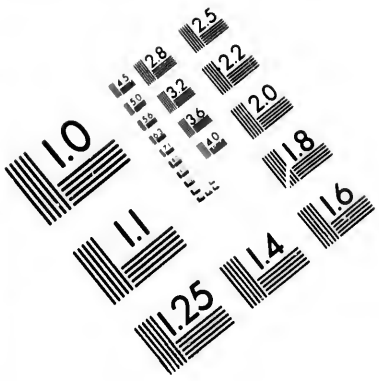

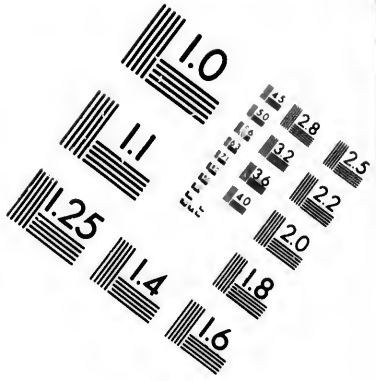

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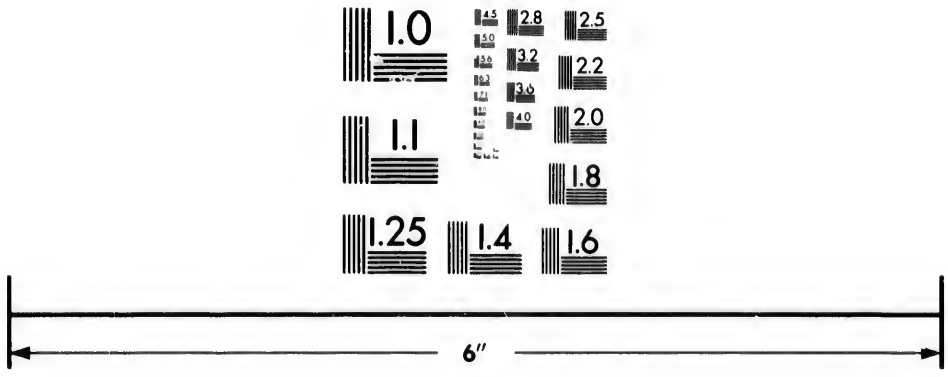

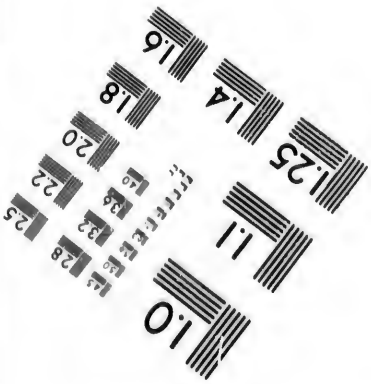

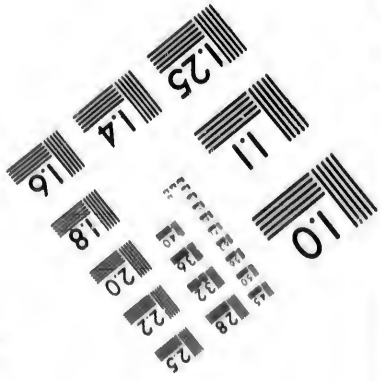

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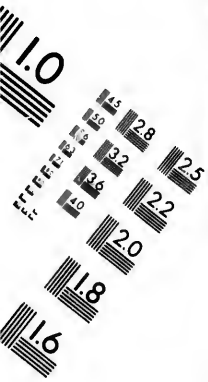

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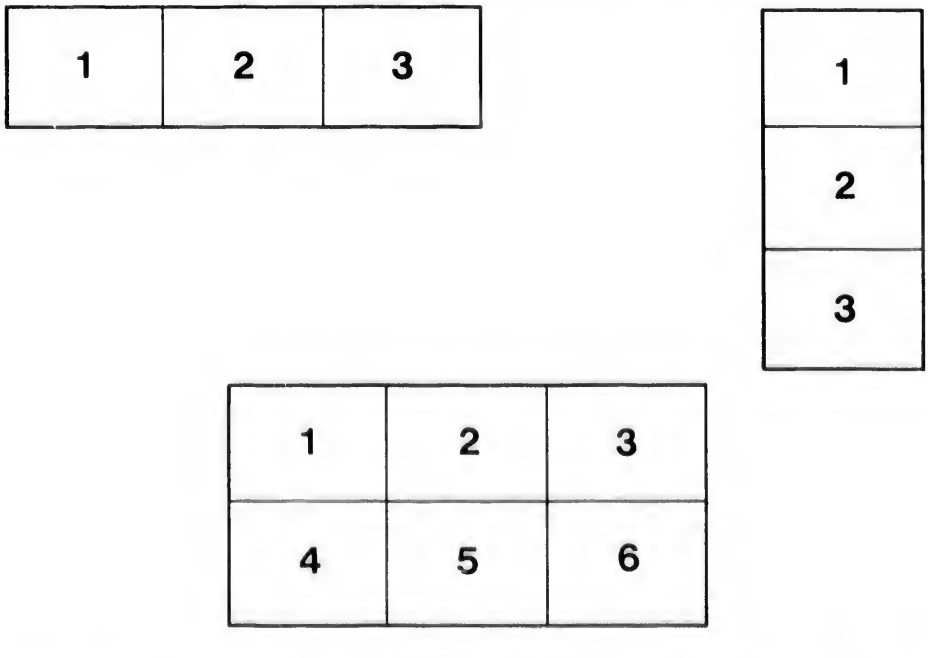

AN

ENGLISH GRAMMAR

FOR SCHOOLS,

WITH

Outlines of Introductory Lessons for Oral Teaching
a Complete System of Graduated Exercises in
Etymology, Analysis and Syntax; and
an Appendix containing an
Historical Sketch of the
English Language.

SECOND EDITION.

PRESCRIBED BY THE COUNCIL OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION FOR USE IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF NOVA SCOTIA.

HALIFAX, N. S.:
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PREFACE.

The present work has no higher aim than to prove a serviceable manual for school use, and thus fulfil the promise of its title. In its preparation, grammar has been recognized as a science, which, while capable of important practical applications, has also a distinctive educational value. On either side of this conception of grammar, are two views somewhat prevalent, but each involving, it is believed, a certain amount of error. One of them finds expression in the popular definition of grammar as the science *which teaches how to speak and write correctly.* This limitation of the purposes of grammatical study to purely practical ends is open to two prime objections. In the first place it entirely fails to recognize the *educational* importance of the scientific study of language. That study must have a place, *for its own sake*, in all well regulated systems of mental training, and the first and most natural field for its prosecution is undoubtedly the native speech of the pupils themselves. Secondly, the mere study of the principles of grammar can never impart ability to speak and write correctly. That ability comes largely from fortunate associations, but chiefly from one's being habituated to the right use of words by a careful drill, early begun and long continued,—a drill involving constant correction of wrong expressions, the observant imitation of accurate models, and assiduous practice in composition, under proper guidance.

As a re-action from the theory that the only object of English grammar is to teach the correct use of English, it is sometimes contended that the study of its principles has no practical bearing or utility whatever. This is to swing to the opposite pole of error. While it would be impossible for an incorrect speaker to transform himself into a correct one by a theoretical investigation of the laws of language, it is still true that efforts at improvement in habits of speech may be greatly furthered by such investigation, to say nothing of the fact that grammar,

as the register of approved usage, furnishes the criteria by which we can at all times test the accuracy of our expressions.

Economic reasons, if no other, rendering it desirable to provide a text-book which will serve a pupil in passing through all the grades of our schools, most matter involving the discussion of disputed usages, minute distinctions, peculiar forms and idiomatic expressions, has been arranged in *Notes*, which can be passed over by junior pupils without inconvenience, to be taken up in connection with subsequent reviews. In respect to the *scope* of the work, the aim has been to draw the line as accurately as possible between *too much* and *too little*. While no effort has been made to produce a philological treatise, it is believed that the grammatical principles and peculiarities of our language are treated with as great fulness as is desirable within the limits of ordinary common and high school work. The subject of analysis, as introductory to, and explanatory of, the rules of syntax proper, is unfolded and illustrated as fully as in any of the popular treatises on that special department of grammar.

In regard to the mode of treatment adopted, the work has been prepared in sympathy with modern tendencies towards freeing English grammar from traditional shackles inherited from the complicated inflections of the classical languages, as well as towards the simplification of grammatical formulæ in general. Thus the purely hypothetical distinction of *person*, needlessly ascribed to nouns, is dropped. Gender is put upon the simplest possible basis, and as an attribute of nouns is recognized as almost as ideal as person. The subjunctive mood is held to remain in ordinary verbs only where it clearly retains its distinctive characteristic, viz., a common form for the three persons of the singular; while the syntax of the infinitive, as a living and active part of the language, is thought worthy of fuller treatment than it sometimes receives.

The exercises have been carefully selected, and are arranged upon a plan, which, with proper oversight on the part of the teacher, will aid in the attainment of an intelligent mastery of the whole subject.

SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS.

1. It is proposed that the text-book shall not be placed in the hands of pupils until they are prepared to enter upon the studies of the *sixth* grade of the Common School Course. The introductory Lessons are designed for purely *oral* teaching. They do not constitute a complete treatise on elementary grammar, but simply embody the substance of the oral work outlined in the Course as preliminary to entrance on the formal study of the science.

2. In arranging the matter of these Lessons, two objects have been kept in view: first, to unfold in a clear and orderly manner the fundamental principles of grammar; secondly, to discourage all attempts to substitute for real teaching and learning the *memoriter* recitation of definitions and rules.

3. The Lessons are submitted as a general guide to teachers, who, it is assumed, are capable of clothing the outlines furnished with appropriate explanations and illustrations of their own. No class exercise should be begun by placing before the children a bald statement of the principle to be established. The latter should be *educed* by proper questioning from knowledge already possessed by the pupils, in connection with illustrative sentences on the black-board. The greatest care should be taken to unfold and impress by repeated practice in sentence-building the relations which the various elements of language sustain to one another. In a language like English, in which the same word may represent several parts of speech, it is in the highest degree important that children should learn to distinguish words by their *function* in a sentence.

4. The *divisions* of the Lessons have been determined by convenience of treatment, and have no reference to *the amount of work to be attempted at each recitation*. This must be left to the judgment of the teacher, who, however, is earnestly recommended not to attempt too much. It is believed that the Lessons may well occupy the whole time assigned to their subjects in the Course of Study. The aim should be to secure by frequent review and copious illustration a firm grasp of the rudimentary distinctions of language.

5. When the time has come for placing the text-book in the hands of the pupils, the first few weeks of the term should be devoted to a careful review of the introductory Lessons. The exercises belonging to the body of the work have been placed together, as on the whole the most convenient method of location. They are carefully adapted in order of development to the text which they illustrate. *A certain amount of exercise-work should accompany every recitation.* The *Notes* are intended for advanced pupils only, though teachers may occasionally deem it wise at an earlier stage to derive therefrom material for explanation.

LESSONS ON LANGUAGE.

I.

Language in General.

1. The mind exercises itself, or *reflects*, on what is seen, heard, or felt. In so doing it is said to *think*, and the mental acts themselves are called *thoughts*.

2. Men have a natural desire to communicate their thoughts to others. This they can do in various ways. There are certain expressions of countenance which every one understands to indicate joy, anger, or surprise. An infant, long before it can speak, is able to make known its wants and to show its admiration of new or brightly colored objects. A clenched fist, violently shaken, tells us of anger, and of a desire to inflict injury or punishment.

3. When we give expression to our thoughts by sounds uttered with the voice, we are said to *talk*, and the vocal sounds themselves taken together constitute **language**

Language really means *that which is spoken by the tongue.* The sounds making up language are said to be *articulate.* This is derived from a Latin word meaning "a little joint." Articulate sounds are those which are regularly connected and clearly uttered. Sounds which convey no meaning because they are jumbled together, or are indistinctly spoken, are said to be *inarticulate.*

4. People have agreed that certain marks or written characters shall represent certain articulate sounds. Hence there is a distinction between *spoken* language and *written* language. The former appeals to the *ear*, the latter to the *eye*. The *thought* is the same in whichever way it is expressed. Were it not, however, for writing, the principles of language could not be conveniently studied.

II.

The Sentence.

1. As our thoughts are distinct from each other, so language, which is the *expression* of thought, is naturally divided into distinct portions. Each part or division of language which expresses a complete thought is called a **Sentence.** The original meaning of the word *sentence* was *thought* or *opinion.*

2. Whenever we talk so as to be understood, we talk in sentences.

That mountain is higher than ———,
I was too late for———
The little boy was glad to get———,
The pretty girl on the front seat ———,

are *not* sentences, because they do not convey any meaning. By slight additions, what was before meaningless becomes, in each case, a *sentence* or *expression of a complete thought.* Thus,—

That mountain is higher than *Blomidon.*
I was too late for *school.*
The little boy was glad to get *his prize.*
The pretty girl on the front seat *knew her lesson.*

(Repeated exercises should be given at this point, until the fundamental conception of the sentence *as a complete statement* is fully grasped).

III.

Subject and Predicate.

In every sentence we say *something* about *something.* In the sentence "John is a good boy" we say *about* (or *of*) *John* that *he is a good* boy. A sentence, therefore, must consist of two parts. One of these is that *of which something is said.* This is called the **Subject.**

The other part is *the statement made concerning the subject.* This is called the **Predicate.**

Nova Scotia is a peninsula.

Subject:—Nova Scotia (that of which something is said).
Predicate:—is a peninsula (statement made concerning Nova Scotia).

EXERCISE.

Point out the **subject** *and* **predicate** *in the following sentences:—*

Stars shine. Eagles are swift. War is a dreadful evil. Rain has fallen. Death will come. Alexander the Great died a drunkard. John is a good boy.

(The above and all succeeding exercise-sentences are given simply as *specimens*. It should be one of the teacher's chief cares to amplify and vary the exercises. A suitable method of questioning would be as follows:—

Rain has fallen.

Is this a sentence? *Yes*, because it expresses a complete thought (or makes a complete meaning).
What is the subject? *Rain*, because it is that of which something is said (or concerning which a statement is made).
What is the predicate? *has fallen*, (because it is the statement made concerning rain).)

IV.

Words.

1. Let us divide the sentence "The little birds sing sweetly," into subject and predicate.

Subject:—The little birds
Predicate:—sing sweetly.

We see that both subject and predicate consist of *individual* parts or elements, the....little....birds....sing....sweetly. These individual parts are called **words.**

2. A word as *spoken* consists of one or more articulate sounds; as *written* it *represents* those sounds.

3. Every word in a sentence, as we shall see more clearly afterwards, has its own particular part to play, in consequence of its meaning, and of the manner in which it is used with other words.

4. The shortest sentences consist of *two* words. In the sentence above given as an example, we can omit

all the words except *birds* and *sing*, and still have a sentence, *birds sing*. A sentence like "birds sing," in which the subject and predicate are each composed of a single word is sometimes called a **naked** sentence.

EXERCISE.

Reduce the following into the form of **naked** *sentences:—*

John's eldest brother runs fast. The moon shines in the sky. Pretty parrot talks like a man. Much rain fell last night. Beautiful ships sail on the river.

V.

Nouns and Verbs.

In a naked sentence such as "birds sing" we can observe a great difference in the force of the words used. One word, "birds," is the name of a class of animals with which we are very familiar, whose forms we can see, and whose music we can hear. The other word, "sings," is not the *name* of anything. It simply *tells* us something about the "birds," tells us *what they do*,—they *sing*.

A word like "birds" which is the *name* of something is called a **noun.**

A word like "sings," which *tells* or *affirms* is called a **verb.**

Some words may be either nouns or verbs. In the sentence, "Water is cold," *water* is a noun, because it is a name. In the sentence, "The boys *water* the plants," it is a verb, because it is used to make a statement. To assign a word to its proper class as *noun* or *verb*, we must consider whether it is a *naming* word or a *telling* word.

EXERCISE 1.

Point out the **nouns** *and* **verbs** *in the following sentences:—*

Sun rises. Winds blow. Boys play. June has come

Spring rejoices. Lion roars. Soldiers march Gold glitters. Fire burns. Burns smart.

EXERCISE 2.

Supply verbs for the following nouns:—

Moon——. Snow——. Girls——. Horses——. Dog——. Roosters——. Teacher——. Mother——

EXERCISE 3

Supply nouns for the following verbs:—

—— runs. —— bites. —— play. —— scolds —— praises. —— digs. —— shine. —— melts.

VI.

The Noun.

We have seen that a noun is the *name* of something. The word "noun" simply means "name." The *something* whose name is called a *noun* may be an object which we can *see*, as a *horse; hear*, as *thunder; smell*, as a *perfume; touch*, as *anything solid*. Or it may be an object of *thought* simply, that which we can *think about*, but not *see*, *hear*, &c.; as, *life, death, autumn, mind, soul*. A noun also may be the name of a *quality* of an object; as, *beauty, length, industry*.

2. Nouns which are the names of *individual* objects are called **Proper** nouns. Such are all names of *persons* and *places*; as, John, Cæsar, Queen Victoria, Halifax, London, North America.

Proper nouns always begin with a capital letter.

3. Nouns which are the names of *classes* of objects are called **Common** nouns. Such are man, woman, horse, child, vessel, city.

EXERCISE.

Point out the **proper** *and* **common** *nouns in the following sentences:—*

1. Jacob had twelve sons. Sodom was one of the cities

of the Plain. The most populous continent is Asia Hannibal gained a victory over the Romans. "Up guards, and at them," said Wellington. Napoleon was sent in exile to St. Helena. Quebec is larger than New Brunswick. Annapolis is an old town.

VII.

The Verb.

1. We have seen that the verb is that word in a sentence that *tells* or *asserts* something. Now as every sentence contains a statement made about something, every sentence must contain a verb. *Verb* means "word," and the name has been given because the verb is considered the most important word in the sentence, being that by which the statement is made. The noun denoting the person or thing concerning which the verb makes a statement is called the **subject** of the verb.

2. On examining a number of verbs, as, for instance, those in the following sentences: "John *sleeps*," "James *strikes*," "Boys *run*," "Teacher *persuades*," "Baby *talks*," "Sister *loves*," we find that they can be divided into two classes. "James strikes," "Teacher persuades," "Sister loves," though statements are made in them, nevertheless seem *incomplete*. We naturally ask, strikes *what?* (or *whom?*), persuades *whom?* loves *whom?* (or *what?*); and when these questions are answered; "James strikes *the table*," "Teacher persuades *the scholars*," "Sister loves *study*," we see that the full expressions for which we were looking have been supplied. Verbs which thus almost necessarily require some added word to complete their meaning are called **transitive**. They express *action*, and the word *transitive* denotes the *going over* of their action to some person or thing. The name of that person or thing is called the *object* of the action, and as a noun, it is said to be the **object** of the *verb*.

Verbs which are not transitive, such as *run* and *walk*, may express *action*, but not as going over to an object. Sentences

containing transitive verbs are those which most fully describe an action. When anything is done, it is natural to ask, first, who does it (*subject*), second, what kind of an action (*verb*), to what person or thing is the action done (*object*).

2. On the other hand, the sentences, "John sleeps," "Boys run," "Baby talks," are *complete in themselves.* Such verbs as *sleeps, talks, run,* which do *not* require the addition of an object to complete the sense are called **intransitive.**

(Some teachers at this point may deem it proper to explain that the distinction above drawn between the two principal classes of verbs is not an *absolute* one; that in many cases the same verb has both a transitive and intransitive use. Verbs of *incomplete predication,* which form a class by themselves, may be reserved to a more advanced stage of the study of grammar).

EXERCISE 1.

Distinguish between **transitive** *and* **intransitive** *verbs in the following sentences, pointing out also the* **subject** *and* **object** :—

The sea roars. God created the world. Victoria rules England. The people stood. John formerly cherished hopes, but he now despairs. The King died, and his followers sadly dug his grave. The general rode; the soldiers walked; the camp-followers carried the baggage.

EXERCISE 2.

Supply intransitive verbs to correspond with the following subjects :—

Lion ——. Tigers ——. Water——. Silver——. Criminals ——. Baby ——. The old horse ——.

EXERCISE 3.

Supply transitive verbs with objects to correspond with the following subjects :—

Lions —— ——. Fierce dogs —— ——. The earthquake —— ——. James —— ——. Much study —— ——. Idle boys —— ——.

VIII.

The Adjective.

1. We have seen that every sentence can be separated into two great divisions, the subject and the predicate, and that each of these *may* consist of a single word, the word composing the subject being called a *noun*, that composing the predicate, a *verb*. We have seen also that some sentences contain words which are *neither nouns nor verbs;* they are not *names* and they do not *tell* or *assert* anything.

EXERCISE.

In the following sentences point out words which are neither **nouns** *nor* **verbs**:—

Little birds sing. Bad boy frets. Cold water refreshes. Sharp skates cut smooth ice. Idle girls get poor lessons.

2. It will be noticed that all the words pointed out in the preceding exercise as neither nouns nor verbs, are *joined to nouns.* In each case they *describe* the object of which the noun is the name.

Words thus joined to nouns for the purpose of description are called **adjectives.**

3. The adjective is simply a *helping* word; it adds to the meaning of the noun but it makes smaller the number of objects to which the noun applies. "Birds" is the name of the whole class; "little birds" of a particular part of that class, that part which is *described* by the word *little.*

4. Very many adjectives describe objects by indicating some *quality* belonging to them. Such are *sweet, sour, large, small, good, bad, wise, foolish.* These adjectives are said to **qualify** nouns.

5. Many other adjectives describe objects by a reference to *number, quantity, situation, &c.* Such are *one, two, first, second, all, some, several, this, that.* These adjectives are said to **limit** nouns.

6. Two adjectives deserve particular mention. These are *an* or *a*, and *the*.

(1.) *An* or *a* is sometimes called the **Indefinite Article**. It is placed before a noun *denoting a single object* to describe it in a general way as one (anyone) of a class; as, *a* horse (that is any one of the class *horse*) eats grass.

An is placed before a word beginning with a vowel; as, *an* ant, *an* enterprise, *an* idiot.

A is placed before a word beginning with a consonant; as, *a* boy, *a* month, *a* clock.

(2.) *The*, sometimes called the **Definite Article**, is placed before nouns, whether denoting one or more objects, to point out particularly the person or thing spoken of; as, This is *the* way in which you shall go.

7. Any noun in a sentence may have an adjective joined with it.

EXERCISE 1.

Point out the **adjectives** *in the following sentences:—*

1. I like the keen air of October. Sunny skies cheered his fainting heart. The perfumed air of sweet June. Several men tried three times, Small countries sometimes make great men. This man walked ten miles.

EXERCISE 2.

Attach **qualifying** *adjectives to the following nouns:—*

1. ——— sun. 2. ——— moon. 3. ——— dog. 4. ——— teacher. 5. ——— day. 6. ——— copy-book. 7. ———road.

EXERCISE 3.

Attach **limiting** *adjectives to the following nouns:—*

1. ——— men. 2. ——— miles. 3. ——— mountain. 4. ——— goods. 5. ———pencils. 6. ——— child.

IX.

The Adverb.

1. We have seen that a *naked* sentence, such as "birds sing," may be increased by attaching a word to the *subject-noun* "birds,"—"*little* birds sing." We shall now see that the same sentence may be increased by attaching a word to the *predicate-verb* "sings,"—"birds sing *sweetly*." "Sweetly" tells us *how* the birds sing; it describes the *manner* in which the action expressed by the verb is performed. Other words might be joined to the verb, which would describe the *time*, *place*, or *degree* of the action; as, Birds sing *frequently*. Birds sing *everywhere*. Birds sing *much*.

2. A word thus joined to a verb to *describe* its action is called an **adverb**, and is said to **modify** or **limit** the meaning of the verb.

The adverb sometimes *precedes* and sometimes *follows* its verb.

3. Occasionally adverbs, chiefly those denoting *degree*, limit the meaning of *adjectives;* as, A *very* simple fellow. A *gloriously* fine day.

More rarely an adverb limits the meaning of *another adverb;* as, John sang *quite* successfully.

EXERCISE 1.

Point out the **adverbs** *in the following sentences:—*

The boys worked faithfully. The horse ran fast. We see through a glass darkly. The gun is there. Do well whatever you undertake. Dinner time will soon be here. James is wondrously wise. He tried that too often.

EXERCISE 2.

(1.) Supply adverbs of **manner** in the following sentences:—

He writes ——. The man walked——. They waited——

(2.) Adverbs of **time** in the following :—

I will ——— overtake you. He is not in London ——— He was there ———. James ——— visits me now. It ——— happens.

(3.) Adverbs of **place** in the following :

Do you see that tree ——? Good news, father is —— I will be —— to-morrow. He, Who made all things, is ——

(4.) Adverbs of **degree** in the following :—

I —— prefer this to that. John —— thought that was to be his last lesson. I am —— sure that I did not say so.

X.

Analysis.

1. The distinction between the *subject* and *predicate* of a sentence has been repeatedly pointed out. We have seen that each may be a single word, or may consist of several words.

Pointing out the subject and predicate of a sentence, and the parts of which each is composed, is called **Analysis.** *Analysis* means *the taking to pieces of something composed of parts.*

2. In a *naked* sentence the subject and predicate are said to be **simple.**

3. When the simple subject is increased by other words, it is said to be **enlarged,** and words thus increasing the subject are called **enlargements.**

The most common enlargement is the *adjective.* It will hereafter be seen that all other enlargements have the *force* of adjectives.

4. When the simple predicate is increased by other words, it is said to be **extended,** and words thus increasing the predicate are called **extensions.**

The most common extension is the *adverb.* It will be seen hereafter that all other extensions have the *force* of adverbs.

5. For the sake of convenience, the adjectives *an* or *a*, and *the* are often not distinguished as enlargements, but treated as forming parts of the subject.

The negative adverb *not* is part of the predicate and not an extension.

EXERCISE.

Analyze the following sentences by pointing out :—

Subject.	*Enlargement.*	*Predicate.*	*Extension.*

Healthy persons live long. Wise boys study hard. The lame horse stumbles badly. All the boys are here. Brave soldiers die bravely. Great troubles quickly followed. Wise plans succeed well. The little fellows did not complain aloud.

6. The object of a transitive verb is not considered an extension of the predicate, but is treated as a separate element of the sentence. The object may be *enlarged* by an adjective, just like the subject.

EXERCISE.

Analyze the following sentences by pointing out :—

Subject.	*Enlargement.*	*Predicate.*	*Object.*	*Enlargement of Object.*	*Extension.*

Little boys answer hard questions quickly. Good news always brings much pleasure. Diligent study generally secures good lessons. The mischievous sailors luckily chose a bad day.

XI.

Different Kinds of Sentences.

1. When we talk we do not always make direct statements, that is, *affirm* or *deny* something. We

often find it necessary to ask a question, command a certain thing to be done, express a wish, or utter an exclamation.

(1.) Sentences which simply *affirm* or *deny:* as, "The day is fine"; "John did not go," are called **declarative.**

(2.) Sentences which ask questions; as, "Will you go,"? are called **interrogative.**

(3.) Sentences which contain a *command* or *request;* as, "Leave me alone," are called **imperative.**

(4.) Sentences which express a wish; as, "God save the Queen," are called **optative.**

(5.) Sentences which express an exclamation; as, "What a beautiful day it is!" are called **exclamatory.**

2. Every sentence, *when written,* requires to have placed after it a certain mark or character. These marks are:—

(1.) The **Period,** (.), placed after *declarative* and *imperative* sentences; as, Truth is mighty. Go home.

(2.) The **Interrogation-point,** (?), placed after *interrogative* sentences; as, Do you intend to go?

(3.) The **Exclamation-point,** (!), placed after *exclamatory* and *optative* sentences: as, How the wind does make one shiver! May Heaven bless you!

3. Other marks are used to distinguish *the different parts* of a sentence. The art of marking off language into sentences, and sentences into parts is called **punctuation.**

EXERCISE.

Distinguish the **kind** *of the following sentences, and* **punctuate** *each sentence:—*

God is love May we meet again When shall we meet again Depart from me Thy kingdom come How fresh is this morning air Never did he do worse We are not sure Hope on, hope ever

(The pupils should be exercised in changing sentences from one kind to another).

XII.

Number of Nouns.

1. As a noun is a *name,* so it must sometimes be the name of a single object, as *bird,* and at other times of a number of objects of the same kind, as *birds.*

The distinction of nouns founded on the number of objects which they denote is called **number.**

2. When a noun denotes one object it is said to be of the **singular** number; as, boy, girl, house, ship.

3. When a noun denotes several objects of the same kind it is said to be of the **plural** number; as, boys, girls, houses, ships.

4. The plural number is generally formed by adding *-s* to the singular, as shown in the examples just given.

5 The following are exceptions to the general rule :—

(1.) Nouns ending *s, sh, ch* (sounding soft as in *church*) and *x* add *es* to form the plural; as, tress, tresses; fish, fishes; porch, porches; box, boxes.

(2.) A few nouns form their plural by *en;* as, ox, oxen.

(3.) Also a few by changing the principal vowel; as, man, men; foot, feet; goose, geese.

EXERCISE 1.

Distinguish the following nouns as singular or plural :—

House, uncles, queen, women, dish, torches, brush, traps, earl, boot, ducks, frog, inkeepers, ball.

EXERCISE 2.

Give the plural of the following nouns:

House, steer, march, fox, thrush, doe, child.

EXERCISE 3.

Give the singular of the following nouns:

Lamps, mistresses, princes, princesses, soldiers, mice, spoons, bookcases.

XIII.

Number of Verbs.

1. The distinction between *bird* and *birds*, that is between the *singular* number and the *plural* number of nouns, has been pointed out. We shall now see that there is something corresponding to this in verbs

2. We say "*bird* **sings**," but "*birds* **sing**." This variation in the form of verbs is expressed by saying that *the verb agrees in number with its subject*.

3. When the subject of the verb is singular, the verb also is said to be singular; as, John *strikes*. Boy *plays*.

4. When the subject of the verb is plural, the verb also is said to be plural; as, Men *strike*. Boys *play*. Also with two or more singular subjects connected by *and* the verb is plural; as, Charles and Joseph *play*.

5. The singular form of the verb can very often be recognized by the termination **-s**. We shall see hereafter, however, that in many cases the singular and plural forms of the verb are alike.

EXERCISE.

Correct any of the following sentences which you regard as violating the rule above given as to the agreement of the verb and its subject in number.

Baby talk. Book-keepers writes. Clergymen preaches. Water flows. Brooks flows. Ox haul. Girls dances.

XIV.

Nominative Case.

1. We have seen that a noun may be the *subject* of a verb; as, *Kings* rule. *Books* are read.

The noun, which is the subject of a verb, is said to be in the **nominative case.**

2. This noun may have another noun standing beside it to explain its meaning more fully. The latter noun is also in the nominative case, and is said to be in **apposition** with the former; as, The river *Thames* overflowed its bank. Tennyson, the *poet*, wrote a beautiful ode.

3. A noun that denotes the person or thing *directly addressed*, is in the nominative case; as, *O King*, live forever! *Fellow-soldiers*, I ask you to do or die.

EXERCISE.

Point out in the following sentences nouns in the **nominative case**: (1) *as* **subjects**; (2) *as in* **apposition** *with the subject*; (3) *as denoting the object of* **address**:—

The troops fought bravely. William, the Prince, soon arrived. The star Orion shines in the sky. Paul, thou art beside thyself. Their General, George Washington, was greatly beloved.

XV.

Objective Case.

1. A noun that is the object of a transitive verb is said to be in the **objective** case; as, The bullet killed the *man*.

The objective case of nouns is in form exactly like the nominative. The cases can only be distinguished by the relation in which the nouns stand.

2. The object, like the subject, may have a noun in apposition in the same case; as, The army crossed the River *Rhine*.

EXERCISES.

In the following sentences point out all nouns in the **objective** *case, distinguishing them as* **objects**, *and as nouns in* **apposition** *with the object*:—

The boy has two balls. Seven days make a week. I saw Dawson, the druggist. Two ponies were drawing the wagon, a huge affair. The colonel saluted his superior officer, the general.

XVI.

Possessive Case.

1. In such an expression as, "*William's* book," we do not refer to William as either the *subject* or *object* of an action, but as an *owner* or *possessor*. *William's* is said to be in the **possessive** case. The principle may be stated generally thus: The noun denoting an owner or possessor is in the possessive case.

2. The possessive, unlike the nominative and

objective, is a *real* case. We mean by this that it has a form of *its own ;* a noun in the possessive case can be recognized at sight ; we are not obliged to inquire into its relations to other words to determine its case. The possessive case adds **'s** to the ordinary form of the noun ; as, *John's* cap. The *man's* house. But plural nouns ending in *s* add only ' ; as, *Horses'* shoes. The *boys'* skates.

3. A noun in the possessive case immediately precedes the noun denoting the thing owned.

EXERCISE 1.

Point out in the following sentences all nouns in the **possessive** *case :—*

I saw Samuel's kite. The dog's tail was bitten off. To-morrow's sun may never rise. I saw the captain's regiment leaving. Those tall mountains' peaks pierce the sky. Horses' ears show when they are frightened.

EXERCISE 2.

Supply before each of the following nouns a singular noun in the possessive case :—

——— book. ——— scissors. ——— house. ——— horses ——— trunk. ——— chisel.

EXERCISE 3.

Supply before each of the following nouns a plural noun in the possessive case :—

——— slates. ——— names. ——— covers. ——— thimbles. ——— studies. ——— canes. ——— walls.

XVII.

ANALYSIS.

1. In studying the structure of sentences, we have seen that both the subject and object may be enlarged by an adjective. We are now in a position to see that certain other words may take the place of an adjective in this enlargement. These are : (1), A noun in

apposition , as, Scott, *the novelist*, wrote some famous books. Have you seen the new paper, *the Times*? (2) A noun in the possessive case ; as, The *sailor's* story was soon told. *Men's* consciences are sometimes hardened.

2. The same noun may have several enlargements ; as, *John's new* book.

EXERCISE.

Analyze according to form previously given the following sentences. (Where two or more enlargements belong to the same noun, write them in order one below the other, describing each) :—

Simpson, the tailor, made John's pants. Wellington's white plume caught the soldiers' eyes. The elder sister enjoyed that great blessing, health. The sun's heat dried the damp paint. The city's beauty charmed our friends, the American visitors. That sad event proves man's inhumanity.

XVIII.

Pronouns.

It would be very inconvenient, if, when we refer to objects, we were always obliged to use their names in full. For instance, if your name was John, and you had a brother whose name was Thomas, the following sentence would have a very awkward sound :—"Here is Thomas, John's (the speaker pointing to himself) brother. Thomas came yesterday ; John (pointing as before) was glad to see Thomas." It would be much simpler to say :—"Here is Thomas, *my* brother ; *he* came yesterday ; *I* was glad to see *him*.

2. The words which we have put in the place of names are called **pronouns**, that is, words *standing for nouns*. Pronouns, strictly speaking, are not names, but they serve the purpose of names, when what has been before said, or some other circumstance, enables us to understand the person or thing referred to. For instance, if we have been speaking of a friend, it

will not be necessary to repeat his name whenever we refer to him; we shall be understood if we say: "*He* will be here to-night."

3. Pronouns, as standing for nouns, can take all the positions of nouns, whether as *subject*, *object*, or *appositive*. Pronouns, however, are very rarely found in the relation of apposition.

4. Pronouns agree in *number* with the nouns for which they stand.

EXERCISE.

In the following sentences point out the words, which, as **standing for nouns,** *you consider to be* **pronouns**:—

I saw the captain, who told me that he was ready to sail. The general, seeing the soldiers about to mutiny, commanded them to be put in the prison which he had built. Open thou the gates. We saw them killing him.

XIX.

Personal Pronouns.

1. There are three pronouns which indicate *by their form* whether they stand for the *speaker*, *the person spoken to*, or *the person or thing spoken of*.

These are *I*, *Thou*, and *He (she, it)*.

2. I is called the **First Personal** Pronoun, and denotes the speaker. It is always written with a capital.

3. Thou is called the **Second Personal** Pronoun, and denotes the person or thing spoken to.

4. He (she, it) is called the **Third Personal** Pronoun, and denotes the person or thing spoken of.

5. I and thou have *different* forms for the two numbers, and the former for the three cases in both numbers. The plural forms, *you* and *your*, of the second personal pronoun have taken the place of the singular in ordinary conversation and writing; as John, *you* are a naughty boy. *You*, therefore, is singular or plural, according to the meaning.

(The paradigms of these pronouns will be presented to the pupils on the blackboard and fully explained. They may then be memorized.)

6. The pronoun of the third person has not only the same distinctions as the preceding for number and case, but has *three* forms in all the cases of the singular number. By examining a few sentences such as, "Father is away, but *he* will soon be home"; "My sister is here, *she* will be glad to see you"; "The stone sank, *it* is out of sight," we are led to see that a different form is used according as the pronoun represents a being of the *male sex*, a being of the *female sex*, or an object *having no sex*, because without life. The term **gender** is employed to mark this distinction.

7. The pronoun *he*, applied to beings of the *male* sex, is said to be of the **masculine** gender. The pronoun *she*, applied to beings of the *female* sex, is said to be of the **feminine** gender. The pronoun *it*, applied to things without life, is said to be of the **neuter** gender. *Neuter* means neither.

8. Observe that the neuter *it* is also generally used to stand for the names of inferior animals, particularly when there are not distinct names for each sex; as, I will kill that snake, or *it* will hurt somebody.

9. The possessive cases of the personal pronouns are frequently regarded as *adjectives*.

10. The distinction of gender is attributed to nouns and pronouns generally, the *sex* of the *object* determining the *gender* of the *name*, according to the principles above laid down. Our language, however, really requires no reference to the matters of sex and gender, save as regards the right use of the third personal pronoun.

EXERCISE 1.

Point out and classify the **personal pronouns** *in the following sentences*:—

We saw you. She told them so. I did it. They bade her farewell. Thou hast smitten him.

EXERCISE 2.

Supply the proper form of the third personal pronoun (singular) in the following sentences :—

Summer is no longer here; I am sorry that —— has gone. John left yesterday; we miss ——. My mare has strayed away. Did you see ——? James has lost —— book.

XX.

Relative and Interrogative Pronouns.

1. In such a sentence as, "This is the man *who* told me," we find a pronoun *who*, which, in addition to representing, or standing for, the noun *man*, connects the words which follow it with those preceding it.

2. Pronouns which thus *connect* words, as well as stand for nouns, are called **relative.** The foregoing noun or pronoun to which the relative refers, or for which it stands, is called its **antecedent.**

3. The relative pronouns are *who*, *which*, *what*, and *that*.

4. The possessive case of *who* is *whose* and the objective *whom*. The relative pronouns have no other changes of form.

5. Who is used only when the antecedent is the name of a *person* ; as, Soldiers *who* fight.

6. The antecedent of *that* may be the name of either a person or thing; as, The man *that* speaks. The tree *that* grows.

7. Which can now be used only when the antecedent is the name of an object without life, or of an inferior animal ; as, The leaves *which* fall The dog *which* barks.

8. The antecedent of *what* being indefinite is not expressed ; as, He did *what* he was told to do.

9 *Who*, *which*, and *what*, are also used to ask questions. They are then called *interrogative pronouns*.

EXERCISE 1.

Point out the **relative** *and* **interrogative** *pronouns in the following sentences, stating the case and number of each, and specifying the* **antecedent** *of the relative* :—

I will seek the friend whom I love. The spring which used to give us such nice drinks is dried up. The God that we adore will deliver us. This is the prize that I value most. What is brighter than gold? Who can believe it? I told the man that related the story which you have just heard, that he was mistaken. Which do you believe?

XXI.

Moods of Verbs.

1. The test of a verb is that it makes a statement. Verbs naturally undergo changes of form corresponding to the great varieties of statements which it is possible to make. The first of these changes to which we shall refer has reference to the *manner* in which the statement is made, and is called **mood.**

2. When we make a *direct* statement, as when we say "birds sing," the verb is said to be in the **indicative** mood. So also when we ask questions; as, *Answerest* thou not?

3. When the statement has the form of a *command* or a *request*, the verb is said to be in the **imperative** mood; as, *Love* your enemies.

4. That form of the verb which is used to express the action in a general manner is called the **infinitive** mood; as, We told him to *go*. The infinitive mood generally follows another verb, which is said to *govern* it. It is usually preceded by *to*, but some common verbs such as *bid*, *dare*, *make*, *see*, *feel*, do not require *to* before an infinitive following them; as, John saw his brothers *depart*.

EXERCISE.

Point out the **moods** *of the verbs in the following sentences* :—

The news arrived yesterday. The noise will frighten the horses. Lovest thou me? Go to the ant, thou sluggard. Command him to come. Trust not in oppression. He bade his friend be of good courage. Strike when the iron is hot.

XXII.

Tenses of Verbs.

1. The statement made by a verb may apply to the present, past, or future. For instance, the statement "the sun rises" refers to an event going on at the present time. But if we should refer to the past (as yesterday) we would say "the sun *rose* yesterday;" or if to the future, "the sun *will rise* to-morrow.

2. The change in verbs to denote *time* is called **tense.** There are primarily three tenses, the **Present, Past,** and **Future.**

3. Each tense has two numbers, corresponding to the number of the subject, as singular or plural. It has also three *persons* in both numbers.

