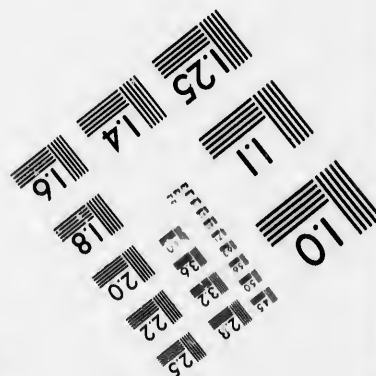
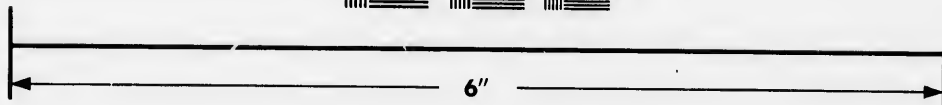
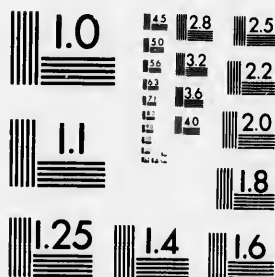


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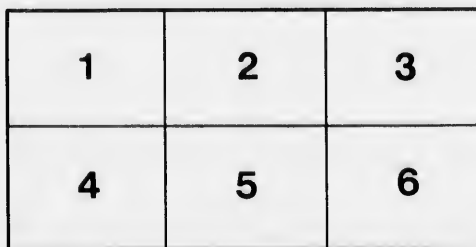
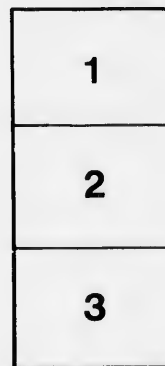
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DR. WM. SMITH'S ENGLISH COURSE.

A SCHOOL MANUAL
OF
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

WITH COPIOUS EXERCISES.

By WILLIAM SMITH, D.C.L., LL.D.,

EDITOR OF THE CLASSICAL AND LATIN DICTIONARIES

AND

THEOPHILUS D. HALL, M.A.,

FELLOW OF UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, LONDON.

FOURTH EDITION.

TORONTO:
JAMES CAMPBELL & SON.

MDCCLXXVII.

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PREFACE.

NOTWITHSTANDING the numerous English Grammars that have recently appeared, it is acknowledged that a more practical one is still wanted for general use in upper and middle schools; which should exhibit concisely and clearly the existing grammatical forms and chief syntactical rules of the language, and, without entering into philological details suitable only for advanced students, should yet give the subject a fuller treatment than is consistent with the design of a purely elementary Grammar. This want the authors of the present Work have endeavoured to supply—with what success it is for the intelligent teacher to determine.

Attention may be directed to the following distinctive features in the Work:—

1. *The writers have aimed throughout to make it a really serviceable working school-book.* To this end, all rules and definitions have been presented in the simplest terms, and examples freely added dealing with all the principal difficulties attending their application. A strictly historical treatment appeared ill adapted to the use of boys and girls, needing first to be well grounded in the rules and principles of English as it exists. At the same time the essential unity of the language has been constantly borne in mind; and characteristic forms adduced from its earlier stages, whenever they appeared calculated to throw light upon its present condition. A very copious

body of Exercises and Questions has been added, intended to form a complete *praxis* of grammatical Etymology, Syntax, Parsing, Analysis of Sentences, and Punctuation. A Key is furnished, to Teachers only, to facilitate the somewhat tedious process of correcting written exercises.

2. *It presents a more complete and systematic treatment of English Syntax than is to be met with in other works of the kind.* It is hoped that no important use of any one of the Parts of Speech has been overlooked, and each has been illustrated by carefully selected examples. Some uses are, it is believed, here noticed for the first time in a work of the kind; such as the regular employment by Elizabethan writers of adjectives as adverbs—without the addition of *ly*—before other adjectives (§ 226, *obs.* 2); the use of the Impersonal Passive by Milton (§ 120, *obs.* 2); and some others. Under the head of the Subjunctive Mood some valuable sections have been in part derived from the admirable *Shakspearian Grammar* of Mr. E. A. Abbott.

Explanations of idioms and uses of less frequent occurrence are given in small type; and these portions of the work may with advantage be omitted by younger students.

3. *The use of examples manufactured for the occasion has been studiously avoided.* It is difficult to coin such as shall be neither inane nor affected; and even when coined, they lack authority. On the contrary, the citation of illustrative words and passages from such authors as Shakspeare, Milton, Pope, Gibbon, Goldsmith, Scott, Thackeray, not only serves to establish rules, but is also fitted to relieve any dryness inherent in the mere theory of grammar: and it is believed that the committal of such quotations to memory will prove a valuable help towards the formation of a correct and elegant style. The examples have been expressly selected for this work; a few only having been adopted, after careful verification, from other critical and grammatical works.

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4. It deals with the *English language as something existing, the laws of which are to be ascertained by careful consultation of its greatest masters, instead of being prescribed by grammarians.* At the same time, care has been taken to distinguish the sound and deliberate usage of classical writers, from the mere loose and careless modes of expression so frequently to be met with even in authors of acknowledged position.

5. In addition to Grammar strictly so called, chapters have been added treating of *the Analysis of Sentences* (with numerous illustrations)—the Relations of English to other Languages—Prosody—and Punctuation. The chapter on *the Relations of English to other Languages* has been strictly limited to the statement of the elementary facts of the subject. So much as is here given appears needful to any completeness of general instruction: pursued beyond these limits, the subject expands into Philology proper, and must be pursued with the help of works specially devoted to it.

The authors would specially express their indebtedness to the learned and critical works of Mätzner, Koeh, and Fiedler and Sachs; Mr. Earle's *Philology of the English Language*; Dr. Morris's *Historical Outlines of English Accidence*; Messrs. Abbott and Seeley's *English Lessons for English people*; Sir Edmund Head's *Shall and Will*; with Bishop Lowth's, Dr. Adams's, and other English Grammars, of which a list is given below (p. vi).

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 - B. Of Adjectives: *ful, ish, less, some, y, ey, ly, en, able, ible, le, fold, ward, th, ing, d, ed, ern, just.*
- 196. C. Of Verbs: *en, le, se, ster.*
- 197, 198. C. Of Verbs: *en, le, se, ster.*
- 199. Latin and Greek Prefixes and Suffixes
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- 201. Noun
- 202. Posit
- 203. Every
- 204. Comp
- 205. Comp
- 206. Nomin
- 207. Denot
- 208. Compl
- 209. Doubl
- 210. Object
- 211. Object
- 212. Object
- 213. Object
- 214. Denote
- 215. Dative
- 216. Dative
- 217. Now us
- 218. Ellipsis
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- 209. Double Object, after *to teach*, &c.
- 210. Objective after Passive Verbs.
- 211. Objective after Intransitive Verb ["Cognate Accusative"].
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- 214. Denotes Indirect Object.
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- 216. Dative with Impersonal Verbs.

4. *Possessive.*

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- 230. Definite Article gives to an Adjective the force of an Abstract Noun.
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ABBREVIATIONS USED CHIEFLY IN THE EXERCISES.

A. = Alison.
 B. = Byron; Br. = Brougham (Life); E. B. = Eliz. Browning; R. B. = Robert Browning.
 C. = Campbell; Co. = Coleridge.
 D. = Dickens; Dr. = Dryden.
 E. or G. E. = George Eliot; E. V. = English Version of the Bible.
 F. and S. = Fiedler and Sachs; F. Q. = Fairy Queen.
 G. = Goldsmith; Gi. = Gibbon; Gr. = Gray; also Greek.
 He. = Hemans.
 Ib. = *ibidem*, *some portion of an author*; id. = *idem*, *same author*.
 J. C. = Julius Caesar (Shaks.).
 K. = Keats; K. J. = King John (Shaks.).

L. = Lamb; also Latin; Lo. = Longfellow.
 l. c. = *locus citatus*, *passage already cited*.
 M. = Milton; Ma. = Macaulay (H. E. = Hist. of England 5 vols.).
 Newc. = Newcomes (Thack.).
 O. E. = Oldest form of English.
 P. = Pope; P. L. = Paradise Lost.
 S. or Sc. = Scott; S. or Sh. = Shakespeare; Sp. = Spenser; Sp. or Spec. = Spectator (Addison's); H. S. = Horace Smith; S. S. = Sydney Smith.
 T. = Tennyson; Th. = Thackeray, also Thomson.
 W. = Wordsworth.

(The other abbreviations are sufficiently obvious.)

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INTRODUCTION.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

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Macaulay (H.
5 vols.)
back.).
English.
Paradise Lost.
Sh. = Shak-
spenser; Sp. or
Addison's); H.
; S. S. =

Thackeray,

The English language is the language of the English people.

The dialects out of which it has been developed, were brought over into Britain by the tribes of Jutes, Saxons, and Angles—all of Teutonic race—who successively settled in the island from about 450 A.D. to about 550 A.D.; and by the union of whom the English people was formed. Previous to these settlements, Keltic dialects prevailed throughout Britain; excepting so far as they had been displaced in South Britain by Latin, the language of its Roman masters.

The English language was not formed by a blending of the speech of the conquering Teutons with that of the conquered Kelts. Its earliest remains—some of which date from a period anterior to the conquest—are remarkably free from Keltic words. The language spoken by the new settlers displaced the old Keltic dialects, just as Jutes, Saxons, and Angles displaced the Britons. (See, however, p. 159.)

The dialects spoken by these tribes were closely related to each other: and were all alike Low-German. (See § 319.) It is not now possible to trace more than two of them—a Northern and a Southern dialect; and even between these the differences are not very clearly marked.* It cannot, however, be doubted that various provincial dialects existed, although not perpetuated in the comparatively scanty remains of the literature of the period; nor that they were the parents of those which are known to have existed subsequently, and some of which still, to a certain extent, hold their ground.

The language as written and spoken during the seven or eight

* See Rask, *A. S. Gr.*, 'Of Dialects,' esp. § 469

centuries immediately following the first Teutonic settlement in Kent, has hitherto usually been called Anglo-Saxon,—i.e. the language of the people consisting (chiefly) of Angles and Saxons. But more recent authors have preferred to mark the continuity of the history of both people and language by calling it English. Nor is this a new way of speaking, but rather a return to the old; for Saxons and Angles are alike included under the general name of 'Angli' or Angles, i.e. English, by Bæda, so early as the eighth century. Bæda, it is true, was a Northumbrian; and therefore, as being himself an Angle, more likely to use the name of Angles in a comprehensive way. But this use of the term is not peculiar to Northumbrian writers; and King Alfred, himself a West-Saxon, calls the language in which he writes neither Saxon nor Anglo-Saxon, but ENGLISH. This prevalence of the name 'Angle,' or 'English,' rather than 'Saxon,' was doubtless due in great measure to the earlier and more striking literary development of Anglian than of Saxon Britain. Not only Bæda, the first English historian, but Cædmon, the 'father of English poetry,' was also an Anglian.

Speaking broadly, there are three principal stages in the development of the English language:—

I. OLD-ENGLISH (or Anglo-Saxon).

II. MIDDLE ENGLISH.

III. MODERN ENGLISH.

I. The first of these stages extends from the earliest monuments of the language to about the close of the contemporary 'Saxon' or 'English' Chronicles, 1154 A.D.

Old-English (or Anglo-Saxon) is no longer intelligible to the ordinary reader; but requires special study, as much as French or German. The following are the main points in which it differs from the present form of the language.

1. The inflexional system is much more elaborate and complete; offering a general correspondence to that of Modern German.

(A concise view of the inflexions of Old-English or Anglo-Saxon is presented in the *Student's Manual of the English Language*, pp. 283-291.)

2. It has no Latin element, but is pure English.

The exceptions are few and of a special nature: as *caester*, Lat. *castrum*, a fort or castle; *strat*, Lat. *strata* (via), a highway; *engel*, Lat. *angelus*, an angel; *bisceop*, Lat. *episcopus*, a bishop; *munuc*, Lat. *monachus*, a monk.

3. The vocabulary comprises a large number of words which have since become obsolete, their places having been in most cases taken by

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other words borrowed directly or indirectly from Latin. Such are, here=*army* (Fr. *armée*; Lat. *armata* [*acies*]); *lic*=*corpse* (Fr. *corps*; Lat. *corpus*); *wæstm*=*fruit* (Fr. *fruit*; Lat. *fructus*); *driht*=*household*; *Drihten*, *the Lord*, &c.

4. The orthography often differs considerably from that of Modern English, even in words which are obviously identical. Thus O.E. *hrcôd*=*reed*; *hwæt*=*what*; *réc* or *reác*=*reek* (smoke); *leoht*=*light*; &c. Such differences sometimes represent dialectic variations which may still be traced in provincial English.

5. The metrical system is neither syllabic nor rhyming, but alliterative. (See p. 169.)

It has already been stated that the earliest specimens of Old-English date from a time prior to the settlement of Jute, Saxon, or Angle in Britain. Such are the 'Tale of Beowulf,' and the 'Gleeman's Song.' These and other lays were handed down by tradition before the art of writing was introduced. The first great English work—properly so called—is the Scriptural poem of Cædmon, who was a monk of Whitby, about 600 A.D. Portions of this have been preserved; and the following brief passage may serve to convey some idea of the character of our language in its *first stage*.

THE CREATION OF LIGHT.

bá wæs wuldor-torht
heofon-weardes gást
ofer holm boren
mielum spedum :
Metod engla héht
lifes Brytta,
leoht forð-cuman
ofer rúmne grund.
Ráðe wæs gefylled
heah-cyniffes háas ;
him wæs hálig leoht
ofer westenne,
swa se Wyrhta be-heád.

Then was (the) gloriously-bright
heaven-guardian's spirit
over ocean borne
with great speed (*pl.*).
(The) Creator of angels bid—
[he who is] Life's distributor—
Light come forth
over (the) spacious abyss.
Soon was fulfilled
the High-King's behest ;
for him was holy light
over (the) waste
as the Maker bid.

(See *Student's Specimens of English Lit.*, p. 1.)

As illustrating the points before noted, here mark—

- (1.) The lost inflections, -a of Gen. pl. (*engl-a*); -e of Dat. sing. (*westeun-e*); and -um of Dat. pl. (*miel-um sped-um*); with the Acc. masc. ending -ne of Adj. (*rum-ue*).
- (2.) The solitary non-Teutonic word *engel*=Lat. *angelus*. (The German *engel* of course comes from the same source as the English.)
- (3.) The wholly obsolete words *wuldor* (*glory, glorious*), and *torht* *bright*; also *holm*, in sense of *ocean*.

(4.) The disguising effect of orthography in such words as *heofon* = *heaven*; *lōht* = *light*; *hālig* = *holy*, &c.

The bulk of the words however remain in some form or other, as *weard* = *ward, guard*; *metod* = he who *metes* [*'meted out heaven with the span,* Is. xl. 12]; *brytta* = he who spreads *a-broad* [Germ. *verbreitet*]; *ram* = *room, roomy*; *wyrhta* = *wright*, as in *wheel-wright*; &c.

This period may be characterized as the foundation period of our language. Here we trace the firm ground-plan of the noble edifice of English speech, into which were to be subsequently wrought materials of so rich and highly diversified a character. (Comp. p. 157, § 321.)

II. The next stage of the language is called 'Middle English' or 'Early English.' It extends onward to about A.D. 1500. The term 'Early English' should be used only in speaking of the earlier part of this period.

The literature of this period is far more copious and varied than that of the preceding. No single extract could give any correct idea of the general character of its diction. It is pre-eminently a period of growth. At its commencement the language was comparatively rude; at its close it had matured into an instrument of expression equal to the highest requirements of the human mind.

The great characteristic process of this period is the fusion of the English and Norman-French elements. As a consequence of the Norman Conquest, French became the language of the upper classes of society. It was employed in courts of law and in public business generally; and boys in grammar-schools were made to construe their Latin into French. (Hallam, 'Lit. Hist.' I. i. § 52.) On the other hand, the mass of the English clung all the more closely to their native language, and for about a century after the Conquest appear to have used it almost exclusively. But from the time of Henry II., when the two races began to blend, the vernacular English was increasingly affected by the influence of Norman-French. Large numbers of Norman-French words were taken up into its vocabulary, and its inflexional system—especially in the case of Nouns and Adjectives—was gradually broken down.

The most remarkable works belonging to the earlier part of this period are the long poem of Layamon, entitled *Brut, i.e. Brutus* (the mythical founder of *Brit-ain*), cir. 1200 A.D., and the 'Rhyning Chronicle' of Robert of Gloucester, cir. 1300 A.D. A short passage from the latter will show what rapid strides the language was now making in the modern direction:—

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THE NORMAN CONQUEST.

(For the power of the obsolete letters, see Gr. p. 1.)

þus, lo! þe Engliſſe folc · vor noȝt [*nought*] to gronde com
 Vor a fals king, þat nadde [=ne hadde, *had not*] no riȝt to þe kinedom,
 And come to a nywe louerd · þat more in riȝte was.
 Ac [*but*] hor [*of them*] noȝer [*neither*], as me [=one] may i-se [*see*] · in pur
 riȝte nas [*ne was*].
 And þus was in Normannes [gen. sing.] hond · þat lond i-broȝt iwis [see
 Gr. p. 70, *obs.*].
 Þat anaunter [*it is a chance*] ȝif evermo · keveringe [*recovering*] þerof is.
 Of þe Normans beþ heyemen · þat beþ of Engelonde,
 And þe lowemen of Saxons · as ich understonde,
 So þat ȝe seþ in eiȝer side · wat riȝte ȝe abbeþ þerto;
 Ac ich understonde, þat it was · þoru [*through*] Godes wille ydo.

