14. The king was so utterly amazed at what he saw and heard, that he stood transfixed like one in a dream.
- 15. Meanwhile, the king, being left to himself, began to reflect on the strange situation in which he was placed.

16. The old man found his daughter in tears.

- 17. One fine summer morning, he took them into the garden, and, showing them two fine apple-trees, said: "My children, I give you these trees."
 - 18. The Romans and Albans being on the

eve of a battle, an agreement was made between them, that three champions should be chosen on each side, by whom the victory should be determined.

19. Finding that I was very hungry, she went out to procure me something to eat, and returned in a short time with a very fine fish, which, having caused it to be broiled upon some embers, she gave me for supper.

20. The French army continued to advance almost unmolested, and thousands fled to the mountains to escape the ravages of war.

21. His chief delight was to lead his men, under the cover of the twilight glow of an Italian night, through the dark mazes of the forest, or among the huge masses of rock that line the coast, where the wild guerilla crossed his path, or joined his band and gave intelligence of the enemy.

22. The shrill whistle again sounded, when a single blast from a bugle roused every soul in an instant; and, carbine in hand, they stood

prepared for battle.

23. The British party returned to the frigate, and a careful watch was set to look out

for the concerted signal.

24. We returned to her own room, and then begged her to relate to us the history of her life; for I told her I had come all the way from England to hear it and to see her.

LESSON X.

Amplification.

In order to practise the pupil in the preceding rules, the following exercise will be found useful. Let him take a simple proposition, and let him add to this proposition all the circumstances and qualifying expressions which may, without any violation of probability, be annexed to it, thus:

1. Alexander conquered the Persians.

2. Alexander, the son of Philip of Macedon, conquered the Persians.

3. Alexander the Great, the son of Philip

of Macedon, conquered the Persians.

4. Alexander the Great, the son of Philip of Macedon, being chosen generalissimo of the Greeks, destroyed the empire of the Persians.

5. Alexander the Great, the son of Philip of Macedon, being chosen generalissimo of the Greeks, destroyed the empire of the Persians, the inveterate enemies of Greece.

6. About 330 years before Christ, Alexander the Great, the son of Philip of Macedon, being chosen generalissimo of the Greeks, destroyed the empire of the Persians, the inveterate enemies of Greece.

7. About 330 years before Christ, Alexander the Great, the son of Philip of Macedon, after a rapid succession of splendid victories, succeeded in demolishing the empire of the Persians, the ancient and inveterate enemies of Grecian liberty.

- 1. The brothers wall
- 2. The brothers walked towards the ver.
- 3. The brothers walked together that the river.
- 4. The brothers walked together in silence towards the river.
- 5. In the evening, the brothers walked together in silence towards the river.
- 6. In the cool of the evening, the two brothers walked together in silence towards the river.
- 7. In the cool of the evening, the two brothers, arm in arm, walked together in silence towards the river.
- 8. In the cool of the evening, the two brothers, arm in arm, walked together in silence towards the river which ran along the bottom of their garden, &c. &c.

The pupil must amplify the following simple propositions in the manner above shown:—

1. He took leave of his friend. 2. The traveller was received. 3. The officers fled from the scene. 4. The brother commanded. 5. The people died. 6. The prince met. 7. They sailed. 8. The servant found the letters. 9. Alfred the Great died. 10. I was curious. 11. My brother arrived. 12. The history was written. 13. The men saw. 14. The captain will sail. 15. The barons marched. 16. The stranger understood the question. 17. He praised the man. 18. The people were glad. 19. They had reached the shore. 20. She sang. 21. He told us a story. 22. The voy-

age continued a fortnight. 23. My companions listened to the sounds. 24. My clerk knew the man. 25. He was accosted. 26. The patriarch addressed him, &c. &c.

Any difficulty attending the performance of this exercise may be overcome by applying the questions how? when? where? by whom? &c. to the simple proposition. These questions will of themselves suggest answers, which, when added to the sentence, will extend its signification as to time, manner, place, agents, &c.

LESSON XI.

On the Order of Words.

The next subject for the pupil's consideration will be the order in which the various clauses and parts of a sentence should be arranged. In ancient languages, where the connection between words and their mutual dependence on each other were sufficiently marked by termination, a very great variety of arrangement was admitted. But since, among the moderns, the practice of modifying the signification of words by a change in their termination does not prevail, they are of necessity much more limited in respect of the order in which the words and members of a sentence may be laid down.

In the English language, however, many inversions and transpositions are allowed; and the same meaning may often be properly ex-

pressed by a different arrangement of the various members in one sentence.

The usual order in which the ideas forming a simple proposition are expressed, is: 1. The Subject; 2. The Copula; and, 3. The Predicate; as: "God is great." Even in this simple form, however, an inversion is sometimes admitted, for the sake of adding force or dignity to the expression. Thus St. Luke, Acts xix. "Great is Diana of the Ephesians," "Blessed is he that cometh." &c.

The object, which usually follows the active verb, is sometimes placed before it in the sentence, in which case, the subject is put after the verb, as, "Silver and gold have I none."*

Sometimes the infinitive mood (depending on a finite verb) is placed first, as, "To conceal his crime he found impossible."*

For the sake of emphasis, an adverb or preposition will often begin the sentence, as, "Down came the mast," "In they went," &c.

In expressing a negation, the negative particle is generally joined to the verb, though, in some cases, in order to enliven the expression, it is placed at the beginning of the sentence, thus, "Never was there such a demonstration of joy," &c.*

Though, on the subject of arrangement, it is impossible to lay down any rules not liable to exception, the following general remarks may

prove useful to the young student:

* These inversions are not used in the plain style of narration or description, but are confined to subjects which require elevation and dignity of style; as rhetorical discourses, history, poetry, &c.

Rule 1. Qualifying expressions should be placed near the words which they qualify; for example:—

"Several thousand persons died in that town

of fever."

From this arrangement, the reader might infer that the town was one in which fevers were of frequent occurrence, whereas the expression, "of fever," is intended to qualify the verb "died," and consequently the sentence should stand thus:—

"Several thousand persons died of fever in

that town;"

Or, even better, "In that town, several thousand persons died of fever."

"I saw that it had been changed directly:"

This should be, "I saw directly that it had been changed."

Rule 2. The verb should never be placed at

too great a distance from its subject:

"He, together with all those who had been directly or indirectly concerned in the plot against the government, was immediately arrested and thrown into prison."

Here, the subject he, and the verb was arrested, are at too great a distance from each

other.

Rule 3. Be careful about the place of the adverb. Errors in the placing of the adverb are frequent among all writers. Nothing is more common than such a sentence as the following: "I have only written three lines." This order of the sentence will express, "I have done

nothing else but write three lines;" whereas, the meaning which such a sentence generally intends to convey is, "I have written no more lines than three;" and consequently, the word only should be placed close to the "three lines," and the sentence should stand thus: "I have written only three lines."

Rule 4. Never insert a circumstance between two capital members of a sentence, as such an order will render it doubtful to which member the circumstance belongs.

"Having finished the manuscript, upon the death of his father, he prevailed with his bookseller to undertake the publication of his work."

As, in the above sentence, the circumstance, "upon the death of his father," is placed between the two principal members—"Having finished," &c., and "he prevailed upon his bookseller," it is impossible to determine to which member the said circumstance relates, and we are left in doubt whether to refer it to the finishing of the manuscript, or the prevailing on his bookseller. The sentence may be altered thus: "Having finished the manuscript, he prevailed with his bookseller, on the death of his father, to undertake the publication of the work."

Rule 5. Place the relative pronoun as near as possible to the idea which it determines, or to which it refers:—

"It is folly to pretend to arm ourselves

against the accidents of life, by heaping up treasures, which nothing can protect us against but the good providence of our heavenly Father."

This arrangement of the sentence would imply that no mortal can protect himself against treasures; and this was certainly not the author's meaning. The following would have been a better arrangement:—

"It is folly to pretend, by heaping up treasures, to arm ourselves against the accidents of life, against which nothing can protect us but the good providence of our heavenly Father."

A General Rule. — Place those words which are connected in thought, and which depend on each other, as near together as possible; and avoid finishing a period with a preposition, or the pronoun it.

CHAPTER II.

ON VARIETY OF EXPRESSION.

In the same way as in nature no two things are so exactly alike as to be indistinguishable from each other, so we find it to be with However clear and dismental perceptions. tinct the ideas of any two persons may be upon a given subject, we shall never find them expressed in exactly the same terms. The cause of this variety it is not our province here to investigate, but the fact is indisputable. Let any subject be proposed for definition to six or seven pupils, and it will be found, that though each of them correctly understand and well define the subject in question, not one will have expressed the definition in precisely the same terms as any other of their number. Hence it will follow that the variety of forms in which a sentence may be expressed is almost infinite.

The following lessons are exercises intended to give the student facility in expressing any proposed sentence in a variety of forms.

LESSON XII.

Young and inexperienced writers commonly make a too frequent and unnecessary use of the connective particle and. This little word, though very useful when properly employed,

has an awkward and enfeebling effect when used too frequently in a sentence. Its proper office is to connect; and as the fragility of a chain will be increased in proportion to the number of links employed in its formation, so will the force and conciseness of a period be weakened by the too frequent repetition of the connecting particle.

This conjunction is employed generally in

four ways:

1st. Ťo connect subjects, as: "Industry (and) economy are excellent qualities."

2d. To connect objects, as: "We saw the men (and) women."

3d. To connect qualities, as: "The inhabitants were contented (and) thankful." And,

4th. To connect propositions, as: "He hastened to the capital, (and) threw himself at the feet of his sovereign."

In the three first examples, the use of the conjunction cannot be avoided; but in the fourth, a variety of expression may be introduced by substituting the present participle for the indicative mood of the verb used in the first proposition, thus: "Hastening to the capital, he threw himself at the feet of his sovereign."

Rule.—When a sentence consists of two propositions connected by the word and, change the first proposition into a circumstance introductory to the second, and take away the conjunction. This change may always be effected by employing the present or past participle instead of the indicative mood, thus:—

"She conducted me into her hut, and lighted a lamp, and told me I might remain there for the night."

This sentence may be varied thus:

"Having conducted me into her hut, and lighted a lamp, she told me I might remain there for the night."

Examples for Practice.

1. Bonaparte left 150,000 men in and about Cairo, and marched for Syria, with the intention of crushing the Turkish armament in that quarter.

2. He traversed the desert which divides Africa from Asia, and took possession of the fortress El-Arish on the 15th of February.

3. The general summoned his chief officers to council, and, after a long discussion, it was resolved that, in this case, necessity left no room for mercy.

4. I was extended without consciousness on the ground in the middle of the desert, and left with only four or five men, one of whom had dropped at the same moment with myself.

- 5. Each warrior, as he prosecuted his own task, looked with observant curiosity at the equipments of his fellow-traveller, and noted particularly what struck him as peculiar in the fashion in which he arranged his riding accoutrements.
- 6. I got with difficulty on my horse again, and we proceeded on our journey.
 - 7. They continued pouring water over my

face, arms, and hands, and at last I was able to swallow small mouthfuls.

8. The king thus got rid of his virtuous minister, and soon after resigned himself to the direction of a set of men, who afterwards went by the appellation of the Cabal.

9. He was accustomed, during his exile, to live cheerfully among his courtiers, and carried the same endearing familiarities to the

throne.

10. He resolved to humble the Presbyterians, and soon divested them of their employments and their places and gave* their offices to such as held with the court, and approved the doctrine of non-resistance.

11. The king openly espoused the cause of the clergy, and thus placed himself at the head of a faction, and deprived the citizens of London, who had long headed the popular party, of their charter.

12. His temper † had always been easy and merciful, and it now became arbitrary, and even

cruel.

13. He next sailed to Algiers, and compelled the Dey to make peace, and to restrain his piratical subjects from farther injuring the English.

14. He then went to Tunis, and made the same demands, and was desired by the Dey of that place to look at the two castles, Porto Farino and Goletta, and to do his utmost.

When the conjunction and connects two propositions, the latter expressing a consequence

^{*} Use the present participle. + Insert the relative pronoun.

of, or deduction inferred from, the former, the words "such — that," or, "so — that" may be substituted for the conjunction and, thus:

"This information appeared vague and unsatisfactory, and the king concluded the whole

was a fiction."

Corrected .

"This information appeared so vague and unsatisfactory, that the king concluded the whole was a fiction."

Examples for Practice.

1. From all these symptoms, Columbus was confident of being near land, and on the evening of the 11th of October, he ordered the sails to be furled, and the ship to bring to, keeping strict watch, lest they should be driven on shore in the night.

2. These objects struck the natives with terror, and they began to respect their new guests, as a superior order of beings, and concluded * they were the children of the sun,

who had descended to visit the earth.

- 3. At the battle of Marignan, against the Swiss, in 1515, the Chevalier Bayard fought by the side of Francis I.; and that monarch was impressed with a high opinion of his prowess, and conferred upon him the honour of knighthood.
- 4. His fame for relieving all who were in distress was great; and when the Spaniards had seized the kingdom of Portugal, Don

^{*} Use the present participle.

Antonio, the chief competitor for the crown,

applied to him for his assistance.

5. When he came under the line, the heat became excessive, and many of his wine-casks burst, and the liquor in them soured, and the provisions in them corrupted.

The finite verb in the second proposition may be sometimes changed into the active participle, and the conjunction omitted, thus:

"He dissolved the parliament, and firmly re-

solved never to call another."

Corrected :

"He dissolved the parliament, firmly resolving never to call another."

Examples for Practice.

- 1. The king and queen expressed their sorrow for what had passed, and promised him their future protection.
- 2. He soon after returned to England, and brought with him a rich cargo of the productions of the part of the New World he had discovered.
- 3. Saladin, during his last illness, ordered his shroud to be carried through the city, while a herald went before the procession, and proclaimed with a loud voice: "This is all that remains to the mighty Saladin, the conqueror of the East."
- 4. He approached the castle walls, and chaunted with a loud voice some verses of a song which had been composed partly by Richard and partly by himself.

5. Noah, the ark, and the dove, are circumstances of tradition in almost all parts of the world, and the flood is the epoch from which is dated the origin of all records.

LESSON XIII.

Variety of Expression.

A sentence may be varied by altering the construction; the active verb may be changed into the passive, and the subject into the agent governed by a preposition, thus:

"This bold declaration seriously alarmed the

court of St. Petersburg."

Varied thus:

"The court of St. Petersburg was seriously alarmed by this bold declaration."

Let the following active be changed into passive propositions in which the same sense shall be preserved.

Examples for Practice.

1. The general spent part of the day in reviewing his troops in the court-yard of the castle.

2. The whole audience received the new

play with rapturous applause.

3. The armies of the French emperor overran the whole country, and stripped the poor peasants of every thing they had in the world.

4. Decebalus, king of Dacia, had often de-

ceived the Roman emperor, Trajan.

5. Camillus, general of the Romans, was

besieging the city of Falerii.

6. The queen not only entertained them sumptuously in her own tent, but sent them back loaded with presents.

- 7. Among savage nations, we find no distinct trades or occupations. Each person prepares such articles only as are necessary for his own use, such as his hut, his tools, and his clothing, without receiving assistance from others.
- 8. His friend the minister, however, as a kind of compensation, promised that the government should bear the expenses of his travels in such parts of Europe as might appear advisable.

9. Though withdrawn from active employment, to the more congenial occupation of literary labour, he did not in the least relax his interest in the welfare of his adopted country.

10. During the intervals of the summer months, Von Wrangell made various excursions into the interior of Siberia, which, affording little more than what other travellers have described, will not require any notice from us.

In the following examples let the pupil substitute the active for the passive form of the proposition:—

1. It was decided to turn towards the opposite quarter; but all their efforts were baffled by frequent fissures in the ice.

2. The same difficulties and dangers continued, and their embarrassments were not

diminished by the knowledge that the provisions were beginning to fail.

3. A considerable sensation was made by this work; and, as some contended, the number of capital punishments was soon after increased in a family blancounting.

in a formidable proportion.

4. The minds of many were dazzled and imposed on by the author's reasoning, who was recommended by some of his friends to write something more to enforce the same doctrine.

5. A hope had been cherished by the father, that the son would follow in his own footsteps,

and become a distinguished traveller.

6. The virtuous poor man may also rejoice: his table is not crowded with flatterers and devourers; he is not embarrassed with a train of dependents, nor teased with the clamours of solicitation.

7. In other passages of Scripture, the Lord is said to have scattered his enemies, when they were discomfited before the armies of his servants. The same external means seem to have been employed upon this occasion, accompanied, perhaps, with an awful conflict of the elements.

8. On the 24th of August, 1820, the cry for liberty which was raised in Spain was responded to in Portugal, and a revolution commenced, in which the army and the citizens acted in concert.

9. In 1798, Prony was invited by Napoleon to become a member of the Institute of Egypt, which, however, he declined, and his refusal was never entirely forgotten or pardoned.

10. His education, during his father's lifetime, had been superintended by several dissenting clergymen; and on reaching the metropolis, he was admitted, through the interest of a paternal uncle, to a dissenting academy, where his studies were pursued in mathematics, philosophy, and theology.

It is not to be supposed that the active or the passive form may be applied indiscriminately to all sentences. Many cases exist, in which no objection could be raised to either form; but there are also many in which one is unquestionably preferable to the other. A collection of these cases, however, would be attended with some difficulty, and, when made, might serve only to perplex the student: it is therefore proposed merely to offer some general remarks on this subject, to guide the learner in choosing the form of his proposition.

Here, as in all other cases, perspicuity is the great end to be constantly and steadfastly held in view. Let the pupil, then, always adopt that form of sentence which shall most clearly convey his meaning to the mind of the reader; and let it be ever impressed on his own mind, that whatever other beauties his composition may possess, they are of no value when unaccompanied by this first and most important quality.

Cases in which the Active form is preferable.

- 1. When the object of an active verb is expressed by an infinitive mood followed by a substantive, as—
- "He undertook to deliver lectures in the Town Hall;" not-

- "Lectures were undertaken to be delivered," &c.
- 2. When the object of an active verb is an abstract term, followed by a qualifying clause, as —
- "He perceived the difficulty of arranging this matter with his friends;" and not—
- "The difficulty of arranging this matter with his friends was perceived by him."
- 3. When the object of the verb is a proposition, as—
- "He found that it was impossible to make any change in his system; and not—
- "It was found impossible by him to make any change," &c.

Cases in which the Passive form of the Proposition is recommended.

- 1. When the agent is followed by a long relative clause, as—
- "He was admitted into this institution by some gentlemen who had been his father's oldest friends, and who had long watched over his interests;" and not—
- "Some gentlemen who had been and who had long, &c. admitted him into this institution."
- 2. When the agent is either not specified, or understood to be persons in general, as—
- "The Romans were considered good soldiers;" and not—
- "People, or men, considered the Romans good soldiers."

"It may be easily conceived how far such a system would tend to the welfare and happiness of the inhabitants;" and not—

"People may easily conceive," &c.

"In the depth of winter, bread was distributed to the poor;" and not—

"They distributed bread," &c.

LESSON XIV.

Variety of Expression.

NOUNS.

Another fertile source of variety in expression may be found in circumlocution. The word circumlocution signifies a diffusive mode of expressing simple terms, by coupling them with some of their natural qualities or attributes. Thus, suppose the pupil be required to express in several words the term God: the attributes of God are wisdom, goodness, power, infinity, &c.; the term may therefore be varied as follows:—The Creator of the human race; the Maker of the world; the Almighty Ruler of the universe; the Father of men; the bountiful Protector of mankind; the Omnipotent Deity; the Lord of heaven and earth, &c.

Example.

Among the weaker scx, we frequently meet with examples of intrepidity, and patient endurance under misfortune, which might put many of the so-called lords of the creation to the blush.*

The pupil is here required to compose sentences in which he will express each of the following words by a circumlocution: i. e. he will use several words in expressing the idea contained in the one.

Men—women—a tyrant—a dungeon—a territory—an insurgent—a hunter—a ploughman—a soldier—birds—fishes—a stage-coach—coals—metals—windows—glass—books—keys—pens—a friend—an enemy—a hero—a speech—a slaye—a manager—a school—a watch—fire—a servant—a lawyer—a physician—a merchant—a sword—a helmet—a necklace—a ship—music—an histonian—a poet—a statesman—a philosopher—a king—a battle—a century—an exploit—history—the sun—the moon—the stars—the firmament—a crown—time—a letter—a council—the populace—a sceptre—an ambassador.

LESSON XV.

Variety of Expression.

NOUNS.

Let the pupil here be required to discover and write down the simple terms which are expressed by the following circumlocutions:

^{*} Here, the expression "weaker sex" is used for women, and "lords of the creation" for men.

Example.

The Nuptial Ceremony. — The Marriage* took place on the following day, in the presence of all the dignitaries and state officers of the empire.

The cringing minion of power -- the ornament of the brow of majesty - a faithful repository of secrets - an intoxicating beverage - a residence of princes - dispensers of justice - the abode of the just - the cloak of wickedness — the dissolution of our existence — the dawn of life - the limpid stream - the aim of our being — the inheritor of another's wealth - the staff of life - the love of our countrya feeling for the miseries of others — the messengers of God — the abode of our first parents — the measure of existence — the organ of sight — an assembly of wise men — the spring of life — an ignominious death — the companions of our studies in youth — the sure means of wealth — the desolate season of the vear - the source of light and heat - abstinence from spirituous liquors — the restraint of passion - our natural protectors - his country's defender - the space of twenty-four hours — the feathered songsters — the finny race the wide expanse of ether - a dislike of occupation - a want of knowledge - a state of tranquillity — an immoderate desire of power - an unrestrained desire of riches - an inward monitor.

^{*} Here, the simple term marriage is substituted for the circumlocution, the nuptial ceremony.

LESSON XVI.

Variety of Expression.

ADJECTIVES.

The same system which was shown in the last two lessons may be applied also to adjectives; that is to say, that all adjectives which are either derivative or compound words may be otherwise expressed by two or three simple terms: thus, incredible will be, not worthy of belief; irrevocable, not to be recalled.

The pupil will here express the following short sentences more diffusely by substituting other and more common terms for the ad-

jectives employed.

Example.

The fact is indisputable.

Varied.

The fact cannot be disputed.

He advanced with incredible rapidity. He assumed a ridiculous gravity. It was impossible to refrain from laughing. It was considered very probable. We pronounced him an unbilful workman. The young prince displayed extraordinary talents for government. Their undisciplined ferocity was unavailable. The men sawed their way through the ice with inconceivable labour. Their situation was particularly favorable to this species of composi-

tion. A good historian is careful not to convert history into romance. He is not satisfied with taking a superficial view of affairs, but examines their proximate and remote causes. Peace was established on terms highly favorable to the My son, thou art invincible. character was not only estimable, but admirable. Though the river was not wide, it was deep and dangerous. The guides now grew outrageous. Not a rock intercepted the burning glare of an unclouded sun. The sea was calm and unruf-There was a lonely plain. Her husband was dissatisfied. His companions had little success. He was a very agreeable companion. Some games are very dangerous. No one could be more amiable. He was a well-bred man. His appearance was engaging. She was unmindful of the danger. The questions became per-The subject was distressing. She remained in a state of painful suspense. He felt unequal to the task of refusing her request.

LESSON XVII.

Variety of Expression.

ADJECTIVES.

This lesson is the converse of Lesson XVI., and the learner is here required to substitute a single word (an adjective) for those expressions which are marked in Italies in each sentence, thus:—"He could not endure pain," may be varied by, "He was impatient of pain."

He found his uncle in a state of mind bordering on insanity. His words left on my mind an impression never to be effaced. Their manners were without respect, and their minds without education. Through his whole career, the minister never exhibited firmness of purpose. My cousin is easily made angry. The office of consul lasted for a year. Nothing could check the governor's fury. They were most inordi-nately desirous of money. The danger could not be avoided. The general found the peasantry not disposed to favour his cause. The boys returned home wet to the skin with the rain. Though it was a step of the greatest consequence, it was soon found impossible to be executed. His conduct betrayed great want of judgment. No apology could palliate such behaviour. one can understand the nature of the Deity. The defendant was pronounced free from quilt. His avarice knew no bounds. It is impossible to reply to such arguments. He was averse from mixing in society. I never knew any one so perfectly free from affectation. He succeeded in none of his undertakings. The transaction was declared to be contrary to law.

LESSON XVIII.

Variety of Expression.

The pupil is required to substitute one word (a verb) for the expressions marked in Italics:

Example.

His friends found fault with his conduct.

Varied.

His friends censured his conduct.

Captain Cook sailed round the globe several times in the course of his life. The man spoke impiously of the name of God. The general surrendered the town to the besiegers on honourable terms. The parties agreed to settle the affair by mutual concession. We have long kept up a mutual intercourse by letters. The commander now drew his forces together round Leipsic. The duke was condemned to lose his head. The inscription is entirely blotted out from the tablet. The merchant entered into an agreement to pay his creditors by monthly instalments. Last year, a bill was passed to deliver the negroes from slavery. The difficulties were represented as much greater than they really were. The evidence of the last witness cleared the prisoner from imputation. The magistrate expressed his determination to trace out all the particulars of this mysterious affair. The pupil did not rightly understand the master's explanation. The author will find some difficulty in making his composition suit the taste of modern readers. All the company looked forward with pleasure to the events of the succeeding day. The two princes were bound to each other by every tie of friendship and consanguinity. We are commanded to pay submission to the king and those that are in

authority. Who performed the service at church this morning? For this crime, he was condemned to be thrown headlong from the Tarpeian rock. These customs are still in force. The stranger fell down in adoration at his feet. Seeing the desperate state of his affairs, he submitted without resistance to his fate. The young man now made a resolution never again to go astray from the path of virtue.

LESSON XIX.

Variety of Expression.

VERBS.

The verbs in Italics must be expressed by two or three words, which, collectively, convey the same meaning.

Example.

He was sentenced to be expatriated for ten years.

Varied.

He was sentenced to be banished from his country for ten years.

I prefer the conversation of well-informed persons to that of the silly and frivolous. Permit me, Sir, to ask you one question. To encourage industry, and patronize hidden talent, is the duty of every member of society. It is difficult to distinguish between things apparameters.

rently similar. The police officers were informed of the robbery within half an hour after it had happened. He associated with the lowest and most abandoned characters. Human cares are not alleviated by wealth. My brother requested me to accompany him as far as the next village. These enterprising men encountered many obstacles in prosecuting their designs. He communicated his opinions on this matter to his intimate friends, and endeavoured to persuade them to follow his advice. Those who are elated by good fortune, seldom sympathize with the calamities of their inferiors. As he did not comprehend the text, it was not surprising that he should misinterpret its signification. financial department was entrusted to the new minister, who regulated the affairs of the kingdom with astonishing ability, and accomplished many reforms in every branch of the government. The bishop was venerated by all classes. After an affectionate address, during which many shed tears, and all were strongly affected, the minister departed, recommending his congregation to cherish every virtue which would tend to promote peace and happiness among them. He stood for a long time with his eves fixed on the ground; then, slowly raising his head, he thus addressed the multitude. Having thus removed this obstacle, he soon attained the summit of his ambition. The anniversary of the institution was celebrated with great rejoicings. He was persecuted with the utmost violence by all the followers of the opposite party. The sergeant's face was dreadfully disfigured by the blows he had received in the fray, and his whole appearance presented a shocking spectacle. On his arrival in town, he was recommended to an old friend of his father, who received him with great kindness. Nothing could alter his opinion.

LESSON XX.

Variety of Expression.

ADVERBS

Adverbs are, in grammar, those words which express the manner or time of an action, or the degree of a quality. Since, then, all adverbs have reference either to time, or manner, or degree, it is obvious that they are all contractions expressive of specified manners, times, or degrees: thus, "enough," may be explained, "a sufficient quantity;" then, "at that time;" there, "in that place;" beautifully, "in a beautiful manner." &c.

Let the pupil here introduce adverbial expressions, consisting of several words, instead of those adverbs which are marked in Italics:

Example.

It was undoubtedly the best mode of travelling.

Varied.

It was without doubt the best mode of travelling.

He obligingly offered me a seat in his carriage. I, therefore, gratefully accepted his offer.

At this dreadful spectacle, I involuntarily shrank back with horror. The horses darted furiously down the hill, and dashed the carriage violently against a bank. The old gentleman was instantly taken out, and led into a cottage by the road side. He gradually recovered his senses, and, opening his eyes, stared wildly round him. He was soon sufficiently recovered to pursue his journey. I met my cousin exactly where I had seen him the day before. The new preacher is unquestionably more talented than our former pastor. He answered me so solemnly, that I felt quite awed. He sings expressively, and pronounces the words most distinctly. I unconsciously wandered from the beaten track. Whither are you going? The wealth of individuals is frequently dissipated by an extravagant patronage of the fine arts. The nature of the Grecian orders of architecture, very plainly indicates that they were originally executed in wood. The apartments in this part of the building were purposely constructed of stone. The lecturer expressed himself so unintelligibly, that it was impossible to comprehend him. The influence of this powerful writer greatly contributed to this determination. The king openly espoused the cause of the clergy. Having been previously informed of all the circumstances, the minister easily quelled the insurrection. Though he had so essentially served his country, Sir George Rooke was left to neglect, and soon displaced from his command. It is said that the Scots reluctantly yielded to this coalition. Vast multitudes attended the culprit as he went

to the hall, shouting loudly as he passed, or silently praying for his success. Though the question was obstinately disputed, the prisoner was found guilty by a majority of seventeen The conscience of the wicked is never tranquil. He was extensively engaged in commerce, and insensibly became so deeply involved, as to compromise the credit of the firm. house was consequently obliged to stop payment. All men internally disapprove this conduct, though they dare not openly declare their feel-Several merchants had been unjustly seized, and most cruelly treated. The party was no longer able to withstand the power of the opposition. The second cargo was pronounced in every respect incomparably superior. It will be a sacrifice inexpressibly acceptable to him. We should always speak the truth.

LESSON XXI.

Variety of Expression.

ADVERBS.

The pupil will substitute single words (adverbs) for the expressions marked in Italics in the following sentences.

Example.

At what time do you intend to set off?

Varied.

When do you intend to set off?

He treated the strangers with great hospitality, and dismissed them deeply impressed with his goodness. The stores were embarked without delay, and the vessels weighed anchor that very night. I was, at that time, much younger than I am now, and, of necessity, was much more inexperienced. The pensioner came every day to my office to receive his allowance. He received it with thanks, and departed, as far as could be judged by appearances, in a high degree satisfied with his visit. He was, to a proverb, penurious and avaricious, and in consequence, avoided by all men. In accordance with this determination, they set out at an early hour one morning, very much excited with their intended exploits. It was not long before they crossed the forest, and, arriving at its further extremity. sat down under the shade of a spreading oak, and began to eat their breakfast, of which every man partook with great appetite. The people had for a long time been clamouring for war, and soon afterwards, hostilities were declared with solemnity. Commodore Anson's fleet was by this time dispersed, and his crew reduced in a deplorable degree. He had asserted that the fort and harbour could be destroyed without difficulty. It rained with such violence that it was impossible for the troops to continue encamped. The Lord Mayor of London is elected every year. The colonel headed the assault with resolution. They offered of their own accord to conduct this dangerous enterprise. The commander watched the approach of the vessels with great anxiety. By the care of Providence,

all the crew were saved from a watery grave. I was surprised to hear him argue in a manner so contrary to philosophy. Their names were called out in the order of the alphabet. establishment, all demands are settled once a week. The affair was brought to a close without difficulty. It was at length determined that we should proceed to Geneva without delay. I returned not long since from the continent. I was pleased with the performance in a much greater degree than I had expected. It is evident that he wrote this letter for the purpose. The practice has occurred many times. fell into this error from not directing his mind to the subject. The army was composed for the greatest part of raw recruits. In the last place, he drew our attention to the poverty and misery which prevailed in all parts. These questions, when considered one by one, will be understood with much less difficulty. Too much relaxation from study renders the efforts of attention twice as difficult as before. They were asked this question one after the other, and apart from each other. I will endeayour to adhere to principles which are acknowledged by all persons in all These two facts occurred at the same The travellers arrived in London, from which place they continued their route in a direction towards the orth.

LESSON XXII.

Variety of Expression.

SYNONYMOUS TERMS.

Words are called synonymous, when they either convey the same meaning, or approach very closely to each other in signification. Many writers have doubted whether, in any language, two words could be found which express precisely the same idea; and they have contended that, although words may closely approximate in sense, and agree in expressing one principal idea, there is always a difference between them in degree or circumstance: that the one contains some accessory idea or tinge of expression which distinguishes it from the other. Though this opinion be reasonable in general, and perfectly true as regards languages derived from one source only, it must be admitted that, in English, words approach each other in meaning more closely than in most other European languages, a fact which may be easily accounted for by the variety of languages of which English is composed. It is this mixture of dialects which produces that copiousness for which our language is so remarkable, and which gives such an infinite variety to our forms of expression.

Even in English, however, this extremely close resemblance between words does not very frequently occur, and the expression "synonymous term" generally implies a word which may be substituted for another of similar meaning, and

by which change no material alteration takes place in the general sense of the sentence.

The pupil is to supply other terms for those written in Italics in the following sentences.

Example.

"He was furnished with every thing he required."

Varied.

"He was supplied with every thing he required," &c.

As in all similar cases, the minds of different persons were variously affected. The overthrow of the government in England was one part of De Witt's plans. The views of the popular leaders may be collected from the following It was resolved to proceed at once. I am confident that the others will as readily reply in the negative as myself. Horses were there ready for them, and at ten in the morning they reached Feversham, where they got on board a custom-house hov which had been engaged for the purpose. The government, meantime, was exercised by a council of peers, with the lord-mayor and aldermen. They told him it was the prince's wish that, for the safety of his person, he should go to Ham House in Surrey, where he would be attended by his own soldiers. The assembled crowds viewed with mournful looks this final departure of their sovereign, a captive in the hands of foreigners. To raise a new army was now the first object of the ministers. By the joint exertions of all parties, an army of twenty thousand men was assembled. At the first intelligence of the king's march into England, the council of state was in great alarm. He early showed his passion for a military life, and he served with great reputation in the English auxiliary force under Turenne in 1672 and the following years. His conduct was not more extraordinary than that of many other eminent men of the time. The dreadful heat and want of air quickly deprived some of life; others lost their reason and expired in delirium: their entreaties and offers of money to their guards to give them water or to remove them were mocked at or disregarded. He also laboured to excite the feelings of the parliament and city, but to no purpose. For once during his reign, the conduct of the king was praiseworthy. In all his exertions he was cordially aided by his brother. Each party conceded something.

LESSON XXIII.

Variety of Expression.

SYNONYMES.

The pupil is here to study the differences in signification, and the proper application of the following synonymous terms, and then employ them in sentences of his own composition.*

• This exercise requires great care and accuracy. It will be generally found advantageous that an explanation of the proper use of the words to be employed be given by the teacher, previous to any attempt on the part of the pupil to employ them in his writing.

- 1. Abandon quit leave desert forsake — relinquish — give up.
 - 2. Renounce abdicate resign.
- 3. Confess own admit allow acknowledge avow.
- 4. Eminent great renowned famous remarkable excellent.
- 5. Temper humour disposition character genius.
- 6. Consent assent dissent; concord accord discord; unity union alliance junction combination.
- 7. Subsequent consequent following after posterior.
- 8. Previous—anterior—before—antecedent—prior.
- 9. Odd strange singular curious extraordinary wonderful.
- 10. Utility advantage benefit profit service use.
 - 11. Abate diminish lessen decrease.
- 12. Boldness audacity rashness temerity effrontery impudence.
- 13. Impetuous violent furious vehement forcible.
- 14. Thoughtless inconsiderate inadvertent careless negligent inaccurate inattentive imprudent.
- 15. Auspicious propitious ominous favourable fortunatement
- 16. Absolute despotic tyrannical oppressive imperious.
- 17. Sojourn abide dwell reside inhabit live.

- 18. Ability capacitý talent.
- 19. Recant abjure retract revoke recall.
- 20. Repeal abolish abrogate annul cancel.
 - 21. Over above upon.
- 22. Curtail abridge contract abbreviate.
- 23. Epitome—compendium—digest—summary — abstract.
- 24. To steal away abscond secrete one's self.
- 25. Swallow up absorb ingulph engross.
 - 26. Abstain—forbear—refrain—withstand.
- 27. Abstinent sober temperate abstemious; abstinence - fast.
- 28. Consent comply accede acquiesce - agree.
 - 29. Acceptable grateful welcome.
- 30. Contingency casualty accident incident.
 - 31. Accompany attend escort.
 - 32. Effect execute accomplish achieve.
 - 33. Salute accost address.
- 34. Narrative account description relation.

 - 35. Accurate exact precise.
 36. Charge impeach accuse arraign.
- 37. Formidable dreadful terrible terrific — tremendous — fearful — frightful shocking.
- 38. Acquaintance familiarity intimacy - friendship

- 39. Cheer enliven inspire animate exhilarate.
 - 40. Life animation vivacity spirit.
- 41. Apparent visible obvious clear plain manifest evident.
 - 42. Insult affront.
 - 43. Uncover discover detect.
- 44. Effective efficient efficacious effectual.
- 45. Distinction diversity difference discrimination.
 - 46. Attraction allurement enticement.
 - 47. To be become grow.*

LESSON XXIV.

Variety of Expression.

SENTENCES.

It appears from the preceding lessons, that there are few words in the language which may not be supplied by others producing nearly, if not exactly, the same signification. This is true, not only of words, but also of expressions consisting of several words. It is even possible that almost every word in a sentence may be changed, and yet that the sentence shall convey the same general signification as before the alteration, thus:—

^{*} This lesson may be continued to any extent the teacher may think proper, and reference may be made, for the exact signification of the words to be used, to Crabb's or Taylor's work on synonymes.

"Shall we have the pleasure of seeing you?"
"Are we to be favoured with your com-

pany?"

The sentences in the following exercise are to be expressed in as many various ways as may suggest themselves to the pupil, either by changing an expression, or substituting one word for another, or several words for one, or one for several. It is to be remembered that the sense of the sentence must be preserved, though the words and expressions be changed, thus:—

1. We must all die. 2. All men must die. 3. All mankind must die. 4. Death is the fate of all men. 5. It is fated that all men shall die. 6. Death is the inevitable lot of man. 7. The dissolution of our existence is fated. 8. To die is a law of nature. 9. The 10. There is lives of all men are limited. 11. Death nothing more certain than death. is the fate which awaits all men. 12. Death is the unavoidable destiny of mortals. 13. Nothing is more certain than that we shall all die. 14. All men are mortal. 15. Mortality is a necessary condition of human nature. 16. Death awaits us all. 17. All human beings must pay the debt of nature. 18. We must all return to the dust from which we came. 19. All men must depart from this life. 20. Every man must quit this mortal existence.

Let the following phrases be changed according to the above model:—

This vigorous measure was a blow which

the parliament had never expected. The power of the crown became at this time irresistible. This scheme, like all the former, was frustrated. The king was not a little alarmed at this invasion, but still more at the success of an undertaking which at first appeared desperate. He was followed to the scaffold with great commiseration from the populace. These successes, however, were but of short continuance. The ministry had now entirely lost the confidence of the queen. The campaign in Flanders was conducted with the most brilliant success. The parliament were ardent in their expressions of zeal and unanimity. She resolved to become entirely free. His avarice was justly upbraided. My maxim is, "Never to abandon my friends; to do justice to all the world, and to fear no man." The earl soon found his disappointments and his losses increase. In the mean time, the rebellion was still more unsuccessfully prosecuted in England. They repulsed the first attack of the royal army with success. tune was still as unfavourable as ever. examined the evidence of several who had been unjustly seized and treated with great cruelty. A secret committee was appointed to examine into this grievance. Orders were issued for augmenting the land forces. They bore a dreadful fire for some hours with great intre-They at length retreated, leaving six hundred men dead upon the spot. By this victory, the king lost five hundred men, and the rebels gained great influence.

LESSON XXV.

From the last ten lessons it will appear that there are very few words in the English language, the meaning of which may not be expressed by other terms. It has been also shown, that not only words in a sentence, but that whole sentences may be altered in expression, without any material interference with their sense. There are many other modes of varying expression, besides those already laid down. For these modes, no strict rules can be given, but it will be a useful exercise for the ingenuity of the student to pursue the practice still further, for which purpose the following model is proposed for imitation:—

ORIGINAL.