4. The form which the verb takes when the subject is the First Personal Pronoun is called the **First Person**; as, I *love.*

The form which the verb takes when the subject is the Second Personal Pronoun is called the **Second Person**; as, Thou *lovest.*

The form which the verb takes when the subject is a noun or the third personal pronoun is called the **Third Person**; as, Mother *loves.* He *loves.*

The verb whose subject is a *relative pronoun* is in the person required by the *antecedent;* as, I who *love;* thou who *lovest;* he who *loves.*

(The teacher at this stage will present on the blackboard in successive lessons the present, past and future

tenses, indicative mood, of *be*, pointing out the peculiar use of that verb as a *copula*, connecting nouns and pronouns with other nouns and pronouns, or with adjectives and adverbs. Also the same tenses (indefinite form) of *love* and *write*, or of similar verbs).

EXERCISE.

Distinguish the **tenses** *of the verbs in the following sentences:—*

The teamster drives too rapidly. I am afraid that I shall tear my dress. The birds sang sweetly. We were ready when the time came. Others thought differently. Much time goes to waste. The fire will burn brightly.

XXIII.

Voices of Verbs.

In such a sentence as, "John strikes the table," John, the subject of the transitive verb *strikes*, names the *doer* of the action denoted by that verb. The same *meaning* is conveyed by "The table is struck by John." Here the subject *table* names the *receiver* of the action. The distinction in the form of transitive verbs depending on the relation of the subject to the action expressed by the verb, whether as *doer* or *receiver*, is called **voice.**

2. There are two voices, the Active and the Passive. In the **Active** voice, the subject of the verb represents the *doer* of the action; as, Joseph hit the ball.

In the **Passive** voice, the subject of the verb represents the *receiver* of the action; as, The ball was hit by Joseph.

3. Intransitive verbs have no distinction of voice.

4. The Passive voice is formed by attaching to the successive tenses of the verb *be* a form of the verb called the *past participle.* This participle is formed in various ways, which it is not necessary now to describe.

EXERCISE.

Distinguish the **voices** *of the verbs in the following sentences* :—

The men sawed the log. The log was sawn by the men. They shoot the deer. The cart was drawn by oxen. We carry a heavy load. The man said: I am killed. We shall either conquer or be conquered.

XXIV.

Conjunctions.

1. While language is necessarily marked off in sentences, the sentences themselves may be more or less closely connected. We can say: "The sun sets. Darkness comes on," or can combine these statements thus: "The sun sets *and* darkness comes on."

2. Words thus used to connect sentences are called **conjunctions.**

There are two chief classes of conjunctions, *co-ordinating* and *subordinating*.

3. **Co-ordinating** conjunctions connect sentences which are independent of each other in meaning; as, Our friend is not handsome *but* he is learned. The principal conjunctions of this class are *and, but, else, for, or.* Co-ordinate conjunctions connect *words* as well as ***sentences;*** as, The boys *and* girls are enjoying themselves. He did his work quickly *and* well. John is slow *but* sure.

4. **Subordinating** conjunctionsjoin to one sentence others dependent on it in meaning; as, That man is poor *because* he is lazy.

There are a great many conjunctions of this class, such as, *although, because, except, if, notwithstanding though, unless, lest, that, than.*

Subordinating conjunctions never connect mere *words.*

EXERCISE.

Distinguish the co-ordinating *and* subordinating *conjunctions in the following sentences*:—

He has worked hard and is very tired. You should go home, for it is very late. John tried very hard, because it was his last chance. The teacher is very kind, else the children would not love her so much. If you go, you will find it very pleasant. I will do so, since you wish it. He is richer than he is wise. Love not sleep, lest thou come to poverty.

XXV.

Prepositions.

1. Objects as they exist, or are conceived of by the mind, stand in certain *relations* to each other. One thing may be *above, below, around* or *upon* another. When we move, we come *from* this place *to* that.

Words thus placed before nouns to show the relation of that which the noun denotes to something else are called **Prepositions.**

2. Prepositions are among our most common words. *After, among, at, before, behind, below, between, by, for, in, of, on, through, to, under, up, with,* may be mentioned as most frequently occurring.

3. The noun or pronoun following a preposition is in the *objective* case; as, I sent it to *him.* This letter came from *us.*

4. Remember that the preposition, while it never like the conjunction joins sentences, yet marks a *connection* or *relation* between the word which it governs and some preceding word.

EXERCISE.

In the following sentences point out the prepositions, *the words which they* govern in the objective case, *and the* related words.

They sailed in a ship. We started for Liverpool, but went to London. The boys ran up the hill. Tobacco is injurious to health. The books of the book-seller are many. Of Him, and through Him, and to Him are all things. I have returned from France, and am now passing through England.

XXVI.

Parts of Speech.

1. We have briefly considered, though not precisely in this order, the noun, pronoun, adjective, verb, adverb, conjunction and preposition, the nature of each, and the part which each plays in making up a sentence. *Speech* is a term having the same meaning as *language;* consequently, the words mentioned are often spoken of as the "Parts of Speech."

2. Combinations of words taken at random do not make sentences, nor, in a proper sense, constitute language. The "Parts of Speech," as their name implies, are related to one another, and each contributes its share towards making up the sentence. The noun requires a verb to which it may stand in the relation of subject, or a preposition or verb to govern it in the objective case; the verb must have a noun or pronoun as its subject; the adjective a noun which it may qualify or limit; the adverb a verb, or some other word which it may modify.

3. The following sentence contains the Parts of Speech: "James and John gladly gave to them large presents."

When we describe the words of a sentence by assigning each to its proper part of speech, and stating its relations to other words, we are said to **parse.** Thus in the sentence just given:—

James and *John* are proper nouns, each of the masculine gender and singular number, in the nominative case, and together forming the subject of the verb *gave.*

And is a coordinating conjunction connecting the nouns *John* and *James.*

Gladly is an adverb of manner modifying the verb *gave.*

Gave is a transitive verb, indicative mood, past

tense, plural number, agreeing with its compound subject *John* and *James*.

(Singular nouns coupled with *and* require a plural verb.)

To is a preposition showing the relation between the pronoun *them* and the verb *gave*.

Them is the third personal pronoun, common gender, plural number, objective case, object of the preposition *to*.

Large is a qualifying adjective attached to (or qualifying) the noun *presents*.

Presents is a common noun, neuter gender, plural number, objective case, governed by the transitive verb *gave*.

(Difficult exercises in parsing should not be attempted. Much fuller statements than the above should be elicited by proper questioning: Why *proper* nouns? Why of the *masculine* gender? How do you know that they are *subjects*? &c., &c.)

4. There is but one class of words which we have not mentioned, Interjections.

Interjections are the disconnected words we utter when under the influence of some strong or sudden feeling; as, oh! ah! alas! They are generally ranked among the Parts of Speech, though they do not enter into the structure of sentences like other words. They stand absolutely alone— being as it were *thrown in*.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

INTRODUCTION.

1. **Language** or **Speech** is the instrument by which human beings express and exchange thought.

The term *language* is derived from the Latin word *lingua*, tongue. It is not properly applied to gestures, facial movements, and other physical signs by which feeling, and, to some extent, *thought*, are occasionally expressed. Language consists, primarily, in the oral utterance of sounds which by usage represent certain ideas; secondarily, in written characters which by usage represent certain articulate sounds.

2. **Grammar** is the science which treats of the principles of language.

General or *universal* grammar traces out and classifies principles common to all languages; *particular* grammar explains the laws and usages of a single language.

English Grammar is the science which treats of the principles of the English language.

3. The true unit of speech and, therefore, the true starting point of grammar, is the **sentence**, or *expression of a complete thought.*

Sentence is derived from the Latin word *sententia*, thought or opinion. In the nature of things, the expression of a thought implies *a complete meaning* in the language which expresses it.

Every sentence when examined is found to consist of *two* parts,—

(1.) That of which something is asserted, called the **Subject.**

(2.) That which is asserted of the subject, called the **Predicate.**

SENTENCES.

Subject.	Predicate.
Stars	shine
The mercenaries	were thrice defeated.
A good conscience	is a priceless treasure.
(He) who steals my purse	steals trash.
The spirit of your fathers	shall start from every wave.

The subject and predicate are called the **essential terms** of a sentence, because every sentence must contain both.

4. Sentences are composed of words.

A **word** is a significant combination of articulate sounds, capable of being represented by written characters.

Words stand for ideas and things, but they convey no information unless combined in sentences

A few words, such as *A* and *O*, consist each of a single sound, and are represented by a single character.

5 That part of grammar which treats of individual words in their forms and functions is called Etymology; that which treats of words as arranged in sentences is called Syntax.

Closely connected with Syntax is Analysis, or *the resolution of sentences into their essential terms.* Analysis logically precedes syntax, and by ascertaining what is common to all sentences renders the laws of syntax more simple and intelligible.

ETYMOLOGY.

6. **Etymology** treats of the *classification* and *forms* of words.

NOTE.—The word *etymology* is derived from the Greek, and primarily meant *the science which treats of the origin of words*. Its signification was naturally extended to embrace the elements included in our definition. The subject of derivation is more advantageously studied in special manuals of word-analysis, and is therefore properly omitted from a strictly grammatical definition. A distinction is sometimes drawn between *grammatical* and *historical* etymology.

CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS.

7. Words are divided into classes according to the different purposes for which they are used in speech. The classes into which words are thus divided are commonly called the **Parts of Speech**. These are—

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

With the exception of the preposition and interjection, the parts of speech admit of sub-classification.

NOTE.—The name, "part of speech," as given to a word shows that the latter is in some sense *incomplete*; that something is lacking to make a *whole*. The whole implied in the term is, as we have seen, the *sentence*.

FORMS OF WORDS.

8. Certain classes of words admit of change of *form*, in order to express difference of *relation*. These are the noun, pronoun, verb, adjective, and some adverbs. Prepositions, conjunctions, interjections, and most adverbs are invariable in form.

Change of form in nouns and pronouns is called

declension; in verbs, conjugation; in adjectives and adverbs, comparison.

NOTE 1.—Compared with Latin and Greek, and also with most modern tongues, the English language has but few and slight changes of form. In nouns, verbs, and some pronouns, the same form is repeatedly used to express different relations.

NOTE 2.—The ordinary term employed in grammar to denote the change of form in words is *inflection*, from the Latin *inflectere*, to bend, referring to modifications in the *endings* of words by which they were adapted to different relations in a sentence. While the word is highly expressive as applied to such languages as the Latin, Greek, Anglo-Saxon, or German, whose etymology is essentially based on terminational changes, its retention in English grammar tends to embarrassment. It cannot be used *comprehensively* as a grammatical term without doing violence to its proper meaning.

THE NOUN.

9. A noun is a word used as the *name* of something: as, horse, river, gold, Cromwell, wisdom.

(1.) The word *noun* means *name*. (From Latin *nomen*, name.)

(2.) Nouns name not only objects having an actual material existence, but *qualities*, *ideas* and *feelings* in their widest range.

CLASSIFICATION OF NOUNS.

10. Nouns according to *the extent of their meaning* are divided into two principal classes,

(1.) Proper nouns.

(2.) Common nouns.

11. A Proper Noun is the name of an individual person or thing, and is used to distinguish that person or thing from all others of the same class; as, Gustavus Adolphus, Mississippi, Tuesday, Vienna. Observe the distinction between these words and the words, man, river, day, city.

(1.) The word *proper* is derived from the Latin *proprius* and means *own*. A Proper Noun is one's *own* name.

(2.) Proper nouns are invariably written with a capital lette at the beginning.

(3.) As a rule, proper nouns are not *significant*. Even when the name, *in itself*, has a meaning, that meaning is not generally applied to the object for which the noun stands.

In their *origin*, however, many proper nouns were *descriptive*; as, *Snowdon, Mount Blanc, New England.* Many family surnames are of this character; as, *Smith, Brown, Taylor, Carpenter.*

(4.) When used as the common appellation of a number of individuals, a proper noun retains its essential character. In each case it has been applied separately, and is not used like a common noun to denote a whole class. Though there are several Londons, St. Johns, and Avons, London, St. John, and Avon are still proper nouns.

(5.) Proper nouns are sometimes used in the plural to denote classes or groups; as, the Ptolemies, the Wilberforces, the Cæsars. Also the name of a well-known person may be applied to others who resemble him in character or achievements; as, "St. Thomas Aquinas was the *Plato* of the Middle Ages."

12. A common noun is a name applicable alike to a class of objects and to each individual of which the class is composed; as, tree, boy, city, river, hero, poet.

The word *common* is derived from the Latin *communis*, shared by several. The name is the *common* property of all the individuals making up the class.

13. As all nouns which are not *proper* are ranked as *common* nouns, a sub-classification of the latter is suggested. We note :—

(1.) The **Collective** Noun, or name which denotes a number of individuals taken as a mass and spoken of as a single object; as, herd, jury, parliament, cabinet.

(2.) The **Abstract** Noun, which is the name not of a material object, but of a quality, action, state, or any other purely mental conception; as, sweetness, friction, sleep, truth.

(3.) Under this head may be specially mentioned, (*a*) names of the mental and moral powers; as, memory, conscience; (*b*) names of arts and sciences; as, poetry, logic, botany; (*c*) general names such as space, time, &c.

(4.) The term *abstract*, derived from the Latin *abstractus*, drawn off, implies that the quality, &c., is thought of by itself and entirely detached from the object to which it belongs.

NOTE 1.—Abstract nouns are sometimes used in a concrete sense to denote the *object* rather than the *quality*, as when *youth* is used for the whole class of young men or *nobility* for the order of nobles.

NOTE 2.—Abstract are *common* nouns because they stand *generally* or *universally* for the qualities which they denote.

14. NOTE.—To the above sub-classes of common nouns some grammarians would add the names of *material substances*. These are,

however, logically included in the general definition and need no special treatment. They stand both for the substance in general and for any particular portion, the relation being that of a class to the individuals composing it. Other writers, with little reason, treat such nouns as a particular type of abstract nouns.

15. All common nouns are *significant*, inasmuch as they *describe* the objects to which they are applied.

CHANGES OF FORM IN NOUNS.

16. Nouns are changed in form to mark distinctions of Gender, Number and Case.

NOTE.—The distinction of *person* sometimes attributed to nouns is a grammatical fiction. It is rejected by Whitney, Morris, Bain, Smith, Mason and the chief modern authorities on English grammar. **Person** is an attribute of the *verb*, not of the *noun*. The distinction between the so-called *personal pronouns* is not a matter of *form* but of *meaning*.

GENDER.

17. **Gender** (Latin *genus* a class) is of two kinds *Natural* and *Grammatical*.

18. **Natural** gender has no respect to *form* and is simply a threefold classification of nouns, corresponding to the threefold character of objects denoted by nouns, as being of the *male* sex, of the *female* sex, or *without* sex.

Natural gender is applied to all nouns, to those having grammatical gender as well as others.

19. (1.) Nouns denoting objects of the *male* sex are said to be of the **masculine** gender, as, emperor, duke, boy.

(2.) Nouns denoting objects of the *female* sex are said to be of the **feminine** gender; as, empress, duchess, girl.

(3.) Nouns denoting objects *without the distinction of sex* are said to be of the **neuter** (Latin *neuter*, neither) gender; as spade, river, idol.

(4.) Nouns denoting indifferently objects of the *male* or *female* sex are said to be of the **common** gender; as animal, child, parent.

NOTE.—The common definition of gender as *the distinction of sex*, is misleading as applied to that vast majority of nouns which have no grammatical gender. The correct statement is that *the sex or non-sex of the object determines the gender of the noun*. The universal application of this principle makes gender in English a matter of extreme simplicity.

20. Grammatical gender is a change in the form of some nouns which denote living beings, corresponding to the *sex* of the object which the noun denotes.

It is of very limited application in English and is confined to the following cases:

(1). When the masculine termination *-er*, and the feminine termination *-ess*, are added to a common stock or stem; as,

Masculine	*Feminine*
Murder-er	Murder-ess
Sorcer-er	Sorcer-ess
Adulter-er	Adulter-ess

In accordance with this rule *widower* was formed from the stem of an old English word whose masculine form was 'widuwa and feminine form 'widuwe.' Modern English appropriated the simple stem as the feminine form.

(2). When the Feminine termination *-ess*, is attached, with or without euphonic changes, to a fixed masculine form; as

Masculine	*Feminine*
Author	Authoress
Baron	Baroness
Count	Countess
Deacon	Deaconess
Emperor	Empress
Founder	Foundress
Host	Hostess
Lion	Lioness
Prophet	Prophetess
Songster	Songstress

(3). When words borrowed from other languages take feminine endings peculiar to those languages. Among these endings are *-trix* (Latin), *-ine* (Greek and German) *-a* (Romance); as,

Masculine	*Feminine*
Executor	Executrix
Hero	Heroine
Landgrave	Landgravine
Signor	Signora
Sultan	Sultana

Czarina, feminine of *Czar* combines the terminations *-in(e)* and *-a*

NOTE.— *-ess* the only termination which can be employed in forming new feminines, is of Norman French origin, *-esse* from the late Latin *-issa*. It gradually supplanted the Saxon feminine suffix, *-ster*, of which we have a remnant in *spinster*. *Tapster*, *maltster* and all similar words were originally feminine. *Songstress* and *seamstress* are double feminines. *-en* was another old feminine ending surviving only in *vixen*.

(4). When masculine or feminine nouns or pronouns are prefixed or affixed to nouns of the common gender; as,

Masculine	*Feminine*
He-goat	She-goat
Cock-sparrow	Hen-sparrow
Man-servant	Maid-servant

There is no grammatical form corresponding to the neuter gender.

21 The English language making little use of distinctive *forms* of gender, a knowledge of the *gender* of its nouns generally presupposes a knowledge of their *meaning*. Lists of pairs of masculine and feminine nouns marking sexual opposites are incorrectly given in many grammars as illustrating *a mode of distinguishing gender*. The question involved is one of *meaning* and not of *grammar*. As, however, the number of these related pairs is not large, we subjoin the most important:

Bachelor	Maid
Boar	Sow
Boy	Girl
Bridegroom	Bride
Brother	Sister
Buck	Doe
Bull	Cow
Cock	Hen
Colt or foal	Filly
Dog	Bitch
Drake	Duck
Earl	Countess
Father	Mother
Gaffer	Gammer
Gander	Goose
Gentleman	Lady
Hart	Roe
Horse, Stallion	Mare
Husband	Wife
King	Queen
Lad	Lass
Lord	Lady
Man	Woman

Milter	Spawner
Monk, Friar	Nun
Nephew	Niece
Papa	Mamma
Ram	Ewe
Ruff	Reeve
Sir or Sire	Madam, dame or
Sloven	Slut dam
Son	Daughter
Stag	Hind
Steer	Heifer
Uncle	Aunt
Wizard	Witch

NOTE.—In several of the above-mentioned pairs, the nouns though differing in appearance were closely connected in their original forms. Thus:

Gander and *Goose* are radically the same word, the *d* in gander being euphonic and the *r* a substitute for the original *s*. The proper root vowel was *a*, which in *goose* became gradually changed to *oo*.

Woman is derived from *wifman*, *i. e.*, wife-man. *Wife* was orlginally *one who weaves*.

Lady is by derivation a proper feminine form of *lord*. Lord is shortened from *hlaford*; lady from the corresponding feminine *hlaefdige*. The original meaning was *dispenser of bread*.

Nephew and *niece* have a common descent (through the French) from the Latin *nepos*.

The mostly obsolete terms *gaffer* and *gammer* are simply shortened forms for *grand-father* and *grand-mother*.

Bridegroom is a masculine form derived by composition from the feminine, *groom* (properly *goom*—for *guma*), being old English for man. Bridegroom is = Brides' man.

Lass is clearly a contraction of *lad-ess*.

EXCEPTIONS IN GENDER.

22. The following exceptional usages are to be noted:—

1. A noun which properly denotes an animal of a particular sex is sometimes applied to animals of both sexes; as, horse (masculine), goose (feminine).

2. Sex is often disregarded in speaking of animals and young children, their names being treated as of the *neuter gender*; as, The child hurt *its* finger.

3. By the figure of Personification, inanimate objects are spoken of, or addressed, as if endowed with life, and their names take the gender required by the sex imputed to them; as, War shakes *his* horrid locks. The moon sheds *her* soft radiance.

NOTE.—The principles determining the sex of personified objects cannot be laid down with exact precision. Generally it may be said that natural objects of an impressive character, and natural phenomena accompanied by manifestations of great power and violence, are per-

sonified as males; objects and phenomena characterized by beauty, productiveness or mildness females.

4. Collective nouns though denoting groups of males or females are treated as of the neuter gender; as, Parliament adjourned *its* session. The multitude trusted *its* own strength.

23. The distinction of gender in English nouns is of practical importance only as relates to the accurate use of the pronouns *he*, *she*, *it*, and their derivatives.

NOTE.—The laws of our language which make gender simply a classification of nouns based on sex, and allow no change of form to the adjective except comparison, are in striking contrast with the usages of Latin, Greek, Anglo-Saxon, German, and many other tongues, which have complicated systems of grammatical gender applicable alike to the noun and adjective.

NUMBER.

24. **Number** is a variation in the form of nouns, which shows whether we are speaking of *one* thing, or of *more than one*.

25. There are in English two numbers,—the Singular and the Plural.

(1.) The **Singular** number is that form of the noun used when but one object is denoted; as, book, window, life.

(2.) The **Plural** number is that form of the noun used when more than one object is denoted; as, books, windows, lives.

NOTE.—Singular is derived from the Latin *singularis*, one by itself; *plural* from the Latin *plura*, more. In Old English there was a *Dual* (Latin *duo*, two) number used in the pronouns of the first and second persons.

FORMATION OF THE PLURAL.

26. The Singular Number may be considered the original form of the noun.

The Plural is generally formed by adding *s* (or *es*) to the Singular; as, dog, dogs; vulture, vultures; brush, brushes.

27. The following classes of nouns take *-es*:

(1.) Nouns ending in *s*, *sh*, soft *ch*, *x*, *z*; as, moss, mosses; dish, dishes; church, churches; tax, taxes; topaz, topazes.

(2.) Nouns in *y* preceded by a consonant, or *qu-*, the *y* being changed into *i*; as, duty, duties; soliloquy, soliloquies

NOTE.—The plural of most nouns of this class is regularly formed from an old singular in -ie, as ladie, ladies.

(3.) Some nouns ending in *o* preceded by a consonant, as, cargo, cargoes; echo, echoes.

NOTE.—Usage is quite variable as to the plural of nouns ending in *o* preceded by a consonant. As a general rule, nouns in every day use form their plural in *es*, as calico, potato, negro, manifesto, volcano. But the following, among others, take *s* only; junto, solo, tyro, canto, such words as quarto, octavo, etc., and all words in *io*.

(4.) Some nouns ending in *f*. In the plural of these nouns *f* is changed into *v*; as, loaf, loaves; calf, calves; wolf, wolves.

The singular endings in *f* which do not follow this rule are *ief* (except thief), *oof*, *ff* (except sometimes staff), *rf* (except sometimes wharf); as, belief, beliefs; roof, roofs; rebuff, rebuffs; dwarf, dwarfs.

The following nouns constitute individual exceptions to the rule: waif, waifs; gulf, gulfs; oaf, oafs; clef, clefs; coif, coifs; reef, reefs.

Scarves and *turves* as plurals of *scarf* and *turf* are practically obsolete.

In the plural of all nouns ending in *fe*, except *fife*, *safe*, and *strife*, *f* is changed into *v*; as, life, lives; wife, wives.

(5.) Some nouns ending in *i*; as, alkali, alkalies; houri, houries. But Mufti, Muftis.

NOTE.—The plural ending *-es* is a modification of *-as*, an Anglo-Saxon suffix used in forming the plural of masculine nouns. The change took place in early English, and the form *-es* was extended to nouns generally. Subsequently through the assimilative influence of the Norman French plural in *-s*, the *e* of the termination was dropped when not required for the sake of euphony.

28. The foregoing rules embrace all the regular modern English methods of forming the plural. There are retained, however, in the case of a few nouns of Anglo-Saxon origin, other plural formations. These are:—

(1.) By adding *-en;* as, ox, oxen, child, children.

(2.) By a change of root vowel; as, man, men; woman, women; foot, feet; goose, geese; tooth, teeth; louse, lice; mouse, mice.

NOTE.—To the first class belong such nouns as *kine*, plural of *cow*, and a few plurals either obsolete or confined to local dialects, as *eyne* (plural of *eye*), *hosen* (plural of *hose*), *shoon* (plural of *shoe*). *Children* and *brethren* are double plurals. The former adds *-en-* to *childer*, itself plural of *child*. The latter adds *-en* after a change in the root vowel. *Chickens* is also a double plural, affixing *s* to the Anglo-Saxon suffix *-cn*. The compounds of *man* form their plurals like the simple word, *Mussulman* and *Turcoman* are sometimes erroneously supposed to be included in these compounds Their plurals are regular.

IRREGULARITIES IN NUMBER.

29. There are several nouns which cannot be classed under any general rules for the formation of the plural. Here are included;—

(1.) Nouns which have the same form for both numbers; as, sheep, deer, grouse, trout, brace, cannon, species, series. In some nouns denoting quantity or weight, usage justifies the employment of the singular, even when regular plural forms exist; as, the channel was twenty *fathom* deep. Other words thus used are, score, gross, dozen, couple.

(2.) Nouns which have no plural; as, music, poetry, flax, gold, and abstract nouns, as pride, honesty.

But abstract nouns may be pluralized to denote *repeated* instances of any particular quality; as, negligences, virtues, animosities.

Names of materials are also used in the plural, in connection with commercial transactions, to denote different *qualities* or *grades;* as, wools, teas, sugars.

(3.) Nouns which have no singular. These include,

a. Names of instruments and articles of clothing consisting of two similar parts; as, scissors, tongs, trousers, drawers bellows, shears, snuffers.

b. Names of certain portions of the body, and of some diseases games and ceremonies, which may be regarded as made up of parts; as, entrails, mumps, billiards, bands, vespers, nuptials obsequies.

c. Certain miscellaneous nouns: as,

Aborigines,	Ides
Annals	Lees
Antipodes	Oats
Archives	Premises
Calends	Suds
Credentials	Thanks
Dregs	Tidings
Dumps	Victuals

(4.) Certain plural forms which are generally construed as singular; as, amends, barracks, gallows, means, news, odds, pains shambles.

Wages formerly came under this class, but is now used regularly. *Summons* is singular, with a plural *summonses.**

*Such words as *ethics, optics, physics,* &c., were originally Greek adjectives in the plural number. Though in becoming English nouns they have taken *s* as a substitute for the foreign plural ending, they are, by virtue of their meaning, *singular.*

(5.) Certain forms which are properly singular, but have acquired a plural use through the influence of their ending in *s*; as, alms (Anglo-Saxon *aelmesse*, old English *almes*), eaves (Old English *efes*), riches (Norman French *richesse*.)

(6.) Some nouns having two plural forms, generally with a difference of meaning; as,

Singular.	*Plural.*	
Brother.	brothers	by birth,
	brethren,	of the same society.
Cloth.	cloths,	varieties of cloth.
	clothes,	garments.
Die.	dies,	stamps for coining.
	dice,	cubes for gaming.
Genius.	genuises,	men of genius.
	genii,	fabled spirits.
Index.	indexes,	tables of contents.
	indices,	algebraic signs.
Pea.	peas,	single seeds.
	pease,	the grain as a species.
Penny.	pennies,	separate coins.
	pence,	value or amount.
Shot.	shots,	discharges.
	shot,	balls or bullets.

(7.) Letters, figures and other characters, used as nouns, which form their plural by adding 's; as, Omit the 9's; dot your i's; be careful of your +'s and —'s.

FOREIGN PLURALS.

30. Many foreign words, especially those which are imperfectly naturalized, retain their original plurals, thus,

FROM THE LATIN.

Singular.	*Plural.*
Addendum,	Addenda.
Amanuensis,	Amanuenses.
Animalculum,	Animalcula.
Apex,	Apices.*
Appendix,	Appendices.*
Arcanum,	Arcana.
Axis,	Axes.
Calculus,	Calculi.
Cumulus,	Cumuli.
Datum,	Data.
Desideratum,	Desiderata.
Dictum,	Dicta.

* Also regular.

Singular.	*Plural.*
Effluvium,	Effluvia.
Erratum,	Errata.
Formula,	Formulae.*
Focus,	Foci.*
Fungus,	Fungi.
Genus,	Genera.
Larva,	Larvae.
Locus,	Loci.*
Magus,	Magi.
Medium,	Media.*
Memorandum,	Memoranda.*
Nebula,	Nebulæ.*
Oasis,	Oases,
Radius,	Radii.
Stimulus,	Stimuli.
Stratum,	Strata.*
Terminus,	Termini.
Tumulus,	Tumuli.
Vertex,	Vertices.*
Vortex,	Vortices.
FROM THE GREEK.	
Analysis,	Analyses.
Apsis,	Apsides.
Automaton,	Automata.*
Basis,	Bases.
Crisis,	Crises.
Criterion,	Criteria *
Ellipsis,	Ellipses.
Hypothesis,	Hypotheses.
Miasma,	Miasmata.
Parenthesis,	Parentheses.
Phenomenon,	Phenomena.
Thesis,	Theses.
FROM THE HEBREW.	
Cherub,	Cherubim.
Seraph,	Seraphim.
FROM THE FRENCH.	
Beau,	Beaux.
Flambeau,	Flambeaux.
FROM THE ITALIAN.	
Bandit,	Banditti*
Conversazione,	Conversazioni.
Dilletante,	Dilletanti.
Virtuoso,	Virtuosi.

Also regular.

PLURAL OF COMPOUND NOUNS.

31. The plural of compound nouns is generally formed by adding the plural suffix to the principal noun, that is to the noun *described*, whatever be its position; as, *brothers*-in-law, fruit-*trees*, *cousins*-german, *courts*-martial, mouse-*traps*.

NOTE.—Usage justifies the pluralizing of both parts in knights-templars, men-servants, and a few other words. The component parts in such cases are really nouns in apposition. The idiom is French.

32. Some nouns are compound in appearance only, their elements coalescing so intimately as to form but a single word. In such cases, the plural is formed regularly: as, forget-me-nots, handfuls.

33. In forming the plural of proper names combined with a *title*, some variety of usage occurs. Thus we may say, the *Miss Browns*, the *Misses Brown*, and (according to some authorities) the *Misses Browns*. The first is the preferable form. On the other hand, it is never allowable to say the *Messrs. Browns*; we must say the *Messrs. Brown*.

CASE.

34. **Case** is that variation in the form of nouns by which different relations to other words in a sentence are denoted.

There are three cases,—the Nominative, the Possessive, and the Objective.

NOTE.—In modern English the nominative and objective cases of nouns (though not of pronouns) are alike in form, and consequently can only be distinguished by the *use* of the noun in a sentence.

35. The **Nominative** case is the form used when the noun is the *subject* of a sentence; as, *Men* are mortal. *Hannibal* invaded Italy.

The nominative case has other uses, the detailed treatment of which properly belongs to Syntax.

36. The **Possessive** case is the form used when the noun denotes *ownership* or *possession*; as, *John's* book was lost. The *nurse's* story was a sad one.

37. The **Objective** case is the form used when the noun denotes the object of an action, or when it follows a preposition; as, Hannibal invaded *Italy*. Men live in *houses*.

NOTE 1.—The word *case* is derived from the Latin *casus*, a falling. The ancient grammarians represented the subject by a perpendicular line, and the forms of the noun denoting other relations by lines falling away from this at different inclinations. Hence the term *declension* (sloping or falling away). Fierce discussions arose as to the right of the nominative to be called a *case*. The *theory* certainly does not uphold the claim.

NOTE 2.—We have seen that nouns have but two distinct case-forms in English. *Pronouns* generally have separate forms for the subject and object, and so far as *they* are concerned the objective is necessarily recognized as an independent case. In treating of nouns the three-fold distinction of cases is observed, both for the sake of uniformity and because it is justified by the three distinct relations of subject, possessor, and object.

NOTE 3.—Compared with the elaborate case-systems of Latin, Greek Anglo-Saxon, German, and some other languages, that of modern English is exceedingly simple. Latin has *six* cases, Greek, *five*, German, *four* and Anglo-Saxons *four in nouns* and *five in pronouns*. Our language retains but few traces of the Anglo-Saxon case-endings. These are limited to the possessive case, and a few pronominal endings. The *construction* of the Anglo-Saxon *dative* (case of the indirect object) has not entirely disappeared, though a separate form is no longer used.

☞ The absence of case-endings in English is supplied by the use of prepositions and by changes in the position of the noun or pronoun in the sentence. See 170 (3), 266, and 277.

FORMATION OF THE POSSESSIVE CASE.

38. Nouns in the singular number, and plural nouns *ending in any other letter than s*, form the possessive case by adding an apostrophe and s, ('s) to the nominative; as, boy, boy's; children, children's.

But plural nouns ending in s, form the possessive by adding only an apostrophe; as, boys, boys'.

NOTE.—The apostrophe without *s* is sometimes used in the possessive singular to prevent the unpleasant multiplication of hissing sounds, as, for conscience' sake; for righteousness' sake. Such expressions, when they have fixed themselves in the language, are allowable, but in general it is more elegant to avoid harshness by using the preposition *of* and the objective case. Thus, *the orations of Demosthenes* is preferable to either *Demosthenes's orations*, or *Demosthenes' orations*.

39. In compound nouns and complex names, the possessive ending is attached to the last word; as, My son-in-law's house. The Czar of Russia's fleet.

This rule applies to names of partners or associates in a common business or enterprise; as, Smith and Thompson's office; Liddell and Scott's lexicon.

NOTE 1.—*S* is a generic ending of the genitive (or possessive) case in the Indo-European languages. The English termination *'s*, is derived from *es*, one of the genitive endings used in Anglo-Saxon. In the earlier period of English, the possessive singular and the plural nominative having a common ending, *es*, the former for the sake of distinction dropped the vowel, and marked the elision by the apostrophe.

NOTE 2.—Though the theory once held that *'s* is an abbreviation of *his* is erroneous, involving as it does several absurdities (as, Queen Victoria=Queen his), it is still the fact that such expressions as "John Smith his book," were formerly sanctioned by good authorities.

40. In prose the use of the distinctive possessive form is chiefly limited to names of persons, animals, and personified or dignified objects. Other nouns generally require the preposition *of* with the objective case.

Poetry uses the possessive with greater freedom.

DECLENSION OF NOUNS.

41. The regular arrangement of the cases and numbers of a noun is called **declension** (see 37, Note 1). The following are models of declension:

	Singular	*Plural*	*Singular*	*Plural*	*Singular*	*Plural*
Nom.	Boy	boys	man	men	thief	thieves
Poss.	Boy's	boys'	man's	men's	thief's	thieves'
Obj.	Boy	boys	man	men	thief	thieves

ADJECTIVES.

42. An adjective is a word used with a noun to express some quality or limitation of that which the noun denotes; as, *young* children; *sweet* apples; *several* horses; *this* man.

(1.) *Adjective* is derived from the Latin word, *adjectivus* capable of being joined, which is itself a derivative from *adjectus*, joined.

(2.) When the adjective is joined directly to the noun, as in the preceding examples, it is said to be used **attributively**; when it is brought into connection with the noun by means of a verb, as in "Sugar is *sweet*," it is said to be used **predicatively**

(3.) Nouns, especially those denoting *material*, and adverbs, acquire the force of adjectives by being placed in the attributive position; as, A *silver* watch; the *mountain* ravens; the *above* examples

A noun in the possessive case is attributive to that on which it depends, and is often interchangeable with an adjective; thus, "A *king's* crown is = "a *regal* crown"; "a *father's* love" is = "*paternal* love."

CLASSIFICATION OF ADJECTIVES.

43. There are two general classes of Adjectives: Qualifying and Limiting.

44. **Qualifying** Adjectives denote a *quality*, or *attribute;* as, *good* men, *black* horses, *steep* hills.

45. Qualifying adjectives answer the question *of what kind or sort?* They include the great body of adjectives and require no special sub-classification. The name is derived from the Latin *qualis, of what sort?* The following points may be observed:

(1.) Qualifying adjectives include many words originally and strictly participles; as loving, soothing, frequented, forgotten. Such words may in their adjectival use be passed as *participial* adjectives.

(2.) Qualifying adjectives are often used with an *ellipsis* (omission) of the nouns to which they relate; as, Blessed are the *meek*. He took steps to hold *the troublesome* in check.

In these sentences there is an obvious omission of the word *persons*.

(3.) Some qualifying adjectives are used when preceded by the word *the* to express *general* or *abstract* ideas; as, the *good*, the *beautiful*, and the *true*

(4.) The following classes of qualifying adjectives are often used completely as nouns, with the ordinary forms for number and case.

(*a*) National and associational appellatives; as, Greek, Italian, Christian, Republican, Liberal, Conservative.

(*b*) Latin comparatives; as, senior, junior, inferior, elder.

(*c*) Some French and Latin derivatives; as, native, mortal, criminal, ancient, modern.

LIMITING ADJECTIVES.

46. This class of adjectives includes all adjectives which do no express a quality or attribute.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

50. Comparison is a variation of the form of adjectives, to express quality in different *degrees*.

NOTE.—Comparison is the only change in form of which the English adjective is susceptible. The Anglo-Saxon adjective, like that of the Greek, Latin, and many other languages, had different forms to mark distinctions of *gender*, *number* and *case*, and in these respects agreed with the noun with which it was joined. The Saxon adjectival endings of number continued in use till the fifteenth century. The demonstratives, *this* and *that*, are the only English adjectives retaining a special form for number.

51. There are three **Degrees of Comparison**: The Positive, the Comparative, and the Superlative:

(1.) The **Positive** degree is the unmodified adjective, denoting simply the possession of a certain quality or attribute

NOTE.—The simple form of the adjective is not in strictness a *degree of comparison*. The use of the expression, positive degree, is, however, convenient, as well as sanctioned by a usage as old as formal grammar.

(2.) The **Comparative** Degree is a form of the adjective, which shows that the quality or attribute which it denotes belongs to one of two contrasted objects, or sets of objects, in a greater degree than to the other; as, the Himalayas are *higher* than the Alps.

(3.) The **Superlative** Degree is a form of the adjective, which shows that the quality or attribute which it denotes belongs to one of several contrasted objects, or sets of objects, in a higher degree than to any of the others; as, Socrates and Plato were the *wisest* men of their age.

51. Some adjectives of quality, by reason of their *signification*, do not admit of comparison. Such are: *almighty, certain, chief, conscious, continued, dead, empty, everlasting, external, extreme, full, gratuitous, infinite, perfect, perpetual, royal, true, universal.* Also, adjectives denoting shape; as, *circular, triangular, spherical*

Such adjectives are termed **invariable**. Many of them are compared in poetry and popular speech, their strict sense being disregarded: as, She was the *most perfect* of her sex. The *chiefest* of ten thousand.

52. The only *limiting* adjectives which admit of comparison are some indefinite adjectives of quantity or number; as, *few, fewer, fewest.*

FORMATION OF THE COMPARATIVE AND SUPERLATIVE DEGREES.

53. (1.) The comparative degree is regularly formed by adding *er* to the positive; as, great, greater; dull, duller.

(2.) The superlative degree is regularly formed by adding *-est* to the Positive; as, great, greatest; dull, dullest.

(3.) In adjectives compared regularly a final consonant preceded by a single vowel is *doubled*, final *e* is *dropped*, and final *y* preceded by a consonant is *changed into i*; as, hot, hotter, hottest; wise, wiser, wisest; happy, happier, happiest. But, sweet, sweeter, sweetest; coy, coyer, coyest.

54. Comparison by adding *-er* and *-est* is limited to adjectives of one and two syllables. Many of the latter reject this mode of comparison on account of the harshness of sound involved. These with adjectives of more than two syllables are compared by prefixing to the positive, *more* for the comparative, and *most* for the superlative; as, earnest, more earnest, most earnest; powerful, more powerful, most powerful.

55. The following classes of dissyllabic adjectives are compared regularly in *-er* and *-est*.

(1.) Those whose positive has the accent on the *second* syllable; as, divine, diviner, divinest; polite, politer, politest.

(2.) Those ending in *y*, *ble*, *er*, and *ow*; as, lovely, lovelier, loveliest; able, abler, ablest; tender, tenderer, tenderest, (but not proper); narrow, narrower, narrowest.

(3.) A few not easily classed; as, handsome, pleasant.

NOTE.—Some modern authors, among whom Carlyle is prominent, in disregard of euphony, are inclined to extend the use of forms in *-er* and *-est* not only to dissyllables not included in the above classes, but also to polysyllables.

IRREGULAR COMPARISON.

56. A number of the most common and important adjectives are compared irregularly, as,

Pos.	*Comp.*	*Sup.*
Good	better	best

Bad, Evil, Ill	worse	worst
Little	less	least
Much, Many	more	most
Old	older, elder	oldest, eldest
Far	farther	farthest
(Forth *adv.*)	further	furthest
Fore	former	foremost or first
Hind	hinder	hindmost
(In *prep.*)	inner	inmost or innermost
(Out *adv.*)	outer, utter	outmost, utmost, uttermost
Late	later, latter	latest, last
(Neath *obs. prep.*)	nether	nethermost

NOTE 1.—In some of the foregoing adjectives the irregularity consists in the use of comparative and superlative forms having no etymological connection with the positive, as in the case of *good* and *bad*. In others, obsolete modes of comparison are retained.