(From Morris and Skeat, *Spec. E. Eng.*, 1298-1393.)

Here mark—

- (1.) The modern uninflected forms the (þe), a (an), no, have taken the place of the older and fully inflected se, an, nan.
- (2.) The Adjectives fals, nywe, pur, are without inflexion.
- (3.) The plural form Normans: Old English, North-men.
- (4.) was instead of O. E. was.
- (5.) The Noun wille (will), has lost its inflexion: will-e, will-an.
- (6.) ydo=O. E. ge-don (i.e. *done*).
- (7.) fals, pur, an-aunter (=an adventure or chance): Norman-French words.

Indeed, the greater part of the 'Rhyming Chronicle,' when written as modern English, is fairly intelligible to the modern reader. (See *Student's Spec. of Eng. Lit.* p. 7.) The poem of Layamon (Layamon), as might be expected from its being a century earlier, requires a larger amount of special study. To the middle of this period belong the Vision of Piers the Plowman, and Chaucer. The Paston Letters*—a collection of family correspondence (1423-1505)—furnish an interesting illustration of the ordinary familiar English of its close. When once the difficulty of the spelling has been surmounted, these letters may be read with ease, without special study.

The following passage from a letter, dated Oct. 28, 1455, may serve as a specimen:—

"Please it your maistership to wete . . . Here be many marvaylous tales of thinggs that shall fall this next moneth, as it is seyð; for it is

* Issued in Arber's Reprints, edited by James Gairdner.

talked that oon (one) Doktor Grene, a preest, hath kalked (*calculated?*) and reporteth, that byfore Seynt Andreu Day next comyng shall be the grettest bataill that was sith the bataill of Shrewisbury, and it shall fall bytwene the Bisshoppes Inne of Salesbury and Westminster Barres, and there shall deye vij Lords, whereof iij shuld be bisshoppes. Althis an^d meche more is talked and reported. I trust to God it shall not fall so.' . . . (Arber, p. 350.)

The poetry of Skelton (cir. 1500) may also be instanced as characteristically modern both in its diction, and in its rapid, dashing style (See *Student's Spec. of Eng. Lit.* p. 35; Smaller do., p. 31.)

The changes which had been gradually brought about during the period of "Middle English" may be thus summed up:—

1. The inflexional system of Old English had been broken down and a much simpler system had taken its place.

This is seen in the following particulars:—

- (i.) The general abandonment of all Case-endings of Nouns excepting that of the Possessive [Genitive] singular.
 - (ii.) The general adoption of a plural ending in *s*.
 - (iii.) Abandonment of *all* inflexion for adjectives.
 - (iv.) Loss of sundry verbal inflexions: as the Infinitive in *-en*; the Imperative plural in *-eth* [used in Chaucer, and found in the Paston Letters: i. p. 121, A.D. 1450]; the prefix *ge* [first softened to *y*] of Perfect Participle, &c.
2. A simple system of Genders—making all names of things without life Neuter (§ 29, *Obs.* 2)—had taken the place of the artificial system prevailing in Old English.
 3. A very large number of Norman-French words had been introduced; some taking the place of Old English words (see p. xviii. 3., and others forming an actual addition to the vocabulary (e.g. *bee*, *mutton*, *veal*, *pork*; by the side of *ox*, *sheep*, *calf*, *swine*, &c.).
 4. The old alliterative and accentual metrical system had given place to rhyming verse, with lines each containing a fixed number of syllables.

The period thus comprised under the designation of 'Middle English,' being essentially one of transition, exhibits many subordinate stages. Thus the *Brut* of Layamon and the *Ormulum* (a Gospel paraphrase in verse, also dating about 1200) may be regarded as marking one stage; the 'Rhyming Chronicle' of Robert of Gloucester, another; the writings of Chaucer and Gower a third; and the poems of Skelton a fourth. But such classifications are of little importance, provided the real nature of the change which the language was passing through is clearly apprehended; the result of which was to transform Anglo-Saxon into Modern English.

Several dialects are traceable in the written works of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. (See 'Specimens of Early English,' by Morris and Skeat, pt. II. Introd.) These are broadly distinguished as Northern, Midland, and Southern. The Northern dialect in particular is distinguished by its use of the termination *-and* of the Present Participle, and of a plural form in *s* in the present Tense of verbs: as, we loves; also by the plural forms of the verb *to be*, *aron*, *arn*, *are*, instead of *ben* or *beth*. In this last instance a Northern form—itsself of Scandinavian origin—has become the recognized one, and displaced the O.E. *sind*, *synbon* [cf. Lat. *sunt*]; while other dialectic forms still survive as provincialisms. By the close of the fifteenth century a common literary language had developed and established itself for the whole of the country.

III. The third stage is Modern English. It dates from the time when—aided by the art of Printing—the great revival ['Renaissance'] of classical literature began to exert its influence upon the language. The copious Norman-French elements, which had already been incorporated, furnished a bond of affinity between the English language and the new learning; and the Latin words already in possession of a secure place in the vocabulary, paved the way for the introduction of many more, which required but a slight change of termination to naturalize them.

The process of naturalization was so easy and tempting, when Latin was to so large an extent a living language, that it was carried to excess. Instead of being judiciously selected, words were transferred wholesale from the Latin and even the Greek vocabulary; and many good old English words were expelled to make room for the more smooth and euphonious intruders.* Sir Thomas Browne may be mentioned as an example of the length to which such an affectation might be carried by a really noble writer.

Very many of the Latin words thus introduced, failed to obtain a permanent place in the English vocabulary; and since the close of the eighteenth century a strong reaction has set in, in favour of a return to a purer English diction. The different functions of the two constituent elements have become better understood and recognised (p. 324); and though other fluctuations of taste and judgment will probably occur, the full development of the language as an instrument of expression may be considered as reached.

* The following specimens of superfluous coinage are given by Trench, amongst many others: "Torve and teric = *stern, severe* (Fuller); ceity = *blindness* (Hooker); insuls = *tasteless* (Milton); facinorous = *guilty* (Bonnet); sufflammate = *to put the drag on* (Barrow); moliminously = *with effort* (Cudworth); immarcescible = *unfading* (Bp. Hall); luciferously = *bringing light* (Brown)." — *Engl. Past and Present*, p. 59.

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

THE ALPHABET.

§ 1. The modern English Alphabet consists of twenty-six letters, which are written both as small letters and as capitals :

Small: a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p
q r s t u v w x y z.

Capital: A B C D E F G H I J K L M
N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z.

Obs. 1. In the thirteenth century three other letters were in use: þ, ð, the sounds of which are now represented by *th* [§ 7, *Obs.* 2], and ð, which had an intermediate sound between *g* and *y* [§ 9, *Obs.*]. The letter þ was retained till recently under the form of *y* in the words *ye* = *the*, and *yt* = *that*.

Obs. 2. In addition to the above, the double letters *æ*, *œ* (= *ae* and *oe*) are sometimes found in words borrowed from foreign languages: as, *Egina* (an island of Greece), *sub-pana* (a law term). They are pronounced in English exactly like *ee*.

§ 2. A capital letter is used at the beginning of every new sentence, and of every line of poetry; also generally at the beginning of a quotation. Names of individual persons, places, and things (Proper Names) are written with a capital in whatever part of a sentence they occur; and so also are the words derived from them: as, *France*, *French*, *Frenchified*; *America*, *American*, *Americanize*.

The names of the arts and sciences and the principal terms used in them are also often written with a capital: as, *Astronomy*, *Theology*, *Political Economy*; *Active*, *Passive*; *Indicative*, *Subjunctive*.

The pronoun *I* and the interjection *O* are always written as capital letters; and the words *thou*, *thine*, *thee*, *he*, *his*, *him*, are usually written with a capital letter when they refer to God. Also in such expressions as, *Her Majesty*, *His Grace*, and in titles generally, capitals are used.

Obs. English writers vary a good deal in their use of capitals, some employing them much more frequently than others. Words are often written with a capital on account of their importance where they occur. Sometimes entire words and phrases are written with capitals for the same reason: thus—

“And it is named, in memory of the event,
The PATH OF PERSEVERANCE.”

(Wordsworth, *Excursion*, bk. vi.)

§ 3. The letters are divided into Vowels and Consonants.

The *vowels* can be fully sounded by themselves, and without altering the position of any part of the mouth or throat. They are five: **a, e, i, o, u.**

NOTE.—W and y are sometimes used as vowels [see § 9].

Obs. 1. When the sound of a vowel is dwelt upon in pronunciation, it is said to be long, as *a* in *fa-ther*, *faté*. When the voice falls at once upon the letter following, the vowel is said to be short: as, *fat*. So the vowel *e* is long in *met*, and short in *met*; *i* is long in *fine* and short in *fin*; *o* is long in *o-cean* and short in *otter*; *u* is long in *mu-sic* and short in *sugar* and in *muster*.

Obs. 2. The true long sound of *e* is however that of *a* in *mate* (French and Continental *e*); and the true long sound of *i* is that of *ee* in *met* (French and Continental *i*). In no other European language are these letters pronounced as they are pronounced in English.

Obs. 3. *E* is generally silent at the end of a word, when it is called *e mute*: but in such cases it usually lengthens the preceding vowel: as, *pâle, mête, bide, nôte acute*. It sometimes has the same effect in the middle of a word: as, *ungrâteful*

§ 4. The Consonants cannot be fully articulated without a vowel sound along with them, nor without some change in the position of the organs of speech. They are **b, c, d, f, g, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, x, z.** (The letters **h, w, y,** are treated separately: see §§ 9, 11.)

Obs. The proper sound of a letter must on no account be judged of by its name. The names of the letters are to a great extent arbitrary; and though it is convenient to know them, yet they must be put aside before we can tell what the real power of a letter is. This is especially the case with the consonants and *h*. In order to judge of the sound of these letters, they should be articulated with the different vowels in succession: as,

ba	be	bi	bo	bu	(by)
ca	ce	ci	co	cu	(cy)
ha	he	hi	ho	hu	(hy), &c.

§ 5. Consonants may be divided into *Liquids*, *Mutes*, *Sibilants*, and *Semivowels*.

§ 6. The *Liquids* are **l, m, n, r.** These run smoothly and easily into the sounds of certain other consonants. Thus the sound of **m** unites readily with that of **b** or of **p**; the sound of **n** with that of **d** or of **t**; and the sounds of **l, r,** with those of many other letters. Examples: *per-amb-ator, amph-itheatre*; *and, ant-imony*; *eld-er, elm, Els-inore, ars-enal.*

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§ 7. The *Mutes* or *Dumb Letters* are divided into three classes, according to the part of the mouth or throat chiefly used in pronouncing them; namely, *Labials*, *Dentals*, and *Gutturals*. (Latin: *labium*, *lip*; *dens* [dent-is], *tooth*; *guttur*, *throat*.)

	Hard.		Soft.	
	Unaspirated.	Aspirated.	Unaspirated.	Aspirated.
Labials . .	p	f [ph]	b	v
Dentals . .	t	[th] (as in <i>thing</i>)	d	[th] (as in <i>this</i>)
Gutturals .	k (c)	[ch] (as in <i>loch</i>)	g	[gʰ] (? as in <i>lough</i>)

Obs. 1. The Mutes *p, t, c, k* are pronounced with a harder and thinner sound than *b, d, g* hence the former are called *Hard Mutes*, and the latter *Soft Mutes*. They are sometimes called respectively *Sharp* and *Flat Mutes*.

Obs. 2. The sound of *th* was formerly represented by two characters, þ and ð; the former being more frequently used at the beginning of a word or syllable, and the latter at the end: as, þes smið, *this smith*. It has been supposed that þ represented the hard sound, as in *thin, think*, and ð the soft sound, as in *thine*, or *vice versa*. But the two characters appear rather to have been used as interchangeable forms of the same letter. Compare the Greek θ, ϑ, and σ, ς.

Obs. 3. *c* has a guttural or *k*-sound before *a, o, u*: as, *call, cod, cut*; and a sibilant or *s*-sound before *e, i, y*: as, *cell, city, cynic*. In old English *c* was always pronounced as a guttural, and *k* was a superfluous letter. The *s*-sound of *c* before *e* and *i* was introduced by French influence after the Norman conquest. The *k*-sound of *c* before *e* and *i* then came to be represented by *k*, and *c* in such cases disappeared: as, *keen, k'ny*.

Obs. 4. *G* has always a guttural sound before *a, o, u*: as, *gave, got, gun*. Before *e* and *i* it has sometimes a guttural sound: as, *get, give*; and sometimes a sibilant or *j*-sound: as, *gem, generous, giant, gibe*. This *j*-sound of *g* is owing to French influence, and occurs in words of French or Latin origin.

Obs. 5. *Ch* and *gh* are now used as aspirates only in Lowland Scotch. *Ch* is now used in two ways: (1) it is silent, as in *plough, through, daughter*; (2) it is sounded like *f*, as in *enough, laughter*. On *ch* see § 8.

§ 8. The *Sibilants* are *s* (sh), *x*, and *z*. (See also § 7, *Obs. 3.*) They are called *Sibilants* or *hissing* letters, from the Latin word *sibilare*, "to hiss." *Ch* and *j* have also a sibilant sound, *ch* being sounded nearly as *tsh* (*chin*), *j* nearly as *dzh* (*jest*); but *ch* and *j* are more correctly called *Palatals*, being sounded with the *palate* (Latin. *palátum*, "palate").

Obs. 1. Z is not found in the earliest form of our alphabet.

Obs. 2. The letter j is only another form of i, which in older English is used for it: as Joye = joy; Jus = juice. The palatal sound of j (= g soft) was first introduced into English in Norman-French words: as, jest (gest), jealous (zealous), journey. In early MSS. this sound is sometimes represented by the now obsolete letter, z.

§ 9. The *Semi-vowels* or *Half-vowels* are **w** and **y**, which are so called because they are used both as vowels and as consonants. At the beginning of a word or syllable, or before a vowel in the same syllable, they are consonants: as, yellow, yield, unyielding; winter, world, unworldly; wine, twine; witch, switch. At the end of a word or syllable they are vowels: as in try, try-ing (here *y* = *i*); cow, cow-ard, few (here *w* = *u*).

Obs. Y was originally a vowel only, and was first used as a consonant after the Norman conquest. It represented an initial g-sound in words which were losing their guttural: as, year instead of gear. While this transition in sound was taking place, that is, from the twelfth to the fourteenth century, a separate letter was used, z, which had an intermediate sound between g and y.

§ 10. **Q** is a superfluous letter. It is always followed by *u*. In the oldest English the sound of **qu** was expressed by **cw**: as, cwen = queen; cwic = quick, (living). **Q** was first introduced in French and Latin words after the Norman conquest: as, quart, quarrel, quarry.

§ 11. **H** must be classed by itself. It is not a vowel, nor is it properly a consonant. But it resembles a consonant in that it cannot be articulated by itself. Its sound is produced by forcing out the breath in the act of pronouncing a vowel: as, ha, he, ho! Hence **h** is often called the *aspirate*, from the Latin word *aspirare*, "to breathe upon."

In some words **h** is not sounded at all, and it is then said to be silent. It is silent in heir, heiress; hour, hourly; honour, honourable, honest, honesty, dis-honest; hostler.

In a few words it is doubtful, being sounded by some persons and not sounded by others. Such are herb (pronounced by some 'erb, and by others herb); humble (lumble or 'umble); hospital (usually pronounced 'ospital).

Obs. 1. H was originally a guttural, but has entirely lost this sound except in the north of England and in Scotland.

Obs. 2. Wh- is sounded like hie-: as, who (h-wo), what (h-wat). These words were originally written with hw- [hwa, hwat], but when the guttural sound of h was dropped, and the w-sound thus became more prominent, the position of the two letters was changed.

Obs. 3. *Ph*, when sounded like *f*, as in *Philip*; *sh*, as in *shine*; and *th*, as in *thin* *there*, must be looked upon as single letters. The proper sound of *h* following *p*, *s*, or *t*, as a separate letter, may be perceived in the words *sheep-hook*, *grass-hopper*, *mast-head*.

§ 12. A *Diphthong* (or double sound) is the blended sound of two vowels meeting in one syllable. The true diphthongs are *ay*, *ow*, *oy*, as in the words *aye*, *how*, *hoj*. In these diphthongs each of the two vowels may be distinctly heard, especially if the syllable be articulated slowly. But very often two vowels are written where one only is pronounced. This is the case with the words *bear*, *boar*, *maul*, *mien*, *seam*, *sieve*, *gauge*, *goat*, and very many others. Such combinations of vowels are not true diphthongs.

Obs. 1. The long sound of *i* (in such words as *bind*, *find*) is a true diphthong, being the same as that of the word *aye*, only pronounced more briskly. It is composed of the sounds of *a* (as in *father*) and *y* (as in *lady*), the two being pronounced as closely together as possible. In words like *maul*, *crawl*, the vowel sound heard is that of *a* only; *u* or *w* being added only to indicate the broad sound of that vowel.

