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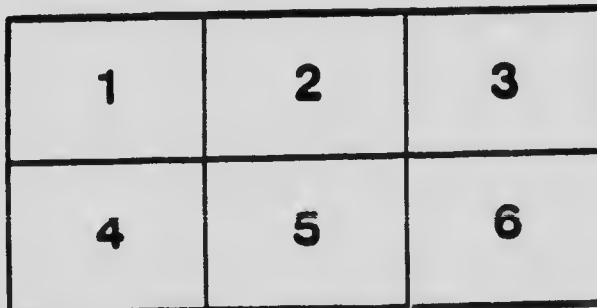
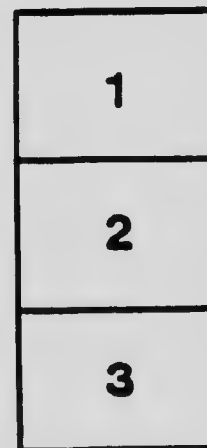
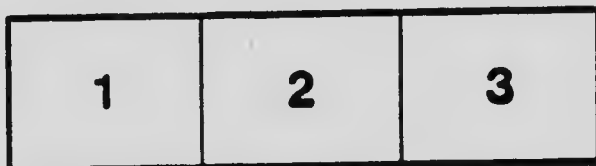
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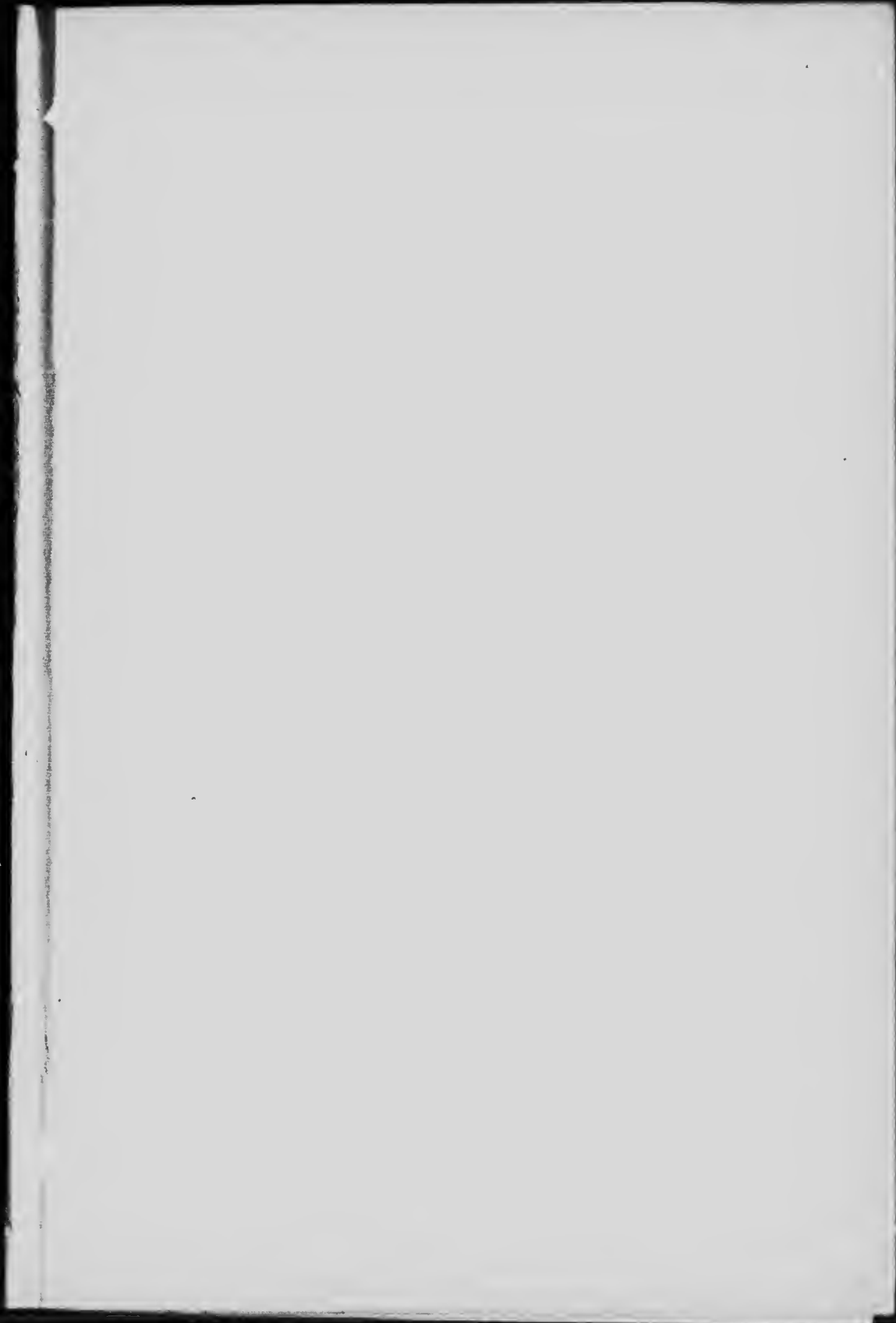
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HIGH SCHOOL ENGLISH GRAMMAR



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HIGH SCHOOL
ENGLISH GRAMMAR

BY

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PREFACE

IN outlining the subject of English Grammar for High School students, it should be kept in mind that they already possess, through their study of the subject in the public school, at least a semi-logical and descriptive control of the ordinary facts and principles underlying the structure of the English sentence. The value to be derived by such students from a further study of the subject will consist, in part, in having them establish on a more logical and scientific basis the grammatical facts with which they are already acquainted, and in organizing, under wider relations, the particular grammatical elements which were necessarily learned in the public school course as relatively disconnected facts. For such a scientific and comprehensive interpretation of the grammatical value of words and word-forms, it is necessary that the student shall interpret them from the view point of the logical structure of the sentence. This, however, demands a more critical mastery of the syntax of the sentence than is likely to be obtained by the students through their study of the subject in the public school. For this reason the present text, contrary to the custom of the older secondary grammars, begins with a systematic study of the syntax of the sentence before treating, in any way, of the parts of speech. Upon this basis only, it is believed, can our students adequately interpret the important rules and principles to be met in the subsequent study of the smaller grammatical elements.

In the presentation of the various topics, which necessarily follows the expository method, care has been taken, both in the arrangement of the various steps of the lesson and in the

selection and presentation of type examples, to enable the teacher to follow, when desired, the developing method of presentation. For the same reason it is believed that the present text will readily admit of an independent study of the various topics by the pupil of average ability, and thus lessen to some degree the amount of actual class work necessary for the adequate presentation of the subject. For illustration, special mention may be made of the section treating of verb phrases. Here the authors believe that the presentation of this somewhat difficult phase of the subject, in addition to being adequate, will be found relatively simple and intelligible to the ordinary High School student.

Since it is an important law of teaching that all rules and principles should, as soon as learned, find an application in the solution of varied problems, provision has been made at each stage throughout the text for suitable exercises to be worked out by the pupils. The list of general exercises at the end will afford further opportunity for the pupil to apply his knowledge under more varied conditions than were met in former exercises. It is only through the working of such exercises that the pupil is likely to make his grammatical knowledge a permanent and useful part of his experience.

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HIGH SCHOOL ENGLISH GRAMMAR

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

NATURE OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR

1. In making known our thoughts and feelings to one another, we generally use either spoken or written language, which consists of words combined in such a way as to express the various sentiments we may desire to communicate. You have already learned in your study of language that any group of related words expressing a single complete thought is called a sentence. Being the simplest combinations of words used to express thought, sentences are in themselves complete units of language, and, therefore, indicate in their structure the laws and principles which govern the correct use of the language. When we study a language in order to discover the fixed laws and principles which govern its sentence-construction, we are said to study the grammar of the language. English grammar may, therefore, be defined as the science of the English sentence, or as the science which investigates the general laws and principles which govern the structure of the English language.

VALUE OF THE STUDY OF GRAMMAR

INFLUENCE ON SPEECH

2. Although we learn to speak by imitating the language of our elders and not through the study of grammar, nevertheless, through the study of grammar we do learn to distinguish between correct and incorrect forms of speech. The study of grammar, therefore, enables us to detect any incorrect habits of speech we may have formed through imitating the incorrect language of others. This knowledge, if we are sufficiently watchful, should lead us to correct these errors and thus become more proficient in our speech.

INFLUENCE ON WRITTEN COMPOSITION

3. In spoken language, much of the meaning may be conveyed through the tone of the speaker's voice and through gesture. Since written composition lacks the above elements, it requires a more full and exact form of sentence structure to convey its meaning. As the science which investigates the principles of language construction, grammar furnishes the knowledge of sentence structure necessary to enable us to express ourselves clearly and correctly in our written composition.

INFLUENCE ON READING

4. In all of our best literature, passages frequently occur in which, on account of certain difficulties in the structure of the language, the exact meaning

is not readily apparent to the ordinary reader. Grammar being an investigation of the principles of sentence structure, it is evident that the knowledge obtained through its study will be of value in interpreting such difficult passages in literature.

DIVISIONS OF GRAMMAR

5. The thought expressed in a sentence is composed of simpler elements, called ideas, which are connected together by an exercise of thought. For example, in the thought,

John bought candy ;

we have an idea of a person, an idea of an act, and an idea of a thing, the three ideas being related by an act of the mind.

6. Examining the language in which this thought is expressed, we find these ideas represented by words, which are related to each other so as to represent both the ideas and the connections existing between these ideas. Moreover, an idea entering into a thought may be represented not only by a single word, as above, but also by a group of related words. For example, comparing,

Large birds flew over us ;

Birds of a *large size* flew over us ;

we notice that the quality idea denoted by the word *large* is represented in the first sentence by the single word, but in the second sentence by the group of related words of *a large size*. Since grammar is limited to a study of the principles of sentence

structure, it may be seen from the above that the facts to be studied separate themselves into three main divisions, which are known as **Syntax, Classification, and Inflection.**

SYNTAX

7. As the thought expressed in a sentence is composed of a number of connected ideas, represented either by words or by groups of words, we may study especially the various logical parts of which sentences are composed, and the various relations existing between these parts. This division of the subject is called *syntax*.

CLASSIFICATION

8. Since words are used to denote ideas of different kinds and also the connections existing between these ideas, we may, in the second place, confine our attention more particularly to a study of the various classes and sub-classes into which words are divided according to their uses or functions in the sentence. This division of the subject is called *classification*.

INFLECTION

9. Many words undergo changes of form, either to denote modifications in the ideas they express, as,

boy, boys : give, gave :

or to indicate their relation to other words, as,

He came ; I saw him.

Thus a third division of grammar investigates the changes of form which words undergo and the purposes for which these changes take place. This division of the subject is known as *inflection*.

In this text-book we shall begin with a general treatment of these three divisions of the subject.

NOTE.—Some grammarians consider that grammar, being a study of words, should include also a study of the correct pronunciation of words—Orthoepy; of the correct spelling of words—Orthography; and of the origin of words—Derivation. But grammar, as we have seen, concerns itself with words only as they enter into sentence structure. The above subjects, on the other hand, consider words independent of their uses in sentences and belong, therefore, to the dictionary rather than to grammar. A brief discussion of these will, however, be found in the appendix.

CHAPTER II

THE SENTENCE AND ITS LOGICAL DIVISIONS

10. It was seen in the former chapter that the thought expressed in a sentence is composed of connected ideas which are represented in the sentence by related words. Not every group of related words, however, forms a sentence. For example, in such groups of related words as,

A woman on the car ;
Birds of large size ;

although the words represent a number of connected ideas, they do not form complete expressions, since the mind still desires to know something further about the woman and the birds. If, however, we add to either of these expressions a word, or a group of words, so as to state or assert some other idea about the idea *woman*, or the idea *birds*, as,

A woman on the car *fainted* ;
Birds of large size *flew over us* ;

we find that the connected ideas give a complete picture to the mind, that is, form a complete thought. A group of related words which thus asserts one idea about another, that is, which expresses a complete thought, is called a **sentence**.

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE

11. Since a complete thought must contain two separate ideas, one of which is asserted about the other, it is evident that every sentence will contain two parts, the one part representing the idea about which something is asserted, the other part representing the idea asserted or stated about the former, as,

Horses run.
 We closed the windows.
 A thing of beauty is a joy forever.

The part of the sentence which represents that about which a statement is being made—as, *Horses*, *We*, *A thing of beauty*, because it represents the subject (person or thing) about which we are thinking—is called the **subject** of the sentence.

The part of the sentence which makes the assertion—as, *run*, *closed the windows*, *is a joy forever*, because it states or predicates something about the person or thing denoted by the subject—is called the **predicate** of the sentence.

POSITION OF SUBJECT AND PREDICATE

12. The natural position is for the subject to precede the predicate, thus:

The curtains of his bed were drawn aside.
Little Annie shall take a ramble with me.

Frequently, however, the subject is placed between parts of the predicate; for example,

Seldom had *small boys* more need of a friend.
 At a little distance *a group of gentlemen* are assembled round the door of a warehouse.
 In the meantime, *a horrible noise* was heard below the stairs.

Less frequently the subject is found placed after the predicate; as,

Far from the tumult fled *the roe*.

A chieftain's daughter seemed *the maid*.

On right, on left, above, below,
Spring up at once *the lurking foe*.

EXERCISE 1

A

Point out the subject and the predicate in each of the following sentences.

1. Me he has left.
2. Onward moved the melancholy train.
3. At this point a fatal change came over their aim.
4. These words I as a prophecy receive.
5. This ring the grateful monarch gave.
6. She sat down at a distance from the couch of the wounded knight, with her back turned towards it.
7. Down the steps come two ladies, swinging their parasols.
8. At length the volumes of smoke made them sensible of the progress of the new danger.
9. The peasant, fumbling in his bosom with a trembling hand, produced a small box, bearing some Hebrew characters on the lid.
10. From her lips the mountain songs of old,
In wild, faint snatches, fitfully had sprung.
11. Level platforms here extend
The mountains and the cliffs between.
12. Now wound the path its dizzy ledge
Around a precipice's edge.

B

Supply suitable predicates for the following :

- 1. Their principal employment in the evening
- 2. The old farmer, seeing their distress
- 3. One of the pupils
- 4. The steps of a stranger
- 5. Two of the best players
- 6. The summit of the rock
- 7. The crowd's wild fury

C

Supply suitable subjects for the following :

- 1. is a great pleasure.
- 2. lies some distance away.
- 3. have been long forgotten.
- 4. is a good motto.
- 5. watched him with anxious eye.
- 6. is smaller than Winnipeg.
- 7. was very striking.

DEFINITIONS

A sentence is a group of related words which expresses a complete thought.

The subject is the part of a sentence which represents that about which an assertion is made.

The predicate is the part of a sentence which represents what is asserted about the person or thing denoted by the subject.

BARE SUBJECT AND BARE PREDICATE

13. We have seen that the subject and the predicate of a sentence may denote single ideas ; as,

Birds fly;

or they may denote a complex of several ideas; as,
 Large fierce birds fly constantly overhead.

In every subject, however, there is a principal idea signifying the particular person or thing being spoken about, and the part of the subject representing this principal idea cannot usually be omitted without destroying the meaning. For example,

Brave little *Johnny* plunged in after him.
 Several long four-syllabled *words* came together.
 Many *seats* in the gallery were empty.

In order to distinguish it from the whole or complete subject, the part which represents the chief or principal idea in the subject is called the **bare subject**.

In the predicate also there is always a principal part which cannot be omitted without destroying the assertion; as,

A strong party came against him from the low country.
 The lady held the door open.
 You will find them easily.

The principal part of the predicate is called the **bare predicate** to distinguish it from the whole or complete predicate.

EXERCISE 2

In the following sentences separate the complete subject from the complete predicate, and point out the bare subject and the bare predicate of each.

1. Two battlemented walls divided the court from the garden.
2. Everything about the place appeared perfectly clean.

3. In April she her eighteenth year began.
4. The southern side of the house, clothed with fruit-trees, extended its venerable front along a terrace.
5. Edward's readiness to explain difficult passages rendered his assistance invaluable.
6. At these sensible words, the mother of Abou Hassan changed the tears of her sorrow into those of joy.
7. Right in the midst
Of that abominable region yawns
A spacious gulf profound.
8. The plaided warriors of the North
High on the mountain thunder forth.
9. There happy fancies day by day,
New courses sedulously lay.
10. Before him came a forester of Dean,
Wet from the woods, with notice of a hart
Taller than all his fellows, milky-white.

SUBJECT MODIFIERS AND PREDICATE ADJUNCTS

14. The parts of the complete subject, other than the bare subject, are joined to the bare subject in order to make its meaning more definite; as,

Idle pupils never succeed.

Large drifts of snow lay along the road.

Here the idea denoted by *Idle* is related to the principal or subject idea, in order to define more exactly the kind of pupils who never succeed.

The parts of the complete subject thus joined to the bare subject to alter or modify its meaning, are called **subject modifiers** or modifiers of the (bare) subject.

15. In like manner the parts of the predicate, other than the bare predicate, are joined to the

bare predicate in order to make its meaning more definite ; as,

The pupils entered *quietly*.

We bought *apples*.

The messenger *then* left the room.

Parts of the predicate thus joined to the bare predicate to further define its meaning, are called **predicate adjuncts**.

GRAMMATICAL ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES

16. When we divide a sentence into its various parts and state the use of each part, we are said to analyze the sentence grammatically.

EXERCISE 3

Analyze the following sentences according to the model given.

MODEL

Many chiefs from the tribes visited the camp during the winter.

| | |
|--------------------|---------------------------------------|
| Bare subject | chiefs. |
| Subject modifiers | (1) Many ; (2) from the tribes. |
| Bare predicate | visited. |
| Predicate adjuncts | (1) the camp ; (2) during the winter. |

1. At length the wavering multitude arranged themselves into a long column.
2. Afterwards the great passage outside the room was cleared of boxes.
3. A strong guard of men-at-arms kept watch during the night.
4. The gay plumage, shorn from the crests, drifted upon the breeze like snow-flakes.
5. Many of these poor fellows were brought to the field in a very wretched condition.

6. At a little distance, a fountain of the purest water trickled out of the rock.
7. Aladdin's mother prostrated herself a second time before the sultan's throne.
8. The next day he sent his mother to the palace to remind the sultan.
9. At length the fateful answer came
In characters of living flame.
10. Thro' many an hour of summer suns,
By many pleasant ways,
Against its fountain upward runs
The current of my days.

DEFINITIONS

The bare subject is the principal part of the subject.

A subject modifier is a part of the subject joined to the bare subject to further define its meaning.

The complete subject is the bare subject together with its modifiers.

The bare predicate is the principal part of the predicate.

A predicate adjunct is a part of the predicate added to the bare predicate to further define its meaning.

A complete predicate is the bare predicate together with its adjuncts.

CLASSIFICATION OF PREDICATE ADJUNCTS

COMPLETING ADJUNCTS

17. In many cases the bare predicate of the sentence would not make a complete assertion about the one denoted by the subject without the addition of an adjunct; for example,

The man seems sick.

John broke the window.

Mary cut her finger.

In the above sentences the italicized adjuncts are necessary to complete the meaning of the bare predicates, *seems*, *broke*, and *cut*.

A part of the predicate such as *sick*, *the window*, or *her finger*, which is added to the bare predicate to complete its meaning, is known as a **completing adjunct**.

PREDICATE MODIFIERS

18. Many predicate adjuncts, however, are not necessary to complete the meaning of the bare predicate, but merely make the assertion more definite; for example,

John came *quietly*.

The man knelt *on the ground*.

John broke the window *yesterday*.

In these sentences the predicates make a complete assertion without the addition of the adjuncts *quietly*, *on the ground*, and *yesterday*. Such adjuncts, therefore, merely limit the assertion to a certain manner, place, time, etc.

A part of the predicate, such as *quietly*, *on the ground*, or *yesterday*, which is not necessary to complete the meaning of the bare predicate, but merely modifies the assertion, is called a **predicate modifier**.

EXERCISE 4

In the following sentences state whether the italicized adjuncts complete the meaning of the bare predicate, or modify the predicate.

1. Our friends departed *on the next train*.
2. This bread is *very dry*.

3. The sun rises *in the East*.
4. His books were *in your desk*.
5. The ball broke *the window*.
6. *With no small wonder* he received *his master's commands*.
7. *At length, with a loud crash*, the wall fell *to the ground*.
8. The archer *quickly* bent *his bow*.
9. *Yesterday* the weather was *exceedingly fine*.
10. *To keep them fresh* they *frequently* change *the water*.

CLASSES OF COMPLETING ADJUNCTS

OBJECTS

19. Many bare predicates are incomplete in meaning because they assert an action which requires in addition, to make complete sense, an idea of the person or thing affected by the act; for example,

The teacher sent *Mary*.

Horses eat *oats*.

The boy broke *the new bat*.

In the above sentences the assertions made by the bare predicates *sent*, *eat*, and *broke*, would be incomplete without the addition of the italicized words to indicate the person or thing affected by the act of *sending*, *eating*, and *breaking*.

Adjuncts such as *Mary*, *oats*, and *the new bat*, because they denote the object towards which the asserted action is directed, are called **objects**.

COMPLEMENTS

20. A few bare predicates which do not assert action, but a state or condition, are incomplete in

another way. These require the addition of an adjunct to specify the particular state or condition; for example,

The boy seemed *sick*.

Horses are *strong*.

The flower is *very pretty*.

In the above sentences the adjuncts *sick*, *strong*, and *very pretty* complete the bare predicates by defining the condition of the person or thing denoted by the subject.

Predicate adjuncts which thus complete the meaning of the bare predicate and modify the subject are called completions or **complements**.

EXERCISE 5

A

Classify the italicized adjuncts in the following sentences as objects or complements.

1. At the same time he wrote *a deceitful letter* to Imogen.
2. Portia, hearing this, seemed *very angry*.
3. The figure appeared *dim* through the shadows.
4. In her many musings, she surrounds *the original smile* with a multitude of fantasies.
5. In this recess the Highlanders deposited *Waverley*.
6. Six of the party left *the hut* with their arms.
7. Sentinels were deemed *unnecessary*.
8. I am *the commander of the faithful*.
9. Roderick, this morn, in single fight
Was made *our prisoner* by a knight.
10. Lo, the lilies of the field,
How their leaves *instruction* yield!

B

Classify the predicate adjuncts in the following sentences as objects, complements, or modifiers.

1. At these words, Abou Hassan grew quite mad.
2. The sultan cast his eyes in a melancholy manner toward the place.
3. On hearing the unwelcome sound, Major Melville hastily opened a sash door.
4. The place appeared quite altered.
5. Waverley heard in the court, before the windows, a well-known voice.
6. The king sought all possible means to get her cured.
7. With morning, under the bright New Brunswick coast we run.
8. At first, the Chieftain, to the chime,
With lifted hand, kept feeble time.
9. In those old days, one summer morn, an arm
Rose up from out the bosom of the lake.
10. At sight of him the people with a shout
Rifted the air, clamouring their god with praise.

DEFINITIONS

The object is an adjunct of the bare predicate which completes its meaning by denoting the person or thing affected by the asserted action.

The complement is an adjunct of the bare predicate which completes its meaning and describes the person or thing denoted by the subject.

A modifier of the predicate is an adjunct of the predicate which further defines its meaning, but is not necessary to complete it.

MODIFIERS OF OBJECTS AND OF COMPLEMENTS

21. When the complete object is composed of a number of words, it may usually, like the complete subject, be divided into bare object and modifiers of the object. Compare for example,

John brought *parcels*.

John brought *large parcels of candy*.

In the first sentence the bare predicate is completed by the addition of the one word *parcels*, denoting a simple idea. In the second sentence this completing idea is further defined by the addition of the modifiers *large* and *of candy*.

In like manner the complement, when complex, may usually be divided into bare complement and modifiers of the complement. Compare for example,

These are *boxes* ;

These are *small boxes of berries* ;

where, in the second sentence, the bare complement *boxes* has joined to it the modifiers *small* and *of berries*.

NOTE.—In the analysis of sentences, we often separate the bare object and the bare complement from their modifiers.

EXERCISE 6

Analyze each sentence in the following exercise according to the model given below.

MODEL

(a) A very ancient woman had brought a quantity of yarn to barter.

THE SENTENCE AND ITS LOGICAL DIVISIONS 27

| | SUBJECT | PREDICATE | OBJECT |
|-----------|----------------|-------------|------------|
| BARE | woman | had brought | quantity |
| MODIFIERS | A very ancient | to barter | a, of yarn |

(b) At this news the face of the governor became very pale.

| | SUBJECT | PREDICATE | COMPLEMENT |
|-----------|----------------------|---------------|------------|
| BARE | face | became | pale |
| MODIFIERS | the, of the governor | at this news. | very |

1. The thieves staid some time within the rock.
2. The sick man knoweth the physician by his step.
3. In the morning he seemed much better.
4. The players on the other side are ready for the charge.
5. Merlin's cave is half unfinished yet.
6. After the marriage the pictures were the two most splendid ornaments of their abode.
7. On reaching this point the peddler no longer saw the man on horseback.
8. The warder's challenge, heard without,
Staid in mid-roar the merry shout.
9. Loveliest things are bright
In the radiance of the sun.
10. The memory of sorrow grows
A lighter burden on the heart.
11. Up the unclouded sky
The glorious moon pursued her path of light.
12. The lowering scowl of heaven
An inky hue of livid blue,
To the deep lake has given.

DIRECT AND INDIRECT OBJECTS

22. We have seen that the bare predicate sometimes has an object denoting the one toward whom the act is immediately directed, such object being necessary to complete its meaning. But the bare predicate sometimes takes a second object denoting

the one indirectly affected by the act, the one to or for whom the act is performed ; as,

The teacher gave *Mary* a pencil.

The tailor made *him* a coat.

In the above sentences, although the words *Mary* and *him* are not, to the same extent as *pencil* and *coat*, necessary to complete the meaning of the bare predicate, they nevertheless make the meaning more definite by denoting the person to or for whom the action was performed, and are to be classed as objects.

Because such an object denotes the one indirectly affected by the act, it is called an **indirect object**.

Other examples are :

We sent *him* a letter.

She bought *the sick child* some candy.

They offered *us* their umbrella.

To distinguish it from the indirect object, the ordinary object, denoting that on which the action directly falls, is called the **direct object**.

NOTE.—Some words which naturally take after them both an indirect and a direct object, are occasionally followed by only one of these ; for example,

I paid *the man* — indirect object.

I paid *the money* — direct object.

EXERCISE 7

Point out the objects in the following sentences and classify them as direct or indirect.

1. The messenger brought him a letter from Antonio.
2. The merchant sold us his best ribbon.

3. My generous uncle gave me two dollars for my stage fare.
4. He paid the harvesters to-day.
5. They sent him a better one.
6. For this purpose they granted him a plot of ground near the city.
7. He at once restored the purse.
8. Build thee more stately mansions, O my soul.
9. He owed every merchant in the town.
10. The merchant promised him a ride in his new auto.
11. At the top of the palace thou shalt build me a large hall.
12. The magician paid the man his full price for them.

DEFINITIONS

A direct object completes the meaning of the predicate by indicating the person or thing directly affected by the action.

An indirect object completes the meaning of the predicate by indicating the person or thing indirectly affected by the action, the one to or for whom the act is performed.

SUBJECTIVE AND OBJECTIVE COMPLEMENTS

23. In a previous section (20) we learned that the complement, in addition to completing the bare predicate, modifies the subject of the sentence. Not all complements, however, modify the subject. Compare for example,

John is *honest*.
We thought John *honest*.

In the first sentence the bare predicate is completed by the word *honest*, which word also modifies the subject *John*.

In the second sentence the bare predicate re-

quires to complete its meaning, not only the direct object *John* but also the complement *honest*.

Compare for instance,

We thought John.

We thought John *honest*.

Here, however, the complement *honest* modifies, not the subject *We*, but the direct object *John*.

Other examples are,

This made the men *angry*.

I supposed his story *true*.

They declared the man *an impostor*.

Because such a complement modifies the direct object, it is called an **objective** complement.

Because the ordinary complement modifies the subject, it is usually called a **subjective** complement, to distinguish it from the objective complement.

EXERCISE 8

Point out the complements in the following sentences and classify them as subjective or objective.

1. His brow is wet with honest sweat.
2. For many years the town pump was the wash bowl of the vicinity.
3. This day of grace did seem no great favour to Aegeon.
4. With these words, the gentle boy was dead.
5. Their rule had been just in the main.
6. The very streams look languid from afar.
7. The duke made him an officer in his army.
8. The general atmosphere of the place was by no means devotional.
9. Then the Iroquois made them their hunting-ground.

10. The flutt'ring songstress a mere speck became.
11. They are considered honest.
12. This action rendered his name famous throughout the kingdom.
13. The bigots of the iron time
Had called his harmless art a crime.
14. At twenty life appeared to me
A sort of vague infinity.

DEFINITIONS

A subjective complement is one that completes the meaning of the bare predicate and modifies the subject.

An objective complement is one that completes the meaning of the bare predicate and modifies the direct object.

SUMMARY OF THE DIVISIONS AND RELATIONS OF
THE SENTENCE

LOGICAL DIVISIONS

24. From the foregoing study of the composition of the sentence, we have learned that there are in every sentence at least the two necessary parts—bare subject and bare predicate, while there may be added to these necessary parts various dependent parts, according to the nature of the thought to be expressed. All the possible parts of the sentence are as follows.

1. Subject { Bare subject
 { Modifiers
2. Predicate { Bare predicate { Object and its { Direct
 { Completing the pred. { Modifiers { Indirect
 { Adjuncts { Complement and { Subjective
 { Modifying the pred. { its Modifiers { Objective

GRAMMATICAL RELATIONS IN THE SENTENCE

25. Each part in a sentence is dependent for its meaning on the part with which it is directly connected, and is said to be *related* to that part.

The relations existing between the various divisions of the sentence are classified as follows:

1. Predicate relation — that existing between subject and predicate
2. Objective relation — that between bare predicate and object
3. Completing relation — that between bare predicate and complement
4. Modifying relation — that between bare subject, bare predicate, etc., and modifiers

A further classification of modifiers and modifying relations is given in Chapter IV, sections 54 and 55.

ANALYSIS

26. In giving the full analysis of a sentence, it would be necessary to show all the separate parts of which the sentence is composed, and to indicate the use of each. The following model will illustrate such an exhaustive analysis of the sentence.

MODEL

(a) The members of the house at first gave the new government their loyal support.

| | SUBJECT | PREDICATE | INDIRECT OBJECT | DIRECT OBJECT |
|-----------|-------------------|-----------|-----------------|---------------|
| BARE | members | gave | government | support |
| MODIFIERS | the, of the house | at first | the new | their loyal |

(b) We found the interior of the palace even more dismal.

| | SUBJECT | PREDICATE | DIRECT OBJECT | OBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT |
|-----------|---------|-----------|--------------------|-------------------------|
| BARE | We | found | interior | dismal |
| MODIFIERS | | | the, of the palace | even more |

In ordinary practice, however, it is often customary not to separate the modifiers from the objects or complements, in which case the following model may be used.

MODEL

1. Members Bare subject
 2. The, of the house Modifiers
 3. gave Bare predicate
 4. the new government Indirect object
 5. fair support Direct object
 6. at first Modifier of the predicate
-
1. We Bare subject
 2. found Bare predicate
 3. the interior of the house . . Direct object
 4. even more dismal Objective complement

EXERCISE 9

Analyze according to either of the above methods the sentences in the following exercise.

1. His first journey to Dundee opened to him a new field of action.
2. Meanwhile the venerable stranger pursued his solitary walk along the street.
3. His friends were at length all powerful in the cabinet.
4. The great change makes him sometimes sad.
5. Tom by a sort of instinct knew the right cupboards in the kitchen.

6. In doing this you shall render them the last earthly service.
7. The arrows shot after him rendered the retreat of the Templar perilous.
8. The crowd's wild fury sunk again in tears.
9. At her whistle, on her hand the falcon took his favourite stand.
10. Just above yon sandy bar,
Lonely and lovely, a single star
Lights the air with a dusky glimmer.
11. Above, in the light
Of the star-lit night,
Swift birds of passage wing their flight
Through the dewy atmosphere.
12. A traveller, by the faithful hound,
Half-buried in the snow was found,
Still grasping in his hand of ice
That banner with the strange device.

INDEPENDENT ELEMENTS

27. Occasionally in sentences we find a word or a group of words which does not form any part of either the complete subject or the complete predicate of the sentence; thus,

John, your book is under the table.

There were three boys in the wagon.

Notice that the complete subjects and predicates of these sentences are as follows:

Your book is under the table.

Three boys were in the wagon.

A word or a group of words added to a sentence but not forming any part of either the subject or the predicate, is called an **independent element**.

CLASSES OF INDEPENDENT ELEMENTS

THE ADDRESS

28. In some sentences, in addition to the complete subject and the complete predicate, we find a word or words added to gain the attention of the person being spoken to; as,

Mary, your book is under the table.

Lady Clare, you shame your worth.

A word or words added to a sentence to point out, or gain the attention of, the one addressed, is called an **address**.

THE EXPLETIVE

29. Frequently, when the subject is placed after the predicate, the word *there* is used to introduce the sentence and fill the gap left by the transposed subject; as,

There came a voice from heaven.

There were troops brought from all his dominions.

Here the complete subjects and complete predicates are:

A voice came from heaven.

Troops were brought from all his dominions.

When used as above to take the place of the transposed subject, the word *there* is called an **expletive** (Latin *expleo* = I fill full).

THE INTERJECTION

30. When speaking under strong emotion, a speaker may add to the sentence a word or phrase

to show his feeling in reference to the statement;
as,

Pshaw! I have forgotten to post the letter.

Alas! work not so hard.

Words such as *Pshaw* and *Alas*, which are added to a sentence to indicate the speaker's feeling in reference to the thought expressed, are called exclamations or **interjections** (Latin *interjicio*—I throw in).

Caution.—Be careful to distinguish between the interjection and the address; as,

Poor Yorick! I knew him, *Horatio*.

EXERCISE 10

Classify the independent elements in the following exercise.

1. There came a man from the house hard by.
2. Father, your coat is covered with snow.
3. Alas, it is not for me!
4. There is no night there.
5. Poor man! he has lost all.
6. Oh, sir, we will keep quiet.
7. There is a charm in footing slow across a silent plain.
8. Oho! the murder is out.
9. There were wolves in the forest.
10. Oh, Amy, thou little knowest.
11. Ah! it is St. Agnes' Eve.
12. O earth, what changes hast thou seen!
13. O eloquent and famed Boccaccio!
Of thee we now should ask forgiving boon.
14. Young stranger!
I've been a ranger
In search of pleasure through every clime.

DEFINITIONS

An independent element is a word or phrase added to a sentence but not having any grammatical relation to the subject or the predicate.

An address is an independent element added to the sentence to point out, or gain the attention of, the one addressed.

An expletive is an independent element taking the place of the transposed subject, which is placed later in the sentence.

An interjection is an independent element added to the sentence to indicate the speaker's feeling in reference to the thought expressed.

IMPERSONAL SUBJECT AND OBJECT

IMPERSONAL SUBJECT

31. In our previous exercises, the subject of the sentence has always presented to our minds a definite idea of some person or thing being spoken about. Occasionally, however, the subject of the sentence does not bring such a definite idea to the mind. Notice, for instance, the subjects in the following:

- It* rains.
- It* is a beautiful evening.
- It* will go hard with him.

In such sentences the subject *It* does not, like the ordinary subject, represent to us any definite object about which an assertion is being made. Such a subject is called an **impersonal** subject. (*Impersonal* here means, not denoting any person or thing as a definite object of thought.)

IMPERSONAL OBJECT

32. Occasionally also the word *it*, when used as an object in the sentence, does not represent anything toward which the asserted action is directed. Examples are :

He lords *it* over us.

They idled *it* during the whole day.

Here the word *it*, although as an object it assists the verb in making the assertion, does not signify anything acted upon, and is, therefore, called an **impersonal** object.

REPEATED SUBJECT

33. In order to render it more emphatic or to secure greater clearness when it is removed from the predicate, the subject of a sentence is sometimes repeated. The repetition of the subject takes place either by repeating the subject itself, or by using a word such as *he*, *they*, *these*, etc., denoting the same idea as the subject. Examples are :

All, *all* is lost.

Old Meg *she* was a gipsy.

Mary's tears, *they* are not tears of sorrow.

Because these words denote the same idea as the subject proper they are called **repeated** subjects.

NOTE.—Parts of the sentence other than the subject are occasionally repeated ; thus,

Long, *long* I wandered there.

EXERCISE 11

Explain the use of each italicized part in the following.

1. *There* is something in that.
2. The Wedding-Guest *he* beat his breast.
3. *Sweet April!* Many a thought is wedded into thee.
4. *It* is time to go.
5. The emerald waves; *they* take their image from that sunbright shore.
6. They roughed *it* in Canada in those days.
7. *Alas!* that cannot be.
8. The two fought *it* out between them.
9. Mother, *mother*, the winds are at play.
10. *It* is now too late for the train.
11. Cold, *cold* it was.
12. *Poor Blanche!* thy wrongs are dearly paid.
13. *It* became dark before six o'clock.
14. She warned him of the toils below so faithfully,
faithfully!
15. *There* was nothing exclusive in his social habits.
16. That diamond dew, so pure and clear,
It rivals all but Beauty's tear.
17. Ay, call *it* holy ground,
The spot where first they trod.

CHAPTER III

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES

I. ACCORDING TO FORM

THE ASSERTIVE SENTENCE

34. In our previous exercises, the thought in the sentence has always been expressed in the form of a statement or assertion about some person or thing. Because such sentences take the form of assertions, they are called **assertive** sentences.

This type of sentence constitutes the most common form of expression, and it is from the structure of the assertive sentence that most of the rules and principles of grammar are deduced. We shall now consider, however, two forms of the sentence which vary from the regular type.

THE INTERROGATIVE SENTENCE

35. In such sentences as,

Are the men working to-day?
Who broke the window?
Have you seen Mary to-day?

we find that the thought in the sentence is expressed not in the form of a statement, but in the form of an interrogation or question. Sentences of this form are, therefore, called **interrogative** sentences.

Like the assertive sentence, the interrogative sentence is composed of two parts—subject and predicate—these parts frequently containing the various modifiers and adjuncts found in the assertive sentence. Certain peculiarities of structure in connection with the interrogative sentence may, however, be noted.

Many interrogative sentences differ from the assertive form only in having some part of the predicate come before the subject; as,

Have you seen Mary to-day?

You have seen Mary to-day

Interrogative

Assertive

Were the men working yesterday?

The men were working yesterday

Interrogative

Assertive

Interrogative sentences of this form are usually answered by *yes* or *no*.

NOTE.—This type of question may sometimes suggest the answer expected; as,

Will anyone believe such a story?

Have you not seen him to-day?

A second type of interrogative sentence is formed by the use of an interrogative word; as,

Who broke the window?

What has she sent?

Whom will he choose?

The answer to such interrogatives is usually given in the form of an assertive sentence in which a word conveying the desired information takes the place of the interrogative word; as,

| | |
|------------------------------|------------------|
| <i>Who</i> broke the window? | Interrogative |
| <i>John</i> broke the window | Assertive answer |
| <i>What</i> has she sent? | Interrogative |
| She has sent <i>cake</i> | Assertive answer |

Occasionally a sentence assertive in form takes on an interrogative value through the tone of voice with which it is uttered; as,

You have seen him to-day?
Your parents are willing for you to go?

Such questions, however, often add the interrogative form after the assertive; thus,

You have seen him to-day, have you not?
Your parents are willing for you to go, are they not?

THE IMPERATIVE SENTENCE

36. Other sentences, in expressing thought, take neither the form of a statement nor the form of a question, but that of a command; as,

See thou to that.
Go in.
Close the door quietly.

Sentences which express thought in the form of a command are called **imperative** sentences.

Unlike the assertive and the interrogative, the imperative sentence is frequently found without any expressed subject; as,

Love thy land.
Go in.

In such cases the subject is suggested by the context, it being understood that you are commanding the person or persons addressed; thus,

Love (thou) thy land.
Go (you) in.

NOTE.—When the imperative sentence contains a subject, it is always one of the words, *thou*, *you*, or *ye*.

Many sentences imperative in form express not a direct command, but an exhortation or entreaty; as,

Be not angry, good mother.
Save the noble Athelstane, my trusty Wamba!

THE EXCLAMATORY SENTENCE

37. Some sentences, in addition to expressing thought, may also, by their form, indicate the feeling of the speaker; as

What a piece of work is man!
Who could believe it!
Oh, think of your immortal weal!

Although such sentences express thought in either an assertive, interrogative, or imperative form as above, and belong, therefore, to one of these three classes, yet, since they show that the thought is strongly felt by the speaker, they may be further described as exclamatory in form. Such sentences are, therefore, classified as **exclamatory assertive**, **exclamatory interrogative**, etc.

NOTE.—For the optative form of sentence see section 202.

EXERCISE 12

Classify according to form the sentences in the following exercise, noting especially any that are also exclamatory in form.

1. The scene is a familiar one to many a tourist and sportsman.
2. Shall we not waken him?
3. How soundly he sleeps!
4. Ye soft pipes, play on.
5. O read for pity's sake!
6. Do you see that bundle under his head?
7. Many place the purest grain in the north of the sack.
8. How natural they look!
9. One bright curl from its fair mates take.
10. Go to the sick man's chamber.
11. Have, then, thy wish!
12. Puttest thou the reverend man to use ungracious language?
13. Soon, up aloft,
The silver, snarling trumpets 'gan to chide.
14. Seek other cause 'gainst Roderick Dhu.
15. Neglect not this opportunity.
16. What proud hopes this hour hath blighted!
17. His latest theory with patience hear.
18. Hurriedly, in fear and woe,
Through the aisle the mourners go.
19. Fleet foot on the correi,
Sage counsel in cumber,
Red Hand in the foray,
How sound is thy slumber!

DEFINITIONS

An assertive sentence is a sentence form used in making a statement.

An interrogative sentence is a sentence form used in asking a question.

An imperative sentence is a sentence form used to express a command or entreaty.

An exclamatory sentence is a sentence form used to express strong feeling.

II. ACCORDING TO COMPOSITION

SUBORDINATE CLAUSES AND PHRASES

THE SUBORDINATE CLAUSE

38. In our previous study of the sentence, each sentence has been found to contain one subject and one predicate ; thus,

All people of imagination are difficult to live with.
 What man told you that ?
 You do it for him.

In many sentences, however, there are found groups of words forming parts of the sentence which are themselves statements composed of a subject and a predicate. Compare, for example,

Idle boys seldom succeed.
 Boys *who are idle* seldom succeed.

In the second sentence, though the group of words *who are idle* forms a part of the whole sentence, modifying the subject *Boys*, and denoting the same idea as the word *Idle* in the first sentence, it is itself composed of a subject and a predicate ; thus,

Who are idle ;

and is therefore another statement within the sentence.

Compare also.

We admire *honest* men.
 We admire men *who are honest*.
 The men brought *bread*.
 The men brought *what was needed*.
 The men came *there*.
 The men came *where the boys were playing*.

Here also the groups of words, *who are honest*, *what was needed*, and *where the boys were playing*, although forming in their respective sentences a modifier of the object, an object, and a predicate modifier, are themselves statements containing a subject and a predicate; thus,

Who are honest.
 What was needed.
 The boys were playing where.

Because such statements form parts of larger statements, they are dependent upon some part of the other statement; thus,

Who are honest depends upon the object *men*, being its modifier.

What was needed depends upon the bare predicate *brought*, being its object.

Where the boys were playing depends upon the bare predicate *came*, being its modifier.

Because such statements are dependent upon, or subordinate to, some other part of the sentence, they are called subordinate statements or **subordinate clauses**.

NOTE.—When a sentence contains two or more statements, these statements are usually termed *clauses*.

Other examples of subordinate clauses are,

What you have will do . . . Subject of *will do*.

He is older *than he was* . . . Modifier of complement *older*.

Give *what I say* due attention . . . Indirect object of *give*.

The boy *who did it* left *before you came* . . . Modifiers of *boy* and *left*.

THE PHRASE

39. On the other hand, many groups of connected words used as a single word in the sentence, are not, like the subordinate clause, composed of a subject and a predicate, and are not, therefore, statements.

Compare for example,

Idle boys seldom succeed.
Boys *who are idle* seldom succeed.
Boys *of idle habits* seldom succeed.

In the last two sentences the groups of connected words *who are idle* and *of idle habits*, are both used like the single word, to signify some idea about the subject *Boys*, and are, therefore, modifiers of the subject. They differ, however, in that the latter is not a statement.

A group of connected words such as *of idle habits*, which is used in a sentence with the value of a single word, but is not composed of a subject and predicate, is called a **phrase**.

Other examples of phrases are,

Shouts *of triumph* now echoed *over the field*.
The general *had sent* forward the baggage *of the army*.
They are ready *for the fray*.

STRUCTURE OF SENTENCE ELEMENTS

40. We learn from the above that a sentence element may be,

1. A word . . Brock fell *here*.
2. A phrase . . Brock fell *in this place*.
3. A clause . . Brock fell *where we are standing*.

EXERCISE 13

In the following sentences explain whether the italicized parts are subordinate clauses or phrases.

1. The apprehensions *of the people* increased *with these crimes*.
2. I *will tell* you a short tale *as we walk towards our breakfast*.
3. *What they sent us* was returned to them.
4. The roses *which adorned the keystones* have lost their leafy beauty.
5. *As I paced the cloisters* my eyes were attracted to these figures.
6. A bad conscience *will make* us cowards.
7. The swarm *to which Juba pointed* grew till it became a compact body.
8. *Over these* he placed the filthy deer skins *which served him for a robe*.
9. I know *how it was done*.
10. I told him *that you were there*.
11. He *who hesitates* is lost.
12. *Who steals my purse* steals trash.
13. The champion ascended the platform *by the sloping alley which led to it from the lists*.
14. *High o'er my head, with threatening hand,*
The spectre shook his naked brand.
15. *Over in the meadow,*
Where the clear pools shine,
Lived a green mother frog.

THE SIMPLE SENTENCE

41. Many sentences, as we have seen, consist of but one subject and one predicate, the parts of which are composed of words or phrases; thus,

We build on the old foundations.

The announcement of this auspicious vision filled the crowd with joy.

Objects of the greatest terror please in painting.

A sentence such as the above, which contains but one subject and one predicate, is called a **simple** sentence.

THE COMPLEX SENTENCE

42. Many sentences, as we have seen, have, in addition to the main subject and predicate, one or more subordinate clauses used as dependent elements in the sentence; as,

Channels *where ships might float* stretched between them.

The public showed *that they would bear their share*.

He will help you *if you ask him*.

What they brought was used up *before the other came*.

Sentences such as the above, which contain one main statement and one or more subordinate clauses, are called **complex** sentences.

NOTE.—The main statement in a complex sentence is usually called a *principal* clause.

EXERCISE 14

Classify the sentences in the following exercise as simple or complex, pointing out all subordinate clauses.

1. With a nod he pointed to his sword.
2. While I was looking down upon these gravestones I was aroused by the sound of the abbey clock.
3. The idol of to-day pushes the hero of yesterday out of our recollection.

4. The track which would best have suited her was the well-worn track of ordinary life.
5. Whatever was morbid in his mind, she ignored.
6. In the meantime, Robin Hood had sent off several of his followers in different directions.
7. Gradually the galleries became filled with knights and ladies.
8. When he opened his mouth, he forgot his first sentence, which he had long prepared.
9. This is what she sent.
10. That was what I was about to tell you.
11. When the bustle occasioned by this incident was somewhat composed, the chief outlaw took from his neck the rich horn which he had gained at the strife of archery.
12. A brief gleam of December's sun shone sadly on the broad heath.
13. Have I not told you that I bear a heart blighted and cold ?
14. Why he came is a mystery.
15. Woe betide the cruel guile,
That drown'd in blood the morning smile !
16. Did not a queenly grace,
Under the parted ebon hair,
Sit on the pale still face ?

ANALYSIS OF COMPLEX SENTENCES

43. Since the subordinate clauses in a complex sentence are dependent parts of the principal statement, a complex sentence is to be analyzed in the same manner as a simple sentence; thus,

COMPLEX SENTENCE

A banking firm which had an extensive country connection ultimately took the leading part that was required.

| | SUBJECT | PREDICATE | OBJECT |
|-----------|--|------------|--------------------------------|
| BARE | firm | took | part |
| MODIFIERS | a banking, which had an extensive country connection | ultimately | the leading, that was required |

44. The subordinate clauses may, if desired, be analyzed separately; thus,

SUBORDINATE CLAUSE

“which had an extensive country connection.”

| | SUBJECT | PREDICATE | OBJECT |
|-----------|---------|-----------|----------------------|
| BARE | which | had | connection |
| MODIFIERS | — | — | an extensive country |

EXERCISE 15

Analyze as above the sentences in the following exercise.

1. This is the officer that I spoke of.
2. I always observed that the visitors to the abbey remained longest about him.
3. Fat are the stags that champ the boughs of the Ciminian hills.
4. As I passed out, the door, closing with a jarring noise behind me, filled the whole building with echoes.
5. If nature sympathized with Gustavus, she chose a had mode for showing her sympathy.
6. The savage tone in which this was whispered perhaps completed the confusion of the Marquis's nerves.
7. As they proceeded through the forest, they discovered signs that indicated the presence of enemies.
8. If he calls, say that I am out.
9. The fact that he is here is proof enough.
10. The peculiar smoke which distinguishes India summer deepened the vague impressions which these objects created.

11. The farm lay in the rich central plain of what we are pleased to call Merry England.
12. The house which we bought recently, we sold again to the man who called yesterday.
13. The house in which we lived was surrounded by a dike that protected it from the floods to which the region was exposed.

If thy heart fail thee in the strife,
I am no warrant for thy life.

THE COMPOUND SENTENCE

45. In some sentences composed of two or more clauses, neither clause forms any part of the other clause, each clause being independent of the other; for example,

A man ran to the house but the doctor was not at home.

In this sentence we find two statements, but neither statement forms any part of, or is subordinate to, the other; the complete subject and complete predicate of each clause being as follows:

| | | |
|------------|-------------------|---|
| A man | ran to the house. | . |
| The doctor | was not at home. | . |

Since each statement in the sentence is independent, the sentence is said to be composed of *independent* clauses.

Sentences such as the above, which contain two or more independent clauses, are called **compound** sentences.

NOTE.—By some grammarians the independent statements within a compound sentence are also called *principal* clauses. Strictly speaking, however, an independent clause is not principal unless it has a subordinate clause dependent upon it.

Other examples of compound sentences are,

Their fare was excellent and Fergus's spirits were
extravagantly high.

Come back soon or they will miss you.

I saw him but he did not recognize me.

The wreck was cut away, the ship was cleared,
and her head was turned to the sea.

Men may come and men may go,
But I go on for ever.

The Sun came up upon the left,
Out of the sea came he,
And he shone bright, and on the right
Went down into the sea.

THE COMPOUND-COMPLEX SENTENCE

46. A compound sentence may have one or more
of its independent members complex; thus,

They destroyed the bridge by which they crossed,
but the enemy got over in boats.

Here the italicized member of the compound sentence is complex, containing the subordinate clause *by which they crossed*. When a compound sentence has one or more of its members complex, it is called a **compound-complex** sentence.

Other examples are,

Go to the sick man's room and tend him until I return.

They then ascended the hill, but the sight that met
them was not reassuring.

He prospered because he was industrious, and he was
happy because he was content.

The Mariner, whose eye is bright,
Whose beard with age is hoar,
Is gone: and now the Wedding-Guest
Turned from the Bridegroom's door.

EXERCISE 16

Classify according to composition the sentences in the following exercise.

1. The sound of the trumpet wakes Judah no longer, and her children are now the victims of hostile oppression.
2. While he was sunk in his reverie the rustle of tartans was heard behind him.
3. The draw-bridge had been lowered by his orders, but the passage was beset.
4. This was a point much doubted among the adherents of the house of Stewart.
5. The agent attempted to make a remark, but for some time he was unsuccessful.
6. This is my Academus, and you are my Plato.
7. Ask him whenever you please.
8. This is not a small house and we always have a cutlet for a friend.
9. The royal marriage was very popular, but it reflected no credit on the ministry.
10. I wish that my tongue could utter the thoughts that arise in me.
11. The rose is fairest when 'tis budding new,
And hope is brightest when it dawns from fears.
12. The western waves of ebbing day
Roll'd o'er the glen their level way.
13. His first shaft centred in the white,
And when in turn he shot again,
His second split the first in twain.
14. When fell the night, upsprang the breeze,
And all the darkling hours they plied.
15. Where wealth and freedom reign, contentment fails,
And honour sinks where commerce long prevails.
16. Just experience tells in every soil,
That those that think must govern those that toil.

DEFINITIONS

A simple sentence is a sentence composed of but one subject and one predicate.

A complex sentence is one composed of a principal clause and one or more subordinate clauses.

A compound sentence is one composed of two or more independent clauses.

A compound-complex sentence is a compound sentence having one or more of its independent members complex.

A clause is a statement forming a part of a larger sentence.

A subordinate clause is a group of words composed of a subject and a predicate, and used in a sentence with the value of a single word.

A phrase is a group of words not composed of a subject and a predicate, and used in a sentence with the value of a single word.

COMPOUND SUBJECTS AND PREDICATES

COMPOUND SUBJECT

47. Thus far we have treated the subject of a sentence or clause as a single unit. In many statements, however, a subject may be composed of two or more independent members, which are usually joined together by a connecting word. Examine, for instance, the subject in the following:

John and Mary had the correct answer.

Here the predicate makes an assertion, not about one, but about two distinct subjects—*John* and *Mary*.

Other examples are,

Armies and banners are buried in thee.

Neither *banner* nor *pennon* is seen among them.

The loud torrent and the whirlwind's roar

But bind him to his native mountains more.

When in a sentence two or more connected subjects take the same predicate, they are said to form a **compound subject**.

COMPOUND PREDICATE

48. In like manner the same subject may take two or more connected predicates; as,

Our hero *hewed* and *withdrew*.

The yeomen *kneeled down before him*, *tendered their allegiance*, and *implored pardon*.

When two or more connected predicates are thus used with the same subject, they form a **compound predicate**.

NOTE.—Since a statement containing a compound subject or predicate may usually be enlarged into a compound sentence by repeating the single member; thus,

John (came to school) and Mary came to school;

Our hero hewed and (our hero) withdrew;

some grammarians prefer to treat sentences or clauses containing compound parts as abbreviated compound statements. This would be impossible, however, in such sentences as,

Seven and five make twelve.

Oxygen and hydrogen unite to form water.

