CIHM
Microfiche
Series
(Monographs)

ICMH
Collection de
microfiches
(monographies)

Canadian Institute for Historical Microreproductions / Institut canadien de microreproductions historiques

Technical and Bibliographic Notes / Notes techniques et bibliographiques

The Institute has attempted to obtain the best original copy available for filming. Features of this copy which may be bibliographically unique, which may alter any of the images in the reproduction, or which may significantly change the usual method of filming, are checked below.

L'Institut a microfilmé le meilleur exemplaire qu'il lui a été possible de se procurer. Les détails de cet exemplaire qui sont peut-être uniques du point de vue bibliographique, qui peuvent modifier une image reproduite, ou qui peuvent exiger une modification dans la méthode normale de filmage sont indiqués ci-dessous.

- [x] Coloured covers/ Couverture de couleur
- [x] Covers damaged/ Couverture endommagée
- [ ] Covers restored and/or laminated/ Couverture restaurée et/ou pelliculée
- [ ] Cover title missing/ Le titre de couverture manque
- [ ] Coloured maps/ Cartes géographiques en couleur
- [ ] Coloured ink (i.e. other than blue or black)/ Encre de couleur (i.e. autre que bleue ou noire)
- [ ] Coloured plates and/or illustrations/ Planches et/ou illustrations en couleur
- [ ] Bound with other material/ Relié avec d'autres documents
- [ ] Tight binding may cause shadows or distortion along interior margin/ Le reliure serrée peut causer de l'ombre ou de la distorsion le long de la marge intérieure
- [ ] Blank leaves added during restoration may appear within the text. Whenever possible, these have been omitted from filming/ Il se peut que certaines pages blanches ajoutées lors d'une restauration apparaissent dans le texte, mais, lorsque cela était possible, ces pages n'ont pas été filmées.

- [ ] Coloured pages/ Pages de couleur
- [x] Pages damaged/ Pages endommagées
- [ ] Pages restored and/or laminated/ Pages restaurées et/ou pelliculées
- [x] Pages discoloured, stained or foxed/ Pages décolorées, tachetées ou piquées
- [ ] Pages detached/ Pages détachées
- [ ] Showthrough/ Transparence
- [ ] Quality of print varies/ Qualité inégale de l'impression
- [ ] Continuous pagination/ Pagination continue
- [ ] Includes index(es)/ Comprend un (des) index

Title on header taken from:/ Le titre de l'en-tête provient:

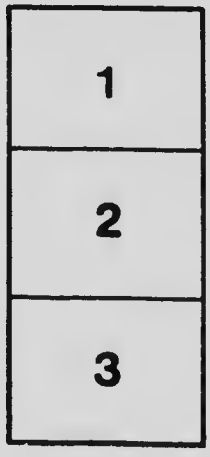
- [ ] Title page of issue/ Page de titre de la livraison
- [ ] Caption of issue/ Titre de départ de la livraison
- [ ] Masthead/ Générique (périodiques) de la livraison

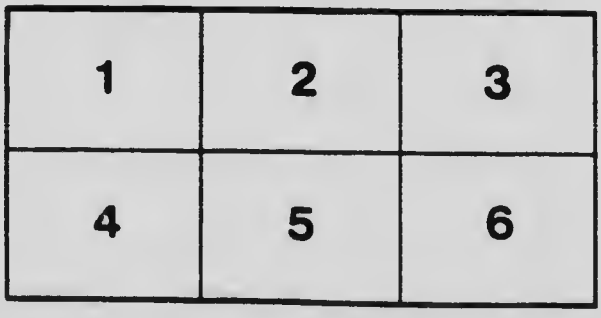
- [x] Additional comments:/ Commentaires supplémentaires:

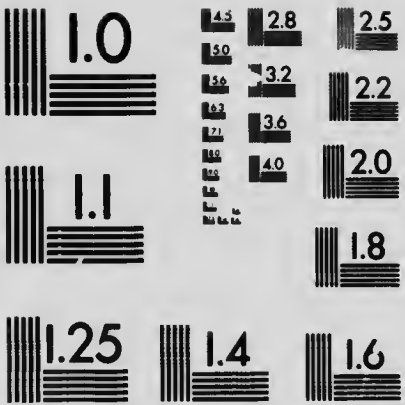
Pages i-ii are missing.
There are some creases in the middle of the pages.
Copy has manuscript annotations.

This item is filmed at the reduction ratio checked below/
Ce document est filmé au taux de réduction indiqué ci-dessous.

10X 12X 14X 16X 18X 20X 22X 24X 26X 28X 30X 32X







MICROCOPY RESOLUTION TEST CHART
NATIONAL BUREAU OF STANDARDS
STANDARD REFERENCE MATERIAL 1010a
(ANSI and ISO TEST CHART No. 2)

mother

MASON'S NEW ENGLISH GRAMMARS.

INTERMEDIATE ENGLISH GRAMMAR

BASED ON M[illegible] ENGLISH GRAMMARS
AUGMEN[illegible] D REVISED IN
ACCOI[illegible] VITH MODERN
RE[illegible]MEN[illegible] BY

A. J. ASHTON, M.A.

SENIOR ENGLISH MASTER, KELVINSIDE ACADEMY, GLASGOW
EXAMINER IN ENGLISH TO THE COLLEGE OF PRECEPTORS

FOURTH EDITION

TORONTO
THE COPP CLARK COMPANY, LIMITED
LONDON: G. BELL AND SONS, LTD.

PREFACE.

THE late Mr. C. P. Mason's English Grammars have for more than a generation been regarded as standard works on the subject. Numerous editions of the "First Notions," the "First Steps," the "Outlines," the "Shorter Grammar," and the "English Grammar," have shown that they supplied a want in the educational world. They are all distinguished by accuracy and clearness of definition, by fulness of detail and by their adaptability to learners of all grades, while their copious and well-chosen examples and exercises did much to relieve the subject from the imputation of dulness and (to quote Mr. Mason's own words) to "remove the listlessness which is apt to creep over a class during the Grammar-lesson." The writers of nearly all recently published School Grammars have not been slow to acknowledge their indebtedness to Mr. Mason for his pioneer work in the subject. At the same time, the Grammars have not escaped criticism. Practical teachers have pointed out that the subject matter is too tightly packed and needs a process of simplification. It has been objected, too, that the various grades are irregularly differentiated, that there is too great a difference between the "First Notions" and the "Outlines," and too little between the "Outlines" and the "Shorter Grammar." The present edition is an attempt to remedy these defects and also to embody the results of any investigations into the phenomena of our language that have been

made since Mr. Mason's books were last revised by him. The course is to comprise three volumes—Junior, Intermediate, and Advanced.

The Junior volume, based partly on the "First Notions" and partly on the "Outlines," was published last autumn. The present section is the Intermediate and has been compiled chiefly from the "Outlines," and the "Shorter Grammar." The arrangement of parts and chapters is, as far as possible, the same as that adopted in the Junior Grammar. The Historical Introduction has been almost entirely re-written. The Exercises do not form a separate division as in the original Grammars, but are appended to the chapters to which they severally belong. Many of them are new, and they are intended not only to stimulate the pupil's intelligence, but in many cases to familiarise him with the "infinite variety" of expression illustrated in our standard literature.

Those who have used the older books will find that the characteristic features of Mr. Mason's work have been retained unimpaired, while those who have not will, it is hoped, find the book adapted to all the requirements of the class teaching of English Grammar in the Middle Forms of our schools.

A. J. ASHTON.

KELVINSIDE ACADEMY,
GLASGOW, *June*, 1903.

CONTENTS.

INTRODUCTION:

PAGE

I. Short History of the English Language:

§ 1. Relation of English to other Languages, . 1

§ 2. Historical summary, ... 2

Earliest inhabitants of Britain: Roman occupation, ... 2

Britain becomes England, ... 3

Christianity introduced into England, . 4

England invaded by Danes, ... 4

Norman Conquest, ... 5

Revival of Learning, ... 5

Empire, trade, science, ... 6

§ 3. The three stages in the development of English, 6

Old English: Grammar and Vocabulary, 7

Middle English: Grammar and Vocabulary, 9

Modern English: Grammar and Vocabulary, 10

Synonyms, ... 12

§ 4. Relative value of English and Classical Elements, ... 13

II. Grammar: Definition and Divisions, ... 17

PART I.

PHONOLOGY AND ORTHOGRAPHY.

CHAPTER

I. Sounds and Signs, ... 19

PART II.

ETYMOLOGY, OR THE STUDY OF WORDS.

CHAPTER		PAGE
II.	The parts of Speech: Inflexion,	24
III.	The Noun: Classification,	27
IV.	The Noun: Its Inflexions. (i) Gender,	32
V.	The Noun: Its Inflexions. (ii) Number,	37
VI.	The Noun: Its Inflexions. (iii) Case,	42
VII.	The Adjective: Definition and Classification,	46
VIII.	The Adjective: Inflexion: Comparison,	52
IX.	The Pronoun: Classification: Inflexions,	56
X.	The Verb: Classification,	64
XI.	The Verb: Inflexions, Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, Person,	67
XII.	The Verb: Infinitive, Gerund, Participles,	76
XIII.	The Verb: Conjugation,	81
XIV.	The Verb: Defective and Anomalous Verbs,	95
XV.	The Adverb: Classification and Inflexion,	100
XVI.	The Preposition: Classification,	106
XVII.	The Conjunction and the Interjection,	110
XVIII.	Word-building,	113

PART III.

SYNTAX.

XIX.	Sentences: Classification: Relation of words to one another,	127
XX.	Subject and Predicate,	136
XXI.	Analysis of Sentences,	142
XXII.	Complex and Compound Sentences,	150
XXIII.	Analysis of Complex Sentences,	164
XXIV.	Parts of Speech: Nouns,	187
XXV.	Parts of Speech: Adjectives and Pronouns,	193
XXVI.	Parts of Speech: Verbs,	200
XXVII.	Parts of Speech: Adverbs, Prepositions and Conjunctions,	206
XXVIII.	Scheme of Parsing,	210
XXIX.	Punctuation,	213

INTRODUCTION.

I. SHORT HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

SECTION A.

RELATION OF ENGLISH TO OTHER LANGUAGES.

THE various languages spoken by mankind admit of being grouped together in certain great *families*, the members of each of which resemble each other more or less closely in the words used to express ideas, and in the grammatical framework of forms and inflexions by which the words are combined.

One of these families of languages—the one with which we are most concerned—has been called the *Indo-European* or *Aryan* family. This family, as the name *Indo-European* implies, falls into two divisions—*Asiatic* and *European*.

The *Asiatic* division includes most of the languages spoken in India and in Persia.

The chief living languages of the European division are:

(i) *Keltic* spoken in Wales, the Scottish Highlands, Isle of Man Ireland and Brittany.

(ii) *Hellenic* in Greece.

(iii) *Italic* or *Romanic* in Italy, France, Spain, Portugal and Roumania.

(iv) *Germanic* or *Teutonic* in England, Germany, Holland, Scandinavia and Iceland.

(v) *Slavonic* in Russia, Poland, Servia, Bulgaria and Bohemia.

The *Germanic* group, which includes English, has been classified as follows:

- Germanic
  - East Germanic
    - Gothic[1]
    - Old Norse
      - Norwegian.
      - Icelandic.
      - Swedish.
      - Danish.
  - West Germanic
    - Low German[2]
      - English.
      - Frisian.
      - Platt-Deutsch.
      - Dutch.
      - Flemish.
    - High German[2]—Modern German.

English, which has passed through three stages of growth—Old English, Middle English, and New or Modern English—is thus seen to belong to the Low German branch of the Germanic group or stock and the languages that resemble it most closely are Frisian (spoken in North Holland), Dutch, Platt-Deutsch (spoken on the West Baltic coast) and Flemish (spoken in Belgium).

SECTION B.

HISTORICAL SUMMARY.

The earliest inhabitants of Britain: Roman occupation.

The earliest inhabitants of whom we have any record were of Keltic race, like the people of the neighbouring country of Gaul, and spoke various dialects of the Keltic group of languages. Both countries—Britain and Gaul—were conquered by the Romans and became part of the Roman Empire. The conquered Gauls adopted the Roman or Latin language, and thus it has come about that French is for the most part a corrupted form of Latin and belongs to that group of languages which is

[1] Part of a translation of the Bible into *Gothic* by Bishop Ulfilas (fourth century) has been preserved.

[2] The terms *Low* and *High* are geographical and refer to the Northern Lowlands and Southern Highlands of Germany respectively.

called *Italic* or *Romanic*. The Britons, on the other hand, did not adopt the Latin language but retained their own Keltic dialects, four of which continue to be spoken at the present day in Wales, the Scottish Highlands, Isle of Man and Ireland. The Roman occupation of Britain lasted from 43 A.D. to 410, when the Roman garrisons were recalled to Italy to defend Rome against the attacks of Northern tribes. Traces of this occupation are seen at the present day in the numerous remains of paved roads, walls, towers, camps, villas and baths. The place-names *Chester*, Lan-*caster*, Glou-*cester*, Man-*chester*, etc., show that these places occupy the site of a Roman camp (*castra*). Names containing the words *strat-* and *-coln*, such as *Strat*ford and Lin*coln*, generally indicate the position of a Roman paved way (*strata*) or of a Roman colony (*colonia*).

Britain becomes England, 450-550.

About forty years after the departure of the Romans, Britain was invaded and conquered by some Germanic tribes, generally distinguished as *Jutes*, *Saxons* and *Angles*, who came from the districts we now call North Holland (or Friesland) and Schleswig-Holstein, and from the country between the rivers Elbe and Eider.

Those of the Keltic inhabitants who did not submit to the invaders were driven into the remote mountainous corners of the island, especially Wales, Cornwall, Strathclyde, Cumberland and the Scottish Highlands. The Germanic invaders thus occupied the greater part of the country and their language became the dominant one.

In this language three groups of dialects may be distinguished:

(i) The *Anglian* group in the North, including Northumbrian and Mercian.

(ii) The *Saxon* group in the South, the most important of which was the Wessex.

(iii) The *Kentish* dialect, Kent having been, according to tradition, settled by the Jutes.

As the Angles gained supremacy over the other tribes, and as they were the first to produce a literature, in the

poetry of Caedmon and in the translation of part of St. John's Gospel by Bede, so the name *Ænglisc* (*i.e.* English) became generally applied to the other dialects, and the name *Ængla-land* (*i.e.* England) was used to describe the whole country.

Christianity introduced into England, circ. 600.

The Germanic tribes were heathen, though they had probably heard of Christianity before they invaded Britain; but about A.D. 600 a band of missionaries, led by St. Augustine, was sent from Rome to convert them. Their mission was finally successful (though some of the northern tribes long resisted the new faith) and Christianity became the religion of the whole country. When the English language was inadequate to express the new ideas and the details of the new worship, Latin names were used to describe them. The service was conducted largely in Latin, and monasteries were founded, where Latin was taught and written. In this way Latin once again became one of the languages of the country, as it had been during the Roman occupation.

England invaded by the Danes or Northmen, circ. 800-1000.

In 793 a Danish fleet was seen off Lindisfarne, in Northumbria, and a series of inroads began, in which "Danes" and "heathens" conveyed the same ideas as murderers and plunderers. From about 850 the raids and forays became organised campaigns, followed, by conquest and settlement, and King Alfred of Wessex, after vainly trying to expel the invaders, was obliged by the treaty of Wedmore in 878 to leave them about two-thirds of what we now call England.

Numerous place-names ending in *-by*, *-thorp*, *-beck*, *-dale*, *-thwaite*, etc., and also many personal names, remain to show how completely they occupied certain parts of the country.

These Northmen belonged to the Germanic stock, like the English, but to a different group, which we call the Scandinavian. Their customs and their social life were

very much the same as those of the English, and as Mr. J. R. Green says: "England still remained England: the conquerors sank quietly into the mass of those around them, and Woden yielded without a struggle to Christ." One of their rulers—Knut—did what no English ruler had succeeded in doing—he united the whole of England into one peaceful realm.

The Norman Conquest, 1066-1216.

In 1066 the country was invaded and conquered for the fourth time, and the invaders were again Northmen or Scandinavians by race. But they had long occupied the N.W. part of France, they spoke the northern French dialect, were French in their habits and institutions, and for a century and a half after 1066 there was constant intercourse between them and the French of France. As the ruling race in England they made a deep impression on all the institutions of the country. Feudalism was introduced, and warfare, the law, the church, sport and fashion were all under their control. The English language, however, did not cease to exist, and after the death of King John in 1216, when England was finally separated from France and the two races coalesced into one nation, English was still the language of its people, though its grammar had been considerably modified during the interval and its vocabulary enriched by hundreds of French words.

The Revival of Learning, sixteenth century.

More than four centuries after the Norman conquest, there was an invasion of a more peaceful kind. This was the invasion of hordes of Latin words and latinized Greek words. It was caused by what is called the *Renaissance* or *Revival of Learning* in Europe. Constantinople, the capital of the Eastern or Greek Empire, had been taken by the Turks in 1453, and a number of exiled Greek scholars had carried their manuscripts and their learning to Florence and other towns in Italy Students from other lands flocked to Italy to be taught by the exiles, and the result was a general revival of

interest in classical literature throughout the west of Europe. Hundreds of words were added to the English language, which, after admitting so many French words, had lost its power of resisting the immigration of alien intruders.

Empire, trade, science.

The expansion of the island-state of England into a great world empire during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, and the commercial relations which we have established with every part of this empire and with most of the other countries of the world, have led to the adoption of a great many foreign words to describe foreign products, works of art, customs and social institutions.

In science there is a constant demand for new words by which to describe new inventions, new compounds, new processes, etc. As our own English tongue has lost the power of supplying new words recourse is had to Greek, as will be seen by a glance at our scientific nomenclature.

SECTION C.

THE GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH: GRAMMAR AND VOCABULARY.

From the above historical summary it will be seen how profoundly the structure of the English language has been modified and how enormously its vocabulary has been enriched during the course of its history.

For the sake of convenience the historical development of English may be arranged under three heads:

(i) **Old English** (O.E.) **450-1066,**
(ii) **Middle English (Mid. E.) 1066-1500,**
(iii) **Modern English (Mod. E.) 1500-,**

each of which will now be briefly considered.

Old English, 450-1066.

1. *Grammar.*

Old English was a highly inflected language, like Latin and Greek. For instance, the genitive singular, which in modern English is denoted by *'s*, was in O.E. indicated variously by *-es*, *-e*, *-re*, or *-an*, and sometimes by a change of vowel, *e.g. boc* (book), genitive *bec*. There were other endings for the genitive plural, as *-a*, *-ra*, *-na*.

The nominative plural, again, presented the same variety, *-as*, *-e*, *-a*, *-an* and *-u*, according to the gender of the noun, while some nouns changed the root-vowel and others had the plural exactly like the singular. There was a special ending for the dative case, both singular and plural. Adjectives were declined when used with the noun, as in modern German.

In verbs, the infinitive was marked by an ending *-an*, *-ian*, etc., and the past participle was distinguished by a prefix *ge-* as well as by a suffix (cf. German *ge-straf-t*, *ge-bog-en*).

The Latin alphabet was used, with three additional letters. Two of these þ (*thorn* = *th*) and ƿ (*wyn* = *w*) are from the *Runic* alphabet used by the heathen English. The other is a crossed *d*, written ð, and used instead of the *thorn*.

The following specimen of Old English is the Lord's Prayer, as it was written in the tenth century.

Faeder ure, þu þe eart on heofenum, si þin nama ge-halgod; to-becume þin rice; ge-weorhte þin willa on eorþan, swa-swa on heofenum; urne daeghwamlican hlaf syle us to daeg; and forgyf us ure gyltas, swa-swa we forgifaþ urum gyltendum; and ne gelaedde þu us on costnunge, ac alys us of yfle: soþlice.

Towards the end of this period the grammatical structure of Old English was considerably modified owing to the Danish invasions. The English and the Danes were able to understand each other, but as their understanding was based on a similar vocabulary, the niceties of grammar would be sacrificed. The same process has been suffered by Dutch in South Africa.

2. *Vocabulary.*

In the above version of the Lord's Prayer there are no words of non-English origin. In fact, the vocabulary of O.E. was comparatively free from foreign admixture. Probably not more than half a dozen Keltic words (apart from place-names) were taken over by the English conquerors. The ruling classes would not learn the language of the inferior natives, whereas the natives who remained in the English Settlements would have to learn the language of their masters.

About 600 A.D. the introduction of Christianity by Roman missionaries led to the gradual adoption of some hundreds of Latin words and Latinized Greek words, describing the rites and practices of the new religion. In many cases the native language was able to supply a word to suit the new idea. Thus the words *God*, *synn* (=sin), *teoða* (=tithe) and *Eastron* (=Easter) were adapted to new uses. New compounds were formed, such as

leorning-cniht (learning-knight)=disciple,
boccras (book-men)=scribes,
heah-faeder (high-father)=patriarch,
god-spellere (gospeller)=evangelist.

But as time went on and monasteries were established and Latin was taught and studied (Alfred the Great says that just before he came to the throne in 871 he could not remember a single one south of the Thames who could understand the Latin rituals in English or translate a letter from Latin into English) these native words dropt out of use and were replaced by *disciple*, *scribes*, *patriarch*, etc.

From 800 onwards the influence of the Scandinavian settlements in England began to make itself felt. The similarity between O.E. and Old Norse was very great, in fact, there was an enormous number of words that were identical in the two languages, so that the invaders would have little difficulty in understanding the natives.

In cases where the forms for the same word differed slightly, both forms have been preserved, *e.g. from* and *fro*; *shirt* and *skirt*; *shot* and *scot*; *edge* and *egg* (verb).

In other cases the Scandinavian word is found in dialect only, as in *true* and *trigg*; *church* and *kirk*; *leap* and *loup*.

In the event of a struggle between two words, Scand. and Eng., sometimes the Scand. word supplanted the Eng., as *egg* (noun) for *ey*; *give* for *yive*; *on lofte* (=aloft) for *on the lifte*; *sister* for *swuster*.

More often, however, the native word survived, as *goat* for *gayte*; *few* for *fa* or *fo*; *worse* for *werre*; *star* for *sterne*.

Middle English.

1. *Grammar.*

When, after almost disappearing for more than a century after the Norman Conquest, English begins to reappear as a literary language about 1200, it was an English very different in its Grammar from O.E. The process of simplification, which had begun after the Danish invasions, was continued and was not confined to one district only but became universal. All the case-endings, given above, had either disappeared and had been *levelled* down to the colourless ending *-e*. The various rules for the formation of the plural were reduced, with a few exceptions, to one.

The contrast is best seen by comparing Wycliffe's version of the Lord's Prayer (1380) with the O.E. version given above:

Our Fadir, that art in hevenys, halewid be thi name; thi Kingdom come to; be thi wil done in erthe, as in hevene. Give to us this day oure breed ovir othir substance, and forgive to us our dettis, as we forgiven to oure dettouris. And lede us not into temptacioun, but delyvere us from yvel. Amen.

2. *Vocabulary.*

The O.E. version of the Lord's Prayer did not contain a single non-English word; the Middle English version

contains six—*substance, dettis, dettouris, temptacioun, delyvere, amen.* This is but a slight indication of the additions made to our vocabulary during this period. The new words were connected with *Feudalism*, such as *homage, fealty, chivalry, scutcheon, tournament*; with *Law*, as *sue, chancellor, judge, assize, parliament*; with *War*, as *captain, mail, armour*; with *Hunting* and *Cookery*, as *forest, falcon, covert, beef, mutton, veal*, etc.; with the *Church*, as *friar, penance, relic*, etc.

Not only were new words introduced but many native words were changed to suit Norman ears. The Normans had the French dislike of throat or guttural sounds, and in many words these sounds disappeared or were softened. Thus *gif* became *if*; *daeg, day*; *sorg, sorrow*; and *gh* has become silent in a great many words such as: *light, night, fight, right*, whereas it formerly had the full guttural sound as in the German equivalents *Licht, Nacht, Fecht, Recht*, or as in existing Scotch dialects.

Modern English from 1500-.

1. *Grammar.*

About 1500 the English language became fixed in very much the same form as it has now. What this form is and how it has been modified as time has gone on, it will be the object of the following chapters to show.

Pronunciation. We have seen how Norman influence affected the sounds of English words. This process of change was continued through the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, one of the most important changes being the dropping of the *-e* termination, though it was usually kept in the spelling. In Chaucer's verse we see the transition-stage from the time, when the final *-e* was always sounded, to Modern English where it is silent or dropped altogether. Thus the words *strange, courage, time, great, old* appear as *straungë, corage, tymë, gretë, oldë*. On the other hand *hadde* (=had), *meke* (meek), *hope, coude* (could), *sitte* (sit), etc., appear as monosyllables.

About 100 years after Chaucer came two events which had a most serious effect on English spelling. The first of these was the introduction of the *printing-press* into England by Caxton in 1476. Caxton himself was consistent in his spelling, but his successors were careless and ignorant, and often spelled the same word in different ways on the same page. The second event was the *Revival of Learning* (circ. 1500) already referred to. This caused the introduction of hundreds of Latin and Greek words, which were nearly all spelt in the old Latin way. A terrible confusion in spelling was the result. Each writer spelt as it "seemed right in his own eyes" according to the English or French or Latin system of spelling. At last about the beginning of the seventeenth century, just before the Authorised version of the Bible was printed (1611), the printers adopted a system of spelling which, with a few trifling exceptions, has ever since been retained.

2. *Vocabulary.*

There was an enormous in-flowing of foreign words, chiefly Latin and Greek, in the Tudor period. It was a period of great mental activity. The revival of learning, the great change in religion known as the Reformation, the expansion of the world by the discovery of America and the advance of science, all led to the circulation of new ideas which the old language was thought to be inadequate to express. Fresh words were found in classical authors, and introduced into English with slight change of ending to suit the uninflected character of the language. Hence the new words of this period are easily recognised by those who know even a little Latin.

Benediction, tradition, penitence, persecute, fidelity, providence, fragile, conception, regal, secure, faction, separate, oration are a few examples. But the same Latin words had already come into the language in a French disguise during the Norman period, as *benison, treason, penance, pursue, fealty, prudence, frail, conceit, royal, sure, fashion, sever, orison*. Thus we have many

pairs of words, often called *doublets* or *duplicates*, differing in form and often in meaning, but traceable to the same Latin root.

In more recent times, our relations with foreign countries and our world-wide trade account for the introduction of a large number of miscellaneous words. The following are a few familiar examples:

French: *bouquet, envelope, etiquette, ennui.*
Italian: *bandit, cartoon, concert, fresco, folio, macaroni.*
Spanish: *armada, cargo, chocolate, embargo, grandee.*
Portuguese: *caste, cocoa, mandarin, marmalade.*
Dutch: *boom, reef, sloop, yacht.*
Arabic: *admiral, algebra, almanac, camphor, coffee, amber.*
Persian: *azure, bazaar, chess, lilac, orange.*
Hindustani: *calico, chutnee, curry, nabob, punch.*
Chinese: *tea, caddy, gong, junk.*
Malay: *bamboo, caoutchouc, sago.*
Turkish: *sash, tulip, seraglio.*
American-Indian: *hammock, maize, potato, tomato.*

The introduction of so many foreign elements into English at various times has made the language very rich in synonyms or words of identical or similar meaning. Examples:

English.	Norman-French.	English.	Norman-French.
deed	*act*	*wretched*	*miserable*
begin	*commence*	*acknowledge*	*confess*
will	*testament*	*buy*	*purchase*
luck	*fortune*	*bough*	*branch*
limb	*member*	*wont*	*use*
bloom	*flower*	*abet*	*aid*
hearty	*cordial*	*beseech*	*pray*
land	*country*	*lowly*	*humble.*

Many of these synonyms such as *use* and *wont*; *aid* and *abet*; *humble* and *lowly*; *will* and *testament*; *acknowledge* and *confess*; *pray* and *beseech* are constantly found together, and may be a survival of the time when the Normans and the English were being merged into one nation. Then a Norman would explain a French word to an Englishman by joining with it its

English equivalent and an Englishman would explain an English word by its French equivalent.

Relative value of the English and Classical elements in our speech.

If we take the vocabulary of our language as presented in a Dictionary, we find that the classical words far outnumber the native words. Taking 100,000 words as a rough estimate, we may reckon 60 per cent. as Latin 30 per cent. as English and the remaining 10 per cent. as derived from Greek and various sources. But this does not mean that we *use* more Latin words than English words. The English element in our speech is indispensable. It comprises:

(i) Those parts of speech by which a sentence is, as it were, held together, such as the *pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, auxiliary verbs* and *numerals* (up to thousand).

(ii) All *strong verbs*, a large number of *weak verbs* and all *adjectives compared irregularly.*

(iii) Most words denoting common natural objects and phenomena.

(iv) Words relating to the house and farm.

(v) Words relating to family and kindred.

(vi) Words relating to parts of the body and natural functions.

(vii) Words relating to common actions and things.

In the following passages from the Psalms there are no words of Latin origin:

"I will lift up mine eyes unto the hills from whence cometh my help. My help cometh from the Lord which made Heaven and Earth." (Ps. 121.)

"The earth is the Lord's and the fulness thereof; the world and they that dwell therein." (Ps. 24.)

"I have been young and now am old; yet have I not seen the righteous forsaken nor his seed begging bread." (Ps. 37.)

"O God, thou art my God · early will I seek thee; my soul thirsteth for thee, my flesh longeth for thee in a dry and thirsty land, where no water is" (Ps. 63.)

In the following passage from William Morris's *A Dream of John Ball* (1892) there are 17 classical words in a total of 205 (*i.e.* about 8 per cent.):

"I got into my old *place* again on the steps of the *cross*, Will Green beside me, and above me John Ball and Jack Straw again. The moon was half-way up the heavens now, and the short summer night had begun, *calm* and *fragrant*, with *just* so much *noise* outside our *quiet circle* as made one feel the world alive and happy. We waited *silently* until we had heard John Ball and the *story* of what was to do; and *presently* he began to speak:

'Good *people*, it is begun, but not ended. Which of you is hardy enough to wend the road to London to-morrow?'

'All! All!' they shouted.

'Yea,' said he, 'even so I deemed of you. Yet forsooth hearken! London is a great and *grievous city*; and may-happen when ye come thither it shall seem to you over-great to deal with, when ye *remember* the little townships and the cots ye came from.

'Moreover, when ye dwell here in Kent ye think forsooth of your brethren in Essex or Suffolk and there belike an end. But from London ye may have an inkling of all the world, and over-burdensome maybe shall that seem to you, a few and a *feeble people*.'"

On the other hand, in the following passage from Dr. Johnson, there are 26 classical words in a total of 86 (*i.e.* about 30 per cent.):

"The *proverbial oracles* of our *parsimonious ancestors* have *informed* us, that the *fatal waste* of our *fortune* is by small *expenses*, by the *profusion* of *sums* too little *singly* to *alarm* our *caution*, and which we never *suffer* ourselves to *consider* together. Of the same kind is the *prodigality* of life; he that hopes to look back hereafter with *satisfaction* upon *past* years, must learn to know the *present value* of *single minutes* and *endeavour* to let no *particle* of time fall *use*-less to the ground."

In these passages from William Morris and Dr. Johnson we have the two extremes.

In the first piece the writer seems to be striving to write a pure English style, but he makes his readers too conscious of his efforts, and the result is that the style seems artificial. The second piece is overburdened with classical words. It may be dignified, but it is certainly ponderous. This heavy classical style is often called *Johnsonese* from the name of its originator in the eighteenth century.

It is too often used by newspaper-writers, sometimes to produce a humorous effect, but more often in all seriousness.

As an example of a "golden mean" between these two extremes, let us take a passage from R. L. Stevenson's essay on "Walking tours," in which the percentage of classical words is about 14:

"If the evening be *fine* and warm, there is nothing better in life than to *lounge* before the inn door in the sunset, or lean over the *parapet* of the bridge, to watch the weeds and the quick fishes. It is then, if ever, that you *taste joviality* to the full *significance* of that *audacious* word. Your *muscles* are so *agreeably* slack, you feel so clean and so strong and so idle, that whether you *move* or sit still, whatever you do is done with pride and a kingly *sort* of *pleasure*. You fall in talk with any one, wise or foolish, drunk or *sober*. And it seems as if a hot walk *purged* you, more than of anything else, of all narrowness and pride, and left *curiosity* to *play* its *part* freely, as in a child or a man of *Science*. You lay aside all your own hobbies, to watch *provincial humours develop* themselves before you, now as a laughable farce, and now *grave* and *beauti*-ful like an old tale."

EXERCISES.

1. In the passage from Wm. Morris's works quoted above, try to find English substitutes for the classical words that are italicised.

2. Rewrite the passage from Dr. Johnson's works in simple English, making use of a well-known maxim concerning *pence* and *pounds*.

3. Give an account of the lesson in language that Wamba the jester gives to Gurth the swincherd in Chapter I. of Scott's *Ivanhoe*.

4. Enumerate the periods at which Latin words have been introduced into the English language.

5. Calculate the percentage of classical words in the following passages:

(*a*) "Then Sir Bedivere cried, Ah, my lord Arthur, what shall become of me now ye go from me, and leave me here alone among mine enemies. Comfort thyself, said the king, and do as well as thou mayest, for in

me is no trust for to trust in. For I will into the vale of Avilion, to heal me of my grievous wound. And if thou hear never more of me, pray for my soul. But ever the queens and the ladies wept and shrieked, that it was pity to hear. And as soon as Sir Bedivere had lost sight of the barge, he wept and wailed and so took the forest." (Malory's *Morte d'Arthur.*)

(*b*) "My heart leaps up when I behold
A rainbow in the sky;
So was it when my life began;
So is it now I am a man;
So be it when I shall grow old,
Or let me die!
The Child is Father of the Man;
And I could wish my days to be
Bound each to each by natural piety."
(Wordsworth.)

(*c*) "Accomplishments have taken Virtue's place,
And wisdom falls before superior grace;
We slight the precious kernel of the stone,
And toil to polish its rough coat alone.
A just deportment, manners graced with ease,
Elegant phrase, and figure formed to please,
Are qualities that seem to comprehend
Whatever parents, guardians, schools intend."
(Cowper's *Task.*)

(*d*) "Mountainous regions are sometimes so remote from the seat of government, and so difficult of access, that they are very little under the influence of the sovereign or within the reach of national justice. Law is nothing without power; and the sentence of a distant court could not be easily executed nor perhaps very safely promulgated among men ignorantly proud and habitually violent, unconnected with the general system, and accustomed to reverence only their own lords." (Johnson's *Journey to the Hebrides.*)

6. Mention some Dutch words that have been introduced into our language from South Africa.

7. Two forms of what is etymologically the same word often exist side by side in English, one, coming direct from

the Latin and almost unchanged in form; the other, coming through the French and considerably modified in form.

Ex. Lat. *regalis*: Eng. *regal* and *royal*.

Give the *doublets* or *duplicates* of the following words:

abridge (Lat. *brevis*)	*treason* (Lat. *trado*)
aggrieve (Lat. *gravis*)	*poignant* (Lat. *pungo*)
chasten (Lat. *castigo*)	*envious* (Lat. *invidia*)
serjeant (Lat. *servio*)	*imply* (Lat. *implico*)
ransom (Lat. *redimo*)	*cull* (Lat. *colligo*)
pursue (Lat. *persequor*)	*jointure* (Lat. *jungo*)

8. Give words of Latin origin having the same meaning as the following:

(Ex.: Eng. *worse*: Lat. *inferior*):

mad	*strengthen*	*weaken*	*forgetful*
dip	*threefold*	*wonted*	*lightness*
snake	*boundless*	*unwilling*	*hopeless*
edge	*ailment*	*readable*	*foretell*
likely	*curse*	*manslaughter*	
godlike	*forefathers*	*motherly*	

9. Give examples of Keltic words, describing the dress, customs, etc., of the Highlanders, introduced into modern English through the influence of Sir Walter Scott and other Scotch writers. Example: *kilt*.

10. "Since 1500, words, chiefly of a technical and scientific nature, have, by thousands, been introduced direct from the Greek." Give instances of such words.

(Examples: *barometer*, *photograph*, *hypnotism*.)

II. GRAMMAR: DEFINITION AND DIVISIONS.

Speech or **Language** is the expression of thought by means of words.

Grammar (from the Greek *gramma*, a letter) is the science that treats of speech or language.

English Grammar is that portion of the general science of language which treats of the speech of the English people.

Words are significant combinations of elementary sounds. These sounds are represented to the eye by marks or symbols called *letters*, the whole collection of which is called the *alphabet* (from *alpha*, *beta*, the names of the first two letters of the Greek alphabet).

The study of the *sounds* of a language and of the ways in which these sounds are produced is called *Phonology* (from the Greek *phonē*, sound, and *logos*, a discourse or science).

The right mode of representing the sounds that make up a word by means of *letters* is called *Orthography* (from the Greek *orthos*, right, and *grapho*, I write).

That part of Grammar which deals with the different sorts of words, taken separately, is called *Etymology* (from Greek *etymos*, true, and *logos*, a discourse or science).

A collection of words arranged in such a manner as to express some complete thought is called a *sentence* (from Latin *sententia*, a thought). The words of which sentences are made up are of different sorts, according to the kind of purpose which they serve in a sentence.

Thus, in the sentence "The little bird flies swiftly through the air," *bird* is the name of something that we speak about: *the* points out which bird is meant; *little* describes the bird; *flies* tells us something about the bird, by stating what it does; *swiftly* denotes the manner in which the bird does this; *through* shows how the action of the bird has to do with the air.

That division of Grammar which treats of the way in which words are combined so as to form sentences, is called *Syntax* (Greek *syn*, together, and *taxis*, arrangement).

Thus there are four divisions of Grammar:

Phonology	dealing with	*sounds.*
Orthography	„	„ *signs* or *letters.*
Etymology	„	„ *words.*
Syntax	„	„ *sentences.*

PART I.

PHONOLOGY AND ORTHOGRAPHY.

CHAPTER I.

THE MAKING OF SOUNDS.

SOUNDS are made by the breath which is sent out from those bellows in the chest which we call the *lungs*. This breath is modified, as it comes up, by the various *organs of voice*. These organs are:

(*a*) The *throat*-passage across which are stretched the *vocal chords*. If the vocal chords are kept apart, so that the air can pass through easily, we have what is called a **breathed** or **voiceless** sound, such as the breathed sound of *h* at the beginning of the word *high*.

(*b*) The *nose* passage. In pronouncing the word *Tom* the lips are closed and the air passes out through the nose; *m* is therefore called a **nasal** sound. When you have a bad cold the air cannot always pass through the nose, and you have to let it out through the mouth and say *Tob*.

(*c*) The various parts of the *mouth*, namely the *tongue*, the *palate*, the *teeth*, and the *lips*. You can test this by pronouncing slowly the sounds represented by the letters *l*, *j*, *sh*, *ch*, *d*, *t*, *p*, *b*.

THE CHIEF KINDS OF SOUNDS.

Vowels and Consonants.

When the mouth-passage is left open so as not to cause audible friction, and *voiced breath* is sent through it, a **vowel** is produced, as the sound of *a* in *father*, of *i* in *pin*.

When the mouth-passage is narrowed so as to cause audible friction, as in the sound of *f* in *fat*, or when the mouth-passage is

stopped and then opened, as in the sounds of *b* and *p* in *bat* and *pat*, then a **consonant** is produced.

Some consonants are produced with little obstruction in the mouth-passage, such as *l* and *n*. They are sometimes called **vowel-like** consonants or **liquids.**

Single vowel-sounds in English.

When the voiced breath is sent through the mouth-passage every alteration in the shape of the mouth produces a different vowel. There are sixteen of these vowel-sounds in English though we have only five signs or letters—*a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*—with which to represent them. To make up for this want of letters, certain devices called **phonetic symbols** are sometimes used. These symbols will be given, within brackets, with each sound in the following list.

Four sounds generally denoted by the sign ***a*** :

1. The sound of *a* in *marry* (ă).
2. The sound of *a* in *Mary* (â).
3. The sound of *a* in *mason* (ä).
4. The sound of *a* in *path* (à).

Two sounds generally denoted by the sign ***e*** :

5. The sound of *e* in *met* (ĕ).
6. The sound of *e* in *mete* (ē).

One sound generally denoted by the sign ***i*** :

7. The sound of *i* in *pin* (ĭ).

Three sounds generally denoted by the sign *o*, and *one* sound denoted by *o*, *au* or *a* :

8. The sound of *o* in *not* (ŏ).
9. The sound of *o* in *note* (ō).
10. The sound of *o* in *omit* (o').
11. The sound of *o* in *frost* (au).

Two sounds generally denoted by *oo* :

12. The sound of *oo* in *stood* (o͝o).
13. The sound of *oo* in *stool* (oo͞).

One sound generally denoted by *u* :

14. The sound of *u* in *but* (ŭ).

Two indefinite sounds generally denoted by ***er*** :

15. The sound of *er* in *gather* (ə).
16. The sound of *er* in *confer* (əə).

(In Scotland and in parts of Northern England the *r* is sounded in such words and in words in which the *r* is followed by a vowel.)

These vowel-sounds are represented in English spelling in a great variety of ways. Compare the following lists of words in sound and spelling :

1. Bad, *sa*lmon, thr*e*sh.
2. Mary, *ai*ry, h*ei*r, therein.
3. Fate, br*ai*d, s*ay*, gr*ea*t, n*ei*gh, g*ao*l, g*au*ge.
4. Far, clerk, *au*nt, heart.
5. Met, many, said, bury, tread, friend.
6. Mete, meet, meat, people, chief, receive.
7. Pit, pretty, sieve, busy.
8. Pot, laurel, want.
9. Poke, coat, toe, soul, two, sew, owe.
10. Hero, pillow.
11. Fall, for, fraud, claw, broad, ought.
12. Full, good, could.
13. Rude, rood, flew, blue, fruit, through, shoe.
14. Fun, love, does, flood, rough.
15. Winter, thorough, martyr, pleasure.
16. Herd, bird, earth, cur, colonel.

Double vowel-sounds or Diphthongs.

When two vowel-sounds are uttered without a break between them, we get what is called a **diphthong**. There are four diphthongs :

1. *i* made up of the sounds of å and ĭ, as in *bite* (ĭ).
2. *oi* made up of au and ĭ, as in *hoist* (oi).
3. *eu* made up of ĭ and o͞o, as in *eulogy* (ū).
4. *ou* made up of å and o͝o, as in *noun* (ou).

NOTE.—Two vowels are often written together but only represent a single vowel-sound, *e.g.* Caesar, bear, receive, etc. These are called **digraphs** or **improper diphthongs.**

CONSONANTS.

We have seen that 5 signs have to do duty in our ordinary written language for no fewer than 20 vowel-sounds, 16 of them single and 4 double. Now if we take away these 5 signs from the 26 signs of our alphabet we are left with 21. Of these 21, the 3 following are unnecessary :

(1) *c*, because when it precedes *a*, *o*, or *u* it expresses the sound of *k*, and when it precedes *e* or *i* it expresses the sound of *s*.

(2) *q*, because as it is always found with *u*, the combined sound can be as well expressed by *kw* as in *awkward*.

(3) *x*, because in some words it is equal to *ks*, as in *fox*, and in others to *gs* as *example*.

We are left then with 18 signs and these 18 signs have to represent 25 consonantal sounds.

The following is a list of them :

23 simple : *b*, *d*, *f*, *g*, *h*, *k*, *l*, *m*, *n*, *p*, *r*, *s*, *t*, *v*, *w*, *y*, *z*, *ng*, *dh*, *th*, *sh*, *zh*, *wh*.

2 compound : *j*, *ch*.

EXPLANATIONS.

(1) *g* has always the hard sound as in *goat.*

(2) *dh*, *th*: There are two sounds of *th*; the one, as in *thin*, *thick*, is a *breathed* or *voiceless* sound; the other, as in *this*, *the*, is *voiced.* To distinguish them we represent the latter by *dh.*

(3) *zh*, *sh*: There is the same difference between these as between *dh* and *th.* *zh* is *voiced* as in *azure* (=*azhure*) and *pleasure* (=*pleazhure*); *sh* is *breathed*, as in *shall* and *sure* (=*shure*).

(4) *j* is a convenient sign, which stands for the awkward-looking compound *d·h.* Some spelling reformers would write *dzhudzh* for *judge*, but it is more convenient to keep *j* and write *juj.*

(5) *ch*: Though the sign *c* is unnecessary yet it is convenient to keep it in the symbol *ch* (as in *chat*, *church*), which stands for the compound *tsh.*

Notice that *j* and *ch* are the *voiced* and *breathed* forms of the same sound.

Two chief kind of Consonants—Fricatives and Explosives.

(1) If the mouth-passage is obstructed somewhere by the palate, or teeth, tongue or lips, but not quite closed, the result is a *fricative* or *rubbing* sound. Fricatives may be either *breathed* or *voiced.*

(2) If the mouth-passage is entirely stopped, a kind of *explosion* takes place, when the stoppage is removed. The *explosives*, too, may be *breathed* or *voiced.*

Table of the Consonants.

	Breathed.	Voiced.
Explosives, - -	*p*, *t*, *k*	*b*, *d*, *g*
Fricatives, - -	*wh*, *f*, *th*, *s*, *sh*, *h*	*w*, *v*, *dh*, *z*, *zh*, *y*, *r*, *l*, *m*, *n*, *ng*
Compound, - -	ch	j

The consonants are also classified according to that part of the mouth-organ which is most used in pronouncing them, *e.g. labials* or *lip*-sounds, *dentals* or *teeth*-sounds, *palatals* or *palate*-sounds, etc.

These consonantal sounds are represented in English spelling in a great variety of ways:

1. *b*: *b*ed, Chu*bb*, cup-*b*oard.
2. *d*: sa*d*, sa*dd*er, fel*led.*
3. *f*: *f*illy, *ph*ilosoph*y*, rou*gh.*
4. *g*: be*g*, be*gg*ed, *gh*ost.
5. *h*: *h*ow, *wh*o.

6. *j*: **J**ohn, *g*in, ju*dg*e.
7. *k*: *k*in, ca*t*, ta*ck*.
8. *l*: *l*et, te*ll*, be*ll*e.
9. *m*: he*m*, E*mm*a, thu*mb*.
10. *n*: i*n*, i*nn*, *kn*ee.
11. *p*: ha*p*, ha*pp*y, hiccou*gh*.
12. *r*: *r*ash, mi*rr*or, *wr*ist.
13. *s*: *s*ick, ki*ss*, *c*ell.
14. *t*: ca*t*, ca*tt*le, *Th*omas.
15. *v*: *v*at, ha*v*e, o*f*.
16. *w*: *w*en, *wh*en, (in England) s*ua*ve.
17. *y*: *y*ell, pi*n*ion.
18. *z*: *z*eal, bu*s*y, bu*zz*.
19. *ch*: *ch*urch, ca*tch*, feat*ure*
20. *ng*: lo*ng*, li*ng*er, to*ngue*.
21. *th* (the): *th*is, sc*y*the.
22. *th* (thin): dea*th*, Ma*tth*ew.
23. *sh*: *sh*ut, *s*ure, men*ti*on.
24. *zh*: azure, pleasure, occasion.
25. *wh*: (in England sounded as *w*).