Obs. 2. The combinations of the semivowels *w* and *y* with various vowels, as *we*, *wo*, *why*; *yew* (same sound as in *unit*, *da-ty*), *yoke*, *youth*; approach very nearly to the nature of true diphthongs. But in such cases, the sound of *w* or *y* is not a pure vowel sound, but partakes of the nature of a Consonant (§ 9).

§ 13. A *Syllable* consists of one or more letters pronounced together, and has only one vowel sound.

In breaking up a word into syllables, it is usual to make the division after the vowel, and to carry on the consonant following to the next syllable: as, *hu-mid*, *di-vi-si-on*, *rhe-to-ri-cal*, &c. When there are two consonants together, one usually goes with the former syllable and the other with the following one: as, *nur-ture*, *mem-ber*, &c.

But regard must be had to etymology; the syllables being divided so as to show the composition or derivation of a word as far as possible; as, *threat-en* (not threa-ten), *assist-ance* (not assis-tance), *re-strain* (not res train), &c.

§ 14. A word of one syllable is called a *Monosyllable*; of two syllables, a *Disyllable*; of three syllables, a *Trisyllable*; of more than three syllables, a *Polysyllable*.

§ 15. *Accent* is the stress of the voice upon a syllable: as, *húmid*, *núrture*. There is ordinarily one principal accent in every word: as, *álgebra*, *múltitude*, *extraórdinary*, *repartée*.

Obs. The tendency of the English language is to throw the accent back, towards the beginning of a word. Many words which were formerly accented on the last syllable or the last but one, have undergone a change of accent: as, *virtue*, formerly *virtúe* (Chaucer, prol. *Cant. Tales*); *aspect*, formerly *aspéct* (Milt. *P. L.* iv., 541); *doctrinal*, formerly *doctrínal* (Johnson's *Dict.*): &c.

PART I.—ETYMOLOGY.

§ 16. Etymology treats of WORDS, arranging them in classes, and explaining their structure and changes of form.

NOTE.—The two most important parts of Etymology are *Inflection* and *Derivation*.

INFLECTION [Latin, *inflecto, flexi, flexum, to bend or change*] means some addition to, or change in, a word to denote a modification of meaning. The inflexional changes of words are explained in connexion with their classification.

DERIVATION is treated separately, p. 90.

Parts of Speech.

§ 17. Words are divided into classes, according to the different purposes which they answer in speech.

There are eight classes of words, or, as they are commonly called, PARTS OF SPEECH. These are—

1. Noun.
2. Adjective, to which the Articles belong.
3. Pronoun.
4. Verb.
5. Adverb.
6. Preposition.
7. Conjunction.
8. Interjection.

The Noun.

§ 18. A NOUN is a word which is the name of something.

There are two kinds of nouns: Proper Nouns and Common Nouns.

§ 19. PROPER NOUNS are such as denote only one person or thing of a kind: as, *Adam, Noah, Alexander, William the*

Conqueror; *Thames, Avon*; *Victory, City of Glasgow* (names of ships); *Eccalibur* (name of the fabulous sword of King Arthur).

Obs. 1. The same proper name may be given to a number of individuals. Thus there are many Johns, Williams, &c.; several rivers called Avon; and more than one town named Boston. Still these names are strictly Proper Nouns, since they have been in each case separately given, and do not belong to all objects of the same kind.

Obs. 2. Proper Names are sometimes used to denote a class or group; as, *the Cæsars*; *the family of the Scipios*; *the Howards*; meaning all those bearing the same proper name. Or the name of a well-known individual may be applied to others possessing similar features: as, *the modern Solon*; *the infant Sappho*. In such cases the Proper Name is used as a Common one.

Many Common Nouns have in this way been formed from Proper Nouns: as, *epicure* from Epicure or Epicurus, the philosopher; *Academy*, from a gymnasium at Athens so named.

§ 20. COMMON NOUNS.—All nouns which are not Proper are Common. They denote the same kind of thing under whatever circumstances it may be found: as, *man, city, river, ship*; *air, water, gold, iron*; *beauty, truth, time, space*.

§ 21. Three kinds of Common Nouns require to be specially noted: Collective Nouns or Nouns of Multitude, Abstract Nouns, and Names of Materials.

§ 22. (1) *Collective Nouns*.—A Collective Noun denotes a number of persons or things forming one body: as, a *crowd* of persons; a *group* of states or stars; a *committee*, a *jury*, a *parliament*; Her Majesty's *Government*; the *Ministry*.

Obs. 1. Collective Nouns are sometimes used so as to refer to the individuals composing the group rather than to the group itself. Thus we say, *the crowd* (that is, *the people in the crowd*) *were noisy*; *the jury* (that is, *the men composing the jury*) *were not agreed*. See § 250.

Obs. 2. Collective Nouns are Neuter, although they denote an aggregate of persons male or female: as, *army, mob*.

(2) *Abstract Nouns*.—Abstract Nouns are the names not of objects but of ideas.

The following kinds of Abstract Nouns may be enumerated:—

1. Names of qualities: as, *whiteness, blackness, bitterness, height, depth, breadth, length, wisdom, foolishness, stupidity*.
2. Names of states or conditions of things: as, *life, death, time, space, eternity, sovereignty, reign, regency, friendship, leadership, orphanage, widowhood, minority*.
3. Names of passions and powers of the mind: as, *love, jealousy, hatred, memory, imagination*.

4. Names of actions or processes: as, *reading, writing, multiplication, justification, punishment, coronation, abdication.*

5. Names of arts and sciences: as, *poetry, sculpture, astronomy, chemistry, zoology.*

Obs. The word *abstract* is derived from the Latin word *abstractus (abstraho)*, drawn off; implying that a quality or state is thought of by itself, and detached from an object. Thus when we speak of the *size* of a globe, attention is directed to its *size only*, without regard to the colour, weight, or material of the globe.

(3) Names of Materials: as, *gold, silver, wood, stone.*

§ 23. Nouns have Gender, Number, and Case.

I. GENDER.

§ 24. There are two genders properly so called: *Masculine* and *Feminine*.

The distinction of male and female in nature is called sex. The distinction between Masculine and Feminine in words is called Gender.

Obs. The word Gender comes from the Latin word *genus, generis*, a sort or kind.

§ 25. The English language, unlike most others, applies the distinction of Masculine and Feminine only to the names of persons and animals: as, *man, woman; boy, girl; lion, lioness*. Nouns which denote things without animal life are said to be Neuter or of Neuter Gender, from the Latin word *neuter, neither* (*i.e.* neither masculine nor feminine): as, *iron, stone, river*.

The only exception to this rule is when inanimate things are represented as persons: see §§ 28, 29.

Obs. Collective Nouns are Neuter though denoting collections of male or female objects: as, *army, committee, sisterhood*.

§ 26. When the same name is used for male and female, it is said to be *Common* or of *Common Gender*: as, *bird, j sh, parent, sovereign, friend*.

§ 27. There are three ways of indicating difference of Gender in Nouns:—

1. By inflexion.
2. By using a word indicative of sex.
3. By distinct words.

I. THE GENDER DISTINGUISHED BY INFLEXION.

1. The feminine is usually distinguished from the masculine by the ending *-ess* : as,—

Masculine.	Feminine.	Masculine.	Feminine.
abbot	abbess	lion	lioness
actor	actress	marquis	marchioness ²
adulterer	adulteress	master	mistress
author	authoress [late] (or author)	mayor	mayoress
baron	baroness	monitor	monitress
benefactor	benefactress	murderer	murderess
canon	canoness	negro	negress
count	countess	patron	patroness
dauphin	dauphiness	peer	peoress
deacon	deaconess	poet	poetess (or poet)
duke	duchess ¹	preceptor	preceptress
elector	electress	priest	priestess
emperor	empress	prior	prioress
enchanter	enchantress	prophet	prophetess
founder	foundress	proprietor	proprietress (-trix)
giant	giantess	protector	protectress
god	goddess	scamster	scampstress ³
governor	governess	shepherd	shepherdess
heir	heiress	songster	songstress ³
host	hostess	sorcerer	sorcress
hunter	huntress	tiger	tigress
instructor	instructress	traitor	traitress
inventor	inventress	viscount	viscountess
Jew	Jewess		

NOTES.—The ending *-ess* comes through the French from the Latin ending *-ix*. (See below, 2.)

¹ *Duchess* is from Fr. *duchesse*.

² *Marchioness* from late Latin *marchio*, *marchionissa*.

³ *Scampstress* (scamstress) and *songstress*, see below, No. 2 (3).

Obs. Many feminine forms besides the above are occasionally to be met with, especially in our older authors: as, *victress*, or *victress* (Spenser, Shakspeare, Jonson) *offendress* (Shakspeare) *tyranness* (Akenside). [Mätzner, i. pp. 244, 245.] But the present tendency of the language is to reduce the number of such words by using the masculine form as common, as in the case of *author*, *poet*, *elector* (except when used as a sovereign title). In the case of official titles the feminine form is carefully preserved. *Governor* = ruler is common: *governess* = instructress.

2. A few isolated instances of other feminine endings occur:—

(1.) *-trix*, in a few Nouns taken directly from the Latin: as,—

M.	F.
administrator	administratrix
executor	executrix
testator	testatrix

- (2.) **-en**, an old feminine suffix of which only one pure English example remains: *vix-en* (O. E. *fiwen*; Germ. *füchsin*), *she-fox*; hence, *a spiteful woman*.

To this head belong also—

M.	F.
hero	heroine (Greek)
landgrave	landgravine (German)
margrave	margravine (German)

Obs. Land-gravine, mar-gravine: German *-gräfin*. The suffixes *-en*, *-in*, *-ine*, are identical in origin.

- (3.) **-ster**, an old English ending, of which only one example is now in use as feminine: *spin-ster*—(lit. *she that spins*; viz. with the *spinning-wheel*); an unmarried woman. Also *song-ster* was originally feminine, so that *song-str-ess* has two feminine endings. In like manner *semp-str-ess* from the verb *seam*, has two feminine endings.

Obs. But the termination *-ster* came to be used as a masculine. This appears in such old words as *brewster*, *huckster*, *maltster*, *tapster*.

- (4.) **-a** in a few Romance words:—

M.	F.
don	donna (Italian)
infant	infanta (Spanish)
signor	signora (Italian)
So—	
sultan	sultana

Obs. The Romance languages are those spoken in the countries which were once provinces of the Roman Empire, and are derived from Latin. See § 318, 3.

II. THE GENDER IN COMMON NOUNS DISTINGUISHED BY A WORD SIGNIFICANT OF SEX.

Common.	Masculine.	Feminine.
ass	he-ass (jack-ass)	she-ass
bear	he-bear	she-bear
bird	{cock-bird male-bird	hen-bird
calf	bull-calf	cow-calf
elephant	{bull-elephant male-elephant	cow-elephant female-elephant
fox	dog-fox	bitch-fox
goat	he-goat	she-goat
pig	boar-pig	sow-pig
rabbit	buck-rabbit	doe-rabbit
servant	{man-servant male-servant	maid-servant female-servant
sparrow	co. k-sparrow	hen-sparrow.

III. DISTINCTION OF SEX INDICATED BY DISTINCT WORDS:—

(Where a common form exists, it is supplied.)

Masculine.	Feminine.	Common.
bachelor	maid, spinster	
boar	sow	hog, swine, pig
boy	girl	child, youth
bridegroom	bride ¹	
brother	sister	
buck	doe	} deer
hart	roe	
stag	hind	
bull	cow	
bullock, ox, steer	heifer	ox, neat
cock	hen	fowl
colt	filly	foal (also colt)
dog	bitch	dog, hound
drake	duck	(duck) ²
drone	bee	bee
earl	countess	
father	mother	parent
gaffer ³	gammer ³	
gander	goose	(goose) ²
gentleman	lady	
horse, stallion	mare	horse
husband	wife	spouse (poet.)
king	queen	sovereign
lad	lass ⁴	
lord	lady ⁵	
man	woman ⁶	man
monk, friar ⁷	nun	
nephew	niece ⁸	
papa	mamma	
ram	ewe	sheep
sire	dam ⁹	
sloven	slut	
son	daughter	child
uncle	aunt	
wizard ¹⁰	witch	

NOTES.—¹ The masc. is here formed from the fem.; the suffix *groom*, O. E. *guma*, meaning "man," i.e. "the bride's man."

² Only in these two words is the fem. form used as common. So in compounds, *eider-duck*, *wild-duck*; *solan-duck*. *Gander* and *goose* are not strictly distinct words, the masculine being formed from the feminine.

³ Shortened from *grandfather*, *grandmother*.

⁴ *Lass*, probably a contraction of *lad-ess*.

⁵ *Lady*, etymologically feminine of *lord*, by inflexion.

⁶ *Woman*, i.e. *wife-man* (Germ. *weib*). ⁷ *Friar*, i.e. *brother*.

⁸ *Nephew*, *niece*, from Lat. *nepos*, *neptis*, through the French.

⁹ Only used in speaking of the parentage of animals.

¹⁰ *Wizard*: O. E. *wise* a wise man: *witch*, a sorceress.

Obs. A few foreign masculines and feminines, occasionally used in English, may be added: *beau*, *belle*; *monsieur*, *madame*, *mademoiselle*.

§ 28. Common objects without life are often personified, and the Nouns denoting them are then treated as masculine or as feminine. Thus the *Sun* is usually spoken of as *he*; and the *Moon* (also a *ship* or a *balloon*) as *she*; while the names of the planets (*Mercury*, *Venus*, *Mars*, *Jupiter*) are masculine or feminine according to their sex in mythology.

§ 29. Moreover in poetry and rhetoric many other inanimate things and qualities are personified and treated either as masculine or as feminine. Thus in Collins's "Ode on the Passions," *Fear*, *Anger*, *Despair*, are masculine; and *Hope*, *Melancholy*, *Cheerfulness*, feminine. So *Heaven*, *Time*, *Death*, *Summer*, *Winter*, *Autumn*, are often masculine; and *Spring*, *Poetry*, *Sculpture*, *Astronomy*, *Art*, *Nature*, feminine.

Obs. 1. This usage gives English an advantage over most other languages in the poetical and rhetorical style: for when nouns naturally neuter are converted into masculine or feminine, the personification is more distinctly marked.

"A thousand years their cloudy wings expand
Around me, and a dying glory smiles
O'er the fair times, when many a subject land
Looked to the winged Lion's marble piles
Where Venice sat in state, throned on HER hundred isles."
(*Childe Harold*, iv.)

"Freedom, driven from every spot on the Continent, has sought an asylum in a country which *she* always chose for *her* favourite abode; but *she* is pursued even here and threatened with destruction." (Robert Hall.)

Obs. 2. In the earliest form of English, as in Latin, Greek, French, &c., the names of many things without life are masculine or feminine: as, *sunne* (sun), *fem.*; *mona* (moon), *masc.*; *tunge* (tongue), *fem.* These artificial genders would probably have remained in force till now, had it not been for the influence of the Norman Conquest; which gave so violent a shock to the language as to obliterate many of its characteristic features.

II. NUMBER.

§ 30. When a Noun denotes a single object, it is said to be *Singular* or of the *Singular Number*: as, *man*, *sun*.

When a Noun denotes more than one object of the kind, it is said to be *Plural* or of the *Plural Number*: as, *men*, *sons*.

Obs. Number is thus the *grammatical distinction* between nouns or names of things, corresponding to the *natural distinction* of one or more than one in the things themselves (unity and plurality). In O. E. a *Due*! Number is found in the case of the 1st and 2nd Personal Pronouns. See § 77, Note.

§ 31. The Plural of Nouns is formed from the Singular. In the oldest form of the English language, several plural endings existed. Of these one only remains in active

force in modern English, namely the ending *s* or *es*. Hence when a new word arises, we at once, and as a matter of course, form its plural in this way: as, *telegram*, *telegrams*.

§ 32. Regular Plurals in *es, s*.—When the *s* sound can be conveniently attached without making an additional syllable, *s* only is used: as, *boy, boy-s; girl, girl-s; lion, lion-s; elephant, elephant-s; Caesar, the Caesar-s; Pitt, the Pitt-s*.

§ 33. But when the *s* sound cannot be conveniently (euphoniously) attached without making an additional syllable, *es* is used: as, *fox, fox-es; church, church-es*. This is the case when the noun already ends in a sound of *s*; viz. *s, sh, ch, x, z*; as, *gas, gas-es; summons, summons-es; lass, lass-es; fish, fish-es; birch, birch-es; box, box-es; topaz, topaz-es; Fitz, the Fitz-es* (Mac. H. E. ii. 1. 0). When *ch* is sounded as *k*, *s* only is added: as *monarch, monarch-s*. The sound of *th* is softened before *s*: as, *mouth, mouths; path, paths*. Also *s* is softened in *house, houses*.

NOTE.—Convenience and ease of articulation are in grammar included under the term *euphony*. (Greek *εὐ* [eu], *well*; and *φωνή* [fōnē], *a voice, sound*.) Any change in a word made for greater ease of articulation is said to be made *for the sake of euphony*.

Obs. To the above add many nouns in *o*: as, *potato, potato-es*; and one in *i*, *alkali, alkali-es*. The following lists of nouns in *o* may be useful:—

1. -o with plural -oes.

buffalo	buffaloes	mosquito	mosquitoes
calico	calicoes	motto	mottoes
cargo	cargoes	mulatto	mulattoes
domino	dominoes	negro	negroes
echo	echoes	no	noes *
flamingo	flamingoes	potato	potatoes
hero	heroes	tomato	tomatoes
magnifico	magnificoes	tornado	tornadoes
manifesto	manifestoes	volcano	volcanoes

* I.e. persons voting "No" as opposed to "Aye."