VARIED.

"The approach of day among the Pyrenees, in the month of September, is a spectacle which it falls not to the lot of every man to witness, and it is one which can hardly be imagined by him who has not beheld it. For some time after the grey twilight breaks, you behold around you only one huge sea of mist, which, gradually rising, discloses, by fits, the peak of some rugged hill, and gives to it the appearance of a real island in a real ocean. By and by, the mountains become every where distinguishable, looming large through the haze;

Few persons have had an opportunity of contemplating the dawn of day in September among the Pyrenean mountains, a spectacle scarcely to be conceived by those who have never witnessed it. For a considerable time after the appearance of twilight on the eastern horizon, nothing can be seen on all sides but a vast ocean of vapour, which, rising by degrees, discovers here and there the point of some craggy rock, and makes it exactly resemble an island rising above the surface of the sea. Presently the mountains grow, by degrees, more

but the valleys continue long. enshrouded, the fogs which hang upon them, yielding only to the rays of the noon-Along a valley day sun. immediately beneath our present position, a considerable column of French infantry made their way during one of the late actions; and so perfect was the cover afforded by the mist, that, though the sun had risen some time, they penetrated wholly unobserved to the brow of the hill."

discernible, throwing out a shadowy indistinct outline through the mist; but the lower land remains long enveloped in a thick vapour. which is dispersed only by the influence of a meridian sun. A large body of French foot soldiers, during a late engagement, had filed through a valley just under our present encampment; and they were so completely concealed by the fog, although it was some time after sunrise, that they contrived to make their way unperceived to the rising ground above.

The pupil is here to vary the expressions contained in the following extracts, in the manner above exemplified; referring, in cases of difficulty, to the rules laid down in the foregoing lessons. This practice, continued at intervals, will be found to considerably increase the learner's facility of expression, and his power over language. If the following passages be found not sufficiently numerous, their number may be increased at the discretion of the teacher:—

"At a small distance from the house, my predecessor had made a seat, overshadowed by a hedge of hawthorn and honeysuckle. Here, when the weather was fine and our labour soon finished, we usually sat together to enjoy an extensive landscape in the calm of the evening. Here, too, we drank tea, which was now become an occasional banquet; and as we had it but

seldom, it diffused a new joy, the preparations for it being made with no small share of bustle and ceremony. On these occasions, our two little ones always read to us, and they were regularly served after we had done. Sometimes, to give a variety to our amusements, the girls sang to the guitar; and while they thus formed a little concert, my wife and I would stroll down the sloping field that was embellished with blue-bells and centaury, talk of our children with rapture, and enjoy the breeze that wafted both health and harmony."——

"I now proceeded forward, and had walked about two hours, when I perceived what appeared at a distance like a wagon, which I was resolved to overtake; but when I came up with it found it to be a strolling company's cart that was carrying their scenes and other theatrical furniture to the next village, where they were to exhibit. The cart was attended only by the person who drove it and one of the company, as the rest of the players were to follow the ensuing day. 'Good company upon the road,' says the proverb, 'is the shortest cut,' I therefore entered into conversation with the poor player; and as I once had some theatrical powers myself, I descanted upon such topics with my usual freedom: but as I was not very well acquainted with the present state of the stage, I deman ed who were the present theatrical writers in vogue? who the Drydens and Otways of the property?"—

"Since my art at this place, we have

had an eruption of one of the numerous volcanoes called Cosiquini, near the coast on the South Sea, distant from this place about 250 miles. This eruption commenced on Friday morning, January 16th, with the locks of an earthquake. These were succeed by a hollow rumbling noise under ground, which lasted with little intermission until Friday the 23d. About one o'clock in the morning we were all roused out of bed by repeated shocks, after which the noise greatly increased. The explosions of the volcano were repeated every four or five minutes, causing all the houses to rock to the foundations. At ten o'clock they ceased, when we perceived the air to be filled with a quantity of sulphurous dust. This thickened every succeeding hour. At twelve, the sun was quite obscured by it. At one, or half past one in the afternoon, all was dark as midnight; candles were lighted in the houses, and lamps in the streets. It was painful to open one's eyes, owing to the quantity of dust with which they were immediately filled. change of temperature was also very remarkable. From having been warm and sultry, the atmosphere became disagreeably cold, and produced a sensation such as is experienced on the approach of ague. Many of the inhabitants were taken sick, as much, it would seem, from terror, as from the poisonous air they breathed.

"The next day, the light was no better than twilight, and not until Monday did the sun shine bright again. On the succeeding Wednesday, we had a slight shower of rain, when

the dust ceased to fall. 'Even now, however, we are annoyed with it when there is a brisk wind. It is blown off the leaves of the trees, and the roofs of the houses in abundance.

"In some places near the volcano, there were three days of complete darkness. At Leon. many birds were found dead in the yards, and the dust at that place measured full four inches. A great number of our horses and horned stock have died, suffocated by the quantity of dust they were forced to swallow. Wild animals, deer for example, came into many of the towns, thus fleeing to man as their protector in the time of danger. The explosions were so severe, and the dust so thick, that in some places people could scarcely stand or breathe. dust was quite hot, as if it had recently left the mouth of a furnace. Quantities of gravel and stones were also thrown to incredible distances." ----

"The estate of 'Laborde' (in Häiti), situated about ten miles from the sea coast, is one of the most beautiful properties I ever beheld. Assuredly Jamaica can boast of nothing like it. On entering, we found ourselves in a green savannah, stretching away to the right and left, and in front, as far as the eye could reach. This magnificent meadow was carpeted with the freshest verdure, springing from a rich black loam, than which nothing could be better adapted to the cultivation of the sugar-cane or any other tropical production. All around us were clumps of trees of the most picturesque

beauty, their dark massive foliage contrasting admirably with the lighter and livelier hue of the grass. The whole prospect bore no unapt resemblance to an extensive park belonging to some wealthy land-owner in England. Had there been deer, I might have fancied myself transported across the Atlantic. At the distance of a mile or two, the savannah terminated in a grove of trees, through which having passed we entered another savannah of equal beauty and extent. Here we saw the ruins of one of the sets of sugar-works. The property had formerly three."—

" Matilda was married, when very young, to a Neapolitan nobleman of the first quality, and found herself a widow and a mother at the age of fifteen. As she stood one day caressing her infant son at the open window of an apartment which overlooked the river Volturna, the child, with a sudden spring, leaped from her arms into the flood below, and disappeared in a moment. The mother, struck with instant surprise, and making an effort to save him, plunged in after her child, but far from being able to assist the infant, she herself with great difficulty escaped to the opposite shore, just when some French soldiers were plundering the country on that side, who immediately made her their prisoner.

"As the war was then carried on between the French and the Italians with the utmost inhumanity, the soldiers were on the point of ill-treating her, when this base resolution was

opposed by a young officer, who, though their retreat required the utmost expedition, placed her behind him, and brought her in safety to his native city. Her beauty at first caught his eye, and her merit soon after his heart. They were married: he rose to the highest post; they lived long together, and were happy. But the felicity of a soldier can never be called permanent. After an interval of several years, the troops which he commanded having met with a repulse, he was obliged to take shelter in the city where he had lived with his wife. Here they suffered a siege, and the city at length was taken. Few histories can produce more various instances of cruelty than those which the French and Italians at that time exercised upon each other. It was resolved by the victors, upon this occasion, to put all the French prisoners to death, but particularly the husband of the unfortunate Matilda, as he was principally instrumental in protracting the siege. Their determinations were in general executed almost as soon as resolved upon. The captive soldier was led forth, and the executioner with his sword stood ready, while the spectators, in gloomy silence, awaited the fatal blow, which was only suspended till the general, who presided as judge, should give the signal. It was in this interval of anguish and expectation that Matilda came to take her last farewell of her husband and deliverer, deploring her wretched situation, and the cruelty of fate, that had saved her from perishing by a premature death in the river Volturna, to be the

spectator of still greater calamities. The general, who was a young man, was struck with surprise at her beauty, and pity at her distress; but with still stronger emotions when he heard her mention her former dangers. He was her son, the infant for whom she had encountered so much danger. He acknowledged her at once as his mother, and fell at her feet. The rest may be easily supposed: the captive was set free, and all the happiness that love, friendship, and duty could confer on each was united."

CHAPTER III.

ON ABSTRACT LANGUAGE.

THE foregoing exercises have been confined chiefly to that portion of the English language which is used in description and narration. The words employed have therefore been, mostly, those which have reference to natural objects and their qualities, and the common actions of external nature. There can be little doubt that. in the formation of primitive language, these were the first terms invented; indeed, it is natural to suppose, as the attention of mankind must have been first directed to the objects by which they were surrounded, and with which they were brought into daily contact and intercourse, that such objects were the first to which names would be given. It was not till men turned their thoughts to the powers within them, and began to be conscious of exercising their reason and understanding, that they would require words expressive of mental states or actions. In inventing such words, however, it appears that they did not find it necessary to employ new terms to express mental qualities, but that they merely applied to moral and intellectual qualities the expressions they had before used in reference to material objects. We shall find this to be true, not in one only, but in every language on the face of the globe. Accordingly, if we examine abstract terms, which have reference either to the states, qualities, passions, or modes of action of the mind, we shall invariably find in all languages that the words by which these qualities are designated were originally employed upon objects of sense. Thus, in our own language, the mind is said to be quick or slow, dull or bright, &c.; it is also said to weigh, reflect, understand, perceive, &c. Every one of these words has reference to matter, although, in order to perceive this relation clearly, it is necessary to be acquainted with the languages from which our abstract terms are derived.

The human mind possesses a power of discovering a resemblance between things not in their outward appearance, but in their circumstances, or in the relation they each bear towards other things. This sort of resemblance in effeets or circumstances is called ANALOGY, and is the foundation of all abstract language. the word light literally signifies the effect produced upon the eyes by the rays of the sun, but if, using the word in an abstract sense, we call a learned man the *light* of the age in which he lived, it will be perceived that the word is employed analogically, that is, it is used to express the effect produced upon the mind by the knowledge imparted by a learned man. There is no visible resemblance between a scholar and light; the similitude is to be found only in their effects. The relation which light bears to the eye resembles the relation which knowledge bears to the mind; that is, as the former dispels obscurity, and enables us to distinguish objects clearly, so does the latter enable the mind to understand and perceive more evidently whatever may be the object of its attention.

It is from the principle of analogy that many words in our language which are not abstract terms, are used in a secondary sense. all the names of the parts of the human body. and many words denoting objects of vegetable or inanimate nature, are employed in a sense acquired from the relations they bear to other objects in their primary signification. Thus. we have not only the leaves of a plant, but the leaves of a book, the leaves of a table, gold leaf, &c. Again, the word leg, which is used properly to signify the member which supports the weight of the body, is applied analogically to those parts of mechanical contrivances which perform a similar office: thus we say, the leg of a table, of a chair, &c.

LESSON XXVI.

As an exercise introductory to the consideration of abstract language, it will be a useful practice for the pupil to make a collection of words used in the manner above explained. Let him construct his own sentences upon any given word in the following list, and use the same term in as many different senses as he is able.

Example.

- 1. He took his little brother by the hand, and led him into the garden. (primary.)
- 2. On looking up at the clock, he perceived that the hand pointed to twelve. (secondary.)

Sheet — carpet — dress — roof — leaf — leg — hand — eye — wing — face — lap — foot — heart — back — brow — lip — neck — tooth — tail — mouth — scales — arm — head — cap — root — crust — branch — table — ashes — volume — chest — blade — side — bed — drum — tongue — roof.

LESSON XXVII.

It will be found upon examination that most terms expressive of our external perceptions may be also used to convey abstract ideas. Some abstract words, however, are much more limited than others both in variety and extent of signification. It will therefore be expedient to adopt some classification of this species of language, to assist in explaining the various senses in which abstract words may be used. With this view the following lists have been formed, in each of which the words are ranged under certain heads, and all bear reference to some leading principle in nature. The teacher, in showing the proper use of these terms, should be particularly careful to explain the analogy which led to the secondary signification of the word in question, and the process of mind by which the concrete term came to be

used in a moral sense. There can be, indeed, no exercise more practically useful to the pupil than a continual reference of this sort; none which will more effectually contribute to strengthen his judgment, and give him just and clear ideas upon all subjects. It should, therefore, be the teacher's care, in all the exercises of this chapter, constantly to trace back the abstract signification of the word to be employed, to the sense in which it was originally used. The result of this practice must be, a unity and clearness of thought, and a force and conciseness of expression, unattainable by those whose minds have not been similarly trained. For, as the extent of our acquaintance with the external world must be in exact proportion to our knowledge of the distinctions and differences existing among material objects; in like manner must our power of using correct language be confined within the circle of our knowledge of the true meaning and proper application of words.

The sources of analogical language are almost innumerable. Let us first consider it under one head, MOTION. This, again, may be divided into animal motion, spontaneous motion, motion of fluids, motion of solids, &c. Most of the verbs, adjectives, and nouns which have reference to all these varieties, may be used in a moral as well as a literal sense, and the pupil must compose two sentences on each word in the following lists in which he should employ it respectively, whenever it can be done, in its concrete and in its abstract sense:—

Example.

MOVE.—1. In endeavouring to move the rock, it fell with a tremendous crash. (primary.)

2. Not all my most carnest entreaties could move him from his purpose. (secondary.)

MOTION.

VERRS.

Move — revolve — roll — whirl — twirl — twist — slide — turn — rise — fall — sink — subside — rush — deluge — pour — drop — distil — spout — sprinkle — spirt — plunge — run — fly — swim — walk — creep — jump — leap — spring — start — climb — advance — retire — go — come — recede — bring — march — hop — throw — throb — thrust, &c.

ADJECTIVES.

Quick — slow — direct — tardy — oblique — circular — waving — steady — perpendicular — equal — horizontal — unequal — uniform — rocking — wavering — swift — accelerated — gentle — sudden — rapid — sluggish — hurried — agitated — speedy — rotatory — retrograde — progressive — voluntary — continued — interrupted — hasty — precipitate — violent — free — turbulent — tumultuous, &c.

NOUNS.

Billow — current — wave — tide — stream — flood — deluge — motion — movement — gale — breeze — hurricane — velocity — ra-

light or darkness; growth or decry, either of animal or vegetable life; the five senses, &c. By pursuing this plan, and using the words thus classified in as many senses as they admit, it will be soon found that the pupil, with the plan recommended to be pursued in page 111, will be able not only to clearly understand and easily trace back to its source any word used in a moral sense, but also to employ analogical language correctly in his own sentences; and he will thus have acquired, in a comparatively short time, a comprehensive knowledge of his language.

LIGHT.

Example.

SHINE.—1. It was a beautiful day, and the sun shone brightly. (primary.)

2. His shining talents, as well as the excellent qualities of his heart, placed him far above the common race of man. (secondary.)

Shine — dazzle — enlighten — light — blaze
—flicker — warm — heat — ignite — sparkle
—fire — flash — radiate — glimmer — glisten
— glitter — twinkle — brighten — polish —
burn — illuminate — scintillate — inflame —
flare — cheer — enliven — shoot, &c.

ADJECTIVES.

Brilliant — shining — manifest — flaming bright — clear — lucid — luminous — conspicuous — evident — dazzling — flickering transparent — translucent — sparkling — flery — radiant — lustrous — glossy — splendid resplendent — beaming — white — flashing refulgent — effulgent — flerce, &c.

NOUNS.

Sun — moon — stars — constellation — planet — fire — light — flame — blaze — warmth — heat — lamp — torch — spark — flash — radiance — brilliancy — brightness — dawn — glimpse — lustre — ray — twilight — noon — day — splendour — beam — coruscation — scintillation — effulgence — taper — lightning — gleam, &c.

LESSON XXX.

DARKNESS.

Example.

COVER.—1. Covering her face with both her hands, she turned away, and burst into a flood of tears. (primary.)

2. The man attempted to cover his guilt with a lie, but his falsehood was immediately detected and exposed. (secondary.)

VERBS.

Cover — conceal — hide — blacken — obscure — celipse — deprave — lour — tarnish — extinguish — mourn — envelope — darken — pollute — defile — overwhelm — bury — sully — soil — disguise — dim — secrete — screen

— close — frown — scowl — sadden — blot — cloud — lurk — stain — discolour — mourn — quench — forbode — dye — tinge — faint — fade — stray — err — imprison — blind — perplex — wander — grieve — overshadow — shade — slander, &c.

ADJECTIVES.

Dull — dark — obscure — black — foggy — misty — heavy — deep — nocturnal — baleful — dreary — internal — sad — secret — blind — opake — dim — dusky — smoky — sable — funereal — swarthy — mysterious — nightly — clandestine — overcast — private — dingy — gloomy — dismal — sepulchral — hidden — sallow — sun-burnt — murky — sullen — unseen — dun — solemn — moody — unrevealed — sombre — darkling — indistinct — occult — pitchy — cloudy — umbrageous — dense — thick — extinct — lurid — livid — tawny — invisible, &c.

NOUNS.

Vapour — sorrow — smoke — dust — cloud — night — fog — obscurity — dullness — mist — blackness — darkness — grief — blight — grave — dungeon — vault — gloom — cave — cavern — shadow — shade — dusk — ebony — soot — cypress — mantle — cloak — jet — mask — veil — curtain — sepulchre — thicket — mystery — secret — midnight — screen — den — raven — evening — frown — scowl — ink — blot — twilight — pitch — extinction — stain — spot — sin — tomb — abyss — concealment, &c.

LESSON XXXI.

SOUND.

Example.

SPEAK.—1. The orator spoke in so low a tone that he was inaudible to the greater portion of those who were present. (primary.)

2. The beauty and grandeur of nature speak forcibly to the heart of man, and impress solemn truths on his mind. (secondary.)

VERBS.

Speak — rant — cry — shout — exclaim — scream — shriek — call — roar — squeak — rattle — explode — murmur — hiss — crash — whistle — screech — bellow — grumble — utter — squall — bawl — warble — howl — jingle — dash — tinkle — clash — clatter — splash — whisper — bark — growl — snarl — clamour — whine — vociferate — buzz — ring — sing — yell — knock — crack — crackle — echo — resound — reverberate — crash — toll — talk — clap — harmonize, &c.

ADJECTIVES.

Sharp — harsh — grating — loud — soft — discordant — prolonged — sustained — continued — flat — noisy — sonorous — audible — gentle — rustling — melodious — musical — dissonant — vocal — clamorous — pleasing — liquid — harmonious — sweet — clear — loquacious — joyful — terrific — confused — querulous — sudden —

eloquent — flowing — low — piercing — silvery — honied — brazen — high — redoubled — soothing — deafening — crashing — melancholy — exciting — disagreeable — hoarse, &c.

NOUNS.

Noise — sound — tone — music — explosion — murmur — voice — thunder — bell — tune — whisper — outcry — clamour — ereption — exclamation — silence — din — hum — trumpet — cannon — musket — echo — drum — words — wind — melody — sigh — shout — song — applause — cry — crash — concert — bird — harmony — speech — loquacity — lamentation — vowel — orator — oration — tongue — brass — accent — proclamation — discord — rumour — herald — crier — splash — cascade — response, &c.

LESSON XXXII.

SPACE, TIME, QUANTITY, ETC.

Example.

ENLARGED. — 1. Since the last visit which I paid my friend, his house has been so much enlarged, that it now occupies nearly twice as much space as formerly. (primary.)

2. By a lengthened intercourse with a man of such superior talents, his mind became every day more enlarged, and he now began to take a much more comprehensive view of mankind, and to see things in altogether a new light. (secondary.)

vERBS.

Extend — widen — lengthen — measure — comprehend — enclose — include — contain — encompass — surround — circumscribe — limit — bound — comprise — protract — shorten — contract — spread — expand — amplify — increase — dilate — reach — stretch — occupy — decrease — exceed — grow — subtract — encroach — yawn — step — pass — complete — fill — lessen — engross — range — reduce — add — divide — multiply — recede — survey — embrace — separate — compare — dispose — distend — rule — exclude — erect — build — swell, &c.

NOUNS.

Space — room — place — extension — extent — distance — length — breadth — width — size — inch — foot — yard — mile — pace — circumference — circuit — boundary — measure — magnitude — geometry — minute — hour — day — month — year — century — age — line — road — way — path — street — lane — expanse — duration — horizon — ocean — lapse — tract — district — region — quarter — part — portion — time — quantity — dimension — height — plain — bulk — excess — aperture — interval, &c.

ADJECTIVES.

Spacious — roomy — extensive — distant — large — wide — narrow — confined — small — short — long — great — immense — vast — limited — bounded — immeasurable — high —

infinite — finite — near — removed — broad — open — diurnal — equal — commensurate — unlimited — boundless — remote — empty — vacant — void — endless — enormous — huge — entire — whole — complete — level — big — diminutive — full — copious — late — early — minute — tall — fleeting — uttermost — progressive — gradual — tedious — exact — precise, &c.

LESSON XXXIII.

COLD.

Example.

FREEZE.—1. During the night, the cold was so intense, that many of the schtinels were found *frozen* to death at their posts the next morning. (*primary*.)

"Chill penury repress'd their noble rage,"
 "And froze the genial current of their soul."
 (secondary.)

VERRS.

Freeze — shiver — chill — tremble — congeal — cool — blow — quake — shake — bathe — starve — pinch — expose — snow — nip — benumb — bite, &c.

ADJECTIVES.

Intense — piercing — chilly — bitter — biting — nipping — frigid — sharp — keen — cool — damp — raw — exposed — inclement — frozen — congealed — gelid — benumbed — torpid — wintry — stiff — fresh — dead — starved

— pinched — extreme in north — east — snowy — frosty — icy — cold — insensible — indifferent — reserved — severe, &c.

NOTINS.

Ice — frost — snow — wind — cold — water — frigidity — blast — air — glacier — sleet — hail — breeze — gale — storm — coolness — gust — winter — coldness — indifference — chillness — shivering — unconcern — reserve — ague — iron — apathy — insensibility — refreshment — rain — inclemency — severity — exposure — chill — torpor — rigour, &c.

LESSON XXXIV.

HEAT.

Example.

BURN.—1. The flames, which had for a time somewhat abated in violence, now burst out afresh, and continued to blaze with such fury, that the whole building was soon burnt to the ground. (primary.)

2. From that moment the purpose of his mind was fixed, and he burned with an im-

placable desire of revenge. (secondary.)

VERBS.

Burn — inflame — consume — blaze — fire heat — roast — ignite — toast — boil — incense —kindle — exasperate — enrage — crowd suffocate — melt — dissolve — evaporate — ferment — effervesce — glow — vivify — animate — hatch — scorch — scald — parch — stifle — irritate — sear — singe — simmer — flush — fume — fret — excite — chafe — storm — vex — provoke — resent — foam — expand — light — tingle — throb — blister — revive — prick — sting — fester — puncture, &c.

NOUNS.

Fire — warmth — flame — furnace — coal — combustion — heat — rage — wrath — steam — boiler — anger — passion — spirits — ardour — excitement — brand — spark — friction — summer — fervour — ferment — zeal — vehenence — animosity — conflagration — torch — fever — flush.

ADJECTIVES.

Hot — warm — heated — ardent — fiery — torrid — fervent — inflammable — combustible — fierce — brisk — angry — passionate — strong — latent — tepid — glowing — burning — intense — hearty — cordial — violent — consuming — vivid — sultry — unquenchable — zealous — arid — feverish — reeking — fretful — genial — live — impetuous — close — inflamed — flaming — excited — boiling — hasty — boisterous — raging — irascible — irritable — testy — tempestuous — wrathful — vital — furious — choleric — affectionate — vehement — vivacious — spirited, &c.

LESSON XXXV.

SEEING.

Example.

SEE. — 1. On ascending the hill, a beautiful prospect presented itself to our view; and the day was so clear, that we could see to the distance of several miles without the aid of glasses. (primary.)

2. The minister had too much penetration to be easily deceived by these designs, and saw, at a glance, through all his rival's endeavours to supplant him in the favour of his royal mistress. (secondary.)

VLRBS

See — look — behold — gaze — view — witness — scrutinize — examine — inspect — perceive — distinguish — discern — discover — observe — remark — inquire — search — seek — follow — express — contemplate — mark — note — read — peruse — investigate — explore — stare — gape — glance — glare — find — descry — survey — spy — scan — discriminate — reveal — admire — recognise — reflect — blind — light — refract — elongate — wink, &c.

NOUNS.

Spectator — overseer — looker-on — gazer — witness — examiner — inspector — discoverer — observer — inquirer — beholder — examination — inquiry — research — scrutiny — inspection — distinction — discovery — observation —

remark — search — contemplation — perusal — investigation — glance — prospect — aspect — view — landscape — review — sight — spectacle — show — glory — phantom — spectre — appearance—apparition — phenomenon — vision — exhibition — representation — eye-glass — mirror — spy — discernment — scene — microscope — scope — reflection, &c.

ADJECTIVLS.

Glossy — observant — curious — distinct — inquisitive — visible — prying — inscrutable — apparent — plain — obvious — clear — evident — manifest — conspicuous — acute — dark — bright — optical — visual — glassy — vitreous — crystalline — refracted — reflected — pellucid — microscopic — expanded — weak — strong — short-sighted — light — glazed — heavy — dull — real — steadfast — steady — fixed — intense— imaginary — beautiful — sublime — sensible — external — visible — discernible — ocular, &c.

LESSON XXXVI.

HEARING.

Example.

LISTEN.—1. Though we all *listened* with the most eager attention, we were placed so far from the preacher, that it was with the greatest difficulty we could hear a word of the sermon. (*primary*.)

2. These arguments at length prevailed upon the criminal to *listen* to the reproaches of his

upbraiding conscience, and receive the religious consolations that were offered to him. (secondary.)

VERBS.

Hear—hearken—attend—listen—audit—vibrate—undulate, &c. (for other verbs, see under SOUND.)

NOUNS.

Auditor — audience — listener — hearer — sound — car — drum — impulse — concussion — acoustics — undulation — vibration, &c. (see under sound.)

ADJECTIVES.

Attentive — deaf — acute — carcless — heedless — indifferent — auditory — vibratory distinct — quick — dull, &c. (see under SOUND.)

LESSON XXXVII.

TASTING.

Example.

BITTER.—1. Among the fruits we met with in this country, was a sort of bitter apple, very disagreeable to the taste. (primary.)

2. He is now no longer the gay thoughtless creature of former years; his face is furrowed, his look haggard and anxious, and his heart a prey to the *bitterest* anguish. (secondary.)

VERBS.

Taste — savour — relish — suck — sup — sip — eat — drink — swallow — cloy — feed — dine — bake — boil — roast — fry — stew —

enjoy — gratify — satisfy — glut — gorge — revel — devour — starve — fast — abstain — want — fare — live — stimulate — excite — enliven — gormandize — overfill — load — indulge — exceed — desire — crave — cook — imbibe — revive — refresh — loathe — scason — broil — famish — entertain — crunch — masticate — chew — banquet — feast — pall — satiate, &c.

NOTING.

Quince—vinegar — sugar — aloes — flavour — relish — palate — tongue — appetite — hunger — thirst — wine — water — beverage — food — meat — fish — game — fruit — bread — viands — sauce — liquor — provisions — fodder — forage — nourishment — corn — victuals — meal — repast — draught — refreshment — surfeit — famine — starvation — guest — voracity — avidity — keenness — abstinence — seasoning, &c.

ADJECTIVES.

Bitter—insipid — sour — acrid — sharp — cloying—luscious—crude—loathsome—sweet — nauseous — delicious — salt — pungent — flat — palatable — nice — good — stimulant — delicate — flavoured — famished — satisfied — hungry — voracious — cager — sumptuous — choice — gluttonous — ravenous — intemperate — excessive — craving — greedy — luxurious — keen — sharp — acid — ripe — farinaceous — dainty — magnificent — pleasing — wholesome — salubrious — nutritious, &c.

LESSON XXXVIII.

SMELLING.

Sweetness.—1. The rose has ever held a distinguished rank among flowers, as much on account of its *sweetness* of scent, as for its delicate colour. (*primary*.)

2. Her attractive manners and sweetness of disposition made her a universal favourite. (se-

condary.)

VERBS.

Smell — scent — snuff — sniff — sneeze — fumigate — perfume, &c.

ADJECTIVES.

Grateful — aromatic — pleasant — sweet — fragrant — stifling — faint — odoriferous — disagreeable — unpleasant — agreeable — fetid — offensive — putrid — olfactory — odorous — delicious — volatile — scented — foul — impregnated, &c.

NOUNS

Flower — smell — odour — musk — rose — scent — carnation — blossom — putrefaction — nose — effluvium — fragrance — exhalation — pink — perfume — jasmine — sweetness — miasma — camphor, &c.

LESSON XXXIX.

TOUCHING.

FEEL.—1. The doctor felt his pulse, and immediately pronounced him in a high fever. (primary.)

2. I felt so deeply for his misfortunes, that I resolved to employ every means to extricate him from his difficulties. (secondary.)

VERBS

Touch — feel — handle — rub — strike — put — lay — place — carry — lift — fetch — bear — stroke — scratch — press — indent — finger — beat — meddle — pat — yield — impress — seal — tingle — tickle — itch — smart — cut — adhere — sting — pull — hammer — knock — dab — slap — sprinkle — hurt — wound — divide — penetrate — knead — split — cleave — tread — stamp — print — imprint — hit, &c.

NOUNS.

Hand—finger—pathos—stroke—pressure—roughness—smoothness—solidity—firmness—stone—wood—iron—hardness—softness—impression—seal—contact—clay—wax—body—touch—feeling—sensation—pulse—pulsation—down—wool—nettle—surface—sensibility—friction—skin—nerve—coating—hide—superficies—substance—matter—earth—arm—mouth—member—adhesion—wet—sensitiveness—moisture—smart—pliability—elasticity—water, &c.

ADJECTIVES.

Rough — smooth — hard — soft — pointed — jagged — rugged — stiff — pliable — warm cold — brittle — even — flat — solid — firm pliant — pathetic — uneven — yielding — prickly — hot — warm — sharp — blunt — tingling — tickling—itching —smarting—fluid —glutinous — sticky — elastic — tough — brittle — oily — greasy — adhesive —dry — wet — moist — damp — sensitive — delicate — palpable — tangible — malleable — ductile — superficial — bodily — corporeal — substantial — material — close — compact.

LESSON XL.

Words used in two Senses.

Examples.

LAUNCII.—1. Last summer, one of the most beautiful vessels ever built in England was launched at Woolwich in the presence of thousands of spectators. (primary.)

2. He had not sufficient strength of mind to bear this sudden increase of fortune; and immediately launching into every description of extravagance, he was in a very short time reduced to his former state of indigence. (secondary.)

VERBS.

Reflect — lash — load — illuminate — darken — prop — bolster — undermine — devour — digest — handle — tread — sift — winnow — harrow — plough — dig — sow — reap — hedge — inflame — sprinkle — spout — leap — dabble — grapple — run — stand — hold — disperse — incline — cultivate — inflict — introduce — extricate — entangle — accumulate — connect, — construct — deviate — distort — elevate — agitate — indicate — exercise — insert — invade

- apprehend - transport - satisfy - embrace - insinuate.

NOUNS.

Heart — bile — stomach — spleen — marrow — hand — handle — root — stock — shoot — gun — seed — graft — kernel — fruit — head — heat — hinge — cloak — jewel — inch — influx — influsion — connection — gravity — import — circle — sphere — mask — field — face — front — pursuit — spring — road — impediment — obstacle — kindred — labyrinth — tongue — limit — mark — impression — print — rule — position — slip — staff — stamp — stain — blot.

ADJECTIVES.

Sweet — sour — bitter — acrid — crude — sharp — blunt — raw — heavy — light — dull — quick — slow — shining — empty — full — rich — poor — hard — heavy — high — hot — lofty — low — broad — deep — pointed — insipid — copious — plain — fair — solid — ripe — simple — soft — new — extensive — dry — open — small — great — nice — bad — little — strong — fine — first — thick — black — last — full — curious — chief, &c.

LESSON XLI.

Words which have lost their original Sense.*

Reduce — inculcate — incur — infer — infringe — instil — ponder — admire — involve

^{*} For the original signification of these words, see Appendix, No. IV.

— perplex — expatiate — afflict — anticipate — apprehend — attend — understand — compensate — contend — tend, &c. — differ — divert — emanate — extort — exasperate — exult — impose — invest — affront — amuse — asperse — confuse — condude — compel — concur — detect — distinguish — hesitate — stimulate — investigate — fluctuate — obviate — provide — provoke — evade — occur — extirpate — eradicate — express — define — amalgamate — elapse, &c.

NOUNS.

Melancholy—ambition—acumen—cadence—capacity—case—detraction—incentive—instinct—obligation—extasy—rapture—tribulation—incoherence—alliance—aversion—repugnance—motive—circumstance—influence—dejection—dependance—deponent—idea—inherence—infraction—instant—maturity—impediment—origin—precision—pretension—principle—maxim—eminence—preference—profusion—extravagance—compunction—contrition—remorse—stigma—pontiff—poltroon—expression—result—recollection—conclusion, &c.

ADJECTIVES.

Ambiguous — exorbitant — immaculate — cursory — desultory — constant — extravagant — trivial — peculiar — acute — polite — preli-

minary — previous — prone — sincere—immediate — principal — vague — correct — distinct — obvious — contingent — precise — humble—congruous — incidental — independent — tormenting — important — dexterous — profound — inconsistent — excellent, &c.

CHAPTER IV.

FABLES.

WHEN the pupil has had some practice in tracing analogies and employing abstract words in his own sentences, the knowledge he has thus acquired will have sufficiently prepared him to make some attempt at connected composition. The iudicious choice of a subject is here of the highest importance, and should not be determined without much consideration; hence the question will arise, which form of composition will be best suited to the powers of the pupil, and will present him with fewest difficulties? Young persons differ so widely in capacity, that it is scarcely possible to lay down a rule in a case which must greatly depend upon circumstances; therefore, I think it advisable, in general, first to try them with a variety of subjects, solely for the purpose of testing their strength and disposition for composing. Among those I would suggest with this view are : - a familiar fable of Æsop, to be written from recollection; a short account of the principal events in the reign of any English monarch; or, a simple narrative of some domestic occurrence. brief sketch of the life of one of the British poets, or a striking event in ancient or modern

history, may also furnish a useful subject for early composition. These, it must be remembered, are merely suggestions, and the choice of a subject must after all be left to the discretion of the teacher, who ought to be the best judge of the learner's abilities. But here I again strongly caution him against discouraging the beginner by imposing on him a task beyond his powers; and to avoid the possibility of such an objection, I recommend that, at first, in all cases the mode of treating the subject in question be discussed between the teacher and the pupil. In these exercises, the pupil need not confine himself to the mere relation of facts, but may be required to intersperse throughout his writing such reflections as may naturally arise from the nature of the subject before him. Such an exaction will scarcely be deemed unreasonable by those who have acquired the command of expression which cannot fail to result from a study of the former chapters of this work; and the habit which this exercise will give them, of expressing their opinions, will increase their confidence in their own powers, and gradually introduce them to the more difficult task of arguing upon abstract questions, and treating moral subjects with correctness. The practice, however, of tracing analogies, and of comparing together words and phrases of a similar signification, should not be altogether discontinued; in addition to which, it may be useful to introduce the learner to another exercise, viz. that of classifying the words of which his own composition consists. This may be done in the following manner: —When the pupil has finished his composition, let him take about fifteen or twenty lines of it, and extract from them all the nouns he has made use of, copying them down arranged under the heads of Natural Objects; Artificial Objects; and Abstract Ideas. The verbs may in the same manner be classed as Bodily Actions, and Mental Actions. Other classes may be formed of Qualifying words, Relatives, Connectives, &c. This exercise will give a fresh impulse to the thought of the student, open to him a new field for reflection, and lead him to an increased accuracy of expression, and a more intimate acquaintance with the nature and use of his language.

The following model will, perhaps, more clearly show the intention of the above explanation.

FABLE.

The Fox and the Grapes.

One sultry day in the month of September, a fox, passing through a vineyard, perceived some delicious-looking grapes nailed up to a trellis. They were far beyond his reach; but, as he was very thirsty, and the fruit looked exceedingly tempting, he determined not to pass them by, without at least making an attempt to possess them. He therefore leaped up at them several times with all his might, and put every stratagem in practice to obtain possession of them, but in vain. At length, suddenly turning away, and pursuing his path: "Pshaw!"

said he, "after all, I dare say they are sour things, and not worth having; I wonder that I gave myself so much trouble about them."

Moral. — Envy but too often inclines us to condemn as worthless those qualities which we

have not sufficient talents to acquire.

In pursuing the mode of classification above mentioned, we shall collect all the substantives in the above fable, and arrange them under the three heads of, 1. Natural objects; 2. Artificial objects; and 3. Abstract ideas:

1. Natural objects. — Fox — grapes — fruit — things.

2. Artificial objects. - Vineyard - trellis -

path.

3. Abstract ideas.—Day—month—September—reach—attempt—times—might—stratagem—practice—possession—length—trouble—envy—qualities—talents.

The verbs may, in like manner, be arranged under the heads of, '1st, Bodily actions, and, 2dly, Mental actions, thus:

4. Bodily actions. — Passing — perceived — looked — pass — leaped — put — turning — pursuing — said — say — gave.

5. Mental actions. — Determined — making — possess — obtain — dare — wonder — inclines

— condemn — have — acquire.

6. Qualifying words. — One — sultry — delicious-looking — nailed — far — beyond — very — thirsty — exceedingly — tempting — not — therefore — several — all—every — vain

- suddenly away sour worth so much too often worthless not sufficient least an.
- 7. Relatives. Some they his he the them I myself us those which we.
- 8. Connectives. In of through up to but as was and to by at up at with and in to of but in at and after are and that about but to as to.

It may be not improper here to offer some explanation of the principles on which this classification is founded.

- 1. The first class contains the names of all objects whatsoever which exist in a natural state. The earth and all its productions; beasts, birds, fishes, &c., belong to this class. Such objects, however, as present any idea of human invention or contrivance, as plantation, grass-plot, canal, &c., must be included in the second class.
- 2. The second class contains the names of all those objects which are the result of the ingenuity or the art of man: hence most of those objects which meet our view in doors—articles of furniture, the parts of a house, those things which administer to the convenience of domestic life, &c., will be ranged under this head.
- 3. All moral qualities and abstract notions form the third division: in this class will be found those nouns expressing the passions, emotions, and affections of the heart; the faculties

of the mind; notions of time, space, internal

perception, &c.

4. Verbs expressive of bodily action, all the varieties of visible motion in external nature, and the actions performed by the senses, make up the fourth class.

5. The fifth class consists of verbs denoting

intellectual action and internal feeling.

6. All qualifying words, whether numbers, adjectives, adverbs, or participles, belong to the sixth class.

7. Pronouns of every kind, whether personal, relative, possessive, demonstrative, or indefinite, are classed as relative words, and make up the seventh division.

8. The eighth class consists of the verb "to be," (in all its persons and tenses,) prepositions, and conjunctions; these being the words used, in all languages, to connect persons, things, actions, and qualities.

This classification will be found to comprise every word in the language. It must, however, be observed, that since, as before explained, many words are used in two senses, the pupil is expected to classify such words always according to the meaning in which they are used in his composition.

There are many reasons why the Fable should be selected as the best model for the first attempts of the pupil. Its construction requires the employment of both sorts of language, descriptive and abstract; it contains a useful lesson; and it may be generally comprised in a few sentences. Notwithstanding these

advantages, it not unfrequently presents insuperable obstacles to the learner, even when required to be written from recollection. I am inclined to think that these obstacles will be found to arise, in almost all cases, from a want of knowing how to determine the order of the required narrative. The ideas contained in the fable may be few and simple, and yet, from inexperience in the arrangement of his subject, the mind of the pupil sometimes becomes so bewildered, that he loses all power of expression. With the view of obviating this difficulty, I shall here examine the order in which the ideas are laid down in the fable above quoted, of the "Fox and the Grapes."

In relating a simple fact, the order of time should be followed; that is, all the circumstances to be mentioned in the narration should be expressed in succession, according to the time at which they occur. Thus, the writer commences by expressing the time at which the fact occurred.—"One sultry day, in the month of September." The heat of the day and time of the year present a lively picture to the mind of the reader, and prepare him for the fact which is to follow:

"A fox, passing through a vineyard, perceived some delicious-looking grapes nailed up to a trellis."