EXERCISES.

1. Instead of the *italicised* letter or letters in each of the following words put the corresponding phonetic symbol:

P*a*ll, p*a*lc, p*e*llet, p*i*ll, p*i*le, b*oy*, b*eau*ty, b*ow* (verb), b*ow*l, bett*er*, b*o*nd, b*aw*l, b*ee*t, b*ai*t, b*a*tter, b*ea*st, br*u*te, b*u*d, br*oo*d, *o*bey, c*ou*ld, c*a*sk, c*a*ve, s*igh*, m*ew*, c*ow*l.

2. Show which of the following words contain true diphthongs:

Peace, aerated, height, round, thought, fourteenth, pew, oily, reopen, weapon, axiom, view, parliament, howl, aisle.

3. Pronounce the following consonants, and say which of them you would consider **labial** or **lip**-sounds, which of them **dental** or **teeth**-sounds, and which **palatal** or **palate**-sounds: *b*, *d*, *f*, *j*, *l*, *p*, *t*, *th*, *m*, *v*.

4. The following words are written in phonetic symbols. Pronounce them, and give their ordinary spelling:

Kăch, brīt, ū-trē, trŭj, sĕptə, skwīə, kləjī, fo͝otbaul, dhō, egzīl, sho͞or, plātīm, yōt, krĭkĕtə, bəəd, auldhō, sĭks, ōshən, jēŏgrăfĭ, pāj.

5. Find other ways of writing the consonant sounds *n*, *s*, *t*, *z*, *sh*, *f*, besides those given in the list at the end of the chapter.

PART II.

ETYMOLOGY OR THE STUDY OF WORDS.

Etymology is that division of grammar which deals with separate words.

It treats of

(1) Their **classification** into groups.

(2) Their **inflexions** or the varieties of form which they undergo to mark changes in their grammatical relations.

(3) Their **Composition** and **Derivation**, or modes in which they are formed out of simpler constituent elements.

CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS.

The classes in which words are arranged are called **Parts of Speech.** These are eight in number:

1. Noun.
2. Adjective.
3. Pronoun.
4. Verb.
5. Adverb.
6. Preposition.
7. Conjunction.
8. Interjection.

CHAPTER II.

THE PARTS OF SPEECH: INFLEXION.

A **Noun** (Latin *nomen*, 'name') is a word used as a name for something, as 'Bird,' 'James.'

An **Adjective** (Latin *adjectivus*, 'that may be joined to') is a word used with a noun to describe, to limit as to quantity or number, or to indicate that for which the noun stands, as '*Tall* men'; '*Three* birds'; '*This* book.'

A **Pronoun** (Latin *pro*, 'for,' *nomen*, 'name') is a word used instead of a noun, as '*I* see'; '*He* runs'; '*Who* spoke.'

A **Verb** (Latin *verbum*, 'word') is a word which tells something about some person or thing, as 'Lions *roar*.'

An **Adverb** (Latin *ad*, 'to,' *verbum*, 'word') is a word which shows how an action, state, or quality is modified or limited, as 'He writes *well*'; 'John came *yesterday*'; 'I am *very* tired.'

A **Preposition** (Latin *prae*, 'before,' *positus*, 'placed') is a word which, when placed before a noun or a pronoun, shows some relation in which some thing, or some action or attribute of a thing, stands to something else, as, 'A cloud *in* the sky'; 'Come *to* me'; 'Fond *of* play.'

A **Conjunction** (Latin *con*, 'together,' *jungo*, 'join') is a word which joins together words which have a common relation to some other word, or sentences which have a mutual relation to each other, as, 'We eat bread *and* meat,' 'He heard the noise, *but* sat still,' '*Though* he is rich, he is humble.'

An **Interjection** (Latin *inter*, 'between,' *jactus*, 'thrown') is a word which expresses some feeling or emotion, but has no grammatical relation to other words, as 'Oh!' 'Alas!'

INFLEXION.

Inflexion (Latin *inflectere*, 'to bend') is a change made in the form of a word either to mark some modification of the notion which the word stands for, or to show the relation of the word to some other word in the sentence.

Inflexion is now of two kinds.

1. Some inflexions consist in **the addition of certain letters** to a word, as *book*, *books*; *plant*, *planted*. What is thus added is called a suffix (Latin *suffixus*, 'fixed on'). These suffixes

were once significant words, but gradually lost their full form and meaning.

2. Some inflexions (in certain verbs) consist in **a change in the vowel sound** of a word, caused by first doubling a root syllable, and then blending the two sounds together, as in *fight, fought*; *find, found*.

3. The addition of a syllabic suffix often caused **the vowel** of a preceding syllable to be **weakened** (compare *nation* and *national*, *vain* and *vanity*). This change often remained when the suffix was lost, as in *man, men*; *feed, fed*. What we thus get is only a spurious inflexion.

Nouns and **Pronouns** are inflected to mark **Gender, Number,** and **Case.** This inflexion is called **Declension.**

Adjectives and **Adverbs** are inflected to mark **Degree.** This inflexion is called **Comparison.**

Verbs are inflected to mark **Voice, Mood, Tense, Number,** and **Person.** This inflexion is called **Conjugation.**

Prepositions, Conjunctions, and **Interjections** are not inflected.

The **Stem** (or **Crude Form**) of a word that admits of inflexion is that portion of the word upon which the inflexions are based.

That portion of a word which it has in common with other words that relate to the same notion, is called the **Root.**

EXERCISES.

1. What is the Part of Speech of each of the *italicised* words in the following sentences:

We send our clothes to a *steam*-laundry. I saw the *steam* coming out of the spout. Ships *steam* slowly through the Suez Canal.

The *furrows* are not straight. Grief *furrows* the brow.

I cannot *square* my accounts. We live at No. 13 Queen *Square*. He is trying to fit a round thing into a *square* hole.

He served two years *before* the mast. I was ordered to go on *before*. The sermon had begun *before* I arrived. The umpire gave him out "leg *before*."

Give me that *steel* rod. The Stoics tried to *steel* themselves against pain. The price of *steel* is rising.

"Here we go *round* the mulberry bush." Let us play some *round* games. The ship could not *round* Cape Wrath. There is just time to have a *round* of whist.

The *after* effects were very serious. I missed him *after* the performance. I went first, he came *after*. We all sat clapping *after* he had left the stage.

That was a very *close* game. The canon lives in the Cathedral *close*. We shall *close* the meeting with a vote of thanks. I like sitting *close* to the stove. This room seems very *close*.

2. Make sentences in which the following words are used: (1) as *nouns*, (2) as *verbs*—Foam, task, shoe, hook, eye, whip, toe, wave, time, wear, sole, right, essay, survey, refuse.

3. Form sentences to show that the following words may be used as different Parts of Speech: Deck, equal, back, till, off, over, last, past, foot, horse.

4. Form a sentence which shall contain all the eight Parts of Speech, and point out which is which.

CHAPTER III.

THE NOUN: CLASSIFICATION.

NOUNS are divided into two principal classes:

1. Common Nouns. 2. Proper Nouns.

I. COMMON NOUNS.

A **common noun** (Latin, *communis*, 'shared by several') is a word that is the name of each thing out of a class of things of the same kind, as *horse, stone, city,* or of any portion of a quantity of stuff of the same sort, as *wheat, iron, water.*

A common noun is so called because the name belongs *in common* to all the individual things in the class, or to all the portions into which the whole quantity of stuff may be divided.

A common noun distinguishes what belongs to some class or sort from everything which does not belong to it. Thus the name *horse* distinguishes that animal from all other sorts of things, but does not distinguish one horse from another.

Common Nouns are subdivided into—

1. Ordinary Class Names.
2. Collective Nouns.
3. Abstract Nouns.

An **Ordinary Class Name** is one that **belongs to each individual of a class**, or **to each portion of some sort of material**, as *horse*, *tree*, *water*, *marble*. Names of materials are used in the plural when different sorts of the material are spoken of, as 'teas,' 'sugars,' etc.

A **Collective Noun** is a noun which in the singular number stands for **one collection of several individual things**, as *herd*, *parliament*, *multitude*. In the plural it stands for several such *collections*.

An **Abstract Noun is the name of a quality, action**, or **state**, as *hardness*, *running*, *growth*, *sleep*. As **Arts** and **Sciences** are in fact *processes of thought and action*, their names are **Abstract Nouns**, as *astronomy*, *logic*, *grammar*.

Abstract nouns are derived from adjectives (as *hardness* from *hard*), from verbs (as *growth* from *grow*), or from nouns that denote a function or state (as *priesthood* from *priest*, *widowhood* from *widow*). The infinite mood is often used as an abstract noun.

That which is denoted by an Abstract Noun has no independent existence, but is only *thought of* by itself, the quality being 'drawn off' (Latin *abstractus*) in thought from that to which it belongs.

An Abstract noun is a common noun, because it stands for *every instance* of the quality or action that it denotes.

Abstract nouns are sometimes used in the *concrete* sense, that is, standing for that which possesses the quality which they denote. Thus *nobility* frequently means the whole body of persons of noble birth ; *youth*, the whole class of young people, and so on.

Common nouns are *significant*. They not only *denote*, or mark out, the objects to which they are applied, but also *connote*, or *note at the same time*, the whole combination of marks or attributes, through their possession of which the various individuals named by the common noun are grouped into one class.

II. PROPER NOUNS.

A **Proper Noun** is a word used as the name of some particular person, animal, place, or thing, as *John*, *London*, *Bucephalus*, *Excalibur*. The word *proper* (Latin *proprius*) means *own*. A *proper name* is a person's or thing's **own name**.

Proper nouns are written with a capital letter at the beginning.

Proper nouns, *as such*, are not significant. Even if the name, considered merely as a word, has a meaning,

it is not applied to the object which it denotes in consequence of that meaning. *Margaret* means *pearl*, but it is not implied that a person called *Margaret* has *pearly* qualities. Many proper names, however, such as Snowdon, Blackwater, Newcastle, were at first *descriptive*.

Proper nouns are sometimes used like common nouns, when they denote classes or collections of persons grouped together because they resemble each other in certain attributes that marked some individual, as if we say of a poet, 'He was the Homer of his age,' or of a strong man, that he is 'a Hercules,' or speak of 'the Howards,' meaning philanthropists like Howard.

When a proper (non-significant) name happens to belong to several persons, it may be used in the plural, but is still a proper name, as 'the *Georges*,' 'the *Caesars*.'

EXERCISES.

1. Classify the nouns in the following passages under the following heads: (*a*) Ordinary Class Names, (*b*) Collective nouns, (*c*) Abstract nouns, and (*d*) Proper nouns:

(1) "O Solitude! where are thy charms?"

(2) Attracted by the serenity of the evening, my friend Oliver and I lately went to gaze upon the company in one of the public walks near the city.

(3) Dick Minim professes great admiration of the wisdom and munificence by which the academies of the continent were raised.

(4) He affirmed that there had not been one good law passed by Parliament since King William's accession except the act for preserving the game.

(5) Sometimes when Sir Roger is pleased with the matter of his devotion, he pronounces *Amen* three or four times to the same prayer; and sometimes stands up to count the congregation, to see if any of the tenants are missing.

(6) "Hence! loathed Melancholy,
Of Cerberus and blackest midnight born."

(7) "Books should, not business, entertain the light,
And sleep, as undisturbed as death, the night.
My house a cottage, more
Than palace, and should fitting be
For all my use, no luxury.
My garden painted o'er
With Nature's hand, not Art's; and pleasures yield,
Horace might envy in his Sabine field."

(8) Lamb thought that a mob of men was better than a flock of sheep, and that a crowd of happy faces jostling into a play-house at the hour of six, was a more beautiful spectacle than the shepherd driving his silly sheep to fold.

2. Give the Collective nouns used to describe groups of the following individuals:

Cricket-players, musicians, girls, legislators, managers, officers, assistant-masters, books, noisy people, sheets of paper, people interviewing a minister, garments, guns, singers, travelling-boxes, actors, policemen, recruits.

3. "Many place-names, such as Snowdon, Newcastle, etc., were originally descriptive." Give as many other examples as you can think of.

4. Explain what we mean when we speak of any one as *a Shylock, a Job, a Solon, an Othello, a Stephenson, a Jeremiah, a Malaprop, a Micawber, a Pecksniff, an Edison, a Sherlock Holmes, a Napoleon?*

5. Form Abstract nouns corresponding to the adjectives *strong, true, able, rapid, snug, brave, ready, brief, careless, wide, distant, humble, obstinate, pious, jovial, wise, prudent, jealous, dead, monstrous.*

6. Give the Abstract nouns derived from the following nouns:

Friend, son, father, man, child, king, martyr, priest, widow, relation, infant, sovereign, regent, leader, magistrate, mayor, sheriff, captain, colonel.

7. Form Abstract nouns (not ending in *ing*) corresponding to the following verbs:

Offend, condescend, derange, arrange, complete, protect, suspend, deride, conceal, steal, deceive, invent, invert,

destroy, multiply, crown, weigh, hate, justify, move, sing, abstract, advance, measure, erase, proceed, depress, interrogate, deviate, degrade, displace, debase, contract, dissect, convene, exact, please, fix, absolve, treat, depart, seize, thieve, steal.

8. Give the adjectives or nouns from which the following Abstract nouns are formed:

Fickleness, suppleness, height, depth, acidity, patience, dependence, impertinence, elegance, uprightness, strength, weakness, mortality, durability, grandeur, width, death, wisdom, infirmity, amplitude, con[illegible]ce, piety, humility, brevity, rascality mayoralty, shrie[illegible]oredom, girlhood, nobility, stupidity, sleepiness, green[illegible], rigidity, ductility, sonority, prosperity, magnanimity, elevation, candour, insipidity, heroism, breadth, senility, health, youth, dearth, ponderosity, legibility, vacancy, discretion, enormity, profundity, contrition, kinship, worship, theft, mirth, bondage, homage, peerage.

9. Give the verbs from which the following Abstract nouns are derived:

Intrusion, reflection, estrangement, seclusion, injection, thought, flight, thrift, growth, tilth, decision, coercion, defence, conception, adaptation, derision, judgment, addition, composition, declension, pressure, action, suction, laughter.

10. Write out the following sentences, and draw one line under the nouns used in their *abstract* sense, and two lines under those used in their *concrete* sense, and explain the difference of meaning in each case:

I admire nobility of character. He aspired to enter the ranks of the nobility. The sculptures over the porch are very fine. Sculpture is one of the fine arts. He has the gift of poetry. Some poetry is hardly worth reading. That is the nature of the animal. The vast field of nature is open to our gaze. Can you tell me the age of that child? This has been the case in all ages. The steeple is of immense height. We soon reached the summit of the height. He made a solitude and called it peace. Nothing relieved the solitude of his existence. Painting was his chief pursuit. I bought a splendid painting yesterday. These alms-houses are the refuge of old age and poverty.

CHAPTER IV.

THE NOUN: ITS INFLEXIONS.

I. GENDER.

NOUNS are inflected to mark **Gender**, **Number**, and **Case**; though these distinctions are not always marked by inflexion.

Gender.

Living beings are divided into two classes or *sexes*, the **male sex** and the **female sex**, the individuals in the one sex corresponding to those in the other. Things without life are not of either sex. Thus all things are arranged in three classes—**things of the male sex, things of the female sex,** and **things of neither sex.**

In like manner, nouns are divided into three classes or sorts called **Genders**, which correspond to the three classes of things just mentioned. These are the **Masculine Gender**, the **Feminine Gender**, and the **Neuter Gender**. *Gender* comes from the Latin *genus*, 'a kind or sort.'

The name of anything of the **male sex** is called a **masculine noun**, or a noun of the **masculine gender** (Latin *masculinus*, 'belonging to a male').

The name of anything of the **female sex** is called a **feminine noun** or a noun of the **feminine gender** (Latin *femininus*, 'belonging to a female').

The name of anything of **neither sex** is called a **neuter noun**, or a noun of the **neuter gender** (Latin *neuter*, 'neither').

Man, king, father, horse, cock, bull, James, Henry, are masculine nouns.

Woman, queen, mother, mare, hen, cow, Mary, Jane, are feminine nouns.

Stone, tree, house, London, are neuter nouns.

In the case of animals and young children we often take no account of the sex, and hence they are frequently referred to by means of *neuter pronouns.*

But in poetry, fables, or lively narratives, animals are treated as male or female, even when the name is of common gender, with a general tendency to consider the larger and fiercer animals as male, and the gentler and more timid as female.

The names of animals sometimes do not indicate their sex, as *sheep*, *bird*, *hawk*, *bear*, *mouse*, *raven*, *swan*, *dove*. Also various names of persons, as *parent*, *spouse*, *servant*, etc. Such nouns are said to be of common or undetermined gender. Some masculine nouns (*horse*, *dog*), and some feminine (*duck*, *goose*), are often used to denote either sex.

Personification.

Things without life are often *personified*, or spoken of as if they were living beings, and therefore either of the male or of the female sex.

Thus the Sun, Time, Day, Death, rivers, winds, mountains, the ocean, the seasons, the stronger passions (as Fear, Anger, Despair), actions connected with strength or violence (as Murder, War, etc.), are looked upon as male beings.

The Moon, the Earth, Virtue, ships, countries, and cities—Night, Darkness, the Arts and Sciences, abstract conceptions, as Nature, Liberty, Charity, Victory, Mercy, Religion, etc., the Soul, the gentler emotions, etc., are spoken of as though they were female beings.

Sex and Gender.

Sex is a distinction between *things*, not between *names*. *Gender* is a distinction between *names*, not between *things*. It is therefore wrong to speak of the *masculine sex*, or the *male gender*; to speak of a man as a *masculine being*, or to talk of *things* being of the *masculine or feminine gender*. *Things* may be of the male or female *sex*, but only *words* can be of the masculine, feminine, or neuter *gender*.

Modes of Denoting Gender.

The distinction of sex in living beings is marked in three ways—

First Mode.—Quite different words are used, as:

Masculine.	*Feminine.*	*Masculine.*	*Feminine.*
Father	mother	Drake	duck
Brother	sister	Cock	hen
Husband	wife	Ram	ewe
Uncle	aunt, etc.	Bull	cow, etc.

Man (like the German *Mensch*) was formerly used of the female as well as of the male. We see this in the compound *woman*, a modified form of *wimman—i.e.*, *wîfman*

Father means 'one who feeds'; from the same root as *fee-d* and *fa-t* (compare *pa-ter* and *pa-sco*). *Mother* is from a root *ma*—'bring forth.' *Daughter* (Gr. *θυγάτηρ*) meant originally 'milkmaid.' The root is the same as in *dug*.

Husband (O.E. *hûsbonda*) is the manager or *master of the house*. *Bonda* in O.E. means *tiller* or *manager*.

In O.E. *wif* was neuter (as *Weib* still is in German), and meant simply a *woman*.

Nephew and *niece* come to us (through French) from the Latin *nepos* (*nepot-is*) and *neptis*. The older O.E. words were *nefa* and *nefe*.

Queen (or *quean*) meant simply *female* or *mother*. In O.E. *cwén-fugel* means *hen-bird*.

Lord is a shortened form of *hlâford* (*i.e.*, *hlâfweard* 'loaf-warden,' or 'bread-dispenser'). *Lady* is from the corresponding feminine *hlæfdige*. *Sir* or *sire* is from *senior*; *madam* from *mea-domina*; *monk* from *monachus*, 'one who leads a solitary life'; *nun* = *nonna*, 'grandmother.' *Friar* is from *frater* (Fr. *frère*).

Witch is now only feminine, but it might come indifferently from the O.E. masculine *wicca*, or from the feminine *wicce*.

Drake (old Norse *andrikt*; root *and* = Lat. *anat*; *riki*, connected with German *reich*, and Latin *reg-em*) means 'king of the ducks.' *Duck* is connected with the verb *duck*, 'to dive.' *Goose* has lost the letter *n* (Germ. *Gans*). *Gander* is formed from the feminine, *d* being only an offgrowth of the *n*.

Second Mode—Inflexion.—Gender is indicated by the termination of the word.

A. Different suffixes are used for the masculine and the feminine.

Masculine.	*Feminine.*	*Masculine.*	*Feminine.*
Murderer	murderess	Emperor	empress
Caterer	cateress	Sorcerer	sorceress
Governor	governess		

The termination **-er** (in O.E. **-ere**) is a true English suffix. The corresponding feminine suffix was **-ster** (O.E. **-estre**) as *m. bæcere*, *f. bæcestre* (*baker*); *m. hoppere* (*dancer*), *f. hoppestre*. **Spinster** is the only word which preserves the feminine force of the suffix. Many words in *-ster* now used as masculine (or at least of common gender), or as proper names, once

denoted occupations carried on by women, as *maltster*, *tapster* ('*bar-maid*'), *Baxter* (from *bake*), *Webster* (from *webban* 'to weave'), etc. *Seamstress* and *songstress* are double feminines. The suffix *-er* has now ceased to be exclusively masculine.

B. The feminine is formed from the masculine by adding feminine suffixes.

1. The commonest of these, and the only one by which fresh feminines can be formed is **-ess**, as *count*, *countess*; *mayor*, *mayoress*.

This termination came to us through French, from the late Latin suffix *issa*. (Compare Gr. ισσα and εσσα.)

When this suffix is added to the masculine terminations *or* and *er*, the vowel *o* is usually omitted, as in *actor*, *actress*; *hunter*, *huntress*. The masculines *author*, *mayor*, *prior*, and *tutor*, suffer no abbreviation. The *o* of *negro* and the *y* of *votary* are dropped in forming *negress* and *votaress*.

Abbess (from *abbot*) is a shortened form of *abbadess*. *Lass* is probably shortened from *laddess*. *Duchess* follows the French form *duchesse*. In *mistress* the *a* of *master* is modified.

2. One word, *vixen*, the feminine of *fox*, preserves the old Teutonic feminine suffix, *en* or *in* (compare German *in*), the root vowel of the masculine being modified. (Compare German *Fuchs*, *Füchsin*.)

The suffixes **-trix** (as in *testatrix*), **-ine** (as in *heroine*), **-a** (as in *sultana*), **-ina** (as in *czarina*), do not belong to English grammar, but are foreign importations.

Widower is perhaps a masculine formed from a feminine. *Gander* is formed from the feminine *goose*, which has lost an *n* (German *gans*). *Bridegroom* is merely a compound noun, *groom* = *goom* = *guma*, 'man' (O.E.).

Third Mode.—Masculine and feminine nouns or pronouns are prefixed or affixed to nouns of common gender.

Masculine.	*Feminine.*	*Masculine.*	*Feminine.*
Man-servant	maid-servant	Cock-sparrow	hen-sparrow
Man-singer	woman-singer	Dog-fox	bitch-fox
He-devil	she-devil	He-goat	she-goat
Boar pig	sow-pig	Pea-cock	pea-hen
Buck-rabbit	doe-rabbit	Guinea-cock	guinea-hen
Bull-calf	cow-calf	Turkey-cock	turkey-hen

Sometimes proper names are used to answer this purpose, as in *jack-ass, jenny-ass*; *tom-cat, tib-cat*; *billy-goat, nanny-goat*; *jackdaw*. In O.E., *carl* and *cwen* were used, as *carlfugel* (*cock-fowl*), *cwen-fugel* (*hen-fowl*).

EXERCISES.

1. Give the feminine words corresponding to the following masculine words: Viscount, earl, duke, marquis, czar, emperor, sultan, infante (Spanish prince), signor, don, landgrave, gentleman, elector, heritor, ogre, poet, merman, fox, bachelor, hero, founder, testator, stepson, goodman, moor-cock, barman, bridegroom, beau.

2. Form sentences or find quotations to illustrate the Personification of the following: Time, the Thames, Liberty, Justice, Death, a ship, Winter, Spring, Nature, War, Peace.

3. Explain the following quotations from Milton and Gray:

(*a*) "Laughter holding both his sides."

(*b*) "retired Leisure
That in trim gardens takes his pleasure."

(*c*) "Spare Fast, that oft with Gods doth diet."

(*d*) "Civil-suited Morn . . .
Not trick'd and flounc'd . . .
But kerchieft in a comely cloud?"

(*e*) "In gallant trim the gilded vessel goes:
Youth on the prow and Pleasure at the helm."

(*f*) "Close by the regal chair
Fell Thirst and Famine scowl
A baleful smile."

(*g*) "Wisdom in sable garb array'd
Immersed in rapturous thought profound."

(*h*) "Disdainful Anger, pallid Fear
And Shame that sculks behind."

(*i*) "When first thy sire to send on earth
Virtue, his darling child, design'd,
To thee (*i.e.* Adversity) he gave the heavenly birth
And bade to form her infant mind."

CHAPTER V.

THE NOUN: ITS INFLEXIONS.

II. NUMBER.

Number is a difference in form which shows whether we are speaking of one thing or of more than one.

There are two numbers in English, the **Singular** and the **Plural**. The **Singular Number** of a noun is that form of it which is used when we speak of **one** of the things for which the noun stands, as *ship, horse, herd.*

The **Plural Number** of a noun is that form of it which is used when we speak of **more than one** of that for which the noun stands, as *ships, horses, herds.*

Modes of forming the Plural.

The plural is formed from the singular in the following modes:

First Mode.—By adding the syllable **es** shortened to **s** whenever the pronunciation admits of it. The full syllable *es* is now added only when the singular ends in a sibilant (*s, sh,* soft *ch, x* or *z*), as *gas, gases*; *lash, lashes*; *witch, witches*; *box, boxes*; *topaz, topazes.* Words like *horse, horses* really come under this rule, the mute *e* not being regarded.

The letters **es** are also added (but without being sounded as a separate syllable) after several words ending in **o**, as *hero, heroes*; *potato, potatoes*; in the word *alkalies*; after **y** when it is preceded by a consonant, the **y** being changed to **i**, as *lady, ladies*; and after words of O.E. origin ending in **lf** or **f** preceded by any long vowel sound except **oo**. In these cases the *voiced* sound which *s* always has in *es* affects the preceding consonant, and **f** is changed to **v**, as *elf, elves*; *shelf, shelves*; *leaf, leaves*; *thief, thieves*; *loaf, loaves. Wife* and *knife* get *f* changed to *v* in a similar way—*wives, knives.* Nouns ending in **oof, ff,** and **rf**, and nouns in **f** of Norman-French origin, have only *voiceless* **s** added to form the plural, and retain the sharp sound of the *f*, as *roof, roofs*; *cliff, cliffs*;

dwarf, dwarfs; *chief, chiefs*. So also *reef, fife*, and *strife*. *Beef, beeves*; and *staff, staves*, are exceptions in modern English.

All nouns except those above mentioned, and the few nouns which form their plurals in the second and third modes hereafter specified, have their plurals formed by the addition of **s** only, as *book, books*; *father, fathers*; the **s** having its **voiceless sound** after a **voiceless mute** (as in *books, cats, traps*), and its **voiced sound** (*z*) after a **voiced mute**, a **liquid**, or a **vowel** (as in *tubs, eggs, rods, pails, rams, nuns, bears, fleas*).

When **y** at the end of a word is preceded by a vowel, **s** only is added to form the plural, and the **y** is not changed, as *valley, valleys*; *boy, boys*. *Qu* counts as a consonant.

Nouns ending in **-o** and **-oo** take **s** only; also the following words in **-o**: *domino, virtuoso, tyro, quarto, octavo, mosquito, canto, grotto, solo, rondo*, which are mostly of Italian origin.

The plural suffix **s** has arisen from dropping the vowel of the proper syllabic termination **es**, which is a modification of the O.E. plural suffix **as**. The latter, however, was used only in masculine nouns. In O.E. there were also other modes of forming the plural, but the influence of Norman-French, in which *s* or *x* was the common plural suffix, led to their gradual disuse.

Second Mode.—By adding **en**, as *ox, oxen*; *brother, brethren*; *child, children*. This mode was once more common.

The word *kine* (the plural of *cow*) also belongs to this class. *Children* is a double plural, *childer* being an old form of the plural.

Third Mode.—By changing the **vowel sound** of the word, as *tooth, teeth*; *mouse, mice*; *foot, feet*; *goose, geese*; *man, men*.

Fourth Mode.—By leaving the singular unchanged, as *sheep, deer, grouse, swine, fish, fowl*, etc. (in a collective sense), *cannon, salmon, perch*, etc.

After numerals we often use the singular to do duty for the plural, as 'Two *brace* of birds'; 'Ten *sail* of the line'; 'Six

gross of buttons'; 'A *three-penny* book,' etc. *Horse* (= horse-soldiers) and *Foot* (= foot-soldiers) have become a sort of collective nouns.

Names of Materials (as *sugar*, *wine*, etc.) and **Abstract Nouns** may have plurals to denote varieties or different instances of what is named, as '*sugars*,' '*wines*,' '*negligences*.'

Plurals of Foreign Words.—Latin, Greek, French, Italian, and Hebrew words generally retain their own proper plurals. Thus (1) in Latin words

Nouns in **us** (masculine) form the plural in **i**, as focus, foci.

„	**us** (neuter)	„	„	**era**, as genus, genera.
„	**um** „	„	„	**a**, as in datum, data.
„	**a** „	„	„	**æ**, as formula, formulæ.
„	**ix** or **ex** „	„	„	**ices**, as radix, radices.
„	**ies** „	„	„	**ies**, as series, series.

(2) In Greek words

Nouns in **on** form the plural in **a**, as phenomenon, phenomena.

„	**sis**	„	„	**ses**, as crisis, crises.
„	**ma**	„	„	**mata**, as miasma, miasmata.

(3) *Cherub* and *seraph* (Heb.) make *cherubim* and *seraphim*; *bandit* makes *banditti*; *beau* (Fr.), *beaux*; *madame*, *mesdames*; *mister* (*i.e.* master), *messieurs*; *virtuoso* (Ital.), *virtuosi*.

If a foreign word has passed into common use, the plural may be formed in the English fashion, as *cherubs*, *bandits*, *dogmas*. Sometimes both plurals are in use, and occasionally with a difference of meaning.

Double Plurals.—Some nouns have double plurals, which differ in meaning, as:

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Plural.*
Brother	brothers (*by birth*).....	brethren (*of a community*)
Cloth...	cloths (*kinds of cloth*)	clothes (*garments*)
Die.....	dies (*for coining*).....	dice (*for play*)
Fish.....	fishes (*regarded separately*)	fish (*collective*)
Genius	geniuses (*men of talent*)	genii (*spirits*)
Index...	indexes (*tables of contents*)..	indices (*in Algebra*)
Pea.....	peas (*regarded separately*)...	pease (*collective*)
Penny..	pennies (*separate coins*)	pence (*sum of money*)
Shot....	shots (*discharges*).....	shot (*balls*)

Plurals used as Singulars.

1. Words in **-ics** from Greek adjectives, as *mathematics*.

2. Certain words, as *means*, *gallows*, *amends*, *wages*, *pains*, are usually preceded by a singular demonstrative (*this*, *that*) and by *much* or *little* (not *many*, or *few*), but are followed by a verb in the plural, as "Pains were taken," "Wages have risen." *News* is now always singular. *Small-pox* (sing. *pock*) is properly a plural.

Plurals in appearance.

Riches (Fr. *richesse*, and so in Chaucer), *alms* (O.E. *ælmesse*, from ἐλεημοσύνη), *eaves* (O.E. *efese*) are not plurals, but have been mistaken for such.

Nouns used only in the Plural.—Nouns representing things which are double or multiform are used only in the plural, as:

1. Instruments or articles of dress made double, as *scissors*, *tongs*, *breeches*, *drawers*.

2. Portions of the body, certain diseases, games, ceremonies, etc., usually regarded as *aggregates* of a number of parts, as *entrails*, *measles*, *billiards*, *nuptials*, *matins*, *ashes*, *stocks*.

Plurals of Compound Nouns.—Compounds of a noun and an attributive word or phrase, in which the parts are not fused together into a single word, annex the plural inflexion to the noun, as *Courts-martial*, *Fathers-in-law*. Similar compounds of two nouns inflect both parts, as *knights templars*, *men-servants*.

It is usual to say "The Miss Smiths," not "The Misses Smith."

Summary of Plural-forms.

General Rule.—Add **-es** to the singular, shortened to **-s** when the pronunciation admits of it.

Obs.:

(i.) Nouns in **y** preceded by a consonant take **es** and change *y* to *i*.

(ii.) English nouns in **lf** or **f**, preceded by any long vowel except **oo**, take **es**, and change *f* to *v*.

(iii.) Nouns ending in a sibilant (*s*, *sh*, soft *ch*, *x* or *z*) take **es**.

(iv.) Some nouns in **o** take **es**.

Old modes of forming the Plural:

(i.) Add **en**.

(ii.) Change the vowel-sound.

(iii.) Leave the singular unchanged.

Foreign modes:

(i.) Ancient, *e.g.* foci, data, radices, etc.

(ii.) Modern, *e.g.* beaux, mesdames, virtuosi.

EXERCISES.

1. Write the plural forms of the following nouns: Portfolio, axis, formula, kidney, Mr. Smith, oratorio, Irishman, Ottoman (=Turk), memorandum, fief, thief, turf, no, Miss Arnold, grouse, sally, gas, daily, automaton, bureau, German, foeman, maid-of-honour, lord-justice, poet-laureate, portmanteau.

2. Write sentences to show how the following abstract nouns may be used in the plural: *Verity, depth, enormity, impertinence, vacancy, convenience, weakness, defence, jealousy, infirmity.*

3. Show what is wrong in the following sentences:

(i.) I do not like those sort of people.

(ii.) The effluvia from the drain was most offensive.

(iii.) Did you witness that curious phenomena?

(iv.) He has passed through many crisises.

(v.) The diamond was found in the lower strata.

4. Form sentences in which statements are made about the following: *Wages, news, gallows, riches, alms, cloths, clothes, amends, eaves, genii, geniuses, nuptials.*

5. Show by sentences that the following nouns have two meanings in the plural: *Custom, effect, spectacle, height, light.*

6. Is there anything wrong in the following sentence:

"Sometimes the pair of them (*i.e.* swallows) cling to the mortar they have fixed under the eave and twitter to each other about the progress of the work." (R. Jefferies.)

CHAPTER VI.

THE NOUN: ITS INFLEXIONS.

III. CASE.

Definition.—Case is the form in which a noun (or pronoun) is used, in order to show the relation in which it stands to some other word in the sentence.

The word *case* (Lat. *casus*) means *falling*. The ancient Greek grammarians took a fancy to represent that form of a noun in which it is used when it is the subject of a sentence, by an upright line, and compared the other forms to lines *falling* or *sloping off* from this upright line at different angles. Hence a collection of the various forms which a noun might assume was called the *declension* or *sloping down* of the noun. What we call the Nominative Case was called the *upright case*.

English in its O.E. stage had five cases, at least in pronouns, the *Nominative*, *Genitive*, *Dative*, *Accusative*, and *Instrumental*. The last was dropped in nouns. Ultimately the *Dative* came to be used to do duty for the Accusative as well as for itself, and was called the *Objective*. We have now only three cases, the *Nominative Case*, the *Possessive Case*, and the *Objective Case*. In nouns the nominative and objective cases are alike in form.

Nominative Case.

The **nominative case** is that form in which a noun (or pronoun) is used when it is the subject of a verb; that is, when it stands for that about which something is said by means of a verb, as '**Men** build houses,' 'The **boy** was struck by his brother.' If the verb of the sentence be in the **active** voice, the **subject** of the verb stands for the **doer of the action** described by the verb. If the verb be in the **passive** voice, the **subject** of the verb stands for the **object of the action** described by the verb. In either case **the subject stands for that about which something is said by means of the verb.**

It answers the question made by putting *who*? or *what*? before the verb, as 'Who build houses?' 'Men.' 'Who was struck?' 'The boy.'

The Nominative (Latin *nominativus*, 'naming') is the **Naming Form**, and *names* either the person or thing *spoken of*, or the person or thing *spoken to*, as in 'O *solitude*, where are thy charms?' When used in the latter way it is called the **Nominative of Address**, or (by some) the **Vocative**.

Possessive Case.

The **possessive case** is that form of a noun (or pronoun) by means of which we can show that something belongs to the person or thing for which it stands. Thus in 'I saw John's book,' the possessive case *John's* shows that something (namely a book) *belongs to John*.

In old English this case had a wider use, corresponding more to that of the Genitive in Latin. It still sometimes denotes the more general idea of '*connected with*,' but chiefly in nouns that denote persons 'or animals,' except in a few special instances, as 'the earth's axis,' 'the moon's orbit,' etc. Such phrases as 'the river's brink' are used only in poetry.

The meaning of the possessive case may be expressed by means of the preposition *of* with the objective case after it. Thus, for 'My father's house,' we may say 'The house of my father.' But the possessive case must not be substituted for the preposition *of*, unless the *of* implies 'belonging to,' in some one of the senses of that phrase.

The **possessive case** in the singular number, and in those plurals which end in any other letter than *s*, is formed by adding the letter *s* with an apostrophe before it (thus, *'s*) to the nominative case; as, *John's, men's, geese's*. When the plural itself ends in *s* in the nominative, *s* is not added to form the possessive, but the apostrophe is retained to indicate the case to the eye, as *birds' feathers*.

When a noun of two or more syllables ends in a sibilant in the singular, the possessive suffix *s* is sometimes dropped in prose (especially in words of more than two syllables) and is rarely added in poetry, but the apostrophe is retained as in plural nouns, as 'Moses' minister' (*Josh.* i. 1); 'Felix' room' (*Acts* xxiv. 27); 'Aeneas' son.' But this dropping of the *s* is optional, at least in prose.

The old Genitive or Possessive suffix in English was **-es** (still preserved in *Wednesday*, i.e. *Wodenes day*). It was used only in masculine and neuter nouns, and in the singular number. Its syllabic force is still heard after a sibilant, as in *Thomas's*. The apostrophe in the possessive case singular marks that the vowel of the suffix has been dropped.

The Possessive is the only case in nouns in which a case-suffix is now used.

In the case of a complex name, the possessive suffix is put only after the last word of the name, as 'John Smith's father,' 'My father-in-law's house,' 'Henry the Eighth's reign,' etc. The same usage is followed when something belongs in common to two or more persons who are closely connected, as 'John and Mary's uncle.'

Objective Case.

The **objective case** is that form in which **a noun** or pronoun is used when it **stands for the object of the action** spoken of in some verb in the active voice, or when it comes **after a preposition.** In the sentence, 'The stone struck the boy,' the word *boy*, which **stands for the object of the action**, is called the **object of the verb**, and is in the objective case. In the sentence, 'John was riding in a coach,' the noun *coach*, which comes after the preposition *in*, is in the objective case.

The objective case is often used, like the Latin dative, to denote the *indirect object* of a verb, that is to say, it stands for some person or thing indirectly affected by the action, but not the direct object of it; as 'Give *the man* a shilling,' 'Tell *me* a tale.' In old English the dative differed in form from the accusative.

When a noun in the objective case is the object of a verb, the noun in the objective case answers to the question formed by putting *whom* or *what* before the verb and its subject. As in the example given above, 'whom or what did the stone strike?' *Ans.* 'The boy.'

In nouns the objective case is the same in form as the nominative. They can only be distinguished by their use. In an ordinary declarative sentence the **nominative case precedes the verb** and the **objective case comes after the verb.**

The following are examples of the declension of nouns in modern English:

	Singular.	*Plural.*
Nominative Case, - -	Man	Men.
Possessive Case, - - -	Man's	Men's.
Objective Case, - - -	Man	Men.
Nominative Case, - -	Father	Fathers.
Possessive Case, - - -	Father's	Fathers'.
Objective Case, - - -	Father	Fathers.

EXERCISES.

1. Write the declension, singular and plural, of the following nouns: *Mother-in-law, lady, man-servant, thief, donkey, mayoress.*

2. Write the possessive case singular of the following names: *Mr. [illegible]s, Socrates, Giles, Coriolanus, Moses, Mr. Chambers, St. [illegible] Ignatius, Charles, Miss Bates, Messrs. Pears.*

3. Find more phrases similar to *the earth's axis, the moon's orbit,* in which names of inanimate things are used in the possessive case. (The nouns *month, sun, life, law, year, week, quarter, fortnight, harm, boat, wit, mind,* may be used.)

4. Write the case of each noun in the following passages:

(i) "Souls of Poets dead and gone,
What Elysium have ye known,
Happy field or mossy cavern,
Choicer than the Mermaid Tavern?"

(ii) "Where the bee sucks, there suck I:
In a cowslip's bell I lie."

(iii) "Thou hadst a voice whose sound was like the sea:
Pure as the naked heavens, majestic, free,
So didst thou travel on life's common way
In cheerful godliness; and yet thy heart
The lowliest duties on herself did lay."

(iv) "Mighty seaman, this is he
Was great by land, as thou by sea.
Thine island loves thee well, thou famous man,
The greatest sailor since the world began."

(v) "The rose had been wash'd, just wash'd in a shower,
Which Mary to Anna convey'd;
The plentiful moisture encumber'd the flower,
And weigh'd down its beautiful head."

5. Make a diagram to show how the ancient Greek grammarians represented the cases (*vid.* the beginning of Chapter VI.).

CHAPTER VII.

THE ADJECTIVE: DEFINITION AND CLASSIFICATION.

WHEN we speak of a thing we often require to mention some quality or state of the thing, or its number or quantity, or some relation in which it stands to ourselves or to other things. The words that do this are called Adjectives.

In the phrase 'a white horse,' the word *white* is an adjective. It denotes a certain *quality* of the horse.

In the phrase 'a book lying on the table,' the word *lying* is an adjective. It denotes a state of the book.

In the phrase 'two men,' the word *two* is an adjective. It points out the *quantity* or *number* of that for which the noun stands.

In the phrase 'this child,' the word *this* is an adjective. It points out that the child *stands in a certain relation* (of nearness) to me.

Definition.—An **Adjective** is a word that may be used with a noun to describe, to delimit, or to indicate that for which the noun stands.

An adjective answers the questions (1) 'Of what sort'? or 'In what state?' (2) 'How much?' or 'How many?' (3) 'Which?'

When it is attached directly to the noun to which it refers, an adjective is said to be used *attributively*; as 'a *red ball*'; 'a *bird flying* through the air'; '*which* hand will you have?' The adjective and noun together form a compound description of that which we have in our thoughts. When an adjective is connected with a noun by means of some part of the verb *be* (or some other verb of incomplete predication, such as *become*), it is said to be used *predicatively*, as, 'the ball is *red*,' 'the bird was *flying*.' All true adjectives can be used in both ways.

As things are *distinguished* by quality, quantity, and relation, an adjective joined to a noun usually *distinguishes* what the noun stands for from other things that may be named by the same noun.

The class-name 'horse' stands for that aggregate of resemblances by virtue of which one horse is like another. The compound name *white horse* means all that *horse* means, and *white* besides. It *adds* something to the meaning of *horse*. But the more marks we group together to distinguish a class, the smaller must the class be. The class denoted by *white horse* is smaller than the class denoted by *horse*. Hence we may also have the following

Definition.—An Adjective is a word which may **limit the application of a noun** to that which has the quality, the quantity, or the relation, which the adjective denotes.

To be an adjective, a word must do this by virtue of its *own proper meaning*. Certain forms and uses of other parts of speech may also have a definitive or limiting force. Thus in 'John's book' the possessive case '*John's*' has this force, but '*John's*' is still a *noun* in the possessive case, and not an *adjective*, just like '*Caesaris*' in the Latin 'Caesaris uxor' (Caesar's wife). But the possessive case is so like an adjective, that in some pronouns it was formerly declined like an adjective.

In combinations like *teaspoon*, *apple-tree*, *cannon ball*, the first word is not an adjective. It does not *express* an attributive idea, it merely *suggests* one. The two nouns form a *compound name*. Hence those most commonly used have come to be written as one word. The word *tea*, *apple*, or *cannon* cannot be used as a *predicate*, as a true adjective can.

As an adjective is not the *name* of a separate object of thought, an adjective can never be used as the subject of a sentence, or as the object of a verb, or be governed by a preposition.

CLASSIFICATION OF ADJECTIVES.

Adjectives may be arranged in the following classes:

1. **Qualitative Adjectives**, or **Adjectives of Quality**.
2. **Quantitative Adjectives**, or **Adjectives of Quantity**.
3. **Demonstrative Adjectives**, or **Adjectives of Relation**.

I. **Qualitative Adjectives**, or **Adjectives of Quality**, denote some **quality** or **attribute** (from the Latin *qualis*, 'of

which sort'), as *virtuous, white, large, small, great, little* (in the sense of 'small'), *such*. They may also be called **Descriptive Adjectives.** Participles belong to this class.

II. **Quantitative Adjectives**, or **Adjectives of Quantity**, are adjectives which denote **how much** or **how many** of that for which the noun stands, we have in our thoughts (Latin *quantus*, 'how great'). This class includes—

(*a*) The Cardinal Numeral Adjectives, **one, two, three,** etc. (The words *hundred, thousand, million*, like *pair* and *dozen*, are nouns. They may be used in the plural, as *hundreds*.)

(*b*) The words **all, any, some, half, many, few, much, more, most, less, least, both, several, other, enough, no** (=*not any*). Some of these relate both to number and to quantity.

(*c*) The *distributive* words **each, every, either, neither,** which show that the things named are taken *separately*.

Examples:

(*a*) He received *forty* stripes save one. I have to read the *Thirty-nine* articles.

(*b*) *All* people that on earth do dwell. I have not slept *half* a wink. *No* Cross, *no* Crown.

(*c*) *Each* day a report came in. *Neither* side won a point.

Observe:

(i) **Little, less, least,** when they denote *size* are qualitative adjectives; as 'a little boy,' 'not in the least degree.'

(ii) **Many** may be used with a noun in the singular, provided the indefinite article follow it; as 'Many a flower is born to blush unseen.'

III. **Demonstrative Adjectives**, or **Adjectives of Relation** (Lat. *demonstro*, I point out) are adjectives which point out that which we are speaking of by indicating some kind of relation which it bears to others or to the speaker. This class includes—

(*a*) The so-called Articles **the, a** or **an** (see next Section), and the *pointing-out* words **this, that, which, what.**

(*b*) The Possessives **my, thy, his, her,** etc. (See under Pronouns.)

(*c*) The Ordinal Numerals, **first, second,** etc.

Examples:

(*a*) *A* message from *the* king. *This* living dog is better than *that* dead lion. "Under *which* king, Bezonian?" *What* new doctrine is this?

(*b*) "*My* name is Norval." "Hallowed be *Thy* name." "To each *his* sufferings."