NOTE 2.—*Older* and *oldest* are applied both to persons and things. *Elder* and *eldest* are chiefly used with reference to members of the same family.

NOTE 3.—Where different forms of comparatives or superlatives exist, there is usually some difference of meaning between them.

NOTE 4.—In old writers double comparatives and superlatives are quite common; as "more nearer." "The most unkindest cut of all."

57. Comparative *diminution* of quality is expressed by prefixing the words *less* and *least* to the positive, without regard to the number of its syllables; as, wise, less wise, least wise.

The termination *ish* expresses a slight degree of a quality; as, *reddish*.

58. When the positive degree is preceded by an intensive word such as, *very*, *extremely*, *exceedingly*, the resulting expression is sometimes called the *superlative of excellence*.

NOTE.—In Latin and Greek the ordinary superlative was often used in this sense, as, *vir doctissimus*, a very learned man.

PRONOUNS.

59. A pronoun is a word used instead of a noun; as, "The carpenter *who* was absent has returned; *I* met *him* in the street."

NOTE 1.—The pronoun can also stand for any expression which is *equivalent to a noun*, particularly for the *noun clause* and the *infinitive of the verb*

NOTE 2.—The pronoun does not *name* an object directly. Its chief office is to *stand for* the name and so save repetition.

60. To pronouns, as to nouns, belong the distinctions of gender, number, and case. Pronouns differ from nouns in generally having a *distinct* form for the objective case. In pronouns, variations in *gender* and *number* are, with few exceptions, brought about by the use of *different words.*

CLASSIFICATION OF PRONOUNS.

61. Pronouns are divided into the following classes:—

1. Personal
2. Relative
3. Interrogative
4. Demonstrative
5. Indefinite.

NOTE 1.—The functions of pronouns are so varied as almost necessarily to lead to variety of classification.

NOTE 2.—In this treatise no words are recognized as pronouns unless they have the construction and force of *nouns*. The anomalous classification of certain words as *adjective pronouns* or *pronominal adjectives* is wholly rejected. Every word qualifying or limiting the meaning of a noun expressed or understood is an *adjective*. The true mark of a *pronoun* is that it takes the place of a noun, that is, stands for it so completely as to require nothing to be supplied.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

62. The Personal Pronouns are I, thou, and he (she, it.)

(1.) I denotes the speaker, and is called the pronoun of the *first* person, or the *first* personal pronoun.

(2.) Thou denotes the person *spoken to*, and is called the pronoun of the *second* person, or the *second* personal pronoun.

66. When, however, these possessive forms are used as *antecedents to relative pronouns* they should be parsed as pronouns; as, *Their* sorrows shall be multiplied *that* hasten after another God: And do you now strew flowers in *his* way, *that* comes in triumph over Pompey's blood?

In the sentences quoted *their* and *his* have each a distinct prenominal force.

COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

67. The compound personal pronouns are formed by adding the word *self* (plural *selves*) to the *possessive* of the first and second personal pronouns, and to the *objective* of the third, in both numbers. They are,

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1.	Myself	Ourselves.
2.	Thyself, Yourself	Yourselves
3.	Himself, Herself, Itself	Themselves

The compound personal pronouns are used without change of form in the nominative and objective cases.

68. They have two uses—

(**1**) *Emphatic* or *intensive*, when they are in apposition with a noun or pronoun to impart force or emphasis to the statement; as, He *himself* did it. We are *ourselves* to blame.

(**2**) *Reflexive*, when they *reflect*, or bend back upon the person or thing spoken of the action expressed by the verb; as, Men frequently kill *themselves* by over-exertion.

NOTE.—Self was originally an adjective, and was declined as such. Mason regards *my* and *thy* in the compound forms as not real possessives, but corruptions of the Anglo-Saxon *me* and *the*, the later forms *ourselves*, etc., being due to a false analogy. The compound of the third person retains the objective (dative), but when the emphatic adjective *own* intervenes between the elements, the possessive form must be used; as, their own selves. Self came to be used as a noun in the fourteenth century. In connection with the pronouns its use was two-fold, (1) to add emphasis to the personal pronouns, much like the Latin *ipse*, (2) to strengthen *me*, *him*, &c., when used reflexively. The plural *selves* came in as the adjective use of self ceased. Of about the same date is the use of *myself*, *himself*, &c., as nominatives.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

69. A relative pronoun is a word which in addition to representing a preceding noun or pronoun, called the *antecedent*, connects the clause which it introduces with the rest of the sentence.

NOTE.—The term *relative* as descriptive of this class of pronouns was not well chosen. The other classes of pronouns also relate to nouns going before, or antecedents. The grammatical peculiarity of so-called relatives is that they have a *connective* force, combining the functions of pronouns and conjunctions.

70. The relative pronouns are who, which, that and what.

1. Who has the same form for both numbers and is thus declined for case alone:

	Singular and Plural.
Nom.	Who
Poss.	Whose
Obj.	Whom

In modern English the *nominative* and *objective* are used only when the antecedent is the name of a *person.*

The *possessive* is freely applied by the best authors to inanimate objects and living creatures generally; as, "That undiscovered country from *whose* bourne no traveller returns."

NOTE.—*Who* was originally interrogative. In early English it was sometimes applied to things without life. It is frequently used with an ellipsis of the antecedent, as, Who steals my purse, steals trash."

(2.) Which, that, and what are invariable in form.

(3.) Which is used when the antecedent is the name of an inanimate object or of one of the lower animals; as, The mountains *which* were covered with snow. The dogs *which* by their perpetual barking.

NOTE.—Like *who*, *which* was originally interrogative. Prior to the 18th century, it was freely applied to persons. The authorized version of the Bible abounds in illustrations of this use.

(4.) That is used to represent both persons and things in restrictive clauses; as. "I *that* speak to thee am he." "Uneasy lies the head *that* wears a crown."

(1.) *That* as a *restrictive* or *defining* word cannot be used when the antecedent is already perfectly defined. Thus, we cannot say "Wellington *that* is buried in St. Paul's was a great general" For the same reason, it can never be = *and he*, like *who* in the sentence, "They asked a favor of the king, who immediately granted it."

(2.) Some of the distinctive uses of *that* will be better understood in connection with the analysis of complex sentences. Here it is sufficient to observe that *that* should be used in preference to *who* or *which* :—

a. When there are two or more antecedents standing for *both* persons and things.

b. When *who* or *which* would be ambiguous from inability to determine whether their force is intended to be *restrictive* or *continuative*, as in such a sentence as the following: "I received ten pounds from my brothers *who are in London*."

c. After the interrogative *who?*, and after *some, any, each, every, all, only*, and adjectives in the superlative degree.

NOTE 1.—*That* is the oldest of the relatives. It is the neuter of the Anglo-Saxon demonstrative, which had also a relative use. In both uses the neuter has taken the place of the other genders.

NOTE 2.—That was formerly used in an indefinite sense like *what*; as, "We speak *that* we do know"

(5.) **What** applies only to things and is used when the antecedent is omitted, particularly when it is indefinite; as, "We should always do *what* is right."

NOTE.—*What* is the neuter of *who*. It is properly singular, but sometimes sentences as the following are found: "What *are* called boulders, *prove* the theory of glaciers." (Agassiz).

COMPOUND RELATIVES.

71. Certain compound forms have been produced by adding the words *so* and *ever* either separately or combined, to the simple relatives. These are, **whoso, whosoever, whoever, whatever** and **whatsoever.**

These compounds are indefinite in their signification, the antecedent being usually omitted.

Whosoever alone is declined.

Nom.	Whosoever
Poss.	Whosesoever
Obj.	Whomsoever

NOTE.—These compounds are becoming obsolete.

72. Besides the proper relatives, other words have occasionally the force of relative pronouns:

(1.) **As**, when it introduces a restrictive clause following the words *such* or *same*. "You will always find him such *as* he professes to be."

(2.) **But**, when following a negative antecedent it is equivalent to a relative pronoun and the negative adverb *not;* as, "There is no one *but* will admit the truth of this statement.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

73. An Interrogative Pronoun is a pronoun used in asking questions. The interrogative pronouns are who, which and what.

1. **Who** is declined like the corresponding relative. It is used with reference to *persons* only. It is never an adjective.

2. **Which** is applied to both persons and things, and supposes a known class or number to which the person orthing inquired about belongs; as, "*Which* do you prefer—to be honored or to be despised?"

Which used interrogatively is generally an *adjective*. See 46, 4. The interrogative *whether* is now obsolete.

3. **What** is the indefinite interrogative. Though capable of being used in connection with persons (as "*What* is man?") it is regarded as always of the neuter gender.

74. **Whoever, whichever,** and **whatever** are used as compound interrogatives.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

75. The demonstrative words *that* and *this*, with their plurals *these* and *those* are properly adjectives. In a few constructions, however, they may be regarded as demonstrative *pronouns*.

1. When *that* and its plural *those* are used to prevent the repetition of a preceding noun, as, "The fame of Cæsar is superior to *that* of Pompey." "The rivers of America are longer than *those* of Europe."

2. When this and that are equivalent to the *former*..... *the latter* (or *the one*.....*the other*), as, "Virtue and vice are

as opposite to each other as light and darkness; *that* ennobles the mind, *this* debases it."

NOTE.—When used in similar sentences *the former* and the *latter* are strictly demonstrative *pronouns*.

3. When *this* and *that* refer to a sentence; as,

"See Falkland dies, the virtuous and the just!
See godlike Turenne prostrate in the dust!
See Sidney bleeds amid the martial strife!
Was *this* their virtue, or contempt of life?"

NOTE.—Often when referring to preceding sentences *this* and *that* may still be construed as adjectives, their nouns being easily supplied from the predicate. "In the line, 'to be, or not to be, *that* is the question,' *that* may be considered as a pronoun, having a whole clause for the antecedent. .....We might still consider the word as an adjective with a noun dropped, or put in a different place, and so look upon the passage as an abbreviation of 'to be, or not to be—*that* question is it.' 'One thing have I desired of the Lord, *that* (thing) I will seek after.'"—Bain's *Higher English Grammar*.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

76. Certain pronouns are called **indefinite**, because they do not signify any particular subject, but persons or things generally. The words thus classed (except *none*) are generally adjectives. Here belong,

(1.) **One, none**; as, "*One* must protect *one's* honor." "Ask as earnestly as ye will for some marks of his favor; he will grant you *none*." "The longest life, if a good *one*, is the best."

(2.) **Other, another**; as, "A man should cherish in himself what he praises in *others*." "*Another's* wealth."

(3.) The distributives **either, neither**, when used without nouns expressed or understood; as, "Will you go or stay? I will do *neither*, sir." "So parted they as *either's* way them led."

77. Many of the words commonly classed as indefinite pronouns are really either *nouns* or *adjectives*. *Aught, naught, everybody, somebody, nobody*, are nouns; *any, some, all*, are adjectives.

NOTE.—In such expressions as "I tell you what," *what* is generally considered as an indefinite pronoun. Such expressions always refer to a following statement, and the use of *what* is probably to be explained by the omission of *I think* or *I know*.

78. The expressions *each other, one another*, are sometimes called **reciprocal** pronouns. They are both elliptical. "They love *each other*" is = "They love, *each* (loves) the *other*." Though on analysis the elements are found to be *adjectives*, the compound wholes are *pronouns*.

THE VERB.

79. A **verb** is a word used in making statements; as, The days are long. The husbandman *sows* the seed. The King *was called* the father of his people.

(1.) The word *statements*, as used in this definition, includes *commands*, *exhortations* and *questions*; as, *Present* arms. *Be* just and *fear* not. Who *goes* there?

(2.) *Verb* is derived from the Latin *verbum*, a word. The verb is in an emphatic sense the *word* of a sentence. We cannot make a sentence without using a verb, which either constitutes the entire predicate, or forms its *essential* part.

(3.) The noun or pronoun denoting that concerning which the statement is made is called the **subject** of the verb.

CLASSIFICATION OF VERBS.

80. Verbs are divided as to their meaning into two general classes,—transitive and intransitive.

81. A **transitive** verb denotes an action which is not confined to the doer, but passes over to an object; as, The hunter *shot* a *deer*. *Love* your *enemies*.

(1.) *Transitive* is from the Latin *transeo*, I go across. The action is conceived of as *going across*, or *passing over*, from the doer to the object affected by it.

(2.) A transitive verb does not by itself make a complete statement; it requires a completing term, which in grammar is known as the **object** of the verb. This object is either a noun or pronoun in the objective case, a verb in the infinitive mood, or a noun clause.

(3.) When the subject and object denote the same person or thing, the verb is said to be used **reflexively**; as, He pleases himself.

82. An **intransitive** verb denotes either a state or condition, or an action which does not pass over to an object; as, They *sat* all day long (state or condition.) Some *ran*; others *walked* (action not passing over to an object.)

NOTE.—The distinction thus made in the signification of intransitive verbs between simple *state* or *condition*, and *action not passing over to an object* is not always very marked. Some verbs (such for instance as *live*, *sleep*) may with almost equal propriety be referred to either part of the definition.

83. There is an important class of verbs commonly

ranked as *intransitive* from their not taking after them an object or noun in the objective case, but which nevertheless are *incomplete* in sense.

Such verbs are *be* (when not meaning to *exist*), *seem*, *appear*, *become*, *grow* (sick), *turn* (pale), &c. The fact that they require their meaning to be completed by a noun or adjective has given them the name of verbs of **Incomplete Predication.**

1. The noun complement of these verbs is always in the same case as the subject.

2. *May*, *can*, *must*, *shall* and *will* (when not auxiliaries) and similar verbs are to be regarded as verbs of Incomplete Predication, always taking as their complement a verb in the Infinitive Mood.

3. Under this head also belongs the passive voice of verbs of *naming*, *calling*, &c. There the complement may be either a noun, adjective, or infinitive.

84. Verbs commonly transitive are used *intransitively* when the action is asserted in a general or indefinite manner; as, He *reads* well. The child *speaks*. Men *build*; time *pulls* down.

85. Verbs commonly intransitive are sometimes used *transitively*:—

(1.) When they have a *causative* meaning; as, She *ran* the needle into her finger. They *stood* him on his feet.

(2.) When the verb is followed by a noun allied to itself in meaning; as, He *ran* a *race*. I have *fought* a good *fight*. This is known in syntax as the **cognate objective.**

(3.) When the verb is made transitive by the addition of a preposition so closely united with it as to become a part of itself; as, He *laughed at* their folly.

(4.) In some poetical usages; as, "Eyes *looked love* to eyes that spake again."

THE FORMS OF VERBS.

86. Verbs are varied in form to denote the following distinctions: 1. Voice. 2. Mood. 3. Tense. 4. Number. 5. Person.

VOICE.

87. **Voice** is a variation in the form of transitive verbs to denote the relation of the *subject* of the verb to the *action* expressed by the verb. There are two voices, the Active and the Passive.

(1.) In the **Active** voice, the *subject* of the verb denotes the *actor;* as, The soldier *sharpens* the sword.

(2.) In the **Passive** voice the *subject* of the verb denotes the *object of the action;* as, The sword *is sharpened* by the soldier.

88. In the sentences given as illustrating the uses of the active and passive voices the same thought is expressed. When the active voice is employed attention is directed to the *actor* more prominently than when the passive is used. The latter emphasizes rather the action expressed by the verb.

89. The forms of the passive voice are all *compound*, being made up of the various parts of the verb *be*, and a verbal form known as the passive participle.

90. Intransitive verbs take the forms of the active voice, their signification not admitting of a passive use.

(1.) But when an intransitive verb is followed by a phrase consisting of a preposition and its noun, the verb may be used in the passive voice, the preposition becoming an adverbial adjunct; as, His neighbors *laughed at* him. He was *laughed at* by his neighbors.

(2.) So also with intransitive verbs taking a *cognate objective;* as, They *ran* the swiftest race on record. The swiftest race on record *was run* by them.

(3.) In such expressions as "he *was* gone," "they *are* arrived," there is an *apparent* passive voice in intransitive verbs. For the use of auxiliaries in forming the perfect and pluperfect tenses of intransitive verbs, see 132, (2.)

MOOD.

91. **Mood** is a variation in the form of verbs denoting the *mode* or *manner* in which the action or state expressed by the verb is represented.

There are properly three moods,—the Indicative, the Subjunctive and the Imperative.

(1.) The forms embraced by these moods are spoken of collectively as the **finite** verb, because *defined* or *limited* by the conditions of *number* and *person*.

(2.) The verbal form which expresses simple action or state without any *limitation* is called, though not with strict propriety, the *Infinitive Mood*.

(3.) It was formerly the custom to group together certain combinations of the verbs *may* (*might*), *can* (*could*), *must*, *should*

and *would*, with the infinitive mood of other verbs, as a special mood called the *Potential*.

92. The **Indicative** Mood embraces those forms of the verb which are used in direct assertions and inquiries; as, I *am* here. He *gave* the book. *Did* he *give* the book?

This mood derives its name from the Latin *indico*, I declare.

93. The **Subjunctive** Mood embraces those forms of the verb which are used in *conditional*, and *doubtful* or *contingent* assertions; as, If he *were* rich, he *would* gladly *help* you. If the plan *succeed*, many will rejoice.

When the condition is assumed as a *fact*, the indicative is the proper mood; as, If I *was* mistaken, I did not know it.

(1.) The subjunctive mood is so-called from the Latin *subjunctus*, subjoined, because it is generally used in *subjoined* or *dependent* clauses.

(2.) The subjunctive is generally preceded by such words as *if, though, lest, unless, whether, provided*, etc. By placing the verb before its subject, the conjunction *if* may be omitted without changing the sense; thus, *If he were rich* is equivalent to *Were he rich*. The conjunctions preceding the subjunctive are not to be considered as forming part of the *mood*.

(3.) In modern English there is a tendency to restrict the use of the subjunctive as a distinct mood to very narrow limits. This is seen,

a. In replacing it by the indicative forms in many conditional constructions; as, Whether he *thinks* too little or too much.

b. In the common use for the simple subjunctive of compound forms with *should, would;* as, If he *should come*, for, If he *come*.

(4.) The subjunctive mood is sometimes used in *independent* sentences to express a wish; as, Thy will *be done*. *Perish* the thought. *Be* it so. *Part* we in anger. This is called the **optative** use of the subjunctive, from the Latin *opto*, I wish. It belongs especially to poetry and to a dignified style of writing now seldom employed. It is found, however, in certain common and well established phrases. In ordinary writing and speech *may* and *let*, followed by the infinitive, have generally replaced it.

94. The **Imperative** Mood is that form of the verb used in *commands, requests*, and *exhortations;* as, *Call*

the witnesses. *Give* me another chance. *Honor* the King.

(1.) The imperative mood is so called from the Latin *impero* I command. Requests, exhortations and entreaties are simply *softened commands*.

(2.) The imperative is in both voices the same in form as the infinitive, and in the active voice is the simple root of the verb.

(3.) The subject of the imperative is always the second personal pronoun, expressed or understood.

(4.) The English language has various other constructions capable of conveying the idea of command. Thus,

a. By the use of *shall;* as, The parliament *shall* assemble annually. Thou *shalt* not steal. This mode of expression is chiefly confined to legislation.

b. By the use of *let* and the infinitive; as, *Let* him *retire*. *Let* us *go*. Here the principal verbs *retire* and *go* are in the infinitive, preceded by *let* in the imperative. The idea of command, etc., is conveyed by the compound verb.

c. By the use of *must* and the infinitive. This, however, expresses *necessity* or *compulsion*, rather than *command*.

95. The so-called **Infinitive** mood (see 91. 2.) is the simplest form, or *root*, of the verb, used to express the action or state denoted by the verb without any limitation of number or person. It is generally preceded by the word *to*, which as thus employed, is sometimes called the **sign** of the infinitive. The use of the infinitive is illustrated in the following sentences: To *hear* is to *obey*. He commanded them to *retire*. I saw them *fall*. They durst not *resist*.

(1.) *To* is omitted when the infinitive follows the verbs *shall, will, may, can, must, let, dare* (venture), *bid, make, need, please,* and the active voice of verbs denoting sensation and perception, such as *see, hear, perceive*, etc.

(2.) While popularly classed among the moods, the infinitive is, strictly speaking, a *verbal noun*. As such it may be either the subject or object of a verb. However like the regular modal forms, the infinitive mood of transitive verbs is followed by the objective case.

NOTE.—Horne Tooke's identification of the sign *to* with a Gothic noun signifying *action* is purely fanciful. The history of our language shows conclusively that the *to* prefixed to the infinitive is the ordinary preposition.

In Anglo-Saxon, the infinitive was treated as an abstract verbal noun, and declined. The simple form (nominative and accusative) endedin-*an*. The dative case ended in *-anne* or *-enne*. This was used to denote *purpose* and was always preceded by the preposition *to*. In the course of time

(between the 12 and 15th centuries) these terminations by a gradual process of attenuation, wasted away, and the infinitive came to represent the simple root of the verb. The infinitive having been thus reduced to a fixed form, took, save in the case of the verbs mentioned in a preceding paragraph (95.(1.)) the prepositional prefix which had been originally the mark of a special form, the *dative of purpose*.

PARTICIPLES AND GERUNDS.

96. There are two other verbal forms not usually ranked as Moods the Participle and the Gerund.

97. The **Participle** is a *verbal adjective*. As a *verb*, it expresses action or state; as an *adjective*, it is used as an adjunct of a noun.

Its name is derived from its *participating* in the functions of two distinct parts of speech.

There are two simple participles, the Present and the Past.

98. The **Present** Participle denotes *incomplete* action or state. It always ends in *-ing;* as, loving, seeing, speaking, walking.

(1.) The present participle is sometimes called the *Imperfect Participle*, because it marks an incomplete action or state. The *time* denoted really depends on connected words.

(2.) The present participle often drops the ideas of action and time, and becomes a simple qualifying adjective admitting of comparison; as, A *loving* parent. A most *astonishing* circumstance.

99. The **Past** Participle denotes *complete* action. It ends in *-d, -t,* or *-n;* as, loved, bought, spoken; but in some verbs has no suffix; as, come, sung, dug.

(1.) The past participle often approaches very nearly the use of a simple adjective; as, The oft *repeated* tale.

(2.) It is used with certain prefixes to form adjectives with a negative meaning; as, unsought, unknown, disinterested.

100. In *transitive* verbs, the present participle is *active;* the past participle, *passive*. In *intransitive* verbs, there is no distinction of voice between the participles. The only difference in their force is that of denoting *complete* or *incomplete* action or state.

101. Three *compound* participial forms deserve notice. These are the Perfect Participle Active, the

Imperfect Participle Passive, and the Perfect Participle Passive.

(1.) The **Perfect Participle Active** is compounded of the past participle and the word *having;* as, having loved, having slept.

(2.) The **Imperfect Participle Passive** is compounded of the past participle and the word *being;* as, being loved.

(3.) The **Perfect Participle Passive** is compounded of the past participle and the words *having been;* as, having been loved.

The imperfect and perfect participles passive are only found in *transitive* verbs.

102. The **Gerund** is a *verbal noun*. As a *verb* it expresses action or state; as a *noun* it may be the subject or object of a verb, or it may follow a preposition; as, *Playing* marbles is a favorite game with boys. The art of *building* cathedrals is lost. *Seeing* is *believing*.

In some of its uses the gerund is interchangeable with the infinitive. Thus infinitives may replace the gerunds in the sentence, *Seeing is believing=To see is to believe.*

(1.) The word *gerund* is from the Latin *gero*, I carry on, and signifies the *carrying on* of an action.

(2.) The gerund must be carefully distinguished from the present participle and the abstract noun in *-ing*, both which agree with it in form.

a. The gerund and participle alike govern nouns in the objective case; but the former takes the construction of a *noun;* the latter that of an *adjective*.

b. The noun in *-ing* may be preceded by *the* and, unlike the gerund has not the verbal power of taking after it an object in the objective, but is followed by the preposition *of*.—The following sentences illustrate these distinctions.

Participle. The wind, *dispersing* the clouds,
gladdens our hearts.

Gerund. The wind, by *dispersing* the clouds,
gladdens our hearts.

Noun. By the *dispersing* of the clouds the wind
gladdens our hearts.

c. Certain *compound* gerundial forms are effected by the use of the gerunds of the verb *have* and *be* combined with parti-

ciples; as, In consequence of *having seen* the Medusa, they were turned into stone The recollection of *having been vanquished*, prevented further effort.

NOTE 1.—Etymologically the gerund is the modern representative of an old Aglo-Saxon noun in *-ung*, and is, so far as descent is concerned, the same word as the abstract noun with which it has an interchangeable use.

"The *quoting* of authors is not to my taste" is precisely equivalent to "*Quoting* authors is not to my taste. The first mode of expression had exclusive possession of the field prior to the sixteenth century, since which date, the omission of the preposition and the assignment of a transitive verbal power to the (former) noun, have gradually become the established usage. The change is in accordance with the modern tendency towards abridgment and simplification.

NOTE 2.—The theory advanced by some grammarians, that the gerund is a new form of the Anglo-Saxon *infinitive*, is beset with insuperable difficulties It leaves a gap of several centuries in the historical development of the language, viz, from the disappearance of the Saxon infinitive ending in *an* or *en*, until the modern use of the gerund began towards the end of the 16th century. The connection between the gerund and the noun in *ing* (earlier *ung*) is so close and clearly traceable that no theoretical considerations can weigh against it.

NOTE 3.—Apart from the question of *origin*, the propriety of recognizing the gerund as a distinct form in modern English cannot be disputed. It is awkward to supply a preposition to govern the following noun, while even that device is impracticable in the case of the *compound* gerundial forms.

NOTE 4.—In such phrases as *a-going*, *a-running*, we have simply the gerund preceded by a preposition; *a* being=*in* or *on*. So in the expression *the house is building*, *building* is a gerund with an omitted preposition In such expressions as *walking-stick*, *riding-habit*, *walking* and *riding* are properly *gerunds=for* walking, *for* riding, respectively.

TENSE.

103. **Tense** is properly a variation in the form of a verb to express the *time* of the action or state asserted.

The word tense is derived from the Latin *tempus*, time, through the French *temps*.

104. There being three grand divisions of time, the *Present*, the *Past*, and the *Future*, verbs have three principal forms corresponding to those divisions and bearing their names,—the Present Tense, the Past Tense, and the Future Tense; as, I *speak*, I *spoke*, I *shall speak*.

105. The term *tense* is also used to denote, as closely connected with relation of time, that variation in the form of verbs, by which their action or state is represented as *complete* or *incomplete*.

106. Hence in the indicative mood in which the

tense-system is most clearly and fully developed, each of the three principal tenses appears in *three* forms or modifications:

(1.) The Present, or tense affirming present action or state, appears as,

a. The **Present Indefinite**, which denotes neither completeness nor incompleteness, but without reference to its duration, represents the action or state as belonging to the present time; as, I *write*, he *runs*, you *obey*.

b. The **Present Progressive**, which represents the action or state as incomplete and continuous; as, I *am writing*, he *is running*, you *are obeying*.

c. The **Present Perfect**, called generally the **Perfect**, which represents the action or state as *complete* at the present time; as, I *have written*, he *has run*, you *have obeyed*.

(2.) The Past, or tense affirming *past* action or state, appears as,

a. The **Past Indefinite**, which represents a past action or state as neither complete nor incomplete, but simply as belonging to *past* time; as, I *wrote*, he *ran*, you *obeyed*.

b. The **Past Progressive**, which denotes an action or state as incomplete and continuous in past time; as, I *was writing*, he *was running*, you *were obeying*.

c. The **Past Perfect**, called also the **Pluperfect** which represents an action or state as *complete* in past time; as, I *had written*, he *had run*, you *had obeyed*.

(3.) The Future, or tense affirming *future* action or state, appears as,

a. The **Future Indefinite**, which represents an action or state as neither complete nor incomplete, but simply as belonging to *future* time; as, I *shall write*, he *will run*, you *will obey*.

b. The **Future Progressive**, which denotes an action or state as incomplete and continuous in future time, as I *shall be writing*, he *will be running*, you *will be obeying*.

c. The **Future Perfect** which represents an action or state as complete in *future* time; as, I *shall have written*, he *will have run*, you *will have obeyed*.

107. The foregoing tenses, with the exception of the Future Progressive, are found in both voices. There is in the active voice a modification of the perfect or complete tenses to combine the ideas of

completeness and continuousness. The three tenses thus formed are,

(1.) The **Present Perfect Progressive**; as, I *have been writing*.

(2.) The **Past Perfect Progressive**; as, I *had been writing*.

(3.) The **Future Perfect Progressive**; as, I *shall have been writing*.

NOTE.—The progressive tenses found in the passive voice have been introduced into the language in modern times. Formerly the meaning expressed by them was conveyed by what seem to be *active forms* used in a *passive sense*, such as "preparations *are making*," "the house *is building*." As seen elsewhere (see 102, Note 4) *making* and *building* in these sentences are not *participles*, but *gerunds*, with the preposition *a* or *in* omitted. Compare "Forty and six years was this temple *in building*."

108. The following is a complete scheme or synopsis of the tenses of the Indicative Mood in both voices, as illustrated by the verb *strike*:—

Tense.	*Indefinite.*	*Progressive.*	*Perfect.*	*Perfect-Progressive.*
Active Voice) **Present.**	I strike.	I am striking.	I have struck.	I have been striking.
(Passive Voice)	I am struck.	I am being struck.*	I have been struck.	(wanting).
(Active Voice) **Past.**	I struck.	I was striking.	I had struck.	I had been striking.
(Passive Voice)	I was struck.	I was being struck.*	I had been struck.	(wanting).
(Active Voice) **Future.**	I shall strike.	I shall be striking.	I shall have struck.	I shall have been striking.
(Passive Voice)	I shall be struck.	(wanting.)	I shall have been struck.	(wanting).

* "In recent English (probably since the latter part of the last century) there have been coming into common use *progressive* forms for the two simplest tenses, present and preterit (passive voice); forms made with the progressive instead of the simple form of the past or passive participle. 'The house is being built,' is the corresponding passive of 'They are building the house.'"—*Whitney's Essentials of English Grammar.*

It will be observed that the only tenses consisting of simple forms are the present and past indefinite.

For the sake of convenience, the present, past and future *Indefinite* tenses, will hereafter be referred to as simply the **present**, **past** and **future**.

109. The present tense, except in the case of the verb *be*, contains the simple or original form of the verb as found in the infinitive mood; as, strike, run, love.

The formation of the past tense will be treated of under the head of *Conjugation*.

110. The compound tenses are formed by a combination of one or more of the verbs *be*, *have*, *shall* and *will*, with the infinitive mood and participles, either separately or variously combined. *Be*, *have*, *shall*, and *will*, when thus used, are called **Auxiliary** *Verbs*.

111. The verb *do* is also used as a tense-auxiliary in what is called the *emphatic* form of the present and past; as, I *do* understand. I *did* tell you.

TENSES IN THE SUBJUNCTIVE, IMPERATIVE AND INFINITIVE MOODS.

112. The Subjunctive mood in the active voice has only the tenses of the *present* system, namely, the present indefinite, the present progressive, the present perfect, and the present perfect progressive. The verb *be* and the passive voice of other verbs have also a *past* system, embracing the past indefinite and past progressive tenses.

(1.) Old English had a past and past perfect subjunctive in the active voice. The latter went long since wholly out of use, and the former though retained by some grammarians (as Morris), is almost equally obsolete. Both tenses were discarded by the translators of the authorized version of the Scriptures, who use freely indicative forms in constructions plainly requiring subjunctive, if such were at command; as, "If

(Passive Voice)	I shall be struck.	(wanting.)	I shall have been struck.	(wanting).

* "In recent English (probably since the latter part of the last century) there have been coming into common use *progressive* forms for the two simplest tenses, present and preterit (passive voice); forms made with the progressive instead of the simple form of the past or passive participle. 'The house is being built,' is the corresponding passive of 'They are building the house.'" *Whitney's Essentials of English Grammar.*

thou *knewest* the gift of God," "If thou *hadst* been here." Some grammarians give the same forms under both moods. In view of the rapid decadence of the subjunctive, as a separate mood, this is quite unnecessary.

(2.) In the compound tenses of the Subjunctive, *wouldst* and *would* (sing.), *would* (plural), take the place of *shouldst* and *should* in the second and third persons, when the verb is used in a principal sentence, that is, is not preceded by *if*, *though*, &c.

113. The Imperative mood has but one tense, having the form of the simple root.

114. The Infinitive mood has the four tenses of the present system.

NUMBER.

115. **Number** is a variation in the form of verbs corresponding to the number of the subject, as, gold *shines*; stars *shine*. There are, therefore, in verbs as in nouns two numbers—the Singular and the Plural.

NOTE.—Strictly speaking, with the exception of *be*, English verbs have no distinctive forms for number, the marks by which it is noted having been originally purely *personal* suffixes. Thus *-s*, which enables us to distinguish between (he) *loves* and (they) *love* is properly simply a sign of the third *person*, but inasmuch as the plural number has no specific personal endings, this termination serves also as a sign of singularity. In Anglo-Saxon, the plural ending of the Present Indicative was *-ath*. In Old English this gave way to *-en*. In modern English, the plural of this tense is always the same as the root, or simple verb.

PERSON.

116. **Person** is a variation in the form of verbs, by which we mark whether the subject is the first personal pronoun, the second personal pronoun, or some other word; as, I *strike*, thou *strikest*, he (or any singular noun in the nominative case) *strikes*.

When the subject is the first personal pronoun, the verb is said to be of the **First Person**.

When the subject is the second personal pronoun, the verb is said to be of the **Second Person**.

All other forms of the verb are spoken of as of the **Third Person**.

(1) In English as in Anglo-Saxon, the plural number is without variation for person.

(2) The tenses of the subjunctive mood have but one form for all persons in the singular. The past tense of *be* is the only exception.

(3) In the indicative present and past, the second person singular adds *st* or *est* to the first person. In the present tense, the third person adds *s* (old form *th* or *eth*) to the first person, but in the past tense it is the same as the first person,

NOTE 1.—It must be observed that *person* is a purely *verbal* distinction. To attempt to make it the basis of a classification of *nouns* and then to define person in *verbs* as a corresponding variation in form, is to do gross violence to fact, for no instance can be given or conceived of in which a noun of the so-called first or second person stands as the subject of a verb

NOTE 2.—The terminations marking person are originally personal pronouns, in all the languages of the Indo-European stock. Only in *am* does the English retain *m* (compare *me*) the characteristic letter of the ending of the first person. In *-st* or *-est* of the second person and *-th* (softened into *s*) of the third person, it displays, however, with great completeness the characteristics common to the whole group. The primitive ending of the second person was *-s* or *-t* (as Greek *su*, Latin *tu*, English *thou*); of third person *-t* (the root consonant of a large number of demonstratives of which the English *the* and *that* may be taken as specimens)

CONJUGATION.

117. **Conjugation** is a systematic arrangement of the various forms of a verb, according to Voice, Mood, Tense, Number and Person.

118. In order to understand the whole formation of any verb, it is necessary to know only the root or simple form as given in the infinitive mood, the past tense of the indicative mood, and the past participle.

Hence these three forms are called the **Principal Parts** of the verb. Thus, *love, loved, loved; teach, taught, taught; give, gave, given*, may be taken as brief descriptions of the verbs *love, teach* and *give*.

119. Verbs are divided according to the manner in which the past tense and past participle are derived from the simple form of the verb into two great classes or conjugations called the Weak and the Strong.

120. In verbs of the **Weak** Conjugation, the past

tense and past participle, which are always *alike*, end in *-d (-ed)* or *t;* as, *move, moved, moved; pull, pulled, pulled; deal, dealt, dealt.* *-d(ed)*, the regular suffix of this conjugation is a contraction of the word *did.* The connecting vowel *e* of the suffix is used only when the root ends in a consonant.

A verb of the weak conjugation has six simple forms: *love, lovest, loves (loveth), loved, lovedst, loving.*

121. Verbs which attach *-d(ed)* directly to the root are called **Regular**; as, *degrade, degraded, degraded; wait, waited, waited.* All other verbs of this Conjugation are termed **Irregular.**

122. The following are the chief varieties of Irregular verbs:—

(1) Those in which without any change in pronunciation *t* is used interchangeably with *-d(ed)*; as, *dress, dressed* or *drest, dressed* or *drest.* So *pass, learn, spoil.*

(2.) Those in which final *d* of the root is changed into *t*; as, *rend, rent, rent; build, built, built; gird, gird, girt.* Such verbs have also regular forms.

(3.) Those in which the vowel is shortened (sometimes only in pronunciation) with *t* added as an ending; as, *feel, felt, felt.* So, also, *mean, keep, deal, creep, sleep, sweep,* etc. Others as *leap, dream,* etc., are both regular and irregular.

(4.) Those which add *d* after a change of the root vowel; as, *flee, fled, fled; say, said, said; shoe, shod, shod. Hear, heard, heard,* is in appearance regular, but changes the pronunciation of the root vowel.

(5.) Those ending in *t* or *d*, which shorten the root vowel, but take no added ending; as, *feed, fed, fed.* So also *shoot, lead, bleed, meet. Light* has a past tense and participle *lit.*

(6.) Those ending originally in a *k* or *g* sound, which change the vowel and final consonants into the sound *aught;* as, *beseech, besought, besought.* So *buy, bring, seek, catch, think. Work*, while regular, has also a form *wrought.*

(7.) Those ending in *-t* or *-d* which have their past tense and past participle the same in form as the root; as, *put, put, put; shed, shed, shed.*

Burst is now generally ranked here, though it was originally a *strong* verb, having a past participle *bursten.*

(8.) A few not easily classed; as, *Sell, sold, sold; tell, told, told; have, had, had; make, made, made; clothe, clad, clad.* The

last three are shortened by loss of the final consonant of the root.

123. In Verbs of the Strong Conjugation, the past tense is formed by a change in the vowel of the root, and the past participle regularly ends in **-n** or **-en**; as, *strive, strove, striven; forget, forgot, forgotten; fly, flew, flown.*

These illustrations show that the *vowel* of the participle is sometimes the same as that of the root, sometimes the same as that of the past tense, sometimes different from both.

A verb of the Strong Conjugation has seven simple forms: *write, writest, writes (writeth), wrote, wrotest, writing, written.*

(1.) **N** or **en** which was formerly the constant ending of the past participle is now entirely lost in many verbs, and with others its use is variable

(2.) Some verbs originally belonging to the strong conjugation now take either invariably or occasionally a part of the forms of the weak, while not a few have passed over entirely to that conjugation.

(3.) A philosophical classification of verbs of the strong conjugation renders necessary a minute examination of the older forms of English and some other languages allied to English.

At best, such a classification must be far from exact, owing to the confusion caused by irregular changes. For practical purposes it is sufficient to group together those verbs which are on the whole most alike in their formation. Thus,

a. Like *sing, sang, sung,* are conjugated, *begin, ring, spring, swim, stink, drink, shrink, sink.* So like *cling, clung, clung* are conjugated, *fling, sting, string, swing, wring, slink.*

b. Like *bind, bound, bound* are *find, grind* and *wind*

c. Like *speak, spoke, spoken* are *break, bear, swear, wear, tear* (all of which have an old past with *a*), *steal, weave, tread.*

d Somewhat like *give, gave, given* are *bid, bade* or *bid, bidden, eat, ate* or *eat, eaten.*

e. Like *take, took, taken,* are *shake* and *forsake.*

f. Like *ride, rode, ridden* are *rise, stride, smite, write, drive, strive* and (sometimes) *thrive.*

This grouping of similar forms might be further extended, but the limit of unclassifiable words would soon be reached.

(4.) *Be, was, been,* is made up of parts coming from different roots, and is throughout so irregular that its forms can only be learned from its full conjugation. (See 127.)

124. When the participle has two forms, one with, and the other without **en**, the former is preferred when the participle has an adjectival use; as, *forgotten* lore; a *drunken* fellow; a *smitten* heart; *cloven* tongues; *hidden* joys. Indeed some words in **en** in their origin participles, are now used only as adjectives, the real participles being formed in another manner. Such are, *bounden, graven, rotten, molten. Lorn* (obs.) and *forlorn* are of participial origin, being derived from the Anglo-Saxon *leoson* to lose, with a not unusual change of *s* into *rn*.

125 (1.) List of Irregular Verbs.

(Verbs marked thus * have also the regular forms. Those with a † have also the forms of the Strong Conjugation.)