2. -o with plural -os.

bravo	bravos	rondo	rondos
canto	cantos	solo	solos
cento	centos	stilto	stiltoes
duodecimo	duodecimos	tyro	tyros
embryo	embryos	virtuoso	virtuosos (-i)
grotto	grottos	folio	folios
octavo	octavos	nuncio	nuncios
portico	porticos	oratorio	oratorios
quarto	quartos	portfolio	portfolios

It will be observed that those which take a plural in *-os* are mostly foreign words imperfectly naturalised. A few fluctuate in the spelling of their plurals: as, *calico, innuendo, mosquito, mulatto, portico* (*-os* and *-oes*), etc.

§ 34. Nouns in **f**, **fe**, and **lf**.—These as a general rule change the **f** into **v** before the plural ending: as, *leaf*, *leaves*; *wife*, *wives*; *life*, *lives*; *wolf*, *wolves*.

But nouns in **ief**, **oof**, **ff**, **rf**, usually take simple **s**: as—

brief	briefs	hoof	hoofs	cliff	cliffs	dwarf	dwarfs
chief	chiefs	roof	roofs	skiff	skiffs	scarf	scarfs
grief	griefs	proof	proofs	whiff	whiffs	turf	turfs

Staff however makes *staves*; and *wharf*, *scarf*, *turf*, sometimes take a plural in **-ves** (*wharves*, *scarves*, *turves*). *Thief* makes *thieves*; *fife*, *fifes*; and *strife*, *strifes*.

§ 35. Nouns in **y**.—Final **y** not immediately preceded by a vowel is changed into **ies**: as, *lady*, *ladies*.

But when a vowel immediately precedes, the **y** remains unchanged: as, *boy*, *boys*; *day*, *days*; *chimney*, *chimneys*; *attorney*, *attorneys*. Nouns ending in **-quy** take **ies**: as, *soliloquy*, *soliloquies*. Proper names in **y** do not usually change the **y**: as, *the three Marys* (but also *Maries*, Dict. Bible, ii. 258). So also *guy* makes *guys*.

Obs. Such spellings as *chinnies*, *attornies*, although frequently used, are accordingly to be avoided.

§ 36. A few remains of other plural formations exist:—

1. Inflexion by change in the body of the word:—

man	men	goose	geese	louse	lice
woman	women	tooth	teeth	mouse	mice
foot	feet				

[Seven Nouns.]

See also under (2): *brethren*, *kine*.

2. Plurals in **n** or **en**:—

ox	oxen		internal change be-
eye	eyne (= eyes: Spenser, Shakespeare.)	child	sides.)
shoe	shoon (= shoes: Sir W. Scott.)	children	(Old English, childer, a form common in Lancashire.)
brother	brethren (where there is		

To these may be added—

cow	kine (= cows): internal change besides: O. E. <i>cy</i> , i.e. <i>kye</i>
hose	hosen (Dan. iii. 21).

[Seven Nouns.]

Obs. *Swine* is sometimes quoted as a plural form, from *sow*. This is not so. The plural of *sow* is *sows*. The **n** of *swine* belongs equally to the singular and the plural (German, *schwein*).

3. Plural same as singular; in some cases owing to loss of final vowel or other sign of the plural distinction: *sheep, sheep; deer, deer; swine, swine.*

Obs. 1. The words *deer, sheep, swine*, are without sign of plural in the oldest form of English also, but they retain it in Modern German.

Obs. 2. The names of most fishes and of some birds are used in the singular collectively: as, to fish for *trout, salmon, mackerel*; to shoot *grouse, snipe, wild-duck*. In the same way are used the nouns *head, brace, dozen, pair, couple, yoke, score, hundred, &c.*: as, so many *head* of deer; twenty *brace* of partridges; a dozen *pair* of gloves; twelve *yoke* of oxen; and in speaking of ships, *sail*: as, *ten sail of the line*. Also *cannon, shot*: as, they captured thirty *cannon*: the Germans began to fire red-hot *shot* into the citadel. *Shots* only of number of times of shooting.

Obs. 3. In such expressions as 100,000 *foot*, 10,000 *horse*, the noun *soldiers* is omitted for brevity.

Obs. 4. Some difficulty is presented by a few compound words, the elements of which have not perfectly coalesced. When the latter element is an Adjective, qualifying a preceding Noun, the plural sign is usually attached to the Noun: as,—

court-martial	courts-martial
knight-errant	knights-errant
	States-General

Court-martials, only of different sittings of a court-martial.

"Where two titles are united, the last now usually takes the plural, as *major-generals*; a few old expressions sometimes occur in which both words, following the French idiom, take the plural, as *knights-templars, lords-lieutenants, lords-justices.*" (Morris, p. 100.)

§ 37. *Double Plurals.*—The following double forms are used with a difference of meaning:—

- brother: *brothers*, children of the same parent; *brethren* (old form), now used in figurative sense; members of a society.
- die: *dies*, for stamping; *dice*, for play.
- penny: *pennies*, the coins so called; *pence*, of sums of money.
- genius: *geniuses*, highly gifted men; *genii* (see § 41), supernatural beings.
- index: *indexes*, to a book; *indices*, in algebra.
- pea (a late word), *peas*, separate seeds; *pease*, collective. [The *s* is part of the root: Latin *pisum*.]

§ 38. *Nouns used only in Singular.*—Some nouns, owing to the nature of their meaning, are used only in the singular number. Such are the names of materials or substances: as, *wine, water, oxygen, gold, silver*; and of qualities: as, *bravery, hardness, wit, humour*.

When such nouns take a plural, it is in a different sense from the singular; for example:—

1. Denoting different sorts of the same thing: thus the nouns *wine, brandy, sugar, marble*, have no plural as denoting the substances or things so called; but we may speak of *wines, brandies, sugars, marbles*, in the sense of different sorts of wine, brandy, &c.

2. Names of qualities may be used in the plural to denote repeated instances of any particular quality, good or bad: thus, *negligences* (Common Prayer) denotes instances of negligence; *beauties*, points or features of beauty; *animosities*, hostile feelings, &c.

§ 39. *Nouns used only in the Plural*.—Other nouns exist only in the plural, the things themselves having a kind of plurality about them. Such are:—

1. Names of many common instruments which have two parts forming a kind of pair: as, *bellows, scissors, pincers, shears, tongs, spectacles*.
2. Names of certain articles of dress formed in a similar manner: as, *trousers, drawers, breeches*.
3. Names of diseases and ailments, showing themselves by many marks or symptoms: as, *measles, mumps, staggers* (in animals).
4. Names of games: *billiards, draughts, fives, &c.*
5. Others are miscellaneous: as, *Commons* (House of), *obsequies, nuptials; matins, vespers; proceeds* (of a sale); *thanks; dumps; (high) jinks, &c.*

§ 40. *Doubtful*.—A few nouns hang in suspense between singular and plural. Such are:—

Alms: properly singular; the *s* being part of the original word (O. E. *ælmesse*, Gk. *ἐλεημοσύνη*): “who asked an alms,” Acts ii. 3; “much alms,” *ib.* x. 2. Now perhaps oftener plural.

Amends: really a plural; but also used as a singular (= Fr. *amende*):—

“To make *an* amends.” (*Percy An.*)

Eaves: really singular (O. E. *efese*), but often used as plural.

Means: in sense of *manner, expedient*: strictly plural; but also used as singular:—

“*A means* to do the prince my master good.”
(Shaks. *Winter's Tale*, iv. 3.)

Especially in the phrases “by this means;” “a means to an end” (in common use).

But the word can be used as plural when it denotes a *number* of acts or expedients:—

“Thou hast shown me *the means* of revenge and be assured I will embrace *them*.” (*Ivanhoe*, ch. xxvii.)

The singular *mean* is also used.

News: that is, *tidings*: formerly used either as singular or as plural:—

“*This news* hath made thee a most ugly man.”
(Shakspeare, *K. John*, iii. 1.)

“Ten days ago I drowned *these news* in tears.”
(Id. *Henry VI.* Part III. ii. 1.)

Now always singular:—

“Ill news *flies* apace.” (Proverb.) “The latest news *is* . . .”

Pains: in sense of *effort, labour*: strictly plural, but used rather as a collective singular: thus we now say, much pains, great pains, a great deal of pains. But the plural also occurs:—

“Your pains *are* registered . . .” (Shaks. *Macbeth*, i. 3.)

Riches: properly singular, the *s* being part of the original word (Fr. *richesse*):—

Riches fineless [endless] *is* as poor as winter
To him that ever fears he shall be poor.” (Shaks. *Othello*, iii. 3.)

Now always plural:—

“Riches *are* not for ever.” (Prov. xxvii. 24.) “Riches *make themselves* wings.” (*Ib.* xxiii. 5.)

Tidings: plural, but in older writers used also a singular:—

“To bring *this tidings* to the . . . king.” (Sh. *Rich.* III. iv. 3.)

Wages: strictly plural, but formerly used as singular, as:—

“He earneth wages to put *it* into a bag with holes.” (*Hug.* i. 6.)

The singular *wage* is also used.

Obs. The names of certain sciences derived from Greek are plural in form in English as in Greek, but now commonly treated as singular. Such are *physics, metaphysics, dynamics, mechanics, hydraulics, hydrostatics, pneumatics*:—

“Mathematics *becomes* the instrument of Astronomy and Physics.” (Lewes.)

“Mechanics *is* the science in which are investigated the actions of bodies on one another.” (*Nat. Cycl.*)

But some of these, especially *mathematics, metaphysics, physics*, are also treated as plural:—

“His [Plato’s] metaphysics are of a nature to frighter away all but the most determined students.” (Lewes.)

“The mathematics *lead* us to lay out of account all that is not proved”

(Sir W. Hamilton, *Essays*.)

It is easy to see that in the last example but one, the plural is required; but only a mature judgment can decide whether in each case that occurs the singular or the plural is more proper.

APPENDIX.

§ 41. A number of nouns borrowed from foreign languages without change, retain their proper plurals. The following are of frequent occurrence —

formu'a (L.)	-ae	phenomenon (Gr.)	-a
larva (L.)	-ae	genus (L.)	genera
nebula (L.)	-ae		
		axis (L.)	axes
focus (L.)	-i	ellipsis (Gr.)	-es
genius (L.)	-i	metamorphosis (Gr.)	-es
[see § 37]		parenthesis (Gr.)	-es
[magus (L.)]	-i	index (L.)	indices
radius (L.)	-i	[see § 37]	
terminus (L.)	-i	vertex (L.)	vertices
tumulus (L.)	-i	appendix (L.)	appendices
		cherub (Hebr.)	cherubim
		(also cherubs)	
addendum (L.)	-a	seraph (Hebr.)	seraphim
animalculum (L.)	-a	(seraphs)	
datum (L.)	-a		
desideratum (L.)	-a	[bandit]	banditti (Ital.)
dictum (L.)	-a		
efflavium (L.)	-a	bean (Fr.)	beaux
erratum (L.)	-a	bureau	burcaux
memorandum (L.)	-a	flambeau (Fr.)	flambeaux
stratum (L.)	-a		
automaton (Gr.)	-a	savant (Fr.)	savants.

Obs. 1. All such words must be regarded as imperfectly naturalized, since they still follow the laws of the languages from which they are derived.

Obs. 2. Some foreign words in use exist in the plural only: e.g. *literati* (Lat.), *aborigines* (Lat.), *antipodes* (Gr.), *landes* (Fr.), i.e. sandy plains; *agenda* (Lat.), i.e. business to be transacted; *ephemera*, creatures of a day; *minutæ*, small niceties (of criticism).

III. CASE.

§ 42. The name of **CASES** is given to the different forms which a **Noun** (or **Pronoun**) assumes to denote its relations to other words in a sentence.

Obs. By the relation of one word to another is meant its connection with it, and the way in which the one is dependent upon the other. Thus in the following sentence —

"The tear down childhood's cheek that flows
Is like the dew-drop on the rose,"

the word *that* is related to the word *tear* [tear that flows]; and the word *childhood's* is related to the word *cheek*; and again the word *is* in the second line is related to the word *tear* [the tear *is* like the dew-drop], &c.

§ 43. There are Five Cases in English, the *Nominative*, *Objective*, *Dative*, *Possessive*, *Vocative*.

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Obs. The term *Case* is used even though there be now no difference of form to mark certain distinct relations in which a Noun or Pronoun may stand to other words. Thus the Dative is now identical in form with the Objective, and the Vocative with the Nominative.

§ 44. The NOMINATIVE is the Case of the Subject of the sentence, and denotes the person or thing about which we are speaking: as, *Lord Nelson* was the son of a clergyman; *the mole* is a laborious creature; *wasps* sting; *President Lincoln* was assassinated.

§ 45. The OBJECTIVE CASE follows the Verb, and denotes the direct object of an action: as, the robbers attacked the *traveller*; Brutus stabbed *Cesar*. Also all nouns immediately dependent upon Prepositions are in the Objective Case: as, from *London* to *York*.

NOTE.—The Objective Case of Nouns is the same as the Nominative.

§ 46. The DATIVE CASE also follows the Verb, and denotes the person to whom a thing is given or for whom a thing is done. It denotes the Indirect Object, and may always be known by its being possible to supply to or for before it: as, Give *me* (*i.e.* to me) the daggers; the sailor made *his nephew* a ship (*i.e.* made a ship for his nephew). Here *me* and *nephew* are Datives.

NOTE.—The Dative Case of both Nouns and Pronouns is identical in form with the Objective.

§ 47. The POSSESSIVE CASE denotes the person who possesses something: as, a *soldier's* knapsack, *Caliban's* master, *Goliath's* sword.

Obs. 1. It is not the Possessive Case unless the form of the word itself denotes possession. In the sentence, "My uncle owns a farm in Cheshire," *uncle* is not the Possessive but the Nominative. But in the sentence, "My *uncle's* farm is in Cheshire," *uncle's* is the Possessive, the form of the word itself [*s*] denoting possession.

Obs. 2. In such a phrase as the rays of the sun, *sun* is not the Possessive but the Objective, being dependent upon the Preposition *of* (§ 15).

§ 48. The Possessive Case Singular is formed by adding 's to the Nominative Singular; as, *man, man's; boy, boy's*. The Possessive Case Plural is formed by adding 's or ' only to the Nominative Plural: as, *men, men's; boys, boys'*.

When the plural of a noun ends in s already, the Possessive Plural is indicated by an apostrophe only, without any difference whatever being made to the ear: as, *ladies' gloves; foxes' holes; birds' eggs*. When the plural does not end in s, the full form is used: as, *men's* and *women's* apartments; *sheep's* clothing (Matt. vii. 15).

Obs. In poetry the same usage is also found in the case of singulars ending in *s*: as, "Phæbus' steeds," "Phæbus' fire," "Phæbus' car;" "Brutus' statue," "Brutus' love;" "Brutus' sake" (Shaks.). So especially in such phrases as, "for thy goodness' sake" (Ps. xxv. 7); "for righteousness' sake" (ib. cxliii. 11); "for justice' sake;" (Julius Cæs. iv. 3); for conscience [without 's] sake (1 Cor. x. 28); which, though belonging to the elevated style, are admissible in prose. The *s* is sometimes omitted after proper names ending in *s*: as "Mr. Morris' poetry" (*Spectator Journal*). But there is no sufficient justification for this practice. In the case of French names of persons ending in silent *s*, the Possessive should be written with an additional *s*: as M. Thiers's government; Dumas's works.

§ 49. The following table shows the formation of the Possessive Case, Singular and Plural:—

	Singular.	Singular.
Nominative . . .	boy	man
Possessive . . .	boy's	man's
	Plural.	Plural.
Nominative . . .	boys	men
Possessive . . .	boys'	men's

§ 50. In the case of a name or title consisting of several words, the sign of the Possessive is attached to the last: as, "the Duke of Savoy's nephew" (*Merchant of Venice*, i. 2); Messrs. Sotheran and Co.'s warehouse, &c.

Also when two Nouns are closely connected by the Conjunction *and*, the sign of the Possessive is put with the latter only: as, "Mr. and Mrs. Walmsley's compliments;" "Jane and Emily's kind invitation." But when the persons are quite distinct and independent of each other, the Possessive sign must be used with each: as —

" . . . the pope's and the king's pleasure." (Hume, ii. 177.)

Obs. 1. The use of the apostrophe is a modern practice. Milton writes *mans* disobedience (*P. L.* l. 1), *angels* kenn (ib. 59), *Sions* daughters (ib. 453), and so always [*Pickering's Edition*]. In the early forms of English, when the Noun ended in a consonant, *-es* was the sign of the Possessive Case: as, *God-es*. The apostrophe marks the elision of the vowel. In words ending in *s* the vowel is still pronounced, though not written: as, *Thomas's* book. The *-es* of the Possessive is still retained in the word *Wedn-es-day*, i.e. *Wodenes-day*, or *Woden's day*.

Obs. 2. It was once falsely supposed that the 's of the Possessive Case was an abbreviation of *his*: hence was written "Thomas *his* book," and in the Liturgy, "Christ *his* sake." So Addison writes (*Spectator*, No. 135): "The same single letter [s] on many occasions does the office of the whole word, and represents the *his* and *her* of our forefathers." But how can 's added to feminine nouns represent *her*? There can be no doubt that 's is an abbreviation of the old English genitive *-es*.