(*c*) The *first* chapter. The *thirty-ninth* article.

ARTICLE.

The **Articles** (Lat. *articulus*, a joint) are often classed as a separate part of speech, but they belong in reality to the class of **Adjectives**.

There are two Articles, the **Indefinite** Article **an** or **a**, and the **Definite** Article **the**.

The Indefinite Article **an** is another form of the numeral **one** (A.S. *án*). It indicates that we are speaking either of *some one*, or of *any one* of the things for which the noun is a name, as, 'I saw *an* old man'; 'A child (*i.e. any* child) should obey its parents.'

The form *an* is used before words beginning with a vowel sound or mute *h*, as *an apple*, *an heir*.

An drops the *n*, and becomes *a* before words beginning with a consonant, the aspirate *h*, or the letter *u* when the sound of *y* is put before the *u* in pronunciation, as *A man*, *a horse*, *a yellow ball*, *a useful book*. But *an* is kept before the aspirate when the accent is not upon the first syllable of the word, as 'an historical event.'

In some expressions what is now commonly regarded as the indefinite article *a* was originally a weakened form of the preposition *on* (=in). Thus 'Twice a week' was 'tuwa on wucan' (*Luke* xviii. 12).

The Definite Article **the** is used to define or mark the particular individual or individuals that we are speaking of.

The definite article is used in English before significant nouns.

(*a*) It is used to mark out or individualise out of all the things usually denoted by the name, that one to which attention is directed. It does this by directing attention to some attributive adjunct by which the individual is distinguished. Thus, when we say, *the black horse*, *the* points attention to the adjective *black*. When we say, *the Queen of England*, *the* points to the adjunct *of*

England. It also indicates that particular thing with which we have some obvious connexion or concern, as when we say, *the sun*, *the moon*, *the Queen*, *the City*, *the street*, *the Church*, etc.

(*b*) The word *the* is used to show that one individual is taken as the representative of its class, as when we talk of *the lion*, *the eagle*, or to show that we are speaking of the whole of the class to which the name belongs, as when we speak of *the stars*, *the English*, *the good*, *the Alps*.

OBSERVATIONS.

I. *Inflexion of Adjectives.* Adjectives, in modern English, are not declinable words, as they were in Latin, Greek, and Old English, and as they still are in modern German. Two demonstrative adjectives, however, have separate plural forms, *i.e.* sing., *this* and *that*; plur., *these* and *those*.

II. *Adjectives used as Nouns*:

(*a*) In the plural sense, describing people, as The *good* are happy. "The *poor* ye have always with you." "Blessed are the *meek*."

(*b*) In the singular sense, to describe a general or abstract idea, as "From the *sublime* to the *ridiculous*." He is a lover of the *beautiful*, the *good*, and the *true*.

(*c*) In certain phrases, as In *common*; in *general*; in *future*; through *thick* and *thin*; for *better*, for *worse*.

(*d*) Quantitative adjectives are often used as nouns, as, *All* is lost. *Few* have worked harder. *Much* has been said, but *more* remains to be told. We can do but *little*.

(*e*) Some adjectives are used completely as nouns and form plurals, as *Romans*, *Christians*, *elders*, *nobles*, *eatables*, *greens*, etc.

III. *Nouns used as Adjectives.* This is a very common use, as the following examples show: *Brick* walls, *stone* houses, *iron* gates, *silver* thread, *paper* collars, *carpet* slippers, etc.

IV. *The three ordinal numbers, First, Second, Third.*

First is really the superlative of *fore* (see Chapter VIII.).

Second is from the Latin *secundus*, following, and has replaced the word *other*.

Third was originally *thrid*. The word *Riding*, describing a division of Yorkshire, was formerly written *Thriding*, that is, *a third part*.

V. '*The*' *with a Comparative.* The word *the* when used with a comparative is sometimes an adverb, and means *by how much*, or *by so much*, as *The* more *the* merrier. *The* sooner *the* better.

EXERCISES.

1. Classify the adjectives in the following passages under the heads: (i.) Qualitative adjectives, (ii.) Quantitative adjectives, (iii.) Demonstrative adjectives, (iv.) Adjectives used as nouns, and (v.) Nouns used as adjectives:

(*a*) "The way was long, the wind was cold,
The minstrel was infirm and old;
His withered cheek and tresses grey
Seemed to have known a better day;
The harp, his sole remaining joy,
Was carried by an orphan boy."

(*b*) "Which spills the foremost foeman's life,
That party conquers in the strife."

(*c*) "Less easy task it were, to show
Lord Marmion's nameless grave and low.
They dug his grave e'en where he lay,
But every mark is gone."

(*d*) "O what a tangled web we weave,
When first we practise to deceive!"

(*e*) "Oft before his infant eyes would run
Such forms as glitter in the Muse's ray
With orient hues, unborrow'd of the sun;
Yet shall he mount and keep his distant way
Beyond the limits of a vulgar fate:
Beneath the Good how far – but far above the Great."

(*f*) "Give all thou canst; high Heaven rejects the lore
Of nicely-calculated less or more."

(*g*) "And everybody praised the Duke
Who this great fight did win.
'But what good came of it at last?'
Quoth little Peterkin."

2. Form sentences in which the following adjectives are used: (i.) attributively, (ii.) predicatively—*tired, ill, heavenly, capable, able, complete, certain, apparent.*

3. Write a short story or a fable without using a single Adjective of Quality.

4. Explain the italicised words in the following passages:

(*a*) "(If we are mark'd) to live
The fewer men, *the* greater share of honour."

(*b*) Longinus has written a book on "*The Sublime.*"

(*c*) "I wish, sir,—
I mean for your *particular*,—you had not
Join'd in commission with him."

(*d*) "Sherlock Holmes was smoking his *before breakfast* pipe."

(*e*) "A little man with a puffy *Say-nothing-to-me,-or-I'll contradict-you* sort of countenance."

(*f*) "He is a leader of the *Great Unwashed.*"

(*g*) "The Muse has broke the *twilight* gloom."

(*h*) "None but the *brave* deserves the *fair.*"

CHAPTER VIII.

THE ADJECTIVE: INFLEXION.

ADJECTIVES are no longer inflected for gender, number and case as in Latin, Greek, Old English and Modern German, but only for comparison.

Comparison of Adjectives.

Adjectives have three forms called Degrees of Comparison. These are

1. **The Positive Degree.**
2. **The Comparative Degree.**
3. **The Superlative Degree.**

The **Positive Degree** of an adjective is the adjective in its simple form, used to point out some quality or attribute of that which we speak about, as 'A *black* cat,' 'A *fine* day.'

The **Comparative Degree** of an adjective is that form of it by means of which we show that one thing, or set of things, possesses a certain quality or attribute in a greater degree than another thing, or set of things.

The Comparative Degree (Latin *comparativus*, from *compare*, 'I put together') is formed from the Positive by adding to it the syllable **-er**, before which mute **-e** is dropped, as 'My knife is *sharper* than yours'; 'John's book is pretty, but mine is *prettier*'; 'Your parents are *richer* than mine' One thing may be compared either with *one* other, or with *a group of several*; and a group of things may be compared either with another group or with a single thing. Also a thing may be compared with *itself under other circumstances*, as 'John is stouter than he was last year.'

The **Superlative Degree** (Lat. *superlativus*, 'lifting up above') of an adjective is that form of it which shows that a certain thing, or group of things, possesses the attribute denoted by the adjective *in a greater degree than any other among several, of which it is one.*

It is formed by adding **st** or **est** to the adjective in the positive degree; as, *greatest*, *largest*. Thus, of several boys in a group, we may say, 'John is *the tallest*.' Of the countries of Europe we may say, 'England is *the wealthiest*.'

Obs. 1. Many adjectives, from the nature of the ideas which they express, cannot have comparative and superlative degrees; as, *right*, *left*, *wrong*, *square*, *triangular*. Sometimes, however, adjectives are used in a sense which falls short of their strict meaning, and then they admit of degrees of comparison which would not otherwise be tolerable. For example, *extreme*, *perfect*, *chief*; as when we say, 'This specimen is *more perfect* than that'; 'He died in the *extremest* misery'; 'The *chiefest* among ten thousand.'

Obs. 2. The superlative degree is sometimes used in an *absolute* sense, when the thing spoken of is not compared with the rest of a class, but is regarded as possessing a certain quality in a very high degree, as 'Hail, *divinest* Melancholy' (*Milton*). In modern English *most* is usually prefixed to the positive to express this sense.

There are certain changes in spelling when the inflexions marking comparison are added:

(i) If the Positive ends in **-e**, cut off the *-e*: e.g. *brav-er*, *fin-est*.

(ii) If the Positive ends in **-y**, change the *y* to *i* if a consonant precedes: e.g. *pretti-er*, *merri-est*.

(iii) Words of one syllable ending in a consonant preceded by a short vowel double the consonant to show that the vowel is short: e.g. *sadder*, *thinnest*.

Irregular Comparison.

In the case of some adjectives, the degrees of comparison are marked by what are commonly termed *irregular* forms These are the following:

Positive.	*Comparative.*	*Superlative.*
Good	better	best
Little	less	least
Much	more	most
Many	more	most
Bad	worse	worst
Late	later *or* latter	latest *or* last
[Nigh]	nigher	nighest *or* next
Fore	former	foremost *or* first
Old	older *or* elder	oldest *or* eldest
Far	farther	farthest
[Forth]	further	furthest

Notes on the above forms:

(i) *Better* and *best* (=bet-est) are formed from an old word *boet*=good.

(ii) *much* is the O.E. *micel*, 'great' (*mickle* is still used in Scotch dialect). The form *moe* for *more* is found as late as the time of Shakespeare, *e.g.* "Here come *moe* voices" (Coriolanus, Act II. Sc. iii. 116).

(iii) *worse* is formed from O.E. *weor*, 'bad.'

(iv) *Later* and *latest* refer to time; *latter* and *last* (=latest) refer generally to position in a series.

(v) *near*, now a positive, is really the comparative of the O.E. *neah* (nigh). The three degrees should be: *nigh*, *near*, *next*.

(vi) *Elder* and *eldest* are formed from O.E. *eald* (old). *Elder* cannot be followed by *than*.

(vii) *Far* is the O.E. *feor*, which was compared *feor*, *fyrra*, *fyrrest*. The *th* has probably been inserted through the influence of *further* and *furthest*, which are formed from a positive *forth* or *furth* (*furth* is still used in legal Scotch in the phrase *furth of Scotland*, 'outside Scotland').

Comparison by means of 'more' and 'most.'

Adjectives of more than two syllables and most adjectives of two syllables do not allow of the formation of comparative and superlative degrees by means of suffixes. But the same

ideas are denoted by prefixing the adverbs *more* and *most* to the adjective in the positive degree.

Thus, we say *Virtuous, more virtuous, most virtuous; Learned, more learned, most learned.*

The dissyllabic adjectives which do admit of suffixes of comparison are those ending in *-y* (*merry, merrier, merriest*; *holy, holier, holiest*); in *-er* (as *tender, tenderer, tenderest*); those in *-ble* (as *able, abler, ablest*); those which have the accent on the last syllable, as *polite, politer, politest*; *severe, severer, severest*; and some others, as *pleasanter, pleasantest*; *narrower, narrowest.*

Double comparatives and superlatives.

In O.E. there were two superlative suffixes, *-ost* or *-est* and *-ema*. There are a few superlatives in English ending in *-most*; *hindmost, topmost, inmost, foremost, uttermost*. Most of these are derived from adverbs. They are not compounds of the adverb *most* but double superlatives, formed by the use of both terminations *-ma* and *-ost*. *Former* appears to be a comparative formed from the O.E. superlative *forma*.

Double comparatives and superlatives are common in the older writers as 'worser,' 'more kinder,' 'more braver,' 'the most unkindest cut of all' (*Julius Cæsar*); 'the most straitest sect' etc.

EXERCISES.

1. Compare the following adjectives: *Worthy, magnificent, coy, lovely, universal, copious, sorry, manly, circular, friendly, ironical, courage, tender, sprightly.*

2. Spenser uses the form *ferrer*, as in 'Now draweth cut, ere that we ferrer twinne' = 'Now draw lots, before we farther go.' Do you consider the more correct form *ferrer* or *farther*? Why?

3. Write sentences to show the difference between (i) *later* and *latter*, (ii) *older* and *elder*, (iii) *farther* and *further*, (iv) *less* and *fewer*, (v) *much* and *many.*

4. Comment on the comparative and superlative forms in the following passages:

(*a*) "If I had found a fairy in it, I couldn't have been startleder."

(*b*) "That was the most unkindest cut of all." (*Shaks.*)

(*c*) "I would have been much more a fresher man." (*Shaks.*)

(*d*) That was the most unanimous meeting I have ever attended.

(*e*) "The envy of less happier lands." (*Shaks.*)

(*f*) "He promised the beautifulest things in the world." (*Carlyle*).

CHAPTER IX.

THE PRONOUN.

Definition.—Pronouns (Latin *pro*, 'for,' *nomen*, 'name') are words which **denote persons or things without being names for them**; as when the speaker, instead of naming himself or the person to whom he is speaking, says, '**I** am rich'; '**You** said so'; or uses a demonstrative pronoun to avoid the repetition of a noun, as '**John** has come home, **he** is very tired,' instead of 'John is very tired.'

Pronouns designate persons or things by indicating some relation in which they stand to other persons or things, and primarily to the speaker.

Classification.

1. Personal: *I, thou, we, you, ye.*
2. Demonstrative:
   (*a*) *He, she, it, they.*
   (*b*) *This, that, these, those.*
   (*c*) *One, ones, none.*
   (*d*) The indefinite demonstratives *one, they.*
3. Reflexive: *myself, yourself, himself*, etc.
4. Relative or Conjunctive: *who, which, that, as.*
5. Interrogative: *who, which, what.*

1. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

The Personal Pronouns are:

(*a*) The Personal Pronoun of the first person.
(*b*) The Personal Pronoun of the second person.

(*a*) The Personal Pronoun of the 1st person is the pronoun which is used when a person speaks of himself singly or of himself in conjunction with one or more others, without mentioning any names. It is declined thus:

	Sing.	*Plur.*
Nom.	I	we.
Poss.	mine *or* my	our *or* ours.
Obj.	me	us.

(*b*) The Personal Pronoun of the 2nd person is the pronoun which is used when we speak of the person or persons spoken to. It is declined thus:

	Sing.	*Plur.*
Nom.	thou	ye *or* you.
Poss.	thine *or* thy	your *or* yours.
Obj.	thee	you *or* ye.

OBSERVATIONS.

(1) *Ye* was once exclusively nominative and *you* objective, but even the best writers sometimes used *ye* as the objective, *e.g.* "The more shame for *ye*, holy men I thought *ye*" (*Shaks.*). Now *you* is indifferently nominative and objective.

(2) In O.E. only the singular forms of the 2nd personal pronoun were used in addressing a single person. In ordinary usage the singular is now restricted to solemn addresses, as in prayer to the Deity and in poetry. In Shakespeare's time *thou* was used as the pronoun of affection towards children or friends, of good-natured superiority to servants, and of contempt or anger to strangers. (*E.g.* "Prithee, don't *thee* and *thou* me; I believe I am as good a man as yourself.")

At a very early period the plural came to be used in speaking to a single person. It was at first employed as a mark of special respect (as when a subject speaks to a King or a son to his father) as though the person addressed were as good as two or more ordinary people.

You and *your* are now the ordinary pronouns of address, whether we are speaking to one person or to more than one.

(3) The Personal Pronouns have, properly speaking, no Possessive Case, that is to say, no Possessive Case with the force of a *substantive*. In O.E. when the genitives of these pronouns were used in the *possessive* sense, they were regarded as adjectives and inflected accordingly.

The forms *my, our, your* are used only before the noun and are therefore adjectives. The forms *mine, ours*, etc., are never followed by a noun, except in such stock expressions as "mine host," "mine own."

(4) The pronouns of the first and second persons do not mark distinctions of gender, because when a person speaks of himself or to another person, the sex, being evident, does not need to be marked in language by gender, and the plural forms may include persons of different sexes.

(5) Sovereigns speak of themselves as *we* in their official capacity. Editors of newspapers also use the plural form. Sometimes it is used ironically.

2. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

A **Demonstrative Pronoun** is used for a noun that has already been employed.

(*a*) *He, she, it, they.* This is often called the Third Personal Pronoun. It is thus declined:

	Masc.	*Fem.*	*Neut.*			
Nom.	he	she	it	*Sing.*	They	*Plur.*
Poss.	his	her, hers	its		their, theirs	
Obj.	him	her	it		them.	

Note 1.—The plural forms *they*, etc., must be ambiguous as to gender, because they may be used when speaking of persons of different sexes, or of persons and things together.

Note 2.—The O.E. feminine of *he* was *heo*, which is still used in Lancashire dialect and pronounced *hoo*. The present form *she* is the feminine of the O.E. demonstrative *se*.

Note 3.—*It.* The *t* in this word is a neuter suffix like the *t* in *what* and *that* and the *d* in Lat. *id, quod*, etc. The O.E. form was *hit*, and the aspirate is still heard in Scotch dialect. The old genitive or possessive case was *his, e.g.* "If the salt have lost *his* savour," etc. *Its* is comparatively modern. There is only one instance of it in the Bible (*Lev.* xxv. 5).

Note 4.—The plural forms *they*, etc., are borrowed from the O.E. demonstrative *se*, and have replaced the forms *hi, hira, him*.

Note 5.—*Her, their*, are attributive only; *hers, theirs*, are always predicative; *his, its* are both attributive and predicative.

(*b*) *This, that, these, those.* These words are adjectives when used with a noun, but pronouns when used for a noun. When two things which have been already mentioned are referred to *this* refers to what has been mentioned last, *that* refers to what was mentioned before it, as "Virtue and vice offer themselves to your choice; *this* leads to misery, *that* to happiness."

Note 1.—The adverbs *here* and *there* combined with another adverb form compounds which are often substituted for *that* and *this* preceded by prepositions, thus: *therein*=*in that*, *hereby*=*by this*.

Note 2.—The word *the* when used with comparatives, as in '*the* sooner, *the* better' (see under Article), is really the Instrumental Case of the O.E. demonstrative *se*, and means *by that* (*cf.* Lat. *quo . . . eo*).

(*c*) *One, ones, none.* *One* stands for a singular noun; *ones* for a plural, but *none* may stand for either, as:

You have two pens; lend me the finer *one*. I saw three white horses and two brown *ones*. You have three prizes; I have none. Give me some salt, please; I have *none*.

Note 1.—In the Bible we find *none* used as an adjective, as "There is *none* end of the store and glory." "There was *none* other boat there." This use of *none* is now obsolete.

Note 2.—There is no exact parallel to this use of *one* and *ones* in other languages.

(*d*) *One, they,* are used as Indefinite Demonstratives, like the French *on* and the German *man*. *One* can be used in the Objective and the Possessive as well as in the Nominative, as:

One can hardly believe it. "A quiet conscience makes *one* so serene." "A sonnet to *one's* mistress."

3. REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS.

The **objective case** of the Personal Pronouns, and of the demonstrative *he, she, it,* may be used in a **reflective sense** (Latin *reflecto,* 'I bend back'), when an action directly or indirectly affects the doer of it. Thus, in Shakespeare we have:

"I'll disrobe me." "I can buy me twenty." "Get thee wood enough." "Signor Antonio commends him to you." "Let every soldier hew him down a bough."

In Old English the personal pronouns, in whatever case they were used, were strengthened by having the adjective *silf*, i.e *self* (=*same*, compare *selfsame*), agreeing with them ('I self,' etc.). This combination of pronoun and adjective is still seen in *himself herself*, *themselves*, *oneself*, but in the case of the personal pronouns *self* came somehow to be regarded as a substantive, and was preceded by the possessive case (*myself*, *thyself*, *ourselves*, *yourselves*). This combination is now restricted to the First and Second Personal Pronouns, but was formerly (and quite as properly) used also for the Demonstrative of the Third Person, as 'his self,' 'their selves.'

The use of the Personal and Demonstrative Pronouns in a reflexive sense is now almost obsolete, and the forms in *-self* and *-selves* have taken their place. They are used in two ways:

(i) As the object of a verb, denoting the same person as the subject, *i.e.* as Reflexive Pronouns, as 'He killed *himself*.' 'You will hurt *yourselves*.'

(ii) To mark emphasis, as 'I *myself* heard it.' "*Myself* am Hell" (*Milton*).

4. RELATIVE OR CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUNS.

A **Relative Pronoun** is so called because it *relates* to some noun or pronoun already used. It is also called **conjunctive** because it *joins* two sentences. The word to which the relative pronoun refers is called its *antecedent*. The relative pronouns are:

(*a*) *Who* and *what*. *Who* refers only to persons, and does not by its form mark gender, number, or person. It is declined:

Nom.	who	*Sing and Plur.*
Poss.	whose	
Obj.	whom	

Examples:

You *who* have done this damage must repair it.
He is a man *whose* appearance is pleasing.
I never saw the man *whom* you speak of.

Sometimes its antecedent is omitted, as:

"*Who* steals my purse, steals trash."

What was the neuter of *who*, and as a substantive in the nominative or objective only denotes a thing, and now never relates to any antecedent except the neuter *that*, which, moreover, is always omitted

The old genitive of *what* was *whose* (O.E. *hwaes*), and is still used as an ordinary relative in poetry, as:

"I could a tale unfold *whose* lightest word," etc.

The adjectival use of *what* in the relative sense is seen in:

I gave him *what* help I could.

(*b*) *Which* is now the ordinary relative relating to animals and things. It was originally a compound of the relative *hwa* (= who) and *-lic* (= like), and was equivalent to the Latin *qualis* (= of what sort?). It was formerly used like *who*, as in

"Our Father, *which* art in Heaven."

Which, preceded by a preposition, is often replaced by *where*, as *wherein* = *in which*, *whereto* = *to which*.

(*c*) *That* is the oldest of our relative pronouns. It is the neuter of the O.E. demonstrative *se, seo, thoet*.

That is always a substantive; it may relate either to persons or things. It is uninflected, and never has a preposition placed before it.

N.B.—*That* cannot now be used in all cases where *who* can be used. A clause beginning with *that* limits or defines the noun to which it refers, and is therefore improper when that noun does not admit of further limitation. Hence, we cannot say:

'Thomas *that* died yesterday.'
'My father *that* is in America.'

(*d*) *As*. The word *as* is often used as a substitute for a relative pronoun, especially after *same* and *such*, as:

'This is not the same *as* that.'
'His character is not such *as* I admire.'

N.B.—The relative pronoun is often omitted, as:

'That is the person I spoke of.'

But it is not now omitted unless, if expressed, it would be in the objective case.

5. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

Interrogative Pronouns are used in asking questions. They are *who, what, which.*

Who is used of persons only, and is declined like the relative *who.*

What is the neuter of *who.* It is now indeclinable, and is used both as a substantive and as an adjective.

Which is a compound (see above), and is used both as a substantive and as an adjective.

Examples.

"*Who* is on the Lord's side, who?"

"Unto *what* shall I liken this generation?"

"Here are two roads: *which* will you take?"

EXERCISES.

1. Explain the nature and use of the pronouns italicised in the following passages:

(*a*) "I had as lief not be as live to be
In awe of such a thing *as* I *myself.*"

(*b*) "*What* conscience dictates to be done,
Or warns *me* not to do,
This teach me more than hell to shun,
That more than heaven pursue."

(*c*) "I dare do all *that* may become a man,
Who dares do more is *none.*"

(*d*) "This is servitude—
To serve the unwise, or *him who* hath rebelled
Against his worthier, as *thine* now serve *thee,*
Thyself not free, but to *thyself* enthralled."

(*e*) "Try *what* repentance can: *what* can it not;
Yet *what* can it, when *one* can not repent?"

(*f*) "I have lived my life, and *that which* I have done
May *He* within *Himself* make pure!"

(*g*) "*What* we oft do best,
By sick interpreters, once weak *ones*, is
Not *ours* or not allowed."

(*h*) "*We* are no tyrant, but a Christian king."

2. The antecedent of the neuter relative 'which' is often the fact stated in a previous sentence, or the (implied) gerund or infinitive which expresses that act or fact in an abstract manner, as, "The king's two sons are stolen away and fled, which (namely, the fact that the king's two sons are stolen away and fled) puts upon them suspicion of the deed." State clearly what '*which*' stands for in the following sentences:

He promised to follow my advice, which was the best thing he could do. We studied hard all the morning, after which we went for a walk. "And, which is more than all these boasts can be, I am beloved of Hermia." "I see thee still, and on thy blade and dudgeon gouts of blood, which was not so before." "Thou didst smile, which raised in me an undergoing stomach (*i.e. courage to endure*)."

3. Distinguish the uses of the word *that* in the following sentences:

Is that the hand, that did these valiant deeds? "There is that scattereth and yet increaseth." Remember that old saying: "He that runs may read." "All people that on earth do dwell." "On the day that thou eatest thereof thou shalt surely die." "Hadst thou but seen that that this knight and I have seen." "That thou doest, do quickly."

4. Join each of the following pairs of sentences into one by using a relative pronoun instead of the pronoun which is italicised:

(*a*) That picture was painted by my brother. You liked *it* so much.

(*b*) Why, Harry, do I tell thee of my foes? *Thou* art my near'st and dearest enemy.

(*c*) He shall be my brother. *He* sheds his blood with me to-day.

(*d*) I am contented. *I* am poorer than you.

(*e*) They are but faint-hearted. *Their* courage fails in time of danger.

(*f*) I could a tale unfold. *Its* lightest word would harrow up thy soul.

(*g*) This cloth is not the same. I asked for *that* (cloth).

(*h*) The fortress was soon captured. The defeated troops had fled *to it*.

(*j*) I saw the captain. You are going to sail in *his* ship.

(*k*) He had many heavy burdens to bear. The pressure of *them* nearly crushed him.

5. Make five sentences containing (1) the indefinite pronoun *one* in the possessive case, (2) an interrogative pronoun in the objective case, (3) the pronoun *ourselves* used reflexively, (4) the pronoun *ourselves* used to mark emphasis, (5) the relative pronoun *as* in the objective case.

6. Steele, the Essayist, wrote in 1711 a "Humble Petition of *Who* and *Which*," and made the petitioners say, "We are descended of ancient families and kept up our dignity and honour many years, till the jack-sprat *that* supplanted us."
Criticise the statement of the petitioners.

CHAPTER X.

THE VERB: CLASSIFICATION.

Definition. A **verb** is a word by means of which we can **say something** about some person or thing.

The word which stands for what is spoken about is called the **subject** of the verb, and is in the **nominative case**. In relation to the **Subject**, the verb is called the **Predicate**.

A verb tells us with regard to what is spoken about that it does **something**, or that it **is in some state**, or that it **has something done to it.**

CLASSIFICATION OF VERBS.

Verbs are divided into two classes—

1. Transitive Verbs. **2. Intransitive Verbs.**

A Transitive (Latin *transire*, 'to go across,') the action passing over, as it were, from the doer of it to the object of it) **Verb** is one which denotes an action or feeling which is directed towards some object; as, *strike*, 'He *strikes* the ball'; *love*, 'He *loves* his father.' The word which stands for the object of the action described by the verb is called the **object of the verb**. It is put in the objective case. The *grammatical* object of a *verb* must not be confounded with the *real* object of the *action*.

An Intransitive Verb is one which denotes a *state* or *condition*, or an action or feeling which is not directed towards an object; as, *to be, to dwell, to sit, to rejoice, to run*. Verbs of this kind are sometimes called Neuter Verbs.

Intransitive verbs used transitively.

Some verbs, generally intransitive, are sometimes used *transitively*, as:

{He ran away. *Intrans.*
{He ran a thorn into his finger. *Trans.*

{The child speaks already. *Intrans.*
{He speaks several langnages. *Trans.*

{I walked to town. *Intrans.*
{I walked my bicycle to the repairer's. *Trans.*

Transitive verbs used intransitively.

{He moved the stone. *Trans.*
{The stone *moved*. *Intrans.*

{I opened the door. *Trans.*
{The door opened. *Intrans.*

{The horse drew the cab. *Trans.*
{The army drew near the town. *Intrans.*

The second verb may, however, be regarded as reflexive with *itself* understood after it. Thus compare the door opened (itself) with the French 'la porte *s'ouvrit*,' and the German 'die Tür *öffnete sich*.'

Other classes of verbs.

Besides these two main classes of verbs there are three other kinds of verbs to be distinguished:

1. Verbs of *Incomplete Predication.* These are verbs which do not make a complete statement unless they are followed by a noun or an adjective or a verb in the infinitive mood. 'He is,' 'Henry can,' 'The meeting became,' 'All seem,' are expressions without meaning. We give them meaning by adding a significant word. Thus:

'He is captain.'
'Henry can shoot.'
'The meeting became uproarious.'
'All seem pleased.'

2. *Auxiliary* and *Notional* verbs. The *auxiliary* (Lat. *auxilium*, 'help') verbs are six in number *be, have, shall, will, may, do,* and are used, as we shall see later, to *help* to make the different forms of the verb. I *am* going, I *have* gone, I *shall* go, he *will* go, (though) he *may go, does* he go, are all different parts of the verb *go.*

But these six little verbs have also meanings of their own. Thus, in 'I *have* a large garden,' *have* conveys the *notion* of possession. In 'I *will* be heard,' *will* conveys the *notion* of determination. In '*May* I come in?' *may* denotes permission.

Hence these verbs, when so used, are sometimes called *Notional* verbs.

3. *Impersonal verbs.* These are verbs which are used in the 3rd person singular, with a vague subject *it,* to express in a general way that an action is going on or a state existing.

Most of them denote weather-phenomena, as, *it rains, it snows, it lightens.* In Old English there were many impersonal verbs, which had no subject expressed, but which were accompanied by a personal pronoun in the objective or dative to denote the person affected.

Thus, *the hungreth* = (it) hungreth thee, *i.e.* 'Thou art hungry.'
Him smerte = (it) smarted him, *i.e.* 'He was hurt.'

We still have two of these verbs without a subject, *i.e. methinks* (O.E. *methynceth*, 'it seems to me') and *me-seems. If you please* (=if it please you, like the Latin *si tibi placet*) illustrates the same construction, but the *you* has been taken as a nominative, and the verb *please* as a *personal* verb. Hence, *if I please, if they please.*

EXERCISES.

1. Show, by sentences, that the following verbs can be used both transitively and intransitively (or reflectively) *Sink, return, run, twist, start, grow, hasten, shake, swear, halt.*

2. Point out the verbs in the following passages and say to which class (whether *transitive* or *intransitive* or *impersonal* or verb of *incomplete predication*):

(*a*) "And now, fair dames, methinks I see
You listen to my minstrelsy;
Your waving locks ye backward throw,
And sidelong bend your necks of snow:
Ye seem to hear a melting tale,
Of two true lovers in a dale."

(*b*) "When in other climes, we meet
Some isle or vale enchanting,
Where all looks flowery, wild and sweet,
And nought but love is wanting:
We think how great had been our bliss
If Heaven had but assign'd us
To live and die in scenes like this,
With some we've left behind us."

(*c*) "The vapours linger round the heights,
They melt and soon must vanish;
One hour is theirs, nor more is mine—
Sad thought! which I would banish.
But that I know, where'er I go,
Thy genuine image, Yarrow!
Will dwell with me, to heighten joy
And cheer my mind in sorrow."

CHAPTER XI.

THE VERB: INFLEXIONS.

VERBS admit of the following modifications: **Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, Person.**

These are expressed partly by inflexion, partly by the use of **auxiliary verbs.**

VOICE.

Voice is the form of a verb by means of which we show whether the **subject** of the sentence stands for the **doer**, or for the **object** of the action spoken of by the verb. There are two voices:

1. The Active Voice. 2. The Passive Voice.

Definition:

The **Active Voice** is made up of those forms of a verb which denote that the **subject** of the sentence stands for the **doer of the action** described by the verb; as, 'The boy *strikes* the ball.' 'The cat *killed* the mouse.

The **Passive Voice** is made up of those forms of a verb which denote that the **subject** of the sentence stands for the **object of the action** described by the verb; as 'The ball *is struck* by the boy.' 'The mouse *was killed* by the cat.'

The same action may be expressed by either voice, but then the word that is the *object* of the active verb must be the *subject* of the passive verb.

Formation of Passive Voice.

The **Passive Voice** of a verb is formed by prefixing the various parts of the verb **be** to the **perfect participle** of the verb. The perfect participle of a transitive verb is **passive** in meaning.

OBSERVATIONS.

(i) In the strict sense of the above definition only transitive verbs can properly be used in the passive voice. But in English a noun (or pronoun) in the objective case following a verb and preposition, or the indirect object of a verb, may be made the subject of a complex passive phrase, as, 'He spoke to the man—The man was spoken to.' 'They took great care of him—He was taken great care of.' So, 'He was promised a new coat.' 'The dead were refused burial.

(ii) Some intransitive verbs have their perfect tenses formed by means of the verb *be*, followed by the past or perfect participle; as, 'I *am* come.' 'He *is* gone.' Great care must be taken not to confound these with passive verbs. The sign of the passive voice is not the verb *be*, but the *passive participle* that follows it.

(iii) Transitive verbs are sometimes used in the active with a sort of passive signification, *e.g.* 'The meat cuts tough—The meat is tough when it *is cut*.' 'The cakes eat short and crisp—The cakes are short and crisp when they *are eaten*.' 'The book was selling well = The book *was being sold* well.'

MOOD.

Moods (that is **Modes**, from Lat. *modus*, 'a manner') are certain variations of form in verbs, by means of which we can show the mode or manner in which the action or fact denoted by the verb is connected in our thought with the thing that is spoken of.

There are four moods:

A. Three Finite Moods.

1. **The Indicative Mood.**
2. **The Imperative Mood.**
3. **The Subjunctive Mood.**

B. The Infinitive Mood.

A. The Finite Moods.

1. *The Indicative Mood (or Mood of Fact)*

The **Indicative** (Lat. *indicare*, 'to point out') **Mood** comprises those forms of a verb which are used when a statement, question, or supposition has relation to some event or state of things which is regarded by the speaker as actual, and independent of his thought about it; as, 'He *struck* the ball.' 'We *shall set* out to-morrow.' 'If he *was* guilty, his punishment *was* too light.'

2. *The Imperative Mood (or Mood of Volition).*

The **Imperative** (Lat. *imperare*, 'to command') **Mood** is a form of the verb by means of which we utter a command, request, or exhortation; as, '*Give* me that book.' '*Go* away.' The subject of a verb in the imperative mood is usually omitted, but may be expressed; as, "Go *thou* and do likewise."

When we express our will in connection with the first or third person, we either employ the subjunctive mood (as "Cursed *be* he that first cries hold." "Go *we* to the king"), or make use of the

imperative *let* (which is of the *second* person, with its subject omitted), followed by an infinitive complement, as, 'Let us pray.' 'Let him be heard.' These are not imperative forms of *pray* and *hear*.

3. *The Subjunctive Mood (or Mood of Conception).*

The **Subjunctive** (Lat. *subjungere*, 'to join on to') **Mood** comprises those forms of a verb which are used when a statement, question, or supposition has relation to an event or state of things which is only *thought of*, and which is not treated by the speaker **as** *matter of fact*, independent of his thought about it.

Hence the Subjunctive is employed (i) to express a *will* or *wish* (as "Thy kingdom *come*"); (ii) in clauses denoting *purpose* (as "See that all *be* in readiness," "Govern well thy appetite, lest sin *surprise* thee"); (iii) in clauses denoting the purport of a wish or command (as "The sentence is that the prisoner *be* imprisoned for life"); (iv) to express a supposition or wish contrary to the fact, or not regarded as brought to the test of actual fact (as 'If he *were* here he would think differently,' 'Oh! that it were possible').

A verb in the Subjunctive Mood is generally (but not always) preceded by one of the conjunctions *if*, *that*, *lest*, *though*, *unless*, etc.; but the Subjunctive Mood is not always necessary after these conjunctions, nor is the conjunction a part of the mood itself.

In modern English the simple present or past tense of the Subjunctive Mood is often replaced by phrases compounded of the verbs *may*, *might*, and *should*, which for that reason are called *auxiliary*, or *helping verbs*. Thus, for 'Lest sin *surprise* thee,' we now commonly say, 'Lest sin *should surprise* thee.'

B. The Non-finite or Infinitive Mood (See Chapter XII.).

TENSE.

Tenses (Latin *tempus*, 'time') are varieties of form in verbs, or compound verbal phrases made with the help of auxiliary verbs, which indicate partly the **time** to which an action or event is referred, and partly the **completeness** or **incompleteness** of the event at the time referred to.

There are three divisions of time—the Present, the Past, and the Future. There are also three ways in which an action or event may be viewed:

1. It may be spoken of as **incomplete**, or still going **on**. A tense which indicates this is called an **imperfect** tense.

2. It may be spoken of as **complete**. A tense which indicates this is called a **perfect tense**.

3. It may be spoken of as one whole, without describing it as complete or incomplete in relation to other actions. A tense which does this is called an **indefinite tense**.

An action may be viewed in these three ways with reference to past, to present, or to future time. We thus get

Nine Primary Tenses.

A.
1. The **Past Imperfect** (or **Progressive**), showing that at a certain past time an action was going on; as, *I was writing; I was being taught.*
2. The **Past Perfect**, showing that at a certain past time an action was complete; as, *I had written; I had been taught.*
3. The **Past Indefinite** (or **Preterite**), speaking of the action as one whole referred to past time; as, *I wrote; I was taught.*

B.
1. The **Present Imperfect** (or **Progressive**), showing that an action is going on at the present time; as, *I am writing; I am being taught.*
2. The **Present Perfect**, showing that at the present time a certain action is complete; as *I have written; I have been taught.*
3. The **Present Indefinite**, speaking of the action as one whole, referred to present time; as, *I write; I am taught.*

C.
1. The **Future Imperfect** (or **Progressive**), showing that at a certain future time an action will be going on; as, *I shall be writing; I shall be being taught.*
2. The **Future Perfect**, showing that at a certain future time an action will be complete; as, *I shall have written; I shall have been taught.*
3. The **Future Indefinite**, speaking of an action as one whole, referred to future time; *I shall write; I shall be taught.*

From this table it appears at once that *perfect* and *past* are not the same. When we say, '*I have written*,' although the act of writing took place in past time, yet the *completeness* of the action (which is what the tense indicates) is referred to *present time*. Hence the tense is a *present* tense.

Secondary Tenses.

Besides the Primary Tenses we have the following:

The **Present Perfect** of continued action—I *have been writing.*

The **Past Perfect** of continued action—I *had been writing.*

The **Future Perfect** of continued action—I *shall have been writing.*

FORMATION OF TENSES IN THE ACTIVE VOICE.

The **Present Indefinite** and the **Past Indefinite** in the Active Voice are the only two tenses formed by **inflexion.**

The **Imperfect** tenses are formed by the indefinite tenses of the verb *be*, followed by the imperfect participle.

The **Perfect** tenses are formed by means of the indefinite tenses of the verb *have*, followed by the perfect participle.

Comparative Table of Tenses in English, Latin, Greek, French, and German.

ACTIVE VOICE.—INDICATIVE MOOD.

	English.	Latin.	Greek.	French.	German.
Present.					
Indef.	He writes	scribit	γράφει	il écrit	er schreibt
Imperf.	He is writing	scribit	γράφει	il écrit	er schreibt
Perfect.	He has written	scripsit	γεγραφε	il a écrit	er hat geschrieben
Past.					
Indef.	He wrote	scripsit	ἔγραψε	il écrivit	er schrieb
Imperf.	He was writing	scribebat	ἔγραφε	il écrivait	er schrieb
Perfect.	He had written	scripserat	ἐγεγραφει	il avait écrit / il eut écrit	er hatte geschrieben
Future.					
Indef.	He will write	scribet	γράψει	il écrira	er wird schreiben
Imperf.	He will be writing	scribet	γράψει	il écrira	er wird schreiben
Perfect.	He will have written	scripserit	..	il aura écrit	er wird geschrieben haben
Perfect of continued action.	He has been writing	..	..	.. ..	.. ..

The **Future** tenses are formed by means of the auxiliary verbs *shall* and *will*, followed by the infinitive mood: *shall* being used for the first person, *will* for the

second and third in affirmative principal sentences; but in subordinate clauses, after a relative, or such words as *if, when, as, though, unless, until,* etc., the verb *shall* is used for all three persons; as, 'If it *shall* be proved': "When He *shall* appear we *shall* be like Him."

N.B.—For the other uses of *shall* and *will* see Chapter XIV.

USES OF THE TENSES.

The **Present Indefinite** Tense is used:

1. To state what is actually taking place, as, "Here *comes* the rain."

2. To state what frequently or habitually takes place, or is universally true, as, "It *rains* here daily"; "Honesty *is* the best policy."

3. In lively narrations a person often imagines himself to be present at the events he is describing, and so uses the present tense (*Historic Present*) in speaking of past events.

4. It is used for the future when the real time is fixed by the context, as, "We *start* next Monday for the Continent."

Besides its ordinary use, the **Past Indefinite** Tense is used:

1. With the force of an Imperfect, as, "They *danced* while I *played*."

2. To express what happened frequently or habitually, as, "In those days people *ate* without forks."

The combination of the verb *be* with the passive participle may denote either an *action*, or the results of the action. In "Every house is built by some man," *is built* is a present indefinite tense, of the passive voice of the verb *build*. In "This house is built of stone," *built* is used as an adjective.

Use of the auxiliary **do** *in Indefinite Tenses.*

The auxiliary **do** is used in four ways:

(1) To replace the Present and Past Indefinite Tenses:

"You all *do know* this mantle."

"They *did set* bread before him and he *did eat*."

(2) In negative sentences:

He *did not* come. You *do not* hear me.

(3) In interrogative sentences:

Did he come? *Do you* hear me?

(4) To mark emphasis:

It *did* rain when I was out last night.

She *does* paint well.

(Here a stress must be laid on *did* and *does*.)

NUMBER.

Number is a modification of the form of a verb by means of which we show whether the verb is spoken of one person or thing, or of more than one. There are, therefore, two numbers in verbs, the **Singular** and the **Plural**, corresponding to the two numbers in substantives.

PERSON.

Person is a modification of the form of verbs, by which we indicate whether the speaker speaks *of* himself, or speaks of the person or persons addressed, or speaks of some other person or thing.

There are three persons.

1. **The First Person.**
2. **The Second Person.**
3. **The Third Person.**

The **First Person** is used when the speaker speaks of himself either singly or with others.

The Second Person is used when the subject of the verb stands for the person or persons spoken to.

The Third Person is used when the subject of the verb denotes neither the speaker nor the person spoken to.

EXERCISES.

1. Explain the use of the Subjunctive Mood in each of the following sentences:

Take care that dinner *be* ready for me by two o'clock. If you *were* generous, you would help me. Oh! that it *were*

with me as in the days that are past! Beware lest something worse *happen* to you. I would I *were* a weaver. "A south-west *blow* on ye and blister you all o'er!" If he *were* to swear to it, I would not believe it. Peace *be* to his ashes. Live temperately that you *may live* long. "I closed my eye-lids lest the gems *should blind* my purpose." Heaven *grant* you succeed, or all is lost. "*Had* not God, for some strong purpose, *steeled* the hearts of men, they must perforce have melted." "If wishes *were* horses, beggars would ride." "Though gods they *were*, as men they died." "What he gives thee, see thou *keep*."

2. Distinguish the uses of the verb *do* in the following sentences:

He certainly *does* talk most persistently. "Why *do* these steeds stand ready dight?" "Short halt *did* Deloraine make there." "Sweet Phoebe, *do* not scorn me, *do* not, Phoebe." "His hair *did* bristle on his head." "Why *does* fair Margaret so early awake?" "If thou *dost* not let me go, I'll have thee hanged to feed the crow." He *did* break the window, I tell you. "The tide *did* now its flood-mark gain."

3. Change the following sentences so as to use passive verbs instead of active verbs:

The headmaster promised us a half-holiday. The Cabinet arrived at a definite conclusion before 6 o'clock. One Norman knight, at the head of a few warriors, scattered the Celts of Connaught. The King bestowed many English estates on the Normans. The founders of the Anglican Church took a middle course. The officers conspired against their new chief. The commander determined on a change of tactics. One may accomplish many things by a little effort. His conduct well illustrates the whole policy of his house. A hundred thousand soldiers will keep down ten millions of ploughmen. It was impossible to abolish kingly government. Cromwell had now vanquished King, Lords and Commons in turn.

4. Show the Voice, Mood, Tense, Number and Person of the *italicised* verbs in the following sentences, and add any explanations you think necessary:

(1) "He *is gone* on the mountain;
He *is lost* to the forest."

(2) Mr. Pinero's new drama *reads* very well.

(3) "*Think* we King Harry strong."

(4) "Duncan *comes* here to-night."

(5) "A stitch in time *saves* nine."

(6) Few of us *were allowed* our expenses.

(7) *Pray, teach* the boy a little grammar.

(8) The report *is being circulated* widely.

(9) Long *live* the King!

(10) His life *has been lived* in vain.

(11) The manager thinks the new play *will take* well.

(12) It *has been raining* all night.

(13) "*Are you crept* hither to see the wrestling?"

5. Separate the following sentences into two groups, one containing those in which the verb *be* and the perfect participle form a tense of the passive voice, the other containing those in which the participle is a mere qualitative adjective:

The ship was built by contract. The ship was built of iron. He was stretched upon the rack. He was stretched upon his bed. The string is stretched too tight. The captives were already slain. They were slain by order of the captain. The poor man is badly hurt. The poor man was hurt. The troops were surprised by the enemy. I was surprised by his behaviour. I am surprised that you do not see that. The prisoner was starved to death. The children are famished.

CHAPTER XII.

THE VERB: INFINITIVE, GERUND AND PARTICIPLE.

THERE are several verb-forms which are often classed together as the **Non-finite Verb** or the **Verb Infinitive**, because they are not *limited* as regards person, number and time, like the three moods dealt with in the last chapter.

These verb-forms may be distinguished by the three names:

1. **The Infinitive.**
2. **The Gerund.**
3. **The Participles.**

1. THE INFINITIVE.

The Infinite mood expresses the action or state denoted by the verb without reference to person, number or time. It may be attached to a subject in dependent phrases (=the accusative and the infinitive), as:

'I know *him to be* honest.'
'I saw *him fall*.'

This justifies us in calling it a *Mood*.

It commonly has the force of a *substantive* and may be used either as the subject or as the object of another verb or after certain prepositions (namely *to* and *but*). When thus used it is not properly a mood at all. Note the following examples:

(*a*) To *drive* a motor requires skill.
(*b*) I love to *drive* a motor.
(*c*) He can *drive* his own motor.
(*d*) He does nothing but *drive* a motor.