OTHER COMPOUND PARTS

49. In like manner the various dependent parts of the subject and the predicate may be compound in form.

Examples are:

Compound modifier of subject,

Small but richly furnished rooms were given them.

Kings, strong in war and *wise in council*, were my ancestors.

Compound object,

I brought up *two knives, a three-gallon jug, and a blanket.*

Compound subjective complement,

The chime was *full and free.*
Nor *few nor slight* his burdens are.

Compound objective complement,

They considered him *a good servant but a foolish counsellor.*

Compound modifier of predicate,

The other two were averted *by the gorget and by the shield.*
Slowly and sadly we laid him down.

NOTE.—A sentence may contain a number of compound parts ; as,

The boys and the girls ran into the room and told the teacher ;
where the subject and the predicate are both compound.

Tom and the Slogger shook hands with great
satisfaction and with mutual respect ;

in which the subject and the modifier of the predicate are both compound.

EXERCISE 17

Point out the compound divisions in the following sentences, and divide each into its simple parts.

1. The moon flickered through the foliage and fell on the dark floor.
2. Every room above, and every cask in the cellars below, appeared to have a separate peal of echoes.
3. He fastened the door and walked across the hall.
4. Their quiet, yet brisk and diversified talk had a domestic tone.

5. The day was very foggy and extremely cold.
6. We saw the man in the garden and gave him the letter.
7. With one start, and with one cry, the royal city woke.
8. The great thickness of the walls and the vaulted roof of the apartments resisted the progress of the flame.
9. The men raised their faces to heaven and uttered a short prayer.
10. While the coachman and a servant were replacing the wheel, the lady and gentleman sheltered themselves beside the hedge and there espied the bubbling fountain and David Swan.
11. Pleasantly under the silver moon, and under the silent solemn stars ring the steel shoes of the skaters on the frozen sea, and voices, and the sound of bells.
12. Tradition, legend, tune, and song
Shall many an age that wail prolong.
13. A time like this demands
Strong minds, great hearts, true faith, and ready hands.
14. The rocky summits, split and rent,
Form'd turret, dome, or battlement.
15. For this, with joyous heart I give
Fame, pleasure, love, and life.
16. Mildly, and soft the western breeze
Just kiss'd the lake, just stirr'd the trees.
17. I murmur under moon and stars
In brambly wildernesses ;
I linger by my shingly bars,
I loiter by my cresses.
18. Slowly and sadly we laid him down,
From the field of his fame fresh and gory ;
We carved not a line, we raised not a stone,
But we left him alone with his glory.

NOTE.—When the complete subject or predicate of a sentence is compound, it is necessary, in giving the analysis of the sentence, to analyse the parts of the compound member separately ; thus,

Mr. Higginbotham took the peddler into high favour, sanctioned his addresses to the schoolmistress, and settled his whole property on their children.

| | | | |
|----------------------------------|---------------------|----------------|-------------------|
| SUBJECT | Mr. Higginbotham | | |
| BARE PREDICATE..... | took | sanctioned | settled |
| OBJECT..... | peddler | addresses | property |
| MODIFIERS OF OBJECT.. | the | his, to the | his whole |
| MODIFIERS OF PREDI- CATE..... | into high favour | schoolmistress | on their children |

EXERCISE 18

Analyze sentences 1, 2, 3, 6, 8, 9, 10, 12, and 14 in the last exercise.

CHAPTER IV

CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS

50. Having completed our study of the various logical divisions of the sentence, we shall next consider how individual words are classified according to their uses in forming the various divisions of the sentence.

THE NOUN

51. We have seen (section 11) that a sentence is composed of two necessary parts—subject and predicate, each of which may consist of a single word; as

Birds fly;

or of a number of related words; as

Dark birds of a large size fly among the trees.

We saw further (section 13) that whether the subject of the sentence consists of one or of several parts, there is always an essential part—the bare subject—representing the particular person or thing being spoken about; as,

John came.

Our little *cousin* went away to-day.

A small red *coat* was lying there.

Words such as *John*, *cousin*, and *coat* bring to the mind an idea of the person or thing being

spoken about, because they *name* that which they represent.

So too when used as bare objects in the sentence; as,

The boy struck *John*;
The boy hurt his *cousin*;
The boy tore the red *coat*;

these words bring to the mind an idea of the person or thing being acted upon, because they *name* the object affected by the action.

Words such as *John*, *cousin*, or *coat*, which are used in a sentence *to name* anything, are called **nouns**. (*Noun* means "name.")

As we have seen above, nouns are frequently used in the sentence as a *bare subject* or a *bare object*; other examples are,

Mary broke the *window*.
The little *boy* saw a large *crow*.
Horses eat *hay*.

A noun is also frequently used as a *bare complement*; thus,

George is *king*.
They made George *king*.
Harry is an honest *boy*.

A noun used to complete the predicate is termed a *predicate noun*.

The noun is also used as an *address*; thus,

Hunter, leave the mountain-chase!
Plato, thou reasonest well!

NOTE.—Other uses of the noun will be considered in a later chapter.

EXERCISE 19

Point out the nouns in the following exercise and state how each is used in the sentence.

1. The world blessed the queen and cheered the prince.
2. London is a wonderful city.
3. Horses, carts, dogs and dirty children filled the yard.
4. The stranger gave the child a penny.
5. The teacher thinks John a clever scholar.
6. Captain, give the sailor place.
7. The messenger opened a bag and handed the king a letter.
8. Greatness and goodness are not means but ends.
9. Oh Iona! thy saddest grave will be this min'd heart.
10. The witenagemot made Harold king.
11. Honours are silly toys, and titles are but empty names.

DEFINITION

A noun is a word used as the name of an object.

Note.—By object is here meant anything that can be an object of thought to the mind.

THE PRONOUN

52. Not all words, however, which are used in the sentence to represent objects name these objects. In the sentence,

John brought the ball, *he* laid *it* yonder;

although the words *he* and *it* denote the same objects as *John* and *ball*, respectively, they do not name these objects. The word *he* might denote any boy or man, or even a horse or a lion; while the word *it* might represent a bat, a pen,

a book, etc. These words, therefore, represent objects without naming them.

Other examples are,

The man told the boys, but *they* did not believe *him*.

The girls said to the teacher, "*We* will help *you*."

African lions are larger than *those* in Asia.

James asked a man *whom* he met.

I know the man, *this* is *he*.

Will *you* meet *us* there?

Although these words do not name objects, yet because they are used in the sentence like nouns, as subject, object, etc., to represent objects, they are called **pronouns**. (*Pronoun* means "for a noun.")

Notice that a pronoun is not always simply a substitute for a noun. In the following question, for instance,

Who broke the window?

if we attempt to substitute a noun for the pronoun *Who*, the sentence will no longer ask a question.

When there is a noun in the sentence to which the pronoun refers, the noun is called its **antecedent**; as,

When the *man* came near, the animal attacked *him*.

A *man* who was passing turned in an alarm.

(*Antecedent* means "going before," and the noun is so called because it almost always precedes the pronoun.)

NOTE.—The antecedent of a pronoun is sometimes another pronoun; as,

Those who are ready may enter.

Frequently, however, a pronoun has no antecedent to which it refers; as,

Who came with you?

EXERCISE 20

Point out the nouns and the pronouns in the following exercise and state how each is used in the sentence. Where possible, state the antecedent of the pronoun.

1. The boy had a cake, but he ate it.
2. Traveller, art thou wayworn?
3. What have you, Sir?
4. The room was so dark he marked it not.
5. Who gave you this?
6. I could play you a tune that you would dance to.
7. Thou dost taste freedom as none taste it.
8. Art thou he whom we expect?
9. "Ah, Porphyro," she said, "how changed thou art, give me that voice again."

DEFINITION

A pronoun is a word used to represent an object without naming it.

THE VERB

53. We have learned that the complete predicate, whether composed of one or of many parts, always contains, like the subject, a principal or essential part, which cannot be omitted without destroying the assertion; as,

Birds *fly*.

A strong party *came* against him from the low country.

I *threw* them away.

Shut the door.

Words such as *fly*, *came*, *threw*, *shut*, etc., when used either alone or with other words to form the predicate of a sentence or a clause, are called **verbs**.

Verb means *word* (Latin *verbum* "a word"), and the verb is so called because it is indispensable to the statement.

Unlike the noun and the pronoun, the verb has but one use in the sentence, being either the complete predicate or the essential part of the complete predicate.

EXERCISE 21

Point out the verbs in the following exercise and state in each case whether the subject is a noun or a pronoun.

1. Some stood but others sat on the ground.
2. They changed their mode of advance and moved only in the night.
3. The maiden wept and prayed, but the ship her helm obeyed.
4. I saw John ; he is better to-day.
5. The path ascended rapidly, and the glen widened into a sylvan amphitheatre.
6. All gathered around and attentively studied the sticks.
7. Thus ended he, and both sat silent.
8. Mind your p's and q's.
9. Backward, turn backward, O Time, in your flight.
10. Who best bear his mild yoke, they serve him best.
11. Nine-tenths of all that goes wrong in this world is because some one does not mind his business.
12. The bows they bend and the knives they whet,
Hunters live so cheerily.
13. He holds him with his glittering eye—
The Wedding-guest stood still,
And listens like a three year's child ;
The Mariner hath his will.
14. On a ridge
Now fareth he, that o'er the vast beneath
Towers like an ocean cliff, and whence he seeth
A hundred waterfalls whose voices come.

DEFINITION

A verb is a word by means of which we make an assertion, that is, which either alone or with other words forms the complete predicate of a sentence.

THE ADJECTIVE

54. We saw (section 14) that the bare subject of the sentence has joined to it other words which further define its meaning or modify it; thus,

| | |
|----------------------|-------------------|
| <i>Dark</i> clouds | crossed the sky. |
| <i>Massive</i> walls | shut them in. |
| <i>Large</i> trees | lined the street. |
| <i>Little</i> Mary | told them. |

Since the bare subjects, however, are nouns, these modifying words define the meaning of the nouns, or modify nouns.

Notice further that we may thus modify a noun in other parts of the sentence. For example,

They built *massive* walls ;
They cut down *large* trees ;

where the modified nouns are used as objects.

Also in,

These are *massive* walls ;
They seem *large* trees ;

where the modified nouns are used as subjective complements.

Words that are thus added to a noun, to further define its meaning or modify it, are called **adjectives**. *Adjective* means "added to," and these words are so called because they are usually joined closely to the nouns they modify.

An adjective used as a complement is, however, joined to the word it modifies by the verb; thus,

The walls are *massive*.

The tree is *'arge*.

Here the adjectives *massive* and *large* are joined to the subject nouns by *are* and *is* respectively. An adjective which is thus joined to the word it modifies by the predicate or verb, is called a *predicate* adjective.

NOTE.—A predicate adjective frequently modifies a pronoun; thus,

He is *honest*.

They seem *angry*.

The adjective is, however, rarely added directly to a pronoun, as we do not say *honest he* or *angry they*.

EXERCISE 22

Point out the adjectives in the following, and state the noun or pronoun modified by each.

1. Faint heart never won fair lady.
2. Sweet lilies richest odours shed.
3. This wealthy Franklin is proud, fierce, jealous, and irritable.
4. The minstrel was infirm and old.
5. For O my sweet William was forester true.
6. Fair Spring o'er nature held her gentlest sway.
7. Come, little friend, you are late.
8. We thought him dull and cold.
9. Great, heavy, fantastic-shaped clouds, pearl-white with pearl-gray shadows, piled themselves up against the scintillant dark-blue of the sky.

10. Wither'd heath and rushes dry
Supplied a russet canopy.
11. There have been bright and glorious pageants here,
Where now grey stones and moss-grown columns lie.
12. Girt round with rugged mountains
The fair lake Constance lies ;
In her blue heart reflected
Shine back the starry skies.

DEFINITION

An adjective is a word used to modify a noun or pronoun, that is, to further define its meaning.

THE ADVERB

55. Nouns and pronouns are not, however, the only classes of words which can take modifiers to define their meaning. In our study of the structure of the sentence (section 15) we saw that the bare predicate or verb frequently has joined to it a modifier to limit its meaning in some particular respect; as,

John worked well :
John worked yesterday :
John worked here :

where the modifying words limit the asserted action to some particular manner, time, and place respectively.

A word which limits the meaning of a verb is said to modify it, and is called an **adverb**. (*Adverb* means "added to a verb.")

The verb, however, is not the only kind of word whose meaning can be limited by an adverb. Compare, for instance,

He *quite* forgot it ;
 This is *quite* bitter water ;
 She sang *quite* well ;

where the adverb limits the meaning of a verb, an adjective, and an adverb, respectively.

Other examples of adverbs modifying adjectives and adverbs are :

| | | |
|----------------------|---|---|
| Modifying adjectives | { | This is <i>very</i> strong. |
| | | <i>Extremely</i> cold weather came on. |
| | | We have <i>more</i> expensive presents. |
| | | It is <i>absolutely</i> painless. |

| | | |
|-------------------|---|---|
| Modifying adverbs | { | They worked <i>very</i> well. |
| | | She spoke <i>more</i> quietly. |
| | | He answered them <i>rather</i> sternly. |
| | | You talk <i>too</i> slowly. |

We now learn that the modifiers in a sentence are divided into two classes—the adjective, modifying nouns and pronouns; and the adverb, modifying verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs.

The modifying relations of the sentence are, therefore, of two kinds—the *adjective relation* existing between the adjective and the noun or pronoun which it modifies, and the *adverbial relation* existing between the adverb and the verb, adjective, or adverb which it modifies.

There are yet many interesting facts to be learned concerning the adjective and the adverb. These, however, will be reserved for later chapters, in which these two classes of words will be especially considered.

EXERCISE 23

A

Point out the adverbs in the following sentences and state what each modifies.

1. Slowly and sadly we laid him down.
2. "You are very kind," said the man, humbly.
3. We then carefully recorked the bottle.
4. We struggled furiously, but it was utterly useless.
5. This seemingly kind offer greatly surprised him.
6. He advanced very cautiously and then slowly lifted the cover.
7. Unhappily, these very rarely come together.
8. They then went slowly forward.
9. He soon did it quite easily.
10. She often talks too loudly.

B

Point out the adjectives and the adverbs in the following sentences and state the kind of word modified by each.

1. They then brought forward unusually large platters.
2. His troupe more closely there he scanned.
3. Who lives here now ?
4. He gently led them away.
5. Breathe softly flutes.
6. That is quite true.
7. Modern literature is particularly rich.
8. They considered him exceeding clever.
9. The style is sometimes harsh.
10. Here they afterwards built a very strong fort.

THE PREPOSITION

56. It was seen (section 39) that phrases are frequently used in a sentence with the value of single words. The following are examples of phrases used as adjectives to modify a noun or a pronoun :

Men of honour are trusted.

An ambassador *from France* entered the palace.

We saw piles *of lumber*.

The book *on the desk* is torn.

A man *beside me* took it.

Any *of them* will do.

Examining the composition of these phrases, we notice that each is composed of a noun or pronoun and a connecting word, *of, from, on, beside, etc.*, which joins the noun or pronoun to the word which the phrase modifies.

So, also, with phrases used as adverbs to modify a verb, adjective, or other adverb ; as,

He came *in haste*.

It fell *beside John*.

He is ready *for you*.

She was kind *to them*.

Here, also, the adverb phrases are composed of a noun or pronoun and a connecting word—*beside, in, for, to, etc.*, which joins the noun or pronoun to the word which the phrase modifies.

A connecting word such as *of, from, beside, in, for, etc.*, which, together with a noun or pronoun, thus forms an adjective or an adverb phrase, is called a **preposition**.

Because a preposition makes the noun or pronoun within the phrase modify another word (with the value of an adjective or an adverb), it is said to indicate a grammatical relation between the two words; thus,

The crowds *on* the bank rushed *along* the shore;

where the preposition *on* indicates an adjectival relation between *bank* and *crowds*, while the preposition *along* indicates an adverbial relation between *shore* and *rushed*.

In addition to indicating a *grammatical* relation (adjectival or adverbial) between the connected words, a preposition also denotes a *logical* relation existing between the ideas for which the words stand. Compare for example,

The book *on* the desk.

The book *beside* the desk.

The book *under* the desk.

Notice that these prepositions indicate different positions existing between the object denoted by *desk* and the object denoted by *book*.

As grammar deals principally with the relationship of words, we shall speak of the preposition as showing a grammatical relation between the words, rather than as showing a logical relation between the ideas denoted by these words.

The noun or pronoun within the phrase is called the *object* of the preposition and usually comes after it. Occasionally, however, the object precedes the preposition; thus,

He lay the stream *beside*.
 Level platforms here extend
 The mountains and the cliffs *between*.

EXERCISE 24

Point out the prepositions in the following sentences and state, with reasons, the exact relation denoted by each.

1. The top of the hill hid them from view.
2. The effigies of the kings faded into shadow.
3. A cloud at this time hung over it.
4. The cheering of the cavalry produced their hope of victory.
5. Great gates of brass turn heavily upon their hinges.
6. In the second century of the Christian era, the empire of Rome comprehended the fairest part of the earth.
7. The rest of the task was easy for them.
8. Do you know those in the boat?
9. All of them are ready for the contest.
10. Bring in the photograph that is in my desk.
11. I would the great world grew like thee, who grewest not alone in power and knowledge, but from hour to hour in reverence and in charity.
12. At midnight now, the snowy plain
 Finds sterner labour for the swain.

DEFINITION

A preposition is a word used with a noun or pronoun to form a phrase and relate this noun or pronoun to the word which the phrase modifies.

THE CONJUNCTION

57. Not all connecting words are, however, prepositions. Compare, for instance,

The man *with* the horse will go.
 The man *and* the horse will go.

In the first sentence *with* is a preposition, forming with the noun *horse* a phrase, and relating it to *man*.

In the second sentence no grammatical relation exists between the connected words *man* and *horse*, but both are related to *will go* as subjects. The connecting word *and*, therefore, merely joins together the independent members of the compound subject. Other examples of connecting words which merely join words but do not show any grammatical relation are,

He bought apples *and* candy.
 Are these sweet *or* bitter oranges?
 The waves rose *and* fell.

In the above examples, also, no relation exists between the connected words, since both words are related to some other word in the sentence. The connecting words, therefore, merely join together these independent parts.

Such connecting words also join together phrases and clauses which are grammatically independent of each other; as,

The trees along the road *and* behind the house were very high.
 It lies on the table *or* in the desk.
 Those were days of ease *and* of happiness.

Here each connecting word joins together phrases but does not denote grammatical relation between them, since each phrase is related to another word in the sentence.

So also in,

They said good night *and* the man started down the road ;
He called *but* they had gone ;
Remember your promises *and* stand truly by me ;
He had not finished it *nor* has he sent any excuse ;

since the sentences are compound, the clauses are grammatically independent (section 45), and the connecting words merely join the independent clauses but do not indicate any relation between them.

A connecting word which thus joins together words, phrases, or clauses without indicating any grammatical relation between them, is called a **conjunction**. (*Conjunction* means "joined together.")

Since the parts so joined together are used in the same way in the sentence, they are said to be *co-ordinate*. (*Co-ordinate* means "equal in rank.")

Occasionally, however, the conjunction, like the preposition, indicates a grammatical relation between the parts it connects.

Compare, for example,

He called *but* they had gone.
He called *after* they had gone.

In the first sentence, which is a compound sentence composed of two independent clauses, the conjunction *but* merely joins together the two independent clauses of the compound sentence.

In the second sentence, which is complex, the conjunction *after* relates the subordinate clause to the verb *called*, which it modifies.

Other examples are,

He did *as* he was told.

I know *that* he did it.

They departed *before* your letter arrived.

This is better *than* I thought.

We started *although* it was storming.

In all these examples, the conjunction relates a subordinate clause to some other part of the complex sentence.

A conjunction may, therefore, either join together words, phrases, and clauses used in the same way in the sentence, in which case it does not indicate any grammatical relation between these parts; or it may relate a subordinate clause to another part of the complex sentence.

When used to denote a grammatical relation, the conjunction differs from the preposition in that the preposition relates a noun or pronoun within a phrase to another word, while the conjunction relates a subordinate clause to another part of the complex sentence.

CAUTION.—Care is necessary in distinguishing the use of the conjunctions in such sentences as,

I told you *that* they were windmills *and that* nobody could think otherwise.

Here the conjunction *that* relates the subordinate clauses to *told* as objects, while the conjunction *and* merely joins the co-ordinate members of the compound object.

EXERCISE 25

A

Point out the conjunctions in the following sentences and state, with reasons, whether they merely connect, or denote grammatical relation.

1. I met him as he was leaving.
2. Their eyes followed us till we were out of sight.
3. She was here to-day but I did not see her.
4. All these pleasures and all these virtues you despise.
5. Healthy and quiet age does not sleep thus.
6. It may be so but I did not hear it.
7. The leading division turned completely round as the withering fire wreathed and consumed them.
8. The old couple started, reddened, and hurried away.
9. The issue has been slow but it has been inevitable.
10. They do rest from their labours and their works follow them.
11. Wayland is calling for you, nor will he go to my lord till you come.
12. We must go at once or they will be there first.

B

Classify, with reasons, the italicized words in the following exercise as prepositions or conjunctions.

1. He cannot see the heavens *nor* the flow *of* rivers.
2. Life changed *for* Tom *and* Maggie.
3. He sat down *before* the maw *of* a wide outlet.
4. He left the place *before* they arrived.
5. The artillery rend the ranks asunder, *and* the cavalry charge down *upon* the scattered ranks.
6. Her eye kindled, *although* the blood fled *from* her cheeks.

7. He is more dangerous *than* his father *or* mother.
8. It served him *for* the purposes *of* a staff *or of* a weapon.
9. *As* one lamp lights another *nor* grows less, so nobleness enkindleth nobleness.
10. The house where he was born *and in* which he died is offered *for* sale.

DEFINITION

A conjunction is a word used to connect words, phrases, and clauses having the same value in the sentence; or to show the grammatical relation of a subordinate clause within a complex sentence.

SUMMARY OF THE CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS

THE PARTS OF SPEECH

58. The words composing the various parts of the sentence are, as we have seen, divided into seven different classes, namely: nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions. These seven classes of words are known as the seven **parts of speech** (*speech* meaning "statement"), and they are so called because they unite in various ways to form sentences.

The seven parts of speech may be further arranged into three divisions, as follows:

1. *The principal parts of speech*,—noun, pronoun, and verb.

These are called the principal parts of speech, because they are the parts of speech used to form the essential parts of the sentence—subject and

predicate—and may, therefore, form a sentence without the help of any of the other classes.

2. *The modifying parts of speech*,—adjective and adverb.

These are so called because they are used in the sentence to further define the meaning of nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.

3. *The connecting parts of speech*, preposition and conjunction.

These are so called because they are used to indicate either a grammatical relation or a simple connection between words, phrases, or clauses in the sentence.

In addition to the seven parts of speech, we have learned of three classes of *independent elements* (sections 27-30)—the address, the expletive, and the interjection. Of these, the interjection is the only one treated as a separate class of words. The address being always a noun or a pronoun, it will be classed as such. The word *there* being commonly an adverb, the expletive use of *there* is generally treated as a special or peculiar use of the adverb. Our language is said, therefore, to have eight classes of words,—the seven parts of speech and the interjection.

THE RESPONSIVES

59. There are, however, two words in the language which do not seem to belong to any of the above eight classes of words. These are the words

yes and *no*, which are used in answering questions, and are equivalent to sentences; thus,

Question : Did he go ? Answer : Yes. (He did go.)

Question : Did you see him ? Answer : No. (I did not see him.)

These two words are often placed in a class by themselves, and termed **responsives** or sentence words.

DIFFERENT GRAMMATICAL VALUES OF THE SAME WORD

60. Although the words composing sentences are divided into seven classes, it is not to be understood that a word always belongs to the same class or part of speech. If we compare the uses of the italicized word in each of the following groups of sentences :

1. The *paper* is on the desk ;
2. A *paper* cap is easily torn ;
3. They *paper* the room to-day ;

1. They waited *long* ;
2. This is a *long* rope ;

we notice in the first group that the word *paper* is used as a noun in the first sentence, as an adjective in the second, and as a verb in the third; while in the second group the word *long* is used as an adverb in the first sentence and as an adjective in the second sentence. The part of speech of a word depends upon the way the word is used in the sentence, and by changing the use of any word we may change its part of speech.

When we name the class to which a word belongs and give its connection in the sentence, we are said to give its **grammatical value and relation**.

EXERCISE 26

Give the grammatical value and relation of the italicized words in the following sentences.

1. He waits *above*, sir.
2. His room is *above* the office.
3. *Above* is a word of five letters.
4. *Roast* this *roast* *better*.
5. *Better* your efforts, boys.
6. The *guide* now *guides* them through the *pass*.
7. *Pass* me the *hammer*.
8. They *hammer* the *iron* *straight*.
9. They went *straight* *forward*.
10. I despise a *forward* person.
11. A *hollow* *sound* vibrated through the *hollow*.
12. They *sound* an alarm.
13. *May* the *better* man win !
14. Did you have a good *time* ?
15. *Time* those boys.
16. The lover, *all* *as* *frantic*, sees Helen's beauty in a
Brow of Egypt.
17. *Silk* bonnet never kept *out* *steel* blade.
18. Our *lack* is nothing *but* our leave.
19. *My* former speeches have *but* hit your thoughts.
20. *Some* holy angel unfold his message *ere* he come.

DEFINITION

The **Parts of Speech** are the classes into which words are divided according to their use or function in the sentence.

GRAMMATICAL VALUES OF PHRASES AND
SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

PHRASES

61. We saw (section 39) that a phrase is a group of related words not consisting of a subject and predicate, and used in a sentence with the value of a single word. Phrases may, therefore, like single words, be classified according to their uses in the sentence. There are eight classes of phrases, corresponding to the eight classes into which words are divided, as follows:

1. *Noun phrases*

Compare for example,

I dislike flattery.

I dislike being flattered.

Other examples of noun phrases are,

Over the fence puts you out.

He came from *over the way*.

Always ready is a good motto.

He wishes *to appear clever*.

2. *Pronoun phrases*

Compare,

They praise themselves.

They praise each other.

They praise one another.

Each other and *one another* are, however, the only pronoun phrases.

3. *Verb phrases*

Compare,

He *stood* at the door.

He *was standing* at the door.

Other examples of verb phrases are,

The letter *was sent* yesterday.

She *is working* in the kitchen.

Have you seen my pencil?

Did you know that lady?

I *shall leave* to-morrow.

NOTE.—The study of verb phrases presents some of the most interesting and important problems in connection with grammar. Their special study will, however, be deferred until the chapter dealing with the verb.

4. *Adjective phrases*

Compare,

Idle boys never succeed.

Boys *with idle habits* never succeed.

Other examples of adjective phrases are,

A row of *trees* hid the front of the house.

Do you know the man *beside the curt*?

5. *Adverb phrases*

Compare,

He entered *hastily*.

He entered *in haste*.

Other examples are,

They sat *by a roaring fire*.

He returned *in a short time*.

This is sweet *to the taste*.

He wore a coat black *with soot*.

6. *Preposition phrases*

Compare,

He spoke *of* the war.He spoke *in regard to* the war.

Other examples are,

Mary came *instead of* John.She remained *on account of* the rain.The mourners passed *out of* the house.

In the case of a preposition phrase, note carefully the presence of the two phrases. In the last sentence, for instance, in addition to the preposition phrase *out of*, there is also the adverb phrase *out of the house*, composed of the preposition phrase *out of* and its object *house*.

7. *Conjunction phrases*

Compare,

John *and* James came.John *as well as* James came.

Other examples are,

He left *as soon as* I came.They remained *so that* they might see us.8. *Interjection phrases*

Compare,

Alas! what will they do?*Ah me!* what will they do?

Other examples are,

Oh, pshaw! Don't do that.*Goodness gracious!* the bird is out of the cage.

EXERCISE 27

State the grammatical value of each italicized phrase in the following sentences, and give, where possible, the relation of the phrase.

1. He wished *to be seen*.
2. You *will find* another *of them* there.
3. The carriage is ready *for you*.
4. *Oh Heaven!* that aspect tells a fearful tale.
5. He *hath honoured me of late*.
6. These knights were hostile *to the king*.
7. They wished *each other* Merry Christmas.
8. He came *by way of* the Falls.
9. The day is already too short *for our journey*.
10. They passed from *beneath the wall*.
11. *To alter favour* ever is *to fear*.
12. *Saints of Paradise!* what is to be done?
13. The air, *as well as* the earth, *has been subdued by science*.
14. We teach the art *of reading aloud*.

SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

62. We have seen (sections 38 and 42) that a subordinate clause is always used in a complex sentence with the value of a single word. A subordinate clause may, therefore, like words and phrases, be classified according to its use in the sentence of which it forms a part. The classes of subordinate clauses are three in number—noun, adjective, and adverb.

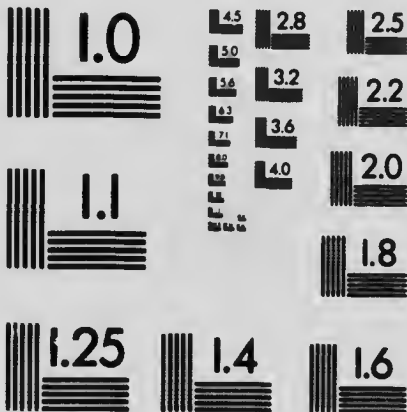
1. NOUN CLAUSES

63. A subordinate clause may have the value of a noun, playing the part of a subject, an object of



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a verb or preposition, etc., in the clause of which it forms a part; thus,

What they say is true. Subject
 This is *what he wants*. Predicate noun
 We know *that he did it* Object of verb
 We know it from *what we saw*. . . . Object of preposition

NOTE.—For other uses of the noun clause, see sections 128–5.

Be careful to distinguish between the phrase and the clause when a noun clause is used as the object of a preposition, as in the last example above. In this sentence the preposition and the noun clause form a phrase used as an adverb to modify *know*. Notice further that, although the phrase contains a clause composed of a subject and predicate, the phrase itself does not have a subject and predicate, but is composed of the two parts—*preposition* and *noun*.

NOTE.—Although certain of our phrases and clauses are classified as noun phrases and noun clauses, they cannot be considered names in the same sense as the ordinary noun. They are, therefore, classified as noun phrases and noun clauses, because they are used in the sentence in the same constructions as nouns.

EXERCISE 28

Point out the noun clauses in the following exercise and state the relation of each.

1. Thinkest thou that they will have mercy?
2. What these indications portended was plain.
3. The servant inquired of the chamberlain what company he had for the coach.

4. He told them that the ship was ready to sail.
5. Whatsoe'er he does seems best.
6. He had undoubting confidence in what he believed to be right.
7. This is a great proof to me of what I am saying.
8. What is remarkable is that they never suspected him.
9. The timbrels announce that our queen and her attendants are leaving their gallery.
10. What I have obtained was the fruit of no bargain.
11. He was still careless of what should be the event.
12. Who talks much must talk in vain.
13. You will remember how we learned in our last lecture that snow gradually slides down into the valleys and is pressed together by the gathering snow behind.

2. ADJECTIVE CLAUSES

64. Many clauses are related to nouns or pronouns as modifiers; thus,

Those *who saw it* kindly come forward ;
 He gave her those praises *which he thought due to her* ;
 He gave his sword to Locksley, *whom he met by the way* ;
 The world *into which Cowper came* was one very adverse
 to him ;

where the italicized clauses are adjectives, modifying *Those*, *praises*, *Locksley*, and *world* respectively.

Care is necessary in distinguishing between an adjective clause beginning with a preposition as in the last example above, and a noun clause object of a preposition; thus,

He made a report *on what he had seen*.

The noun clause is the object of the preposition *on*.

He made a report *in which he criticised the council.*

The adjective clause modifies the noun *report*.

In the last example the object of the preposition is the pronoun *which*, the two words composing an adverb phrase which modifies the verb *criticised*,—*he criticised in which*.

EXERCISE 29

Point out the adjective clauses in the following exercise and state the relation of each.

1. An accident has occurred which has given me new room for meditation.
2. In this bay, which was of sufficient dimensions, the entire car was in a manner placed.
3. All that a man hath will he give for his life.
4. It was built of timber to which I am a stranger.
5. Puss, who seemed in a great measure recovered from her illness, now made a hearty meal.
6. He leaves to man the ruin man hath made.
7. A tall slave that went by snatched it out of my hand.
8. His countenance is kindled against those who have departed from the vow which they have made.
9. He gives nothing but worthless gold, who gives from a sense of duty.
10. These instances of cunning, which she thought impenetrable, yet which everybody saw through, were very pleasing to our benefactor, who gave every day some new proofs of his passion.
11. A signal to his squire he flung,
Who instant to his stirrup sprung.
12. Markest thou the firm, yet active stride,
With which he scales the mountain side?
13. Who then to power and glory shall restore
That which our evil rashness hath undone?

3. ADVERB CLAUSES

65. A clause may also be used after the manner of an adverb to modify a verb, adjective, or adverb; thus,

They perished *while they slept* ;
 When *the lady was done*, Abou Hassan drank of his glass ;
 He is resting more quietly *than he did yesterday* ;

where the italicized clauses are adverbs modifying *perished*, *drank*, and *more quietly*, respectively.

EXERCISE 30

Point out the adverb clauses in the following exercise and state what each modifies.

1. I do not limit your credit, because you are a man of sense.
2. As Scrooge and the Spirit went along the street, the brightness of the roaring fire was wonderful.
3. Since he has done this he deserves punishment.
4. He ran on till I lost sight of him.
5. As soon as I came home, I presented them to my wife.
6. After it had passed they were merrier than they had been before.
7. Unless God be pleased to bring it about, nothing can save my life.
8. Though mine ear is all unstrung
 Still, still it loves the Lowland tongue.
9. As up the flinty path they strain'd,
 Sudden his steed the leader rein'd.
10. Fear was within the tossing bark
 When stormy winds grew loud.

CLAUSES IN NARRATION

66. After such expressions as *he said, he asked, etc.*, the thought expressed by a speaker in any sentence may be reported by another in either of two ways, as follows :

He said, "The boys have gone to school."
He said that the boys had gone to school.

In the first sentence the reported statement, although used as object of the verb *said*, has the form of an assertive sentence. It begins with a capital letter and ends with a period, the whole being given within quotation marks. This form is called **direct narration**, because the direct words of the speaker have been reported.

In the second sentence no quotation marks or capital letter is used, and the statement, which varies somewhat from the original words of the speaker, takes the form of a regular noun clause. This form is called **indirect narration**, because the words of the speaker are reported only indirectly.

Other examples are,

He inquired, "What are you doing?"
He inquired what they were doing.

He said, "Go to your seats at once."
He said that they should go to their seats at once.

In the direct form, the quotation is to be classified as an assertive, interrogative, or imperative sentence used in direct narration with the value of a noun clause.

In the indirect form, the clause is to be classified as a subordinate noun clause.

For the form of the verb in indirect narration, see section 199.

EXERCISE 31

Classify fully the reported parts in the following exercise.

1. He said that he and his companions would warn Gurth.
2. He whispered to Mr. Dilly, "Who is that gentleman?"
3. "How the wind catches her stern," he said.
4. The knight asked what had become of his faithful squire.
5. "Take the helm, lead the line, save the squadron!" cried the chief.
6. He said, "I am Joseph your brother."
7. "Keep back!" she bade; "What strength have you?"
8. The chief inquired what they would do in the matter.
9. I said, "Surely he is torn in pieces."
10. The cheering sound of "Dinner is upon the table" dissolved his reverie.
11. Scrooge said, "I am not going to stand this sort of thing any longer."
12. "I know you can run fast," replied the tortoise, "but I think I can beat you."

COMPLEX SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

67. A subordinate clause is frequently complex, that is, it contains one or more other clauses subordinate to itself; thus,

No one pitied the fate of the two Malvoisons (who only suffered the death *which they had well deserved*).

Here the subordinate clause inclosed with the brackets is itself complex, containing, as a modifier of its object, the subordinate clause printed in italics.

In pointing out such complex subordinate clauses the whole clause may be given, or, which is more usual, only its principal part; thus,

Who only suffered the death,

Adjective clause modifying *Malvoisons*.

Which they had well deserved,

Adjective clause modifying *death*.

SUMMARY OF CLAUSES

68. The various classes of clauses met with in our previous lessons may be summarized as follows :

1. Subordinate clauses (or dependent statements) $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} a. \text{ Noun} \\ b. \text{ Adjective} \\ c. \text{ Adverb} \end{array} \right.$
2. Principal clauses—The independent parts of complex sentences.
3. Independent clauses — The independent statements of compound sentences.

NOTE.—By some grammarians an independent statement within a compound sentence is also called a principal clause. Strictly speaking, however, a clause is not *principal* unless it has a subordinate clause dependent upon it.

ANALYSIS BY CLAUSES

69. When we write out in order the clauses composing a sentence and state the grammatical value

of each, together with its relation or connection, we are said to analyze the sentence by clauses.

I. How can you advise me to desert the expedition in which we are all embarked?

A complex sentence.

Clause 1. How can you expedition.

A principal clause, interrogative.

Clause 2. In which we are all embarked.

An adjective clause modifying the noun *expedition*.

II. The vessel is going to pieces and it is full time for all to get into the long-boat.

A compound sentence.

Clause 1. The vessel pieces.

An independent clause, assertive.

Clause 2. (and) it is full time for all to get into the long-boat.

Independent clause, assertive; co-ordinate with clause 1.

III. What will the other gentlemen do?

A simple sentence, interrogative.

IV. They think that the hanging will chiefly fall to the lot of the Lowland gentry; but they will be disappointed.

A compound-complex sentence.

Clause 1. They think.

Principal clause, assertive.

Clause 2. That the hanging gentry.

A noun clause object of the verb *think*.

Clause 3. (but) they will be disappointed.

An independent clause, assertive; co-ordinate with clause 1.

Notice that a simple sentence is merely to be written out and classified according to composition and form.

EXERCISE 32

Analyze by clauses the sentences in the following extracts.

1. All that glitters is not gold.
2. Hatred stirreth up strifes, but love eovereth all transgressions.
3. As we rode up I pereceived that it was slightly open.
4. Put your trust in God, iny boys, and keep your powder dry.
5. The jingling of the guinea helps the hurt that Honour feels.
6. We reap what we have sown.
7. Whosoever exalteth himself shall be abased.
8. The western half of the sky was of a pale orange and the eastern a dark red, which blended together in the blue of the zenith, that deepened as twilight came on.
9. I guess that's the first time you ever thought I needed a rest since I was born.
10. Though this is called by many a rash adventure, I deny that the undertaking upon which we are entering is in any sense a new one.

11. For a cap and bells our lives we pay,
Bubbles we buy with a whole soul's asking.
12. We may shut our eyes but we cannot help knowing
That skies are clear and grass is growing.
13. We look before and after
And pine for what is not.
14. The soul that riseth with us, our life's star,
Hath had elsewhere its setting,
And cometh from afar.

WORDS WITH DOUBLE GRAMMATICAL FUNCTIONS

70. In the foregoing classification of words, we found that a word, when used in a sentence, belonged to some one of the eight classes into which words are divided. We must now, however, consider certain peculiar classes of words which, when used in a sentence, are found to partake of the nature of two or more of these classes.

NOUN AND ADVERB

71. A word is occasionally used in a sentence both as a noun to name an object and as an adverb to modify a verb, an adjective, or an adverb: thus,

They left the next *day*.

Here *day* is a noun, since it names a definite kind of object, and is modified by the adjectives *the* and *next*.

It is also used as an adverb, since it modifies the verb *left*, limiting the action to a certain time.

Other examples are,

This weighs ten *pounds* ;

The road is sixty *feet* wide ;

They walked two *miles* further ;

where the nouns *pound*, *feet*, and *miles* modify a verb, an adjective, and an *adverb* respectively.

Because these words perform the function of both a noun and an adverb, they are called **adverbial nouns**.

PRONOUN AND ADJECTIVE

72. Certain words used in the sentence to modify nouns also have the value of a pronoun, representing an object without naming it; thus,

John said to James, "*My* book is on *your* desk."

Here the italicized words *My* and *your*, in addition to being adjectives modifying the nouns *book* and *desk* respectively, are also pronouns representing the same persons as the nouns *John* and *James*.

Other examples are,

The men lost *their* way.

Mary loaned William *her* pen.

My horse is weary of *his* stall.

Canada is *our* native land.

Lord James of Douglas, lend *thine* aid.

Words such as the above, which partake of the nature of both a pronoun and an adjective, are by some grammarians classified as **pronominal adjectives**. (See also section 87.)

PRONOUN AND CONJUNCTION

73. A few words used as pronouns, and usually referring to an antecedent noun or pronoun in the

same sentence, are also used with the value of a conjunction, to introduce and show the relation of a subordinate clause; thus,

The gentleman *who* had first spoken was the secretary of Lord Montford.

Here the word *who*, in addition to representing the same person as the noun *gentleman*, also relates to it the adjective clause, *who had first spoken*.

Other examples of such words are,

Small the bliss *that* sense alone bestows.

The multitude *that* obeys you is of those *whom* you have comforted.

The room in *which* they hang is always empty.

Man seems the only growth *that* dwindles here.

He *who* gave the trees their glory gave the birds their gift of song.

Words used as above with the value of both a pronoun and a conjunction, are called **conjunctive pronouns**.

ADVERB AND CONJUNCTION

74. Again, other words are used as conjunctions to relate a subordinate clause or join co-ordinate ones, and also have the value of an adverb within the clause they introduce; thus,

He fell *where* he stood.

Here the italicized word *where*, in addition to relating the subordinate adverbial clause to the verb *fell*, also modifies the verb *stood* within the subordinate clause.

Other examples of such words are,

They despised life *when* it was separated from freedom.

They retired to the next room *whence* they could overhear the whole conversation.

He wondered *why* they should choose it.

I do not know *how* we kept afloat.

This looked alluring ; *so* I headed the boat for it.

Words which are thus used with the value of a conjunction and an adverb, are called **conjunctive adverbs**.

CONJUNCTION AND ADJECTIVE

75. *Which* and *what*, which are frequently used as conjunctive pronouns, may have the value of a conjunction and an adjective when they modify a following noun. Compare for example,

Have you seen the horse (*which* he bought)?

Have you seen (*which* horse he bought)?

Have you seen (*what* horse he bought)?

where in the last two sentences the conjunctive words are also adjectival to the noun *horse*.

So also in,

He bought *whatever* food was needed.

I will take *whichever* book you say.

When thus used, these words are called **conjunctive adjectives**.

NOTE.—The word *whose* may be used with the value of a conjunction, a pronoun, and an adjective ; as,

This is the man *whose* house was burned.

Here *whose* is a conjunction relating the adjective clause, a pronoun denoting the same person as *man*, and an adjective modifying the noun *house*.

NOUN AND VERB

76. Two very important classes of words possessing double functions are derived from verbs. The first of these classes is generally used in the sentence with the value of a noun and a verb. Notice, for instance, the use of each italicized part in the following sentences and also the relation of the noun or adverb following the italicized part :

Giving men money will not help them.
To give men money will not help them.
He dislikes *remaining* here.
He dislikes *to remain* here.

The italicized parts, *giving*, *to give*, etc., which are each derived from a verb, while used as subject or object nouns in the sentence, are also followed by verbal adjuncts, object, or adverbial modifier, and, therefore, retain in part their verbal nature.

Words such as *giving*, *to give*, etc., which are used as nouns in the sentence but also retain the power of taking after them verbal adjuncts, are called **verbal nouns** or **infinitives**.

Infinitive means "unlimited," and the infinitive is so called because, while it represents the same action or state as the corresponding verb, it does not limit the action to any particular person, time, etc., as is the case with the regular predicate.

Other examples of infinitives are :

They resolved *to prosecute* the scheme.
We thought of *taking* them back.
To be good is *to be* happy.
Bearing tales is disgraceful.
O Rose, who dares *to name* thee.

FORMS OF VERBAL NOUNS OR INFINITIVES

77. Notice the form of the infinitives in the following:

Going there was a mistake.
He needs *to go* there.
You need not (to) *go* there.

Infinitives have three forms, which are distinguished thus:

1. The gerund,—ending in *ing*; as,
Going, remaining.
2. The gerundial infinitive,—the simple verb with the sign *to* before it; as,
To go, to remain.
3. The root infinitive,—the simple verb without the sign *to*; as,
Go, remain.

EXERCISE 33

Classify the infinitives in the following sentences and give the relation of each.

1. Some endeavour to ascend upon the shoulders of the others.
2. My object was to surround the car.
3. He tried to be smart as a means of distracting his own attention.
4. They did nothing but shout.
5. Oswald on receiving this intelligence resolved to return to his master.
6. He raised his eyes on hearing his own name.
7. The ministry intends to dissolve and not resign.

8. One circumstance went a great way in enforcing these observations.
9. My blood begins my safer guides to rule ; and passion essays to lead the way.
10. I resolved to lash myself to the water-cask and to throw myself with it into the water.
11. You dare me to go, but you dare not go yourself.
12. By stepping aside for a moment, a man exposes himself to a fearful risk of losing his place forever.

OTHER USES OF THE GERUNDIAL INFINITIVE

VERB AND ADVERB

78. Examine the relation of the gerundial infinitive in each of the following :

- He came *to inform* them.
 He is ready *to go* with you.
 I paused *to contemplate* a tomb.
 I should be glad *to meet* them.
 They arrived too late *to see* him.

Here the gerundial infinitive is used as an adverb to modify a verb, an adjective, or an adverb.

VERB AND ADJECTIVE

79. Observe also the relation of the gerundial infinitive in the following :

- He had cause *to regret* it.
 It was a dreadful death *to die*.
 Give him time *to do* it.

Here the gerundial infinitive is used as an adjective to modify a noun.

In addition, therefore, to possessing verbal force, the gerundial infinitive may be used in the sentence in either one of three functions,

1. As a noun,
We desire *to meet* them.
2. As an adverb,
We went *to meet* them.
3. As an adjective,
We had no desire *to meet* them.

EXERCISE 34

State the use of each gerundial infinitive in the following exercise.

1. To give is better than to receive.
2. He wanted to visit his friends.
3. He is anxious to meet you.
4. They were given bread to eat and water to drink.
5. Fools who came to scoff remained to pray.
6. He came to tell them the ship was ready to sail.
7. My father taught me to know things definitely.
8. To be prejudiced is to be weak.
9. To lose one's temper is to weaken one's power.
10. He bade that all should ready be,
To grace a guest of fair degree.
11. Their efforts to meet us were not successful.
12. She had an errand to go.
13. I had a mind to bring you to the house myself.
14. The two after whispering together craved permission
to ask a question.

PARTICIPLES

80. In addition, however, to the gerundial infinitive there are other words derived from the verb which retain in part their verbal nature, and which

are used regularly as adjectives to modify nouns or pronouns.

Notice, for instance, in each of the following sentences, the relation of the italicized word, and of the noun or adverb following the italicized word.

The man *crossing* the street will tell you.
They found him *resting* quietly.
The berries *picked* yesterday are now soft.

Here the words *crossing*, *resting*, and *picked*, which are derived from the verbs *cross*, *rest*, and *pick*, while used as adjectives to modify *man*, *him*, and *berries*, respectively, have also retained sufficient of their verbal nature to take verbal adjuncts—object or modifier.

A word such as *crossing*, *resting*, or *picked*, which is used as an adjective to modify a noun or pronoun, and may also take verbal adjuncts, is called a verbal adjective or **participle**.

Participle means "partaking," and these words are so called because they partake of the nature of the two parts of speech—verb and adjective.

Other examples of participles are,

Edward beheld the animal *making* his rounds.
Here is the Slogger, *stripped*, and *thirsting* for the fray.
Springing from his seat, he left the room.
The king, *attended* by Ivanhoe, arrived without interruption.

CLASSES OF PARTICIPLES

81. Notice the meaning and forms of the italicized participles in the following groups of sentences.

The man *passing* here is his brother.
The places just *passed* are very beautiful.

Those *going* out are very young.
Those already *gone* were much older.

The first participle in each group represents an action as going on or incomplete at the time referred to. Such a participle is called an **imperfect** participle.

The second participle in each group represents the action as being over or completed at the time referred to. Such a participle is termed a **perfect** participle.

Our verbal words may, therefore, be classified as follows:

- | | | |
|----------------|---|---|
| 1. Infinitives | { | Gerund. . . . giving. Gerundial. . to give. Root. give. |
| 2. Participle | { | Imperfect. . giving. Perfect. . . . given. |

Notice that the gerund and the imperfect participle do not differ in form. These must, therefore, be distinguished by their uses; thus,

Lifting these is hard work. Gerund.

The man *lifting* these is strong. . Imperfect participle.

EXERCISE 35

A

Classify the participles in the following exercise, and state the relation of each.

1. The two champions, armed with quarter staves, stepped forward.

2. The labour required by the condenser allowed scarcely any respite.
3. The circumstance now detailed concerning the country seemed novel and extraordinary.
4. Entering an apartment hung with sports won by his valour, he found a flagon of wine on the table.
5. About a bowshot from the village appeared square fields surrounded and divided by stone walls.
6. Looking upwards, I beheld a small portion of the moon's disk protruding beyond the balloon.

B

Classify and give the relation of each infinitive and participle in the following exercise.

1. Waverley on entering the first gate walked slowly down the avenue, enjoying the grateful shade.
2. The eyes of all endeavoured to discover the leaders who, mingling in the thick of the fight, encouraged their companions.
3. He instantly wrote to assure her of his own safety.
4. Rising up, he seemed anxious to speak; but the perplexity arising from thinking in a language different from his own kept him quiet.
5. Repulsed from the castle and not venturing to make application to the Sheriff, he had recourse to the solicitor.
6. He wrote a note to Flora, intimating his purpose to wait upon her.
7. Heaped upon the floor to form a kind of throne were turkeys and geese.
8. The two stood up for a moment, giving us time to make our observation.
9. Isaac, relieved of one half of his apprehensions by learning that his daughter lived, threw himself at the feet of the generous outlaw.

10. Never to tire, never to grow cold, to be patient,
sympathetic, tender, to look for the budding flower
and the opening heart, like God to love always,—
this is duty.
11. I love to watch, at silent eve,
Thy scatter'd blossom's lonely light,
And have my inmost heart receive
The influence of that sight.
12. Those evening clouds, that setting ray,
And beauteous tints, serve to display
Their great Creator's praise ;
Then let the short-lived thing called man,
To Him his homage raise.

DEFINITIONS

An Infinitive is a word which performs the function both of a noun and of a verb.

A Participle is a word which performs the function both of an adjective and of a verb.

CHAPTER V

INFLECTION

NATURE OF INFLECTION

82. In the last chapter we considered the various classes into which words are divided according to their uses or function in the sentence. We are now to consider some changes in form which certain classes of words undergo, and to notice the reasons for which the various changes are made.

If we compare the meanings of the two forms of the italicized words in,

- I see the *boy*, the *horse*, and the *cart* ;
- I see the *boys*, the *horses*, and the *carts* ;

we notice that while the two forms of each noun name the same kind of object, they nevertheless differ slightly in meaning. The forms *boy*, *horse*, and *cart* each denote one object, but the forms *boys*, *horses*, and *carts* each denote a number of objects more than one.

Similarly, if we say,

- I see the horse ;
- I *saw* the horse ;

although the two forms *see* and *saw* assert the same action, they also differ slightly in meaning,

the first form denoting a present act, but the second a past act.

In all such cases as the above, therefore, a change in the form of the word indicates a slight change in its meaning.

Again, if we compare the different forms of the italicized words in,

He said that *his* friend scarcely knew *him*;
You have *your* chance now ;
 The *boy* came ; The *boy's* hat was lost ;

we notice that the different forms of the same word denote not a change in the meaning, but a change in the relation of the word in the sentence.

When we thus change the form of a word to denote a change in either its meaning or its relation, we are said to inflect the word, and the varying of the form of the word is called its **inflection**.

Inflection means a "bending," and it is so called because in inflection the word is bent in regard to its shape or form.

INFLECTION AND DERIVATION

83. Not all changes in form that indicate a difference in meaning are, however, to be viewed as inflection. If we contrast the changes of form in,

boy, boys ; he, his ; run, runs ;

with those in,

boy, boyish ; run, runner ; paint, painter ;

we see in the second examples that each change gives a form with quite a different meaning, one which may be even another part of speech ; as,

run—verb ; runner—noun.

In the latter examples, therefore, the second form is not another form of the same word, but a new word derived from the first. This process of forming one word from another is called *derivation*.

We must remember, therefore, that when such a change gives us a form with quite a different meaning, that is, one denoting a different idea ; as,

run, runner ; sing, song, gun, gunner ;

the second form is a new word, and the change is one of *derivation*.

On the other hand, when a change of form gives us only a slight modification in meaning, but not a different idea, we have another form of the same word, and the change of form is termed *inflection*.

NOTE.—For a further account of the process of derivation the student will consult the appendix.

We shall now consider in order the various inflections to be found in our language.

NUMBER IN NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

84. If we compare the forms and meanings of such nouns and pronouns as,

The *boy* saw the *man* on a *horse* ;
The *boys* saw the *men* on *horses* ;

He came with *me* ;
They came with *us* ;

we see that the changes in form which have taken place all denote a difference in the number of objects represented.

Because the noun or pronoun here varies its form to indicate a difference in the number of objects represented, it is said to be inflected for **number**.

A form of a noun or pronoun such as *boy, man, horse, He, or me*, since it denotes one or a single object, is called the singular form, or is said to be of the **singular number**.

A form of a noun or pronoun such as *boys, men, horses, They, and us*, since it denotes more than one, is called the plural form, or is said to be of the **plural number**.

NOTE.—From such examples as,

I bought one *sheep* ;
You sold five *sheep* ;

we notice that some nouns do not undergo a change in form when referring to different numbers. In such cases the number of the noun must be decided from the meaning.

CASE IN NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

85. Again, a noun or a pronoun may vary its form through a change in its relation in the sentence; thus,

He said that *his* friend scarcely knew *him*.
Turn *thou thy* eyes behind *thee* ;
Who is he? *Whom* seeks he? *Whose* message does he bear?
John has *William's* book, and *William* has *John's* book.

Here we find that when the noun or pronoun is

subject of the sentence, such forms as *He, thou, who, John,* and *William* must be used. On the other hand when it is related as an adjective to modify a noun, the forms *his, thy, whose, William's, John's,* etc., can alone be used. But when it is the object of a verb or preposition, the forms *him, thee, whom,* etc., are used.

These words, therefore, undergo a change of form to indicate a difference in their relation to the other words in the sentence. This variation in a noun or pronoun to denote its relation to other words is called **case**.

NOMINATIVE CASE

86. The form of a noun or a pronoun used as subject ; as,

He came yesterday ;
I have your pen ;
Who left it open ?
Boys love play ;

is called the subjective or nominative form, and the noun or pronoun is said to be in the **nominative case**.