We are now introduced to the actor in the narrative; and are properly informed of the place through which he was passing previously to being told that "he perceived," since, in the natural order of time, he must have been in the vineyard before he could have "perceived."

"Some delicious-looking grapes." According to the established usage of order in the English language, the object, "grapes," comes after the verb, but is preceded by its qualification, "delicious-looking."

"Nailed up to a trellis:" A circumstance respecting the grapes. This expression might, perhaps, have been placed before the "grapes;" but then it would have removed the verb, "per-

ceived," too far from its object, "grapes.'

"They were far beyond his reach." This sentence gives us a more definite idea of the distance of the grapes from the ground, and is a necessary preliminary to the succeeding sentence.

"As he was very thirsty, and the fruit looked exceedingly tempting." Two circumstances are here mentioned previous to the expression, "he determined." These may be considered as two causes of his determination, and are consequently placed with propriety before the action to which they give rise.

"He determined." The action naturally

following the causes above mentioned.

"Not to pass them by." The object of his determination, and consequently following the verb.

"Without at least making an attempt to possess them." A clause qualifying the object, and coming after it.

"He therefore leaped." A bodily action; the result of his determination. The action of

the mind always precedes that of the body. He could not have "leaped" before determining to leap.

"Several times with all his might." Two circumstances qualifying the action, "leaped,"

and placed after it.

"And put every stratagem in practice to obtain possession of them." The cause again before the effect. What he desired was "to obtain possession;" and in order to obtain possession, "he put every stratagem in practice."

"But in vain." Properly placed after the

action just expressed.

"At length, suddenly turning away, and pursuing his path." Circumstances of time and action, mentioned in the proper order of time before the speech with which the fable closes.

"'Pshaw!' said he, 'after all,'" &c. The order of time again followed. The fox is represented as expressing himself in this way after turning away, &c.

It is an excellent practice, at this period of his advancement, to require of the pupil to examine a piece of composition according to the plan just shown, and explain the manner in which the ideas are connected. The order of time is usually followed in historical and narrative composition, to which species of writing it is expedient that the pupil's attention should be directed in his first attempts. For this purpose, a fable, or a short paragraph from English history, may be submitted to his in-

spection for explanation, according to the manner above shown.

In pursuit of the above plan, I shall here lay down some sketches of those fables of Æsop * with which most young persons are familiar, leaving them to be filled up by the student, and calling his attention more particularly to the connective parts of his composition.

The moral is to be expressed more diffusely.

FABLES.

1. The Wolf and the Lamb.

Day — wolf — lamb — time — quench — stream — wolf — higher — lamb — lower — wolf — quarrelsome — accuse — disturbing — lamb — frightened — excuse — wolf — said — "spoke ill — six months" — lamb — not born — wolf — passion — approached — tore — pieces. Moral. Innocence — victim — cruelty — power

2. The Frogs desiring a King.

Frogs — easy — life — lakes — assembled — petitioned — Jupiter — king — smiled — log — splash — frightened — (circumstances) — ventured — (circumstances) — leaped — not contented — another — stork — devour — Mercury — in behalf — replied — own choice — suffer — folly.

 $^{^{\}bullet}$ These fables may be all found in Croxall's edition of Æsop.

Moral. Bear — present — evil — change — worse.

3. The Dog and the Shadow.

Dog — rivulet — flesh — mouth — shadow — mirror — stream — believing — another — other flesh — caught — far from — gaining — greediness — dropped — piece — sank — bottom — lost.

Moral. Avidity — punished.

4. The Wolf and the Cranc.

Wolf — prey — bone — throat — pain — howled — demand — succour — animal — reward — operate — success — crane — recompense — oath — ventured — neck — rapacious throat — (circumstance) — extracted — asked — reward — wolf — disdainfully — unconscionable — head — safe — damage — contented.

Moral. Examine — character — benefit.

5. The Stag admiring his Horns.

Stag — clear — saw — water (circumstance)
— stood — contemplating — shape — &c. —
beautiful — horns! — graceful! — agreeable! —
other parts — proportion — perfect — legs —
ashamed — slender — unsightly — reflections —
alarmed — huntsman — hounds — flies — consternation — bounds — plain — distance — copse
— entangled — horns — held — seized — death

— words — unhappy! — too late — pride ruin — blamed — saved.

Moral. Judge — not — appearance.

6. The Fox and the Crow.

A crow — cheese — flew — tree — eat — a fox — came — sat — compliment — beauty — "feathers — delicate — shape — body — fine voice — complexion — incomparable — no bird -vie."-crow-pleased-determined-specimen — voice — sing — instant — dropped cheese — mouth — fox — snapped — laughing - credulity.

Moral. Beware — flattery — examine motives.

7. The ambitious Frog.

Ox — meadow — foot — frogs — trod death — mother — happened — huge — saw lives — what? — big — old frog — swelling degree-"larger-straining-more-indeed - burst" - big - strove - burst. Moral. Be contented - condition.

8. The Fox and the Stork.

Fox — stork — divert — expense — soup wide — lap — ease — stork — point — bill famished — few days — returned — invited fox - nothing - table - meat - jar - neck deep - narrow - stork - long bill - satisfy - fox — hungry — lick • Reynard — vexed — took leave — owned — deserved — punished — example.

Moral. Do — as — done by.

9. The Frogs and the fighting Bulls.

Frogs — peeping — lake — bulls fighting — meadow — calling — look — dreadful — what — happen — bulls' quarrels — not affect — different — contention — mastery — "true — different — one — conquer — the vanquished — refuge — marshes — tread down — suffer."

Moral. Quarrels — great — poor — suffer.

10. The Fox and the Goat.

Fox — well — (circumstance) — goat — came — drink — water — good? — sweet — too much — goat — leaps — fox — horns — out — goat — shift.

Moral. Consider — character — advisers.

11. The Countryman and the Snake.

Villager — winter — snake — hedge — cold — compassion — creature — home — hearth — fire — lain — revived — erect — fly — children — hissing — countryman — outery — perceiving — matter — mattock — dispatched — reproaching — words — "wretch — save — life — die — deserve."

Moral. Ingratitude — evil — good.

12. The Lion and the Mouse.

Lion — faint — weary — lain — repose — boughs — oak — sleeping — mice — back — wakened — starting — paw — kill — suppliant — mercy — stain — character — blood — insignificant — lion — (circumstance) — released — prisoner — (circumstances) — full — nets — disengage — roar — mouse — voice — hastened — no fear — friend — work — teeth — gnaw — fastenings — brute — liberty.

Moral. Generosity — reward.

13. The Horse and the Stag.

Stag — horns — drove — horse — pasture — together — horse — man — bridle — saddle — defeated — enemy — thanks — dismissed — answer — useful — good — keep.

Moral. Not — fearing poverty—give up—liberty.

14. The Country Mouse and the Town Mouse.

Honest — country mouse — entertained — hole — town mouse — playfellows — acquaint-ances — master — obliged — honours — stranger — guest — dish — peas — bacon — oatmeal — cheese — apple — manners — not eat — lest — stranger — not sufficient — (circumstance) — town — "bear — live — melancholy — woods — mountains — rivulets — world — birds — court — desert?—change — better — come — lose — time" — arguments — country — town — night — set out — town — evening — midnight — entry — mansion — entertainment — remains — Persian carpet — hangings — courtier — enjoyed

— suddenly — start — confusion — fright — mastiff — quiet — comfort.

Moral. Moderate — comfort — preferable — affluence.

15. The Lark and her Young ones.

Lark — young — corn — ripe — fear — reapers — fledged — remove — fly — look — food — change — notice — absence — tell — hack — gone — owner — son — to-morrow — friends — neighbours — help — reap — lark — home — young — told — happened — mother — easy — friends — not — next — departed — same — orders — owner — expected — no one — friends — no dependence — relations — carly — help — young — reported — mother — no fear — tell — next — farmer — son — sickles — reap — ourselves — (circumstance) — "time — gone — master" — removed — brood.

Manual — Act — self — independent

Moral. Act — self — independent.

16. The Wind and the Sun.

Dispute—north-wind—sun—power—determined—strength—traveller—cloak—wind—blast—shower—instead—draw—body—sun—cloud—darted—head—faint—man—heat—endure—protection—grove.

Moral. Persuasion—gentle—boisterous—

harsh.

17. The Ass in the Lion's Shin.

Ass — skin — lion — clothed — woods terrified — owner — frighten — cars — betray — cudgel — skin — ass.

Moral. Affectation - ridicule.

18. Hercules and the Waggoner.

Carter — mud — stuck — clay — horses — pray — Hercules — assist — god — cloud — idle — whip — shoulder — wheel — way — assistance.

Moral. Heaven - assist - industry.

19. The Man and his Goose.

Man — goose — golden — day — not contented — increased — abated — kill — cut up — treasure — fancied — sorrow — disappointment — nothing.

Moral. Punishment - covetous.

20. The Angler and the little Fish.

Man — river — perch — taking — hook — going — basket — mouth — implore — throw — man — reason — favour — fish — young — worth — hence — larger — man — "fools — certainty — uncertainty."

Moral. Secure - opportunity.

21. The Ass and the Lion hunting.

Lion — fancy — hunt — ass — useful — instructions — hide — thicket — bray — frightful — contrive — thus — rouse — beasts — hearing — stand — outlets — take — escaping — done — stratagem—effect — ass — hideously — beasts — scamper — lion — posted — seized — devoured — pleased — satisfied — ass — desist — enough — long-eared — ambush—approach—confidence

—performance—so well—nature — temper — myself.

Mortal. Boasters - cowards.

22. The sensible Ass.

Old man — ass — meadow — enemy — ass — fly — speed — ass — whether two? — man — no fear — not stir — no concern — master — panniers.

Moral. Revolution - change - masters.

23. The Goat and the Lion.

Lion — goat — rock — not reach — pleasure — skip — precipice — venture — neck — wonder — down — plains — grass — herbs — goat — opinion — hungry — designing — trust — person.

Moral. Beware — interest — counsellors.

24. The Cat and the Mice.

House — mice — cat — catch — eat — mice — numbers — thin — consulted — preservation — jaws — cat — resolution — below — shelf — cat — (circumstance) — hungry — prey — recourse — hung — peg — wall — pretended — dead — entice — posture — mouse — cunning — edge — "friend — there? — not trust — straw."

Moral. Prudence — trusts — deceived.

25. The one-eyed Doe.

Doe — eye — graze — sea — secure — harm blind — water — apprehension — other — country — fed — vigilance — thought — security — sly — companions — poaching — purpose — boat — sea — shot — doe — dying — "fate — wound — side — safe — danger."

Moral. Never — too — secure.

26. The Hare and the Sparrow.

Hare — eagle — shricked — sparrow — tree — refrain — wit — said — "sit — killed? — up — run — try — swift — escape" — continuing — raillery — hawk — snapped — cries — devour — hare — expiring — comfort — accident — moments — sparrow — "insulted — security — show — bear — befallen."

Moral. Not - insult - unfortunate.

27. The Dog and the Thief.

Thief — rob — night — disturbed — dog — barking — stop — bread — refused — before — suspected — now — bribe — opinion — entrusted — house — cease — rogue — lurking.

Moral. Suspect — protestations, &c.

28. The Ass and the little Dog.

Ass — favourite — dog — master — caressed — fed — meal — reason — skipping — frisking — lap — resolved — same — procure — favours — accordingly — home — fields — gardens — seated — chair — gambol — awkward — master — laugh — earnest — rough — pawed — affectionate — jump — lap — terrified — weight — cry — servant — stick — convinced — every one — not — favourite.

Moral. Not - attempt - unsuited.

29. The Dog in the Manger.

Dog — manger — hay — ox — hungry eat — cur — suffer — touch — ox — " curse wretch — not — allow — others."

Moral. Envy — miserable — selves others.

30. The Father and his Sons.

Husbandman — death — desirous — sons same course — himself — expedient — called spoke — effect — patrimony — bequeath — farm _ possession — treasure — foot — surface sons — conclude — money — father's death diligence — dug — farm — no treasure — earth — dug — crop — sowed — wealth.

Moral. Industry — wealth.

31. The Old Man and his Sons.

Old man—sons—quarrelling—authority reconcile — no purpose — expedient — called bundle — sticks — one by one — break — in vain — impossible — bundle — untied — single - each - addressed - "sons - unity - you conjoined - friendship - no harm - bonds dissolved — fall — injured — designing."

Moral. Party — weak — unity — strong.

32. The Thief and the Boy.

Boy — weeping — well — thief — why boy — tankard — well — thief — clothes—down — groped — long — up — clothes — boy away.

Moral. Wicked -- punished -- wicked.

33. Mercury and the Woodman.

Man — river — hatchet — drop — sank — distress — implement — lamented — Mercury — cause — dived — golden — no — second — silver — no — third — real — joy — gratitude — pleased — two — reward — companions — account — one — river — hatchet — bank — lamenting — Mercury — dive — golden — transported — yes — snatch — God — impudence — own.

Moral. Honesty -- policy.

34. The Boy and his Mother.

Boy — school — book — mother — not correct — commended — apple — time — man — robberies—taken—gaol — condemned — execution — conducting — scaffold — crowd—mother — sobbing — fate — observing — sheriff — favour — word — mother — permission — felon — whispering — bit— ear — surprise — not — impious — increase — violence — " people — mistake — wicked — deserves — chastised — child — caressing — ignominious."

Moral. Impressions — education.

35. The Ant and the Grasshopper.

Winter — ants — corn — heaps — grasshopper — summer — starve — approach — humbly — relieve — grain — asked — passed — summer — store — alas! — passed — drinking — dancing — ant — laughing — drink — summer — starve — winter.

Moral. Provide - future.

36. The Shepherd's Boy and the Wolf.

Boy - sheep — common — sport — wolf! drew — husbandmen — field — work — deluded — resolved — disregard — earnest — cried no attention — sheep.

Moral. Detect - falsehood - never - belief.

37. The Swallow and other Birds.

Farmer — sowing — flax — swallow — desired — birds — pick — destroy — pernicious — thread — nets — ruin — innocent — disregarded — flax — above ground — reminded — danger — pluck — bud — neglected — high — stalk — again — attack — late — ridiculed — silly — swallow — remonstrance — no avail — quiet — society — woods — houses — leaving — birds — cities — men.

Moral. Good advice — unheeded — abandon — fate.

38. The Trumpeter taken Prisoner.

Trumpeter — prisoner — battle — quarter — innocence — arms — trumpet — sound — command — "resolved — spare — you — not fight — instrument — animosity — occasion — war."

Moral. Tongue — dangerous.

39. The Hare and the Tortoise.

Hare — tortoise — slowness — boasted — speed — "match — tortoise — run — five pounds — fox — umpire" agreed — started — hare

— swift — outran — jest — tired — sleep — easy — overtake — tortoise — slow — continued — hare — security — overslept — tortoise — won.

Moral. Industry — preferable — brilliant.

40. The Man and the Weasel.

Man — weasel — kill — creature — escape — pitiful — "kill — clear—home—mice"— "why — love — me — pardon — obliged — mischief — eating — gnawing" — took — strangled.

Moral. Private — interest — public — good.

Fables to be written from Recollection.

- 1. The Vain Jackdaw.
- 2. The Lion and other Beasts.
- 3. The Eagle and the Fox.
- 4. The Boar and the Ass.
- 5. The Kite and the Pigeons.
- 6. The Stag in the Ox-stall.
- 7. The Dog and the Wolf.
- 8. The Lamb brought up by a Goat.
- 9. The Peacock's Complaint.
- 10. The Viper and the File.
- 11. The Ant and the Fly.
- 12. The Old Hound.
- 13. The Sick Kite.
- 14. The Hares and the Frogs.
- 15. The Tortoise and the Eagle.
- 16. The Frog and the Fox.
- 17. The Mischievous Dog.
 - 18. Jupiter and the Camel.

- 19. The Bear and the Travellers.
- 20. The Bald Knight.
- 21. The Peacock and the Crane.
- 22. The Oak and the Reed.
- 23. The Fox and the Tiger.
- 24. The Lion and the Four Bulls.
- 25. The Crow and the Pitcher.
- 26. The Forester and the Lion.
- 27. The Man and his Goose.
- 28. The Leopard and the Fox.
- 29. The Cat and the Fox.
- 30. The Hawk and the Nightingale.
- 31. The Old Man and Death.
- 32. The Stag and the Fawn.
- 33. The Boasting Traveller.
- 34. The Fox and the Mask.
- 35. The Eagle, the Cat, and the Sow.36. The Fir-tree and the Bramble.
- 37. The Bull and the Goat.
- 38. The Fowler and the Blackbird.
- 39. The Fox and the Countryman.
- 40. The Owl and the Grasshopper.41. The Jack-daw and the Pigeons.
- 42. The Two Crabs.
- 43. The Judicious Lion.
- 44. Jupiter and the Ass.
- 45. The Bear and the Bechives.
- 46. The Cock and the Fox.
- 47. The Hawk and the Farmer.

N.B. - These Fables are all to be found in Dr. Croxall's translation of Æsop.

CHAPTER V.

HISTORICAL AND BIOGRAPHICAL SUBJECTS.

In drawing up the following list of subjects for composition, I have held in view two principal objects; 1st, to furnish the young mind with that sort of subject which should be best suited to its capacity, and 2nd, to impart that sort of information which should excite the liveliest interest in the student. In furtherance of these intentions, I have selected the historical style for his next exercise, not only because it is generally simple and easily imitated, but also because it may be made the medium of conveying to his mind that branch of knowledge, the possession of which is of the greatest consequence to every English student; and as an acquaintance with whatever is immediately connected with our own country ought to take precedence of every other knowledge, I have chosen England as a grand subject for the pupil's composition, my intention in this chapter being to present it to his view in every variety of aspect. It may be considered under the various heads of History, Poetry, Philosophy, Military and Naval Tactics, the Fine Arts, Law, Politics, &c. The historical portion of the subject will consist of short sketches of those reigns of English monarchs which afford a peculiar

interest, viz.: - Alfred, Canute, William I., Richard I., John, Henry IV. V. VII. VIII. Mary, Elizabeth, Charles I., James II., William III. and Anne. The military history will contain sketches of the lives of our most eminent military commanders. — Marlborough. Wolfe, Moore, and Abercromby; and the naval history will be comprised in biographical notices of Drake, Hawkins, Frobisher, Howe, and Nelson. The poetical portion will comprise accounts of the lives of Shakspeare, Milton, Dryden. Pope, Addison, Otway, Johnson, Thomson, and The lives of historians will form Goldsmith. another division, comprising the biographies of Gibbon, Robertson, Hume, and Smollett. Under the head of Fine Arts, will be introduced the lives of Hogarth, Reynolds, Fuseli, Barry, and Sir Thomas Lawrence. The legal and political history will be treated of in short accounts of our most celebrated lawyers and statesmen, viz. Coke, Hale, Blackstone, Pitt, Fox, and Burke. The history of science will be comprised in notices of the lives of Newton, Boyle, and Herschel; and the names of Bacon, Locke, Reid, and Stewart will furnish materials for the discussion of the philosophical division of the subject. These sketches will be arranged chronologically, so as to present a view of the gradual development and improvement of the national intellect and constitution in every branch; and the practice of working out the subjects proposed, in the form of exercises, will not only be improving to composition, but, at the same time, will impart a much more lasting information in

every branch of knowledge connected with English history, than could be gained by a mere cursory perusal.

Sovereigns.

Alfred. 871-901.

Born 849 at Wantage in Berkshire—son of Ethelwolf; his mother was Osburgh, daughter of Oslac, butler to Ethelwolf, but well descended.

His early education neglected—his natural thirst for knowledge—skilled in bodily exercises.

His enemies the Danes: i. e. the Scandinavians. (Sweden, Denmark, and Norway.) Commander of his brother's armies—recommends a navy.

Losses, and reverses of fortune—anecdote of the burnt cakes—defeat of the Danes—baptism of Guthrum—Alfred's power increases.

Peace during the last two years of his reign—dies 901. His character—learning—piety—habits—political institutions—patronage of learned men—division of England into counties, hundreds, tithings, &c. (See Penny Encyclopædia and Goldsmith's History.)

Canute. 1017 - 1036.

A Dane, son of Sweyn, ascends the throne 1017—reigns about twenty years—dispossesses the Anglo-Saxon kings of their power—died at Shaftesbury—buried at Winchester—anecdote of the rebuke to his courtiers.

Left three sons, of no talents or virtues.

The Saxons shake off the Danish yoke in 1041—Edward the Confessor. (See Goldsmith.)

William I. 1066-1087.

Whose son?—his title to the English throne—his rival—the invasion of England—the number of William's army—where he landed.

Harold's title to the crown — proposal made by William to Harold the night before the battle.

The battle and its circumstances — death of Harold, and consequent victory to William — 14th October, 1066. Extinction of the Saxon rule—submission of the clergy.

Coronation — oath — return to Normandy —

Effects of his absence.

Conspiracy of the English — return of William, and treatment of the rebels and English clergy.

Destined to vexation and trouble — his chil-

dren - anecdote of their quarrels.

Insurrection in Normandy—conduct of the queen, daughter of Baldwin, Earl of Flanders—rebellion quelled by an English army.

Death of Queen Matilda - insurrection in

Maine aided by the King of France.

Invasion of France by William — accident which caused the death of the king in 1087. (See Goldsmith.)

Richard I. 1189-1199.

The third son of Henry II.—succeeded in 1189—his surname—sets out on the crusade

— plains of Vevelay — 100,000. Philip — Messina — marries Berengaria, daughter of Sancho V. of Navarre — mutual distrust between Richard and Philip.

Philip quits Palestine — Ascalon — Saladin — victory — Jerusalem — forces diminished and

emaciated — truce — conditions.

Returning home—shipwrecked at Aquileia—arrested in Germany — imprisoned — Leopold — Austria — lost to his English subjects — anecdote of Blondel.

Ransom agreed upon.

Joy of the English — behaviour of John in his absence — generosity of Richard.

Cause of Richard's death—relate anecdote—conduct of Richard in his last hours—reigned ten years—no children.

Remarks on his character, and the times. (See Goldsmith.)

John. 1199-1216.

Arthur, son of Geoffrey, the rightful heir — put to death by command of his uncle—election of archbishops — the king quarrels with the pope (Innocent III.) — interdict — state of the country.

The situation of the king - fears and jea-

lousies — apprehended invasion of France.

Raises forces — marches to Dover — reconciled to the pope — extraordinary oath taken by John.

Confederacy of the barons — they march against the king — their demands — refused — their success.

John's offer — refused — a conference appointed.

Runhymede — debates — barons and king — Magna Charta, 19th June, 1215 — privileges granted by this charter.

Base conduct of the king — a fresh civil war — the barons call in the assistance of France.

John's preparations — march — inundation — his losses — difficulty of escape — grief — death — children.

Remarks on his character — the English constitution. (See Goldsmith.)

Henry IV. 1399-1413.

Son of John of Gaunt — banished by Richard II. — the king confiscates his estates on the death of his father — Henry returns to claim his inheritance — deposes his cousin.

The vexations and troubles he meets with in

his government.

Conspiracy of the Earl of Northumberland — relate the particulars — battle of Shrewsbury — death of Hotspur — victory of Henry.

The Earl of Northumberland pressed hard—implores the king's mercy—pardoned.

All troubles appeased — grants privileges to the House of Commons — irregularities of the young Prince of Wales — anecdote of Sir W. Gascoigne.

Decline and death of Henry. (See Gold-

smith.)

Henry V. 1413-1422.

First measures of the young king—promotion of Sir W. Gascoigne.

Wickliffe - Sir John Oldcastle.

War with France — Harfleur — obstacles — intercepted in his retreat — battle of Agincourt — commanders on each side.

Circumstances of the battle — victory of the English — orders for massacre countermanded.

The state of the French King — Henry elected heir to the crown of France — marries the Princess Catherine.

Resides at Paris — his reception.

Suddenly seized with an illness — dies, aged thirty-four. (See Goldsmith.)

Henry VII. 1485-1509.

The first prince of the line of Tudor — marriage of Henry from political views — his avarice.

A general pardon — rebellious spirit of the times.

Imposture of Simnel —his age and talents—

appears first in Ireland.

Lands in Lancashire — marches to York — not joined by the people — battle of Stoke in Nottingham — rebels headed by Lord Leicester — killed in the battle.

Simnel taken — pardoned — his degradation.

Fresh insurrection in Yorkshire—taxes resisted—Earl of Surrey quells the insurrection. Intrigues of the Duchess of Burgundy—impos-

ture of Perkin Warbeck — personates the Duke of York murdered in the Tower—gains credit.

Gentlemen and noblemen favouring Perkin's cause.

Plot continues — Henry's spies and bribes — apprehension of the conspirators — execution of some — pardon of others.

Perkin appears in Scotland — received by James IV. — marries Lady Catherine Gordon — enters England — not supported by the inhabitants.

Leaves Scotland — appears in Cornwall — joined by 3000—deserts his army — his adherents pardoned — delivers himself up to the king — signs a confession of his imposture — attempts to escape — re-taken and hanged, 1499.

Henry's character — cold — calculating — avaricious — hatred of Yorkists — troubles — plots — insurrections — dies of the gout, 1509. (See Goldsmith.)

Henry VIII. 1509-1547.

First act of Henry.

War with France — France invaded by the other powers of Europe.

A truce concluded — Henry's extravagance.
Wolsey — courtier — origin — education —
chaplain to Henry VIII. — dispatched on a
commission to Brussels — his arts to flatter the
prince — indignation of the people — avarice
and ambition of Wolsey.

Wolsey manages an interview between Henry and Francis I.—Field of the cloth of gold.

Exhaustion of the royal treasury — Wolsey's

exactions to procure the king money.

Reformation — Henry's first wife, Catherine of Arragon — who? — his scruples — Anna Boleyn — description — applies for a divorce — difficult position of the Pope.

Wolsey's conduct in this matter - is conse-

quently supplanted — Cranmer.

Wolsey's disgrace — confiscation of effects — furniture — mode of living — arrested for treason — taken ill at Leicester Abbey — dies — his last words.

Henry marries Anna Boleyn — separates himself from the Church of Rome.

State of the country in respect of religion — inspection of monasteries and convents — confiscation of their effects to the crown.

Caprice and inconstancy of the king — Anna Boleyn accused — condemned, and executed — Henry marries Jane Seymour.

Persecutions for religious opinions.

Jane Seymour dies a year after marriage — Henry marries Ann of Cleves — divorces her and is married to Catherine Howard, who is soon after beheaded on Tower-Hill.

Henry marries Catherine Parr — a virtuous and discreet woman — the king's temper — severity — bodily afflictions — cruelty — arrest of the Duke of Norfolk and Earl of Surrey — the earl beheaded.

Account of the King during his last illness—Henry's character—no one redeeming qua-

lity—cruel—capricious—tyrannical—haughty—stern—severe.

Reflections on this reign. (See Goldsmith.)

Mary. 1553-1558.

Two candidates for the crown — Mary and Lady Jane Grey — Mary, catholic; Lady Jane, reformer — disinclined to government — over persuaded — received without applause.

Mary's pretensions and claims — Lady Jane

resigns - Northumberland arrested.

Mary's claims acknowledged—re-establishes catholicity—marries Philip II. of Spain—general discontent among the people.

Execution of Lord Guilford Dudley and Lady Jane Grey — relate the circumstances.

Persecution of the Reformers — Calais taken by the Duke of Guise — the queen's regret.

Illness of the queen — dies — after a reign of five years. (See Goldsmith.)

Elizabeth. 1558-1603.

Joy of the people — the queen favours the reformed religion.

Mary Stuart—from whom descended—married to Francis the dauphin—a widow at nineteen—returns to Scotland—her unpopularity.

Married to Darnley — character of Darnley — Rizzio — Darnley's jealousy — murder of Rizzio — relate the circumstances.

Suspicious death of Darnley — relate *the account.

Mary's marriage with Bothwell — taken prisoner — confined in Lochlevin castle.

Escapes — battle of Langside — flees to En-

gland — confined by order of Elizabeth.

Designs of the Duke of Norfolk — reveal

Designs of the Duke of Norfolk — revealed — his condemnation and execution.

Conspiracy of Babington in Mary's favour — discovery—trial and death of the conspirators.

A commission appointed to try Mary — severe treatment on her trial — hesitation of Elizabeth to sign the warrant for her execution.

Execution of Mary — relate the circumstances.

Reflections — Mary's character — Elizabeth's motives.

The invincible Armada — terror of the English — the commanders of the English fleet.

Disasters of the Armada — engagement in the channel — total destruction of the Spanish fleet.

Reprisals made by the English on Spain. The Earl of Essex — his popularity — ambition — uncourteous treatment of the queen — sent to Ireland.

Returns without orders—the queen's resentment.

Pardoned — project of Essex — treason — plot discovered — arrested.

Tried and found guilty — anecdote of the ring given to Essex by Elizabeth — signs the warrant for his execution.

Élizabeth's distress — illness and death at the age of 70.

Her character — arbitrary — (that of all the Tudors) — wisdom — strong sense — gradual improvement of the people — trade — commerce — Sir Walter Raleigh — Hooker — Spenser — Shakspeare — Bacon, &c. &c. (See Goldsmith.)

Charles I. 1625-1649.

The king's prospects on ascending the throne. His debts — applies to the House of Commons — supply voted.

Extortion — benevolence — unjust taxation. Another attempt to raise supplies — inef-

fectual - ship-money - what?

War against France — Buckingham — Rochelle — ill-success of the expedition — disgrace to England.

Contest between the king and the parliament

- violence of the king.

Assassination of the Duke of Buckingham—circumstances—trial and execution of the assassin.

Peace with France and Spain — two new

ministers — Wentworth and Laud.

Tonnage and poundage.

John Hampden resists the payment of ship-

money.

The liturgy ordered in Scotland—its reception—obstinacy of the king—war with the Scots.

Impeachment of the Earl of Strafford —

found guilty - beheaded on Tower-Hill.

High Commission Court and Star Chamber abolished.

Rebellion in Ireland — disagreeable situation of the king.

The spirit of republicanism — episcopæcy attacked — the bishops accused of treason.

Members of the Commons impeached by the

king - his want of firmness.

Gradual encroachment of the parliament on the king's prerogative — parties distinguished by the names of Cavaliers and Roundheads.

Civil war — 1642. — Battle of Edgehill —

Holland sends assistance to the king.

First campaign favourable to the royalists — death of John Hampden and Lord Falkland — their character.

Parliament convoked by the king at Oxford. Ordinances of the Westminster parliament— Battle of Marston-moor—victory of Cromwell.

Trial and execution of Laud—change in the ceremonies of the Church.

Battle of Naseby — total defeat of Charles — the whole country in possession of the Parliamentarians.

The king surrenders to the Scots, who basely deliver him up to his enemies.

Oliver Cromwell — who? — life — education — character.

A military parliament formed from the officers of Cromwell's army.

The king a prisoner—falls into the power of the army.

Proposals of Charles to arrange all differences
in vain.

Charles treated with great indignity -

brought to trial—his behaviour—his last hours—execution, January 30, 1649. (See Goldsmiths)

James II. 1685-1688.

Brother to Charles II., favours the Catholics. Conspiracy of the Duke of Monmouth—his pretensions.

Favoured by the Duke of Argyle — Argyle's fate — Monmouth lands in Dorsetshire — success.

Preparations of the king — Churchill (afterwards Marlborough) and Feversham lead the king's troops — battle of Sedgmoor, and victory of the royalists — adventures and fate of Monmouth.

Severities, civil and military, after the victory — Kirk and Jefferies.

Injudicious conduct of the king in matters of religion — ambassadors sent to Rome — the Jesuits encouraged.

The king at variance with the universities.

Address of the clergy to the throne — prosecution of the bishops — their acquittal.

Aims of William, prince of Orange—his character and politics—sails from Holland—lands in Torbay—want of success at first—joined by persons of distinction.

The king's family desert him—he attempts to escape—discovered and brought back by the mob—his flight connived at by William—escapes with his natural son, the Duke of Berwick, December 23, 1688. (See Goldsmith.)

William III. and Macy. 1689-1701.

The new king's religious opinions, and their consequences.

James lands in Ireland — enters Dublin — lays siege to Londonderry — Battle of the Boyne — won by William.

The battle of Aughrim — James retires from Ireland, and lives a pensioner of Louis XIV.

the remainder of his life.

William a warrior by nature — careless of civil government — money granted for the prosecution of the war.

War with France continued—treaty of Ryswick—William's title acknowledged by Louis XIV.

Bad constitution of the king — accident and consequences — his death, 1701. (See Goldsmith.)

Anne. 1701-1714.

Second daughter of James II., by his wife, Anne Hyde — married to Prince George of Denmark.

War declared against France — the Duke of Marlborough commander-in-chief — his talents.

Battles fought against France—Blenheim— Ramilies — Oudenarde — Malplaquet.

The taking of Gibraltar—Sir George Rooke—circumstances.

War of the Spanish Succession - Earl of

Peterborough in Spain.

The English opposed in Spain by the Duke of Berwick—the English defeated at the battle of Almanza.

The union with Scotland — the arguments on both sides, for and against the measure.

The Duchess of Marlborough supplanted by Mrs. Masham—the Whigs lose the queen's confidence.

A new parliament — the Tories in power — Harley, prime minister.

Success of the British arms in Flanders-

the French king sues for peace.

Marlborough falls into disgrace — his avarice — fraud — extortion — charges against him.

Treaty of Utrecht - stipulations, &c. 1712.

Illness of the queen—letter to the Elector of Hanover—death of Anne—circumstances, July 31, 1714. (See Goldsmith.)

POETS.

Shahspeare. 1564—1616.

Born at Stratford-upon-Avon, 26th April, 1564 — little known of the origin or rank of his parents — his father, John Shakspeare, believed to have been a wool-comber, and his mother supposed to have been a daughter of a gentleman named Arden.

Probably educated at the grammar-school of Stratford—little known of the history of his youth—marries, in 1582, Ann Hathaway—the cause which led him to leave his native place—comes to London—gains a livelihood by holding horses at the doors of the play-houses.

In 1593, dedicates a poem to Lord Southampton—the next year another—writes plays. In 1596, loses his only son — becomes an actor and sharer in the Blackfriars' and Globe Theatres — patronised by Lord Southampton.

Retires to Stratford about 1603 — employs his time in writing dramas — dies April, 1616. (See *Penny Cyclopædia*, art. "Shakspeare.")

Milton, 1608-1674.

Born in Bread Street, Cheapside, December 9th, 1608—his father's anxiety about his education—placed with a Mr. Thomas Young—afterwards at St. Paul's—and thence to Christ College, Cambridge.

His studies at College—the first Englishman who wrote elegant Latin verses after the revival of learning.

Intended for the Church — changes his mind — writes "Comus" in 1634, and "Lycidas" in 1637.

Travels in 1638 — visits Grotius at Paris — Italy — Florence — Rome — his reception from the learned in Italy.

Naples — recalled by the tumults at home — Lucca — Venice — Geneva — acquaintance with Diodati and Spanheim — returns home through France — resides in Aldersgate Street — receives pupils — mode of education.

Various controversial works — marries — his wife separates from him — a reconciliation.

His first wife dies — his literary projects — "Paradise Lost."

The return of Charles II.—the act of oblivion—his blindness—retires to Chalfont (Bucks) during the plague. "Paradise Lost" published — price paid for

the copyright of the poem.

Three years after, publishes a "History of England to the Norman Invasion"—and in the same year, "Paradise Regained" and "Samson Agonistes."

Dies of the gout, in 1674, in Bunhill Fields
— his personal appearance — domestic habits —
learning — his religious and political opinions.

(See Johnson's Lives of the Poets.)

Dryden. 1631 — 1701.

Born at Aldwinkle, in Northamptonshire — sent to Westminster, and thence to Cambridge.

His verses on Cromwell in 1658 — changes his political opinions — a poem on King Charles II.

Commences dramatic writing in 1663 — "Annus Mirabilis" — made poet laureat — Salary 100l. a year and a tierce of wine.

Essay on dramatic poetry — his great lite-

rary fame.

"Absalom and Achitophel" — satire — personalities — immense sale.

A convert to the Catholic doctrines — suspected sincerity of his conversion — "The Hind and the Panther" — translation of Juvenal and Persius.

1694, begins his translation of Virgil—publishes Fables in 1697—"Ode on St. Cecilia's Day."

Dies, in 1701, of a mortification in the leg—buried in Westminster Abbey.

His character—diffidence—learning—comprehensive mind — Pope's opinion of his works—the language much indebted to him. (See Johnson's Lives.)

Otway. 1651-1685.

Few materials for his life — born at Trottin, in Sussex — educated at Winchester — afterwards at Oxford.

Leaves college and comes to London — becomes an actor — unsuccessful — his dramatic writings.

His immoral associates—and merited poverty—goes in a military capacity to Flanders—

quits the army, and returns to England.

His other dramatic works, "Don Carlos"—
"The Orphan"—"Caius Marius"—"The
Soldier's Fortune;" and his greatest work,
"Venice Preserved."

Account of his death and circumstances.

Addison, 1672-1719.

Born at Milston in Wilts — his early impressions of piety — received from his father.

Went to school at Lichfield at twelve years of age — afterwards to the Charter-House — intimacy with Steele.

In 1687, at Queen's College, Oxford — his studies — translation of Virgil's fourth Georgic.

In 1695, writes a poem on King William—patronage he received from ministers—obtains a pension of 300l. a year to travel—Blois—Italy.

Works during his travels — "A Dialogue

on Medals," and four acts of "Cato" — publishes his travels on his return.

Verses on the victory of Blenheim — "Rosamond," an opera.

Made Secretary to the Marquis of Wharton, in Ireland.

Steele commences the "Tatler," 1709 — Addison discovers the author—how?

The "Spectator"—its political tenets—its object—books written with the same intention—Casa—Castiglione—La Bruyère.

The tragedy of "Cato" appears in 1713—the last act written in a hurry—its great success—Dennis's criticisms.

The "Guardian" assisted by Addison—The "Spectator" recommenced—three times a week.
The Hanoverian succession—ancedote of

Addison's fastidiousness of expression.

1716, marries the Countess of Warwick — not a great addition to his happiness—In 1717, appointed Secretary of State — unequal to his duties.

Retires — his last compositions — gradual decline — dropsy — approaching death — sends for Lord Warwick — anecdote.

His merit generally acknowledged—naturally bashful and awkward—criticisms on Milton—"Pleasures of the Imagination"—his style. (See *Johnson*.)

Pope. 1688-1744.

Born in London—of a delicate constitution—his early attachment to books—sent to school at Twyford—his fondness for composition.

His determination to be a poet — takes. Dryden as a model of versification — his "Ode on Solitude."

Version of Chaucer — translation from Ovid — his "Pastorals" written at the age of sixteen.

1709, "Essay on Criticism"—"The Messiah" in the Spectator—"Eloisa to Abelard."

1713, "Windsor Forest" — proposes a translation of the Iliad with notes, by subscription — five years employed in the translation.

Purchases annuities with the money thus

gained-villa at Twickenham.

1721, publishes an edition of Shakspeare — merits of this edition — translates the Odyssey.

His acquaintance with Spence — accident to

Pope.

The "Dunciad"—attacks and replies— "Essay on Man," Part I. the other parts soon after—avows the authorship in 1734—Imitations of Horace.

Afflicted with the asthma—dies May 30th, 1744—His personal appearance—domestic character—social virtues—intellectual character—memory, &c. (See Johnson's Lives.)

Thomson. 1700—1748.

Born at Ednam, in Roxburghshire — his father, a minister — sent to a school at Jedburgh — not considered precocious.

Removed to Edinburgh—intended for the church—the style of his eloquence—too poetical—reproved.

Gives up thoughts of the church — comes to London—his feelings on his arrival.

Difficulty of disposing of his poems-"Win-

ter "-its gradual success.

Makes friends and gains credit—in 1727, publishes "Summer"—the next year, "Spring"—writes "Autumn" in 1733, and publishes a collection of his works.

Travels with the son of the Chancellor Talbot—lives at his case—death of the chancellor—Thomson obliged to recommence poet.

1730, "Agamemnon" — 1745, "Tancred and Sigismunda" — "Castle of Indolence."

Catches a cold on the Thames at Kew—a consequent fever—dies 1748—monument in Westminster Abbey.

His benevolent disposition — style — description — diction. (See Johnson's Lives.)

Goldsmith. 1728-1774.