In each of these examples the word *drive* has the force of a **verb** and also of a **noun**.

It is a **verb** because in each sentence it governs the noun *motor* in the objective case. It is a **noun** because in sentence (*a*) it is the subject of the verb *requires*; in sentence (*b*) it is the object of the verb *love*; in sentence (*c*) it acts as the complement of the incomplete verb *can*; and in sentence (*d*) it is governed by the preposition *but*.

You will notice that the preposition *to* is not always to be found with the infinitive. It is not used after the verbs *must*, *can*, *let*, *dare*, *bid*, *make*, *see*, *hear*, *feel*, *need*; nor after the auxiliaries *shall*, *will*, *may*, *do*.

Obs. The infinitive is also used with the force of an *adverb* to denote (*a*) *purpose*, (*b*) *destination* or (*c*) *result*, (*d*) after adjectives expressing *emotion* or *desire*, and (*e*) in certain absolute constructions.

Examples (*a*) He came *to see* me.
I was left *to finish* the work.
(*b*) They called him worthy *to be loved.*
I was bound *to see* it out.
(*c*) He was so weak as *to give* way.
(*d*) We were all anxious *to go.*
(*e*) *To tell* the truth, I have no faith in him.

2. THE GERUND.

A *Gerund* is a *substantive* formed from a verb by the suffix *-ing*, and when formed from a transitive verb it has the governing power of the verb. Examples:

(*a*) *Driving* a motor requires skill.
(*b*) I love *driving* a motor.
(*c*) He earns his living by *driving* a motor.

Here you see that the Gerund is used in very much the same way as the Infinitive. It is both a **verb** and a **noun**. It takes a direct object after it and it serves as the subject of the verb in sentence (*a*), as the object in sentence (*b*), and it is governed by a preposition in sentence (*c*).

When this form in **-ing** is preceded by *the* and followed by *of*, as in the sentence: '*The driving of* a motor requires skill,' it becomes more of a noun and less of a verb, and is generally called a **Verbal Noun.**

The gerunds of the verbs *have* and *be* help to form compound gerunds, as:

He went crazy though *having lost* his fortune.
He is desirous of *being admired.*

3. THE PARTICIPLES.

Participles are verbal adjectives, so called because they *partake* of the nature both of a verb and of an adjective (Lat. *participare* = to partake). There are two

participles formed by inflexion, (i) the present or imperfect in *-ing*, (ii) the past or perfect in *-en*, *-n* or *-ed*, etc.

(i) Present Participle in **-ing**.

(*a*) The chauffeur is *driving* the motor to-day.

(*b*) *Driving* his motor round the corner he ran into a cart.

(*c*) I saw him *driving* his motor down the hill.

(*d*) He was out in the *driving* rain.

Participles are those non-finite forms that are used partly as **verbs** and partly as **adjectives**.

In sentence (*a*) *driving* has a verbal force because it forms with *is* the Present Imperfect Tense of the verb *drive*, and also governs the noun *motor* in the objective.

It is used as an **adjective** because it *describes* the noun *chauffeur*.

In sentence (*b*) *driving* governs an object and also describes the subject *he*. In sentence (*c*) it governs *motor* and describes the object *him*. In sentence (*d*) it does not show its verbal force so clearly, and so may be called a **participial adjective**.

(ii) Past Participle in **-en**, **-n**, **-ed**, etc.

(*a*) He was *driven* to the station.

(*b*) *Driven* out of the house by the noise, I took a stroll in the park.

(*c*) This cloth is as white as the *driven* snow.

In sentence (*a*) *driven* forms with *was* the Past Indefinite Indicative of the Passive Voice, and it also describes *He*. In (*b*) *driven* describes the subject *I*, and it is also part of the passive voice of the verb *drive*. In (*c*) its verbal force is not quite so clear, and it may be called a **participial adjective**.

The Infinitive and the Gerund, then, are alike in being used as nouns, while still retaining the power that a verb has of governing an object. There is one difference in their use, and that is, that whereas the Infinitive is only used after two Prepositions (*to* and *but*), the Gerund may be used after any Preposition. Thus we may say *by driving*, *from driving*, *through driving*, *in driving*, etc.

The two Participles are alike in being partly verbs and partly adjectives.

EXERCISES.

1. Show how the Infinitive is used in the following sentences:

(*a*) "*To obey* is better than sacrifice, and *to hearken* than the fat of rams."

(*b*) "I dare *do* all that may become a man."

(*c*) "Full many a flower is born *to blush* unseen."

(*d*) "*To err* is human, *to forgive* divine."

(*e*) "They love *to see* the flaming forge
And *hear* the bellows roar."

(*f*) It is pretty *to see* them carrying the children.

(*g*) *To tell* the truth, I think you are *to blame* for trying *to sleep to kill* time.

(*h*) Methinks 'tis idle *to lament*.

(*j*) He asked *to be allowed to explain*.

(*k*) "Art thou a man and shamest thou not *to beg*?"

(*l*) "*To be* or not *to be*—that is the question."

(*m*) He came *to gloat* over my misfortunes.

2. Classify the forms in -ing in the following sentences under the heads: Abstract Noun in *-ing*, Gerund and Present Participle:

(*a*) He strode up the hall bowing right and left.

(*b*) "By the pricking of my thumbs something wicked this way comes."

(*c*) He loves to hear the little brook a-gurgling.

(*d*) "Quitting the forest we advanced into the open plain."

(*e*) He died in consequence of pricking his hand with a poisoned dagger.

(*f*) Out of the houses the rats came tumbling.

(*g*) Barring accidents, we will be with you to-morrow.

(*h*) "Always roaming with a hungry heart
Much have I seen and known."

(*j*) "Do not go a-gathering after gall."

(*k*) "May there be no moaning of the bar
When I put out to sea."

(*l*) In avoiding Scylla you fall into Charybdis.

(*m*) He seems to be ploughing the sand.

(*n*) There was a great gathering of the clans.

(*o*) "A widow-bird sate mourning for her love."

(*p*) Have you read "The hunting of the snark"?

3. Form sentences showing each of the following words as (i) participles, (ii) gerunds, (iii) verbal nouns: *Crying, sailing, running, doing, keeping, telling, singing, stamping, reading, selling.*

CHAPTER XIII.

THE VERB: CONJUGATION.

THE Conjugation of a Verb is the formation of all the inflexions and combinations used to indicate Voice, Mood, Tense, Number and Person.

There are two classes of verbs in English, distinguished by the formation of the Past Indefinite or Preterite. These are:

A. Verbs of the Strong Conjugation.
B. Verbs of the Weak Conjugation.

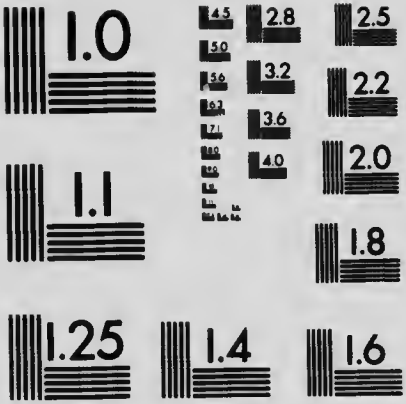
A. The Strong Conjugation.

The **Past Indefinite** of verbs of the Strong Conjugation is formed by modifying the vowel-sound of the root.

This tense was originally formed by reduplication, that is by repeating the root of the verb. By the successive omission of the final consonant of the first root and the initial consonant of the second, and the weakening and ultimate blending into one of the two vowel sounds thus brought together, the resulting form appeared as if produced by modifying the vowel sound of the original root.

The Perfect Participle of all verbs of the Strong Conjugation was originally formed by the (adjective) suffix **-en** and the prefixed particle **ge**. The suffix *-en* has now disappeared from many verbs, and the prefix *ge*, after being softened to *y* or *i*, was finally dropped.

This Conjugation contains no verbs but such as are of the old Teutonic stock of the language. If we disregard **an occasional** prefix the verbs that belong to it are all monosyllabic.



MICROCOPY RESOLUTION TEST CHART
NATIONAL BUREAU OF STANDARDS
STANDARD REFERENCE MATERIAL 1010a
(ANSI and ISO TEST CHART No. 2)

B. The Weak Conjugation.

The **Past Indefinite** of verbs of the Weak Conjugation is formed by adding **-ed** or **-t** to the stem, e final (if there is one) being omitted, as *wait-ed, lov-ed, deal-t.*

The suffix **-ed** is pronounced as a separate syllable only after a dental mute, as in *need-ed, pat-t-ed, mend-ed.* The vowel *y* after a consonant is changed into *i* before it, as *pity, pitied.* After a sharp guttural or labial mute *ed* has the sound of *t*, as in *tipped, knocked.* In several verbs the suffix has vanished, though its previous existence is sometimes either seen in the weakening of the vowel of the stem, or in the change of final *d* into *t*, as *meet, met*; *bend, bent.*

This suffix is in reality a preterite form of the verb *do*, which was shortened in O.E. into *-de* or *-te.*

It thus appears that in origin as well as in meaning, *I loved* is equivalent to *I love did*, or *I did love.*

The perfect participle of most verbs of the weak conjugation is the same in form as the preterite. It had its origin in an adjective suffix **-d** or **-t**, akin to *tus* in Latin. The prefix *ge* has been dropped.

This conjugation contains many verbs of the old Teutonic stock of English; some verbs once of the Strong Conjugation; all verbs of Norman, French, and foreign origin; and all fresh formations.

A. Verbs of the Strong Conjugation.

1. Verbs in which the preterite is formed by vowel-change, and the perfect participle has the suffix **-en** or **n**.

	Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
(*a*)	blow	blew	blown
	crow	crew	crowed
	grow	grew	grown
	know	knew	known
	throw	threw	thrown
	mow	mowed	mown
	draw	drew	drawn
	hold	held	holden *or* held
(*b*)	drive	drove *or* drave	driven
	ride	rode	ridden
	rise	rose	ridden
	smite	smote	smitten
	chide	chid	chidden *or* chid
	slide	slid	slidden *or* slid
	fall	fell	fallen
	lie	lay	lien *or* lain
	slay	slew	slain
	see	saw	seen
	eat	ate	eaten
	beat	beat	beaten.
	stride	strode	stridden
	strike	struck	stricken
	strive	strove	striven
	thrive	throve	thriven
	write	wrote	written *or* writ
	bite	bit	bitten *or* bit.

	Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
(*c*)	bid	bade *or* bid	bidden *or* bid	spit	spat *or* spit	spit.
	give	gave	given			
(*d*)	forsake	forsook	forsaken	stave	stove *or* staved	(staved)
	shake	shook	shaken			
	take	took	taken.	come	came	come

2. In most of the following verbs there is a tendency to assimilate the vowel-sound of the preterite to that of the perfect participle.

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
bear	bare *or* bore	borne *or* born	tear	tare *or* tore	torn
break	brake *or* broke.	broken	wear	wore	worn
shear	shore	shorn	weave	wove	woven
speak	spake *or* spoke	spoken	climb	clomb	[*clomben*]
steal	stole	stolen	fight	fought	fought
swear	sware *or* swore	sworn	hang	hung	hung

3. Verbs in which the vowel of the perfect participle has been assimilated to that of the preterite, or the preterite has been adopted as a participle.

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
abide	abode	abode	tread	trod	trodden *or* trod
shine	shone	shone			
awake	awoke	awoke	sit	sate *or* sat	sat
stand	stood	stood	get	got *or* gat	gotten *or* got

4. In most of the following verbs the preterite in O.E. had **a** in the singular and **u** in the plural. Hence probably came the twofold forms of the preterite. The perfect participle has usually lost its suffix.

	Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
(*a*)	begin	began *or* begun	begun	shrink	shrank *or* shrunk	shrunken *or* shrunk
	drink	drank *or* drunk	drunken *or* drunk	spring	sprang *or* sprung	sprung
	ring	rang *or* rung	rung	stink	stank *or* stunk	stunk
	sing	sang *or* sung	sung	strike	strake *or* struck	stricken *or* struck
	sink	sank *or* sunk	sunken *or* sunk	swim	swam or swum	swum
	spin	span *or* spun	spun			

	Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part*
(*b*)	bind	bound	bound	slink	slunk	slunk
	find	found	found	stick	stuck	stuck
	grind	ground	ground	string	strung	strung
	cling	clung	clung	swing	swung	swung
	fling	flung	flung	win	won	won
	hide	hid	hidden *or* hid	wind	wonnd	wound
				wring	wrung	wrung
	sling	slung	slung	run	ran	run
				burst	burst	burst

5. The following verbs in O.E. had the following vowels:

Pres. eo; *Pret. Sing.* ea; *Pl.* u; *P. Part.* o.

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
freeze	froze	frozen	heave	hove	hoven
choose	chose	chosen	seethe	sod	sodden *or* sod
cleave	clave	cloven			
fly	flew	flown	shoot	shot	shot

6. Verbs not included in the preceding classes.

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
dig	dug	dug
(be)queath	quoth	

NOTES.

(1) *Took, mistook, forsook, shook, rode, broke, spoke, swam, drank* are used as past participles by Shakespeare and other writers.

(2) *Shear, climb, hang, cleave, heave* are also of the weak conjugation (e.g. *cleave, cleft, cleft*).

(3) The past indefinite forms *begun, drunk, rung, sung, sunk, sprung, swum* are now avoided by the best writers.

(4) The past participles *drunken, sunken, shrunken, stricken,* are now used only as adjectives.

B. Verbs of the Weak Conjugation.

Besides the large class of what are frequently called Regular Verbs, because the preterite and perfect participle are uniformly made by the simple addition of -ed, which includes all verbs of French or Latin origin, the following verbs belong to the Weak Conjugation:

1. Verbs in which the addition of the suffix **d** or **t** is accompanied by a shortening of the vowel-sound of the root.

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
bereave	bereft	bereft	kneel	knelt	knelt
creep	crept	crept	leave	left	left
deal	dealt	dealt	lose	lost	lost
dream	dreamt	dreamt	mean	meant	meant
feel	felt	felt	sleep	slept	slept
flee	fled	fled	sweep	swept	swept
hear	heard	heard	weep	wept	wept
keep	kept	kept	shoe	shod	shod

2. Verbs in which the suffix has been dropped after the shortening of the vowel.

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
bleed	bled	bled	meet	met	met
breed	bred	bred	read	read	read
feed	fed	fed	speed	sped	sped
lead	led	led	light	lit	lit

3. Verbs in which the addition of **d** or **t** is accompanied by a change in the vowel-sound of the root.

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
beseech	besought	besought	seek	sought	sought
buy	bought	bought	teach	taught	taught
catch	caught	caught	think	thought	thought
bring	brought	brought	tell	told	told
sell	sold	sold	work	wrought	wrought

4. Verbs in which the suffix **te** has disappeared, but has changed a final **d** to **t** (voiced sound to unvoiced).

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
bend	bent	bent	build	built	built *or* builded
blend	blended	blent			
gild	gilt *or* gilded	gilt *or* gilded	rend	rent	rent
			send	sent	sent
gird	girt *or* girded	girt *or* girded	spend	spent	spent
			wend	went *or* wended	wended
lend	lent	lent			

5. Verbs in which the suffix has disappeared without further change.

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
cast	cast	cast	set	set	set
cost	cost	cost	shed	shed	shed
cut	cut	cut	shred	shred	shred
hit	hit	hit	shut	shut	shut
hurt	hurt	hurt	slit	slit	slit
knit	knit	knit	split	split	split
put	put	put	spread	spread	spread
rid	rid	rid	thrust	thrust	thrust

6. Verbs which have preserved the formation of the strong conjugation in the perfect participle.

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
go	——	gone
[en]grave	[en]graved	[en]graven *or* engraved
help	helped	holpen *or* helped
hew	hewed	hewn *or* hewed
lade	laded	laden
melt	melted	molten *or* melted
mow	mowed	mown *or* mowed
rive	rived	riven *or* rived
saw	sawed	sawn *or* sawed
shape	shaped	shapen *or* shaped
shave	shaved	shaven *or* shaved
shew *or* show	shewed *or* showed	shewn, shown, shewed, *or* showed
sow	sowed	sown *or* sowed
strew	strewed	strewn, strown, *or* strewed
swell	swelled	swollen *or* swelled
wash	washed	washen *or* washed
wax	waxed	waxen *or* waxed

7. Verbs not included in the preceding classes.

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
clothe	clad	clad
freight	freighted	fraught *or* freighted
work	wrought *or* worked	wrought *or* worked
lay	laid	laid
say	said	said
have	had (*i.e* haved)	had
make	made (*i.e* maked)	made

8. *Tight* is a participle of *tie* (O.E. *tigan*). *Distraught* is an exceptional form from the verb *distract*. *Straight* is for *stretched*. *Dight* (shortened from *dighted*) is from O.E. *dihtan* = 'to adorn.' *Yclept* is from the old verb *clypian* = to call. *Go* borrows a preterite from the verb *wend*, properly *to wend* (*or turn*) *one's way*.

NOTES.

(1) The preterite forms *crep*, *wep*, *slep*, are found in early writers and in certain dialects.

(2) *Dreamed* and *bereaved* are used as well as *dreamt* and *bereft*.

(3) In the verbs *think* and *bring* the *n* does not belong to the root.

PERSONAL INFLEXIONS OF AN ENGLISH VERB.

The following table exhibits the personal *inflexions* of a verb. Let a single stroke (————) stand for the infinitive mood (without *to*), and a double stroke (═══) for the first person singular of the past indefinite tense.

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

Singular.		Plural.
1. ————		1. ————
2. ————	est *or* st	2. ————
3. ————	eth, es, *or* s.	3. ————

Past Indefinite Tense.

Singular.		Plural.
1. ═══		1. ═══
2. ═══	est *or* st.	2. ═══
3. ═══		3. ═══

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. ————	1. ————
2. ————	2. ————
3. ————	3. ————

Past Indefinite Tense.

The same as in the Indicative Mood.

The suffix *es* is added to verbs ending in a sibilant (as *pass-es*, *catch-es*); *o* (as *go-es*, *do-es*); or *y* preceded by a consonant, *fli-es*, *piti-es*. If a verb ends in *ic*, *c* is changed to *ck* before *-ing*, *-ed*, or *th e*, to preserve the hard sound of the *c*, as *trafficking*, *mimicked*.

THE NOTIONAL AND AUXILIARY VERB **BE.**

Infinitive Mood.

Indefinite Tense, [To] be. **Perfect Tense**, [To] have been.

Participles.

Imperfect, Be ing; *Perfect*, Been; *Compound Perfect*, Having been.

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

Singular. 1. [I] am ; 2. [Thou] art ; 3. [He] is.
Plural. 1. [We] are ; 2. [You] are ; 3. [They] are.

Present Perfect Tense. I have been, etc.

Past Indefinite Tense.

Singular. 1. [I] was ; 2. [Thou] wast or wert ; 3. [He] was.
Plural. 1. [We] were ; 2. [You] were ; 3. [They] were.

Past Perfect Tense. [I] had been, etc.

Future Indefinite Tense. [I] shall be, etc.

Future Perfect Tense. [I] shall have been, etc.

Imperative Mood.

Singular. Be [thou]. *Plural.* Be [ye *or* you].

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

(After *if*, *that*, *though*, *lest*, etc.)

Singular. 1. [I] be ; 2. [Thou] be ; 3. [He] be.
Plural. 1. [We] be ; 2. [You] be ; 3. [They] be.

Present Perfect Tense.

(After *if*, *that*, *though*, *unless*, etc.)

Singular. 1. [I] have been ; 2. [Thou] have been ; 3. [He] have been.
Plural. 1. [We] have been, etc.

Past Indefinite Tense.

(Used mostly after *if*, *that*, *though*, *unless*, etc.)

Singular. 1. [I] were ; 2. [Thou] wert ; 3. [He] were.
Plural. 1. [We] were, etc.

Secondary or Compound Form.

(When not preceded by Conjunctions.)

Singular. 1. [I] should be ; 2. [Thou] wouldst be ; 3. [He] would be.
Plural. 1. [We] should be, etc.

Past Perfect Tense.

(Used mostly after *if*, *that*, *though*, *unless*, etc.)

The same in form as the Indicative.

Secondary or Compound Form.

(When not preceded by Conjunctions.)

Singular. 1. [I] should have been ; 2. [Thou] wouldst have been ; 3. [He] would have been.

Plural. 1. [We] should have been, etc.

Inspection of the preceding forms will show that the conjugation of this verb is made up from three different roots.

(1) The present tense of the indicative mood is formed from the old Aryan root *as*, which appears in Greek and Latin in the form *es*. The *s* of the root is dropped in *am*=*a(s)m*, and softened to *r* in *art* and *are*.

(2) The present subjunctive, the imperative, the infinitive, and the participles ... formed from the root *be*.

(3) The past ... tense of the indicative and subjunctive is formed from ... or *was*, *s* being softened to *r* in the plural and in the sul...

In old Engli... (*ne ar*...=*am not*, *nart* (*ne art*)=*art not*, etc.

As a *notional* verb **be** p... dicates *existence*, *e.g.*, '*God is*,' '*Such things have been.*'

THE NOTIONAL AND AUXILIARY VERB HAVE.

Have is conjugated as an ordinary weak verb except for the following modifications.

(1) The past participle is *had* (=*haved*).

(2) The pres. indic. 2nd sing. is *hast* (=*havest*).

(3) „ „ 3rd „ is *has* or *hath* (=*haves*, *haveth*).

(4) Unless the verb **have** is followed by a noun that implies some continuous act, as '*to have a game*,' '*to have one's dinner*,' it does not take the imperfect forms '*am having*,' '*was having*,' etc.

As a *notional* verb **have** predicates possession, as, 'He *has* a large fortune.'

THE NOTIONAL AND AUXILIARY VERB DO.

As an *auxiliary* verb (see Chapter X.) **do** is used only in the present and past indefinite tenses, *do* (*dost*, *doth*, or *does*, etc.) and *did*.

Do (when used as a notional verb) is not defective in Voice, Mood, or Tense. *Did* is a reduplicated Preterite. The forms *doest* and *doeth* do not belong to the verb when it is a mere auxiliary.

[*Continued on p.* 94.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB SMITE.

ACTIVE VOICE.

I. *Indicative Mood.*

Tense		Singular. 1st Person.	2nd Person.	3rd Person.	Plurals. 1st, 2nd, 3rd Persons.
Present	*Indefinite*	smite	smitest	smites	smite
	Imperfect	am smiting	art smiting	is smiting	are smiting
	Perfect	have smitten	hast smitten	has smitten	have smitten
	Perf. Cont.	have been smiting	hast been smiting	has been smiting	have been smiting
Past	*Indefinite*	smote	smotest	smote	smote
	Imperfect	was smiting	wast smiting	was smiting	were smiting
	Perfect	had smitten	hadst smitten	had smitten	had smitten
	Perf. Cont.	had been smiting	hadst been smiting	had been smiting	had been smiting
Future	*Indefinite*	shall smite	wilt smite	will smite	1. shall, 2, 3. will } smite
	Imperfect	shall be smiting	wilt be smiting	will be smiting	1. shall, 2, 3. will } be smiting
	Perfect	shall have smitten	wilt have smitten	will have smitten	1. shall, 2, 3. will } have smitten
	Perf. Cont.	shall have been smiting	wilt have been smiting	will have been smiting	1 shall, 2, 3. will } have been smiting

II. *Subjunctive Mood.*

Tense.		Singular. 1st Person.	Singular. 2nd Person.	Singular. 3rd Person.	Plurals. 1st, 2nd, 3rd Persons.
Present	*Indefinite*	smite	smite	smite	smite
	Imperfect	be smiting	be smiting	be smiting	be smiting
	Perfect	have smitten	have smitten	have smitten	have smitten
	Perf. Cont.	have been smiting	have been smiting	have been smiting	have been smiting
Past	*Indefinite*	were smiting	(*Same as Indicative*)	were smiting	were smiting
	Imperfect		were smiting		
	Perfect		(*Same as Indicative*)		
	Perf. Cont.		(*Same as Indicative*)		
Future	*Indefinite*	should smite	wouldst smite	would smite	1. should, 2, 3. would } smite
	Imperfect	should be smiting	wouldst be smiting	would be smiting	1. should, 2, 3. would } be smiting
	Perfect	should have smitten	wouldst have smitten	would have smitten	1. should, 2, 3. would } have smitten
	Perf. Cont.	should have been smiting	wouldst have been smiting	would have been smiting	1. should, 2, 3. would } have been smiting

III. *Imperative Mood.*

Present Singular 2. smite (thou). *Plural* 2. smite (ye or you).

Note.—The Indefinite Present Subjunctive can also be expressed by *may*, as *may do*; and the Indefinite Past by *might*, as *might do*. *Should* is used for *would* in the 2nd and 3rd persons to express a condition.

PASSIVE VOICE OF Smite.

This, if we omit the Past Participle "smitten," gives a complete conjugation of the Finite forms of the verb "*to be.*"

I. *Indicative Mood.*

Tense.		Singular. 1st Person.	Singular. 2nd Person.	Singular. 3rd Person.	Plurals. 1st, 2nd, 3rd Persons.
Present	*Indefinite*	am smitten	art smitten	is smitten	are smitten
	Imperfect	am being smitten	art being smitten	is being smitten	are being smitten
	Perfect	have been smitten	hast been smitten	has been smitten	have been smitten
	Perf. Cont.		(*None*)		
Past	*Indefinite*	was smitten	wast smitten	was smitten	were smitten
	Imperfect	was being smitten	wast being smitten	was being smitten	were being smitten
	Perfect	had been smitten	hadst been smitten	had been smitten	had been smitten
	Perf. Cont.		(*None*)		
Future	*Indefinite*	shall be smitten	wilt be smitten	will be smitten	1. shall } be smitten 2, 3. will }
	Imperfect		(*None*)		
	Perfect	shall have been smitten	wilt have been smitten	will have been smitten	1. shall } have been 2, 3. will } smitten
	Perf. Cont.		(*None*)		

II. *Subjunctive Mood.*

Tense.		Singular. 1st Person.	Singular. 2nd Person.	Singular. 3rd Person.	Plurals. 1st, 2nd, 3rd Persons.
Present	*Indefinite*	be smitten	be smitten	be smitten	be smitten
	Imperfect		(*None*)		
	Perfect	have been smitten	have been smitten	have been smitten	have been smitten
	Perf. Cont.		(*None*)		
Past	*Indefinite*	were smitten	wert smitten	were smitten	were smitten
	Imperfect	were being smitten	wert being smitten	were being smitten	were being smitten
	Perfect		(*Same as Indicative*)		
	Perf. Cont.		(*None*)		
Future	*Indefinite*	should be smitten	wouldst be smitten	would be smitten	1. should } be 2, 3. would } smitten
	Imperfect		(*None*)		
	Perfect	should have been smitten	wouldst have smitten	would have smitten	1. should } have been 2, 3. would } smitten
	Perf. Cont.		(*None*)		

III. *Imperative Mood.*

Present Singular 2. be (thou) smitten. *Plural* 2. be (ye or you) smitten.

As a notional verb *Do* had also the sense of *put*. Thus *don=do on=put on*; *dup=do up=put up*, or *open*; *doff=do off=put off*; *dout (douse)=do out=put out*.

This verb *do* (O.E. *dón*) must not be confounded with *do* from O.E. *dugan*, 'to avail, to be strong, to profit,' which is used in the phrases 'That will *do*,' 'How do you *do?*' etc. Through confusion the preterite *did* is now used for both verbs.

INFINITIVE AND PARTICIPLES.

A. Infinitive.

	Active.	*Passive.*
Indefinite	(to) smite	(to) be smitten
Imperfect	(to) be smiting	(*None*)
Perfect	(to) have smitten	(to) have been smitten
Perf. Cont.	(to) have been smiting	(*None*)

B. Participles.

	Active.	*Passive.*
Imperfect	smiting	being smitten
Perfect	having smitten	smitten, *or* having been smitten
Perf. Cont.	having been smiting	(*None*)

EXERCISES.

1. Form sentences to illustrate the *attributive* use of the following past participles: *woven, stricken, sunken, drunken, shrunken, cloven, sodden, molten, shaven, shapen, swollen, hewn, laden, riven, graven.*

2. Form sentences to illustrate the meaning and use of the verbs: *rive, wax, bereave, seethe, stave, wring, heave, blend, strew.*

3. Explain the words *italicised* in the following passages:

(*a*) "Storied windows richly *dight*
Shedding a dim religious light."

(*b*) "He hath *holpen* his servant Israel."

(*c*) A knight "*ycladd* in mightie armes and silver shielde."

(*d*) "Brutus, you have much *mistook* me all this while."

(*e*) "They are become great and *waxen* rich."

(*f*) "She fell *distract*,
And, her attendants absent, swallowed fire."

(*g*) "So *clomb* this first grand thief into God's fold."

(*h*) "To those *ychained* in sleep,
The wakeful trump of doom must thunder through the deep."

(*j*) "Come, thou goddess, fair and free,
In Heaven *yclept* Euphrosyne."

4. Change the verbs in the following sentences, successively, into all the other eight primary tenses, without altering the voice, the mood, or the person:

He is lying on the sofa. I laid the book on the table. It will rise. You have raised the price. We were knitting socks. The field will be sown. The bird has flown. They are weaving at the loom.

CHAPTER XIV.

THE VERB: DEFECTIVE AND ANOMALOUS VERBS.

Defective and Anomalous Verbs.

THE verbs *shall, will, may, must, can, dare, wit* are **defective**; that is, have not the full complement of moods and tenses.

A peculiarity which all these verbs (except *will*) have in common, is, that the present tense is in reality a preterite of the strong conjugation, which has replaced an older present, and has had its own place supplied by a secondary preterite of the weak conjugation. One consequence of this is, that **none of them take -s as a suffix in the third person singular**, as that suffix does not belong to the preterite tense. They take after them the infinitive without *to*.

SHALL.

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.		*Past Indefinite Tense.*	
Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
1. [I] shall	1. [We] shall	1. [I] should	1. [We] should
2. [Thou] shalt	2. [You] shall	2. [Thou] shouldst	2. [You] should
3. [He] shall	3. [They] shall	3. [He] should	3. [They] should

Subjunctive Mood.

Past Indefinite Tense.

Sing. 1. [I] should 2. [Thou] shouldest *or* shouldst 3. [He] should
Pl. 1. [We] should 2. [You] should 3. [They] should

In O.E. 'I shall' often means 'I owe.' Thus (in *Luke* xvi. 5) we find "Hu micel scealt thou"? ("How much shalt thou"?)

The verb then came to indicate obligation arising from some external authority, or the force of fate or circumstances. Thus "Thou shalt not steal"; "Ye shall not surely die," *i.e.* "There is surely no edict that ye shall die"; "He demanded where Christ should be born," *i.e.* 'was destined to be born,' etc.

When *shall* (*should*, etc.) retains this meaning of *obligation* or *necessity*, it is a principal or notional verb. When it is used as a mere auxiliary, the idea of *obligation* disappears.

WILL.

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.		*Past Indefinite Tense.*	
Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
1. [I] will	1. [We] will	1. [I] would	1. [We] would
2. [Thou] wilt	2. [You] will	2. [Thou] wouldst	2. [You] would
3. [He] will	3. [They] will	3. [He] would	3. [They] would

Subjunctive Mood.

Past Indefinite Tense. Like the Indicative.

Will is followed by the infinitive without *to*; as, "He *will* not obey."

This verb is also used to express determination or intention. When used in this sense the verb may be conjugated like an ordinary verb.

This verb is also used to express the frequent repetition of an action; as, "When he was irritated, he *would* rave like a madman."

An old form of the present was *I wol*, or *I wole*, whence the negative *I won't*. In old English this verb was combined with the negative *ne*. *ic nille* = *I will not*, *ic nolde* = *I would not*. We still have the phrase *willy nilly* = *will he nill he*, or *will ye nill ye*.

MAY.

Indicative and Subjunctive Moods.

Present Indefinite Tense.		*Past Indefinite Tense.*	
Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
1. [I] may	1. [We] may	1. [I] might	1. [We] might
2. [Thou] mayest *or* mayst	2. [You] may	2. [Thou] mightest	2. [You] might
3. [He] may	3. [They] may	3. [He] might	3. [They] might

The verb *may* formerly denoted the possession of strength or power to do anything. It now indicates the absence of any physical or moral obstacle to an action, as "A man may be rich and yet not happy"; "He might be seen any day walking on the pier," *i.e.* 'there was nothing to hinder his being seen.' When thus used it is a *principal* or *notional* verb.

The verb *may* is often employed as a mere auxiliary of the subjunctive after *that* and *lest*. Instead of "Give me this water that I thirst not," we now say "that I may not thirst."

MUST.

This verb has now no variations of form for tense or person. When it refers to past time it is now usually followed by the perfect infinitive, as "That must have been delightful."

The modern form *must* is borrowed from the old preterite, in which *s* is a softened form of the *t* in *mot* before the suffix *-te* (compare *wist*).

CAN.

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.		*Past Indefinite Tense.*	
Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
1. [I] can	1. [We] can	1. [I] could	1. [We] could
2. [Thou] canst	2. [You] can	2. [Thou] couldest *or* couldst	2. [You] could
3. [He] can	3. [They] can	3. [He] could	3. [They] could

Subjunctive Mood.

Past Indef. Tense. Like the Indicative.

The *l* in *could* does not properly belong to the verb. It has been inserted to make it agree in form with *should* and *would*.

The old meaning of the verb is '**to know**,' a sense which it still bears in Chaucer, and which is preserved in the form 'to con.'

The adjective *cunning* is the old Imperfect Participle of the verb. The adjective *uncouth* is a compound of the Past Participle, and in Milton it means 'unknown' (*Lycidas*, 186).

OUGHT.

Ought is the preterite tense of the verb **to owe** ("He said you *ought* him a thousand pounds," *Shakspere*). It is now used as a present tense, "He ought to do it," means "He owes the doing of it."

The original meaning of the verb *owe* (O.E. *ágan*) was 'to possess.' The adjective *own* is the Perfect Participle of the verb (O.E. *ágen*).

WIT.

To wit (O.E. *witan*) means 'to know.' The present tense is 'I **wot**,' 'God **wot**'='God knows.' The Preterite Tense is 'I **wist**.' The old participle is preserved in *unwittingly*.

The forms *wots*, *wotteth*, *wotted*, and 'I wis' are either mere blunders or affectations. 'I wis' is simply a mistake for the adverb 'ywis'=*certainly*.

In old English *nat* (i.e. *ne wat*)='Know not,' *niste* (*ne wiste*) ='Knew not.'

DARE.

I **dare** is an old preterite, now used as a present. The third person is therefore properly *he* **dare**, not *he dares*. The past tense now in use is 'I **durst**.' (The older form of the root was *daurs*.) *To dare* is also conjugated like an ordinary Weak Verb.

THINKS.

The impersonal **thinks** (in *methinks*) means '**seems**,' and comes from the Anglo-Saxon *thincan*, 'to appear.' The past tense is **methought**. It is not the same as the verb 'I think' (from *thencan*), though the latter verb (meaning 'I cause to appear,' *i.e.* to my mind) is related to the former as '*drench*' (=*make to drink*) is to '*drink*.'

LISTS.

'Me **lists**'=it pleases me. 'Him **listed**'=it pleased him. This verb is sometimes used as personal; 'I list,' etc., like *please*.

WORTH.

"Woe **worth** the day"='Woe be to the day.' *Worth* is a relic of the old verb *weorthan*=to become.

NEED. HIGHT.

Need, though not a preterite, has been so far assimilated to the preterite-present verbs, that the third person is 'he need,' not 'he needs.' When thus used, the verb has the sense 'to be under a necessity to do something.' Where it signifies 'to be in want of' it is conjugated in the ordinary manner. The third person singular *needs* must not be confounded with the adverb *needs* (*i.e.* of need *or* necessity), as in "He must *needs* go through Samaria."

Hight (='was called') is the (reduplicated) preterite of an old verb *hatan*, 'to be called,' as "The grisly beast which by name Lion ***hight***" (*M.N.D.*, *Shakspere*).

EXERCISES.

1. Explain the exact use of the *italicised* verbs in the following sentences:

(*a*) "All little birds that *are*,
How they seemed to fill the sea and air
With their sweet jargoning!"

(*b*) "Some dream that they can silence, when they *will*,
The storm of passion."

(*c*) "The man *hath* penance done."

(*d*) "How long in that same fit I lay
I *have* no to declare."

(*e*) He *will* awake no more.

(*f*) "There *are* who say we *are* but dust."

(*g*) "We *will* drain our dearest veins,
But they *shall* be free."

(*h*) *May* the earth lie light upon him!

(*j*) He *is* gone; at least I think so.

(*k*) Although it *may* seem absurd, it is true.

(*l*) "It *may* be, we *shall* see the great Achilles."

(*m*) The cats, that *have* been disturbing your rest, *are* poisoned.

2. Write notes on the *italicised* words in the following passages:

(*a*) "Thus sang the *uncouth* swain to the oaks and rills" (*Milton*).

(*b*) "Wel *coude* he sitte on horse and faire ryde" (*Chaucer*).

(*c*) "These be fools alive, *I wis*,
Silvered o'er" (*Shaks.*).

(*d*) "Wist ye not that I must be about my Father's business?" (*N.T.*).

(*e*) "*Him thought* he by the brook of Cheritl stood" (*Milton*).

(*f*) "Woe *worth* the chase! Woe *worth* the day
That cost thy life, my gallant grey!" (*Scott*).

(*g*) "She at her parting said, She Queene of Facries *hight*" (*Spenser*).

(*h*) "Whenas *him list* the ayre to beat
The cloudes before him fled for terror great" (*Spenser*).

CHAPTER XV.

THE ADVERB.

Definition.—Adverbs are words which denote the conditions which modify or limit an action or attribute. This is what is meant by saying that **an adverb is a word which modifies a verb, adjective or other adverb,** as "He writes *badly*"; "The book is *too* long."

An adverb *adds something* to the meaning of a verb or adjective, but does not *alter* the meaning of the word itself. 'Writes badly,' means all that 'writes' means, and 'badly' besides. But this word 'badly' restricts the application of the verb 'writes' to a certain class of the actions described by it. Therefore we may also have the

Definition.—An Adverb is a word which adds to the meaning, and limits the application, of a verb, adjective, or other adverb.

CLASSIFICATION OF ADVERBS.

Adverbs may be classified in two ways, (1) according to their syntactical force, (2) according to their meaning.

As regards their syntactical force adverbs are of two kinds:—1. **Simple Adverbs**; 2. **Conjunctive Adverbs.**

A *simple* adverb is one which does nothing more than modify the word with which it is used, as "We arrived *yesterday*"; "He is coming *hither*."

A *conjunctive* adverb is one which not only modifies some verb, adjective, or other adverb in its own clause, but connects the clause in which it occurs with the rest of the sentence; as *when* ("Come when you are ready"); *whither* ("Whither I go, ye cannot come").

Here *when* modifies the verb *are*, and *whither* modifies go.

Connective *Adverbs* must be carefully distinguished from *conjunctions*. The latter do not modify any verb, adjective or adverb in the clause which they introduce.

The following words are conjunctive adverbs: *When, where, whither, whence, why, wherein, whereby, wherefore, whereon, whereat, whereout, whereafter, wherever, as.*

Both simple and connective adverbs may be classified according to their meaning, as

1. **Adverbs of Time**: *Now, then, after, before, presently, immediately, when, as,* etc.

2. **Adverbs of Place and Arrangement**: *Here, there, thence, where, whither, whence, wherein, whereat, in, out, up, down, within, without, firstly, secondly,* etc.

3. **Adverbs of Repetition**: *Once, twice,* etc.

4. **Adverbs of Manner**: *Well, ill, badly, how, however, so, as.* To this class belong the numerous adverbs formed from adjectives by the suffix *ly*, as *rightly, badly,* etc.

5. **Adverbs of Quantity or Degree**: *Very, nearly, almost, quite, much, more, most, little, less, least. all, half, any, the* ("*the* more *the* better," etc.). These are only a particular kind of Adverbs of Manner.

6. **Adverbs of Affirmation and Negation**: *Not, no, nay, aye, yea.*

7. **Adverbs of Cause and Consequence**: *Therefore, wherefore, why, consequently.*

FORMATION OF ADVERBS.

Adverbs are for the most part formed by inflexion, derivation, or composition, from nouns, adjectives and pronouns.

Adverbs derived from Nouns.

Needs (=*of necessity*), *straightways*, *noways*, and some others are old genitive cases of nouns. Adverbs of this sort were once more common. *Whilom* (O.E. *hwilum*) is a dative plural, meaning 'at whiles' ('formerly,' 'on a time'). The adverbs in *-meal* were compounds of the dative plural *maelum*, 'by portions'; as *piecemeal*, *inchmeal* (*Shaks.*, *Temp.* ii. 2), *limbmeal* (*Cymb.* ii. 4).

Many adverbs are made up of a noun (originally in the accusative case) and a qualifying adjective, which have hardened into compounds. Such are

Sometimes, *always*, *otherwise*, *meantime*, *midway*, *yesterday*.

Many adverbs are compounds of **on** (weakened to **a**) and a noun, as *afoot* (=on foot), *abed*, *asleep*, *ahead*, *aloft* (*on lyfte*='in the air'), etc.

In a similar way we get *indeed*, *betimes* (*i.e.*, *by-times*), *besides*, *forsooth*.

A few adverbs are derived from nouns by the suffix *-long* (formerly *linge*, answering to *-lings* in German) as *headlong*, *sidelong*, or *sidling*.

Adverbs derived from Adjectives.

The genitive suffix -s appears in *else* (formerly *elles*, the genitive of a root *el* or *al*, meaning *other*), *once* (for *ones*, from *one*), *twice* (formerly *twyes*), *thrice* (formerly *thryes* or *thries*), *unawares*, etc. *Much* (as in *much greater*=*greater by much*) and *little* were datives. *Amid*=*on mid*; *abroad*=*on broad*, etc.

The common adverbial suffix in O.E. was **-e**, the omission of which reduced many adverbs to the same form as the adjectives from which they were derived. Thus, "He smot him harde" became "He smote him hard." "His spere sticode faeste"="His spear stuck fast." In O.E. there was a numerous class of adjectives ending in **-lic**, the adverbs from which ended in **lice** (=*like*=*ly*), as *biterlic* (*bitterlike*='of a bitter sort'), *biterlice*='in a bitter sort of way.' As the adverbial suffix *-e* fell into disuse, the suffix **lice** (=**ly**) came to be treated as an ordinary adverbial suffix, and is appended to Romance as well as to O.E. words, as *perfectly*, *divinely*.

Pronominal Adverbs.

These are formed from pronominal roots.

(1) By the suffix *-re*, marking *place*;—*here, there, where.*

(2) By the suffix *ther*;—*hither, thither, whither.*

(3) By the suffix *-n*;—*then* or *than, when.*

(4) By the compound suffix *-nce*, of which *-ce* (=*es*) is the genitive suffix;—*hence, thence, whence.*

(5) By the O.E. *instrumental* inflexion: *the* (=þy) before comparatives, as in "*The* sooner *the* better," *why*=*hwi* or *hwy*, and *how*=*hwu.*

What? has in old writers the sense of *why?* or *in what degree?*

Many adverbs are identical in form with prepositions, as *by* ('he rode by') *on* ('come on'), *off* ('be off'). *From*, as an adverb, survives in *to and fro.* The adverbial use of the words is the older of the two.

Adverbs of Negation.

The old English negative was **ne**, put before the verb, while **not** is put after it, when the verb is finite. *Not* is a shortened form of *nought* or *naught* (*i.e., ne-â-wiht*=*n-ever a thing*), and consequently is a strengthened negative, meaning 'in no degree,' or 'in no respect.' It was at first used to strengthen a previous negative as "They *ne* had not." In O.E. negatives were strengthened not neutralised by repetition.

No and *nay* are only varieties of *nâ*=*never.* *No* is now used before comparative adverbs and adjectives, as *no further, no bigger*, and as the absolute negative, as "Did you speak? No." The affirmative particle *ay* or *aye* is the same as the O.E. *â*=*ever.* (For *aye*=*for ever*). *Yes* is a compound of *yea* or *ye* and the old subjunctive *si* or *sie* 'be it.'

Adverbs are sometimes used after prepositions, so as to serve as compendious expressions for a qualified substantive, as "I have heard that before *now*"; "He has changed since *then.*" *Now* is equivalent to "the time *now* being"; *then* to "the time *then* being."

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

Some adverbs admit of degrees of comparison.

The comparative degree of an adverb is that form of it which indicates that of two actions or qualities which

are compared together, one surpasses the other with respect to some condition of manner or degree by which they are both marked, but in different degrees. Thus, "John reads *ill*, but Thomas reads *worse*"; "I was but *little* prepared, but he was *less* prepared."

The superlative degree of an adverb is that form of it which indicates that out of several actions or qualities which are compared together, one surpasses all the rest with respect to some condition of manner or degree by which they are all marked, but in different degrees; as "Of all these boys, William writes *best*"; "John was less cautious than I, but Thomas was the *least* cautious of the three."

The suffixes for comparison are now **-er** and **-est**. In modern English adverbs in **-er** and **-est** are seldom formed except from those adverbs which are the same in form as the corresponding adjectives, as *hard, harder, hardest; long, longer, longest*, etc. The usual mode of indicating comparison is to prefix the adverbs *more* and *most*, as *wisely, more wisely, most wisely.*

The following forms should be noticed:

Positive.	*Comparative.*	*Superlative.*
well	better	best
evil (*contr.* ill)	worse	worst
much	more	most
nigh *or* near	nearer	next
forth	further	furthest
far	farther	farthest
———	ere	erst
late	later	last
[*adj.* rathe = early]	rather	———

EXERCISES.

1. In the following sentences substitute pronouns preceded by prepositions for the adverbial compounds.

Herein do I exercise myself. Thereon I pawn my credit. She dares not thereof make discovery. My heart accords thereto. I will hereupon confess I am in love. Present to her a handkerchief, and bid her dry her weeping eyes therewith. Whereunto shall I liken this generation? Wherewithal

shall a young man cleanse his way? You take from me the means whereby I live.

2. Make the reverse change in the following sentences:

I long to know the truth *of this* at large. Thy food shall be withered roots and husks *in which* the acorn cradled. The earth is the Lord's and *its* fulness. Take this chain, and bid my wife disburse the sum on the receipt *of it*.

3. Classify the words italicised in the following sentences under the heads: Adjectives proper, substantival adjectives, and adverbs:

I gave him *all* I had. In *general* I approve of his proceedings. *Much* depends upon his answer. He knows *more* than he tells. Here is some wine, will you have a *little*? He told me *less* than his brother. You know *most* about it. The *long* and the *short* of it is, that I had my pains for nothing. I will follow you through *thick* and *thin*. He is my *best* friend. I did my *best*. He is t. · *best* dressed man in the room. He slept *all* night. He has ost *all*. *All* bloodless lay the untrodden snow. That is *all* nonsense. He is *all* powerful here. We have *much* cause for thankfulness. He is *much* worse to-day. *Much* remains to be done. I am *much* happier. He has *more* ability than his brother. He is *more* contented. I could hear *no more*. He is *no* wiser than before. I have *no* ink. He shows but *little* gratitude. We expect not a *little* from him. He is but *little* better. That is a *most* lovely prospect. Nobody *else* was there. I have not meat *enough*. I have *enough* and to spare.