§ 51. The VOCATIVE CASE stands by itself, and denotes the person or persons addressed: as—

"Friends, Romans, countrymen, lend me your ears." (*J. Cæs.* iii. 2.)

"Son, thou art ever with me." (Luke xv. 31.)

Obs. The Vocative is sometimes called the Nominative of Address.

§ 52
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Adjectives.

§ 52. An ADJECTIVE is a word used with a Noun to specify some quality or particular of the thing spoken of: as, a *wise* man, a *swift* steamer, a *stone* bridge.

Obs. 1. The Adjective denotes the quality of the *thing*, not of the *Noun*. Thus, if we say, "a good horse," the Adjective *good* specifies what sort of a *horse* is meant, not what sort of a Noun the word *horse* is. The horse is "good"; the Noun "horse" is common, masculine.

Obs. 2. The Possessive Case of a Noun approaches very nearly to the character of an Adjective. Thus, if we say, "John's horse," "John's" is a *word used with the Noun* horse to specify some particular about the horse. And it will be seen below that the Possessive Cases of the Personal Pronouns pass into Adjectives (see § 78). The word *cujus, a, um* (*whose*), is an instance of a Genitive Case in Latin which has undergone a similar change.

Obs. 3. Some Nouns are used as Adjectives without change of form; as, *calico, silk, cotton, iron, steel, silver, gold* (= golden), *brass* (= brazen), etc. See Ex. 80.

NOTE.—In O. E. Adjectives are inflected for Gender, Number, and Case, as in modern German. These inflections had entirely disappeared before the Elizabethan period.

§ 53. *Classification of Adjectives.*—Adjectives may be classified as follows:—

I. Adjectives of Quality [Latin, *qualis, of what sort?*]: as, *good, bad, indifferent; fine, coarse, thick, thin, great, little; English, French, Spanish, Turkish.*

II. Adjectives of Quantity [Lat. *quantus, how great?*]: as, *much, little, enough, some, any, no (none).*

Obs. 1. All Adjectives of quantity are indefinite. Definite quantities are expressed by nouns: as, *a bushel* of wheat; *a pound* of sugar; *a cubic foot* of water.

Obs. 2. Several Adjectives of quantity are used also of number [see below].

III. Adjectives of Number: viz.—

1. The Cardinal Numerals, denoting an exact number: as, *one (an, a), two, twenty*; also the word *both*.

Obs. The words *hundred, thousand, million*, are nouns, as appears from their taking the Adjective *a* before them, and being capable of forming a plural, *hundreds, thousands, millions*. *Hundred* and *hundred* are nouns in the oldest form of English, with regular plurals. Accordingly, one (a) hundred men = one hundred of men, &c.

2. Indefinite Numeral Adjectives: as, *many, few, enough, some, all, any, no (none), several, sundry, certain.*

IV. Distinguishing Adjectives, or Adjectives of Distinction.—These serve to single out an individual from a class: as, *this* man, not *that* man: *this* blue cloth, not *that* blue cloth. They include the following kinds of words:—

1. Demonstrative Adjectives: *this, that*, with their plurals *these, those*; *yond, yon, yonder*; *the*.

NOTE.—*The* and *an* or *a* are usually called ARTICLES. [See § 69.]

2. Ordinal Numerals: as, *first, second, tenth, thousandth*.
 3. Distributives: as, *each, every, either, neither*.
 4. The word *same* with its compound *self-same*.

§ 54. Most of the Adjectives of Quantity are capable of being used substantively: as—

“*Much* have I seen and known” (Tennyson, *Ulyss.*)

“*Little* of this great world can I speak” (*Oth.* i. 3.)

“*Enough* is as good as a feast.” (Prov.)

Obs. *Much, little, enough*, are also used as Adverbs.

§ 55. The Indefinite Numeral Adjective **many** is often used with **an** or **a** for the purpose of denoting a number of persons or things looked at individually: as—

“*Many a* man and *many a* maid.” (*L'Allegro.*)

It then takes a singular Verb: as—

“Full *many a* flower *is* born to blush unseen.” (Gray, *Elegy.*)

Obs. The expression *a many* also occurs in familiar language—

“Shed *a many* tears.” (Tennyson.)

Many has here a noun force: like *a few, a little* (§ 56), *a hundred, a thousand*. (§ 53, III. *Obs.*)

§ 56. **Little, a little; few, a few.**—With the Adjective **an** or **a** [see § 55, *Obs.*], these words have a positive sense; without it, a negative one: as—

“Thou hast *a little* [= some] strength, and hast kept my word.”
(Rev. iii. 8.)

“To make much out of *little*” [= hardly anything].
(Am. R. H. i. 102.)

“I have *a few* [= some] things against thee.” (Rev. ii. 14.)

“*Few* or none of their ships were taken.” (Smollett, *H. C.*)

§ 57. The Demonstrative Adjectives **this** and **that**, with their plurals **these** and **those**, are often used without a Noun. In most cases, however, a Noun is understood, and may be at once supplied: as, *This* book is cheaper than *that* [book]; *these* [books] than *those* [books].

But sometimes a Noun cannot be so supplied, and they must then be regarded as Pronouns. See § 81.

§ 58. The Ordinals, *first, second, third*, are commonly classed as Adjectives of Quantity or Number. But this appears to be incorrect. Adjectives of Number answer to the question, How many?—Answer, *one, two, a hundred, none*. Adjectives of Distinction serve to single out one of a class, and answer the question, Which one?—Answer, *the first, second, hundredth*.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

§ 59. In comparing objects together, certain forms are used to denote the possession of a quality or attribute in a higher degree by one object than by another, or than by all others: as—

“Great Britain is a *large* island.”

“Borneo is a *larger* island than Great Britain.”

“Australia is the *largest* island in the world.”

These forms are called Degrees of Comparison.

There are Three Degrees of Comparison: the Positive, the Comparative, and the Superlative.

§ 60. The Positive Degree does no more than denote the possession of a certain quality: as, a *black* spot; a *white* skin; a *wise* saying; a *high* temperature.

Obs. Strictly speaking, therefore, the Positive is not a Degree of Comparison, but for the sake of convenience it is always reckoned as such in Grammar.

§ 61. The Comparative Degree is used to denote that one thing possesses a certain quality in a higher degree than another: as—

“The Gulf-stream has a *higher* temperature than that of the air.”

(Page.)

“[Words] *sweeter* than honey and the honeycomb.” (Ps. xix. 10.)

“The priestess replied that no other man was *wiser* than Sokrates.”

(Grote.)

Obs. Spenser uses the Comparative Degree in the sense of *too much so*: thy *weaker* novice, i. e. *too weak* (Prol. F. Q.); whose *dryer* brain, i. e. *too dry* (F. Q. i. 42)

This is a Latin usage.

§ 62. The Superlative Degree is used to denote that one thing possesses a certain quality in a higher degree than *all* the other objects with which it is compared: as—

“Her face, it is the *fairest*

That e'er the sun shone on.” (Song.)

"Adam the *goodliest* man of men since born
His sons, the *fairest* of her daughters Eve." (*P. L.* iv.)

Obs. 1. In the last quoted example, Milton has followed a Greek idiom. "*of*" here = *compared with*.

Obs. 2. The Superlative is occasionally used in comparing two objects only, especially in poetry, as:—

"Whose God is *strongest* thine or mine?" (*Milt. Agon.*)

§ 63. Only Adjectives of Quality and Indefinite Adjectives of Quantity and Number are capable of comparison. Such Adjectives as *one, two, three—first, second, third—this, that*—do not admit the possibility of more so and less so. The case is the same with some Adjectives of Quality: as, *single, double, right, left, top, bottom, extreme, supreme, almighty, chief, hexagonal, triangular.*

Obs. Adjectives, having in themselves a Superlative signification, sometimes have the Superlative form superadded, especially in poetry:—

"Whosoever of you will be *chiefest*, shall be servant of all." (*Mark x. 44.*)

"But first and *chiefest* with thee bring

Him, that yon soars on golden wing,

Guiding the fiery-wheeled throne,

The Cherub contemplation." (*Milton, Il Penseroso.*)

"That on the sea's *extremest* border stood." (*Addison.*)

§ 64. FORMATION OF COMPARATIVE AND SUPERLATIVE.—The Comparative is formed by adding *-er*, and the Superlative by adding *-est*, to the Positive: as—

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
sweet	sweeter	sweetest
bright	brighter	brightest

Obs. 1. If the Positive end in *-e, -r* and *-st* only are added: as—

brave	braver	bravest
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Obs. 2. If the Positive end in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, the consonant is doubled before *-er* and *-est*: as—

big	bigger	biggest
hot	hotter	hottest
grim	grimmer	grimmest

Obs. 3. Final *y*, when not preceded by a vowel, is changed into *i* before *-er* and *-est*: as—

but	dry	drier	driest
	coy	coyer	coyest

§ 65. Only Adjectives of one and two syllables are compared by *-er* and *-est*. In other cases comparison is expressed by *more* and *most*: as—

beautiful	more beautiful	most beautiful
unusual	more unusual	most unusual

Obs. 1. In older English, polysyllabic Adjectives were also compared by *-er* and *-est*. Thus we read:—

"no men *avarouser* [more avarous, i.e. avaricious] than hi [they]." (*Piers Plowman, l.*)

"the *marvelloucest* metels [dream]." (*ib. viii.*)

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Also, "willing^r" (*P. L.* ix. 382); "violent^{est}" (*Sh. Cor.* iv. 6); "reverend^{est}" (*id. Tim.* v. 2); "virtuous^{est}" (*P. L.* viii. 550); &c.

But as early as the beginning of the seventeenth century, such forms had ceased to be generally used. Bacon (*Essays*) appears always to prefer *more* and *most*. Some modern writers (as Carlyle) have gone back to the old forms: "powerfullest" (*Fr. Rev.* i. 18); "fruitfuller" (*Ib.* 259); "inflammablest" (*Ib.* 303), &c. —N. B. Not to be imitated.

Obs. 2. In the older writers such double forms as "more braver" (*Temp.* i. 2), "most unkindest" (*J. C.* iii. 2), "most straitest" (*Acts* xxvi. 5), were not uncommon, and are sanctioned by B. Jonson in his *English Grammar*:—

"Furthermore, these adverbs *more* and *most* are added to the comparative and superlative degrees themselves, which should be before the positive. This is a certain kind of English Atticism or eloquent phrase of speech, imitating the manner of the *most ancientest* and *finest* Grecians, who for more emphasis and vehemence's sake used so to speak." (*Nares, Gloss. Sh. s. v. SUPERLATIVE.*)

§ 66. In the case of Adjectives of two syllables, the use of the forms in *-er* and *-est*, or of *more* and *most*, is a question of euphony.

The following frequently add *-er* and *-est*:—

I. Those ending in *-y* (which is changed into *-i* before *-er* and *-est*), *-ble*, *-er*, and *-ow*: as—

happy	happier	happiest
lovely	lovelier	loveliest
able	abler	ablest
noble	nobler	noblest
bitter	bitterer	bitterest
tender	tenderer	tenderest
narrow	narrower	narrowest
shallow	shallower	shallowest
[But <i>proper</i>	<i>more proper</i>	<i>most proper</i>]

II. Adjectives of all terminations in which the accent is on the second syllable: as—

polite	politer	politest
divine	diviner	divinest
complete	completer	completest
corrupt	—	corruptest
uncouth	—	uncouthest
exact	—	exactest

§ 67. Other Adjectives of two syllables for the most part take *more* and *most*. Such are those in *-ed*, *-id*, *-ic*, *-ive*, *-ful*, *-ous*, *-some*, *-ent*, *-ing*: as—

learned	more learned	most learned
stupid	more stupid	most stupid
tragic	more tragic	most tragic
active	more active	most active
awful	more awful	most awful
jealous	more jealous	most jealous
gladsome	more gladsome	most gladsome
decent	more decent	most decent
cunning	more cunning	most cunning

On the other hand, *pleasant* often takes *pleasanter*, *pleasantest*; and *handsome*, *handsomer*, *handsomest*. Also many forms in *-er* and *-est* are to be met with in modern authors, even of Adjectives included under the above rule. They are most common in colloquial language, and the Superlative forms are more plentiful than the Comparative.

§ 68. *Irregular Comparison*.—A number of important words are irregularly compared:—

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
good	better	best
evil } bad }	worse	worst
little	less	least
much	more	most
many	more	most
old	older, elder	oldest, eldest
far	farther	farthest
[forth, <i>adv.</i>]	farther	farthest
fore	former	foremost, first
hind	hinder	hindmost
[in, <i>prep.</i>]	{ inside } { inward }	innermost, innermost
[out, <i>adv.</i>]	{ outside } { outward }	outermost, outermost, uttermost
late	later, latter	latest, last
[neath, <i>prep.</i>]	nether	nethermost
[up, <i>prep.</i>]	upper	upmost, uppermost
nigh	nigher	nighest, next
[top, <i>noun</i>]		topmost

Obs. 1. By irregular comparison of Adjectives is meant the formation of the Comparative or Superlative degree from a different root from that of the Positive, or by a process no longer in use. Thus the words *better*, *best*, have no etymological connexion whatever with *good*; and in like manner the words *worse*, *worst*, have no etymological connexion with *evil* (the older form of the Positive) or *bad*.

On the other hand, *elder*, *eldest* [O. E. *yltre*, *yltrest*], are regularly enough formed from *old*, but by an obsolete process. (Compare Germ. *alt*, *älter*, *ältest*.)

Obs. 2. *Older* and *oldest* are used of both persons and things. *Elder* and *eldest* are used of persons only, and chiefly with reference to members of the same family or company: as, "his *elder* son" (Luke xv. 25); "the three *eldest* sons of Jesse" (1 Sam. xvii. 13); but also, "an *elder* soldier" (*J. C.* iv. 2), where the reference is not to members of a family.

Obs. 3. Concerning the etymology of *farther* and *further*, see ADVERBS. *Farther* is rare as Adjective.

Obs. 4. *Less* and *worse* have in some writers further comparatives *lesser* and *worser* [not so frequent]:—

"The *lesser* light to rule the night." (Gen. i. 16.)

"Attend to what a *lesser* Muse indites." (Addison.)

"Chang'd to a *worser* shape thou canst not be." (Sh., *Hen. VI.* Pt. I. v. 3.)

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"A dreadful quiet felt, and *wors'er far*
Than arms, a sullen interval of war." (Dryden.) See § 65, *Obs.* 2.

The form *lesser* has established itself in general use in the phrase *Lesser Asia*.
Nearer is also a double Comparative. Original forms: Positive, *neah*, Comp. *nearre*
(i. e. near), Sup. *nyst*, *whst*.

Obs. 5. Where two forms of the Comparative or Superlative exist, there is usually
a difference of meaning between them. This is the case with *later*, *latter*; *latest*,
last; *foremost*, *first*; *outer*, *utter* (*uttermost*): *nighest*, *next*.

ARTICLES.

§ 69. **The** and **an** or **a** are usually called **Articles**,
but are properly **Adjectives**: see § 53, IV.

Obs. *Article* comes from Latin *articulus*, "a small joint:" a term applied to sub-
ordinate words and connectives generally.

§ 70. **The** is called the **DEFINITE ARTICLE**. Its prin-
cipal use is to indicate that some particular individual
of a class is referred to: as, *the* Queen (of England); *the*
United Kingdom (of Great Britain and Ireland); *the* play-
ground (belonging to some particular school).

Obs. On the same principle must be explained the use of the word *the* to denote
an entire class of objects, as in Natural History. When we speak of *the* lion, *the*
elephant, *the* rose, *the* daisy, *the* diamond, it is in order to distinguish that par-
ticular species from other species.

§ 71. **An** or **a** is called the **INDEFINITE ARTICLE**. It is
a weakened form of the numeral adjective *one*, but it
is used when we do not wish to lay the same stress on
the idea of number. **A** or **an** shows that it is *one* thing
of the kind, leaving it uncertain *which*; while **the** deter-
mines *which one* it is, or, in the case of more than one,
which they are. Thus *a man* means *some one* of mankind
indefinitely, *the man* means definitely *that particular man*
who is spoken of.

Example:—

"*Man* was made for society, and ought to extend his goodwill to
all *men*; but *a man* will naturally entertain a more particular kindness
for *the man* with whom he has the most frequent intercourse; and
enter into a still closer union with *the men* whose temper and disposi-
tion suit best with his own." (Lowth.)

§ 72. **An** becomes **a** before consonants, including *w*, *y*,
also before **h** aspirated, and (usually) before *u* (*eu*) when
sounded *yu*. Otherwise **an** is used. Thus we say, *an*
eagle, *an* hour, *an* umpire; but *a* man, *a* woman, *a* yew-
tree, *a* history, *a* unicorn, *a* European.

Obs. 1. When a word beginning with *h* aspirated has the accent on the second syllable, *an* is usually preferred to *a*. But both usages are found in good authors: as—

- "An historical fact." (Grote, *Greece*, i. 270.)
 "An hypothesis." (*Ib.* 477; Sir W. Ham. *Ess.* 66.)
 "The impartiality of an historian." (Arn. *H. R.* pref.)
 "An historical narrative." (Hallam, *Mid. Ages*, pref.)
 "An historic character." (Rawl. *Herol.* i. 382.)
 "An historic fact." (P. Smith, *World*, i. 318.)
 "An historical parallel." (Mac. [Bain].)
 "An heretical prince." (*D'Isr. Curios. Chas.* 1.)