Born Nov. 10. 1728, at Pallas, in Longford, Ireland — his father was the Rev. Charles Goldsmith — considered dull in his youth — entered at Trinity College, June 1744 — his conduct at college.

His father now dead — consents to enter the church — rejected by the bishop — determines to prepare for the legal profession—his folly—sent by his uncle to Dublin to study medicine—goes to Leyden to complete his medical studies.

Sets out on foot to make the tour of Europe

— Flanders — France → Germany — Italy —

returns to England.

Usher in a school — apothecary's assistant engages with Mr. Griffiths - "Monthly Review" - gives up the engagement after seven months - writes the "Vicar of Wakefield"the "Traveller" - the "Hermit."

His comedy of "The Goodnatured Man," 1768 - unsuccessful - the "Deserted Village" -Histories of Greece, Rome, and England appointed professor of Ancient History to the Royal Academy of Painting — "She stoops to conquer" - great success - his last production, a "History of Animated Nature" - taken ill with a fever, 1774 - dies, aged 45.

His character — amiable and benevolent want of strength of mind - the character and style of his writings. (See Penny Cyclopædia, article "Goldsmith.")

Johnson, 1709-1784.

Son of Michael Johnson, a bookseller at Lichfield — of a sickly constitution — education begun at Lichfield, continued at Stourbridge - placed afterwards at Pembroke College, Oxford.

His distress - obliged to leave college - his father dies in great poverty - Johnson compelled to become usher in a school—leaves this employment — occupies himself in translating.

Marries Mrs. Porter—establishes a school— Gurrick his pupil - his poem "London"writes for the magazines — his talents become known — in 1747, commences his "English Dictionary" — the magnitude and importance of this task.

Obtains a pension of 300*l*. from George III.
— his companions, Burke, Goldsmith, Reynolds, &c. — Boswell.

The diploma creating him a Doctor of Laws, sent him from Oxford.

His constitution begins to decline in 1766—lives at Streatham—tour to the Hebrides—"Lives of the Poets"—dies of dropsy and asthma in 1784.

The characteristic of his intellect — his prejudices—his poetry—his "Essays"—"Lives" — criticisms, &c. (See Boswell's Life of Johnson, and Penny Cyclopædia.)

HISTORIANS.

Hume. 1711-1776.

David Hume, born at Edinburgh, April 26. 1711 — destined for the law — his passion for literature.

In 1734, goes to Bristol with a view of entering into mercantile speculations — gives up all idea of every pursuit but the improvement of his literary talents.

In 1742, publishes his "Essays"—favourably received — in 1745, goes to live with the Marquis of Annandale — appointed secretary to General St. Clair in his embassies to Vienna and Turin.

On his return to England, writes his "Political Discourses" — forms the plan of his

"History of England"—the reception of the first volume—the others—accompanies Lord Hertford to Paris in 1763—his reception there—Under Secretary of State in 1766.

Falls into ill health in 1775—goes to Bath—the waters of no avail—dies 25th August,

1776 --- aged 66.

His character as a private individual — as an historian and a philosopher. (See *Penny Cyclo.*, article "Hume.")

Smollett. 1721-1771.

Tobias Smollett born at Cardross, 1721 of good family—sent to school at Dumbarton—his tendency to satire.

Goes to Glasgow to study medicine — neglects his professional studies for other and more attractive pursuits.

Appointed, in 1741, surgeon's mate in a king's ship — quits the service in the West Indies — resides in Jamaica.

Writes for the theatres—his temper and manners—quarrels with the managers—marries Miss Lascelles—"Roderic Random."

Goes to Paris in 1750—"Peregrine Pickle"
—the applause bestowed on it—resumes the

medical profession — unsuccessful.

In 1751, translates Don Quixote—the merits of this translation—visits his Scotch relations—undertakes the management of the "Critical Review"—his qualities as an editor.

Imprisoned for a libel — "History of England"—writes "Sir Launcelot Greaves," while

in prison.

Ill health — travels, 1770 — "Humphrey Clinker" — dies at Leghorn, 1771, aged 51 — his appearance—his manners—temper—talents as a writer — objections to his writings. (See Penny Cyclopædia, article "Smollett.")

Robertson. 1721-1793.

The son of a clergyman—born in Edinburgh, 1721—distinguished himself as a preacher, and an eminent leader in the general assembly of the church of Scotland.

Applies himself to the study of history — his "History of Scotland" — the success of the work.

In 1762, appointed principal of the University of Edinburgh — made historiographer to the king, with a salary of 200*l.* per annum.

In 1769, "History of Charles V."—its reception—translated into other languages—the Introduction to Charles V.—"History of America"—in 1791, an "Historical Disquisition on India."

Died near Edinburgh, June, 1793—his style—his language—his opinions—the testimony of Hume and Gibbon. (See *Penny Cyclopædia*, article "Robertson.")

Gibbon. 1737-1794.

Born at Putney, 27th April, 1737—his "Autobiography" published by Lord Sheffield — his health delicate in childhood — interruptions to his studies — sent to school at Kingston — afterwards to Westminster.

In 1752, to Magdalen College, Oxford -

his imperfect education — his love of history — embraces the Roman Catholic faith — obliged to leave Oxford in consequence — sent to Lausanne — renounces the Romish faith.

His first work, "Essai sur l'Etude de la Littérature" — publishes in 1768 two volumes of a work called "Mémoires littéraires de la Grande Bretagne" — returned to parliament for the borough of Liskeard in 1774.

In 1776, the first volume of the "Decline and Fall"—its reception—a second and third edition.

Leaves England in 1783 — retires to Lausanne — engaged in finishing his great work — the remainder of it appears in 1788 — returns to England in 1793 — death of Lady Sheffield — dies, in 1794, in London.

The "Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire"—the time it comprises—his ridicule of Christianity—his "Ecclesiastical History."

The principal faults of the work — its immense extent — his reading — the popularity of the work — translated into almost every European language. (See Penny Cyclopædia, article "Gibbon.")

LAWYERS.

Coke. 1551-1633.

Born at Mileham in Norfolk — sent to the grammar school at Norwich, and thence to Trinity College, Cambridge.

Called to the bar in 1578— elected Recorder of London 1591—animosity between Coke and Bacon.

Marries the daughter and heiress of John Paston, with a fortune of 30,000l. — marries. 2dly, the widow of Sir Christopher Hatton-an unhappy connection.

Attorney-general till the death of Elizabeth - received into James I.'s confidence - the

Raleigh conspiracy — gunpowder plot.

Displaced from office, June, 1616 - restored to the royal favour, 1617 - takes part against the king in the question of the royal prerogative — 1621. committed to the Tower — ordered. when released, to confine himself to his house.

Appointed sheriff of Buckinghamshire by Charles I. — opposes the king's prerogative - denounces Villiers as the cause of all the disasters of the country.

1629, withdraws from public life — employment in his retirement.

Dies, 3rd September, 1633, aged 82 — his works - Bacon's opinion of them. (See Penny Cyclopædia, article "Coke.")

Hale. 1609-1676.

Sir Matthew Hale -- born at Alderley in Gloucester, 1st of November, 1609 — educated in puritanical principles - at the age of seventeen goes to Magdalen College, Oxford — dissipated — on the point of enlisting for a soldier - persuaded to apply himself to the study of the law — a student of Lincoln's Inn, 1629.

Called to the bar just before the commencement of the civil war — takes no part in politics - his success in his profession.

Takes an oath to be faithful to the common-

wealth after the death of Charles I. — appointed a commissioner for reforming the law.

Refuses to act under Richard Cromwell a member of the parliament which recalled Charles II.—in 1671, made Chief Justice of the King's Bench—resigns in 1675—dies of dropsy, 1676.

His character as a lawyer — anecdotes — his writings — his wives and family. (See *Penny*

Cyclopædia, article " Hale.")

Blackstone, 1723-1780

Born in London, July 10th, 1723—his father a silk mercer—loses both his parents when young—goes to the Charter-House at the age of seven years—afterwards to Pembroke College, Oxford.

In 1743, elected fellow of All Soul's College—gives a course of lectures upon the English constitution and laws—well received—his

popularity — introduced to the king.

Soon engaged in extensive practice — in parliament in 1761 — marries Sarah, daughter of J. Clitheroe, Esq.

First vol. of "Commentaries" published at Oxford in 1765—the other three vols. soon after.

Dies of dropsy, February 14th, 1780.

His character as a judge—his political opinions—his qualities in private life—temper—his opinion of his own talents—style—and objections to the "Commentaries." (See Penny Cyclopædia, article "Blackstone.")

STATESMEN.

William Pitt, Earl of Chatham. 1708-1778.

Born at Boconnoc in Cornwall — educated at Eton — whence he went to Trinity College, Oxford — represents the borough of Old Sarum in predict at 1725

in parliament, in 1735.

Joins the opposition, then led by Frederic, Prince of Wales — his appearance and elocution imposing — taken into favour by the prince — takes a prominent part in the motions against Sir Robert Walpole.

Returned, in the next parliament (1741), for Old Sarum—the king's personal dislike to

Pitt — not admitted to office.

In the year 1746, admitted to office by the influence of the Duke of Newcastle — his conduct in office.

The discussion upon the Regency Bill — opposition to Fox — the Duke of Newcastle premier in 1754.

Pitt returned for Aldborough in the new parliament — his misunderstanding with the prime minister — Fox, secretary of state — the next year (1756) Pitt prime minister — resigns after a few months.

Elected member for Bath in 1761—accession of George III.—retires from office with a pension of 3000l. a year—his independent conduct in his new position—solicited to take office again in 1763—declines.

The Rockingham administration supported by Pitt — his opinion on the question of American taxation — called upon, in 1766, to form a new

ministry — the heterogeneous materials of this administration — on the 15th October, 1768, resigns office.

His health improved — again in parliament in 1770 — the affair of Wilkes — his speeches on the American question — taken suddenly ill in the House of Lords, the 7th of April, 1778—dies about a month after.

His character — an orator — a patriot — a minister — his eloquence. (See *Penny Cyclopædia*, article "Pitt.")

Burke, 1730-1797,

Born in Dublin, 1st January, 1730 — of a good family — delicate in his childhood — sent to school at Cork.

Afterwards to Trinity College, Dublin — studies for the English bar — comes to London in 1750.

Relinquishes the law for literature and politics — his first work, "A Vindication of Natural Society."

A few months after, "Essay on the Sublime and Beautiful"—marries a daughter of Dr. Nugent of Bath.

Determines to attain political distinction—
"History of England"—"Annual Register"
—literary acquaintances and introductions.

Goes to Dublin as private secretary to Lord Halifax, the lord-lieutenant, 1763.

In 1765, private secretary to the prime minister, the Marquis of Rockingham — the prime mover of the administration.

His political pamphlets - "A short Account

of a late Administration" — "Observations on a late State of the Nation," &c.

Comes again into power with the Rockingham ministry in 1782—privy counsellor and paymaster-general of the forces.

Affairs of India — prosecution of Warren

Hastings.

"Reflections on the French Revolution" retires from parliamentary life in 1794 — loses his son — his distress of mind.

Dies at Beaconsfield in Bucks—1797. (See *Penny Cyclopædia*, article "Burke.")

Fox. 1749—1806.

Born 24th January, 1749 — third son of the Right Honourable H. Fox — sent to a preparatory school at Wandsworth — to Eton when nine years of age — rapid progress — in 1764 to Hertford College, Oxford — travels two years — elected member of parliament in his absence.

Supports the Duke of Grafton's ministry—his speech on the "Middlesex Election"—a lord of the treasury in 1773—misunderstanding with Lord North.

Opposes his former colleagues — forms an intimate friendship with Burke — its effects upon his political position.

Votes against the American war — leading

member of the opposition.

Secretary for foreign affairs under Lord Rockingham's administration — negotiates for peace with America. Resigns upon the death of Lord Rockingham—coalition with Lord North.

The Pitt ministry—dissolution of parliament—Fox elected for Westminster—the king's illness—regency—Fox opposes the ministry.

Discussions on the question of the French Revolution — termination of his friendship for Burke — supports Wilberforce — Slave-trade Abolition Bill.

1797, retires from public life — literary pursuits — History of the Reign of James II.

Again returned for Westminster — secretary for foreign affairs in Lord Grenville's ministry — dies on the 13th of September, 1806 — of water on the chest.

Remarks on his political life — eloquence — writings, &c. (See *Penny Cyclopædia*, article "Fox.")

MILITARY COMMANDERS

Marlborough. 1650-1722.

John Churchill — born at Ashe in Devonshire, 1650 — son of Sir Winston Churchill appointed page to the Duke of York, afterwards James II.

Education neglected — for a short time at St. Paul's School — early indications of a military spirit — distinguishes himself in the defence of Tangier — attracts the notice of Turenne.

Made a colonel at the peace of Nimeguen — maries Sarah Jennings, the companion of the Princess Anne — created Baron Churchill by

James II. on his accession - his services in

suppressing the rebellion of Monmouth.

His *treacherous desertion of James II. — created Earl of Marlborough by William III. — corresponds with the exiled king — shameless want of principle.

William's opinion of Marlborough — recommends him on his death-bed to his successor Queen Anne — this recommendation strength-

ened by her partiality for the countess.

Enters on his military career, 1702—delivers Holland from the French troops—raised to a dukedom.

Campaign of 1703 — reduction of towns in the Netherlands.

Battle of Blenheim — total defeat of the French — its effects on the power of Louis XIV. — Marlborough's rewards.

1706, battle of Ramilies — loss of the enemy, 13,000 — 1709, battle of Malplaquet — 1711, siege of Bouchain — intrigues of his enemies in England — the queen quarrels with the duchess.

Her antipathy extended to the duke — his humiliations — removed from the command — accused of peculation — withdraws to the Continent — restored to his dignities by George I. — dies in full possession of his senses, 1722.

Remarks on his abilities — made no improvement in the military art — his skill in conducting operations — march into Germany in 1704.

Private character — his treachery to James II., and base submission to Anne — religious sentiments — courage — temper — domestic relations. (See Gleig's British Commanders.)

Lord Clive. 1725-1776.

Born at Styche in Shropshire, 25th September, 1725—anecdotes of his youth—obtains an appointment in India—his arrival, and disputes with his superiors—bombardment of Madras—a prisoner on parole—escapes in the disguise of a Moor to Fort St. David—a military officer in 1747.

Investment of Pondicherry — retreat of the besiegers — views of Dupleix — unsettled state of India.

Obtains the rank of licutenant in 1550—takes the field as second in command under Captain Clarke.

Attack of Arcot — its success — siege of Arcot — continued successes — and splendid victories.

1752, returns to England—appointed deputy governor of St. David's.

1755, returns to India with reinforcements—expedition against the pirates of Geriah.

Campaign against Surajah Dowlah—murder of Surajah Dowlah—Meer Jaffier saluted Nabob.

1760, resigns the government of Calcutta, and returns to England.

1761, created Lord Clive — Meer Caussim succeeds to the throne abdicated by Meer Jaffier.

Lord Clive appointed governor of Bengal — changes introduced into the civil administration.

Mutiny among the inferior officers in the army.

Sir R. Fletcher tried for concealment of mutiny — found guilty and discharged.

Lord Clive returns to England.

His death — remarks upon his life and character. (See Gleig's British Commanders.)

Wolfe. 1726 — 1760.

Eldest son of General Wolfe — born at Westerham in Kent, 1726—enters the army at the age of fourteen.

Embarks with his father in 1740 for Flanders—serves with the army from 1742 to 1748—displays great courage at the battle of Laffeldt in 1747.

Made a lieutenant-colonel at the age of twenty-two—succeeds to the command in Scotland in 1749—his feelings on the occasion.

American war - misfortunes of the English.

Wolfe serves in the expedition under Majorgeneral Amherst in America — taking of Cape Breton and Prince Edward's Island.

Returns to England—appointed to command the expedition against Quebec. Description of the position of Quebec.

Forces of the enemy under the Marquis de

Montcalm — operations of both armies.

Landing of the troops — attacked by the Indians — barbarous cruelty of the latter to their prisoners.

Difficulties of Wolfe's position — his determination — ill-success of his first attempts.

The landing on the heights of Abraham consternation of the French - coolness of

Montcalm—the engagement—heroic valour of Wolfe.

His death from a musket-ball in the moment of victory — West's picture — aged thirty-four — personal appearance — constitution. (See Gleig's British Commanders.)

Abercromby. 1733 - 1801.

Born on the 7th October 1733 — his early education — Rugby — Edinburgh — Göttingen.

A cornet in 1756 — a lieutenant-colonel in 1773—served chiefly in Ireland.

Accompanies the Duke of York to Flanders — left to conduct the retreat—hardships of the army.

Appointed to the command of an army destined for the West Indies — his successes — attacks Trinidad and Porto Rico.

Resigns the command, and returns to Europe—his reception by the government—1799, again serves under his former commander, the Duke of York.

Campaign in Holland 1799 — landing of the troops, and their operations in Holland.

Reverses of the army — negotiations, and a suspension of hostilities—evacuation of Holland.

The English army lands in Egypt — encampment at Aboukir — retreat of the French — Abercromby gains a victory — mortally wounded — his character and services. (See Gleig's British Commanders.)

Sir John Moore. 1761 — 1809.

Son of Dr. Moore, author of "Zeluco"-born

in Glasgow—his early education in the grammarschool of Glasgow—sent to Switzerland to finish his education—accompanies his father and the Duke of Hamilton to the Continent.

His patriotism—promoted — captain — lieutenant — paymaster to the regiment — his defective knowledge of accounts — represents Lanark in parliament for six years—resigns his seat in the house of commons.

West India campaign — commands a brigade under the Duke of York in Holland — constitution injured — serves under Sir R. Abercromby in Egypt — under General Fox in Sicily.

Succeeds Fox in the command in the Mediterranean — returns to England — commands an expedition to assist Gustavus of Sweden — arrested by the king's order—escapes in disguise.

Commands the army in Portugal — conducts the retreat of the British army into Galicia — marches to Villa Franca — horrible excesses committed by the army at Benvenebre — dreadful march from Villa Franca to Castro — battle of Corunna — death of Moore — Colonel Anderson's account of his death — his character — review of his actions, &c. (See Gleig's British Commanders.)

NAVAL COMMANDERS.

Sir Martin Frobisher. - Died 1594.

Born at Doncaster in Yorkshire — the year of his birth not known — brought up to the sea — soon displays great talents — was the first who attempted a north-west passage to China—unsuccessful—returns to England.

A second voyage — brings back large quantities of ore — a third voyage — unfortunate.

Employed against the Spanish Armada—sent in 1594 to the assistance of Henry IV. of France, against a body of Spanish who had made a descent on Brittany—wounded in attacking the fort — dies of the wound November 7th 1594. (See *Penny Cyclopædia*, article "Frobisher.")

Sir John Hawkins. 1520 - 1595.

Born at Plymouth — his youth spent in trading to Spain and Portugal — engages in the slave trade in 1562 — the first Englishman that engaged in the traffic — other voyages — attacked by the Spanish at St. Juan d'Ulloa — his distresses and hardships — his transactions approved of by Queen Elizabeth — appointed treasurer of the navy in 1573 — serves as rearadmiral against the armada — knighted by the queen for his services — sails with Frobisher to intercept the Spanish fleet — his success in that expedition — appointed jointly with Drake to a command in the West Indies — the enterprise unsuccessful — disuaion of the commanders — dies of vexation 1595. (See Penny Cyclopædia, article "Hawkins.")

Sir Francis Drake. 1546 — 1595.

Born in Devonshire — his father a poor cottager — apprenticed, when very young, to a trader to Zealand and France — his master dies and leaves him his bark — continues the trade — suddenly sells his ship and joins Hawkins's expedition.

His revenge for his Josses — obtains a commission from Queen Elizabeth in 1570—cruises in the West Indies.

Returns to England loaded with treasure — anchors at Plymouth, 9th August 1573.

Departs under the sanction of the Queen in 1577 on another expedition — his adventures on the coasts of South America — sails through the Straits of Magalhaens — takes a Spanish galleon, laden with plate.

Sails across the Indian Ocean to the Cape of Good Hope, thence home — arrival at Plymouth, 26th Sept. 1579, after an absence of two years and ten months — his reception.

His occupations during 1585 and 1586 — visits the colony of Virginia — his attack upon Cadiz.

Appointed vice-admiral in the fleet fitted out against the armada — his expedition against the Spanish in the West Indies — defeated at Puerto Rico — attacked by a fatal disease — dies, 27th December 1595. (See Penny Cyclopædia, article "Drake.")

Lord Howard of Effingham. 1536—1624.

Grandson of Thomas, second duke of Norfolk—service in his youth—appointed, in 1585, Lord High Admiral—commands the naval defence made against the Spanish Armada.— His prudence and bravery in this charge—joined with Essex in the enterprise against Cadiz—jealousy between the two commanders—honours conferred upon Lord Howard—his behaviour towards Essex in his misfortunes—his dig-

nities and honours under James I.—dies 1624, aged 87 — his character and temper. (See Penny Cyclop., art. "Howard of Effingham.")

Lord Nelson. 1758-1805.

Born at Burnham Thorpe, in Norfolk, Sept. 29th 1758 — his father, the Rev. Edmund Nelson — of a sickly constitution — serves with his uncle Captain Suckling, as midshipman — accompanies Captain Phipps on an expedition to the north pole.

Appointed in 1793 to the Agamemnon, of 64 guns — sent with despatches to Naples — his acquaintance with Sir William and Lady Hamilton.

Co-operates with Paoli in Corsica — loses an eye at the siege of Caloi — the blockade of Genoa. — The evacuation of Bastia — action with the Spanish fleet.

Honours conferred on Nelson — the blockade of Cadiz — attack of Santa Cruz — loses an arm — pension of 1000*l*. a-year — sails in pursuit of the French fleet.

Battle of Aboukir — execution of Prince Carracioli — returns to England — separates from Lady Nelson — battle of Copenhagen — returns home — lives for some time in retirement. — Assumes the command in the Mediterranean — battle of Trafalgar — receives his death wound — expires in three hours and a half.

His character — talents — disposition. (See Sauthey's Life of Nelson, and Penny Cyclopædia.)

PAINTERS.

Hogarth. 1697 - 1764.

Born in London, 1697 — not much known concerning his education — his father an enthusiastic scholar.

The "Taste of the Town," 1724 — illustrations and frontispieces — Hudibras, in 1726,

17 plates.

Chiefly known now as an engraver — sketch — the examination of Bambridge, &c. — marries (1730) Jane, daughter of Sir James Thornhill, against consent — commences portrait-painter.

Obstacles to his success — could not flatter — portraits of Mr. and Mrs. Garrick — natural, but little dignity — Garrick as Richard III. fortunate—portrait of Fielding — only portrait done from recollection after death.

Portrait of Captain Coram (founder of the Foundling Hospital) — portrait of Wilkes — various other portraits — reconciled to his father-in-law — loses his mother in 1735.

The "Rake's Progress"— now displays his genius for the burlesque—his works pirated—act of Parliament (1735) for legal copyright—advantage of being able to engrave his own works.

1736, "The Sleeping Congregation" —
"The Distressed Poet" — "Southwark Fair"
— "Modern Midnight Conversation" — "The
Enraged Musician" — "The Four Times of the
Day; Morning, Noon, Afternoon, Night."

" The Strolling Actresses" - now fortyeight years old — fame established — sale of

his paintings — low price paid for them.

"Marriage à-la-Mode" — gives rise to a novel called "The Marriage Act" - the author of "The Clandestine Marriage" founds his play upon it.

"Industry and Idleness — twelve scenes — The Apprentices" — "The Roast Beef of Old England"—"The Four Stages of Cruelty"— "March of the Guards to Finchley" — "Beer Street " — " Gin Lane " — " France and England " — " The Cockpit " — " The Election " (four prints)—" Analysis of Beauty," published in 1753 — opinions on the work.

His last work "Credulity, Superstition, and Fanaticism "—retires to Chiswick — dies, 1764, in Leicester Square - character - manners - habits - domestic and friendly relations. &c. (See Allan Cunningham's Lives of the

Painters.)

Sir Joshua Reynolds. 1723 — 1792.

Born, 1723, at Plympton in Devon—Wilson and Hogarth contemporaries - stories about his birth — cause of his Christian name.

Education neglected — originally destined for the medical profession — anecdotes of his early propensity for the arts.

Sent to London 1741 — placed with Hudson

—occasion of meeting with Pope.

Returns home for three years in 1743 — his father dies -his character - acquires patronage - Lord Edgecumbe - Captain Keppel.

Accepts Captain Keppel's invitation to accompany him to the Mediterranean — May, 1749 — Lisbon — Gibraltar — Minorca — accident — lands at Leghorn — thence to Rome.

His sensations on visiting the Vatican—his opinions on painting—Bologna—Genoa—Parma—Florence—Venice—his silence on the Venetian school.

Three years absence — meets Hudson and Roubilliac on Mont Cenis — Chambers, the architect, at Paris.

Arrives in England, Oct. 1752 — established in St. Martin's Lane — opposition from artists — fame increases — Commodore Keppel's portrait — new vexations — prosperity.

Thirty years of age — reputation spreading — grace of expression — splendour of colouring — acquaintance with Johnson — anecdote — difference in their manner — advantages derived from his acquaintance with Johnson, in his "Discourses on Art."

His price, five guineas—some years after, twenty guineas—writes some papers for the "Idler"—1760, the first exhibition.

Removes to Leicester Square, 1761 — entertains Percy, Goldsmith, Burke, Garrick, Johnson — Literary club founded by Johnson in 1764 — Reynolds, a member.

Royal Academy founded — 1768, made president — knighted by the king — attacked by paralysis (aged 58)—letter from Johnson — Johnson's death, 1784—three requests—becomes suddenly blind of the left eye, 1789—

relinquishes painting —dies, 1792 — buried in St. Paul's.

Stature — complexion — manners — habits — "Discourses," — style of his portraits — poetical subjects — portraits of eminent men — Burke's eulogy. (See Allan Cunningham's Lives of the Painters.)

Barry. 1741-1806.

Born in Cork, 1741 — his father a sea-captain — little known of his education — sent to sea — runs away — fondness for painting — employed when a boy to make designs for a volume of tales.

His first picture—"The conversion and baptism of an Irish prince"—its reception—friendship of Burke—anecdote.

Resides in Dublin—patronised by Burke and others—goes, in his twenty third year, to London—introductions—his application—furnished by Burke with money for a journey to Rome.

His observations on the paintings in the Sistine chapel — the high expectations conceived of him by his English friends — his vehemence of disputation.

Visits Naples — anecdotes — his quarrels and temper — with artists and connoisseurs — Burke's letters and advice to him — anecdote of Barry and Nollekens.

Determines on returning to England — his forebodings — visits Leonardi da Vinci's "Last Sapper" — arrival in London — reception by Burke — paintings — "Venus" — "Jupiter and

Juno" — "Adam and Eve" — "Death of Wolfe" — want of encouragement — loss of friends — poverty.

Misunderstanding between Barry and Burke — portrait of the latter—gives up portrait-painting — proposes to embellish the interior of St. Paul's with paintings — his indignation at the rejection of his proposal.

His work, "An Inquiry into the real and imaginary Obstruction to the Progress of Art

in England."

Change in the person and temper of Barry
— offers his talents to the "Society of Arts"
— they accept his offer—the painting—six
years spent on the pictures—conduct of the
society—remarks on the paintings—his description of them.

Appointed professor of painting, 1782. His lectures — engravings of the Adelphi pictures — His residence in Castle Street — domestic habits — poverty.

Death of Sir Joshua Reynolds — eulogium of Barry — is degraded from the dignity of professor — the assistance of his friends.

Sudden illness and death (1806) — conduct of the academy after his decease—his character—temper—enthusiasm for art. (See Allan Cunningham's Lives of the Painters.)

Fuseli. 1741—1825.

Born at Zurich, 1741 — the second of eighteen children—his father a portrait-painter—his literary acquaintances—writes a "History of the Swiss Artists"—loses his mother.

His secret studies of drawing — sells his drawings to his school-fellows — placed at college at Zurich — his love of literature — political papers — travels to Vienna — advised to visit

England — anecdote of Lavater.

His feelings on arriving in London — letters of introduction — procures the situation of tutor — abandons it in disgust — returns to London—employs himself in literature—anecdote of the part he took in the controversy between Rousseau and Voltaire.

Introduction to Sir Joshua Reynolds—anecdote—his first picture—"Joseph interpreting the dreams of his fellow-prisoners."

Characteristics of his literary compositions—style of his drawings—visits Rome—manner in which he lived there—his account of the style of the three great painters—Michael Angelo, Leonardi da Vinci, and Raphael—mode of study.

Eight years abroad — pictures sent home — subjects from Shakspeare—Milton—the terrible

-majestic-sublime!

Commences his career in England, 1779—contemporary artists—landscape, Wilson, Gainsborough—religious and historical, Barry and West—poetical, Fuseli.

"The Nightmare" — "The Shaksperian Gallery" — other paintings — Dante's "Francesca and Paolo" — Virgil's "Dido" — Sophocles' "Œdipus."

The Milton gallery — forty-seven paintings — his friendship for Cowper — anecdotes — drawings for a Shakspeare — sketches for the

Bible — anecdote of Person — his knowledge

of languages.

Appointed professor of painting — his lectures on art — the learning displayed in them — pictures from "Gray's poems."

Illness and death, 1825—character of Fuseli from Lavater—forehead—nose—mouth, &c.

His stature — frame — forehead — eyes — expression of face — voice — haughty manner — violence of temper.

Character of his writings. (See Allan Cun-

ningham's Lives of the Painters.)

Sir Thomas Lawrence. 1769—1830.

Born in the spring of 1769, at Bristol. His father had studied the law, but never followed the profession. At the birth of his son Thomas, he held the office of supervisor of Excise at Bristol.

His father leaves Bristol and becomes landlord of the Black Bear Inn, at Devizes—young Lawrence's early manifestation of talent for painting—anecdotes.

About the year 1775, sent to school near Bristol—removed from school about a year after.

In 1782, his father settles at Bath, places his son under the tuition of Mr. Hoare, a crayon painter.

At the age of thirteen, receives a reward from the Society of Arts, for a copy of the "Transfiguration" — portraits — historical pictures original compositions.

His father brings him to London in 1787 introduced to Sir Joshua Reynolds — exhibits

at Somerset House—^ohis fame increases—in 1791, chosen an associate of the Royal Academy—in 1792, appointed by George III. to succeed Sir Joshua as principal painter in ordinary.

Commissioned by the Prince Regent to paint the portraits of the allied sovereigns—knighted by the Prince in 1815—in 1818, proceeds to Aix-la-Chapelle, to Vienna, and Rome—the collection of portraits now in the Waterloo hall at Windsor Castle.

During his absence on the Continent, elected to the presidency of the academy, vacant by the death of West — the honours and distinction with which he was received on his return — dies in 1830, aged 61.

His literary information — behaviour to fellow artists — general character — never married. (See *Penny Cyclopædia*, art. "Lawrence.")

PHILOSOPHERS.

Bacon. 1561.

Son of Sir Nichokas Bacon — born 22nd Jan. 1561 — intelligent as a boy — his reply to Queen Elizabeth — not much known of his early education.

Goes, at the age of thirteen, to Trinity College, Cambridge—his studies—his dislike of Aristotle's works.

Enters as a student of Gray's Inn — goes to Paris in the suite of the British ambassador writes his work "On the State of Europe" at the age of nineteen. Returns to London on the death of his father — unprovided for — difficulties.

Called to the bar, 1582 — his honours.

Slowness of his advancement — his friendship for the Earl of Essex — his conduct on the trial of Essex.

Elected member of parliament in 1592 — his various works written about this time.

His prospects on the accession of James I.—his advancement and literary reputation.

1613, appointed Attorney-general — important causes in which he was engaged.

1617, becomes Lord Keeper — entangled in

political intrigues — rivalry of Coke.

1618, appointed Chancellor — Bucking-ham's influence to procure him the office — his letter of thanks — publishes his "Novum Organon."

Its reception—different opinions of the work

here and abroad.

Charges of bribery against Bacon — proved — stripped of his offices and honours — fine — imprisonment.

Consolation in his disgrace—scientific works

-" History of Henry VII."

Cause of his death—an experiment—his accomplishments—poet—orator—lawyer—statesman—philosopher. (See *Penny Cyclopædia*, article "Bacon.")

Locke. 1632-1704.

Born at Wrington near Bristol, 29th August 1632 — placed at Westminster School — afterwards at Christ Church, Oxford — his studies at college.

Visits Berlin, in 1664, as secretary to the envoy of the Elector of Brandenburgh—returns to Oxford—forms an acquaintance with Lord Shaftesbury—becomes his great friend—makes the acquaintance of some of the leading men of his day.

In 1670, commences his great work "On the Understanding"—appointed secretary of presentations—afterwards, secretary to the board of trade.

Bachelor of medicine in 1675 — visits France — recalled to England by Lord Shaftesbury in 1679 — follows Lord Shaftesbury, on his disgrace, to Holland — obliged to conceal himself even there from the persecution of his patron's enemies.

His literary labours during his residence in Holland — returns to England in 1688 — obtains a situation under government with a salary of 200l. a year — the reception of his great work, and the various opinions respecting it.

His ill health compels him to retire from London—resides for the remainder of his life at Oates, in Essex—his miscellaneous writings during this time—dies on the 28th October, aged 73.

His personal character — his talents as a writer — his style — beauties — faults. (See Penny Cyclopædia, article "Locke.")

Dr. Reid. 1710-1796.

Born April 26th, 1710, about twenty miles

from Aberdeen — sent to the parish school of Kincardine — enters the Mareschal College of Aberdeen at the age of twelve.

Visits England in 1736 — London — Oxford — Cambridge — introduced to distinguished men—returns to Scotland—presented with the living of New Machar, in Aberdeenshire.

Marries, in 1740, his cousin Elizabeth Reid
his studies—"Inquiry into the Human
Mind"—his various other works—dies, October

7th, 1796, aged eighty-seven.

His moral and social qualities—his language—style, &c. (See *Penny Cyclo.*, art. "Reid.")

Dugald Stewart. 1753—1828.

Born in Edinburgh, Nov. 22nd 1753 — educated at the High School of Edinburgh — his progress in classical learning — attends Reid's lectures in 1772 — his "Essay on Dreaming."

Takes charge of the mathematical classes at the university—appointed mathematical professor at the age of 21—appointed professor of moral philosophy during the absence of Dr. Ferguson—appointed to succeed him on his retirement.

His fame and popularity—the first volume of his "Elements of the Philosophy of the Human Mind" in 1792 — its reception —

opinions of its merits.

The next year he publishes his "Outlines of Moral Philosophy"—other works—in 1810, resigns his professorship—works written in his retirement—"Philosophical Essays"—in 1814, the second volume of "Elements of the Phi-

losophy of the Human Mind"—not so well received—other works—dies the 11th of June, 1828.—buried in the Canongate churchyard, Edinburgh.

His merits — philosophy — style — peculiarities, &c. (See *Penny Cyclo.*, art. "Stewart.")

Sir Isaac Newton. 1642—1727.

Born 25th of December, 1642, at Woolsthorpe, Lincolnshire—sent, at the age of twelve, to the grammar-school at Grantham—his early talent for mechanics—taken from school to assist his mother in the management of a farm—his disinclination to this sort of life—sent back to school—goes to Trinity College, Cambridge, in his seventeenth year.

Little known of the extent of his mathematical knowledge previously to his entering the university — his inventions and discoveries.

Compelled to quit Cambridge in 1665 by the raging of the plague—retires to Woolsthorpe—his speculations, &c. in his retirement.

Returns to Cambridge in 1666 — his "Principia"—the theory advanced in this work.

Delivers a course of lectures on optics — his system — in 1672, elected member of the Royal Society — represents the university in parliament, in 1688.

Correspondence with Leibnitz — his temporary mental aberration — anecdote of the dog "Diamond."

In 1699, chosen a foreign associate of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris—in 1703,

elected President of the Royal Society — falls into ill health in 1722 — dies, 1727, aged eighty-seven.

His person — countenance — conversation — his works — their effect on science, &c. (See *Penny Cyclopædia*, art. "Newton.")

Robert Boyle. 1626-1691.

The seventh son of Richard Boyle, Earl of Cork, born 22nd March, 1626. His early education — loses his mother when very young — sent to Eton when eight years old—his fondness for study—removed from Eton, and placed with a tutor.

In 1638, sent to travel with a M. Marcombes—the character he gives of this tutor—travels through France—settles at Geneva.

Leaves Geneva in 1641 — visits Italy — learns the language — studies astronomy — proceeds to Florence, Rome, Geneva, Marseilles — returns to London in 1644 — finds his father dead.

From this time devotes himself to study—settles at Oxford—improves the air pump—chosen one of the council of the Royal Society in 1663.

Boyle, a director of the East India Company—endeavours to promote Christianity in the East—his health declines in 1689—his sister dies 23d December, 1691, and Boyle himself on the 30th of the same month.

Was never married —his personal appearance — his abstemiousness — benevolence — con-

tempt of dignities—religious opinions—his discoveries—their merits—his character as a theological writer, &c. (See *Penny Cyclopædia*, article "Boyle.")

William Herschel. 1738-1822.

The son of a musician — born at Hanover, November 15th, 1738. Brought up to the musical profession — well educated in other respects — placed, at the age of fourteen, in the band of the Hanoverian guards — accompanies them to England in 1757.

Variously employed in England; at Durham, Halifax, Bath, &c.—no authentic information respecting him — various ancedotes.

About 1766, organist at Bath — begins to study astronomy — his knowledge of mathematics — makes a telescope for himself.

The two branches of astronomy — the investigation of the movements of the heavenly bodies, and the science of optics—devotes himself to both these branches.

Contributes to the Philosophical transactions—discovers a new planet (Uranus)—the merits of this discovery.

Honoured by the patronage of George III.—appointed private astronomer to the king, with a salary of 400l. a year. Fixes his residence at Datchet, and then at Slough—assisted in his labours by his sister, Miss Caroline Herschel.

Married a widow — left one son, the present Sir John Herschel — William Herschel died in 1822 — wealthy.

No authentic account of his private character—generally known to be a man of strict inte-

grity, and of a benevolent disposition. (See Penny Cyclopædia, article "Herschel.")

The following are suggested as useful subjects for historical and biographical composition:—

1. The Trojan war.

- 2. The life and death of Socrates. (History of Greece.)
- 3. The life of Alexander the Great. (Plutarch.)

4. The life of Julius Cæsar. (Plutarch.)

5. The invasion of Greece by the Persians. (History of Greece.)

6. The taking of Rome by the Gauls. (His-

tory of Rome.)

- 7. Hannibal's campaign in Italy. (History of Rome.)
 - 8. The life of Cicero. (See Middleton's Life.)
- 9. On the ancient state of India. (See Tytler's Elements of History.)

10. On the Knights Templars.

- 11. On the secret tribunals of the middle ages.
- 12. On the feudal system.
- 13. On the Crusades.
- 14. Notices on the life of Mahomet.
- 15. On the wars of York and Lancaster.
- 16. The history of the rebellion in England.
- 17. On the plague of London.
- 18. On the great fire of London.
- 19. On the revival of learning in Europe.
- 20. The life of Columbus, and the discovery of America.
 - 21. On the thirty years' war in Germany.

- 22. The life of Peter the Great of Russia. (See Lord Dover's Lives of Eminent Crowned Heads.)
- 23. The Life of Charles XII. of Sweden. (See Lord Dover's Lives.)
- 24. The life of Gustavus Adolphus. (See
- Lord Dover's Lives.)
 25. The Life of Frederic of Prussia. (See
- Lord Dover's Lives.)
 - 26. On the times of Louis XIV.
 - 27. On the times of Charles V. of Spain.
 - 28. On the times of Philip II. of Spain.
 - 29. On the war of the Spanish succession.
 - 30. The seven years' war in Germany.
 - 31. The invasion of Spain by the Moors.
- 32. The trial and execution of the Earl of Strafford. (See *Hume*.)
- 33. The trial and execution of Mary Queen of Scots. (See Robertson.)
- 34. The trial and execution of Charles I. (See *Hume*.)
- 35. The character of Alfred the Great. (See Hume.)
 - 36. The trial and execution of Louis XVI.
 - 37. The life of Napoleon Bonaparte.
 - 38. The life of Henry IV. of France.
 - 39. On the massacre of the Huguenots.
- 40. The life of John Sobieski. (See Lord Dover's Lives.)
- 41. The conquest of Mexico. (See Robert-son's History of America.)
 - 42. The conquest of Peru. (See Robertson.)
- 43. On the British constitution. (See Tytler's Elements.)
 - 44. Lord Anson's voyages.
 - 45. The life of Captain Cook.