He is *less* restless than he was yesterday. He ran *all* round the park. You know *best*. Do your *best*. Th[illegible] is hidden from our gaze. In *future* times he will be [illegible]. That decision was *right*. He cut *right* through the [illegible]et. Hear the *right*, O Lord. We have a choice between *good* and *ill*. *Ill* weeds thrive apace. The house is *ill* built. The earth turns *round*. He wears a *round* hat. Such a *round* of pleasures is wearisome. That is a *pretty* picture. He is *pretty* sure of the prize. He was a *very* thunderbolt of war. You are *very* kind That is the *very least* you can do. The corn was scattered *all* over the yard. He sailed *all* round the world. *Enough* has been done. They have money *enough*. He is *like* my brother. He swore *like* a trooper. I ne'er shall look upon his *like* again. I am your *equal*. We were *just* starting.

4. State the Degree of Comparison of each of the adverbs in italics in the following sentences, and point out what verb, adjective, or adverb it modifies.

John reads *well*, but Thomas reads *better*. He is *most* careful in his conduct. He acted *more* prudently than his friend. He walked *farther* than I did. He works *harder* than ever. They get up very *early*. I get up *earlier* than you. You write *worse* than your brother. He *often* comes here. He comes *oftener* than ever. He is *less* restless to-day. He is *more* composed. He was the *least* alarmed of all. He is *most* attentive to his work. My brother came *last*. I would *rather* not go. I would *sooner* die. The children were here *soonest*. That poor man is the *worst* hurt.

5. Form sentences to illustrate the use of the following words, (1) as **adjectives**, (2) as **adverbs**: *only*, *the*, *next*, *still*, *ill*, *enough*, *half*, *near*, *past*, *like*, *very*, *long*, *clean*.

6. Explain the meaning and use of the italicised words in the following sentences:

(*a*) "*Whilome* in Albion's isle there dwelt a youth."

(*b*) "The *whilome* daughter of Lucrece."

(*c*) "I was chained grievously and beaten with a Turkish sword *flatling*."

(*d*) "The wakeful bird sings *darkling*."

(*e*) "If thou doubt, the beasts will tear thee *piecemeal*."

(*f*) "He *never* yet *no* vileinye (=churlish word) *ne* sayde (=said) in all his lyfe" (=life).

(*g*) "*Needs* must when the devil drives."

CHAPTER XVI.

THE PREPOSITION.

Definition.—A **Preposition** is a word which when placed before a noun or a pronoun denotes some relation in which a thing, or some action or attribute of a thing, stands to something else. In, 'I saw a cloud in the sky,' *in* is a

preposition, and marks the relation (of place) in which the *cloud* stands to the *sky*. In 'Tom peeped through the keyhole,' *through* denotes the relation (of movement from one side to the other) of the *act of peeping* to the *keyhole*. In 'He is fond of music,' *of* denotes the relation of the attribute *fond* to *music*. The noun or pronoun which follows a preposition is in the objective case, and is said to be governed by the preposition.

Things and their actions and attributes can only bear relations to other things. Therefore a preposition can only be placed before a word that stands for a *thing*, that is, a *substantive*. It connects the noun or pronoun which follows it with a preceding substantive, verb, or adjective.

CLASSIFICATION OF PREPOSITIONS.

Prepositions may be arranged in the following classes:

1. **Simple Prepositions.**

at	forth	of *or* off	till
by	from	on	to
for	in	through	up
		with	

2. **Prepositions derived from Adverbs.**

(*a*) **By a comparative suffix.**

after	over	under

(*b*) **By prefixing a preposition to an adverb.**

abaft	afore	beneath	throughout
above	before	beyond	underneath
about	behind	but	within
		without	

3. **Prepositions formed by prefixing a preposition to a noun or an adjective used substantively.**

aboard (=on board)	aslant
across (from Fr. *croix*)	astride
adown *or* down	athwart
against	below
along	beside *or* besides (=by side)
amid *or* amidst	between (='by two')
among *or* amongst	inside
anent	outside, etc.
around *or* round	

4. **Prepositions formed by prefixing an adverbial particle to a preposition:**

into	until	upon	without
onto	unto	within	throughout

In O.E. passive and other verbs might be used impersonally without a subject of any kind, simply to affirm that *an action takes place.* Participles are often employed impersonally in exactly the same manner, as, "Speaking generally, this will be found true"; "Barring accidents, we shall arrive to-morrow." Participles thus used are sometimes wrongly set down as prepositions, as *concerning*, *considering*, *respecting*, etc. In some cases these active participles have supplanted passive participles which qualified the noun. Thus, "considering his conduct" was "his conduct considered," just as we still say, "All things considered." *Notwithstanding*, *pending*, and *during* are participles qualifying the noun that follows in the nominative absolute. *Save* (Fr. *sauf*) and *except* are of French origin, and are remnants of Latin ablatives absolute. In old English, *out-taken* is found for *except.* In Shakspere we still find *excepted*; "Always excepted my dear Claudio."

Relations indicated by Prepositions.

The principal **relations** which prepositions indicate are those of **place**, **time**, and **causality**.

Prepositions were first used to express relation in *space*, then they were applied to relation in *time*, and lastly were used metaphorically to mark relations of *causality* or *modality.*

By means—(1) 'Alongside of,' or 'close to,' as 'Sit *by* me'; 'The path runs *by* the river'; 'We went *by* your house.' (2) If I arrive *by* ten o'clock, the time of my arrival is *close to* or *just before* ten o'clock. *By* and *by* properly denotes a time *close to* the present. (3) It is natural to seek the doer or instrument of an act in close neighbourhood to the locality of the action. Hence *by* came to denote the agent or instrument.

For in O.E. means '*in front of*,' '*before.*' From the idea of *standing in front of* came first that of *defending*, as when we say, 'To fight *for* one's king'; and then that of *representing* or *taking the place of. Exchange* passes into the sense of *requital*, as 'He was punished *for* the crime'; or of *purpose*, as 'I do this *for* your good.'

Of and **off** are only various modes of writing and pronouncing the same word. The word indicates *movement* or *separation from* something, as in 'Get *off* that chair'; 'He comes *of* a good stock'; 'To buy *of* a person'; '*Of* a child,' *i.e.* '*from* the time when he was a child.'

That which comes from a thing was a part of it, or belonged to it in some way. Hence: 1. *Of* is used in the *partitive* sense, as in 'A piece *of* cheese,' etc. 2. *Of* denotes *possession*, as in 'The house of my father.'

A thing is made *from* the material of which it is composed. Hence we say, 'A bar *of* iron'; 'A stack *of* corn.' From denoting the *material* of a thing, prepositions came to denote the constitution or characteristic of a thing, as in 'A man *of* high rank'; 'A person *of* great wealth.'

A man's acts, works, or productions come *from* him. Hence we say 'He was led *of* the Spirit,' and speak of 'a play *of* Shakspere.'

A result springs *from* a cause. Hence *of* marks the *cause* or *ground* of an action or feeling, as in 'To die *of* a broken heart'; 'Fond *of*'; 'weary *of*,' etc.

To (spelt **too** in some of its adverbial uses) denotes the point to which a movement is directed, or (metaphorically) the object or purpose of some action (as in 'He came *to see* me'; 'They came *to* dinner').

With. The ancient meaning of *with* is *from*, which we still preserve in *withhold* and *withdraw*. The notion of *separation* passed into that of *opposition*, from which *with* derived its ordinary O.E. meaning of 'against,' still maintained in '*withstand*,' '*to be angry with*,' etc. *Opposition* implies *proximity*, and *proximity* suggests *association*, and so *with* came by its modern sense, as in 'Come *with* us.' In this sense it denotes *attendant circumstances* (as in 'I will come *with* pleasure'). Among the attendant circumstances of an action is the instrument with which it is performed.

With has supplanted the old preposition **mid** (=German *mit*).

Most of the above words are adverbs as well as prepositions.

EXERCISES.

1. Make five sentences in which a preposition shows the relation of a *thing* to a *thing*; five, in which it shows the relation of an *action* to a *thing*; and five in which it shows the relation of an *attribute* to a *thing*.

2. Form sentences so as to show what preposition is used after each of the following words: *die, addicted, differ, averse, angry, unworthy, associate, exchange, adjacent, amalgamate, parallel, synonymous, harmonise, endue, prodigal* (adj.), *desist, consist, persist, respect* (noun), *assent, conducive, subversive*.

3. Form sentences in which the words *on, off, behind, above, before, down*, are used (1) as prepositions, (2) as adverbs.

4. Explain the notion expressed by the preposition *in* in each of the following examples of its use:

He will return *in* five minutes.
Cambridge is *in* England.
He is skilled *in* medicine.
Do you believe *in* your doctor?
In doing this there is great reward.
He travels *in* 'soft goods.'
He has been brought up *in* luxury.
He stood there *in* all his dignity.

CHAPTER XVII.

THE CONJUNCTION: THE INTERJECTION.

CONJUNCTION.

Conjunctions are so called because they join words and sentences **together** (Lat. *con* = 'together,' *jungo* = 'I join'); but a word is not necessarily a conjunction because it does this. *Who*, *which*, and *that* are connective words which are pronouns. *When*, *where*, *as*, etc., are connective words which are adverbs.

Definition.—Conjunctions are connective words, which have neither a pronominal nor an adverbial signification.

Prepositions show the relation of one *notion* to another. Conjunctions show the relation of one *thought* to another. Hence conjunctions for the most part join one sentence to another.

CLASSIFICATION OF CONJUNCTIONS.

Conjunctions are of two kinds.

1. **Co-ordinative Conjunctions.**
2. **Subordinative Conjunctions.**

Co ordinative Conjunctions are those which unite either co-ordinate clauses (*i.e.* clauses of which neither is dependent on the other, or enters into its construction), or words which

stand in the same relation to some other word in the sentence. They may be subdivided according to their meaning into

1. **Simple Conjunctions** :—*and, both.*
2. **The Adversative** or **exceptive conjunction** :—*but.*
3. **Alternative Conjunctions** :—*either—or ; neither—nor.*

Both is the numeral adjective used as a conjunction.

Either is the distributive word which represents the earlier *awther* or *outher* used as a conjunction. **Or** is an abbreviation of it. With the negative *ne* these give *neither—nor.*

But has ousted the older conjunction *ac. But* was first a preposition meaning *without* or *except*, as in 'All but one.' When followed (like other prepositions) by a sentence stating a fact, instead of a noun or pronoun denoting a person or thing, it produced such constructions as "No man knoweth but my Father only [knows]," *i.e.* 'leaving out the case that my Father knows.' From this *exceptive* sense it passed easily into the *adversative* sense.

Subordinative Conjunctions are those which unite sentences of which one is in a relation of dependence upon the other, that is to say, *enters into its construction with the force of a substantive, an adjective, or an adverb.*

Subordinative Conjunctions may be subdivided into

1. **The Simple Conjunction of Subordination** :—*that.*
2. **Temporal Conjunctions**, or conjunctions that express relations of Time :—*after, before, ere, till, while, since, now.*
3. **Causal Conjunctions**, or such as relate to purpose or consequence :—*because, since, for, lest, that.*
4. **Hypothetical Conjunctions** :—*if, an, unless, except*, etc.
5. **Concessive Conjunctions** :—*though, although, albeit.*
6. **Alternative Conjunctions** :—*whether—or.*
7. **The Conjunction of Comparison** :—*than.*

That was originally simply the neuter demonstrative pronoun used as the representative of a sentence to show its grammatical relation to some other sentence. Thus "I know that he said so" is virtually "He said so. I know *that*." Clauses introduced by it may be the subjects or objects of verbs, or come after prepositions, as "In that He hath suffered being tempted" (*Heb.* ii. 18) ; "The sky would pour down stinking pitch, but that the sea dashes the fire out" (*Temp.* I. 2, 4).

Unless is a compound of *on* and *less*. The older phrase was 'upon less than,' an imitation of *à moins que*. "He will be ruined unless you help him" means 'if matters *fall short of* (or 'stop at *less* than') your helping him, he will be ruined.'

The Temporal Conjunctions **after, before**, etc., and the conjunction **for** were originally prepositions governing a substantive clause beginning with *that*. When the conjunction *th* ..s retained, *after*, *before*, etc., had better still be regarded as prepositions.

Because was originally 'by the cause that,' **while** was 'the while that' (*while=hwil='time'*), *that* introducing a substantive clause in apposition to the noun *cause* or *while*. **Now that** became the conjunction **now** in a similar way. **Albeit** (*all-be-it*) is a short concessive or imperative sentence.

Than originally meant *when*. It was employed to introduce an elliptical sentence expressing the standard of compa.ison. "He came sooner than I expected" meant "When I expected [him to come soon] he came sooner," "John is taller than Charles" meant "When Charles [is tall], *i.e.* when the tallness of Charles is regarded, John is taller." But the real meaning of *than* has so entirely evaporated, that it may now be regarded as a Conjunction.

INTERJECTION.

Interjections are words which are used to express some emotion of the mind, but do not enter into the construction of sentences; as, *Oh! O! Ah! Ha! Alas! Fie! Pshaw! Hurrah!*

In written language interjections are usually followed by what is called a mark of admiration (!).

EXERCISES.

1. "Conjunctions, *for the most part*, join one sentence to another."

Point out the conjunctions in the following sentences, and show whether they *do* or *do not* join one sentence to another:

(*a*) Two and three make five.

(*b*) No one knows the secret but Smith.

(*c*) Either the secretary or the treasurer will have to resign.

(*d*) Tom sat between John and James.

(*e*) The farmer and his wife have gone to market.

2. Form sentences to illustrate the use of *albeit*, *now*, *ere*, *whether ... or*, *lest*, *except* as subordinative conjunctions.

3. Show what part of speech *that* is in each of the following sentences:

Show me that picture. He did not say that. That book is mine. He is the very man that I want. Play me the tune that I like so much. He says that we shall never succeed. He does that that he may vex me. I am afraid that he says that, that he may deceive me. They that will be rich fall into temptation. There is not a man here that I can trust. I lent you that book that you might read it. I hear that he has lost that book that I lent him. You ought to know that that '*that*' that you see at the beginning of the clause is a conjunction, because I told you that before.

CHAPTER XVIII.

WORD-BUILDING.

COMPOSITION AND DERIVATION.

WORDS may be divided into two classes—*primary* words, and *secondary* or *derivative* words.

A word is a *primary* word when it does not admit of being resolved into simpler elements; as *man*, *horse*, *run*.

A word is a *secondary* word when it is made up of significant parts, which exist either separately or in other combinations.

Secondary words are formed partly by *Composition*, partly by *Derivation*.

COMPOSITION.

A word is a *compound* word when it is made up of two or more parts, each of which is a significant word by itself; as *apple-tree*, *tea-spoon*, *spend-thrift*.

All compounds admit of being divided primarily into two words; but one of these may itself be a compound word, so that the entire word may be separated into three or four words; as *midshipman*

(made up of *man* and *midship*, *midship* being itself made up of *mid* and *ship*).

In most compound words it is the first word which modifies the meaning of the second. *Rosebush* means a particular kind of *bush*, namely, one that bears roses. The accent is placed upon the modifying word when the amalgamation is complete. When the two elements of the compound are only partially blended, a hyphen is put between them, and the accent falls equally on both parts of the compound, as in *knee-deep*. *Composition* is accompanied by *limitation* of significance. Compare *red breast* and *redbreast*, *monk's hood* and *monkshood*.

A.—Compound Nouns.

Compound Nouns exhibit the following combinations:

1. A noun preceded by a noun, as *haystack*, *cornfield*, *oaktree*, *teaspoon*. The first noun may be a defining genitive, as *swordsman*.

2. A noun preceded and modified by an adjective, as *roundhead*, *blackbird*, *quicksilver*, *Northampton*, *midday*, *midriff*. *Twilight* (*twi=two*), *fortnight* (i.e. *fourteen nights*), *sennight* (i.e. *seven nights*) are from numerals.

3. A noun preceded by a verb of which it is the object, as *stop-gap*, *pickpocket*, *makeweight*, *turncock*, *wagtail*, *spitfire*.

4. A noun denoting an agent preceded by what would be the object of the corresponding verb, as *man-slayer*, *peace-maker*.

5. A gerund preceded by a governed noun, as *wire-pulling*.

6. A verb preceded by a noun, as *godsend* (very rare).

7. A noun preceded by an adverb, which modifies (adverbially) the noun, when that denotes an action, as *forethought*, *neighbour* (O.E. *neah-bûr*='one who dwells near'), *off-shoot*, *aftertaste*, *by-path*.

8. A noun preceded and governed by a preposition, as *forenoon*.

9. A verb preceded or followed by an adverb which modifies it, as *inlet*, *welfare*, *onset*, *go-between*, *standstill*, *income*.

B.—Compound Adjectives.

Compound Adjectives exhibit the following combinations:

1. An adjective preceded by a noun, which qualifies it adverbially as *sky-blue*, *fire-new*, *pitch-dark*, *blood-red*, *ankle-deep*, *breast-high*, *head-strong*, *childlike*, *hopeful* (and other compounds of *full*, once formed with the noun in the genitive, as *willesful=wilful*), *shamefaced* (originally *shamefast*), *steadfast*.

2. The adjective in these compounds is often a participle, as in *seafaring*, *bed-ridden*, *heart-broken*, *tempest-tossed*, *sea-girt*, etc.

3. An imperfect participle preceded by its object, as *tale bearing*, *heart-rending*, *time-serving*, etc.

4. An adjective or participle preceded by a simple adverb, as *upright*, *downright*, *under-done*, *out-spoken*, *inborn*, *almighty*.

5. A noun preceded by an adjective, as *barefoot*, *twofold*, *manifold*, a *three-bottle* man, a *twopenny* cake, a *three-foot* rule. (Compare the nick-names *Hotspur*, *Longshanks*, *Roundhead*, etc.) In modern English these compounds have taken the participial ending, *bare-legged*, *one-eyed*, etc.

C.—Compound Verbs.

These present the following combinations:

1. A verb preceded by a separable adverb, as *overdo*, *understand*.

2. A verb preceded by its object, as *back-bite*, *brow-beat*.

3. A verb preceded by its complement, as *white wash*, *rough-hew*.

4. A verb followed by an adverb, as *don=do* or *put on*, *doff=do* or *put off*, *dout* or *douse=do out*, *dup=do up*. (Comp. Germ. *aufthun*.)

DERIVATION.

Most words in all languages have been built up by the combination of simpler elements. Words generally admit of being arranged in groups, all the words belonging to each of which have a certain portion which is common to all, and which represents a certain fundamental notion.

Thus, *love* is common to all the words [*he*] *loves*, *loving*, *lover*, *loveable*, *lovely*, *loveless*, etc. So in Latin, *fac* is common to *facio*, *feci*, *factum*, *factor*, *efficio*, *factio*, *facies*, etc. This common fundamental part of a group of words is called a *root*.

In the course of time a large number of the formative elements by which words have been formed from roots, or from other words, have lost their independent existence and significance, and have been reduced to mere prefixes and suffixes; and frequently have vanished altogether.

Derivation, in the wider sense of the term, includes all processes by which words are formed from roots, or from other words. In practice, however, *derivation* excludes *composition*, which is the putting together of words both or all of which retain an independent existence, and *inflexion*, which is the name given to those changes in certain classes of words by which the varieties of their *grammatical* relations are indicated.

The addition of a syllable for inflexion or derivation often causes the weakening of the vowel sound of a preceding syllable. Compare *nā́tion* with *nā́tional*; *vain* with *vanity*; *child* with *children*; *cock* with *chicken*; *long* with *linger*; *old* with *elder*; *broad* with *breadth*. A weakened vowel sound marks a derived word.

DERIVATION BY MEANS OF TEUTONIC PREFIXES AND SUFFIXES.

DERIVED NOUNS.

Noun Prefixes of Teutonic Origin.

1. **un**; as in *unrest*, *undress*.

2. **mis**; as in *misdeed*, *mishap*, *mistrust*, *misconduct*. This prefix (connected with the verb **miss**, and the Old English **mys**=*evil*) implies error or fault in the action referred to. In many words of Romance origin, as *mischance*, *mis*=Old French *mes*, from Lat. *minus*.

Noun Suffixes of Teutonic Origin.

1. Suffixes denoting a person or the doer of an action.

-er or **-ar**; *singer*, *baker*, *beggar*, *liar*.

-ster (originally denoting female agent); *spinster*, *maltster*, *lapster*.

-ter, **-ther**, **-der**; *father*, *daughter*, *spider* (=*spinder* or *spinner*).

-nd (old imperfect participle), *fiend*, *friend*.

2. Suffixes denoting an instrument.

-el, **-le**; *shovel*, *girdle*, *shuttle*.

-ter, **-der**; *ladder*, *rudder*.

3. Suffixes forming Abstract Nouns.

-dom (connected with *deem* and *doom*, implying condition or sphere of action); *kingdom*, *earldom*, *thraldom*, *martyrdom*, *Christendom*.

-hood, **-head** (O.E.=person, state, condition); *manhood*, *priesthood*, *childhood*, *godhead*.

-red (O.E. *rǽd*=counsel, power, state); *hatred*, *kindred*.

-ship, **-scape**, **-skip** (denoting *shape*, *fashion*); *friendship*, *hardship*, **worship** (i.e. *worth-ship*), *landscape* or *landskip*.

-ing; *hunting*, *blessing*, *flooring*, *clothing*.

-ness; *redness*, *goodness*, *witness*.

-th, **-t**, **-(s)t**, **-d**; *growth*, *health*, *death* (die), *gift*, *might* (**may**), *theft*, *flight*, *rift* (rive), *mirth* (merry), *trust*, *flood*.

4. Suffixes forming Diminutives.

-en; *maiden*, *kitten*, *chicken* (cock).

-el, **-le**; *satchel* (sack), *paddle* (=spaddle, from spade).

-rel; *cockerel*, *mongrel*, *gangrel*, *wastrel*.

kin; *lambkin*, *pipkin*, *mannikin*, *Perkin* (=*Peterkin*), *Tomkin*, *Wilkin*, etc.

-ling; *duckling*, *kidling*, *darling*, *suckling*, *hireling*, *starveling*.

-ock; *hillock*, *bullock*, *ruddock* (robin red-breast), *pinnock* (tom-tit), *Pollock* (Paul), *Baldock* (Baldwin), etc.

-y, **-ie**, **ey**; *daddy*, *Annie*, *Charley* or *Charlie*.

5. Patronymics.

-ing (=son of); *Browning*. Common in O.E., as *Elising* (son of *Elisa* or *Elisha*). **-kin**, **-s**, **-ock**, and the possessive **-s** are also used in patronymics; *Wilkin*, *Wilson*, *Wilkins*, *Pollock*.

DERIVED ADJECTIVES.

Adjective Prefixes of Teutonic Origin.

1. **a**; *alive*, *aweary*.

2. **a**; a corruption of *ge*,—*alike*=*gelic*.

3. **un** (negative, not the same as the *un* in verbs); *unwise*, *untrue*, and before Romance words, as *uncourteous*.

Adjective Suffixes (Teutonic).

-ed; the common participial suffix. Also added to nouns, as in *ragged*, *wretched left-handed*, etc.

-en or **-n** (used also as a participial suffix); *wooden*, *golden*, *linen* (from *lin*=*flax*), *heathen* (a dweller on the *heath*), *green*, *fain*, etc.

-er or **-r**; *bitter*, *lither*, *fair*.

-ern (a compound of the two last); *northern southern*, etc.

-el or **le**; *fickle*, *little*, *brittle*, *idle*.

-ard or **-art** (=*hard* gives an intensive force) added to adjectives and verbs, as *dullard*, *drunkard*, *laggard*, *dotard*, *braggart*, *blinkard*, *stinkard*, *coward* (*codardo* from Lat. *cavda*; properly a dog that runs away with his *tail* between his legs).

-ish, **-sh**, **-ch**, added to nouns to denote 'belonging to,' 'having the qualities of,' as *swinish*, *slavish*, *foolish*, *Romish*, *Turkish*, *Welsh*, *French*. Comp. Germ. *-sch*. Added to adjectives it naturally gives a diminutive force, as *blackish*, *dullish*.

-less (O.E. *leas*=*loose*, *free*, *from*, *without*); *heedless*, *senseless*, *lawless*.

-ly (a corruption of *like*), added (of course) to nouns; *godly, heavenly, ghastly* (from *ghost*), *manly*.

-some, added to verbs and adjectives to denote the presence of the quality that they indicate; *winsome, buxom* (from *bugan* = *to yield*), *tiresome, quarrelsome, wholesome, blithesome, fulsome*.

-th or **d** (originally a superlative suffix), in numerals; *third, fourth*, etc.

-y = O.E. **-ig**, added usually to nouns to indicate the presence of that for which the noun stands; *greedy, bloody, needy, thirsty, moody, sorry* (*sore*), *dirty*, etc. Added to verbs, in *sticky, sundry* (*sunder*), *weary*.

-ward, denoting 'becoming' or 'inclining to'; *northward, froward* (*from*), *toward* (*to*).

DERIVED VERBS.

Verb-Prefixes (Teutonic).

a, meaning formerly *out, away, off*, now merely an *intensive* particle, prefixed to verbs: *arise, abide, awake*.

be (= **by**) denotes the application of an action, or of an attributive idea, to an object, and so (*a*) makes intransitive verbs transitive, as *bemoan, bespeak, bestride, befall*, or (*b*) forms transitive verbs out of adjectives or nouns, as *bedim, begrime* (*grim*), *benumb, becloud, befriend, bedew* or (*c*) strengthens the meaning of transitive verbs as *betake, bestow, bedazzle*.

for (= German *ver*) gives the idea of 'doing out and out,' 'overdoing,' 'doing in a bad or contrary sense.' *Forswear* = 'swear through thick and thin,' 'swear falsely'; *forgive* = 'make a present of without exacting a return or penalty' (Lat. *condonare*); *forbid*; *forget*.

mis, denoting *error* or *defect*, as in *misspell, misbelieve, misgive*. Before Romance words, *misadvise, misdirect*.

un (Gothic *and* = *against, back*, German *ent*) implies the reversal of the action indicated by the simple verb; *unkind, undo, untie*.

Answer (O.E. *andswarian*) has the same prefix; *unbosom, unkennel, unsex*, etc., are formed directly from nouns.

gain (root of *against*, German *gegen*); *gainsay, gainstrive*.

with (meaning *back, against*); *withdraw, withstand, withhold*.

to (= Germ. *zer*; not the preposition *to*); *to brake* ('broke to pieces' is still found in *Judges* ix. 53).

Verb-Suffixes (Teutonic).

-el or **-le** added to the roots of verbs and nouns gives a combined frequentative and diminutive force: *dazzle* (*daze*), *straddle* (*stride*), *shovel* (*shove*), *swaddle* (*swathe*), *dribble* (*drop*), *gamble* (*game*),

waddle (*wade*), *snivel* (*sniff*), *grapple* (*grab*), from nouns—*kneel* (*knee*), *nestle* (*nest*), *sparkle* (*spark*), *throttle* (*throat*), *nibble* (*nib* or *neb*), *curdle*, *scribble* (*scribe*).

-er (giving much the same force as the last); *glimmer* (*gleam*), *wander* (*wend*), *fritter* (*fret*), *flitter* and *flutter* (*flit*).

-k (frequentative); *hark* (*hear*), *talk* (*tell*).

-en forming causative or factitive verbs from nouns and adjectives; as *strengthen*, *lengthen*, *frighten*, *fatten*, *sweeten*, *slacken*.

-se, forming verbs from adjectives; *cleanse*, *rinse* (comp. Germ. *rein*).

Derivatives formed by Modifications of Sound.

Verbs are often formed from nouns by a modification or weakening of the vowel sound, or of the final consonant, or of both. Thus *bind* (from *bond*), *sing* (from *song*), *breed* (*brood*), *feed* (*food*), *knit* (*knot*), *drip* (*drop*), *heal* (*whole*), *calve* (*calf*), *halve* (*half*), *breathe* (*breath*), *bathe* (*bath*), *shelve* (*shelf*), *graze* (*grass*), *glaze* (*glass*), *hitch* (*hook*). The same process is seen in Romance words, as *prize* from *price*, *advise* (*advice*), etc. The weakening was occasioned by verbal suffixes, which have since disappeared.

Transitive (causative) verbs are often formed by a slight **modification or weakening of the root** vowel from intransitive verbs denoting the act or state which the former produce. Thus *fell* (from *fall*), *set* (from *sit*), *raise* (from *rise*), *lay* (*lie*), *drench* (*drink*), *wend* (*wind*), *quell* (*quail*).

A k or **g** sound at the end of words in old English tends to become **softened** in modern English. Compare *dike* and *ditch*, *stink* and *stench*, *wring* and *wrench*, *mark* and *march* (=*boundary*), *lurk* and *lurch*, *bank* and *bench*, *stark* and *starch*, *seek* and *beseech*, *bark* and *barge*, *bake* and *batch*, *stick* and *stitch*, *wake* and *watch*, *tweak* and *twitch*.

The O.E. *sc* tends to become ***sh***. Thus *sceal*, *sceap*, *scapan*, *scip*= *shall*, *sheep*, *shape*, *ship*.

DERIVED WORDS CONTAINING PREFIXES AND SUFFIXES OF LATIN ORIGIN.

Prefixes of Latin Origin.

a, **ab**, **abs** (from *or* away). *Avert*, *abduction*, *abstract*. The *d* in *advance* is an error; Fr. *avancer*, from *ab* and *ante*.

ad (to) found also in the forms *ac*, *al*, *an*, *ap*, *as*, *at*, *a*, according to the consonant that follows it. *Adore*, *accede*, *allude*, *announce*, *appear*, *assent*, *attend*, *aspire*.

amb- or **am-** (round). *Amputate*, *ambiguous*.

ante or **anti** (before). *Antediluviar*, *antecessor* (or *ancestor*), *anticipate*.

circum or **circu** (round). *Circumlocution, circuit.*

con (with), also **com-**, **col-**, **cor-**, **co-**, according to the following consonant. *Conduct, compact, collision, correct, coheir.*

contra, contro (against), often Anglicised into *counter*. *Contravene, controvert, counteract, country-dance = contre-danse.*

de (down, from). *Donate, describe, descend.*

dis (in two, apart), also **dif-**, **di-**, **de-**. *Dissent, differ, dilute, deluge* (*= diluvium*), *depart, demi- = dimidium.* Naturalised and used as a negative before Teutonic words; *disband, disbelieve, distrust.*

ex (out of), **ec-**, **ef-**, **e-**. *Extrude, efface, educe.* Disguised in *astonish* (*étonner = extonare*), *afraid* (*effrayer*), *scourge* (*ex-corrigere*), etc.

extra (beyond). *Extravagant, extraneous, stranger.*

in (in, into), modified to **il-**, **im-**, **ir-**, **en-**, **em-**. *Induce, illusion, impel, irruption, endure, embrace.* Naturalised and used before Teutonic words, *embody, embolden, endear.* Disguised in *anoint* (*in-unctus*).

in (negative). *Insecure, improper, illegitimate, irrational.*

inter, intro (among, within). *Interdict, introduce.*

mis- (Old Fr. *mes* = Lat. **minus**); *mischance* (comp. Fr. *méchant*), *mischief.*

ob, obs (against), **oc-**, **of-**, **op-**. *Oblige, occur, offend, oppose.*

per (through), **pel-**. *Permit, pellucid.* Disguised in *pardon* (*perdonare*), *pilgrim* (Ital. *pellegrino = peregrinus*).

post (after). *Postpone.*

prae or **pre** (before). *Praelection, preface.* Disguised in *provost* (*= prae-positus*).

praeter, preter (past). *Preterite, preternatural.*

pro (forth, before), **pol-**, **por-**, **pur-**. *Promote, pollute, portray, purchase* (*pro-captiare*), *purpose, purveyor.*

re or **red** (back, again). *Redaction, redound, reduce.* Used before Teutonic words in *reset, reopen*, etc.

retro (backwards). Retrograde. *Rear* in *rearward.*

se or **sed** (apart). *Seduce, sed-ition.*

sub or **subs** (under), **suc-**, **suf-**, **sur-** **sus-**. *Subdue, succeed, suffuse, surrogate, suspend.* Disguised in *sojourn* (*sub diurno*). Prefixed to Teutonic words in *sublet*, etc.

subter (beneath). *Subterfuge.*

super (above), **-sur**. *Superscribe, surface* (*= superficies*), *surfeit, surcharge.*

trans or **tra** (beyond). *Translate, tradition.*

ultra (beyond). *Ultramontane.*

Suffixes of Latin Origin.

Suffixes Denoting Persons.

(Doers of actions, persons charged with certain functions, or having to do with that for which the primary word stands):

-tor, -sor, -or, -our, -er (= Latin **ator**): *doctor, successor, emperor, Saviour, founder, enchanter.*

-ant, -ent (participles): *attendant, tenant, agent.*

-er, -eer, -ier, -or, -ary (Lat. **-arius**): *usher* (*ostiarius*), *archer* (*arcuarius*), *farrier* (*ferrarius*), *brigadier, engineer, chancellor, lapidary.*

-ate (Latin **-atus**): *legate, advocate.* Weakened to **-ee, -ey** or **y** in *nominee, committee, attorney, jury* (*juratus*), *deputy* (*deputatus*).

-ess (Lat. **-ensis**): *burgess, Chinese.*

-ess (**-issa**, fem. suffix): *countess, traitress.*

Suffixes forming Abstract Nouns.

-ion, -tion, -sion, -son, -som: *opinion, action, tension, poison* (*potion-*), *ransom* (*redemption-*), *reason, season,* (*sation-*, 'sowing time').

-ance, -ancy, -ence, ency (Lat. **-antia, -entia**): *distance, infancy, continence, decency.*

-age (**-agium** = **-aticum**): *age, voyage* (*viaticum*), *homage, marriage, tillage, bondage, breakage,* etc.

-ty, -ity (Lat. **-tat, -itat-**): *vanity, cruelty, city* (*civitat-*).

-tude: *fortitude, magnitude.*

-our (Lat. **-or**): *labour, ardour, honour.*

-y (Lat. **-ia**): *misery, memory.* Preceded by *t* or *s*, **-tia** or **-sia** = **-cy** or **-ce**, *aristocracy, fancy, grace.*

-ice, -ess (Lat. **-itia** or **-itium**): *avarice, justice, duress* (*duritia*), *service, exercise.*

-ure: *verdure, culture, picture, censure.*

-e (Lat. **-ium**): *exile, homicide.*

-se, -ce, -s (Lat. **-sus**): *case, advice, process.*

Suffixes denoting the Means or Instrument.

-ble, -bule: *stable, vestibule.*

-cle, -cre: *obstacle, vehicle, tabernacle, lucre, sepulchre.*

-ter, -tre: *cloister, theatre.*

-me, -m, -n (Lat. **-men**): *volume, charm, leaven, noun.*

-ment: *ornament, pigment.* Also forming abstract nouns, as *movement, payment.*

Suffixes forming Diminutives.

-ule: *globule, pillule.*

-el, -le, -l (Lat. **-ulus, -a, -um**; **allus, -ellus, -illus**): *chapel, libel, table, circle, castle, chancel, sam(p)le* (*exemplum*).

-cle. -cel, -sel (Lat. **culus**, etc., **cellus**, etc.): *carbuncle, article, parcel, damsel.*

-et, -let (Romance, but of obscure origin): *owlet, ballet, pocket, armlet, cutlet, streamlet.*

Suffixes forming Augmentatives.

-oon, -one, -on: *balloon, trombone, million, flagon.*

Suffixes having a Collective or Generic Sense.

-ery, -ry, -er (Lat. **-aria** *or* **-eria**): *nunnery, carpentry, chivalry, cavalry, river* (*riparia*), *gutter* (channel for *guttae*, 'drops').

Suffixes forming Adjectives.

(Many of these adjectives have become substantives in English.)

-al: *legal, regal, general, comical* (passing into **-el** in *channel—canal*), *hotel, jewel*, or **-le** in *cattle* (*capitalia*).

-an, -ane, -ain, -en, -on (Lat. **anus**): *pagan, mundane, certain, mizzen* (*medianus*), *surgeon, sexton.*

-ain, -aign, -eign, -ange (Lat. **-aneus**): *mountain, champaign, foreign*, (*foraneus*), *strange* (*extraneus*).

-ar: *regular, singular.*

-ary, -arious (Lat. **-arius**): *necessary, gregarious.* Nouns: *salary, granary*, etc.

-ian: *Christian.*

-ine, -im: *feminine, feline, divine, pilgrim* (Ital. *pellegrino*, from *peregrinus*).

-ant, -ent (participles): *volant, fluent, patent.*

-ate, -ete, -eet, -ite, -ute, -te, -t (from Latin participles and adjectives): *innate, concrete, discreet, erudite, hirsute, statute, polite, chaste, honest.* These adjective formations often become nouns, as *mandate, minute, fact, effect*, etc.

-ile, -il, -eel, -le, -el (Lat. **-ilis** and **-ilis**): *fragile, senile, civil, frail, genteel, gentle, able, kennel* (*canile*).

-able, -ible. -ble: *culpable, edible, feeble* (*flebilis*), old French *floible, teachable.*

-ic, -ique: *civic, public, unique.*

-ous, -ose (full of, abounding in): *copious, verbose, grandiose, jocose, famous.*

-ous (Lat. -us): *anxious, omnivorous, murderous.*

-acious: *mendacious, loquacious, vivacious.*

-ious or **-y** (Lat. ius, after *tor* and *sor*): *censorious, amatory, illusory.*

-id: *fervid, timid, hurried.*

-ive, -iff (commonly after *t* and *s* of the perfect participle): *captive, caitiff, plaintiff, indicative, adoptive, restive.*

-estrial, -estrian (Lat. **-estris**): *terrestrial, equestrian.*

Verb Suffixes.

-fy (**-ficare**, forming compounds rather than derivatives): *terrify.*

-ish (**-esco**, through the French inchoative conjugation in *-ir, -issant*): *banish, punish*, etc.

There are two principal modes in which verbs are formed in English from Latin verbs. One mode is to take simply the crude form of the infinitive mood or present tense, without any suffix; as *intend, defend, incline, opine.* The second mode is to turn the perfect participle passive (slightly modified) into a verb, as *create* (from *creatus*), *conduct* (from *conductus*), *credit* (from *creditus*), *expedite* (*expeditus*), *incense* (from *incensus*). When derivatives are formed by both methods, one generally retains one of the meanings of the original verb, the other another. Compare *deduce* and *deduct; conduce* and *conduct; construe* and *construct; revert* and *reverse.*

Nouns (or adjectives) and verbs of Latin origin are often the same in form, but are distinguished by the accent, the noun or adjective having the accent on the first syllable, the verb on the second.

Noun.	*Verb.*	*Noun or Adjective.*	*Verb.*
ácc**e**nt	acc**é**nt	óbj**e**ct	obj**é**ct
áffix	affíx	próduce	produ**c**e
cóllect	collé**c**t	fréquent	frequ**é**nt
cóncert	concé**r**t	ábsent	absé**n**t

GREEK PREFIXES.

The following prefixes are found in words of Greek origin:

a or **an** (not): *anarchy.*

amphi (on both sides, *or* round): *amphibious, amphitheatre.*

ana (up): *Anabasis, anatomy, analogy.*

anti (against): *antithesis, antipathy.*

apo (from): *apogee, apology.*
cata (down): *catalepsy, catastrophe.*
di (two, or in two): *disyllable, diphthong.*
dia (through, among): *diameter, diaphanous.*
en or **em** (in or on): *emphasis, enema.*
epi (upon): *epilogue, epitaph*
ec or **ex** (out of): *exodus, ecstatic.*
hyper (over): *hyperbolical.*
hypo (under): *hypotenuse, hypothesis.*
meta (implying change): *metamorphosis.*
para (beside): *parabola, paraphrase.*
peri (round): *peristyle, perimeter.*
pro (before): *program.*
pros (to): *prosody.*
syn (with, together), modified into *sym* or *syl*: *synodic, syntax, symbol, syllogism, syllable.*
eu (well): *euphony, eulogy.*

GREEK SUFFIXES.

The following suffixes mark words of Greek origin:

-e: *catastrophe.*
-y (=-ια): *anatomy, monarchy.*
-ad or **-id**: *Iliad, Æneid, Troad.*
-ic, -tic: *logic, cynic, ethics, arithmetic.*
-ac: *maniac, Syriac.*
-sis, -sy, -se (=-σις): *crisis, emphasis, palsy, (paralysis), hypocrisy, phrensy, eclipse.*
-ma: *diorama, enema.*
-tre, -ter (=-τρον): *centre, meter.*
-st: *iconoclast, sophist, baptist.*
-te, -t (=-της): *apostate, comet, patriot.*
-sm: *sophism, spasm, aneurism.*
-isk: *asterisk, obelisk.*
-ize (in verbs): *baptize, criticize.* This termination and its derivatives have been imitated in modern formations, as *minimize, theorize, deism, egotism, egotist, annalist, papist.*

EXERCISES.

1. Show the **force** and **origin** of the prefix in the following words: *Irresistible, discretion, emigration, opponent, aversion, incensed, accustom, obsequious, ignorance, antiphony, ecclesiastical, withdrawal, episcopacy, unnatural, prelude, unanimous, estrangement, behead, unravel, secession, forlorn, foresee, abstain.*

2. Analyse each of the following words into its component parts, showing the prefixes and suffixes, and the force and origin of each:

[*Example*—*i*[illegible]**ibility**

Prefixes.	Root.	Suffixes.
1. *in-* not (Lat.)	-cess-	1. *-ible*, forming adjective (Lat.)
2. *ac-* = *ad* to (Lat.)		2. *-ity*, forming abstract noun (Lat.).]

unsympathetic, unreasonableness, undenominationalism, independency, indestructibility, periphrastic, disyllabic, commemorative, transubstantiation, anti-episcopalian, unremunerative, indemnification, perspicacious, impoverishment, obsequiousness, aggrandisement.

3. A word composed of parts taken from different languages is called a **Hybrid**. Thus *socialism* = *soci-* (Lat.) *-al* (Lat.) *-ism* (Greek).

Show which of the words in Question 2 are Hybrids.

4. Form (by adding or changing prefixes or suffixes) words having contrary meanings to the following: *Appear, conjunctive, resolute, implicit, benevolence, liberal, romantic, legal, respect, capable, senseless, organise, similar, ingress, practicable, encourage, repute, exact, credit, perishable, loyal, remorseful, exhale, mature, homogeneous, pitiful, mount.*

5. Explain the force of the suffixes in the following words, and give one other example of each suffix: *Glob-ule, aud-ible, priva-cy, peasant-ry, pian-ist, song-ster, length-en, flax-en, chick-en, verb-ose, man-ly, magni-tude, legat-ee, forbear-ance, duck-ling, boy-ish.*

6. Write the nouns indicating the **agent** corresponding to the following nouns and verbs [*Ex.* library—**librarian**]:

Apply, transgress, tactics, violin, pamphlet, barge, chapel, gondola, choir, law, magic, intercede, fur, grammar, complain, piano, execute, complete, fruit, pun.

7. By means of a suffix turn each of the following words into an abstract noun: *Warm, likely, fanatic, desolate, hardy, turbulent, rival, accurate, certain, prompt, impetuous, covetous, supreme, dense, sober, discreet, high, authentic, grand, moist.*

8. Show how many degrees of **diminutiveness** are contained in the description—

"A peerie wee bit o' a mannikinie." (*Carlyle.*)

9. Turn each of the following words into a verb by means of a suffix: *Pat, daze, prate, shove, sniff, wade, wend, origin, magnet, person, threat, accent, solid, solemn, deep, brutal, public, invalid.*

10. Form adjectives corresponding to the following names of places and persons: *Norway, Peru, Alsace, Troy, Paris, Genoa, Iceland, Siam, Damascus, Florence, Socrates, Chaucer, Saturn, Calvin, Byron, Shakespeare, Moses. Buddha, Luther, Quixote*

PART III.

SYNTAX.

CHAPTER XIX.

SENTENCES: CLASSIFICATION.

RELATION OF WORDS TO ONE ANOTHER.

THE word **syntax** means **arrangement** (Greek, *syn*, together, *taxis*, arrangement). The rules of syntax are statements of the ways in which the words of a sentence are related to each other.

A **sentence** is a collection of words of such kinds, and arranged in such a manner, as to make some complete sense.

By "making some complete sense" is meant, that *something is said about something.*

Obs. The terms *phrase*, *clause*, and *sentence*, which will constantly be used in this section of the book, must be carefully distinguished.

The term *sentence* has been defined above.

A **clause** is a collection of words containing a subject and a predicate. It forms part of a sentence and stands to it in the relation of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

A **phrase** is a collection of words without a finite verb, and is used in an adjectival or in an adverbial relation to some word in a sentence.

Compare the following:

(i) He has finished his work *satisfactorily* (adverb).
(ii) „ „ „ „ *to the satisfaction of everybody* (adverbial phrase).
(iii) „ „ „ „ *so that everybody is satisfied* (adverbial clause).
(iv) „ „ „ „ *and everybody is satisfied* (sentence co-ordinate with the first part).

It is plain that every ordinary sentence must consist of two essential parts:

1. That which denotes what we speak about. This is called **the subject.**

2. That which is said about that of which we speak. This is called the **predicate.**

In Logic, the **subject** of a proposition is **the** *entire description* of that which is spoken of, the **predicate** is *all that is employed* to represent the idea which is connected with the subject. Thus in "This boy's father gave him a book," the subject is 'this boy's father,' the predicate is 'gave him a book.' But in grammar the single noun *father* is called the subject and *gave* the predicate, the words connected with *father* and *gave* being treated as enlargements or adjuncts of the subject and predicate.

Whenever we speak of anything, we make it a separate object of thought. A word, or combination of words, that can stand for anything which we make a separate object of thought, is called **a substantive.**

It follows that the **subject** of a sentence must be a **substantive.**

The **subject** of a sentence therefore may be:

1. A **Noun**, as, *Boys* like football.

2. A **Substantive Pronoun**. *We* were beaten.

3. An **Infinitive Mood**. *To see* such things pains me.

4. A **Gerund** or **Verbal Noun**. *Riding* is a healthy exercise.

5. **Any word which is itself made the subject of discourse,** every word being *a name for itself*. *In* is a preposition.