This form is also used when a noun or a pronoun is a subjective complement ; thus,

This is *he* ;
Who art thou ?
That is *John* ;

and such a noun or pronoun is frequently said to be in the **predicate nominative case**.

POSSESSIVE CASE

87. The form of a noun or a pronoun used as an adjective to denote possession ; as,

Richard's eyes sparkled with indignation ;
My arms are at *your* service ;
 The *ship's* course was now changed ;
Their projects never thwarted each other ;

is called the possessive form, and the noun or pronoun is said to be in the **possessive case**.

We saw (section 72) that because the possessive form of a pronoun is used with the value of an adjective to modify a noun, it is sometimes classified as a pronominal adjective. We may now notice further that the possessive form of a noun also possesses a double function—noun and adjective ; as.

John's friend has returned home ;

where in addition to being a name word, *John's* also modifies *friend* with the value of an adjective.

OBJECTIVE CASE

88. A noun or a pronoun form used as object after a verb or preposition ; as,

Mary saw *them* ;
 John met *me* ;
 Will you go with *us* ?
 Send *John* ;

is called an objective form, and the noun or pronoun is said to be in the **objective case**.

A noun or a pronoun used as an objective complement (section 22) is also in the objective case; as,

We thought that *him* ;
They made George *king* ;

and such a noun or pronoun is frequently termed an **objective predicate** noun or pronoun.

NOMINATIVE AND OBJECTIVE FORMS

89. In certain of our pronouns the nominative and the objective differ in form; as,

I, me; he, him; she, her; who, whom.

In some pronouns, however, and in all nouns, the two cases are alike in form; thus,

The *boy* struck *it*.
It struck the *boy*.

In all nouns, therefore, and in some pronouns, these cases are distinguished only by the relation of the word in the sentence.

DECLENSION

90. We have noticed that nouns and pronouns vary their forms or are inflected for number and case, there being two number forms—singular and plural; and three case forms—nominative, possessive, and objective, although two of these forms, nominative and objective, are frequently alike. From this we learn that there are six number and case forms, as follows:

He brought *his* friend with *him* ;
They brought *their* friends with *them* ;

where we find three case forms in the singular and three in the plural. The various case and number forms of a noun or pronoun are frequently given in the form of a table or paradigm; thus,

| | NOMINATIVE | POSSESSIVE | OBJECTIVE |
|----------|------------|------------|-----------|
| SINGULAR | he | his | him |
| PLURAL | they | their | them |

When we thus give in a table or paradigm the number and case forms of any noun or pronoun, we are said to decline the word, or to give its **declension**.

Declension means "sloping away" or declining, and it is so called because the other forms slope away or decline from the nominative.

Other examples of declension are,

| | NOMINATIVE | POSSESSIVE | OBJECTIVE |
|----------|------------|-------------|-----------|
| SINGULAR | thou | thy, thine | theo |
| PLURAL | you | your, yours | you |

| | NOMINATIVE | POSSESSIVE | OBJECTIVE |
|----------|------------|------------|-----------|
| SINGULAR | boy | boy's | boy |
| PLURAL | boys | boys' | boys |

NOTE.—A more exhaustive study of the inflection of nouns and pronouns for number and case will be made in the chapters treating of these two parts of speech.

EXERCISE 36

A

Give the number and case of each noun and pronoun in the following exercise.

1. The marble figures of the monuments assumed strange shapes in the uncertain light.

2. The consul was the foremost man to take in hand an axe.
3. He seated himself at the table, and wrote cheques for their respective amounts.
4. The princes felt that the scene which they had beheld weighed heavily on their spirits.
5. I slowly retraced my morning's walk, and as I passed out at the portal of the cloister, the door, closing with a jarring noise behind me, filled the whole building with echoes.
6. Mounted on panthers' furs and lions' manes
From rear to van they scour about the plains.
7. At Picus brave Horatius darted one fiery thrust
And the proud Umbrian's gilded arms clashed in the
bloody dust.

B

Write out the declension of *I, portal, echo, man.*

DEFINITIONS

Inflection is a change in the form of a word to indicate a change either in its meaning, or in its relation.

Declension is the inflection of nouns and pronouns to denote differences in number and case.

Number is an inflection of nouns and pronouns to show whether they denote one or more than one.

Case is an inflection of nouns and pronouns to show their relation to other words.

TENSE IN VERBS

91. By comparing such verb forms as,

I live and *work* here ;

I lived and *worked* here ;

we observe that verbs also, by undergoing a change of form, undergo a slight change in

meaning, being able to denote in this way a difference of time in the asserted action. The forms *live* and *work* represent the action as taking place in present time; the forms *lived* and *worked* represent it as having taken place in past time.

This variation in the form of a verb to denote difference in time is called **tense**. (*Tense* means "time.")

A form of the verb used to denote present time; as,

I see him now ;
John *is* in the garden ;
I feel better to-day ,

is called the present form, and the verb is said to be in the **present tense**.

A form of the verb used to denote past time; as,

I saw him yesterday ;
John *was* in the garden ;
I felt better yesterday ;

is called the past form, and the verb is said to be in the **past tense**.

To denote future time in English a phrasal form of the verb must be used ; thus,

I shall go to-morrow.
He *will call* on his way back.

As we shall learn later (section 211) such phrasal forms are called **future tense phrases**.

NOTE.—In the case of a few verbs the same form may denote either present or past time ; thus,

They *cost* a cent each to-day.
They *cost* two cents each yesterday.

In such cases the tense of the verb must be decided from the meaning.

MOOD IN VERBS

92. Comparing the forms and meanings of the italicized verbs in the following :

God *gives* him strength in his adversity ;
God *give* him strength in his adversity ;

He *speaks* foolishly, but listen to him ;
Though he *speak* foolishly, listen to him ;

we notice that, in these examples, a change in the form of the verb is also accompanied by a slight change in meaning. In the first sentences the forms *gives* and *speaks* show that the speaker is treating the statement as representing a fact, while in the second sentences the forms *give* and *speak* indicate that the speaker is treating his statement as a supposed case. Because this variation in the form of the verb indicates a difference in the speaker's mode or manner of treating his assertion, the verb is here said to be inflected for **mood**.

So also if we compare :

Thou *speakest* the truth ;
Speak thou the truth ;

Thou *art* honest ;
Be thou honest ;

we see that, in the first sentences, the forms *speakest* and *art* show that the speaker is representing the statement as a fact ; and that the forms *Speak* and *Be* in the second sentences show that he views the thought as a command or an entreaty.

A verb form which indicates that the speaker treats his statement as an actual fact; as,

God *gives* him strength ;
He *speaks* foolishly ;
Thou *art* honest ;

is called an indicative form, and the verb is said to be in the **indicative mood**.

A verb form which indicates that the speaker treats his statement as a mere supposition or possibility; as,

God *give* him strength ;
Though he *speak* foolishly ;
Heaven *protect* them ;

is called the subjunctive form, and the verb is said to be in the **subjunctive mood**.

A verb form which expresses a command or an entreaty; as,

Speak thou the truth ;
Be honest ;
Fling abroad my banner ;

is called an imperative form, and the verb is said to be in the **imperative mood**.

In many cases, however, there may be a difference in the mood of the verb without any difference in the form; thus,

We *help* them every day Indicative mood.
Saints of Heaven *help* them . . . Subjunctive mood.
Help them, boys Imperative mood.

Here the mood of the verb must be decided altogether through the meaning of the sentence.

PERSON IN VERBS

93. In addition to the two inflections just considered, both of which denote a slight change in the meaning of the verb, there are two other inflections of the verb which signify, not a change in its meaning, but a change in its use or relation in the sentence.

If we first examine the meaning of the italicized pronouns in the sentences,

I, being her soldier fight for her ;
Thou, being her soldier fightest for her ;
He, being her soldier fights for her ;

we notice that while the three pronouns all refer to the same person, they nevertheless represent that person in three quite different ways. The pronoun *I* represents the soldier as the one speaking; the pronoun *thou*, as the one being spoken to; and the pronoun *he*, as the one being spoken about. As we shall learn later, all pronouns represent the person or thing for whom they stand in one of these three ways, and are in fact divided into three classes or *persons* on that basis, namely, *first* person, *second* person, and *third* person (section 130).

If now we compare the forms of any verb used with subjects of different persons; as,

I fight, come, give ;
Thou fightest, comest, givest ;
He fights, comes, gives ;

we notice that though there is no change in the meaning of the verb, it nevertheless undergoes a

change of form when brought into relation with subjects of different persons.

Because this variation in the form of the verb is caused through a variation in the person of the subject, the verb is said to be inflected for **person**.

A verb form such as *fight*, *come*, or *give*, when used with a subject denoting the speaker or the first person, is said to be of the **first person** agreeing with its subject.

A verb form such as *fightest*, *comest*, or *givest*, because it is always used with a subject denoting the person spoken to, or the second person, is said to be of the **second person** agreeing with its subject.

A verb form such as *fight*s, *come*s, and *give*s, because it is always used with a subject denoting the person or thing spoken of, or the third person, is said to be of the **third person** agreeing with its subject.

NOTE. AS in the case of other inflections, differences in person are not always marked by : difference in the form of the verb : thus,

I *must* go at once.
Thou *must* go at once.
He *must* go at once.
I *rise* and *met* them.
He *rise* and *met* them.

Here the person of the verb is known only from the person of the subject.

NUMBER IN VERBS

94. If we compare the subjects and the verbs in the sentences,

He gives and *takes* in such matters :
They give and *take* in such matters :

we notice that the verbs undergo a change of form without any change in the meaning of the verb, or in the person of the subject. We find here, however, that the subjects differ in *number* and that the verb must undergo a change of form to agree in number with the subject.

Other examples are,

I am, was cold ;
 We are, were cold ;
 Thou art, wert, givest, sendest, etc. ;
 You are, were, give, send, etc.

Because the verb here varies its form according to the number of the subject, it is said to be inflected for **number** ; a form used with a singular subject being in the **singular number**, and a form used with a plural subject being in the **plural number**.

NOTE.—As in the case of *person*, however, a difference in the number of the subject is frequently not marked by any change in the form of the verb ; thus,

I know, learn, give ;
 We know, learn, give ;
 He left, returned, remained ;
 They left, returned, remained ;

where the number of the verb is known only from the number of its subject.

In all cases, however, a verb is considered of the same person and number as its subject.

GOVERNMENT AND AGREEMENT

95. Because the verb is inflected or changed in form to make it agree in person and number with

the subject, the subject is said to **govern** the person and number of the verb, and the verb is said to **agree** with the subject in both person and number, or to be in *concord*.

CONJUGATION

96. We have now learned that the verb has two inflections denoting a difference in meaning—*tense* and *mood*, and two denoting a difference in relation—*person* and *number*.

The various forms of a verb, as of a noun, may be given in a table or paradigm. For example, if I wish to assert the act of giving as a fact in present time in reference to myself, I must say "I give." This one tense and mood might, however, be represented in the various persons and numbers; thus,

| | SINGULAR | PLURAL |
|---------------|-------------|-----------|
| FIRST PERSON | I give | we give |
| SECOND PERSON | thou givest | you give |
| THIRD PERSON | he gives | they give |

When we give in the form of a table or paradigm all the moods, tenses, persons, and numbers of a verb, we are said to conjugate the verb, or to give its **conjugation**. Conjugation means "joining together," and the full inflection of the verb for mood, tense, person, and number is so called because it brings or joins together all the various forms of the verb. For the full conjugation of an English verb, see section 230.

NOTE. — As we shall learn in section 231, many verbs which assert action undergo a certain change to show the relation of the one denoted by the subject to the asserted action; thus,

John *struck* the desk ;
The desk *was struck* by John ;

where, in the first sentence, the subject denotes the doer of the action, but, in the second, the receiver of the action. This variation is known as **voice**; the first form, *struck*, is said to be in the **active voice**, and the second form, *was struck*, in the **passive voice**.

In some languages, Latin, for example, voice is denoted by inflecting the verb, but in English a passive assertion is always phrasal in form. The study of voice will, therefore, be postponed until verb phrases are treated in Chapter VIII.

EXERCISE 37

State the tense, mood, person, and number of each verb in the following exercise.

1. Things will be as they were when we commenced our enterprise.
2. To assail a wearied man were shame.
3. Look to the eastern side where the walls are lowest.
4. Take care lest you lose them.
5. If thy right eye offend thee, pluck it out.
6. When the sun glows upon his shield, it shows as I tell you.
7. Claim thy suit, whate'er it be.
8. Heaven help those who have none.
9. To change such odious theme were best,—
What think'st thou of our stranger guest ?
10. Oh ship, ship, ship,
That comest over the sea,
Whatever it be thou bringest,
Come quickly with it to me.

DEFINITIONS

Conjugation is the inflection of the verb to denote differences in mood, tense, person, and number.

Tense is an inflection of the verb to show differences in the time of the action or state asserted by the verb.

Mood is an inflection of the verb to show whether the speaker represents the action or state expressed by the verb, as a fact, a supposition, or a command.

RULE

A verb agrees with its subject in person and number.

SUMMARY OF INFLECTION

97. We have learned that the inflection of a word may be caused by a variation in its meaning, or in its relation. The various inflections may, therefore, be classified as follows:

I. Inflections denoting changes in meaning,—

1. Number in nouns and pronouns.
2. Tense in verbs.
3. Mood in verbs.

II. Inflections denoting changes in relation,—

1. Case in nouns and pronouns.
2. Person in verbs.
3. Number in verbs.

The parts of speech may also be classified in reference to inflection as follows:

I. Inflected parts of speech,—the noun, pronoun, and verb.

II. The uninflected parts of speech,—the adjective, adverb, preposition, and conjunction.

NOTE.—There are, however, two words—*this* and *that*—which, when used as adjectives, take plural forms in the same manner as when they are pronouns ; thus,

This book is torn ; *These* books are torn.

METHODS OF INFLECTION

98. If we note the manner in which the nouns and the verbs vary their forms in :

1. Boy, boys ; ox, oxen ; work, worked ;
2. man, men ; give, gave ; sing, sang ;
3. brother, brethren ; deal, dealt ; feel, felt ;

we see that there are three methods by which a word may be inflected, namely :

1. By an addition at the end of the simple word.
2. By a change of sound within the simple word.
3. By both an addition to and a change of sound within the simple word.

SUBSTITUTES FOR INFLECTION

99. The changes in meaning and relation noted above are, however, occasionally denoted in other ways than by a change in the form of the original word. Compare for instance,

boy, boys ; give, gave ;
I, we ; go, went ;

where in the second examples we find that differences in number and in tense have been denoted

by the use of a different word. Such a change cannot be termed inflection, which can mean only a change in the form of the one word. It must, therefore, be considered a substitute for inflection.

So too in,

I *give* ;

I *shall give* ;

They *see* ;

They *will see* ;

where a distinction of time is marked not by inflection, but by the use of a *phrase*.

Again, in such sentences as,

John saw James ;

James saw John ;

we find that the relation of the nouns in the sentence is indicated not by a change of form, but by the natural *position* of the nouns in relation to the verb.

The substitutes for inflection may, therefore, be summarized as follows :

1. Use of different words.
2. Use of phrasal forms.
3. Natural position of words.

INFLECTION IN ENGLISH

100. It will be well to notice here that English words have very few changes of form in comparison with most other languages. The English adjective "good," for instance, has but one form, while the corresponding adjective in Latin had twelve different forms. In the early history of our own language, also, our words were much more highly inflected

than they are at the present time. This *loss of inflection* has not, however, impaired our language, as the loss has been supplemented by extending the use of our remaining inflections, and by the development in the language of phrasal forms and a natural or fixed position for the different parts of the sentence.

PARSING

101. When we describe grammatically the *function*, the *flexional form* (of an inflected word), and the *relation of a word* as it is used in a sentence, we are said to **parse** the word. In stating the function of a word, however, we may either simply state its part of speech, or, as we shall see later, may classify it more minutely by giving its sub-classification within the part of speech. As the sub-classification of the various parts of speech is to be treated in the succeeding chapters, the simpler method of classification should for the present be followed.

EXERCISE 38

Parse the italicized words in the following exercise

1. The monuments began *to cast* deeper *and* deeper *gloom* ; and the distant *clock* again *gave* token of the *slowly waning* day.
2. Endymion was *glad* *to meet* Baron Sergius one *day* when he dined *with* Prince Florestan.
3. Augustus called *to me* in a low voice *and* without *closing* the trap, *but* I made *him* no reply.
4. *Thou*, Alberti, *rejoin* thy comrades lest thine absence wake suspicion in their hearts.

5. Cedric rose to receive his guests and, descending from the dais, made three steps towards them.
6. Man is not free because he does what he likes ; but he is free because he does what he ought, and there is no protest in his soul against the doing.
7. In groves and myrtle bowers,
That breathe a gale of fragrance round,
I charm the fairy-footed hours,
With my loved lute's romantic sound ;
Or crowns of living laurel weave,
For those that win the race at eve.
8. I hurry amain to reach the plain,
Run the rapid and leap the fall,
Split at the rock and together again,
Accept my bed, or narrow or wide,
And flee from folly on every side.

GENERAL EXERCISE

Analyze, by clauses, the sentences in the following extracts, and parse the underlined words (see sections 69 and 101).

1. Drinking pure water is wholesome.
2. To lose one's temper is to weaken one's power.
3. Who keeps company with a wolf will learn to howl.
4. That was what I was about to tell you.
5. The chairman spoke briefly in introducing the speaker
6. To be up and doing is a joy.
7. I see it is easy for the tongue to betray what the heart would conceal.
8. It is an ill cure for life's worst ills to have no time to feel them.
9. All things that are, are with more spirit chased than enjoyed.
10. I wish the good old times would come again,
When we were not quite so rich.

11. At one end, the shoreward *end*, *there* is a tiny cove, and a *bit* of silver sand beach, with a green meadow beyond *it*, and a single great pine ; but *all* the rest *is* rocks, rocks.
12. When I say *mad* I mean *it*, —not angry, nor exasperated, nor aggravated, nor provoked, *but* mad : not mad *according to* the dictionary, but mad *as we* common folk use the term.
13. All great men not only know their business, but usually *know* that they know it ; and are not only *right* in *their* main opinions, but *they* usually know that they are right in them.
14. I propose, by *removing* the ground of the difference, and by restoring the former unsuspecting *confidence* of the colonies in the Mother Country, *to give* permanent satisfaction to *your* people.
15. No people ought to be free *till* they are *fit* to use their freedom. This maxim is worthy of the fool in the old story, who resolved not to go into the water till he *had learned* to swim.
16. "Fishing up stream" *has* many advocates who assert *that as* trout always lie with their heads *up* current, they are *less* likely to *see* the fisherman or the glint o his rod *when* the casts *are made*.
17. True worth is in *being*, not *seeming*—
In doing each *day* that goes by
Some little *good*—not in the dreaming
Of great things to do *by and by*.

CHAPTER VI

THE NOUN

102. We learned (section 51) that a noun is a word used as a name to represent anything that can be an object of thought; as, book, city, boy, Mary, justice, length, motion, etc.

CLASSIFICATION OF NOUNS

I

ACCORDING TO APPLICATION OF THE NAME

103. If we compare the extent to which the italicized nouns in the following sentences may be applied in naming objects; as,

Vancouver is an important *city* ;

John is a good *boy* ;

Saskatchewan is a large *river* ;

Canada is a young *nation* ;

we find that in each sentence the first noun is used to name some particular object, while the second name may be applied to all of the objects belonging to a certain class.

A noun such as *Vancouver*, *John*, *Saskatchewan*, or *Canada*, which names a particular individual so as to distinguish it from others of the same class, is called a **proper noun**.

A noun such as *city*, *boy*, *river*, or *nation*, which

is applicable to all objects within the same class, is called a **common noun**.

Since a common noun is a name applied to members of a certain class only, a common noun always possesses a certain significance or meaning. For example, the common noun *triangle* can be applied only to a certain kind of figure, the name *horse*, only to a certain kind of object, namely one possessing the characteristics belonging to the particular class of objects. On the other hand no special significance attaches to a proper noun, since it may be used to distinguish a particular individual within any class. Thus *Ontario* may be used to distinguish a particular province, lake, county, or street, and might also be used to distinguish a particular man, dog, horse, etc. Proper nouns do not, therefore, in themselves signify anything as to the kind of object named, as is the case with the common noun. Notice that a proper noun is written with a capital.

NOTE.—Nouns are sometimes classified as *concrete* and *abstract* according as they are used to name *objects of sense*, or to name *qualities, states, or actions* thought of apart from the object to which they belong, thus in :

The man showed great courage,

man is a concrete noun, and *courage* an abstract noun.

COLLECTIVE NOUNS

104. Some common nouns name, not an individual object, but a collection of individuals; as,

army, committee, jury, dozen.

These nouns are, therefore, usually classified as **collective nouns**.

It must be noticed, however, that such a noun is applicable to any member of a class of objects, and is therefore a common noun, the only peculiarity being that the individual member of the class named by such a noun comprises a collection of objects. For example, there is a whole class of objects to any of which the noun "army" is applicable, each member of this class containing a large number of individual soldiers. Like other common nouns, therefore, the collective noun has a singular form, representing one of these collections, and a plural form, representing more than one of these collections; as,

| SINGULAR | PLURAL | SINGULAR | PLURAL |
|-----------|------------|----------|--------|
| army | armies | jury | juries |
| committee | committees | dozen | dozens |

EXERCISE 39

Classify the nouns in the following sentences as proper or common, and give in each case a noun belonging to the other class, which the noun in the exercise may suggest.

1. London is situated on the Thames.
2. A boy gave it to the postman.
3. The dog barked at Mary.
4. Does not John go on Friday?
5. My friend, your brother, is calling you.
6. Jane said it would do the children good.
7. The admiral died on the ship shortly after the battle.

II

ACCORDING TO SEX

105. If we examine the extent to which the nouns in the following pairs of sentences denote sex in the objects they represent,

The *woman* told the *maid* ;
The *caller* told the *servant* .
The *man* shot a *lion* ;
Our *cousin* drove away the *animal* ;
Jane saw a *gander* ;
The *child* found a *pencil* ;

we find that the nouns in the first sentence of each pair indicate that the objects named belong to one of the sexes—male or female. On the other hand, the nouns in the second sentences do not in any way suggest that the object named belongs to a particular sex.

A noun such as *woman*, *maid*, *man*, *lion*, *Jane*, or *gander*, which indicates that the object named belongs to a particular sex, or which marks sex, is called a **gender-noun**.

A noun such as *caller*, *servant*, *cousin*, *animal*, *child*, or *book*, which does not denote that the object named belongs to one of the sexes, or which does not mark sex, is called a **neuter-noun**. (*Neuter* means "neither.")

Again if we note the sex indicated by the gender-nouns in such pairs of sentences as,

The *man* sent the *boy* for his *father* ;
The *woman* sent the *girl* for her *mother* ;

The *king* called the *lord* ;
The *queen* called the *lady* ;

we observe that the gender-nouns in the first sentences signify that the objects named belong to the *male* sex, while the gender-nouns in the second sentences signify that the objects named belong to the *female* sex.

Gender-nouns which mark or denote male beings, as *man*, *boy*, *father*, etc., are called **masculine** gender-nouns.

Gender-nouns which mark or denote female beings, as *woman*, *girl*, *mother*, etc., are called **feminine** gender-nouns.

Nouns are said, therefore, to be classified on the basis of sex as follows :

1. Gender-nouns { *a.* Masculine gender-nouns.
 b. Feminine gender-nouns.
2. Neuter-nouns.

This classification of nouns on the basis of sex is called **gender**.

In some languages the gender of nouns is not based fully on sex, but also largely on the forms of the nouns. Thus in Latin, *insula* an island, is a feminine noun because it ends in *a*, while *ager* a field, is masculine because it ends in *er*. In like manner, in Early English *stan* a stone, was masculine ; *gyrde* a staff, feminine.

NOTE.—A neuter noun may name either an object possessing sex, which the noun does not mark or signify ; as, servant, child, person, animal ; or an object without sex ; as, book, pencil, door, chair, house, etc.

EXERCISE 40

A

Give the gender of the nouns in the following exercise.

1. Cordelia besought her sisters to love their father.
2. The lieutenant, an elderly man, had much the air of a low sportsman and boon companion.
3. My deadliest foe will prove my speediest friend.
4. Antipholus thought he was among a nation of sorcerers and witches.
5. I have fought for England, home, and duty, and die in Honour's cause.
6. Among the daughters of the Philistines I chose a wife.

B

Classify the objectives in the following sentences.

1. God of our fathers, what is man ?
2. The servant asked his master where the officer had gone.
3. The magistrates and princes of my country came in person.
4. This action of the African magician showed him to be neither Aladdin's uncle, nor the tailor's brother.
5. The goose was smoking on the table, and the Bailie brandished his knife and fork.
6. The prince retired into the gardener's hut and related to him the battle of the birds.
7. Herds of buffalo roamed over the prairies and flocks of ducks swam on the lakes.

MODES OF DENOTING GENDER IN GENDER-NOUNS

106. A comparison of such pairs of gender forms as,

| MASCULINE | FEMININE |
|-----------|----------|
| baron | baroness |
| boy | girl |
| landlord | landlady |

shows that there are three ways by which gender-nouns mark a distinction of sex. These are (1) by the addition of a feminine suffix—most frequently *ess*—to the masculine form, with or without some further change in the form of the word; (2) by the use of a separate word to denote each sex; (3) by compounding a pair of gender-nouns with a neuter noun.

BY SUFFIX

107. The following are examples of the use of the suffix *ess* to distinguish the feminine gender-noun, the feminine form frequently being shortened in its spelling by leaving out a letter or letters from the masculine form :

| MASCULINE | FEMININE | MASCULINE | FEMININE |
|------------|--------------|-----------|-------------|
| abbot | abbess | hunter | huntress |
| actor | actress | idolater | idolatress |
| adventurer | adventuress | Jew | Jewess |
| baron | baroness | lad | lass |
| benefactor | benefactress | lion | lioness |
| count | countess | marquis | marchioness |
| deacon | deaconess | master | mistress |
| duke | duchess | patron | patroness |
| emperor | empress | preceptor | preceptress |
| enchanter | enchautress | prince | princess |
| giant | giantess | prophet | prophetess |
| god | goddess | shepherd | shepherdess |
| governor | governess | sorcerer | sorceress |
| heir | heiress | tiger | tigress |
| host | hostess | waiter | waitress |

In Early English the ending *ster* was used as a feminine suffix; as,

spinster—formerly, a woman who spins.

In Middle English, however, this suffix lost its feminine force in all words excepting *spinster*, and a further feminine suffix *ess* was then added in certain cases, giving such double feminine endings; as,

songstress, seamstress.

Vixen, the feminine of fox, is formed by adding the suffix *en*, both the initial consonant and the vowel being changed.

In *widower* we seem to have a masculine noun formed from the feminine by the suffix *er*.

A number of gender-nouns derived from foreign languages retain their foreign suffixes in the feminine; as,

| MASCULINE | FEMININE | MASCULINE | FEMININE |
|---------------|----------------|-----------|-------------|
| administrator | administratrix | Czar | Czarina |
| executor | executrix | don | donna |
| testator | testatrix | signor | signora |
| beau | belle | sultan | sultana |
| hero | heroine | landgrave | landgravine |

Proper nouns also occasionally distinguish gender by the use of feminine suffixes; as,

| MASCULINE | FEMININE | MASCULINE | FEMININE |
|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|
| Alexander | Alexandra | Louis | Louisa |
| George | Georgina | Paul | Pauline |
| Henry | Henrietta | Robert | Robertta |
| Julius | Julia | | |

BY USE OF DIFFERENT WORDS

108. The following pairs of words are used to distinguish sex in the case of animals, family

relations, etc., although the pairs of words may come from quite different sources.

| MASCULINE | FEMININE | MASCULINE | FEMININE |
|-------------|----------------|-----------|----------|
| bachelor | spinster, maid | king | queen |
| boy | girl | lord | lady |
| brother | sister | man | woman |
| buck | doe | monk | nun |
| bullock | heifer | nephew | niece |
| colt | filly | ram | ewe |
| drake | duck | sir | madam |
| earl | countess | son | daughter |
| father | mother | stag | hind |
| gander | goose | stallion | mare |
| grandfather | grandmother | uncle | aunt |
| (gaffer) | (gunner) | wizard | witch |
| hart | roe | youth | maiden |
| husband | wife | | |

We may notice further that proper nouns frequently mark a distinction in sex according to the above mode ; thus,

Masculine—Arthur, Charles, James, etc.

Feminine—Kate, Mary, Nettie, etc.

BY COMPOSITION

109. The following gender-nouns are formed by compounding a neuter noun with a pair of gender forms (noun or pronoun).

| MASCULINE | FEMININE | MASCULINE | FEMININE |
|---------------|--------------|-------------|--------------|
| bull-elephant | cow-elephant | he-goat | she-goat |
| cock-sparrow | hen-sparrow | landlord | landlady |
| gentleman | gentlewoman | man-servant | maid-servant |
| he-bear | she-bear | peacock | peahen |

Bridegroom is a masculine noun formed by compounding with the feminine noun *bride*, a masculine noun (Old English *guma*—a man).

Woman also, although it was given in the second class, is really a compound, being originally *wife-man*.

EXERCISE 41

Give the two gender forms for all gender-nouns in Exercise 40, and state in each case the mode by which the gender is denoted.

INFLECTIONS OF NOUNS

110. We have seen (section 90) that the noun is inflected for *number* and for *case*, and that the variation in form of a noun for number and case is known as its *declension*. We have learned further that one of the inflections of the noun, *number*, indicates a change in the *meaning* of the noun, and that the other, *case*, indicates a change in its *relation* to other words. We shall now proceed to study these two inflections of the noun in greater detail.

NUMBER

111. We saw (section 84) that most nouns have two forms, *singular* and *plural*, to denote a difference in the number of objects represented by the noun, the singular form or singular number denoting but one of the objects named by the noun, and the plural form or plural number denoting more than one of such objects.

FORMATION OF PLURALS

112. English plurals may be classified according to their mode of formation, as follows :

1. Most English nouns form their plurals by the addition of *s* or *es* to the singular ; as,

| SINGULAR | PLURAL | SINGULAR | PLURAL |
|----------|--------|----------|---------|
| pen | pens | box | boxes |
| horse | horses | glass | glasses |

As all nouns now being added to our language follow this mode ; thus,

| SINGULAR | PLURAL | SINGULAR | PLURAL |
|------------|-------------|-----------|------------|
| automobile | automobiles | telephone | telephones |
| motor | motors | | |

this method of plural formation is called the *modern* mode.

2. A few English nouns still form their plurals according to modes prevalent in Early English. These plural forms fall into the two following sub-classes :

(a) Plurals formed by vowel change ; as,

| SINGULAR | PLURAL | SINGULAR | PLURAL |
|----------|--------|----------|--------|
| foot | feet | mouse | mice |
| goose | geese | tooth | teeth |
| louse | lice | woman | women |
| man | men | | |

(b) Plurals formed by the addition of *en* to the singular, with or without vowel change ; as,

| SINGULAR | PLURAL | SINGULAR | PLURAL |
|----------|----------|----------|--------|
| brother | brethren | cow | kine |
| child | children | ox | oxen |

Because these plurals have survived from Old English, and because no new words coming into the language form their plurals thus, the above nouns are said to follow *old* modes of plural formation.

MODERN PLURALS

113. The following special variations within the modern mode are to be noted :

1. Nouns ending in an *s* sound.

When the singular ends in a hissing sound, as *s*, *sh*, *ch* (soft), *x*, *z*, this sound will not unite with *s* alone, and, therefore, *es* must be added, forming an additional syllable ; as,

| SINGULAR | PLURAL | SINGULAR | PLURAL |
|----------|----------|----------|---------|
| box | boxes | glass | glasses |
| church | churches | topaz | topazes |

2. Nouns ending in *o*.

When the singular ends in *o*, preceded by a consonant, *es* is regularly added ; as,

| SINGULAR | PLURAL | SINGULAR | PLURAL |
|----------|----------|----------|-----------|
| hero | heroes | tomato | tomatoes |
| potato | potatoes | volcano | volcanoes |

There are, however, many exceptions to the rule ; as,

| SINGULAR | PLURAL | SINGULAR | PLURAL |
|----------|--------|----------|----------|
| banjo | banjos | solo | solos |
| canto | cantos | soprano | sopranos |
| piano | pianos | | |

Nouns ending in *o*, preceded by a vowel, form the plural by adding *s* ; as,

| SINGULAR | PLURAL | SINGULAR | PLURAL |
|----------|---------|-----------|------------|
| curio | curios | portfolio | portfolios |
| cuckoo | cuckoos | | |

3. Nouns ending in *y*.

A noun ending in *y*, preceded by a vowel, forms its plural by the addition of *s* ; as,

| SINGULAR | PLURAL | SINGULAR | PLURAL |
|----------|--------|----------|---------|
| boy | boys | valley | valleys |
| day | days | | |

When the *y* is preceded by a consonant, the plural is formed by changing *y* to *i* and adding *es* ; as,

| SINGULAR | PLURAL | SINGULAR | PLURAL |
|----------|--------|----------|--------|
| body | bodies | fly | fies |
| city | cities | lady | ladies |

4. Nouns ending in *f* and *fe*.

Most nouns ending in *f* or *fe* in the singular, form the plural by changing *f* or *fe* to *v* and adding *es*; as,

| SINGULAR | PLURAL | SINGULAR | PLURAL |
|----------|--------|----------|--------|
| beef | beeves | knife | knives |
| calf | calves | loaf | loaves |

The following plurals, however, are formed by adding *s* only: briefs, chiefs, dwarfs, fives, griefs, gulfs, kerchiefs, hoofs, mischiefs, proofs, roofs, reproofs, safes, scarfs, strifes, surfs, turfs, and all nouns in *ff*; as,—cliffs, muffs, etc.

Wharf, dwarf and staff have both plural forms, thus,

| SINGULAR | PLURAL |
|----------|--------------------|
| wharf | wharfs and wharves |
| dwarf | dwarfs and dwarves |
| staff | staffs and staves |

5. Plurals in 's.

Figures, letters, and words when signifying the word *so* and *so*, have their plurals ending in an apostrophe and *s*; thus,

His 2's are better than his 3's.
 You have too many s's in this word.
 Leave out two of the and's.

6. Plurals of compound nouns.

Compound nouns regularly pluralize the part of the compound expressing the principal idea; as,

| SINGULAR | PLURAL | SINGULAR | PLURAL |
|---------------|----------------|---------------|----------------|
| court-martial | courts-martial | father-in-law | fathers-in-law |
| hanger-on | hangers-on | | |

If no part of the compound stands out as principal or essential, the whole compound being rather descriptive in character, or if the compound nature of the noun is lost sight of, the sign of the plural is added at the end of the compound ; as,

| SINGULAR | PLURAL |
|---------------|----------------|
| forget-me-not | forget-me-nots |
| spoonful | spoonfuls |

A few compound nouns pluralize both parts of the compound ; as,

| SINGULAR | PLURAL | SINGULAR | PLURAL |
|--------------|----------------|----------------|------------------|
| lord-justice | lords-justices | woman-servant | women-servants |
| man-servant | men-servants | knight-templar | knights-templars |

These forms may, therefore, be classified as double plurals (section 114).

NOTE.—The nouns,—Brahman, Firman, German, Mussulman, Ottoman, Talisman, and Turcoman are not compounds of "man," and, therefore, form their plurals by adding *s* to the singular.

7. Plurals of proper nouns.

When a proper name is preceded by a title, either the name or the title may be pluralized ; thus,

| SINGULAR | PLURAL |
|---------------|---|
| Mr. Smith | the Mr. Smiths or the Messrs. Smith |
| Colonel Brown | the Colonel Browns or the Colonels Brown |

8. Plurals without change of form.

Some nouns have the same form for both numbers ; as, cod, deer, heathen, mackerel, moose, salmon, sheep, swine, trout, vermin.

DOUBLE PLURALS

114. A few nouns belonging to the old mode of plural formation are really double plurals. (See also section 113, 6.)

Children. This form shows traces of an earlier plural ending *er* (compare German, *kind, kinder*). When in Early English the ending *er* became obsolete, the plural meaning was strengthened by the addition of the then common ending *en*, the *e* of the first ending being lost—child(e)ren.

Brethren. This plural shows both vowel change and the addition of the ending *en*.

Kine—*kine*, the collective plural of *cow*, like *brethren*, shows both vowel change and the addition of *n*. The Early English singular, *cu* or *ku*, formed its plural by vowel change *ky*, or *ki*, which form was later strengthened by the addition of *n*—*kin* or *kine*.

FOREIGN PLURALS

115. Several nouns introduced into English from foreign languages, instead of forming English plurals, retain their foreign plural forms; as,

| SINGULAR | PLURAL | SINGULAR | PLURAL |
|-----------|------------|-------------|-------------|
| alumna | alumnae | crisis | crises |
| alumnus | alumni | curriculum | curricula |
| analysis | analyses | datum | data |
| appendix | appendices | ellipsis | ellipses |
| arcenum | arcana | genius | genii |
| automaton | automata | genus | genera |
| bacterium | bacteria | hypothesis | hypotheses |
| basis | bases | larva | larvae |
| bandit | banditti | medium | media |
| beau | beaux | memorandum | memoranda |
| cherub | cherubim | parenthesis | parentheses |

| SINGULAR | PLURAL | SINGULAR | PLURAL |
|------------|-----------|----------|-----------|
| phenomenon | phenomena | tableau | tableaux |
| radius | radii | terminus | termini |
| seraph | seraphim | thesis | theses |
| stratum | strata | vertebra | vertebrae |

Many of these nouns, however, have another plural, formed after the modern English mode, thus giving them two plural forms; as,

| | ENGLISH PLURAL | FOREIGN PLURAL |
|------------|----------------|----------------|
| bandit | bandits | banditti |
| cherub | cherubs | cherubim |
| curriculum | curriculumms | curricula |

Occasionally these two plural forms differ in meaning; as,

| | |
|--------|--|
| genius | geniuses (clever persons); genii (spirits) |
| index | indexes (of books); indices (in mathematics) |

IRREGULARITIES IN NUMBER

116. The following irregularities in the uses of number forms are to be especially noted:

1. Plural forms with singular meaning.

A few English nouns plural in form are singular in meaning, taking a singular verb when used as subject of a sentence; as,

Amends, gallows, mathematics, news, optics, physics.

No news is good news.

The gallows was fifty feet high.

2. Singular forms with plural meaning.

On the other hand, certain nouns singular in form are frequently used in a plural sense; as, brace, cannon, dozen, folk, gross, head, heathen, people, deer, mackerel, salmon, sheep, swine, trout, fortnight, twelvemonth, etc.

These nouns are, therefore, frequently connected with a plural verb ; as,

Five yoke of oxen were in the field.

The deer are in the park.

People are hard to satisfy.

3. Plural forms only.

Some nouns have only the plural form, regularly taking a plural verb when used as subject of a sentence ; thus, alms, annals, ashes, bellows, billiards, filings, mumps, nuptials, odds, pincers, proceeds, thanks, trousers, victuals, wages, and a few others.

4. Plural forms with altered meanings.

A few plural forms have a meaning different from that of the singular ; as,

| SINGULAR | PLURAL | SINGULAR | PLURAL |
|----------|---------|----------|--------|
| copper | coppers | iron | irons |
| coin | coins | salt | salts |

5. Plural forms with different meanings.

A few plural forms have two or more different meanings, one the same as the singular, and one or more differing from the meaning of the singular ; as,

customs . . . habits, or revenue

letters . . . the alphabet, literature, or epistles

numbers . . . in arithmetic, or in poetry

pains . . . sufferings, or care

6. Two plural forms with different meanings.

Some nouns have two plural forms with different meanings. Examples are :

brother . . . brothers (by birth), brethren (of a society)

cloth . . . cloths (different kinds), clothes (dress)

die dies (for stamping), dice (for playing)
 index indexes (of books), indices (algebraic signs)
 pea. peas (seeds), pease (grain)
 penny pennies (separate coins), pence (an amount)
 staff staffs (bodies of men), staves (sticks)

CASE

117. It was seen (section 85) that nouns and pronouns frequently vary their form or are inflected to indicate the relation of the noun or pronoun to some other part of the sentence. Although English nouns are said to have three cases, nominative, possessive and objective, we have learned that there are really only two different forms, the one for the possessive relation, and the other for the various nominative and objective relations.

CASE FORMS

118. The simple or root form of a noun is regularly used when the noun is in either a nominative or an objective relation. The possessive relation, on the other hand, is indicated by the addition of a case suffix. The following are the rules governing the formation of the possessive of English nouns.

FORMATION OF THE POSSESSIVE

119. The possessive singular is regularly formed by the addition of an *apostrophe* and *s* to the simple word; as,

The bittern's cry
 Sings us the lake's wild lullaby.

A singular noun of more than one syllable ending in an *s* sound usually adds an *apostrophe* only, thus avoiding the awkward repetition of the *s* sound ; as,

Fitz-Eustace' heart felt closely pent.

St. Agnes' moon hath set.

The lovely Clare
Will be in *Lady Angus'* care.

When the plural of a noun ends in *s*, the possessive plural is formed by adding an *apostrophe* only ; as,

The *auditors'* report was then read.

They heard the *leaders'* voices.

A stranger filled the *Stuarts'* throne.

When the plural does not end in *s*, the possessive is formed by adding an *apostrophe* and *s* ; as,

Children's voices filled the grove.

The *men's* hours are too long.

Compound nouns, and nouns preceded or followed by modifying words, add the possessive sign at the end of the expression ; thus,

My brother-in-law's house was destroyed.

I saw him at *Dr. James Robinson's* office.

The *king of England's* uncle is governor-general.

When two or more nouns are connected by *and* or *or*, to form a compound possessive, the possessive sign is added to the last noun if joint possession is to be denoted.

Brown and Murray's store was entered.

But to denote separate ownership the possessive sign must be added to each noun ; thus,

Mary's and John's books are on the floor.

NOTE.—The 's of the possessive represents the Old English genitive ending *es*, traces of which are still seen in *Tuesday*—*Tiwes day* (day of *Tiw*); and in *Wednesday*—*Wod(e)nes day* (day of *Woden*).

EXERCISE 42

Explain the formation of the possessive nouns in the following.

1. The Highlanders' weapons gave them a decided superiority.
2. Xerxes' army invaded Greece.
3. He declined accepting compensation at the expense of mine Host of the Candlestick's person.
4. Are they the land's or the water's living creatures?
5. The princess' palace stood on a hill.
6. The newcomers were Wilfred of Ivanhoe on the Prior of Botolph's palfrey, and Gurth on the Knight's own war-horse.
7. The princess of China's nurse had a son whose name was Marzavan.

CASE CONSTRUCTIONS

NOMINATIVE CASE

120. Certain constructions of the nominative case have already been illustrated (section 86). We shall now give a more complete outline of the various nominative uses of the noun.

NOTE.—Although, as has been seen, there is no separate form to mark the nominative from the objective case, the student may usually test these constructions by substituting for the noun the corresponding case form, singular or plural, of one of the inflected pronouns,—*I*, *thou*, or *he*; as,

The outlaw } led the way.
He }

1. SUBJECTIVE NOMINATIVE

When a noun is used as the subject of a verb it is said to be in the nominative case (section 86); as,

The outlaw led the way.
The heralds proclaimed silence.

2. PREDICATE NOMINATIVE

A noun used as a subjective complement to a copula verb is said to agree in case with the subject, and is, therefore, in the nominative case (section 86); as,

George is *king*.
He became a rich *merchant*.
His father was elected *mayor*.

3. NOMINATIVE OF ADDRESS

A noun, when used to name the person or persons addressed (section 27), is in the nominative case, and is said to be in the **nominative of address**; as,

Thou canst not mend that shot, *Locksley*.
Brother, the world is blind.

4. NOMINATIVE IN APPPOSITION

In such a sentence as,

Milton, the poet, was blind,

Milton is the bare subject of the verb, and the noun *poet*, which is put beside it as a modifier, denotes the same person as the modified noun *Milton*. When a noun is thus *added to* another noun with the same meaning, it is said to be in

apposition with that noun, and agrees with it in case. A noun in apposition with a noun or pronoun in the nominative case is, therefore, called a **nominative in apposition**.

Other examples of nominatives in apposition are:

Oswald, the *cupbearer*, made sign of assent.

This lady was my wife, the *daughter* of this old man.

Fitzurse, the *soul* of the conspiracy, escaped with banishment.

5. NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE

In such sentences as,

The men having left, we did not remain ;

His sister being sick, he left for home at once ;

we find phrases—"The men having left" and "His sister being sick," which are used adverbially to modify the predicate of the sentence, the phrases themselves being composed of two parts—a noun, *men*, *sister*, and an adjective modifier, *having left*, *being sick*. Since it is the whole phrase that composes the adverb modifier, the noun within the phrase does not itself stand in a case relation to any other word in the sentence, and is, therefore, said to be used absolutely.

Such a noun is, however, nominative in value, as may be seen by substituting a pronoun in place of the noun ; thus,

They having left, we did not remain.

She being sick, he left for home at once.

Because a noun (or pronoun) used as above, is in the nominative case and is itself without

grammatical relation in the sentence, it is called a **nominative absolute**.

Other examples of the nominative absolute are :

The *sun* having risen, the men set sail.

Life's little *drama* done, the curtain falls.

Their *mother* returning, the children went into the house.

NOTE.—For the anacoluthic nominative see section 356.

EXERCISE 43

Explain the exact use of each nominative case in the following exercise.

1. The power in nature is only the power of using to any certain purpose the materials which diligence procures or opportunity supplies.
2. Sir, how could you, a firebrand tossed about by the populace, find leisure for so much reading?
3. The architect having completed the plan, tenders will now be called for.
4. Little town, thy streets for evermore will silent be.
5. In the midst of this grand mausoleum stands the sepulchre of its founder, his effigy extended on a sumptuous tomb.
6. Things being thus disposed, and the caliph's powder having had its effect, Abou Hassan began to stir.
7. Porphyro! haste thee from this place;
They are all here to-night, the whole bloodthirsty race.
8. Young knights and squires, a lighter train,
Practised their chargers on the plain.
9. His arms were halberd, axe, or spear,
A crossbow there, a hagbut here.
10. Should Disappointment, parent of Despair,
Strive for her son to seize my careless heart;
When like a cloud, he sits upon the air,
Preparing on his spell-bound prey to dart,
Chase him away, sweet Hope, with visage bright,
And fright him as the morning frightens night!

11. The oak has fallen—the sapling bough
Is all Duncraggan's shelter now.
Yet trust I will, his duty done,
The orphan's God will guard my son.

THE OBJECTIVE CASE

121. We have already learned certain uses for the objective case of nouns and pronouns. The following is a more complete outline of the various uses of this case in English.

1. DIRECT OBJECT OF A VERB

A noun used as the direct object of a verb (section 22) is always in the objective case; as,

The boy opened the *window*.
Mary lost the *money*.

Similarly a noun used as an object after the infinitive or participle form of a verb is in the objective case; as,

The boy tried to open the *window*.
Did you hear of Mary losing the *money*?

2. OBJECT AFTER A PREPOSITION

A noun used after a preposition to form an adjective or an adverb phrase (section 56) is in the objective case; as,

The top of the *desk* is broken.
They called at the *school*.
He lives in *Edmonton*.
It drifted with the *wind*.

3. THE INDIRECT OBJECT

We saw (section 22) that a noun may be used in a sentence, either alone or with a direct object, as an indirect object denoting the one indirectly affected by the asserted action. Like the direct object, the indirect object is always in the objective case; as,

He made the *boy* a kite.

The teacher gave the *girl* a new book.

We paid the *men*.

NOTE.—When such a sentence is written with a preposition before the noun; as, “I made a kite for the boy,” the noun is no longer to be called an indirect object, but an object after the preposition.

The words *like*, *unlike*, *nigh*, *near*, *nearer*, and *next*, used either as adjectives or as adverbs, are frequently followed by an objective noun (or pronoun) having the value of an indirect object; thus,

She is like (to) her *father*.

He sat near (to) the *door*.

It fell nearer (to) *me*.

In such cases, however, the words *like*, etc., may be considered to have prepositional value, and the nouns parsed as objectives after a preposition.

4. SUBJECT OF AN INFINITIVE

A noun used as the subject of an infinitive is regularly in the objective case; as,

They desired *John* to go.

I believe the *man* to be guilty.

We saw the *boy* fall.

NOTE.—For the subject of the infinitive in exclamations, see section 352.

5. THE PREDICATE OBJECTIVE

An infinitive with an objective subject, if derived from a copula verb, may be completed by a predicate noun. Such a noun will, therefore, be in the objective case, agreeing with the objective subject of the infinitive; thus,

I wish him to become a good writer.
We knew it to be the teacher.

Compare also the form of the pronoun in

I supposed the stranger to be her.

6. THE OBJECTIVE PREDICATE

A noun used in the sentence as an objective complement (section 23) is in the objective case; as,

They appointed him king.
We thought her a good player.
Who made thee a judge over us?

Notice that when such sentences are changed to the passive (section 96, Note), the direct object becomes a subject nominative, and the objective predicate becomes a predicate nominative; thus,

He was appointed king.
She was thought a good player.

7. THE ADVERBIAL OBJECTIVE

It has been seen (section 71) that a noun is sometimes used in a sentence with an adverbial value to modify a verb, adjective, or other adverb. When thus used, a noun is always in the objective

case, and is for that reason called an **adverbial objective**. Examples are :

He remained here last *night*.
 This board is six *inches* wider.
 He went on ten *miles* further.

The fact that such a noun is objective in value cannot be shown by substituting an inflected pronoun. Notice, however, that a preposition may often be placed before these nouns ; thus,

He remained here (during) last night.
 This board is wider (by) six inches.
 He went on further (by) ten miles.

In other languages also, and in Early English, we find the objective case used in such constructions.

8. THE OBJECTIVE IN APPPOSITION

A noun or a pronoun in the objective case may, like one in the nominative (section 120, 4), take after it a modifying noun in apposition, denoting the same person or thing ; thus,

He recognized Locksley, the *yeoman*.
 I saw her friend, the *teacher*.
 She obtained a kingdom for the prince, her *husband*.
 He left his son, an industrious *youth*, the old homestead.

Such an objective is called the **objective in apposition**.

EXERCISE 44

A

Classify the objectives in the following sentences.

1. He went to the palace and begged the king to grant the people their petition.

2. Bedridden Hassan has sold to Isaac the Jew the lading of the first of his ships.
3. I sent your father a letter the other day.
4. The same day his brother married the daughter of the duke.
5. The sultan has sent people to seize your person.
6. Give the offender fitting ward.
7. I found my companion a merry fellow.
8. She considered the disgrace of her brother Richard the just reward of his forfeiting his allegiance to a lawful sovereign.

B

Explain the use of each nominative and objective in the following sentences.

1. Come this way, father, thou art a stranger in this castle.
2. The general expects his scouts to sight the enemy this evening.
3. Thou seemest to be a jolly confessor.
4. I wish this gentleman to be your companion on the journey.
5. They were now in full march, every caution being taken to prevent surprise.
6. You don't look a day older.
7. Home, you idle creatures, get you home!
8. Truth-teller was our England's Alfred named.
9. He died a noble death, fighting for the king.
10. Here stayed their talk,—for Marmion
Gave now the signal to set on,
The Palmer showing forth the way,
They journeyed all the morning day.

THE POSSESSIVE CASE

122. It was seen (section 87) that the possessive form of a noun regularly performs a double

function in the sentence. As a noun it names the one represented as the possessor; as an adjective it modifies another noun representing the thing possessed; thus,

The *pupil's* book is on the *teacher's* desk.

Frequently, however, the modified noun is omitted, when the possessive form takes in the sentence the construction of the omitted noun; as follows,

1. Subject of a verb:

John's is better than *William's*.
The *boys'* are in their desks.

2. Object of a verb:

I found *Mary's* in her desk.

3. Object of a preposition:

He went to the *grocer's*.
He left it at the *baker's*.

4. Complement of a verb:

This is *John's* but that is *William's*.

THE POSSESSIVE EQUIVALENT

123. A phrase composed of the preposition *of* and the objective case of the noun may often be used as an equivalent of the possessive; thus,

| | | |
|----------------------------------|---|-------------------|
| The king's son | } | then entered. |
| The son <i>of the king</i> | | |
| The <i>minstrel's</i> voice | } | resounds no more. |
| The voice <i>of the minstrel</i> | | |

These two expressions are not, however, always interchangeable. For example, we say regularly,

The handle of the knife,
The corner of the room,

and not

The knife's handle,
The room's corner.

Occasionally also the two constructions differ in meaning. Compare, for example, the meanings of

The king's picture ; The picture of the king.
The Lord's day ; The day of the Lord.

DOUBLE POSSESSIVE

124. Occasionally both the preposition *of* and the *apostrophe* and *s* are used in denoting possession ; thus,

A poem *of Tennyson's* was next read.
A friend *of John's* told me.
A brother *of the duke's* entered.

This construction is called a double possessive, and is usually explained by supposing that a modified noun has been omitted after the possessive ; thus,

A poem of Tennyson's (poems) was next read.
A friend of John's (friends) told me.

The construction is used in many expressions, however, where such an explanation cannot be given ; thus,

This hesitation of your friend's proves him guilty.
That hair of John's needs combing.

POSSESSIVE IN APPOSITION

125. As with the other cases, a noun in the possessive case may stand in apposition to another noun or pronoun in the possessive. In such constructions, the possessive sign is usually added to the latter noun; thus,

He brought her to his mother *Sarah's* tent.
I saw him at Brown the *grocer's*.

COMPOUND POSSESSIVES

126. It has been seen that a compound possessive may denote joint ownership, in which case the possessive sign is added to only the last member of the compound; or it may denote separate ownership, when the possessive sign is added to each member of the compound. For example,

1. Joint Ownership:

It was bought at *Brown & Sons'* store.
Mary, Jane, and Helen's little friend is visiting them.

2. Separate Ownership:

Mary's, Jane's, and Helen's friends will accompany them.
Brown's and Harper's stores were destroyed by fire.

EXCEPTIONAL USES OF THE POSSESSIVE

127. While the possessive form of the noun is regularly used to denote ownership, a possessive form occasionally has other values, as follows:

1. Subjective Possessives.

A possessive may represent a person or thing as the doer

of an action which is suggested by the modified noun. For example, in such expressions as,

The *man's* entry ; the *army's* retreat ; a *mother's* love ;
we imply the statements

The man entered ;
The army retreated ;
A mother loves.

Possessives used as *man's*, *army's* and *mother's* in the above sentences are, therefore, sometimes classified as subjective possessives.

2. Objective Possessives.

Similarly a possessive noun occasionally represents a person or thing as the receiver of an action suggested by the modified noun, thus,

Napoleon's defeat ; *earth's* creator ; the *child's* punishment ;
in which we imply such statements as,

Someone { defeated Napoleon.
 { created the earth.
 { punished the child.