Bend	bent	bent
Bereave	bereft	bereft
Beseech	besought	besought
Bet	bet	bet
Bleed	bled	bled
Blend	blent*	blent*
Breed	bred	bred
Bring	brought	brought
Build,	built	built
Burst	burst	burst
Burn	burnt*	burnt*
Buy	bought	bought
Cast,	cast	cast
Catch	caught	caught
Clothe	clad*	clad*
Cleave *(trans.)*	cleft* †	cleft* †
Cost	cost	cost
Creep	crept	crept
Cut	cut	cut
Deal	dealt	dealt
Dream	dreamt*	dreamt*
Dwell	dwelt	dwelt
Feed	fed	fed
Feel	felt	felt
Flee	fled	fled
Gild	gilt*	gilt*
Gird	girt*	girt*
Have	had	had
Hear,	heard	heard
Hit	hit	hit
Hurt	hurt	hurt
Keep	kept	kept
Kneel	knelt	knelt
Knit	knit	knit

Lay	laid	laid
Lead	led	led
Leap	leapt	leapt
Learn	learnt*	learnt*
Leave	left	left
Lend	lent	lent
Let	let	let
Light	lit*	lit*
Lose	lost	lost
Make	made	made
Mean	meant	meant
Meet	met	met
Pay	paid	paid
Put	put	put
Pen	pent*	pent*
Read	read	read
Rend	rent	rent
Rid	rid	rid
Say	said	said
Seek	sought	sought
Sell	sold	sold
Send	sent	sent
Set	set	set
Shed	shed	shed
Shoe	shod	shod
Shred	shred	shred
Shut	shut	shut
Sleep	slept	slept
Slit	slit	slit
Speed	sped	sped
Spell	spelt*	spelt*
Spend	spent	spent
Spill	spilt*	spilt*
Spit	spit†	spit†
Split	split	split
Spread	spread	spread
Stay	staid	staid
Sweep	swept	swept
Sweat	sweat	sweat
Teach	taught	taught
Tell	told	told
Think	thought	thought
Thrust	thrust	thrust
Wed	wed	wed
Weep	wept	wept
Wet	wet*	wet*
Whet	whet*	whet*
Work	wrought*	wrought*

(2.) List of Verbs of the Strong Conjugation.

(Verbs marked thus * have also regular forms according to the weak conjugation. Forms of the strong conjugation are wanting when brackets are used.)

Abide	abode	abode
Arise	arose	arisen
Awake	awoke	awoke
Bear (bring forth),	bore, bare	born
Bear (carry),	bore, bare	borne
Beat	beat	beaten
Begin	began	begun
Behold	beheld	beheld, beholden
Bid	bade, bid	bidden, bid
Bind	bound	bound
Bite	bit	bitten, bit
Blow	blew	blown
Break	broke	broken
Chide	chid	chidden, chid
Choose	chose	chosen
Cleave (split),	clove	cloven
Cling	clung	clung
Come	came	come
Crow	crew*	crown,* *Obs.*
Dig	dug	dug
Do	did	done
Draw	drew	drawn
Drink	drank	drunk
Drive	drove	driven
Eat	ate	eaten
Fall	fell	fallen
Fight	fought	fought
Find	found	found
Fling	flung	flung
Fly	flew	flown
Forbear	forbore	forborne
Forbid	forbade	forbidden
Forget	forgot	forgotten
Forsake	forsook	forsaken
Freeze	froze	frozen
Get	got	gotten, got
Give	gave	given
Go	went	gone
Grave, *en-*	graved	graven
Grind	ground	ground
Grow	grew	grown
Hang	hung*	hung*
Heave	hove	heaved

Hew	(hewed)	hewn*
Hide	hid	hidden, hid
Hold	held	held, holden
Know	knew	known
Lade	(laded)	laden, loaden
Lie	lay	lain
Ride	rode	ridden
+Ring	rang	rung
Rise	rose	risen
Rive	(rived)	riven
Run	ran	run
See	saw	seen
Seethe	sod*	sodden*
Shake	shook	shaken
Shaved	(shaved)	shaven*
Shear	shore	shorn
Shine	shone	shone
Shrink	shrank	shrunk
Sing	sang	sung
Sink	sank	sunk
Sit	sat	sat
Slay	slew	slain
Slide	slid	slidden, slid
Sling	slung	slung
Slink	slunk	slunk
Smite	smote	smitten
Sow	(sowed)	sown*
Speak	spoke	spoken
Spin	spun	spun
Spring	sprang	sprung
Stand	stood	stood
Steal	stole	stolen
Stick	stuck	stuck
Sting	stung	stung
Stink	stank	stunk
Stride	strode	stridden
Strike	struck	struck, stricken
String	strung	strung
Strive	strove	striven
Swear	swore	sworn
Swell	(swelled)	swollen*
Swim	swam	swum
Swing	swung	swung
Take	took	taken
Tear	tore	torn
Thrive	throve*	thriven*
Throw	threw	thrown
Tread	trod	trodden

Wake	woke*	(waked)
Wear	wore	worn
Weave	wove	woven
Win	won	won
Wind	wound	wound
Wring	wrung	wrung
Write	wrote	written

AUXILIARY VERBS.

126. We have seen that the only simple tenses of the English verb are the present and past indefinite of the active voice. All the other tenses are *compound*, and are formed by combining with the infinitive mood, or one of the participles, or with both infinitive and participle, certain other verbs, which as thus used, are called **Auxiliary** verbs.

The auxiliary verbs are, *have*, *shall*, *will*, *be* and *do*. *Have*, *shall*, *will* and *do* have their auxiliary use solely in forming *tenses*, and hence are known as **tense-auxiliaries**. *Be* is a **voice-auxiliary**, being used throughout in forming the passive voice. It is also a tense auxiliary in the formation of the so-called progressive tenses of the active voice.

No verb retaining its own full and proper meaning should be called an *auxiliary*. *Must* and *can*, therefore, are *never* auxiliaries. *Shall* (*should*) and *will* (*would*) are often independent verbs.

CONJUGATION OF THE AUXILIARY VERBS.

127. (*Have*, *will*, and *do* are complete verbs, but only the forms having an auxiliary use are here given.)

HAVE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I have.	1. We have.
2. Thou hast.	2. Ye or You have.
3. He has.	3. They have.

Past Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I had.	1. We had.
2. Thou hadst.	2. Ye or You had.
3. He had.	3. They had.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. (If) I have.	1. (If) We have.
2. (If) Thou have.	2. (If) Ye or You have
3. (If) He have.	3. (If) They have.

SHALL.

Present Tense.

1. I shall.	1. We shall.
2. Thou shalt.	2. Ye or You shall.
3. He shall.	3. They shall.

Past Tense.

1. I should.	1. We should.
2. Thou shouldst.	2. Ye or You should
3. He should	3 They should.

WILL.

Present Tense.

1. I will	1 We will.
2. Thou wilt.	2. Ye or You will.
3. He will.	3. They will.

Past Tense.

1. I would.	1. We would.
2. Thou wouldst.	2. Ye or You would.
3. He would.	3. They would.

DO.

Present Tense.

1. I do.	1. We do.
2. Thou dost.	2. Ye or You do.
3. He does.	3. They do.

Past Tense.

1. I did.	1. We did.
2. Thou didst.	2. Ye or You did.
3. He did.	3. They did.

BE.

Principal Parts.

Be, *Was,* *Been.*

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I am.	1. We are.
2. Thou art.	2. Ye or You are.
3. He is.	3. They are.

Present Perfect Tense.

1. I have been.	1. We have been.
2. Thou hast been.	2. Ye or You have been.
3. He has been.	3. They have been.

Past Tense.

1. I was.	1. We were.
2. Thou wast.	2. Ye or You were.
3. He was.	3. They were.

Past Perfect Tense.

1. I had been.	1. We had been.
2. Thou hadst been.	2. Ye or You had been.
3. He had been	3. They had been.

Future Tense.

1. I shall be.	1. We shall be.
2. Thou wilt be.	2. Ye or You will be.
3. He will be.	3. They will be.

Future Perfect Tense.

1. I shall have been.	1. We shall have been.
2. Thou wilt have been.	2. Ye or You will have been.
3. He will have been.	3. They will have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. (If) I be.	1. (If) We be.
2. (If) Thou be.	2. (If) Ye or You be.
3. (If) He be.	3. (If) They be.

*Compound Form.**

1. (If) I should be.	1. (If) We should be.
2. (If) Thou shouldst be.	2. (If) Ye or You should be.
3. (If) He should be.	3. (If) He should be.

* See 112, (2.)

Present Perfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. (If) I have been.	1. (If) We have been.
2. (If) Thou have been.	2. (If) Ye or You have been.
3. (If) He have been.	3. (If) They have been.

*Compound Form.**

1. (If) I should have been.	1. (If) We should have been.
2. (If) Thou shouldst have been.	2. (If) Ye or You should have been.
3. (If) He should have been.	3. (If) They should have been.

Past Tense.

1. (If) I were.	1. (If) We were.
2. (If) Thou wert.	2. (If) Ye or You were.
3. (If) He were.	3. (If) They were.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

2. Be (thou).	2. Be (ye or you).

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Tense—To be.
Present Perfect Tense—To have been.

Participles.

Present—Being. || *Perfect*—Having been.—*Past*—Been.

Gerunds.

Simple—Being. | *Compound*—Having been.

COMPLETE CONJUGATION OF THE TRANSITIVE VERB DRIVE.

Principal Parts.—Drive, Drove, Driven.

ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT SYSTEM.

Present Indefinite Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I drive.	1. We drive.
2. Thou drivest.	2 Ye or You drive.
3. He drives.	3. They drive.

Present Progressive.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I am driving.	1. We are driving.
2. Thou art driving.	2. Ye or You are driving.
3. He is driving.	3. They are driving.

Present Perfect.

1. I have driven.	1. We have driven.
2. Thou hast driven.	2. Ye or You have driven
3. He has driven.	3. They have driven.

Present Perfect Progressive.

1. I have been driving.	1. We have been driving.
2. Thou hast been driving.	2. Ye or You have been driving.
3. He has been driving.	3. They have been driving.

PAST SYSTEM.

Past Indefinite Tense.

1. I drove.	1. We drove.
2. Thou drovest.	2. Ye or You drove.
3. He drove.	3. They drove.

Past Progressive.

1. I was driving.	1. We were driving.
2. Thou wast driving.	2. Ye or You were driving.
3. He was driving.	3. They were driving.

Past Perfect.

1. I had driven.	1. We had driven.
2. Thou hadst driven.	2. Ye or You had driven.
3. He had driven.	3. They had driven.

Past Perfect Progressive.

1. I had been driving.	1. We had been driving.
2. Thou hadst been driving.	2. Ye or You had been driving.
3. He had been driving.	3. They had been driving.

FUTURE SYSTEM.

Future Indefinite Tense.

1. I shall drive.	1. We shall drive.
2. Thou wilt drive.	2. Ye or You will drive
3. He will drive.	3. They will drive.

Future Progressive.

1. I shall be driving.	1. We shall be driving.
2. Thou wilt be driving.	2. Ye or You will be driving.
3. He will be driving.	3. They will be driving.

Future Perfect.

1. I shall have driven.	1. We shall have driven.
2. Thou wilt have driven.	2. Ye or You will have driven.
3. He will have driven.	3. They will have driven.

Future Perfect Progressive.

1. I shall have been driving.	1. We shall have been driving.
2. Thou wilt have been driving.	2. Ye or You will have been driving.
3. He will have been driving.	3. They will have been driving.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Indefinite Tense.

1. (If) I drive.	1. (If) We drive.
2. (If) Thou drive.	2. (If) Ye or You drive.
3. (If) He drive.	3. (If) They drive.

Compound Form. *

1. (If) I should drive.	1. (If) We should drive.
2. (If) Thou shouldst drive.	2. (If) Ye or You should drive.
3. (If) He should drive.	3. (If) They should drive.

Present Progressive.

1. (If) I be driving.	1. (If) We be driving.
2. (If) Thou be driving.	2. (If) Ye or You be driving.
3. (If) He be driving.	3. (If) They be driving.

Compound Form.

1. (If) I should be driving.	1. (If) We should be driving.
2. (If) Thou shouldst be driving	2. (If) Ye or You should be driving.
3. (If) He should be driving.	3. (If) They should be driving.

Present Perfect.

1. (If) I have driven.	1. (If) We have driven.
2. (If) Thou have driven.	2. (If) Ye or You have driven.
3. (If) He have driven.	3. (If) They have driven.

Compound Form.

1. (If) I should have driven.	1. (If) We should have driven.
2. (If) Thou shouldst have driven.	2. (If) Ye or You should have driven.
3. (If) He should have driven.	3. (If) They should have driven.

* See 112. (2.)

Present Perfect Progressive.

1. (If) I have been driving.
2. (If) Thou have been driving.
3. (If) He have been driving.
1. (If) We have been driving.
2. (If) Ye or You have been driving.
3. (If) They have been driving.

Compound Form.

1. (If) I should have been driving.
2. (If) Thou shouldst have been driving.
3. (If) He should have been driving.
1. (If) We should have been driving.
2. (If) Ye or You should have been driving.
3. (If) They should have been driving.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

2. Drive (thou.)
2. Drive (ye or you).

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Indefinite Tense.—To drive.
Present Progressive.—To be driving.
Present Perfect.—To have driven.
Present Perfect Progressive.—To have been driving.

Participles

Present.—Driving.
Perfect.—Having driven.
Perfect Progressive.—Having been driving.

Gerunds

Simple.—Driving. | Compound.—Having driven.

PASSIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT SYSTEM.

Present (Indefinite) Tense.

1. I am driven.
2. Thou art driven.
3. He is driven.
1. We are driven.
2. Ye or You are driven.
3. They are driven.

Present Progressive.

1. I am being driven
2. Thou art being driven.
3. He is being driven.
1. We are being driven.
2. Ye or You are being driven
3. They are being driven.

Present Perfect.

1. I have been driven.	1. We have been driven.
2. Thou hast been driven.	2. Ye or You have been driven.
3. He has been driven.	3. They have been driven.

PAST SYSTEM.

(Past (Indefinite) Tense.

1. I was driven.	1. We were driven.
2. Thou wast driven.	2. Ye or You were driven.
3. He was driven.	3. They were driven.

Past Progressive.

1. I was being driven.	1. We were being driven.
2. Thou wast being driven.	2. Ye or You were being driven.
3. He was being driven.	3. They were being driven.

Past Perfect.

1. I had been driven.	1. We had been driven.
2. Thou hadst been driven.	2. Ye or You had been driven.
3. He had been driven.	3. They had been driven.

FUTURE SYSTEM.

Future (Indefinite) Tense.

1. I shall be driven.	1. We shall be driven.
2. Thou wilt be driven.	2. Ye or You will be driven.
3. He will be driven.	3. They will be driven.

Future Perfect.

1. I shall have been driven.	1. We shall have been driven.
2. Thou wilt have been driven.	2. Ye or You will have been driven.
3. He will have been driven.	3. They will have been driven.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PRESENT SYSTEM.

Present (Indefinite) Tense.

1. (If) I be driven.	1. (If) We be driven.
2. (If) Thou be driven.	2. (If) Ye or You be driven.
3. (If) He be driven.	3. (If) They be driven.

Compound Form.

1. (If) I should be driven.	1. (If) We should be driven.
2. (If) Thou shouldst be driven.	2. (If) Ye or You should be driven.
3. (If) He should be driven.	3. (If) They should be driven.

Present Perfect.

1. (If) I have been driven.	1. (If) We have been driven.
2. (If) Thou have been driven.	2. (If) Ye or You have been driven.
3. (If) He have been driven.	3. (If) They have been driven.

Compound Form.

1. (If) I should have been driven.	1. (If) We should have been driven.
2. (If) Thou shouldst have driven.	2. (If) Ye or You should have been driven.
3. (If) He should have been driven.	3. (If) They should have been driven.

PAST SYSTEM.

Past (Indefinite) Tense.

1. (If) I were driven.	1. (If) We were driven.
2. (If) Thou wert driven.	2. (If) Ye or You were driven.
3. (If) He were driven.	3. (If) They were driven.

Past Progressive.

1. (If) I were being driven.	1. (If) We were being driven.
2. (If) Thou wert being driven.	2. (If) Ye or You were being driven.
3. (If) He were being driven.	3. (If) They were being driven

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

2. Be (thou) driven.	2. Be (ye or you) driven.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Indefinite Tense.—To be driven.
Present Perfect.—To have been driven.

Participles.

Past Indefinite.—Driven.
Past Progressive.—Being driven.
Perfect.—Having been driven.

Gerunds.

Incomplete.—Being driven. | Complete.—Having been driven,

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128. SPECIAL FORMS OF CONJUGATION WITH **DO.**

Do (See 127) is used as a tense-auxiliary —

(**1.**) In the present and past tenses of the indicative mood and in the imperative mood, to express *emphasis;* as, I *do assert.* They *did reply.* *Do tell* the truth.

This mode of conjugation is sometimes called the **Emphatic** Form.

(2.) In the present and past tenses of the indicative, in *negative and interrogative* sentences; as, I *do* not *know*. Thou *didst* not *come*. Neither *do* I *condemn* thee. *Does* he *complain?* *Did* they *go?*

NOTE 1.—In affirmative sentences *do* and *did* are not always emphatic, but are used simply to promote fulness or smoothness of expression; as, "They set bread before Him, and he *did eat*."

NOTE 2. In interrogative and negative sentences *do* and *did* have almost entirely supplanted direct expressions like: *lovest thou me? forbid me not.*

NOTE 3. —*Do* is often used as a substitute for other verbs; as, I can write as well as he *does*.

That the common explanation of this as a case of *ellipsis* is incorrect is shown by such a sentence as follows: I transacted this business as well as he could have *done*.

IMPERSONAL VERBS.

129. Verbs used with the subject *it*, when it does not stand for any particular action but simply aids the verb in indicating that some process or action is going on, are called **Impersonal** verbs; as, It *rains*. It *is growing* dark. It *will fare* well with the good.

130. The term *impersonal* is by some grammarians applied specially to such peculiar forms as *me-thinks*, *me-seems*, and *me-lists*. *Me-thinks* and *me-seems* are identical in meaning, *thinks* of the former being derived not from *thencan*, (A. S.), to think, but from *thinken* (A. S.) to seem. *List*, to please, is used by Shakespeare altogether as a personal verb, but only in the present tense. The *me* in these forms is in the *dative* case, i e., the case of the indirect object=*to* me.

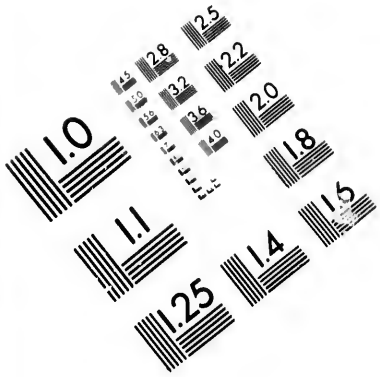
ANOMALOUS VERBS.

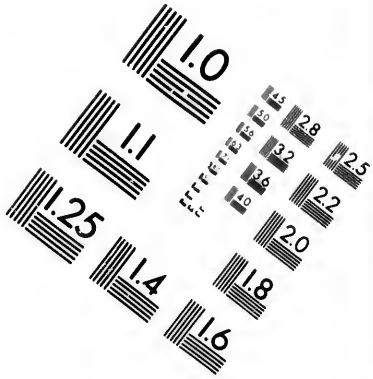
(With the exception of *be*, *do*, *have*, *dare* and *need* these verbs are also **defective** or wanting some of their parts.)

131. **Be** (For conjugation see 127.) This important verb is made up of parts derived from several roots :—

(1.) **As**, the root of the present indicative. The *m* in *am* is identical with the pronoun *me*. In *art* and *are* *s* is softened into *r* *is* is shortened for *as*.

(2.) **Be**, the root of the present subjunctive, the imperative, the infinitive, and the participles. There was originally a present *indicative* from this root, conjugated as follows·





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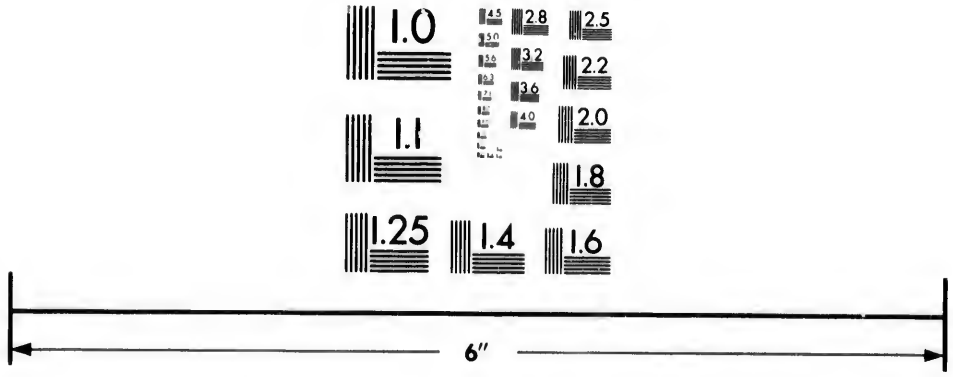

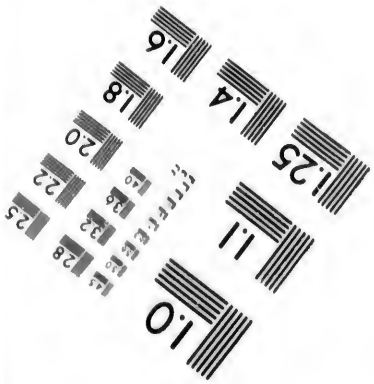

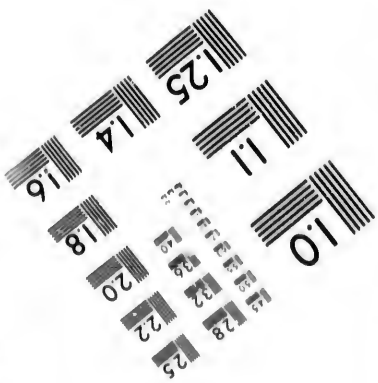

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Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I be	1. We ben, bin, be.
2. Thou bee'st, be'st	2. Ye ben, bin, be.
3. He be (be'eth, be'th)	3 They ben, bin, be.

Traces of this use are found in Milton, and several writers of the Elizabethan era.

Bee-n shows that this old verb was *strong*.

(3.) **Was** or **Wes**, the root of the past indicative and subjunctive. *s* is softened into *r* in the subjunctive and in the plural of the indicative. This root is the past tense of an old strong verb *wesan*, to be.

132. Have, (For conjugation see 127). The peculiar forms of this verb result from contraction, thus :—

Hast = hav'st = havest.
Has = hav's = haves.
Had = hav'd = haved.

(1.) The auxiliary use of *have* is not directly connected with its original meaning. "I have written a letter," now expresses an action perfected or completed at the present time. The original expression seems to have been, "I *have* a letter *written*," denoting the *result* of a past action, rather than the *action* itself. Intransitive verbs have gradually conformed to the usage of transitive verbs, and now generally take *have* as their auxiliary in the perfect system. In such forms as *is come, was gone*, which are still good English, we have relics of the original mode of forming the perfect and pluperfect tenses of *intransitive* verbs, of which *be*, and not *have*, was the proper auxiliary. French and German have not admitted a similar encroachment on the province of their verbs denoting being (*etre* and *sein*) as auxiliaries of intransitive verbs.

(2.) *Had* followed by comparative words such as *rather, better, as lief*, is sometimes considered a corruption of *would*. It is really an old English subjunctive (past tense with present meaning) followed by the infinitive "I had rather die than live" is equivalent to "I should hold dying preferable to living." *lief* (in *as lief*) is an adverb meaning *gladly* or *willingly*.

133. Do (For conjugation see 127).

When used as a principal verb, the second person singular, present indicative, takes the regular form *doest*, and the third person (archaic) *doeth*. *Did* was originally the reduplicated past tense.

134. Dare, Durst, (To have courage).

This verb in old authors occasionally omits the *s* of the third person, singular, present indicative: thus,

"The duke *dare* no more stretch this finger of mine, than he *dare* stretch his own."—*Shakespeare.* When meaning *to challenge*, it is regular. *Durst* is never present.

135. Need.

Need sometimes omits the *s* of the third person singular, present indicative active, especially when followed by another verb, as, Why *need* he fear? When the regular form is used, the following infinitive must be proceeded by *to*. In such sentences as, "He must needs go," *needs* is an adverb. See 144, (2), *d*.

136. Owe, Ought.

Owe in its common meaning, *to be in debt to have to pay*, is a regular verb.

Ought, used to express duty or obligation, is a past tense, formed irregularly, and as a past, has the third person singular like the first. It has a present meaning, and a past sense is conveyed by putting the following verb in the perfect infinitive; as, "You ought *to have obeyed* your parents."

137. Must.

Must, like *ought*, is a past tense, and is invariable in form. It is used as a present to express compulsion or necessity; as, "You *must* not do it," "It *must* be so." It is followed by the infinitive mood without *to*.

The original Anglo-Saxon verb was *motan*, whose present survived in *mote*, used by Spenser and other poets.

Must is never a mere auxiliary, having always its own proper force.

138. Can.

Can is thus conjugated.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

	Singular.	PRESENT TENSE.	*Plural.*
1.	I can		We can.
2.	Thou canst		Ye or You can.
3.	He can		They can.

	Singular.	PAST TENSE.	*Plural.*
1.	I could		We could.
2.	Thou couldest or couldst		Ye or You could.
3.	He could		They could.

Can like the following verbs *may*, *shall* and *will*, was originally the past tense of a strong verb, and hence has the *third* person singular the same as the *first*. *Could* is a modern past, formed

with some irregularity after the analogy of the weak conjugation. The insertion of *l*, which is not found in the primary root, is supposed to be due to the influence of *should* and *would*, operating by a false analogy.

Can, like *must*, is never an auxiliary. It is followed by the infinitive without *to*.

139. May.

May is thus conjugated.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1.	I may	We may.
2.	Thou mayest or mayst	Ye or you may.
3.	He may	They may

PAST TENSE.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1.	I might	We might.
2.	Thou mightest or mightst	Ye or You might.
3.	He might	They might.

May as an old past has the same form in the first and third persons singular. This verb denotes permission or liberty, (primarily *freedom from obstacles*). It is generally a *principal* verb, though in some constructions it approaches very nearly an *auxiliary* use. Morris claims that it is always an independent verb. Mason and Smith regard it as occasionally a mere auxiliary, as in the sentences: "Give me water that I *may* not thirst," "It is possible that I *may* be proved mistaken." In these illustrations, however, it is by no means clear that the verb has lost its original meaning. In *may* *y* represents an original *g* Hence the modern weak past *might*. *May* and *might* are often incorrectly used where *should* and *would* are required.

140. Shall and will, (For Conjugation see 127).

The original meaning of *shall* was "to owe, to be bound, or obligated;" of *will* "to intend, to resolve, to be determined." The general rule for the use of these important verbs is that *shall* retains its proper meaning in the *second* and *third* persons, *will* in the *first* person: in other persons they are used as auxiliaries to denote simply futurity. See paradigms of *be* and *drive*.

More particularly,

(1.) *shall* in the second and third persons denotes an obligation imposed by the will of a superior authority, and hence is used in commands, prophecies and legal prohibitions as,

"The general *shall* cause proclamation to be made," "In the day thou eatest thereof, thou *shalt* surely die," "Thou *shalt* not steal."

(2.) Though used in the first person as a simple future *shall* in that person sometimes retains a trace of its origina force, indicating that the speaker has formed a resolution by which he considers himself *bound*, as, "I *shall* recount the errors which in a few months alienated a loyal gentry and priesthood from the House of Stuart." (*Macaulay*, H. E.)

(3.) *Will* in the first person expresses *assent* or *determination*, as, "I *will* return" (if asked.) I *will* return (whatever may hinder.)

(4.) In questions and in reporting the statements and opinions of others, *shall* or *will* is used according as the one or the other is expected in the reply, or was employed in the direct speech; as, "Will you go?" if we expect the reply, "I will (or will not) go," but "Shall you go?" if we expect "I shall go" So "he thinks he shall succeed" is the correct indirect rendering of "I think I shall succeed."

NOTE.—"To define completely the difference between *shall* and *will* would take a great deal of room; and some of the distinctions are very delicate and difficult. The people of Ireland and Scotland and part of the United States have long been inaccurate in the use of the two auxiliaries, putting *will* often where the cultivated and approved idiom requires *shall*."—*Whitney's Essentials of English Grammar.*

Shall and *will* were both originally past tenses. *Should* and *would* are derived past forms of the weak conjugation. They are used as simple auxiliaries in forming compound tenses of the subjunctive mood. Both as auxiliaries and principal verbs they have nearly the same distinctions of use as *shall* and *will*.

When will denotes "to exercise the will," "to put forth a volition," it is complete and regular, and requires *to* before a following infinitive.

141. Quoth. worth, wot, yclept.

Quoth = *said*, first and third person singular, past indefinite. It always precedes its subject and cannot like *say*, be followed by a connected clause. It is from the same root as *bequeath*. The use of *quoth* is chiefly confined to humorous writing.

Worth is found only in third person singular, present subjunctive, used with an optative or imperative signification; as, "Woe *worth* the day." It means "to come to pass," "to befall."

Wot (now obsolete) means *to know*. The forms found in the authorized version of the Bible are, present indicative, *wot*; past indicative, *wist*.

Shakespeare uses a present participle *witting* and *wotting*.

Yclept is the past participle of *clypian* (A. S.) *to call*. The *y* is the same as the participial prefix *ge* of German.

ADVERBS.

142. An **Adverb** is a word used to limit the application of a verb, adjective, or other adverb; as, He acted *strangely*. A *very* sweet apple. He died *too* early.

143. Adverbs according to their force in a sentence are divided into two general classes,—simple and conjunctive.

(1.) A **Simple** adverb is one which contains its meaning within itself and merely modifies the word to which it is attached. This class embraces by far the greater number of adverbs. *Strangely*, *very*, and *too*, in the preceding paragraph are simple adverbs.

(2.) A **Conjunctive** adverb is one which in addition to limiting a word in its own clause, connects that clause with the rest of the sentence. The chief conjunctive adverbs are, *when*, *where*, *whence*, *whither*, *why*, *wherein*, *whereafter*, &c.

As, (following *so*, *such*, *or as*), is a conjunctive adverb.

(3.) Care should be taken not to confound *conjunctive adverbs* and *conjunctions*. It will be seen that the latter are mere *connectives*. The former not only connect clauses, but exert a *limiting force on particular words*.

NOTE.—"It is self-evident that any word which fulfils the functions of an adverb must be an adverb. It may discharge other functions as well, but as an *adverb* it is and must be."—*Mason*.

143. In respect to their *meaning*, adverbs (including both simple and conjunctive), can be classified as denoting,

(1.) Manner, as,

As	Ill	Thus.
How	Otherwise	Well.
However	So	Wisely.

And an immense number formed from adjectives by the ending *ly*

(2.) Degree, as,

almost	less	most.
altogether	least	quite.
half	much	scarcely
little	more	very.

a. *No* is an adverb of degree in such comparative phrases

as, *no better, no worse.* *The* is an adverb of degree in such expressions; as, *The* more the better: *The* more he has, *the* more he wants.

b. Adjectives and adverbs are chiefly modified by adverbs of *degree.*

(3.) **Time**, as,

afterwards	ever	seldom.
again	hereafter	since.
ago	late	sometimes.
always	never	soon.
before	now	to-day.
daily	presently	when.

(4.) **Place**, as,

above	far	there.
back	hence	thither.
below	here	up.
down	hither	where.
elsewhere	thence	whence.

The adverb of place *there* is often used without meaning, as a mere instrument of inversion; as, *There* is no use in denying it.

(5.) **Cause and Effect**, as,

accordingly	wherefore.
hence	whence.
thence	why.
therefore	

(6.) **Emphasis**, as,

nevertheless	still.
notwithstanding	yet.

(7.) **Affirmation or Negation**, as,

aye	no.
certainly	surely.
indeed	yea.
nay	yes.

Yes and *No* are properly *word-sentences.* They were originally adverbs, but are now independent responsive particles. They are often called **responsives**.

(8.) **Potentiality**, as,

Perhaps Probably.
Possibly.

(9.) **Repetition and Order**, as,

Once	First.
Twice	Second.
&c.,	&c.

FORMATION OF ADVERBS.

144. Most adverbs are derived or formed directly from other parts of speech.

(**1.**) From Adjectives.

a. By the suffix *ly;* as, *truly, hastily.* This is the largest class of adverbs. It should be noted that on being converted into adverbs, adjectives in *ble* change *blely* into *bly;* those in *ic* change *ic* into *ical;* and those in *y*, preceded by a consonant change *y* into *i;* as, a*ble*, a*bly*, frant*ic*, frant*ically*, pretty, pretti*ly*.

b. By the suffix *wise;* as, likewise, otherwise.

c. By the prefix *a;* as, aback, ahead, anew, aside.

d. By taking the same form; as, much, more, little, fast, far. Some such adjectives also admit of *ly* in becoming adverbs, often with a change of meaning, thus:

Even and *evenly; late* and *lately; sure* and *surely.*

(**2.**) From nouns,

a. By the prefix *a;* as, abreast, ashore.

b. By the suffix *ward* or *wards;* as, backwards, homeward.

c. By the suffix *wise;* as, lengthwise, crosswise.

d. By taking the same form; as, home, back, half, needs. The latter is properly a possessive case. The three former are objective.

(**3.**) From pronouns. Here belong three series of adverbs corresponding to one another derived from the personal, demonstrative and relative pronouns.

a. Here, hither, hence.

b. There, thither, thence, then, thus.

c. Where, whither, whence, when, why.

(**4.**) From prepositions and other adverbs by the suffix *ward* or *wards;* as, toward, towards, forward, upward, downward, Many adverbs are identical in form with prepositions; as, by, in, off, out.

145. Compound adverbs are short phrases of two (but sometimes more,) words, which have grown into one; as, *always, already, almost, sometimes, henceforward, nowadays.* The combination of a prepostion with its noun as one word is very common; as, *indeed, overhead, beforehand, forever.*

146. Adverbial phrases differ from compound adverbs in that the elements have not grown together into one word. They serve the purpose of single adverbs and are often difficult of analysis; as, *at random, of*

yore, in vain, in short, at all, of old, of late, ere long, for good.

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

147. Some adverbs admit of a comparison. These are chiefly adverbs denoting **manner, time, degree** and **distance**; as, *sweetly, more sweetly, most sweetly; late, later, last; little, less, least; near, nearer, nearest* or *next.* But few words which are *invariably* adverbs are compared. The comparison of adverbs is generally by *more* and *most.*

148. The suffixes for comparison are the same as for adjectives, *er* and *est.* The terminational comparison is chiefly limited to those adverbs which have the same form as the corresponding adjectives; as, *hard, loud, long.* With the exception of *early*, adverbs in *ly* are compared by *more* and *most.*

149. The following are irregular.

Pos.	*Comp.*	*Sup*
well	better	best.
badly, ill	worse	worst.
much	more	most.
little	less	least.
far	farther	farthest.
(forth)	further	furthest.
near, nigh	nearer	nearest, next.
late	later	last.

NOTE.—*Farther* and *farthest* are said by some to be properly used in *comparison* of distances; *further* and *farthest* to movement in advance. The distinction is not always an evident one.

CONJUNCTIONS.

150. A **Conjunction** is a word used to connect sentences; as, "Men may come *and* men may go. "You condemn me, *but* your sentence is not just."

(1.) "*Conjunction* is from the Latin *conjungere*, to join together.

(2.) Conjunctive adverbs connect sentences, but they also, as we have seen, modify the meaning of words.

151. Conjunctions according to their use are divided into two classes—co-ordinating and sub-ordinating.

This distinction is the basis of the classification of sentences into *complex* and *compound*. (See 203 and 230).

152. **Co-ordinating** conjunctions connect sentences of equal order or rank. The most common are *and, or, but, for*. By contraction, these conjunctions often connect co-ordinate *words*; as, John *and* James ran a race. A tardy *but* well-deserved reward. I will kill him *or* his dog.

(**1.**) *And* is termed **Copulative**, because it simply *couples* one sentence with another.

(**2.**) *Or* implies and is called an **Alternative**. Closely allied to it in force are *either, else, neither, nor*.

(**3.**) *Either....or, neither....nor,* and *whether....or,* are called **correlatives**, because they relate to each other, occurring in succession, and introducing two alternatives. *Both....and,* are *copulative* correlatives In these constructions, the second word is the *real* connective.

(**4.**) *But* implies something opposed or adverse to the previous statement, and is therefore termed **adversative**.

Such words as *nevertheless, notwithstanding, still, only, yet,* are generally ranked as adversative conjunctions. It is clear, however, that they are properly adverbs, modifying the verb of the clause in which they stand. The only case in which they may be regarded as conjunctions is when they are not preceded by a correlative word as *though*, &c.; as, "He came, *yet* will not stay." Even here it is preferable to consider *yet* an *emphatic* adverb, with a connective omitted.

153. **Sub-ordinating** conjunctions join a *subordinate* or *dependent* sentence to that on which it depends.

(**1.**) A *dependent* sentence, known in Analysis as a dependent **clause**, virtually forms a part of another clause, called the **principal**, in which it has the value of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

(**2.**) Sub ordinating conjunctions never connect words only.

154 Subordinating conjunctions may be roughly classified; as,

(**1.**) Of **cause**; as, *because, inasmuch as, since, whereas.*
As = *inasmuch as,* is a causal conjunction.

(**2.**) Of **condition**; as, *except, if, provided that, unless, without.*

(**3.**) Of **concession**; as, *albeit, although, notwithstanding, though.*

(4.) Of **time**; as, *after, before, ere, since, till, until.*

(5.) Of **comparison**; as, *than.*

(6.) Of **end** or **purpose**; as, *lest, in order that, so that that.*

NOTE 1.—*That*, in its peculiar function of introducing a noun clause is by some called a **substantive** conjunction.

NOTE 2.—*But* (originally and properly a preposition) is sometimes a *subordinating* conjunction = *except* or *unless*. As a preposition, it preceded noun clauses introduced by *that*. By the omission of *that*, it came to acquire the force of a conjunction. "There is no one *but knows it*," was first "There is no one *but that he knows it*." The use of the prepositions *except, before, after, since*, as *conjunctions*, grew up in precisely the same way.

155. The words which are used *solely* as conjunctions are comparatively few. The chief are *and, lest, or, nor, than.* Words sometimes conjunctions at other times are,

(1.) Pronouns or adjectives; as, *both, either, neither, that.*

(2.) Adverbs; as, *after, before, ere.*

(3.) Prepositions; as, *after, except, till, until, without.*

156. It will be observed that some conjunctions are made up of two or more words; as, *as soon as, inasmuch as, in order that*, &c. These are sometimes called **phrase conjunctions.**

PREPOSITIONS.

157. A **preposition** is a connective word placed before a noun or pronoun to show its *relation* to some other word in the sentence; as, The beginning *of* the battle. I saw clouds *in* the sky.

(1.) *Preposition* is from the Latin *praepositus*, placed before. These words were originally prefixed to the *verb* to modify its meaning.

(2.) The noun or pronoun following a preposition is said to be **governed** by it, and is in the objective case.

(3.) The word with which the noun or pronoun is brough into relation, may be:—

a. A verb, as; I *live in* the house. The bird *flew through* the air *to* its nest. He *remained on* the cold ground *under* the clear sky.

b. An adjective; as, *Beneficial to* the public interests. *Free from* exposure.

c. Another noun or pronoun; as, A *load of* stones. *Who of* the Gods?

d An adverb, (rarely); as, *Sufficiently for* the end desired

When a preposition connects its object with a noun or pronoun, the relation is called *adjectival* when with a verb, adjective, or other adverb, *adverbial*.

(4.) Prepositions frequently take for their object instead of a noun or pronoun, an adverb of place or time, or a phrase equivalent to an adverb, made up of a preposition and its object; as, *from above, till now, at once, for ever; from under the table, till after the elections.*

(5.) Prepositions do not always precede the words which they govern; as, Look the whole *world over*. The ills *that* flesh is heir *to*.

158. As all material objects sustain to each other the relations of *place*, the most general function of prepositions is to denote that relation:—

(1.) **Rest** in a place; as, *at, by, in, or, out, with, &c.*

(2.) **Motion** to or from a place; as, *down, from, into, up, &c.*

(3.) **Rest** or **motion**; as, *about, above, before, between, beyond, over, through, under.*

159. The other chief relations expressed by prepositions are **time**, **cause**, **purpose**, or **means**; as, I have not seen you *since* Christmas. He acted *from* principle. He did it *for* the best. He was slain *by* the sword.

160. Prepositions may also be classified as:—

(1.) **Simple**; as, *at, after, by, down, for, from, in, of, over, on, since, till, to, up.*

(2.) **Derivative**; as, *about, above, across, against, among, around, before, behind, between.*

(3.) **Compound**; as, *inside, into, outside, throughout, upon, within*

NOTE.—There may be added the imperative and participial forms of certain verbs, now used as prepositions: *concerning, during, except, respecting, save, touching,* &c. These are sometimes called **verbal** prepositions. The adverbal adjectives, *nigh, near, next, like,* in some of their uses have a *prepositional* force.

161. Some combinations of words are used so much after the manner of prepositions, that they may be regarded as equivalent to prepositions; as, *out of, from out, in respect to, in regard to, according to, &c.*

These are sometimes called **Compound Prepositions**, sometimes **Preposition-phrases**.

162. The following is a list of words which are generally prepositions:

about	before	in	throughout
above	behind	inside	till
across	below	into	to
afore	beneath	near	toward
after	beside	next	towards
against	besides	nigh	under
along	between	of	underneath
amid	betwixt	off	until
amidst	beyond	on	unto
among	but	outside	up
amongst	by	over	upon
around	down	round	with
at	for	since	within
athwart	from	through	without

163. It should be particularly observed that prepositions and adverbs are so closely allied that the same word may be either part of speech, according to its use in a sentence. Thus in "He ran *up* quickly," *up* is simply an adverb modifying *ran*: in "He ran *up* the hill," *up* is a preposition showing the relation between *hill* and *ran*, and governing the former in the objective.