6. A **phrase or quotation**; a phrase being, to all intents and purposes, *a name for itself*. *Waste not, want not* is a good maxim

7. **A Substantive Clause**, that is, a clause which, in its relation to the rest of the sentence, has the force of a single substantive. *That he has arrived* is certain.

The essential part of every affirmation is a finite verb (*i.e.*, a verb in some one of its *personal* forms).

The **subject** and the **verb** are the **cardinal points** of every sentence. All other words in a sentence are attached directly or indirectly to one or other of these two

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES.

Sentences are of three kinds:

A. Simple. B. Complex. C. Compound.

When a sentence contains only one subject and one finite verb, it is said to be a **simple** sentence.

When a sentence contains not only a principal subject and its verb, but also other dependent or subordinate clauses which have subjects and verbs of their own, the sentence is said to be **complex.**

When a sentence consists of two or more principal and independent sentences connected by co-ordinative conjunctions, it is said to be **compound.**

Sentences may also be arranged as **Declarative, Interrogative, Imperative,** and **Conceptive Sentences.**

The subject of a sentence stands for something that we think of; the predicate denotes some fact or idea which may be connected with that thing. But this union may be viewed in more ways than one.

1. When it is our intention to declare that the connexion between what the subject stands for and what the predicate stands for, *does* exist, the sentence is **declarative**; as, "Thomas left the room."

2. When it is our wish to know whether the connexion referred to subsists, the sentence is **interrogative**; as, "Did Thomas leave the room?"

3. When we express our *will* or *wish* that the connexion between what the subject stands for and what the predicate denotes, should subsist, the sentence that results is called an

imperative or **optative** sentence; as, "Thomas, leave [thou] the room," "May you speedily recover."

4. When we merely *think* of the connexion as subsisting without declaring or willing it, we get a **conceptive** sentence. Sentences of this kind can only be used in combination with others, as, "*If he were here*, he would think differently."

In all the above-named kinds of sentences, the *grammatical* connexion between the subject and the verb is the same. It is sufficient, therefore, to take one as a type of all. The declarative sentence is the most convenient for this purpose.

RELATION OF WORDS TO ONE ANOTHER.

The modes in which the various words and groups of words in a sentence are related to each other may be classed as follows:

1. **The Predicative Relation.**
2. **The Attributive Relation.**
3. **The Objective Relation.**
4. **The Adverbial Relation.**

THE PREDICATIVE RELATION.

The **Predicative Relation** is that in which the predicate of a sentence stands to its subject.

The predicative relation to the subject may be sustained by a verb, or by a verb of incomplete predication and its complement. In the sentence, "The boy ran away," the verb *ran* is in the predicative relation to the subject *boy*. In the sentence, "The ball is round," not only the verb *is*, but the adjective *round*, which belongs to the predicate, is said to be in the predicative relation to the subject *ball*.

THE ATTRIBUTIVE RELATION.

When we attach to a noun or pronoun an adjective, or what is equivalent to an adjective, that is to say a phrase or clause by which we describe, measure, or indicate more precisely that for which the noun or pronoun stands, the adjective or its equivalent stands in the

Attributive Relation to the noun or pronoun, and is said to be an **Attributive Adjunct** to it.

Thus, in "Wise men sometimes act foolishly," *wise* is in the attributive relation to the noun *men*; it *describes* the men. If we say "The men were wise," then *were* and its complement *wise* are both in the predicative relation to men.

Attributive Adjuncts.

Attributive adjuncts may be of the following kinds:

1. An **adjective** or **participle**, either used simply, or accompanied by adjuncts of its own; as, "*A large* apple, *many* men"; "the soldier, *covered with wounds*, still fought."

2. **A noun in apposition** to the substantive; as, "John Smith, *the baker*, said so," or a substantive clause in apposition to some substantive, as, "The report *that he was killed* is untrue," where the clause *that he was killed* is in apposition to *report*.

3. **A substantive in the possessive case**; as, "My **father's** house"; "**John's** book"; "The man **whose** house was burnt down"; or a substantive preceded by *of*, used as the equivalent of the genitive case in any of its meanings; as, "One **of** us"; "The leader **of the party**"; "The love **of money**."

4. **A substantive preceded by a preposition**; as, "A horse *for riding*"; "Water *to drink*"; "The trees *in the garden*"; "A time *to weep*." A simple adverb may be used in a similar way, as, "The house *here*"; "An *outside* passenger"; "The *then* state of affairs." These may be called *quasi-attributive adjuncts* of the noun.

Under this head we may class those instances in which an adverb or adverbial phrase is attached to a noun by virtue of the idea of *action* which the noun involves, as, "Our return *home*" (compare 'We returned home'); "His journey *to Paris*" ('he journeyed to Paris'); "The revolt of the Netherlands *from Spain*" ('The Netherlands revolted from Spain'), etc.

5. An **Adjective Clause**; as, "They *that will be rich* fall into temptation"; "I have found the piece *which I had lost*."

One attributive adjunct may often be replaced by another. Thus, for "The king's palace," we may say 'The palace of the king,' or 'The palace which belongs to the king,' or 'The palace belonging to the king,' etc.

THE OBJECTIVE RELATION.

When a verb, participle, or gerund in the Active Voice denotes an action which is directed towards some object, the word denoting that object stands in the **objective relation** to the verb, participle, or gerund. Thus, in "The dog bites a boy," *boy* is in the objective relation to *bites*. In, "Seeing the tumult, I went out," *tumult* is in the objective relation to *seeing*. In, "Hating one's neighbour is forbidden by the Gospel," *neighbour* is in the objective relation to the gerund *hating*. The **object of a verb** is the word, phrase, or clause which stands for the object of the action described by the verb when it is in the Active Voice.

Besides the **Direct Object**, which denotes the immediate *object* or *product* of an action, transitive verbs are often followed by an **Indirect Object**, which denotes that which is *indirectly affected* by the action spoken of by the verb, as "Give *him* the book." "The tailor made *the boy* a coat."

In Latin, German, or Old English the Direct Object is denoted by the Accusative Case, and the Indirect Object by the Dative Case.

Both the direct and indirect *object* of the *active* verb may become the *subject* of the *passive* verb. Thus "I told him the story," may give us either "He was told the story," or "The story was told him." In this way one of the two objects of the active verb remains as an object of the passive verb, and is called the *retained* object.

The direct object of an action may be denoted by

1. A **Noun**; as, "He struck the *table*."

2. A **Substantive Pronoun**; as, "We admire *him*."

3. A **Verb in the Infinitive Mood**; as, "I love *to hear* music"; "I durst not *come*."

4. A **Gerund** or **Verbal Noun**; as, "He hates *learning* lessons."

5. **Any word or phrase used as the name for itself**; as, "Parse *went* in the following sentence."

6. A **quotation**; as, "He said '*Show me that book.*'"

7. A **Substantive Clause**; as, "We heard *that he had arrived*."

THE ADVERBIAL RELATION.

Any word, phrase, or clause which modifies or limits a verb, adjective, or attributive phrase is in the Adverbial Relation to it, or is an Adverbial Adjunct to it.

Adverbial Adjuncts.

Adverbial Adjuncts may be of the following kinds:

1. An **adverb**; as, "He fought *bravely*." "I set out *yesterday*." "He is *very* industrious."

2. **A substantive preceded by a preposition**; as, "He hopes *for success*." "I heard *of his arrival*." "He killed the bird *with a stone*." "He is fond *of reading*." "All *but one* were present."

The gerundial infinitive often forms an adverbial adjunct of a verb or adjective; *e.g.*, "He strives *to succeed*." "This food is not fit *to eat*." "This house is *to let* (=*for letting*)." *But*, followed by an infinitive mood or a clause, often forms an adverbial adjunct; as, "I would buy it *but that I have no money*," where '*but that—money*' forms an adverbial adjunct to *would buy*.

3. A **noun qualified by some attributive adjunct**, and so forming a phrase denoting *time when*, or the *measure* of space or time, or marking some *attendant circumstance* of an action; as, "He arrived *last night*." "We stayed there *all the summer*." "He lives *three miles* away." "Go *that way*." "They advanced *sword in hand*." "They went over *dry foot*." In all such expressions the noun is in the objective case.

4. A **substantive in the objective case**, before which some such preposition as *to* or *for* might have been put, and which in Old English would have been in the dative case; as, "Give *me* (*i.e. to me*) the book." "I will sing *you* (*i.e. for you*) a song." "You are like him (*i.e.* like *to him*)." A noun thus used with a verb is often called the *indirect object* of the verb.

5. A **substantive (accompanied by some attributive adjunct) in the nominative absolute**; as, "*The sun having risen*, we commenced our journey." "*He being absent*, nothing could be done." A substantive clause may be used absolutely, like a simple substantive, as, "*Granted this is true*, you are still in the wrong."

Participles may be used absolutely in this manner without having any noun to be attached to. In such a sentence as "Speaking generally, this is the case," the phrase 'speaking generally' is an adverbial adjunct of the predicate.

6. An **adverbial clause**, as, "I will come *when I am ready*"; "I would tell you *if I could*."

What is often termed the *cognate accusative* (or objective) (as in 'to run *a race*,' 'to die *a happy death*') should more properly be classed among the adverbial adjuncts.

It is perhaps under the head of the *adverbial relation* that we should class such anomalous passive constructions as, "He was taught *his lesson*." "He was paid *his bill*."

One kind of Adverbial Adjuncts may often be replaced by another.

Thus, for "He suffered *patiently*," we may say "He suffered *with patience*," and *vice versâ*; for "He failed *through carelessness*," we may say "He failed *because he was careless*": for "*This being granted*, the proof is easy," we may say "*If this be granted*, the proof is easy."

EXERCISES.

1. Point out the attributive adjuncts of nouns and pronouns in the following examples, and in each case state of what they consist, and to what they are attached. When two or more adjuncts are attached to the same noun, distinguish them carefully:

John's coat is seedy. My cousin Henry died last week. A rattling storm came on. I see a man walking in the garden. My brother Tom's pony is lame. A man clothed in a long white robe came up to me. We soon reached the top of the mountain. The prisoner's guilt is manifest. The friends of the prisoner are very rich. Fearing to be caught in the rain, we returned. This is no time for trifling. I saw a house to let further on. Whose hat did you take? I borrowed William's big two-bladed knife. A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush. A friend in need is a friend indeed. He obtained permission to go. Leave of absence was refused him. Give me now leave to leave thee. His right to the property was disputed. His right to adopt that course was challenged.

2. Point out the adverbial adjuncts in the following sentences; state of what they consist, and to what verb, adjective or adverb they are attached:

They arrived yesterday. They will be here to-night. He prayed for a speedy deliverance. I am much displeased with your conduct. He is not like his sister. He accompanied us most of the way. You are to come home directly. He approached me dagger in hand. He built a wall ten feet thick. There is a church a mile distant from the town. You are spending your time to no purpose. I am not disposed to sell the horse. On reaching home we found that the rest had arrived before us. We were all talking of the accident. We live in constant fear. Wait a bit. We had nothing to do. What is the matter with you? He is too ready to take offence. I am content to be silent. We are glad to see you. Why did you say that? Where were you on duty last night? He comes here every day. My pony being lame, I cannot ride to-day. My object having been attained, I am satisfied. To reign is worth ambition. The cloth is worth a guinea a yard. He is a year older than I am.

"Bloodshot his eye, his nostrils spread,
The loose rein dangling from his head,
Housing and saddle bloody red,
Lord Marmion's steed rushed by."

3. In the following examples show which of the phrases made up of a preposition and a noun do the work of an adjective, *i.e.* are *attributive* adjuncts, and which do the work of an adverb, that is, are *adverbial* adjuncts; and show to what word each is attached:

He shot a great quantity of game on the moor. What is the use of all this fuss about the matter? I am delighted to see you in good health. We were vexed by his rudeness to you. The advantages of travelling in foreign countries are very great. He is a man of great industry. He accomplished the task by unflagging industry. A man addicted to self-indulgence will not rise to greatness. He is fond of angling. That is a good stream for angling. I am fond of the pastime of angling. I must express my displeasure at your behaviour. You have displeased me by your behaviour. He is not prone to behaviour of this kind. We rely on your promise. Reliance on his promises is useless. Do your duty to him.

What is my duty to my neighbour? He adhered to his determination to make the attempt. He is too feeble to make the attempt. He gave him his best wine to drink. The place abounds in good water to drink. Do you see that man on horseback? He has given up riding on horseback. The master praised the boy at the top of the class. He shouted to the boys at the top of his voice.

4. Take the following pairs of subjects and verbs and build up sentences by putting in objects, where they are wanted, and enlarging the subjects, predicates, and objects, with as many adjuncts, attributive and adverbial, as you can. Thus, from 'Men rob,' you may make 'Men of weak character, led astray by temptation, sometimes rob their unsuspecting friends shamefully.'

Birds build. Ship carries. Boy lost. Loaf was bought. Brother left. Sister came. Children went. Men found. We arrived. Man struck. Horse threw.

5. Expand the adverbs and adjectives in the following sentences (*a*) into **phrases** and (where possible) (*b*) into **clauses**:

(1) He spoke *eloquently.*
(2) He won the race *easily.*
(3) Come *quickly.*
(4) It was a *stormy* day.
(5) He approached me *threateningly.*
(6) He is an *industrious* boy.
(7) Dryden was a *versatile* poet.

CHAPTER XX.

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

Subject and Predicate.

As both the subject and the verb of a sentence are spoken of the same thing, they must agree with each other in those points which they have in common, that is, in *number* and *person.*

The subject of a finite verb is put in the nominative case.

Every finite verb must have a subject in the nominative case expressed or understood.

Every noun, pronoun, or substantive phrase used as a subject ought to have a verb attached to it as predicate.

The subject of a verb is sometimes understood as, "I have a mind presages me such thrift," for '*which* presages,' etc.; "So far as [it] in him lies"; "*Do* [he] what he will, he cannot make matters worse." The subject of a verb in the imperative mood is usually omitted.

SUBJECT.

The subject of a sentence may be

1. Simple. 2. Compound. 3. Complex.

The subject of a sentence is simple when it consists of a single substantive, or a simple infinitive mood; as, "*I* love truth"; "*Men* are mortal"; "*To err* is human."

The subject of a sentence is compound when it consists of two or more substantives coupled together by the conjunction *and*; as, "Caesar and Pompey were rivals." "You and I will travel together."

The conjunctions *either—or*, *neither—nor*, do not couple substantives together so as to form a compound subject. They imply that *one* of two alternatives is to be taken. Hence if each subject is singular the verb must be singular. Thus, "Either he or his brother was in fault"; "Neither John nor Thomas has arrived."

The subject of a sentence is complex when it consists of **an infinitive or gerundive phrase, of a substantive clause**, or of a **quotation**; as, "How to do it is the question"; "That he said so is certain"; "'England expects every man to do his duty,' was Nelson's watchword."

A complex subject is very often anticipated by the pleonastic use of the neuter pronoun **it**, which serves as **a temporary substitute for the real subject**, the grammatical relation of which to the verb it indicates more concisely. Thus: "*It* is wicked *to tell lies*"; "*It* is certain *that he said so.*"

Enlarged or Expanded Subject.

The subject of a sentence may have attached to it any attributive adjunct or any combination of attributive adjuncts, as:

"*The* man told a lie" (*Demonst. Adj.*).

"*Good* men love virtue" (*Adj. of Quality*).

"Edward *the Black Prince* did not succeed his father" (*Noun in Apposition*).

"*John's new* coat, *which he was wearing for the first time*, was torn" (1. *Noun in Poss. Case*, 2. *Adj. of Quality*, 3. *Adjective Clause*).

If the subject is a verb in the infinitive mood, or a gerund, it may be accompanied by objective or adverbial adjuncts, as:

"*To rise early* is healthful."

"*To love one's enemies* is a Christian duty."

"*Playing with fire* is dangerous."

PREDICATE.

The Predicate of a sentence may be

1. Simple. 2. Complex.

Simple Predicate.

The **predicate of** a sentence is **simple** when the notion to be conveyed is expressed by a single finite verb; as, "Virtue *flourishes*." "Time *flies*." "I *love*."

Complex Predicate.

Many verbs do not make complete sense by themselves, but require some other word to be used with them to make the sense complete. Of this kind are the intransitive verbs *be, become, grow, seem, can, do, shall, will*, etc., and such transitive verbs, as *make, call*.

To say, "The horse is," "The light becomes," "I can," or "I made the man," makes no sense. It is requisite to use some other word or phrase (a substantive, an adjective, or a verb in the infinitive) with the verb; as, "The horse *is black*."

"The light *becomes dim*," "I *can write*." "It *made* the man *mad*." "He *was made king*." Verbs of this kind are called **Verbs of incomplete predication**, and the words used with them to make the predication complete may be called the **complement of the predicate**.

Verbs which are capable of forming simple predicates are often followed by complements, being verbs of incomplete predication *so far as the matter in hand is concerned*. Thus *live* is not always and necessarily a verb of incomplete predication, but in the sentence, "He lived happy ever afterwards," the predicate is *lived happy*, and *happy* forms a (subjective) complement to *lived*, which, therefore, is, *so far*, a verb of incomplete predication. So in "They went along singing," *singing* is the complement of *went*. In "He made a mistake," *made* is a verb of complete predication; in "He made his father angry," *made* is a verb of incomplete predication, and requires the (objective) complement *angry* to make the sense complete.

The predicate of a sentence is **complex** when it consists of a verb of **incomplete predication accompanied by its complement**.

1. Subjective Complement.

When a verb of incomplete predication is intransitive or passive, the complement of the predicate stands in the predicative relation to the subject; as, "He is prudent." "He became rich." "He is called John." "The wine tastes sour." "He feels sick." This kind of complement may be termed the *Subjective Complement*.

2. Objective Complement.

When the verb is transitive, and in the active voice, the complement of the predicate stands in the **attributive relation** to the **object** of the verb; as, "He dyed the cloth red." "She called the man a liar." This kind of complement may be termed the **Objective Complement**.

3. Infinitive Complement.

The third kind of complement is that which follows such verbs as *can*, *will*, *must*, etc., as, "I can *write*," "He must *go*." This may be termed the **infinitive complement**, or **complementary infinitive**. The *object* of the sentence is often attached to the dependent infinitive.

OBJECT.

The Object of a verb may be

1. Simple. **2. Compound.** **3. Complex.**

These distinctions are the same as in the case of the Subject.

There is also a peculiar kind of Complex Object, consisting of a **Substantive** accompanied by an **Infinitive Mood** or **Participle** which forms an **Indirect Predicate** to it, as, "I saw *him fall*"; "He made *the bear dance*"; "Let there *be light*"; "Let *us pray*"; "He ordered *the prisoners to be released*"; "He knew *the story to be false*"; "We saw *the man hanged*"; "They found *the child dying*"; "He made *his power felt.*" The Accusative and Infinitive in Latin is an analogous construction.

The neuter *it* often serves as a temporary representative of a complex object, showing its grammatical relation to the sentence, as, "I think *it* foolish *to act so.*"

The object of a verb may have any combination of attributive adjuncts attached to it. It is then said to **be enlarged or expanded.**

EXERCISES.

1. Point out the subject of each of the following sentences:

(1) "'Tis sweet and commendable in your nature, Hamlet,
To give these mourning duties to your father."

(2) "This spacious animated scene survey."

(3) "Perhaps in this neglected spot is laid
Some heart once pregnant with celestial fire."

(4) "Sweet are the uses of adversity."

(5) "Alike to all, the kind, impartial heaven
The sparks of truth and happiness has given."

(6) "All promise is poor dilatory man."

(7) "'Tis easy to resign a toilsome place."

(8) "'Tis not unknown to you, Antonio,
How much I have disabled mine estate."

(9) "With patient mind thy course of duty run."

(10) "Of man's first disobedience, and the fruit
Of that forbidden tree . . .
Sing, Heavenly Muse."

(11) "Whom the gods love die young."

(12) "The sea being smooth,
How many shallow bauble boats dare sail
Upon her patient breast!"

2. The verb *to be* is a verb of incomplete predication when it is employed in making a compound tense of a verb in either the active or the passive voice, as, 'He is going'; 'I was saying'; 'He is gone'; 'He was struck.' But when used to form a tense of another verb, it is usually called an *Auxiliary Verb.* In such cases the compound form denotes the performance, the continuance, or the completion of an action. When *the state that is the result of the action* is denoted, the participle that follows is merely an adjective of quality. When it is not accompanied by a complement of some sort, *to be* is a verb of *complete predication*, or (as it is sometimes called) the 'verb of *existence*.'

N.B.—An adverb or an adverbial phrase is not a complement.

Point out carefully the various uses of the verb in the following examples:

He is in the parlour. He is going away. Such things have been. The time has been, that when the brains were out, the man would die. We are ready. I am in doubt about that. The boy was blamed for that. The poor man was starved to death. The children are half starved. He was wounded by an arrow. The poor soldier is badly wounded. I am trying to do it. This delay is trying to our patience. I am delighted to see you. We were delighted by the concert. He is named John. He was called a fool for his pains. Where are you? Where have you been all the morning?

3. Classify the Predicates of the following sentences, carefully distinguishing those cases in which a verb is followed by a *complement*, or an indirect predicate, from those in which it is followed by an *adverbial adjunct.* See whether the word in question denotes the *condition* of that which is spoken about, or the *manner* in which an action is done.

That looks pretty. The bell sounded cracked. He spoke loud. The cry sounded clear and shrill. His voice sounded feebly. His voice sounded feeble. He has travelled far and wide. They have not made the street wide enough. The people wept sore. It grieved me sore. The milk turned sour. Grumbling will not make things better. I cannot make my appearance sooner. You must write your exercises better. He seems better this morning. The doctor found the patient much better. The meat cuts tough. The fun grew fast and furious. That child grows fast. They made his feet fast in the stocks. The news drove him frantic. The man went mad. The stones have made my feet sore.

CHAPTER XXI.

ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

SEPARATION OF LOGICAL SUBJECT AND LOGICAL PREDICATE.

THE first stage in the analysis of a simple sentence is to separate the grammatical subject with its adjuncts from the predicate verb with whatever is attached to it as object, complement, or adverbial adjunct. The grammatical subject with its attributive adjuncts forms the *logical* subject of the sentence; the predicate verb, with all that is attached to it, forms the *logical* predicate of the sentence.

Examples.

Logical Subject. (Grammatical Subject with Attributive Adjuncts.)	Logical Predicate. (Predicate Verb, with Objective and Adverbial Adjuncts.)
Our messenger	has not arrived.
We	will carry all our property with us.
The village preacher's modest mansion	rose there.

Analysis of the Logical Subject.

The following example illustrates the separation of the logical subject into the grammatical subject and its attributive adjuncts:

"*The soldiers of the tenth legion, wearied by their long march, and exhausted from want of food, were unable to resist the onset of the enemy.*"

Logical Subject.		Logical Predicate.
Grammatical Subject.	Attributive Adjuncts of Subject.	
Soldiers	1. The 2. of the tenth legion 3. wearied by their long march 4. exhausted from want of food	were unable to resist the onset of the enemy.

Analysis of the Logical Predicate.

In the following examples the logical predicate is separated into its component parts:

Logical Subject.	Logical Predicate.		
	Predicate Verb.	Object, with Adjuncts.	Adverbial Adjuncts.
The sight of distress	fills	a benevolent mind	1. always 2. with compassion.
We	will bend	our course	1. thither 2. from off the tossing of these fiery waves.

Analysis of both Subject and Predicate.

In the following example both the subject and the object of the verb are separated into the substantive and the attributive adjuncts of which they are composed:

"*The mournful tidings of the death of his son filled the proud heart of the old man with the keenest anguish.*"

Subject.	Attributive Adjuncts of Subject.	Predicate.	Object.	Attributive Adjuncts of Object.	Adverbial Adjuncts of Predicate.
tidings	1. The 2. mournful 3. of the death of his son	filled	heart	1. the 2. proud 3. of the old man	with the keenest anguish

Analysis of Complex Predicate.

The following examples show how a complex predicate may be separated into its components:

"*That hero was deservedly called the saviour of his country.*"

Subject with Adjuncts.	Predicate.		Adverbial Adjuncts of Predicate.	
	Verb of Incomplete Predication.	Subjective Complement.	Adverbial Adjunct of Verb.	Adverbial Adjunct of Complement.
that hero	was called	the saviour of his country	deservedly	

"*This misfortune will certainly make the poor man miserable for life.*"

Subject with Adjuncts.	Predicate.		Object with Adjuncts.	Adverbial Adjuncts of Predicate.	
	Verb of Incomplete Predication.	Objective Complement.		Adjunct of Verb.	Adjunct of Complement.
This misfortune	will make	miserable	the poor man	certainly	for life

Direct and Indirect Object.

In analysis these two Objects should be set down separately, thus:

"*Henry's kind father gave him a beautiful new knife.*"

Subject.	Attributive Adjuncts of Subject.	Predicate.	Objects.	Attributive Adjuncts of Objects.
Father	1. Henry's 2. kind	gave	1. (*indirect*)—'him' 2. (*direct*)—'a knife'	— 1. beautiful 2. new

Questions.

The parts of a **Question** or **Interrogative Sentence** are related to each other in exactly the same way as those of the answer, when it is written in full.

Examples.

A. (1) Whose coat is this [coat]? (2) This [coat] is John's coat.

B. (1) What have you in your hand? (2) I have this in my hand.

C. (1) Which way did you come? (2) We came this way.

D. (1) How did you break the dish? (2) I broke the dish thus.

	Subject.	Attrib. Adj. of Subject.	Predicate.	Object.	Attrib. Adj. of Object.	Adverbial Adj. of Pred.
A	(2) coat (1) coat	this this	is John's coat is whose coat?			
B	(2) I (1) You		have have	this what		in my hand in your hand
C	(2) We (1) You		came did come			this way which way?
D	(2) I (1) You		broke did break	the dish the dish		thus how?

Complete Analysis of a Sentence.

The thorough analysis of a sentence is to be conducted in the following manner:

(i) Set down the subject of the sentence.

(ii) Set down the words, phrases, or adjective clauses which may form attributive adjuncts of the subject.

(iii) Set down the predicate verb. If the verb is one of incomplete predication, set down the complement of the predicate, and indicate that the verb and its complement make up the entire predicate.

(iv) If the predicate be a transitive verb, set down the object of the verb. If the predicate be a verb of incomplete predication followed by an infinitive mood, set down the object of the dependent infinitive.

(v) Set down those words, phrases, or adjective clauses which are in the attributive relation to the object of the predicate, or to the object of the complement of the predicate, if the latter be a verb in the infinitive mood.

(vi) Set down those words, phrases, or adverbial clauses which are in the adverbial relation to the predicate, or to the complement of the predicate.

These various elements of the sentence may be arranged either in the mode adopted in the following examples, or in that indicated in the table at the end of the book.

EXAMPLES OF THE ANALYSIS OF SIMPLE SENTENCES.

"*Having ridden up to the spot, the enraged officer struck the unfortunate man dead with a single blow of his sword.*"

Subject,	'officer.'
Attributive adjuncts of subject,	1. 'the.' 2. 'enraged.' 3. 'having ridden up to the spot.'
Predicate made up of	*Verb of incomplete predication,* 'struck.' *Objective complement,* 'dead.'
Object,	'man.'
Attributive adjuncts of object,	1. 'the.' 2. 'unfortunate.'
Adverbial adjuncts of predicate,	1. 'on the spot.' 2. 'with a single blow of his sword.'

"*Coming home, I saw an officer with a drawn sword riding along the street.*"

Subject, 'I.'

Attributive adjunct of subject, 'coming home.'

Predicate, 'saw.'

Object, 'officer.'

Attributive adjuncts of object,
1. 'an.'
2. 'with a drawn sword.'
3. 'riding along the street.'

"*It is I.*"

Subject, 'It.'

Predicate made up of,
- *Verb of incomplete prediction*, 'is.'
- *Subjective complement*, 'I.'

"*Who are you?*"

Subject, 'you.'

Predicate made up of,
- *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'are.'
- *Subjective complement*, 'who?'

"*Now the bright morning star, day's harbinger, comes dancing from the East.*"

Subject, 'star.'

Attributive adjuncts of subject,
1. 'the.'
2. 'bright.'
3. 'day's harbinger.'

Predicate,
- *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'comes.'
- *Subjective complement*, 'dancing.'

Adverbial adjunct of the predicate, 'from the East.'

"*He found all his wants supplied by the care of his friends.*"

Here 'supplied———friends' forms an indirect predicate of 'wants.' It means 'he found that all his wants had been supplied, etc.' The construction is the same as in 'I saw the man hanged.' The whole phrase forms a complex object of 'found.'

"*The duke will never grant this forfeiture to hold.*"

Subject, 'duke.'

Attributive adjunct of subject, 'the.'

Predicate, 'will grant.'

Objective infinitive phrase, 'this forfeiture to hold.'

Adverbial adjunct of predicate, 'never.'

"*How oft the sight of means to do ill deeds makes ill deeds done.*"

Subject, 'sight.'

Attributive adjuncts of subject, 1. 'the.' 2. 'of means to do ill deeds.'

Predicate, *Verb of incomplete predication* 'makes.' *Objective complement*, 'done.'

Object, 'deeds.'

Attributive adjunct of object, 'ill.'

Adverbial adjunct of predicate, 'how oft.'

"*A man of weak health is incapable of the thorough enjoyment of life.*"

Subject, 'man.'

Attributive adjuncts of subject, 1. 'a.' 2. 'of weak health.

Predicate, *Verb of incomplete predication* 'is.' *Complement of predicate*, 'incapable.'

Adverbial adjunct of the complement of the predicate, 'of the thorough enjoyment of life.'

"*And now, their mightiest quelled, the battle swerved, with many an inroad gored.*"

Subject, 'battle.'

Attributive adjuncts of subject, 1. *Article*, 'the.' 2. *Participial phrase*, 'with many an inroad gored.'

Predicate, 'swerved.'

Adverbial adjuncts of predicate, 1. *Adverb*, 'now.' 2. *Noun with attributive adjunct, in the nominative absolute*, 'their mightiest quelled.'

EXERCISES.

1. Give the complete analysis of the following sentences.

John's account of the affair alarmed me. Every finite verb in a sentence has a subject. My brother Henry told me that I saw the occurrence through a gap in the wall. That lazy boy did not go out of doors all the morning. Have you heard the news? Have those little boys finished their

exercises during my absence? I desire nothing but pardon. Crying will not help you out of the difficulty. No act of his will displease his father. To do this properly requires time. Who spoke last? Whom did you hear at church this morning? Hoping to find an easier road, we left our companions at the bridge. How did you find your way? He used a stick to support his steps. You say so to tease me. Considering his age he has done pretty well at the examination. Very few men could have done that. How much money will be enough for you? What foolish notion possesses you? A little girl's voice was heard in the garden. A large dog's bark was heard in the distance. An empty bird's nest was found. The tall lady's dress was torn. Some ladies' silk dresses were sold by auction. My cousin's return interrupted our game. Here shall be done a deed of dreadful note. We had a purpose to be his purveyor. He found his father lying fast asleep. We have bought a pretty little calf a month old. His wrath may find some worse way to our destruction. What more dost desire? Whom did you find walking in the garden? Whose umbrella did you take? Whose exercise has the fewest faults? The poor man's wife died last night. My head foremost into the river. They advanced step by step. Give me a cup of tea. I return you my best thanks. "Give thee that too." I told you all that an hour ago. He died a happy death. This land, he said. There lay Duncan, his silver skin laced with his golden blood. The poor wren will fight her young ones in her nest, against the owl. Down the road move, a melancholy band. Conceit, in weakest bodies, strongest works. Forth at your eyes, your spirits wildly peep. Who ever experienced anything like kindness at his hands? Who but a fool would talk like that? What have you done with the money? What arrant nonsense that foolish man talks! Which [horse] of these horses is to be sold? He eats his food like a hog. He was taught Greek by his uncle. "Teach me thy statutes." "Teach erring man to spurn the rage of gain." The dead were refused burial.

2. Analyse the following sentences containing indirect predicates (see p. 140):

He heard the wind roar through the trees. I heard the man say so. We saw the thief try to pick a gentleman's pocket. I wish you to come to-morrow. I believe the man to be innocent. I felt the air fan my cheek. Have you ever

known the man confess being in fault? The duke will never grant this forfeiture to hold. I like a knave to meet with his deserts. I expected the travellers to be here by this time. The wind sits fair for news to go to Ireland. It is too late for the travellers to arrive to-night. The task was too difficult for him to hope to succeed.

CHAPTER XXII.

COMPLEX SENTENCES.

A **Complex Sentence** is one which, besides a principal subject and predicate, contains one or more subordinate clauses, which have subjects and predicates of their own.

Subordinate Clauses are of three kinds:

1. **Substantive Clauses.**
2. **Adjective Clauses.**
3. **Adverbial Clauses.**

A **Substantive Clause** is one which, in its relation to the rest of the sentence, is equivalent to a substantive.

An **Adjective Clause** is one which, in its relation to the rest of the sentence, is equivalent to an adjective.

An **Adverbial Clause** is one which, in its relation to the rest of the sentence, is equivalent to an adverb.

A **complex sentence** is produced whenever the place of a substantive, an adjective, or an adverb is supplied by **a substantive clause, an adjective clause, or an adverbial clause.**

If we say, "He announced the arrival of Caesar," we get a simple sentence. If we say, "He announced that Caesar had arrived," we get a complex sentence, the substantive clause *that Caesar had arrived* being substituted for *the arrival of Caesar.*

If we say, "He has lost the book given to him by me," we have a simple sentence. If we say, "He has lost the book which I had given to him," we get a complex sentence, the adjective clause *which I had given to him* being substituted for *given to him by me.*

If we say, "The boy went out to play on the completion of his task," we get a simple sentence. If we say, "The boy went out to play when he had completed his task," we get a complex sentence, the adverbial clause *when he had completed his task* being substituted for *on the completion of his task.*

It must never be forgotten that a dependent or subordinate clause is *an integral part* of the principal sentence to which it belongs, just as though it were an ordinary substantive, adjective, or adverb.

SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES.

A **Substantive Clause** is one which, in its relation to the rest of the sentence, is **equivalent to a substantive.** It may be either the subject or the object of the verb in the principal clause, or it may be in apposition to some other substantive, or be governed by a preposition.

Substantive clauses usually begin either with the conjunction *that*, or with an interrogative word. The conjunction *that*, however, is frequently understood; as, "I saw *he was tired.*"

In the sentence "I know that he did this," the clause '*that he did this*' is the object of the verb '*know.*'

In "He asked me how old I was," the clause '*how old I was*' is the object of the verb '*asked.*'

In "When I set out is uncertain," the clause '*when I set out*' is the subject of the verb '*is.*'

In "We should have arrived sooner, but that we met with an accident," the clause '*that we met with an accident*' is governed by the preposition '*but.*'

When a substantive clause is the subject of a verb, it is usually represented temporarily by the pleonastic demonstrative '*it,*' as "*It* is not true *that he died yesterday.*"

ADJECTIVE CLAUSES.

An **Adjective Clause** is one which, in its relation to the rest of the sentence, is **equivalent to an adjective.** It stands in the attributive relation to a substantive, and is attached to the word which it qualifies by means of a relative pronoun, or a relative adverb which is equivalent to a relative pronoun preceded by a preposition.

In the sentence "Look at the exercise which I have written," the clause '*which I have written*' qualifies the noun '*exercise*,' and is much the same in force as the participial phrase 'written by me.'

In "That is the house where I dwell," the clause '*where I dwell*,' qualifies the noun '*house*.' *Where* is equivalent to *in which*.

The relative is sometimes omitted, as, "Where is the book *I gave you*?" for *which I gave you*; "I have a mind *presages me such thrift*," etc., for *which presages*, etc.

Sometimes adjective clauses are used substantively, *i.e.* with no antecedent expressed, as "Who steals my purse, steals trash." This omission of the antecedent is usual when the relative *what* is used, as, "I heard what he said," "There is no truth in what he said."

Care must be used to distinguish those clauses in which an indirect question is involved in the use of *who*, *what*, *when*, *where*, etc., from clauses in which these words are mere *relatives*. In such sentences as, "Tell me what I ought to do," "I asked him who said so," "I know why he did it," "He asked me when I had arrived," the dependent clauses are indirect questions, and are substantive clauses, having no antecedent expressed or understood to which they relate. In "That is what I said," "This is where I live," the dependent clauses are adjective clauses. The distinction is analogous to that between clauses beginning with *quis* or *quid* in Latin, and clauses beginning with *qui* or *quod*.

Adjective clauses are very often co-ordinate with the demonstrative adjectives *this*, *that*, etc. In such cases the demonstrative word is simply preparatory to the adjective clause by which its own import is more fully explained. Thus in the sentence, "I never received those books which you sent," the adjective '*those*' and the adjective clause '*which you sent*' are both in the attributive relation to '*books*.'

Clauses beginning with *as* must be regarded as adjective clauses, when they follow *such* and *same*. Thus, in "I do not admire such books as he writes," the clause *as he writes* is an adjective clause qualifying *books*, and co-ordinate with *such*.

An adjective clause (like an ordinary adjective) has usually a definitive or restrictive force. But it often happens that clauses introduced by relatives are, as regards their *force* and *meaning*, co-ordinate with the principal clause. Such a clause is *continuative* rather than *definitive*. Thus, in "I wrote to your brother, who replied that you had not arrived," the sense of the sentence would be the same if *and he* were substi-

tuted for *who*. So in "He heard that the bank had failed, which was a sad blow to him," *which* should be treated as equivalent to *and this*.

The anticipative or provisional subject *it* often has an adjective clause as an adjunct. Thus, "It was John who did that" = "It (the person) who did that was John." In such cases, when the relative is the subject of the following verb, that verb usually agrees in number and person with the predicative noun or pronoun instead of the subject *it*; as, "It is my parents who forbid that"; "It is I who say so."

ADVERBIAL CLAUSES.

An **Adverbial Clause** is one which, in its relation to the rest of the sentence, is **equivalent to an adverb**. It stands in the adverbial relation to a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

Thus, in the sentence, "He was writing a letter when I arrived," the clause '*when I arrived*' indicates the time at which the action expressed by the verb *was writing* took place. The clause '*when I arrived*' is therefore in the adverbial relation to the verb *was writing*.

CLASSIFICATION OF ADVERBIAL CLAUSES.

Adverbial Clauses may be arranged in the following classes:

1. Adverbial Clauses relating to Time.

Clauses of this kind begin either with the connective adverbs which denote time, or with the conjunctions *before*, *after*, *while*, *since*, *ere*, *until*, etc. As, "Every one listens *when he speaks*." "He punished the boy *whenever he did wrong*." "He never spoke *after he fell*."

2. Adverbial Clauses relating to Place.

Clauses of this kind are introduced by the relative or connective adverbs *where*, *whither*, *whence*, etc. As, "He is still standing *where I left him*." "*Whither I go* ye cannot come."

3. Adverbial Clauses relating to Manner.

Adverbial clauses relating to manner are commonly introduced by the relative or connective adverb *as*. *E.g.*, "He did *as he was*

told." "It turned out *as I expected.*" Clauses beginning with *as* are generally elliptical. At full length, "He did as he was told *to do.*"

4. Adverbial Clauses relating to Degree.

Clauses of this kind are introduced by the conjunction *than*, or the connective adverbs *the* and *as*.

Adverbial clauses denoting *degree* are always attached to adjectives or adverbs. They are almost always elliptical.

E.g., "He is not so (*or* as) tall as I thought" (*i.e.* as I thought *he was tall*). Here the clause 'as I thought [he was tall]' qualifies (or is in the adverbial relation to) the adjective *tall*, and is co-ordinate with the demonstrative adverb *so*; and the relative adverb *as* at the beginning of the adverbial clause qualifies *tall* understood.

"He is taller than his brother"; *i.e.* "He is taller than his brother [is tall]." "I love study more than ever [I loved it much]."

"The more I learn, the more I wish to learn." Here the adverbial sentence '*the more I learn*' qualifies the comparative *more* in the main clause, and is co-ordinate with the demonstrative adverb *the* which precedes it; the word *more* in the adverbial clause being itself qualified by the relative adverb *the*. The first *the* is relative or subordinate, the second *the* is demonstrative.

5. Adverbial Clauses relating to Cause.

These usually begin with the conjunctions *because* and *for*.

E.g., "I love him because he is good." Here '*because he is good*' is an adverbial clause qualifying the verb *love*.

"He could not have seen me, for I was not there." Here '*for I was not there*' is an adverbial clause qualifying the verb *could*.

6. Adverbial Clauses relating to Purpose and Consequence.

E.g., "He ran so fast *that he was out of breath.*" Here the adverbial clause '*that he was out of breath*' stands in the adverbial relation to *fast*, and is co-ordinate with *so*, the indefinite meaning of which it amplifies and defines.

Adverbial clauses relating to *purpose* come also under this head *E.g.*, "He labours *that he may become rich.*" Here the adverbial clause qualifies the verb *labours*. "I will not make a noise, *lest I should disturb you.*" Here the adverbial clause qualifies *will make*. The Subjunctive Mood is used in these clauses. It is usually in the compound form, but in the older writers we find the simple subjunctive, as, "Lest sin *surprise* thee"; "That I *be* not further tedious unto thee."

7. Adverbial Clauses relating to Condition.

Clauses of this kind begin with the conjunctions *if*, *unless*, *except*, *though*, *although*, and the compounds *however*, *whoever*, *whatever*, etc.

In adverbial clauses of *condition*, the principal sentence is called the *consequent clause* (*i.e.* the clause which expresses the *consequence*); the subordinate sentence is called the *hypothetical clause*.

Suppositions may be of two kinds.

(A) Suppositions of the first kind relate to some *actual* event or state of things, which was, is, or will be *real*, independently of our thought respecting it. In such suppositions the indicative mood is employed.

Examples.—"If the prisoner committed the crime, he deserves death. If he did not commit it, all the witnesses swore falsely." "If he is at home, I shall see him." "If your letter is finished, bring it to me."

In like manner *concessive clauses* beginning with *though* or *although*, which relate to what *actually is or was the case*, have the indicative mood; as, "Though he was there, I did not see him."

(B) Suppositions of the second kind treat an event or a state of things *as a mere conception of the mind*. In suppositions of this class, the subjunctive mood is employed.

A supposition which is contrary to some fact, present or past, is necessarily a mere conception of the mind, and therefore the subjunctive mood is used.

Examples.—"If he were present (which he *is* not), I would speak to him." "If our horse had not fallen down (which he did), we should not have missed the train."

In old-fashioned English and in poetry we also find the past perfect subjunctive used in the consequent clause, instead of the secondary form (or conditional perfect); as, "I *had fainted* unless I had believed to see the goodness of the Lord."

Clauses expressing a *wish* contrary to the fact have also the subjunctive mood. Thus, "I wish that he *were* here (which he is not)."

When we make a supposition with regard to the future, and state its consequence, as a mere conception of the mind, the subjunctive mood must be used in both clauses.

Examples.—"If he were rewarded, he would be encouraged to persevere." "If he went (*or* should go, *or* were to go) away without speaking to me, I should be grieved." "If he lost (*or* should lose, *or* were to lose) his money, he would never be happy again."

In suppositions the conjunction *if* is often omitted. *E.g.*, "Had I known this (*i.e.* If I had known this), I would not have come."

Clauses beginning with *that* often have a *limiting* or *defining* (*i.e.* an *adverbial*) force in relation to an adjective, as "He was vexed that you did not come"; "I am sure that he did it."

COMPOUND SENTENCES.

A **Compound Sentence** is one which consists of two or more co-ordinate principal sentences, joined together by **co-ordinative conjunctions**, as, "He is happy, but I am not"; "They toil not, neither do they spin."

Co-ordinate clauses are grammatically independent of each other, whereas every subordinate clause is a *component part* of some other clause or sentence.

The co-ordinate members of a compound sentence may themselves be complex sentences, as (*a*) "I will tell your brother when I see him, but (*b*) I do not think that he will arrive this week."

N B.—The conjunction itself does not enter into the construction of the clause which it introduces.

CONTRACTED SENTENCES.

When co-ordinate sentences contain either the same subject, the same predicate, the same object, the same complement, or the same adverbial adjunct to the predicate, it often happens that the portion which they have in common is expressed only once. In this case the sentence is said to be **contracted**.

Examples.—"Neither I nor you have seen that," *i.e.* "Neither I [have seen that,] nor you have seen that." "He loved not wisely, but too well"; *i.e.* "He loved not wisely, but [he loved] too well." Here the predicate is expressed only once.

"Religion purifies and ennobles the soul"; *i.e.* "Religion purifies [the soul] and [religion] ennobles the soul." Here the subject and the object are expressed only once.

"He is either drunk or mad"; *i.e.* "Either he is drunk or [he is] mad." Here the subject and the verb of incomplete predication *is* are expressed only once.

"He advances slowly but surely"; *i.e.* "He advances slowly, but [he advances] surely." Here the common subject and predicate are expressed only once.

"He reads and writes well"; *i.e.* "He reads [well] and [he] writes well." Here the common subject and the common adverbial adjunct are expressed only once.

Contracted sentences ought always to be so constructed, that when arranged without conjunctions, so that what is common to both or all is placed before or after what is not common, the common and separate portions, when read off continuously, make complete sense. Thus, "Religion purifies and ennobles the soul," may be written:

$$\text{Religion} \left\{ \begin{matrix} \text{purifies} \\ \text{ennobles} \end{matrix} \right\} \text{the soul;}$$

and complete sentences are obtained when the parts that are common, and written once, are read with each of the separate portions in succession. So, "He gave me not only some good advice, but also a sovereign," may be arranged thus:

$$\text{He gave me,} \left\{ \begin{matrix} \text{not only some good advice} \\ \text{also a sovereign.} \end{matrix} \right.$$

"He possesses greater talents, but is less esteemed than his brother":

$$\text{He} \left\{ \begin{matrix} \text{possesses greater talents} \\ \text{is less esteemed} \end{matrix} \right\} \text{than his brother.}$$

If we take such a sentence as, "Man never is but always to be blest," and subject it to this test, we see in a moment that it is faulty:

$$\text{Man} \left\{ \begin{matrix} \text{never is} \\ \text{always to be} \end{matrix} \right\} \text{blest,}$$

cannot be read off both ways.

COLLATERAL SENTENCES.

We frequently find sentences side by side, which have a connexion with each other as regards their sense and use, but have no *grammatical* link of connexion between them. For example—"I came. I saw. I conquered." "Fear God. Honour the king." "I was robbed of all my money; for that reason I was unable to proceed." "I believed, therefore have I spoken." Such sentences as those placed side by side in the above examples may be called *collateral* sentences.

A proper consideration of the nature of collateral sentences will enable us materially to thin the usual list of conjunctions. A word is not a conjunction because it *refers* us to something

that precedes. Simple demonstratives do this. Such words as *therefore*, *consequently*, *likewise*, *also* (*i.e. all so=just in that manner*), *nevertheless*, *notwithstanding*, are not conjunctions, but demonstrative adverbs.