And on the other hand—

- "A historian." (Mac. *H. E.* i. 283.)
 "A historical chain." (Lewis, *Cred.* i. 7.)
 "A historian." (*Ib.* 15.)
 "A historical account." (*Ib.* 270.)
 "A historical picture." (Hare, *Guesses*, i. 388.)

Obs. 2. In older English *an* is used before *h* aspirated, as *an* host (Ps. xxvii. 3), and before *u = yu*: as, "an unicorn" (Ps. xcii. 10). In the latter case it is not unfrequently used by modern writers and speakers. Macaulay writes, "an European adventurer" (*Clive*); "an European warrior" (*Hastings*), &c.

§ 73. *A* or *an* can be joined only to Nouns in the Singular number: *the* may be joined also to Plurals.

Obs. There is an apparent exception to this rule in the use of the Indefinite Article with the Adjectives *few* and *many* (the latter chiefly with the word *great* before it), even though joined with plural nouns: as, *a few men, a great many men*. But this is to be explained by the fact that the number is taken collectively, and therefore the idea of a whole, that is, of unity, is conveyed. *Few* and *many* are in fact used as Nouns, like *hundred, thousand*, &c.: § 55, *Obs.*

The Pronoun.

§ 74. The word Pronoun means *for-a-noun*. A Pronoun is a word which stands for a Noun, and does the work of a Noun.

Obs. The Pronouns are short handy words, and their use prevents the necessity for continually repeating the names of persons or things.

Besides this, the two principal Pronouns *I* and *thou* express in a peculiar manner the idea of personality, since they imply that the one person is speaking to the other. Thus the use of them gives to language a kind of dramatic force. This is seen in the following examples:—

- "I will arise and go to my father." (Luke xv. 18.)
 "I am a man more sinned against than sinning." (Shaks. *King Lear*, iii. 2.)
 "And Nathan said to David, 'THOU ART THE MAN.'" (2 Sam. xii. 7.)

§ 75. KINDS OF PRONOUNS.—Pronouns are divided into the following classes:—

1. Personal Pronouns.
2. Reflexive Pronouns.
3. Demonstrative Pronouns.
4. Interrogative Pronouns.
5. Relative Pronouns.
6. Indefinite Pronouns.

1. Personal Pronouns.

§ 76. The Personal Pronouns are **I, thou, he (she, it)**. **I** is called the pronoun of the First Person; **Thou** the pronoun of the Second Person; and **He** the pronoun of the Third Person. The first (**I**) denotes the person speaking; the second (**thou**) the person spoken to; and the third a person spoken of.

Obs. *I* and *thou*, with their plurals *we*, *ye* or *you*, are the only original Personal Pronouns. The Pronoun *he* was originally a Demonstrative Adjective.

§ 77. The Pronouns **I** and **thou** are inflected for number and case only; the Pronoun **he** for gender also.

	Singular.	Plural.	
Nom.	I	we	} First Person.
Obj.	me	us	
Dat.	me	us	
Po. s.	my, mine	our, ours	
Nom.	thou	ye, you	} Second Person.
Obj.	thee	you, [ye]	
Dat.	thee	you	
Poss.	thy, thine	your, yours	
Voc.	thou!	ye, you!	

	Masc.	F. m.	Neut.	Plural: all Genders.
Nom.	he	she	it	they
Obj.	him	her	it	them
Dat.	him	her	it	them
Poss.	his	her, hers	its (old English, his)	their, theirs

Obs. 1. The Second personal pronoun only can have a Vocative case, since it is the only Pronoun that can be used in speaking to a person.

Obs. 2. The Pronoun *I* has no plural in the strict sense of the word. There can be but one *I*. The plural *we* denotes not several *I*'s, but *I* and some one else: as, You and I; my brother and I; my fellow-townsmen and I (all = *we*).

Obs. 3. In the oldest form of English *ye* is used only in the Nominative, never in the Objective case. But in the elevated style, *ye* is not unfrequently used as an Objective: as—

"The more shame for *ye*: holy men I thought *ye*." (Shakspeare, *Henry VIII.*)

"Vain pomp and glory of this world, I hate *ye*!" (*Ib.*)

"His wrath, which one day will destroy *ye* both." (Milton, *Par. Lost*, ii. 734.)

Obs. 4. *His* is a modern form; the original Possessive being *his*. *His* continued to be the regular form until the seventeenth century: as—

"Learning hath *his* infancy, when *it* is but beginning, and almost childish; then *his* youth, when *it* is luxuriant and juvenile; then *his* strength of years, when *it* is solid and reduced; and lastly *his* old age, when *it* waxeth dry and exhaust." (Bacon, *Essay* 58.)

His, the old Possessive of *it*, is regularly used in the English Bible:—

"Thou shalt make a candlestick of pure gold: . . . *his* shaft, and *his* branches *his* bowls, *his* knops, and *his* flowers, shall be of the same." (Exod. xxv. 31.)

"If the salt have lost *his* savour . . ." (Matt. v. 13.)

The uninflected form *it* was also sometimes used for the Possessive: Abbott, *Sh. Gr.* § 222. This usage still prevails as a provincialism. [Lancashire.]

NOTE.—In O. E. the Pronouns *I* and *thou* have also Dual forms: *wit* = we two, *git* = ye two; which are fully inflected for case.

§ 78. *Pronominal Adjectives.*—The Possessive cases are now often used quite as Adjectives, and may be parsed as such.

my, mine	our, ours
thy, thine	your, yours
his, her, hers, its	their, theirs

The forms *mine*, *thine*, *ours*, *yours*, *hers*, *theirs*, are used only in the predicate of a sentence: as, "the fault is *mine*;" " *thine* is the kingdom;" "deathless fame is *theirs*." The forms *my*, *thy*, *her*, *our*, *your*, *their*, are used attributively (§ 222): as, "it is *my* fault;" " *thy* kingdom is everlasting;" "deathless is *their* fame."

Sometimes, especially in the elevated language of poetry and oratory, the forms *mine* and *thine* are used attributively, but only before a Noun beginning with a vowel:—

"Hast thou found me, O *mine* enemy?" (1 Kings xxi. 20.)

"Give every man *thine* ear, but few thy voice." (*Hamlet*, i. 3.)

"Thou shalt love thy neighbour and hate *thine* enemy." (Mat. v. 43.)

"*Thine* anguish will not let thee sleep." (Tennyson, *Teco Vo'ces*.)

So in the familiar expression, "Mine host." (Scott.)

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Obs. In all languages of the Indo-European family, adjectives denoting possession were early formed from the Personal Pronouns. Compare the Latin *meus, tuus, suus, noster, vester*; the German *mein, meinige, dein, deinige, &c.* So in the oldest form of English, *min, mi: thin, thi.*

The term "Possessive Pronouns" commonly applied to these words is illogical. There exist in most languages adjective forms derived from nouns, denoting possession: *e.g.* in Latin, *Romúleus, Priaméius, belonging to Romulus, to Priam.* But no one has ever proposed calling these Possessive Nouns.

2. Reflexive Pronouns.

§ 79. The word *Reflexive* comes from the Latin Verb *reflecto, I bend back.* There are certain pronominal forms which are used to denote the *coming back* of an action upon the doer. These are called Reflexive Pronouns, and are used when we speak of doing something *to or for oneself.*

These are—

Singular.	Plural.
myself (ourselves)	ourselves
thyself (yourself)	yourselves
himself, herself, itself	themselves

also *oneself*, which has no plural. Examples:—

"I know *myself* now . . ." (Shaks. *Henry VIII.* iii. 2.)

"Love *thyself* last . . ." (*Ib.*)

"Boast not *thyself* of to-morrow." (Prov. xxvii. 1.)

"he that wrongs his friend
Wrongs *himself* more. . ." (Tennyson, *Sea-dreams.*)

"Vaulting ambition which o'erleaps *itself* . . ." (Shaks. *Macb.* i. 7.)

N.B.—The forms *his-self, their-selves*, are not now used; but they occur in older writers:—

"That they would willingly and of *theirselves* endeavour to keep a perpetual chastity." (*Stat. 2 and 3 Edward VI.* ch. xxi.)

On the other hand the plural forms *ourselves, yourselves*, are the only ones now in use. This is an anomaly.

The form *ourself* belongs to the Royal style:—

"We . . . did give *ourself*
To barbarous licence." (Shaks. *Hen.* V. i. 2.)

The word *self*, when standing alone, is a Noun:—

"To thine own *self* be true . . ." (Shaks. *Hamlet*, i. 3.)

Obs. 1. In the earliest form of English, *self* is an Adjective, agreeing with the Pronoun to which it is attached, as in Modern German.

Obs. 2. *Oneself* is a comparatively modern form. Bacon writes inst ad a *man's self*: as—

"To praise a *man's self* [se ipsum laudare] cannot be decent." (*Essays, Praise.*)

"It is a strange desire to seek power over others, and to lose power over a *man's self.*" (*Ib. Of Great Power.*)

It is not included by Johnson among the compounds of *self*, but occurs in writings contemporary with him written as two separate words: as—

“To mind the inside of a book is to entertain *one's self* with the forced product of another man's brain.” (Cibber, *Relapse*.)

“Ruining *one's self* with one's eyes open.” (*Spect.* No. 398.)

The analogy of *himself*, *themselves*, is in favour of the orthography *oneself* (rather than *one's self*), [T. K. Arnold, Rushton,] and this form is perhaps the more common in the present day.

§ 80. Sometimes these forms are not reflexive, but are used for the sake of emphasis. Examples:—

“He that hides a dark soul and foul thoughts
Benighted walks beneath the mid-day sun;
Himself is his own dungeon.” (Milton, *Comus*.)

“*Myself* will to St. James's go.” (Scott, *Lady of the Lake*.)

3. Demonstrative Pronouns.

§ 81. The Demonstrative Pronouns **this** and **that**, with their Plurals **these** and **those**, are properly Adjectives. See § 53, IV., § 57. They are used as Pronouns in the following cases:—

(1.) When **that**, with its plural **those**, is used to prevent the repetition of a preceding Noun: as—

“The castle of Stirling is such another as *that* of Edinburgh”
(Smollett, *H. C.*)

“The public inns of Edinburgh are still worse than *those* of London.” (*Ib.*)

(2.) When **this** and **that** are equivalent to *the one . . . the other*; **this** referring to the latter of two things mentioned, and **that** to the former: as—

“ . . . reason raise o'er instinct as you can,
In *this* 'tis God directs, in *that* 'tis man.” (Pope, *Essay*.)

Obs. Occasionally *this* is made to refer to the former, and *that* to the latter, but only when the sense is unmistakable. Koch quotes the following example from Sir Walter Scott:—

“Your eyes contradict your tongue. *That* speaks of a protector, willing and able to watch over you; but *these* tell me you are ruined.” (*Kenilworth*.)

(3.) **This** and **that** often refer to the whole of a preceding sentence: as—

“See Falkland dies, the virtuous and the just!
See godlike Turenne prostrate in the dust!
See Sidney bleeds amid the martial strife!
Was *'tis* their virtue, or contempt of life?” (Pope, *Essay*, iv.)

“To be or not to be—*that* is the question.” (Shaks. *Hamlet*, iii. 1.)

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4. Interrogative Pronouns.

§ 82. The Interrogative Pronouns are those which are used in asking questions. They are **who**, **which**, **what**, **whether**.

Obs. *Who*, *which*, *what*, were Interrogatives before they became Relatives. In the oldest form of English the Relative Pronoun is *that*, *the*. *Who* first occurs as a Relative in Orm, a writer of the thirteenth century. (Koch, ii. § 356.)

§ 83. **Who** is the only one of these pronouns which is declined. It is the same in the singular and the plural:—

	Singular and Plural.
Nom.	who
Obj.	whom
Poss.	whose

Obs. *Whom* was originally a Dative [hwam, Masc. and Neut.]; but it is now rarely if ever used except as an Objective. Instead of the simple Dative we use *to whom*: as, "To whom did you give it?" not "Whom did you give it?" (Meiklejohn, i. p. 25.)

§ 84. The Interrogative **who** is used with reference to persons only, and always substantively. The Interrogative **which** is used both substantively and adjectively, and both of persons and things. **Who** asks a question in the widest and most general manner; **which** supposes a class or group out of which one or more are to be selected (Bain). Examples:—

"Who [in the world] calls so loud?" (*Romeo and Juliet*, v. 1.)

" . . . which [of the pair] is the natural man,
And which the spirit? Who deciphers them?"
(*Comedy of Errors*, v. 1.)

"Stay, stand apart; I know not which is which." (*Ib.*)

"Which of you (the disciples) by taking thought can add one cubit to his stature?" (Matt. vi. 27.)

"Which way went (he) from me to speak to thee?"
(1 Kings xxii. 24.)

§ 85. The Interrogative **what** is used both substantively and adjectively. When used substantively, it is always neuter; when used adjectively, it may be applied to both persons and things. Examples:—

"What is sweeter than honey? What is stronger than a lion?"
(Judges xiv. 18.)

"Wherefore rejoice? *What conquest* brings he home?
What tributaries follow him to Rome?" (*Julius Cæsar*, i. 1.)

"*What king*, going to war against another king, sitteth not down
 first and consulteth? . . ." (Luke xiv. 31.)

The Interrogative **what** is often used by way of exclamation: as—

"*What* infinite heart's ease must kings neglect
 That private men enjoy!" (*Henry V.* iv. 1.)

"*What* dignity, *what* beauty, in this change
 From mild to angry, and from sad to gay!" (Words. *Excurs.* iii.)

§ 86. **Whether** = *which of two?*—It is used in the Nominative and Objective, without inflexion. **Whether** is rare as a Pronoun in modern English, but occurs frequently in earlier English: as—

"*Whether* of them twain did the will of his father?" (Matt. xxi. 31.)

"Show *whether* of these two thou hast chosen." (Acts i. 24.)

In modern English **whether** is chiefly used as a Conjunction.

§ 87. **Whereof, whereat, wherefrom, &c.**—These compounds are precisely equivalent to *of what? at what? from what?* They are nearly obsolete. [Compare section on their use as Relative Adverbs: § 102.]

5. Relative Pronouns.

§ 88. A Relative Pronoun is one that *relates* to a Noun going before. But other Pronouns beside the Relatives do this; and the name is confined to such as, in addition, serve to connect the clause which they introduce to the former part of the sentence.

The Relative Pronouns are **who, which, that, what**, with their compounds **whoso, whosoever, whichsoever, whatsoever, &c.**

§ 89. The connecting power of the Relative is seen in the following examples:—

"They were soon joined by Front de Bœuf, *who* had been disturbed in his tyrannical cruelty." (*Ivan.* c. xxv.)

"She threw open the latticed window *which* led to the bartizan . . ." (*Ib.* xxiv.)

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"The letter being folded was delivered to the squire, and by him delivered to the messenger, *who* waited without . . ." (*Ib.* xxxv.)

"Blessed is the man *that* walketh not in the counsel of the ungodly . . ." (Ps. i.)

But for the use of a Relative all the above sentences must have been broken up into two separate parts: thus—

They were soon joined by Front de Bœuf. Front de Bœuf [or, he—this man] had been disturbed, &c.

The letter was delivered to the messenger. The messenger [or, he—the latter] waited without, &c.

She threw open the window. This led, &c.

Blessed is that man. That man walketh, &c. [But see § 233.]

No other Pronoun has this power: so that a Relative may be described as Pronoun and Conjunction in one. Hence it has been proposed to do away with the name Relative, and call these words instead Conjunctive Pronouns.

NOTE.—The Noun to which a Relative Pronoun relates is called the *Antecedent* (Latin *antecedere*, "to go before").

§ 90. **Who** is the same in the Singular and the Plural, and is declined like the interrogative:—

Singular and Plural.	
Nom.	who
Obj.	whom
Dat.	[whom]
Poss.	whose.

The Nominative **who** and Objective **whom** are now used only of persons. The Possessive **whose** has a wider application. It is used in speaking of living creatures generally, and even of things without life.

Examples:—

"Go to, let us build us a city and a tower *whose* top may reach unto heaven." (Gen. xi. 4.)

"There stood a *hill* not far *whose* griesly top
Belched fire and rolling-smoke." (Milton, *Paradise Lost*, l.)

"On a *rock whose* haughty brow . . ." (Gray, *Bard*.)

" ruined *buildings whose* walls preserve divers inscriptions and names." (Pope, *Guardian*, iv.)

"I cannot conclude without taking leave of the beauty of the *Greek names whose* etymologies acquaint us with the nature of the sports."
(Id. *Mart. Scrib.* ch. iv.)

"This morning I saw *the golden-crested wren, whose crown glitters like burnished gold.*" (White, *Selborne*, Letter xvi.)

"The reasoning *faculty* is that *whose* cultivation is chiefly to be encouraged in an university education." (Sir W. Hamilton, *Essays*, p. 266.)

"... a period *whose* history is clearly founded upon contemporary evidence." (Lewis, *R. H.* i. 19.)

"The *adjectives whose* comparatives and superlatives are irregularly formed are in every language the most ancient." (H. Rogers, *Essays*, ii.)