Such possessives are, therefore, classified as objective possessives.

3. The Appositive Possessive.

Rarely, a possessive noun has the logical value of an appositive, since it denotes the same object as the modified noun ; thus,

Britain's isle—the isle Britain.

Numidia's spacious kingdom—the spacious kingdom, Numidia.

Such possessives are, therefore, classified as appositive possessives.

NOTE.—Be careful to distinguish between the appositive possessive and the possessive in apposition (section 125).

EXERCISE 45

A

Explain the exact value of each possessive in the following exercise.

1. The knight's matters must be settled before the squire's.
2. The Prior of Saint Botolph's hobbled back into the refectory.
3. The money is the good knight, my master's.
4. A low moan was the voice of her heart's anguish.
5. Beneath the swell of Time's resistless onward roll, the unwritten secrets lie.
6. A sound went up—the wave's dark sleep was broken—
On Uri's lake was heard a midnight oar—
Of man's brief course a troubled moment's token
The eternal waters to their barriers bore.

B

Give the exact use of each case form in the following sentences.

1. The king's sons having vacated the throne, Macbeth was crowned king.
2. We met Mrs. Brown, the wife of the captain.
3. All things I heard or saw,
Me, their master waited for.
4. Chieftains, forego! I hold the first who strikes, my foe.
5. The pale warrior, the friend of the Ottawa chief, is not here.
6. You are called wise men, sirs, and I a crazed fool, but, uncle Cedric and cousin Athelstane, the fool shall decide this controversy.
7. Tell me, good fellow, the way to Cedric the Saxon's.
8. The dell upon the mountain crest
Yawn'd like a gash on warrior's breast.

9. I saw them saddled lead
Old Cheviot forth, the Earl's best steed ;
A matchless horse, though something old.
10. Soldier, rest, thy warfare o'er,
Sleep the sleep that knows not breaking.
11. Strike for the King and die ! and if thou diest,
The King is King, and ever wills the highest.
Clang battleaxe, and clash brand ! Let the King reign.

OTHER FORMS USED AS NOUNS

128. As we have already seen, words and combinations of words, which cannot be classified as ordinary names, are frequently used in a sentence as the equivalent of nouns.

1. The adjective may be used with a noun value as follows :

(a) In the singular form, to denote something possessing the quality signified by the adjective ; as,

Avoid the *wrong*.

We admire the *beautiful*.

The *evil* that men do lives after them.

(b) In the singular form with a plural meaning, to denote persons possessing the quality ; as,

The *gentle* often show more fortitude than the *bold*.

How are the *mighty* fallen !

The *brave* are admired.

(c) In the singular or plural as a common noun denoting a class of persons or things ; as,

The *braves* advanced in their canoes.

The young *brave* rescued the chief.

The *goods* came by express.

He bought bran and *shorts*.

2. An adverb is occasionally used in the construction of a noun; thus,

He knew the *ins* and *outs* of the question.

They are there before *now*.

3. Any word, when used in the sense of the word, *so* and *so*, may take in a sentence the value of a noun; as,

But is a conjunction.

Do not use *and so* frequently.

Gave is the past tense of *give*.

4. The infinitive, as we have seen (section 76), is generally used with the function of a noun; thus,

They wish *to leave*.

Standing here is tiresome.

You need not *go*.

5. The subordinate noun clause (section 63), is the most important equivalent of the ordinary noun. The following will illustrate the various constructions of noun clauses:

(a) As subject:

Whatever violence they exercise on their prisoners shall be most severely paid.

(b) As object of a verb or preposition:

He observed *that the seat of one of the Preceptors was vacant.*

I stepped in to see *what might be rescued there.*

I bring ruin on *whomsoever hath shown kindness to me.*

(c) As a noun in apposition:

He holds the theory *that all life is an affair of the will.*

The fact *that he had lived there* gained him the position.

(d) As a subjective predicate noun :

My desire was *that he should accompany them*.
That is *what I have told you*.

(e) As an objective predicate noun :

They made him *what he is*.
I did not find them *what I expected*.

(f) As subject or complement of an infinitive :

I found *what they reported to be incorrect*.
I know this to be *what he wants*.

(g) As an adjective or an adverb :

A noun clause is sometimes used as an adjective to modify a noun, or as an adverb to modify a verb or adjective, where a corresponding noun would be governed by a preposition introducing an adjective or adverb phrase ; thus,

We had hopes *that they would succeed* ;
He insisted *that you should be present* ;
I was not aware *that they had departed* ;

where the substitution of a noun for the clauses would give the following :

He had hopes *of their success* ;
He insisted *on your presence*.
I was not aware *of their departure*

(h) As a nominative absolute :

What they brought being exhausted, they sent for more.

That they had left becoming known, the mob again assembled.

(i) As an objective after an interjection.

O *that he were here*.

EXERCISE 46

A

Explain the exact use of each noun clause in the following exercise.

1. He told her in what condition he found the princess.
2. I am afraid that he is enraged.
3. What his own opinion was is not known.
4. He was quite a different man from what he was before.
5. Remember the gage of your gold chain against my reliquary that thou wouldst do battle.
6. We shall have no advantage over them save what we may derive from our horses.
7. I go hence, trusting that all shall be well, and that even for his infant hands there is a labour in the vineyard.
8. I give you plain warning that you had better consult how to bear yourselves under these circumstances.
9. Merlin swore that I should come again to rule once more—but let what will be, be.

B

Point out all the noun equivalents in the following sentences and explain the form of each.

1. From there, they decided to advance further into the interior.
2. The race is not to the swift, nor the battle to the strong.
3. William proposed to hold these nobles as hostages for his safety.
4. All have to bear the ups and downs of life.
5. I will never join in ridiculing a friend; and so I constantly tell my cousin Ogie, and you all know what pretensions she has to be critical on beauty.

PARSING A NOUN

129. In parsing a noun we must state :

- (1) Its kind $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} a. \text{ Proper or common.} \\ b. \text{ Masculine, feminine, or neuter.} \end{array} \right.$
- (2) Its inflections $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} a. \text{ Number.} \\ b. \text{ Case.} \end{array} \right.$
- (3) Its relation or connection in the sentence.

MODEL

John carried his sister's books.

John : a proper noun, masculine gender, singular number, nominative case, subject of *brought*.

sister's : a common noun, feminine gender, singular number, possessive case, modifying *books*.

books : a common noun, neuter, singular number, objective case, object of *carried*.

EXERCISE 47

Parse the nouns in the following.

1. The scene is a familiar one to many a tourist and sportsman ; and, perhaps, standing at sunset on the peaceful strand, Champ'ain saw what a roving student of this generation has seen on those same shores, at that same hour,—the glow of the vanished sun behind the western mountains, darkly piled in mist and shadow along the sky ; near at hand, the dead pine, mighty in decay, stretching its ragged arms athwart the burning heaven, the crow perched on its top like an image carved in jet ; and, aloft, the night-hawk, circling in his flight, and, with a strange whirring sound, diving through the air each moment for the insects he makes his prey.

2. "Thou shalt see,
 Dearest of sisters, what my life shall be,
 What a calm round of hours shall make my days.
 There is a paly flame of hope that plays
 Where'er I look : but yet, I'll say 'tis naught."

This said, he rose, faint-smiling like a star
 Through autumn mists, and took Peona's hand :
 They stept into the boat, and launched from land.

3. Then Eustace mounted too ;—yet staid,
 As loth to leave the helpless maid,
 When, fast as shaft can fly,
 Bloodshot his eyes, his nostrils spread,
 The loose rein dangling from his head,
 Housing and saddle bloody red,
 Lord Marmion's steed rushed by ;
 And Eustace, maddening at the sight,
 A look and sign to Clara cast,
 To mark he would return in haste,
 Then plunged into the fight.

4. — Wherefore, let thy voice
 Rise like a fountain for me night and day.
 For what are men better than sheep or goats
 That nourish a blind life within the brain,
 If, knowing God, they lift not hands of prayer
 Both for themselves and those who call them friend !

CHAPTER VII

THE PRONOUN

CLASSES OF PRONOUNS

130. It has been seen (section 93) that pronouns may be classified, on the basis of their power to mark or distinguish person, into three classes, as follows:

1. Pronouns of the *first person*, which mark or refer to the person speaking; as,

I, me, we, us.

2. Pronouns of the *second person*, which mark or refer to the person addressed; as,

thou, thee, you.

3. Pronouns of the *third person*, which mark or refer to the person or thing spoken of; as,

he, him, them, that, it, what, etc.

In classifying our pronouns on the basis of their meaning, it is customary to place pronouns denoting the speaker or the person spoken to, that is, the pronouns of the first and the second persons, into one class, known as *personal pronouns*.

The pronouns of the third person are further subdivided according to differences in the way in which they refer to the person or thing they represent, as follows :

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

131. Some pronouns, in representing a person or thing being spoken of, point out or call our attention very definitely to the objects to which they refer; as,

This is the boy, John saw *him*.

Take the book and give *it* to *her*.

Ask Mary whether *she* will do *that*.

Because such pronouns of the third person especially point out or call attention to the objects they represent, they are called **demonstrative** pronouns (Latin *demonstro*, "I point out").

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

132. Other pronouns of the third person are always used to introduce a question about the person or thing to which they refer; as,

Who is the man, and *what* does he want ?

Which did John take ?

What are you to be in the game ?

Because these pronouns are used to introduce questions or interrogations, they are called **interrogative** pronouns.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

133. Certain other pronouns, in referring to persons or things spoken of, refer indefinitely to the

objects or to the number or quantity of the objects; as,

Will *anybody* give *anything* to the poor man?
 Have you *any* with you?
 Give John *some*.

Because such pronouns refer indefinitely to the objects or to the number or quantity of the objects, they are called **indefinite** pronouns.

134. Besides the above four classes of pronouns, we have also studied two classes of words which were found to be partly pronominal in function. These were the *conjunctive pronoun* (section 73) and the *pronominal adjective* (section 72).

The pronominal adjectives were seen (section 87) to have a possessive value and are usually classified as possessive case forms of the other classes—*my*, personal; *his*, demonstrative; etc.

The regular classes of pronouns may, therefore, be summarized as follows:

- | | |
|--|-------------------|
| 1. Personal. | 2. Demonstrative. |
| 3. Interrogative. | 4. Indefinite. |
| 5. Conjunctive (partly pronominal in value). | |

135. Notice that a conjunctive pronoun may refer to any one of the three persons; as,

| | |
|--|----------------|
| I, <i>who</i> am no flatterer, praise their honesty. | First person. |
| Thou, <i>who</i> art no flatterer, praisest their honesty. | Second person. |
| He, <i>who</i> is no flatterer, praises their honesty. | Third person. |

We shall, in the present chapter, make a particular study of the above classes of pronouns, noting especially any peculiarities in their forms and uses.

EXERCISE 48

Classify the pronouns in the following sentences.

1. Laugh those that can, weep those that may.
2. Lamia, what means this? Wherefore dost thou start?
3. I behold in you fear, hope, and wrath; even as I see them, on the mortal world beneath, in men who die.
4. Nothing but the shriek with its sad echo did the silence break.
5. I deny being privy to any of their designs.
6. I know, Socrates, that I shall not have to find fault with you as I have with others who are angry with me when I bid them drink the poison. You are the noblest of all that ever came to this place.
7. It tinged them with a lustre proud
Like that which streaks a thunder-cloud.
8. Fear naught—nay, that I need not say—
But—doubt not aught from mine array.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS

Declension of Personal Pronouns

136. The personal pronouns, as we have seen, are so called because they especially distinguish person by marking or referring to the person speaking and the person spoken to. The full declension of these pronouns, including the possessive forms, is as follows:

FIRST PERSON

| | <i>Nominative</i> | <i>Possessive</i> | <i>Objective</i> |
|----------|-------------------|-------------------|------------------|
| Singular | I | my, mine | me |
| Plural | we | our, ours | us |

SECOND PERSON

| | <i>Nominative</i> | <i>Possessive</i> | <i>Objective</i> |
|----------|-------------------|-------------------|------------------|
| Singular | thou | thy, thine | thee |
| Plural | you, ye | your, yours | you |

ORIGIN OF THE TWO POSSESSIVE FORMS

137. In Early English the singular possessives or genitives of these pronouns were *min* and *thin*, the shorter forms arising later from the loss of the final *n*, the *i* being written as *y*. The original form has added a final *e* to mark the long sound of *i*.

The original possessive plurals were *our* and *your*, *r* being the regular ending in Early English for the genitive of the plural and of the feminine singular of pronouns. Later these forms were sometimes strengthened by adding *s*, which was a common genitive ending for nouns, thus giving the double possessive forms *ours* and *yours*. Notice also the demonstrative forms *hers* and *theirs* (section 149).

The second plural *you* was originally only objective, the nominative form being *ye*; as in

I have piped unto *you* and *ye* have not danced.

In Modern English, however, as we shall see later, *you* is used as both a nominative and an objective form.

SPECIAL USES OF THE PERSONAL PRONOUNS

138. The plural forms of the first person are frequently used by a ruler or a writer in place of the singular forms; thus,

He (Prince John) said: "*We* will make them fifty if thou wilt take livery and serve with *us* as a yeoman of *our* guard."

This *we* shall discuss in *our* next chapter.

139. The singular forms of the second person are now used only in poetry and in the solemn style; as,

Ah! that *thou* couldst know *thy* joy,
Ere it passes, barefoot boy!

Cast *thy* eyes eastward, and tell me what *thou* seest.

It was in Middle English that the plural forms of the second person began to be applied to a single person as a polite form of address, the plural not being so pointed as the corresponding singular forms. The singular, however, long continued to be used in familiar conversation, in the language of superiors towards inferiors, and in contempt. Notice, for example, the uses of these forms in the following:

Launce, away, *thy* master is shipped and *thou* are to post after.

Tush, man, *thou* forgettest *thy* best auxiliaries.

Shoot, knave, and shoot *thy* best, or it shall be the worse for *thee*.

I am not bound to please *thee* with my answers.

140. Although the form *you* is now ordinarily used in addressing a single individual, as in

John, *you* must bring *your* friend with *you*;

Will *you* tell me what *you* consider the shortest route thither,
Mr. Bourne?

it must be understood that this pronoun is grammatically a plural form, and is always connected with the plural of the verb; thus,

James, *you are* late;

Mary, *were you* with the others?

The form *you*, therefore, even when referring to a single person, must not be parsed as a singular, but as a plural with a singular meaning.

141. When the objective form *you* became established, in Early Modern English, as a nominative, the older nominative form *ye*, like the singular forms, continued in use mainly in poetry and in the solemn style; thus,

Come back, *ye* seem to say; *ye* seek in vain.
I go; but *ye* know not whence I come or whither I go.

The nominative form *ye* is also occasionally found used in an objective relation; thus,

An *ye* pay not the richer ransom, I will hang *ye* up
by the feet.

142. The plural forms of both the first and the second persons sometimes take on a demonstrative force, having seemingly the value of adjectives modifying a following noun; thus,

We men do not understand why *you* women desire votes.
You seem to envy us bachelors.

Although in the above examples the noun following the pronoun might be considered in apposition (section 120, 4) to the pronoun, yet this noun has not the force of an ordinary appositive depending upon the pronoun, but rather represents the principal idea, which is modified in reference to person by the addition of the pronoun.

This use of a personal pronoun is, therefore, distinguished as its demonstrative use.

143. Occasionally the pronoun *you* is used in an indefinite way having almost the value of "anybody"; as in

You would think he owned the place.
It faces *you* as *you* enter.

This is known as the **indefinite** use of the pronoun *you*.

USES OF THE POSSESSIVE FORMS

144. The double possessive forms — *my*, *mine*, *our*, *ours*, etc., the second of which, as we have seen (section 137), arose accidentally in the language, were for some time used interchangeably. Gradually, however, a distinction began to develop between the uses of the two forms. At first a tendency developed to use the longer forms *mine* and *thine* before a vowel, and *my* and *thy* before a consonant, as in

Mine eyes have seen *thy* salvation.
Let Gurth do *thine* office.

Later, however, the different forms settled down to the present well-defined usages—the shorter forms being used when the possessive is related directly to a noun, and the longer forms when the possessive is not joined directly to a modified noun—as follows:

1. Joined to a noun,

I placed *my* pen on *your* desk.
Ambition is *thy* pursuit.

2. Not joined directly to a noun,

Mine is worth more than *yours*.
We left *ours* at home.

Thus the two forms in each case divide between them the ordinary uses of the possessive form of a noun (section 122).

EXERCISE 49

Explain briefly the uses of the italicized pronominal forms in the following.

1. Grant *me thy* counsel to *mine* aid.
2. Blessed are *ye* when men shall hate *you*.
3. *We* philosophers hold quite another opinion
4. Blessed are *ye* poor, for *yours* is the kingdom of God.
5. The palace lies to *your* right as *you* ascend the hill.
6. What *we* said of these applies to the others.
7. O, wretched dolt!
Now, when my foot is almost on *thy* neck,
Wilt *thou* infuriate me?
8. "No, by *mine* honour," Roderick said,
So help *me*, Heaven, and *my* good blade!

COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS

145. In addition to the simple personal pronouns which have already been considered, there are a number of *compound personal pronouns* which are formed by compounding the possessive forms of the personal pronouns with the word *self*: thus,

| | SINGULAR | PLURAL |
|----------------------|-------------------|------------|
| <i>First Person</i> | myself | ourselves |
| <i>Second Person</i> | thyself, yourself | yourselves |

Notice that in the form *yourself*, since the plural form *you* is used with a singular meaning, the word *self* is left in the singular form. *Yourself* is, therefore, to be considered a singular form.

USES OF THE COMPOUND FORMS

146. The compound forms of the pronoun have the following uses :

1. Reflexive Use.

The compound forms are frequently used as objects after a verb or preposition to refer back to the subject ; as,

I hurt *myself*.

You made a simoleon of *yourself*.

Because these pronouns here refer back to the subject and denote the same person or persons, this is called the *reflexive* use of the compound forms, and such an object is classified as a **reflexive object**.

NOTE.—A compound pronoun is also occasionally used as a reflexive complement ; thus,

I am *myself* again.

You seem *yourself* once more.

2. Emphatic Use.

The compound forms are also used in apposition to a noun or pronoun in either the nominative or the objective case, for the purpose of adding emphasis to the words they modify ; as,

I *myself* have seen it.

You know *yourselves* that this is wrong.

Does he expect us to go *ourselves* ?

This is known as the **emphatic** use of the compound forms.

NOTE 1.—In the emphatic use of a compound form the modified pronoun is sometimes omitted; as,

Myself will see to it.

NOTE 2.—In adding emphasis to a possessive form the adjective *own* is used and not a compound pronoun; thus,

I brought my *own* books ;
Do you know your *own* friends ;

and as in the case of the simple possessives, this emphatic form of the possessive may be used without the modified noun (section 122) ; thus,

Our own is not here.
Have you *your own* with you ?

NOTE 3.—For the compound forms and the emphatic possessives of the demonstratives see section 154.

EXERCISE 50

A

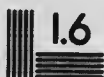
Explain the use of each compound pronoun in the following.

1. Ye yourselves know how you ought to act.
2. This, of course, will depend upon yourself.
3. Why, man, I found them fastened on him myself.
4. We did not wish to intrude ourselves upon you.
5. Thou shalt love thy neighbour as thyself.
6. You have brought it upon yourself.
7. We shall do better if we work by ourselves.
8. Do you feel yourself to-day ?



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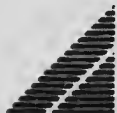
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B

Compose sentences, adding the proper word for emphasis to the forms.

I, thou, we, my, your, thy, me.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

147. A demonstrative pronoun, as its name implies, is one that definitely points out or directs attention to the object to which it refers. The demonstrative pronouns are *this*, *that*, *he*, *she*, and *it*, *they*, and *such* in some of its uses.

CLASSES OF DEMONSTRATIVES

148. Two of our demonstrative pronouns, *this* and *that*, with their plurals, *these* and *those*, are used chiefly to direct our attention to objects within the view of the speaker; as,

This is John's but *that* is William's.
Take *these* to the house.

These demonstratives may, therefore, be distinguished as *simple* demonstratives.

On the other hand, the various case forms of *he*, *she*, *it*, and *they* are most commonly used to refer to something already mentioned in the sentence, or easily understood by the person addressed; as,

The men brought the cart; *they* have put *it* in the barn.
The girl has *her* friend with *her*.
I met *them* yesterday.

Because these pronouns are generally used to

refer to something which has already been mentioned, they are especially called *demonstratives of the third person*.

NOTE.—It must be borne in mind, however, that all our demonstratives are really of the third person, and that these demonstratives are especially called demonstratives of the third person simply because they are used more particularly to refer to objects already spoken of.

DECLENSION OF THE DEMONSTRATIVES

149. The demonstratives *this* and *that* have no inflection for case, and are used in only the nominative and the objective relations; they are, however, inflected for number. Their declension may, therefore, be represented as follows:

| | SINGULAR | PLURAL |
|--------------------------|----------|--------|
| Nominative and Objective | { this | these |
| | { that | those |

On the other hand, the demonstrative of the third person is not only inflected for number and case, but may also be considered to furnish in the singular the single example in English of an inflection for gender, the neuter *it* having been originally *hit*, an inflected form of *he*.

The full declension of this demonstrative, including the possessive form, is, therefore, as follows:

| | SINGULAR | | | PLURAL |
|------------|------------------|-----------------|---------------|--------------------|
| | <i>Masculine</i> | <i>Feminine</i> | <i>Neuter</i> | <i>All Genders</i> |
| Nominative | he | she | it | they |
| Possessive | his | her, hers | its | their, theirs |
| Objective | him | her | it | them |

USES OF THE DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

THE SIMPLE DEMONSTRATIVES

150. The simple demonstratives, *this* and *that*, together with their plurals, *these* and *those*, are commonly used, as we have already seen, to call attention to certain objects within the view of the speaker. As thus used, the following difference between the two demonstratives is to be noted :

The demonstrative *this* and its plural *these* are used to direct attention to an object or objects near the speaker; while the demonstrative *that* and its plural *those* refer to an object or objects remote from the speaker; thus,

I have broken *this*, bring me *that*.

These are too small, let us try *those*.

These pronouns are sometimes used in a sentence to refer to objects already mentioned, in which case *this* refers to the latter and *that* to the former; thus,

Roguery is not to be preferred to rudeness: this is an offence against manners; that, against morals.

That and *those* are also used in certain cases in place of a demonstrative of the third person, to refer to an object already mentioned; thus,

I brought my coat and *that* (not it) of my friend.

The men on horseback and *those* (not they) in the carriage had a good view.

This and *these* are frequently used as repeated subjects (section 32) where, of course, they refer to objects already mentioned; thus,

Self-knowledge, self-reverence, self-control, *these* three alone lead life to sovereign power.

The armaments which thunderstrike the walls
Of rock-built cities, bidding nations quake,
And monarchs tremble in their capitals,—
The oak leviathans, whose huge ribs make
Their clay creator the vain title take
Of lord of thee, and arbiter of war ;
These are thy toys.

DEMONSTRATIVES OF THE THIRD PERSON

151. As has been seen, the demonstratives of the third person are commonly used to refer to foregoing nouns, and have the power, in the singular, to distinguish gender, thus agreeing in gender with the nouns to which they refer.

Because the singular forms distinguish gender, the masculine and feminine forms are frequently used as a means of personification, that is, to give a thing characteristics belonging to a person ; thus,

To that high Capital where kingly Death
Keeps *his* pale court in beauty and decay he came.
The ship continued on *her* course.

USES OF "IT"

152. In addition to its ordinary demonstrative use, the neuter form *it* has the following special or idiomatic uses :

(1) Representative Subject :

It is certain that he knows about them.
It is not clear what they will do.

In such sentences the subject pronoun *it* refers to a clause

or phrase to be expressed later in the sentence. The following clause or phrase represented by *it* is called the *real* subject.

(2) Representative Object :

I think *it* likely that they have gone.
John considered *it* better to take these.

As in (1) above, the following clause or phrase for which the *it* stands is called the *real* object

(3) Impersonal Subject (section 31):

It rains.
It is getting late.

(4) Impersonal Object (section 32):

They fought *it* out between them.
The boys had a rough time of *it*.

(5) Indefinite Subject :

The pronoun *it* is sometimes used as a subject, with the meaning of *the one, the thing, the person, etc.*, thus referring somewhat indefinitely to the object for which it stands ; as

It was the boy who was to blame.
It was the smaller book that I wanted.

Thus used, the demonstrative is classified as an indefinite subject.

NOTE.—Observe, in such sentences as the above, that the subordinate clause is, in each case, an adjective clause modifying the indefinite subject. Such clauses are frequently incorrectly classified as noun clauses used as real subjects, or as adjective clauses modifying the noun immediately preceding the conjunctive pronoun.

POSSESSIVE FORMS OF THE DEMONSTRATIVE

153. As in the case of the personal pronouns, the demonstrative of the third person has, in the

feminine singular and in the plural, two possessive forms—*her, hers*; *their, theirs*.

As in the case of the personal possessives also, these forms divide between them the ordinary functions of the possessive; as follows:

1. Joined directly to a noun :

They placed *their* books on *her* desk.

2. Not joined to a noun :

Theirs are better than *hers*.
I brought *hers* but left *theirs*.

COMPOUND DEMONSTRATIVES

154. The demonstrative of the third person has, like the personal pronouns, compound forms for all genders and numbers. These compounds are here formed by the addition of *self* and *selves*, not to the possessive as with the personals, but to the objective forms of the simple pronoun: thus,

| | SINGULAR | | PLURAL |
|------------------|-----------------|---------------|--------------------|
| <i>Masculine</i> | <i>Feminine</i> | <i>Neuter</i> | <i>All genders</i> |
| himself | herself | itself | themselves |

The uses of these forms correspond with those of the compound personals (section 146), as follows:

1. Reflexive Use :

He placed *himself* beside them.
She bought *herself* a new hat.
They are beside *themselves*.
Now Richard is *himself* again.

2. Emphatic Use :

He must come *himself*, if he desires it.
 They knew better *themselves*.
 The raven *himself* is hoarse
 That croaks the fatal entrance of Duncan
 Under my battlements.

NOTE 1.—As in the case of the personal possessives, a possessive form of the demonstrative is made emphatic by joining to it the adjective *own* ; as,

He brought his *own* outfit.
 The bedpost was his *own*.

NOTE 2.—In addition to the compound forms, the simple objectives of all the persons are occasionally used as reflexive objects ; thus,

Now I lay *me* (myself) down to sleep.
 Signor Antonio commends *him* (himself) to thee.

“SUCH” DEMONSTRATIVE

155. The word *such*, which is also used as an indefinite pronoun, is occasionally used as a weakened demonstrative referring to a noun going before ; as,

He is a brave man, and *such* never yield to misfortune.
 The new captain was made *such* on account of his size and strength.

DEMONSTRATIVE USE OF “SO”

156. The adverb *so* is frequently used with the value of a demonstrative pronoun, being equivalent to *that* ; as,

John said *so*.
 Do you think *so* ?

EXERCISE 51

Point out the demonstrative pronouns in the following exercise, and state the exact use of each.

1. Sampson hath quit himself like Sampson.
2. He shall go for it himself.
3. They sat them down and wept.
4. Nature within me seems in all her functions weary of herself.
5. Theirs was no blind rage.
6. Have I not always told him so?
7. Do you think it likely he will remember it?
8. His own heart laughed and that was quite enough for him.
9. It is much colder to-day.
10. This is heavier, but that is stronger.
11. The men had a rough time of it.
12. What cause brought him so soon at variance with himself?
13. It was a strange sight that met them.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

157. We have seen (section 132) that an interrogative pronoun is used to introduce a question in relation to some person or thing to which the pronoun refers. The interrogative pronouns in English are *who*, *which*, and *what*.

The interrogative *whether*, meaning which of two, as in

Whether is greater, the gold, or the temple?

is now obsolete.

INFLECTED FORMS

158. The interrogatives *which* and *what* have no inflected forms but are used in both the nominative and the objective relations. *Which* may be either singular or plural; *what* is only singular. For example :

Nominative singular . . *Which* is your book ?

Nominative plural . . . *Which* are your books ?

Objective *Which* will you have ?

Nominative singular . . *What* is coming yonder ?

Objective *What* did he say ?

The interrogative *who* is inflected for case, and may be of either number.

INFLECTION OF "WHO"

| | <i>Nominative</i> | <i>Possessive</i> | <i>Objective</i> |
|--------------------|-------------------|-------------------|------------------|
| Singular or Plural | who | whose | whom |

USES OF THE INTERROGATIVES

159. The interrogative *who* is used to introduce questions in reference to persons; *what*, in reference to things, and *which* in reference to either persons or things; thus,

Who told you about it ? John.

What have you there ? A knife.

Which of the boys told you ?

Which of the books did he take ?

The interrogative *which* differs from *who* and *what*, in that it has a *selective* force, that is, it implies

that we are asking about an object, or objects, out of a known number ; as,

Which of the boys broke it ?

Which of the books do you want ?

where it is implied that we know certain objects out of which the right one is to be taken.

On the other hand, *who* and *what* do not suggest that anything is known in reference to the object, as in

Who broke it ?

What do you want ?

They are, therefore, said to be general or indefinite interrogatives.

NOTE.—The interrogative pronoun *what* is sometimes used with an adverbial value ; as in

What does it weigh ?

What does it matter ?

DEPENDENT INTERROGATIVES

160. It was seen (section 66) that an interrogative sentence may be put in indirect narration, when the question will take the form of a noun clause and be written without a question mark as in

He asked *who would take it.*

He wished to know *which they would prefer.*

When placed as a noun clause in indirect narration, a question is called a *dependent question*, and the pronoun introducing the question, as *who* and *which* above, is classified as a *dependent interrogative pronoun*.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

161. The indefinite pronouns are so called because they either refer in an indefinite way to the objects which they represent, as in

Somebody has taken it ;
Did he leave *anything* ?

or else make an indefinite reference in regard to the number or quantity of the objects which they represent ; as in

Some of the books are badly torn.
Is *any* of the grain fit for cutting ?

The more common indefinite pronouns are,—any, anybody, anybody else, any one, aught, each, either, everybody, every one, neither, no one, none, nobody, not one, such, some, some one, somebody, somewhat.

NOTE.—By some grammarians these indefinite words are classified as adjectives or as nouns ; thus,

Adjectives : each, either, neither, such, any, etc.

Nouns : anybody, somebody, something, etc.

INFLECTED FORMS

162. The indefinite pronouns may be used in either the nominative or the objective, and some of them have possessive forms ; thus,

anybody's, any one's, anybody else's, somebody's.

None of the indefinite pronouns have plural forms, although we sometimes hear such expressions as,

They think themselves to be *somebodies*.

Some of these pronouns may, however, be used with a plural meaning, as in

Are any of you ready to go?
None of them were at home.
Some have gone on.

CLASSES OF INDEFINITES

163. Three of the indefinite pronouns refer to individuals as taken separately; thus,

Each of the boys has one.
Either of the two will answer.
Neither of the two has the correct answer.

Each distributes two or more than two, while *either* and *neither* indicate that there are only two. Because these words refer to objects separately, they are usually classified as indefinite *distributives*.

Because the other indefinite pronouns make an indefinite reference to the number or quantity of the objects they represent, they are classified as indefinites of *number* and *quantity*.

OTHER WORDS USED AS INDEFINITES

164. Such nouns as *person*, *fellow*, *body*, *man*, *people*, etc., may be used indefinitely in the sense of anybody; thus,

Will this hurt a body?
How could a man do otherwise?

NOTE.—For the indefinite use of *you*, consult section 143.

EXERCISE 52

Point out the interrogative and the indefinite pronouns in the following sentences and explain the use of each.

1. Each thought of the woman that loved him best.
2. What may your name be, Sir?
3. Edward attempted to say something within the verge of ordinary conversation.
4. Neither has anything to call his own.
5. Have they decided what they want?
6. Does anybody know which he took?
7. What was one to do under the circumstances?

CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUNS

165. It was seen (section 73) that the conjunctive pronoun, in addition to being a pronoun representing some object or objects without naming them, also performs in the sentence the function of a conjunction by relating a subordinate clause to some other part of a complex sentence. The conjunctive pronouns in English are,—*who, which, what, that*, and the compounds of *who, which*, and *what* with *ever*, *so* and *soever*, as *whoever, whoso, whosoever*, etc.

INFLECTION OF CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUNS

166. *Who* and its compounds are the only conjunctive pronouns which undergo change of form, and these only for case; as,

who, whose, whom, etc.

The other conjunctives are, however, used as nominatives or objectives, and may, with the

exception of *what* and its compounds, be used in either number ; thus,

Nominative Plural. .He owns the horses *which* are standing outside.
Objective Singular. .This is the book *which* you want.

CLASSES OF CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUNS

167. In our previous study of the conjunctive pronoun it was always found to introduce an adjective clause, which it related to a foregoing noun or pronoun denoting the same person or thing as the pronoun ; thus,

This is the man *whom* we met.
The lady *that* told us has just entered the house.

A comparison of the following sentences will show, however, that certain of our conjunctives introduce noun clauses, and also differ from the other conjunctives in that they do not refer back to any foregoing noun or pronoun. Compare for example,

I brought the money *that* he needed.
I brought *what* he needed.
We will trust those *who* are worthy.
We will trust *whoever* are worthy.

Conjunctive pronouns used as *that* and *who* above, to introduce an adjective clause and relate it to a foregoing noun or pronoun, are called *definite* conjunctive pronouns.

Conjunctive pronouns which, like *what* and *whoever* above, introduce noun clauses, are called *indefinite* conjunctive pronouns.

USES OF DEFINITE CONJUNCTIVES

168. A definite conjunctive, as we have seen, regularly relates its clause with the value of an adjective to a noun or to another pronoun for which the conjunctive stands. The noun or pronoun to which a conjunctive pronoun relates its clause is known as the antecedent of the conjunctive (Latin *antecedo*, "I go before"). The definite conjunctives are,—*who*, *which*, and *that*.

The conjunctive *who* is used in reference to persons, *which* in reference to other living animals or things, and *that* in reference to either persons or things; as,

The man *who* was here has returned.
 The knife *which* you gave me is lost.
 Do you know the man *that* has just passed?
 This is the money *that* I owe you.

The conjunctive *which* sometimes has for its antecedent a preceding phrase or clause, as in

He could not come, *which* I greatly regret.
 The grounds were very muddy, *which* made the play slow.

The conjunctive *that* must be used when there is a compound antecedent, one part of which names a person and the other an animal or thing; as,

The *men and the cattle that* were on board swam ashore.

The conjunctive *that* is also generally used when the clause especially limits the meaning of the antecedent; thus,

He was the best loser *that* I ever met.

NOTE.—The antecedent of *that* is sometimes merely implied in the preceding context ; as,

He did not take it *that* I know of.

See also section 348.

AGREEMENT OF THE DEFINITE CONJUNCTIVES

169. It must be noticed that a definite conjunctive agrees in person and number with its antecedent, but takes its case from its construction within its own clause ; thus,

This is the man *whom* we met.

Here the conjunctive *whom* is third singular agreeing with its antecedent *man*, but is objective case governed by the verb *met*.

USES OF THE INDEFINITE CONJUNCTIVES

170. The simple indefinite conjunctive pronoun *what*, like the interrogative, is always singular, and is used to refer in an indefinite way to some object which, though not expressed, is, in a sense, understood ; thus,

Did he bring *what* is wanted ?
What I have will answer.

Although *who* and *which* are regularly used as definite conjunctives, they are sometimes used with the value of indefinite conjunctives ; as,

Who steals my purse steals trash.

The compound conjunctives are more indefinite in their reference than the simple forms, the meaning

being made much more general by the addition of the second member of the compound; thus,

Whoever did it should be punished.
They are willing to accept *whatever* is offered.

NOTE.—Care must be taken in distinguishing between a dependent interrogative and an indefinite conjunctive pronoun; thus,

Dependent interrogative . . He asked *what* was wanted.
Indefinite conjunctive . . . He bought *what* was wanted.

CONJUNCTIVE OMITTED

171. A definite conjunctive pronoun, when in the objective case, is frequently omitted; thus,

I have the amount you require.
We saw the boys he is looking for.

OTHER WORDS USED AS CONJUNCTIVES

172. Certain words, other than the above conjunctive pronouns, are occasionally used with the value of definite conjunctives, as follows:

1. Conjunctive Adverbs:

Is this the place *where* you found it?
There was a time *when* this was true.

2. The Conjunction "as:"

The conjunction *as* is frequently used with the value of a conjunctive pronoun, especially after *such* and *same*; thus,

This is the same *as* the other.
I love *such as* love me.
He is not to be trusted, *as* you know.

3. The Conjunction "but:"

But is used with the value of a negative conjunctive pronoun equalling "who not," etc., as in

There was not a man *but* believed him innocent.

EXERCISE 53

Explain the exact use of each conjunctive pronoun in the following exercise.

1. Let pass whatever will.
2. Such as I have I will give thee.
3. We then came to the place where we had landed the year before.
4. There was not a box but had been opened.
5. They are welcome to such as we have.
6. You should give it to whoever deserves it.
7. As feels a dreamer what doth most create
His own particular fright, so these three felt :
Or like one who, in after ages, knelt
To Lucifer or Baal, when he'd pine
After a little sleep : or when in mine
Far underground, a sleeper meets his friends
Who know him not.
8. For on the smoke-wreaths, huge and slow,
That round her sable turrets flow,
 The morning beams were shed,
And tinged them with a lustre proud,
Like that which streaks a thunder-cloud.
Such dusky grandeur clothed the height,
Where the huge castle holds its state,
 And all the steep slope down,
Whose ridgy back heaves to the sky.

PRONOUN PHRASES

173. Although the pronoun does not, like the other parts of speech, ordinarily take the form of

a phrase, there are nevertheless two combinations, *each other* and *one another*, which are generally classified as pronoun phrases.

As these phrases are used objectively to indicate a mutual action on the part of those represented by the plural subject; thus,

These two men assisted *each other* ;

The boys in this class rely on *one another* ;

they are usually classified as reciprocal pronoun phrases. (*Reciprocal* means "mutual.")

CASE CONSTRUCTIONS OF PRONOUNS

174. In addition to being used in most of the various case constructions already met in the study of the noun, the pronoun has, as we have seen, certain uses not common to the noun; as the special uses of *it*, and the uses of the compounds with *self*.

The following will illustrate in detail the case constructions of the pronoun :

I. NOMINATIVE RELATIONS

1. Subject Nominative :

They took the parcel.

2. Predicate Nominative :

These are *they*.

3. Nominative of Address :

O *thou* to whom all creatures bow.

4. Nominative in Apposition :

In the pronoun we find two distinct types of appositives,—

(a) A pronoun followed by a modifier is occasionally added to a noun with the value of an ordinary appositive ; thus,

Yonder man will tell you, *he* with the light coat.
Her brother has it, *he* who has just left.

(b) As was seen (section 146, 2), the compound form of a personal or demonstrative pronoun, in one of its uses, has the value of an emphatic appositive ; thus,

I *myself* saw them.
They brought it here *themselves*.

5. Nominative Absolute :

This done, the men departed.

6. Repeated Subject :

The wedding guest, *he* beat his breast.

7. Representative Subject :

It is wise to wait.

8. Impersonal Subject :

It grew dark.

9. Indefinite Subject :

It was the girl who told us.

II. OBJECTIVE RELATIONS

1. Direct Object of a Verb :

John hit *him*.

2. Object after a Preposition :
William went with *them*.
3. Indirect Object :
The men gave *him* the money.
4. Subject of an Infinitive :
We wished *him* to go.
5. The Predicate Objective :
I knew it to be *him*.
6. The Objective Predicate :
We believed the reason *something* different.
We thought it *him*.
7. The Adverbial Objective :
What did the boy weigh ?
Did he return *that* early ?
8. The Objective in Apposition :
 - (a) Ordinary appositive,
Give it to the man, *him* at the door.
 - (b) Emphatic appositive,
Give it to the man *himself*.
9. The Representative Object :
I think *it* wise to see them.
10. The Impersonal Object :
They roughed *it* all winter.
11. The Reflexive Object :
The men blame *themselves*.

III. POSSESSIVE RELATIONS

1. Modifying a noun directly :

Their horses are in our field.

2. Not joined to a noun, when it may, like an ordinary adjective, be used in the regular constructions of the noun ; thus,

Subject :

Ours are better done.

Complement :

These books are ours.

Direct Object of a Verb :

Give me yours.

Object after a Preposition :

I can do better with yours.

Indirect Object of a Verb :

They gave yours much praise.

Predicate Objective :

I believe the book to be his.

Objective Predicate :

I thought the book yours.

NOTE.—It was seen (section 144) that a number of the possessive pronouns have two forms, which divide between them the two possessive uses mentioned above.

PARSING A PRONOUN

175. A pronoun is parsed according to the same model as a noun, by giving (1) its classification, (2) its inflections, and (3) its relation in the sentence.

MODEL

I that speak to thee am he.

I,—a personal pronoun, first person, singular number, nominative case, subject of the verb *am*.

that,—a definite conjunctive pronoun, first person, singular number, agreeing with its antecedent *I*, nominative case, subject of the verb *speak*.

thee,—a personal pronoun, second person, singular number, objective case after the preposition *to*.

he,—a demonstrative pronoun of the third person, masculine gender, singular number, nominative case, subjective complement of the copula verb *am*.

EXERCISE 54

Parse the pronouns and pronoun equivalents in the following sentences, and note any peculiarities in the uses of the italicized forms.

1. Know you who did this ?
2. She was a cunning slave and he knew her to be such.
3. Thy lands and all things that thou dost call *thine*, we seize into our hands.
4. What does it avail me to answer you ?
5. His mother, who had given him up for dead, omitted nothing to bring him to himself again.
6. *It* is not impossible to me, to set her before your eyes to-morrow.
7. Ali Baba did not stand long to consider *what* he should do.
8. Do not mind this, it is nothing : here is what will put you in heart.
9. This was more than he himself could have expected.

10. My present situation prohibits me from giving or receiving offence, and I will not protract a discussion which approaches to either.
11. Each mused over the particulars of the examination, and each viewed it through the medium of *his own* feelings.
12. This effected, he claimed his reward.
13. Peace, *you* dull fool, I found them on a tree.
14. He was surprised to see blood at the door, *which* he took for an ill omen.
15. In the dusk I will transport whatever we need.
16. His chance to day may be ours to-morrow; and what does it signify?
17. For some time, as if to sound each other's feelings, they conversed upon ordinary topics.
18. You cannot desert at the present moment—*that* seems impossible.
19. Why did you permit *your* to do so?
20. He will bring *whichever* they
21. It is yours, sir, to command, mine to obey.
22. She liked whatever she looked upon.
23. Thinking in a language different from that in which he was wont to express himself kept him silent.
24. *One* might almost believe in brownies and fairies when your ladyship is in presence.
25. Such of the present generation as can recollect the last twenty years will be fully sensible of the truth of this.
26. Though he had knowledge of the palace *where* the lamp was, yet he was not permitted to take it himself.
27. Ere the daylight dawns, *it* must be known *which* I have lost—my father or my friend.
28. Reason raise o'er instinct as you can;
In *this* 'tis God directs, in *that* 'tis man.

CHAPTER VIII

THE VERB

176. We have seen (section 53) that a verb is essential to every predicate—being used, either alone or with its adjuncts, to form the predicate of the sentence, and assert some action or state about the one denoted by the subject. We have seen further that the verb varies its form or is inflected for person, number, tense, and mood, and that it may appear in the sentence in the form of a single word or of a phrase.

In the present chapter we shall enter upon a more particular study of the *classification, inflection, and phrasal forms* of the verb.

CLASSIFICATION OF VERBS

I

ACCORDING TO MEANING

177. It was seen in our study of the predicate (section 17) that some verbs require, in order to complete their meaning, the addition of either an object or a subjective complement; while other verbs can make a complete statement, or convey complete meaning, without the addition of an adjunct. Verbs are, therefore, divided into three classes on the basis of their meaning.

TRANSITIVE VERBS

178. A verb asserting an action which requires, to complete its meaning, an idea of the person or thing upon which the action is exerted ; as,

The hunter *shot* a rabbit ;
The dog *bit* the child ;
The ball *broke* the window ;
I *see* the dog and the sheep ;

is called a **transitive verb**.

Transitive means "passing over," and a transitive verb is so called, because it asserts an action which involves not only a doer but also a receiver, the action being said to pass over from the doer to the receiver.

The object of a transitive verb, as we have already seen (section 88), is always in the objective case ; thus,

We heard *him* ;
They blamed *me* ;

for which reason the transitive verb is said to govern the objective case.

It is not necessary, of course, that a transitive verb should always have, in the sentence, an object representing the person or thing that receives the action being expressed ; for example, we may say

Dogs *bite*, but hunters *shoot* ;

and, as we have learned (section 96), the word denoting the receiver of the action may even be made the subject of the sentence, by changing the transitive verb to a phrasal form ; thus,

A rabbit *was shot* by the hunter.
The child *was bitten* by the dog.

In all such cases, however, the verb is still to be classified as transitive, since the mind requires, in order to give the verb its complete meaning, an idea of something towards which the action is directed. For instance, we cannot think definitely of *shooting* or *biting* without thinking of something being shot or bitten.

INTRANSITIVE VERBS

179. A verb which requires neither an object nor a complement to complete its meaning; as,

Flowers *bloom* :
Baby *sleeps* :
The men *remained* :

is called an **intransitive** verb. *Intransitive* means "not passing over," and an intransitive verb is so called, because it asserts an action or state which involves only the one denoted by the subject, and does not, therefore, call for an object upon which the action may fall.

While intransitive verbs do not require an object to complete their meaning, they may, however, in certain constructions be followed by an object.

THE IMPERSONAL OBJECT

180. As has been seen (section 32), the pronoun *it* is sometimes used in the sentence as an object without denoting any real object upon which the

action terminates. Such an object may, therefore, be governed by an intransitive verb; thus,

They lord *it* over us.
We walked *it* all the way.
They trip *it* as they go.

THE COGNATE OBJECT

181. Many intransitive verbs take after them an object noun which does not signify anything upon which the action terminates, but merely names the action asserted by the verb; thus,

She dreamt a *dream*.
They ran a *race*.
He laughed a *laugh* of merry scorn.

Such an object is called a **cognate** object. *Cognate* means "kindred to," and these objects are so called because they are kindred to, or allied in meaning to, the verbs which govern them.

COPULA VERBS

182. A verb that calls for a complement to modify the subject and complete the meaning of the verb, by showing the state or condition of the one denoted by the subject; as,

The dog *was* cross;
The knives *were* sharp;
George *is* king;
The river *seemed* deep;
He *looks* honest;

is called a **copula** verb.

Copula means a "uniter," and these verbs are so called because they unite the complement to the subject with the value of a modifier.

As we have seen (sections 54, 86), the *complement* of a copula verb is usually an adjective, or a noun or pronoun in the nominative case; as,

Iron is *heavy*.
George is *king*.
This is *she*.

NOTE.—The whole class of verbs which are followed by a subjective complement, including such verbs as *seem*, *look*, *become*, *appear*, etc., are frequently classed as verbs of incomplete predication. As, however, all these verbs *couple* their complement to the subject, and as transitive verbs may equally well be termed verbs of incomplete predication, it is more logical to classify these verbs as *copula*.

INFINITIVES AND PARTICIPLES

183. Like the verbs from which they are derived, infinitives and participles are transitive, intransitive, or copula; thus,

| | | |
|-----------------|---|---|
| Infinitives . . | { | They desire <i>to see</i> him. Transitive. |
| | { | They desire <i>to remain</i> . Intransitive. |
| | { | They desire <i>to be</i> honest. Copula. |
| Participles . . | { | <i>Seeing</i> him, they ran out. Transitive. |
| | { | The men <i>remaining</i> were very few. Intransitive. |
| | { | <i>Being</i> late we did not gain admission. Copula. |

It must be borne in mind that here, as elsewhere, the class to which a word belongs depends upon its function, and that the same verb may belong

to different classes, as its meaning varies in the sentence; thus,

The man *returned* (came back) yesterday. Intransitive.

The man *returned* (gave back) the money. Transitive.

God *is* just. Copula.

God *is* (exists). Intransitive.

The sky *grows* (becomes) darker. Copula.

This clay *grows* (produces) good grapes. Transitive.

EXERCISE 55

Classify according to meaning the verbs and verbal words in the following sentences, pointing out the objects and complements of the transitive and copula verbs.

1. It was a fine November morning, and the close soon became alive with boys who sauntered about or walked round the gravel-walk.
2. Coupling this with the hint of Evan, he judged it most prudent to set spurs to his horse and ride back to the squadron.
3. Martin rose to follow, but Tom stopped him.
4. A servant entered the apartment and placed upon the table two lamps fed with perfumed oil.
5. At length reflection came to my relief; I paused; I considered; and I began to doubt.
6. The captain, well satisfied with his journey and informed in what he wanted to know, returned to the forest.
7. "There is but one road to safety," continued the prince, and his brow grew dark as midnight; "this object of our terror journeys alone."
8. The curfew tolls the knell of parting day,
The lowing herd wind slowly o'er the lea,
The ploughman homeward plods his weary way,
And leaves the world to darkness and to me.

Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight,
 And all the air a solemn stillness holds,
 Save where the beetle wheels his droning flight,
 And drowsy tinklings lull the distant folds.

DEFINITIONS

A transitive verb is one that asserts an action involving an object towards which the action is directed.

An intransitive verb is one that makes a complete assertion about the one denoted by the subject.

A copula verb is one that requires to complete its meaning a complement, which it relates to the subject as a modifier.

II

ACCORDING TO FORM OR CONJUGATION

184. We noticed in our study of inflection that a word might vary its form, either by a change within the word, or by the addition of a letter or syllable at the end of the word. If we examine the forms of the past tense of English verbs, we find that verbs fall into two great classes according to the mode of forming their past tense; thus,

Grow . . They *grew* in beauty.

Love . . They *loved* him dearly.

Drive . . We *drove* the cattle away.

Burn . . The house *burnt* to the ground.

Because our verbs differ in their mode of inflection for the past tense, they are said to differ in conjugation, and the English verbs are said to be divided into two **conjugations**.

A verb such as *drive* or *grow*, which forms its past tense by changing the vowel of the present, is called a verb of the **old conjugation**. This conjugation is so called because it contains only primitive or root verbs which belong to the earliest stages of our language.

A verb such as *love* or *burn*, which forms its past tense by the addition of *ed*, *d*, or *t*, to the present, is called a verb of the **new conjugation**. This conjugation is so called because it contains few root verbs and because it has many verbs of recent origin. Any verb now added to the language also, must form its past tense according to this mode; for example: *motor*, *motored*.

The old conjugation is frequently called the *strong* and the new the *weak* conjugation. The old conjugation is called the strong, because it is able to form its past tense without outside help; while the new conjugation requires the aid of an addition from the outside, and is, therefore, said to be weak. The old conjugation is also termed the *vowel* conjugation, because it forms its past tense by vowel change; while the new is termed the *consonant* conjugation, because it adds the consonant *d* or *t* to form its past tense.

The verbs of these two conjugations are likewise found to differ in the mode of forming the perfect participle (section 81).

Compare, for example,

The grapes *grown* here are very fine.
He *was* a man *loved* by everyone.

The horse *driven* by John will win.
The house *burnt* yesterday will be rebuilt.

We find that the verbs *grow* and *drive*, which belong to the old conjugation, form the perfect participle by the addition of *n* or *en*; while the verbs *love* and *burn*, which belong to the new conjugation, form the perfect participle, like the past tense, by the addition of *d* or *t*. We may, therefore, describe a verb of the old conjugation as one that forms its past tense by changing the vowel of the present, and its perfect participle by the addition of *en* or *n*; and a verb of the new conjugation as one that forms both its past tense and its perfect participle by the addition of *ed*, *d*, or *t* to the present. It must be remembered, however, that it is the mode of forming its past tense which really decides the conjugation to which a verb belongs.

PRINCIPAL PARTS

185. The present stem, the past tense, and the perfect participle are called the principal parts of the verb; thus,

| STEM | PAST TENSE | PERFECT PARTICIPLE |
|------|------------|--------------------|
| hear | heard | heard |
| give | gave | given |
| see | saw | seen |
| wait | waited | waited |

These three are called *principal parts*, because from them may be formed, as we shall see later, all the flexional forms and phrases belonging to

the complete conjugation of the verb. A knowledge of the principal parts of any verb will, therefore, enable us to write out the full conjugation of the verb for mood, tense, person, number, and voice.

VERBS OF THE OLD CONJUGATION

186. As we have seen, a verb of the old conjugation regularly forms its past tense by changing the vowel of the present or stem, and its perfect participle by the addition of *en* or *n*; as,

| STEM | PAST TENSE | PERFECT PARTICIPLE |
|--------|------------|--------------------|
| blow | blew | blown |
| draw | drew | drawn |
| drive | drove | driven |
| grow | grew | grown |
| know | knew | known |
| strive | strove | striven |
| take | took | taken |
| throw | threw | thrown |

Many verbs of the old conjugation, however, depart somewhat from the regular rule, as follows:

1. Many verbs no longer add *n* or *en* to the perfect participle; as,

| STEM | PAST TENSE | PERFECT PARTICIPLE |
|-------|------------|--------------------|
| cling | clung | clung |
| come | came | come |
| drink | drank | drunk |
| hang | hung | hung |
| hold | held | held |
| ring | rang | rung |
| sing | sang | sung |
| sit | sat | sat |
| swim | swam | swum |
| win | won | won |

With a few verbs the ending is optional ; thus,

| STEM | PAST TENSE | PERFECT PARTICIPLE |
|--------|------------|--------------------|
| get | got | gotten, got |
| strike | struck | struck, stricken |
| tread | trod | trodden, trod |

2. Some verbs have both old and new forms ; thus,

| STEM | PAST TENSE | PERFECT PARTICIPLE |
|--------|--------------|--------------------------|
| crow | crew | crowed |
| dig | dug, digged | dug, digged |
| heave | hove, heaved | hove, hoven, heaved |
| thrive | throve | thrived, throve, thriven |
| wake | waked, woke | waked, woke |

VERBS OF THE NEW CONJUGATION

187. A verb of the new conjugation has been described as one that forms both its past tense and its perfect participle by the addition of *ed*, *d*, or *t* to the stem or present ; as,

| STEM | PAST TENSE | PERFECT PARTICIPLE |
|--------|------------|--------------------|
| bathe | bathed | bathed |
| depart | departed | departed |
| look | looked | looked |
| love | loved | loved |
| mean | meant | meant |
| pay | paid | paid |

While this is the regular method, a great many verbs of this conjugation are irregular in different ways.