ELLIPTICAL SENTENCES.

Elliptical sentences differ from contracted sentences in the following respect: In contracted sentences a certain portion which is common to the sentences is expressed only once in one of them, and has to be repeated in the others. In elliptical sentences, the part to be supplied in one clause, although suggested by what is expressed in the other, is not necessarily exactly the same in form. Moreover, contracted sentences or clauses are always co-ordinate; an elliptical clause is usually a subordinate clause, the portion to be supplied being suggested by the principal clause; as "He is taller than I," *i.e.* 'than I am tall'; "This does not cost so much as that," *i.e.* 'as that costs much.'

EXERCISES.

1. Find the Substantive Clause in each of the following examples, and say whether it is the Subject to some verb, or the Object to some verb, or the Object to some preposition, or the Complement to some verb, or in Apposition to some noun:

(1) I thought it strange that he should leave without calling on me.

(2) How completely you are mistaken is easily shown.

(3) The circumstance that he was present must not be disregarded.

(4) I would not believe the story but that you avouch it.

(5) Methinks he hath no drowning mark upon him.

(6) I undertook the business in the expectation that he would help me.

(7) I swear I have no mind of feasting forth to-night.

(8) How long I shall stay here is uncertain.

(9) He made it a condition that I should become security for the payment.

(10) I hate him more for that in low simplicity he lends out money gratis.

(11) Who can want the thought how monstrous it was for Malcolm and of Donalbain to kill their gracious father?

(12) I am persuaded that that is the wiser course.

(13) He felt it to be a disgrace that he had so utterly failed.

(14) Anon methought the wood began to move.

(15) I fear thou play'dst most foully for it.

(16) We are disappointed that you have not brought your brother.

(17) There was a rumour that the army had been defeated.

(18) I think I have the honour of addressing Mr. Smith.

(19) It is a question how far he was justified in his proceeding.

(20) He could not get rid of the idea that I was his enemy.

2. Convert the following **complex** sentences into **simple** sentences by substituting a noun for the noun clause:

(1) I heard that he had arrived.

(2) I am hopeful that he will soon get better.

(3) How long I shall stay here is uncertain.

(4) The fact that he was present must not be disregarded.

(5) I undertook this business in the expectation that he would help me.

(6) I see no sign that the fever is abating.

(7) How I found the matter out is no concern of yours.

(8) He felt it to be a disgrace that he had failed so utterly.

(9) Yesterday morning I heard the news that he had been convicted.

(10) He was quite ready to admit that the charge brought against me was groundless.

3. Pick out the adjective clauses in each of the following sentences, and show the noun or pronoun which each qualifies:

The serpent that did sting thy father's life, now wears his crown. I could a tale unfold whose lightest word would harrow up thy soul. The rest (*i.e.* 'repose') is labour which is not used for you. He had many heavy burdens to bear, the pressure of which nearly crushed him. Thrice is he armed that hath his quarrel just. I saw the captain in whose ship you will sail. Do you know the gentleman to whom this park belongs? Infected be the air whereon they ride. Thy food shall be husks wherein the acorn cradled. What sad talk was that wherewith my brother held you in the cloister? I know a bank whereon the wild thyme blows. Thou speak'st to such a man that is no fleering tell-tale. Unto bad causes swear such creatures as men doubt. You will soon find such peace which it is not in the power of the world to give. His behaviour is not such [behaviour] as I like. You are welcome to my help, such as it is. This cloth is not such [cloth] as I asked for. I have not from your eyes that gentleness and show of love as I was wont to have. In me thou seest the twilight of such day, as after sunset fadeth in the west. I will show you the shop where I bought these apples. The reason why you cannot succeed is evident. Return to the place whence you came. I can remember the time when there were no houses here. Do you know the source whence he obtained this information? The fortress whither the defeated troops had fled was soon captured.

4. In the following sentences show which of the subordinate clauses are noun clauses and which are adjective clauses:

Repeat what you have just said. You have only told me what I know already. I know what you said about me. Go, and find out what is the matter. Do what you can in this business. Pray tell me what ails you. You must not dictate to me what I am to do. This is what he did. He soon repented of what he had done. He knows well enough what he ought to do. That is precisely what he ought to have done. I cannot make out what you are saying. I do not understand what you are saying.

5. Convert the following complex sentences into simple by substituting for the adjective clause either an adjective,

a noun or pronoun in the possessive case, a noun in apposition, a preposition with an object, or a compound noun:

(1) I have seen the place where the battle of Waterloo was fought.

(2) All the boys who work hard and behave well will have a holiday.

(3) I do not see the advantages I have gained by my long stay.

(4) You have not received me with that courtesy with which you used to receive me.

(5) The remarks he made were not received with approval.

(6) The day on which the Exhibition was opened was the 3rd of May.

(7) That dust-heap, from which all our troubles originally came, has at last been removed.

(8) The captives were sent back to the land in which they were born.

(9) This drug is one which is said by its patentees to kill all pain.

(10) The lady whom I shall choose must be above suspicion.

6. Pick out the adverbial clauses in the following sentences; show what word or phrase each clause qualifies and what adverbial relation each clause denotes:

(1) While he is here we shall have no peace.

(2) Had I known this I should have acted differently.

(3) The higher you climb the wider will be the prospect.

(4) "There where a few torn shrubs the place disclose,
The village preacher's modest mansion rose."

(5) He is such a liar that nobody believes him.

(6) "I'll charm the air to give a sound
While you perform your antic round."

(7) "So I lose not honour in seeking to augment it, I shall be counselled."

(8) "The fool is happy that he knows no more."

(9) "Where thou dwellest I will dwell."

(10) A plague upon it, when thieves cannot be true to one another!

(11) "Be he ne'er so vile, this day shall gentle his condition."

(12) "Except ye repent, ye shall all likewise perish."

(13) "How a bright star shooteth from the sky,
So glides he in the night from Venus' eye."

(14) "Take heed lest ye fall into temptation."

(15) She is as good as she is beautiful.

(16) I would have called on you, had I known your address.

(17) He retired to his own room that he might study quietly.

(18) What signifies asking, when there's not a soul to give you an answer?

(19) If I have not ballads made on you all, let a cup of sack be my poison.

(20) "Though He slay me, yet will I trust in Him."

7. Convert the following **complex** sentences into **simple** sentences by substituting for the adverbial clause either a prepositional phrase, or a nominative absolute, or a gerundial infinitive:

(1) The servants were much alarmed when they heard the knocking at the gate.

(2) Now that all these obstacles have been removed, we shall get on smoothly.

(3) He left the room as I entered it.

(4) I called on him that I might tell him about the matter.

(5) Beware lest you fall into temptation.

(6) After greetings had been exchanged the guests dispersed through the rooms.

(7) If you keep to that field path you will reach the farm in half an hour.

(8) He spoke so low that we could hear nothing at the back of the hall.

(9) I should be sorry if I thought that I had offended you.

(10) As all arrangements had been made for us, there was nothing more to be said.

8. Fill up the following contracted sentences:

He allowed no day to pass without either writing or declaiming aloud. If you pursue this course you will not

injure me, but you will ruin yourself. He pursued, but could not overtake the retreating enemy. "Bad men boast their specious deeds on earth, which glory excites, or close ambition varnished o'er with zeal." "What praise could they receive, what pleasure I, from such obedience paid?" "Two principles in human nature reign, self-love to urge, and reason to restrain." "Nor this a good, nor that a bad we call." Would you rather drink wine or beer? "Nor steel nor poison, malice domestic, foreign levy, nothing can touch him further." "Freely they stood who stood, and fell who fell." As she sat in the old arm-chair she pondered with bitter grief over the past, and thought of the future with shuddering fear. As the years went on, scandals increased and multiplied. Unless you alter your conduct you will offend your friends and bring disgrace upon yourself. That discovery relieves, but scarcely removes my suspicions. I may forgive, but I can never forget his ingratitude to me. "Wiles let them contrive who need, or when they need, not now." "Why should I play the Roman fool, and die on mine own sword?" "Swords I smile at, weapons laugh to scorn, brandished by man that's of a woman born." "What's Hecuba to him, or he to Hecuba?"

9. Supply the words that are understood in the following elliptical sentences:

He looks as stupid as an owl. He is not so clever as his brother. I had rather die than endure such a disgrace. He is better to-day than yesterday. It is better to die than to live in such misery. I have as good a right to the money as you. As for me, I will have nothing to do with it. He was so kind as to give me this book. The boy played truant as usual. He stood aside so as to let me pass. He looked as if he could kill me. I'd rather be a dog and bay the moon than such a Roman. I'll shed my dear blood drop by drop in the dust, but I will raise the down-trod Mortimer as high in the air as this unthankful king. An 'twere not as good a deed as drink to turn true man and leave these rogues, I am the veriest varlet that ever chewed with a tooth. If I were as tedious as a king, I could find it in my heart to bestow it all on your worship. He has no redeeming qualities whatever. How could you make such a blunder as to suppose (*i.e.* in supposing) I did it. What if I don't tell you?

CHAPTER XXIII.

ANALYSIS OF COMPLEX SENTENCES.

A **Substantive Clause** (or Noun Sentence, as it is often called) does the same sort of work in a sentence as a Noun. An **Adjective Clause** does the same sort of work as an Adjective. An **Adverbial Clause** does the same sort of work as an Adverb.

It follows that every subordinate clause is an integral part of the entire sentence, and has the same relation to some constituent part of the sentence as if it were a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

In the analysis of a complex sentence this relation must be clearly indicated.

When there are subordinate clauses, the analysis of the entire sentence must first be conducted *as if for each subordinate clause we had some single word.* When the relation of the several clauses to the main sentence and to each other has thus been clearly marked, the subordinate clauses are to be analysed on the same principles as simple sentences. Mere conjunctions do not enter into the grammatical structure of the clauses which they introduce. No combination of words forms a *dependent sentence* without a *finite verb* expressed or understood.

It will greatly conduce to the clearness of the analysis, if subordinate clauses are underlined in different ways, so as to indicate their nature. A thick line may denote a substantive clause, a thin line an adjective clause, and a dotted line an adverbial clause. If a subordinate clause contains others, the line proper to the *containing* clause must first be drawn under the whole, *including what is contained*, and then the contained clause must be further underlined in its own way. Then if a number be placed at the beginning of the line by which a subordinate clause is underscored, and the same number be attached by a bracket to the word to which the clause is related, being placed *before* the word (verb), when the clause is a subject, or *after* in other cases (thus 2. *appears*, or *heard* 3.), the relation of the parts of the sentence will be visible at a glance. Thus:

"I have heard 1.) that my brother has lost at play the money 2.)
(1.)
which was given 3.) to him that he might pay his debts."
(2)
(3)

This shows at a glance the degree of subordination of the various clauses, and the way in which they are built into the structure of the entire sentence. This method will be adopted in the examples that follow. Each clause, as it is reached in the analysis, may be denoted for subsequent reference by the number placed before the line under it. This underlining and numbering however is not *essential* to the Analysis.

SENTENCES CONTAINING SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES.

I. A Substantive Clause as the Subject of a Verb.

"*That you have wronged me* (1 *doth appear in this.*"
(1)

Subject (*substantive clause*), - 'that you have wronged me' (1).
Predicate, - - - - 'doth appear.'
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, - 'in this.'

Analysis of (1).

Subject, - - - - - 'you.'
Predicate, - - - - 'have wronged.
Object, - - - - - 'me.'

"*It* (2 *is not true that he said that.*"
(2)

Temporary or provisional subject, 'it.'
Real subj. (*substantive clause*), - 'that he said that.'
Predicate, made up of - - { *Verb of incomplete predication* 'is.' / *Subjective complement*, 'true.'
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, - 'not.'

"(1. *Methinks the lady doth protest too much.*"
(1)

Subject, - - - - - { [*that*] 'the lady doth protest too much' (1).
Predicate, - - - - 'thinks' (*i.e.*, 'appears').
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, - '[to] me.'

Analysis of (1).

Subject, - - - - - - 'lady,'
Attributive adjunct of subject, - 'the.'
Predicate, - - - - - 'doth protest.'
Object, - - - - - - 'too much.'

II. A Substantive Clause as the Object of a Verb.

"*You know* 1) *very well that I never said so.*"
(1)

Subject, - - - - - - 'you.'
Predicate, - - - - - 'know.'
Object (*substantive clause*), - 'that I never said so' (1).
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, - 'very well.'

Analysis of (1).

Subject, - - - - - - 'I.'
Predicate, - - - - - 'said.'
Adverbial adjuncts of predicate, { 1. 'never.' 2. 'so.'

"*He asked* 1) *me how old I was.*"
(1)

Subject, - - - - - - 'he.'
Predicate, - - - - - 'asked.'
Object (*substantive clause*), - - 'how old I was' (1).
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, - 'me' (*i.e.*, 'of me').

Analysis of (1).

Subject, - - - - - - 'I.'
Predicate, - - - { *Verb of incomplete predication* 'was.' *Subjective complement*, 'old.'
Adverbial adjunct of complement, 'how.'

III. A Substantive Clause in Apposition to a Noun.

"*Who can want the thought* 1) *how monstrous it was for*
(1)
Malcolm and Donalbain to kill their gracious father."

Subject, - - - - - - 'who.'
Predicate, - - - { *Verb of incomplete predication* 'can.' *Infinitive complement*, 'want.'
Object, - - - - - - 'thought.'
Attributive adjuncts of object, { 1. 'the.' 2. (*Substantive clause in apposition*) 'how monstrous——father' (1).

Analysis of (1).

Provisional subject, - - - 'it.'
Real subject, - - - - 'to kill their gracious father.'
Predicate, - - - { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'was.' / *Subjective complement*, 'monstrous.'
Adverbial adjuncts, - - { 1. (*of verb*)—'for Malcolm and Donalbain.' / 2. (*of complement*)—'how.'

"*The hope* 1) *that I shall be successful sustains me.*"
(1)

The substantive clause 'that I shall be successful,' may be termed vaguely an *enlargement* of the subject *hope*, or it may be called (more exactly) an *objective adjunct* of the noun.

Such sentences as "There is no proof that he said so," "There was a report that you were dead," should be dealt with in a similar manner.

IV. A Substantive Clause after a Preposition.

"*I should have forgiven him, but* 2) *that he repeated the offence.*"
(2)

Here we have a substantive clause preceded by the preposition *but*, the whole phrase forming an adverbial adjunct of the predicate 'should have forgiven.'

SENTENCES CONTAINING ADJECTIVE CLAUSES.

An **Adjective Clause** is always in the **Attributive Relation to some noun or pronoun** in the sentence of which it forms a part.

"*The cohort* 1) *which had already crossed the river quickly came to blows with the enemy.*"
(1)

Subject, - - - - - 'cohort.'
Attributive adjuncts of subject, { 1. *Article*, 'the.' / 2. *Adjective clause*, 'which had already crossed the river' (1).
Predicate, - - - - 'came.'
Adverbial adjuncts of predicate, { 1. 'quickly.' / 2. 'to blows.' / 3. 'with the enemy.'

Analysis of (1).

Subject - - - - - -	'which.'
Predicate, - - - - -	'had crossed.'
Object, - - - - - -	'river.'
Attributive adjunct to object, -	'the.'
Adverbial adjunct to predicate, -	'already.'

"*Give me that large book* 2) *that you have in your hand.*"
(2) ———————

Here the adjective clause 'that you have in your hand' is in the attributive relation to the object 'book.' The relative *that* is the object of *have*.

"*Give* 3) *me what you have in your hand.*"
(3) ———————

Here the adjective clause, 'what you have in your hand' is used substantively, that is, without having its antecedent *that* expressed. In the analysis we may either introduce the word *that*, the object of *give*, and set down the relative adjective clause as an attributive adjunct to it, or we may at once call the adjective clause the object of the verb 'give.'

Care must be taken not to confound adjective clauses like the above with substantive clauses beginning with the *interrogative what*, as "*Tell me what he said.*"

"*I return to view where once the cottage stood.*"

Here 'where once the cottage stood' is an adjective clause qualifying the noun *place* understood, which forms the object of *view*.

"*Who is there but admires such deeds?*"

The verb *admires* requires a subject. The relative *who* is really understood ('but who admires,' etc.). We thus get an adverbial adjunct to the predicate, the sentence being equivalent to, "Who, if we leave out him who admires such deeds, is there?" *Who admires such deeds* is then an adjective clause used substantively, that is, without an antecedent expressed, and preceded by a preposition. Or we may supply a demonstrative pronoun, 'but *he* admires, etc.,' *i.e.* 'unless he admires, etc.' Compare, "There's ne'er a villain living in all Denmark but *he's* an arrant knave" (*Shaksp.*)

Many grammarians, however, treat 'but' as a word which *has absorbed the relative*, and so acquired its pronominal functions, and become equivalent to 'who not,' and they would make 'but' itself the subject of the verb '*admires*.' This, however, is putting a very violent strain upon the force of words. There is no more difficulty in supplying a pronoun after '*but*' than after '*than*' in "He never says more than [what] is necessary."

"*I have not from your eyes that show* 4) *of love as I was wont to have.*" (4)————

Subject, - - - - - 'I.'
Predicate, - - - - 'have.'
Object, - - - - - 'show.'
Attributive adjuncts of object, { 1. 'have.' 2. 'of love.' 3. (*Adj. clause*) 'As I was wont to have' (4).

Analysis of (4).

Subject - - - - - 'I.'
Predicate, - - - { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'was.' *Subjective complement*, 'wont to have.'
Object, - - - - - (*Quasi-relative pronoun*), 'as.'

"*His conduct is not such as I admire.*"

Here *as I admire* must be taken as an adjective clause co-ordinate with *such*, and forming an attributive adjunct to the noun 'conduct' understood, which is the complement of the predicate 'is.' *As* does duty for a relative pronoun, and is the object of *admire*.

SENTENCES CONTAINING ADVERBIAL CLAUSES.

An **Adverbial Clause** is always in the **Adverbial Relation** to a **verb**, **adjective**, or **adverb** in the whole sentence of which it forms a part.

When such a clause begins with a *subordinative conjunction*, the conjunction does not enter into the construction of the clause. When the clause begins with a *connective adverb*, that adverb must have its own relation indicated in the analysis

"*When, in Salamanca's cave,*
(2).....
Him listed his magic wand to wave,
.....
The bells would ring 2) *in Notre Dame.*"

Subject (*with attributive adjunct*), 'the bells.'
Predicate, - - - - 'would ring.'
Adverbial adjuncts of predicate, { 1. (*Adverbial clause*) 'when in Salamanca's———wave' (2). 2. 'in Notre Dame.'

Analysis of (2).

Subject (*infinitive phrase*), - - 'to wave his magic wand.'
Predicate, - - - - 'listed,' *i.e.*, 'pleased.'
Object, - - - - - 'him.'
Adverbial adjuncts of predicate, - - - { 1. 'When.' 2. 'in Salamanca's cave.'

"*He ran so fast* 3) *that I could not overtake him.*"
(3) .....

Subject, - - - - - 'he.'
Predicate, - - - - 'ran.'
Adverbial adjuncts of predicate, - - - { 'fast,' *qualified by*—1. 'so.' 2. 'that I could not overtake him' (3).

Analysis of (3).

(*Adverbial clause co-ordinate with* 'so.')

Subject, - - - - - 'I.'
Predicate, - - - { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'could.' *Complement*, 'overtake.'
Object, - - - - - 'him.'
Adverbial adjuncts of predicate, 1. 'that,' 2. 'not.'

"*He spoke* 4) *loud that I might hear him.*"
(4) .....

Here also 'that' is a conjunctive adverb, and the clause 'that I might hear him' is an adverbial clause modifying 'spoke,' while 'that' itself modifies 'might hear.'

"*Whatever the consequence may be, I shall speak* 5) *the truth.*"
(5) .....

Subject, - - - - - 'I.'
Predicate, - - - - 'shall speak.'
Object (*with adjunct*), - - 'the truth.'
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, - - - - { *Adverbial clause of concession*, 'whatever the consequence may be' (5).

Analysis of (5).

Subject (*with attributive adjunct*), 'the consequence.'
Predicate, - - { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'may be.' *Subjective complement*, 'whatever.'

"*He is not so wise as he is witty.*"

(1).....

Subject, - - - - - 'he.'

Predicate, - - - - { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'is.'
Subjective complement, 'wise.'

Adverbial adjunct of predicate, - 'not.'

Co-ordinate adverbial adjuncts of complement, - - - { 1. 'so.'
2. 'as he is witty' (1).

Analysis of (1).

(*Adverbial clause qualifying* 'wise,' *and co-ordinate with* 'so.')

Subject, - - - - - 'he.'

Predicate, - - - - { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'is.'
Subjective complement, 'witty.'

Adverbial adjunct of complement, 'as.'

Subordinate Clauses contained within clauses which are themselves subordinate.

The lines drawn under the clauses show at a glance the containing and contained clauses, and indicate to what class they belong.

"*He inferred* 1) *from this that the opinion of the judge was* 2)
(1)
that the prisoner was guilty."
2)

Subject, - - - - - 'he.'

Predicate, - - - - 'inferred.'

Object, - - { *Substantive clause*, 'That the opinion of the judge was that the prisoner was guilty' (1).

Adverbial adjunct of predicate, - 'from this.'

Analysis of (1).

Subject, - - - - - 'opinion.'

Attributive adjuncts of subject, - { 1. 'the.'
2. 'of the judge.'

Predicate, - - - { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'was.'
Complement (*Substantive clause*) 'that the prisoner was guilty' (2).

Analysis of (2).

Subject (*with attributive adjunct*), 'the prisoner.'

Predicate, - - - { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'was.'
Complement, 'guilty.'

"*Tell* 1) *me who you think* 2) *that man is.*"

(1)————————————————
(2)——————————————

Subject (*understood*), - - 'you.'
Predicate, - - - - 'tell.'
Object (*substantive clause*), - - 'who you think that man is' (1).
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, - 'me.'

Analysis of (1).

Subject, - - - - - 'you.'
Predicate, - - - - 'think.'
Object (*substantive clause*), - 'who that man is' (2).

Analysis of (2).

Subject with adjunct, - - - 'that man.'
Predicate, - - - - - { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'is.' / *Subjective complement*, 'who.'

"*If it were* 3) *done when 'tis done, then it* (1 *were* 2) *well it were done quickly.*"

(2) ..... (3) ..... (1)————

Provisional subject, - - - 'it.'
Real subject (*substantive clause*), '[that] it were done quickly' (1).
Predicate, - - - - 'were.'
Adverbial adjuncts of predicate, { 1. 'well.' / 2. 'then.' / 3. (*Adverbial clause co-ordinate with* 'then'), 'if it were done when 'tis done' (2).

Analysis of (1).

Subject, - - - - - 'it.'
Predicate, - - - - 'were done' (*passive verb*).
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, - 'quickly.'

Analysis of (2).

Subject, - - - - - 'it.'
Predicate, - { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'were.' / *Complement*, 'done' (i.e., *finished and done with*)
Adverbial adjunct of complement (*adverbial clause*), - - - { 'when 'tis done' (3).

Analysis of (3).

Subject, - - - - - 'it.'
Predicate, - - - - 'is done' (*simple passive*).
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, - 'when.'

EXAMPLES OF THE ANALYSIS OF COMPOUND SENTENCES.

Ordinary sentences of this kind require no special discussion. All that has to be done is to analyse each of the co-ordinate clauses separately, omitting the conjunctions by which they are connected, but inserting *not* if the conjunctions are *neither—nor*.

There is, however, one class of co-ordinate clauses which require care, namely those in which the relative pronoun has a *continuative* force.*

> "*At last it chaunced this proud Sarazin*
> *To meete me wand'ring; who perforce me led*
> *With him away but never yet could win.*"

This sentence must first be split up into the three co-ordinate sentences.

(A). "At last it chaunced this proud Sarazin to meete me wand'ring."

(B). "Who perforce me led with him away."

(C). "[Who] never yet could win [me]."

Analysis of (A).

Provisional subject, - - -	'it.'
Real subject (*infinitive phrase*), -	'to meete me wand'ring.'
Predicate, - - - -	'chaunced.'
Indirect object, - - - -	'this proud Sarazin.'
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, -	'at last.'

The analysis of (B) and (C) presents no difficulty. They are *principal* clauses co-ordinate with (A); *who* being *continuative* in its force.

Subordinate Compound Clauses.

These present no difficulty when they are expressed at full length. Thus: "He told me that the dyke had burst and that the river was flooding the country." Here we simply have a compound object. In analysis we should put after the predicate.

Object (*compound*), - - -	1. 'That the dyke had burst.' 2. 'That the river was flooding the country.'

* The relative pronoun is *continuative* rather than *definitive*, when the clause which it introduces is, as regards its force and meaning, co-ordinate with the principal sentence. In the passage which follows *who* = *and he*.

CONTRACTED SENTENCES.

Before a contracted sentence is analysed, the parts omitted must be expressed at full length.

"*We perceive that these things not only did not happen, but could not have happened.*" In full—

[(A) 'We perceive that these things not only did not happen.']
[(B) 'We perceive that these things could not have happened.']

"*Many instances were related of wise forethought, or firm action, or acute reply on his part, both in the senate and in the forum.*" In full—

[(A) 'Many instances were related of wise forethought on his part in the senate.']
[(B) 'Many instances were related of wise forethought on his part in the forum.']
[(C) 'Many instances were related of firm action on his part in the senate.']
[(D) 'Many instances were related of firm action on his part in the forum.']
[(E) 'Many instances were related of acute reply on his part in the senate.']
[(F) 'Many instances were related of acute reply on his part in the forum.']

"*Every assertion is either true or false, either wholly or in part.*" In full—

[(A) 'Every assertion is true wholly.']
[(B) 'Every assertion is true in part.']
[(C) 'Every assertion is false wholly.']
[(D) 'Every assertion is false in part.']

When co-ordinate sentences or clauses are connected by *neither, nor*, the simple negative *not* may be substituted for each conjunction in the analysis, the *conjunctive* portion of the words being omitted.

"*The man who neither reverences nobleness nor loves goodness, is hateful.*" In full—

[(A) 'The man who reverences not nobleness is hateful.']
[(B) 'The man who loves not goodness is hateful.']

Elliptical Sentences.

An elliptical sentence is one in which something is omitted which is essential to the complete construction of the sentence, but which is readily supplied in thought, without being expressed in words.

In elliptical sentences that which is omitted is not common to two or more clauses.

Relative pronouns and relative adverbs are sometimes omitted.

"He left the day *I arrived.*"

In full—"He left the day *that* (or *on which*) I arrived." (In this sentence *the day* is in the adverbial relation to *left*; *that* (or *on which*) is in the adverbial relation to *arrived*; and the dependent clause *that I arrived* is an adjective clause qualifying *day*.

The commonest (and the most troublesome) elliptical sentences are those which begin with *as* and *than*. In analysing them care must be taken to ascertain *what the predicate really is* in the dependent clause, and what word the adverb *as* qualifies.

"He is as tall as I am." In full—"He is as tall as I am *tall.*"

If we ask what the predicate in the dependent clause is (or what is predicated of *me*), the answer is, '*being tall*'; and, moreover, not *being tall* simply, but *being tall in a certain degree*, which degree is denoted by the relative adverb *as*, which qualifies *tall* (understood) in the adverbial clause, just as the demonstrative adverb *as* qualifies *tall* in the main clause.

The adverbial clause beginning with *as* is always co-ordinate with the preceding demonstrative *as* or *so*, and modifies (adverbially) the same word.

Subject, - - - - - 'He.'

Predicate,- - - - { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'is.'
Subjective complement, 'tall.'

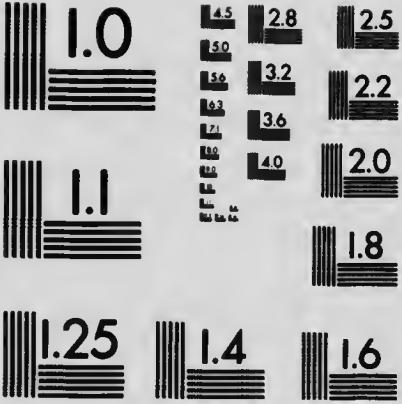
Co-ordinate adverbial adjuncts of complement of predicate, { 1 'as.'
2. 'as I am [tall].' (A)

Analysis of (A).

Subject, - - - - - 'I.'

Predicate,- - - - { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'am.'
Complement of predicate, 'tall.'

Adverbial adjunct of complement, 'as.'



We must deal in a similar manner with such sentences as:

"He has not written so much 1) as I have [written much]."
(1) .....

"He has lived as many 2) years as you have lived [many] months."
(2) .....

"He does not write so well 3) as you [write well]."
(3) .....

"I would as soon 4) die as [I would soon] suffer that."
(4) .....

"He looks 5) as [he would] look 6) if he knew me."
5) ..... 6) .....

"I cannot give you so much 7) as five pounds [are much]."
(7) .....

"He cannot [do] so much 8) as [to] read [is much]."
(8) .....

When **as** answers to **such** in a sentence like "We are *such* stuff *as* dreams are made of," it is not an adverb, but a relative pronoun. But in such a sentence as "I am not *such* a fool as [I should be a fool] to believe that," the clause beginning with 'as' is an adverbial clause modifying *such*. 'Such a fool' = 'so foolish.'

"*He is taller* 1) *than I am.*" In full—"*He is tailer than I am tall.*"
(1) .....

Here the adverbial clause modifies the predicate in the main sentence. *Than* originally meant *when*, and the sentence once implied: "He is taller *when* I am tall," *i.e.*, 'when my tallness is taken into account.' But *than* has so completely lost this meaning, that it may now be treated as a mere conjunction, not modifying any word in its own clause, and therefore disregarded when that clause is analysed separately. The clause beginning with *than* is always an adverbial adjunct of the word in the comparative degree in the main clause.

General and Particular or Detailed Analysis.

In the complete analysis of a complex passage it is necessary (1) to set down the component sentences and clauses and show their relation to each other, whether co-ordinate or subordinate, and (2) to separate the component parts of each sentence or clause, and show their relation to each other, as subject, predicate, object, etc.

The first process may be called the **General** Analysis of the passage and the second the **Particular** or **Detailed** Analysis.

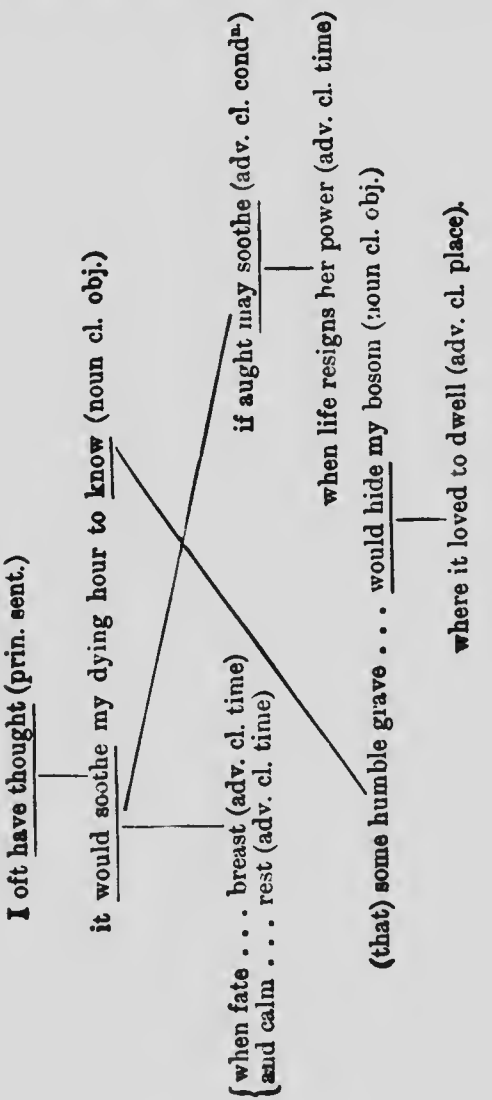
If the *General* analysis only of a passage be required, a simple method is to set down the component sentences and clauses in a tabular form, as shown in the following examples:

(*a*) It is perseverance that explains how often the position of boys at school is reversed in real life; and it is curious to note how some who were then so clever have since become so commonplace; whilst others, dull boys of whom nothing was expected, have assumed the position of leaders of men,

A. It is perseverance (prin. sent.)
that explains (adj. clause)
how often the position of boys . . . life (noun cl. obj.)

B. and it is curious to note (prin. sent. co-ord. with A)
how some have since . . . commonplace (noun cl. obj.)
who were then so clever (adj. cl.)
whilst (=and how) others, dull boys have . . . men (noun cl. obj.)
of whom nothing was expected (adj. cl.).

(*b*) When fate shall chill at length this fever'd breast,
And calm its cares and passions into rest,
Oft have I thought 'twould soothe my dying hour,
If aught may soothe when life resigns her power,
To know some humble grave, some narrow cell,
Would hide my bosom where it loved to dwell.



EXERCISES.

1. In the following sentences a substantive clause contains a subordinate clause within it. Analyse the sentences, first treating the substantive clause as a whole, and afterwards analysing it separately. Underline the clauses in the way shown on p. 164, and in the first few sentences:

He said 1) he would return 2) the book when he had read it.
(1)——————————————————
(2).....

I wish 1) the boy would finish the task 2) I set him. Tell 1)
(1)——————————————
(2)————
me how old you were 2) when your father died. But 1)
(1)——————————————————
(2).....
that my foot slipped 2) as I turned the corner, I should have
(1)——————————————————
(2).....
won the race. Where they most breed and haunt, I have
(1)——————————————————
(2).....
observed 1) the air is 2) delicate.

Who told you that I built the house which you see? He fears that his father will ask him where he has been. But that I told him who did it, he would never have known. Nor failed they to express how much they praised that for the general safety he despised his own. I think he will soon retrieve his misfortunes if he sets to work with good-will. I should like to know how your friend found out where I live. Now methinks you teach me how a beggar should be answered. I'll see if I can get my husband's ring, which I did make him swear to keep for ever.

2. Analyse on similar principles the following sentences, which contain complex adjective clauses:

The person 1) who told 2) you that I said so, is mistaken.
(1)——————————
(2)——————————

A child 1) that does not mind 2) when he is spoken to, must
(1) (2)
be punished. There are men 1) who care 2) not what they say.
(1) (2)
"My foolish rival 1)" that her father likes 2) only for his
(1)
possessions are so huge, is gone with her. The man 1)
(2)
who does the best 2) that he can [do] deserves praise. I
(1) (2)
should report that 1) which I say 2) I saw.
(1)
(2)

The house where I lived when I was in town has been pulled down. I have only done what I told you I would do. They fear what yet they know must follow. I have secret reasons which I forbear to mention because you are not able to answer those of which I make no secret. The time has been that when the brains were out the man would die. The right valiant Banquo walked too late, whom you may say, if it pleases you, Fleance killed. The eighth appears, who bears a glass which shows me many more.

3. Analyse the following sentences which contain complex adverbial clauses:

I will not leave 1) till I know 2) that he is out of danger.
(1) (2)
I wrote 1) to him immediately because I knew 2) how anxious
(1) (2)
he was. I shall be much obliged 1) if you will repeat the
(1)
story 2) which you have just heard.
(2)

He soon left the house when he heard that I was coming. You will be punished if you do not come when you are called. Don't let us make imaginary evils, when we know we have so many real ones to encounter. He seldom drinks wine because he finds that it disagrees with him.

4. Analyse the following sentences, each of which contains a subordinate clause containing a second, which in its turn contains a third:

I was grieved when I heard how he had obtained the character which he bore among his neighbours. I know that he would never have spread such a report, if he had not believed what your brother told him. Men who see clearly how they ought to act when they meet with obstacles, are invaluable helpers. It would be well if all men felt how surely ruin awaits those who abuse their gifts and powers. It was so hot in the valley that we could not endure the garments which we had found too thin when we were higher up among the mists. I will give you no more money till I see how you use what you have.

MISCELLANEOUS EXAMPLES FOR ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

1. Lightly and brightly breaks away
   The morning from her mantle gray.
2. Right sharp and quick the bells all night
   Rang out from Bristol town.
3. The gallant king, he skirted still
   The margin of that mighty hill.
4. All alone by the side of the pool
   A tall man sat on a three-legged stool,
   Kicking his heels on the dewy sod,
   And putting in order his reel and his rod.
5. The soul's dark cottage, battered and decayed,
   Lets in new light through chinks that time has made.
6. His daily teachers had been woods and rills.
7. Love had he found in huts where poor men lie.
8. Waiting till the west wind blows,
   The freighted clouds at anchor lie.
9. Here in cool grot and mossy cell
   We rural fays and fairies dwell.
10. The sable mantle of the silent night
    Shut from the world the ever-joysome light.
11. Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight,
    And all the air a solemn stillness holds,
    Save where the beetle wheels his droning flight,
    And drowsy tinklings lull the distant folds.

12. From yonder ivy-mantled tower
The moping owl does to the moon complain
Of such as, wand'ring near her secret bower,
Molest her ancient solitary reign.

13. Beneath those rugged elms, that yew-tree's shade,
Where heaves the turf in many a mouldering heap,
Each in his narrow cell for ever laid,
The rude forefathers of the hamlet sleep.

14. Perhaps in this neglected spot is laid
Some heart once pregnant with celestial fire;
Hands that the rod of empire might have swayed,
Or waked to extasy the living lyre.

15. There, at the foot of yonder nodding beech,
That wreathes its old fantastic roots so high,
His listless length at noontide would he stret
And pore upon the brook that babbles by.

16. In climes beyond the solar road,
Where shaggy forms o'er ice-built mountains roam,
The Muse has broke the twilight gloom
To cheer the shiv'ring native's dull abode.

17. There is a tide in the affairs of men
Which, taken at the flood, leads on to fortune:
Omitted, all the voyage of their life
Is bound in shallows and in miseries.

18. Night, sable goddess, from her ebon throne
In rayless majesty now stretches forth
Her leaden sceptre o'er a prostrate world.

19. If we were base enough to desire it, it is now too late to retire from the contest (*i.e.*, 'for retiring,' etc.).

20. He that is down need fear no fall,
He that is low no pride.

21. Blow, blow, thou winter wind;
Thou art not so unkind
As man's ingratitude.
Thy tooth is not so keen,
Because thou art not seen,
Although thy breath be rude.

22. Our sport shall be to take what they mistake.

23. My hour is almost come,
When I to sulphurous and tormenting flames
Must render up myself.

24. But that I am forbid
To tell the secrets of my prison house,
I could a tale unfold whose lightest word
Would harrow up thy soul.

25. We are not weak if we make a proper use of those means which the God of nature hath placed in our power.

26. Him the Almighty Power
Hurled headlong, flaming, from the ethereal sky
With hideous ruin and combustion down
To bottomless perdition.

27. He that fights and runs away,
May live to fight another day.

28. The evil that men do lives after them.

29. I am content so thou wilt have it so.

30. Now, night descending, the proud scene was o'er.

31. When they do choose
They have the wisdom by their wit to lose.

32. I must freely have the half of anything that this same paper brings you.

33. When I did first impart my love to you,
I freely told you [that] all the wealth [which] I had
Ran in these veins.

34. I would [that] you had won the fleece that he hath lost.

35. Duller should'st thou be than the fat weed,
That roots itself in ease on Lethe wharf,
Would'st thou not stir in this.

36. Thus do we of wisdom and of reach
With windlasses and with assays of bias
By indirections find directions out.

37. Their perfume lost, take these again.

38. The great man down, you mark his favourite flies;
The poor advanced makes friends of enemies.

39. How his audit stands who knows, save Heaven?

40. Do you not come your tardy son to chide,
That, lapsed in time, and passion, lets go by
The important acting of your dread command?

41. Lay not that flattering unction to your soul,
That not your trespass, but my madness speaks.

42. The night is long that never finds the day.

43. How dangerous is it that this man goes loose.

44. When sorrows come, they come not single spies,
But in battalions.

45. That we would do, we should do when we would.

46. Breathes there the man with soul so dead,
Who never to himself hath said,
'This is my own, my native land'?

47. So may I, blind Fortune leading me,
Miss that which one unworthier may attain.

48. Benighted wanderers the forest o
Curse the saved candle and unopen ng door;
While the gaunt mastiff, growling at the gate,
Affrights the beggar whom he longs to eat.

49. He that claims either for himself or for another the honours of perfection, will surely injure the reputation he designs to assist.

50. These honours peace to happy Britain brings.

51. Whilst light and colours rise and fly
Lives Newton's deathless memory.

52. How far the substance of my praise doth wrong this shadow in underprizing it, so far this shadow doth limp behind the substance.

53. If this will not suffice, it must appear that malice bears down truth.

54. It doth appear you are a worthy judge.

55. Repent but you that you shall lose your friend,
And he repents not that he pays your debt.

56. Herein Fortune shows herself more kind than is her custom.

57. Your wife would give you little thanks for that, if she were by to hear you make the offer.

58. You take my house when you do take the prop
That doth sustain my house; you take my life
When you do take the means whereby I live.

59. I'll see if I can get my husband's ring, which I did make him swear to keep for ever. (*If* = *whether*.)

60. You shall perceive them make a mutual stand,
Their savage eyes turned to a modest gaze
By the sweet power of music.

61. As fruits, ungrateful to the planter's care,
On savage stocks inserted, learn to bear,
The surest virtues thus from passions shoot,
Wild nature's vigour working at the root.

62. While from the purpling east departs
The star that led the dawn,
Blithe Flora from her couch upstarts,
For May is on the lawn.

63. When through life unblest we rove,
Losing all that made life dear,
Should some notes we used to love
In days of boyhood meet our ear,
Oh! how welcome breathes the strain!
Waking thoughts that long have slept,
Kindling former smiles again
In fading eyes that long have wept.

64. In my former days of bliss
Her divine skill taught me this,
That from everything I saw
I could some invention draw;
And raise pleasure to her height
Through the meanest object's sight.

65. Go, lovely rose;
Tell her that wastes her time and me,
That now she knows
When I resemble her to thee
How sweet and fair she seems to be.

66. [He] Who thinks that Fortune cannot change her mind,
Prepares a dreadful jest for all mankind.

67. To friends, to fortune, to mankind a shame,
Think how posterity will treat thy name;
And buy a rope, that future times may tell
Thou hast at least bestowed one penny well.

68. Shall one whom Nature, learning, birth conspired
To form not to admire but be admired,
Sigh, while his Chloe, blind to wit and worth,
Weds the rich dulness of some son of earth?

69. Adieu! If this advice appear the worst,
E'en take the counsel which I gave you first;
Or, better precepts if you can impart,
Why do; I'll follow them with all my heart.

70. You'd think [that] no fools disgraced the former reign,
Did not some grave examples yet remain,
Who scorn [that] a lad should teach his father skill,
And having once been wrong will be so still.

71. Had ancient times conspired to disallow
What then was new, what had been ancient now?

72. Of little use the man, you may suppose,
Who says in verse what others say in prose.
Yet let me show a poet's of some weight,
And, though no soldier, useful to the State.

73. The zeal of fools offends at any time,
But most of all the zeal of fools in rhyme.
Besides, a fate attends on all I write,
That, when I aim at praise, they say I bite.

74. Then too we hurt ourselves, when to defend
A single verse we quarrel with a friend.

75. I heard a thousand blended notes,
While in a grove I sate reclined,
In that sweet mood when pleasant thoughts
Bring sad thoughts to the mind.

76. The nightly hunter, lifting a bright eye
Up towards the crescent moon, with grateful heart
Called on the lovely wanderer who bestowed
That timely light to share his joyous sport.

77. But know we not that he who intermits
The appointed task and duties of the day,
Untunes full oft the pleasures of the day,
Checking the finer spirits, that refuse
To flow, when purposes are lightly changed?

78. Yet I will praise Thee with impassioned voice.
My lips, that may forget Thee in the crowd,
Cannot forget Thee here, where Thou hast built
For Thy own glory in the wilderness.

79. In sooth, with love's familiar privilege
You have decried the wealth that is your own.
Among these rocks and stones methinks I see
More than the heedless impress that belongs
To lonely nature's casual work.

80. Verily, methinks,
Wisdom is oft-times nearer when we stoop
Than when we soar.

CHAPTER XXIV.

SYNTAX OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH: NOUNS.

INTRODUCTION.

THE word **Syntax** means **arrangement**. The Rules of Syntax are statements of the ways in which the words of a sentence are related to each other.

There are two ways in which one word may be related to another. (1) One word may be said to **agree** with another, and (2) one word may be said to **govern** another. These two relations are called:

1. **Concord.**
2. **Government.**

Thus in the sentence: "They that wait upon the Lord shall renew their strength," (1) the relative pronoun *that* is said to **agree** in number and person with its antecedent *they*; (2) the verb *wait* **agrees** in number and person with its subject *that*; (3) the noun *Lord* is **governed** by the preposition *upon*; (4) the verb *shall renew* **agrees** in number and person with its subject *they*; and (5) the noun *strength* **is governed** by the verb *shall renew*.

In Latin, in Greek, and in the English that was spoken a thousand years ago the relations of words to each other were expressed by means of inflexions. Modern English has lost nearly all its inflexions, and therefore the relation of one word to another is often shown by its *position* in the sentence. Hence the *order* in which words are placed sometimes shows us their relation to each other. In the Latin sentence: *Venator magnum leonem interfecit*, the words may be arranged in any order, because the endings show their relation to each other, but in the English equivalent: *The sportsman killed a big lion*, we know that the word *lion* is governed by the verb *killed* only because it comes after it. If we were to change the order, we should also change the meaning.

Syntax, then, deals with the **concord, government,** and **order** of words when arranged in sentences.

SYNTAX OF NOUNS.

1. Nominative Case.

a. Concord and Government—A noun in the *nominative case* may be used:

i. As the subject of a sentence—"*Caesar* conquered the Gauls."

ii. In apposition to a noun or pronoun in the nominative case—"Caesar, the Roman *Dictator*, was assassinated."

iii. As the complement of an intransitive or passive verb of incomplete predication—"Caesar became *Dictator* of Rome." "Caesar was made perpetual *Consul*."

iv. As a nominative absolute—"*Caesar* being murdered, the dictatorship came to an end."

v. As a nominative of address—"Hail, *Caesar*! We salute thee."

The Nominative Absolute.—In using a participle, care must be taken to see that the participle is either in the *absolute* construction as above or that it is *related* to the chief word in the main sentence.

Thus the statement, "Being a very hot day, I put on my lightest suit," is incorrect, because the phrase, *being a very hot day*, is not an absolute construction, nor is *being* related to *I*. The sentence should be: "*It being a very hot day*, I put on," etc, or, "As it was a very hot day, I put on," etc. In the sentence: "Driving down the Rue de Rivoli, the knife of the anarchist struck the President," it appears as if the *knife* were *driving*. The correct statement is: "The President, driving down the Rue de Rivoli, was struck by the knife of the anarchist."