INTERJECTIONS.

164. An **Interjection** is a word which, without any grammatical connection with other words, expresses a sudden emotion or feeling; as, *ah! alas! hey! faugh! whew!*

Interjection is from the Latin *interjectus*, thrown among.

165. The force of an interjection chiefly depends upon the inflection of voice with which it is uttered. Thus the same interjection may express different feelings with different tones.—Thus *ah!* and *oh!* varyingly indicate pain, joy, disgust or surprise.

166. Several ordinary words sometimes approach in their use the character of interjections. Such are *hail, how, indeed, behold, what, why.*

167. Some words now considered interjections were once ordinary parts of speech. Thus, *Zounds*, ("by God's wounds")

egad ("by God,"). *alas* (ah lasso, i. e., O (me) miserable), *O dear*, (*O dieu*, i. e., O God.)

168. Certain exclamatory phrases are formed by combining interjections with other words, as, *Ah me! O horror!* O is very often used with the nominative of address; as, "Lift up your heads, O ye gates!"

NOTE 1.—It will be seen that the interjection is not in a strict sense a "part of speech," inasmuch as it plays no part in forming the *sentential whole*.

NOTE. 2.—"The interjections are not real natural outbursts of feeling, like a scream, a groan, a sigh, though they come nearer to this character than anything else in our language. They are, like all our other words, means of communication: they are utterances by which we seek to signify to others that we are moved by such and such feelings."—*Whitney's Essentials of English Grammar.*

SYNTAX.

169. **Syntax** is that part of grammar which treats of words *as arranged in sentences.*

Syntax is derived from the Greek *sun*, with, and *taxis*, arrangement.

170. The manner in which words are joined together in sentences is regulated by three comprehensive principles, *Concord*, *Government*, and *Order*.

(1.) **Concord** is the agreement of connected words in gender, number, case, or person.

(2.) **Government** is the power of a word to determine the case of a noun or pronoun, or the mood of a verb.

(3.) **Order** is simply the *arrangement* of the words, but in consequence of the comparative fixedness of form characterizing our language, it is the most influential principle of English syntax.

171. The formal statement and explanation of these principles constitute *Syntax Proper*.

172. The laws of Syntax Proper are rendered more intelligible by a previous study of the Analysis of Sentences.

THE ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

173. **A sentence** is the expression of a complete thought in words; as, I saw him in the house yesterday.

It is often convenient to designate by some special term a group of words having a close grammatical connection, but not expressing a complete thought. Such a group of words is called a **Phrase.** The principal classes of phrases are:—

(1.) The **prepositional**, introduced by a preposition; as, Under those circumstances.

(2.) The **infinitive**, introduced by the infinitive mood; as, To be exposed to so great danger.

(3.) The **participial**; as, Having accomplished his purpose.

(4.) The **gerundial**; as, In doing this.

(5.) The **absolute**, consisting of a noun or pronoun, and participle, independent of grammatical construction; as, *The sun having set*, the fleet weighed anchor.

174. Sentences take different names according to the manner in which the thought is expressed. The five principal types are;—

(1.) The **declarative**; as, Man is mortal.
(2.) The **interrogative**; as, Why do you delay?
(3.) The **imperative**; as, Leave the room.
(4.) The **optative**; as, May truth prevail!
(5.) The **exclamatory**; as, How busy are the bees!

175. In Analysis the *declarative* sentence may be taken as the model of all sentences. The *grammatical connection* between the principal parts of a sentence is invariable, being altogether independent of the form of the sentence.

176. Every sentence consists of two parts,—

(1.) The **Subject**, or that of which something is asserted.

(2.) The **Predicate**, or that which is asserted of the Subject.

SENTENCES.

Subject.	*Predicate.*
Birds	fly.
Mistakes	are common.
He	was called John.

a. *Subject* is from the Latin *subjectum*, the thing placed *beneath*,—that on which the assertion is based; *predicate*, from the Latin *predicare*, to declare or assert. Strictly the term *predicate* is applicable only to sentences containing a direct assertion. But see 175.

b. Since the *finite verb* [see 91, (1).] is the only word by which a statement can be made, every predicate must contain a finite verb.

c. Since the subject stands for *something* about which a statement is made, it must be either a *noun*, or *some expression equivalent to a noun*.

d. It will be seen more plainly hereafter that however long and involved a sentence may be, it is still susceptible of division into these two parts: the subject being the full description of the person or thing about which the statement is made, and the predicate the complete statement made about it.

177. Since every word in a sentence belongs to either subject or predicate, these are properly called the **Essential Terms** of the sentence.

178. The **Analysis of Sentences**, or more properly **Grammatical Analysis**, includes the division of a sentence into its essential terms, and the subdivision of the latter into their component elementary parts.

Analysis is from the Greek *analusis*, division or separation.

THE SUBJECT.

179. The **subject** of every sentence is either *simple* or *enlarged*.

(1) The **simple** subject is either a noun or pronoun in the nominative case, or a word or phrase equivalent to a noun, without any qualifying or connected words.

(2) The **enlarged** subject is the simple subject together with all words and phrases connected with it in the attributive relation.

Such words and phrases are called **enlargements** of the subject.

In the subjoined sentence, the simple subject is printed in italics, the enlargements in black letter, the predicate in ordinary type: **This** *man* **of valor, having thrice delivered his country**, died with his armor on.

180. In logic the terms *subject* and *predicate* are always used in the widest sense to include the noun and all its attributes, and the verb and all its modifiers. Hence **logical** subject and **logical** predicate are convenient expressions for conveying this larger meaning. The unmodified subject and predicate are by way of distinction called **grammatical**.

181. The type of the simple or grammatical subject is the *noun*. This subject may be:—

(1) A noun; as, *Truth* will prevail.
(2) A pronoun; as, *They* climbed the wall.
(3) An adjective used elliptically; as, The *poor* are often happy.

(4) A gerund either with or without an object; as, *Building ships* is a useful occupation. *Walking* is a pleasant exercise.

(5) A simple infinitive or an infinitive phrase; as, *To err* is human. *To reflect on one's follies* is often profitable.

a. When the subject names the person *addressed* it is generally omitted; as, Go (thou) home. Come (you) here.

b. It is convenient to consider two or more nouns coupled by *and* as together constituting a *simple* subject. This is *necessary* when the connected nouns denote parts of one whole; as, *Two and two* make four; and when the assertion made in the predicate cannot be made of each noun separately; as, *China and Peru* are far apart. Even in sentences like "James and John are happy" nothing is gained by separating the nouns, while the plural verb would be, as it were, left without a subject.

c. The simple subject answers to the question *who?* or *what?* asked in reference to the action or state expressed by the predicate verb

182. As the simple subject has the force of a noun, all of its enlargements must have the force of *adjectives*. The simple subject may be enlarged by:

(1) One or more adjectives; as, *Rich* men are not always generous. The *high spacious* dome of St. Paul's is a monument of Wren's genius.

(2) A noun or pronoun in apposition; as, The river *Rhine* is famous in history. The man *himself* did it.

A noun is said to be in apposition to another noun, when it denotes the same person or thing and is joined to it in construction.

(3) A noun or pronoun in the possessive case; as, The *King's* cause was desperate.

(4.) A prepositional phrase; as, The brother *of the General* arrived yesterday. None *but the brave* deserve the fair.

(5.) A participle, or participial phrase; as, The poet, *dying*, sang a last sweet song. *Having completed these preperations*, Malborough left for the Continent.

6.) An infinitive or infinitive phrase; as, A desire *to live* is natural. An ambition *to be a renowned captain* impelled him forward.

(7.) An adverb of place or time used for brevity instead of a prepositional phrase; as, Autumn *here* (in this country) comes early. His exploits *there* made him famous.

(8.) Two or more of the above in combination; as, The *sincere* impressions *of good men* are not always correct, "Burned *Marmion's swarthy* cheek with fire."

a. Nouns are sometimes used as enlargements with the force of adjectives; as, The *Holyhead* express

b. In such a sentence as, "It is good to be here," the infinitive phrase, "to be here" is appositional to the subject *it*.

c. It is convenient to treat the adjectives *a* or *an*, and *the* as parts of the subject.

THE PREDICATE.

183. We have seen that the predicate of a sentence always contains a *finite verb*, that is, consists of a finite verb, either alone or having other words connected with it.

184. When the predicate consists of a single finite verb it is said to be **simple**; as, Dogs *bark*. The wind *is blowing*.

When the predicate consists of a verb of incomplete predication and its complement, it is said to be **complex**; as, I *am sick* It *seemed a great mistake*.

185. This complement from its close connection with the subject is known as the **Subjective** complement. It may be:—

(1.) A noun or pronoun in the nominative case; as, The men are *sailors*. He was saluted *emperor*. This complement is sometimes preceded by the conjunction *as*; as, He was regarded *as* a benefactor.

(2.) An adjective; as, The people were *slow*. They turned *pale*.

(4.) A prepositional phrase; as, The work was *of great moment*.

(5.) An infinitive or infinitive phrase; as, To see is *to believe*. He seemed *to be a man of probity*.

a. Besides the verbs which properly denote incomplete predication, many verbs are often used as such, which are also capable of standing as simple or complete predicates, such as *grew*, in the sentence "he *grew* pale;" *turn* in the sentence "he *turned* sick," &c.

b. Transitive verbs signifying to *call, name, choose, render, constitute*, &c., when in the passive voice are verbs of incomplete predication; as, He *was chosen general*.

c. *Be* when it signifies to *exist* stands as a complete predicate; as, "He *is*, and is the rewarder of them that diligently seek Him."

d. An adverb or adverbial adjunct is never the complement

of a verb of incomplete predication. In such sentences as, "He is here," *is* is a complete verb.

186. The elements of the logical predicate which are generally classed and treated separately are the *object* and the *extension*.

THE OBJECT.

187. The **object** in Analysis is identical with the grammatical object of a transitive verb. Its type is the *noun*. It is therefore capable of the same modifications and enlargements as the subject. See 180 and 181.

The object answers to the question *whom?* or *what?* asked in reference to the action expressed by the verb.

188. Strictly all transitive verbs are verbs of *incomplete* predication, and their object is of the nature of a complement. It is, however, convenient to limit the term *complement* to words used to complete the meaning of the distinct and easily recognizable class of verbs previously defined as verbs of incomplete predication.

189. Some verbs are followed by two objects:—

(1.) Verbs of *calling, naming, choosing, rendering, making,* &c.; as, They called *him John*. The people elected *Quintus Piso consul*.

a. We have seen that such verbs in the passive voice are pure verbs of incomplete predication. In the active voice, the second object has a complementary force and is appositional to the first. It may properly be called the **objective complement**.

b. The objective complement may be not only a *noun*, but an *adjective*, or *infinitive* mood; as, They deemed him *penurious*. The strain made the timbers *bend*.

c. Verbs of *ordering, commanding, urging,* &c., take their objective complement only in the form of an *infinitive;* as, Cæsar commanded the legions *to advance*. This infinitive remains after the passive voice.

d. Many verbs may be followed by an objective complement when they are used to denote the bringing something to pass by means of the action which the verb expresses; as, The maid kept the water *hot*. He bent the stick *crooked*.

Such verbs are said to be used **factitively**, (from Latin *facere*, to make.)

☞ On a change of construction from the active to the passive voice, the *object* becomes *subject*, and the *objective* complement the *subjective* complement; as, The water was kept hot.

(2.) Verbs of *giving, promising, paying, forgiving*, &c.; as, I give *you my word*. Here *word* is the **direct** object, and *you*, the **indirect**. If the order is changed, the latter generally requires to be preceded by the preposition *to*.

In this treatise the term *indirect object* is used to include the prepositional phrase consisting of *to* followed by a noun or pronoun, when by a *change of order* the phrase can be replaced by a simple noun or pronoun.

☞ In the passive voice, either object may be made the subject, the other remaining; as, "I told him a story" may become,

"A story was told him by me," or,

"He was told a story by me."

(3.) Verbs of *asking* and *teaching;* as, I asked *him* a very pointed *question*. The Sophists taught their *pupils rhetoric*. These objects may be regarded as both *direct*. In the passive voice, the first object becomes the subject, and the second remains; as, He was asked a question.

EXTENSION OF THE PREDICATE.

190. Any word or phrase modifying the assertion made in the predicate is called an **Extension** or **Adverbial Adjunct** of the predicate.

Extensions or adverbial adjuncts generally denote some circumstances of *time*, *place*, *manner* or *cause*, as modifying the action or state expressed by the verb. Their type is of course the *adverb*.

191. Grammatically an extension may consist of:—

(1.) An adverb; as, The bird sang *sweetly*.

(2.) An adjective used for an adverb; as, *Slow* sets the sun.

(3.) A noun with or without an attributive; as, He stayed an *hour*. I am anxious *all the time*.

(4.) A prepositional or gerundial phrase; as, They returned *in great haste*. He spent his time *in doing good*.

(5.) An infinitive; as, We live *to learn*.

(6.) An infinitive phrase; as, I come *to inquire your intentions*

(7.) A participle; as, They passed by, *running*.

(8.) A participial phrase; as, The rain came *pouring down in torrents*.

(9.) An absolute phrase; as, *The battle lost*, the general gave himself up to grief.

(10.) A combination of two or more of the above; as, *The*

same summer, on his homeward march, the king was *unexpectedly* surprised *by the same enemy*.

a. The negative adverb *not* is not treated as an extension, but as an integral part of the predicate.

b. Care must be taken not to treat adjuncts of the *complement* as extensions of the predicate verb.

192. We have seen that extensions are of four kinds, according as they express:—(1.) Time. (2.) Place. (3.) Manner. (4.) Cause.

193. Extensions of **time** may denote:—

(1.) **Exact date** (When?); as, He lived *in the eighteenth century*. It is *six o'clock*.

(2.) **Duration** (how long?); as, George the third reigned nearly *sixty years*.

(3.) **Repetition**, (how often?);as, He did it *ten times a day*

194. Extensions of place may denote.

(1.) **Rest in** a place (where?); as, We met *in the park*

(2.) **Motion towards** or *into* a place, (whither?); as, He is going *to London*. The Gauls came *into Italy*,

(3.) **Motion from** a place, (whence?); as, The ambassador departed *from Brundusium*.

a. Many expressions which do not denote actual place, must be treated in analysis under this head. Such are: "Put not your trust *in princes*." "They glared fiercely *at one another*." "I will hand down my name *to distant ages*."

b. In such expressions as "The ship has sailed *for* Valparaiso", the idea of *purpose* is combined with that of *place*.

195. Extensions of **manner** may denote:—

(1.) **Manner** simply, (how?); as, We walk *slowly*.

(2.) **Means**; as, Men grow rich *by industry*.

(3.) **Agency**; as, His plan was frustrated *by his adversary*.

(4.) **Instrument**; as, They that take the sword shall perish *by the sword*.

(5.) **Resemblance**; as, They ran *like deers*.

(6.) **Accompaniment**; as, He determined to die *with his brother*.

(7.) **Degree** and **measure**; as, He ate *sparingly*. It cost *ten dollars*. It weighed *three pounds*.

(8.) **Substitution** and **exchange**; as, I will ask this of you *in return for that*.

(9.) **Certainty** and **uncertainty**; as, Thou shalt *surely* die. Our soldiers will *no doubt* return victorious. *Perhaps* I am mistaken.

(10.) **Effect**; as, This course soon brought him *to ruin*.

(11.) **Theme of thought or discourse**; as, He reflected *upon the Divine majesty.*

196. Extension of **cause** may denote:—

(1.) **Cause** or **reason**; as, He died *of a broken heart.* The men cried *for very joy.*

(2.) **Purpose**; as, Eat *to live,* not live *to eat.* I am here *for sight-seeing.*

(3.) **Motive**; as, He did this *from pure malice.*

(4.) **Condition**; as, *With proper precautions,* (i, e., if proper precautions are taken), the plan cannot fail.

(5.) **Concession**; as, *With ten thousand men at command,* (even though he had, &c.) he was nevertheless badly outgeneraled.

(6.) **Material**; as, The hull was made *of iron.*

(7.) **Adversative ness**; as, *In spite of that* he accomplished his purpose. Charles tried the experiment, *notwithstanding repeated warnings.*

a. An absolute participial phrase denotes according to the context, *time, manner, cause, concession, condition,* or a combination of these ideas. All absolute phrases are extensions of the predicate.

b. Extensions of cause and manner express so many varying shades of meaning that it is almost impossible to exhaustively enumerate and classify them. While we have attempted such a classification as will answer the practical purposes of analysis, phrases will no doubt occasionally present themselves, for which definite provision has not been made.

197. The subject, enlargement of the subject, predicate verb, object, and extension, may each consist of an interrogative word or phrase. Thus:—

Subject. *Who* can do more than I?
Enlargement. *What* noise is that?
Predicate. *Are* you sure?
Object. *Whom* did you discover?
Extension. *Why* does he complain?

Generally in interrogative sentences the analytical order and syntactical arrangement do not coincide.

PRACTICAL ANALYSIS.

198. Practical Analysis is either general or detailed.

General Analysis is simply distinguishing the logical subject from the logical predicate. Thus:

Literary life is full of curious phenomena.
Logical Subject. Literary life.
Logical Predicate. is full of curious phenomena.
The golden hou[illegible] of youth passed swiftly away.
Logical Subject. [illegible] golden hours of youth.
Logical Predicate. passed swiftly away.

199. Detailed Analysis is naming, so far as they occur in any given sentence, the following elements :—

(1.) The subject (grammatical).
(2.) Enlargements of subject.
(3.) The predicate, distinguishing when the predicate is complex between, (a) verb, and (b) complement.
(4.) Object.
(5.) Enlargements of object.
(6) Objective complement.
(7.) Extensions.

EXAMPLES OF DETAILED ANALYSIS.

200. The following are examples of detailed analysis.

(1.)

The pause in the tournament was still uninterrupted.

Subject. The pause.
Enl. of Subject. in the tournament, (*prep. phr.*)
Predicate. (*complex*) 1. was (*verb*) 2. uninterrupted Subjective comp. *adj.*)
Extension. still (*adv.* time.)

(2.)

Other geniuses I put in the second class.

Subject. I.
Predicate. put.
Object. geniuses.
Enl. of Ob. other. (*lim. adj.*)
Extension. in the second class (*prep. phr.* place.)

(3.)

Her husband, Prince George of Denmark, sat in the House of Lords as Duke of Cumberland.

Subject. husband.
Enl. of Subject. 1. her (*lim. adj*) 2. Prince George of Denmark (*app. noun with enl.*)

Predicate. (*complex.*) 1. sat (verb). 2. As Duke of Cumberland (subjective complement).

Extension. in the House of Lords, (*prep. phr.* place).

(4.)

To attempt to frighten men into morality has never proved successful.

Subject. To attempt to frighten men into morality. (*inf. phr.*)

Predicate. (*complex.*) 1. has proved (verb). 2. Successful (subjective complement.)

Extension. never (time).

(5.)

He seems to have done his duty faithfully,

Subject. He.

Predicate, (*complex*). 1. Seems (verb). 2. to have done his duty faithfully, (subject. comp *inf. phr.* consisting of *infinitive* to have done, *enlarged object,* his duty, and *extension of manner,* faithfully.)

201. The analysis of sentences may be given in tabular form, according to the model given on the following page. Additional columns may be provided, if thought necessary, for the subordinate elements into which the complements are often capable of being resolved.

SENTENCES.

(1.)

In that hour of deep contrition
He beheld, with clearer vision,
Through all outward show and fashion
Justice, the Avenger, rise.

(2.)

Lost each human trace, surrendering up
Thine individual being, shalt thou go
To mix forever with the elements.

(3.)

A few years afterwards, another cause, having no connection with his personal qualities, gave the name of this unhappy prince, a melancholy celebrity.

Subject.	Enlargements.	Predicate.		Object.				Extensions.
		Verb.	*Subj. Comp.*	*Indirect.*	*Direct.*	*Enlargements.*	*Obj. Com.*	
He		beheld			Justice	the avenger (*app. noun*)	rise (*inf.*)	1. In that hour...contrition, (time.) 2. with clearer vision (man.) 3. Through...fashion (place)
Thou	Surrendering up thine individual being (*part. phr.*)	shalt go						1. Lost each human trace (*abs. part. phr.*) 2. To mix forever with the elements (purpose).
Cause	1. Another (*adj.*) 2. having no..... qualities (*part.phr.*)	gave		the name	a celebrity	of this unhappy prince (*prep phr.*) melancholy		A few years afterwards (time).

202. We have thus far been engaged in analyzing the elements of the *sentence proper*, a combination of words expressing a complete thought, and containing *one subject* and *one finite verb.*

The sentence thus defined is known in analysis as the **Simple** sentence, because it is capable of being combined with other subjects and predicates so as to form new sentential wholes of a more complicated structure. The sentences resulting from this combination are either complex or compound.

COMPLEX SENTENCES.

203. A **Complex** Sentence consists of a simple sentence having connected with it one or more subordinate subjects and predicates; as, You will receive good news, *when you reach home.*

The elements of a complex sentence are called **clauses**, there being as many clauses as there are predicates in the whole sentence.

(1.) The simple sentence is called the **principal** clause.

(2.) The connected propositions which explain or modify some part of the principal assertion are called **subordinate** or **dependent** clauses. A complex sentence may contain more than one subordinate clause. These may have no connection with each other, or a subordinate clause may have another clause dependent on it, and this in turn another, and so on.

204. (1.) Subordinate clauses are generally introduced by subordinating conjunctions, conjunctive adverbs, or relative pronouns. They may be regarded as *expansions into the form of sentences* of single words or phrases in a simple sentence. Thus, "I paid the hired man his due on the completion of his task" is a simple sentence. By easy substitutions for the adjective *hired*, the noun *due*, and the adverbial adjunct *on the completion of his task*, we can expand it into three complex sentences.

a. I paid the hired man *what was due him*, on the completion of his task.

b. I paid the man, *who was hired*, his due on the completion of his task.

c. I paid the hired man his due, *when his task was completed.*

(2.) The conjunction, or conjunctive adverb, introducing a subordinate clause, often has answering to it in the principal

clause an adverb allied in meaning; as, *Where* liberty is, *there* is my country. *When* he refuses, *then* it will be time to speak. *Though* he fall, *yet* will he rise again.

Such words are said to be **correlatives**, and their relation closely resembles that between a relative pronoun and its antecedent.

205. It is thus seen that subordinate clauses discharge the functions of **nouns, adjectives** and **adverbs,** or of words and phrases having the force of these parts of speech. They are therefore classified, as,

(1.) Noun clauses. (2.) Adjective (or attributive) clauses. (3.) Adverbial clauses.

206. It is also seen that subordinate clauses are really *parts* of the principal sentence to which they belong, having precisely the same relation to some word or phrase in that sentence as the noun, adjective or adverb, for which they are used, would have had.

NOUN CLAUSES.

207. A **Noun** clause is one which in its relation to the rest of the sentence has the force of a *noun*.

208. The noun clause may be :—

(1.) The **subject** of the verb of the principal clause; as, *That youth should be sanguine* is in accordance with nature. *Whatever the King says* is law.

When a noun clause is thus used as a subject, it is often placed after the principal clause, the predicate verb taking *it* as its grammatical subject, the noun clause being then in apposition to *it*. Thus; *It* is now seen *that you were mistaken*. Here the noun clause, *that you were mistaken*, which is the *real* subject, is an appositional enlargement of the *nominal* subject *it*. *It* thus used is sometimes spoken of as the **anticipatory** subject.

(2.) The **object** of the verb of the principal clause; as, They soon perceived *that it was a steamer*. Men know not *what they are*.

It is used as an **anticipatory object** before a noun clause; as, I deemed *it* strange *that you should doubt my word*.

(3.) The **complement** of a verb of incomplete predication in the principal clause; as, His expectation was *that the King would not recover*.

(4.) The **object** of a preposition; as, In *whatever way he looked*, he saw danger.

The preposition and the noun clause governed by it constitute an adverbial modifier or *extension* of the predicate.

(5.) **An appositional enlargement** of some noun or pronoun in the principal clause; as, The statement *that knowledge is power* is proved true by history.

(6.) The *seeming* **object** of certain nouns and adjectives having a *verbal* meaning and denoting a *transitive* action or state; as, We are not desirous *that this should take place*, i. e., We do not desire *that this should take place*.

The nouns and adjectives capable of easy transformation into verbs are those signifying *proof, certainty, consciousness, &c.*

NOTE.—Some grammarians argue that such noun clauses are really in apposition with a noun understood. Thus, "We are not desirous (*of this object, namely*) *that this should take place*." This is not a satisfactory explanation. Neither is the theory that the noun clause is to be considered as an *extension*: thus, We are not desirous (*in respect to this*, namely) *that this should not take place*.

209. The chief connective of noun clauses is the conjunction *that;* as, *That* this is so is by no means clear.

(1.) *That* is sometimes omitted, especially in familiar conversation; as, I told him (that) it was useless to complain.

(2.) In this use of *that*, the original *demonstrative* force of the word is very apparent. As thus employed it is sometimes called the **substantive** conjunction.

210. The other connectives of noun clauses are chiefly interrogative words such as *who, what, when, why, how. Whether* and *if* are used in introducing clauses denoting indirect questions; as, I asked him *if he were willing.*

211. A noun clause which is properly the object of a verb of *saying, thinking, believing*, &c., often has prominence given it by being placed without a conjunction at the beginning of the sentence, the principal sentence being introduced parenthetically; as, *Such*, I believe, *were the reasons that actuated him.*=I believe *that such were the reasons that actuated him.*

ADJECTIVE CLAUSES.

212. An **Adjective** Clause is one which in its relation to the rest of the sentence has the force of an *adjective;* as, Often the men *who work hardest* (i. e., the ***hardest-worked men***) live longest.

Of the three varieties of subordinate clauses, the adjective clause is the simplest in its construction. It is always equivalent to an adjective and usually follows the noun or pronoun which it limits or qualifies. This noun or pronoun may be found *in any part of the sentence.*

213. Adjective clauses are introduced:

(1.) By **relative** pronouns; as, The grass *which to day is* to-morrow is cast into the oven. Praise the bridge *that carries you safe over.*

(2.) By **conjunctive** adverbs denoting *place, time, manner,* &c.; as, This is a place *where dangers abound.* That is the reason *why I did not come.*

In such sentences the conjunctive adverb may always be resolved into a phrase containing a relative pronoun. Thus, *where* dangers abound is = *in which* dangers abound; *why* I did not come is = *on account of which* I did not come.

214. Adjective Clauses introduced by relative pronouns are either restrictive or explanatory.

(1.) The **restrictive** clause limits the application of the noun or pronoun to which it is attached, and is generally introduced by *that,* but sometimes by *who* and *which;* as, Uneasy lies the head *that wears a crown.*

(2.) The **explanatory** clause introduces an additional statement without any special restrictive force; as, The king, *who wore a lofty helmet,* rode at the head of his troops.

(3.) The relatives *who* and *which* also introduce clauses, which, while seemingly adjective, are really independent sentences, the relative being equal to *and* followed by a personal pronoun; as, I met the man himself, *who (and he)* promptly contradicted the report.

Such clauses should always be treated in analysis as principal sentences. See 232 (2.)

Notice the difference between the following sentences:—"That is the spot *where* we parted." "I followed him to the dockyard, *where* (*and there*) we parted."

NOTE.—"*That* is undoubtedly the proper restrictive relative. *Who* and *which* did not begin to encroach upon its ground until after the 17th century. "The best writers often appear to grope after a separate employment for the relatives. Now, as *who* and *which* are most commonly preferred for co-ordination, it would be a clear gain to confine them to this sense and to reserve *that* for the restrictive application alone. *This arrangement then would fall in with the most general use of "that," especially beyond the limits of formal composition.*" Bain's *Higher English Grammar.*"

215. The relative is sometimes omitted when it is the object of a restrictive clause; as, Take *all (that) I have*

216. Adjective clauses are sometimes introduced by *but* (see 72. (2).) and by *as* when it follows *such* or *same;* as, There is no candid man. *but will admit the force of your reasoning.* Send such assistance *as you can.*

This relative use of *but* has grown out of an ellipsis or omission. "but will admit the force of your reasoning" was originally "but *that he* will admit the force of your reasoning" Similarly "as you can" has resulted from "as *that which* you can (send)".

217. *What* and the compound relatives introduce noun clauses. If, however, they are resolved into antecedent and relative, the former becomes a part of the *principal* clause, and the latter the connective of an adjective clause; thus, "Do *what you like,*" may be changed into "Do that *which you like.*"

218. The distinction between noun and adjective clauses, should be carefully noted in cases where they agree in form. The tests to be applied are the same which should be used in distinguishing a *noun* from an *adjective* In the sentence "They are near the place *where they should meet*" the italicized clause is adjectival because it qualifies the noun *place*; it is a noun clause in "They arranged *where they should meet,*" because it is the object of the transitive verb *arranged.*

ADVERBIAL CLAUSES.

219. An Adverbial Clause is one which in relation to the rest of the sentence has the force of an *adverb.* It modifies some verb, adjective, or adverb of the principal sentence.

220. Adverbial clauses are of more frequent occurrence than either of the other varieties of subordinate clauses. Being equivalent to adverbs, they admit of precisely the same classification as denoting, (1.) Time; (2.) Place; (3.) Manner; (4.) Cause.

221. Adverbial clauses of time are introduced:

(1.) By the conjunctive adverbs, *when, while,* &c.; as, *When he returned,* he found everything in confusion.

(2.) By the conjunctions *after, before, ere, since, until,* &c.; as, *Before trial by jury was established,* men's lives were not safe.

222. Adverbial clauses of place are introduced by the conjunctive adverbs *where, whither, whence,* &c.; as, *Wherever I take my stand,* I see a smiling landscape.

223. Adverbial clauses of **manner** are frequently introduced by the conjunctive adverb *as*. They denote:—

(1.) **Manner** simply; as, Do *as you are told.*

(2.) **Resemblance**; as, He ran *as one runs for his life.*

NOTE.—*As if, as when*, and *as though*, imply an ellipsis of the verb of the principal clause, often, however, in a different mood. Thus, "He shrank back, as if he were afraid," is, = "He shrank back, as he *would have shrunk*, if he had been afraid.

(3.) **Result, consequence**, or **effect**; as, The enemy shouted so loudly, *that the sound reached our camp.*

(4.) **Comparison**; as, He is as wise *as you are.* They are richer *than are any of their neighbors.*

The verb of the subordinate clause is often omitted after *than* and *as*; as, I am taller *than you* (*are.*) One is as good *as the other* (*is.*)

(5.) **Limitation** and **Proportion**; as, I am satisfied *as far as that goes. The longer I stay*, the better I like it.

224. Adverbial clauses of **cause** denote:—

(1.) **Cause** or **Reason**, introduced by *as, inasmuch as, as, because, seeing that, since*, &c; as, *Because I am poor*, therefore am I despised.

NOTE.—The idea of reason is sometimes conveyed by a relative pronoun, or conjunctive adverb; as, The general deservedly commended the soldiers *who had gained so great a victory. When they found that all was lost*, they shed bitter tears.

(2.) **Condition**, introduced by *except, if, unless*, &c.; as, *If you ask me*, I will tell you. *Unless this be done*, we will assuredly perish.

NOTE.—Condition in past and future time can be expressed without a conjunction; as, *Had this been the case*, the intelligence would certainly have reached us ere this. *Should you come*, you will receive a right royal welcome. (See 93, (2)), For a fuller treatment of conditional sentences see Syntax.

(3.) **Concession**, introduced by *although, though*, &c.; as, *Though all forsake thee*, yet will not I forsake thee.

NOTE.—*Concession* as well as *condition* may be expressed without a conjunction; as, *Were he even to take an oath*, still I would not believe him The emphatic adverbs, *yet, still, nevertheless*, &c., are used in the principal clause only when it is *preceded* by the concessive clause.

(4.) **Purpose** or **Motive**, introduced by *that, lest, in order that, so that*; as, The general sent spies, *that they might watch the proceedings of the enemy.* Take heed *lest you fall.*

NOTE.—In imitation of a classical construction *purpose* is sometimes expressed by the use of a relative pronoun; as, Commissioners were appointed, *who should frame regulations and conduct the entire business.*

225. The classification given of adverbial clauses must not be taken as absolute and exhaustive; the different classes shade into one another: and a clause is often used to express an idea quite different from its literal meaning.

ANALYSIS OF COMPLEX SENTENCES.

226. The general analysis of a complex sentence consists in distinguishing the principal clause from the subordinate clause or clauses, and stating the relation which the latter sustain to the principal clause or to one another. In general analysis each subordinate clause is treated as if it were a *single word*,—noun, adjective, or adverb. When the connective of a subordinate clause is a conjunction, it is not considered an integral part of the clause which it introduces.

EXAMPLE OF GENERAL ANALYSIS.

They said that he would be killed if he attempted that.

Principal clause. They said

Subordinate clauses. 1. (that) he would be killed, (noun clause, subordinate to principal clause, object of *said*.)

2. if he attempted that (adverbial clause of *condition* subordinate to 1 and modifying verb *would be killed*.)

227. Detailed analysis consists in adding to the above the analysis of the principal and each subordinate clause separately, as already described in treating of simple sentences.

228. In detailed analysis the following notation (which is substantially that of Mr. Dalgleish) may be conveniently employed:—

(1.) Represent the principal clause by the capital letter A.

(2.) Represent all subordinate clauses directly dependent upon the principal clause by a^1, numbering them successively 1 a^1, 2 a^1, &c.

(3.) Represent all subordinate clauses dependent on a^1 as 1 a^2, 2 a^2, &c.

(4.) Continue this process of notation as far as circumstances may require.

229. Words necessary to the full grammatical construction are often omitted in the subordinate clauses of complex sentences; as, You read better than I (do). I am monarch of all (that) I survey.

Words such as *than* and *as* used in making comparisons are naturally followed by abbreviated forms of expression, in order to avoid repetition.

NOTE.—"In part by abbreviation, in part by other changes of construction and of the value of words, every language has many modes of expression which are exceptional, unlike its ordinary combinations—phrases and sentences which if taken literally would not mean what we use them to mean, or which puzzle us when we attempt to analyze and explain them. Such irregular expressions are called idioms (from a Greek word meaning 'peculiarity.') Their production is a part of that constant change of language which is often called its 'growth.' In order really to account for them, we need especially a knowledge of the history of our language. The present usage of any tongue we cannot fully understand without knowing something of its past usages, out of which these have grown; and often a great deal of study, and a comparison of other languages, is required for settling difficult points."—*Whitney's Essentials of English Grammar.*

EXAMPLES OF ANALYSIS OF COMPLEX SENTENCES.

(1.)

Whenever he appears in public he is surrounded by his courtiers.

A. He is surrounded by his courtiers.

a^1. Whenever he appears in public.

Analysis of complete sentence.

Sub. He.

Pred. is surrounded.

Extensions, 1. by his courtiers (*prep. phr.*, agent.)

2. whenever.....in public, (*adv. cl.* time—a^1.)

Analysis of a^1.

Sub. He

Pred. appears

Extensions. 1, Whenever (*conj. adv.* time) 2. in public (*prep. phr.* place).

(2.)

Those provincials who were permitted to bear arms in the legions were rewarded with a present whose value was continually diminishing.

A. Those provincials were rewarded with a present.

a^1. who were permitted to bear arms in the legions (*adj. cl.* enlarging subject of A.)

a^2. whose value was continually diminishing (*adj. cl.* enlarging noun *present*).

Analysis of complete sentence.

Sub. Provincials.
Enl. 1. those. 2. who.....legions (*adj cl.* a^1)
Pred. were rewarded.
Extension. with a.....diminishing (*prep. phr.* manner,—including a^2, enlargement of noun *present.*)

Analysis of a^1.

Sub. who
Pred. were permitted
Obj. to bear..... legions (*inf. phr.*)

Analysis of a^2.

Sub. value
Enl. whose
Pred. was diminishing
Exten. continually (*adv.* of time.)

(3.)

What pledge shall I have that you will favor me so kindly as you propose?

A. What pledge shall I have?

a^1. (that) you.....so kindly (*noun clause* in app. to obj of A.)

a^2. (as) you propose (*adv. cl.* of comparison) modifying predicate of a^1.)

Analysis of complete sentence.

Sub. I.
Pred. shall have
Obj. pledge
Enl. 1. What (*interr. adj.*) 2 (that) you..... propose. (a^1. and a^2.)

Analysis of a^1.

Sub. you
Pred. will favor
Obj. me
Ext. so kindly (*adv.* manner.)

Analysis of a^2.

Sub. you
Pred. propose
Ext. as (*conj. adv.*)

(4.)

Here is a story, which in rougher shape, came from a grizzled cripple, whom I saw sunning himself in a waste field alone.

A. Here is a story

a^1. which, in rougher.....a cripple (*adj. cl.* enlarging subject of A)

a^2. whom.....alone (*adj. cl.* enl. *cripple*, a noun forming part of extension of a^1.)

Analysis of complete sentence.

Sub. a story
Enl. which in rougher.....alone (a^1. and a^2.)
Pred. is
Ext. here (*adv.* place.)

Analysis of a^1.

Sub. which
Pred. came
Ext. 1. In rougher shape (*prep. phrase* manner.)
2. from a grizzled cripple (*prep. phrase*, place.)

Analysis of a^2.

Sub. I
Pred. saw
Obj. whom
Ext. 1. alone (*pred adj.*) 2. summing himself .....field, (*particip. phrase.*)

(5.)

The chaplain has often told me, that upon a catechising day when Sir Roger has been pleased with a boy that answers well, he has ordered a Bible to be given him next day for his encouragement.

A. The chaplain has often told me,

a^1. that upon a catechising day he has ordered .....encouragement (*noun clause, obj. of pred.* of A.)

a^2. When Sir Roger has been pleased with a boy (*adj clause* enlarging *day*, a noun forming part of extension of a^1.)

a^3. That answers well (*adj cl.* enlarging *boy*, noun forming part of extension of a^2.)

Analysis of complete sentence.

Sub. The chaplain
Pred. has told
Obj. ina. me
Obj. dir. (that) upon.....encouragement (a^1, a^2, a^3,)
Ext. often (*adv.* time.)

Analysis of a^1.

Sub. he
Pred. has ordered
Obj. a bible,.....encouragement (*inf. phrase* equal to noun clause "that a Bible should be given &c.")

Analysis of a^2.

Sub. Sir Roger
Pred. has been pleased
Ext. with a boy (*prep phrase.*)

Analysis of a^3.

Sub. That
Pred. answers
Ext. Well (*adv.* of manner.)

(6.)

It is a very ancient reproach, suggested by the ignorance or the malice of infidelity, that the Christians allured into their party the most atrocious criminals, who, as soon as they were touched by a sense of remorse, were easily persuaded to wash away, in the water of baptism, the guilt of their past conduct, for which the temples of the gods refused to grant them any expiation.

ANALYSIS OF COMPLETE SENTENCE.

A. It,.....infidelity.

a^1. that,.....criminals (*noun clause* in app. to sub. of A.)

a^2. who were easily,.....conduct (*adj. clause* enl. noun *criminals.*)

1. a^3. as soon as.....remorse (*adv. clause*, time, modifying predicate of a^2.

2. a^3, for which,.....expiation (*adj clause*, enlar. noun *guilt.*)

We give the detailed analysis of the above sentence in tabular form.

Sentence.	Kind of Sentence.	Logical Subject.		Predicate.		Object.				Extensions.
		Gram. Subject.	*Enlargement.*	*Verb.*	*Sub. Complement.*	*Ind.*	*Dir.*	*Enl.*	*Ob. Comp.*	
...is.....expiation.	Complete.	It	that.....expiation... (noun cl. in *app.* including a^1, a^2, $1\ a^3$, $2\ a^3$.)	is	a very ancient reproach, suggested... infidelity (noun, enlarged by *adjectives* and *part phr.*)					
a^1 that the Christians.....criminals.—	noun cl. in app. with subj. of A.	the Christians.		allured			criminals.	most atrocious.		into their party (*prep. phr.* place.)
a^2 who were easily.....conduct.—	Adjective cl. enlar. noun *criminals.*	who		were persuaded.			to wash away... conduct. (*inf phr*)			easily (*adv.* of manner.)
$1\ a^3$ As soon as....remorse.	adv. cl. of time, modifying pred. of a^2.	they		were touched						1. As soon as (*adv.* of time.) 2. by a sense of remorse (*prep. phr.*)
$2\ a^3$ for which. ...expiation.—	adj. cl. enlar. noun *guilt.*	the temples.	of the gods	refused			to grant them any expiation (*inf phr*)			for which (*prep. phr.*—substitution.)

COMPOUND SENTENCE.

230. A **Compound** Sentence is a combination of two or more principal clauses, with or without subordinate clauses; as, The wind blew fiercely, *and* the ship was exposed to great danger. The statesman to whom I refer, died young, *but* his fame is destined to be as immortal as the greatness of his country.

It follows that a compound sentence may be composed of two or more simple sentences, two or more complex sentences, or of one or more simple sentences combined with one or more complex sentences.