1. A number of verbs in this conjugation have two forms in the past tense and perfect participle, adding either *ed* or *t* ; as,

| STEM | PAST TENSE | PERFECT PARTICIPLE |
|-------|-----------------|--------------------|
| burn | burned, burnt | burned, burnt |
| dream | dreamed, dreamt | dreamed, dreamt |
| dress | dressed, drest | dressed, drest |
| learn | learned, learnt | learned, learnt |
| rend | rended, rent | rended, rent |
| spell | spelled, spelt | spelled, spelt |
| spoil | spoiled, spoilt | spoiled, spoilt |

Notice that a consonant is sometimes dropped before *t*; as in *drest*, *rent*, and *spelt*. So also in *spend*, *spent*.

2. A number of verbs shorten their vowel before adding *d* or *t*. This vowel shortening must not, however, be confounded with vowel change. Examples are:

| STEM | PAST TENSE | PERFECT PARTICIPLE |
|-------|------------|--------------------|
| creep | crept | crept |
| feel | felt | felt |
| flee | fled | fled |
| keep | kept | kept |
| say | said | said |
| sleep | slept | slept |

3. Some verbs similar to the above which end in *d* or *t* merely shorten the vowel to form their past tense and perfect participle; thus,

| | | |
|-------|------|------|
| bleed | bled | bled |
| feed | fed | fed |
| meet | met | met |
| speed | sped | sped |

4. A number of verbs ending in *d* or *t* have their past tense and perfect participle similar to the present stem; thus,

| | | |
|------|------|------|
| bet | bet | bet |
| cost | cost | cost |
| cut | cut | cut |
| hit | hit | hit |
| put | put | put |
| shed | shed | shed |

5. A few verbs of the new conjugation seem to undergo vowel change along with the addition of *d* or *t*; as,

| STEM | PAST TENSE | PERFECT PARTICIPLE |
|-------|------------|--------------------|
| buy | bought | bought |
| bring | brought | brought |
| sell | sold | sold |
| teach | taught | taught |
| tell | told | told |

NOTE.—A more complete list of the irregular verbs of the two conjugations will be found in the appendix.

SPECIAL VERBS

188. The following verbs are to be especially noted:

1. *Be*: principal parts—be, was, been.

This verb, in addition to having a different word for its past tense, also has, as we shall see later, special forms: *am, art, is, are*, in the present tense.

2. *Have*: principal parts—have, had, had.

The past tense and perfect participle of this verb is formed by adding *d* to the present stem and dropping *ve*; thus,

have, ha(ve)d, ha(ve)d.

3. *Do*: principal parts—do, did, done.

The past *did* is supposed to have been formed from *do*, not by adding the consonant *d*, but by reduplication or doubling of the root word. Compare the Latin—*fallo, sefell*.

4. *Go*: principal parts—go, went, gone.

This verb takes for its past the old past of *wend*. Compare,

rend { *rended*
 rent

wend { *wended*
 went

DEFECTIVE VERBS

189. A few verbs in our language lack both infinitive and participle forms and are, therefore, defective in their conjugation. As we shall see later (section 196), these verbs, being without infinitives and participles, have no phrasal forms and are used only in the present and the past tenses. Our more common defective verbs are:

| | | | |
|---------|--------|----------|-----------|
| PRESENT | PAST | PRESENT | PAST |
| can | could | must | — |
| may | might | ought | — |
| shall | should | methinks | methought |
| will | would | | |

Notice, however, that when used in the sense of bestowing property, the verb "*will*" has both a past tense and a perfect participle ending in *ed*; as,

will willed willed

and also has its infinitive and participle forms complete; thus,

He came *to will* his property.
Men should be careful in *willing* their property.
Men *willing* property should be careful.

Must and *ought* are really past forms ending in *t*, but are now used only as presents.

In *methinks* we have a remnant of an old verb meaning *to seem*. *Methinks* means "it seems to me," and *methought* "it seemed to me"

NOTE.—For further particulars concerning the history of the above and other defective verbs, the student should consult a good dictionary or an historical grammar.

EXERCISE 56

State the conjugation of the verbs and verbal words in the following exercise, and mention any irregularities in conjugation.

1. When he sent for his books, he applied for, and received permission, extending his leave of absence.
2. Running parallel to them, were two high walls, overgrown with ivy and other climbing plants.
3. She bound his eyes at the place she told him of, carried him home, and never unloosed his eyes till he came into the room where her master lay.
4. "Come out," she cried and, showing me a staircase which led to a chamber above, "Go up and wait for me there."
5. He can, I know, but doubt to think he will.
6. I sat up again but my strength was all spent, and no time left to recover it; and though she rose like a bird, I tumbled off.
7. Before him like a blood-red flag,
The bright flamingoes flew.

INFINITIVES AND PARTICIPLES

FORMATION

190. We saw in connection with our study of the parts of speech, that in addition to the verb, there are two classes of words (infinitives and participles) which, while partaking of the value of a verb, also perform the function in the sentence of another part of speech—noun or adjective. In relation to the origin of infinitives and participles, we may now notice that the gerundial and the root infinitive are formed directly from the stem of the verb; thus,

| STEM | GERUNDIAL INFINITIVE | ROOT INFINITIVE |
|-------|----------------------|-----------------|
| be | to be | be |
| go | to go | go |
| see | to see | see |
| write | to write | write |

The gerund and the imperfect participle are also formed from the stem by the addition of *ing*; a final *e* usually being dropped, and a final consonant after a short accented vowel being doubled; thus,

| STEM | GERUND AND IMPERFECT PARTICIPLE |
|------|---------------------------------|
| fit | fitting |
| love | loving |
| wait | waiting |

The formation of the perfect participle has already been considered in connection with the study of the principal parts of the verb (section 184).

WEAKENED GERUNDS AND PARTICIPLES

191. A comparison of the verbal value of the italicized forms in

Writing a letter is often a difficult task.
The *writing* in this book is very bad;

Standing here is very tiresome;
The *standing* of this pupil is very low;

will show that a form in *ing* derived from a verb and used as a noun, may possess strong verbal force, as in the first example of each group, or may have retained so little of its verbal nature, that it resembles an ordinary noun, as in the second examples. When a gerund form is weakened in relation to its verbal force, as in the second

examples, it is to be parsed as an ordinary noun, since it shows no special verbal characteristics, as is the case with these forms in the first sentences.

So also if we compare the verbal force of the participle forms in

I found him *entertaining* the company ;
This is a very *entertaining* book ;

He found a nail *pressing* into the flesh ;
He gave us a *pressing* invitation ;

we notice that while the participle forms, *entertaining* and *pressing*, possess a marked verbal value in the first example of each group, they have so far lost their verbal function in the second examples, that they are used as mere adjectives to modify the nouns *book* and *invitation* respectively. In the second examples, therefore, these forms are to be classified as adjectives, and not as participles, as in the first examples.

It will be evident from the above that the form in *ing* derived from a verb may have four uses, as follows :

Gerund : *Opening* the gate was difficult.

Noun : The *opening* in the fence had been closed.

Participle : The man *opening* the gate is his father.

Adjective : The *opening* day seemed very long.

NOTE.—Further important facts in connection with the uses of infinitives and participles will be met in our study of *rb* phrases.

EXERCISE 57

Point out the derived verbal forms in the following sentences and state the exact force of each.

1. It was a little mean dwelling.
2. I used to hear a lady practising near us.
3. The ice in spring comes sailing athwart the early ship.
4. The wind rising, the mill-sails began to move.
5. There was a sudden stop ; then the voice of sobbing.
6. The hero quickly replaced the fallen helmet with his own, giving a golden helmet for a brazen.
7. I'll keep right on chopping till you get through talking to him.
8. Ventilation may be secured by having the doors and windows open, thus allowing the fresh air to circulate freely.
9. For a quarter of an hour she went on at a slapping pace, clearing the bushes, flying over the fallen logs, pausing neither for brook nor ravine. The baying of the hounds grew fainter behind.

INFLECTION

192. We have already learned (sections 91, 92) that there are two inflections of the verb which denote differences in the meaning of the verb ; one of these, *tense*, indicating a difference in the time of the action or state asserted by the verb ; the other, *mood*, indicating a difference in the speaker's manner of representing that action or state.

Two other inflections of the verb—person and number—were seen (sections 93, 94) to depend upon the relation of the verb, the different forms of the

verb being used according to differences in the person and number of the subject.

We are now to consider, in order, the person and number forms of the various tenses as they occur in the different moods, and to study more minutely the uses in our language of the various tenses and moods.

TENSE FORMS OF THE INDICATIVE

193. We have seen (section 93) that the second and third persons singular are distinguished from the first by the addition of *(e)st* and *(e)s*; thus,

I drive, thou drivest, he drives.

In poetry and in the solemn style, however, the third singular of the present indicative frequently ends in *(e)th*.

For example :

He *prayeth* best, who *loveth* best.

He *goeth* and *selleth* all that he *hath*, and *buyeth* that field.

The conjugation of the present indicative is, therefore, as follows :

PRESENT INDICATIVE

| PERSON | SINGULAR | PLURAL |
|--------|--------------------|----------------|
| 1st | I drive | we drive |
| 2nd | thou drivest | you (ye) drive |
| 3rd | he drives, driveth | they drive |

NOTE.—As we have seen (section 140), the pronoun you (ye) is used with both a plural and a singular *meaning*, each of the following being singular in meaning :

Where drivest *thou* now, Friend?
Where drive *you* now, Friend?

As, however, we are here dealing with the inflected forms of the verb, and as the form *you* is historically a plural form, it cannot be placed grammatically on the singular side of our paradigm. When found, therefore, with a singular meaning, the pronoun should be explained as a plural form with a singular meaning, and the verb is to be parsed as a plural form agreeing with it.

PAST INDICATIVE

In the past indicative only the second singular has a special ending; thus,

| PERSON | SINGULAR | PLURAL |
|--------|--------------|----------------|
| 1st | I drove | we drove |
| 2nd | thou drovest | you (ye) drove |
| 3rd | he drove | they drove |

FUTURE INDICATIVE

As the future is denoted in English by phrasal verb forms, the particular study of these forms and their uses will be postponed to a later division of the present chapter treating of verb phrases. To complete the present outline, however, the forms of the simple future indicative are here added.

| PERSON | SINGULAR | PLURAL |
|--------|-----------------|---------------------|
| 1st | I shall drive | we shall drive |
| 2nd | thou wilt drive | you (ye) will drive |
| 3rd | he will drive | they will drive |

TENSE FORMS OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE

194. From such sentences as

Our lady *give* him rest ;
 Heaven *sure* them ;
 Take heed lest thou *fall* ;

we may notice that the subjunctive has no personal endings. In Modern English, however, we almost always find in the second singular of the past, the indicative form (if thou drovest) in place of the older subjunctive (if thou drove). Compare, for example,

Were thou Regent of the world, it were a shame to let this land
 by lease.
 Would thou *wert* clean enough to spit upon.
 If thou *knew* him, thou *should* escape.
 O Corin that thou *knewest* how I do love her.

The regular tenses of the subjunctive are therefore as follows :

PRESENT SUBJUNCTIVE

| PERSON | SINGULAR | PLURAL |
|--------|--------------|----------------|
| 1st | (If) I drive | (If) we drive |
| 2nd | thou drive | you (ye) drive |
| 3rd | he drive | they drive |

PAST SUBJUNCTIVE

| PERSON | SINGULAR | PLURAL |
|--------|----------------------|----------------|
| 1st | (If) I drove | (If) we drove |
| 2nd | thou drovest (drove) | you (ye) drove |
| 3rd | he drove | they drove |

NOTE. —The subjunctive has no future tense.

TENSE FORMS OF THE IMPERATIVE

195. As commands are given only to a person or persons addressed, the imperative mood has only the second singular and plural of the present tense; as,

See thou to that, Sir ;
Nor you, ye proud, *impute* to these the fault ;

where the verb is used without any fleotional endings.

The present tense of the imperative is, therefore, as follows :

PRESENT IMPERATIVE

| PERSON | SINGULAR | PLURAL |
|--------|--------------|-----------------|
| 2nd | drive (thou) | drive (you, ye) |

As we have seen (section 36), the imperative verb is frequently used without its subject being expressed.

INFLECTED FORMS OF IRREGULAR VERBS

196. Almost all of our verbs of both conjugations form their persons and numbers in the various tenses and moods as given above. There are, however, a few verbs which differ from the common type, or are irregular in their conjugation. The more important of these irregular verbs are given below.

1. *Be, was, been.*

It has already been pointed out that this verb does not form its present tense from the present

stem *be*, but uses other words,—*am, art, is, are*. It will be noticed below, however, that the present subjunctive and imperative are regular, being formed from the present stem. The various tenses of this important verb are as follows :

| INDICATIVE | | SUBJUNCTIVE | |
|-----------------|------------------|----------------|---------------|
| PRESENT | | PRESENT | |
| 1. I am | we are | 1. (If) I be | (If) we be |
| 2. thou art | you (ye) are | 2. thou be | you (ye) be |
| 3. he is | they are | 3. he be | they be |
| PAST | | PAST | |
| 1. I was | we were | 1. (If) I were | (If) we were |
| 2. thou wast | you (ye) were | 2. thou wert | you (ye) were |
| (wert) | | (were) | |
| 3. he was | they were | 3. he were | they were |
| FUTURE | | | |
| 1. I shall be | we shall be | | |
| 2. thou wilt be | you (ye) wilt be | | |
| 3. he will be | they will be | | |

NOTE.—The form *be* is sometimes met with the value of a present indicative ; as,

Where *be* those false ravishes ?

but this use is now obsolete.

IMPERATIVE

2nd he (thou) be (you, ye)

2. *Have, had, had.*

This verb is irregular in its inflection, in that the letters *ve* are omitted in many of its parts. Its conjugation is as follows :

INDICATIVE

PRESENT

- | | |
|------------------|---------------|
| 1. I have | we have |
| 2. thou hast | you (ye) have |
| 3. he has (hath) | they have |

PAST

- | | |
|---------------|--------------|
| 1. I had | we had |
| 2. thou hadst | you (ye) had |
| 3. he had | they had |

FUTURE

- | | |
|-------------------|--------------------|
| 1. I shall have | we shall have |
| 2. thou wilt have | you (ye) will have |
| 3. he will have | they will have |

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRESENT

- | | |
|----------------|---------------|
| 1. (If) I have | (If) we have |
| 2. thou have | you (ye) have |
| 3. he have | they have |

PAST

- | | |
|---------------|--------------|
| 1. (If) I had | (If) we had |
| 2. thou hadst | you (ye) had |
| (had) | |
| 3. he had | they had |

IMPERATIVE

- | | | |
|-----|-------------|----------------|
| 2nd | have (thou) | have (you, ye) |
|-----|-------------|----------------|

3. *May, can, shall and will, must and ought.*

These verbs are all irregular in the present tense, in that they have no ending in the third singular, while *must* also wants the ending of the second singular. The verb *will*, however, takes *est* in the second singular, *s* or *eth* in the third singular, and *ed* throughout the past when it means to bestow property upon another.

Must and *ought*, as we have seen (section 189), have no past forms.

These verbs are, therefore, inflected as follows:

PRESENT TENSE

(Singular)

- | | | | | | |
|-----------|-------|-------|----------------|------|----------|
| 1. may | can | shall | will | must | ought |
| 2. mayest | canst | shalt | wilt (willest) | must | oughtest |
| 3. may | can | shall | will (wills) | must | ought |

(Plural)

| | | | | | |
|--------|-----|-------|------|------|-------|
| 1. may | can | shall | will | must | ought |
| 2. may | can | shall | will | must | ought |
| 3. may | can | shall | will | must | ought |

PAST TENSE

(Singular)

| | | | |
|-------------|---------|----------|--------------------|
| 1. might | could | should | would (willed) |
| 2. mightest | couldst | shouldst | wouldst (willedst) |
| 3. might | could | should | would (willed) |

(Plural)

| | | | |
|----------|-------|--------|----------------|
| 1. might | could | should | would (willed) |
| 2. might | could | should | would (willed) |
| 3. might | could | should | would (willed) |

4. *Do, did, done.*

This verb is irregular in the inflection of the second and third singular of the present indicative, retaining the *e* of the ending in the forms *doest* and *doeth*, when they are used as separate verbs, but dropping the *e* when they begin a verb phrase; as,

When thou *doest* alms, sound not a trumpet before thee.

Dost thou know this man?

Doth our law judge a man before it know what he *doeth*?

Whoso *doeth* these things, he shall save his soul.

5. *Dare and need.*

These verbs are irregular in the third singular, being used without the ending *s* or *th*, if followed by a negative; as,

He dare not repeat it.

He need not send it.

USES OF THE TENSES

USES OF THE PRESENT TENSE

197. As we have already seen, the regular use of the present tense is to represent an action or state as going on in present time ; as,

I *see* the boy running away.
Yonder *comes* the postman.
What *have* you on your desk ?

In addition to its regular use, however, the present tense has a number of special uses, as follows :

1. To denote a future action or state ; as,

I *go* there to-morrow.
They *return* next week.

2. In place of the past to denote a past action vividly ; as,
They *recover* their footing, they *climb* up the wood, they *surmount* the parapet.

As this use of the present is common in historical narrative, it is called the *historic* present.

3. To express customary action or state ; as,

The river *flows* through a fertile plain.
He *works* long hours.
They *rise* early.
He *sleeps* in this room.

4. To express a general truth ; as,

The earth *is* round.
Truth *is* stranger than fiction.

5. To denote the constant possession of some quality or ability ; as,

This pupil *writes* a good hand.
Our club *plays* well.

USES OF THE PAST TENSE

198. We have seen that the past tense of the verb is regularly used to represent an action or state as existing in past time, but no longer true ; as,

He *was* there yesterday.
They formerly *worked* here.

The past tense, like the present, is also occasionally used to denote customary action, or the constant possession of some characteristic or ability in past time.

Customary action ; as,

Romans in Rome's quarrel spared neither land nor gold.

Constant possession of some characteristic or quality : as,

He *rode* a horse well.
He *was* a good swimmer.
He *had* broad shoulders.

SEQUENCE OF TENSES

199. It was seen (section 66) that a subordinate noun clause is frequently used in indirect narration to report the words of a speaker indirectly. A comparison of the tense forms in the principal and the subordinate clauses in the following sentences will show the ordinary uses of the tenses in such dependent clauses :

I see { what they want.
 { what they wanted.
 { what they will want.

| | |
|-------------|--|
| I shall see | { what they want. what they wanted. what they will want. |
| I saw | { what they wanted. what they would want. |

Notice that while a present or a future tense in a principal clause may be followed by a present, a past, or a future tense in a dependent clause, a past tense in a principal clause is followed by a past tense or a past form, *should*, *would*, of the future tense in the dependent clause.

This dependence of the tense in the subordinate clause upon the tense of the main verb, is known as the **sequence of tenses**. Some exceptions to the rule for sequence, however, occur; as,

He *believed* that a time of trial *comes* to everyone.
He *warned* them that injustice never *succeeds*.

Here the dependent clause states its thought as a general truth, and, therefore, has its verb in the present tense, although dependent upon a past tense.

An infinitive usually expresses time relative to the main verb; as,

I *am* prepared *to see* them now.
I *was* prepared *to see* them then.
I *shall be* prepared *to see* them to-morrow.

EXERCISE 58

State the uses of the tense forms in the following sentences, and mention in each case the conjugation to which the verb belongs.

1. He went to bed, but in vain he tried to sleep.
2. They return in a few days.

3. Men fight not as they fought in the brave days of old.
4. Up rose old Barbara Freitchie then.
5. We of this island are not political philosophers.
6. I remember a conversation that happened at my grandfather's.
7. When leave they for home?
8. Goodness and greatness are not means but ends!
9. The head of their column breaks like a shell; the Duke seizes the moment, and advances on foot towards the ridge.
10. To him who in the love of nature holds communion with her visible forms, she speaks a various language.
11. When the appointed hour succeeds,
 The Baron dons his peaceful weeds,
 And following Lindsay as he leads,
 The palace-halls they gain.

USES OF THE MOODS

200. We have already learned that a speaker can represent in language different ways in which he treats or views the thought expressed in a sentence; that is, whether he is representing the thought as a fact, as something merely thought of, or as a command or request. We have seen that these different ways in which the speaker treats the statement are sometimes indicated by a difference in the form of the verb termed *mood* or *mood*, because it indicates the mode or manner in which the asserted action or state is presented. It must be remembered, however, that *mood* has to do, not with the actual existence or non-existence of the action or state, but only with the speaker's manner of representing

that action or state. For example, I might say in the indicative mood:

Napoleon defeated Wellington at Waterloo.
India is colder than Canada.

The use of the indicative mood, however, does not indicate that these are statements of actual fact, but only that the speaker is treating them as *representing* actual facts. We shall now consider in greater detail the uses of the three moods.

THE INDICATIVE MOOD

201. As noticed above, when a speaker wishes to represent any action or state as an actual fact at the time referred to, he must express it in the indicative form or mood; thus,

William *is* in the garden ;
Mary *came* back yesterday ;
We *shall go* to-morrow ;

where William's being in the garden; Mary's coming back; and our going, are all treated as being actual facts at the time indicated.

So also in such statements as,

You *may go* ;
She *ought to go* ;

may and *ought* are both in the indicative mood, because they show that the speaker is treating your permission and her duty as actual facts.

In like manner in such expressions as,

They *are* home likely by this time ;
John *knows* it now in all probability ;

although the addition of the adverbs *likely* and *in all probability* indicates doubt in the speaker's mind, the verb forms *are* and *knows* in themselves show that the speaker is treating their *being home* and *John's knowing it* as actual facts, and these verbs are, therefore, in the indicative mood.

THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

202. The subjunctive mood, as we have seen, shows that the speaker is not conceiving the asserted action or state as real, but rather as a mere conception of the mind. For example, in such expressions as,

Green be the turf above them ;
Heaven help them ;

we see that the speaker is representing the *turf's being green* and *Heaven's helping them* as something merely thought of and not as actual facts, although they may possibly be actual facts at the very time.

Since the subjunctive mood expresses a thought as a mere supposition, its use is necessarily limited mainly to the expression of wishes, purposes, conditions, concessions, etc.

The following will illustrate the chief uses of the subjunctive in Modern English :

1. Wishes.

In expressing a wish the subjunctive may be used :

(a) In a principal clause ; as,

Heaven *help* those who have none.
 Thy kingdom *come*, thy will *be done*.
 God *save* the king.

NOTE.—Sentences used as above to express a wish really differ in form from the classes already learned (sections 34-37), and are classified as *optative* sentences.

(b) In a subordinate noun clause giving the purport of a wish or desire suggested in the part of the sentence governing the clause ; as,

I wish that he *were* here.
 My wish is that he *see* them.
 O (I wish) that it *were* possible.
 Their decision was that he *return* at once.

2. Purpose.

Love not sleep lest thou *come* to poverty.
 Screw not the cord too sharply, lest it *snap*.
 Buy a little food that we *die* not.

3. Condition.

If I *were* a king, it should be otherwise.
 If he *be* equally successful throughout the country, he will undoubtedly gain his election.
 If thou *crave* knowledge, seek after her.
 If he but *were* his hand, the mists collect.

4. Concessions.

Though he *slay* me yet will I trust in him.
 Though now thou *sing* not as of other days,
 Learn late another praise.

SUBJUNCTIVE IN PRINCIPAL AND SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

203. It will be seen from the above that the subjunctive mood is most commonly used in dependent clauses, denoting that one thought is

contingent or dependent upon another thought. From this comes its name, *subjunctive*, meaning "sub-joined" or subordinated to. It must be borne in mind, however, as already noted above, that the use of the subjunctive is not limited to subordinate clauses, but merely implies an element of contingency or dependence in the thought. In fact, we occasionally find in conditions and concessions that the subjunctive is used in both the principal and the subordinate clause; as,

Were it here, it *were* at your service.
 Though the prize *were* the crown of a king,
 A crown at such hazard *were* valued too dear.

Occasionally also, in such expressions, the condition is not expressed but implied, the main verb still remaining in the subjunctive; as,

It *were* useless to dilate upon it.
 It *were* sin to execute it.

INDICATIVE AND SUBJUNCTIVE IN SUPPOSITIONS

204. The student must be careful to distinguish between the indicative and the subjunctive in conditions and concessions. Compare, for instance,

If he *be* there, he will help them.
 If he *is* there, he ought to help them.

If we contrast the meanings of the two conditions, we find that while the first denotes marked contingency or uncertainty, and has its verb therefore in the subjunctive—If he *be* there (which may

or may not be the case), the second implies very strong probability, amounting almost to certainty, and, therefore, uses the indicative *is*—If he *is* there (accepted as a fact), he ought to help them.

THE SUBJUNCTIVE IN MODERN ENGLISH

205. The above give the main uses of the subjunctive mood in Modern English; occasionally, however, the student will meet other uses of this mood, especially in poetry and in earlier prose. Examples are:

I doubt if ever he *were* half so honest.

Who knows if Donaldbain *be* with his brother.

Let him tear me with beak and talons, ere my tongue *say* one word.

As in form of peace I go,
A herald *were* my fitting guide.

He that will think to live till he *be* old, give me some help.
I'll catch it ere it *come* to ground.

In many of these constructions, however, Modern English commonly uses the indicative instead of the subjunctive, the subjunctive being one of the inflections showing a tendency to disappear from the language. It is not to be supposed, however, that a knowledge of the uses of this mood is unimportant. There are, as we have seen, cases in which the subjunctive form of the verb must be used, as in "if I were he," etc., and the correct use of such forms is always an indication of scholarship and culture.

An important distinction between the use of the present and the past subjunctive in wishes, condi-

tions, and concessions may also be noted, if, for instance, we compare,

Their days *be* full of joy ;
 O that their days *were* full of joy ;
 If he *be* the one, he will own it ;
 If he *were* the one, he would own it ;

where the present subjunctive represents the wish and the condition as possible, while the past subjunctive represents them as contrary to fact.

IMPERATIVE MOOD

206. As we have seen, the common use of the imperative mood, as its name implies (Latin—*impero*, I command), is to give a direct command to the person or persons addressed ; as,

Children, *take* your seats.
 Carry thou this scroll to the castle.
 Go and *put* everything in order.

The imperative is, however, also frequently used in exhortation and entreaty ; as,

Give us this day our daily bread.
 Lord God of Hosts, *be* with us yet.
 God of Zion, *protect* us.
Spare not thy purse for thy daughter's safety.
Forgive me for the liberty I have taken.
 God of Moses, *forgive* the creatures thou hast made.

Care must be taken to distinguish between the use of the imperative expressing an exhortation or entreaty and that of the subjunctive expressing a wish or desire, as follows :

| | | |
|-------------|---|---|
| Imperative | { | God of Moses, <i>forgive</i> the creatures thou hast made. Go to the ants, thou sluggard. Return, sweet Evening, and <i>continue</i> long. |
| Subjunctive | { | The Gods <i>defend</i> her. George <i>strike</i> for us. Now <i>go</i> we to the king. God <i>assoilzie</i> him of the sin of bloodshed. |

Notice in the first group that the imperative verbs are in the second person and the sentences imperative in form; while in the second group the subjunctive verbs are in the first or the third person and the sentences optative in form. These latter sentences are often incorrectly classified as imperative.

EXERCISE 59

Give the mood of each verb in the following exercise, and describe the use of each imperative and subjunctive.

1. Undo the door to him before he break it from its hinges.
2. It were better you led the way.
3. He fights as if there were twenty men's strength in his single arm.
4. If thy right eye offend thee, pluck it out.
5. God above deal between thee and me.
6. Know thou this, that men are as the time is.
7. Produce the bodies, be they alive or dead.
8. Some holy angel fly to the English court and unfold his message ere he come.
9. It were a delicate stratagem to shoe a troop of horses with felt.
10. Make haste, lest thou be too late.
11. If you are not back on the day, I shall put your friend to death.

12. If he be friendly, he comes well ; if not, defence is a good cause, and Heaven be with us !
13. It were to be wished that love of their country were the first principle of action in men.
14. Rise, O moon, from under dawn,
Till over down and over dale,
All night the shining vapour sail.
15. Green wave the oak for ever o'er thy rest,
Thou that beneath its crowning foliage sleepest.
16. We bow the head, we bend the knee,
Ruler of earth and heaven, to Thee !
Still Thy guardian wing expand
O'er our household—o'er our land.
God of truth and liberty !
Keep our vales and mountains free ;
In this sweetest spot of earth,
Peace be seated on each hearth.

AGREEMENT OF SUBJECT AND PREDICATE

207. We saw (sections 93-94) that a verb is inflected for person and number, that is, it undergoes certain changes in form to bring it into agreement with the person and number of the subject. We shall now consider this rule of agreement more fully, noting particularly certain special cases arising under the general rule.

I. AGREEMENTS IN NUMBER

1. Verbs with Simple Subjects.

(a) Occasionally a subject plural in form has a singular meaning and, therefore, takes its verb in the singular form to agree with its meaning ; as,

Physics *was* a new subject to him.
 The news *flies* abroad.
 Five-sixths of it *was* lost.
 Ten Nights in a Bar Room *is* a temperance drama.
 Ten miles *seems* a long distance.

(b) On the other hand, a subject singular in form may have a plural meaning, and thus take its verb in the plural ; as,

One-fifth of these *are* useless.
 A flood of cares and jealousies *have* desolated the life of man.
 The committee *report* that they cannot agree.

Notice, however, that a singular collective noun takes a singular verb when the collection of objects is thought of as a unit or collected whole ; as,

The committee *meets* in this room.
 The Department *is* taking up the matter.
 A score *is* better than a dozen.

2. Verbs with Compound Subjects.

(a) With a compound subject consisting of two or more singular members connected by the conjunction *and*, the verb is in the plural ; as,

Harry and his brother *have* the boat.
 Honour and fame from no condition *rise*.
 Are God and Nature then at strife ?
 The valley, the voice, the peak, the star
Pass and *are* found no more.
 Blood, death, and dreadful deeds *are* in that noise.

(b) But when the members of a compound subject denote a single idea or the same idea, the verb will be singular ; as,

Renown and grace *is* death.
 Bread and butter *was* his principal food.
 Slow but sure *is* sure to win the day.

To-morrow, and to-morrow, and to-morrow
Creeps in this petty space from day to day.
 The spring, the head, the fountain of your blood *is* stopped.
 A laggard in love and a dastard in war,
Was to wed the fair Ellen of brave Lochinvar.

(c) When the different members of a compound subject are distributed (section 163), the verb is singular ; as,

Each boy and each girl *was* given a prize.
 Every house and every store in the place *is* of this material.

(d) When the members of a compound subject are taken alternately, being usually joined by *or* or *nor*, the verb agrees with the nearest subject ; as,

Not enjoyment and not sorrow *is* our destined end or way.
 Praise or blame *has* but a momentary effect on him.
 Providence or instinct *seems* to have guided me right.
 There *is* no rest, no calm, no pause.
 Guards nor warders challenge here.

(e) If one of the members of a compound subject is emphatic or is more closely joined to the verb than the other member, the verb usually agrees with that subject ; as,

Jane, as well as her sisters, *was* late.
 The men, as well as the ship, *were* lost.
 In the pleasant spring
 Thy beauty *walks*, thy tenderness and love.

II. AGREEMENT IN PERSON

208. A verb with a single subject always agrees in person with that subject, and as the plural form of the verb does not differ for person, no difficulty arises in connection with compound subjects requiring a plural verb. But in the case of a compound subject taking a singular verb, see (d) and (e) above,

if the members of the compound subject differ in person, the verb regularly agrees with the nearer member; as,

Either John or I *am* going.
Neither you nor your brother *is* to go.

In such cases, however, it is now more common to repeat the verb in agreement with each member of the compound subject; thus,

Either John *is* going or I *am*.
You *are* not to go nor *is* your brother.

EXERCISE 60

Explain fully the agreement of the verbs in the following exercise.

1. There is no rest, no calm, no pause.
2. Consolation and peace cometh after.
3. Disease and death is their portion.
4. Nor prayer nor boastful name delays thee.
5. Industry and not favour is the path to success.
6. An oak and an elm-tree stand beside.
7. Metaphysics is the science of abstraction.
8. Patience and gentleness is power.
9. Tower and town and cottage have heard the trumpets blast.
10. The tumult and the shouting dies.
11. By the yellow Tiber was tumult and affright.
12. Slumber and sleep were brought hither to comfort mankind.
13. Nor house, nor fence, nor dovecote in Crustumerium stands.
14. Life I hold but idle breath,
When love or honour's weighed with death.

15. His mind and manner are young.
16. Early to bed and early to rise,
Makes a man healthy, wealthy, and wise.
17. From underneath that rolling cloud is heard the trumpets' war-note proud, the trampling and the hum.
18. The she-wolf's litter stand savagely at bay.
19. Now through the gloom appears, the long array of helmets bright, the long array of spears.
20. No motion, nor the faintest breath of sound,
Disturbs the steadfast beauty of the scene.
21. Name and deed alike are lost ;
Not a pillar not a post
In his Croisic keeps alive the feat.

VERB PHRASES

209. It was seen (section 61) that a verb frequently takes the form, not of a single word, but of a phrase. Each of the six classes of verb phrases found in the English language is used with a distinct function. Some of these phrases, we have already noticed, serve as substitutes in connection with certain inflections; while others will be found to represent various modifications in the condition of the action or state denoted by the verb. Before taking up a study in order of the different classes of verb phrases in our language, it will be necessary to consider another important classification of verbs based on their work or office in making the predication.

PRINCIPAL AND AUXILIARY VERBS

210. If we compare the predicating power of the italicized verbs in,

The boys *have* the books ;
The boys *have* given the books ;

He *did* the work ;
He *did* spoil the work ;

we find that in the first sentence of these groups the verbs *have* and *did* each assert a distinct attribute or idea about the boys, the verbs describing the boys as *having* and *doing* respectively. But in the second sentence of each group, although the two verbs *have* and *did* are here used, the acts of *giving* and *spoiling* are asserted of the boys, these ideas being denoted by the verb forms *given* and *spoil*. The verbs *have* and *did*, therefore, in the second sentences, do not assert the acts of *having* and *doing*, as in the first sentences, but merely help the verb forms *given* and *spoil* to assert the acts of *giving* and *spoiling*.

A verb used, as *have* and *did* in the second sentences above, to help another verb to make its assertion, is called an **auxiliary** or helping verb.

A verb representing an action or state which is asserted of the one denoted by the subject, whether used alone, as *have* and *did* in the first sentences, or helped by an auxiliary verb to assert the action or state, as *given* and *spoil* in the second sentences, is called a **principal** verb.

When an auxiliary verb is used with a principal verb, the two form a **verb phrase**.

Other examples of auxiliary and principal verbs forming verb phrases are :

The men *were closing* the windows ;
 The pitcher *was broken* by the boy ;
 She *has gone* to the city ;
 They *will send* the money ;

where the verbal forms—*closing, broken, gone, and send* represent the principal verbs of the phrase, denoting the acts of *closing, breaking, going, and sending* respectively; and the auxiliary verbs, *were, was, has, and will* are essential in helping the principal verbs to make the assertions.

In like manner a copula verb is a principal verb when used alone to form the copula of the sentence; as,

He *is* honest ;
 He *seems* weak ;

or when forming a copula with the help of an auxiliary verb; as,

He *will be* honest.
 He *did seem* weak.

CAUTION.—Be careful to distinguish between a verb phrase and a principal verb followed by an objective infinitive; as,

They *will go* :
 They *wish to go* ;

where *will* is an auxiliary verb forming with the root infinitive *go*, the verb phrase *will go*, which asserts the act of going; while *wish* is a principal verb asserting the act of *wishing*, and taking *to go* as an object. So also in the following examples, each italicized verb is a principal verb, asserting some attribute about the man, and governing an objective infinitive:

The man *intends to go*.
 The man *ought to go*.
 The man *must go*.
 The man *can go*.

EXERCISE 61

Point out the auxiliary verbs in the following sentences.

1. He has money and he has given them some.
2. I shall call there to-morrow.
3. When he wills his property he will remember your faithful service.
4. The man is running after them, and he is very angry.
5. They had gone before I came.
6. It does seem a shame that they were thrown about so carelessly.
7. I think our work is well begun,
When we have taken thy father's son.
8. Give him a toy, that he may amuse himself.
9. If I should meet him, I would not speak to him.

FUTURE PHRASES

211. We have seen (section 193) that the future tense of a verb is denoted, not by an inflected form, but by the use of *shall* or *will* with the verb, thus ;

I shall go.
Thou wilt go.
He will go.

Examining the use of *shall* and *will*, we find that they do not themselves assert any action or state, but are auxiliary verbs, helping the principal verb *go* to assert the act of *going*. The future of an English verb, is, therefore, phrasal in form, and is called a **future phrase**.

CLASSES OF FUTURE PHRASES

212. From a comparison of the future phrases in

I *shall* hear no doubt to-morrow ;
I *will* pay thee nothing ;

Perhaps you *will* meet him there ;
You *shall* not stir in this matter ;

He *will* find it on the table ;
He *shall* leave here at once ;

we observe that the future auxiliaries *shall* and *will* have two distinct values. In the first sentences, where *shall* is used with the first person and *will* with the second and the third persons, these auxiliaries indicate only that the act is to be referred to the future. But in the second sentences, which use *will* with the first person and *shall* with the second and the third persons, the auxiliaries further imply a degree of determination or promise on the part of the speaker. English, therefore, has two classes of future phrases, which are distinguished as follows:

SIMPLE FUTURE

I shall drive
Thou wilt drive
He will drive

We shall drive
You will drive
They will drive

FUTURE OF PROMISE
OR DETERMINATION

I will drive
Thou shalt drive
He shall drive

We will drive
You shall drive
They shall drive

RULES FOR THE USE OF SHALL AND WILL

1. In expressing simple futurity, use *shall* in the first person and *will* in the second and the third.

2. In expressing the speaker's determination, use *will* in the first person and *shall* in the second and the third.

FUTURE PHRASES IN INDIRECT NARRATION

213. In accordance with the rule for the sequence of tenses (section 199), when a future phrase occurs in a clause in indirect narration after a past tense, *should* and *would*, the past forms of the auxiliaries *shall* and *will*, must be used. Compare for example,

He says that they *will* go to-morrow.
He said that they *would* go to-morrow.

He declares that they *shall* not have a farthing.
He declared that they *should* not have a farthing.

FUTURE PHRASES IN INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES

214. Future phrases in interrogative sentences, when in the second or the third person, take the same auxiliary as is expected to be used in the answer; thus,

Shall John take them?
John *shall* (or shall not) take them.—Promissive Future.

Will it hurt?
It *will* (or will not) hurt.—Simple Future.

As questions in the first person do not consult the will of the speaker, only *shall* is used in interrogative sentences when the subject is of the first person; thus,

Shall I lift it for you?
Shall we have enough for that?

Either *shall* or *will* may, however, be used in answering a question about the first person; thus,

Shall I take it? You *shall* take it.

Shall we likely meet you there? You *will* likely meet me there.

COMPOSITION OF FUTURE PHRASES

215. A future phrase is composed of a future auxiliary, *shall*, *will*, *should*, or *would*, followed by the root infinitive of the principal verb, which primarily was the object of the auxiliary; thus,

He will (intends to) go.

He shall (is obliged to) help them.

EXERCISE 62

Point out the future phrases in the following exercise and explain the use of the auxiliary in each.

1. Thou shalt not stir a foot.
2. I will arise and go to my father.
3. I will bite thee by the ear for that jest.
4. No more that thane of Cawdor shall deceive our bosom interest.
5. Get thee hence, for I will not away.
6. This shall free thee from this present shame.
7. We shall be short in our provisions.
8. I will lay trust upon thee, and thou shalt find a dearer father in my love.
9. She must weep or she will die.
10. Compare her face with some that I shall show,
And I will make thee think thy swan a crow.

OTHER USES OF SHALL AND WILL

SHALL

216. Not every combination of *shall* and *will* with a root infinitive is to be valued as a verb phrase. In earlier English *shall* was a principal verb meaning *owe*, and its past tense *should* may still be used in all persons with its original meaning; thus,

I *should* go there.
He *should* help them.

Here *should* is to be taken alone as a principal verb and the root infinitive parsed as its object.

NOTE.—When *shall* is used as a promissive future auxiliary in the second and third person; as,

You *shall* suffer for this ;
There *shall* he sit till noon ;

this auxiliary retains in part the original meaning of the verb. For this reason some grammarians prefer to classify *shall*, when thus used, not as an auxiliary, but as a principal verb followed by an objective infinitive.

The auxiliary *shall* is occasionally used in all the persons, not as a sign of the promissive future, but in the language of prophecy; as,

In righteousness *shalt* thou be established ; thou *shalt* be far from oppression ; for thou *shalt* not fear.

The Lord *shall* go forth as a mighty man, he *shall* stir up jealousy like a man of war.

WILL

217. *Will* is frequently used alone in all persons as a principal verb denoting either to bestow property, or to determine ; as,

I *will* him a thousand pounds.
I *will* otherwise.

Thus used, *will* is conjugated as a regular verb of the new conjugation ; as,

Willest thou thus ?
He *wills* it.
He *willed* her a thousand pounds.

When followed by a root infinitive also, the verb *will*, with its past *would*, occasionally asserts determination. In this use, *will* is not an ordinary future auxiliary, but rather a principal verb asserting determination on the part of the one denoted by the subject ; thus,

He *will* have it that way.
Death *would* not have it so.

Will is used in both the second and the third person in giving a mild command ; thus,

You *will* kindly leave it with him.
He *will* attend to it at once.

This is a more polite form of command than one given in the promissive form ; as,

He *shall* attend to it at once ;

since the auxiliary *will* suggests that the determination of the subject is consulted rather than that of the speaker.

EXERCISE 63

A

Explain the force of shall, will, should, and would in the following sentences.

1. Come, death, and welcome! Juliet wills it so.
2. I will not fight with thee.
3. I think she will be ruled in all respects by me.
4. She, too desperate, would not go with me.
5. The count will be here with music straight, for so he said he would.
6. The sun for sorrow will not show his head.
7. I thought I should perish from the heat.
8. In the days of these kings shall the God of heaven set up a kingdom which shall never be destroyed.
9. Since he wills it, I will obey him.

B

Insert the proper verb, shall, will, should, or would in each of the following blanks, and account for your choice in each case.

1. I — not yield to kiss the ground before young Malcolm's feet.
2. We — be short in our provisions.
3. A decree went forth that the wise men — be slain.
4. You — find it difficult at first.
5. Not as a child — we again behold her.
6. I little thought that Highland eagle e'er — feed on thy fleet limbs.
7. All flesh — see the salvation of God.
8. I thy host — all perform at full.
9. Merlin swore that I — come again to rule the world.
10. They danced all night with as much vigour as the frailty of their vessels — permit.

SUBJUNCTIVE PHRASES

218. We have seen (section 202) that a simple verb may be used in the subjunctive mood to express a wish, purpose, condition or concession. A comparison of the italicized verbs in the following groups of sentences will show that in addition to its simple form, the subjunctive frequently takes a phrasal form :

| | |
|------------|---|
| Wish | My wish is that he <i>succeed</i> . |
| | My wish is that he <i>may succeed</i> . |
| | My wish was that he <i>might succeed</i> . |
| Purpose | Do not hurry lest it <i>break</i> . |
| | Do not hurry lest it <i>should break</i> . |
| Condition | If aught <i>come</i> of it, send me word. |
| | If aught <i>should come</i> of it, send me word. |
| Concession | Though he <i>sold</i> them at half, it <i>were</i> too much. |
| | Though he <i>should sell</i> them at half, it <i>would be</i> too much. |

Notice in these groups that the verb *may, might, should* or *would* is, in each case, auxiliary, helping a principal verb to assert the same action or state as is asserted by the simple subjunctive in the first sentence of the group.

A verb phrase having *may, might, should* or *would* as its auxiliary, and used with the value of a simple subjunctive, is called a *subjunctive phrase*; and *may, might, should, and would*, when thus used, are called **subjunctive auxiliaries**.

COMPOSITION OF SUBJUNCTIVE PHRASES

219. A subjunctive phrase is composed of a subjunctive auxiliary, which agrees in person and

number with the subject, and the root infinitive of the principal verb. For the conjugation of the subjunctive auxiliaries see section 196, 3.

OTHER USES OF MAY, MIGHT, SHOULD, AND WOULD

220. We must bear in mind that the verbs *may*, *might*, *should*, and *would* are subjunctive auxiliaries only when they introduce phrases used to express wishes, purposes, etc., with the value of simple subjunctives. The following will illustrate the various uses of these verbs:

MAY (past, *might*)

You *may* go. Principal verb, asserting permission.

They *may* find it. Principal verb, asserting possibility.

Stand close that he *may* not escape. Subjunctive auxiliary in a purpose.

SHOULD

You *should* obey. Principal verb asserting duty.

Though I *should* die, it must be done. Subjunctive auxiliary in a concession.

I thought I *should* never find it. Future auxiliary past. (My thought was, "I *shall* never find it.")

WOULD

He *would* have no other. Principal verb asserting determination.

It *would* be useless to send. Subjunctive auxiliary, condition implied.

I thought he *would* find them there. Future auxiliary past. (My thought was, "He *will* find them there.")

Care must be taken to distinguish between the subjunctive and the future auxiliary uses of *should* and *would*; as,

I trembled lest he *should* fall. Subjunctive auxiliary.

I resolved that he *should* start at once. Future auxiliary.

In the last example my resolve was, "He *shall* start at once," the promissive auxiliary *shall* being changed to *should* after the past tense *resolved* (section 199).

EXERCISE 64

A

Point out the subjunctive phrases in the following sentences, and state how each is used.

1. Take heed that they may not suspect you.
2. To speak it would be a deadly sin.
3. I desired their leave that I might pity him.
4. That were the best, if they should allow it.
5. May my fears, my filial fears, be vain.
6. It would be better to send them at once.
7. They did this that they might have more time.
8. I should be sorry to give you that trouble.
9. Should her image pass away, its happy lustre would never gleam upon his life again.

B

Explain the use of may, might, shall, will, should, and would in the following sentences.

1. O that my heart would burst!
2. A heavy summons lies like lead upon me, and yet I would not sleep.

3. Thou wouldst be great ; art not without ambition, but without the illness should attend it ; what thou wouldst highly, that wouldst thou holily.
4. Be it as thou willest, for I am distracted in this thing ; and what would my gold avail me if the child of my love should perish !
5. I should be bold, if I were not afraid you would be angry, to ask the favour of taking them along with me.
6. I will spread copies of it abroad that the kingdoms around me may know it.
7. I swore to bury his Mighty Book,
That never mortal might therein look.
8. It was my bridal morn, they said,
And my true love would meet me there.
9. The chase is up,—but they shall know,
The stag at bay's a dangerous foe.

PERFECT PHRASES

221. The two classes of verb phrases already studied are used to indicate time and manner respectively, and thus supplement the two leading inflections of the verb—tense and mood. There are other verb phrases, however, which rather indicate differences in the condition in which the asserted action or state is represented by the verb.

Compare, for example, the assertions in

The men *close* the shops now.

The men *have closed* the shops now.

The men *closed* the shops when we came.

The men *had closed* the shops when we came.

We find first that all of the above sentences assert the act of *closing*, the verb form in each of

the second sentences being phrasal, and the verb *have* being used as an auxiliary verb.

We find further that though the two italicized verbs in each group are of the same mood, tense, person, and number, the condition of the asserted action is represented differently by each.

1. The simple forms *close* and *closed* merely refer the act of closing to the time indicated, without implying anything as to the state of the act at that time.

2. The phrases *have closed* and *had closed*, definitely represent the act of *closing* as completed or *perfected* at the time referred to.

Verb phrases composed of a principal verb and the auxiliary *have*, because they express an action or state as completed or perfected at the time referred to, are called *perfect* verb phrases.

The following paradigm shows the simple and perfect forms of the indicative mood of the verb *drive* in the first person singular.

| | |
|--------------------|----------------------|
| Present Indefinite | I drive. |
| Past Indefinite | I drove. |
| Future Indefinite | I shall drive. |
| Present Perfect | I have driven. |
| Past Perfect | I had driven. |
| Future Perfect | I shall have driven. |

NOTE.—For the other forms of the perfect phrase in the various moods, tenses, persons, and numbers, see (section 196-2) the conjugation of the verb *have*, which is the only part of the phrase to vary its form.

COMPOSITION OF PERFECT PHRASES

222. A perfect phrase is composed of the auxiliary *have*, which agrees in person and number with the subject, and the perfect participle (section 81) of the principal verb.

The perfect phrase originated in English from the use of the perfect participle as an objective complement after the principal verb *have*.

Compare, for instance,

I have the work ready.
I have the work finished.
I have finished the work.

In the second sentence the participle *finished*, like the adjective *ready* in the first example, is an objective complement modifying the object *work*, and expresses only the result of the act of finishing. In the last sentence, on the other hand, *have finished* asserts the act of finishing, and *have* is, therefore, here merely an auxiliary verb.

It will be seen from the above, that the perfect phrase was first formed only in connection with transitive verbs (section 177), since it would be only the transitive participle that could be transposed to govern the original object of the principal verb *have*: as,

I have the house painted ;
I have painted the house ;
I had the man sent ;
I had sent the man ;

where, in the first sentences, *house* and *man* are

objects of *have* and *had* ; but in the second, of *painting* and *sent*.

After the development of the perfect phrases with *have*, therefore, intransitive verbs continued for some time to use the verb *be* as a perfect auxiliary, and such perfect phrases are still met ; as,

He *is gone*.
She *was arrived*.

When, however, *have* developed into a regular auxiliary, the intransitive verbs began to form perfect phrases with it ; as,

He *has come* ;
They *had gone* ;
She *has arrived* ;

which is now the regular method for all verbs.

PROGRESSIVE PHRASES

223. By comparing the asserted action and the condition in which that action is represented, in the different sentences in each of the following groups :

The men *close* the shops now ;
The men *have closed* the shops now ;
The men *are closing* the shops now ;
The men *closed* the shops when we came ;
The men *had closed* the shops when we came ;
The men *were closing* the shops when we came ;

we notice that the verb of the third sentence in each group is also phrasal, the verbs *are* and *were* being used as auxiliaries.

We find further that the phrases *are closing* and *were closing*, though of the same mood, tense, person, and number as the other verb forms, represent the act of *closing* neither indefinitely nor as perfected, but as being *in progress* at the time referred to.

Verb phrases composed of a principal verb and the auxiliary *be* which express the action or state as continuous or in progress at the time indicated are called **progressive** phrases.

COMPOSITION OF PROGRESSIVE PHRASES

224. A progressive phrase is composed of the auxiliary verb *be*, which agrees in person and number with the subject, and the imperfect participle of the principal verb; as,

| | |
|---------------------|---------------------|
| Present Progressive | I am driving. |
| Past Progressive | I was driving. |
| Future Progressive | I shall be driving. |

For the other forms of the progressive phrase, see the conjugation of the verb *be* (section 196, 1), which is the only part of the phrase to vary its form.

WEAKENED PROGRESSIVE FORMS

225. Although the imperfect participle in a progressive phrase expresses the action or state asserted by the phrase, it partakes of the nature of a predicate adjective modifying the subject, as,

The man is *running* ;
The boy is *skating* ;

where *running* and *skating*, while expressing the asserted action, also describe the man and the boy after the manner of adjectives.

In some cases, however, the participle form has its verbal force so weakened (section 191) that it no longer expresses an asserted action, but merely modifies the subject with the value of a predicate adjective; as,

The book on the table is very *interesting* ;
Some of the chapters are *amusing* ;

where *interesting* and *amusing* do not express the acts of *interesting* and *amusing* in relation to the book and the chapters, but merely indicate qualities possessed by these.

An expression such as *is interesting* or *are amusing*, when used as above, is not treated, therefore, as a progressive verb phrase composed of an auxiliary and the participle of a principal verb, but as a copula verb and a subjective predicate adjective.

EXERCISE 65

Point out the perfect and the progressive verb phrases in the following.

1. I have seen your lands about Manchlin ; your lines have fallen in pleasant places.
2. They had passed the castle and were leaving the valley.
3. I am just arrived here, and yet I have finished my business.
4. Three or four gentlemen were just leaving.
5. I am unwilling to profit by such deeds as they have committed.

6. He was just returned from a wedding feast to which he had been on that evening, and he had a lantern in his hand.
7. His statements are very sweeping, but I have examined into the case and find them correct.
8. He was making all the haste he could, for fear any man, as he was going, should meet him.
9. He had gone only a short distance when he overtook a man who was trudging along the road.
10. The melancholy days are come, the saddest of the year.

EMPHATIC PHRASES

226. Another phrasal form of the verb is used to express an action or state with emphasis; as,

They *do close* the shop now.

They *did close* the shops when we came.

Here the verb is phrasal in form, the verbs *do*, *did* being auxiliary, helping to assert the act of *closing*, not as perfected or continuous, but with emphasis.

Phrases composed of a principal verb and the auxiliary *do*, because they express the action or state emphatically, are called *emphatic verb phrases*.

The emphatic phrase is used only in the present and the past indicative and subjunctive, and in the present imperative. The conjugation of the present indicative is as follows:

| PERSON | SINGULAR | PLURAL |
|--------|----------------------|-------------------|
| 1st | I do drive | we do drive |
| 2nd | thou dost drive | you (ye) do drive |
| 3rd | he does (doth) drive | they do drive |

For the forms in the other tenses, see (section 196, 4) the conjugation of the verb *do*, which is the only part of the phrase to vary its form.

COMPOSITION OF EMPHATIC PHRASES

227. An emphatic phrase is composed of the auxiliary *do*, which agrees in person and number with the subject, and the root infinitive of the principal verb.

EXERCISE 66

Point out the perfect, progressive, and emphatic phrases in the following sentence.

1. Oh, pray, do not mind that.
2. The roots had passed under the ditch, and were again spreading themselves over the field.
3. If he has not done it, why does he avoid us?
4. An hour's repose had snatched from his elastic frame the weariness with which many hours of toil had burdened it.
5. After he was gone, we could not tell what to make of such fine sentiments.
6. They had passed a large open moor, and were entering into the enclosures which surrounded a small village called Clifton.
7. One thing, however, did happen, which he had not looked for.
8. When I shall have decayed, like my predecessors, let a marble fountain take my place.
9. I thank you for the sweet close of your discourse with Mr. Herbert's verses, who, I have heard, loved angling; and I do the rather believe it, because he had a spirit suitable to anglers, and to those primitive Christians that you love and have so much commended.

10. The stars are glittering in the frosty sky,
 Frequent as pebbles on a broad sea-coast ;
 And o'er the vault the cloud-like galaxy
 Has marshall'd its innumerable host.
 Alive all heaven seems ! with wondrous glow
 Tenfold refulgent every star appears,
 As if some wide, celestial gale did blow,
 And thrice illumine the ever kindled spheres.