CHAPTER VI.

ON FIGURATIVE LANGUAGE.

THE term figure, in its original sense, signifies the form or shape of any thing which is an object of sight. From this proper sense of the word is deduced its secondary signification. A man who is said to make a figure in the world, is one whose actions are so great, or so remarkable, that they present a distinct form to the mind's eye, and stand out in relief, as it were, from the ordinary actions of mankind. On the same principle, the word has been applied to certain forms of expression used in language. These forms or figures of speech are expressions which depart from the common modes of discourse, and are generally used to embellish language, and give dignity and elegance to style. Thus, in common phraseology we say, "restrain your language;" but in using the words, " put a bridle on your tongue," the same idea is conveved in a figure.

Figurative language is neither the invention of philosophers, nor the result of modern refinement, for it is found to have been especially prevalent in the early ages of the world, and in all countries where man appears in a rude, uncivilised state. It is used as frequently by the

illiterate as by the learned, and, indeed, often more correctly by the former than by the latter, since with the vulgar, it is the natural expression of thought, whereas among the learned it is not unfrequently the offspring of affectation, or an overstrained study after ornament.

Analogy, the meaning of which has been already explained in a foregoing chapter of this work, is the foundation of all figurative language. Comparison, metaphor, and allegory, which are the figures chiefly used, all have their origin in analogy, and are essentially connected with it. When we compare anger to a tempest, we find a resemblance between them as to circumstances or effects, but not in any outward appearance. No one will seriously attempt to maintain that the appearance of an angry man resembles in any respect the natural phenomena presented to the eye during a storm, and yet no simile is more obvious, or has been more frequently used. The likeness is perceptible in effects, or in circumstances, not in external appearance.

In the metaphor, which is the most frequently employed of all the figures of speech, words are used in their proper signification, but the ideas which they convey are transferred from one class of objects to another. In this figure a comparison is not expressed between anger and a tempest, but the latter word is introduced in its stead, and placed in all the circumstances in which we are accustomed to regard the former. In like manner, a minister of state is called a pillar; restraint, a bridle; impetuosity, a tor-

rent, &c. In all these cases, it is sufficiently obvious that the figure owes its origin to the

principle of analogy.

An allegory is a story conveying a moral lesson by the narration of circumstances analogous to the instruction it intends to impart; so that this figure may be considered as a series of metaphors, and, consequently, its origin may be referred to the same principle as that of the metaphor.

Simile or Comparison.

Let the pupil discover the points of resemblance which exist between the given subjects, and express the comparison in a form somewhat similar to the following:—

Old age . . . sunset.

Old age has been called the sunset of life; it is then that the mind, escaped from the agitation and tumult of the passions, is calm and tranquil, like the still screnity of the evening, when the busy sound of labour is hushed, and the glare of the meridian sun has passed away. The soul of the just man, conscious of his own integrity, like the glorious orb enveloped in those mellow tints which are then reflected from it in a thousand hues, sinks into a peaceful slumber, again to rise in brighter splendour, and renew in another world the course destined for it by the Almighty Ruler of the universe.

SUBJECTS FOR COMPARISON.

youth

old age

the ocean joy and sorrow

a journey

a hill

a tree

the sun

Morning Night Life Light and shade Life Knowledge Science Charity An evil conscience Good intentions Good principles Pity Firmness Envv Nature Earth Man The moon A warrior An unpolished diamond A flower in the desert

a clear stream
a rock
dew
an oak
rust
a nurse
a mother
a tree
a shield
a raging torrent
uncultivated genius
modest and neglected talent
a swarm of bees

the stormy ocean

An army
The wind over a corn-field
A youth slain in battle

the plumes and crests of warriors a flower cut down by a plough.

Let the learner find subjects drawn from sensible nature which may be compared, severally, with the following abstract qualities, each to be expressed in a separate sentence:—

Perseverance
Ignorance
Death
Memory
Moderation
Justice
Anger
Prodigality
Union
Prosperity
Sin
Adversity

Ambition Calumny The mind Happiness War Difficulties Avarice Melancholy Affliction Imagination Peace Virtues. The pupil is here to express a comparison between the following natural objects, and those moral qualities which they may be said to resemble:—

The green turf	A garden	
Rain	Dust	
The snow	A volcano	
A river	A harbour	
A mountain	A spring	
Vapour	A tower	
Blossoms	Sand	
Frost	Straw	
Fragrant herbs	Gulf	
A valley	Glass	
Clouds	Wax	
A field	A water-pipe.	

COMPOUND SUBJECTS.

The sea in a caim	tranquillity of mind		
A puddle in a storm	the vain boastings of the in- significant		
Green shoots round a trunk	children supported by an aged parent		
A devouring boar, laying waste the fields	an oppressive and tyrannical prince		
The heavens spangled with stars	the plumage of a peacock		
The sun breaking through the clouds	honour appearing through a mean habit.		

On Metaphor.

A metaphor differs from a simile only in form of expression, for comparison is the foundation of both these figures of speech. In a simile, two ideas are placed distinctly before our eyes, and compared together, whereas in a metaphor one idea only is expressed, performing the office, or placed in the circumstances of another; by which means two ideas are compared in thought, though not in expression. On this principle, the word head is often used to express eminence or superior talents. In speaking of a man of distinguished abilities, he may be called, metaphorically, the head of his profession. The metaphor here consists in the implied analogy between the head, which is the highest part of the human body, and the position which the person alluded to occupies with respect to the other members of his profession.

METAPHORS (NOUNS).

The following nouns are to be employed metaphorically in short sentences; the words in the first column being used in the sense expressed by those which stand opposite to them in the second, thus:—

Notwithstanding all the temptations held out to him, he resolutely pursued the *path* of integrity, untouched alike by the follies and licentiousness of a corrupt court.

Head	eminence
Crown	glory
The sea	trouble
Dregs	vice
Scum	refuse
Cloak	a covering
Ocean	eternity
Clue	a guide
Blow	heavy affliction
Stream	time
Path	conduct
Spring	source or cause

Fruit	results
Step	impression
Chain	restraint
Fetters	slavery
Smile	fine weather
Voice	noise
Rose	health
Sink	vice
Abyss	ruin
Star	a genius
A cup	sorrow
Rod *	power.

METAPHORS (VERBS).

The werbs in the first column are to be used with the nouns in the second, so as to form together a metaphorical expression, thus:—

London is the very sink of vice; but the spires of her charitable institutions pierce the skies, and avert the wrath of Heaven.

tread roar	path thunder	tremble creep	mountain wind
sit	cloud	pierce	prayer
nod	forests	breathe	cannon
step	sun	murmur	brook
play	sun	strike	death
pass	wind	sweep	destruction
veil	cloud	drain	sorrow
flee	flower	steal	time
paint	fancy	pierce	pinnacle
lift	mountain	seal	ève
fly	fortune	wrap	tomb
reap	fruits	drink	earth
sigh	wind	blush	sky
dance	leaves	waft	sigh.

METAPHORS (ADJECTIVES).

The adjectives in the section (A) are to be employed in sentences metaphorically, with the substantives in the section (B), the pupil selecting the words which correspond with each other severally, in each section, thus:—

The thirsty earth absorbed the falling shower.

(A). Thirsty — silent — furious — tearful — growling — angry — deceitful — pale — lofty — gentle — nipped — rich — lingering —

proud — fierce — yawning — departing — cold — frowning — winding — haughty — erring —

living - wandering, &c.

(B). Ocean — winter — earth — disease — hills — palaces — dart — shore — spirit — winds — mind — beam — spring — hopes — tempest — judgment — light — grave — crag — path — dome — arrow — stream — thoughts, &c.

On Personification.

Personification, or prosopopeia, is the figure which attributes life and animation to inanimate objects. The following extract from the third canto of Lord Byron's Corsair affords a striking example of the beauty and force of this figure:—

" Slow sinks, more lovely ere his race be run Along Morea's hills, the setting sun; Not, as in Northern climes, obscurely bright, But one unclouded blaze of living light! O'er the hushed deep the yellow beam he throws, Gilds the green wave, that trembles as it glows. On old Ægina's rock, and Idra's isle, The god of gladness sheds his parting smile: O'er his own regions lingering, loves to shine, Though there his alters are no more divine. Descending fast, the mountain shadows kiss Thy glorious gulf, unconquered Salamis! Their azure arches, through the long expanse More deeply purpled, meet his mellowing glance: And tenderest tints along their summits driven Mark his gay course, and own the hues of heaven ; Till, darkly shaded from the land and deep, Behind his Delphian cliff he sinks to sleep."

The following expressions (illustrating this

figure) are to be introduced in sentences of the learner's composition:—

Sleep embraces — The laws require — Justice demands — Nature speaks — The evening invites — Night stretches — The moon gilds — Nature nurses — The thunder roars — Blushes paint — The morning smiles — The sun climbs the hill — Care keeps watch — Night spreads her curtain — Vengeance bares his arm — Time has tamed — Years had ploughed — Britain saw — Death prepared his dart — Memory wept — Freedom shricked — Rapine prowls — Murder stalks — The vessel cleaves — Time had ploughed — Wisdom strays — Hope fled — Loye watches, &c.

On Allegory.

An allegory is a descriptive figure, which not only conveys a general moral, but in which the circumstances mentioned in the narration, though possessing a meaning different from that which is actually expressed, correspond, severally, with some point in the instruction which the allegory contains. Thus Horace (Book I. Ode 14.), describing the dangers of the Roman state, represents it under the image of a ship, and expresses his fears for its safety in technical allusions to the various parts of the vessel, and to the perils to which it is exposed from the winds and waves.

Almost all the moral philosophy of the ancients was imparted by allegory; for what are

usually called fables and parables are nothing but various forms of this figure, in which feelings or qualities attributed to animals or material objects represent the sentiments and dispositions of men.

The following is an example of a happily executed allegory, taken from No. 55. of the

Spectator:

"There were two very powerful tyrants engaged in a perpetual war against each other: the name of the first was Luxury, and of the second. Avarice. The aim of each of them was no less than universal monarchy over the hearts of mankind. Luxury had many generals under him, who did him great service, as Pleasure, Mirth, Pomp, and Fashion Avarice was likewise very strong in his officers, being faithfully served by Hunger, Industry, Care, and Watchfulness: he had likewise a privy-counsellor, who was always at his elbow, and whispering something or other in his car. The name of this privy-counsellor was Poverty. As Avarice conducted himself by the counsels of Poverty, his antagonist was entirely guided by the dictates and advice of Plenty, who was his first counsellor and minister of state, who concerted all his measures for him, and never departed out of his sight. While these two great rivals were thus contending for empire, their conquests were very various. Luxury got possession of one heart, and Avarice of another. The father of a family would often range himself under the banners of Avarice, and the son under those of Luxury. The wife and husband would often declare themselves on the two different parties: nay, the same person would very often side with one in his youth, and revolt to the other in his old age. Indeed, the wise men of the world stood neuter; but, alas! their numbers were not considerable. At length, when these two potentates had wearied themselves with waging war upon one another, they agreed upon an interview, at which neither of their counsellors was to be present. It is said that Luxury began the parley, and after having represented the endless state of war in which they were engaged, told his enemy, with a frankness of heart which is natural to him, that he believed they should be very good friends. were it not for the instigations of Poverty, that pernicious counsellor, who made an ill use of his ear, and filled him with groundless apprehensions and prejudices. To this Avarice replied, that he looked upon Plenty (the first minister of his antagonist) to be a much more destructive counsellor than Poverty; for that he was perpetually suggesting pleasures, banishing all the necessary cautions against want, and consequently undermining those principles on which the government of Avarice was founded. At last, in order to come to an accommodation, they agreed upon this preliminary, that each of them should immediately dismiss his privycounsellor. When things were thus far adjusted towards a peace, all other differences were soon accommodated, insomuch that, for the future, they resolved to live as good friends and confederates, and to share between them whatever conquests were made on either side. For this reason, we now find Luxury and Avarice taking possession of the same heart, and dividing the same person between them. To which I shall only add, that since the discarding of the counsellors above mentioned, Avarice supplies Luxury in the room of Plenty, as Luxury prompts Avarice in the place of Poverty."

For a further study and imitation of this figure, the student is referred to the Visions of Mirza, and the Paradise of Fools, Nos. 159. and 460. of the Spectator; Truth, Falsehood, and Fiction, No. 96. of the Rambler; Thomson's Castle of Indolence, &c.

CHAPTER VII.

ON THEMES.

WHEN the pupil has been sufficiently practised in writing the foregoing sketches, he may proceed to the consideration of the THEME, which is a form of exercise frequently given to young persons at a very early period of their advancement, and long before they can have possibly acquired the command of expression and strength of intellect requisite for such a task. The lessons in the earlier portion of this work will prepare the mind for the exercise of its reasoning powers; and it may be presumed that the faculties of those who have diligently pursued the course of instruction here laid down, are by this time sufficiently developed to enable them to trace the connection between cause and effect, and to support their own opinions by a regular chain of argument. But, however well the mind may be prepared for this exercise, the subject proposed for the theme should be always discussed between the teacher and scholar previously to any attempt made on the part of the latter, in order that he may fully understand the nature of the various heads under which the subject is arranged, as well as the connection by which they are all held together.

Subjects proposed for themes are of two sorts; either some abstract idea, concerning which it is required to deliver an opinion, and prove its correctness according to established rules; or some received maxim, the truth of which is to be proved by a similar process of reasoning. One objection to this mode of treating subjects is, that there are very few questions which will admit of the same form of argument, or which can be divided in the same manner, and that the endeavour to discuss them all according to the same model produces an awkward stiffness in the style, and a disjointed effect in the composition.

The practice of theme-writing is, however, so salutary, and has so direct a tendency to strengthen the reasoning faculty, that this may be considered a secondary objection; and in order to obviate its effect as much as possible, each subject may be treated according as its nature and the suggestion of the teacher may direct; that is, some of the given heads may be omitted, and others substituted, as may be found expedient.

The various heads under which subjects for themes are generally treated are as follows:

1. The definition or proposition.

2. The judgment or opinion.

3. The cause or reason.

4. The confirmation.

5. The simile or comparison.

6. The example.

7. The quotation; and 8. The conclusion. It will be proper here to offer some explanation of these terms, and of the manner in which they are to be used.

The DEFINITION is an explanation in simple

terms of the nature or quality of the subject proposed for composition. In giving this explanation, two things must be remembered; first, that no word can be defined by a single term; and secondly, that neither the word itself, nor any of its derivatives, can be allowed to be used in its own definition.*

Dr. Watts, in his well-known treatise on Logic, has laid down an excellent rule for the definition of terms, and one which will generally be found useful to beginners. He says, that in order to arrive at the exact definition of a word. it will be necessary to examine its two states or natures; its general, and its particular nature. By its general nature he signifies those properties which it possesses in common with many other things of the same sort; and by its particular nature he means those qualities which distinguish it from those of its own sort. Thus, suppose wine to be the proposed word. has two natures: 1. It is a juice: this property it has in common with many other liquids, and it is therefore considered its general nature. 2. Wine is the juice of a certain fruit - of the grape: these words "of the grape," then, show the particular nature of the juice in question; and the two natures, being put together, make up the required definition, "wine is the juice of the grape." It is true that this definition might

^{*} I have made these remarks in consequence of frequently finding young persons fall into the errors to which I here allude. For instance, when requiring a definition of engy, I have been told that it was malice, or that it was an envious feeling.

be much enlarged and improved; but still it is sufficiently correct to answer our present purpose; and the rule, it is hoped, will serve in some degree to remove the difficulty which presents itself to the unpractised writer at the commencement of the composition.

To assist in defining, a knowledge of Etymology will often be of much service; and hence the great advantage of even a slight acquaintance with ancient languages. To this it has been objected, that many English words which are derived from Latin or Greek no longer retain the signification in which they were originally used; and that etymology has given rise to many fanciful theories, most of which are calculated rather to puzzle than to enlighten the young mind. Be this as it may, it cannot be denied that this branch of study, when conducted with moderation, and according to received principles, must have a beneficial tendency. By making ourselves acquainted with the original meaning of a word, and by tracing the various modifications the same word has undergone through the lapse of ages up to our own times, we are led into many reflections on the nature of the human mind, and on changes in the habits of men, and the customs of society, which are no less interesting than instructive, and which raise the mind from silly and frivolous pursuits to objects far more worthy its attention.

If, then, we attend to the derivation of those words we are required to define, we shall, in most cases, furnish ourselves with a key to their explanation. Few words, if any, are found to

have become so changed as not to retain some portion of their original signification; and we shall generally find, that though time and circumstances may have contributed materially to alter their particular nature, that their general nature remains unchanged. Thus, in the case This word signifies of the word diversion. literally the act of turning from; di being the particle conveying the idea of separation, and version the abstract idea of the act of turning, from the Latin verb verto, I turn. There can be no doubt that this word, like all other abstract words, was originally used to represent the bodily act of turning away, and that it was afterwards employed to signify the turning of the mind from the consideration of grave and serious subjects, to things requiring a less laborious exertion. Similar remarks will apply to almost all the words expressive of moral qualities or intellectual faculties.

After laying down the definition, amplified to whatever extent may be found expedient, the pupil is required to offer his opinion of Judgment respecting the subject proposed for discussion. And here it is necessary that he be very cautious, and reflect carefully before committing his judgment to paper; since upon that judgment must depend the whole management of all the remaining parts of his theme. Supposing, then, that the subject laid down be some moral quality, the pupil must give his opinion in general terms of its fitness or unfitness for society; whether it be productive of benefit or of evil to mankind in general; whether

to be recommended to all persons, or to some only, and to whom in particular. These questions must, of course, depend on the nature of the subject proposed for consideration.

In considering the third division of the theme, the CAUSE OF REASON, it is advisable to refer the pupil to his JUDGMENT, which must always precede it; and direct his mind to those reflections which gave rise to the opinion he has already expressed concerning the question under consideration. Those who have acquired the habit of judging for themselves, have but little difficulty in assigning a reason for arriving at a conclusion upon any proposed question; but young persons are so little in the habit of reflecting, and are so unaccustomed to consider the causes which give rise to their opinions, that this portion of the composition may offer them almost insurmountable difficulties.

It is obvious that no judgment which is the result of conviction can be laid down without some previous reflection; and it is, therefore, to those thoughts which immediately precede and lead to our judgment, that we must look for its cause. Cause and effect, indeed, seem so closely connected, and are so wholly dependent upon each other, that it is, in many cases, difficult to consider them apart; and the mind, when directed to the one, almost unconsciously reverts to the other. We cannot reasonably assert the goodness or badness of any quality or substance without being prepared to give a reason for our judgment thus pronounced; and it is surely the first duty of a rational being not to be de-

pendent on the opinions of others, but to decide for himself on those subjects which are within the reach of his understanding.

Among those causes of truths which are universally admitted, may be cnumerated,—1. The evidence of the senses. 2. The universal consent of mankind. 3. The testimony of credible witnesses, &c.

Next follows the CONFIRMATION. By this term is meant nothing more than an additional cause, tending to show the accuracy of the judyment, or an argument corroborating the truth of the reason already laid down. In the same way as, in a case of litigation, the concurring testimony of several persons becomes an evidence conveying conviction of its truth to the minds of the hearers; so does the strengthening aid of the confirmation serve to establish the correctness of the opinion which the writer has already expressed in his judgment. Here, the student need not confine himself to one argument only, but may adduce as many as he may think proper; always, however, bearing in mind that his object is to prove the truth of the opinion he has already expressed, and taking care that all his remarks, in this and the remaining parts of his composition, may have that tendency.

The division of the subject to be next considered is the SIMILE OF COMPARISON. A simile is a likeness which is found to exist between some object in external nature, and a moral or intellectual quality. This similarity it is for the pupil to discover and express. It may be, perhaps, of some service to remind him that a

close resemblance may generally be discovered between the warmer and more vehement passions of the heart, and objects denoting or producing heat; as also between the calmer feelings of the mind, and the external serenity or coldness of nature. Thus, the effects of benevolence may be compared to the vivifying influence of the sun; those of anger to a raging fire devouring every thing which lies in its way; envy, to the gnawing worms or to rust, which corrodes the hardest substances; gloominess of temper, to a cloudy sky; and so forth.

Colours, again, afford us a fertile source of comparison. The brighter hues may be compared to the more cheerful states of the mind; whilst the graver and more serious feelings of our moral nature may be said to resemble those of a deeper cast. Thus, youth and cheerfulness may be compared to green; mirth and joy, to red; majesty, to purple; jealousy, to pale yellow;

grief, to black, &c.

Another source of comparison may be found in motion. The rapid torrent, or boiling whirl-pool, naturally suggests the idea of furious rage; the gliding stream, gentleness of disposition; indecision of character may be compared to a swinging lateral motion, as that of the boughs of a tree, blown to and fro at every gust of the wind; and constancy or firmness of mind, to those rocks or trees which resist the most violent shocks of the tempest.

In the next division of the Theme, the pupil is required to quote an EXAMPLE from history, illustrative of the truth of his opinion already

delivered. Here, it may be advisable to caution him against a very common practice with young writers ;-that of adducing an instance, instead of an example, of the virtue or vice under dis-A distinction, however, exists. An instance of generosity is the relation of some particular case in which that quality is shown forth; but an example of generosity is the person in whom it is known to have existed in an eminent degree. Thus, Julius Cæsar is an example, not an instance, of clemency. The story, again, of the murder of Clitus by Alexander the Great, is an instance of ungovernable passion. of which Alexander himself may be properly cited as an example. In fine, an example is a person whose conduct is held up either for our imitation or avoidance; whereas an instance is nothing more than an anecdote or story illustrative of certain good or bad qualities.

To those who are conversant with history, no difficulty will arise in finding examples for any moral quality concerning which they may have to write; but as many young persons are but imperfectly acquainted with this branch of knowledge, it is recommended that the teacher should not furnish the pupil with an example, but, after discussing this part of the subject with him, should refer him to a certain reign or division in history, in which he will be likely to find one suited to his purpose. By adopting this plan, the pupil will not only have his curiosity awakened, but will also insensibly acquire the useful habit of referring for any

information he may require upon subjects in general.

It has hitherto been the practice with those who have written upon the subject of Themes, to introduce, in addition to the parts already explained, a PROVERB, or a QUOTATION from some author of acknowledged merit, whose authority is considered as tending to strengthen the opinions held by the writer. How far this practice is to be recommended, may be questionable. It certainly requires a considerable extent of reading to enable any one to cite a quotation which will aptly illustrate every varicty of subject upon which he may be required to write; and it can hardly be expected that pupils can possess that extent of reading which such a power would demand. This question, again, must be left to the teacher's determin-It may, however, be recommended. that, in a course of general reading, the pupil's attention be specially directed to those passages which are usually quoted, some of which he may be required to copy out, and commit to memory. By this means he will soon acquire sufficient materials to be used as authority, whenever occasion may require.

In that part of the composition entitled the CONCLUSION, all the arguments used throughout the discussion may be briefly alluded to, and brought to bear upon the truth of the judgment already expressed. Thus, the evidence which has been gradually accumulating in the course of the composition will at length produce a conviction in the reader's mind, that

the opinion arrived at in the commencement of the theme is just and accurate.

A theme, then, appears to be nothing more than a definition, and a judgment delivered upon that definition, accompanied by arguments to prove its truth. The definition explains the nature of the subject; the judgment expresses the writer's opinion concerning it; and the arguments go to show that this opinion is correct. According to this statement, the terms cause, confirmation, simile, example, quotation, &c. are all arguments in favour of that view of the subject which the writer has adopted. Beside those above mentioned, many other sources of argument may be used effectively, with which it will be proper here to make the pupil acquainted.

Universality. — Under this head, the writer should consider the view which is universally taken of the subject in question; i. e. in what way it has been regarded by all nations, and at all times. If he can show that this view accords with his opinion, it will afford him a powerful argument in farour of his position, and may be used effectively in its support.

The Locality considers the opinions held on the subject in one particular place; and if in favour of the writer's opinion, an argument drawn from this source may be still stronger than those adduced under the head "universality." For whatever credit we may give to universal opinions, we are apt to attach a greater importance to those held by persons more immediately within the sphere of our own observation; and every one must know, from experience, that what we see makes a deeper impression upon our minds than what we hear.

Contrast.—Another mode of proving the truth of what we have advanced, is to show the absurdity of the contrary; or to exhibit the result, if the contrary proposition were admitted. Though this mode of argument is more frequently applied to mathematical reasoning, it may be often introduced with great effect in moral questions.

Antiquity.—The opinions held by the philosophers of Greece and Rome have in all succeeding ages been looked upon with veneration, and may be quoted as a concurring proof that the writer's conclusions are just.

The Novelty is an exposition of the view taken of the subject by the moderns. If this be found to coincide with the opinions of the ancients, it may be assumed as a corroborative proof of the correctness of the judgment laid down.

Effects and Experience are two other sources whence arguments may be derived in support of opinions. These two heads are dependent upon observation. The moral effects of education are perceived in the conduct of life, either nationally or individually. The physical effects of disease are shown in the external appearance of the body. The effects of a cultivated intellect may be observed in the remarks of the well-educated, &c. In many cases, individual experience will lead us to just

conclusions; and the accumulated experience of ages may, indeed, be employed as one of the strongest arguments in favour of an advanced opinion.

These are the principal sources of the arguments generally used in support of the truth of assertions. Others will frequently arise from the nature of the subject in discussion, or will suggest themselves to the mind of the writer. For these, no remarks are necessary.

The following sketches have been drawn up with a view to facilitate the task of the pupil in the composition of the theme. It is not, however, necessary that all the questions contained in each sketch be made use of in the composition. Those especially which have reference to figurative language, or contain allusions to classical literature, may be omitted if it be found expedient.

SKETCHES FOR THEMES.

On Education.

What do you understand by the word Education?—Its derivation?—Amplify—Is it an object of importance?—Why?—What was the opinion of the ancients on this subject?—Does the subject occupy much attention at the present time?—Is it universally considered of consequence?—How?—In this country?—What do our daily observation and experience teach

us on this head?—What are the effects of education, both on the mind and the body?—Draw a contrast between an educated and an uneducated person.—Show the advantages—and disadvantages—bodily—mental.—Conclude.

On Anger.

What is meant by the term Anger? — Does this passion produce any visible effect on the person? — What? — What opinion have you to deliver respecting this passion? — What are its usual effects? — Find, in some natural object, a resemblance to the effects of unrestrained rage — Give an example from history — Mention some of the best modes of regulating this passion, or of avoiding its occasions—Its effects on society — Draw a contrast between a man of a calm, placid temper, and one of a hasty, irritable disposition — Show the advantage, under as many heads as possible, of regulating the angry feelings of our nature.

On Temperance.

What is signified by the word Temperance?

What judgment have you to lay down respecting it?— How are the actions and conduct of a temperate man distinguished?—

Mention the results of intemperance, and the good effect of abstemious habits—The opinions of the ancient poets—What is the general opinion on the subject of temperance in the present day?—May the word be taken in more

senses than one? — How? — Explain — Temperance in food — language — pleasure — exercise, &c. — Mention the general advantages — Draw a conclusion.

On Society.

What is Society? — Has it always existed? — Under what forms at first? — What are its benefits? — Has it any disadvantages? — Does society improve the human mind? — In what way? — Arts? — Sciences? — Show the difference between a state of barbarism and that of civilisation? — Mention some of the vices engendered by an over-refined state of society — and the pernicious effects resulting to the community from them — Give historical examples of these effects.

On Perseverance.

How do you define Perseverance? — Is it a commendable quality? — In what does it differ from obstinacy? — What are the certain results of this virtue? — Mention the bad effects of a contrary quality — Can you find any comparison in the works of nature? — What examples may be cited from history, to prove what may be done by perseverance? — Is it a quality necessary to all persons? — Conclude.

On Procrastination.

Define the word Procrastination — Explain the derivation of the term — What are the

effects of a habit of precrastination? — What excuses are generally made by those who delay the performance of their duty? — What are the results of a contrary habit? — What is to be gained, and what lost, by procrastination? — What motives have we for active exertion? — Concluding remarks.

On Flattery.

What do you understand by the word Flattery?— Degrees of flattery—With what feelings should we regard the flatterer?—and the flattered?—What are generally the motives of the flatterer?—What are the effects of flattery on those who are deceived by it?—What age is most likely to suffer from its influence?—What conclusion may be drawn from the above remarks?

On Industry.

Explain the meaning, and show the derivation of the word Industry—How does the possession of this quality increase our enjoyment of life?

—What are its effects on the body as well as on the mind? — Show the results of idleness — Is industry a virtue necessary for all ranks?—To what may idleness be compared? — In what light should we regard pleasures? — What motives have we for the acquirement of industrious habits? —Conclude.

On Time.

What is Time?—How is it measured?— What remarks have you to make on the variety of seasons, changes of day and night, &c.?—What lesson should we learn from this?—What use should we make of time?—The shortness of life—Improvement in virtue—necessity of not delaying—opinions of poets and philosophers—Concluding remarks.

On Resentment.

What is resentment, and in what does it differ from anger? — What are its effects, both upon ourselves, and the objects of our resentment? — What reflections should induce us to overcome angry feelings? — Motives — justice — generosity — Allowances to be made for others — passion — prejudice — natural impetuosity.

Other reflections — Self-humiliation — inconvenience — disadvantage — internal unhappiness.

Habits to be acquired in order to overcome this feeling.

On Piety.

Who is the proper object of piety? — How do you explain the term? — to what does it serve as a foundation? — What does its absence argue? — Why should the Supreme Being be the particular object of our veneration? — Give several reasons — Maker — Creator — gratitude — Reverence due to sacred things and persons — The odiousness of levity with respect to religious matters — Caution against spiritual pride — True religion, social — kind — cheerful — pro-

fess when necessary, but make no ostentation of piety.

On Providence.

What attribute of the Divine Being is expressed in the word *Providence?*— Draw a picture of the condition and wants of man if unaided by Providence— food— clothing—shelter—animals—reason of man superior to physical strength of animals— What do these remarks prove?— Conclude.

On Envy.

What is envy? — Who are the objects of this passion? — Is it of frequent occurrence? — Is it a difficult passion to conquer? — why? — What considerations should induce us to root it from our nature? — What are its effects upon ourselves? — What is the difference between a robber and a slanderer? — What circumstance aggravates the injuries caused by envy? — What considerations should induce us to avoid such depravity?

On Courage.

How may courage be defined? — What are its results to the possessor? — Why? — Is it a natural quality, or one to be acquired? — What reflections does this lead to? — May courage be perverted? — What conclusions may we arrive at from the preceding considerations?

On Hope.

What are the effects of hope on the human mind? — Under what circumstances are its

effects particularly felt? — Does hope confine itself to the things of this world? — Why does the pleasure of anticipation so often surpass that of possession? — How does it act in the affairs of life? — and on our death-bed? — What reflections suggest themselves?

On Death.

What necessity is imposed upon us by the reflection that we must all die? — What difference is perceived between the death of the good and that of the wicked? — Draw a picture — When viewed as the beginning of a new state? — What is the best preparation for a happy death? — To what resolutions should these reflections lead us? — How should life be considered? — What should be our constant aim?

On Night.

Define the subject — Describe the circumstances of night — flowers — birds — bees — sleep — tranquillity — voices of men — noise of occupation — Reflections — watchful care of Providence — simile — "the curtains of darkness" — Thoughts for the ensuing day, &c.

On Poetry.

What is poetry?—its origin?—its date?—metre?—rhyme?—object of poetry?—original use of poetry?—various sorts of poetry?—heroic—lyric—didactic—epic, &c.—The difference between poetical and prose lan-

guage? — Mention the most celebrated English poets and their works — Conclude.

On Sloth.

In what way may this vice be defined?—What are its general, and what its particular effects?—Show the different effect produced by the contrary virtue—Are men intended to be actively employed?—What is understood by "activity of mind?"—In what state would society be, if all men were slothful?—study—habits of thinking—Comparison—Cultivation of the earth, &c.—Conclude.

On Charity.

What does the word charity signify? — Benevolence — aid to the poor — kindness to the failings of others — What are the motives for the exercise of this virtue? — Self-examination — weakness of human nature — The necessity of cultivating a benevolent disposition — a Christian spirit — show examples from the Scriptures — Concluding remarks.

On Contentment.

What are the peculiar characteristics of a contented mind? — What are the temptations to discontent? — Show the contrast between a contented, and a discontented state of mind — What is the end of our being? — therefore — motives for contentment — comparison with the condition of others — The wisdom of Providence — The daily blessings of life — life itself — The power of action both of mind and

body — The evil results of harbouring a discontented spirit — Defluction.

On Good Humour.

Definition of good humour—amplify—Is it a quality easy of acquirement?—Show the difference between mirth and good humour—The effects of good humour on ourselves—and on others—False notions entertained by many on this subject—The advantages of acquiring this habit—Is it attainable by all persons?—what conclusion?

On Justice.

What is understood by the word justice?—Is it required of all?—How is that?—Are there several ways of being unjust?—thought—word—deed—injustice by cheating—injustice by slander—injustice by forming a false estimate of our neighbour's character—The necessity of forming a correct judgment of persons as well as of things—the main business of life—mind to be strengthened—prejudices to be overcome—the queen of virtues—Examples—Conclusion.

On Adversity.

Adversity what? — Its advantages — general and particular — Truth — humility — fortitude — resignation — how should we consider it? — a lesson — examples — quotation from Shakspeare — trial of friendship — comparison — all subject to adversity — Historical examples — Concluding remarks.

On Falsehood.

What is falsehood? — Its baseness and meanness — What are the usual motives for lying? — its effects upon society in general — upon the deceiver and the deceived — What does the liar gain by his falsehood? — How may falsehoods be distinguished? — The lie of vanity — The lie of commerce — The lie of malice — describe and amplify upon these three heads — Evils of a habit of exaggeration — Concluding remarks.

On Avarice.

Why so detestable? — How does society suffer from this vice? — The misery of the avaricious deadens sympathy — The covetous shunned by mankind — The real use of money — Avarice its own punishment — The necessity of restraint — Motives — considerations on the subject — Conclusion.

On Friendship.

How defined — its uses and advantages — proper foundation of friendship — The friendship of the wicked — what? — Examples of friendship drawn from the Scriptures or from ancient history — favourite subject of discussion among the ancients — Cicero's treatise on friendship — false friends — the infrequency of firm friendship — the causes for this — sympathies — artificial mode of life — Concluding remarks, &c.

On Pride.

What is pride? — What are its effects? — What is the difference between pride and vanity? — Pride the origin of many vices — which? — disturber of human happiness — The miseries to which pride gives rise in the heart — The happy consequences of banishing this evil from our nature — The necessity of humility, &c.

On Benevolence.

The source of benevolence — The necessity of cherishing kindly sympathies — and sacrificing selfishness — maternal sympathy — The state of a human being devoid of all sympathy — The necessity of this feeling for the existence of a social state — The motives for benevolence — Concluding remarks, &c.

On Moderation.

The necessity of avoiding extremes — Show the pernicious results arising from a want of this quality — Show the opposite vices into which virtues themselves may fall — Liberality, Extravagance; Economy, Avarice; and others — The difficulty of preserving a just medium — The necessity of keeping even virtues within proper bounds — Opinions of the ancients — Conclusion.

On Affectation

The folly of assuming a character not our own — Who is deceived by such an assumption?

— What gives rise to this quality? — What feelings does it create in others? — To what quality is it opposed? — What is gained by affectation? — Motives for avoiding affectation — What age is most liable to it, and should therefore most carefully guard against it? — Concluding remarks.

On Filial Affection.

What is understood by filial affection? — Duty — Gratitude — natural — Odiousness of filial ingratitude — Sentiments of the ancients upon this subject — The ordination of Providence — Mutual affection between parent and child — Happiness of both interested — Strong bond of society — All affected by it — Conclusion.

On Biography.

Define the word biography — What is its use? — Of what description of persons are the lives generally written? — In what does it differ from history? — How does it afford a better example? — Is greater interest excited by biography than by history? — How is this? — What is meant by autobiography? — What specimens of biography have we in the English language? — Describe them.

On History.

What is history? — What are its uses?— How is it divided? — Sacred and profane ancient and modern — What lesson may be drawn from a proper study of history? — Quote from Pope — "The proper study," &c. — How may this be done by fistory? — Mention the names of the principal Greek and Roman historians and their works — Can England boast of many great names in this department of literature? — Mention them and the subjects of their writings.

On Curiosity.

Is curiosity an inherent principle in the human mind? — What does it signify? — May this principle be abused? — How? — What are its effects when well directed? — The effects of an idle curiosity — For what improvements in the mechanical arts are we indebted to this principle? — On what occasions should curiosity be gratified, and when restrained? — Give instances — Conclude.

On Government.

What is signified by the word government?

— Whence does it derive its origin? — How is it necessary? — Show the effects of anarchy — Which was the earliest mode of government? — Whence is this deduced? — What qualities naturally give one man a power over others? — Which are or have been the prevailing modes of government? — Mention the names, derivations, advantages, and disadvantages, belonging to each of them respectively — What government do we enjoy in this country? — Show the advantages of the English constitution — Conclude.

On Generosity.

The meaning of the word — The limited sense in which it is frequently taken — No real generosity without a sacrifice — The effects of this quality upon its possessor — In what points do justice and generosity differ? — Is generosity conformable to a Christian character? — Is it always requited? — Historical instances of this virtue — Concluding remarks.

On Learning.

What is understood by the word learning?

— What difference exists between learning and wisdom? — May a man be learned without being wise? or the reverse? — which is preferable? and why? — ought learning to produce or increase wisdom? — how can it effect this? — What is pedantry? — What ought to be the effect of learning on the human mind? — Has it always this effect? — Conclude.

On Music.

What does music express? — Is it an art or a science? — Mention the different styles of music — dramatic — religious — martial, &c. — What are their respective effects? — The general influence of music — instrumental — vocal — melody — harmony — The music of the ancients — Modern music — The Italian — German, &c. schools of music — Names of great artists — What should be the object proposed in cultivating this art? — Draw a conclusion.

On Painting.

What is painting? — In what does it differ from drawing? — Where must we look for the origin of this art? — Historical painting — landscape painting — portrait painting — Describe each sort, and its object — cultivation of the eye — perspective — light and shade — brilliancy of colour — What are the names of the celebrated ancient painters? — The modern Italian school — The Flemish school — Of what names can England boast in this art? — The object and effects of painting — Conclude.

On Order.

"Heaven's first law"—The use and effect of order — Order in the works of nature — Day and night — seasons — revolutions of planets, &c. — What lesson should we learn from this?— What are the effects of disorder? — To what more serious results does it tend? — Order necessary in small things — An orderly mind perceived from externals — Sum up the advantages — Conclude.

On Obedience.

The necessity of submitting to authority—a law of our nature—none exempt from this law—What is gained by obedience?—Something must always be given up in exchange for an advantage—Father, Son—Husband, Wife—Master, Scholar—King, Subject—Commander, Soldier, &c.—Cases in which obedience is no longer due—Reflections, &c.

On Principle.

What is a principle? — At what period of life should good principles be instilled? — Religious principles — Moral principles — What may be said of those who are guided by no principle? — The results of acting upon impulse — reason — reflection — The advantage of acquiring habits which result from principle — Simile — The difficulty of eradicating bad principles — The duty of examining the real motives of our most insignificant actions — Concluding remarks.

On Punctuality.

The derivation and signification of the term punctuality — What are its advantages? and what the disadvantages resulting from a want of it?—What do we lose by being unpunctual?— and what is the loss to those to whom we fail in fulfilling our engagements?—Reflections and motives which should induce us to practise punctuality.

On' Nobility.

Whence is the word noble derived? — Who were the first nobles? — What qualities are required in particular of those of high rank? — What then constitutes true nobility? — What name was given to the nobles of Rome? — Does this name in any way designate their office? — Who were the nobles of the middle ages? — What part does the nobility of England take in the constitution?—Remarks.

On Self-government.

What is understood by this subject? — Is it necessary that we should be able to control our passions? — Why? — Should we endeayour to entirely extinguish them? — Why not? — What are the consequences of unrestrained passions, both to their possessors and others? — What is the first duty of every man? — Who are most fit to govern others? — Opinions of the ancients — Reflections.