The participle used in this wrong way, is sometimes called the **unrelated participle**.

The Nominative Absolute is sometimes elliptical (i) by the omission of the participle:

"*All well*, I start this day week."

"*The ceremony over*, the assembly dispersed."

(ii) by the omission of the subject. This is allowable only when the subject is indefinite:

"*Taking* (=*one taking* or *if one takes*) one consideration with another a policeman's lot is not a happy one."

Considering (=*one considering* or *if one considers*) his wealth, he should have given more.

The words *considering, regarding, including, seeing, touching, provided*, and others, are used so often in this way that they have acquired a **prepositional** or **conjunctive** force, as the following examples will show:

Regarding this matter, I should like a few words with you.
Including the chairman, there were twelve present.
Seeing (that) he has come, we will proceed no further.
Touching this matter, I should like to hear from you again.
Provided (that) the troops arrive in time, all will go well.

b. **Order of the Noun in the Nominative Case.**—The **normal** order is (i) *subject*, (ii) *verb*, but the **inverted** order *i.e.* (i) *verb*, (ii) *subject* (so common in modern German) is used

(1) In questions: "Can such things be?"

(2) In commands: "Go ye and do likewise."

(3) In conditional clauses, when *if* is omitted: "Had I known it, I would not have gone."

(4) In the subjunctive, expressing a wish: "Long live the king!"

(5) After *nor* when the verb is expressed: "He would not give his consent, nor would I."

(6) After a quotation, with the verb *quoth*, and often with *say, answer*, etc.: "'There was a ship,' quoth he." "'Budge,' says the fiend; 'Budge not,' says my conscience."

(6) In rhetorical and poetical language: "Silver and gold have I none." "Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight." "Rose a nurse of ninety years."

2. Possessive Case.

a. **Government**.—A noun in the **possessive case** must be attached to some other noun to which it forms an **attributive adjunct**, and on which it is sometimes said to depend.

The term **possessive** is misleading, for the case called by that name does not always denote **possession**. Thus in the examples: *Tom's bicycle—Shakespeare's works—Elizabeth's reign—a day's journey*, **possession** is denoted only in the first. The term **adjectival** would describe it better, for in each case it has the force of an **adjective** upon the noun that follows it.

The possessive inflexion may be added not only to a single word but to a phrase, e.g. *The Sultan of Morocco's* motor ; *A quarter of an hour's* delay.

The noun is sometimes omitted when it can readily be supplied in thought, as "I bought this at *Whitely's* [shop]," "We start from *St. Enoch's* [station]," "We go to *St. Saviour's* [church]," "Jones is an old friend of my *father's* [friends]."

Substitute for the Possessive Case.

Subjective and Objective Genitive.—The inflected possessive is often replaced by the preposition *of* followed by the noun in the objective case. Thus for "Shakespeare's works," "the sun's rays," "a mother's care," we can say "the works of Shakespeare," "the rays of the sun," "the care of a mother."

This form is almost invariably used now for what is called the **Objective Genitive**, in which the genitive denotes the object of the action implied in the noun on which it is dependent, as "the fear *of God*," "the love *of money*," "the murder *of Caesar*."

An instance of the inflected possessive as objective genitive is: "The *captain's* praise was in everybody's mouth."

On the other hand, the inflected possessive may be used as the **Subjective Genitive**; that is, to denote the subject or source of the action implied in the noun on which it is dependent, as "a *mother's* care," "a *father's* love," "the *law's* delay," "the *child's* enjoyment."

The Appositive Genitive.—The genitive sometimes takes the place of a noun in apposition. In poetry the possessive genitive is used in this way, as: "*Albion's* isle," "*Arvon's* shore," "*Tempe's* vale"; but in prose the equivalent with *of* is used, as: "The city *of London*," "The continent *of Europe*," "The kingdom *of Bavaria*," "The month *of May*."

There is a limit to this usage, for we cannot now speak of "the river *of Rhine*," though in the Bible we find, "The river *of Kishon* swept them away."

Under the same head may be reckoned such expressions as, "a jewel *of a wife*," "a brute *of a husband*," etc.

b. Order. The possessive case always precedes the noun on which it depends; the equivalent with *of* generally follows, but is sometimes put first in the sentence for the sake of emphasis, as: "Of this assembly Pym was the spokesman."

3. Objective Case.

a. Government—A noun in the *objective case* may be used:

(1) As the **direct object** of a transitive verb, as: "I saw three *ships*."

(2) As the **indirect object** of a transitive verb, as: "Give your brother a *share*."

(3) In **apposition** to a noun or pronoun in the objective case, as: "I met old Tom, the *skipper*."

(4) As the **complement** of a transitive verb of incomplete predication, as: "She called the man a *liar*." "They made him *president*." This is sometimes called the **factitive** object.

(5) In various **adverbial adjuncts** marking time, space or degree, as: "I slept eleven *hours*." "He jumped six *feet*." "This cost six *shillings*."

(6) After **prepositions** and after the adjectives *like*, *worth*, *near*, *opposite*, as: "I came from the *country*." "He is like his *father*."

Objective and Dative.—There is no longer a distinct form for the Dative, but the **Indirect object** and the objective after the words *like*, *near*, *opposite*, represent the old Dative. Other survivals of the Dative are (1) the **Dative of Interest**, meaning *for*, as: "Can you change *me* this note?" "I will cut *him* some sandwiches." "Villain, I say, knock *me* at this gate" (Shakespeare). (2) In the impersonal verb *me*-thinks (=it seems to me).

Retained (or **remaining**) **object** after a passive verb. When a transitive verb has two objects, one of these may be retained in the passive voice, the other becoming the subject. Thus:

Active.	*Passive.*
The guardians allowed him half-a-crown.	(i) He was allowed *half-a-crown* by, etc. (ii) Half-a-crown was allowed *him* by, etc.
The headmaster promised him a prize.	(i) He was promised a *prize* by, etc. (ii) A prize was promised *him* by, etc.

Cognate object.—This is an object of kindred (or cognate) meaning used after certain intransitive verbs, as: "I dreamed a *dream*." "I have fought the good *fight*." "Let me die the *death* of the righteous." It may be considered as an **adverbial adjunct.**

b. Order. The object follows the verb except in the following cases: (i) In questions, where the object is limited by an interrogative adjective, as: "Which *pen* will you choose?"

(ii) When the object is put first for the sake of emphasis, as: "*Silver and gold* have I none." "His *bishopric* let another take." "His *name* I could never remember."

When a verb governs two objects, the indirect object, whether a noun or pronoun, precedes the direct object when the latter is a noun, as: "I bought *him* a bicycle." "I bought my *mother* a present." "He promised *us* a holiday."

When both objects are pronouns their order is determined by euphony, as: "Give it *him*." "Tell *me* this." "Did he show it *you*?"

EXERCISES.

1. Correct the following sentences, in which participles are wrongly used:

(*a*) Having finished the chapter, the volume was shut.

(*b*) While walking in my garden an idea suddenly occurred to me.

(*c*) His younger days were spent in England, waiting for an opportunity to get to France.

(*d*) Hoping to hear from you soon, believe me, yours truly, J. B.

(*e*) Being very fond of birds, an aviary is always to be found in his grounds.

(*f*) Not having seen them for some years, her arrival occasioned considerable excitement.

(*g*) Warmly attached to country pursuits, political life was a burden to him.

2. Parse fully the *italicised* words in the following sentences making special note of any syntactical peculiarities:

(*a*) The man near *me* was asked several *questions* as to what had occurred.

(*b*) *Dinner* over, I strolled into the garden opposite my *hotel*.

(*c*) "*Touching* the *resurrection* of the dead I am called in question by you this *day*."

(*d*) *Sword* in hand he rushed like a *madman* on the crowd.

(*e*) The committee appointed him their *treasurer* last *week*.

(*f*) "Heat *me* these irons hot and look *they* stand within the arras"

(*g*) "Let me die the *death* of the *righteous*."

(*h*) "She passed on, in *maiden* meditation, *fancy free*."

(*j*) He has been appointed a *canon* of *St. Paul's*."

(*k*) "The spicy breezes
Blow soft on *Ceylon's* Isle."

CHAPTER XXV.

SYNTAX OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH: ADJECTIVES AND PRONOUNS.

1. Adjectives.

THE attributive and the predicative use of Adjectives are explained on p. 46.

Adjectives (including participles) sometimes relate to the substantive which is implied in a possessive pronoun, as: "The Lord lighteneth *both their eyes*" (*i.e.*, the eyes of *both of them*). "For *all our* sakes," etc.

The Indefinite Article *an* or *a* should be repeated before each of a series of nouns standing for different things, as: "I saw a horse, a cow, and a pig in the stable," unless the things are so closely connected with each other as to form a sort of compound group, as:

"He built a coachhouse and stable." "Give me a cup and saucer." "A black and white ball" can only mean 'a ball that is partly black and partly white.' If we mean to speak of *two* balls of different colours, we must say "a black and a white ball."

The singular demonstrative adjectives 'each' and 'every' may be placed once before two or more nouns, as: "Every man, woman, and child was slaughtered." "Each boy and girl received a present."

The definitive adjectives 'the,' 'these,' 'those,' 'my,' 'our,' etc., *need* not be repeated before each of several nouns, though of course they *may* be so repeated. We commonly say "The King and Queen." "The tables and chairs were in confusion." "He gathered all the apples and pears." "My uncle, aunt, and cousin came yesterday." But the demonstratives must be repeated if a plural noun is accompanied by two or more adjectives marking qualities which do not belong in common to all the things named by the noun. Thus: "The clever and industrious boys," means 'the boys who are both clever and industrious,' but we cannot speak of "the idle and industrious boys," because the two attributes do not co-exist in the same boys; we must say "the idle and the industrious boys."

This principle, however, is often disregarded, as in, "The rich and poor meet together" (*Prov.* xxii. 2); while the article is sometimes repeated when only *one* thing is referred to, provided it is clear that only one thing is meant, as: "He returned a sadder and a wiser man." "You will find this road the shortest and the pleasantest."

a. **Concord of Adjectives.**—In Latin and other inflected languages adjectives agree with their nouns in gender, number and case. But in English adjectives have lost all their inflexions, except *this* and *that*, which have the plural forms *these* and *those*. Hence it is better to speak of an adjective as limiting the noun rather than as agreeing with it.

Collective nouns, though they are often followed by a verb in the plural (*e.g.*, "The crowd were throwing stones") cannot be preceded

by *these* and *those*, as is often done in the case of *kind* and *sort*. We must not say "*These kind* of books," or "*Those sort* of people," but "*This kind* of books," "*That sort* of people," or, better still, "Books *of this kind*," "People *of that sort*."

Distributive Adjectives.—The distributives *each, every, either, neither* are singular, and must be followed by singular verbs, pronouns, and nouns, as, "Every man thinks that *he* is better than *his neighbour*." "Each boy answered correctly in *his turn*." "Neither answer *is correct*."

b. **Government of Adjectives.**—The adjectives *like, near, worth, opposite*, govern the objective case (see p. 191). *Like* is often loosely used in conversation as a conjunction, as: "He walks *like* his father used to." Here it is really a shortened form of *like as*, the *like* being an adverb (=*in like manner*), and belonging to the principal sentence, thus: "*As* his father used to walk, so *in like manner* he walks."

This use of *like* may be avoided by substituting the conjunction *as*.

c. **Order of Adjectives.**—The adjective used attributively generally precedes the noun. It is found after the noun, however, (i) in poetical language, as "Captains *courageous* whom death could not daunt." "Ben Battle was a soldier *bold*," etc. And (ii) in certain phrases, such as *malice prepense, duranee vile, heir apparent*, etc., where its position is due to Norman-French influence.

The predicate adjective follows the verb, but may be placed at the beginning of the sentence in poetical language, and also when emphasis is required, as:

"*Large* was his bounty and his soul sincere."

"*Great* is the Lord."

"*Wonderful* are Thy works," etc.

OBSERVATIONS AND WARNINGS.

(1) *Comparative and superlative forms.*—The superlative must not be used unless more than two things are compared:

"John is the *better* of the two brothers."

Of these two pictures I prefer the *bigger*.

Avoid the confusion illustrated in the following sentences:

(*a*) Shakespeare is greater than any dramatist.

(*b*) He is the most admired of all the other dramatists.

In (*a*) the phrase *any dramatist* includes Shakespeare, who is thus said to be greater than himself. In (*b*) the phrase *all the other dramatists* excludes him. Correct as follows:

(*a*) Shakespeare is greater than any other dramatist.

(*b*) He is the most admired of all dramatists.

(2) *Phrases like "the three first verses," etc.*—We are told that this is incorrect, because there is only one first verse. On this principle it is equally wrong to talk of "The first hours of infancy," or "The last days of Pompeii," for there is only *one* first hour, and *one* last day. Surely if there are several last days, their number may be specified. It would be the height of pedantry to alter "His two eldest sons went to sea" into "His eldest two sons went to sea"; yet strictly there can be only one eldest son. German writers see nothing wrong in such phrases as "die drei ersten," "die zwei letzten," etc. All these superlatives admit of a little laxity in their application, just as *chief* and *extreme* admit of the superlatives *chiefest* and *extremest*. "The three first verses" simply means "The three verses before which there is no other." Those who tell us to write "The first three verses," and so on, must do so on the hypothesis that the whole number of verses is divided into *sets of three*, of which *sets* the first is taken. But what if the chapter only contains five altogether?

2. Pronouns.

a. Concord and Government of Pronouns.—Pronouns must agree in Gender, Number, and Person with the nouns for which they stand. Their case is determined by the construction of the clause in which they occur. Thus: "I do not like John (*obj.*); he (*nom.*) is an idle boy." "I know the man (*obj.*) whose (*poss.*) portrait hangs there," etc. Even if the pronouns happen to *coincide* in case with the nouns to which they relate, this is not *grammatical agreement*, it is a mere accident.

The antecedent of the Relative Pronoun is sometimes disguised in the form of a Possessive Pronoun, as "Whose is the crime, the scandal too be theirs."

The relative pronoun is frequently omitted when, if expressed, it would be in the objective case; but it is rarely omitted when, if expressed, it would be in the nominative case. In the older writers, however, we find such expressions as: "I have a mind presages me such thrift." "They are envious term thee parasite." The continuative relative can never be omitted.

When a relative refers to a noun which is in the predicative relation to a personal pronoun, the relative is sometimes made to agree in person with that pronoun, rather than with its actual antecedent. Thus: "I am . . . a plain blunt man, that *love my* friend" (*Sh.*, "*J. C.*" iii. 2); "Thou art the God that *doest* wonders" (*Ps.* lxxvii. 14).

Also when a relative clause explains the anticipatory subject 'it,' to which a personal pronoun is joined predicatively, the relative commonly agrees with the personal pronoun and not with its antecedent *it*. Thus we say, "It is I who *am* in fault," though the sentence really means "*It* (the person) who is in fault, is I." This is a case of what is called *attraction*. Contrariwise the predicative pronoun is sometimes *attracted* into the case of the relative. It is usual to say "It is *I* who did it," but "It is *me* whom he *fears*."

The pronoun *he*, *she*, *it*, ought to agree in gender and number with the noun to which it refers. But it often happens that it has to be used with reference to the individuals of a class that may consist of both sexes, distributed by means of the singular indefinite pronouns 'each' and 'every,' or to either of two singular nouns differing in gender, and connected by the alternative pronouns 'either —or,' 'neither—nor.' The difficulty that thus arises is sometimes evaded by using the plural, as: "Let each esteem other better than themselves"; "If an ox gore a man or a woman so that *they* die" (*Exod.* xxi. 28); "Not on outward charms alone should man or woman build *their* pretensions to please" (*Opie*). Some insist that in such cases alternative pronouns should be used, "so that *he or she* die," "*his or her* pretensions," etc. But on the whole, the plural seems preferable, although, of course, it involves a breach of a rule.

Such a sentence as "Each man, woman, and child received his, her, and its share," is intolerably awkward. But the plural should be restricted to cases in which there is a patent discrepancy.

b. Order of Pronouns.—When pronouns, or pronouns and nouns, of different persons are coupled together, their relative position varies according to the number. In the singular the Second Person comes before the First or Third (*You and I*; *You and he*, or *You and John*), but the Third comes before the First (*He and I*). In the plural *we* has the first place, *you* the second, and *they* the third. If a pronoun has to represent words of different persons, the Second Person takes precedence of the Third, and the First of either the Second or the Third, as "You and he must do *your* work"; "John and I lost *our* way." For the anticipatory use of *it* to mark the grammatical relation of something else, see p. 137.

c. Anomalous Constructions.—A Personal Pronoun used as the complement of a verb of incomplete predication is sometimes put in the objective case instead of the nominative in colloquial language, as, "That's *him*"; "Who is there? *Me*, sir."

Expressions like these are probably formed on the analogy of the French "c'est moi," etc., which ousted the old construction (still found in Chaucer) "It am I." The change was perhaps facilitated by the fact that objective forms like *himself* could be used in apposition to nominatives, as, "he himself said so." In dignified language the nominative is preferable, as "It is I, be not afraid" (*Mark* vi. 50); "Lord, is it I?" (*Matt.* xxvi. 22).

No satisfactory explanation can be given of the use of the relative *whom* after *than* in cases where we should expect the nominative. Even the demonstrative is sometimes similarly put in the objective case (*e.g.* "A stone is heavy, and the sand weighty; but a fool's wrath is heavier than *them* both"), but this should be avoided.

The objective case is used in exclamations, as, "Ah me!" "Oh me unhappy!"

In such phrases as "a book of mine" we probably have merely a repetition of the idea of possession. We may say "That invention of yours is a useful one" to a man who had never made more than one.

Pronouns often represent not some particular noun, but the *general fact* implied in a preceding sentence, as: "When ye come together *this* (i.e. *your coming together*) is not to eat the Lord's Supper"; "I did my best, but *it* (i.e. *my doing my best*) was of no use"; "He gained a prize, *which* (i.e. *his gaining a prize*) greatly pleased his friends."

EXERCISES.

1. Correct or justify the following sentences, giving reasons:

Let you and I take a walk.

John is a better writer than me.

Every man and boy showed their joy by clapping their hands.

Are either of those pens yours?

Let each esteem other better than themselves.

He was one of the wisest men that has ever lived.

Everybody has their faults.

He is not one of those who interferes in matters that do not concern him.

I do not like those kind of things.

This is the greatest error of all the rest.

'Twas Love's mistake, who fancied what it feared.

Who do you think I met this morning?

Who do you think called on me yesterday?

He is a man whom I think deserves encouragement.

Such a man as him would never say that.

Those kind of people are my abhorrence.

He wore a large and a very shabby hat.

Can you see a red and white flag? I can see neither.

A hot and cold spring were found near each other.

The love of drink is of all other follies the most pernicious.

My friend, him whom I had treated like a brother, has turned against me.

This injury has been done me by my friend, he whom I treated like a brother.

He told John and I to come with him.
Between you and I, he is a great fool.
Somebody told me, I forget whom
I heard that from somebody or other, I forget who.
Whom do men say that he is?
Whom do men declare him to be?
Nobody in their senses would have done that.
It is we that say so.
It is I that he fears.

"O Thou my voice inspire,
Who touched Isaiah's hallowed lips with fire."

"For ever in this humble cell
Let thee and I, my fair one, dwell."

Severe the doom that length of days impose.

2. Parse fully the *italicised* adjectives and pronouns in the following passages. Be careful to point out anything unusual or irregular in their syntax:

"If you had known . . . her worthiness *that* gave the ring."
"See how this river comes *me* cranking in."
"Lady, you are the cruellest *she* alive."
"We speak *that* we do know."
"Woe is *me*! for I am undone."
"*Few* and *short* were the prayers we said."

"How *small*, of *all that* human hearts endure,
That part *that* laws or kings can cause or cure."

All well, I shall see you to-morrow.

CHAPTER XXVI.

SYNTAX OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH: VERBS.

a. **Concord of Verbs.**—The general rule respecting the concord of verbs is, that a verb agrees with its subject in number and person.

Words that are plural in form (as *mathematics*, *politics*) are sometimes treated as singular in construction, and some singular nouns have been mistaken for plurals. A plural used as the title of a book, etc., must be treated as a singular, as, "Johnson's *Lives of the Poets* is a work of great interest"; and generally when a plural denotes a whole of some kind, the verb may be singular, as, "Forty yards is a good distance." "Two-thirds of this is mine by right." "Twice two is four." A *collective* noun may have its verb in the plural number, when the idea to be kept in view is not the *multitude viewed as one whole* but the *individuals* of which the multitude is composed.

When subjects differing in number, or person, or both, are connected by *and*, the verb must always be in the plural; and in the first person, if one of the subjects is of that person; in the second person if one of the subjects is of that person, and none of the first, as, "I and he are of the same age," "You and I shall be too late."

Subjects connected by *either—or* and *neither—nor* imply an alternative. Hence a plural verb cannot be attached to two such subjects, if they are in the singular. The sentence is in fact contracted, as, "Either John [is mistaken] or Thomas is mistaken"; "Neither John [is mistaken] nor Thomas is mistaken."

This sort of contraction should be avoided if the subjects differ in number or person. Some writers tell us in such cases to make the verb agree with the nearest subject. This is just endurable if the difference is one of number only, and the plural subject comes next the verb, as, "Neither the emperor nor his generals were convinced." But such sentences as "Either he or I am to blame." "Neither we nor John is rich" are abominable. It is better to say "Either he is to blame or I am"; "We are not rich, nor John either." A singular verb must be used after each, every, either, neither, as, "Every method *has* been tried." "Neither of them was in fault."

b. **Government.**—The various kinds of objects governed by verbs are dealt with on p. 191.

c. **Order of Verbs.**—For the inversion of the normal order of subject and predicate, see p. 189.

The Moods.—Rules for the use of the **Indicative** and **Imperative Moods** are superfluous.

The rules for the use of the **Subjunctive** Mood in hypothetical and concessive clauses are given on p. 155.

The **Subjunctive** is the proper Mood to use after *that* and *lest* in clauses denoting purpose.

The present tense of the subjunctive is used to express a wish, as: "God *bless* you." "God *be praised*." "*May* every blessing *attend* you," etc.

The subjunctive mood was employed more commonly by the older writers than is the case now. It was used, for example, in dependent questions (as, "I adjure Thee that Thou tell us whether Thou *be* the Christ"); also after *till* and *before*.

The uses of the **Infinitive** Mood are explained in Chapter XII.

Sequence of Tenses.—The tense of the verb in an accessory or dependent clause commonly depends upon that of the verb in the principal clause. A present or future in the principal clause requires a present or future indicative, or a present subjunctive, in the dependent clause. A past tense in the main clause requires a past tense in the dependent clause; *e.g.*, "He does this that he may please me"; "He will do this that he may please me"; "He has done this that he *may* please me"; "He did this that he might please me"; "He says that he is better"; "He said that he was better," etc. But if the dependent clause states a *universal truth*, it is better to keep the present tense. Thus: "He allowed that all men *are* liable to error"; "He denied that God *exists*."

Some verbs (as *ought*, *must*, *need*) cannot express past or perfect tense. When past time is referred to, it has to be expressed by putting the dependent infinitive into the perfect, as: "You ought *to have gone* there yesterday" (= it was your duty to go there yesterday). "He must *have been* out of his senses when he did that," etc. Even when the principal verb can be put into a past tense, a perfect infinitive is often used, especially to show that the event is no longer possible, as: "I hoped *to have been* present." "She was *to have been married* next week."

English admits of a good deal of freedom in the use of tenses. Thus the same sequence of events may be found expressed in all the following ways:

"Before the cock crow twice, thou deniest me thrice" (O.E.).

"Before the cock crow twice, thou shalt deny me thrice."

"Before the cock has crowed twice, thou shalt deny me thrice."

"Before the cock shall crow twice, thou shalt deny me thrice."

"Before the cock has crowed twice, thou shalt have denied me thrice."

"Before the cock shall have crowed twice, thou shalt have denied me thrice."

Participle and Gerund.—The use of a participle where we ought to have a gerund, is a common error, as in, "I heard of *him running away*," instead of 'I heard of his running away'; "It is of no use you saying so," for 'It is of no use your saying so,' (*i.e.*, 'It—namely your saying so—is of no use'). In the case of personal and relative pronouns the gerund and possessive should always be used, as in the preceding sentences. With *this, that, each, all, either, neither*, the participial construction is proper, as: "You will oblige me by *all leaving* the room"; "I have my doubts as to *this being* true"; "You seem to understand me, by *each* at once her choppy finger *laying* upon her skinny lips" (*Macbeth*). The best writers also give sentences like the following: "The jealousy of his contemporaries prevented *justice being* done to him during his lifetime." "I am afraid of *mischief resulting* from this." "On some *brandy* being administered to him he revived." "There is no record of any *payment* having been made." "There was a story of *money having* been buried there." "I then all smarting with *my wounds being* cold" (*Shaksp.*). "Upon *Nigel insisting*," etc. (*Scott*). These are analogous to the Latin *post urbem conditam*, etc. On the other hand most authorities would prefer "On *the boy's confessing* his fault I forgave him"; "On my father's hearing of this, he was amazed."

It will be observed that in such sentences the noun in the possessive case is commonly repeated in the form of a demonstrative pronoun, "I forgave *him*," "*He* was amazed."

Elliptical Sentences.—Great caution must be used in elliptical sentences (especially with *as* and *than*) to see that the right cases are used. The best way is to test the sentence by filling up the ellipsis, as, "He loves me better than [he

loves] thee"; "He loves me better than thou [lov'st me]"; "He knows the man as well as I [know the man]"; "He knows the man as well as [he knows] me"; "I know no wiser man than he [is wise]" is correct; but "I have no other saint than *thou* to pray to" is wrong, because the construction springs out of "I have no other saint when [I have] thee."

EXERCISES.

1. Correct or justify the following sentences, giving reasons:

What signifies promises without performance?

The intention of these persons is uncertain.

The effluvia was disgusting.

Six months' interest are due.

Neither John nor Henry were at church.

Our own conscience and not other men's opinions, constitute our responsibility.

"How pale each worshipful and reverend guest
Rise from a clergy or a city feast."

Good order and not mean savings produce great profit.

Johnson's *Lives of the Poets* are reprinting.

Nor want nor cold his course delay.

You did not ought to do that.

Homer as well as Virgil were studied on the banks of the Rhine.

There is sometimes more than one auxiliary to a verb.

Nothing but grave and serious studies delight him.

The fleet are under orders to sail.

The peasantry wears blouses.

"Nor eye nor listening ear an object find."

"I whom nor avarice nor pleasure move."

Not you but John are in fault.

Parliament have been prorogued.

A numerous party were assembled.

Men are put in the plural because they are many.

His father's and his brother's lives have been spared.

He was angry at me asking him the question.

What is the use of you talking like that?

A nation has no right to violate the treaties they have made.

A man may see a metaphor or an allegory in a picture, as well as read them in a book.

Nobody in their senses would have done that.

He did no more than it was his duty to have done.

The fact of you having said so it enough for me.

You have weakened instead of strengthened your case.

I think I will be gone by the time you come.

I expected to have been at home when you called.

"Doth he not leave the ninety and nine and goeth into the wilderness and seeketh that which is gone astray?"

The centres of each compartment are ornamented with a star.

More than one emperor prided himself upon his skill as a swordsman.

Let the same be she that thou hast appointed.

I was going to have written him a letter.

2. Explain the syntax of the infinitive forms that are *italicised* in the following sentences:

"Everyone should be fond of the *dying* or *conceal* their sentiments; and your master here is *dying*."

"I hazard the guess that *tumbling* is a healthful way of life. Have you never done anything else but *tumble*?"

"What do you think of my *singing?*" he enquired *stopping* in the middle of a note.

"She would have allowed him *to keep* a menagerie in the back-garden, let alone *adopting* a stable-boy, rather than *permit* the question of return *to be discussed*."

"I only did it *to please* you, but I will try *to do* better."

"His power of *forgetting* was on a level with his power *to learn*."

"The doctor *leaning* back announced his intention of *proceeding* to Fontainebleau."

"Why should he then protect our sovereign, he *being* of age *to govern* of himself?"

3. Point out anything that is irregular in the following passages from Shakespeare:

"The very thought of my revenges that way
Recoil upon myself."

The posture of your blows are yet unknown."

"Beaten for loyalty
Excited me to treason."

"You hear the learn'd Bellario what he writes."

"Rather proclaim it, Westmoreland, through our host
That he which hath no stomach to this fight
Let him depart."

"That thing you speak of I took it for a man."

"Wilt thou hear me how I did proceed?"

"Young Ferdinand whom they suppose is drown'd."

"Poor fellow, never joyed since the price of oats rose."

CHAPTER XXVII.

SYNTAX OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH: ADVERBS, PREPOSITIONS, AND CONJUNCTIONS.

1. Adverbs.

Position of Adverbs.—No hard and fast rule can be laid down for the position of the adverb in a sentence, but it should be so placed that there can be no doubt as to which word or words it is intended to qualify. Sometimes an adverb may be shifted about in a sentence without altering its meaning, *e.g.*:

The sun set and *immediately* darkness covered the earth.
The sun set and darkness *immediately* covered the earth.
The sun set and darkness covered the earth *immediately*.

When an adverb qualifies a compound tense it is usually placed between the auxiliary and the participle or infinitive:

He is *always* coming here.
I have *frequently* heard her sing.

An adverb should not be inserted between the *to* and the infinitive.

We should not say: "Caesar tried to *thoroughly* subdue the Gauls," but either "Caesar tried to subdue the Gauls *thoroughly*," or "Caesar tried *thoroughly* to subdue the Gauls."

An infinitive so treated is called a *split infinitive*. Instances of its use may be found in standard works of literature, but it is now generally condemned by the critics of style, and should not be used except to avoid any ambiguity as to the word to which the adverb belongs.

The adverbs *ever*, *never* are often misplaced, especially in sentences introduced by the verb *remember*, *e.g.*:

I *never remember* to have felt (=I do not remember to have ever felt) an event more deeply than his death.

Sometimes the meaning is affected by the position of the adverb. A common instance is the adverb *only*, *e.g.*:

Only Smith (=no one but Smith) passed in English.

Smith *only* passed (=he passed, but did not get distinction) in English.

Smith passed *only* in English (=he passed in English, but not in other subjects).

Negative Adverbs.—In modern English two negatives destroy each other, but in old and middle English double and even treble negatives were used where we should now use only one, *e.g.*:

"He *never* yet *no* vileinge *ne* sayde
In al his lyf" (*Chaucer*).

"You may *deny* that you were *not* the cause" (*Shaks.*).

2. Prepositions.

Position of Prepositions.—The place of prepositions is, as a rule, immediately before the words they govern, but in relative and interrogative clauses they are often placed at the end of the clause, *e.g.*.

That is not the book (that) I was thinking *of*.

Whom are you looking *for?*

I asked him what he was looking *at*.

In the following instances the italicised preposition is superfluous. It is accounted for by the fact that the first preposition is at some distance from the verb with which it is connected:

"And generally in all shapes, that man goes up and down in, this spirit walks *in*" (*Shaks.*).

"But on us both did haggish age steal *on*" (*Shaks.*).

Certain prepositions are appropriately used after certain nouns, verbs, and adjectives. Thus we say *different from* (*different to* is a very common error), *agreeable to, confide in, an exception to, worthy of, thirst for, averse from* (this is the correct expression, seeing that *averse* means *turned away*; but *averse to* is commonly used), *analogy to, prefer . . . to* (*prefer . . . than* is a common mistake).

3. Conjunctions.

Conjunctions are either co-ordinating or subordinating. (See Chapter XVII.).

The Word 'than.'—In old English *than* had the same force as *when*. Thus: "Smith is taller than Jones" = "Smith is taller, when Jones is tall." It is now regarded as a conjunction, and the noun or pronoun following it should be in the same case as the noun or pronoun that precedes it. Thus:

He is older than *I* (am old).

I like *him* better than (I like) *her*.

They arrived earlier than *we* (arrived).

But *than* seems to have acquired a *prepositional* force, for when the relative is used after *than* it is put in the objective case, *e.g.*:

"Lord S. presided, than *whom* there is no better judge on the bench."

And such expressions as "He is older than *me*," "I am taller than *him*," though grammatically indefensible, are widely used.

The Conjunction 'and.'—In colloquial style there are two peculiar uses of *and*:

(i) In such sentences as "The room is *nice and warm*," the words *nice and* are equivalent to the adverb *nicely*.

(ii) *Try and* overcome your faults = *Try to* overcome your faults. *Mind and* prepare a good speech = *Mind that you* prepare, etc.

And must always join words and clauses which stand in the same relation to the other parts of the sentence. This rule is violated when *and* precedes a relative clause, no relative having occurred before. *e.g.*:

"I have a book printed at Antwerp, *and which* was once possessed by Adam Smith." Either omit *and* or insert *which was* after *book*.

EXERCISES.

1. Correct or justify the following sentences, giving reasons:

Scarcely had she gone than Clodius and his companions broke in upon him.

I greatly prefer hearing you than speaking myself.

I saw her again laid up with a fever she had caught in her vocation and which had proved fatal.

I never remember to have met with trees of this form.

His last journey was to Cannes, whence he was never destined to return.

He is neither disposed to sanction bloodshed nor deceit.

Few people learn anything that is worth learning easily.

Mr. Carlyle has taught us that silence is golden in thirty volumes.

Once I saw Phyllis looking at us as we talked together with a kind of wistful curiosity.

The third chair that is vacant lies between three professors.

Provision is made for happiness of a quite different nature than can be said to be made for misery.

The Duke's entertainments were both seldom and shabby.

I hoped to immediately succeed.

Sincerity is as valuable, and even more so, as knowledge.

He was as rich or even richer than his father.

He is not only famous for his riches but for his wisdom.

They seemed to be nearly dressed alike.

2. Point out any syntactical irregularities in the following passages:

"This wide and universal theatre
Presents more woeful pageants than the scene
Wherein we play in" (*Shaks.*).

"First he denied you had in him no right" (*Shaks.*).

"'Tis a discreet way concerning pictures in churches, to set up no new, nor pull down no old" (*Selden*).

"Always I am Caesar" (*Shaks.*).

"He did it to please his mother and to be partly proud" (*Shaks.*).

"How can ye chant, ye little birds,
And I sae fu' o' care?" (*Burns*).

"Nor, am I sure, there is no force in eyes
That can do hurt" (*Shaks.*).

"Thus the hairy fool,
Much marked of the melancholy Jaques,
Stood," etc. (*Shaks.*).

CHAPTER XXVIII.

SCHEME OF PARSING.

To **parse** a word you must state (1) to what part of speech and to what subdivision of that part of speech it belongs, (2) its accidence or inflexions if it has any, and (3) its function in the sentence or its relation to other words in the sentence.

Thus the details of parsing may be arranged under three headings:

1. **Classification.**
2. **Inflexions.**
3. **Syntax.**

The Table on the opposite page shows the information that must be given about the different parts of speech in parsing.

	Classification.	Inflexions.	Syntax.
Noun, -	1. Common or Proper 2. If Common, whether *a*. Ordinary Class-name *b*. Abstract or *c*. Collective	Gender, Number, Case	Subject or Object (direct or indirect) of a verb Complement of an incomplete verb Governed by a Preposition, etc.
Pronoun, -	Kind (Personal, Demonstrative, Relative, etc.)	Gender, Number, Person, Case	Subject or Object of a verb, etc. (as above) If relative, agreement with its antecedent
Adjective, -	Kind	Degree (if it can be compared)	Whether Attributive or Predicative What word it limits
Verb, -	1. Transitive or Intransitive; Auxiliary, Notional, Impersonal or Verb of Incomplete Predication 2. Strong, Weak or Defective	Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, Person	Agreement with its Subject The Object (if any) that it governs
Infinitive, -	1. Transitive or Intransitive 2. Strong or weak	Voice, tense	State whether Subject or Object of a verb, or complement or used as adjective or adverb
Participle,-	As above	As above	State the word it limits, or show whether used to form compound tense with auxiliary, etc.
Adverb, -	Kind	Degree (if capable of this inflexion)	State the word it limits or qualifies
Preposition,			Name the noun or pronoun it governs
Conjunction,	Co-ordinate or Sub-ordinate		Show what it joins

Word.	Classification.	Inflexions.	Syntax.
There	adverb of place		Limiting *would stretch*
at	preposition		gov. *foot*
the	demons. adj.		lim. *foot*
foot	com. noun	neut. sing. obj.	gov. by *at*
yonder	demons. adj.		lim. *beech*
nodding	verb intrans. weak	participle active pres.	used as adj. lim. *beech*
that	pron. relative	neut. sing. nom.	subj. of *wreathes*, agreeing with *beech*
wreathes	verb. trans. weak	Act. indic. pres. 3rd sing.	agreeing with *that*
its	poss. pronom. adj.		lim. *roots*
roots	com. noun	neut. sing. obj.	gov. by *wreathes*
so	adv. of degree		lim. *high*
high	adv. of place	pos. degree	lim. *wreathes*
his	poss. pronom. adj.		lim. *length*
length	abstr. noun (used as concrete)	neut. sing. obj.	gov. by *stretch*
would	Notional vb. (habitual action), defective	Indic. past, sing. 3rd	agreeing with *he*
he	demons. pron.	masc. sing. 3rd nom.	subj. of *would stretch*
stretch	vb. trans. weak	act. infin. pres.	infin. complement of *would*, & c. *length*
and	conj. co-ord.		joins *he would stretch*, etc., and (*he would pore*), etc.
pore	vb. intrans. weak	act. infin. pres.	infin. compl. of (*would*)
by	adv. of place		lim. *babbles*

EXAMPLES OF PARSING.

There, at the foot of *yonder nodding* beech,
That wreathes its old fantastic *roots so high,*
His listless *length* at noontide *would he stretch,*
And pore upon the brook that babbles *by.*

The Table on the opposite page shows the parsing of all the words italicised in this verse.

EXERCISES.

The miscellaneous examples at the end of Chapter XXIII. may be used for Parsing.

CHAPTER XXIX.

PUNCTUATION.

In speaking, the words of a sentence, especially if it be a complex one, are not uttered consecutively without any break. Certain pauses are made to mark more clearly the way in which the words of the sentence are grouped together.

In writing, these pauses are represented by marks called *stops or points*. *Punctuation* (derived from the Latin *punctum*, a *point*) means "the right mode of putting in points or stops."

The stops made use of are: 1. The Comma (,). 2. The Semicolon (;). 3. The Colon (:). 4. The Full Stop or Period (.).

As it is impossible to lay down perfectly exact rules for the introduction of pauses in speaking, so it will be found that in many cases the best writers are not agreed as to the use of stops in writing. All that can be done is to lay down the most general principles.

The Full Stop is used at the end of a complete and independent sentence, but not at the end of a sentence which is followed by another *collateral* sentence.

The Colon and Semicolon are only placed between sentences which are grammatically complete, not between the various portions of either simple or complex sentences. The colon is placed between sentences which are grammatically independent, but sufficiently connected in sense to make it undesirable that there should be a complete break between them. Thus: "The Chief must be Colonel: his uncle or his brother must be Major: the tacksmen must be the Captains" (*Macaulay*). "Nothing else could have united her people: nothing else could have endangered or interrupted our commerce" (*Landor*). But in similar cases many writers only use the semicolon; no exact rule can be given.

A colon (with or without a dash after it) is often put before a quotation, which is not immediately dependent on a verb, as: "On his tombstone was this inscription:—'Here lies an honest man.'"

The semicolon is commonly placed between the co-ordinate members of a compound sentence, when they are connected by *and*, *but*, or *nor*, as: "Time would thus be gained; and the royalists might be able to execute their old project" (*Macaulay*). It is also inserted when three or more co-ordinate sentences are united *collaterally*, with a conjunction before the last, as: "A battering-ram was invented, of light construction and powerful effect; it was transported and worked by the hands of forty soldiers; and as the stones were loosened by its repeated strokes, they were torn with long iron hooks from the walls" (*Gibbon*). When the co-ordinate sentences are short and closely connected in meaning, commas are placed between them, or such parts of them as remain after contraction, as: "I ran after him, but could not catch him." Sometimes even commas are unnecessary, as: "He reads and writes incessantly." "He learns neither Latin nor Greek." "He struck and killed his brother." "Either you or I must leave the room."

In a simple or complex sentence commas should be inserted whenever, in reading or speaking, short pauses would be made to show more clearly the way in which the words are grouped together. It is impossible to lay down hard and fast rules.

When no pause is required in reading, no comma is necessary in writing. The following directions may be of service:

In simple sentences the comma is inserted:

1. Before the main verb, when the subject is accompanied by an attributive adjunct which, with its adjuncts, forms a combination of words of considerable length. As, "The injustice *of the sentence pronounced upon this wise and virtuous man*, is evident." But if the adjunct is expressed briefly, the comma is not used, as: "The injustice *of the sentence* is evident."

2. Before and after any participle (not used as a mere qualitative adjective) or participial phrase, as: "The man, having slipped, fell over the cliff." "The general, having rallied his soldiers, led them forwards." "Undaunted, he still struggled on." "All night the dreadless angel, unpursued, through heaven's wide champaign winged his glorious way."

3. Before and after any attributive adjunct to the subject which consists of an adjective or noun in apposition, when these are accompanied by other words standing to them in the attributive, objective, or adverbial relation. *E.g.*, "Bacon, the illustrious author of the *Novum Organum*, declared," etc. "The soldier, afraid of the consequences of his insubordination, deserted."

4. Before or after a phrase or quotation which is either the subject or the object of a verb. Thus: "Nelson's watchword was, 'England expects every man to do his duty.'" "He said to his disciples, 'Watch and pray.'"

5. When several substantives, enumerated successively without having the conjunction *and* placed between them, have the same relation to some other word in the sentence, forming either the compound subject or the compound object of a verb, or coming after a preposition, they must be separated by commas. Thus: "John, William, James, and Henry took a walk together." "He lost lands, money, reputation and friends." Adjectives and adverbs co-ordinately related to the same noun, or to the same verb or adjective, and not connected by *and*, should be separated by commas, as: "He was a wealthy, prudent, active and philanthropic citizen." "He wrote his exercise neatly, quickly and correctly."

6. A comma is inserted after an adverbial phrase consisting of a noun (with its adjuncts) used absolutely, or an infinitive mood (preceded by *to*) implying purpose, when it precedes the verb or its subject. As. "To conclude, I will only say," etc. "The man being dead, his heirs took possession of his estate."

7. Other complex adverbial phrases also are frequently followed by commas when they precede the subject of the sentence, as: "By studying diligently for five hours a day, he mastered the

language in six months." Such phrases should be both preceded and followed by commas when they come between the subject and the verb, and modify not the verb simply, but the entire assertion, as: "The foolish man, in defiance of all advice, persisted in his project." "This undertaking, therefore, was abandoned." But a single adverb or a short adverbial phrase which simply modifies the verb need not be thus marked off, as: "The man in vain protested his innocence." *However*, when it is the representative of an elliptical clause, must be preceded and followed by commas; as, "The man, however, escaped."

8. Nouns used in the vocative (or nominative of appellation) are separated by commas from the rest of the sentence; as, "John, shut the door." "I said, Sir, that I had not done that."

In complex sentences the following rules may be observed:

1. A substantive clause used as the subject of a verb should be followed by a comma. Thus: "That the accused is innocent of the crime imputed to him, admits of demonstration." "How we are ever to get there, is the question."

If such a clause *follow* the verb, a comma does not usually precede the substantive clause. As, "It is of great importance that this should be rightly understood."

A substantive clause which is the object of a verb is not generally preceded by a comma. Thus: "He acknowledged that he had done this." "Tell me how you are."

2. An adjective clause is not separated by a comma from the noun which it qualifies when it is an essential part of the designation of the thing signified; that is, when the thing or person signified is not sufficiently indicated by the antecedent noun. Thus: "The man who told me this stands here." "I do not see the objects that you are pointing out."

But if the designation of the person or thing meant is complete without the relative sentence, so that the latter only extends and defines that designation, being *continuative*, and not *restrictive*, then a comma must be introduced. Thus: "We are studying the reign of William Rufus, who succeeded his father A.D. 1087." "I will report this to my father, who is waiting to hear the news."

Adverbial clauses which precede the verb that they modify should be marked off by commas. Thus: "When you have finished your work, tell me." "Except ye repent, ye shall all likewise perish." But an adverbial clause need not be preceded by a comma when it comes *after* the verb that it modifies, as: "I will wait till I hear from you." "I did not see him when he called." "He ran away as soon as I saw him."

Besides the stops, some other signs are employed in writing.

A note of interrogation (?) must be placed at the end of all direct questions, but not after indirect questions. Thus: "Have you written your letter?" But: "He asked me whether I had written my letter."

The note of admiration or exclamation (!) is placed after interjections, exclamations, and after nouns and pronouns used in addresses, when particular stress is to be laid upon them. This mark is also frequently placed at the end of a sentence which contains an invocation.

The parenthesis ( ) is used to enclose a clause, or part of a clause, which does not enter into the construction of the main sentence, but is merely introduced *by the way*. Words enclosed within a parenthesis do not require to be separated from the rest of the sentence by any other stop.

Double or single inverted commas '—' or "—," are used to mark quotations.

EXERCISES.

Punctuate and insert capitals in the following passages:

(*a*) the poor world is almost six thousand years old and in all this time there was not any man died in his own person videlicet in a love cause troilus had his brains dashed out with a grecian club yet he did what he could to die before and he is one of the patterns of love leander he would have lived many a fair year though hero had turned nun if it had not been for a hot midsummer night for good youth he went but forth to wash him in the hellespont and being taken with the cramp was drowned and the foolish chronielers of that age found it was hero of sestos but these are all lies men have died from time to time and worms have eaten them, but not for love.

(*b*) dearest edith the most extraordinary thing has happened you know i told you about old job and his lazy pig-headedness well he has suddenly become civil and busy and the garden is beginning to look like itself and what do you think the reason is old job is converted he went to a revivalist meeting last week with his nicce and he came back a perfect lamb and

now he's as mild as milk and we hear him singing the glory song all day long over the wall it's perfectly awful the sounds he makes but theres no doubt its doing your garden good job came up this morning with a melon and asked if mother would accept of it and he went away groaning out that will be glory for me yours affectionately gwen

(*c*) with respect to duels indeed i have my own ideas few things in this so surprising world strike me with more surprise two little visual spectra of men hovering with insecure enough cohesion in the midst of the unfathomable and to dissolve therein at any rate very soon make pause at the distance twelve paces asunder whirl round and simultaneously by the cunningest mechanism explode one another into dissolution and offhand become air and nonextant deuce on it the little spitfires nay i think with old hugo von trimberg god must needs laugh outright could such a thing be to see his wondrous manikins here below (*Carlyle*, "*Sartor Resartus*").