OTHER USES OF PHRASES WITH "DO"

228. In interrogative sentences ; as,

Does he live here now ?
Did you see them to-day ?

do is not an emphatic auxiliary, but is used in the interrogative sentence to avoid beginning the question with the principal verb ; as,

Lives he here now ?
 Saw you them to-day ?

which is no longer common in colloquial English. This is known as the *interrogative* use of the auxiliary *do*.

So also in negative sentences ; as,

I *do* not care to wait longer ;
 They *did* not say when he left ;

no special emphasis is expressed, the auxiliary being employed rather to avoid the use of the negative *not* with a principal verb only ; as,

I care not to wait longer ;
 They said not when he left ;

which is uncommon in ordinary English. This is known as the *negative* use of the auxiliary *do*.

Thus we may distinguish four uses of the verb *do*—as a principal verb, and as an emphatic, interrogative, and negative auxiliary.

EXERCISE 67

Explain the use of the verb do wherever it is found in the following sentences.

1. Jowler, did your worship ever have the gout ?
2. I do desire it with all my heart.
3. While these whispers were passing, the sleeper's heart did not throb.
4. What did he when thou sawest him ?
5. There are two or three honest friends of mine, who do put me in fearful hazard.
6. Doth he know that I am in this forest and in man's apparel ?
7. Then sin, if she do not die, shall lose half her strength.
8. Looks he as fresh as he did the day he wrestled ?
9. Locksley, do thou shoot ; but, if thou hittest such a mark, I will say thou art the first man ever did so.
10. By the ancient crest of my fathers do I swear, I will do thee no injury.

COMPOUND PHRASES

229. It will be noticed that in the future perfect and the future progressive we really have compound phrases, made up of a principal verb and two auxiliaries.

FUTURE PERFECT

The future perfect verb phrase, *shall have driven*, is composed of :

1. shall the future auxiliary, which agrees in person and number with the subject.
2. have the root infinitive of the perfect auxiliary, since a root infinitive must always follow the future auxiliary.
3. driven the perfect participle of the principal verb, since the perfect participle always follows a perfect auxiliary.

FUTURE PROGRESSIVE

In like manner the future progressive, *shall be driving*, is composed of :

1. shall the future auxiliary, agreeing with the subject.
2. be the progressive auxiliary, root infinitive after the future auxiliary *shall*.
3. driving the principal verb, imperfect participle after the progressive auxiliary *be*.

PERFECT PROGRESSIVE

In like manner, we may have perfect progressive phrases composed of a principal verb and two auxiliaries, perfect and progressive; as (I) *have been driving*; which is composed of :

1. have the perfect auxiliary, agreeing with the subject.
2. been the progressive auxiliary, perfect participle after the perfect auxiliary *have*.
3. driving the principal verb, imperfect participle after the progressive auxiliary *been*.

FUTURE PERFECT PROGRESSIVE

Occasionally also we meet compound phrases which are composed of a principal verb and three auxiliaries; as in,

Thou shalt have been driving.

The composition of this phrase is as follows:

1. shalt the future auxiliary, agreeing with the subject.
2. have the perfect auxiliary, root infinitive after *shalt*.
3. been the progressive auxiliary, perfect participle after *have*.
4. driving the principal verb, imperfect participle after *been*.

NOTE.—The emphatic phrase does not combine with other phrases except in such rare emphatic imperatives as,

| | |
|------------------------|---------------------------|
| Do be moving | Emphatic and progressive. |
| Do have done with that | Emphatic and perfect. |

EXERCISE 68

Classify fully each verb phrase in the following exercise, and explain the use of each part of the phrase.

1. The day is coming when ye shall call upon me to witness for ye, and I will arise up and answer.
2. Had it not been so, I would have told you.
3. I have been puzzling myself all dinner, but I cannot help feeling that we have met before.
4. May they all succeed in what they are undertaking.

5. We cannot tell how long these have been standing.
6. From his dress, Wamba would have conjectured him to be one of those outlaws who had just assailed his master.
7. I could take it on my halidome, that I have heard the voice of the good yeoman by night as well as by day, and that the moon is not three days older since I did so.
8. He thought it would not be amiss to instruct his wife with what might happen, that they might act in concert.
9. There be some women, Silvius, had they marked him in parcels as I did, would have gone near to fall in love with him.
10. —Nor perchance
If I were not thus taught, should I the more
Suffer my genial spirits to decay.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB "DRIVE"

230. It was seen (section 96) that the verb is inflected for mood, tense, person, and number, and that when we write out in the form of a table or paradigm all of the inflected forms of a verb, we are said to give its complete *conjugation*. In Modern English grammar, however, the complete conjugation of a verb is made to include, not only the inflected, but also all the phrasal forms of the verb. The following paradigm shows such a complete conjugation of the verb *drive* in the active voice (section 96). Only the first person singular is given in the tenses of the indicative and the subjunctive. The other persons and numbers of each tense can be readily supplied from the previous tables of the moods and tenses.

INDICATIVE MOOD

| INDEFINITE | PERFECT | PROGRESSIVE | PERFECT PROGRESSIVE | EMPHATIC |
|------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|------------------------------|-------------|
| <i>Present</i> | | | | |
| I drive | I have driven | I am driv- ing | I have been driving | I do drive |
| <i>Past</i> | | | | |
| I drove | I had driven | I was driv- ing | I had been driving | I did drive |
| <i>Future</i> | | | | |
| I shall drive | I shall have driven | I shall be driving | I shall have been driving | (wanting) |

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

| INDEFINITE | PERFECT | PROGRESSIVE | PERFECT PROGRESSIVE | EMPHATIC |
|----------------|---------------|---------------------|------------------------|-------------|
| <i>Present</i> | | | | |
| I drive | I have driven | I be driv- ing | I have been driving | I do drive |
| <i>Past</i> | | | | |
| I drove | I had driven | I were driv- ing | I had been driving | I did drive |

PHRASAL SUBJUNCTIVES

| | |
|----------------------------------|---|
| <i>Simple</i> | I may (might, should, or would) drive. |
| <i>Perfect</i> | I may (might, should, or would) have driven. |
| <i>Progressive</i> | I may (might, should, or would) be driving. |
| <i>Perfect Progressive</i> } | I may (might, should, or would) have been driv- ing. |

NOTE.—For the conjugation of the phrasal subjunctive auxiliaries, see section 106, 3.

PASSIVE VERB PHRASES

231. It was seen (section 96) that transitive verbs may represent the person or thing denoted

by the subject, not as the doer, but as the receiver of the asserted action; as,

The window *was broken* by the boy;
The horses *were driven* into the barn;

where the acts of *breaking* and *driving* are expressed as being received by the *window* and the *horses* respectively. *Was* and *were* are, therefore, here used as auxiliary verbs, helping the principal verbs to assert the acts of breaking and driving, the forms *was broken* and *were driven* being verb phrases.

Because such phrases express the action as being received or suffered by the person or thing represented by the subject, they are called *passive verb phrases*. Latin *patior* (passus), "I suffer."

COMPOSITION OF PASSIVE PHRASES

232. A passive phrase is composed of the auxiliary verb *be*, which agrees in person and number with the subject, and the perfect participle of the principal verb; as,

He *is seen*.
They *were dismissed* by the teacher.

PASSIVE CONJUGATION

233. From the fact that the subject of a passive phrase represents the receiver of the asserted action, it will be evident that only transitive verbs can regularly form passive verb phrases. As, however, almost all the simple forms and phrases of the

active admit of corresponding passive forms, transitive verbs have a passive conjugation very similar to that already given (section 230).

It is evident also that many of the phrases in the passive conjugation are really compound phrases composed of a principal verb and two or more auxiliaries; as,

| | |
|------------------|---------------------|
| It will be sent | Future passive |
| It has been sent | Perfect passive |
| It is being sent | Progressive passive |

Note in the last example that the verb *be* is used both as a progressive and as a passive auxiliary, the phrase being composed as follows:

1. *is* progressive auxiliary (agreeing with subject).
2. *being* passive auxiliary (imperfect participle after the progressive auxiliary *is*).
3. *sent* principal verb (perfect participle after the passive auxiliary *being*).

PASSIVE CONJUGATION OF "DRIVE"

INDICATIVE MOOD

| | INDEFINITE | PERFECT | PROGRESSIVE | PERFECT PROGRESSIVE |
|----------------|-------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------|
| <i>Present</i> | I am driven | I have been driven | I am being driven | Rare |
| <i>Past</i> | I was driven | I had been driven | I was being driven | " |
| <i>Future</i> | I shall be driven | I shall have been driven | I shall be being driven | " |

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

| | INDEFINITE | PERFECT | PROGRESSIVE | PERFECT PROGRESSIVE |
|----------------|---------------|--------------------|---------------------|------------------------|
| <i>Present</i> | I be driven | I have been driven | I be being driven | Rate |
| <i>Past</i> | I were driven | I had been driven | I were being driven | " |

PHRASAL SUBJUNCTIVE

| | |
|--------------------|---|
| <i>Simple</i> | I may (might, should or would) be driven |
| <i>Perfect</i> | I may (might, should or would) have been driven |
| <i>Progressive</i> | I may (might, should or would) be being driven |

IMPERATIVE

| | |
|--------------------|--------------|
| Present Indefinite | Be driven |
| Present Emphatic | Do be driven |

NOTE.—For the complete conjugation of the auxiliary *be*, see section 196, 1, and for the conjugation of the phrasal subjunctive auxiliaries, see section 196, 3.

EXERCISE 69

Point out the passive phrases in the following exercise, and classify fully the compound phrases.

1. I cannot stay another moment; I dare say I have been wanted a thousand times.
2. When the world shall have been regenerated by my instrumentality, you will make a bonfire in honour of the town pump.
3. Do not be offended, if I say I have made up my mind not to surrender it.
4. When this had been going on for a few days, the borough was suddenly placarded with posting bills in colossal characters.



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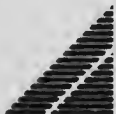
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5. Thus it will be seen that though the new ministry were supported by a commanding majority, they were not popular.
6. An idea that in his own case these rules would not be enforced in a very rigid manner, had obtained full possession of his mind, and had hitherto been sanctioned by the indulgent conduct of his commander.
7. Waverley escaped the alarm which this accident would have occasioned to him, as he was unavoidably delayed by the necessity of accompanying Colonel Talbot to Edinburgh.
8. It will hardly be believed that, after the dangers I had undergone, I should look upon this business in so serious a light as to give up all hope of accomplishing my ultimate design.

WEAKENED PASSIVE FORMS

234. As in the case of the progressive phrase (section 225), the participle of the passive phrase, which always partakes of the nature of a predicate adjective, may have its verbal force so weakened that it becomes a mere adjective completing a copula verb; as,

The man is *tired* and sleepy;

The window is *broken* in two places;

where the forms *tired* and *broken* do not express that the acts of *tiring* and *breaking* are suffered by the man and the window, but merely indicate a characteristic of the man and the window respectively, and have the value of ordinary predicate adjectives.

Such an expression, therefore, is not to be treated as a passive phrase composed of an auxiliary and a

principal verb, but as a copula verb and a subjective predicate adjective.

IRREGULAR PASSIVE FORMS

235. In earlier English a passive phrase was formed by the use of the verb *be*, followed by the preposition *in* or *on* (a) and an objective gerund; as,

The house was on (a) building ;

where *on* or *a* is a preposition with the verbal noun or gerund *building* as its object, the meaning of the expression being, "The house is in the course of being built."

In this construction the preposition was also frequently omitted, giving rise to such expressions as,

The house is building ;
These things were preparing ;

but as such forms were likely to be confused with the progressive active, they gave way to the passive form with the perfect participle.

It has been seen that the passive forms belong regularly to transitive verbs, where the direct object of the active verb becomes the subject of the passive. Occasionally, however, an intransitive verb followed by a preposition and its object may take a passive form through the object of the preposition being used as subject of the passive, the preposition being left with the verb as an adverbial adjunct; as,

| | |
|---------|---------------------------|
| Active | We spoke of that. |
| Passive | That was spoken of by us. |

This construction is sometimes used, even with transitive verbs followed by a direct object; as,

| | |
|---------|-------------------------------------|
| Active | I put no confidence in him ; |
| Passive | He was put no confidence in by me ; |

where the direct object *confidence* has been retained after the passive phrase, and the object of the preposition made the subject of the passive.

So also with transitive verbs followed by both a direct and an indirect object, the indirect object of the active is occasionally used as subject of the passive form, and the direct object retained after the passive. Compare, for example,

| |
|---------------------------|
| I made him a kite ; |
| A kite was made for him ; |
| He was made a kite ; |

where in the last sentence the indirect object of the active is made the subject of the passive, and the direct object retained after the passive.

When a direct object is retained after a passive form, as in the last two instances, it is classified as a *retained* direct object.

CAUTION.—Be careful not to confuse with the passive phrase, a perfect phrase formed by the perfect auxiliary *be* and the perfect participle of an intransitive verb (section 222). Compare, for example,

| | |
|---------------------------------|----------------|
| He <i>was seen</i> by us | Passive phrase |
| He <i>was gone</i> when we came | Perfect phrase |

EXERCISE 70

Explain fully the value of the italicized parts in the following exercise.

1. Friend, she *is come!* open unto her!
2. Her dress *was torn* and dirty.
3. Prince Florestan *was now settled* in Carlton Terrace.
4. While these measures *were taking* for Cedric, the men hurried their captives to a place of security.
5. When they *were gone*, he returned into the study.
6. You have surprised me—I see you *are surprised* yourself,—and I hate mystery.
7. Flora, to whom the drama *was well known*, was among the former.
8. Heaven *be praised!* Their difficulties *are settled* at last.
9. The castle *is now fallen* into ruins.
10. He *was well informed* on all these subjects.

PHRASAL INFINITIVES AND PARTICIPLES

236. Like the verbs from which they are derived, the different infinitives and participles admit of both simple and compound phrasal forms. The following table contains the simple and phrasal forms of infinitives and participles.

INFINITIVES

ACTIVE

| | ROOT AND GERUNDIAL | GERUND |
|--|------------------------|---------------------|
| <i>Simple</i> | (to) drive | driving |
| <i>Perfect</i> | (to) have driven | having driven |
| <i>Progressive</i> | (to) be driving | being driving |
| <i>Perfect</i> } <i>Progressive</i> } | (to) have been driving | having been driving |

PASSIVE

| | | |
|--------------------|-----------------------|--------------------|
| <i>Simple</i> | (to) be driven | being driven |
| <i>Perfect</i> | (to) have been driven | having been driven |
| <i>Progressive</i> | (to) be being driven | |

PARTICIPLES

ACTIVE

| | |
|----------------------------|---------------------|
| <i>Imperfect</i> | driving |
| <i>Perfect</i> | having driven |
| <i>Progressive</i> | being driving |
| <i>Perfect Progressive</i> | having been driving |

PASSIVE

| | |
|------------------|--------------------------------|
| <i>Imperfect</i> | being driven |
| <i>Perfect</i> | { (phrasal) having been driven |
| | { (simple) driven |

EXERCISE 71

Point out and classify the infinitive and the participle phrases in the following exercise.

1. Having thus spoken, he galloped off with his followers.
2. Is there any danger of their being hurt ?
3. They sent it to the shop to be repaired.
4. It is possible in our days, even for republican writers to admit the merits of the monarchical system without being hooted into silence.
5. The yeoman having accomplished his mission returned to headquarters.
6. In our state of society, I do not see how that is to be avoided.

7. Permission having been granted, they all entered.
8. He told us of his having seen you there.
9. She was under the necessity of contenting herself with seeing, and laying aside for the present the still more exquisite pleasure of being seen.

THE SO-CALLED IMPERATIVE VERB PHRASE

237. By some grammarians, when the imperative of the transitive verb *let* is followed by an objective noun or pronoun and a root infinitive, the imperative and infinitive are treated as forming an imperative verb phrase; as,

Let him go at once.
Let us have your answer.
Let the man depart in peace.

Although in such a combination the verb *let* has its force somewhat weakened, nevertheless, since the following noun or pronoun has the value of a real object dependent upon *let*, it is more logical to parse *let* as a principal verb followed by an object. The root infinitive is then to be treated as an adjunct of the object, as in such expressions as,

He made them *leave*.
 He allowed us *to enter*.

SUMMARY OF VERB PHRASES

238. We have now seen that there are in English six classes of simple verb phrases, as follows:

1. Future phrases composed of the auxiliary *shall* or *will* and a root infinitive.

- | | |
|------------------------|--|
| 2. Subjunctive phrases | composed of the auxiliary <i>may, might, should</i> or <i>would</i> and a root infinitive. |
| 3. Perfect phrases | composed of the auxiliary <i>have</i> (rarely <i>be</i>) and a perfect participle. |
| 4. Progressive phrases | composed of the auxiliary <i>be</i> and an imperfect participle. |
| 5. Emphatic phrases | composed of the auxiliary <i>do</i> and a root infinitive. |
| 6. Passive phrases | composed of the auxiliary <i>be</i> and the perfect participle of a transitive verb. |

In three of the above classes, therefore, future, subjunctive, and emphatic, the auxiliary is completed by a root infinitive; while in the other three, perfect, progressive, and passive, the auxiliary is completed by a participle -- perfect or imperfect.

We have seen also that the auxiliary verb, or the first auxiliary, if the phrase is compound, is the part of the phrase which agrees with the subject, being inflected for mood, tense, person, and number, the completing infinitive or participle being always of the same form.

In addition to the above six classes of simple verb phrases, we have found that many phrases belong to two or more of these classes, and, therefore, contain two or more auxiliaries along with the infinitive or participle of the principal verb.

We found further, in such compound phrases, that only the first auxiliary is inflected as a regular verb in agreement with the subject, the other auxiliaries being infinitive or participle in form, according to the kind of auxiliary upon which they depend.

PARSING OF VERBS AND VERB PHRASES

239. In parsing a verb, it is necessary to classify the verb, and state in order the inflections and agreement of the verb.

MODEL

They *file* from out the hawthorn shade.

file,—a verb of the new conjugation, intransitive, indicative mood, present tense, third singular, agreeing with the subject *they*.

240. In parsing a verb phrase it is necessary to give both the classification of the principal verb and also the class or classes to which the phrase belongs. This latter is sometimes given when stating the tense of the phrase, as in the model given below. The inflections and agreement are, of course, indicated by the auxiliary, or by the first auxiliary if the phrase is a compound. It is not necessary in parsing to give the composition of the phrase.

MODEL

Mary, *do see* whether those letters *have been posted*.

do see,—an emphatic verb phrase of the verb *see*, old conjugation, transitive, active, imperative mood, present tense, second singular, subject implied.

have been posted,—a perfect passive verb phrase of the verb *post*, new conjugation, transitive, indicative mood, present perfect tense, third plural, agreeing with the subject *letters*.

EXERCISE 72

Parse the verbs and the verb phrases in the following exercise.

1. I have no doubt his breast was redder at that very moment with the blood of my raspberries.
2. He asked how soon it would be finished.
3. I did hope that the ministers would have humbled themselves in their errors.
4. Do me this battle bravely ; else, by Heaven, shouldst thou escape him, thou escapest not me.
5. They would have dropped the rope had they not been afraid, as I was addressing them rather forcibly.
6. Its banks were bordered with a deep, broad layer of mud, a transition substance between the rich vegetable matter which it had been, and the multitudinous world of insect life which it was becoming.
7. If faithful, wise, and brave in vain,
Woe, want, and exile thou sustain
 Beneath the fickle gale :
Waste not a sigh on fortune changed,
On thankless courts, or friends estranged,
But come where kindred worth shall smile,
To greet thee in the lonely isle.
8. Trust not for freedom to the Franks—
 They have a king who buys and sells ;
In native swords, and native ranks,
 The only hope of courage dwells ;
But Turkish force, and Latin fraud,
Would break your shield, however broad.

CHAPTER IX

THE ADJECTIVE

241. It has been seen that an adjective is regularly used to modify a noun or a pronoun, and is, therefore, dependent for its meaning upon the word to which it is related in the sentence. We shall, in the present chapter, consider the various ways in which adjectives are classified, and learn the characteristics and uses of the several classes.

INFLECTION

242. In many languages, the adjective undergoes changes of form for gender, number, and case, in order to bring it into agreement with the gender, number, and case of the noun or pronoun it modifies. This was also true of our adjectives in Early English, and as late as Chaucer's time we find that an adjective was frequently inflected; as, for example, the use of the plural ending *e*; thus,

Olde stories; riche robes; brighte stones.

In Modern English, however, the only case of inflection in the adjective is found in the words *this* and *that*, which, when used as adjectives, undergo the same change of form for number as when they are pronouns; thus,

Put *this* book on *that* desk.

Put *these* books on *those* desks.

CLASSIFICATION OF ADJECTIVES

I. ON THE BASIS OF MODIFYING FORCE

243. If we examine the purpose for which the adjective has been added to the noun in such sentences as,

1. *Little* girls love dolls ;
2. A *new* broom sweeps clean ;
3. A *dull* knife will not cut ;
4. *These* books belong to John ;

we may notice that in each case the adjective has been added to the noun to narrow or limit its meaning. That is, not all girls "love dolls," not every broom "sweeps clean," etc., but only the smaller class named by the expressions—*Little girls, new broom, etc.*, made up of the adjective and the noun.

When an adjective is used to limit or narrow the meaning of the word it modifies, it is said to be a **limiting** adjective.

On the other hand, in such sentences as,

- God save our *noble* king ;
The *white* snow covered the ground ;
The *silent* moon was overhead ;

the adjectives, *noble, white, and silent* are added, not to narrow the meaning of the modified nouns, but merely to indicate some quality possessed by the ones denoted by the modified nouns.

When an adjective is used simply to indicate some quality possessed by the one named by the noun, but does not in any way limit the application of the noun, it is called a **descriptive** adjective.

EXERCISE 73

Classify the italicized adjectives in the following exercise as limiting or descriptive.

1. Why should I weep on thy *bright* head, *my* boy?
2. *Some* seaports on the *Eastern* coast are still in the hands of our friends.
3. They saw to their *great* surprise a *vast* plain.
4. A breath of air hath power to call up shadows in the *silent* hour, from the *dim* past.
5. There need no *choral* song, no *shouting* multitude, to blazen forth our *stern* exploits.
6. It is not necessary to record in *these* pages the *triumphant* entry of the Chevalier into Edinburgh after the *decisive* affair of Preston.

II. ACCORDING TO MEANING

244. On the basis of their meaning, adjectives are divided into seven classes in accordance with certain well-marked differences in the ideas which they signify, as follows :

I. QUALIFYING ADJECTIVES

245. Most adjectives, in modifying a noun or pronoun, attribute some quality or characteristic to the person or thing signified by the noun ; as,

True lovers run into *strange* capers.

We passed an *old* castle with a *ruined* tower.

Small pitchers have *large* ears.

An adjective such as *True*, *strange*, *old*, etc., which signifies that a certain quality or characteristic is possessed by the person or thing denoted by the modified word, is called a **qualifying** adjective.

2. DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES

246. A few adjectives especially limit the reference of the modified nouns by directing attention to the objects named; as,

This book is torn.

The house stands behind *yonder* hill.

Do you know *those* men?

These adjectives, like the corresponding pronouns, are called **demonstrative** adjectives.

3. INTERROGATIVE ADJECTIVES

247. Certain of our interrogative words, when introducing questions, also modify a following noun with the value of an adjective; thus,

Which book do you want?

What answer did he give to your question?

Because the adjectives are here used to introduce questions about the objects denoted by the modified nouns, they are called **interrogative** adjectives.

NOTE.—As in its pronominal use, the interrogative *which*, when used as an adjective, has a *selective* force (section 159).

4. CONJUNCTIVE ADJECTIVES

248. Certain of the words which have been studied as conjunctive pronouns, may also be used with the value of a conjunction and an adjective; thus,

They were out two hours, during *which* time the house was entered.

They brought *what* buckets they could find.

I will accept *whatever* amount seems fair.

When thus used, these words are classified as **conjunctive** adjectives.

5. INDEFINITE ADJECTIVES

249. Other adjectives, including a number of the words that have already been studied as indefinite pronouns, are used as indefinite adjectives, referring indefinitely to the objects denoted by the modified noun; as,

Some men might believe it ;
 Have you *any* good pens ?
No man knows that sepulchre ;
Every day brings its labours.

Thus used, these words are classified as **indefinite** adjectives.

NOTE.—Because most of the words belonging to the demonstrative, interrogative, conjunctive, and indefinite adjectives have also a pronominal use, they are often described as pronominal adjectives. As we have seen, however (section 87), the possessive forms of the pronoun are the only words that may logically be described as pronominal adjectives, since they alone perform the double function of pronoun and adjective in the sentence. For example, if we compare,

His book is torn ;
That book is torn ;

we find that *His*, in addition to its adjective function, has also the value of a pronoun, representing a person (the possessor) without naming him. The adjective *that*, on the other hand, does not here perform the function of a pronoun, since there is but one object referred to, which is represented by the noun *book*. The word *that*, therefore, has here an adjective value only, limiting the reference of the noun *book* to a particular object.

6. NUMERAL ADJECTIVES

250. A large class of adjectives are used to limit the application of the modified noun to a certain definite number of objects, or to a certain object placed within a series; as,

Two slaves then entered the apartment.
The Lord rested on the *seventh* day.
There were *four* men in the *third* carriage.
The *second* letter was dated *eight* days later.

Because these adjectives all express the idea of number, they are called **numeral** adjectives. (Latin *numerus* means "number.")

7. THE ARTICLES

251. Two adjectives, *a* or *an* and *the*, are placed in a separate class and designated as **articles**, because they were fancifully considered to resemble little joints in the sentence. (Latin *articulus* means "a little joint.")

A or *an* is really a weakened numeral, being the Early English form of *one*. *The* is also a weakened demonstrative, being a shortened form of *that*. It is customary, however, on account of the numeral and the demonstrative force being weakened, to classify them separately as *articles*.

We shall next consider in greater detail each of these seven classes of adjectives.

NOTE. — In addition to the above seven classes of ordinary adjectives, we have seen (section 80) that the participles, and occasionally the gerundial infinitive (section 79) partake of the nature of both a verb and an adjective, while the possessive forms of nouns and pronouns (section 87) are also used in the sentence with the value of adjectives.

EXERCISE 74

Classify according to meaning the adjectives in the following sentences.

1. The old man was very lonely.
2. What number of such gallant fellows have the good fortune to call you leader?
3. He always spoke of these events in a hesitating manner, which fact did not escape the keen observation of the lawyer.
4. In their rides through the green lanes and pretty country roads, the two riders became more intimate than ever.
5. I don't know by what caprice it was that this wish, jocularly expressed, rather jarred on Edward's feelings.
6. Being slow and ponderous, it always took him a long time to reach a new idea.
7. Each day she saw how the grim old man's ambition and love centred themselves in the child, and how the warm, innocent nature returned his affection with perfect trust and faith.
8. Soon as the day flings wide his gates,
The king shall know what suitor waits.
9. Saxon, from yonder mountain high,
I marked thee send delighted eye
Far to the south and east, where lay,
Extended in succession, gay,
Deep waving fields and pastures green,
With gentle slopes and groves between;
These fertile plains, that soften'd vale,
Were once the birthright of the Gael.

QUALIFYING ADJECTIVES

COMPARISON

252. Many adjectives denoting quality, or other characteristics, such as size or amount, which admit of a difference of degree, are able, by their forms,

to indicate different degrees of quality. Such adjectives are, therefore, divided, on the basis of form, into three classes, known as the three degrees of comparison.

POSITIVE DEGREE

253. If we examine the force of the italicized adjectives in

The *old* man gave me a *red* apple ;
The *little* girl has a *new* dress ;

we notice that the adjectives, *old*, *red*, *little*, and *new*, denote that the objects represented by the modified nouns actually possess the qualities referred to. That is, the adjectives respectively imply that the man is actually *old*, that the apple is actually *red*, that the girl is actually *little*, etc.

Because an adjective of this form implies that the object represented by the modified noun actually possesses the quality, it is said to be of the positive form or of the **positive degree**.

Other examples of adjectives in the positive degree are :

This is a *hot* day.
The water is *pure* and *cold*.
Sad and *heavy*, I returned to the village.

COMPARATIVE DEGREE

254. If, on the other hand, we compare the italicized adjectives in

The man is *old* but John is *young* ;
John is *older* than James, but he is *younger* than Ella ;

we find that the adjective forms, *older* and *younger*, do not, like the simple forms *old* and *young*, imply the actual possession of the denoted quality; since the same person *John* could not actually possess the two qualities here indicated. The adjective forms, *older* and *younger*, do not, therefore, necessarily denote that *John* actually possesses these qualities, but indicate merely that he possesses each quality in comparison with another with whom he is compared.

An adjective form, such as *older* or *younger*, which indicates that an object possesses more of a quality in comparison with another object, is called a comparative form, or is said to be of the **comparative degree**.

Other examples of the comparative degree are:

He was the *quicker* of the two.
 This is a *heavier* parcel than the other.
 She is *better* than she was.

SUPERLATIVE DEGREE

255. If we compare the meanings of the italicized adjectives in

John is tall ;
John is the shortest boy present ;
Mary is young ;
Mary is the oldest girl here .

we find that the form *shortest* does not necessarily imply that *John* actually possesses the denoted quality, but merely that he possesses it in relation to two or more others with whom he is compared.

So also, the form *oldest* does not necessarily denote that Mary actually possesses the quality referred to, but merely that she possesses it in comparison with the others with whom she is being compared.

An adjective form such as *shortest* or *oldest*, which denotes that an object possesses, when compared with two or more other objects, most of the indicated quality, is said to be of the superlative form, or of the **superlative degree**.

Other examples of the superlative degree are :

He was the *bravest* man in the party.

This is his *best* drawing.

Bring the *cheapest* one you can buy.

NOTE.—In such expressions as,

John is *young*, James is *younger*, but William is the *youngest* of the three ;

it is, of course, evident that both James and William are actually young. This, however, is not denoted by the forms *younger* and *youngest*, but is inferred from the statement previously made about *John*, with whom the others are afterwards compared.

In like manner, when we say

This parcel is *heavier* than lead ;

we infer that the parcel is actually heavy, not from the form *heavier*, but from the fact that it is compared with lead, which we know is heavy.

So also in

It was the *coldest* day that winter ;

we infer that the day was actually cold, not from the adjective *coldest*, but from the fact that this day is being compared with all other days of that winter, many of which were no doubt cold.

Although the comparative form is regularly used in comparing two, and the superlative in comparing more than two, exceptions to this rule are to be met in good literature; as,

She would bid both stand up to see which was *tallest*.

ABSOLUTE SUPERLATIVE

Occasionally a superlative form is used, not to indicate comparison, but with the value of a strong positive; as,

My *dearest* father = my *very dear* father.

He had the *queerest* ideas = *very queer* ideas.

This is known as the **absolute** use of the superlative.

METHODS OF COMPARISON

256. The variation in form between the different degrees of comparison is indicated in English adjectives in three different ways; as follows:

I. REGULAR COMPARISON

257. Many comparative and superlative forms are derived from the positive by the addition of the suffixes *er* and *est*; thus,

| POSITIVE | COMPARATIVE | SUPERLATIVE |
|----------|-------------|-------------|
| brave | braver | bravest |
| coy | coyer | coyest |
| deep | deeper | deepest |
| fresh | fresher | freshest |
| gay | gayer | gayest |
| high | higher | highest |
| long | longer | longest |
| swift | swifter | swiftest |

This method is known as the **regular** mode of comparison.

Occasionally the addition of the suffix is accompanied with a slight modification in the spelling of the word; as,

| | | |
|-------|---------|----------|
| happy | happier | happiest |
| fit | fitter | fittest |
| red | redder | reddest |

By some grammarians this method of comparison is treated as an inflection, the different degrees being considered three forms of the same word. In Early English, however, and in other languages where adjectives are inflected for gender, number, and case, each degree has its own separate declension, in which case it seems necessary to consider each of the three forms a different word. For this reason, many grammarians treat the comparative and the superlative as separate words derived from the positive.

2. ADVERBIAL COMPARISON

258. Most adjectives of two syllables, and practically all adjectives of three or more syllables, for the sake of euphony, form the comparative by adding the adverb *more*, and the superlative by adding the adverb *most* to the positive; thus,

| POSITIVE | COMPARATIVE | SUPERLATIVE |
|-----------|----------------|----------------|
| constant | more constant | most constant |
| sorrowful | more sorrowful | most sorrowful |
| valuable | more valuable | most valuable |

This is known as the **adverbial** mode of comparison.

The ear must in all cases decide which form of comparison is to be used, although it is to be noted that only the adverbial form of the comparative can be used when the comparison is between two qualities in the same object; as,

He is *more kind* than judicious;

not

He is *kinder* than judicious.

The adverbs *less* and *least* may also be used to form comparatives and superlatives indicating a *descending* comparison; thus,

| POSITIVE | COMPARATIVE | SUPERLATIVE |
|-------------|------------------|-------------------|
| cautious | less cautious | least cautious |
| intelligent | less intelligent | least intelligent |
| timid | less timid | least timid |

In opposition to this, the form of comparison with *more* and *most* is known as *ascending* comparison.

NOTE.—Examples of double comparatives and superlatives are sometimes met, in which both the regular and the adverbial mode of comparison have been used; thus,

A walled town is *more worthier* than a village.

This was the *most unkindest* cut of all.

3. IRREGULAR COMPARISON

259. The following adjectives, which show special irregularities in their method of comparison, are said to belong to the **irregular** mode of comparison.

| POSITIVE | COMPARATIVE | SUPERLATIVE |
|------------|------------------|----------------------|
| bad, ill | worse | worst |
| good | better | best |
| little | less (lesser) | least |
| late | later, latter | latest, last |
| much, many | more | most |
| hind | (hinder) | hindermost, hindmost |
| near | nearer | nearest |
| nigh | nigher | nighest, next |
| old | older, elder | oldest, eldest |
| far, forth | farther, further | farthest, furthest |
| fore | former | foremost, first |
| in | inner | innermost, inmost |
| out | outer | outermost, outmost |
| up | upper | uppermost, upmost |

The last five are adverbs in the Positive.

Later and *latest* are used to indicate time ; *latter* and *last* to indicate position ; as,

The *last* boy in the row was the *latest* to enter.

Elder and *eldest* are used only of persons, and *elder* is not followed by the comparative conjunctive "than" ; thus,

His *eldest* sister was present ;

but

His sister is *older* than yours.

Near is really a comparative form of *nigh*, from which were formed nearer and nearest.

Next is a superlative form of *nigh*, but is now used to denote order or position, while *nighest* and *nearest* denote distance ; as,

The *next* day they journeyed to the *nearest* village.

There are a number of superlatives ending in *-most*, for which there are no corresponding positive or comparative forms ; as,

nethermost, northmost, southmost, undermost

EXERCISE 75

Point out in the following exercise the adjectives that admit of comparison, give the comparison of each, and tell to which mode of comparison it belongs.

1. In the second century of the Christian era, the empire of Rome comprehended the fairest parts of the earth, and the most civilized portion of mankind. The frontiers of that extensive monarchy were guarded by ancient renown and disciplined valour. The gentle but powerful influence of laws and manners had generally cemented the union of the provinces. Their peaceful inhabitants enjoyed and abused the advantages of wealth and luxury. The image of a free constitution was preserved with decent reverence; the Roman senate appeared to possess the sovereign authority, and devolved on the emperors all the executive powers of government. In a happy period of more than fourscore years, the public administration was conducted by the virtue and abilities of Nerva, Trajan, Hadrian, and the two Antonines.

2. From the steep promontory gazed
 The stranger, raptured and amazed.
 And, "What a scene were here," he cried,
 "For princely pomp, or churchman's pride!
 On this bold brow, a lordly tower;
 In that soft vale, a lady's bower;
 On yonder meadow, far away,
 The turrets of a cloister gray;
 How blithely might the bugle-horn
 Chide, on the lake, the lingering morn!
 How sweet, at eve, the lover's lute
 Chime, when the groves were still and mute!
 And, when the midnight moon should lave
 Her forehead in the silver wave,
 How solemn on the ear would come
 The holy matins' distant hum,
 While the deep peal's commanding tone

Should wake, in yonder islet lone,
 A sainted hermit from his cell,
 To drop a bead with every knell,
 And bugle, lute, and bell, and all,
 Should each bewilder'd stranger call
 To friendly feast and lighted hall."

DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES

260. In addition to the demonstrative adjectives also used as demonstrative pronouns, three demonstratives, *yon*, *yonder*, and *other* are regularly used only as adjectives, the complete list of our demonstrative adjectives being:

this (plural *these*), *that* (plural *those*), *such*, *yon*, *yonder*,
 and *other*.

(a) *This* and *that* with their plurals, when used as demonstrative adjectives, have the same differences of meaning as when used as pronouns (section 150); thus,

These fertile plains, *that* soften'd vale,
 Were once the birthright of the Gael.

These things God hath put into our powers; but concerning
those things which are wholly in the choice of another, they
 cannot fall under our deliberation.

(b) The adjective *such*, like the corresponding pronoun (section 155), is used with a demonstrative value to refer to something being mentioned; as,

He hath shed men's blood; ye are wise men that will not leave
such dangerous things alive.

(c) *Yonder* (primarily an adverb) is a comparative form of *yon*, the *d* being inserted for euphony, thus giving rise to the irregular form *yond*. Although these forms are not in common use, they are frequently met in literature. They direct attention to a remote object, and imply a greater dis-

tance from the speaker than is implied by the demonstrative *that*, suggesting that the object is distant both from the speaker and from the one addressed. Examples are :

The maiden smiled to see yon parting lingerer wave adieu.

One of you question *you'd* man.

See *you'd* flag ; it is the appointed signal.

(d) *Other*, which is also a comparative form, is used as a demonstrative adjective to direct attention to an object as differing from one already referred to, having almost the meaning of "not this" or "not these"; as,

John was early, but the *other* workmen came late.

While he lay sound asleep in the shade, *other* people were wide awake.

NOTE 1.—*Other* has an indefinite force in such an expression as,

Where were you going the *other* day?

NOTE 2.—The adverb *so* is occasionally used to refer to something previously expressed, in a manner resembling a demonstrative adjective; thus,

This is heavy and *so* is that.

He was not angry at first, but he soon became *so*.

EXERCISE 76

Point out the demonstrative adjectives and demonstrative pronouns in the following sentences.

1. He will go, and that right soon.
2. Yon rude bench of stone, in that dark angle the sole resting place!
3. The approach of two knights, for such their dress bespoke them, was a rare event at a Saxon solemnity.
4. I am about to die, and that is the hour in which men are gifted with prophetic power.

5. Old Allan followed to the strand,
Such was the Douglas's command.
6. Hosts may in these wilds abound,
Such as are better miss'd than found.
7. Then they argued of those rays,
What colour they might be :
Says this, "They're mostly green ;" says that,
"They're amber-like to me."

INTERROGATIVE ADJECTIVES

261. *Which* and *what* are the only words used as simple interrogative adjectives. Both may apply either to persons or to things, the only difference in their use being that *what* asks a general question, while *which* is selective ; thus,

What men are in town ?

What ransom am I to pay ?

Which book would you recommend ?

The adjective *what* is also frequently used to introduce an exclamation ; as

What a delightful companion !

O, *what* a world is this !

Although the interrogative *who* is not used as an adjective, its possessive form *whose* is, of course, used interrogatively with the value of both a pronoun and an adjective (section 87) ; as,

Whose fault was it ?

Whose hand shall now thy footsteps guide ?

As in their pronominal use, *which* and *what* may be used as dependent interrogative adjectives, to introduce a question in indirect narration ; as,

He asked *which* book you preferred.

I was in doubt *what* course I should take.

CONJUNCTIVE ADJECTIVES

262. *Which* and *what*, with their compound forms, are the only words used as conjunctive adjectives. *Whose*, the possessive form of *who*, is, however, used conjunctively with the value of both a pronoun and an adjective (section 75); as,

There are other countesses on *whose* good wishes you may rely.

(a) The conjunctive adjective *what* and the compound forms, *whatever*, *whichever*, etc., are used as indefinite conjunctives (section 167); although *whichever* differs in being selective; thus,

They took *what* things they could find.

Whatever other terms Richard demands shall be granted.

I shall follow *whichever* plan he advises.

(b) *Which*, on the other hand, is used as a definite conjunctive adjective; thus,

He visited us in June, during *which* month the city is usually very quiet.

The weather turned very cold, for *which* reason we decided not to set out.

NOTE.—The same care is necessary, as in the case of the corresponding pronouns, to distinguish between an indefinite conjunctive and a dependent interrogative adjective; thus,

He provided *what* things were necessary.—

Indefinite Conjunctive.

He was uncertain *what* things were necessary.—

Dependent Interrogative.

In the last example there is implied the question — *What things are necessary?*

EXERCISE 77

Explain fully the uses of which and what and their compounds, wherever met in the following sentences.

1. We shall come whichever day you prefer.
2. What do you think of what he said ?
3. Whatever progress you can make will be highly agreeable to Sir Everard.
4. I request to know what the charge is, and upon what authority I am forcibly detained.
5. This was a work of some time, which the leaders the less regretted, as it gave Ulrica leisure to execute her plan, whatever that might be.
6. Whatsoever stranger he meets, he entices him hither to death.
7. The grand master demanded of Rebecca what she had to say against the sentence which he was about to pronounce.
8. O what a world is this, when what is comely envenoms him that bears it !
9. He knew what the onlookers were thinking, and he felt some amusement in them, seeing what a good friend he was to this youngster.
10. But hark ! what blithe and jolly peal
Makes the Franciscan steeple reel ?
And see ! upon the crowded street,
In motley groups what masquers meet !

INDEFINITE ADJECTIVES

263. In the class of indefinite adjectives are included, in addition to a number of the words already studied as indefinite pronouns, a few other words used only as adjectives, which refer indefinitely to the objects they describe. The indefinite adjectives are :

Each, every, either, neither, all, any, both, few, little, many, much, no, several, some, and other.

(a) *Each, either, and neither*, as adjectives, have the same differences of meaning as when used as pronouns (section 163). *Either* is, however, sometimes used irregularly to include each of two ; thus,

On *either* side the river lie
Long fields of barley and of rye.
Rise up on *either* hand.

(b) *Every* is used only as an adjective, and distributes the individuals constituting the whole ; as,

England expects *every* man to do his duty.

NOTE.—By some grammarians the adjectives *each, every, either, and neither* are put in a separate class known as distributives.

(c) *Few, many, and much* are used indefinitely in the three degrees of comparison ; as,

Most people came when the opportunities were *fewest*.
He has *fewer* friends and *more* enemies.
There is *more* bread in the pantry.

NOTE.—*Few* and *many* are also sometimes used as nouns, being modified by other adjectives ; thus,

This is the work of the noble *few*.
The *many* rend the skies with loud acclaim.

(d) The adjective *little*, in some of its uses, refers indefinitely to number or quantity ; as,

Fear not, *little* flock.
They had *little* food that day.

(e) *No* is an indefinite adjective corresponding with the indefinite pronoun *none*, of which it is a shortened form ; thus,

They asked *no* favours and *none* were granted

NOTE.—The pronominal form *none* is occasionally used adjectively ; as,

There is *none* other name.

(*f*) *One*, which is commonly a numeral adjective, has the value of an indefinite adjective in such expressions as,

One Brown told him about it.

I was there *one* day not long since.

(*g*) *Several* refers to an indefinite number more than two, but not a large number ; as,

Several men were standing near.

(*h*) *Other*, which, as we have seen, usually has a demonstrative force, is used indefinitely in

Were you not here the *other* day ?

NUMERAL ADJECTIVES

264. Numeral adjectives, as we have seen (section 250), are words used to express a definite number or order. The form of a numeral may be simple ; as,

five, ten, sixty, eighteenth, hundredth

or it may be compound ; as,

four and twenty, five hundred^{'s}, two thousand three hundred and twenty-six.

Numeral adjectives are divided into three classes as follows :

1. CARDINAL NUMERALS

265. Numerals used in counting, to denote how many are being taken ; as,

*twenty men, four and twenty blackbirds,
Two thousand six hundred warriors ;*

are known as **cardinal** numerals. They are called the cardinal, or principal, numerals, because it is from them that most of the other numerals are formed.

The compound numerals between twenty and a hundred may be expressed in two ways, as follows :

twenty-five, sixty-seven.

or

five and twenty, seven and sixty.

All of the cardinal adjectives except *one* naturally modify a plural noun, but a few nouns, such as *pair, couple, foot, head, sail, ton*, etc., often take the singular form after a numeral ; thus,

Five *pair* were in the basket.
He measured it with a twelve-*foot* pole.
We passed a fleet of ten *sail*.
I have bought two *yoke* of oxen.

So also in the compound cardinals *two hundred, ten thousand*, etc.

In addition to their adjective use, the cardinals are frequently used as nouns. Compare, for example,

Two boys stood at the door ;
Two of the boys stood at the door ;

where, in the second example, the numeral is used as a noun, and is modified by the adjective phrase *of the boys*.

Occasionally, when used as a noun, a cardinal may even be inflected like an ordinary noun ; as,

The boys entered by *twos* and *threes*.
I will not destroy it for *forty's* sake.

2. ORDINAL NUMERALS

266. Other numerals are used to express the order in which objects are placed in a series ; as,

This happened on the *eleventh* day of the *seventh* month.
You will find it in the *seventy-third* chapter.

Because these adjectives are used to show order, they are called **ordinal** numerals.

All of the ordinals except *first*, *second*, and *third* are derived from the corresponding cardinals by the suffix *th*. In the case of the compound ordinals, only the last member has the ordinal form ; thus,

He came on the *four* and *twentieth* day of the month.

The forms used as ordinal adjectives may be used as nouns, but, with the exception of *first* and *second*, they may then denote not order but a fractional part. Compare, for example,

The *third* to enter was an old man ;
A *third* of them had left ;
Five *sevenths* of it is his ;

where only the first italicized form has the ordinal value.

3. MULTIPLICATIVE NUMERALS

267. To this class belong such numerals as simple, single, double, triple, twofold, threefold, sevenfold, hundredfold, etc. These forms are used

to denote how many times an object is taken, and are, therefore, called **multiplicative** numerals. Almost all our multiplicatives are derived from the corresponding cardinals by compounding with the word *fold*, which always keeps its singular form.

Examples of multiplicative adjectives are:

It was supported by a *single* column.

He has bought a *double* house.

That desperate grasp thy fame might feel,
Through bars of brass and *triple* steel!

Upon his ample shoulders clangs loud the *fourfold*
shield.

What if the breath that kindled those grim fires,
Awakened, should blow them into *sevenfold* rage?

THE ARTICLES

268. The words *an* or *a*, and *the*, which, as was seen (section 251), are usually termed *articles*, are used to limit the meaning of nouns, and are, therefore, to be treated as a class of adjectives. As the two articles, through a difference in their origin, have distinct limiting forces, they are subdivided into the following classes:

I. THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE

269. *An* (shortened from *a*), is the Early English form of the numeral *one*. As an article, however, its numeral force has become weakened, and it is rather used to signify any one of the objects named by the modified noun; as,

A horse is more intelligent than *an* ox.

A boy was standing at the door.

It is the duty of *an* officer to lead, of *a* private to follow.

For this reason it is called an **indefinite** article.

This article, however, has a somewhat more definite use in such expressions as,

I know *a* man who could tell us ;

where it has the meaning of "a certain," while in such expressions as

It projected *a* yard beyond the other ;

the article has almost its original numeral value.

USES OF "AN" AND "A"

270. As will be seen from the following examples, *an* is used before a vowel sound, and *a* before a consonant sound ; thus,

Such *a* man is *an* imposter.

Is it *an* orange or *a* lemon ?

He will stand there *an* hour at *a* time.

They are *a* unit upon it.

Notice that it is the sound, and not the letter at the beginning of the word which governs the use of *an* or *a*. For that reason a word beginning with silent *h*, as in the third example, is preceded by *an*, while *a* must be used in the last example, where *u* has the sound of *y* consonant.

Examine also,

I met *an* American and *a* European.

Such *a* one is not to be trusted.

The men have formed *a* union.

In such expressions as,

Is this *an* hotel ;
He bought *an* historical work ;

where the following word begins with the *h* sound, we have what seems an exception to the rule. As, however, the first syllable of the word is not accented, *h* is not given its full sound, and, therefore, admits of the use of *an* before it.

When other adjectives are used before the noun, the article usually precedes ; as,

He is *an* honest man.
A harsh and shrill sound followed.

In the following idiomatic expressions, however, the indefinite article immediately precedes the modified word ; as,

What *a* fall was that !
I knew such *a* man.

So also, if the other adjective is modified by an adverb, the indefinite article must come between the modified adjective and the noun ; thus,

They were spared so long *a* progress.
It was as great *a* wonder.
How excellent *a* thing is wisdom !

CAUTION.—The *a* which sometimes precedes a gerund, as in

He has gone *a* hunting ;
He set the clock *a* going ;

is not the indefinite article, but a shortened form of the preposition *on*.

So also in such expressions as,

He visited us twice *a* month ;

and the more unusual

Ho set out *a* Monday ;

the *a* represents the preposition *on*, while in the expression *man a war*, the *a* is a contraction of the preposition *of*.

2. THE DEFINITE ARTICLE

271. The article *the*, although a weakened form of the demonstrative *that*, frequently retains sufficient of its former demonstrative value to mark off or define some particular object or objects from others of the same class; as,

The boy gave it to *the* dog.
The day that he came was very cold.
 I must attend *the* wounded man.

It is, therefore, called the **definite** article.

Its defining force is not, however, so marked in such expressions as,

The dog is a sagacious animal ;
The pen is mightier than *the* sword ;

where no limitation is expressed by the article, the modified nouns being used in a general sense.

CAUTION.—In such expressions as,

The higher you go *the* colder it gets ;
The more he gets *the* more he wants ;

the italicized form is, in each case, not the definite article, but an adverb modifying the following comparative. This adverb, which is also derived from *that*, was formerly written *thy* (corresponding in form with the adverb *why*, derived from *what*). Finally, however, it became identical in form with the definite article.

REPETITION OF THE ARTICLE

272. When, in compound expressions, the different nouns name separate objects, the article is generally repeated before each noun; as,

I have *a* pen, *a* pencil, and *a* book.

The secretary and *the* treasurer were divided in their opinions.

An oak and *an* elm-tree stand beside.

On the other hand, when the different nouns signify the same person or thing, the article is generally used before the first noun only; as,

The secretary and treasurer was absent.

In the latter case, however, the article is sometimes repeated for emphasis; as,

The saint, *the* father, and *the* husband prays.

When different adjectives come before a noun, the article must be repeated if different objects are meant; as,

I saw *a* red and *a* white cow (two cows);

but

I saw *a* red and white cow (one cow).

EXERCISE 78

Point out and classify the numeral adjectives in the following sentences.

1. It must be owned that my wife laid a thousand schemes to entrap him.
2. Give examples of the triple meaning of this word.
3. The nineteen mules were laden with seven and thirty thieves in jars.

4. This is the first time of asking.
5. Everything is at sixes and sevens.
6. Canoes, bearing five Iroquois, approached and were met by a volley fired with such precipitation that one or more of them escaped, fled into the forest, and told their mischance to their main body, two hundred in number.
7. On the fifth day an uproar of unearthly yells from seven hundred savage throats, mingled with a clattering salute of musketry, told the Frenchmen that the expected reinforcement had come.
8. Each at his back (a slender store)
His forty days' provision bore.
9. Thou gleam'st against the western ray
Ten thousand lines of brighter day.

ORDINARY USES OF ADJECTIVES

273. It was seen in our study of the structure of the sentence in Chapter II, that an adjective may modify a noun or pronoun in a number of different ways. Adjectives are, therefore, classified on the basis of their use or structure in the sentence; as follows:

I. ATTRIBUTIVE ADJECTIVES

274. An adjective is most commonly joined directly to a noun to limit or otherwise qualify its meaning; thus,

Pretty flowers filled the *large* beds.

Many hours were spent in *useless* inquiry.

When an adjective is thus joined directly to the word it modifies, it is called an **attributive** adjective, or is said to be used **attributively**.

2. APPOSITIVE ADJECTIVES

275. Occasionally an adjective is joined less closely to the word it modifies, in a manner resembling an appositive noun, as in

The settler paused again, *irresolute* ;
He quaked to hear that sound, so *dull* and *stern* ;

when it is called an **appositive adjective**.

3. PREDICATE ADJECTIVES

276. It was seen (section 54) that an adjective is frequently used to form the subjective complement, completing the meaning of a copula verb, and modifying the subject; as,

The ground is *hollow*.
The heraldsman's arm is *strong*.

When an adjective is thus used to complete a copula verb and modify its subject, the adjective is called a **subjective predicate adjective**.

4. ADVERBIAL PREDICATE ADJECTIVES

277. Occasionally an adjective is used after a verb of state or motion with the value of a predicate adjective, although the modifying force of the adjective is really divided between the subject and the verb; thus,

The man stood *silent* ;

where in addition to describing the man, the adjective also seems to modify *stood* with a slight adverbial force.

Because such a predicate adjective divides its modifying force between the subject and the verb, it is called an **adverbial predicate adjective**.

Other examples are :

The window flew *open*.

The sun shone *bright*.

5. OBJECTIVE PREDICATE ADJECTIVES

278. We have learned (section 23) that an adjective is sometimes used to form the objective complement, by completing the meaning of the verb, and modifying the direct object; as in,

They thought the man *insane*.

This made him *happy*.

When an adjective is thus used to complete a verb and modify its object, the adjective is called an **objective predicate adjective**.

EXERCISE 79

Classify according to their uses in the sentence the adjectives in the following exercise.

1. The narrow slips of level ground exhibited a scanty crop of barley, liable to constant depredations from herds of wild ponies and black cattle.
2. I see the withered garlands lie forsaken on the earth.
3. The brother of my heart is worthy still the lofty name he bears.
4. Unbar the gates and set the captives free.
5. Overley assured the prudent page that he would be cautious.
6. Many people think her more natural, and she is much younger.

7. Hath not old custom made this life more sweet than that of painted pomp? Are not these woods more free from peril than the envious court?
8. When she beheld the beautiful garments she was so astonished that she stood motionless.
9. We were surprised to find them ready.
10. Why pour ye thus from your deserted homes,
Oh, eager multitude; around him pressing!
Each hurrying where his breathless courser foams.
11. And this shall make, in every Christian clime,
The Bell of Atri famous for all time.

OTHER USES OF ADJECTIVES

1. AS NOUNS

279. It was seen (section 128) that an adjective is frequently made to perform the function of a noun; as,

The *good* are trusted.
Shun *evil*.
Glory and love to the men of *old*.