231. The principal members of a compound sentence are said to be **co-ordinate.**

It is scarcely necessary to observe that the term *co-ordinate* in grammar is not confined to this application. It is freely used in grammar to denote generally words and clauses of *equal order* or *rank*.

There are four types of co-ordination in compound sentences, (1) Copulative, (2) Alternative, (3) Antithetical, (4) Causative. Each type is represented by characteristic conjunctions, which, however, are often omitted.

232. **Copulative** co-ordination simply joins independent statements.

Its representative connective is the conjunction *and*, but the construction is often made more emphatic by its omission; as, He formed schemes; he carried them into execution; he made himself famous.

Co-ordination of clauses without conjunctions is sometimes called **collateral.**

(1.) *Nor* and *neither* (less frequently) are *negative* copulas, when they are equivalent to *and not*; as, They marched rapidly *nor* did they neglect to take due precautions for their safety.

(2.) When *who* or *which* has the force of *and* followed by a personal pronoun, it may be considered as copulative, and its clause treated as an independent member of the sentence rather than as attributive or adjectival. (See 214 [2]).

NOTE.—*Also*, *besides*, *likewise*, *moreover* and similar words, treated by many grammarians as *copulative conjunctions*, are really *adverbs*. When found in the successive clauses of compound sentences they are often preceded by *real* conjunctions. That they are adverbial modifiers rather than connectives is shown by the fact that they are generally found in independent sentences.

233. **Alternative** co-ordination implies the affirmation of *one* of two statements, or the denial of *both*; as, *Either* you are mistaken *or* I have lost my memory; He *neither* ate himself, *nor* was he willing for others to eat.

234. **Antithetical** co-ordination implies a contrast between two sentences, as, Ulysses was not handsome, *but* he was eloqeunt.

NOTE.—The note under 232 will apply to the adverbs *nevertheless, however, notwithstanding*, &c.

235. **Causative** co-ordination is properly marked by the conjunction *for*, and implies that one statement is the *ground* or *reason* of another; as, Great fear took possession of them, *for* they had heard of the King's approach.

NOTE 1.—The *co-ordination* expressed by *for* is easily distinguishable from the *subordination* expressed by *because*. *Because* assigns directly the cause of the previously mentioned action or state; as, I am happy *because* I am rich. *For* substituted for *because* would imply a process of reasoning or inference. I am happy, *for* I am rich, (and rich people, you know, are always happy.)

NOTE. 2—The remarks in note under 232 are applicable, to the *illative adverbs, therefore, wherefore, &c.* often set down as conjunctions. When these words are used in co-ordinate members of compound sentences, conjunctions are either expressed or understood. Their chief use, however, is in independent sentences.

236. In analyzing compound sentences, the links of connection between the co-ordinate members should be pointed out. A convenient analytic notation consists in extending that recommended for use in the case of simple and complex sentences:

(1.) Let the principal sentences be successively named A. B. C, &c.

(2.) Let sentences subordinate to A. be named a^1, a^2, &c.; those subordinate to B, b^1, b^2, &c.

EXAMPLE OF GENERAL ANALYSIS OF A COMPOUND SENTENCE.

He prayeth best who loveth best
All things, both great and small;
For the dear God who loveth us,
*He made and loveth all.

* *He* here is an instance of *pleonasm* and does not enter as an element of analysis.

A. He prayeth best
a^1. who loveth . . . small.
C. (for) the dear God made and loveth all
b^2 who loveth us.

The detailed analysis of Compound Sentences is to be conducted according to the methods previously described for simple and complex sentences.

237. Compound sentences often assume a contracted form. This occurs whenever an element common to all the members is expressed but once. The common element may be subject, predicate, complement, object or extension; as, John reads and writes well=John reads well and John writes well. Either you or I must go=Either you must go, or I must go.

(1.) We have seen that a sentence is to be considered simple, when a simple predicate has for its subject two or more nouns coupled by *and*.

(2.) So sentences may be analyzed as *simple*, when a simple predicate has two or more objects or two or more extensions.

NOTE.—We have seen that two or more independent clauses may be so closely connected in sense as to be considered as forming together a simple sentence, even when not connected by conjunctions. On the other hand, simple connectives such as *and*, *but*, and even *for*, are often placed at the *beginning* of a sentence, to indicate in a general way its relation to what goes before. Whether then a given subject and predicate shall constitute *a complete sentence*, or *a clause of a compound sentence* cannot be decided by any fixed rule. Something depends on the closeness of the connection; something on the taste of the writer. Usage is particularly variable with sentences beginning with, *therefore*, *wherefore*, *consequently*, &c.

The following suggestions for the analysis of complex and compound sentences may be found serviceable:

a. In analyzing *prose*, preserve, as nearly as possible, the order in which the members are found in the original passage. In the case of *poetry*, however, it will often be best to re-arrange the clauses in prose order, before attempting to analyze.

b. The whole passage to be analyzed should be divided into as many parts as there are finite verbs, expressed or understood, and all omissions carefully supplied.

c. Any idiomatic expression which cannot, owing to its peculiar construction, be referred to any definite place in the preceding classifications, should be interpreted in harmony with the obvious sense of the passage and analyzed accordingly.

SYNTAX PROPER.

CONCORD.

238. **Concord** is the agreement of connected words in gender, number, case or person.

The English language having few changes of form in its words has few *apparent* concords. Most of these have been necessarily developed under Etymology. They are here stated more fully and systematically, and the principal exceptional uses are noted.

239. Concord has mainly to do with the reltaions of nouns and verbs, and of pronouns and nouns.

RULES OF CONCORD.

240. Rule I. The noun or pronoun which is the subject of a finite verb is in the nominative case; The *sun* shines. *I* strike. *They* complain.

This rule, simple as it appears, is often violated:—

(1.) In interrogative sentences and relative clauses, when the pronoun is nearer to some other verb than to that of which it is the subject; as, *Whom*, I would ask, ever saw a grander sight? Here *whom* as the *subject* of *saw* should be *who*

(2.) When the verb is omitted; as, "It was not for such as *them* to boast.' That *them* is incorrect is seen when the omitted verb *are* is supplied.

241. Rule II. The noun or pronoun describing the subject after a verb of incomplete predication is in the nominative case; as, Thou art the *man*. Crassus was elected *consul*. They did not seem *cowards*.

So also when a noun in the subjective complement follows the infinite mood of a verb of incomplete predication; as, He appears *to be* a wise *man*.

This rule is often violated under circumstances similar to those stated in Rule I, (1); as, *Whom* say ye that I am?

NOTE.—Some modern grammarians are disposed to justify the use of the objective case of the personal pronouns after *it is* and *it was*, and some similar expressions (as "it can't be *me*. *Swift*.) This use of the objective is certainly very common in colloquial language, where the application of Rule II. is felt to involve intolerable stiffness. In reports of familiar conversations the objective is freely used by Shakespeare, Swift, Thackeray, George Elliott, and other standard writers. The usage is not *grammatically* defensible, and cannot be tolerated in dignified writing. "It is I" is suitable to an occasion of dignity; as, "It *is* I, be not afraid." Who does not feel that here there is a majesty and prominence given by the nominative case, which makes the assurance what it was to the disciples? But from this prominence it is that we shrink in ordinary talk. We shelter ourselves in the accusative (objective) *me*, which though ungrammatical, yet is acquiesced in, as better suiting the feeling of the mind. We all remember the story of George III. reading Paley's fable about a pigeon, and exclaiming, "*Why, that's me!*" The King was just as right in the *expression* of the interpretation, as he was in the interpretation itself. He could not have said, "*Why, that is I!*"—Dean Alford, quoted in Bain's *Higher English Grammar*.

242. Rule III. A noun attached to a noun or pronoun for the purpose of description or definition is in the same case; as, The great orator *Cicero* eloquently defended the poet *Archias*. I saw Waterloo, that *field* of glory.

The attached noun is said to be in *apposition*.

(1). When nouns in the possessive case are in apposition, the sign of the possessive is affixed to the last only; as, I bought this at Smith, the druggist's.

This principle sometimes applies when nouns are connected by conjunctions; as, God and nature's hand.

(2.) The possessive case is sometimes used when the relation is really that of *apposition*: as, Africa's vast continent. Compare such expressions as the City *of* Boston, the Province *of* Nova Scotia.

243. Rule IV. The noun or pronoun denoting a person or thing addressed is in the nominative case; as, "I charge thee, *Cromwell*, fling away ambition." "O *Thou*, who to all temples dost prefer the upright heart and pure."

This is called the *nominative of address*.

NOTE.—Some grammarians import from the Latin the term *vocative* as a name for this particular use of the nominative. But surely it is not necessary to encumber English Grammar with phraseology of which there was little need even in the language from which it is proposed to borrow it.

244. Rule V. A noun used with a participle to form an ***absolute phrase*** is in the nominative case;

as, *Clouds* having obscured the sun, the rest of the journey was more pleasant.

NOTE 1.—In early English, usage vibrated between the nominative and objective for the case absolute. Thus:—

"I shall not lag behind, nor on
The way, *thou leading*.
* * * * * * *
Do you, that presumed
Me overthrown, to enter lists with heaven."—Milton.

NOTE 2.—In such expressions as *generally speaking, considering that*, &c., we often have a participle used *absolutely* without a noun. In such sentences as "Generally speaking, I prefer," &c.; "Considering that we are in a critical position, we conclude," &c., the participle is in regular attachment to the subject. But usage justifies such expressions as, *Generally speaking*, the Persians were cowards. *Considering* the circumstances, it is not strange our army was defeated. Some grammarians, quite erroneously, have treated these independent or absolute participles as gerunds governed by a preposition understood.

245. Rule VI. A finite verb agrees in number with its subject; as, The boy *reads;* the men *read*.

As the verb and the subject are both spoken of the same person or thing, they must of course agree in the only attribute which they have in common, viz., *number*.

(1). The chief violation of this rule arises from mistaking nouns and pronouns, which are *enlargements* of the real subject, for the subject itself, particularly when these enlargements stand between the subject and the verb. Such sentences as the following are not uncommon:—"The *dismissal* of such a nobleman and of two cabinet ministers in swift succession *were* ill received by the nation at large." "Twelve days' *work have* been paid for." Observe *that the grammatical enlargements of the subject have nothing to do with determining the number of the verb.*

(2.) An infinitive, an infinitive phrase, or a noun clause used as the subject of a sentence is followed by a singular verb; as, To err *is* human. To be proof against fear *has* long *been* the characteristic of a British soldier. Whatever is, *is* right.

(3). When the noun is *plural in form*, but *singular in meaning* the verb is often singular; as, Bad news *travels* fast. The wages of sin *is* death.

(4.) Titles of books, and words quoted *as words*, are always singular; as, *Two Years Before the Mast is* an interesting tale of nautical adventure. *Suicidal vices* is an expressive phrase.

246. Rule VII. A collective noun, though *singular* in form, takes a plural verb when the objects making up the collective unity are taken *individually*; as, The peasantry *were* ill-clad and half-starved. The generality

of the people *are* doting after prelacy. The public *have* been too often deceived by such cries and protestations to be deceived again.

Cases of doubt under this rule are not of frequent occurrence. Such nouns as *nation, army, fleet, parliament, mob, party, church,* plainly implying a unitary idea, are always found with singular verbs. Some variety of usage, however, occurs with names denoting a collection of but *few* individuals, such as *jury, court, cabinet, committee,* &c. These are sometimes found with plural verbs in the writings of standard authors.

247. Rule VIII. When the subject consists of two or more nouns, or expressions equivalent to nouns, connected by *and*, the verb must be plural; as, John and James *were* the sons of Zebedee. To be good and to do good *include* all that is required of man.

The following real, or apparent, exceptions to this rule should be noted :—

(1). When *and* connects simply different names of the same person or thing, the verb should be singular; as, That excellent man and gifted poet is now well-nigh forgotten.

(2). When nouns are joined which nearly agree in meaning, or denote objects closely connected in fact, or in the thought of the speaker, the verb may be singular; as, Wherein *doth sit* the dread and fear of kings. The prime object and purpose of his plan *was* thus thwarted. So also, "The peace and good order of society *was* not promoted by the feudal system" (Hallam) is justifiable. But "The language and history of the Lithuanians *is* closely connected with that of the Greeks" (Freeman) presses the principle too far.

NOTE 1.—Under the principle of this exception such expressions as "the wheel and axle *was* out of repair"; "bread and butter *is* my usual breakfast" are deemed correct by some grammarians.

NOTE 2. "We sometimes hear that 'two and two *are* four'; 'three times four *are* twelve,' but the 'are' is scarcely defensible in either case. It would be correct to say that 'two pounds and five pounds *are* (or *make*) seven pounds,' but with numbers in the abstract what we mean is that the numerical combination of two and two is the same as four. So 'twice one *are* two' must be wrong, because there is no plurality in the strict sense and 'three times four' should be regarded as a combination or verity made up in a particular way." Bain's *Higher English Grammar.*

(3). A singular verb is proper when the nouns are individualized by the word *each* or *every;* as,

Each officer and *each* soldier *has* his special grievance to complain of.

Every thing to gratify the senses and *every* thing to please the taste *was* there in rich abundance.

(4). Other seeming violations of this rule may be justified by a supposed ellipsis of the verb. This occurs

a. When the verb precedes a series of nominatives; as, Thine *is* the kingdom, and the power, and the glory.

b. When the second noun is accompanied by a negative; as, Right, and not the principles of expediency, *is* the pole-star of an honest man's career.

(5). *As well as* and *with* are sometimes used to connect nouns with the force of *and;* as, Burke as well as Sheridan were great orators. The ship with her sailors *were* lost.—The sense here is plural, and so seems to justify the plural verb. But in such cases it is much better to use *and*. Generally *with* and *as well as* do not connect parts of a cumulative subject but simply introduce an attributive idea or make a comparison, and have no effect on the number of the verb

248. Rule IX. When the subject consists of two or more singular nouns, connected by *or* or *nor*, the verb must be singular; as, John or his brother *has* your book. Neither the fleet nor the army *is* in readiness.

Such sentences are always a contraction of two or more co-ordinate sentences.

NOTE.—The use of the plural after *neither....nor* and *nor....nor* is found in some authors of repute, but should not be countenanced. The following sentence from Matthew Arnold is a gross violation of the rule: "Neither Mr. Adderley nor Mr. Roebuck *are* by nature inaccessible to considerations of this sort."

249. Rule X. When the subject of a verb is the first or second personal pronoun, or a relative having the first or second personal pronoun as its antecedent, the verb is in the person corresponding to such pronoun; as, I *read;* thou *readest;* I who *speak;* thou who *speakest.*

Various rules have been laid down for determining the *person* of the verb, when it has for its subject a singular noun or pronoun connected by *or* or *nor* with the singular of the first or second personal pronouns. All *persons* having the same form in the plural, the question is of no practical account when either of the subjects is plural. Latham's rules are:—

(1). Where *either* or *neither* is used the verb is in the third person; as, Either he or *I* is mistaken.

(2). But when *either* or *neither* is not used, the verb takes the person suitable to the first subject; as, I or he *am* mistaken. *He* or I is mistaken.

These rules are neither founded on reason nor supported by good usage. Other authorities suggest that the verb should always take the person required by the nearest subject. Amid so much uncertainty, it is wise to avoid the construction altogether by using the proper verb with each subject; as, Either I *am* mistaken, or he *is*.

NOTE.—*I* and *thou* are singular *words* which require special forms of the verb, called after them the *first* and *second persons*. The form of the verb, called by way of distinction the *third person*, corresponds to all nouns *without exception*, and to all pronouns except *I* and *thou* and the relatives when under their influence. It is strange that modern grammarians, having effectually weeded out of Etymology the useless fiction of *person* as an attribute of nouns, have not expunged it from Syntax in like manner.

250. Rule XI. Pronouns take the gender and number of the nouns for which they stand; as, All that a *man* hath will *he* give for *his* life.

(1). Under this rule when the subject of a verb is a relative pronoun, the *antecedent* determines the *number* of the verb; as He dies well, who *lives* well.

(2) Two or more singular antecedents connected by *and* require a pronoun in the plural; by *or* or *nor*, in the singular; as, The General and his aid-de-camp, who *are* absent, will return to-night. If ship or fort be struck, repair *it* speedily.

(3). Apart from its proper use, the neuter pronoun *it* as an *anticipatory* subject may relate to nouns and pronouns of all numbers and genders and to phrases and sentences; as, *It* is *he*. *It* is *she*. *It* is *I*. *It* was *they* who spoke. *It* is *difficult to succeed in such an enterprise*.

It is also used without an antecedent before impersonal verbs denoting operations of the weather; as, *It* rains.

(4). The use of the plural form of the pronoun is sometimes allowable, when it has an antecedent *each* or *every* implying different genders; as, Let each esteem other better than *themselves*. So also to prevent the cumbrous use of "he or she," "his or her."

251. Rule XII. The demonstrative adjectives *this* and *that* agree in number with the nouns that they limit; as, *This* man, *these* men; *that* house, *those* houses.

Such expressions as "*this* ten years" may perhaps be justified by the consideration that the term of years is viewed as a unit.

GOVERNMENT.

252. **Government** is the power of a word to determine the case of a noun or pronoun or the mood of a verb.

RULES OF GOVERNMENT.

253. Rule I. A noun denoting *the thing possessed* governs the noun or pronoun denoting *the possessor* in the possessive case; as, The *King's* crown. *Whose* image and superscription is this?

(1). The name of the possessor always precedes the name of the thing possessed.

(2.) The use of the possessive case is chiefly confined to possessors *denoting living beings*. In the case of inanimate objects the idea of possession is generally expressed by the preposition *of*. This restriction is not regarded in poetry; as, "Mountains above, *Earth's, Ocean's* plains below.

(3). The possessive is often used when the idea conveyed is not that of strict possession, but of some other connection; as, *Macaulay's* History of England. The Common *Schools'* fund. We mean in these cases a history *written by* Macaulay, and a fund *designed for the support* of Common Schools. So we have such expressions as "a *month's* pay," "a *day's* rest," "at his *wit's* end," &c.

(4). In such phrases as "a poem of Tennyson's," "This Canada of ours," we have simply *a mixture of two constructions*, namely the Anglo Saxon possessive and the Norman French possessive with *of*. All attempts at grammatical explanation beyond the statement of this obvious fact have failed to yield any satisfactory results. Lennie's method of dealing with "that tongue of *his*" by supplying a governing noun, *head* or *mouth*, does not much surpass in absurdity other explanations which have been offered.

(5). A noun or pronoun denoting a possessor before a gerund or gerundial phrase is put in the possessive to denote the *subject* of the action expressed by the gerund; as, I was indignant at *William's* hesitating to go. Some writers prefer to use the *participle* instead of the *gerund*, when of course the preceding noun is in the *objective* case. The gerund is much to be preferred in such a sentence as that given, and whenever the noun, as, denoting a living being, can properly take the possessive case

254. Rule II. Transitive verbs in the active voice govern the objective case; as, Follow *me*.

(1). Participles and gerunds have the same governing power as the verbs to which they belong; as, Having reproved *them*, he dismissed them. The duty of accusing *him* belongs to me.

Hence the noun following the gerund of a verb of incomplete

predication must be taken to be in the *nominative* case; as, The atrocious crime of being a young *man*.

(2). A noun following a verb of incomplete predication in the *objective* complement is in the objective case; as, I saw it to be *him*.

255. Rule III. *Allow*, *bring*, *deny*, *do*, *forgive*, *get*, *give*, *lend*, *offer*, *pay*, *promise*, *refuse*, *send*, *tell*, and some other verbs may take a *second* object to denote the object or thing affected by their action; as, Forgive *us* our *trespasses*. Pay *me that* thou owest. He told *them* a sad *story*.

1. The two objects are generally distinguished as *direct* and *indirect*. The indirect object always precedes the direct.

2. The indirect object corresponds to the *dative* case in Latin, denoting that *to* or *for* which anything is done.

3. When the verbs are in the passive voice, the indirect object remains; as, Our trespasses are forgiven *us*. A sad story was told *them*. But with some of the verbs it is equally correct to retain the *direct* object, changing the indirect into the subject; as, He was promised a *situation*.

256. Rule IV. The verbs *ask* and *teach* are followed by two objects, both of which must be considered as direct; as, The judge asked the *witness* a *question*. The Sophists taught their *pupils rhetoric*.

1. The objects may be distinguished as denoting the *person* and the *thing* respectively.

2. In the passive voice the object denoting the thing is retained, the object denoting the person becoming the *subject*: as, The witness was asked a *question*. The pupils were taught *rhetoric*.

NOTE.—By a sort of compressive process these verbs perform two functions at once. We can say, "I taught the pupil," and "I taught logic;" we can also combine these expressions into "I taught the pupil logic."

257. Rule V. *Appoint*, *call*, *choose*, *constitute*, *create*, *elect*, *name*, *render*, and similar verbs take a second object to complete their meaning; as, The Council appointed these three *men arbitrators*. The king made *him* his chief *adviser*.

1. As these verbs involve the idea of making something become something else they are called **factitive**, from the Latin *facere* to make.

2. The objective cases following these verbs are distinguished as *object* and *objective complement*. While the latter is in apposition to the former, it at the same time *completes* or fills out the meaning of the verb.

3. In the passive voice, the *objective* complement becomes the *subjective* complement.

258. Rule VI. An intransitive verb may be followed by an object expressing in the form of a noun the action signified by the verb itself; as, Seneca lived a virtuous *life*. They ran a hotly contested *race*.

1. This is called a **cognate** object; or the noun is said to be in the **cognate** objective.

2. So also intransitive verbs used *factitively* may be followed by an object qualified by an adjective as an objective complement; as, The prima donna sang *herself* hoarse. The horses ran *themselves* out of breath.

259. Rule VII. Nouns in the objective case are used adverbially after verbs, adjectives, and adverbs, to denote *time*, *space*, *direction*, *measure*, *value*, and *degree of difference between objects compared*; as, Long weary *hours* they waited. They marched ten *miles*. It cost ten *dollars*. This is a great *deal* better than that. Such a tribute is worth a *fortune*.

260. Rule VIII. Prepositions govern the objective case of nouns and pronouns; as, I appeal from *him* to *her*.

(1.) The preposition *to* is generally omitted after the adjective *like*.

(2.) It should be particularly observed that many verbs which are according to definition *intransitive*, that is which cannot take after them a *noun* object, but require the intervention of a preposition, may take an object in the form of an **infinitive mood** or a **noun clause**. Such are *resolve*, *determine*, *insist*, &c.; as, I have determined *to go*. They insisted *that it should be done*.

261. Rule IX. The conjunction *than* takes after it the objective case of the relative pronoun *who*; as, I may mention Hampden,—than *whom* no nobler patriot ever lived.

The use of the *objective* where the grammatical construction plainly requires the *nominative* can be partially explained

by reference to a tendency on the part of old writers to avoid stiffness by using the objective of the pronouns after the comparative degree and *than*. Such expressions as "She is taller than him" abound in early English and are still tolerated in colloquial language. *Than whom* has established itself as the regular form of expression.

262. Rule X. Some interjections are followed by the objective case of the *first*, and the nominative case of the *second* personal pronoun; as, Ah *me!* how unfortunate I am. Ho! *ye* that thirst.

263. Rule XI. The infinitive mood may depend on a verb, an adjective or a noun; as, John began to *preach*. I am able *to finish* what I have begun. His anxiety to *avoid* one class of danger, led him into greater ones.

More particularly the infinitive may be:—

(1). The subjective complement after a verb of incomplete predication; as, He appears *to love* retirement.

(2). The objective complement after a factitive verb; as, Xerxes appointed him *to rule* over Lydia.

(3). The objective complement after verbs of *commanding, entreating, ordering, urging*, &c.; as, I urged him *to submit*.

This class of verbs cannot take a *noun* as their second object or objective complement, and when in the passive voice they retain the infinitive as a direct object.

(4). The direct object of a transitive verb; as, Such men deserve to *succeed*.

(5). The object of intransitive verbs denoting desire, ability, intention, endeavor, duty, &c., &c.; as, I long *to see* you. We resolve to *conquer*. See Rule VIII (2)

(6). An adverbial modifier of an intransitive verb or of an adjective; as, The pupils delight to *study*, i. e., *in studying*. I am happy *to hear* it.

(7). Equivalent to an adverbial clause of purpose after verbs both transitive and intransitive, and after adjectives and nouns; as, I have come to *stay*. I am ready to *go*. A messenger was sent to *communicate* the pleasing intelligence. A house to *let*.

a. In Anglo-Saxon this was the only infinitive preceded by *to*, and in English it is the only case in which *to* has its full and proper force. In older English *to* was often preceded by *for*; as, What went ye out *for to see*.

b. This infinitive has a wide and varied use, denoting not

only *purpose*, but also *object*, *result*, *consequence*, &c.; as, He sank *to rise* no more. This is *to be done* to day.

c. It may follow any adjective or adverb limited by *too* or *enough*; as, This is too much *to lose*. I am bold enough to *say so*.

d. The infinitive of result is found especially after the conjunctive adverb *as* when preceded by *such* or *so*: as, They shouted so as *to be heard*.

e. By an ellipsis the infinitive of purpose often seems to be used independently; as, *To tell* you the truth, I differ from you. The infinitive in such expressions as "when *to go*," "where *to stay*," "how *to do* it," comes under the head of *purpose*.

(8.) The object of the prepositions *about* and *but*: as, They were about *to leave*. The general had no alternative but *to surrender*.

264. Rule XII. The conditional conjunctions *if*, *unless*, &c., and the concessive conjunctions *although*, *though*, &c., are followed by the subjunctive mood in clauses denoting *future uncertainty*; as, If he *were* put to the proof, he would not stand the test. Though he *slay* me, yet will I trust in Him.

(1). Modern English usage inclines to the employment of the *compound* forms of the subjunctive wherever practicable. Thus, *should be* for *were*, and *should slay* for *slay* in the above sentences.

(2). In regard to conditional and concessive sentences the following points should be noted:—

a. The indicative is the proper mood when the reference is to a *fact* or that which is *assumed* as a fact, as, If he *is* witty, he is also wise. Though He *was* rich, yet for our sakes He became poor.

b. So also when the supposition relates to a *future* event viewed as *becoming a fact*; as, If he *does* not come to-morrow, you will be disappointed.

This is the rule in modern English. Old writers freely used the subjunctive in such clauses, in imitation of the Latin and Greek (*Si quid habeam, dabo*); as, If it *be* thou, bid me come to thee.

c. When a supposition is made regarding the future, as *a mere conception*, without any regard to the realization of the event, the subjunctive is the proper mood in both condition and conclusion; as, *Were* he to say that, he *would 've* mistaken, or If he *should say that*, he *would be* mistaken.

d. When a supposition is made as a mere conception, but *contrary* to some fact, or supposed fact, the subjunctive mood is

used in both condition and conclusion, the latter showing what the result would be, or would have been, if the supposition had been valid; as, If they *were* wise (which they are not) they *would act* differently. In this construction the past subjunctive of *be* is used with a present meaning, and when the supposition refers to past time, the condition takes the past perfect indicative, the subjunctive having no distinct forms for that tense; as, If they *had been* wise, they would have acted differently.

265. Rule XIII. Present and future tenses in a principal clause require *may*, *shall*, and *will* in the subordinate clause; past tenses require *might*, *should* and *would*; as, I come (have come, shall come) that I *may* attend to the business.

I came (had come) that I *might* attend to the business.

ORDER.

266. In general it may be said that the *meaning* of an English sentence depends on the **order** in which the words are arranged. The relation of words to one one another in government and sense can in most cases be determined only by their relative positions. Our language lacks the flexibility of arrangement belonging to tongues possessed of elaborate systems of case-endings and verbal terminations.

267. The natural order of words in an English sentence is:—

1. The subject and its enlargements. 2. The verb, 3. The object with its enlargements. 4. The extensions or adverbial adjuncts of the predicate.

This order, however, is not absolutely inflexible. Within the necessary limit of making the meaning plain considerable variety of arrangement is allowable. Sentences whose principal elements depart from the natural order are said to be **inverted**; as, "Thee the all-beholding sun shall see no more." Inversion to a reasonable degree often tends to promote clear and emphatic expression.

NOTE.—"Though in plain idiomatic English an inverted order is not common, yet our language admits inversion to a very large degree. Writers are therefore free to arrange their words in the order that does most justice to the thought. No man need fail to write strongly or emphatically through the supposed deficiency, in this respect, of the English tongue."—Angus's *Handbook of the English Tongue.*

RULES OF ORDER—WITH PRINCIPAL EXCEPTIONS.

268. Rule I. The subject precedes the verb; as, *Canute* commanded the waves.

EXCEPTIONS.

The subject follows the verb:—

(1). When not being an interrogative pronoun, it stands in an *interrogative* sentence; as, Carest *thou* not for any of these things?

(2). With the imperative mood; as, See *thou* to that.

(3). In conditional clauses without a conjunction; as, Were *I* you.

(4). In exclamatory and optative sentences; as, How great was my *surprise!* Perish the *thought!*

(5). When the verb is preceded by *neither* or *nor*, equivalent to *and not;* as, Nor was *he* far astray.

(6). When the verb is preceded by the expletive *there* and the adverbs *here* and *there;* as, There is no *doubt.* Here spreads the lovely *vale.* There rose the lofty *mountain.*

(7). After verbs of *saying* used parenthetically; as, Quoth *I;* said *he;* continued the *narrator.*

(8). For the sake of *emphasis*, particularly when the verb is intransitive, so that no danger exists of confounding the subject and object; as, After the light infantry marched the *grenadiers;* then followed the *horse.* Red as a rose is *she.* Echo the *mountains* round.

269. Rule II. The object *follows* the verb which *governs* it; as, He saw the distant *smoke.*

EXCEPTIONS.

(1.) When the object is a relative pronoun, an interrogative pronoun, or a noun limited by a relative or interrogative adjective it precedes the verb; as, This is the place *that* I have chosen. *Whom* seek ye? *Which book* will you take?

(2.) The object may precede the verb when emphasis can be secured without obscuring the sense; as, *Money* Marlborough sought, quite as much as *fame.*

Inversion always emphasizes the *object*, but is never allowable when it would leave the question as to *subject* and *object* doubtful.

The pronouns can of course be inverted with much greater freedom than nouns. "*Him* the Almighty power hurled headlong" is perfectly unambiguous; but any *noun* substituted for *him* would make the meaning doubtful. So also there is no liability to mistake when the *subject* is a first or second personal pronoun, and when the subject and object differing in number, the verb points out the former by its *form*.

NOTE.—An exception to the principle that the indirect object *precedes* the direct occurs when the latter is the pronoun *it*. Thus, "Give it me" rather than "Give me it."

270. Rule III. The limiting adjectives *a* or *an*, and *the* should be prefixed to each of two or more nouns following one another, when these denote different objects. Thus, "I saw the colonel and officer in charge" would imply that the colonel *was* the officer in charge; "I saw *the* colonel and *the* officer in charge" plainly marks out two distinct persons. In the following sentence the repetition of *a* (*an*) shows the reference to be to distinct individuals; as, "In the degenerate days of Rome the imperial purple was worn by *a* voluptuary, *an* adulterer, *a* bastard, *a* parricide, and *an* idiot."

271. Rule IV. The *antecedent* and the *pronoun* should be so placed in relation to each other as to make the meaning plain.

This rule is of special importance when the sentence contains two or more words capable, so far as grammatical construction is concerned, of being construed as antecedents. Such a sentence as the following is obscure —

"The gentleman whom you met was John Quincy Adams, son of John Adams, who was once President of the United States." As a *practical* rule, place the antecedent in the closest possible proximity to the pronoun, whenever there is liability of confusion. In "He hath made Him to be sin for us, who knew no sin" a slight re-arrangement would make the meaning unmistakeable: "He hath made Him, *who knew no sin*, to be sin for us."

NOTE.—Great confusion often results from bringing together in the same sentences the anticipatory and common uses of the word *it*. Thus, "*It* is a pity that *it* was thought necessary for *it* to be done; and, if *it* was necessary, that he should be chosen to do *it*."

272. Rule V. Prepositions ordinarily precede their objects and are placed as near them as possible.

The disregard of this principle in the following sentence cannot be defended: When *in*, along with one or two friends, the National *Gallery*, I was charmed with some of the paintings.

EXCEPTIONS.

(1). When the object is a relative or interrogative pronoun, the preposition sometimes follows it so as to increase the emphasis without obscuring the meaning; as, What is he fit *for*?

The relative *that* invariably precedes the preposition which governs it; as, The ills *that* flesh is heir *to*. Placing the other relatives and the interrogatives before the preposition befits familiar conversation rather than dignified writing.

(2). *Emphasis* occasionally justifies putting the object before the preposition in other cases; as, A profound knowledge of mathematics I do not pretend *to*.

273. Rule VI. The attributive adjective immediately precedes the noun which it qualifies or limits.

EXCEPTIONS.

(1). When two or more adjectives are joined as adjuncts to the same noun they are generally placed after the noun; as, He was a man *noble, generous, disinterested*.

(2). So when the adjective is enlarged by phrases; as, Halifax was a statesman *adverse to rash measures*.

(3). In certain established expressions the adjective has a fixed place after the noun; as, *Governor General, Heir Apparent, Poet Laureatè, time immemorial*.

NOTE 1.—In poetry much freedom is used in respect to the place of the adjective, but in prose so strong is the general principle stated in Rule VI. that it impresses on *nouns and phrases placed immediately before nouns* the character of *adjectives;* as, The *iron* horse. A *good-for-nothing* fellow.

NOTE 2.—"A good deal of hypercriticism has been wasted on such phrases as 'The three first verses of the chapter," &c. 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,' &c. 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?"—Mason, *Eng. Grammar.*

NOTE 3.—"*The three first* or *the first three*. Great doubt exists as to which of these expressions is correct. Difficulties seem to attach to both. When we say the *three first*, it is asked, how can *three* be first; and when we say the *first three*, we seem to imply that this should be followed by a second three, a third three, and so on. The form most commonly used is the 'first three'; 'the *first six* books of Euclid'; 'the *first ten* men you meet'; 'the *first forty* years of the century.' But there are occasions when good writers think the other form preferable; thus 'the *three first* gospels'; 'the *two eldest* of the family'; the *six nearest* your hand'; 'the fathers of the *five first* centuries.' 'I have not numbered the lines except of the *four first* books' (Cowper). We may conceive the ground for the distinction on some such principle as this. Suppose a number of persons waiting for admission to a public spectacle. The manager wishes to give directions as to the order of admission. Now if we suppose it settled beforehand that three shall be admitted at a time, the only question remaining is *which* three, to which the answer is the three *first*. But if it be understood that they are to be admitted in the order that they stand in, the question is how many at a time, and the answer is the first *three*. The place of special emphasis is the second word, the first *three*, the three *first*."—Bain. *Higher Eng. Grammar.*

274. Rule VII. Adverbs, and phrases having the force of adverbs, should be placed so as clearly to modify the intended words.

Under this general rule,—

(1). An adverb precedes the adjective or adverb which it modifies; as, A *very* happy man. He answered *far* more unfavorably than I anticipated.

(2). An adverb may either precede or follow the verb which it modifies. But,—

a. An adverb denoting manner generally follows an intransitive verb; as, They ran *fast*. The men succeeded *admirably*.

b. An adverb with transitive verbs generally follows the object; as, He recovered his senses *gradually*. Why do men neglect their own interests *so stupidly?*

c. A prepositional phrase is often conveniently placed between the verb and its object; as, The appeals of Demosthenes stirred, *with peculiar energy*, feelings diverse indeed, but by no means contradictory. You persist in asking, *in spite of all my tears*, questions which are very unpleasant to answer.

d. The adverb is generally placed between the last auxiliary and the participle; as, I had *nearly* forgotten your message. Before that time, I fear that the evil results will have been *fully* disclosed.

e. Not only....but also. Not....but only, at least, both.... and either....or, neither...nor, should be so placed as to bring out the sense really intended

EXERCISES.

ETYMOLOGY.

The Noun

I.

Distinguish, by underlining in different ways, as the teacher may direct, the **proper** *and the* **common** *nouns in the following sentences:—*

London is the largest city in the world. The Sultan's sceptre trembled in his grasp. Cicero and Demosthenes were orators. Moses dwelt forty years in the land of Midian. Nature made Churchill a poet. Columbus discovered America. The curfew tolls the knell of parting day. The republic of Sparta had two magistrates called kings. Studies serve for ornament and delight. Napoleon the First was a native of Corsica. The wages of sin is death. The house is in Edinburg. Paris is the capital of France. The battle of Gettysburg was fought in Pennsylvania. Brittania needs no bulwark, no towers along the steep. High in his stirrups stood the king. We expect the Smiths and the Browns to-morrow.

II.

Distinguish the **abstract** *and* **collective** *nouns in the following sentences.*

The jury did not agree. Truth is stranger than fiction. The congregation departed in silence. Wisdom's ways are ways of pleasantness. The crowd showed great patience. Industry is the road to wealth. The paths of glory lead but to the grave. Order is heaven's first law. Honor is virtue's reward. The fleet consists of forty ships. Righteousness exalteth a nation. The council took no action in the matter. Poetry and music are considered fine arts. Richer by far is the heart's adoration. A flock of sheep fed on the mountains. The shouts of the multitude announced the triumph of the victors.

III.

Tell the gender of the following nouns, pointing out particularly the nouns that have **grammatical** *gender:* — Widow, boy, book.

aunt, master, ship, bride, lady, monk, goose, abbot, heir, emperor, queen, ruler, cow, fox, sun, murderer, count, sultan, tea, poetess, prudence, bird, child, lioness, hero, mayor, he-goat, moon, parent, idol witch, sorceress, animal, girl, snow, field, maid, wife.

IV.

Write the **feminine** *nouns corresponding to the following* **masculine** *nouns*: — Husband, earl, drake, nephew, negro, man-servant, viscount, poet, gentleman, hero, cock-sparrow, king, landgrave, author, baron, lad, heir, drake, signor, hart, host, adulterer, executor, bridegroom, boy, father, songster, colt, sir, uncle, son, steer.

V.

Write the **masculine** *nouns corresponding to the following* **feminine** *nouns*: — Giantess, aunt, doe, lass, duchess, mistress, girl, bride, sister, maid, witch, czarina, sultana, she-goat, murderess, hen, hind, ewe, mamma, lady, goose, gammer, countess, foundress, roe, queen, hen-sparrow, niece, daughter, spawn, woman, wife, reeve, duck, empress, heifer.

VI.

Write the **plural** *of the following nouns*: — Book, brush, change, church, kiss, fox, muff, hero, baby, potato, brother, man, calf, sky, chimney, ox, mouse, monarch, wife, child, story, alley, son-in-law, man-servant, seraph, sphinx, beau, bandit, axis, magus, datum, vertex, genius, genus, miasma, radius, formula, criterion, locus, crisis, phenomenon.

VII.

Write the **singular** *of the following nouns*: — Dice, women, geese, cherubim, pence, bodies, data, foci, nebulæ, wolves, allies, storeys, crises, indices, arches, flambeaux, feet, Muftis, bases, hypotheses, tumuli, apsides, loaves, houries, brethren, chickens, genera, larvæ, virtuosi, oafs, dilletanti, dicta, apices, effluvia, oases.

VIII.

Write the **possessive** case singular and plural of the following nouns — Lady, child, sister, woman, prince, German, goose, wolf, author, princess, house, ox, church, dwarf, sheep, thief, day, attorney, mouse, sister-in-law, Charles, Mussulman, ally, foreman.

IX.

Write sentences in which each of the following nouns shall appear in the **nominative**; *also sentences in which each shall appear in the* **objective** *case*: — Parent, body, mind, studies, John, England,

year, pulpit, master, sheep, horses, journey, industry, market, book, picture, piano, river, countryman, mountain, business, James, widow, husband, people, forest, paper, thirst, sight, youth, music, learning, church, Monday, Ottawa, ink, water, pencil, hearing, hens, cattle, lake, road, trout, mother, physician, dwarf, friend, house, fields, wood, sky, cows, boat, June, bell, grammar evening, sun, time, shade, Mary, rocks, shore, sunshine, sleep, folly

X.

Give all the possible forms of the following nouns:—Child, whale, lady, wife, alley, penny, brother, John, duke, father-in-law, mouse, die, ox, index, match, sheep, army, Germany, lion, fish, pea, tooth, gulf, elf, fox, hero, canto, school, wharf, roof, duty, tax, swine, music, apple, peer, pride, seraph, poet, crew.

In describing a word as it stands in the sentence of which it forms a part we are said to **parse** it. The term *parse* is closely connected in meaning with "part" (of speech — Latin *pars orationis*, "part of speech").

This description or *parsing* includes a statement of:—

1. What part of speech the word is, and to which of the classes and sub-classes, of that part of speech it belongs.

2. The grammatical form or forms under which the word presents itself in the sentence. As to a noun this implies a statement of its *gender*, *number* and *case*.

3. The relation in which the word stands to other words in the sentence. The part which a word thus plays in a sentence is technically called its **construction**.

In regard to the construction of nouns, we have seen that a noun may be:—

(*a.*) The *subject* of an action; (*b.*) the *object* of an action or of a preposition; (*c.*) in the possessive case as denoting *ownership* or *possession*.