On Vanity.

What is vanity? — In what does it differ from pride? — What feelings does our vanity raise in others? — Why is it so contemptible? — Mention some of the incentives to vanity — In what sort of minds is it found chiefly to exist? — What are its effects upon the general character? — How is it opposed to truth and justice? — What reflections should induce us to avoid this weakness? — Draw a conclusion.

On Writing.

What is writing? — What were the first materials used for writing? — What are the objects and advantages of writing? — What advantage has written over spoken language? — Hieroglyphics — picture writing — metals — bark — papyrus — books — Paper, an invention of the middle ages — Writing from right to left — Boustrophédon — Writing from left to right — Origin of the word verse — General uses of writing.

On Wealth.

General acceptation of the term wealth — What is required of the wealth?— In what light should they consider themselves?— The disadvantages of misapplied wealth — The injustice of extravagant expenditure— The temptations of the opulent — The opportunities of doing good — Mistaken notion that wealth produces happiness— The reverse more frequently the case — Λ competency preferable.

On Truth.

What are the advantages of truth and sincerity? — Which is preferable, appearance or reality? — The best way of appearing to be virtuous? — The character of a dissembler, and the difficulty of dissembling for a long time — Practical truth in the common affairs of life — Honesty the best policy — Contrast between the weakness of deceit, and the strength of integrity — The consistency of truth, and the trouble in which falsehood involves us — Conclusion.

On Taste.

What is taste? — What advantages result from a cultivation of our tastes? — a taste for music, reading, painting, &c. — Beauty — form — colour — combination — sublimity — Of what sort are the pleasures arising from the cultivation of taste? — The importance of cultivating the taste in young persons — enlargement of their circle of innocent amusements —

necessity of a resource in hours of relaxation — Concluding remarks.

On Rashness.

The folly of judging or acting precipitately—Nothing done well that is done in a hurry—The necessity of arriving at just conclusions—The humiliation of continually repenting of our actions—The abuse of our reason—Action should never precede reflection—The certainty of erring when we act from impulse—The opinions of the ancients—Conclude.

On Knowledge.

How are we to consider knowledge? —What influence does it give us over others? — Is it possible to be well-informed upon all subjects? — On what subjects should we make it our duty to inform ourselves? — Against what evils should we guard in acquiring knowledge? — Saying of Socrates — What should be the final object of all knowledge? — Concluding remarks.

On Association.

How do you explain this faculty?—Is it connected with the memory?—How?—Causes of association—Music—sound of voices—tastes—association from contrast—colours, &c.—an assistance to the memory—False associations—ideas arising from associations—pleasurable sensations—Conclusion.

On Virtue.

What is virtue? — What are its inward effects? — Give the cause — Can any virtue exist without a sacrifice? —What is the reward of virtue in this life?—What are the motives to a virtuous life?—Draw a contrast between the virtuous and the wicked — Which is of greater consequence, talent or virtue? — Does virtue embellish talent? — How? — Saying of Plato in praise of virtue — respect paid to the virtuous even by the profligate — Conclusion.

On Commerce.

What is commerce? and whence does it derive its origin? — Mutual interest of nations — Commodities of the northern — and southern climates of Europe — The antiquity of commerce — What people in the early ages of the world were famous for commercial enterprise? — Is it as extensive now as formerly? — In what countries does it especially flourish? — What are the general advantages of commerce? — Is it ever attended with evil results? — What?

On Prudence.

The necessity of acting with caution — Many misfortunes may be obtaited by prudence and foresight — The fallacy of trusting to appearances — A universal maxim — the results of imprudence, a continual and bitter repentance — Let not, however, prudence engender sus-

picion — The general advantages of prudence — Conclude.

On Familiarity.

Be not precipitate in becoming familiar—Esteem often falls in proportion to our intimacy—Difficulty of judging of character—tendency to over-rate—Fable of the frogs—a fault to which the young are very subject—Observations—Concluding reflections.

On Reason.

Define the word reason—What is the use of this faculty? — How are human beings distinguished from the brute creation? — What is the special object of this faculty?—What does a man become when deprived of this power?—What is to be said of those who do not obey reason? — The reasonableness of religion — moral conduct, &c.

On Discretion.

Discretion, what? — Not so shining as useful — The effects of discretion on other good qualities — The particular advantages of a discret conduct — Shining qualities of no avail without discretion — Distinction between discretion and cunning — Their respective aims, views, effects on their possessors, &c. — Conclude.

On Habits.

Define the word — give an opinion — The difficulty of overcoming bad habits, and the necessity of forming good habits — The possi-

bility of conquering habit —The facility of acquiring bad habits — Habits of thought —daily actions — manners — person — The foundation of all good or evil through life — Conclusion.

On Attention.

The necessity of frequently exercising this faculty—The result of a want of attention—No knowledge to be acquired without it—The power of attention dependant upon will—The ignorance resulting from want of habits of observation—Common objects—daily affairs of life, &c.—Conclude.

On Early Improvement.

Rational pleasures necessary to fill up vacant hours—Great object to supply these in youth—A taste for reading—The listless state of those who know not how to pass their time—We all want employment as well as amusement—Pleasure never the main business of life—Knowledge always useful—Reflections—Conclusion.

On Philosophy.

Derivation and meaning of the word philosophy — Mention the two grand divisions of philosophy — Which is the more studied? — Branches of natural philosophy — The philosophy of antiquity — What countries were famous for their philosophers? — Difference between sophist and philosopher — Advantages of philosophy — Errors of the ancient philosophy

sophers — devoid of the light of Christianity — General remarks — Conclusion.

On Good Manners.

What are good manners? — What qualities in the mind produce them? — From what qualities do ill manners arise? — How are we to learn good manners? — Can a person be upright and ill-mannered? — Which are more frequently called into action, abilities or good manners?

On Cheerfulness.

Define cheerfulness — What habit will produce it? —What quality is opposed to a cheerful disposition? — On what does our happiness frequently depend? — Do all men take the same view of the same accidents? — What advantages has the cheerful over the melancholy man? — Motives to cheerfulness — Reflections — Conclude.

On Solitude.

Much desired by those unacquainted with it—not often approved by those who have experienced it—How is this proved?— How is this to be accounted for?—The difficulty of changing habits—The necessity for mental occupation—How does solitude affect occupation?—The ennui of the unoccupied—The proper way to enjoy solitude—Occasional retirement agreeable—why?—Concluding remarks.

On Travelling.

The object of travelling — The pleasure of visiting foreign countries — By what principle is this accounted for? — Learned men among the ancients were all travellers — Mention names—The only means of acquiring knowledge — Travelling among the moderns — navigation — rail-roads — English mania for travelling — The proper disposition for acquiring information, and forming the mind — The general advantages of travelling — Increase of knowledge — Removal of prejudices — Conclusion.

CHAPTER VIII.

ON THE PARAGRAPH.

Before requiring any attempt from the pupil in the construction of the essay, it may be expedient to test his powers by proposing for his imitation short paragraphs, which may be considered parts or divisions of the essay. an exercise to facilitate the manner of treating a question or subject, take a paragraph from the works of some writer of acknowledged eminence, and after diligently perusing it, (observing especially the order in which the propositions follow each other, and the connection which exists between them,) let the pupil write upon any given subject in the same way; that is, without choosing the same or similar expressions, or indeed even the same construction of sentence; but let the paragraph form a model for his imitation rather in reasoning than in expression, and let the sentences, in the paragraph to be written, perform, as it were, the same office as those which correspond with them in the model proposed. This exercise will be useful in two ways; for it will have the effect not only of producing an increased power of expression, but will also give practice in arguing correctly, and will lead to just conclusions upon

questions in general. It is not necessary that the subject of this exercise be always abstract: any simple or common act may be made the subject of a paragraph, and worked out according to any form of argument which may be previously determined upon. It is, however, to be recommended that the parts and divisions of the paragraph, and the mode of reasoning which it contains, be explained, before the pupil attempts the exercise. The head, or leading idea contained in the model, being laid down, he should be shown by what means the assertion thus expressed is proved; whether by amplification, illustration, or argument from generals to particulars, and from particulars to individual cases, &c. As all this, however, may be better explained by example, the following paragraphs, extracted from some of our most eminent essavists, and analysed according to the mode above mentioned, will perhaps convey a clearer idea of the author's intention.

FIRST MODEL.

(General assertion.) "Music, among those who were styled the chosen people, was a religious art. (Particular assertion.) The songs of Sion, which we have reason to believe were in high repute among the courts of the Eastern monarchs, were nothing else but psalms, and pieces of poetry, that adored or celebrated the Supreme Being. (Individual assertion.) The greatest conqueror in this holy nation, after the manner of the old Grecian lyries, did not only com-

pose the words of his divine odes, but generally set them to music himself; after which, his works, though they were consecrated to the tabernacle, became the national entertainment, as well as the devotion of his people."— Spectator, No. 405.

In the above paragraph, the first sentence, "Music, among those who were styled the chosen people, was a religious art," is the general assertion, and the subject of the paragraph, to which all the subsequent sentences have reference. The next sentence, commencing "The songs of Sion," &c., and ending with "the Supreme Being," contains the particular assertion, and tends to show in a stronger light the truth of the introductory sentence. The writer then proceeds to strengthen his position by adducing an individual case — "The greatest conqueror," &c. The whole passage is made up of three assertions — a general, a particular, and an individual assertion. paragraph may be imitated in the following manner.

Imitation.

(General assertion.) Music, in this country, is every where rapidly extending itself. (Particular assertion.) In all parts of England, singing-classes have been lately formed for all grades of society, which promise to effect much for the promotion and diffusion of this delightful art. (Individual assertion.) In fact, it is now scarcely possible to enter a house in which we do not find some of its inmates proficients in music.

And such is the fondness for the art, that many are not satisfied with the practice only, but devote themselves to the study of the principles of harmony, and the rules for musical composition.

Here, again, the object is to prove the truth of the position taken up in the first sentence. This is done, firstly, by the assertion that "singing-classes are formed;" and secondly, that in every *single* house we may have proofs of the estimation in which the art is held.

Let the pupil now write imitations of the following paragraphs, in all of which he must preserve the form above shown, by employing the same mode of argument, i. c., the general, the particular, and the individual assertion.

I.

(1.) "Notwithstanding these follies are pretty well worn out of the minds of the wise and learned in the present age, multitudes of weak and ignorant persons are still slaves to them. (2.) There are numberless arts of prediction among the vulgar, which are too trifling to enumerate; and infinite observations of days, numbers, voices, and figures, which are regarded by them as prophecies. (3.) In short, every thing prophesics to the superstitious man; there is scarce a straw or a rusty piece of iron that lies in his way by accident." — Spectator, No. 505.

Subject for imitation — The frequency of the vice of lying.

ĮI.

(1.) "Among too many other instances of the great corruption and degeneracy of the age in which we live, the great and general want of sincerity in conversation is none of the least. (2.) The world is grown so full of dissimulation and compliment, that men's words are hardly any signification of their thoughts; (3.) and if any man measure his words by his heart, and speaks as he thinks, and do not express more kindness to every man than men usually have for any man, he can hardly escape the censure of want of breeding."

Subject for imitation — "Delays are dan-

gerous."

Let the following subjects be worked out in paragraphs according to the plan adopted in the above models:—

1. Of all the affections which attend human

life, the love of glory is the most ardent.

2. Irresolution and procrastination, in all our affairs, are the natural effects of being addicted to pleasure.

3. Inquiries after happiness, and rules for attaining it, are not so necessary and useful to mankind as the arts of consolation, and supporting one's self under affliction.

4. Chivalry was indebted to religion for much of the ardour with which its votaries were ani-

mated.

5. The treatment of women in Greece and Rome was rigid and degrading.

6. In the reign of Elizabeth, an accurate

acquaintance with the phrases and peculiarities of the ancient poets and historians was made an indispensable and almost the principal object in the education, not only of a gentleman, but even of a lady.

7. The formation of the modern languages of Europe is intimately connected with the

history of the dark ages.

8. A language which has been so much indebted to others, both ancient and modern, must of course be very copious and expressive.

- 9.* The decay of taste, which extended its influence to the production of the fine arts, prevailed likewise in works of literature.
- 10. The Athenians were celebrated for the greatest delicacy of taste.
- 11. Every country possesses, not only a peculiar language, but a peculiar style, suited to the temper and genius of its inhabitants.

12. Curiosity is one of the strongest and

most active principles of human nature.

- 13. History contributes to divest us of many unreasonable prejudices, by enlarging our acquaintance with the world.
- 14. It is the duty of fair criticism to estimate the merit of writers at its just value.
- 15. The sculptors of ancient Greece called forth, by the most lively images, the great events and characters of history.
- 16. No vices are so incurable as those of which men are apt to boast.
 - 17. Singularity is vicious only when it

The decline of the Latin language.

makes men act contrary to reason, or when it puts them upon distinguishing themselves by trifles.

- 18. Every station of life has its proper duties.
- 19. Were all the vexations of life put together, we should find that a great part of them proceed from those calumnies and reproaches which we spread abroad concerning one another.
- 20. Fear is a very powerful passion, since it is esteemed one of the greatest of virtues to subdue it.
- 21. As novelty is of a very powerful, so it is of a most extensive influence.
- 22. The most vicious actions lose their horror by being made familiar to us.
- 23. Method is of advantage to a work, both in respect to the writer and the reader.
- 24. How are we tortured with the absence of what we covet to possess, when it appears to be lost to us!
- 25. There is nothing which we receive with so much reluctance as advice.
- 26. There is a sensible pleasure in contemplating beautiful instances of domestic happiness.
- 27. The more extended our reason is, and the more able to grapple with immense objects, the greater still are those discoveries which it makes of wisdom and providence in the works of the creation.
- 28. Every one who is provided with any competency of fortune more than sufficient for

the necessaries of life, should lay aside a certain proportion of his income for the use of the poor.

- 29. It is of unspeakable advantage to possess our minds with an habitual good intention, and to aim all our thoughts, words, and actions at some landable end.
- 30. Among all the diseases of the mind, there is not one more epidemical or more pernicious than the love of flattery.

The next form of the paragraph is the explanatory. It commences, as in the former model, with an assertion, which is to be explained or elucidated by the propositions immediately following. It is not necessary that these explanations be confined to two or three sentences; but care should be taken that they all bear reference to the first proposition, and that the connection between the various parts of the whole passage be as clear as possible.

SECOND MODEL.

(Leading assertion.) "A man of a polite imagination is let into a great many pleasures that the vulgar are not capable of receiving. (First explanation.) He can converse with a picture, and find an agreeable companion in a statue. (Second explanation.) He meets with a secret refreshment in a description, and often feels a greater satisfaction in the prospect of fields and meadows than another does in the possession. (Third explanation.) It gives him, indeed, a kind of property in every thing he sees, and makes the most rude, uncultivated parts of

nature administer to his pleasures. (Fourth explanation.) So that he looks upon the world, as it were, in another light, and discovers in it a multitude of charms that conceal themselves from the generality of mankind."— Addison.

The second model, extracted from Addison's papers "On the Pleasures of the Imagination," illustrates the explanatory mode of composing the paragraph. In the leading proposition, the author states his opinion concerning the advantages enjoyed by a man of cultivated taste over the minds of the vulgar and illiterate, and he explains his meaning by instancing several cases and various ways in which this takes place.

Imitation.

(1.) A person endowed with a natural taste for music, possesses the means of many enjoyments from which others are wholly debarred.

(2.) The warbling melody of birds and the murmur of waters have for him a charm which cannot be felt by those who have no relish for this exquisite art.

(3.) The very tone of voice of his fellow-creatures ministers a delight to his soul, and affords him a constant and continual source of pleasurable feeling.

(4.) In fine, wherever he turns, all nature seems to open for him fresh sources of happiness, and his life glides on, one endless stream of delightful sensations.

T.

(Leading assertion.) "The origin of building was but little posterior to the origin of mankind. First elucidation.) "Man, naked and defenceless,

as he came from the hand of nature, soon found it necessary to shelter himself from the attacks of wild beasts, and from the invasion of his savage neighbours. He could not lie down to sleep with security, till he had formed a hut, which, however rude and inartificial, might serve the purposes of shelter and defence. (Second elucidation.) If his own wants and natural ingenuity were not sufficient to instruct him how to build, he might learn from the irrational creation. (Third elucidation.) The swallow's nest and the bee's hive suggested hints which he might adopt and improve: but this original species of building, directed by no rules, and destitute of elegance and proportion, cannot properly be said to be the work of art, or to merit the appellation of architecture. (Fourth clucidation.) It was, however, the embryo of those noble edifices which have since adorned all civilised countries." — Kuar.

Subject for imitation—"More misery is produced among us by the irregularities of our tempers, than by real misfortunes."

٦I.

(Leading assertion.) "The nursery has often alleviated the fatigues of the bar and the senate-house. (First elucidation.) Nothing contributes more to raise the gently-pleasing emotions, than the view of infant innocence, enjoying the raptures of a game at play. (Second elucidation.) All the sentiments of uncontrolled nature display themselves to the view, and furnish matter for agreeable reflection to the mind of the philo-

sophical observer. (Third elucidation.) To partake with children in their little pleasures is by no means unmanly. It is one of the purest sources of mirth. It has an influence in amending the heart, which necessarily takes a tincture from the company that surrounds us. Innocence as well as guilt is communicated and increased by the contagion of example. (Fourth elucidation, by example.) And the great Author of evangelical philosophy has taught us to emulate the simplicity of the infantine age. He seems, indeed, himself to have been delighted with young children, and found in them what he in vain sought among those who judged themselves their superiors, unpolluted purity of heart."

Subject for imitation—" One of the first affections which the heart perceives is filial piety."

The following subjects are to be treated according to the mode of reasoning exhibited in the second model:—

1. Distress and difficulty are known to operate in private life as the spurs of diligence.

2. The evils arising from the poverty of the lower ranks are trifling, when compared with those occasioned by their depravity.

3. It is certain that much of the profligacy of the plebeian order arises from their extreme ignorance.

4. Complaints and murmurs are often loudest and most frequent among those who possess all the external means of temporal enjoyment.

5. The want of employment is one of the frequent causes of vice.

- 6. By a just dispensation of Providence, it happens that they who are unreasonably selfish seldom enjoy so much happiness as the generous and contented.
- 7. The mind of man is never satisfied with the objects immediately before it: but is always breaking away from the present moment, and losing itself in schemes of future felicity.

8. There is something inexpressibly pleasing in the annual revolution of the world, and the new display of the treasures of nature.

9. It may be laid down as a position which will seldom deceive, that when a man cannot bear his own company, there is something wrong.

10. The love of retirement has, in all ages, adhered closely to those minds which have been most enlarged by knowledge or elevated by genius.

11. Anger is the great disturber of human life, the chief enemy both of public happiness and private tranquillity.

12. The vanity of being known to be trusted with a secret, is generally one of the chief motives to disclose it.

13. Every man should regulate his actions by his own conscience, without any regard to the opinions of the rest of the world.

14. A man guilty of poverty easily believes himself suspected.

15. It is a maxim commonly received, that a wise man is never surprised.

16. The men who can be charged with fewest failings, either with regard to abilities or virtue, are generally the most ready to allow them.

- 17. Patience and submission are very carefully to be distinguished from cowardice and indolence.
- 18. All the performances of human art at which we look with praise or wonder, are instances of the resistless force of perseverance.
- 19. Of the passions with which the mind of man is agitated, it may be observed that they naturally hasten towards their own extinction, by inciting and quickening the attainment of their objects.
- 20. Reflection is the fittest employment, and the sweetest satisfaction, in a rational old age.

21. In the lower ranks of mankind, we must

not expect refinement.

22. Morality and religion forbid war, in its motives, conduct, and consequences.

23. The idea which Christianity has suggested of the relation in which all men stand to each other, is wonderfully adapted to promote universal hospitality.

24. By laying in a store of useful knowledge, adorning your mind with elegant literature, and improving and establishing your conduct by virtuous principles, you cannot fail of being a comfort to those friends who have supported you, of being happy within yourself, and of being

well received by mankind.

25. To be affected in any way, is, at all times, in all places, and in all degrees, to be disagreeable.

26. To those who are to make their way either to wealth or honours, a good character

is usually no less necessary than address and abilities.

- 27. To do good in an effectual and extensive manner, within the limits of professional influence, is in the power, as it is the duty, of every individual who possesses the use of his faculties.
- 28. Among the various follies by which we increase the natural and unavoidable miseries of life, is the dread of old age.
- 29. The middle ranks of mankind are the most virtuous, the best accomplished, and the most capable of enjoying the pleasures and advantages which fall to the lot of human nature.
- 30. They who are exempted by their elevated condition from the confinement of commercial or professional life, involve themselves in voluntary slavery, by engaging in the service of the tyrant Fashion.
- 31. It is the folly and misfortune of human nature to prefer the present to the future, the agreeable to the useful, the shining to the solid.

The next model proposed for imitation consists of four parts, and is constructed as follows: 1st, a subject is proposed in the first assertion; 2dly, the truth of this assertion is shown by the results of the contrary proposition; 3dly, an inference is drawn from the last assertion; and 4thly, a second inference, in the form of a question or exclamation, closes the whole paragraph.

THIRD MODEL.

(1. Proposed subject.) "I am fully persuaded that one of the best springs of generous and

worthy actions, is the having generous and worthy thoughts of ourselves. (2. Contrary proposition.) Whoever has a mean opinion of the dignity of his nature, will act in no higher a rank than he has allotted himself in his own estimation. (3. First inference.) If he considers his being as circumseribed by the uncertain term of a few years, his designs will be contracted into the same narrow span he imagines is to bound his existence. (4. Second inference.) How can he exalt his thoughts to any thing great and noble, who only believes that, after a short turn on the stage of this world, he is to sink into oblivion, and to lose his consciousness for ever?"

The introductory proposition here lays down the subject, viz. the author's opinion, that elevated thoughts on the dignity of our nature form a strong motive for meritorious actions. The writer then shows the justness of this opinion, by exhibiting the result of a contrary habit of thinking; and he finishes the passage with two deductions dependent upon, and drawn from, the second proposition.

The following paragraph may be suggestive of the manner in which this model may be imitated.

Imitation.

(1.) Nothing can be more inexcusable than the state of those who never bestow a thought on their moral and intellectual improvement.

(2.) The habit of considering the nature of his being and the perfectibility of the human naind, will be a powerful inducement in determining

every sensible man to make a progress in virtue. (3.) When he reflects upon the dignity of human nature, and his own immortal destiny, he must surely be prompted by every motive to strive to attain that height of moral excellence which is permitted to his mortal condition. (4.) How is it possible for one whose mind is habitually elevated by such noble thoughts to remain long grovelling in ignorance, or subjected to the base influence of immorality?

T.

(1.) "That the desire of knowledge for its own sake is an adventitious passion, unknown to nature, and to be classed among the refinements of civilisation, is an opinion unsupported by experience, and derogatory from the native dignity of a rational creature. (2.) Fancy and sentiment, the powers of the intellect, and the feelings of the heart, are, perhaps, by nature equally strong and susceptible in the rude Indian and in the polished member of an established community. (3.) Perhaps these similar powers would be equally fit for exertion, and their propensities equally importunate for gratification, if the savage were not constantly engaged in providing for that necessary sustenance which, without his own interposition, is commonly secured to the philosopher."

Subject for imitation—"Travellers have been often censured for enumerating what are called trifling occurrences."

II.

(1.) "It is certainly true, that when a government bestows particular honour on men who have written against the religion of the country, and who have impiously fought against the King of kings, it must lose the respect and attachment of all good men. (2.) The religion of a country is unquestionably worthy of more solicitude in its preservation than the political constitution, however excellent and admirable. (3.) Kings, with all their minions and prerogatives, lawgivers and laws, are trifles compared to that system of religion on which depends the temporal and eternal welfare of every individual throughout the empire. (4.) What avails it that, under a successful administration, the French are beaten, and the Americans scourged for the sin of rebellion, if the same administration ruins our best, our sweetest hopes — those which rely on the protection of a kind Providence, and those which cheer us in this vale of misery, by the bright gleams of a sun which shall rise to set no more?"

Subject for imitation — "Levity, which is indeed intimately allied to luxury, is fatal to liberty."

The following subjects are to be treated in the manner shown in the third model:—

- 1. Paternal authority, and the order of domestic life, supplied the foundation of civil government.
- 2. The boasted liberty of a state of nature exists only in a state of solitude.

3. Popular elections procure to the common

people courtesy from their superiors.

4. As aversion to labour is the cause from which half of the vices of low life deduce their origin and continuance, punishments ought to be contrived with a view to the conquering of this disposition.

5. It should be an indispensable rule in life to contract our desires to our present condition; and, whatever may be our expectations, to live within the compass of what we actually possess.

6. By forbearing to do what may innocently be done, we may hourly add new vigour to resolution; and secure the power of resistance, when pleasure or interest shall lend their charms to guilt.

7. The obedience of children to their parents is the basis of all government; and set forth as the measure of that obedience which we owe to those whom Providence has placed over us.

8. To hear complaints with patience, even when complaints are vain, is one of the duties

of friendship.

9. He that is conceited of his own wisdom, strength of parts, and improvement in knowledge, cannot submit his mind to notions which he cannot easily comprehend and penetrate.

10. In your pursuits of pleasure and amusement, it will be happy for you to select those only which are innocent and allowable, and which leave behind them no sorrowful reflections.

11. Without your own best exertions, the concern of others for your welfare will be of little avail.

12. The main secret of being sublime, is to say great things in few and plain words.

13. Curiosity is one of the strongest and most

active principles of human nature.

- 14. L'take it to be the regiongest proof of a noble mind, to bear great dities without discovering in a man's time four any consciousness that he is superior to the rest of the world.
- / 15. We can derive but little improvement from the teacher we contemp.
- 16. To the wicked, and indeed to all who are warmly engaged in the vulgar pursuits of the world, the contemplation of rural scenes, and of the manners and natures of animals, is perfectly insipid.
- 17. There are many who spend much of their time in reading, but who read, as they play at cards, with no other intention but to pass the time without labouring under the intolerable burthen of a total inactivity.
- 18. The government of the temper, on which the happiness of the human race so greatly depends, can never be too frequently or too forcibly recommended.
- 19. The best school for the improvement of reason, after a competent education, is the living world.
- 20. The want of employment is one of the frequent causes of vice; but he who loves a book will never want employment.
- 21. The most attractive beauty of the person

results from the graces of the mind.

22. The mind of man, when free from natural defects and acquired corruption, feels no less a

tendency to the indulgence of devotion than to love, or to any other of the more refined and elevated affections.

- 23. There is perhaps no method of improving the mind more efficacious, and certainly none more agreeable, than a mutual interchange of sentiments in an elegant and animated conversation with the serious, the judicious, the learned, and the communicative.
- 24. Men act wrong scarcely less often from the defect of courage, than of knowledge and of prudence.

25. The first object of a youth who possesses affluence acquired by his forefathers, should be the improvement of his mind.

26. There are few conditions less desirable than that of the man who has no resources in himself, and who is totally dependent on others for his daily amusement.

27. Religion, indeed, is able of itself most effectually to dissipate the clouds, and to diffuse a sunshine on the evening of life.

28. One of the most useful effects of action

is, that it renders repose agreeable.

29. To say much in a few words is certainly a great excellence, and at the same time a great

difficulty in composition.

30. The great evil of solitude is, that reason becomes weak for want of exercise, while the powers of the imagination are invigorated by indulgence.

The fourth model proposed for imitation consists of four parts, and is constructed on the

following plan: 1st, an assertion; 2dly, an amplification of the assertion; 3dly, a consequence; and 4thly, a conclusion.

FOURTH MODEL.

(1. Leading assertion.) "There are, indeed. but very few who know how to be idle and innocent, or have a relish of any pleasures that are not criminal. (2. Amplification.) Every diversion they take is at the expense of some one virtue or another, and their first step out of business is into vice or folly. (3. Consequence.) A man should endeavour, therefore, to make the sphere of his innocent pleasures as wide as possible, that he may retire into them with safety, and find in them such a satisfaction as a wise man would not blush to take. Conclusion.) Of this nature are those of the imagination, which do not require such a bent of thought as is necessary to our more serious employments, nor, at the same time, suffer the mind to sink into that negligence and remissness which are apt to accompany our more sensual delights; but, like a gentle exercise to the faculties, awaken them from sloth and idleness, without putting them upon any labour or difficulty." — Addison.

In the above passage, the author's intention is to show the advantages of cultivating our tastes; and with a view to this end, he sets out by affirming that it is difficult for a man to remain in a state of total inaction without incurring the danger of indulging in criminal pleasures. This is done in the assertion and

amplification (Nos. 1. and 2.) of the paragraph. Assuming the truth of this assertion, the writer then draws a consequence from it, viz. the expediency of enlaging our circle of innocent pleasures; and concludes by strongly recommending those of the imagination, as being strictly of that description.

The following paragraph is composed in imita-

tion of the fourth model.

Imitation.

(1.) Of all the vices to which human nature is subject, there is perhaps none which argues such confirmed depravity of heart as an inclination to slander the good name of others; (2.) and to procure gratification to ourselves by detracting from the merit of the great or the good. (3.) Every man should therefore endeavour to divest himself of all those passions or prejudices which may in any way tend to pervert his judgment; and before he passes sentence on the works or character of his neighbour, he should consider seriously whether his opinion be founded on pure motives. (4.) Considerations of this nature will not only have the effect of strengthening his mind, and leading him to just conclusions, but will also make him more lenient to the failings of others, and prepare his heart for the exertion of those kindly feelings for which it appears naturally formed.

I.

(1.) "It avails little to point out evils without recommending a remedy. (2.) One of the first rules which suggests itself is, that families should endeavour, by often and seriously reflecting on the subject, to convince themselves, that not only the enjoyment, but the virtue of every individual, greatly depends on union. (3.) When they are convinced of this, they will endeavour to promote it; and it fortunately happens that the very wish and attempt of every individual in the family must infallibly secure success. (4.) It may, indeed, be difficult to restrain the occasional sallies of temper; but where there is, in the more dispassionate moments, a settled desire to preserve union, the transient violence of passion will not often produce a lasting rupture."

Subject for imitation — "From whatever motive it arises, an anxious curiosity to know the reports concerning ourselves, is an infallible

cause of misery."

II.

(1.) "The passion for novelty and singularity is, however, often found to prefer the new and uncommon, even to allowed and established excellence: (2.) and for the gratification of this inborn avidity of human nature, absurdities, long exploded and relinquished, are often revived, and fanciful and monstrous innovations introduced. (3.) It is not therefore surprising, however culpable, that, in opposition to the general taste of mankind, many still admire and labour to restore the Gothic architecture; or that, tired of Grecian beauty, they endeavour to

import into northern climates a style which they call oriental, but which is often mixed and modified with their own grotesque or puerile inventions. (4.) Ingenuity of design, skill in execution, and rarity of appearance, may cause even buildings of this fantastic form to excite a transient pleasure among the curious or the uninformed; but it is to be hoped that the general depravity of taste which can render them objects of general approbation will not soon take place."

Subject for imitation — "To those who are to make their own way, either to wealth or honours, a good character is usually no less necessary than address and abilities."

The following subjects are to form the heads of paragraphs to be composed according to the mode of reasoning explained in the fourth model:—

1. The most attractive beauty of the person results from the graces of the mind.

2. Whoever considers the natural effect of excessive indulgence, in relaxing and weakening the tone of the mind, will immediately perceive how pernicious it must be to human nature in general, and to each particular society.

3. There will always be many, in a rich and civilised country, who, as they are born to the enjoyment of competent estates, engage not in business, civil or professional.

4. It is of the utmost importance to mankind, that positions of an immoral tendency should be laid open and confuted.

- 5. The serious and impartial retrospect of our conduct is indisputably necessary to the confirmation or recovery of virtue.
- 6. Nothing is more unjust, however common, than to charge with hypocrisy him that expresses zeal for those virtues which he neglects to practise.
- 7. That eminence in learning is not to be gained without labour, at least equal to that which any other kind of greatness can require, will be allowed by those who wish to elevate the character of a scholar.
- 8. To lay open all the sources from which error flows in upon him who contemplates his own character, would require more exact knowledge of the human heart than perhaps the most acute and laborious observers have acquired.
- 9. There are men who always confound the praise of goodness with the practice, and who believe themselves mild and moderate, charitable and faithful, because they have exerted their eloquence in commendation of mildness, fidelity, and other virtues.
- 10. The misfortunes which arise from the concurrence of unhappy accidents should never be suffered to disturb us before they happen.
- 11. The maxim of Cleobulus the Lindian, Mediocrity is the best, has been long considered a universal principle, extended through the whole compass of life and nature.
- 12. There is one reason seldom remarked, which makes riches less desirable. Too much wealth is very frequently the occasion of poverty.

- 13. The fondest and firmest friendships are dissolved by such openness and sincerity as interrupt our enjoyment of our own approbation.
- 14. It is the faculty of remembrance which may be said to place us in the class of moral agents.
- 15. The true enjoyments of a reasonable being do not consist in unbounded indulgence, or luxurious ease; in the tumult of passions, the languor of indolence, or the flutter of light amusements.
- 16. Society is the true sphere of human virtue.
- 17. There is not a common saying which has a better turn of sense in it, than what we often hear in the mouths of the vulgar, that custom is a second nature.
- 18. The first steps towards evil are very carefully to be avoided.
- 19. There is not a more pleasing exercise of the mind than gratitude.
- 20. The middle condition seems to be the most advantageously situated for the gaining of wisdom.
- 21. To an honest mind, the best perquisites of a place are the advantages it gives a man of doing good.
- 22. It is the work of a philosopher to be every day subduing his passions, and laying aside his prejudices.
- 23. The vice of drunkenness has very fatal effects on the mind, the body, and fortune of the person who is devoted to it.

24. There is scarce a man living who is not actuated by ambition. •

25. Every station of life has duties which

are proper to it.

26. Were all the vexations of life put together, we should find that a great part of them proceed from those calumnies and reproaches which we spread abroad concerning one another.

27. If ordinary authors would condescend to write as they think, they would at least be al-

lowed the praise of being intelligible.

28. It is not unworthy observation, that superstitious inquiries into future events prevail more or less in proportion to the improvement of liberal arts and useful knowledge in the several parts of the world.

29. We find from experience, that through the prevalence of custom, the most vicious actions lose their horror, by being made familiar

to us.

30. The design of learning is, as I take it, either to render a man an agreeable companion to himself, and teach him to support solitude with pleasure, or if he is not born to an estate, to supply that defect, and furnish him with the means of acquiring one.

31. A cheerful mind is not only disposed to be affable and obliging, but raises the same good-humour in those who come within its in-

fluence.

In writing an essay, it is a frequent practice to lay down the general assertion in a distinct and separate paragraph, and to continue the argument in another paragraph containing a more detailed account of the question mentioned in the first. This may be styled, the *introductory* paragraph, which may be seen in the following

FIFTH MODEL.

(Introductory paragraph.) "Few institutions can contribute more to preserve civilisation, and promote moral and intellectual improvement among all ranks of people, than the establishment of public lectures in every part of the kingdom, periodically repeated after a short interval.

(Detail.) "Such is the light in which are to be considered the discourses appointed by the wisdom of the Church to be everywhere held on the recurrence of the seventh day. By these, the meanest and most illiterate are enabled to hear moral and philosophical treatises on every thing which concerns their several duties, without expense, and without solicitation."

The introductory paragraph here contains the author's opinion of the advantages derived from public lectures generally; and the following division enters into a more detailed account of his views on the subject. Sometimes, an introductory paragraph contains the various heads under which the subject may be considered, each of which is afterwards discussed respectively in separate paragraphs. For our present purpose, however, two will be sufficient.

The above model may be imitated as follows:

Imitation.

(Introductory paragraph.) Riches, which are so ardently desired, and which with the generality of mankind produce so much envy towards their possessors, do not in reality confer those advantages which so many believe them to possess. Indeed, it would not be difficult to show, that in most cases, the evils they engender far outweigh any benefits they may bestow, and that in this, as in many other instances, men are deceived by appearances.

(Detail.) Most, if not all the train of calamities resulting from ill-regulated passions, or depravity of heart, may be traced to this source. The rich man has opportunities and temptations of gratifying his passions and pampering his appetites, from which his less opulent neighbour is preserved; an exemption which every rational man should regard as one of the most fortunate privileges of his condition.

I.

(1.) "Eloquence is numbered among those arts which, instead of making a progressive improvement in the course of revolving ages, have greatly receded from their original excellence.

(2.) "The funeral orations and panegyries of a few Frenchmen, are the only pieces among the moderns which make pretensions to rhetorical composition. These, however, may appear very elaborate and unnatural; whether from the barrenness of the subjects, or from the weakness

of the orators, is foreign to the purpose. From whatever cause it proceeds, it appears that ancient eloquence is not restored by those efforts which are allowed to have been most successful."

TT.

- (1.) "Let the enlargement of your knowledge be one constant view and design in life; since there is no time or place, no transaction, occurrence, or engagement, which excludes us from this method of improving the mind.
- (2.) "When we are in the house or city, whereever we turn our eyes, we see the works of men; when we are in the country, we behold more of the works of God. The skies, the ground, above and beneath us, and the animal and vegetable world round about us, may entertain our observation with ten thousand varieties."

Two paragraphs are to be written on the following subjects, according to the construction explained in the fifth model.—

- 1. It is a general observation, that the character and disposition of every man may, in some degree, be guessed at from the formation and turn of his features; or, in other words, that the face is the index of the mind.
- 2. I cannot think it extravagant to imagine that mankind are no less in proportion accountable for the ill use of their dominion over creatures of the lower rank of beings, than for the exercise of tyranny over their own species.
 - 3. There is a restless endeavour in the mind

of man after happiness. This appetite is wrought into the original frame of our nature, and exerts itself in all parts of the creation that are endued with any degree of thought or sense.

- 4. The same faculty of reason and understanding which places us above the brute part of the creation, also subjects our minds to greater and more manifold disquietudes than creatures of an inferior rank are capable of feeling.
- 5. There is no maxim in politics more indisputable than that a nation should have many honours in reserve for those who do national services. This raises emulation, cherishes public merit, and inspires every one with an ambition which promotes the good of his country.

6. Undeserved praise can please only those who want merit, and undeserved reproach

frighten only those who want sincerity.

- 7. There are several persons who have many pleasures and entertainments in their possession which they do not enjoy. It is, therefore, a kind and good office to acquaint them with their own happiness, and turn their attention to such instances of their good fortune as they are apt to overlook.
- 8. It is a peculiar happiness to a people, when the men of superior genius and character are so justly disposed in the high places of honour, that each of them moves in a sphere which is proper to him, and requires those particular qualities in which he excels.
 - 9. Learning, as it polishes the mind, enlarges

our ideas, and gives an ingenious turn to our whole conversation and behaviour; has ever been esteemed a liberal accomplishment; and is, indeed, the principal characteristic that distinguishes the gentleman from the mechanic.

- 10. That there is a vanity inherent in every author, must be confessed, whatever pains he may take to conceal it from the rest of mankind.
- 11. When we consider that our language is preferable to most, if not all others now in being, it seems something extraordinary that any attention should be paid to a foreign tongue, that is refused to our own, when we are likely to get so little by the exchange.
- 12. Among the many inconsistencies which folly produces, or infirmity suffers in the human mind, there has been often observed a manifest and striking contrariety between the life of an author and his writings.
- 13. It is recorded of some eastern monarch, that he kept an officer in his house, whose employment it was to remind him of his mortality, by calling out every morning, at a stated hour, Remember, prince, that thou shalt die.
- 14. Among the numerous stratagems by which pride endeavours to recommend folly to regard, there is scarcely one that meets with less success than affectation, or a perpetual disguise of the real character by fictitious appearances.
- 15. There are few tasks more ungrateful than for persons of modesty to speak their own praises. In some cases, however, this must be

done for the general good, and a generous spirit will on such occasions assert its merit, and vindicate itself with becoming warmth.

16. I would propose the following methods to the consideration of such as would find out their secret faults, and make a true estimate of themselves.

17. Nature does nothing in vain; the Creator of the universe has appointed every thing to a certain use and purpose, and determined it to a settled course and sphere of action, from which, if it in the least deviates, it becomes unfit to answer those ends for which it was designed.

18. There is hardly any thing gives me a more sensible delight than the enjoyment of a cool still evening, after the uneasiness of a hot,

sultry day.