2. MODIFYING A NOUN UNDERSTOOD

280. An adjective is frequently used alone in the sentence, the word which it modifies being understood from the context; as,

I have a small knife and you a *large*.
He was the *best* of all the children.

3. NOT MODIFYING ANY WORD

281. A predicate adjective used to complete the gerund or the gerundial infinitive of a copula verb

frequently has no noun or pronoun to which it is related; as,

There is no gain in being *dishonest*.
It is best to be *amiable* at all times.

OTHER FORMS USED AS ADJECTIVES

282. The following classes of words and groups of words, although not belonging to the ordinary classes of adjectives, nevertheless perform in the sentence the function of an adjective in modifying a noun or a pronoun.

1. Possessive and Appositive Nouns and Pronouns :

His uncle, the *squire*, offered to help him.
The *tutor's* curiosity was satisfied.

2. Participles and Participial Phrases :

Controlling himself, he went once more through the dismal history.
He had the supplies *sent forward*.
They turned down the track *leading to the hamlet*.

3. Gerundial Infinitives :

I have a message *to go*.
There is work *to be done*.

4. Adverbs :

The *up* train has just gone.
This is heavy and *so* is that.
The man is *here*.

5. Adjective Phrases :

It is a question of *some difficulty*, considering the state of the country.
A glance at the mother's face checked the apology on *his lips*.
He was of *a kind nature*.

6. Subordinate clauses :

I am the duke *that loved your father*.

The bridge *whereon they stood* crossed the main channel of the river.

These words, *which she uttered with great emotion*, were overheard by the Chevalier, *who stepped hastily forward*.

Her look expressed a yearning *she could not crush*.

EXERCISE 80

Point out and classify the adjectives and the adjective substitutes in the following sentences.

1. It is his duty to take care of these, the tithes of our successful enterprise.
2. Let those who have aught to witness of the life of this person stand forth.
3. Her love for her clan, an attachment which was almost hereditary in her bosom, was, like her loyalty, a more pure passion than that of her brother.
4. The thrifty hire I saved under your father.
5. The rector's son was sedulous in his endeavours to enjoy the society of his former companion.
6. The whole mass of Stamboul was like black smoke ; the water dim gray, a little flushed, and then like pure light, lucid, transparent, every ship and every boat sharply outlined in black on its surface.
7. Under an oak, whose boughs were mass'd with age
And high top bald with dry antiquity,
A wretched, ragged man, o'ergrown with hair,
Lay sleeping on his back.
8. The hand of the reaper
Takes the ears that are hoary,
But the voice of the weeper
Wails manhood in glory.
The autumn winds rushing
Waft the leaves that are searest,
But our flower was in flushing,
When blighting was nearest.

9. By England's lakes, in grey old age,
His quiet home one keeps ;
And one, the strong much-toiling sage,
In German Weimar sleeps.

PARSING OF ADJECTIVES

283. In the full parsing of an adjective it is necessary :

1. To classify it according to meaning ;
2. To state the degree, if the adjective admits of comparison ;
3. To give its exact relation in the sentence.

MODEL

This man is wiser than his brother.

This demonstrative adjective, used attributively to modify the noun *man*.

wiser qualifying adjective, comparative degree—wise, wiser, wisest ; used as a predicate adjective to complete the copula verb *is* and modify the subject *man*.

EXERCISE 81

Parse the adjectives in the following sentences.

1. What readiest way would bring me to that place !
2. I am so sure, that I will lay you what wager you will that Abou Hassan is well.
3. These men were Saxons, and not free by any means from the national love of ease and good living.
4. He closed for ever the eyes of that brilliant being, who, with some weaknesses, but many noble virtues, had shared with no unequal spirit the splendour and the adversity of his existence.

5. 'Twere worth a thousand festivals, to see with what a
bitter and unnatural smile they strive to smile.
6. To be secure,
Be humble ; to be happy, be content.
7. Lively he seemed, and spoke of all he knew,
The friendly many, and the favourite few.
8. How beautiful is Night !
A dewy freshness fills the silent air ;
No mist obscures, nor cloud, nor speck, nor stain,
Breaks the serene of heaven !
In full-orb'd glory yonder moon divine
Rolls through the dark blue deeps.
9. Nor am I loth, though pleased at heart,
Sweet Highland Girl ! from Thee to part ;
For I, methinks, till I grow old,
As fair before me shall behold,
As I do now, the cabin small,
The lake, the bay, the waterfall ;
And Thee, the Spirit of them all !

CHAPTER X

THE ADVERB

USES OF ADVERBS

284. In addition to the adjective, which modifies nouns and pronouns, there is, as we have seen, another modifying part of speech—the adverb, which ordinarily modifies verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs. It should be noticed, however, that the same adverb is not usually able to modify these three parts of speech. For example, the adverb *very*, which may modify an adjective or an adverb; as in

This is *very* sweet ;
He went out *very* slowly ;

is not used to modify verbs.

On the other hand, such an adverb as *quietly*, which is frequently used to modify a verb; as in

He came *quietly* :

is not joined to other adverbs, nor to adjectives other than verbal adjectives or participles; as in

I found him sitting *quietly* by the fire ;

where, on account of its verbal value, the participle *sitting* may be modified by the adverb *quietly*.

A few adverbs, however, are able to modify either a verb, an adjective, or another adverb: as,

I bought the book and read it *too*.

This is *too* small.

They sing *too* loudly.

SPECIAL USES OF ADVERBS

1. TO MODIFY PREPOSITIONS

285. As most of our prepositions were originally adverbs, and are still so used, an adverb is frequently found joined to a preposition to modify the adverbial force in the preposition. Compare for example,

It flew *right* over.

It flew *right* over the house.

He left *long* before.

He left *long* before noon.

In the second examples, however, the adverbs may be explained either as modifying the prepositions, or as modifying the adverb phrases.

2. TO MODIFY CONJUNCTIONS

286. Similarly an adverb is occasionally used to modify a conjunction, especially certain conjunctions derived from prepositions through the loss of a *that* following the original preposition; as,

He came *just* before you left.

This happened *long* after the house adjourned.

He has been worried *ever* since he heard about it.

3. TO MODIFY SENTENCES OR CLAUSES

287. Some adverbs are used to modify the whole thought expressed in a sentence or clause; as,

They have *certainly* upset things.
 Here is a man who will *probably* tell you.
 The men are *not* going there to-day.

As we shall learn later, such an adverb is described as a *sentence* adverb.

KINDS OF ADVERBS

288. On account of the varied meanings of adverbs, it is difficult to divide them into distinct classes on the basis of their meaning. They may, however, be divided into the following classes:

1. Adverbs of time ; as,

We shall call *to-morrow*.
 His flocks are *now* on sale.
 I cannot *longer* abide with thee.
Then comes remorse, with all its vipers.
 If *ever* I thank any man, I'll thank you.
When did you see him ?

2. Adverbs of place ; as,

They have gone *hence*.
Here shall we see no enemy.
 The banners shook as they moved *forward*.
 He set *out* about noon.
Where have you been all day ?

3. Adverbs of number ; as,

Not *once* nor *twice* in our rough island story.
 The path of duty was the way to glory,

4. Adverbs of degree or measure ; as,

He was attended by a *very* suspicious character.

It was *wholly* inadequate.

The proposition seemed *most* fair.

He would be *the* better for it.

5. Adverbs of manner or quality ; as,

It is *well* spoken.

He went *hastily* over the circumstances.

Thus we salute thee with our early song.

6. Adverbs of cause ; as,

Why did he swear he would come ?

You foolish shepherd, *wherefore* do you follow her ?

7. Sentence adverbs,

which may be further subdivided as follows :

(a) Adverbs of affirmation ; as,

He will *certainly* fail in the attempt.

Undoubtedly it was the wisest thing to do.

You will *surely* call to see them.

(b) Adverbs of negation ; as,

He has *not* taken any steps in that direction.

It is *noways* likely that they will come.

(c) Potential adverbs ; as,

You will *perchance* meet them on the way.

This *perhaps* betrayed more than she desired.

289. A few adverbs derived from pronouns, in addition to belonging to one of the above classes, also retain certain characteristics belonging to the pronouns from which they are derived ; as follows :

1. Interrogative adverbs ; as,

When did you see him ?

Where are you stopping ?

How was it done ?

These may be classified as **interrogative adverbs** of time, place, manner, etc.

2. Demonstrative Adverbs ; as,

Here is mine ; *there* is yours.

He *then* entered into a discussion on their excellencies.

Thus having spoken, he took his seat.

Such adverbs may be classified as **demonstrative adverbs** of place, of time, etc.

NOTE.—For the conjunctive adverbs see the next section.

WORDS PARTLY ADVERBIAL IN FUNCTION

290. In addition to the above classes of pure adverbs, there are, as we have already seen, a number of words which are partly adverbial in function. These may be classified as follows :

1. Adverbial Nouns (section 71) ; as,

He came last *night*.

The sermon was two *hours* long.

He went ten *miles* further.

I may be gone ten *days*.

2. Conjunctive Adverbs (section 74) ; as,

We play that game *whenever* the weather is fine.

We were absent *when* they returned.

I have married a wife ; *therefore* I cannot come.

3. The Gerundial Infinitive (section 78) ; as,

I ran *to tell* them.

They are ready *to set* out.

It is never too late *to mend*.

EXERCISE 82

Point out the adverbs in the following sentences and state the kind and the relation of each.

1. Bertram never knew how sensible a lady Helena was, else perhaps he would not have been so regardless of her.
2. A cold-blooded friend I am, and therefore more fit to give thee advice.
3. Speak on ; where were you born, and wherefore called Marina ?
4. When didst thou drink as deep a draught of water before ?
5. Merely to differ from another, and a sometime established institution is, of course, no merit in itself.
6. The back door, which was just under the princess's apartment, was soon opened.
7. When I invited you yesterday, I informed you of the law I had made ; therefore, do not take it ill if I tell you that we must never see each other again.
8. She crossed him once—she crossed him twice,
That lady was so brave ;
The fouler grew his goblin hue,
The darker grew the cave.
9. The storm came on before its time ;
She wandered up and down,
And many a hill did Lucy climb,
But never reached the town.

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS

291. Many adverbs denote qualities or other ideas capable of being compared.

The same three methods of comparison are used in the formation of comparative and superlative adverbs as were met in the comparison of adjectives.

1. REGULAR COMPARISON

292. A number of adverbs, most of them being similar in form to the corresponding adjectives, form the comparative by the addition of *er* and the superlative by the addition of *est* to the positive adverb. Examples are,

| POSITIVE | COMPARATIVE | SUPERLATIVE |
|----------|-------------|--------------|
| fast | faster | fastest |
| early | earlier | earliest |
| hard | harder | hardest |
| late | later | latest, last |
| long | longer | longest |
| often | oftener | oftenest |
| soon | sooner | soonest |

The last two words are always adverbs.

2. IRREGULAR COMPARISON

293. Other adverbs like the corresponding adjectives, use different words in the comparative and the superlative; as,

| POSITIVE | COMPARATIVE | SUPERLATIVE |
|------------|-------------|-------------|
| ill, badly | worse | worst |
| little | less | least |
| much | more | most |
| well | better | best |

Here also may be placed

| | | |
|-------|---------|----------|
| far | farther | farthest |
| forth | farther | farthest |
| rath | rather | |

3. ADVERBIAL COMPARISON

294. Many of our adverbs are derived from adjectives by the addition of the suffix *ly*. These

usually form the comparative by adding *more* or *less*, and the superlative by adding *most* or *least* to the positive. Examples are,

| POSITIVE | COMPARATIVE | SUPERLATIVE |
|----------|--------------|--------------|
| firmly | more firmly | most firmly |
| quietly | more quietly | most quietly |
| sweetly | more sweetly | most sweetly |

EXERCISE 83

Point out the adverbs in the last exercise which admit of comparison, and give in each case the other degrees of comparison.

ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

295. On account of the slight difference of form and meaning between many adjectives and adverbs, care must be taken to see that the correct form is, in such cases, being used. Compare for example,

The boy found the office *easy*.

The boy found the office *easily*.

In the first sentence, the italicized word is used to describe the character of the office as the boy found it. Therefore the adjective form *easy* must be used as an objective complement to modify the object *office*.

But in the second sentence, the italicized word is added to describe the manner of his finding the office; therefore the adverbial form *easily* must be used as a modifier of the predicate *found*. So also in the sentences,

The men stood *silent* ;

The men passed *silently* :

the adjective form *silent* is used, with the value of an adverbial predicate adjective (section 277), in the first sentence, in which we are describing the men as they stood; while the adverb form *silently* is used in the second sentence, in which we are describing the manner of the men's passing.

Notice in like manner the meanings and uses of the adjectives and the adverbs in the following pairs of sentences.

The man appeared *quick*.

The man appeared *quickly*.

The officer seemed *warm* on the subject.

The officer spoke *warmly* on the subject.

He remained *firm*.

He replied *firmly*.

He made them *clumsy*.

He made them *clumsily*.

NOTE.—In poetry, however, the adjective form is, for poetic effect, frequently used adverbially in place of the regular adverb; as,

Who lists
May what is false hold dear,
And for himself make mists
Through which to see less *clear*.

EXERCISE 81

Account for the use of the italicized adjective and adverb forms in the following extracts.

1. Then, amid the verdant bushes,
Thy sweet song shall warble *clear*.

2. His stride
Hied *hastier* down the mountain side ;
Sullen he flung him in a boat,
And *instant* 'cross the lake it shot.
3. *Full knee-deep* lies the winter snow,
And the winter winds are *wearily* sighing ;
Toll ye the church-bell *sad* and *slow*,
And tread *softly*, and speak *low*,
For the Old Year lies a-dying.
4. His face grows *sharp*, his hands are clench'd,
As if some pang his heart-strings wrench'd ;
Set are his teeth, his fading eye
Is *sternly* fix'd on vacancy.
Thus *motionless* and *moanless*, drew
His parting breath, stout Roderick Dhu !
Old Allan-Bane looked on *aghast*,
While *grim* and *still* his spirit passed.
5. Above that consecrated tree
Ascends the tapering spire, that seems
To lift the soul up *silently*
To heaven, with all its dreams ;
While in the belfry, *deep* and *low*,
From his heaving bosom's purple gleams
The dove's continuous murmur's flow.

PECULIAR ADVERBS

1. THE INTRODUCTORY ADVERB

296. It was seen (section 29) that the adverb *there*, which is usually an adverb of place, is occasionally used as an introductory expletive, taking in the sentence the place of the transposed subject ; as,

There came a man from the house hard by.
There have been continuous attacks on the government.
Has *there* been any return of the fever ?

In an interrogative sentence beginning with an interrogative pronoun, the expletive may follow the subject; as,

What is *there* to prevent it?

What better basis for enduring happiness can *there* be?

The introductory expletive is, of course, also used to introduce subordinate clauses or even phrases; as,

This was the one point on which *there* had been a difference of opinion.

If *there* are any remaining, I shall be pleased to have them.

There being no further business, the meeting then adjourned.

NOTE.—The expletive *there* is frequently used with the verb *be*, when the latter is an intransitive verb denoting existence; as,

There is no doubt he will mount high.

There was another reason why they disliked it.

2. THE INTENSIFYING ADVERB

297. The word *even* is occasionally added to a word, phrase, or clause, after the manner of an adverb, to intensify its meaning; as,

Here all their rage, and *even* their murmurs cease.

They bloom in these parts *even* in winter.

He would not come *even* when the chief summoned him.

Thus used, *even* is classified as an **intensifying** adverb.

3. RESPONSIVES

298. The responsives, *yes* and *no*, which have been seen (section 59) to have the value of whole sentences, answering a previous question, are, on

account of their having been originally adverbs, classified by some grammarians as responsive adverbs.

POSITION OF ADVERBS

299. An adverb is usually placed beside the word it modifies; thus,

He *almost* fell.
 There were *almost* fifty boys present.
 It reaches *almost* over the street.
 Our friends live *here*.

When an adverb modifies a transitive verb with an object, the adverb is usually placed either before the verb or after the object; thus,

He *immediately* sent the money.
 He sent the money *immediately*.

An adverb modifying a verb phrase is frequently placed between the auxiliary and the principal verb; as,

I have *never* seen it.
 The clans had *already* taken arms in great numbers.
 A long chain was *immediately* put about his neck.

But an adverb is not placed between the verb and the preposition of the gerundial infinitive; thus,

They advised him to proceed *cautiously*.
 They decided *not* to wait *longer*.

OTHER FORMS OF ADVERBS

300. As we have already learned, the following elements other than ordinary adverbs, are frequently used in the sentence with an adverbial value.

1. Nouns and Pronouns ; as,

He waited an *hour*.
 They remained a *day* longer
This far shalt thou go.

2. Gerundial Infinitives ; as,

I hastened *to inform* them.
 He is ready *to return*.

3. Prepositional Adverbial Phrases ; as,

They scaled the walls *in several* places.
 The grand vizier went *into* the closet.

4. Nominative Absolute Phrases ; as,

The sun having set, they returned home.

5. Adverbial Clauses ; as,

The great room was very still *when he entered*.
If he come to-morrow I'll give him his payment.

NOTE.—The adverbial use of adjective forms was considered in section 295.

CLASSIFICATION OF ADVERB CLAUSES

301. Adverb clauses may be classified according to their uses in the sentence, as follows :

1. Time ; as,

The sick man, *while he is yet infirm*, knoweth the physician by his step.

2. Place ; as

My trade is to find out danger, *wherever it is to be met with*.

3. Manner ; as,

He left the room *as he found it*.

4. Cause ; as,
I cannot tell thee, *because they are too manifold.*
5. Degree ; as,
Have you any better right *than we have ?*
6. Condition ; as,
If any one had told me, I should not have believed them.
7. Concession ; as,
Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him.
8. Purpose : as,
He died *that we might live.*
9. Result ; as,
The knight struck the door so violently *that the posts shook with violence.*

OTHER USES OF ADVERBS

302. A number of words which according to their derivation and ordinary use, are regularly classified as adverbs, are occasionally used with the value of other parts of speech ; as follows,

1. As a Noun :
Does he live far from *there ?*
He knows the *ins* and *outs* of the case.
2. As a demonstrative Pronoun (section 156):
He said *so* ; I can prove that he has not done *so*.
3. As an attributive, appositive, or predicate Adjective :
He was credited with the *above* remarks.
The *down* train was late.
My stay *there* was short.
The room *above* is taken.
Your friends are *here*.
The fire was *out*.

EXERCISE 85

Point out the adverbs and the adverb equivalents in the following sentences, and explain the exact use of each.

1. There is no time to talk about it now.
2. They came soon after you left.
3. As loud she laughed when near they drew.
4. Is there any prospect of rescue from without?
5. There were some twenty there.
6. All night they danced with as much vigour as the frailty of their vessels would permit, their throats making amends for the enforced restraint of their limbs.
7. As soon as he got to the army, he marched the troops against the rebels, and was so quick in that expedition, that the sultan heard of the rebels' defeat before he had received an account of his arrival in the army.
8. The servants would not open the door, because their mistress had ordered them not to admit any company; and though they almost knocked the door down, they could not gain admittance.
9. His mother one evening going to light the lamp, and finding no oil in the house went to buy some; and when she came into the great streets, found them illuminated, the shops shut up and garnished with boughs, everybody striving to show their zeal by their rejoicing.
10. But now my task is smoothly done,
I can fly, or I can run
Quickly to the green earth's end,
Where the bow'd welkin slow doth bend,
And from thence can soar as soon
To the corners of the moon.

11. Still as my horizon grew,
Larger grew my riches too.
12. All day the low-hung clouds have dropt
Their garner'd fulness down ;
All day that soft gray mist hath wrapt
Hill, valley, grove and town.
There has not been a sound to-day
To break the calm of nature :
Nor motion, I might almost say,
Of life, or living creature.
I stood to hear—I love it well—
The rain's continuous sound ;
Small drops, but thick and fast they fell,
Down straight into the ground.
For leafy thickness is not yet
Earth's naked breast to screen,
Though every dripping branch is set
With shoots of tender green.
Sure since I looked at early morn,
Those honeysuckle buds
Have swell'd to double growth ; that thorn
Hath put forth larger studs ;
That lilac's cleaving cones have burst,
The milk-white flowers revealing ;
Even now, upon my senses first
Methinks their sweets are stealing.

PARSING OF ADVERBS

303. In parsing an adverb give

1. Its class or kind ;
2. Its degree, if capable of being compared ;
3. Its construction in the sentence.

MODEL

She *soon* returned with the paper.

Soon An adverb of time, positive degree—soon, sooner, soonest, modifying the verb *returned*.

EXERCISE 86

Parse the adverbs in the following sentences.

1. Positively you shall not be so very severe.
2. They trotted along and sat down together, with no thought that life would ever change for them.
3. There is, I admit, a spice of vulgarity in him, and his song is rather of the Bloomfield sort, too largely ballasted with prose.
4. They had advanced much farther west than ever man had sailed before, and still they continued daily pressing onward into that apparently boundless waste of waters.
5. Whoe'er so mad but might have guess'd,
That all this Highland hornet's nest
Would muster up in swarms so soon
As e'er they heard of bands at Doune?
Like bloodhounds now they search me out,—
Hark to the whistle and the shout!
If farther through the wilds I go,
I only fall upon the foe;
I'll couch me here till evening gray,
Then darkling try my dangerous way.

CHAPTER XI

THE PREPOSITION

304. It was seen in Chapter IV that a preposition is ordinarily used to relate grammatically a noun or a pronoun within a phrase to some other word in the sentence, thus giving the noun or pronoun the value of an adjective or an adverb modifier. It was seen further that in addition to thus indicating a grammatical relation between the words it connects, a preposition may be said to indicate a logical relation between the ideas denoted by the connected words. For example, in such a sentence as

The book on the desk is torn ;

we may speak of the preposition *on* as relating the noun *desk* grammatically to the noun *book*, or as denoting a relation of place existing between the objects *book* and *desk*.

OBJECTS OF PREPOSITIONS

305. Although we speak of the noun or pronoun following the preposition as its object, we must bear in mind that the preposition does not govern the noun or pronoun, but merely relates it to another word. As, however, all of our preposi-

tions are regularly followed by the objective forms of the inflected pronouns, it is simpler to speak of the word following the preposition as its object.

WORDS USED AS OBJECTS

306. The object of a preposition is most usually a noun or a pronoun. A number of other grammatical forms may, however, be used as noun-equivalents after a preposition. The following will exemplify the various forms of the object:

1. A Noun ; as,
 They came by *lund*.
 A pause of *horror* silenced each murmur.
2. A Pronoun ; as,
 Hope has perished with *him*.
 What do you think of *that* ?
3. An Infinitive ; as,
 They are about *to begin*.
 She could do nothing but *lament*.
 Nothing will be gained by *returning*.
4. An Adjective ; as,
 The heart ran o'er
 With silent worship of the *great of old*.
5. An Adverb ; as,
 Has he been here since *then* ?
 Is it far from *here* ?
 This will do for *once*.
6. A Phrase ; as,
 He appeared from *among the trees*.
 They have been here since *before dinner*.
 He views the lustre of Thy word,
 Thy day-spring from *on high*.

7. A Clause ; as,

There is something in *what he says*.
They spoke of *what had taken place*.

CASE FORM OF THE OBJECT

307. Although a pronoun used as the object of a preposition is regularly put in the objective case, the nominative form of the pronoun is occasionally found in poetry after the preposition *save*. Examples are:

All the conspirators *save only he*
Did that they did in envy of great Caesar.
Nothing, *save the waves and I*
May hear our mutual murmur sweep.

POSITION OF THE PREPOSITION

308. A preposition is usually placed before its object, but is occasionally met coming after its object; as,

What have they asked *for* ?
No war or battle's sound
Was heard the world *around*.
The boat-head wound along
The willowy hills and fields *among*.

ADVERBS AND PREPOSITIONS

309. It was seen (section 285) that most of our prepositions were originally adverbial in function, and that they are still frequently so used. Care must, therefore, be taken to distinguish between the adverbial and the prepositional uses of these words. Compare, for example,

They came *across* in boatsadverb
 They ran *across* the streetpreposition
 He came *in* to tell usadverb
 He came *in* a canoepreposition
 She sat *down* near themadverb
 She passed *down* the street . . .preposition

EXERCISE 87

A

State whether the italicized words in the following sentences are used as adverbs or as prepositions.

1. He held it *up against* the light.
2. She held on *up* the coast *for* eight hundred miles *into* latitude forty-three degrees north.
3. I rode *on* and found a mighty hill, and *on* the top a city walled.
4. Beatrice has set him *on* to do this.
5. As schools *too*, the monasteries did no trifling service *to* society.
6. It appeared *before* them in the same manner as *before*.
7. A friend, who was passing *by*, recognized him *by* his voice.
8. As soon as she had laid *down* her provisions, she was going to pull *off* her veil.
9. Must he gather them *off* the trees?

B

Classify the objects of the prepositions in the following sentences.

1. No man knew from whence he came.
2. A wild shrill cry from without the fort rang on the ears of the assembled council.
3. She believed nothing of what had been said against her.
4. From out thy slime the monsters of the deep are made.

5. It was seen by none but Hamlet alone ; neither could he, by pointing to where he stood, make his mother perceive it.
6. It never failed him in whatever he wished for.
7. What relates to myself she knows nothing of.
8. He said that he was about to do him a favour by putting his enemy to death.

PREPOSITION PHRASES

310. Combinations of words ending in a preposition are frequently used in a sentence with the value of a single preposition ; as,

He passed *out of* (from) the room.

We could not hear *on account of* (for) the noise.

The following is a list of the more common preposition phrases :—according to, as to, because of, by means of, by way of, in front of, in place of, in spite of, instead of, on account of, on behalf of, out of, with regard to, etc.

PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES

311. A preposition (or a preposition phrase) and its object is frequently described as a prepositional phrase. As we have seen (section 56) a prepositional phrase is regularly used in the sentence with the grammatical value of either an adjective or an adverb, and is, therefore, usually classified as an adjective or an adverb phrase.

USES OF PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES

312. The following will illustrate the ordinary uses of prepositional adjective and prepositional adverb phrases.

1. PREPOSITIONAL ADJECTIVE PHRASES

- (a) As an appositive adjective,

The house *on the hill* is very old.
Those *in the basket* are better.

- (b) As a subjective predicate adjective,

He is *of a kind disposition*.
This was *out of the question*.

- (c) As an objective predicate adjective,

She made them *of a size*.
They ran themselves *out of breath*.
We thought him *of a stern nature*.

2. PREPOSITIONAL ADVERB PHRASES

- (a) To modify a verb ; as,

He ran *to the house*.

- (b) To modify an adjective ; as,

These are pleasant *to the eye*.

- (c) To modify an adverb ; as,

This happened unfortunately *for him*.

SPECIAL USES OF PREPOSITIONS

1. WITHOUT AN OBJECT

313. A word ordinarily a preposition, is sometimes met without any object depending upon it. In some cases the word is then to be explained as having an adverbial use, while in other cases the object may be supplied and the word parsed as an ordinary preposition. The following cases may be noted :

- (a) In passive constructions.

It was seen (section 235) that the object of a preposition is sometimes made the subject of a passive construction, the preposition being left as an adjunct to the verb. Compare, for example,

They spoke *of* that plan ;
 That plan was spoken *of* ;
 We looked *into* the matter ;
 The matter was looked *into* ;

where in the second sentences, *of* and *into* must be taken as adverbial adjuncts of *was spoken* and *was looked* respectively.

Other examples are,

He was laughed *at* for his pains.
 It was talked *about* before.
 This is a matter to be looked *into*.
 They could give no reason for these being passed *over*.

(b) Conjunctive pronoun omitted.

It was seen (section 171) that a definite conjunctive pronoun in the objective case is frequently not expressed in the sentence. This tendency will, of course, sometimes leave a preposition without an expressed object ; as,

John is the name (that) he answers *to*.
 Do you know the person (whom) he is walking *with* ?
 They have found the book (which) they were looking *for*.

Here the object may be supplied and the word parsed as an ordinary preposition.

The following examples are, however, more irregular :

You have nothing to complain *of*.
 He had no friend to go *to*.
 Is this a matter to rejoice *at* ?

2. WITHOUT RELATING FORCE

314. Occasionally a preposition does not relate its object to a preceding word with the value of a modifier, but has merely an introductory force, the phrase having in the sentence the value of a noun. Examples are,

Over the fence puts you out.

He remained there until *after* dinner.

It is unfortunate *for* this to have happened.

This is called by some grammarians the **introductory** use of a preposition.

SPECIAL PREPOSITIONS

315. It was seen (section 270) that the preposition *on* is sometimes expressed as *a*; thus,

She set it *a* going.

They have gone *a* hunting.

In such expressions also, as five o'clock, the preposition *of* is expressed as *o*.

The words *like*, *unlike*, and *near*, which are regularly adjectives or adverbs, are, in all degrees, frequently followed by an objective noun or pronoun, and may in such cases be treated as prepositions. Examples are,

That looks *like* him.

Do you know the lady *near* her?

The world *like* one great garden showed.

Frequently, however, the preposition *to* is used before the noun or pronoun; thus,

She took the book nearest *to* her ;

We drew near *to* them ;

when the phrase with *to* is to be parsed as an adverbial phrase modifying the preceding adjective or adverb.

The word *than*, which is regularly a conjunction relating a subordinate clause of comparison, is occasionally met (especially in poetry), followed by the objective form of a pronoun, in a manner resembling a preposition ; as,

A fool's wrath is heavier than *them* both.

Neither this construction, nor the use of the nominative case after *save* (section 307) is, however, permissible in Modern English prose.

OMISSION OF PREPOSITION

316. Occasionally, through the omission of a preposition, a noun is related directly to another word with the value of an adjective or an adverb ; thus,

They entered (by) one by one.

It fell (on) this side of the fence.

He is tired (of) warning them.

He made his living (by) selling newspapers.

On either side (of) the river.

No preposition has, however, been omitted before a noun in the adverbial objective (section 121) denoting duration of time, space, weight, etc. These nouns, even in Early English, were added directly to the words they modify. In Modern

English, however, there is a tendency to insert a preposition to denote these relations ; as,

He waited *for* two hours.

It is longer *by* ten feet.

They remained there *for* three days.

EXERCISE 88

A

Point out the prepositions and the prepositional phrases in the following sentences, and give the exact value and relation of each prepositional phrase.

1. Taking a chain from off her neck, she said, "Gentleman, wear this for me. I am out of suits with fortune."
2. That gentleman had, upon the very day after his first trip up the river, filled up the necessary papers.
3. Though they were near the door, they could not enter because of the crush.
4. For three days he rambled about the town after this manner, without coming to any resolution, or eating anything but what some good people forced on him out of charity.
5. There, full of hopes, and reflecting on his happiness, which he attributed to pure chance, he found himself in a much more peaceable situation than when he was carried before the sultan and in danger of losing his life.
6. When she was dressed in her manly garb, she looked so exactly like her brother that some strange errors happened by means of their being mistaken for each other.
7. Of stature tall, and slender frame,
But firmly knit, was Malcolm Graeme.
8. Now it works rude brakes and thorns among,
Or o'er the rough rock bursts and foams along.

9. Without a mark, without a bound,
It runneth the earth's wide regions 'round ;
It plays with the clouds, it mocks the skies ;
Or like a cradled creature lies.
10. At first the sound, by distance tame,
Mellow'd along the waters came,
And lingering, long by cave and bay,
Wail'd every harsher note away.

B

Explain the exact use of each italicized word in the following sentences.

1. What is it you are accused *of*?
2. He determined that he would have more certain grounds to go *upon*.
3. They are thinking of going *a* fishing.
4. Elect no other king *than* him.
5. Do you remember the woman I spoke to you *about*?
6. It alighted two *inches* nearer to the white spot.
7. Was this the cottage and the safe abode thou told'st me *of*?
8. But *if* she had been wiser than me,
For she brought a bottle to church.
9. The brave foemen *side* by side,
Lay peaceful down *like* brothers tried.

LOGICAL VALUE OF PREPOSITIONS

317. Prepositions were originally used mainly to denote relations of place, time, cause, and manner; as,

We stopped *at* the house. place
 We were there *at* the time time
 They were terrified *at* the sight cause
 They are running *at* large. manner

Most of our prepositions, however, have taken on a number of special uses, so that it is impossible to classify them according to the logical relations they denote. The following will illustrate the various ways in which a single preposition may be used.

| | |
|-----------------------------------|------------|
| The Dominion of Canada..... | apposition |
| He died of a broken heart | cause |
| A purse of gold..... | contents |
| A bar of iron | material |
| A man of noble blood. | origin |
| The palace of the king | possession |
| The men of Rome..... | place |
| A man of courage | quality |
| Within two miles of the place.... | separation |
| To call of an evening..... | time |

On the other hand, to denote the same logical relation after different words, a different preposition frequently must be used. For example, to denote cause after the following verbs, we must say,

- They died *of* starvation.
- They were disgusted *at* his meanness.
- They quarrelled *over* the prize.
- They were noted *for* their honesty.
- They perished *with* the cold.

After the same word also, special prepositions are frequently used with special meanings. For example, we must

- provide *against* the cold ;
- provide *for* our friend's comfort ;
- provide the hungry *with* food.

So also we may

look *after* our business ;
at a strange sight ;
for a mislaid book ;
into a case ;
over our work.

It will be evident from the above facts that, although we have less than one hundred prepositions in our language, their correct usage will be a matter of some difficulty. This knowledge can best be obtained through a study of the uses of our prepositions in good literature, or by means of a standard dictionary.

EXERCISE 89

Fill up the blanks in the following sentences with suitable prepositions.

1. How did you come that purse ?
2. He will be angry us if you stare him so.
3. Did you enquire the teacher that question ?
4. I will communicate him the best means
 accomplishing it.
5. The farmer complained the teacher the noise.
6. I could not prevail them to go on the under-
 taking.
7. Before returning Victoria, he spent two days
 Toronto, stopping the King Edward.
8. Although there is no doubt a slight difference
 them, the one does not differ much general
 appearance the other.

PARSING OF PREPOSITIONS

318. In parsing a preposition, or a preposition phrase it is necessary to state:

1. The object of the preposition ;
2. The grammatical relation indicated by the preposition.

MODEL

We arrived *at* the house later.

at a preposition, having for its object the noun *house*, which it relates adverbially to the verb *arrived*.

EXERCISE 90

Parse the prepositions in Exercise 88 A.

CHAPTER XII

THE CONJUNCTION

CLASSES OF CONJUNCTIONS

319. The conjunction, which, like the preposition, is a connecting word, was seen (section 57) to have two quite different uses, as follows:

1. A conjunction may merely join parts of a sentence without indicating any grammatical relation between these parts, the connected parts being of equal rank in the sentence. The parts thus joined together may be:

(a) Independent clauses in a compound sentence ; as,

I put the helm up, *and* we ran through the passage.

Thou art reading a stern lesson, *but* thy strong will is yet unbent, *and* thy stern nature yet unsoftened.

(b) Words, phrases, or subordinate clauses, standing in the same relation to some other part of the sentence ; as,

The room was small *but* comfortable.

They were summoned by heralds *and* by trumpets.

All that art could devise, *and* that devotion could suggest were lavished on the sufferer.

It is to be particularly noted in the above examples, that no grammatical relation exists between the connected parts, the conjunction denoting only that the parts are considered together.

A conjunction used to connect independent clauses, or words, phrases, and subordinate clauses, having the same value in the sentence, is called a **co-ordinate** conjunction.

2. We learned further (section 57) that a conjunction may introduce a subordinate clause and join it to another part of the sentence upon which the clause depends. Here the conjunction indicates a grammatical relation between the parts it connects, the subordinate clause having the value of a noun, adjective, or adverb, dependent upon the part to which it is related by the conjunction; thus,

I trust *that* parliament will not be dissolved.
 There are few men *but* would have done the same.
 She left the room *as* she spoke.

A conjunction used to indicate the relation of a subordinate clause to another part of the complex sentence is called a **subordinate** conjunction.

WORDS PARTLY CONJUNCTIVE

320. In addition to the words used as pure conjunctions three classes of words have been met which are partly conjunctive in value; as follows:

(1) Conjunctive Pronouns and (2) Conjunctive Adjectives

It was seen (sections 167 and 248) that conjunctive pronouns and conjunctive adjectives are regularly used to introduce and relate either adjective or noun clauses; as,

The letter was in a handwriting *that* he knew right well.
 I cannot help *what* has happened.
 They sent him *what* money they had.

Here, in addition to their pronoun or adjective value, the italicized words have the value of subordinate conjunctions.

(3) Adverbial Conjunctions

It was seen (section 74) that an adverbial conjunction may be used either with the value of a co-ordinate conjunction to connect independent clauses; as,

He was almost upon them; *so* they could only creep back;

or with the value of a subordinate conjunction, to introduce and relate a subordinate noun, adjective or adverbial clause; as,

I will tell you *how* it happened.
 Look to the eastern side, *where* the walls are lowest.
 I could not believe my eyes *when* I read it.

CORRELATIVE CONJUNCTIONS

321. A few conjunctions, when connecting co-ordinate words, phrases, or clauses, may be used in pairs, a conjunction being used before each of the connected parts; thus,

Either my wound has been slight, *or* this balsam hath wrought a wonderful cure.
 Tell me *both* for your interest *and* for my own.

Here the first conjunction has the value of a preparatory word, suggesting that something is to

be added. Such pairs of conjunctions are called **correlative conjunctions**.

The following is a list of the more common correlative conjunctions: alike—and; both—and; either—or; neither—nor; nor—nor; not only—but also; whether—or.

CONJUNCTION PHRASES

322. As in the case of the other parts of speech, a group of words is occasionally used with the value of a single conjunction. Compare, for example,

He sent *that* we might be prepared.

He sent *in order that* we might be prepared.

It was old *and* ugly.

It was old *as well as* ugly.

The ordinary conjunction phrases are: as well as; according as; as soon as; in order that; so that; provided that; as if; notwithstanding that; so long as; not only—but also.

POSITION OF THE CONJUNCTION

323. A conjunction is naturally placed between the parts it connects. But when the clauses in a complex sentence are changed from their natural order, or when a noun clause is used as subject of a verb, the conjunction remains with the clause to which it naturally belongs; and thus frequently stands at the beginning of the sentence; as,

As they approached the house a stranger entered.

When night came on I went into a cave.

Since it frightened you so much, I will take it out of your sight.

That you have wronged me doth appear in this.

EXERCISE 91

Classify the conjunctions, and conjunctive words and phrases in the following sentences, and tell what each connects or relates.

1. Let not thy fooling be lasting as well as untimely.
2. I will bear this folly from my heart, though every fibre bleed as I rend it away.
3. They flew into the smoke of the batteries, but ere they were lost from view, the plain was strewn with their bodies and with the carcasses of horses.
4. Every boy was there, but every boy was afraid to speak; so Squeers glared along the lines to assure himself.
5. When he arrived at the palace everything was prepared for his reception; and when he came to the second gate, he would have alighted from his horse; but the chief, who waited on him by the sultan's order, prevented him, and attended him into the hail.
6. The Prior had not long left the apartment, ere he had devised a scheme for Shafton's freedom, daring indeed, but likely to be successful, if dexterously conducted.
7. All eyes were turned on Halbert while he was thus speaking, and there was a general feeling that his countenance had an expression of intelligence, and his person an air of dignity, which they had never before observed.
8. It is believed by some persons that worm burrows, which often penetrate the ground to a depth of five or six feet, materially aid in its drainage; notwithstanding that the castings piled over the mouths of the burrows prevent or check the rainwater directly entering them.
9. Nor track nor pathway might declare
That human foot frequented there,
Until the mountain-maiden show'd

A clambering unsuspected road,
That wined through the tangled screen,
And opened on a narrow green,
Where weeping birch and willow round
With their long fibres swept the ground.

10. "The lovely Clare
Will be in Lady Angus' care,
In Scotland while we stay ;
And, when we move, an easy ride
Will bring us to the English side,
Female attendance to provide
Befitting Gloster's heir ;
Nor thinks, nor dreams, my noble lord,
By slightest look, or act, or word,
To harass Lady Clare.
Her faithful guardian he will be,
Nor sue for slightest courtesy
That e'en to stranger falls,
Till he shall place her, safe and free,
Within her kinsman's halls."

CLASSES OF CO-ORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS

324. Co-ordinate conjunctions are subdivided into four classes according to the ways in which they connect the co-ordinate parts, as follows :

1. Copulative

These imply that one statement, or word, is joined to another along the same line of thought :
as,

Go forth *and* conquer.

You are fair, I say you are fair *too*.

His powers were *not only* of a higher *but also* of a rarer order.

2. Adversative

These denote a contrast in meaning between the

connected parts, the one being in some way opposed to the other; as,

I do not fear him, *yet* I will avoid him.

He had a difficult task; *nevertheless* he succeeded.

I humbly thank your grace, *but* I must away directly.

3. Alternative

These indicate either that there is a choice between the connected parts, or that both parts are rejected; as,

They fly, *or* fight but to die.

You must study more, *otherwise* you will fail.

It was *not* fay *nor* ghost.

4. Illative

These imply that the one statement is to be taken as an inference from the other; as,

Reward this gentleman, *for* you are indebted to him.

Your life lies in his mercy; *therefore* ask him to pardon you.

NOTE.—Occasionally, in a compound sentence, such combinations as: *and therefore*; *and so*; *and yet*; *but yet*, etc., are used to introduce the added clause; as,

I have married a wife, *and therefore* I cannot come.

Here the conjunction *and* connects the clauses, and *therefore* is to be parsed as an adverb. So also in the case of the other combinations mentioned.

CLASSES OF SUBORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS

325. As most of our subordinate conjunctions have a number of different uses, they cannot be divided into distinct classes on the basis of gram-

matical use or function. They may, however, be classified according to the meanings of the subordinate clauses they introduce; as follows:

1. Cause :

They started early *because* there was no moon.
Grieve not *that* I am fallen into this misfortune.
As they approved of it, he went into the town.
Since you are not willing, we must decline the offer.

2. Condition :

I will stand thy blow, *if* thou wilt stand mine.
We cannot start *unless* he sends word
He will return, *provided* you desire it.

3. Concession :

He hath done no Briton wrong, *though* he hath served
a Roman.
I will not believe it, *notwithstanding* that he said it.

4. Comparison :

She seemed much worse *than* she had been.
I am as innocent *as* you are.

5. Manner :

He then wrapped it up *as* they had done.
They were ready to act *according as* things would happen.

6. Place :

They soon came *where* he was waiting.
He always attended them *wherever* they went.

7. Time :

I must complete it *before* they return.
As he was wandering over a lonely forest, he was set upon
by robbers
As soon as I throw some stones, cut the jar open.
While he was meditating on his travels, Dromio returned.
Wait here *until* I return.

8. Purpose :

He died *that* we might live.
 Beware of the future, *lest* a worse thing befall thee.
 They placed themselves about *so that* he might see.

9. Result :

His back was so bruised *that* he could not turn himself.
 He wined the call *tiil* all the greenwood rang.

10. Substantive : (These are so called because they introduce noun clauses.)

He said *that* she spoke an untruth.
 Do you know *whether* they have any?
 They inquired *if* the road was open.
 He had learned *how* that lady had favoured the duke's messenger.

SPECIAL CONJUNCTIONS

326. On account of their varied uses, a number of our conjunctions will now be considered separately.

as well as

This phrase may be used :

(1) As a co-ordinate conjunction to connect parts of equal rank ; *as*,

I shall be there *as well as* he.

(2) To denote comparison ; *as*,

He has done it *as well as* I expected.

Here *as well* belongs to the principal clause, and *as I expected* is an adverbial clause of comparison, the first *as* being an adverb and the second a subordinate conjunction.

because, for

Because introduces a clause and joins it closely to some part of another clause, to express a cause for what is asserted in the other clause ; as,

I cannot make the choice, *because* I have not the means.

Because has, therefore, the value of a subordinate conjunction relating a subordinate adverbial clause.

For, on the other hand, joins one statement to another as a mere afterthought ; as,

I must go, *for* servants must obey their masters.

Although, therefore, the added statement may give a cause for what is stated in the first clause, the connection between the clauses is so loose, that the added clause must be viewed as independent, and *for* classified as a *co-ordinate* conjunction connecting two independent statements. It may be noted further that the connection indicated by *for* is so loose that the added statement is sometimes written as a separate sentence ; thus,

The state of spiritual folly is, I suppose, one of the most universal evils in the world. *For* the number of those who are naturally foolish is exceedingly great.

Occasionally a clause introduced by *for* states not a cause, but a mere ground for the previous statement ; as,

He is guilty ; *for* I saw him do it.

as

This word is used conjunctively as follows :

(1) As a subordinate conjunction to denote :

(a) Time :

I met him *as* I was coming.

(b) Cause :

As the drive was a long one, they decided to wait until morning.

(c) Comparison :

He is not so foolish *as* you imagine.

(d) Manner :

Of Prince John thou thinkest *as* I do.

(2) As a conjunctive pronoun equivalent (section 172):

I will show him such reasons *as* shall induce him to join us.
The old constitution, *as* we have attempted to show, could not be maintained.

but

This conjunction may be used :

(1) As a co-ordinate adversative conjunction :

He returned home, *but* the servants would not open the door.

(2) As a subordinate conditional conjunction :

It never rains *but* (if not) it pours.

(3) As a conjunctive pronoun equivalent (section 172):

There is no one *but* believes it.

whether—or

These correlatives may be used to connect :

(1) Alternative interrogative clauses in a compound sentence, as,

Whether shall I send it *or* bring it with me?

(2) Alternative noun clauses in a complex sentence ; as,

Do you know *whether* he will send it *or* bring it with him?

(3) Alternative adverbial clauses of condition in a complex sentence ; as,

It will answer our purpose *whether* he sends it *or* brings it with him.

or

This conjunction has three quite different uses, as follows:

(1) As an alternative conjunction to indicate that one of the connected pair is to be excluded ; as,

They must work *or* starve.

(2) To imply that both parts are included, having almost the copulative value of *and* ; thus,

We do not fear frowns *or* threats.

(3) With the force of *that is*, to denote that the two parts have a synonymous or similar meaning ; thus,

The chief *or* leader was a tall man.

EXERCISE 92

Classify fully the conjunctive words and phrases in the following sentences.

1. His total force was 7,520, besides Indians ; of these, however, not more than one-half were regulars.

2. I commanded her not to follow us to the field, and yet methought I saw her amongst the rear of the combatants.
3. Well may the world cherish his renown ; for it has been purchased not by deeds of violence and blood, but by the diligent dispensation of pleasure.
4. He was speaking almost at the instant that the shaft left the bowstring ; yet it alighted in the target two inches closer to the centre than that of Hubert.
5. It is remarkable that the practice of separating the two ingredients of which history is composed has become prevalent on the Continent as well as in this country.
6. Whether there ever existed, or can ever exist, a person answering to the description which he gave of himself, may be doubted ; but that he was not such a person is beyond all doubt.
7. When thou prayest, thou shalt not be as the heathens are ; for they love to pray standing in the synagogues and in the corners of the streets, that they may be seen of men.
8. Though placed so high, Macbeth and his queen could not forget the prophecy of the weird sisters, that though Macbeth should be kind, yet not his children but the children of Banquo should be kings after him.
9. Leaving this able substitute in the kitchen, and regretting that Mary Avenel was so brought up, that she could entrust nothing to her care, unless it might be seeing the great chamber strewed with rushes, and ornamented with such flowers and branches as the season afforded, Dame Elspeth presented herself at the door of her little tower, to make her obeisance to the Lord Abbot as he crossed her humble threshold.
10. It seems very strange at first that they should have been so huge when their descendants are now so small, but if you look at our chief plants and trees now, you will find that nearly all of them bear

flowers, and this is a great advantage to them, because it tempts the insects to bring them the pollen dust, which is necessary to make their flowers produce seeds.

11. We could never have loved the earth so well if we had had no childhood in it—if it were not the earth where the same flowers come up again every spring that we used to gather with our tiny fingers as we sat lispng to ourselves on the grass;—the same hips and haws on the autumn hedgerows—the same red-breasts that we used to call “God’s birds,” because they did no harm to the precions crops.

12. “This shall never be,
That thou shouldst take my trouble on thyself;
And, now I think, he shall not have the boy,
For he will teach him hardness, and to slight
His mother; therefore thou and I will go,
And I will have my boy, and bring him home;
And I will beg of him to take thee back;
But if he will not take thee back again,
Then thou and I will live within one house,
And work for William’s child, until he grows
Of age to help us.”

ADVERBS, PREPOSITIONS, AND CONJUNCTIONS

327. A number of our conjunctions may also be used as adverbs or as prepositions. Compare, for example,

| | |
|--|-------------|
| He has <i>but</i> (only) five cents | Adverb |
| I saw no one <i>but</i> (except) him | Preposition |
| He is poor <i>but</i> honest | Conjunction |
| I have seen him <i>before</i> | Adverb |
| They stood <i>before</i> the house | Preposition |
| He had gone <i>before</i> we arrived | Conjunction |

NOTE.—*After, before, but, ere, since, till, and until*, which are primarily adverbs, first took on a prepositional value and as such were frequently followed by noun clauses; thus,

I will tell you *ere* that we go further.
They could not turn *before* that he was upon him.

Later, through the omission of the conjunction *that*, the preposition took on the value of a subordinate conjunction introducing an adverbial clause ; thus,

I will tell you *ere* we go further.
They could not turn *before* he was upon them.

PECULIAR USES OF CONJUNCTIONS

328. As ordinarily used, the conjunction has been found to connect words, phrases, or clauses within a sentence. A few conjunctions, however, admit of uses other than the above.

1. Connecting sentences

Co-ordinate conjunctions, such as *also*, *and*, *but*, *for*, *neither*, *nor*, are frequently used to connect, not clauses, but one sentence to another ; as,

The return of the robin is commonly announced by the newspapers as the first authentic notification of the return of spring. *And* such his appearance in the orchard and garden undoubtedly is. *But*, in spite of his name of migratory thrush, he stays with us all winter.

This is sometimes described as the **initial** use of a conjunction.

Occasionally an initial *and* is used without any reference to a preceding sentence, the conjunction having merely an introductory force ; as,

And art thou cold and lowly laid ?
And so you are the guilty one, are you ?

NOTE.—The adverbs *now* and *well* are frequently used at the beginning of a sentence with the value of an initial conjunction; thus,

He ordered his horse, affirming that they should reach Baptista's house by dinner time, for it was only seven o'clock. *Now* it was not early morning, but the very middle of the day when he spoke this.

They are all gone forth. *Well*, I will walk myself to Count Paris, to prepare him up against to-morrow.

2. Without conjunctive force

Owing to the omission of one of the connected parts, a conjunction sometimes seems to lose its conjunctive force, although it still suggests something to be added; thus,

Will ye *also* go away?

If you decide to go, I shall be there *as well*.

"Have you not heard that the devil has carried away bodily the great Saxon Throne?" "Ay, but he has brought him back *though*."

When used as above, these words may be considered adverbial in value, modifying the statement to which they are joined.

EXERCISE 93

State, with reasons, the exact use of each italicized word in the following sentences.

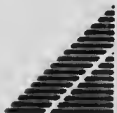
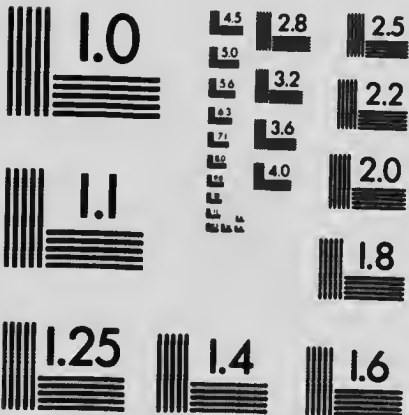
1. Her vestal livery is *but* sick and green, and none *but* fools do wear it.
2. A beggar's staff must be my portion, *supposing* I were to pay you fifty pounds.
3. *As* I do not pray to be admitted into your mystery, be not offended *that* I preserve my own.
4. They cried out *therefore* again, saying not this man, *but* Barabbas. *Now* Barabbas was a robber.

5. He said it had much unsettled him, *and therefore* she must not wonder at the course he should pursue.
6. Turning to Katharine, he said, "Well come, my Kate, we will go to your father's."
7. *But* ever the queens and the ladies wept and shrieked *that* it was a pity to hear.
8. I should have been more strange, I must confess, *but that* thou heard'st, *ere* I was 'ware, my true love's passion; *therefore* pardon me.
9. You may be leader, *but* I will be no follower—no bones of mine shall be broken *unless* I know for *whom*. *And* you without armour *too*.
10. I cannot bring myself to be reconciled to you *till* I have punished you as you deserve *for* not washing your hands *after* having eaten of the ragout.
11. I instantly formed the purpose of assisting at some good work, such *as* the burning of a witch, a judicial combat, *or* the like goodly service; *and therefore* am I here.
12. See to *what* mean shifts and disguises poor loyalty is forced to submit sometime; *yet* it counts nothing base or unworthy, if it can *but* do service *where* it owes an obligation.
13. He did not dare to reply; *for* he saw his master was in no humour to be jested *with*. *Therefore* he went away, grumbling within himself, *that* he must return to the house.
14. Petruchio desired her father not to regard her angry words, *for* they had agreed she should seem reluctant *before* him, *but that when* they were alone he had found her very fond.
15. Lear could not *but* perceive this alteration in the behaviour of his daughter, *but* he shut his eyes against it *as long as* he could, *as* people commonly are unwilling to believe the unpleasant consequences *which* their own mistakes have brought upon them.



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PARSING OF CONJUNCTIONS

329. In parsing a conjunction we must:

1. Classify the conjunction ;
2. State its exact use as a joining word.

MODEL

“Go, herald, *and* ask her *whether* she expects any one to do battle for her.”

and a conjunction, co-ordinate, connecting the verbs *go* and *ask*.

whether . . . a conjunction, subordinate, relating the noun clause “whether she expects any one to do battle for her” objectively to the verb *ask*.

NOTE.—In parsing conjunctions it is customary to classify them merely as co-ordinate or subordinate. If preferred, however, they may be further classified as copulative, alternative, etc.

CAUTION.—In parsing a subordinate conjunction, be careful to indicate the exact part of the principal clause to which the conjunction relates the subordinate clause. See parsing of *whether* above.

EXERCISE 94

Parse the conjunctions and conjunctive words and phrases in Exercise 92.

CHAPTER XIII

THE INTERJECTION

330. It has been seen (section 30) that an interjection is used as an independent element to indicate the speaker's feeling in regard to the thought expressed in the accompanying sentence. Although, therefore, the interjection is connected in a general way with the sentence with which it is expressed, and depends for its significance upon that connection, it does not enter into grammatical relation with any part of the sentence; and is not, in the same sense as the other classes of words we have considered, a part of speech.