On the other hand, Macaulay writes:—

"Society . . . has great reason to rejoice when *a class, of which* the influence is moral and intellectual, rises to ascendancy." (*H. E.* i. 7.)

Obs. There is no etymological reason for objecting to the use of *whose* with reference to other nouns besides those denoting persons. In the oldest form of English this word [*hwæs* = whose] was of all genders, and as such it has been used by standard English authors in all periods. This application of it, however, savours of a somewhat more elevated style than that proper to conversation.

§ 91. **Which** was formerly used of persons as well as of things. Hence in the Lord's Prayer, "Our Father *which* art in Heaven." As a Relative Pronoun, it is now used only of animals and things without life.

Which also differs from **who** in being frequently used as an Adjective.

Examples:—

"*Which things are an allegory.*" (Gal. iii. 24.)

"*Which pillage they [the bees] with merry march bring home To the tent royal of their emperor.*" (*Henry V.* i. 2.)

§ 92. Sometimes the antecedent is repeated with **which**, to avoid ambiguity: as —

"He replied by pointing to the idle legend of Mahomet's pigeon . . . *which legend [not which pigeon]* had been accredited and adopted by Grotius." (De Quincey, *Conf.* p. 47.)

"He offered no defence for the ridiculous fable of the pigeon; *which pigeon [not which fable]* on the contrary he represented," &c. (*Ib.* p. 48.)

§ 93. **That**, strictly a Demonstrative Adjective, is of more ancient use as a Relative than either *who* or *which*. It is the same for Singular and Plural, and may refer to either persons or things. See Syntax, § 237.

§ 94. **What** is etymologically the neuter of **who**.

As a Relative, it is used only of things, and always without an antecedent expressed. Thus it is practically equivalent to *that which, the thing which*.

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§ 95. What is used in the Nominative and Objective Singular only: as—

(Nom.) “*What* is one man’s meat is another man’s poison.” (Prov.)

(Obj.) “*What* I have written I have written.” (John xix. 22.)

Obs. It will be seen (§ 236) that the Relative *who* is sometimes used in like manner without an antecedent expressed. But that which is exceptional with *who* is the rule with *what* and its compounds.

§ 96. The Relative **what** is occasionally found as an Adjective, but in poetry alone:—

“*What* time the splendour of the setting sun
Lay beautiful on Snowdon’s sovereign brow.” (Words. *Excurs.* vii.)

(*What time* = *at the time at which*: Lat. *quo tempore*.)

Obs. Care must be taken not to confound subordinate interrogative clauses beginning with *who* or *what* with relative clauses. In the sentence, “I know what is correct” (Rushton, § 242), *what* is not used as a relative, but as an interrogative; and is not there to be explained by *that which*. “What is correct” is a subordinate interrogative sentence, and forms as a whole the object of the verb “*know*.” [Noun sentence.]

§ 97. In older English, the Relative Pronoun **that** is also used as implying its own antecedent: as—

“Lo! there thou hast *that* (= that which) is thine.”

(Matt. xxv. 25.)

“*That* [that which] thee is sent receive in buxomness.”*

(*Good Counsel of Chaucer*.)

§ 98. **Whoever, whichever, whatever; whoso, whosoever, whichsoever, whatsoever.**—These compounds resemble the Relative **what** in being used without an antecedent. The suffixes *-ever, -so, -soever*, have a generalising effect.

Whosoever is the only one declined: it is the same in the Singular and the Plural.

Nom.	whosoever
Obj.	whomsoever
Poss.	whosoesoever.

§ 99. **Whoever, whichever, whatever**, are of common use. The forms with *-so*, as **whoso, whosoever, &c.**, are nearly obsolete. They occur frequently in older

* Submissiveness.

English, and abound in the Authorised Version of the Scriptures:—

“*Whoso* diggeth a pit shall fall therein.” (Prov. xxvi. 27.)

“*Whose-soever* sins ye remit, they are remitted. (John xx. 23.)

“All things *whatsoever* ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so to them.” (Matt. vii. 12.)

“*Whosoever* will be saved” (Church Service.)

§ 100. **As.**—The Adverb *as* has sometimes the force of a Relative, especially after the word **such**: as—

“Tears *such as* angels weep” (Milt. *P. L.* i.)

“He scarce had finished when *such* murmur filled
The assembly, *as* when hollow rocks retain
The sound of blustering winds” (*Ib.* ii.)

Obs. In older English, a true Relative Pronoun is often used after *such*: as—

“A goodly day not to keep house with *such*
Whose roof’s as low as ours.” (*Cymb.* iii. 3.)

“*Such* I will have *whom* I am sure he knows not from the enemy.” (*All’s Well*, &c., iii. 6.)

“. . . . with looks

Downcast and sad yet *such wherein* [see § 102] appeared
Obscure some glimpse of joy.” (*Paradise Lost*, i. 522.)

§ 101. The word *as* is also used with a Relative force after **same**, especially when no Verb is expressed after it: as—

“Jeshuah the *same as* Jeshua.” (*Diet. Bible.*)

“Jesiah is the *same as* Jeshiah.” (*Ib.*)

“It chirrupps much in the *same strain as* the other”
(White, *Sell. Notes*, p. 77.)

But not often so when a Verb follows:—

“Art thou then afraid
To be the *same* in thine own act and valour
As thou art in desire?” (*Macb.* i. 7.) [Rushton.]

Obs. 1. In this last example, modern idiom would prefer, “the *same that* thou art in desire.”

Obs. 2. The use of *as* for *who* or *that* after Nouns and Pronouns [“the man *as* told me the story”] is a simple vulgarism.

§ 102. **Whereof, whereto, whereby, &c.**—These compounds of **where** are virtual Relatives:—

whereof = of which
whereby = by which
whereto = to which
&c. &c.

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Examples :—

“Alas! how can we for our country pray,
Whereto we are bound, together with thy victory,
Whereto we are bound?” (*Cor.* v. 3.)

“Lethe, the river of oblivion, rolls
 Her watery labyrinth, *whereof* who drinks
 Forgets both joy and grief, pleasure and pain.” (*P. L.* ii.)

They are nearly obsolete except in legal phraseology.

Obs. In the same manner *thereof*, *thereby*, *thereto*, &c., are equivalent to *of it*, *by it*, *to it*, &c.

6. Indefinite Pronouns.

§ 103. These are **one, none, somebody, nobody, aught, naught, each, either, neither, other, another, same, such.**

Obs. The words *all, any, every, some*, are often classed as Indefinite Pronouns. But it is more logical to treat them as Adjectives, since they are always used with a Noun either expressed or capable of being supplied.

§ 104. **One.**—The Indefinite Pronoun **one** has the following uses :—

(1.) It is used like the French *on*, and the German *man* (*man*), to denote an individual as representing in general : as—

“*One* can say to *one's* friend the things that stand in need of pardon, and at the same time be sure of it.” (*Pope, Letters.*)

“To see the way in which he tipped children made *one* almost long to be a boy again.” (*Thack. Newc.* vi.)

“A quiet conscience makes *one* so serene.” (*Byron.*)

Reflexive form : *oneself, one's self* : § 79, *Obs.* 2.

Obs. 1. In this sense *one* is sometimes derived [Mason, Morell] from the Fr. *on* (*i. e.* *homme*), but it is undoubtedly the same word as the Numeral. (*Koch*, ii. 284; *Mätzner*, iii. 246.)

(2.) It serves to prevent the repetition of a Noun already used. In this sense it has a plural :—

“You seem to be a close *observer*, Sir.”—“Necessity has made me *one*.” (*Cooper, Spy*, iv.)

“The longest life, if a good *one*, is the best.” (*Pope, Letters.*)

“Thou must take *measures*—speedy *ones*.” (*Coleridge, Piccol.*)

(3.) *The one . . . the other*, used by way of distinction as—

“Two men went up into the Temple to pray ; *the one* a Pharisee, and *the other* a publican.” (*Luke xviii.* 10.)

(4.) = a *person, creature, being* : as—

“Thine Holy *One*.” (*Ps.* xvi. 10.)

“Take heed that ye despise not one of these little *ones*.”

(*Matt.* xviii. 10.)

(5.) = *a certain person* [Lat. *quidam*]: as —
 “*One* in a certain place testifieth . . .” (Hebr. ii. 6.)

(6.) **Any one, some one, no one, each one, every one.**—These may be regarded as compounds of *one*, and in parsing treated as single words.

§ 105. **None.**—*None* is the stronger form of *no*, and is used when the noun to which it refers is omitted: as—

“Can naught but blood our feud atone?
 Are there *no* means?”—“No, stranger, *none*.” (Scott, *L. L. v.*)
 “Then *none* have I offended.” (*Julius Cæsar*, iii. 2.)

“Heed not though *none* should call thee fair.” (Wordsworth.)

Obs. In older English *none* is used adjectively before a word beginning with a vowel: as—

“*None* other name under heaven.” (Acts iv. 12.)

§ 106. **Everybody, somebody, nobody.**—These words are synonymous with *every one, some one, no one (no man)*, but are more colloquial and familiar: as—

“What is *everybody's* business is *nobody's* business.” (Prov.)

“*Somebody* has been sitting in my chair.” (*Fairy Tale*.)

Obs. 1. In a secondary sense, *somebody* = *a person of importance*, and *nobody*, *a person of no importance*. In this sense they may take a plural:—

“Before these days rose up Theudas, boasting himself to be *somebody*.”

(Acts v. 36.)

“Titled *nobodys*.” (Thack. *Newc.* xvi.)

Obs. 2. *Every* was formerly much used as a Pronominal form standing by itself: as—

“He proposeth unto God their necessities, and they their own requests, for relief in *every* of them.” (Hooker, v. 39.)

We now should say, *every one*. (Lowth.)

Obs. 3. The phrases *some one else, some body else*, etc., may be treated as compounds, with Possessive, *some one's else* or *some one else's*. The latter seems preferable.

§ 107. **Aught, naught.**—These nearly obsolete forms are equivalent to *anything, nothing*. In modern English they are chiefly confined to poetry.

Examples:—

“Nothing extenuate
 Nor set down *ought* in malice.” (*Othello*, end.)

“If *nought* in loveliness compare
 With what thou art to me.” (Wordsworth.)

Obs. The true spelling is *ought, naught* [O. E. *āwht, āht; nāwht, nāht*]. But *nought*, especially, is often spelt with *o*, as in the latter of the above examples.

§ 108. **Each** signifies *all* taken separately. It is strictly an adjective, but is very frequently used without a noun, when it may be regarded as a Pronoun: as—

"Let *each* his adamantine coat gird well." (*P. L.* vi.)

"That *each* who seems a separate whole
Should move his rounds" (*In Mem.* vi.)

Each one may be regarded as a compound form.

Each other is strictly an elliptical expression. They love *each other* = they love, *each* (loves) *the other*; *each* being Nom. and *other* Obj. But the two words are now usually treated as a compound, and as such they may be most conveniently parsed. (Compare Gr. ἀλλήλων = ἄλλοι ἄλλων.)

Examples:—

"In character they resembled *each other* very little." (*Mac. II. E.*)

"They place the feathers in such a manner as to reflect a lustre on *each other*." (*Pope, Letters.*)

So with **one another**:—

"We saunter to *one another's* [ἀλλήλων] habitations and daily assist *each other* in doing nothing at all." (*Ib.*)

N.B.—The forms *each other*, *one another*, denoting mutual action, are commonly called Reciprocal Pronouns. The expression *one another* is incorrectly used where only two persons are spoken of. See § 111.

§ 109. **Either, neither**.—These may be called *duai* words, and signify respectively *one of the two, not one of the two*: as—

"Spirits when they please can *either* sex assume." (*P. L.* i.)

"Truth may lie on both sides, on *either* side or on *neither*."
(*Carlyle, Fred.*)

Obs. It is incorrect to use *either* and *neither* where there are several alternatives. *Either of the ten* [Webster] is bad English. This error is more common in South Britain than in North. The following quotation exemplifies the correct usage:—

"If *either* of the parties to be tried [plaintiff or defendant] can gain over *one* of the twelve jurors, he has secured the verdict in his favour." (*Smollett, H. C.* 223.)

Either and neither occasionally take a Possessive form: as—

"So parted they as *either's* way them led." (*Shaks. in F. and S.*)

"Where *either's* fall determines both their fates."
(*Rowe, Lucan.*) [*Ib.*]

§ 110. **Other** is used both adjectively and as a Pronoun. As a Pronoun, it is declined thus:—

	Singular.	Plural.
Nom. and Obj.	other [another]	others
Poss.	other's [another's]	others'.

Examples:—

“No man can serve two masters: for either he will hate *the one*, and love *the other*; or else he will hold to *the one*, and despise *the other*.”
(Luke xvi. 13.)

“Let no man seek his own, but every man *another's* wealth.”
(1 Cor. x. 24.)

“A man that hath no virtue in himself ever envieth virtue in *others*; for men's minds will either feed upon their own good or upon *others' evil*.” (Bacon, *Essays*.)

§ 111. **The one . . . the other** serve to distinguish *two* persons or things; **one . . . another** are used when a greater number are spoken of. Compare § 108, end.

§ 112. **Same, self-same.**—**Same** is often used with the Definite Article, to prevent the repetition of the Noun to which it refers. It is then a true Pronoun.

This way of speaking is very common in legal phraseology: as—

“ . . . that no man hereafter be compelled to make or yield any gift, loan, benevolence . . . or be confined or otherwise molested or disquieted concerning *the same* or for refusal thereof.”
(*Petition of Right*.)

§ 113. **Such.**—**Such** is also used to represent a preceding Noun, when it has a pronominal force: as—

“This, I conceive, their productions show to be the opinion of the authors themselves; and this must be the opinion of their readers, if indeed there be any *such*” [*i. e.* any readers]. (Fielding, *T. J.* ix. 1.)

“Friends he has few . . .
Who dare be *such*.” (Dryden, *Abs. and Ach.*)

The Verb.

§ 114. A Verb is a word by means of which we state nothing: as—

“The sun *is* bright.”

“Birds *sing*.”

“Charles I. *was* beheaded.”

NOTE.—*Verb* comes from the Latin *verbum* ‘word,’ the Verb being the chief word of the sentence.

Obs. 1. But it does not follow that a Verb is used only to make a statement. The Imperative Mood for example states nothing, but indicates a command or wish. See also Infinitive Mood [§ 126].

Obs. 2. A Verb is sometimes defined as a word which signifies *being* or *doing*. But there seems to be no propriety in bringing into a general definition the meanings of particular classes of Verbs. A definition ought simply to notice what is common to all. Again, take the sentence, Duke William *became* king of England:—the word *became* is certainly a Verb, yet it denotes neither *being* nor *doing*.

§ 115. Verbs are classified as follows:—

1. TRANSITIVE VERBS, which denote an action not confined to the doer, but taking effect upon something else: as—

“Iron *sharpeneth* iron.” (Prov. xxvii. 17.)

“A soft answer *turneth* away wrath.” (*Ib.* xv. 1.)

[Lat. *transire*, “to pass over”; because the action passes from the agent to the object.]

NOTE.—Transitive Verbs are also used *Reflexively*: as, *I strike myself*, *He loves himself*; and *Reciprocally*: as, *They love one another*.

2. INTRANSITIVE VERBS, which denote *being* or *becoming*; also any action confined to the doer, and not taking effect upon anything else: as—

“Snow *is* white.”

“Water *freezes* at a temperature of 32° Fahrenheit.”

“The cold *grew* more and more intense.”

“The sun *shines*.”

“The dervishes *spin* round and round.”

§ 116. THE SUBJECT.—The Noun or Pronoun coming immediately before the Verb, and denoting the person or thing about which something is stated, is called the SUBJECT: as—

“*The way* was long.” (Scott, *Lay*.)

“*Day* set on Norham’s castled steep.” (*Id.* *Marm.*)

“His chosen *captains* also are drowned in the Red sea.” (*Ex.* xv. 4.)

The Subject is always in the Nominative Case.

§ 117. THE OBJECT.—The Noun or Pronoun coming next after a Transitive Verb, and denoting the person or thing upon which an action takes effect, is called the [Direct] OBJECT: as—

“Macbeth does murder *sleep*.” (*Macb.* ii. 1.)

“Time and tide wait-for (§ 190) *no man*.” (Proverb.)

“Man marks *the earth* with ruin.” (Byron, *C. II.* iv.)

The Direct Object is always in the Objective Case. Only Transitive Verbs can have a Direct Object.

§ 118. INTRANSITIVE VERBS.—These may be divided into three classes :—

1. Those which denote *doing something* : as, *I walk, I laugh, I weep, I rejoice.*

Obs. Such Verbs are sometimes called Active-Intransitives. To avoid confusion, however, the term Active is best used only to denote VOICE.

2. Those which denote simply *being or being in a certain state* : as, *I am, I exist, I live, I sleep.*

Obs. Such Verbs as *live, sleep*, may perhaps rather belong to Class 1, as they imply the discharge of certain natural functions.

3. Those which denote *a passing from one state to another* : as, *I become* (Gr. *γίγνομαι*), *I awake, I am born, I die, I cease.*

§ 119. Verbs have Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person.

Voice.

§ 120. Transitive Verbs have two VOICES—the ACTIVE and the PASSIVE.

A Verb is said to be in the Active Voice when the Subject denotes the doer of the action : as—

“ David *slew* Goliath with a sling and a stone.”