These principles may now be put in the form in which they generally appear in the so-called "rules of Syntax," it being taken for granted that the predicate of every sentence contains a verb to which the subject corresponds, and that the action followed by an object in the objective case is expressed by a transitive verb in the active voice:—

I. The subject of a verb is in the nominative case.

II. Transitive verbs in the active voice govern the objective case.

III. Prepositions govern the objective case.

IV. A noun denoting *the thing possessed*, governs the noun denoting *the possessor* in the possessive case.

V. A noun attached to another noun, and denoting the same person or thing, is put in the same case.

VI. The noun following the verb *to be*, and denoting the same person or thing as the subject, is in the nominative case.

EXAMPLE OF PARSING NOUNS.

John struck the carpenter's brother.

(1.) *John* is a proper noun, masculine gender, singular number, nominative case, subject of the verb struck: "The subject of a verb is in the nominative case."

(2.) *Carpenter's* is a common noun, masculine gender, singular number, possessive case, governed by (or depending on) the noun brothe: "A noun denoting the thing possessed governs the noun denoting the possessor in the possessive case."

(3.) *Brother* is a common noun, masculine gender, singular number, objective case, governed by (or object of) the verb, struck: "Transitive verbs in the active voice govern the objective case"

The mob saw the folly of its course.

(1). *Mob* is a collective noun, neuter gender, [see 22 (3], singular number, nominative case, subject of the verb *saw*: "The subject of a verb is in the nominative case."

(2). *Folly* is an abstract noun, neuter gender, singular number, object of the verb *saw*: "Transitive verbs in the active voice govern the objective case."

(3.) *Course* is a common noun, neuter gender, singular number, objective case, governed by the preposition *of*: "Prepositions govern the objective case."

The above examples are given as illustrating the ordinary mode of parsing. It is open to teachers, especially with beginners, to adopt a fuller style, requiring every detail connected with the parsed words to be given, with the reason for everything

XI.

Parse fully the **nouns** *in the following sentences:*—A pound Troy contains twelve ounces. Many men have died for con-

science' sake. The eagle's wings were broken. The boys' clothes were badly torn. Tea, sugar and tobacco are articles of commerce. The girl's father is come. Did you see John's brother? Give me ten dollars. Mary gave her book to John. The boys went to the play-ground when the bell rang. Vice is the deformity of man. Youth is the season of improvement. Vanity easily mistakes sneers for smiles. Your *if* is the only peacemaker; much virtue is in *if*. There are no fewer than eight *ands* in this sentence. Such tricks hath strong imagination. The borrower is servant to the lender. The child is father to the man. John Gilpin was a citizen of credit and renown. The king was on the throne. Confusion on thy banners wait Without doubt, a bad cause weakens its defender, while a good cause adds strength to its champion. The Earl of Clarendon accompanied Prince Charles in his exile on the Continent. On the deck a maiden wrings her hands.

Full many a gem, of purest ray serene,
The dark unfathomed caves of ocean bear;
Full many a flower is born to blush unseen,
And waste its sweetness on the desert air.

Adjectives.

I.

Distinguish the **qualifying** *and the* **limiting** *adjectives in the following sentences:* — The way was long, the wind was cold, That man is a very indifferent speaker. He brought me sundry goods, some course, some fine, The tenth man who came was my old father, He has three brothers in the forty-second regiment. On this bold brow, a lordly tower. True gentle love is like the summer dew. There were few women in the settlement. What man is that? Such conduct deserves punishment. All go to one place. Not from one lone cloud, but every mountain now hath found a tongue.

II.

Distinguish the limiting adjectives in the following sentences, as to the **sub-class** *to which each belongs:* — A few apples were found on the ground No man is perfect. Some authors have mentioned it. This house is too small. What books do you read? Every science has its principles. I saw him on several occasions. The whole army was destroyed I arrived on the second day of May. He has many friends. Several persons have seen him. Both boys told the same story. We have much wheat, but little barley. They have five dollars and twenty cents. I do not know which road to take. I have eaten enough apples.

They have visited yonder castle. Have you any fruit? All men are mortal. Either book will suit me. In neither place were the same rocks found.

III.

Distinguish the adjectives in the following sentences, as in the **attributive** *or* **predicative** *position:* — The fruit is ripe. Superstition is the mark of a weak mind. She is tall and handsome. That plant possesses a pernicious quality. His answer was a mere evasion. You have powerful enemies. This wine is very excellent. Paris is not so large as London. The Alps are very high and very steep. I will show you my flowers. His manners are natural. A stone wall encloses the old city. I do this not because it is pleasant, but because it is right. Our stanuch good friend is he. That fair sad face is gone. Very spacious was the wigwam. The lovely young Lavinia once had friends. How poor, how rich, how abject, how august, how complicate, how wonderful is man! Roll on thou deep and dark blue ocean.

Turn in the wild white winter snows
Turn out the sweet spring daisies.

IV.

Write out the **comparative** *and* **superlative** *degrees of following adjectives:* — Rich, sweet, splendid, sly, rosy, merry, old, noble, hot, far, bitter, humble, bad, free, divine, complete, heavy, sad, pious, fierce, good, many, low, little, coy, bright, mighty, late, near, fore, worthy, lovely, studious, kind, beautiful, noble, industrious, holy, big, handsome.

V.

Write out the three degrees of comparison of following adjectives: — Gayest, larger, coyer, hottest, poorer, more, worst, lithy, eldest, earlier, loveliest, wittier, proudest, thicker, least, nnest, longer, best, sweeter, hottest, next, last, easier, nobler, dall, merriest, tenderer, ugliest, hindmost, sadder, first, fiercest, humblest, purer, tamer, drier, richest, holier, humblest.

VI.

Write suitable adjectives before the nouns in Exercise VI. under the **noun**.

The parsing of an adjective consists in stating its class and sub-class, its degree and mode of comparison, and the noun which it qualifies or limits.

VII.

Parse fully all the **adjectives** *and* **nouns** *in the following sentences:* — The young men were wild and unsteady. A little learning is a dangerous thing. Some people like interesting books. Each year brings forth its millions. A sadder and a wiser man he rose the morrow morn. Ayr, gurgling, kissed his pebbled shore. Many a carol, old and saintly, sang the minstrels. Stone wall do not a prison make nor iron bars a cage. There are several sorts of scandalous tempers; some malicious and some effeminate, some obstinate, brutish and savage. God's providence is higher, and deeper, and larger, and stronger than all the skill of his adversaries. The wind is sad and restless. The sounding aisles of the dim woods rang to the anthem of the free. A dark and heavy writer is supposed to be profound. Few and short were the prayers we said. The most ambitious men are generally the most unhappy. There is tempest in that horned moon. Autumn is less varied than spring, but it is richer. Banners—yellow, glorious, golden, on its roof did float and flow The most able men are not always the most virtuous. It touched the tangled golden curls and brown eyes full of grieving. The least excusable of all errors is that which is wilful.

See the soft green willow springing
When the waters gently pass,
Every way her free arms flinging
O'er the moist and reedy grass.

Ye hermit oaks, and sentinel pines
Ye mountain forests old and gray,
In all your long and winding lines,
Have ye not seen the way?

Pronouns.

I.

Point out and classify the **pronouns** *in the following sentences* — Take her up tenderly. Love thyself last. What thou see is that portion of eternity which is called time. Who is he One could do that in two hours. I that speak to thee am he. The only good on earth was pleasure; not to follow that was sin. What wight is that which saw that I did see? Myself hath been the whip. What is sweeter than honey? If you do this I shall do that. We laughed loudly but they were silent. He who does wrong deserves punishment. Pay me the money which you owe me. Ye therefore who love mercy teach your

sons to love it too. 'Tis the divinity that stirs within us. Be kind to each other. One should love one's native land. I shall not answer for another's conduct. Whom do you serve under? He will surely hurt himself. Whoever may say it, I shall not believe it. Who told you the story? He is a man whom I despise. Which of them is right? You wronged yourself to write in such a case. What is done cannot be undone. May I not do what I will with mine own?

II.

Underline the **relative** *pronouns occurring in the following sentences and doubly underline their* **antecedents**:—He returned the pencil which I lent him. The boy that said so told an untruth. They have not always what they want. One man admires what displeases another. He who promises runs in debt. Those who are contented are happy. The first newspaper that was ever issued appeared at Venice. I know what you will say. He will reward whoever deserves it. I had a dream which was not all a dream. Fools who came to scoff remained to pray. The evil that men do lives after them. There is no fireside howsoe'er defended, but has one vacant chair. You are the person who is to blame.

III.

Distinguish between the **emphatic** *and* **reflexive** *uses of the compound personal pronouns in the following sentences:* — I shall go myself. He hurt himself. You yourself said so. They do not intend to trouble themselves. Diogenes lived by himself in a tub. Time itself shall be no more. The mountains themselves decay with years. I love to lose myself in other men's minds. The avaricious man makes himself rich. I blame myself for doing it. We should love ourselves last. The man himself knew it. He himself was the architect of his own fortune.

Pronouns are parsed substantially as nouns. It is necessary also to state the antecedent and to bear in mind the following rule of syntax: Pronouns take the gender and number of the nouns for which they stand.

The relative *what* should be parsed as the subject or object, as the case may be, of the verb in its own clause, that clause being the subject or object of the verb of the principal clause. The resolution of *what* into *that which* is seldom necessary in parsing.

IV.

Parse fully all the **nouns, adjectives** *and* **pronouns** *in the following sentences:* — It was a morning in August. Yonder is the fairest tapestry that ever I saw. He thrice had plucked a life from the dread sweep of the down-streaming seas. For 'tis the mind that makes the body rich. He usually divided his time into three equal portions. He was one who may with justice be ranked among the greatest generals any age has produced. As he expired he exclaimed, "I have done my duty; I thank God for it." They say the tongues of dying men enforce attention, like deep harmony. Glory is like a circle in the water which never ceases to enlarge itself. Oh, who can hold a fire in his hands by thinking on the frosty Caucasus. It is our countrymen who fly. Let us see what goes on at home. Who is to till the fields when they depart? One often finds it difficult to do one's duty. They throw themselves into a ring with the king in the midst. Rival factions made war on each other. What he meant was plain enough. This frail bark of ours when sorely tried, may wreck itself without the pilot's guilt. Is it so true that second thoughts are best? The soldiers whom he led were devotedly attached to him. What did he say? Who is the honest man? He covered up his face, and bowed himself a moment on his child. A whisper half revealed her to herself. But we loved with a love which was more than love.

Saxon and Norman and Dane are we
But all of us Danes in our welcome of thee.

1.

In the following sentences underline the **transitive** *verbs, doubly underline the* **intransitive**, *and trebly underline the verbs of* **incomplete predication**: — The man sold his property and went away. He was carrying a heavy burden when he fell. Buy that horse if you choose. I cannot dispose of my estate. They are still waiting, let us return. Did you find him on the street. The enemy retreated over the hill. While some forded the stream, others crossed in boats. Many believed that he had left the country. Claverhouse ordered one of his dragoons to fire. The sun rises at six o'clock. I came, I saw, I conquered. When a great man departs from us, what we desire to know about him is not so much what he did, but what he was. The town swarmed with beggars. I grow faint at every step. Miserable objects lay upon the causeway. We live in deeds, not years. John is always pleasant. He most lives who thinks most, feels the noblest, acts the best.

Methought I heard a voice cry, "Sleep no more; Macbeth doth murder sleep." They raised a great wall. He became weaker every day. It can embroider muslin and forge anchors, cut steel into ribbons, and impel loaded vessels. He appears to be a good man.

Fell sorrow's tooth doth never rankle more
Than when it bites, but lanceth not the sore.

II.

In the following sentences distinguish the verbs in the **active voice** *and those in the* **passive voice**; *and give the* **passive** *and* **active forms** *corresponding to each:* — The barons met at St. Edmondsbury. The man was heartily disliked. He understood the answer. At Christmas they presented their claims. A footstep was heard on the pavement. A child was was seen floating on the water The king fell to the ground. The boat was put back, and the prince held out his arms for his sister. The moonlight deceives you, my lady. Thus the great work was done. One hundred houses were burned to the ground, "England expects every man to do his duty" was answered with a cheer. The wounded were carried to the rear. But his arm a light hand presses, and he hears a low voice call. In the midst of his self-defence he was struck with apoplexy. The fleet was commanded by a daring chief called Hastings. Women of all ranks could spin thread, and weave or embroider cloth The tyrannous and bloody deed is done. I kiss thy hand but not in flattery, Cæsar. Thence through the garden I was drawn. One morning early this accident encountered me. They lighted a taper at the dead of night, and chanted their holiest hymn.

III.

In the following sentences underline the verbs in the **subjunctive mood**, *doubly underline those in the* **infinitive mood** *and trebly underline those in the* **imperative mood**: — If I were to tell you, you would scarcely believe it. Screw not the cord too sharply lest it snap. Come and see. Alas! that thou shouldest die; thou, who wert made so beautifully fair. Do not stop to think. Scatter the blossom under her feet Come to us, love us, and make us your own. Sing on sweet thrush, upon the leafless bough. See, thou do it not. Remember the Sabbath day to keep it holy. Touch not, taste not, handle not. He acts as if he were hungry. Had I the means I should like to travel. Strike till the last armed foe expires. Be wise to-day, 'tis madness to defer. Though they suffer, they do not complain. If it were not for hope the heart would break. To please you is our constant

endeavor. Except ye repent, ye shall all likewise perish. Dare you say so? Let us look at the picture. To die is to be banished from myself.

Let satire, then, her proper object know
And ere she strike, be sure she strike a foe.

IV.

Point out clearly and name the **participles** *and* **gerunds** *in the following sentences:* — He spent a week in revising his work. He stands leaning upon his staff. He is fond of writing letters. I saw a horse running away. They live by visiting and borrowing. Properly speaking, there is no such thing as chance. But looking deep, he saw the thorns which grow upon this rose of life. We cannot prevent his going. Oblige me by leaving the room. It looks like refining a violet. And when his courtiers came, they found him there, kneeling upon the floor, absorbed in silent prayer. Having spoken to the man, he departed. After having travelled so many miles, I am tired. They were desirous of being admired. Stunned by the blow, she fell to the ground.

V.

In the following list underline the **regular**, *doubly underline the* **irregular**, *and trebly underline the* **strong** *verbs:* — Move, pay, heave, blow, bend, kneel, fight, appear, dig, cut, dwell, go, give, throw, see, rid, put teach, sit, write, win, secure, love, rise, set, raise, sing, abide, weep, shout, ring, weave, suit, sow, lend, ride, part, thrust, fling, do, sail, slope, lay, lie, mark, feed, hurt, smooth, bereave, freeze, make, knock, pull, choose, speak.

VI.

Write out all the **simple forms** *of each of the following verbs:* — Smile, turn, beseech, sell, cost, mourn, mount, knit, wring, tread, toss, miss, gird, dream, swim, tear, look, think, sweep, laugh, hide, long, fly, pen, light, tune, read, flee, tend, hope, bleed, bind, ring, shrink, reap, thrive, stand, mend, mean, cling, burn, tame, steal, crow, spill, teach, tempt, seek, pour, roast, hear, bet, paint, track, spin.

In parsing a verb we state, (1) Whether it is transitive, intransitive or a verb of incomplete predication, and if transitive, whether of the active or passive voice; (2) Whether it is of the weak or strong conjugation, and if of the weak, whether it is regular or irregular; (3) Of what mood, tense, number, person. The student is now supposed to be familiar with the following principles of Syntax:

I. A finite verb agrees with its subject in number:

II. (1) When the subject of a finite verb is the first personal pronoun or a relative pronoun having the first personal pronoun as an antecedent, the verb is in the first person. (2) When the subject of a finite verb is the second personal pronoun or a relative pronoun having the second personal pronoun as an antecedent, the verb is in the second person.

In these cases the verb may be parsed as in the person *required by its subject*.

III. When the subject of a finite verb is a noun or pronoun (except as above) the verb is in the third person. In this case in parsing it is sufficient to state that the verb is in the third person.

IV. The infinitive mood may depend upon a verb an adjective or a noun.

V. The *participle* takes the construction of an adjective, and is to be parsed as limiting the meaning of the noun or pronoun to which it is attached. The *gerund* takes the construction of a noun in the singular number, and is to be parsed as the subject or object of a verb, or object of a proposition, according to its position in a sentence.

EXAMPLE OF PARSING VERBS.

Deeply grieved, I saw him depart after breaking the friendship of a lifetime.

Grieved: Past participle of verb grieve (transitive, weak, regular), limiting the meaning of pronoun I.

Saw: A transitive verb in the active voice, of the strong conjugation: principal parts, *see*, *saw*, *seen*: indicative mood, past indefinite tense, singular number, to agree with its subject I, and first person as required by that subject.

Depart: An intransitive verb; weak conjugation; regular, principal parts, *depart*, *departed*, *departed*: infinitive mood, present tense, depending upon the verb *saw*.

Breaking: Simple active gerund of verb break (transitive, strong, *break*, *broke*, *broken*), in the objective case governed by the preposition *after*.

VII.

Parse fully all the **nouns, pronouns, adjectives** and **verbs** (*including* **participles** and **gerunds**) *in the following sentences:*—His was one of those faces which require to be seen with the light of life. At home, and as a host, he was delightful. He ended by accepting and approving what he had commenced with persecuting. He was come now, he said, to the end of his journey. He looked a look that

threatened her insult. Law wills that each particular be known. Now tread we a measure, said young Lochinvar. Let me die the death of the righteous. Who is here so rude that would not be a Roman? I am about to return to town. I will not do it, come what may. I did it upon pain of losing my life. He lies lurking for you unawares. The question whether Pope was a poet has hardly yet been settled, and is hardly worth settling. Since then, and more than once, senates have rung with acclamation to the echo of his name. Hew down the bridge, Sir Consul, with all the speed ye may. It appeared to me like entering a city of giants, who, after a long conflict, were all destroyed, leaving the ruins of their various temples as the only proofs of their former existence.

Adverbs.

I.

Arrange the following **adverbs** *in two columns as* **simple** *and* **conjunctive**: — When, easily, now, where, very, soon, whence, how, wisely, seldom, why, otherwise, beautifully, almost, wherein, ill, perhaps, age, whither, sometimes, there, up, once, hence, therefore, as, so, probably, truly, secondly, least, indeed, daily, below, hither, possibly, nay, again.

II.

In the following sentences point out the adverbs and classify them according to their meaning: — They will soon be here. She writes remarkably well. He is not very rich. My son is twice as old as yours. Do not write so fast. It is all over now. It was a long time ago. I shall go there first. They were welcomed everywhere. I can scarcely tell you when I shall go. The man will certainly come. I find it difficult sometimes to get work. Why did you do so? It is much better to give than to receive. They loved not wisely. She has quite enough. I shall be there presently. Does that boy still write as badly as ever? He must needs die.

III.

Form adverbs from the following words: — True, merry, day, length, saucy, side, late, far, shore, home, cross, brave, up, for, pretty, joyful, upon, gay, like, sure, laughing, fore, free, back, down, amiable, ferocious, breast, otherwise, sweet.

IV.

Compare *the following adverbs*: — Early, soon, late, ill, merrily, much, sorely, far, nigh, frequently, soundly, little, honestly, well, seldom, sweetly, prudently.

Conjunctions.

I.

In the following sentences underline the **co-ordinate** *conjunctions and doubly underline the* **sub-ordinate:** — He will not come because he is not ready. You are idle but he is industrious. Time and tide wait for no man. He was of poor but honest parents She is older than I. They left ere I came. Before they could leave the ship went down. You must stay, for it rains. Love not sleep, lest thou came to poverty. Unless you attend to this business, I shall do so myself. The angel wrote and vanished. They have withered and died or fled with the spirit above. Though I have heard them many a time, they never rang so sweet before. Nothing that is plain, but may be witty, if thou hast the vein. He delayed his march until the snow came. Keep a clean hearth, and a clean fire for me, for I'll be back, my girl, before you know it.

II.

In the following sentences underline the **corrrelative** *conjunctions and doubly underline the* **phrase conjunctions:**—Both John and James were there. We came in order that you might go. You may do it provided that you do it well. Neither the one nor the other will suit I shall pay you as soon as I receive my money Either you or I must stay. Inasmuch as you have not done your work, I shall not pay you. Tell him to come provided that you see him. John was drowned as well as his brother

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Prepositions.

In the following sentences underline the **prepositions:** — He works in the field. This is for use. You must not go out on account of the storm. There is a pond behind the house. We looked through the window. They rode inside the coach. He departed from home. It is not sufficient for us. I want to purchase a load of hay. You may go instead of me. According to the latest report, she was still very ill. I am weary of work. That ship has sailed round the world. He is above me in the class. He ran away from us. She stayed within the house. Without me ye can do nothing. We could not come owing to the weather. He laughed at me. Notwithstanding this, they were good friends. That is beside the mark. He did it out of sheer kindness. In spite of you I will return. All save one were lost. Of Him, and through Him, and to Him, are all things. The boat came alongside the quay.

ANALYSIS.

The Simple Sentence.

I.

Distinguish the following sentences, as **declarative, interrogative, imperative, optative** *or* **exclamatory**:—

Wake not a sleeping lion Is it snowing? May a fair wind blow to-night! Shut the door. The rain is falling fast. Time flies swiftly. Is he an honest man? Go to the ant, thou sluggard. God save the Queen! How warm it is! Have you learned your lesson? Come, come away. May you be happy! The lightning flashes. How the storm rages! Be careful. Thy kingdom come! The fruit is not yet ripe. How busy you are! The grass is green Blow, blow, thou winter wind. Truth will prevail. Which one do you want? Send the boy away. How are the mighty fallen!

II.

In the following sentences distinguish between the **subject** *and* **predicate**:—

The pitcher was broken. Bees collect honey. Every house should have a garden. Our well is deep. Eagles generally go alone. The distant hills look blue. The child was very young. Columbus discovered America. Iron is a very useful metal. To err is human. How it came here is a mystery In spring the leaves come forth. Life's greatest blessing is to have a sound mind in a sound body. The treasures of the robbers were hidden in a cave Half the people in the world live at the expense of the other half. We saw the tremulous waves glistening in the sun

III.

In the following sentences distinguish between the **grammatical** *and* **logical** *subject and predicate*:—

Ten dollars fell to my share. The huge old oak is still standing by the roadside. My little brother ran away from school. The old gentleman resides near the city. The young governess talks with great vivacity. Becket's death caused great conster-

nation. Rolling stones gather no moss. William, Prince of Orange, ascended the throne of Great Britain. The stream, being full, could not be forded by the enemy. Brown, the hatter, died yesterday. Thirty ships of the line were sunk in the channel. The young man was wretchedly dressed. The whole caravan perished from thirst in the desert. Heaven from all creatures hides the book of fate. Despise not the poor. Gentleness overcomes many foes. The building was destroyed.

IV.

In the following sentences point out the **enlargements** *of the subject, stating of what each consists :—*

The English army marched through Calais. No Prime Minister has done so. The dawn of day is approaching. Whang, the miller, has been here. The Duke's library was destroyed by fire. Bruce, king of Scotland defeated the English. The captain's dog went mad. The love of money is the root of all evil. The boy, having broken the glass, ran away. The time to act has arrived. It is not always wise to be over-anxious. The Allan steamers sail from Montreal in the summer. My cousin John's little boy, having lost his balance, fell into the dock. Whose book is this? Havelock, the hero, is dead. Unaccustomed to restraint, he longed for liberty. Cæsar having conquered Gaul, crossed over to Britain. 'Tis only noble to be good.

V.

Distinguish the predicates in the following sentences as **simple** *or* **complex** *:—*

Birds fly. The wind was cold. The child appears fretful. The beautiful white snow is falling. The eagle is a bird of prey. The whole affair seemed trifling. Nova Scotia is a peninsula. The storm rages. The merchant has grown rich. He was called commander of the faithful. The dogs are barking. He intends to be a clergyman. I am not he. The children may play. He was not of sound mind. The child was named John. He is here. To labour is to worship. He became a man. The matter was deemed of importance. A new house will be built. John seems himself again. I am of opinion. The boat is waiting. Who is coming?

VI.

In the following sentences distinguish between the **object** *and* **objective complement** *:—*

We heard the thunder roll. The people made Napoleon first Consul. They condemned him to die. This news makes

me unhappy. The king commanded the waves to retire. They considered him a benefactor. The fire keeps the house warm. I'll call thee Hamlet, King, Father, Royal Dane. The boy saw him ride away. They chose him as their captain. We did term him dishonest. The general ordered his men to advance

VII.

In the following sentences distinguish between the **direct** *and* **indirect** *object:—*

A son owes honor to his parents. She has never sent her address to me. The teacher gave Charles a long lesson. I promised my son a new book. Who told you that story. I can never repay him his kindness. His father allowed him forty pounds a year. My kind father sent me a nice present. The banker offered him a sufficient sum. Who will lend me a knife? Why do you not offer him a situation? I can procure you a good servant. They brought him fruit in abundance. You can do me a great favour. I shall get you one. How can you refuse me such a paltry sum? I bought my daughter a gold watch. I ordered my son a suit of clothes.

VIII.

In the following sentences point out and classify in detail the **extensions** *of the predicate:—*

All the attendants moved about noiselessly. He killed the bird with a stone. This being granted the case falls to the ground. He goes to look after the matter. He came last night. Peace was concluded at Berlin. You have not acted wisely. We do not live to eat. He dug it with a spade. John sails for London in a few days. He speaks like a child. Bricks are made of clay. For all his wealth he was not happy. They walked two miles. Tea comes from China. I shall stay a week. They went along singing. We informed him by letter. He assisted the man from duty. Perhaps I should not go. I write twice a day. John will stay instead of you. The warehouse was burned to ashes. Of course I shall speak. I shall certainly remain in Paris one month to see the sights.

IX.

Analyze, *both* **generally** *and* **in detail,** *the following sentences:—*

I went there by boat long ago. Fear no more the heat of the sun. The wish was father to the thought. The boys came home last night. Annoyed at his tricks they dismissed him. A rich old relative has left him a large unencumbered estate in

England. No man ever beheld her without admiration. Bear hence this body. Still, I paced up and down. Harry Percy's spur was cold. Me damp horror chills. William's account of the affair alarmed us. On the top of of the hill stands a church. They shook the depths of the desert gloom with their hymns of lofty cheer. Considering his opportunities he has done well. Give me a glass of water. I told you that a week ago. The prisoner was declared guilty. She is in the kitchen. His parents called the child John. They invited us to enter. The boys were ordered to behave themselves. Have you ever known the man confess being in fault? Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight. To climb steep hills requires slow pace at first. Spring is but the child of churlish winter. From the centre all round to the sea, I am lord of the fowl and the brute. Graceful and artless she moved with propriety

Knowledge to their eyes her ample page,
Rich with the spoils of time, did ne'er unfold.

And for many a day old Tubal-cain.
Sat brooding o'er his woe:

Half a league onward,
All in the valley of death,
Rode the six hundred.

A band, the noblest band of all,
Through the rude Morgarten strait,
With blazoned streamers and lances tall,
Moved onwards in princely state.

The Complex Sentence.

X.

In the following sentences distinguish the **principal** *from the* **subordinate clauses:**—

You will find it when you get there. The man who found the money is here. Tell him I shall finish it. You cannot go if it storms. Do you know how old she is? The man who is prudent looks to the future. How he succeeded is a mystery to me. He that is down needs fear no fall. It is not true that he said so. Thrice is he armed that hath his quarrel just. I did not know that till you told me. Where thou dwellest, I will dwell. As the tree falls, so must it lie. Cold as it is I shall go out.

XI.

In the following sentences point out the **noun clauses** *and state their grammatical relation:—*

Men should be what they seem. I knew that he was not there. My reply was that I knew nothing about it. That they did so cannot be denied. The children said that the man fell from the scaffold. We are not certain that they will come. The house is comfortable in every respect except that it wants painting. Try how far you can run. The circumstance that he was present must not be disregarded. It is not true that he said so. He is confident that I shall succeed. He never knows when he should go. It is strange that you should think so. Nobody can tell why he left. How he will get off remains to be seen. I refuse to say who is my informer. I asked them if they were willing.

XII

In the following sentences point out the **adjective clauses** *and state their grammatical relation: —*

I know the persons who did it. The evil that men do lives after them. I am near to the place where they should meet. He is the freeman, whom the truth makes free. Return to the place whence you came. You may have the carriage such as it is. There is not a person in the country but has heard of it. Who steals my purse, steals trash. Can you tell me the reason why he left? Tell me the time when I may expect you. I met the clergyman on the street, who told me the whole circumstances. He had done that which could never be forgiven.

XIII.

In the following sentences point out the **adverbial clauses** *and classify them in detail:—*

Whither thou goest I will go. When I was young I thought of nothing else but pleasure. I shall go, if it is not too late. Since you say so, I must believe it. He talks as if he knew all about it. We admire the man because he is so honest. As soon as I discovered the mistake I hastened to rectify it. He lies where pearls lie deep. This one is as good as that. Though I warned them, they paid no attention. Love not sleep, lest thou come to poverty. The earlier you rise the better your health will be. Had we known this we should have acted differently. It is so dark that we cannot see. He came in before the moon rose. You may go wherever you choose. We study, in order that we may improve our minds. Unless you hurry you will miss the boat.

NOTES ON THE USES OF SOME COMMON WORDS.

Many of our common words have varied and almost perplexing uses, particularly as *connectives*. The following explanations and references may be found serviceable :—

1. A :—

(*a*). Limiting Adjective. 47.

(*b*). Preposition. 102, (note 4.)

2. As :—

(*a*). Adverb of *manner* and of *degree*. 144, (1), (2).

(*b*). Conjunctive adverb. 143 (2) : introduces adverbial clauses of *manner*. 223 (1) (2) (4) (5) : also introduces adverbial clauses of *time* in such an expression as "This occurred *as* I was entering." It may also be equivalent to a *relative pronoun*. 72 (1) : introduces *adjective* clauses. 216.

(*c*). Subordinating conjunction. 154 (1) : introduces adverbial clauses of *cause*. 224 (1).

As well as is a *co-ordinating* conjunction.

As appears and *as follows* are best treated as adverbial phrases.

3. But :—

(*a*). Co-ordinating Conjunction. 152 (4) : introduces antithetical co-ordinate clauses. 234.

(*b*). Preposition. 162. Often used to govern *noun* clauses (155, note 2) and the infinitive mood (264 [8]). (Such expressions as *but he* are wholly indefensible).

(*c*). Subordinating Conjunction. Generally equal to a relative pronoun with a negative. (72 (2). 154, Note 2 : introduces adjective clauses. 116. Also equal to *but that* or *that not* ; as 'I am not so tired *but* I can help you. (For principle involved see 154, note 2.)

(*d*). Adverb ; as, "I am *but* a shadow." This construction, in which *but* seems equal *only*, has resulted from the omission of a preceding negative, *but* being properly a preposition,—"I am (*nothing*) but a shadow." This principle explains the apparently equivalent expressions : "I *cannot* but comply" and "I *can* but comply."

4. IF :—

(*a*). Subordinating Conjunction: introduces adverbial clauses of condition. 224 (2).

Subordinating Conjunction: introduces *noun* clauses. 210.

5. NOR :—

(*a*). An alternative conjunction. 152 (3): introduces co-ordinate *alternative* clauses. 233.

(*b*). A copulative co-ordinate conjunction. introducing co ordinate copulative clauses, 232 (1).

6. THAT :—

(*a*). Demonstrative adjective. 46 (2).

(*b*). Demonstrative pronoun. 75 (1) (2) (3).

(*c*). Relative pronoun. 70 (4): introduces restrictive adjective clauses. 214 (1).

(*d*). A Conjunction, introducing noun clauses, 209 (1) (2).

(*e*). A Conjunction, introducing adverbial clauses of *manner*, 223 (3) and 224 (4).

7. WHAT :—

(*a*). An interrogative adjective, 46 (4).

(*b*). A relative pronoun, 70 (5).

(*c*). An interrogative pronoun. 73, 3.

(*d*). An indefinite pronoun. 77, note.

In addition to the above uses, *what* followed by a preposition (generally either *with* or *by*) is sometimes equivalent to the adverb "partly"; as, "*What* with drink and *what* with gambling, he has squandered his fortune."

8. WHO AND WHICH :—

(*a*). Introduce adjective clauses (explanatory) 214 (1).

(*b*). Introduce adjective clauses (restrictive) 214 (2).

(*c*). Introduce clauses *apparently adjective* but *really co-ordinate*. 214 (3). 231 (2).

(*d*). Introduce noun clauses. 210

(*e*). Introduce adverbial clauses. 222, note.

9. WHEN, WHENCE, WHERE :—

(*a*). Introduce adverbial clauses, 221, 222, 224, note.

(*b*). Introduce adjective clauses, 213 (2). See also 218.

(*c*). Introduce noun clauses, 210.

(*d*). Introduce co-ordinate clauses, 232 (2)

10. WHY :—

(*a*). Introduces adjective clauses, 213 (2).

(*b*). Introduces noun clauses, 210.

XIV.

Give both a general and detailed analysis of the following complex sentences:—

Take your lodgings at the Golden Fleece where you will find a guide to Strasburg. The stone is not in Switzerland, rocky as it is, that shall bear that inscription. Of every tree that in the garden grows, thou may'st freely eat His follies had reduced him to a situation where he had much to fear. When John opened the box he found nothing. Until you return I shall remain. Cromwell could put forth a commanding oratory, when he addressed his fellow Puritans. It was a past that never was present. We know that he who has so nobly maintained his country's honor may safely be intrusted with his own. There are occasions when the desired effects of style are gained by diffuseness. You remember what a sorrow it was that settled down upon our city. I have never yet esteemed a rich man happy who enjoys nothing of that which he possesses. There was no city there by which they could defend themselves. It is a messenger who comes, inviting man's ascent. Those things alone are to be feared whence evil may proceed. I know not how nature was yet to be subjugated by steam Raleigh is the best model of that ancient style, which some writers would affect to revive at present. "The thicker the hay the easier it is mowed" was the concise reply of the Barbarian. My answer is, that the whole was a deception. All hope abandon, ye who enter here. The Etruscan language presents a problem, which no philologist has been able to solve. Herodotus says "Minas was a great conqueror." What seems to us but sad funereal tapers, may be heaven's distant lamps. Goldsmith's praise of him—that he wound himself into his subject like a serpent—gives the reason why he sometimes failed as an orator, why he always succeeded as a writer The Spanish conquerors little thought that the descendants of the few cattle (which) they allowed to run wildly, would resume the original character of the species. The purveyors of the Prince, who exercised on this and other occasions the full authority of royalty, had swept the country of all that could be collected which was esteemed fit for their master's table. There could not, surely, be a more conclusive proof that the bank, which had enclosed them so long, could not have been created on the rock on which it rested.

Underneath this stone doth lie
As much beauty as could die,
Which in life did harbor give
To more virtue than doth live.

The Compound Sentence.

Analyze both generally and in detail the following **Compound Sentences :—**

They would neither go themselves nor would they allow others to go. James will return to-morrow, but he will not stay. He asked me to join him, but I had no time. The bridge was broken down, accordingly I could not proceed on my journey. The night was cold and the stars twinkled in the sky. They toil not, neither do they spin. Jane plays and sings well. He is not clever, but he is studious. This house is mine; the farm is also mine. The sun went down, nor ceased the carnage then. Either do your work properly, or leave the room. The day is very cold, for it is snowing. The stream was deep, yet clear. Wisdom is the principal thing; therefore get wisdom. The ploughman homeward plods his weary way, and leaves the world to darkness and to me. Go to the ant thou sluggard; consider her ways and be wise. He was not only prudent, but also industrious. There was nothing to be seen, and so we went on our way. He remains in the house, for he is not well. The sun gives light and heat. Not a drum was heard, not a funeral note. On the one side was a deep gorge, on the other a lofty mountain. We first walked slowly, then we quickened our pace, and then we began to run. She blushed, for she was ashamed. Everything seemed against him, still he persevered. At twenty years of age the will reigns; at thirty, the wit; and at forty, the judgment. And because he was of the same craft, he abode with them, and wrought; for by their occupation they were tent-makers. A kind of dread had hitherto kept me back; but I was restless now till I had accomplished my wish.

We are such stuff
As dreams are made on; and our little life
Is rounded with a sleep.

Men must work, and women must weep,
Though storms be sudden, and waters deep,
And the harbor bar be moaning.

Men's evil manners live in brass;
Their virtues we write in water.

The day is done and the darkness
Falls from the wings of night.

The broken soldier, kindly bid to stay,
Sat by his fire, and talked the night away;
Wept o'er his wounds or tales of sorrow done,
Shouldered his crutch and showed how fields were won.

Sentences for Correction.

Correct the following sentences:—

(The pupil should state the *principle violated*, whether included in a rule of *syntax*, or a law of *etymological form*.)

Those kind of apples do not suit me. The teacher and his pupil who is absent has returned. Neither precept nor example are so forcible as habit. Each of the sailors had their share. The "Idylls of the King" are considered Tennyson's masterpiece. It seems to be him. Him and her went together. There is none of my uncle's marks upon you. I took it to be he. She is older than me. I am a plain blunt man that love my friend. Two shillings and sixpence are half-a crown. This twenty years have I served you. Neither of the workmen had their tools with them. Him being on deck, we gave three cheers to the good ship. This measure gained the king as well as the people's approbation. The Bishop's of London charge was well received. They who he had most injured he had the greatest reason to love. James is the strongest of the two boys. It is more easier to build two houses than to maintain one. These sort of actions injure society. Are either of these men suitable for the position? The captain of the company was killed and the men they all fled. It is not fit for such as us to sit in that high place. Let thou and I the battle try. Charles or Thomas will give us their company. The childrens' shoes are worn out. Why do you not sell them horses? James is a boy which loves his work. That is the woman who I gave the book to. Who called the servant? Me. Was you away yesterday? There is as much real religion and morality in this country as in any other. He came agreeable to his promise. I cannot by no means admit it to be true. The success was very great of that enterprise. He is a better reader than a writer. He has not done nothing to-day. He that is diligent you should commend. Him that is industrious will be rich. It was Homer, him who wrote the Iliad. Me being present, they were embarrassed. Rhode Island is the smallest of the other States. That letter was wrote neat. Every one must judge of their own feelings. He is like a beast of prey, who is void of compassion. Thou can see how little have been done. The flock are his object. He, I must

punish; but she I will forgive. Would you accept the gift, if you were her. Life and death is in the power of the tongue He bids me to come. He has went in great haste. The ship, with all her crew, were lost. Strong proofs, not a loud voice, produces conviction. You may go with James and I. I would go if I was he.

Correct where necessary : —

It was the most perfect specimen I have ever seen. Great pains was taken to make it snitab'e. No one was to blame but me. Neither youth nor beauty are a security against death. I will be drowned, nobody shall help me. Who of all the men in the world do you think I saw. I love you more than them. It is they. The dropping of cumbrous words is a great gain. The crowd is turbulent. Let every one please themselves. Not to exasperate him, I only spoke a few words. We sorrow not as them that have no hope. *Ugh* have the sound of *f* in cough And many a holy text around she strews. It cannot be me you mean. There was only three of us to-day. Half a million people was killed by the earthquake. The great orator and statesman are no more. Did you see the boy and the horse which we are looking for? I think I will remain for a week. When will we all three meet again? Seven days has elapsed since your arrival. Are your compasses at hand? Physics is an important branch of science. Thomson's "Seasons" are seldom read. Two-thirds of the country was submerged. A man of candor and honesty are honored. Verse and prose run into one another like light and shade Less than twenty dollars are sufficient. Have you no other ball but this? The girl could neither read or write. The Book of Proverbs were written by Solomon. Here comes my friend and teacher. A flock of sheep is coming up the street. Bread and milk is my usual breakfast. There was racing and chasing on Canobie lea. The fleet was seen coming up the bay. When I consider how each of the profe-sions is crowded. Having arose, he left the room.— Cæsar as well as Cicero were eloquent. Neither the general nor his staff were taken. They or she was present. He or I goes to Boston shortly. The city that had so long battled the enemy, it was at last captured through treachery. The eaves of the house are fifteen feet from the ground. They poured out the water by pailsful. It is certainly the finest which I have ever seen. Nothing but grave and serious studies delights him. I am verily a man who am a Jew. The man whom you thought was honest turns out to be a rascal. Did you expect to have heard such a speech? I never have nor never will forget it. Am I the pupil who is to be punished?

Asa, his heart was perfect with the Lord. The speech you read was Macaulay the historian's. Death claims alike the prince and the peasant. Of two evils choose the least. The nightingales voice is the most sweetest in the grove. The thief which was taken yesterday refuses to give his name There was a row of trees on each side of the road. Either the young man or his guardians have acted imprudently. His worship and strength is in the clouds. There was now a large number of men standing near Him excepted all was lost. He is not the person as told me the story. The two first boys in the class. The thunder was heard to roll over our heads. Every thought and feeling are opposed to it. That is applied to persons as well as things. The logical and historical analysis of a language generally to some degree coincides. That is either a man or woman's voice. The air, earth and water teem with life. If he is attentive he will improve. Reason forbids us commit an injustice. The writing that book has cost me much work. The pupil wrote quickly the exercise. Grammar should teach us to speak properly. Though the measure is mysterious it is worthy of attention. The apples taste sweet. The temple was built by Solomon, the son of David, who has been called the wisest of men. The son his father sought. He went to town yesterday that he may attend the convention. Though he fall yet he will rise again. Oh! unfortunate me! what shall I do? Have you read that poem of Browning's? Much depends on John's accepting the position. Four times five are twenty. That poet and dramatist has left many mementoes of his greatness. By those means he succeeded. I purchased this trunk at Brown's the hatter. I did not say it was he. The crew expects to have their own way. I bought ten gross of buttons. Have you seen the Miss Smith's to-day? Do you use Kirkland's and Scott's Arithmetic? If it happen so I shall be as much pleased. I did not perceive them do it The water has bursted the hogshead.