INTERJECTION AS A GOVERNING WORD

331. Though not depending in a grammatical way upon any part of the sentence to which it may be added, the interjection is nevertheless able to act as a governing word, and frequently has words, phrases, and even clauses grammatically dependent upon it. In such cases the interjection governs the added part in a manner resembling the verb. Examples are,

Ah me! Object
O for one moment's strength! Adverb
Alas, that it is to be so! Adverb
O that he were here! Object

NOTE.—It was seen (section 202) that a noun clause used as object of an interjection to express a wish, as in the last example above, always has its verb in the subjunctive mood.

The interjection *O* is also frequently joined to a noun or pronoun used as a nominative of address (section 120); as,

O thou breeze of spring!

O Nature! all thy seasons please the eye.

CLASSES OF INTERJECTIONS

332. Interjections are classified according to their origin; as follows:

1. Simple interjections

A few words in our language are used only as interjections; as, ah!, alas!, alack!, ha!, heigh-ho!, ho!, halloo!, hurrah!, huzza!, hist!, pooh!, pshaw!, tut!

These are known as **simple** or **primary** interjections.

2. Secondary interjections

Many words and phrases having ordinarily the value of some part of speech, are occasionally used with an interjectional value; as,

Noun. *Heavens!* what noise was that?

Pronoun. . . *What!* sound for aid.

Verb. *Go to!* it shall be thus.

Adjective. . . *Most happy!* that eyeless head of thine was
first framed flesh to raise my fortunes.

Adverb. . . . *How now!* who is there?

When thus used, these words are called **secondary** interjections.

ACCORDING TO MEANING

333. Interjections may be further classified on the basis of meaning, as follows :

1. Joy....ha ha!, hurrah!, huzza!
2. Sorrow....oh!, ah!, alas!, alack!, well-a-day!
3. Approval....bravo!, hear!hear!
4. Disapproval....fie!, fudge!, oh!, pooh!, pshaw!, tut-tut!
5. Calling....ho!, halloo!, lo!
6. Quieting....hist!, hush!

This classification is not, however, grammatically important, as the real force of an interjection depends largely upon the tone of voice with which it is uttered.

INTERJECTION PHRASES

334. When two or more related words are used together with the value of a secondary interjection, or when a simple interjection is followed by a dependent part, these groups of words are called interjection phrases; thus,

Merciful heavens! they are storming the gates.
Alack the day, she is dead!

USE OF THE EXCLAMATION MARK

335. When an interjection or an interjection phrase is added to a sentence, an exclamation point is generally used. This mark may occur :

1. Immediately after the interjection ; as,

Alack ! my child is dead.
 Farewell ! God knows when we shall meet again.
 Such, alas ! is human life.

2. At the end of the sentence ; as,

O, I have taken too little care of this !
 Alack, 'tis he !
 Alas, I am the mother of these griefs !

Occasionally, however, no exclamation mark is used, the interjection being set off by a comma, and the sentence punctuated in the ordinary way ; thus,

Alas, why should you heap this care on me ?
 Oh, who hath done this deed ?

THE INTERJECTION AND THE EXCLAMATORY SENTENCE

336. It has been seen (section 37) that the speaker's feeling is sometimes indicated, not by means of an interjection, but by having the whole sentence expressed in an exclamatory form ; thus,

How beautiful is night !
 What a piece of work is man !

Occasionally, however, an interjection is added even when the exclamatory form of sentence is used ; as,

Fie, how my bones ache !

When an interjection is thus joined to an exclamatory sentence, an exclamation mark is sometimes placed after each ; thus,

Fie ! what an indirect and peevish course is this of hers !

EXERCISE 95

Point out the interjections and the exclamatory sentences in the following exercise, and account for the use of all the marks of exclamation.

1. What an eye she has !
2. Ha ! no more moving ?
3. Suffer ! Good heaven !--why, where is he ?
4. How poor are they that have not patience !
5. O fie ! I did not expect such an unsentimental conclusion.
6. Alas, what ignorant sin have I committed ?
7. Alack, alack, Edmund, I like not this unnatural dealing.
8. Mother, how still the baby lies !
9. How ! what ! darest thou trifle with us, that thou tellest such improbable lies ?
10. O, the more angel she, and you the blacker devil !
11. The unprinciple' marauders ! were I ever to become monarch of England, I would hang such transgressors over the drawbridges of their own castles.
12. Alack, alack, what blood is this, which stains the stony entrance of this sepulchre ?
13. Poor fellow ! But it will be a thousand men's fate before night ; so come along.
14. Ah ! my heart is weary waiting,
Waiting for the May.
15. The flowers are blooming everywhere,
On every hill and dell,
And, oh, how beautiful they are,
How sweetly too they smell !
16. O blithe new-comer ! I have heard,
I hear thee, and rejoice.
O cuckoo ! shall I call thee bird,
Or but a wandering voice ?

17. Oh ! many a stormy night shall chase
In gloom upon the barren earth.
18. Here comes my lady. O, so light a foot
Will ne'er wear out the everlasting flint !
19. Oh, sweet Adare ! oh, lovely vale !
Oh, soft retreat of sylvan splendour !
Nor summer sun nor morning gale
E'er hail'd a scene more softly tender.
20. How beautiful on yonder casement panes
The mild moon gazes,—mark !
With what a lovely and majestic step
She treads the heavenly hills !
And, oh ! how soft, how silently she pours
Her chastened radiance on the scenes between ;
And hill, and dale, and tower
Drink the pure flood of light !
Roll on—roll thus, queen of the midnight hour,
For ever beautiful !

CHAPTER XIV

ABBREVIATIONS AND PECULIAR CONSTRUCTIONS

ABBREVIATIONS

337. In our previous study of sentences and clauses, we have, for the most part, been dealing with complete statements, that is, with those composed of a complete subject and a complete predicate. It frequently happens, however, that a speaker or writer abbreviates or shortens his sentences by leaving out any parts that may be readily understood. The tendency to abbreviate sentences has arisen from a desire:

1. To avoid an awkward repetition ; as,

Here are hacks with two horses, and (here are) stage-coaches with four (horses).

He sold him all the plates and (he sold him) the basin.

2. For brevity ; as,

I do not know where (I am) to begin.

3. For emotional effect ; as,

How foolish (it was) !

What a simpleton (he is) !

What a dreadful sight (this is) !

The following cases of abbreviation may be especially noted.

IN INDEPENDENT STATEMENTS

1. Abbreviated questions

338. Interrogative sentences are occasionally abbreviated, only the interrogative word of a principal interrogative clause being in some cases expressed; as,

What (would happen) if they returned?
 How (will it be) if I refuse to shoot on such a wager?
 Why (do we) stand here?

2. Abbreviated commands

339. The verb is frequently omitted in the emphatic expression of a command; thus,

(Go) To your work!
 (Stand) Up at once!
 (Go) Out of here!
 (Hand me) Another glass, please!

3. Abbreviated statements

340. The subjects and predicates of independent assertions are frequently omitted; as,

(It is) More than likely (that) he will be late.
 (The chances are) A hundred to one (that) they know it.
 (I wish you) Good evening, Sir!
 (They were) So far from giving it (that) they would not even lend it.

IN SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

341. The subjects and predicates of subordinate clauses are often abbreviated, especially in the case of subordinate adverbial clauses of comparison, condition, and concession.

1. In *as* clauses

He spoke *as* (he would speak) if he were angry.
 Is it as clear *as* (it was clear) when you lived here?
 She is as bright *as* (she) ever (was bright).

NOTE.—In such a construction *as*,

Rich *as* he is, he cannot stand that waste;

there seems to be an ellipsis of a concessive clause; thus,

(Though he is) Rich *as* he is, he cannot stand that waste.

But by some grammarians, *rich* is parsed as an appositive adjective modifying *he* in the principal clause.

2. In *than* clauses

He is better *than* (he was well) when you left.
 It is colder *than* (it is) usual (to be cold).
 It is stronger *than* (it) ever (was strong).
 He would sooner work *than* (he would soon) play.
 This is better *than* what you have (is good).

3. In *if* and *though* clauses

If (it is) possible, we shall call later.
 Although (it was) invisible in the darkness, the waterfall could be heard in the distance.
 Though (they are) not so plentiful, they are larger than they were last year.

4. In objective clauses

I did not know where (I was) to put it.
 Does he know how (he is) to enter?
 They have been told when (they are) to return.

PARSING OF WORDS IN ABBREVIATED CLAUSES

342 It will be evident, from the examples
 already considered, that the ellipsis of a part of a

clause may leave a word or words without any apparent relation in the sentence. In parsing such a word in an abbreviated clause, therefore, it will be necessary, in giving the relationship of the word, to supply the ellipsis.

For example in,

The smaller the amount the more he worried,
we must supply the verb *was* in order to explain the case relation of the noun *amount*.

EXERCISE 96

Give the exact value and relationship of each italicized part in the following sentences, supplying, when necessary, any omitted parts.

1. How *sweet* at summer's noon *to sit* and muse.
2. *Salutation* and greeting *to you* all.
3. If you be true lover, *hence* and *not a word*.
4. *Strange*, but nature is never so powerful as *in insect life*.
5. His tone was more than *kind* and his *manner gentle*.
6. *Strange* as he is, he seemed quite familiar to me.
7. How *terrible!* It cannot be true.
8. He listened to them *as if with an admiration* which he vainly endeavoured to repress.
9. My views may be as right as *anybody else's*; *probably more correct*, not so *conventional*.
10. They do make some headway, though *slowly*, toward the marshy bay.
11. *Nonsense*, great wealth is a great blessing to a man who knows what *to do* with it; and as *for honours*, they are inestimable to the honourable.

PECULIAR CLAUSAL CONSTRUCTIONS

I. IN PRINCIPAL CLAUSES

PARENTHETICAL CLAUSES

343. An independent assertive clause is sometimes inserted loosely into a sentence, modifying the statement to which it is joined with the value of a sentence adverb; thus,

They will, *I imagine* (—likely), find this very difficult.

He has, *you may be sure* (—unquestionably), good reasons for taking this course.

In such a construction the inserted clause is classified as an independent clause used *parenthetically*.

CAUTION.—In analysing sentences such as the above, the rest of the sentence is not to be taken as subordinate to the parenthetical clause. In the first sentence, for example, *They will find this very difficult*, is not the object of *imagine*, but an independent statement, to which the parenthetical clause, *I imagine*, is loosely connected as an adverbial modifier.

CONDITIONAL INTERROGATIVES AND IMPERATIVES

344. An independent interrogative or imperative clause is occasionally joined to an assertive clause almost with the value of a subordinate adverbial clause of condition; thus,

Interrogative { *Have you heard from them?* Then you know about it.
 { *Was he here?* Then I need not tell you.

Imperative . . { *Confess your guilt*, or it will be the worse for you.
 { *Fling but a stone*, the giant dies.

NOTE.—The imperatives *admit*, *grant*, *say*, and *suppose*, when followed by a noun clause with the conjunction *that* omitted, frequently have their imperative value so weakened that they may be valued as conditional conjunctions, equivalent to *if*, and the clauses classified as ordinary adverbial clauses of condition ; as,

Suppose (that) he had met you, what would you have done ?

II. IN SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

APPOSITIVE NOUN CLAUSE AS SECONDARY OBJECT

345. A noun used as object of a verb, is sometimes followed by an appositive noun clause whose subject denotes the same person or thing as the preceding object. This appositive clause has the value of a second object, being added in order to define more exactly the objective notion ; thus,

*Consider the lilies of the field, how they grow.
Do you see those boys, what they are doing ?*

Here the added clauses state definitely what is to be considered, etc.; which, it is felt, the first object has left too indefinite.

CONCESSIVE USE OF NOUN CLAUSES

346. A noun clause introduced by an indefinite conjunctive is sometimes used with the value of an adverbial clause of concession ; thus,

*I will not trust him, whatever you may say.
Do not give it up, whoever calls for it.*

Although such clauses are adverbial in function, they are to be considered noun clauses in form, since they are introduced by indefinite conjunctive

pronouns, and may, like ordinary noun clauses beginning with an indefinite conjunctive, be changed to adjective clauses, by expressing the antecedent; thus,

I will not trust him for anything *which you may say*.

NOUN CLAUSE AS MODIFIER

347. A noun clause introduced by *that* or *whether* is frequently used in a sentence with the value of an adjective or an adverb, in a manner resembling a prepositional phrase. Compare, for example,

I had hopes { *of seeing him ;*
 { *that I should see him ;*

You must be your own judge { *of the truth of this ;*
 { *whether this is true :*

They insisted { *on my remaining ;*
 { *that I should remain ;*

There is some probability { *of this happening ;*
 { *that this will happen ;*

where the italicized noun clauses modify *hopes*, *judge*, *insisted*, and *probability* respectively.

In such constructions as the above, noun clauses other than those introduced by *that* or *whether*, are usually related by a preposition, the clause and the preposition together forming an adjective or an adverb phrase; thus,

He always insists *on what is right*.

ADJECTIVE CLAUSES MODIFYING ADVERBS

348. The definite conjunctive *that* introducing an adjective clause, sometimes has an adverb as its antecedent; thus,

He *never* comes that he does not ask for you.
I will go, *now* that you have returned.

Here the adverb may be considered to have noun force, being equivalent to *at no time*, etc.

ADJECTIVE CLAUSE MODIFYING AN IMPLIED ANTECEDENT

349. The definite conjunctive *that* introducing an adjective clause, occasionally has its antecedent implied; thus,

He did not do it, *that* I know of ;
She was not careless *that* I could see ;

the meaning being,

He did not do it (no doing), *that* I know of.
She was not careless (no being careless), *that* I could see.

COMPARATIVE CLAUSES INTRODUCED BY "THE"

350. In such constructions as,

The longer they play, the more noisy they are ;
The more they have, the more they want ;

although the first clause does not show by its form that it is subordinate, it is really an adverbial clause of comparison, the word *the* in each clause being an adverb of degree (section 288).

The subordinate nature of the first clause may be seen by expressing the conjunctive value of the first *the* ; thus,

By *what* they play longer, by *that* they are more noisy.

EXERCISE 97

Explain any peculiarities of construction in the italicized clauses of the following exercise.

1. *Stand here* and you will see them.
2. *Are you all satisfied?* Then wipe your mouths, my good friends.
3. *The better you think of me,* the better men and women you will be.
4. All this, *he felt,* would be likely to upset his present plans.
5. I am sure *you have no reason.*
6. This, *it would appear,* she did not immediately sanction.
7. They have not been here *that I can learn.*
8. There is great need *that they should have it before noon.*
9. It is a sin, *I know,* but I should hate to have him come to life a second time.
10. We have hopes *that he will return soon.*
11. I have been assured *that everything will be ready on time.*
12. And now his chair desires him here in vain
However they may crown him elsewhere.

PECULIAR INFINITIVE CONSTRUCTIONS

INFINITIVE AS A SENTENCE ADVERB

351. An infinitive, usually with adjuncts, may be joined loosely to a statement, with the value of a sentence adverb; thus,

To be candid, I did see them.

It would be better *to be sure,* not to call him.

Truth to tell, she is apt to turn away from the printed page.

INFINITIVE IN EXCLAMATION

352. An infinitive followed by adjuncts is sometimes used as an exclamatory phrase, the whole having almost the value of an exclamatory sentence; thus,

To attempt such a thing here !

To think that he would refuse them !

NOTE.—Such an exclamatory infinitive may have a subject in the nominative case ; as,

She refuse *to come* ! she must come.

He *to pretend* that he did not know !

INFINITIVE IN AN ABSOLUTE CONSTRUCTION

353. A noun followed by a gerundial infinitive is occasionally used in a sentence without any grammatical relation, in a manner resembling the nominative absolute (section 120); as,

They are holding a bazaar, the proceeds *to be devoted* to the church debt.

He has agreed to take it, the price *to be fixed* by arbitration.

Although such an absolute phrase resembles the nominative absolute construction, it may be noticed that whereas the regular nominative absolute construction denotes an accompanying circumstance of the main action, in the present construction the infinitive has a future reference. Compare, for example,

They hold monthly concerts, the money being devoted to charity.

They hold monthly concerts, the money *to be devoted* to charity.

THE ABSOLUTE PARTICIPLE

354. Through the omission of a noun or a pronoun in the nominative absolute, a participle is sometimes used in a sentence without being joined to any word as an adjective modifier; thus,

(We) *Granting* this to have happened, what difference will it make?

(A person) *Considering* their age, they are quite tall.

This kind is, (one) *speaking* generally, much stronger.

Although such a participle may be given an adjective relation by supplying the omitted nominative absolute, it is more usual to describe the participle as used in an *impersonal absolute* construction.

PECULIAR CASE CONSTRUCTIONS

THE ETHICAL DATIVE

355. A pronoun in the objective form is sometimes used in a sentence to denote the person interested in what is being stated; as,

A terrible dragon of a woman claps *you* an iron cap on her head.

Send *me* an arrow through your monk's frock.

Knock *me* at this gate, and rap *me* well.

NOTE.—In many languages, including Early English, there is a fourth case form known as the dative, or indirect objective case, this form always being used to indicate the indirect object. As this case form was also used in such constructions as the above, to denote the person interested in the statement, it was then called the *ethical dative* (Creek *ethos*—interest).

The dative case form of nouns and pronouns has,

of course, disappeared in English, the direct objective, or accusative form now being used as either a direct or an indirect object. It may be interesting to note, however, that such pronoun forms as *him*, *them*, and *whom* are really dative forms which supplanted the direct objectives, *hine*, *thone*, and *hwone*, these latter forms having disappeared from the language.

THE ANACOLUTHIC SUBJECT

356. Occasionally a writer or speaker begins a statement about some person or thing, but after expressing his subject, has his thought turned in another direction introducing a new subject and predicate, and thus leaving his first subject without any expressed predicate; as,

The *gentleman* sitting beside you, his coat is dragging on the wheel.

Here the speaker evidently began to make a statement about the gentleman, but, his attention being more strongly attracted to the coat, this is introduced as a new subject and the first subject left without any predicate. Because such a subject is left without relation, it is called an *anacoluthic* subject. (Greek *anakolouthos* = wanting sequence.)

Other examples of the anacoluthic subject are:

He whom royal eyes disown,
When was his form to courtiers known?
Pansies, lilies, kingcups, daisies,
Let them live upon their praises.

CAUTION.—Care must be taken to distinguish between the anacoluthic subject and a repeated subject (section 32); such as,

My banks, *they* are covered with bees.

THE APPOSITIVE CONNECTIVE “AS”

357. The conjunction *as* is occasionally used to join a noun to a preceding noun or pronoun to which it stands related as an appositive; thus,

They piled up the *wagons as* a barricade.

He did *this as* a precaution.

He lived in that city *as* a boy.

This use of *as* no doubt developed from the tendency to abbreviate after *as* (section 341); and by some the above constructions are treated as abbreviations. But since the two connected words denote the same object, and the second word is added as a further description, it would be impossible here to fill in an ellipsis that would convey the proper meaning. It is, therefore, more logical to consider *as* an appositive connective, joining an appositive to the word it modifies.

EXERCISE 98

Explain the construction of each italicized part in the following sentences.

1. What he lacked *as a writer* was clearness.
2. Oh, but *to breathe* the breath of the cowslip and primrose sweet!
3. He would not have read it, *to be sure*, but *what* of that?

4. *To speak* within bounds, I am the chief man of the municipality.
5. Dominicus thought of raising a hue and cry after him *as an accomplice* in the murder.
6. And *they* my knights, who loved me once, the stroke that strikes them dead is *as my death* to me.
7. Oh, *to be* in England now that April's there.
8. *Considering* that she lived alone, it was really marvellous.
9. Their *king*, their lords, their mightiest low,
They melted from the field *as snow*.
10. See how this river come *me* cranking in !
And cuts *me* from the best of all my land
A full half-moon.
11. *He* that steps my halbert o'er
To do the maid injurious part !
My shaft shall quiver in his heart.

APPENDIXES

GROWTH OF THE LANGUAGE

At the beginning of the nineteenth century the English language was used less extensively than the French, the German, the Spanish, and probably also the Italian. It was spoken then by twenty millions of people ; at the close of the century it was the ordinary means of communication among one hundred and thirty millions, while German was used by sixty-five, Spanish by fifty-five, French by forty-five, and Italian by thirty-five millions. It is now spoken on the continent of Europe to such an extent that it bids fair to become the most effective means of communication on which travellers of all nationalities can depend for making their wants known.

It is interesting and important to ascertain where this most progressive of all historical languages originated, how it adapted itself to the growth of civilization, and what changes it underwent during this long process of evolution. It is impossible to do more in this place than furnish a mere outline ; the student who wishes to procure more detailed information can easily do so by consulting one of the many available treatises on the subject.

PERIODS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

The evolution of the English language runs concurrently with the development of English literature, and both have kept pace very closely with the progress of English history.

When the British Islands were visited by Julius Caesar, 55 B.C., they were occupied chiefly by people of the Keltic race, speaking various Keltic languages. Their descendants are to be found to this day in Wales, the Scottish Highlands, and parts of the south and west of Ireland. The Romans knew little of the latter country, but they brought a very large proportion of England and Scotland under subjection before they abandoned the island in the middle of the fifth century of the Christian era.

On the departure of the Romans, Britain became a prey to a number of Germanic tribes, the chief of these being the Jutes, Angles, and Saxons. Of these the Jutes occupied Kent and the Isle of Wight; the Saxons, the part of England south of the Thames except the Saxon Heptarchy, which was still held by the Britons; and the Angles, the rest of England and part of the Lowlands of Scotland. The latter tribe being the strongest, the whole country was later called Angland or Angel-land; and the language English, whence come the modern terms England and English. The history of the language extends, therefore, from the date of the first settlement of these tribes in England to the present. In treating of the history of the language, it is customary to distinguish three main periods, as follows:—

| | |
|------------------------|-----------|
| Old English | 449-1200 |
| Middle English | 1200-1500 |
| Modern English | 1500- |

OLD ENGLISH

Although the various tribes mentioned above spoke the same language, there were differences of dialect among them, and by the eighth century four distinct dialects had developed—West Saxon and Kentish (south of the Thames), Northumbrian (north of the Humber), and Mercian (between the Humber and the Thames).

Old English or Anglo-Saxon was a highly inflected language, and had a pure or unmixed Teutonic vocabulary. Gradually, however, the vocabulary took on a composite character, words being introduced from other sources. These new words included a few Latin words, either brought from the Continent or learned from the Romanized inhabitants of Britain; Keltic words learned from the native Britons; and Scandinavian words, which were introduced as a result of the invasions of the Northmen and Danes during the ninth, tenth, and eleventh centuries.

When in the year 1066 England was conquered by the Normans, as the two peoples lived very much apart, the English continued to use their mother tongue, and very few Norman-French words were introduced, the main effect at first being a shrinkage of the vocabulary as a result of the inferior social condition of the native people. During the Middle English period, however, as we shall see later, the language was greatly affected as a result of the commingling of the two peoples.

The only means we have of knowing the kind of language spoken by the Teutonic races in England, between their advent there and their subjugation by the Norman-French, are the fragments of Anglo-Saxon literature produced at various times and places within that long interval. The more important of these are "The Gleeman's Song," supposed to have been written in the fifth century; fragments of a metrical paraphrase of Bible History by Caedmon, a Northumbrian monk of the latter part of the seventh century; the poem, "Beowulf," produced probably in the eighth century; some translations from Latin by Alfred the Great near the close of the ninth century; and a Saxon Chronicle, partly compiled from earlier annals and partly original, written in successive portions from the beginning of the ninth to the middle of the twelfth century. The most noted works

exhibiting the language in its later stages are the "Brut," a metrical chronicle of Britain by a priest named Layamon, and the "Ormulum," a series of metrical homilies by an ecclesiastic named Ormin. Of these two contemporaries Layamon used both alliteration and rime; Ormin used neither. They wrote late in the twelfth century.

MIDDLE ENGLISH

During this period many changes took place in the language, chiefly as a result of the blending of the two races—English and Norman. Although the framework of the language remained English, large numbers of Norman-French words were added to the vocabulary, thus changing it from an almost pure to a mixed or composite one. Many of the old inflections were also lost, their places being supplied by the use of relation words,—prepositions, auxiliary verbs, etc. The grammar thus lost its synthetic character and became analytic, that is, it denoted grammatical variations by the use of separate words rather than by flectional endings.

During this period, the same dialects are to be found as were met in Old English, but they are classified as Southern (West Saxon and Kentish), Midland (Mercian), and Northern (Northumbrian).

SUPREMACY OF THE MIDLAND DIALECT

The Midland dialect during this period gained a supremacy over the other two. This was owing largely to its position in the centre of England and to the fact that it was the language of London, which was now the capital of the country and also its chief commercial centre. The Midland dialect was also a compromise between the other two dialects and was, therefore, especially fitted to serve as a general medium of communication. Moreover, the two great schools of Oxford and Cambridge were situated in the Midland dis-

trict, which tended no doubt to the final supremacy of this dialect. Modern English is, therefore, the lineal descendant of the Mercian or Midland dialect.

About the middle of this period of three centuries two probably contemporary writers produced works which are still famous. The less known of the two, William Langland, wrote his "Vision of Piers Plowman" in the language of the common people whose condition it describes and whose feelings it expresses. It is not strictly rhythmical like modern English verse, and it is not rimed; instead of both rime and rhythm the poet made free use of the old Saxon device of alliteration. Langland was a priest by calling, and his occupation brought him into close contact with the misery which subsequently caused the uprising led by Wat Tyler and John Ball. Geoffrey Chaucer was a courtier, diplomatist, and scholar, who had ample opportunity to become acquainted with Italian literature, then rising to a condition of the highest excellence. He used both rhythm and rime with a skill that has seldom been surpassed by modern poets, and thus established the prosodical character of English verse. His chief work was the "Canterbury Tales."

MODERN ENGLISH

This period may be regarded as subdivided into three sub-periods. The first of these is known as Early Modern, Elizabethan, or Tudor English. During this period occurred that revival of learning which is known as the Renaissance—a revival of the study of classical Greek and Latin. This led to the addition to the vocabulary of a large number of Latin and Greek words. As a result of the imitation of Greek and Roman writers, the syntax or sentence structure of English was greatly improved. The grammar became even more analytic than during the Middle English period, few inflections being retained in Modern English.

Not until toward the close of the period did great literary works begin to appear. Early in the sixteenth century Sir Thomas More distinguished himself as an orator and a prose writer, but his preoccupied life and untimely death prevented him from doing all he might have done to add to English prose that elasticity, the want of which was its greatest defect. He was beheaded in 1535. The latter half of the century was signalized by the publication of Edmund Spenser's "Fairy Queen" and by several of William Shakespeare's plays. The language used by Spenser was made designedly more archaic than the ordinary speech of his day; that used by Shakespeare may, with allowance made for his exceptionally ample vocabulary, be taken as fairly representative of contemporary speech. Richard Hooker, Sir Philip Sidney, and Francis Bacon were contemporary prose writers.

The second sub-period is usually spoken of as the English of the seventeenth century, or the Age of Dryden. During this period a large number of Modern or Parisian French words were added to the vocabulary, and the language took on the fixed form and structure which it possesses at the present time.

During the earlier half of the century, prose was represented chiefly by Francis (then Lord) Bacon, John Milton, and Thomas Hobbes; in the latter half of it by Jeremy Taylor, John Locke, and John Bunyan. Of the latter three the influence of Bunyan on the form and character of English prose was much the greatest. The authorized version of the Bible was published in 1611. Like Spenser's poetry of a generation earlier it was in its own day somewhat archaic in vocabulary, but in logical and rhetorical structure it was singularly modern and extremely influential. Shakespeare continued to write plays for the first few years of the century; William Drummond published his exquisite sonnets during the same period; Milton's earlier poems were given to the

world before 1640; his later and greater works were published after the Restoration. John Dryden, who was a skilful prose writer as well as a poet, died in the last year of the century.

The third sub-division, known as Late Modern English, comprises the English of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. This period is especially noted for the fixed standards established in regard to the spelling, pronunciation, and sentence structure of the language, no matter in what part of the English-speaking world the language may be in use. This is due partly to the influence of dictionaries; partly to a more universal system of education; and partly to the general dissemination of literature with its accompanying standards, which was made possible through the invention of printing in the fifteenth century. During this period also, owing to the commercial importance of English, words have been added to the vocabulary from almost every modern language.

This sub-period is especially great in the number and importance of its literary writers. The interval between Dryden's death in 1700 and William Cowper's in 1800 is filled up with many distinguished names in literature. Alexander Pope and James Thomson were the prominent poets of the former half of the century, and Thomas Gray, Oliver Goldsmith, Robert Burns, and Cowper of the latter half. Joseph Addison (1672-1719) was by no means the greatest scholar or thinker among the prose writers, but he was pre-eminent in his influence on the art of writing. Since his day English prose has been completely modern and free from the stiffness which had previously characterized it. Daniel Defoe, Sir Richard Steele, and Jonathan Swift were his contemporaries. The succeeding generation produced Samuel Johnson, Edmund Burke, Goldsmith, David Hume, and Edward Gibbon, of whom Goldsmith alone resembled Addison in his instinctive preference for an unconventional style.

The great names in English poetry during the first generation of the nineteenth century, which was intimately affected by the French Revolution, were Samuel Taylor Coleridge, William Wordsworth, Lord Byron, Percy Bysshe Shelley, and John Keats; their more illustrious successors of the middle of the century were Alfred Tennyson and Robert Browning in England, and Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, Oliver Wendell Holmes, and James Russell Lowell in America. The chief prose writers of the former period were Sir Walter Scott, Walter Savage Landor, Thomas De Quincy, Charles Lamb, and Coleridge; of the latter, Thomas Carlyle, Lord Macaulay, John Ruskin, William Makepeace Thackeray, and Charles Dickens. To their generation in prose, but to a later one by the publication of his greater works, belongs the late Mr. Goldwin Smith, who has never been surpassed as a stylist in the use of English prose.

SPECIMENS

OLD ENGLISH OR ANGLO-SAXON (449-1200)

The subjoined passage* is taken from King Alfred's translation of the mythical story of Orpheus and Eurydice as told by Boethius in his Latin treatise, "On the Consolation of Philosophy":—

| | | | | | | |
|--------------|------------------|----------------|-----------------|---------------|---------------|-----------------|
| We | <i>sculon</i> | <i>get,</i> | <i>of</i> | <i>ealdum</i> | <i>leanum</i> | <i>spellum,</i> |
| We | will | now, | from | old | lying | tales, |
| <i>the</i> | <i>sum</i> | <i>bispell</i> | <i>reccan,</i> | <i>Hit</i> | <i>gelamp</i> | |
| to-thee | a-certain | parable | tell. | It | happened | |
| <i>gio,</i> | <i>thette</i> | <i>an</i> | <i>hearpere</i> | <i>was,</i> | <i>on</i> | <i>there</i> |
| formerly, | that | a | harper | was, | in | the |
| <i>the</i> | <i>Thracia</i> | <i>hatte.</i> | <i>Thes</i> | <i>nama</i> | <i>was</i> | <i>Orfeus.</i> |
| which | Thrace | was-called. | His | name | was | Orpheus. |
| <i>He</i> | <i>hafde</i> | <i>an</i> | <i>swithe</i> | <i>anlic</i> | <i>wif.</i> | <i>Sio</i> |
| He | had | a | very | incomparable | wife. | She |
| <i>hateu</i> | <i>Eurydice.</i> | | | | | |
| called | Eurydice. | | | | | |

* For a longer extract and a detailed grammatical analysis of it see Spalding's "English Literature," Part II., Chapter I.

The following passage* from Layamon's "Brut" shows the language as it was at the end of the twelfth century:—

Thenne cumeth the wulf wilde : toward hire winden :
 Then comes the wolf wild, toward her tracks .
Theh the wulf beon ane : buten elc imane :
 Though the wolf be one, without all company,
And ther weoren in ane loken : fif hundred gaten :
 And 'here were in one fold five hundred goats,
The wulf heom to iwiteth : and alle heom abiteth :
 The wolf them to cometh, and all them biteth.

MIDDLE ENGLISH (1200–1500)

The English of this period is exhibited in the following passage from Langland's "Vision of Piers Plowman":—

Ac on a May morwening
 On Malvern hills
 Me befel a ferly,
 Of fairy me thought.
 I was weary for-wandered,
 And went me to rest
 Under a brood bank,
 By a burn's side ;
 And as I lay and leaned,
 And looked on the waters,
 I slombered into a sleeping,
 It swayed so mury.
 Then gan I meten
 A marvellous sweven,
 That I was in a wilderness,
 Wist I never where.

And on a May morning
 On Malvern hills
 Me befel a wonder
 Of fairy me thought.
 I was worn out with wandering
 And went me to rest
 Under a broad bank
 By a stream's side ;
 And, as I lay and leaned
 And looked on the waters,
 I slumbered into a sleeping
 It sounded so pleasant.
 Then began I to meet
 A marvellous dream
 That I was in a wilderness,
 Knew I not where.

The rhythm of Chaucer's verse, though he wrote about the same time as Langland, is quite as regular as that of any modern English poetry, provided care is taken in scanning and reading it to pronounce the final "e" when it is intended to be treated as a separate syllable. In the following excerpt

* See Spalding's "English Literature," Part II., Chapter II., for a detailed grammatical analysis.

those so treated are marked by a diæresis. "But" in the third line means "unless" :—

To drawē folk to hevën oy fairnesse,
 By good ensample, was his busynesse :
 But it were eny persone obstinat,
 What so he were, of high or lowe estat :
 Him wolde he snybbē scharply for the nones.
 A bettrē priest I trowe cher nowher non is.
 He waytud after no pomp ne reverence ;
 Ne makēd him a spicēd conscience.
 But Cristēs love, and his apostles twelve,
 He taught ; and ferst he folwēd it himselve !

During the last century of the period, owing to the depressing effect of the "Wars of the Roses," no literary work of great influence or enduring popularity was produced.

MODERN ENGLISH (1500—)

The following extract is from a letter written by Sir Thomas More to his children in 1525 :—

But this I admonish you to do ; that, whether you write of serious matters or of trifles, you write with diligence and consideration, premeditating of it before. Neither will it be amiss, if you first indite it in English ; for then it may more easily be translated into Latin, whilst the mind, free from inventing, is attentive to find apt and eloquent words. And, although I put this to your choice, whether you will do so or no, yet I enjoin you, by all means, that you diligently examine what you have written before you write it over fair again ; first considering attentively the whole sentence, and after examine every part thereof ; by which means you may easily find out if any solecisms have escaped you ; which being put out, and your letter written fair, yet then let it not also trouble you to examine it over again ; for sometimes the same faults creep in at the second writing, which you before had blotted out. By this your diligence you will procure, that those your trifles will seem serious matters. For, as nothing is so pleasing but may be made unsavoury by prating garrulity, so nothing is by nature so unpleasant, that by industry may not be made full of grace and pleasantness.

The following extract is from Spenser's "The Faerie Queene," written during the closing years of the sixteenth century:—

By this the Northerne wagoner had set
 His seven-fold terno behind the stedfast starre
 That was in Ocean wavcs yet never wet,
 But firme is fixt, and sendeth light from farro
 To al that in the wide deepe wandring arre ;
 And chearefull Chaunticlere with his note shrill
 Had warned once, that Phoebus fiery carre
 In hast was climbing up the Easterne hill,
 Full envious that night so long his roome did fill :

It is not necessary to insert specimens of the English of the last three centuries of the period. The language has not in that interval undergone any marked change, and its literature in all stages is easily obtainable.

EXTRACTS FOR ANALYSIS AND PARSING

NOTE.—Many of the more important constructions are indicated by italicized words.

1. Not *more* than six *steps* from the main door of the cottage stood the dead trunk of a fantastic pea-tree, so *clothed* from head to foot in the gorgeous begonia blossoms that one required no little scrutiny *to determine* what *manner* of sweet thing it could be.

2. That this song of the kettle's was a song of invitation and welcome to somebody out of *doors*, to somebody at that moment *coming* on towards the snug, small home and the crisp fire, *there* is no doubt *whatever*. Mrs. Peerybingle knew it perfectly, as she sat *mausing* before the hearth.

3. He had never studied grammar, and he felt that he needed it before *going* on with his *reading*. *Hearing* of a man six *miles* away who had an English gramma., he walked to this man's house *to borrow* the book, and then trudged all the *way home* that same *evening*. He studied very hard, for he wanted to talk and write without *making* mistakes.

4. *Leaving* the Tower, and descending the knoll *on* which it stood, Halbert gained the little piece of level ground which extended betwixt the descent of the hill and the first sweep made by the brook. But scarcely had he gained the spot, when he *was surprised to feel* a smart tap upon the shoulder, and *turning* around, he perceived that he *had been* closely followed by Shafton.

5. Mr. Ellison became neither musician nor *poet*; although no man lived more profoundly enamoured both of Music and the Muse. Under other circumstances than *those* which invested him, it is not *impossible* that he would have become a *painter*. The field of sculpture, although in its nature rigidly *poetical*, was too limited in its extent and in its consequences *to have occupied*, at any time, much of his attention.

6. They *had been waiting* some time when a door at the other end of the room opened, and a large well-built man, who looked so tall and *straight* that he reminded Cedric of a mountain pine, came forward. He was not dressed in armour, but Cedric knew at once that it was Sir Rollin Dubois. The knight talked a few *moments* with Cedric's father, and then, *turning* to Cedric, he said, "And you think you would like to become a *knight*, my boy?"

7. You are aware, my dear *sir*,—you must have observed it, in your own experience,—that all human progress is *in* a *circle*; or, *to use* a more accurate and beautiful figure, in an ascending spiral curve. While we fancy ourselves going *straight* forward, and *attaining*, at every step, an entirely new position of affairs, we do actually return to something long ago *tried* and abandoned.

8. As the thing drew *near* we saw it very distinctly. Its length was equal to *that* of three of the loftiest trees that grow, and it was as *wide* as the great hall of audience in your palace, O most sublime and *munificent* of the caliphs. Its body, which was unlike that of ordinary fishes, was as solid as a *rock*, and *of* a *jetty blackness* throughout all that portion of it which floated above the water.

9. A soldier had served a king, his master, many years, till at last he was turned *off* without pay or reward. How he should get his living he did not know; *so* he set out and

journeyed homeward all day, in a very downcast mood, until in the evening he came to the edge of a deep wood. The road leading that way, he pushed forward, but had not gone far before he saw a light *glimmering* through the trees, toward which he bent his weary steps; and soon came to a hut where no one lived but an old witch.

10. As there appeared something reluctantly good in the character of my companion, I must own it surprised me what could be his motives for thus *concealing* virtues which others take such pains to *display*. I was unable to *repress* my desire of *knowing* the history of a man who thus seemed to act under continuous restraint, and whose benevolence was rather the effect of appetite than *reason*.

11. One might on this occasion recount the sense that great persons in all ages have had of the merit of their dependents, and the heroic services which men have done their masters in the extremity of their fortunes, and *shown* to their undone patrons that fortune was all the difference between them; but as I design this my *speculation* only as a gentle *admonition* to thankless masters, I shall not go out of the occurrences of common life but assert it as a general *observation* that I never saw, but in Sir Roger's family and one or two more, good servants treated as they ought to be.

12. There is a class of street-readers whom I can never contemplate without affection—the poor *gentry*, who not *having* wherewithal to buy or hire a book, filch a little learning at the open stalls—the *owner*, with his hard eye, casting envious looks at them all the *while*, and *thinking* when they will have done. Venturing tenderly, page after page, *expecting* every *moment* when he shall interpose his interdict, and yet unable to *deny themselves* the gratification, they “snatch a fearful joy.”

13. To be sick is to *enjoy* monarchical prerogatives. Compare the silent tread, and quiet ministry almost by the eye only, *with* which he is served, with the careless demeanour, the unceremonious *goings* in and *out* (slapping of doors, or leaving them open) of the very same attendants when he is getting a *little better*; and you will confess that from the bed of sickness (*throns* let me rather call it) to the elbow-chair of convalescence is a *fall* from dignity amounting to a deposition.

14. Among the strange phantasies which beset me at the commencement of my freedom, and of which all traces *are* not yet *gone*, one was that a vast tract of Time had intervened since I quitted the Counting-House. I could not conceive of it as an *affair* of yesterday. The *partners*, and the clerks with whom I had for so many years, and for so many hours in each day of the year, been closely associated—being suddenly removed from them—*they* seemed *as* dead to me.

15. As is *customary* with the rich, when they aim at the honours of a republic, he apologized, as it were, to the people, for his wealth, prosperity, and elevated station, by a free and hearty manner towards those who knew him; *putting off the* more of his dignity, in due proportion with the humbleness of the man whom he saluted, and thereby *proving* a haughty consciousness of his advantages as irrefragably as if he had marched forth *preceded* by a troop of lackeys *to clear* the way.

16. What contributes to raise justice above all other kingly virtues is, that it is *seldom* attended with a due share of applause, and those who practise it must be influenced by greater motives than empty *fame*: the people are generally well pleased with a remission of punishment, and all that bears the appearance of humanity; *it* is the wise alone who are capable of discerning that impartial justice is the truest mercy; they know it to be very difficult, at once to compassionate and yet condemn an object that pleads for tenderness.

17. Another obstruction to the fortune of youth is, that while they are willing to take offence from none, they are also equally desirous of giving nobody offence. From *hence* they endeavour to please all, comply with every request, attempt to suit *themselves* to every company, have no will of their *own*, but *like* wax catch every contiguous impression. By thus *attempting* to give universal satisfaction, they at last find themselves miserably *disappointed*; *to bring* the generality of admirers on our side, *it* is sufficient to attempt to please a very few.

18. Clifford, as the company partook of their little banquet, grew *to be* the *gayest* of them all. *Either* it was one of those up-quivering flashes of the spirit, *to* which minds in an abnormal state are *liable*, or else the artist had subtly touched

some chord that made musical vibration. Indeed, *what* with the pleasant summer evening, and the sympathy of this little circle of not unkindly souls, it was perhaps natural that a character so *susceptible* as *Clifford's* should become animated, and show itself readily *responsive* to *what* was said around him.

19. The deep projections of the second story gave the *house* such a meditative look, that you could not pass it without the idea that it had secrets *to keep*, and an eventful history to moralize *upon*. In front, *just* on the edge of the unpaved sidewalk, grew the Pyncheon-elm, which in reference to such trees *as* one usually meets *with*, might well be termed *gigantic*. It had been planted by a great-grandson of the first Pyncheon, and, though now fourscore *years* of age, or perhaps *nearer* a hundred, was still in its strong and broad maturity.

20. Waverley, though *confident* that Fergus Mac-Ivor was incapable of such treachery, was by no means equally *sure* of the forbearance of his followers. He knew, that where the honour of the chief of his family was supposed to be touched, the happiest man *would be* he that could first avenge the stigma; and he had often heard them *quote* a proverb, "That the best revenge was the most *speedy* and most safe." *Coupling* this with the hint of Evan, he judged it most *prudent* to set spurs to his horse and ride briskly back to the squadron. Ere he reached the end o' the long avenue, *however*, a ball whistled past him, and the report of a pistol was heard.

21. But if, when I advance these arguments, you say that you have not the power *to comply* with them, and yet claim, on the strength of your kind wishes, *to incur* no harm by *refusing*; and allege that freedom does not appear to you unaccompanied with danger, and that *it* is right to offer *it* to those who have the power to accept it, but *to force* it on no one against his will: in that case I will take the gods and heroes of your country to witness, that after coming for your benefit, I cannot prevail upon you to accept it; and *will endeavour* to compel you by ravaging your country.

22. When the news was brought to Athens, for a long time they disbelieved even the most respectable of the soldiers, who had escaped from the very scene of action, and gave them

a correct account of it; not *crediting* that their forces could have been so utterly destroyed. When, however, they *were convinced* of it, they were angry with those of the orators who *had joined* in promoting the expedition (as though they had not voted for it *themselves*); and were enraged with the soothsayers and reciters of oracles, and *whoever* at that time by any practice of divination had put them on *hoping* that they *should subdue* Sicily.

23. The last time I woke, I seemed to come back from farther away, and thought the sun *had taken* a great start in the Heavens. I looked at the sprig of heath, and at that I could have cried aloud; for I saw I had betrayed my trust. My head *was* nearly *turned* with fear and shame; and at what I saw, when I looked out around me on the muir, my heart was like dying in my body. For *sure* enough, a body of horse-soldiers had come down *during* my sleep, and *were drawing* near to us from the southeast, spread out in the shape of a fan and *riding* their horses to and fro in deep parts of the heather.

24. *What* is remarkable in this vast movement in which so many millions were produced, and so many more *promised* was, that the great leaders of the financial world took no part in it. The mighty loan-mongers on whose fiat the fate of kings and empires sometimes depended, seemed like men *who*, witnessing some eccentricity of nature, watch it with mixed feelings of curiosity and alarm. Even Lombard Street, which never was more wanted, was *inactive*, and *it* was only by the irresistible pressure of circumstances that a banking firm which had an extensive country connection was forced ultimately to take the leading part that was required, and almost unconsciously lay the foundation of the vast fortunes which it has realized.

25. We slept in the cave, making our bed of heather bushes *which* we cut for that purpose, and *covering* ourselves with Alan's great-coat. There was a low concealed place, in a turning of the glen, *where* we were so bold as *to make* a fire; so that we could warm *ourselves* when the clouds set in, and cook hot porridge, and grill the little trouts that we caught with our hands under the stones and overhanging banks of

the burn. This was indeed our chief pleasure and *business*; and not only to save our meal against worse times, but with a rivalry that much amused us, we spent a great part of our days at the waterside, stripped to the waist, and *groping* about or (as they say) *guddling* for these fish. The largest we got might have been *three-quarters* of a pound; but they were *of good flesh* and flavour, and when broiled upon the coals, lacked only a little salt to be delicious.

26. The clouds which obscured the moon soon passed, and it shone forth again, lighting up the sea and land with a silvery power that was tenfold more lovely than the *glare* of noonday sun. The breeze diminished slightly, but enough strength was left to *carry* the canoe forward at a lively rate. Unless Evan was mistaken this wind was *better* for his craft than for the one they *were trying* to overhaul.

27. When the dreary days of winter and the early damp days of spring *are passing* away, and the warm bright sunshine *has begun* to pour down upon the grassy paths of the wood, who does not love to go out and bring home posies of violets, and bluebells, and primroses? We wander from one plant to another, *picking* a flower here and a *bud* there, as they nestle among the green leaves, and we make our rooms *sweet* and gay with the tender and lovely blossoms. But did you ever stop to *think*, as you added flower after flower to your nosegay, how the plants which bear them *have been building* up their green leaves and their fragile buds *during* the last few weeks? If you had visited the same spot a *month before*, a few last year's leaves, *withered* and dead, *would have been* all that you *would have found*. And now the whole wood is carpeted with delicate green leaves, with nodding bluebells, and pale-yellow primroses, as if a fairy had touched the ground and covered it with fresh young life.

28. And should my youth, as youth is apt, I know,
Some harshness show,
All vain asperities, I *day* by day
Would wear away;
Till the smooth temper of my age *should be*
Like the high *leaves* upon the holly-tree.

29. Beneath my palm-trees, by the river side,
I sat *a-weeping* : in the whole world *wide*
There was no one to ask me why I wept,—
And so I kept
Brimming the water-lily cups with tears
Cold as my fears.
30. Thou couldst develop, if that withered tongue
Might tell *us what* those sightless orbs have seen,
How the world looked when it was fresh and *young*
And the great Deluge still had left it *green* ;
Or was it then so *old* that history's pages
Contained no record of its early ages ?
31. Lo ! as they reached the mountain's side,
A wondrous portal opened *wide*,
As if a cavern *were* suddenly *hollowed* ;
And the piper advanced and the children followed,
And when all were in to the very last
The door in the mountain side shut *fast*.
Alas, alas *for Hamelin* !
32. *Strange* we never prize the music
Till the sweet-voiced bird *has flown* ;
Strange that we should slight the violets
Till the lovely flowers *are gone* ;
Strange that summer skies and sunshine
Never seem *one-half* so *fair*
As when winter's snowy pinions
Shake their white down in the air.
33. And so she pined, and so she died *forlorn*,
Imploring for her Basil to the last.
No heart was *there* in Florence *but* did mourn
In pity of her love, so *overcast*.
And a sad ditty of this story *borne*
From mouth to mouth through all the country passed :
Still is the burden sung—"O cruel ;
To steal my Basil-pot away from me !"
34. 'Tis said, as through the aisle they pass'd,
They heard strange noises on the blast ;
And through the cloister-galleries small,

Which at mid-height thread the chancel wall,
 Loud sobs, and laughter louder, ran,
 And voices unlike the *voice* of man ;
 As if the fiends kept holiday,
 Because these spells were wrought to-day.
 I cannot tell how the truth may be ;
 I say the tale as 'twas said to me.

35. So sweet was Harold's piteous lay,
 Scarce mark'd the guests the darken'd hall,
 Though *long* before the sinking day,
 A wondrous shade involved them all.
 It was not eddying mist or *fog*,
 Drain'd by the sun from fen or bog ;
 Of no eclipse had sages told ;
 And yet, as it came on *apace*,
 Each one could scarce his neighbour's *face*,
 Could scarce his own stretch'd hand behold.
36. As *large*, as bright, as coloured as the bow
 Of Iris, when *unfading* it doth show
 Beyond a silvery shower, was the *arch*
 Through *which* this Paphian army took its march,
 Into the outer courts of Neptune's state :
 Whence could be seen, direct, a golden gate,
 To which the leaders sped ; but not half-wrought
 Ere it burst open swift as fairy thought,
 And made those dazzled thousands *veil* their eyes
 Like callow eagles at the first sunrise.
37. I wandered *lonely* as a *cloud*
 That floats on high o'er vales and hills,
 When all at once I saw a crowd,
 A *host*, of golden daffodils ;
 Beside the lake, beneath the trees,
 Fluttering and *dancing* in the breeze.
 Continuous as the stars that shine
 And twinkle on the milky way,
 They strech'd in never-ending line
 Along the margin of the bay ;
 Ten thousand saw I at a glance,
 Tossing their heads in sprightly dance.

PRINCIPAL PARTS OF IMPORTANT VERBS

| <i>Present Tense</i> | <i>Past Tense</i> | <i>Perfect Participle</i> |
|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------------|
| abide | abode | abode |
| awake | awoke, awaked | awoke, awaked |
| be | was | been |
| bear (bring forth) | bore | born |
| bear (carry) | bore | borne |
| begin | began | begun |
| behold | beheld | beheld |
| bereave | bereaved, bereft | bereaved, bereft |
| bid | bid | bid |
| bind | bound | bound |
| beseech | besought | besought |
| bite | bit | bitten |
| blend | blended, blent | blended, blent |
| blow | blew | blown |
| break | broke | broken |
| breed | bred | bred |
| bring | brought | brought |
| build | builded, built | builded, built |
| burn | burned, burnt | burned, burnt |
| buy | bought | bought |
| catch | caught | caught |
| chide | chid | chidden |
| choose | chose | chosen |
| cleave (to adhere) | clave or cleaved | cleaved |
| cleave (to split) | clove | cloven |
| cling | clung | clung |
| come | came | come |
| cost | cost | cost |
| creep | crept | crept |
| crow | crew | crowed |
| cut | cut | cut |
| deal | dealt | dealt |
| dig | dug | dug |
| do | did | done |
| draw | drew | drawn |
| dream | dreamed, dreamt | dreamed, dreamt |
| drive | drove | driven |

| <i>Stem</i> | <i>Past Tense</i> | <i>Perfect Participle</i> |
|--------------------|-------------------|---------------------------|
| drink | drank | drunk |
| dwell | dwelt | dwelt |
| eat | eat, ate | eat, eaten |
| fall | fell | fallen |
| feel | felt | felt |
| fight | fought | fought |
| find | found | found |
| flee | fled | fled |
| fling | flung | flung |
| fly | flew | flown |
| forget | forgot | forgotten |
| forsake | forsook | forsaken |
| freeze | froze | frozen |
| get | got | got, gotten |
| give | gave | given |
| go | went | gone |
| grow | grew | grown |
| hang | hanged, hung | hung |
| have | had | had |
| hear | heard | heard |
| heave | heaved | heaved, hoven |
| help | helped | helped |
| hew | hewed | hewn |
| hide | hid | hidden |
| keep | kept | kept |
| knelt | knelt | knelt |
| knew | knew | known |
| lay (to place) | laid | laid |
| lie (to recline) | lay | lain |
| lead | led | led |
| learn | learned, learnt | learned, learnt |
| leave | left | left |
| make | made | made |
| mean | meant | meant |
| meet | met | met |
| mow | mowed | mown |
| read | read | read |
| rend | rent | rent |
| ride | rode | ridden |
| raise (to elevate) | raised | raised |

| <i>Stem</i> | <i>Past Tense</i> | <i>Perfect Participle</i> |
|------------------|-------------------|---------------------------|
| rise (to ascend) | rose | risen |
| rive | rived | riven, rived |
| run | ran | run |
| saw | sawed | sawn |
| say | said | said |
| see | saw | seen |
| seek | sought | sought |
| sell | sold | sold |
| send | sent | sent |
| set (to put) | set | set |
| sit (to rest) | sat | sat |
| sew | sewed | sewn |
| shake | shook | shaken |
| shear | sheared | shorn or sheared |
| shine | shone | shone |
| shoot | shot | shot |
| show | showed | shown, showed |
| shrink | shrank | shrunk, shrunken |
| sing | sang | sung |
| sink | sank | sunk |
| slay | slew | slain |
| sleep | slept | slept |
| sling | slung | slung |
| slink | slunk | slunk |
| smite | smote | smitten |
| sow | sowed | sown |
| speed | sped | sped |
| spell | spelled, spelt | spelled, spelt |
| spend | spent | spent |
| spin | spun, spun | spun |
| spoil | spoiled, spoilt | spoiled, spoilt |
| stand | stood | stood |
| steal | stole | stolen |
| stick | stuck | stuck |
| stride | strode | stridden |
| strike | struck | struck |
| string | strung | strung |
| strive | strove | striven |
| swear | swore | sworn |
| sweep | swept | swept |

| <i>Stem</i> | <i>Past Tense</i> | <i>Perfect Participle</i> |
|-------------|-------------------|---------------------------|
| swim | swam | swum |
| swing | swung | swung |
| take | took | taken |
| teach | taught | taught |
| tear | tore | torn |
| tell | told | told |
| think | thought | thought |
| throw | threw | thrown |
| tread | trod | trodden |
| wear | wore | worn |
| weave | wove | woven |
| weep | wept | wept |
| wet | wet | wet |
| whet | whetted, whet | whetted, whet |
| win | won | won |
| wind | wound | wound |
| wring | wrung | wrung |
| write | wrote | written |

NOTE.—For the principal parts of verbs not included in the above list, the student may consult a good dictionary.

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