19. Man, considered in himself, is a very helpless and a very wretched being. He is subject every moment to the greatest calamities and misfortunes. He is beset with dangers on all sides, and may become unhappy by numberless casualties, which he could not foresee, nor have prevented had he foreseen them.

20. There is no one passion which all mankind so naturally give into as pride, nor any other passion which appears in such different disguises. Is it not a question whether it does more harm than good in the world? — and if there be not such a thing as what we may call

a virtuous and laudable pride?

21. If we regard poverty or wealth as they are apt to produce virtues or vices in the mind of man, one may observe that there is a set of

each of these growing out of poverty, quite different from that which rises out of wealth.

- 22. The time present seldom affords sufficient employment to the mind of man. Objects of pain or pleasure, love or admiration, do not lie thick enough together in life to keep the soul in constant action, and supply an immediate exercise to its faculties.
- 23. "There is nothing," says Plato, "so delightful as the hearing or the speaking of truth." For this reason, there is no conversation so agreeable as that of the man of integrity, who hears without any intention to betray, and speaks without any intention to deceive.
- 24. A contented mind is the greatest blessing a man can enjoy in this world; and if, in the present life, his happiness arises from the subduing of his desires, it will arise in the next from the gratification of them.
- 25. There is nothing which betrays a man into so many errors and inconveniences as the desire of not appearing singular; for which reason it is very necessary to form a right idea of singularity, that we may know when it is laudable, and when it is vicious.
- 26. It was a good piece of advice which Pythagoras gave to his scholars, that every night, before they slept, they should examine what they had been doing that day, and discover what actions were worthy of pursuit to-morrow, and what little vices were to be prevented from slipping unawares into a habit.
- 27. Man may be considered in two views, as a reasonable and as a sociable being, capable

of becoming himself either happy or miserable, and of contributing to the happiness or misery of his fellow-creatures.

- 28. There is scarce a man living who is not in some degree guilty of calumny. It generally takes its rise either from an ill will to mankind, a private inclination to make ourselves esteemed, an ostentation of wit, a vanity of being thought in the secrets of the world, or from a desire of gratifying any of these dispositions of mind in those persons with whom we converse.
- 29. Mankind may be divided into the merry and the serious, who, both of them, make a very good figure in the species, so long as they keep their respective humours from degenerating into the neighbouring extreme; there being a natural tendency in the one to a melancholy moroseness, and in the other to a fantastic levity.
- 30. The desire of knowing future events is one of the strongest inclinations in the mind of man. Indeed, an ability of foreseeing probable accidents is what, in the language of men, is called wisdom and prudence: but, not satisfied with the light that reason holds out, mankind hath endeavoured to penetrate more compendiously into futurity.
- 31. The proper way to make an estimate of ourselves, is to consider scriously what it is we value or despise in others.

The next model for imitation is formed of the following parts:—

1. A supposition or concession; 2. a dependent assertion; and 8. a cause or a result of this assertion. The following paragraph will illustrate this form.

SIXTH MODEL.

(1. Concession.) "If we have selected for the subject of our present memoir an ancestor whose memory is held in just veneration by his descendants, (2. A dependent assertion.) our preference is fully borne out by the distinguished place which his writings still maintain in the estimation of the public. (3. Cause.) A life devoted to the advancements of the interests of the Church, which he defended with eminent zeal and ability, against the host of enemies by which it was assailed, deserves to be recorded among the worthics of this nation."

Here the author commences by admitting that he has selected the life of Stillingfleet as a subject for a memoir, and proceeds, secondly, to give his reasons for so doing; thirdly, the cause of the reputation which the bishop's works still maintain, and reasons for his deserving a place among the distinguished characters of the nation, complete the whole paragraph. This model may be imitated thus:—

Imitation.

(1.) Were it possible to contemplate a social state in which all human passions should be extinguished, where all men should be equal in

rank, and where neither hope nor fear should exist, (2.) the ordinary springs of action, the usual motives to great and generous deeds, would of necessity, in such a state, cease to influence the human heart. (3.) There could be no kindly impulses, if there were no longer a necessity for their action. Society would then sink into an inactive, listless state, in which, as there would be nothing either to hope or fear, there could be no longer any merit or demerit in actions, since such a state of things would naturally destroy the very existence of good and evil.

T.

(1.) "Were the sun which enlightens this part of the creation, with all the host of planetary worlds that move about him, utterly extinguished and annihilated, (2.) they would not be missed more than a grain of sand upon the sea-shore. (3.) The space they possess is so exceedingly little in comparison of the whole, that it would scarce make a blank in the creation. The chasm would be imperceptible to an eye that could take in the whole compass of nature and pass from one end of the creation to the other; as it is possible there may be such a sense in ourselves hereafter, or in creatures which are at present more exalted than ourselves."

II.

(1.) "Though the fallibility of man's reason, and the narrowness of his knowledge, are very

liberally confessed, (2.) yet the conduct of those who so willingly admit the weakness of human nature, seems to discover that this acknowledgment is not altogether sincere; (3.) at least, that most make it with a tacit reserve in favour of themselves; and that with whatever ease they give up the claim of their neighbours, they are desirous of being thought exempt from faults in their own conduct, and from error in their opinions."

The following concessive members of paragraphs are to be expressed differently by the learner, and the other parts to be added in a paragraph of his own composing:—

1. If the most active and industrious of mankind was able, at the close of life, to recollect distinctly his past moments, and distribute them, in a regular account, according to the manner in which they have been spent,

2. If any passion has so much usurped our understanding as not to suffer us to enjoy advantages with the moderation prescribed by reason,

3. As no one can be said to enjoy health, who is only not sick, unless he feel within himself a lightsome and invigorating principle, which will not suffer him to remain idle, but still spurs him on to action, so,

4. As in the works of nature no man can call a river deep, or a mountain high, without the knowledge of many mountains and many rivers, so,

- 5. If we hope for things of which we have not thoroughly considered the value,
- 6. Whether it be that life has more vexations than comforts, or, what is in event just the same, that evil makes deeper impressions than good, it is certain
- 7. Suppose a deed of grace were offered to the outlaws of an offended government, and they were to turn their backs on the gracious offer
- 8. If any of you are conscious that you have not forgiven a neighbour when he has trespassed against you; if any of you are conscious that you have taken a malicious pleasure in making a brother's offences known, and injuring his credit;
- 9. If a wish could transport me back to those days of youth when a draught from the next clear spring could slake any heats which summer suns and youthful exercise had power to stir up in the blood,
- 10. If the heat of temper would suffer a man to attend to those whose age and long acquaintance with business give them an indisputable right to deference and superiority,
- 11. Whatever advantages of fortune, birth, or any other good, people possess, above the rest of the world,
- 12. If we look into the manners of the most remote ages of the world, and read the accounts of men and women as they are given us by the most ancient writers, both sacred and profane,
 - 13. Notwithstanding the plausible reason with

which men of all sects would excuse their respective superstitions,

14. If we look abroad upon the great multitude of mankind, and endeavour to trace out the principles of action in every individual, it will, I think, seem highly probable that

15. Though the pure consciousness of worthy actions, abstracted from the views of popular applause, be to a generous mind an ample reward, yet

16. When we see men of inflamed passions, or of wicked designs, tearing one another to pieces by open violence, or undermining each other by secret treachery,

17. If the talent of ridicule were employed to laugh men out of vice and folly,

18. Since, then, it is certain that our own hearts deceive us in the love of the world, and that we cannot command ourselves enough to resign it, though we every day wish ourselves disengaged from its allurements;

19. As this passion for admiration, which is so vehement in the fair sex, improves the beautiful part of our species in every thing that is laudable, so

20. When we consider how many dark and intricate motives there are to detraction and defamation, and how many malicious spies are searching into the actions of a great man, who is not always the best prepared for so narrow an inspection,

21. If a concern for pleasing others arises from an innate benevolence,

22. If those persons who believe in a future

state of rewards and punishments, form their opinions of a man's morit from his successes, ...

23. There is no doubt but the proper use of riches implies that a man should exert all the good qualities imaginable; and if we mean by a man of condition or quality, one who, according to the wealth he is master of, shows himself just, beneficent, and charitable,

24. If the observation is true, that a man improves more by reading the story of a person eminent for prudence and virtues, than by the finest rules and precepts of morality,

25. Though the proper education we should give ourselves is, to be prepared for the ill events and accidents we are to meet with in a life sen-

tenced to be a scene of sorrow,

26. If we compare the value of the praise obtained by fictitious excellence, even while the cheat is yet undiscovered, with that kindness which every man may merit by his virtue, and that esteem to which most men may rise by common understanding steadily and honestly applied,

27. So few of the hours of life are filled up with objects adequate to the mind of man, and so frequently are we in want of present pleasure

or employment, that

28. However popular those writers may become who have displayed any of that uniform peculiarity in their style which renders it easily imitable,

29. So powerful are the instigations of avarice, and so easy is it to deceive the young, the simple, the innocent, and the unsuspecting, that

30. Whatever may be the *political* advantages of a very populous capital....

31. In whatever light the art of printing may

be viewed,

In addition to the practice afforded by the above models, it will be of great service to the learner, occasionally to examine the constructive parts or paragraphs of a composition, and give, either in writing or by word of mouth, an explanation of the mode of reasoning pursued in them. By thus frequently directing his attention to the philosophy of construction, he will soon gain the power not only of using similar forms of argument in his own compositions, but of creating new models for himself.

Being thus well exercised in investigating the reasoning, and imitating the construction of the Paragraph, it may be fairly presumed that he is ready to enter upon the study of the Essay, of which, indeed, the Paragraph is to be con-

sidered but as a component part.

CHAPTER IX.

ON THE ESSAY.

THE Essay, though no longer so common a form of writing, nor so generally popular as formerly, may yet be used with great advantage as a means of drawing out the reasoning faculties of the young, and giving them practice in com-

posing upon abstract subjects.

This form of composition differs from the narrative, in as much as, since it generally treats of moral qualities, it cannot be similarly constructed; and it also differs from the theme, as its divisions are arranged more according to the will of the writer, than in the latter composition, where a stricter regard to close reasoning is required. Indeed, so great a latitude of construction is allowed to the essayist, that it may be reasonably doubted whether any two essays would, upon investigation, be found constructed on an exactly similar plan.

If, however, we examine the form of the essay, we shall find that, notwithstanding the licence allowed as to its arrangement and reasoning, a certain intention in the whole composition will be always perceived, and will seldom fail to be discovered by an attentive reader. It will be the teacher's duty to direct the attention of the

learner, not only to the modes of argument used in each consecutive division of the essay, but also to the chain of reasoning, by which the whole composition is held together.

In order to facilitate this process, we shall proceed to analyse one of Addison's essays in the manner above explained, and shall select for that purpose his first paper on the Pleasures of the Imagination, No. 411. Spectator.

1. "Our sight is the most perfect and most delightful of all our senses. It fills the mind with the largest variety of ideas, converses with its objects at the greatest distance, and continues the longest in action without being tired or satiated with its proper enjoyments. The sense of feeling can, indeed, give us a notion of extension, shape, and all other ideas that enter at the eye, except colours; but at the same time it is very much straitened and confined in its operations to the number, bulk, and distance of its particular objects. Our sight seems designed to supply all these defects; and may be considered as a more delicate and diffusive kind of touch, that spreads itself over an infinite multitude of bodies, comprehends the largest figures, and brings into our reach some of the most remote parts of the universe."

The author, having here proposed to himself as a subject "the Pleasures of the Imagination," commences by stating his opinion in favour of the sense of sight; that sense from which the pleasures in question take their rise. This is followed by three reasons for that opinion. He then compares the sense of seeing with that of feeling, showing in what they differ, and in what respect the one is superior to the other. This may be termed the preliminary paragraph.

2. "It is this sense which furnishes the imagination with its ideas; so that by the pleasures of the imagination or fancy (which I shall use promiscuously), I here mean such as arise from visible objects, either when we have them actually in our view, or when we call up their ideas by paintings, statues, descriptions, or any the like occasion. We cannot, indeed, have it single image in the fancy, that did not make its first entrance through the sight; but we have the power of retaining, altering, and compounding those images which we have once received, into all the varieties of picture and vision that are most agreeable to the imagination: for by this faculty, a man in a dungeon is capable of entertaining himself with scenes and landscapes, more beautiful than any that can be found in the whole compass of nature."

The writer here proceeds to affirm that it is from the sense of sight that the pleasures of which he treats take their origin, and mentions some of the various occasions which call them forth.

3. "There are few words in the English language which are employed in a more loose and uncircumscribed sense than those of the Fancy and the Imagination. I therefore thought it necessary to fix and determine the notion of these two words, as I intend to make use of them in the thread of my following speculations, that the reader may conceive rightly what is the subject which I proceed upon. I must, therefore, desire him to remember, that, by the pleasures of the imagination, I mean only such pleasures as arise originally from sight, and that I divide these pleasures into two kinds: my design being, first of all, to discourse of those primary pleasures of the imagination which entirely proceed from such objects as are before our eyes; and in the next place, to speak of those secondary pleasures of the imagination which flow from the ideas of visible objects, when the objects are not actually before the eye, but are called up into our memories, or formed into agreeable visions of things that are either abstract or fictitious."

Here, in order that the reader may clearly understand the question before him, the author goes on to point out the signification in which he intends the terms fancy and imagination to be understood; and secondly, notifies his intention of considering the subject under two

heads; those of primary and secondary pleasures.

4. "The pleasures of the imagination, taken in the full extent, are not so gross as those of sense, nor so refined as those of the understanding. The last are indeed preferable. because they are founded on some new knowledge or improvement in the mind of man; yet it must be confessed that those of the imagination are as great and transporting as the other. A beautiful prospect delights the soul as much as a demonstration; and a description in Homer has charmed more readers than a chapter in Aristotle. Besides, the pleasures of the imagination have this advantage above those of the understanding, that they are more obvious, and more easy to be acquired. It is but opening the eye and the scene enters: the colours paint themselves on the fancy, with very little attention of thought or application of mind in the be-We are struck, we know not how, with the symmetry of any thing we see; and immediately assent to the beauty of an object, without inquiring into the particular causes and occasions of it."

In this paragraph, the pleasures of taste are compared with those of sense and intellect, and though the author admits, that intellectual pleasures are more pure and refined than those of taste, he affirms that the latter afford quite as much enjoyment, which opinion is supported in the two following sentences. He then proceeds further to recommend the cultivation of these pleasures on the score of the facility with which they may be obtained, and concludes the passage with a few remarks illustrative of this latter assertion.

5. "A man of a polite imagination is let into a great many pleasures that the vulgar are not capable of receiving. He can converse with a picture, and find an agreeable companion in a statue. He meets with a secret refreshment in a description, and often feels a greater satisfaction in the prospect of fields and meadows, than another does in the possession. It gives him, indeed, a kind of property in every thing he

sees, and makes the most rude, uncultivated parts of nature administer to his pleasures so that he looks upon the whole world, as it were, in another light; and discovers in it a multitude of charms, that conceal themselves from the generality of mankind."

This paragraph contains another argument in favour of the cultivation of the imaginative faculty, on the principle that it increases our power of being happy, and almost infinitely multiplies our opportunities of mental gratification. For a further explanation of this passage, see the 2d Model, p. 270.

6. "There are, indeed, but very few who know how to be idle and innocent, or have a relish of any pleasures that are not criminal: every diversion they take is at the expense of some one virtue or another; and their very first step out of business is into vice or folly. A man should endeavour, therefore, to make the sphere of his innocent pleasures as wide as possible, that he may retire into them with safety; and find in them such a satisfaction, as a wise man would not blush to take. Of this nature are those of the imagination, which do not require such a bent of thought as is necessary to our more serious employments; nor, at the same time, suffer the mind to sink into that negligence and remissness, which are apt to accompany our more sensual delights; but, like a gentle exercise to the faculties, awaken them from sloth and idleness, without putting them upon any labour or industry."

A powerful argument is here used in support of the writer's recommendation, i. e. the expediency of multiplying those pleasures which may be indulged in without risk. He sets out with the assertion, that few men, in their intervals of relaxation from business, know how to escape the snares of vice; and then shows the necessity of filling up our leisure hours with such pleasures as shall not affect our innocence. Lastly, he concludes by asserting that the

pleasures he recommends are precisely of this nature, showing also the advantage they possess in requiring a moderate exercise of the faculties, without too laborious an exertion of the intellect.

7. "We might here add, that the pleasures of the fancy are more conducive to health than those of the understanding, which are worked out by dint of thinking, and attended with too violent a labour of the brain. Delightful scenes, whether in nature, painting, or poetry, have a kindly influence on the body as well as the mind; and not only serve to clear and brighten the imagination, but are able to disperse grief and melancholy, and to set the animal spirits in pleasing and agreeable motion. For this reason, Sir Francis Bacon, in his 'Essay upon Health,' has not thought it improper to prescribe to his reader a poem or a prospect, where he particularly dissuades him from knotty and subtle disquisitions; and advises him to pursue studies that fill the mind with splendid and illustrious objects, as histories, fables, and contemplations of nature."

The concluding division of the essay contains three parts: 1. Another assertion in support of the question. 2. An illustration; and 3. The authority of an eminent writer, adduced to prove the justness of the opinion delivered in the first assertion.

If we now retrace our steps, and once more consider the construction of this essay, we shall find it to consist of seven paragraphs or divisions.

- 1. The superiority of the sight over the other senses.
- 2. The pleasures of the imagination, derived from the sight.
- The definition of the author's meaning in the expression, "pleasures of the imagination."

- 4. A comparison with other pleasures.
- 5. The extent of these pleasures.
- 6. The advantages of these pleasures.
- 7. How they are preferable to purely intellectual pleasures.

A subject being now proposed to the pupil, he should be first required to divide it into as many parts as may be convenient, and to lay down, in the manner above shown, the heads under which the subject is to be considered in the various divisions of his composition. Let him then write, under each other, sentences which are to form the leading general assertions of the paragraphs he has determined upon, and work out each paragraph according to whatever model may best suit the mode of argument he intends to pursue in each division respectively. Thus, the reasoning upon the subject, and the modes of expressing the arguments to be used, being predetermined, the learner, after the practice he has already had in writing upon the models, will have but little difficulty in putting together the whole composition. But in this. as in all exercises to be attempted by the learner, the teacher should carefully ascertain before hand what ideas the learner entertains upon the proposed subject, and should, as far as lies in his power, correct any false reasoning the latter may be likely to adopt, before he allows him to put together one sentence of his composition.

The following essay, in which the mode of treatment adopted follows step by step that

employed by Addison in the essay above quoted, may perhaps give a clearer idea of the manner in which this exercise is intended to be performed.

On the Advantages of an Intellectual Education.

- The superiority of the mind over the body.
- 2. The advantages of education result from the culture of the mental faculties.
- 3. An explanation of these advantages.
- 4. A comparison with other advantages.
- 5. The extent of these advantages.
- 6. The effects of these advantages.
- How they are preferable to other advantages.
- 1. Of the two constituent parts of which man is formed, every one must acknowledge the superiority of the mind over the body. It is the mind which prompts every single act that the body performs, which has the power of predetermining future actions, and which often retains its vigour long after the body has begun to languish and grow feeble with disease or age. Strength of body is indeed a high privilege, and by no means to be despised, but when unaccompanied with vigour of intellect, it places man no higher than the brutes in the scale of creation, and is never capable alone of producing important results. The mind, then, may be considered the director and ruler of the body, and is to be regarded as the origin of all the

great and admirable works which have ever been performed by man, works which mere physical force could never have accomplished.

- 2. The superiority which education gives one man over another, results from the culture of his mental powers; so that by the advantages of intellectual education is here meant whatever power or influence a man of strong judgment and cultivated intellect possesses over his fellow-creatures, whether in bending them to his will, in advising them for their advantage, or in the obedience which men of inferior minds naturally pay to the superior and well-informed. Though some men certainly are born with a mental capacity far superior to that of others, and though many of the uneducated have discovered great natural powers, still these faculties, in order to produce important benefits to society, must be properly trained and brought to perfection, as otherwise they are comparatively of little use either to their possessors or to mankind.
- 3. There are few expressions more frequently used, and yet less understood than the word Education. The conning over a few rules of grammar, or the acquirement of a good hand-writing and the knowledge of the first principles of calculation, are imagined by some to embrace the whole definition of the term. It may therefore be necessary to explain more fully the signification of the word, in order that the reader may more clearly understand the subject of the present essay. He must then be informed, that, by the word education, is here meant that pro-

cess by which all the faculties of the intellect are gradually trained, strengthened, and brought to perfection; by which the mind is stored with various and extensive knowledge, and is made to approach nearer, though still at an infinite distance, to the nature of that Divine Being who is the author of all wisdom.

- 4. Birth, riches, and talent are objects which, in the estimation of the world, are generally looked upon as great advantages. Now, though it cannot be denied that a noble birth or great riches confer privileges which may be rationally desired, yet it must be allowed, that the possession of a vigorous mind and cultivated understanding is an advantage at least equal, if not preferable, to those of family or fortune. is one of those blessings of which no change of fortune can deprive us; which, in the language of this Roman orator, is the ornament of our youth, the delight of our old age, and the greatest consolation in adversity. It opens to us a constant spring of pleasures which neither time nor circumstances can affect; and since, in addition to this, it is frequently the source both of wealth and honours, it may be even said to contain within itself their advantages.
- 5. A man of cultivated intellect possesses the power of innumerable enjoyments of which the rude and illiterate are wholly deprived. He is never tormented with that listless weariness which is a continual misery to the uneducated when not engaged in business. He is never at a loss for materials with which to occupy himself with advantage and pleasure in his hours

of vacuity. In whatever situation of place or circumstances he may be thrown, his mind will be engaged in some interesting research, and the most insignificant object in nature will furnish him with a subject for reflection. The cultivated mind will find a spring of delight in the wildest desert, whilst the ignorant man will feel listless and miscrable amidst the bustle and

noise of the most populous city.

6. If it were only in the light of a preventive against evil, the cultivation of our intellectual powers should be viewed as a desirable object; and though it cannot be maintained that this furnishes us with a sufficient incentive to virtue. or that the weakness of human nature does not require much stronger motives for the regulation of the passions, yet it must certainly be admitted that it has a tendency to correct our natural defects, and to raise the mind to the contemplation of those objects by which it becomes refined and ennobled. Thus, though intellectual education does not of itself produce virtue, vet it furnishes us with that sort of knowledge which promotes its practice, since its object is not only to enlarge and strengthen the faculties of the mind, but also to show us how those faculties are to be put to a good use, and employed for the benefit of mankind.

7. To these considerations may be added, that knowledge, however it may have been sometimes perverted, has been of more real and permanent utility to man than any other object of his desire. Other advantages, whether real or imaginary, are fluctuating and temporary;

knowledge alone is firm and lasting. The empire of Rome was crambled into ruins, her enormous wealth was dispersed over the deserts of the north to glut the wild desires of savage barbarians; her dignities and honours were swept away from the face of the earth,—but the lays of her poets still remain, the eloquence of her orators still animates the breasts of thousands, and the wisdom of her philosophers yet lives in the hearts of all those who have any love of what is great and ennobling in human nature.

The following subjects, and the heads under which they may be arranged, will furnish materials for the pupil's exercises.

1. On the Importance of governing the Temper.

1. A bad temper, a source of constant unhappiness; the necessity of keeping it in subjection.

2. A bad temper arising from a flattered vanity, and the neglect of the cultivation of the mind when young.

3. The culture of the understanding, one of the best methods of subduing the evil passions of our nature.

4. The effects of an ungoverned temper in families — virtues to be instilled into young persons, proper for preventing these effects.

2. On Buffoonery in Conversation.

- 1. The delights of occasionally laying aside gravity, and indulging in cheerful conversation.
- 2. A caution against suffering our conversation to degenerate into low, noisy mirth.

3. A particular instance of this folly.

- 4. The tendency of indulging in low mirth—weakens the faculties—the necessity of restraint.
- 5. Moderation to be observed wit and elegance allowable in conversation mirth and buffoonery to be banished.

3. On the Manners of the Metropolis.

1. The moral and physical evils of a metropolis, numerous and destructive.

2. The effects of a connection between the

court and the city.

3. A love of pleasure always induces selfishness.

4. The inhospitality of those who dwell in large towns — a contrast between the Londoner and the inhabitant of the country.

5. The secrecy with which crimes may be

committed in London.

6. Weakness of body produces weakness of understanding in the inhabitants of a capital.

7. The irreligion of a metropolis.

4. On Parental Indulgence.

1. The love of offspring strong in every species — implanted by Providence for a good purpose — this purpose sometimes abused.

2. Vicious indulgences of parents enumerated — caprices — appetite — mind and body both

ruined.

3. Contempt for superiors — a most pernicious indulgence.

- 4. A strong propensity to indulge, common to all parents the pernicious effects of a bad example.
- 5. The practice of an allowance of money to boys at school.
- 6. The difference between a father's and a mother's treatment of children.

5. On the Profligacy and Miscry of the Lower Classes.

- 1. The degraded state of the lower orders.
- 2. Their depravity drunkenness fraud—necessity of the intervention of the legislature—education of the poor.
- 3. Much profligacy arises from ignorance good principles, and habits of virtue to be instilled.
- 4. One of the first duties of the affluent is to alleviate the misery of the lower classes.
- 5. A moral education preferable to pecuniary relief no good to be effected without the co-operation of the wealthy with the government.

6. A Remedy for Discontent.

- 1. Those often complain most who have least cause.
- 2. A remedy consider the state of those below us in rank.
- 3. "One half the world knows not how the other half lives"—explain.
- 4. One of the chief duties of christianity to inquire into the evils of those who are below us in rank.
- 5. The scenes witnessed by the clergy and medical practitioners.
- 6. The good done by medical relief concluding observations.

7. On the Advantages of a Literary Life.

- 1. The literary man withdrawn from turbulent scenes and pursuits.
- 2. The necessity of distinguishing between the real and the pretended student.
- 3. A literary life, where prudence and virtue are not absent, is perhaps the most pleasant and the safest.
- 4. The general character of the literary man, contrasted with that of the world in general.
- Idleness a frequent cause of vice the literary man never idle.
- 6. The utility of the literary man his benefits to society.

8. On Reading merely for Amusement.

1. Some read merely with a view to pass the time — character of books — pamphlets — memoirs — novels, &c.

2. This kind of reading may be innocent—but has bad effects—vi.iates the taste—history, poetry, &c. preferable.

3. Our information depends not on the quan-

tity, but the quality of the books we read.

4. Light reading more allowable to those who are advanced in age.

5. The young should never be allowed to indulge in this sort of reading.

9. On Affectation of Extreme Sensibility.

- 1. Extreme sensibility unknown among the ancients.
- 2. Causes the Stoic philosophy its effects.
- 3. Those dispositions must be cherished which tend to soften, without weakening the mind.
- 4. The inconveniences of an excess of sensibility.
- 5. A medium to be observed between apathy and extreme sensibility.
- 6. The frequency of this affectation its effects, &c.

10. On True Patience as distinguished from Apathy.

- 1. All not equally affected by the same misfortunes—the cause, either apathy, or patience.
- 2. A contrast between the insensible and the patient man the different merits of each.
- 3. Sensibility, with all its inconveniences, is to be cherished.

- 4. The utility of feeling forcibly our own affections.
- The necessity of opposing our sufferings reason and religion.

11. On the Choice of Books.

- 1. Formerly, books were too few; now, too many.
- 2. Impossible to read all books—the necessity of a judicious choice.
- 3. For those intended for the legal profession

 Grotius, Puffendorf, Burn, Blackstone, &c.
- 4. In grammar Latin and Greek elements Harris' Hermes Tooke's Diversions of Purley Lowth's Introduction Campbell's Rhetoric, &c.
 - 5. In classics Virgil Ovid Horace.
- 6. Modern literature Spectator Plutarch's Lives Shakspeare Milton Pope Dryden the British Essayists.
- 7. În general exclude every thing coarse avoid sentimental works.

12. On the Conduct of Early Manhood.

1. The propriety of addressing moral precepts to the young.

2. Passions implanted for the accomplishment of Nature's purposes; these to be regulated.

- 3. This may be accomplished by an honest endeavour the folly of inflaming the passions rules for the regulation of the passions.
- 4. The moral and physical effects of such conduct.

5. Vanity to be carefully guarded against — ridicule to be despised — cultivate truth.

6. Cherish an humble disposition — make allowances for others — be cheerful and contented.

7. These precepts lead to honour and happiness.

13. On forming a Taste for simple Pleasures.

1. Pleasure, the natural pursuit of all men—but pernicious pleasures to be avoided.

2. To effect this, substitute simple for per-

nicious pleasures.

3. The simple satisfactions of nature easily acquired.

4. Filial piety—fraternal affections—domes-

tic pleasures.

5. Worldly pleasures — loss of innocence — no real happiness.

6. Rural scenery — the perverseness of men

in preferring town to country.

7. Pleasures of cultivating a garden — kind and benevolent feelings towards our fellow-creatures.

14. On the Efficacy of Moral Instruction.

- 1. An objection to books of moral instruction — that they are of little utility in the conduct of life.
- 2. A knowledge of the world, uncontrolled by, moral principles, a despicable kind of wisdom.

3. Books accused of representing things as better than they are — This done purposely — why?

4. The effect produced on the town by the

Spectator.

5. More attention should be paid to books on morality.

15. A cultivated Mind necessary to render Retirement agreeable.

1. Few can bear solitude — A spirit of philosophy, and a store of learning, necessary.

2. The disappointment of those who expect

to find happiness in retirement.

- 3. A love of rural pleasures assists in enabling us to bear solitude.
 - 4. The evil effects of solitude.
- 5. The pleasures of a country life habits circumstances.

16. On the Necessity of Temperance to the Health of the Mind.

- 1. No doubt that the mind is powerfully affected by a disturbed state of bodily health.
- 2. The connection between body and mind mysterious, but a fact of which every one must be convinced.
- 3. This proved by the mind recovering its vigour simultaneously with the body.

4. Abstinence generally recommended to

student - Early rising.

5. The reason why the principal meal of the ancients was the supper.

17. On the Choice of a Profession.

1. The difficulty of determining this choice at an early age.

2. The changes which the mind undergoes

in the course of a few years.

3. What disposition is best suited for the clerical profession — The circumstances and situation of a clerical life.

4. Laborious study required for the know-ledge of the law — The rewards of legal learning.

5. The profession of medicine — difficulty of

acquiring eminence.

6. Objections to a military or a naval life.

7. The tendency of mercantile pursuits to contract the mind.

8. All professions have their advantages and disadvantages — and any better than a life of idleness.

18. On the Influence of Fashion.

1. The tyranny of fashion, and the inconvenience it causes to 4ts votaries.

2. The exclusiveness of fashion — No real

merit in being fashionable.

3. The folly of desiring to be considered fashionable.

4. The middle ranks the most worthy, and most capable of enjoying natural pleasures.

5. The absurdity of submitting to the forms

prescribed by fashion.

C. The evils of fashion — Morality affected by its influence.

7. The fascinating influence of example.

19. On the Fear of growing Old.

- 1. The natural misery of life increased by this fear.
- 2. A defective education the cause of this weakness.
- 3. The wretchedness of a despicable old age.

4. A mistake, to suppose old age of no value.

20. On the Wisdom of aiming at Perfection.

- 1. Arguments often deduced from the infirmity of human nature.
- 2. The weakness of man admitted; reason, an antidote.
 - 3. Vice and misery found in all ranks.
- 4. The weakness of nature an incentive to improvement.
- 5. Many instances of acquired strength of mind.
- 6. The belief that strength of mind may be acquired ought to be more general.
- 7. What is done in the material world may be effected in the moral.

21. On the Fear of appearing Singular.

1. Men think in parties, or follow a leader in adopting opinions.

- 2. The effect, when the leader is interested or injudicious.
- 3. A model for imitation useful imitation not servile.
- 4. Judgment to be used No principles to be adopted which are inconsistent with our duties.
 - 5. A moral courage required to act rightly.

6. The fear of appearing singular leads the young into many follies and vices.

7. Debts incurred from this want of courage -- ruin of health -- fortune -- peace of mind.

22. An Idea of a Patriot.

1. Heroic virtue more frequently talked of than found — What is necessary to produce it.

2. To what sort of character the name of

patriot has been improperly applied.

3. What constitutes a patriot — No bad man a patriot — how?

4. Qualities most desirable in a king —

Private produce public virtues.

5. Selfish and designing views of demagogues.

6. Military patriots — Literary patriots — As much real patriotism in private as in public life.

23. On Simplicity of Style in Prose Composition.

- 1. Plain food pleases the longest The same with mental food.
 - 2. The effects of immoderate embellishment.

- 3. Examples of the immoderately ornamented style—Gessner's Death of Abel—Hervey's Meditations.
- 4. Poetical prose not generally successful—Fénélon's Telemachus an exception.

5. The style of many modern sermons.

- 6. Simplicity of the Bible—Iliad—Shak-speare—never tire the reader.
- 7. Character of Xenophon's writings—Julius Cæsar.
- 8. English writers Addison Sterne The difficulty of writing in a plain style.

24. Family Unhappiness the frequent Cause of Immorality.

- 1. Irregularity of temper to be avoided chiefly at home.
- 2. Home the place proper for enjoyment—Kindly feelings to be cherished.
- 3. Causes of domestic discomfort frequently to be ascribed to our own conduct.
- 4. The result of domestic broils—estrangement from family.
- 5. Debauchery and profligacy of sons—im-

prudence of parents.

6. Remedy for these evils—union—respect—esteem—constantly acting up to our moral and religious principles.

25. On the Style of History.

1. The object of History—a style suited to this object.

2. The style of oratory and poetry — History should be written with simple and majestic dignity.

3. The veracity of an historian requires not

the arts of ornament.

4. Livy — Tacitus — Hume — Gibbon — Robertson, &c.

26. On the British Essayists.

1. In what does true national good consist?

— Mistaken notions on this subject.

2. The improvement made in the morals of the town by Addison and Steel — How?

3. Moralists best deserve the name of patriot.

4. The Tatler — Steele — Addison — dif-

ference of their styles and subjects.

5. The state of the town when the Tatler first appeared, as to conversation and literature —Its gradual improvement.

6. Addison — Spectator — Character of the papers — moral — religious — critical — Guar-

dian, a continuation of Spectator.

7. Rambler — style — its effects on the public.

8. The Adventurer — The World — The Connoisseur, &c.

27. On Affectation of the Vices and Follies of Men of Eminence.

Is The frequent imprudence and folly of men of genius.

- 2. The silly ambition of imitating these follies.
- 3. A mistaken opinion, that vice is the mark of a laudable spirit.
- 4. This propensity to deviate, a sign rather of weakness than of superior strength of mind.
- 5. Many men of the highest genius examples of prudence and virtue—Addison—Pope—Gay.

6. The ill effects of entertaining the idea that

vice is the characteristic of spirit.

SUBJECTS FOR ESSAYS

- 1. On the satisfaction resulting from a conscientious discharge of our duty.
- 2. On the necessity for the existence of conventional laws and forms in society.
- 3. On the fatal results arising from an early neglect of the cultivation of the mental powers.
- 4. On the effects arising from feeding the mind too much with works of fiction.
- 5. On the folly of expecting too much from our fellow-creatures.
- 6. On the duty of patient resignation to misfortunes.
- 7. A well-regulated and contented mind is the secret of true happiness.
- 8. On the necessity for discovering the secret mutives of our actions.
- 9. On the advantages to be derived from an acquaintance with modern languages.

10. On the results of science, considered nationally.

11. On decision of character.

12. On the difficulty of conquering bad

13. On national prejudice.

- 14. On the happy results arising from the cultivation of taste.
- 15. On firmness as distinguished from obstinacy.

16. On the advantages of a country life.

- 17. On the soothing power of music over the feelings.
- 18. On the importance of an early cultivation of the affections.
- 19. On the blessings attending our ignorance of futurity.
- 20. On the advantages to be derived from travelling.
- 21. On the beneficial effects of constant intercourse with our fellow-creatures.
 - 22. Charity, an essential part of true religion.
- 23. Religious enthusiasm frequently made the mask for the basest purposes.
- 24. On the popular idea that true genius is incompatible with industry.
- 25. On the danger of forming a hasty judgment of others.
- 26. On the importance of an early observance of religious duties.
- 27. On the folly of devoting too much time to accomplishments.
 - 28. On the duty of obedience to parents.
 - 29. On the horrors of civil war.

- 30. On the feelings with which we should regard death.
- 31. On a proper sense of dignity, as contrasted with pride.
- 32. On the distinction between vanity and conceit.
- 33. On the danger of indulging in a habit of exaggeration.
- 34. On the folly of too great a belief in the marvellous.
- 35. The habit of idle conversation invariably leads to slander.
- 36. The possession of a lively imagination, a great misfortune.
 - 37. On the passion for dress.
 - 38. On the advantages of commerce.
- 39. On the effect which prejudice has in destroying the judgment.
- 40. On the necessity of repressing idle curiosity in youth.
- 41. On the wisdom of not giving free expression to all our thoughts.
- 42. On the folly of blindly following the judgment and opinions of others.
- 43. On the advantage of economising every minute of our time.
 - 44. On the vanity of human grandeur.
- 45. On the distinction between courage and rashness.
- 46. On the distinction between physical and moral courage.
 - 47. On a love of neatness and order.
- 48. On the influence of religion in civilizing the human mind.

- 49. On the danger of becoming too much addicted to the pleasures of the world.
 - 50. On our duties, as citizens and subjects.
 - 51. On our duties towards our inferiors.
- 52. On the folly of striving to please every one.
- 53. On the necessity of submitting to what cannot be avoided.

APPENDIX.

No. I.

LIST OF PREFIXES.

- a (Saxon), up; a-rise, rise up; a-wake, wake up.
- a (Saxon), on; a-shore, on shore; a-board, on board.
- a (Latin), from; a-vert, turn from.
- a (Greek), not; a-pathy, not feeling (want of feeling).
- ab (Latin), from; ab-rupt, broken from.
- abs (Latin), from; abs-tract, drawn from; abs-truse, thrust from (view).
- ad (Latin), to; ad-duce, to bring to; ad-apt, to fit to. ac * (for ad), to; ac-cede, to come to; ac-cord, to join
- af (for ad), to; af-fix, to fix to; af-firm, to strengthen
- ag (for ad), to; ag-glutinate, to stick to; ag-grieve, to vex to.
- al (for ad), to; al-legiance, a binding to; al-loy, a mixture to.
- an (for ad), to; an-nounce, to tell to; an-nex, to bind to.
- ap (for ad), to; ap-peal, to call to; ap-plaud, to clap to.
- ar (for ad), to; ar-rive, to come to.
- as (for ad), to; as-sume, to take to; as-sist, to stand to.

^{*} When the preposition ad is compounded with verbs or nouns beginning with c, f, g, l, n, p, r, s, or t, the second letter (d) of the preposition is changed into the first of the noun or verb with which it is compounded; thus, accede, for ad-ocede; ag-gregate for ad-gregate, &c.

at (for ad), to; at-tain, to teach to; at-tract, to draw to.

amphi (Greek), both, or two; amphi-bious, living in two

ana (Greek), up; ana-tomy, a cutting up.

ante (Latin), before; ante-date, to date before.

anti (Greek), against; anti-pathy, a feeling against.

apo (Greek), from; apo-stle, one sent from; apo-stasy, a standing from.

be * (Saxon), by; be-cause, by cause; be-tween, by twain. cata (Greek), down; cata-strophe, a turning down.

circum (Latin), round; circum-navigate, to sail round. con (Latin), with; con-fide, to trust with; con-dole, to grieve with.

co (for con), with; co-equal, equal with.

col (for con), with, or together; col-lect, to gather together.

com (for con), together; com-pose, to put together. contra (Latin), against; contra-dict, to speak against.

countr (for contra), against; counter-mand, to order against.

country (for contra), against; country-dance, a dance in which partners stand over against (or opposite to) each other.

cor (for con), together; cor-respond, to answer together (mutually).

de (Latin), from or down; de-seend, to climb down; de-jected, cast down.

dis (Latn), apart or away; dis-pute, to think apart (from another).

di (Latin), do.; di-vert, to turn away (the mind).

dif (Latin), do.; dif-fer, to bear away.

dia (Greek), through; dia-meter, the measure through. en (Saxon) gives the force of a verb to a noun or ad-

jective; en-courage, to inspire courage; em-bitter, to make bitter.

ex (Latin), out; ex-ceed, to go out; ex-clude, to shut out.