MISCELLANEOUS EXERCISES IN PARSING.

The following *tabular* form of parsing may be conveniently used for written exercises :—

Word.	Class.	Sub-class.	Forms.	Relations.	Rule of Syntax.
I told	Pronoun. Verb.	First Personal. Transitive, of weak conj. irreg. —*tell, told, told*	Com. gend. sing. nom. Indicative mood, past tense, first person singular.	Subject of verb *told*. Agrees in number with subject *I*. In first person as required by subject.	The subject of a finite verb, &c. A finite verb agrees in number with its subject. The first pers. pron. takes its verb in first person.
him	Pronoun.	Third personal.	Masc. gend., sing. num. objective case.	*Indirect* object of verb *told*. (*Direct* object the following clause.)	*Tell* is a verb which takes second or indirect object.
that	Conj.	Subordinating.		Connects noun clause with principal sentence.	
he should	Pronoun. Verb.	Third personal. Defective.	Mas. gend., sing., nom. Indic. mood, past tense (with present meaning) third person singular.	Subject of verb *should*. Agrees in number with subject *he*.	The subject, &c. A finite verb, &c.
not think	Adverb. Verb.	Of negation. Intransitive weak conj. irr. —*think, thought, thought*.	Infinitive mood, present tense.	Limiting mean. verb *think*. Governed by the verb *should* (not auxiliary. See 140 and 140 (4)).	The infinitive mood may depend upon a verb.
of	Prep.			Indicating relation between *abandoning* and *think*.	
abandoning	Gerund.	Simple.	Active voice.	Object of preposition *of*.	Prepositions govern the objective case.
the undertaking.	Adj. Noun.	Limiting. Common.	Invariable. Neut. gen., sing. numb. objective case.	Limiting noun *undertaking*. Object of gerund *abandoning*.	Transitive verbs in the active voice with their participles and gerunds, &c.

The mother heard her children talking and sighed to think how vain were all their expectations. People will not look forward to posterity who never look backward to their ancestors. O, judgment, thou art fled to brutish beasts! He being dead we shall live. Man's inhumanity to man makes countless thousands mourn. If ye suffer for righteousness' sake, happy are ye. Love rules his kingdom without a sword. The Prime Minister promised him a situation. The President made him Consul. I shall ask him the question to-morrow. A good situation was offered me, but I declined it. The farm is worth all the money you gave for it. The star of military glory, rising like a meteor, like a meteor has set. You are too humane and considerate, things few people can be charged with. In matters of conscience, first thoughts are best, in matters of prudence the best thoughts are last. To do so, my lord duke, replied Morton, undauntedly, were to acknowledge ourselves the rebels you term us. Drink deep, or taste not the Pierian spring. The battle continued two days. The "Pleasures of Memory" is an admirable work. Charge, Chester, charge! on, Stanley, on! were the last words of Marmion Love your enemies. That great orator and statesman is entitled to our gratitude. The Committee has at length brought in a report. He sleeps the sleep that knows no waking. She walks a goddess, and she moves a queen. To tell you the truth, I was not present. Remember that to be humble is to be wise Let them laugh who win. Were he ten times the villian that he is, he would still find supporters. Let a double portion of his spirit rest upon me. Is either of these men worthy of public confidence? Few, few shall part where many meet. He seldom lives frugally, who lives by chance. It was the Roman that aimed at the conquest of the world. John or Thomas will give us his company. In his anger he struck himself. I do not care who knows it. I shall go myself. The bravest man that ever fought, might have trembled. I have heard what you said. Whose books have you? There are some who think differently. The reading of the report occupied half an hour. After defeating the enemy he marched on. I will either send it or bring it myself. I shall give such as I have. Having lost his health he was obliged to relinquish his studies. Whether he will do it or not is uncertain. He went a hunting yesterday. Mark but my fall, and that that ruined me. Such conduct becomes a man. What private grief they have, alas! I know not. Oh, what a tangled web we weave! Child of the sun, refulgent Summer comes. The boy will become a man.

> What! can'st thou not forbear me half an hour?
> Then get thee gone, and dig my grave thyself.

Such was that temple built by Solomon
Than whom none richer reigned o'er Israel.

Homeward weeping went Nikomis,
Sorrowing for her Hiawatha,
Fearing lest his strength should fail him
Lest his fasting should be fatal.—*Longfellow.*

Break, break, break, on thy cold gray stones, O sea,
And I would that my tongue could utter
The thoughts that arise in me.—*Tennyson.*

They dug his grave e'en where he lay
But every mark is gone.—*Scott.*

The hour is come, the cherished hour
When from the busy world set free
I seek, at length my lonely bower,
And muse in silent thought on thee.—*Hook.*

Who can paint
Like nature? Can imagination boast,
Amid its gay creation, hues like hers?

"Since I needs must say my say,
Since on board the duty's done,
And from Malo Road to Croisic Point what is it but a run?
Since 'tis ask and have, I may;
Since the others go ashore,—
Come! A good whole holiday!
Leave to go and see my wife, whom I call the Belle Aurore"
That he asked, and that he got,—nothing more.—*Browning.*

But where is he, the Pilgrim of my song?
Methinks he cometh late and tarries long.

Then if thou fallest, oh Cromwell,
Thou fallest a blessed martyr.—*Shakespeare.*

And now, farewell! 'Tis hard to give thee up,
With death so like a gentle slumber on thee:
And thy dark sin! Oh! I could drink the cup,
If from this woe its bitterness had won thee,
May God have called thee, like a wanderer, home,
My lost boy, Absalom!—*N. P. Willis.*

Back I turned,
Thou following cried'st aloud, "Return, fair Eve!
Whom fliest thou! Whom thou fliest of him thou art."—*Milton*

Would'st thou have that
Which thou esteem'st the ornament of life,
And live a coward in thine own esteem,
Letting "I dare not" wait upon "I would"
Like the poor Cat in the adage.—*Shakespeare.*

The stars shall fade away, the sun himself
Grow dim with age, and nature sink in years.

MISCELLANEOUS EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS.

(Parse italicized words.)

As they approached the coast, they saw it covered with a multitude of people, *whom* the novelty of the spectacle had drawn together, whose attitudes and gestures expressed wonder and astonishment at the strange objects, which presented *themselves* to *their* view.—*Robertson.*

When Dr. Johnson was asked by Mr. Boswell how he had attained to his extraordinary excellence in conversation, he replied, he had no other rule or system than *this;* that, whenever he had anything to *say,* he tried to say it in the best manner he was able.—*Gladstone.*

As the Palmer, lighted by a domestic *with* a torch, passed through the intricate combination of apartments of this large and irregular mansion, the cupbearer coming behind him whispered in his ear, that if he had no objection to a cup of good mead in his apartment, there were many domestics in that family who would gladly hear the news he had brought from the Holy Land, particularly *that* which concerned the Knight of Ivanhoe.—*Scott.*

When he received pieces of poetry which he thought *had* worth in them, he rewarded the writer.—*The Tatler.*

The poor boy at the village school has taken comfort as he has read that the time *was* when Daniel Webster, whose father told him he should go to College if he had to sell every acre of his farm to pay the expenses, laid his head on the shoulder of that fond and discerning parent, and wept the *thanks* he could not speak.—*Everett.*

I remember, Sir, that when the treaty was concluded between France and England at the peace of Amiens, a stern old Englishman and an orator, who disliked the terms of the peace *as* ignominious to England, said in the House of Commons, that if King William *could know* the terms of the treaty, he would turn in his coffin.—*Webster.*

Those legal checks which, while the sovereign remained dependent on his subjects, had been adequate to the purpose for which they were designed, were now found *wanting.*—*Macaulay.*

He that does not feel the force of agreeable views and situations in his own mind, will hardly arrive at the satisfactions they bring from the reflections of *others.*—*The Tatler.*

Perhaps the thing of all others that struck an observer most when he came *to see* the prince *nearly*, was the originality of his mind.—*Helps.*

The high idea of his own authority, which he had imbibed, made him incapable of *giving* way to the spirit of liberty which began to prevail among his subjects.—*Hume.*

The Moslem Empire in Spain was *but* a brilliant exotic, that took no permanent root in the soil it embellished.—*W. Irving.*

A wise patriot who understands the wants of his time, will throw himself into the scale, which most needs the weight of his influence.—*Hillard.*

The effect of this disinclination on the part of the public towards the artificers of their pleasures, when they attempt to enlarge their means of *amusing*, may be seen in the censures usually passed by vulgar criticism upon actors or artists who venture to change the character of their efforts, that, in so *doing*, they may enlarge the scale of their art.—*Scott.*

Wherever a poor and rude nation, in which the form of government is a limited monarchy, receives a great accession of wealth and knowledge, it is in immediate danger of falling under arbitrary power.—*Macaulay.*

The tender Ovid, after a youth spent in the enjoyment of fame and luxury, was condemned to a hopeless exile on the frozen banks of the Danube, where he was exposed, almost without defence, to the fury of these monsters of the desert, with whose stern spirits he feared that his gentle shade might hereafter be confounded.—*Gibbon.*

At midnight, in his guarded tent,
The Turk *sat dreaming* of the hour
When Greece, her knee in suppliance bent,
Should tremble at his power.—*Halleck.*

If e'er my son
Follow the war, tell him it is a school,
Where all the principles tending to honor
Are taught, if truly followed.—*Massinger.*

That he is mad, 'tis true; 'tis true, 'tis pity;
And pity 'tis, 'tis true.—*Shakespeare.*

Not enjoyment, and not sorrow,
Is our destined end or way;
But *to act*, that each *to-morrow*
Finds us further than *to-day.*—*Longfellow.*

I venerate the man whose heart is warm,
Whose hands are pure, whose doctrine and whose life,
Co-incident, exhibit lucid proof
That he is honest in the sacred cause.—*Cowper.*

Faintly as tolls the evening chime,
Our voices keep tune, and our oars keep time.—*Moore.*

On the other side uprose
Belial, in act more graceful and humane:
A fairer *person lost* not *Heaven*; he seemed
For dignity *composed* and high *exploit*;
But all was false and hollow; though his tongue
Dropped manna, and could make the worse appear
The better reason, to perplex and dash
Maturest counsels; for his thoughts were low;
To vice industrious, but to nobler deeds
Tim'rous and slothful; yet he pleased the ear,
And with persuasive accent thus began.—*Milton.*

Once upon a midnight dreary, while I pondered, weak and weary,
Over many a quaint and curious volume of forgotten lore—
While I nodded nearly *napping*, suddenly there came a tapping,
As of some one gently rapping, rapping at my chamber door
—*Poe.*

APPENDIX.

HISTORICAL SKETCH OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

PRELIMINARY.—By a careful investigation of their relations and affinities, the different languages of mankind have been classified by the modern science of comparative philology into a few leading families or groups. Of these the most comprehensive and important is that variously known as the Aryan, Indo-Germanic, or Indo-European. The primitive tongue from which the various branches of this remarkable family of languages have sprung, was spoken by a race whose native seat seems to have been the central table-lands of Asia, but whose descendants at the dawn of history were found having a wide geographical diffusion from India westward to the Atlantic ocean. For evidence in detail that such a race and such a language once existed, students must be referred to treatises on comparative philology. "It is clear that, when two or more languages employ the same words to express the most familiar objects and most simple ideas,—when they possess the same numerals, the same pronouns, the same prepositions, and the same system of grammatical inflection,—these languages were originally one and the same, or derived from some common parent. However far removed from one another the nations may be which now speak them, however different may be their forms of religion, it may be asserted, without the possibility of doubt, that they were at some remote period one people, possessing a common language and a common civilization. A few years ago it would have been deemed the height of absurdity to imagine that the English and the Hindus were originally one people speaking the same language, and clearly distinguished from other families of mankind; and yet comparative

philology has established this fact by evidence as clear and irresistible as that the earth revolves around the sun." (Marsh's *Lectures on the English Language*).

Classification of the Indo-European Languages. —The purpose of this sketch does not require an exhaustive classification of the Indo-European languages. The main divisions, which, it must be borne in mind, are "branches of one common trunk, not off-shoots, the one from the other" are:—

1. *The Indian.* The true representative of this branch is the Sanscrit, which ceased to be a living language as early as the third century before Christ. The Hindustani and some other dialects of modern India stand in the same relation of descent to Sanscrit as Italian and Spanish to Latin.

2. *Iranian or Medo-Persic.* Here belong the ancient Zend; the language of the cuneiform inscriptions of Cyrus, Darius and Xerxes; and modern Persian.

3. The *Greek*, including the various classical dialects, and the *Romaic* or modern Greek.

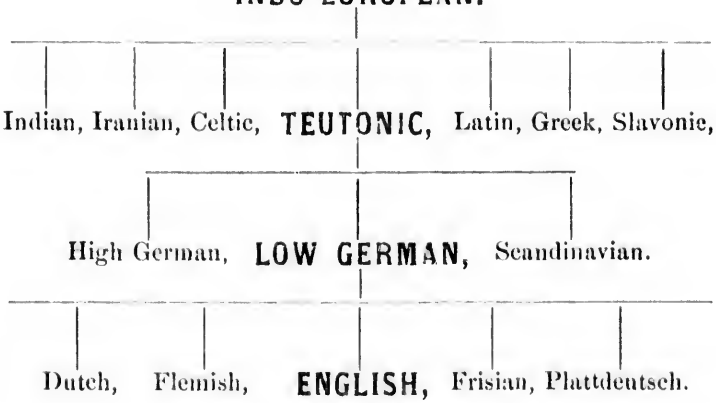
4. *The Latin.* The modern descendants of ancient Latin are called the *Romance* languages. Of these the chief are French, Italian, Spanish and Portugese

5. *The Celtic.* Of this branch there are two quite distinct varieties, the Gælic and the Cymric. The former includes the Gælic proper of the Scotch Highlands, the Erse or native Irish, and the Manx of the Isle of Man; the latter, the Welsh, the Cornish (now extinct) and the Armorican of the French Province of Brittany.

6 The *Slavonic*, represented by the Polish, the Bohemian, and the Russian.

7. *The Teutonic.* This important branch includes: (1.) The High German, spoken in Upper or Southern Germany; (2.) the Low German, spoken in the Low Countries or Netherlands, and in Northern Germany; and, (3) the Scandinavian, comprising the various dialects of Sweden, Norway, Denmark and Iceland.

THE ENGLISH A TEUTONIC LANGUAGE.—The English, which, in a wide historical sense, is the language spoken by the English people from their first settlement in Britain to the present day, belongs to the Low German division of the Teutonic branch of the Indo-European family. At the present time the continental dialect most closely resembling English is Frisian, spoken in the province of West Friesland, and in some of the islands off the coast of Schleswig. The following diagram shows the position of English in the grand Indo-European group:



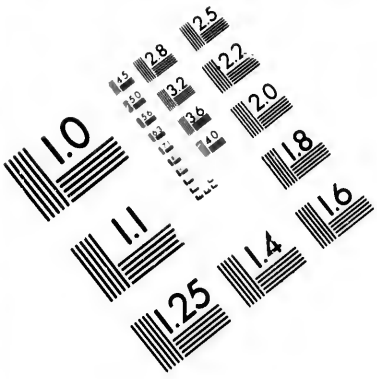
CIRCUMSTANCES OF ITS INTRODUCTION INTO BRITAIN.—When the Romans invaded Britain, they found it occupied by a Celtic population, most of whose original dialects are still preserved,—Gælic in the Highlands of Scotland, Manx in the Isle of Man, and Welsh in the Principality of Wales. During the four centuries of Roman occupation (43–409 A. D.), the great mass of aboriginal inhabitants continued to speak Celtic, though Latin seems to have been understood by considerable numbers of the common people in the vicinity of the chief Roman settlements. It is needless to discuss whether a longer possession of

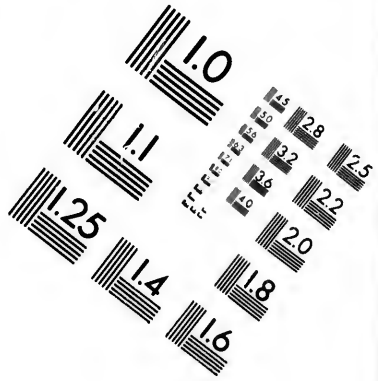
the island would probably have issued in another Romance or Neo-Latin tongue, similar to the languages to which Roman conquest and colonization gave birth in Spain and France. As a matter of fact, the conquerors withdrew without having appreciably modified the language of the subject race, one of whose chief characteristics has been the tenacity with which it has clung to its native idioms under circumstances of the greatest difficulty. The Teutonic conquest of Britain, begun in the 5th and completed in the 6th century, led to important historical consequences. Whether or not A. D. 449 was the exact date at which the German tribes first appeared in Britain, whether the traditional Hengist and Horsa were myths or real personages, it is certain that the departure of the Romans was soon followed by the arrival of successive bands of invaders from the eastern shore of the North Sea. The principal part of the island was soon subjugated, and in this case subjugation meant the virtual extirpation of the native inhabitants from the regions subdued. Fragments, however, of the primitive people found shelter in the mountain fastnesses of the West and North, and have there perpetuated unto this day their race and language. The conquering tribes soon became fused in one as THE ENGLISH PEOPLE, and their language has secured the widest geographical extension of any tongue ever spoken by man.*

* "English may be heard all over the world from the lips of a larger number of persons than any other form of speech; it is rapidly becoming the language of trade and commerce, the unifying elements of our modern life. Science, too, is beginning to claim her for its own, and it is not long ago that a Swedish and Danish writer on scientific subjects each chose to speak in English rather than in their own idioms for the sake of gaining a wider audience. Little by little the old dialects and languages of the earth are disappearing with increased means of communication, and let us add also the spread of the English race, and that language has most chance of superseding them which, like our own, has discarded the cumbrous machinery of inflectional grammar. The great Grimm once advised his countrymen to give up their own tongue in favor of English, and a time may yet come when they will follow the advice of the founder of scientific German philology."—Professor Sayce, of Oxford.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH.—In the wide sense in which the English language is now generally taken, it presents itself in three periods or stages of development, which may be distinguished as *old*, *middle*, and *new* or *modern* English. Before we proceed to consider these separately, it is proper to observe that it is only an *historical* view of the subject, which will justify us in considering the language spoken by our Teutonic forefathers and Modern English as identical. It has been well said that "Old English, or Anglo-Saxon, and Modern English are for all *practical* ends, distinct languages,—as much so for example, as Latin and Spanish. No amount of familiarity with Modern English, including its local dialects would enable the student to read Anglo-Saxon, three-fourths of the vocabulary of which have perished and been reconstructed within 800 years; nor would a knowledge of these lost words give him the power, since the grammatical system in accidence and syntax would be entirely strange to him." Yet it can be clearly shown that all the changes which have taken place have not affected the essential identity of the language; that those changes are but the modifications necessarily incident to a living speech; that while Modern English has lost most of the inflections and much of the vocabulary of the language in its earliest stage, and while it has borrowed in all directions to make good these losses it is still in its substantive characteristics a Teutonic, language, evolved by natural and easily traceable processes of growth from that spoken by the tribes which conquered England.

OLD ENGLISH OR ANGLO-SAXON.—The German invaders of Britain belonged to different, though closely related tribes, and probably spoke different dialects of a common Low German speech. As the earliest extant specimens of old English date nearly 300 years after the original invasion, it is impossible to





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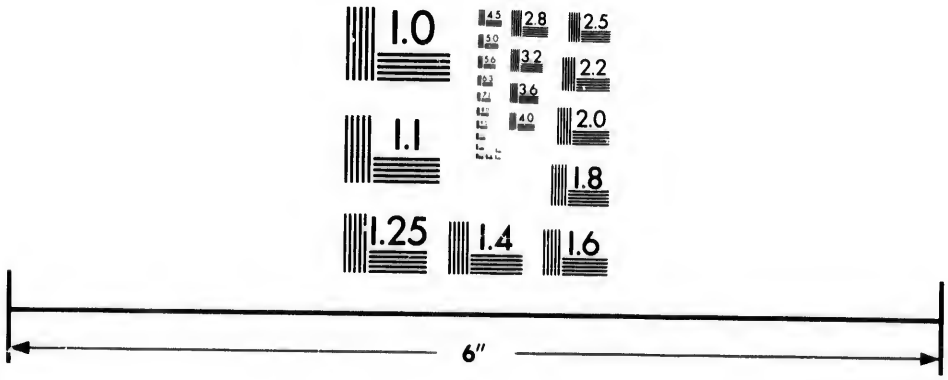

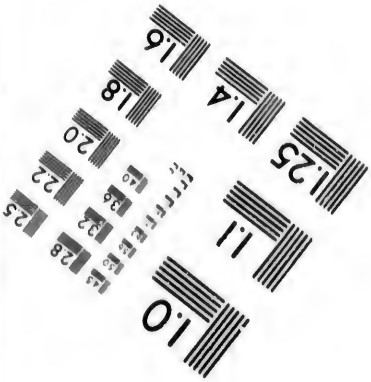

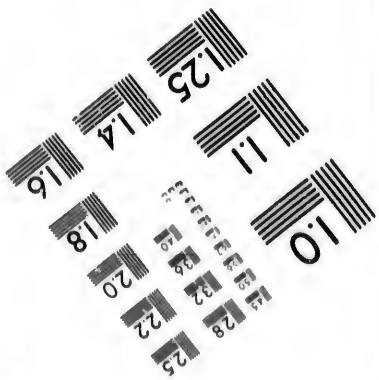

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trace the differences existing among the dialects as first introduced. There is reason, however, to assume that distinctions afterwards found to exist in various parts of the island were due to original differences, and also for believing that the Angles who settled the Northern and Eastern part of the island as far as the Scottish Highlands, spoke a dialect more akin to the Frisian branch of Low German than that spoken by the Saxons, who conquered and colonized the West and South. Probably in the earlier, as we know for a fact in historical times, these dialectal differences were not very marked. As in course of time, but certainly several centuries before the Norman Conquest, the whole people without tribal distinction, became known as *Englishmen*, so their vernacular tongue, as distinguished from Celtic on the one hand, and Latin on the other, became known as the *English* language. Indeed the fact that literature began to flourish first among the Angles of Northumbria—though its career there was abruptly terminated by the Danish invasion—enabled that powerful tribe to impress its name upon the common language of the island, some time before they secured for it an equal prevalence as applied to the entire people. In illustration of this, the case of King Alfred may be referred to, who, while careful to call himself "King of the West Saxons," and to appeal to the dignity of "Saxon" institutions, still called the language in which he wrote, and in which he founded a new literature, *English*.

The period of Old English may be said to have ended with the 11th century *i. e.* "with the death of the generation who saw the Norman Conquest." So far as we know, the language was never called *Anglo-Saxon* by those who spoke and wrote it. A few passages of old English literature have been preserved, in which that term is used, but in no case as a designation of the language of the people. Indeed it is by

no means certain that it denoted a *junction* or *union* of the two tribes. It seems rather to have been used to distinguish the Saxons in Britain, living among the Angles, from the Saxons in their original seat on the continent. As applied to language, the term "Anglo-Saxon" was first employed by modern philologists. While its use has tended to obscure the fact that Modern English has been derived by a regular process of development from Old English—that in fact, they are essentially one language—it is very convenient when we deal,—as we now propose briefly to do—not so much with their resemblances and identities, as with their special points of differentiation.

Literary remains in Anglo-Saxon.—The earliest specimens of old English or Anglo Saxon composition are some fragments, chiefly poetic, written in the Anglian or Northumbrian dialect, which until the disruptive influence of the Danish invasion was felt, took the lead as the medium of literature. It is, however, to the inspiration given to learning in the 9th century by Alfred, King of the West Saxons, that we are indebted for the chief literary remains of Saxon England. In fact our knowledge of classical Anglo-Saxon is largely derived from works written and handed down to us by that distinguished monarch himself. These are chiefly translations from Latin into Anglo-Saxon, and include the following: Bede's *Ecclesiastical History*; The *Universal History* of Orosius; Gregory's *Pastoral Care*; and the *Consolation of Philosophy* of Bœthius. Other Anglo-Saxon remains of importance are the epic poem of Beowulf; the poems of Cynewulf; the celebrated Anglo-Saxon *Chronicle*, and the poetic paraphrase of Genesis and other parts of the Pentateuch, somewhat doubtfully ascribed to a primitive bard, Caedmon. The *Saxon Chronicle* was a compilation carried on through centuries. What may be called a first edition was pre-

pared by an Archbishop of Canterbury, by whom the work was brought down to 891 A. D. Monks in various parts of England carried on the undertaking with great care and zeal until 1154 A. D. when its cessation marked an important turning-point in the history of the English language. It is justly regarded as the most valuable literary legacy bequeathed us by our Teutonic ancestors.

Characteristics of Anglo-Saxon.—1. Old English or Anglo-Saxon was a remarkably *homogeneous* language. Its words with scarcely an exception belonged to its own native stock. It contained a few Latin roots incorporated, during the German wars, in the generic Teutonic tongue, and which, therefore, Anglo-Saxon possessed in common with various continental dialects; also a few others naturally introduced as incidental to the gradual adoption of Christianity. The Danish invasion and settlement no doubt produced important results on the conversational idioms of certain localities, but made no marked impression on the language of literature. The Danes in England do not seem to have put forth any special effort to extend, or even *preserve*, their native tongue. As in Normandy, they easily gave it up for a more cultivated language. English was the official speech even when Danish Kings sat on the throne.

2. As a homogeneous language, it possessed an almost unlimited power of self-development. It freely formed its compounds and derivatives from its own resources. Modern English has lost this power of independent evolution, and when a new term is needed, is obliged to have recourse to foreign roots. For our "Remorse of Conscience" Old English had the "Againbite of Inwit"

3. Anglo-Saxon was an *inflectional* language, that is, its words were subject to numerous *changes of form.*

The following may be mentioned as grammatical peculiarities distinguishing it from modern English :—

(1.) Gender was marked by special terminations, and not regulated as in modern English by the simple principle of sex. It extended to adjectives and participles, as well as nouns.

(2.) Nouns were declined in various ways, and had five cases (nominative, genitive, dative, accusative, and ablative or instrumental), each case having its special ending or endings.

(3.) Pronouns had a *dual* number.

(4.) The infinitive mood ended in *-an;* the infinitive of purpose (dative) in *-anne* or *-enne*. The latter only was preceded by *to*.

(5.) Participles were declined like adjectives. The present participle ended in *-ende;* the passive participle was preceded by the prefix *ge-*

(6.) *Personal* terminations played a much more important part in the conjugation of verbs than in modern English *Shall* and *will* had not assumed a proper auxiliary use in denoting simple futurity.

(7.) Prepositions were followed by various cases.

Old English the True Parent of Modern English.—Though Modern English is the most heterogeneous of languages, though it has lost all power of development from within, though it is nearly bare of inflection, it is still, both historically and actually, the lineal descendant and representative of the tongue which we have just described. All its peculiarities of structure and idiom are Anglo-Saxon. Whatever of infle[illegible]on it has left, its pronouns, conjunctions and prepositions, four-fifths of the words which are in most frequent and familiar use, are Anglo-Saxon. "From the same copious fountain have sprung words designating the greater number of objects of sense—terms which occur most frequently in discourse, and which recall the most vivid conceptions: *sun*, *moon*, *earth*, *fire*, *day*, *night;* words expressive of the dearest connections, the strongest and most powerful feelings of nature, from our earliest days: *mother*, *father*, *sister*, *brother*, *wife*, *home*, *heaven;* parts of the body: *eye*, *ear*, *nose*, *tooth*, *hand*, *foot;* the language of business, *buying*, *selling*, *cheap*, *trade:* of the shop, market, and everyday life: *bread*, *milk*, *head*, *knife*, *house*, *yard;*

our proverbs: *All is not gold that glitters; A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush;* our language of humor, satire, and colloquial pleasantry, the most energetic words we can employ, whether of kindness or invective—in fine words expressive of our strongest emotions and activities in all the most stirring scenes of life, from the cradle to the grave, are Anglo-Saxon." Or as another writer* expresses it, "the names of the elements and their changes, of the seasons, the heavenly bodies, the divisions of time, the features of natural scenery, the organs of the body, the modes of bodily actions and posture, the commonest animals, the words used in earliest childhood, the ordinary terms of traffic, the constituent words in proverbs, the designation of kindred, the simpler emotions of the mind, terms of pleasantry, satire, contempt, indignation, invective and anger, are for the most part unborrowed."

Middle English.—The period of Middle English extends from the beginning of the 12th to the beginning of the 16th century. Some would fix the precise beginning of the period at 1154 A. D., the date of the concluding part of the Saxon Chronicle, which is the latest surviving monument of the old language. But we know that the causes which led to the transformation of Anglo-Saxon had then been nearly a century in operation, and it is almost certain that the compiler in order to harmonize the entire series of Chronicles purposely wrote in the dialect of a past age.

The Norman Conquest and its social and political consequences had an important, but perhaps generally overrated, influence on the language of the English people. "The Conquest established in England a foreign court, a foreign aristocracy, and a foreign hierarchy." In all the circles represented by these powerful classes the Norman dialect of the French

*Professor Rogers in *Edinburgh Review.*

language was exclusively used. It is a mistake to suppose that Anglo-Saxon was formally proscribed or forcibly suppressed. Its degradation was the inevitable result of a political and social revolution. It was not used in the courts, in ecclesiastical assembles, in national councils, in the mansions of the nobility and gentry, in schools; for in none of these were Anglo-Saxons found. But the great mass of the people, humiliated and oppressed as they were, did not unlearn their native tongue and adopt that of their conquerors. For many years after the Conquest but few French words found their way into the language of the common people, and these were strictly limited to terms whose use was made necessary by the intercourse of a subject with a superior race.

In less than a century after the Conquest, Old English, confined to generation after generation of boors and ploughmen, ceased to be a literary language. Its *root* words, those as necessary for human intercourse in an illiterate as in a cultivated state of society, lived on as vigorously as ever; they still constitute the backbone of the English language: but the great mass of terms denoting advanced thought and culture, terms which had been previously employed in art, theology, poetry and general literature, became lost forever. Thus the first marked effect of the Norman Conquest and connected events on the English language was an enormous shrinkage of its vocabulary. Ceasing to be read and written, it lost its specific literary elements. It is important to observe that the large number of Norman French words now in our language, and whose introduction was one of the features differentiating Middle English from Anglo-Saxon, did not come in under the pressure of the Conquest, but at a much later period as the result of a revival of English literature. Its own poetic and rhetorical terms being irrevocably gone, English, on resuming the functions of a literary language, was forced to repair the loss by an appeal to

the rival tongue. Commoner words—the names of familiar, beloved and revered objects, pronouns, particles, the most important verbs—the illiterate people, in their subjugation and serfdom, had treasured up beyond the possibility of loss.

That, however, which completely distinguishes *Middle* from *Old* English, refers not to the *vocabulary*, but to the *grammar* of the language. Prior to any extensive influx of French terms, when, as the language of the peasantry, English was altogether devoid of literary aims and character, it had begun to lose that elaborate system of grammatical inflections which we have seen marked its earlier stages. In this, English simply shared in a tendency common to all the Low German tongues.* But the process of grammatical simplification in English was greatly accelerated by causes which did not operate on the continent. The first of these was the impossibility of preserving nice terminational changes and distinctions when the language, having lost all written standards, was spoken wholly by uneducated people. Philologists have called attention to a tendency observable in the uncultivated classes of all nations to blend widely differing terminational sounds in an indistinctly neutral one. The second cause, though operating most powerfully at a somewhat later period than that just mentioned is thus lucidly explained by Grimm :—

"When the English language was inundated by a vast influx of French words, few, if any, French *forms* were received into the grammar; but the Saxon forms soon dropt away, because they did not suit the new sorts; and the genius of the language, from having to deal with the newly imported words

* "Had there been no Norman invasion, English would have arrived at the same simplification of its grammar as nearly every other nation of the Low German stock has done."—Morris, *Historical Outlines of English Accidence.*

in a rude state, was induced to neglect the inflections of the native one. This, for instance, led to the introduction of *s* as the universal termination of all plural nouns."

In the history of Middle English, though much irregularity and confusion prevails, successive stages of development may be traced with some degree of distinctness

1. *The Transition Period* 1100-1250 A. D.—This, as we have seen, was a period of literary stagnation. Of the scanty remains of a scanty literature, probably the most important is the *Ormulum* (1200 A. D.), a poetic version of parts of the gospels and of the church service. There we see the Anglo-Saxon inflections in a large measure retained, but evidently in a state of incipient decay. Among changes in the direction of greater simplicity of form may be mentioned the following :—

(1.) The gender of nouns has become practically the same as in modern English.
(2.) Adjectives begin to drop the endings denoting case and number.
(3.) *es* has become the regular sign of the plural number and genitive (possessive) case.
(4.) *n* in the termination of the infinitive mood is frequently dropped and *to* is sometimes used before the ordinary infinitive.
(5.) *Shall* and *will* come into use as auxiliaries.
(6.) The past participle drops its prefix.

The words used throughout this period are almost without exception pure English.

2. *The Early Period*, 1250-1350 A. D.—The few important relics of this period, such as the *Proclamation* of King Henry III (1250 A. D.), and the rhymed *Chronicle* of Robert of Gloucester (1300 A. D.) indicate that the decay of original inflections had gone on with amazing rapidity. Many different endings are reduced by a curious process of "phonetic decay" to *-e*. This termination soon became silent, and was gradually dropped. It remains, however,

after certain letters as a general verbal ending. A tendency to bring in French words to supply deficiencies in the reduced English vocabulary begins to show itself.

3. *The Period of Full Development.*—The most marked feature of this period, into which great changes are crowded, was an enormous influx of words taken from the French. Many of these importations, brought in to meet a temporary necessity, did not take permanent root in our language. Still, enough remain to form a very important element of Modern English, and to make our language particularly rich in such synonyms, as, *answer, respond; hinder, prevent; brave, valiant,* &c. This extensive introduction of French words did not result from accident, nor from the special tastes of particular authors. We have seen that the language had been denuded by an irresistible process of many of the terms tending to fit it for a literary medium. But it no longer lay under a ban. The Teutonic element of the nation had triumphantly asserted its ascendancy. The nobility and gentry had at length recognized and accepted English as the national tongue. What could be more natural than that these cultivated classes, among which literature would chiefly circulate, should seek to supply from familiar sources the deficiencies of their newly acquired language? Nor was the introduction of French words confined to the language of *literature.* In the changed life of this new era, social barriers which had stood for ages were broken down; there was a freer intercourse among the various grades of society, and the language of the common people became enriched with many terms which the ruling classes imported from the tongue which they had so long spoken. But this process of incorporation must not be misunderstood. The French words, most of them really of Latin origin, which became a permanent part of our language, did

not come in as *French* words. They were made *English* words by the very act of admission, and "were at once subjected to all the duties and liabilities of English words in the same position." The facility for adopting words from another language thus developed, undoubtedly prepared the way for that extensive appropriation of Latin and Greek roots which marks the career of Modern English.

The chief writings of this period are the *Vision of Piers Ploughman*, a satirical allegory, the *Canterbury Tales* of Chaucer, a genuine English classic, Sir John Mandeville's *Itinerary* or Travels, famous as the first work in English prose, and Wyckliffe's well-known translations of the Bible. The art of printing gave such an impulse to literary activity that it may almost be said that the establishment of Caxton's press in England towards the end of the 15th century completed the development of Middle English. Two obstacles in the way of linguistic progress may be named, to the removal, or at least the *lessening* of which, the press powerfully contributed. One of these was the capricious and chaotic orthography natural to a period in which language was being reconstructed. The other was the number of different dialects which long divided the people and rendered unity and concentration of literary effort impossible. Aided by the printing press, the genius of Chaucer and Wyckliffe made that was called the *Midland* dialect the language of English literature. Other dialects, however, have been locally preserved in various parts of Britain even to this day. The great Northern dialect which for a time rivalled the Midland is the only one of these attaining to any literary celebrity, or which indeed can be said to have had a literature. It is that dialect, which, as localized in Scotland, enshrines the productions of Allan Ramsay and Robert Burns.

Modern English.—Modern English may be said to date from the beginning of the 16th century. The changes which have since taken place have been changes of growth and development, changes of vocabulary and orthography, and have not affected the structural character of the language. English was practically as bare of inflection 400 years ago as it is to-day. With the exception of *th* as the ending of the third person singular of verbs, not an old Anglo-Saxon form is obsolete now, which was not obsolete then. It is true that the great writers of the 16th century use many words which are now unknown, as well as modes of construction and arrangement by which their writings are easily recognized as belonging to a past epoch; yet no modern scholar can feel that there is any *radical* distinction between the English of Ben Jonson and Shakespeare, and the English which he writes and speaks himself.

The first century and a half of the Modern English period was marked by an immense accession of words of classical origin. In the previous importation of Norman French terms, which were in reality almost always Latin roots slightly disguised, our language had established for itself principles of adaptation which could be applied indefinitely, and which are still used with great activity to accomodate it to the ceaseless progress of art and science. Under the influence of the Renaissance in art and literature, of the revival of classical studies, and the newly developed spirit of scientific investigation, English at the period under review, enormously increased its vocabulary by drawing directly from the Latin. This recourse to foreign aid was necessary; for, as we shall see, our language possesses but little facility for forming words directly from its own resources. Still many writers allowed the new tendency to carry them too far. If, as the net result, the language was enriched, it was also

called upon to suffer some serious losses; for not a few useful and noble Saxon words were needlessly sacrificed to the desire for more ornamental terms. Fortunately, many of the newly imported words and phrases did not secure general acceptance and died with their inventors.

General View of Modern English.—Modern English is weak in formative elements. As a rule, new words can be formed in English only by deriving, so to say, *the raw material* from foreign sources Its own existing stock of words does not yield itself up freely for this use. One serious disadvantage in connection with this constant bringing in of foreign roots is apparent. In ancient Greek or modern German, each new compound, being of *native* manufacture, would need no explanation, its elements being already familiar and understood. In English the great bulk of newly formed compounds are to all, save classical scholars, entirely unsuggestive.

Is it a *composite* language? If this question refers to the *origin* of the words composing the English vocabulary, we must answer it in the affirmative. In that sense ours is the *most* composite of languages. It has words in common use whose roots embrace almost the entire circle of ancient and modern tongues. While, as we have seen, it has little native spontaneity of *production*, it has a plastic power of *adaptation* to which nothing comes amiss. We have already referred to its wholesale appropriation from French and Latin. It constantly appeals to the ductile Greek for aid in keeping its extensive scientific nomenclature abreast of the progress of the age. From almost every speech under heaven the ubiquitous spirit of British commerce or British colonization has picked up foreign elements and permanently incorporated them in the language.

As to the *proportions* in which native and foreign

elements enter into the general vocabulary, estimates vary. Probably not more than a third of the words registered in our largest dictionaries are of strict Anglo-Saxon origin. However, no just idea can be derived from the most exact *numerical* comparison. The character and use of the words must be taken into account. A vast number of the imported terms are purely special, used, perhaps, by a single author, or confined to a single science. However necessary to the higher styles of literature, to scientific exposition, to philosophical discussion, words of foreign origin enter but slightly into the rudimentary structure of the language. In a preceding paragraph in which the essential identity of earlier and later English was discussed, the *fundamental* character of the Anglo-Saxon element of our language has been set forth.*

If, however, the question asked refers not to the origin of the vocabulary, but to the construction and governing principles of the language, the answer must be widely different. In that sense, English is *not* a composite language. Indeed few, if any, languages surpass it in structural simplicity and unity. Apart from a few exceptional cases of foreign nouns allowed temporarily to retain their native forms, it puts its own decisive mark on every term which it appropriates. Indeed it may be said that the vast influx of words of foreign origin during the past 400 years has been absolutely without influence on the *grammar* of the language.

Conclusion.—In the grammatical text to which this sketch is subjoined, the results of that critical

* "We must recollect that in ordinary conversation our vocabulary is limited, and that we do not employ more than from three to five thousand words, while our best writers make use of about twice that number. Now it is possible to carry on conversation, and write numerous sentences without any borrowed terms; but if we endeavor to speak or write without making use of the native element (grammar or vocabulary) we shall find that such a thing is impossible. In our talk, in the works of our greatest writers, the English element greatly preponderates."—Morris.

study of Early English which has characterized recent years have been taken advantage of at various points to elucidate disputed questions of etymology or syntax. A minute analytical investigation of older forms would be out of place in a brief historical survey like this. So also, notwithstanding the close relations subsisting between language and literature, it has been felt necessary to resist all temptation to digress into the special enclosure of the latter.

As to the ENGLISH LANGUAGE ITSELF, comparisons likely to turn out to its disadvantage might be instituted with various other languages *in particular points;* but, on a broad view, those who speak it can boast that no other people possesses a nobler or more effective instrument for accomplishing the ends for which language has been given.

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(In future editions an index of *words* will be given, if found desirable)