[•] Be, in composition, has various offices; sometimes it is used for about, as in be-stir, be-sprinkle; sometimes for before, as in be-speak; sometimes it is a privative, as in be-head.

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e (Latin), out; e-rase, to scratch out: e-radicate, to root
  out.
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ef (for e), out; ef-face, to rub out.

epi (Greek), upon; epi-taph (an inscription) upon a tomb.

ex (Greek), out; ex-odus, a journey out.

extra (Latin), beyond; extra-vagant, wandering beyond. for (Saxon) implies negation; for-bid, to bid not; forsake, not to seek.

fore (Saxon), before; fore-tell, to tell before; fore-warn, to warn before.

gain (Saxon), against; gain-say, to say against.

hyper (Greek), over; hyper-critical, over critical.

hypo (Greek), under; hypo-thesis, a supposition formed under some principle not proved.

in (Latin), in or not; in-sert, to sow in; in-justice, not justice.

im (for in), in or not; im-pel, to drive in; im-possible, not possible.

ig (for in), not; ig-norant, not knowing; ig-noble, not noble.

il (for in), not; il-legal, not lawful; il-literate, not learned.

ir (for in), not; ir-regular, not regular.

ob (Latin), against; ob-ject, to cast against; ob-struct, to build against.

oc (for ob), against; oc-cur, to run against.

of (for ob), against; of-fer, to bear against.

op (for ob), against; op-pose, to place against.

para (Greek), against; para-sol, against the sun; paradox, an assertion contrary to appearance.

per (Latin), through; per-vade, to go through.

pel (for per), through; pel-lucid, shining through.

peri (Greek), round; peri-phery, the measure round.

post (Latin), after; post-pone, to put after; post-obit, after death.

pre (Latin), before; pre-fix, to fix before; pre-cede, to go before.

pro (Latin), forth; pro-ject, to cast forth; pro-pose, to place forth.

præter (Latin), beyond; præter-natural, beyond natural.

re (Latin), back or again; re-pel, to drive back; reestablish, to establish again

retro (Latin), backwards; retro-grade, stepping backwards.

se (Latin), apart; se-cede, to walk apart; se-duce, to lead apart.

sub (Latin), under; sub-mit, to put under.

suc (for sub), under; suc-cour, to run under.

suf (for sub), under; suf-fer, to undergo.

sug (for sub), under; sug-gest, to hint under (or secretly).

sup (for sub), under; sup-press, to press under.

sur (French), upon; sur-name, a name upon (or added to) another.

subter (Latin), under; subter-fuge, something to take refuge under.

super (Latin), upon; super-add, to add upon (or over and above).

trans (Latin), beyond; trans-gress, to go beyond. ultra (Latin), beyond; ultra-marine, beyond the sea.

No. II.

LIST OF AFFIXES.

ma, a Greek termination, and found chiefly in Greek words, enigma, stigma, &c.

ic. Greek, 180c, and Latin, icus, belonging to; cubic,

asthmatic.

fic, pacific, terrific, a Latin termination, ficus, from facio, I make; pacific, making peace; terrific, making

or producing terror.

d or t at the end of a word, generally gives the idea of an action finished; they are the common terminations of passive participles. A large class of substantives is formed from these participles; for example, fact, a thing done; act, a thing acted; head, the part hea(ve)d; seed the thing sowed (sown); deed, the thing doed (done); field, a space felled, &c.

- hood, a Saxon termination signifying, in composition, a state or condition—childhood, falsehood.
- ward, from the Saxon, wardian, to direct the sight, or look at; inward, looking in; outward, looking out, &c.
- ance, elegance, appearance, the Latin termination antia, formed from the present participle of the first conjugation in ans, elegans, elegantia.
- ence, beneficence, magnificence, in Latin, entia, the termination of abstract nouns derived from Latin participles in ens—beneficentia, magnificentia.
- ade, serenade, colonnade, &c., sometimes from the Greek, āòw, I sing; as in serenade, a song in the calm of the evening; sometimes it is a Saxon termination, expressing a collected quantity or mass, as in colonnade, a mass of columns.
- cide, suicide, regicide, from the Latin, cædo, I kill; suicide, a self-killer; regicide, a king-killer, &c.
- tide, eventide, noontide, the Saxon for time; eventime, noontime.
- tude, similitude, vicissitude, a Latin termination tudo; similitudo, vicissitudo.
- ee, lessee, trustee, added to verbs, and denoting the person who is the object of the action expressed in the verb; trustee, the person trusted; lessee, he to whom some property is let.
- age, damage, foliage, plumage, from the Latin, ago, 1 drive or bring together; it expresses collection; damage, the loss collected; foliage, the whole mass of leaves; plumage, all the feathers taken together.
- able, some say from the Latin, habilis; others, from the Gothic, abal (power); probable, able to be proved; comfortable, able to comfort.
- ible, the same meaning as the termination uble, found chiefly in words derived from Latin verbs of the third form of conjugation; possible, able to be done; invincible, not able to be conquered.
- acle, miracle, oracle, a Latin termination, aculum.
- icle, vehicle, article, Latin, a diminutive; vehiculum, a small carriage.
- ile, puerile, fertile, Latin, ilis, belonging to, or having the qualities of; puerile, having the qualities of a boy; fertile, having the quality of producing.

some, wholesome, tiresome, the Saxon sam, from sammeln. to put together; it expresses abundance; toilsome, giving much toil; burthensome, having much weight.

ine, intestine, marine, belonging to, or having the nature of; Latin, inus; intestine, belonging to the inside; marine, belonging to the sea.

sure, censure, pressure, } Latin terminations, ura. ture, feature, creature,

isc, exercise, colonise, French, iser, but originally Greek,

izo.

ose, verbose, jocose, a Latin termination, osus, full of; verbose, full of words; jocose, full of jest.

ate, vindicate, from the Latin, ago, actum, I act; vindicate, I act as a justifier.

ite, opposite, indefinite, termination of Latin participles in itus; oppositus, placed against; definitus, definite. ive, offensive, evasive, Latin, ivus, expressing action.

ize, agonize, idolize, Greek, izo.

ing, coming, standing, the Saxon termination of the present participle, corresponding with the Latin, ans or ens, and expressing a continuation of the action.

ish, childish, selfish (Saxon, ig), having the quality of. i, triumviri, literati, the plural termination of many Latin words adopted in English.

och, hillock, bullock, Saxon, a diminutive; hillock, a little hill; bullock, a young bull.

al, radical, farcical, Latin, alis.

cl, damsel, citadel, French, a diminutive; demoiselle, a

young lady; citadelle, a small fort.

ful, graceful, peaceful, the Saxon, voll, and conveying an idea of fulness; graceful, full of grace; peaceful. abounding in peace.

dom, freedom, kingdom, a Saxon termination, expressing a dominion or condition; freedom, the state of being free; kingdom, the dominion of a king.

asm and ism, chasm, spasm, schism, deism, Greek terminations.

um, medium, odium, a neuter Latin termination, signifying thing or quality; medium, the thing in the middle; odium, the quality, hate.

an, musician, logician, Letin, anus.

en, roughen, thicken, the Saxon termination of the in-

finitive; roughen, to make rough: used with a substantive, it has the effect of made of; oaten, made of oats. kin, napkin, lambkin, a Saxon diminutive; napkin, a little cloth, lambkin, a little lamb.

ion, union, mansion, Latin, io.

ado, barricado, tornado, the Spanish termination of the Latin participle atus.

ship, friendship, German, schaft.

ar, vulgar, familiar, Latin, aris, belonging to.

er, reader, fencer, Saxon; it is added to verbs, and expresses the agent; reader, one who reads; fencer, one who fences, &c.

or, horror, confessor, professor, a Latin termination, having the same effect as er.

our, humour, vapour, French, found in English words derived from the French, humeur, vapeur.

s, a plural termination; dogs, pens.

us, a termination found in many Greek words; crisus, ellipsis.

less, childless, friendless, from the Saxon, lesan, to dismiss; childless, without children, &c.

ness, sameness, stiffness (Saxon).

us, genius, radius, the masculine termination of a class of Latin words adopted in the English language.

ous, pompous, gracious, the English form of the Latin ending osus, full off.

et, bracelet, flageolet, French, a diminutive.

ent, excellent, prevalent, Latin, ens, the ending of the present participle, excelling, prevailing.

ment, judgment, ornament, Intin, mentum, ornamentum, &c.

ist, methodist, journalist (Greek), istes.

ow, sorrow, follow, borrow (Saxon), gian; folgian, borgian.

y, muddy, hilly (Saxon, ig), full of, abounding in.

cy, lunacy, policy, Latin.

fy, signify, petrify, Latin, facto; French termination fier, signifier, to make a sign; petrifier, to make stone.

logy, phraseology, eulogy, from the Greek, logos.

ly, a dibly, laudably, Saxon, lyk (like), audible-like; laudable-like.

ty, society, anxiety; in Latin, tas, societas; in French, té, societé; in English, ty, society.

No. III.

LIST OF ENGLISH VERBS AND PARTICIPLES FORMED FROM LATIN ROOTS COMPOUNDED WITH PREPOSITIONS.

1. act, ago, actum, I do; fransact.

- 3. ceive, capio, cepi, I take; deceive, receive, perceive.

4. cern, cerno, I see; discern, concern.

5. claim, clamo, I cry; proclaim, exclaim, acclaim.

6. cline, clino, I lean; incline, decline.

clude, clausum, I shut; conclude, preclude, clause, &c.

8. dict, dico, dictum, I say; predict, edict.

duce, duct, duco, ductum, I lead; induce, conduce, conduct, product.
 fect, facio, factum, I make or do; perfect, infect,

defect.

11. fer, fero, I bear; infer, confer, defer, inference, &c.

12. fide, fido, I trust; confide, confidence.

13. firm, firmo, I strengthen; affirm, confirm.
14. form, formo, I shape; conform, inform, perform.

15. fix, figo, fixum, I fix; prefix, affix.

16. fuse, fundo, fusum, I pour; infuse, confuse.

17. here, hæreo, hæsum, I stick; adhere, cohere, adhesion.

18. ject, jacio, jactum, I cast; project, conjecture. 19. jure, juro, I swear; conjure, adjure, perjure.

20. lude, ludo, I play; prelude, allude, &c.

21. \{ \begin{aligned} merge, \ merge, \ merge, \ merge. \end{aligned} \text{merman} \text{merman} \text{immerse, submerge.} \end{aligned} \]

22. mit, mitto, I send; commit, permit, remit.

23. nounce, nuntio, I tell; announce, pronounce, &c

24. pede, pes, pedis, a foot; impede.

25. pel, pello, I drive; compel, impel, repel, &c.

26. pend, pendeo, I hang; depend, impend.

- 27. {pose, pound, positum, I place; impose, compound, pound.
- 28. port, porto, I carry; import, transport, export, &c.

29. plore, ploro, I wail; deplore, implore.

30. press, premo, pressum, I press; compress, express.

31. pugn, pugno, I fight; impugn, repugnant, &c.

- 32. quire, quæro, I seek; require, inquire.
- 33. rect, rego, rectum, I rule; correct, direct.
- 34. rupt, rumpo, ruptum, I break; corrupt, abrupt.
- 35. scend, scando, I climb; ascend, descend.
- 36. scribe, scribo, I write; subscribe, ascribe.
- 37. serve, servo, I keep; preserve, reserve, &c.
- 38. sist, sisto, I place; consist, assist, persist.
- 39. spect, specio, spectum, I see; inspect, prospect.
- 40. spire, spiro, I breathe; expire, inspire, conspire.
- 41. sume, sumo, I take; assume, consume, presume.
- 42. tend, tendo, I stretch; attend, intend, pretend.
- 42. tena, tenao, 1 stretch; attena, intena, preten
- 43. tect, tego, tectum, I cover; protect, detect.
- 44. tain, teneo, I hold; obtain, attain, contain.
- 45. truct, tingo, tinetum, I dip; distinct, extinct.
- 46. tract, traho, tractum, I draw; attract, protract 47. trude, trudo, I thrust: obtrude, intrude, &c.
- 48. vade, vado; I go, invade, pervade.
- 49. \{\begin{aligned} vene, \ veni, \end{aligned}\} \text{venio, ventum, I come; convene, advent.} \end{aligned}
- 50. volve, volvo, I roll; involve, devolve.
- 51. vert, verto, I turn; invert, divert, pervert.
- 52. voke, voco, I call; provoke, invoke, convoke.

No. IV.

EXPLANATION OF THE PRIMARY MEANING (NOW LOST) OF CERTAIN ABSTRACT WORDS.

VERES.

London
Spotiswoode and Shaw
New-street-Square

NEW WORKS

IN MISCELLANEOUS AND GENERAL LITERATURE,

PUBLISHED BY

MESSRS. LONGMAN, BROWN, GREEN, AND LONGMANS.

PATERNOSTER-ROW, LONDON. CLASSIFIED INDEX.

ACRICUITURE & RURAL AFFAIRS, | n ... no. n Pages

Bayldon on Valuding Rents etc. 5 Crocker's Land Surveying 19 Preceived ditto Asserving 19 Preceived ditto Asserving 19 Preceived ditto Asserving 19 Preceived ditto Asserving 19 Company 19	AGRICULTURE & RUKAL AFFAIRS.	Rowton's British Poetesses 26
Johnson's Farmer's Encyclopedia 1 16 Laction's Engelopedia of Agriculate 20 (Mrs.) Ladr's Country Companio 15 Low's Breeds of the Domestic steed Animals 20 Releases of Agriculture 20 On the Domestic steed Animals 20 Parnell on Roads 20 Parnell on	, Pages	Russell's Bedford Correspondence - 6
Johnson's Farmer's Encyclopedia 1 16 Laction's Engelopedia of Agriculate 20 (Mrs.) Ladr's Country Companio 15 Low's Breeds of the Domestic steed Animals 20 Releases of Agriculture 20 On the Domestic steed Animals 20 Parnell on Roads 20 Parnell on	Bayldon on Valuing Rents etc 6	Schopenhauer's Youthful Life 27
Johnson's Farmer's Encyclopedia 1 16 Laction's Engelopedia of Agriculate 20 (Mrs.) Ladr's Country Companio 15 Low's Breeds of the Domestic steed Animals 20 Releases of Agriculture 20 On the Domestic steed Animals 20 Parnell on Roads 20 Parnell on	Crocker's Land Surveying 9	Shelley's Literary Men of Italy, etc 17
Johnson's Farmer's Encyclopedia 1 16 Laction's Engelopedia of Agriculate 20 (Mrs.) Ladr's Country Companio 15 Low's Breeds of the Domestic steed Animals 20 Releases of Agriculture 20 On the Domestic steed Animals 20 Parnell on Roads 20 Parnell on	Davy's Agricultural Chemistry 9	Eminent French Writers - 17
Johnson's Farmer's Encyclopedia 1 16 Laction's Engelopedia of Agriculate 20 (Mrs.) Ladr's Country Companio 15 Low's Breeds of the Domestic steed Animals 20 Releases of Agriculture 20 On the Domestic steed Animals 20 Parnell on Roads 20 Parnell on		Southey's Lives of the British Admirals - 17
Laudon's Encyclopedia of Agriculture 19 Sell-instruction for Francescett. 19 Sell-instruction for Francescett. 29 Compared a Prevelocities of Agriculture 20 On Laudod Property 30 Arton's Ellusy Cookery Book 4 Thomson on Extening Cattle, etc. 30 Topham's Agricultural Chemistry 30 ARTS, MANUFACTURES, AND ARTON ACTIVE S. 30 ARTS, MANUFACTURES, AND ARTON ACTIVE S. 30 Ball on the Masufacture of Tea 5 Bradie's Dictionary of Science, etc. 4 Bradie's Dictionary of Science, etc. 5 Bradie's Dictionary of Science, etc. 5 Bradie's Nichtura y of Science, etc. 7 Bradie's Nichtura y of Acts, etc. 7 Br	Johnson's Farmer's Encyclopædia - 16	Life of Wesley 29
Self-instruction for Framers, etc. 19 Low's Mean, Lady Scientify Companion is the Companion of the Companion	Landon's Rucyclonedia of Arriculture - 19	Townsend's Twelve eminent Judges - 31
Mes. Lady's Country Companion 18 Low's Breeds of the Domestic atted Animals 29 10 in Landred Property 19 10 in Landred Property 19 11 in Landred Property 19 12 in Landred Property 19 13 in Landred Property 19 14 in Lady State 19 15 in Landred Property 19 15 in Landred Property 19 16 in Landred Property 19 17 in Landred Property 19 17 in Landred Property 19 18 in Lady State 19 18 in L	Self-Instruction for Farmers, etc. 19	Waterton's Autobiography and Essays - 31
Low's Breeds of the Donnestic ated Animals 20 College College	(Mrs.) Lady's Country Companion 18	
Remember of Agriculture On Landrid Property On Landrid Property On Landrid Property On Landrid Property Animals Parrell on Roads Tombons on Pattening Cartle, etc. Tombons on Pattening Cartle, etc. Tombons on Agricultural Chemistry ARTS, MANUSACTURES, AND ARCHITECTURES, AND ARCHITECTURES, AND Ball on the Manufacture of Property Bandres Dictionary of Science, etc. Tombons on Pattening Cartonia (The Prize) De Burdin on the Anowledge of Pictures De Burdin on the Anowledge	Low's Breeds of the Domesticated Animals 20	DOOVE OF CENERAL LITHITY
On Landed Property On Landed Property Teach On Landed Property T		BOOKS OF GENERAL UTILITY
month Domestirated Animals 20 Parention Road sing Cattle, etc. 24 Thomas Agricultural Chemistry 39 ARTS, MANUFACTURES, AND ARCHITECTURE. Ball on the Manufacture of Tea Engineering 39 Ball on the Manufacture of Tea Engineering 49 Ball on the Manufacture of Tea Engineering 59 Ball on the Manufacture of Pictures 50 Bresden Gallery 50 Bresden		Acton's (Eliza) Cookery Book 5
Pariello on Roads Thomson on Fattening Cattle, etc. 36 Tomson on Fattening Cattle, etc. 39 Hints on Edgartte 13 Housan's Kereutro's fuide 15 Ball on the Manufecture of 7c 6 Branic's Dictionary of Science, etc. 7 House of Harden Cattle Cattl		
Thomson on Fattening Cattle, etc. 39 Topham's Agricultural Chemistry 30 ARTS, MANUFACTURES, AND ARCHITECTURE, Ball on the Mawfacture of Tea 6 Enactic's Dictionary of Science, etc. 7 Buckier's St. Alban's Abbey 4 Enactic's Dictionary of Science, etc. 7 Buckier's St. Alban's Abbey 4 Cresy's Encycle of Civil Engineering 9 Desident St. Miban's Abbey 4 Cresy's Encycle of Civil Engineering 9 Desident Gallery Habory of Art. 9 Desident Gallery Habory of Art. 9 Estables on Oil Planting 10 Evans's Sugar Planter's Manual etc. 10 Evans's Sugar Planter's Manual etc. 11 Evans's Sugar Planter's Manual etc. 12 Evans's Sugar Planter's Manual etc. 13 Holland's Manufactures in Metal 17 America's Engineering 17 Holland's Manufactures in Metal 17 America's Engineering and Architecture 18 Engineering and Architecture 18 Engineering and Architecture 18 Engineering and Architecture 18 Engineering Sugar Planter's Manual 18 Erea Rangine (The), by the Arthant Club 5 Ure's Dictionary of Arth, etc. 19 Engineering 18 Evans's Manufacture of Britain Club 5 Event Sugar Planter's Manual 17 Engineering 18 Evans's Manufacture of Sugar 18 Evans's Engineering and Architecture 18 Engineering 18 Evans's Engineering and Architecture 18 Engineering 18 Evans's Engineering and Architecture 18 Engineering 18 Evans's Engineering 18 E		
Topham's Agricultural Chemistry 59 ARTS, MANUFACTURES, AND ARCHITECTURE. Ball on the Mauricure of Tra 6 Brande's Dictionary of Science, etc. 7 Busice's St. Altan's Abbry 5 Busice's Marchitecture 5 Busice's Marchitecture 6 Haydon's Lectures on Painting & Design 11 Busice's Design 11 Busice's Abbry 5 Busice's Marchitecture 6 Busice's Marchitecture 6	Thomson on Fattening Cattle, etc 30	
ARTS, MANUFACTURES, AND ARCHITECTURES, AND ARCHITECTURE. Ball on the Manufacture of Yea Budger is Miner's Golde Control of Manufacture of Yea Budger is Miner's Golde Cartoon (The Prize) and Sentence of Manufacture of Prize of Manufacture of Prize of Manufacture of Manufactur	Tonham's Agricultural Chemistry - 30	Donovan's Donostic Recoromy - 17
ARTS, MANUFACTURES, AND ARTS MANUFACTURES, Ball on the Manufacture of Ten English Research (11 Co. 1 and 1	Topiam b Marie area and a marie and	Hinte on Etianetta
Ball on the Manfesture of Tex Brand's Distriction 19 December 2 De	ARTS, MANUFACTURES, AND	Hudson's Evecutor's Guide 15
Ball on the Manufacture of Tea Braufe's Nichtonry of Science, etc. 7 Buckler's St. Athan's Abby Buckler's Buckler'	ADCHITECTURE	
Ball on the Manufacture of the get. Ball on the Manufacture of the get. Ball on the Manufacture of the get. Ball on the Manufacture of the Mintan Clabby Ball on the Manufacture of Ma		
Brander's Dictionary of Secience, 60: Bludge's Miner's fielde Cartoona (The Prive) Cartoona		
Budge's Miner's Guide Cartoons (The Pixic) I Ragineering For Cartoons (The Pixic) I Ragineering For Agricontria History of Art. For Barrier Manual Guilt's Energy of History For Statisk on Or Paining Guilt's Energy of History For Statisk on Or Paining Guilt's Envyelopedia of Architecture Haydon's Lectures on Painting Guilt's Envyelopedia of Architecture Haydon's Lectures on Painting Guilt's Envyelopedia of Architecture Haydon's Lectures on Painting Haydon's Lectures on Painting Holland's Stantanteures in Metal For Haydon's Lectures on Painting Haydon's Audion's Manual House For Haydon's Lectures on Painting Haydon's Audion's Manual House Haydon's Lectures of Shik Haydon's Audion's Manual Haydon's Lectures of Shik Haydon's Audion's Manual Haydon's Audion's Manual Haydon's Man	Brande's Dictionary of Science, etc 7	
stages admer troited of the property of the pr	Buckler's St. Alban's Abbey 7	
Cartiona (The Frive) Care Sauge, 1 Biographical Treasury 2 Forey's Burya, 1 Biographical Treasury 2 Biographical Treasury 2 Breaden Galley Planting Castlake on Or Plantin's Manual Bottlake on Or Plantin's Manual Guitt's Envyclopedia of Architecture 1 Havdon's Lectures on Planting & Design 1 Havdon's Art of Curring Planting 1 Havdon's Art of Curring Planting 1 Havdon's Hard Architecture 4 Hawson's Sart on and Legendary Art 1 Loudon's Hard Architecture 4 Hawson's Sart on Manual Planting Wines 5 House on Hard Architecture 4 House 1 Hard Manual Planting Wines 5 Horse Manual Curring and Architecture 4 Horse Bit Control 1 Hard Carring 1 Hard Manual Planting Wines 5 Hard (Cr) on Circular & Glass 1 Hard Manual Relian Wines 5 Hard (Cr) on Circular & Glass 1 Hard Manual Relian Wines 5 Hard Manual Relian Wines 6 Hard Manual Relian Wines 7 Hard Manual Relian	Budge's Miner's Guide 7	Salantshaand Literacy Creasure 99
Berden boller; Senui's Noger Painting Gwilt's Kanyelopacilia of Architecture Havdon's Lectures on Painting & Bergin Holland's Manufactures in Metal Holland's Manufactures of Metal Havelin in Metal Holland's Manufactures of Metal Holland's Metal Holland's Metal Holland's Metal Holland's Metal Holland's Metal Holland's Modeland Holland's Metal Hollan	Cartoons (The Prize) 8	Transport of History 100
Berden boller; Senui's Noger Painting Gwilt's Kanyelopacilia of Architecture Havdon's Lectures on Painting & Bergin Holland's Manufactures in Metal Holland's Manufactures of Metal Havelin in Metal Holland's Manufactures of Metal Holland's Metal Holland's Metal Holland's Metal Holland's Metal Holland's Metal Holland's Modeland Holland's Metal Hollan	Creav's Encycl, of Civil Engineering - 9	Diamenhinal Transper
Berden boller; Senui's Noger Painting Gwilt's Kanyelopacilia of Architecture Havdon's Lectures on Painting & Bergin Holland's Manufactures in Metal Holland's Manufactures of Metal Havelin in Metal Holland's Manufactures of Metal Holland's Metal Holland's Metal Holland's Metal Holland's Metal Holland's Metal Holland's Modeland Holland's Metal Hollan	D'Agincourt's History of Art 9	Natural History 99
Berden boller; Senui's Noger Painting Gwilt's Kanyelopacilia of Architecture Havdon's Lectures on Painting & Bergin Holland's Manufactures in Metal Holland's Manufactures of Metal Havelin in Metal Holland's Manufactures of Metal Holland's Metal Holland's Metal Holland's Metal Holland's Metal Holland's Metal Holland's Modeland Holland's Metal Hollan	De Burtin on the knowledge of Pictures 9	Products Demonts Dation - 91
Eastlake on Oil Painting & Design 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 1	Dresden Gallery 10	Dona (a) Common of Fundish Danding 06
Gwill's Rowyclopucila of Architecture Hydron's Jactures on Plainting & Beagin Holland's Manufactures in Metal Holland's Manufactures in Metal Holland's Manufacture in Metal Jameson's Sucreta and Legendary Art Jameson's Manufacture of Metal Jameson's Metal Ja	Eastlake on Oil Painting 10	Dondards Time Tables 06
Gwitt's Renyedopucition of Architecture Havdon's kectures on Painting & Bergin Havdon's Secreta and Lata-Eng. Dict. 59 Amenon's Sarred and Legendary Art Loudon's Burnal Architecture Houseley's Engline of Silk Barnello in Konda Harred Mikhing British Wines, 55 Bornello in Konda Harred Mikhing British Wines, 55 Bornello in Konda Harred Mikhing British Wines, 55 Bornello in Konda Harred Tables Hore Silk Roman Harred Tables Hore Mikhinan's Engline of War Harred Tables Hore Mikhinan's Engline of War Harred Tables Harred Tables Harred Tables Hore Mikhinan's Engline of War Harred Tables Har	Evans's Spoor Planter's Manual 11	Reader's time Tables 25
Haydon's Lectures on Painthy & Design 15 Holland's Manufactures in Mediand's Autor Corring, Fixthin, etc. 20 Holland's Manufactures in Median 15 London's Rural Architecture 15 London's R		
Holland's Manufactures in Metal 7 Antenon's Norect and Legendary Art 15 Marken's Proceed and Legendary Art 15 Marken's Proceed and Legendary Art 16 Marken's Event and Legendary 16 Marken's Manufacture of Sik Room 20 Marken's Manufacture of Marken's Manufacture of Arther 17 Marken's Marken's Arther 17 Marken's Marken'		Button of Anti-Control Pickling at a ge
Ameton's Socret and Legendary Art. 15 London's Bread Architecture 2 Society States and Architecture 2 Society States and Architecture 2 Society States and Architecture 3 Society States and Architecture 3 Society States and States Color States and States Color State	Holland's Manufactures in Metal 17	
Loudon's Bural Architecture Manerly's Karelucering and Architecture Manerly Karelucering and A	Jameson's Sacred and Legendary Art - 15	D Art of Making Dritish Wines, 20
Moseley & Eactive Cring and Architecture 24	Loudon's Roral Architecture 19	
Parmell on Roads Porter's Manufacture of Silh Orter's Distantification of Manufacture of Silh Porter's Michael Silh Porter's Mic		
Porter's Manufacture of Silk Ander's Distribution of the Manufacture of Silk Rean Runine (The), by the Arthant Club Stean Runine (The), by the Arthant Club Fire's Distribution of Arth, etc. Wilkinson's Rugines of War - 22 Wilkinson's Rugines of War - 22 Milkinson's Rugines of War - 22 BIOGRAPHY Andersen's (II, C.) Autobing raphy Andersen's (II, C.) Autobing raphy Andersen's (II, C.) Autobing raphy Lives of the British Parantists Forster's Statesmen of the Commonwealth III House Of the Grave Vine on Open Walls III House Of the Grave Vine on Open Walls III House Of the Grave Vine on Open Walls III House Of the Open Commonwealth III House Of the Grave Vine on Open Walls III House Of the Open Commonwealth III House Office to New Constance III IIII IIII IIII IIII IIII IIII	Parnell on Roads 24	
Redi (Dr.) on Warming and Ventitating Steam Rangine (The), by the Artisan Club Roll Lives of the British Ports Steam Rangine (The) Steam Rangine (The), by the Artisan Club Roll Rangine (The), by t		
Reid (Pr.) on Warming and Ventitating Steam Kinghe (The), by the Arthana Club Jer's Dictionary of Acts, etc. BOTANY AND CARDENING. BIOGRAPHY. Andersen's (H. C.) Autobiography Sell's Lives of the firitish Press Sell's Lives of the Sell's Sell on the Cultivation of Tea. Gallott's Seripture Herbal. 8 Boll Sell's One Sell's Sell	Porcelain & Glass 17	
Steam Kagine (The), by the Artisant Club 5	Reid (Dr.) on Warming and Ventilating 25	Zumpt's Latin Grammar 32
Dre's Distinguary of Acts, etc. 3 Wilkiawan's Kajines of War - 32 Wood on Rainonds - 32 Wood on Rainonds - 32 Wood on Rainonds - 32 Bolton All Main's Gardener - 52 Ball on the Capabia Gardener - 53 Ball on the Capabia Gardener - 53 Ball on the Capabia Gardener - 53 Ball on the Capabia Gardener - 54 Ball on the Capab	Steam Engine (The), by the Artisan Club 5	
Mikliawan's Engines of War Vood on Ratinrodas - 32 BIOGRAPHY Andersen's (H. C.) Autobiography 5 Edita Lives of the British Poets 17 Lives of the British Poets 17 Lives of the British Devantist 17 Lives (Mrs.) Memoir and Correspondence 12 Eavis (Mrs.) Memoir and Correspondence 12 Eavis (Mrs.) Memoir and Correspondence 12 Edit (M.) Lives of Dost Molammed 2 Edit (M.) Lives of British British 19 Edit (M.) Lives Br	Ure's Dictionary of Arts, etc 30	BOTANY AND GARDENING.
South Railroads 32 South Railroads 32 South Railroads 32 South Railroads 33 South Railroads 34 South Railroads 35 South Railroads 36 South Railroads 36 South Railroads 36 South Railroads 36 South Railroads 37 South Railroads 38 South Railroads 39 South Railroads 30		Abananahiah Danatani Cardenas
BIOGRAPHY. Andiersen's (H. C.) Autobiography Bell's Live of the British Poets The Briti		Aberteromote a reactival district 5
Andersen (H. C.) Autobiggraph 5 Bulkani & Karly Writers of British 17 Lives of the British Paramatest 17 General Statesmen of the Commonwealth 17 Heinkow's Botany 17 Burkani & Karly Writers of British 17 General Statesmen of the Commonwealth 17 Horse Control of the British Paramatest 17 Favis (Mrs.) Memoir and Gorrespondence 12 Bayon's Autobigraph and Joannais 13 Kaninent Koreign Statesmen 17 Lindig's Theory of Horticulture 18 Lindig's Theory of Horticulture 18 Lindig's Theory of Horticulture 18 Lindig's Theory of British Roder 18 Lindig's Theor		
Anderzen's (H. C.) Autobiography 6 Bell's Lives of the British Freet - 17 Busham's Early Writers of British 17 Busham's Life of Lobal Military Commanders 17 Busham's Life of Host Molammed - 23 Busham Foreign Statesmen 17 Busham 17 Busham 18 Busham	RIOCRAPHY.	
ell's Lives of the British Foreis - 17 Junian's Early Writers of British Itaniani 17 Gives of the British Military Commanders - 17 Real Strike Military Commanders - 17 Raydon's Autobiography and Journals - 18 Again's Autobiography and Journals - 18 Again's Autobiography and Journals - 19 Again's Again and Again and Again a		Cancott a Scripture Heroat
Busham Early Writers of Britain 17	minicisen s (H. C.) Autobiography - 5	
Lives of the British Dramatists 17 sorrer's Statesemen of the Commonwealth 17 left's British Plans 11	ben s Lives of the British Poets 17	
On the Houte of Vines 12 On the Houte of Vines 12 On the Houte of Vines 13 Hower's British Pion. Sayon's Autobiograph and Journals 13 Autobiograph and Journals 13 On the Houte Orline 11 Hower's British Pion. Horizontal International Pion. Horizontal International Pion. Horizontal British Pion. Horizontal Pion. Horizontal British Pion. Horizontal Pion. Horizontal British Pion. Hori	punnam s Party Writers of Britain 17	Hensiow & Botany
Life of Jobb Life of Jobb Hooker's British Flore 14	Lives of the British Pramatists 17	Houre the the Grape vine on Open Walls 14
lleig's British Military Commanders - 17 ravis (Mrs.) Memoir and Gorrespondence 12 Saydon's Autobiography and Journals - 13 Saydon's Autobiography and Journals - 13 Saydon's Autobiography and Journals - 13 Saydon's March to Black Prince - 15 Saydon's March 17 Sanitest Foreign Statesmen - 17 Sanitest Foreign Statesmen - 17 Loudon's Horres British Hofa - 18 Loudon's Horres Britis	porster's Statesmen of the Commonwealth 17	
revit (Mrs.) Memoir and Gorrespondence 12 January 18 January 19 Ja	L, Lite of Jobb 17	
Jaydon's Autobiography and Journals 13 mane's Life of the Black Prine - 15 Million Household 17 Million Household	neig's British Military Commanders - 17	
mane's Life of the Black Prince - 15 Eminent Forcign Statemen 17 Ål's (M.) Life of Dost Mohammed - 23 Each's Life of Countable - 18 Each Life of Countable - 19 Each Life of Str. T. More - 20 Each Life of Str. T. More - 20 Encyclopedia of Treex Shruby 19		Lanutey a Theory of Horticulture - 18
Eminent Foreign Statesmen 17 17: (M.) Life of Dout Mohammed - 23 18: (M.) Life of Dout Mohammed - 23 19: (M.) Life of Dout Mohammed - 23 19: (M.) Life of Dout Mohammed - 23 10: (M.) Life of Dout Mohammed - 23 10: (M.) Lovadon's Horizontal - 10: (M.) Lovadon's Horizontal - 10: (M.) Life of Mohammed - 20:	sayoon's Autobiography and Journals - 13	
Sal's (M.) Life of Dost Mohammed - 23 Loudon's Hertus Britannicus - 19	mmes's Life of the Black Prince 15	
gsite's Life of Constable - 18 , Hortus Lignosus Londinensis - 19 Jackintosh's Life of Sir T. More - 20 , Encyclopædia Treasury - 22 , Gardening 19 Launder's Biographical Treasury - 22 , Gardening 19	Eminent Foreign Statesmen - 17	
ackintosh's Life of Sir T. More - 20 ,, Encyclopædia of Trees & Shrubs 19 aunder's Biographical Treasury - 22 , Gardening - 19	All's (M.) Life of Dost Mohammed 23	
aunder's Biographical Treasury 22 , Gardening - 19		,, Hortus Lignosus Londinensis - 19
Sunder's Biographical Treasury - 22 , Gardening - 19 Scoce's Lives of Eminent British Lawyers 17 , Encyclopædia of Plants - 19	negation a Life of Sir T. More - 20	
pscoc's Lives of Eminent British Lawyers 17 ,, Encyclopædia of Plants - 19	saunder's Biographical Treasury - 22	,, Gardening - 19
*	oscoe's Lives of Eminent British Lawyers 17	" Encyclopædia of Plants - 19
	1	

Pages	Pager
Loudon's Suburban Gardener 19	M'Culloch's Dictionary, Historical, Geo-
Self-Instruction for Gardeners 19	graphical and Statistical - 20
, (Mr.) Amateur Gardener 18	graphical, and Statistical - 20 Maunder's Treasury of History - 22 Milner's Church History - 22
Repton's Landscape Gardening, etc. 25	Mileant Chart History - 22
Rivers's Rose Amateur's Guide 25	Milner's Church History 22 Moore's History of Ireland 17
Rogers's Vegetable Cultivator 26	Mosheim's Ecclesiastical History 23
Rogers's Vegetable Cultivator 26 Schleiden's Scientific Botany 27	Nicolas's Chronologe of History - 17
Schleiden's Scientific Botany 27 Smith's Introduction to Botany 28	
Smith's Introduction to Botany - 28	
,, Compendium of English Flora - 28	Rich's Companion to the Latin Dictionary 26
CHRONOLOGY.	Rome, History of 17
Blair's Chronological Tables 6	Rowton's British Poetesses 20
Bosspanet's Chranaloge of Errs. etc 7	Russell's Bedford Correspondence - 6
Bosauquet's Chronology of Ezra, etc. 7 Nicolas's Chronology of History - 17 Riddle's Ecclesiastical Chronology - 26	Scott's History of Scotland 17
Riddle's Ecclesiastical Chronology - 26	Sinnett's Byways of History 27
winds a peciesiastical carolining) -	Stebbing's History of the Christian Church 1/
COMMERCE AND MEDICANTILE	,, Church History 17
COMMERCE AND MERCANTILE	Switzerland, History of 17
AFFAIRS.	Sydney Smith's Works 28
Banfield and Wild's Statistics - 6	Thirtwell's History of Greece 30
Baylis's Arithmetic of Annuities 6	Tooke's History of Prices 30
M'Culloch's Dictionary of Commerce - 20	Turner's History of England 31
Reader's Time Tables 25	Zumpt's Latin Grammar 32
Steel's Shipmaster's Assistant 29	
Symonds' Merchant Seamen's Laws - 29	JUVENILE BOOKS.
Thomson's Tables of Interest 30	
Walford's Customs' Laws 31	Amy Herbert 5
Wallord & Customs Laws 51	Gertrude - 12 Gower's Scientific Phenomena - 12
	Gower's Scientific Phenomena 12
CEOCRAPHY AND ATLASES.	Historical Charades 13
Butler's Ancient and Modern Geography 7	Howitt's Boy's Country Book 14 Children's Year 14
	., Children's Year 14
	Lancton Parsonage 16
General Geography - 8	Mackintosh's Life of Sir T. More 20
De Strzelecki's New South Wales - 10	Marcet's Conversations-
Brman's Travels through Siberia 11	On Chemistry 21
Forster's Historical Geography of Arabia 11	On Natural Philosophy 21
Hall's Large General Atlas 13	On Chemistry - 21 On Natural Philosophy - 21 On Political Keonomy - 21 On Vegetable Physiology - 21 On Land and Water - 21 Marryat's Masterman Heady - 21 , Privateer's Man - 21
M'Culloch's Geographical Dictionary - 20	On Vegetable Physiology 21
Mitchell's Australian Expedition - 22	On Land and Water - 21
M*Culloch's Geographical Dictionary - 20 Mitchell's Australian Expedition - 22 Marrar's Encyclopædia of Geography - 24	Marryat's Masterman Heady 21
Parrot's Ascent of Mount Ararat - 24	,, Privateer's Man 21
	,, Settlers in Canada 21
Schomburgk's Barbados, and Map 27	Mission; or, Scenes in Africa 21
LUCKODY AND ODITIONAL	Passages from Modern History 28
HISTORY AND CRITICISM.	Pycroft's Course of English Reading - 45
Bell's History of Russia 17	Twelve Years Ago 31
Blair's Chron, and Historical Tables - 6	
Bloomfield's Translation of Thucydides - 6	MATTERIAL
, Edition of Thucydides 6	MEDICINE.
Cooley's Maritime and Inland Discovery 17 Crowe's History of France - 17	Bull's Hints to Mothers 7
Crowe's History of France - 17	, Management of Children - 7 Copland's Dictionary of Medicine - 9
Coulton on Junius's Letters 8	Copland's Dictionary of Medicine - 9
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