Here the subject David denotes the agent, and *slew* is said to be in the Active Voice

But a Verb is said to be in the Passive Voice when the Subject denotes the person or thing acted upon : as—

“ Goliath *was slain* by David with a sling and a stone.”

Here the Subject *Goliath* denotes the person to whom the thing was done ; and *was slain* is said to be in the Passive Voice.

The Passive Voice is formed by prefixing to its Past Participle the different tenses of the Verb *to be* : as—

“ Goliath *was slain.*” (See p. 61.)

Obs. 1. Besides the regular use of the Active and Passive Voices, the Active is sometimes used in a kind of intransitive way, especially in familiar speech : as—

“ If the cakes at tea *ate* short and crisp . . .” (*Vicar of W.* ch. xvi.)

“ This sentence does not *read* well.” (Ex. in Morell.)

Also some Verbs are regularly used both as Transitives and Intransitives. Such are, *to move, to open, to sweep; to taste, to feel, to smell*. Thus we say: *to move the earth, and, the earth moves; he opened the door, and, the door opened, &c.*

Obs. 2. Milton occasionally uses the Passive of Intransitive Verbs impersonally, with or without the mention of the agent: as—

“Forthwith on all sides to his aid *was run*
By angels many and strong.” (*P. L.* vi. 335.)

“Meanwhile ere thus *was sinned and judged* on earth.” (*Jb.* x. 2:9.)

This is a Latin idiom: cf. *pugnatum est, &c.*

Mood.

§ 121. The simplest use of a Verb is to state something [§ 114]. But a Verb may also be used to express a *command* or *wish*, or to indicate something as possible or conceivable. The different forms of Verbs employed in so expressing ourselves are called Moods. [Latin, *modus*, “manner.”]

§ 122. There are five Moods—the Indicative, the Subjunctive, the Imperative, the Infinitive, and the Participial. To the Infinitive belong the Gerundial forms.

§ 123. INDICATIVE MOOD.—When we make a direct statement, we are said to use the Indicative Mood [Lat. *indicare*, “to point out”]: as—

“Napoleon I. *died* at St. Helena.”

“I *will arise* and go to my father.” (Luke xv. 18.)

“Young Arthur *is* alive.” (Shaks. *K. J.* iv. 2.)

Obs. We are also said to use the Indicative Mood in asking a question as—

“*Doth* Arthur *live*?” (*K. J.* iv. 2.)

“*Breathes* there the man with soul so dead
Who never to himself hath said . . . ?” (Scott, *Lay*, prol.)

All languages appear to agree in using the Indicative Mood for direct questions. The interrogative nature of a sentence is in some languages indicated only by the tone of voice.

§ 124. IMPERATIVE MOOD.—When we order anything to be done, we are said to employ the Imperative Mood [Lat. *imperare*, “to command”]: as—

“*Go!* mark him well!” (Scott, *Lay*.)

The same form is used to express a prayer or wish: as—

“*Forsake* me not thus, Adam!” (*P. L.* x.)

“*Give* us this day our daily bread.”

Obs. 1. The Imperative Mood can strictly be used only in the 2nd Person; since the person commanded must be the person spoken to [§ 76]. But in the 1st and 3rd Persons, an analogous sense is expressed by the use of the auxiliary Verb *let*, followed by the Objective Case of the virtual Subject: as—

“*Let there be light!*” (Gen. i. 3.)

“*Let us then be up and doing.*” (Longfellow.)

In parsing such sentences the Verb *let* is best taken separately. [See § 259, 2.]

Obs. 2. Besides the above forms, an imperative sense is conveyed by the verb *shall*, in the 2nd and 3rd Persons singular and plural [Future Imperative]: as—

“*Three times thou shall keep a feast unto me in the year.*” (Exod. xxiii. 14.)

“*Thou shall not steal.*” (*Ib.* xx. 15.)

“*Ye shall not afflict any widow or fatherless child.*” (*Ib.* xxii. 22.)

“*If thou buy an Hebrew servant, six years shall he serve; and in the seventh he shall go out free for nothing.*” (*Ib.* xxi. 2.)

This form is most used in prohibitions, and is now nearly obsolete.

§ 125. SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.—The Subjunctive is never used to make a direct statement like the Indicative, but always expresses some kind of condition or hypothesis. [Lat. *subjungere* “to join to.”] It usually follows such words as *if*, *unless*, *that*, *lest*, *although*, *provided*, &c.

Examples:—

“ if the night
Have gathered aught of evil, or concealed,
Disperse it, as now light dispels the dark!” (*P. L.* v.)

“*Get on your nightgown. lest occasion call us and show us to be watchers.*” (*Mach.* ii. 2.)

“*Confess thy treason ere thou fly the realm.*” (*Rich. II.* i. 3.)

“*It were ill that Aymer saw the lady Rowena.*” (*Ivanhoe*, ch. vi.)

“*The humblest painter, be he ever so poor . . .*” (*Newe*, ch. xxxviii.)

The Subjunctive Mood has gradually fallen more and more into disuse since the age of Queen Elizabeth. Instead of the simple Subjunctive, we now more often use either the Indicative, or a compound form with *may*, *might*, *should*. This tendency of the language is seen in such examples as the following:—

“ alike in ignorance, his reason such,
Whether he thinks too little or too much.” (Pope, *Ess.* 2.)

“*A man can never come up to the perfection of his nature before he is hurried off the stage.*” (*Spect.* No. 3.)

“*The maid will ask her mistress whether the gentleman is ready to go to dinner.*” (*Spect.* No. 12.)

“*Whether I shall turn out to be the hero of my own life, or whether that station will be held by any one else, these pages will show.*”
(Dickens, *Dave. C. i.*)

"If it *should* appear from anything I *may* set down in this narrative" (*Ib.* 2.)

"And then as *if* this was not enough she marries a second time." (*Ib.* 13.)

Obs. When the words *may*, *m'ght*, *should*, are used to make a direct statement, they are indicatives, and must be parsed separately from the Verb following: as—

"Of every tree of the garden, *thou mayest* freely eat." (Gen. ii. 16.)

"You *may* [do so], if you choose." (Dickens, *Dav. C.* ii.)

"You have done that you *should* (= *ought to*) be sorry for."

(Shaks. *J. C.* iv. 3.)

"If he is but half a monk, he *should* not be wholly unreasonable."

(*Jean.* ch. ii.)

§ 126. INFINITIVE MOOD.—The Infinitive Mood makes no statement whatever, but simply conveys the notion expressed by the Verb in the most general way. [Lat. *infinitus*, "unlimited."] It is now usually known by the prefix *to*: as, *to love*, *to hate*, *to have loved*, *to be loved*, *to be hated*, *to have been hated*.

The Infinitive is a Verbal Noun. See § 127, *Obs.* 2.

Obs. In O. E. the infinitive ended in *-an* or *-en*, as Germ. *lieb en*, afterwards changed into *-e*, which was finally dropped altogether.

The Infinitive has an Indefinite, an Incomplete, and a Complete form: as, *to write*, *to be writing*, *to have written*.

§ 127. GERUND OR VERBAL NOUN.—The word Gerund signifies *carrying on* or *being carried on*. [Lat. *gerere*, *to carry on*] The Gerund is similar in meaning to the Infinitive Mood, and is also a Verbal Noun. It has the ending *-ing*, and may be used both actively and passively. It most frequently follows a Preposition: as, (of) *loving*, (of) *being loved*; (by) *having seen*, (by) *having been seen*.

Obs. 1. In older English, these forms in *ing* (also earlier, *ung*) are in every respect Nouns, and not included in the Verb at all. (Compare modern German, *rechnung denkung*, &c.) They never took after them a direct object, but were followed instead by the Preposition *of*: as—

"Adam consented *to the eating of* the fruit." (Chaucer, *Persones's Tale*.)

"In holding *of* great meyne" [i.e. state, pomp]. (*Ib.*)

"They left beating *of* Paul." (Acts xxi. 32.)

And this way of speaking still survives as a vulgarism in various parts of the country. But owing to the active force residing in the Verbal Noun, and perhaps also to some confusion between it and the Imperfect Participle, the Verbal Noun from about the sixteenth century began to be more and more used without a Preposition, so as to govern a Direct Object, like any other inflected form of the Verb: as—

"For mine own part I durst not laugh, for fear of *opening my lips* and *receiving* the bad air." (Shaks. *J. C.* i. 2.)

In the case of the Indefinite form of the Gerund an Objective following may still be explained as dependent upon the Preposition *of* understood. But this explanation will not apply in the case of the Complete or Perfect form: as, conscious *of having done* a good action. (See Syntax, § 273.)

Obs. 2. In such phrases as *a-going, a-waiting, a-running*, we have a Gerund or Verbal Noun preceded by a Preposition. Thus *a-going* = *on, in, or at going, &c.*

Examples:—

“In the days of Noah, while the ark was *a-preparing*.” (1 Pet. iii. 20.)

“Simon Peter said unto them, I go *a-fishing*.” (John xxi. 3.)

“Whither were you *a-going*?” (Gen. VIII. 1. 3.)

“There came three ships *a-sailing*.” (Old rhyme.)

Obs. 3. The name Gerund has also been given by grammarians to a particular form of the O. E. Infinitive Mood, preceded by the Preposition *to*, and denoting a purpose like the Latin Supine, or an obligation like the Latin Gerundive: as—

“He is *to hufigenne* = he is fit to be loved.” (Lat. “*amandus est*.”)

The Gerund as treated in the present work, is a formation belonging exclusively to modern English.

Obs. 4. Very many Compound Nouns are formed from Gerunds or Verbal Nouns: as, walking-stick, i.e. *stick for walking*; drawing-room, i.e. *room for withdrawing to*, also *for drawing in*: so, “church going bell” (Cowper), i.e. *bell for church-going*.

§ 128. PARTICIPLES.—A Participle is a Verbal Adjective, as a Gerund is a Verbal Noun. Accordingly all Participles refer to Nouns about which they specify something [see def. of Adj. § 52]: as, ships *sailing*, boys *playing*, lions *roaring*, water *flowing*; books *printed*, houses *built*, streets *paved*, roads *macadamised*.

§ 129. There are two Participles properly so called:—

1. The IMPERFECT PARTICIPLE, which ends in *-ing*, and specifies some incomplete action or state of the Noun to which it refers: as—

“I see men as trees *walking*.” (Mar. viii. 24.)

“Here it runs *sparkling*,
There it lies *darkling*. . .” (Southey, *Lodore*.)

“The grey-eyed morn smiles on the *frowning* night,
Checking the eastern clouds with streaks of light . . .”
(*Rom. and J.* ii. 3.)

“Now Morn. her rosy steps in the east rn elime
Advancing, strewed the earth with orient pearl.”
(*P. L.* v.)

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2. The PERFECT PARTICIPLE, which has various endings, and specifies some completed action or state of the Noun to which it refers : as—

“ . . . like the snow-flake on the river,
One moment white, then *gone* for ever.” (Burns.)

“The ides of March are *come*.—
Ay, Cæsar, but not *gone*.” (J. C. iii. 1.)

“Ye mind me of *departed* joys,
Departed never to return !” (Burns.)

“How like a deer *stricken* by many princes
Dost thou here lie !” (J. C. iii. 1.)

“Millions of flaming swords *drawn* from the thighs
Of mighty Cherubim . . .” (Milt. P. L. i.)

“The sons of
Belial *flown* (i. e. *winged, elated*) with insolence and wine.”
(Ib.)

N.B.—The Perfect Participle of Transitive Verbs has always a passive sense.

§ 130. COMPOUND PARTICIPIAL FORMS.—Besides the Imperfect and Perfect Participles, several other compound forms are used : as—

1. An Active form, compounded of the Perfect Participle and the word *having* : as, *having lived, having conquered, having departed*. This is called the *Compound Perfect Participle Active*.

2. A kind of Future form both in the Active and the Passive Voice, expressed by the phrase *about to* : as *about to die, about to sail, about to be beheaded*.

Obs. After the Verb *to be* a similar sense is conveyed by the phrase *going to* : as, *going to rain, the bill is not going to be brought forward*. [Colloquial.]

3. An Incomplete Participle Passive, expressed by the word *being* : as, *being built, being admonished*.

Obs. This usage is of late introduction into our language. The incomplete sense was formerly expressed by means of a Preposition and a Verbal Noun : “The house is *in* or *on* *building*.” Hence, by abbreviation, “The house is *a-building*,” or finally, “The house *is* building.”

4. A Compound Perfect Participle Passive : *having been taught, having been reproved*.

Tense.

§ 131. The word Tense comes from the Latin *tempus* (Fr. *temps*), “time.” The verb is the only kind of word

which by its own different forms is capable of indicating Time. (Hence its German designation *Zeitwort*, "Time-word.")

There are three natural divisions of Time—Present, Past, Future; each of which is represented in Grammar by a corresponding Tense: as, the sun *shines*, the sun *shone*, the sun *will shine*.

§ 132. Each one of the three main Tenses—Present, Past, Future—has three forms: thus—

	Indefinite.	Incomplete.	Complete.
<i>Present</i>	I write (or do write)	I am writing	I have written
<i>Past</i>	I wrote (or did write)	I was writing	I had written
<i>Future</i>	I shall write	I shall be writing	I shall have written

N.B.—The forms called Incomplete and Complete are also called Imperfect and Perfect respectively.

In addition to these three principal forms there is in the Active Voice a Fourth, which may be called Perfect-Incomplete: thus—

<i>Present Perfect-Incomplete</i>	I have been writing
<i>Past</i> " "	I had been writing
<i>Future</i> " "	I shall have been writing

But these forms being of less frequent occurrence, are not given in the Paradigm of the Verb.

Obs. 1. The forms with *do, did* [I *do* write, I *did* write], have been called the *Present* and *Past Emphatic* respectively. But the emphasis lies rather in the stress of voice than in the form itself, as may be seen from the following examples in which the words *do, did*, are by no means emphatic:—

"Rejoice with them that *do* rejoice, and weep with them that weep." (Rom. xii. 15.)

"You all *do* know this mantle . . ." (Shaks. *J. C.* iii. 2.)

"I only speak what you yourselves *do* know." (*Ib.*)

"They set bread before him, and he *did* eat." (2 Sam. xii. 20.)

"When the child was dead, thou *didst* rise and eat bread." (*Ib.* ver. 21)

The forms with *do* are now chiefly used in questions and in negative sentences. Thus we now say, *Do* you think? rather than, Think you? ("How think ye?"—Matt. xviii. 12); *I did* not deny you, rather than, "I denied you not" (Shaks. *J. C.* iii. 2); Do our subjects revolt? rather than, "Revolt our subjects?" (Shaks. *Rich. III.* iii. 2). (Comp. Abbott, *Shaks. Gr.* § 306.)

Obs. 2. The forms *do, did*, are also used to avoid the repetition of a Verb: as—

"Strike as thou *didst* at Caesar . . ." (Shaks. *J. C.* iv. 3.)

Obs. 3. If the sentence be negative, the Adverb *not* is placed after the Auxillary, or after the Verb itself when it has no Auxillary: as, "It *did not* touch him;" or, "it *touch'd him not*." The older writers frequently place the negative before the Verb: as,—

"She *not denies* it." (Shaks. *Much Ado*, iv. 1.)

"For men

Can counsel, and give comfort to that grief,
Which they themselves *not feel*." (*Ib.* v. 1.)

§ 133. *Present Tense Indefinite*.—This Tense has a variety of uses:—

1. It describes what is actually taking place: as—

“Now *glades* the glimmering landscape on the sight,

The lowing herd *winds* slowly o'er the lea.” (Gray, *Elegy*.)

2. It indicates what habitually or regularly takes place: as—

Birds fly—fishes swim—reptiles creep.

3. It is occasionally used for the future, of that which is fixed and near at hand, or vividly anticipated: as—

“The boys *come* back next Saturday week.” (Arnold, *Letters*, xxxii.)

“If from this hour

Within these hallowed limits thou appear,
Back to the infernal pit I *drag* thee chained,
And *scul* thee so.” (Milt., *P. L.* iv. 965).

4. It is sometimes employed in poetry and other imaginative writing instead of the Past Indefinite, to give greater vividness to a narrative: as—

“Day *dawns* upon the mountain's side:—

There, Scotland, *lay* thy bravest pride . . .” (*Marmion*.)

“The wind *shifts* to the west . . . The advancing hours *make* it strong: by midnight, all sleepless watchers *hear* and *fear* a wild south-west storm.—That storm *roared* frenzied for seven weeks.”

(C. Brontë, *Villette*.)

Obs. When a narrative writer proceeds to use the Present Tense instead of the Past, he passes in so doing from narration to description, and portrays the scene as if it were actually before his eyes. Our best prose writers are sparing of this use.

5. It is used of an author saying or stating anything in his works, whether he himself be living or not: as—

“Barnes *says* Homer is Solomon . . .” (*Cartons*.)

“Thus Herodotus *speaks* . . . *says* Pliny . . . Polybius *says* . . .”
(Arnold, *Rome*.)

6. It is used instead of the Future when the reference to future time is clear from the remainder of the sentence: as—

“ . . . when I *am* forgotten, as I shall be,
And *sleep* in dull cold marble, where no mention
Of me more must be heard of . . .” (*Hen.* VIII. iii. 2.)

“No longer mourn for me when I *am* dead.” (Shaks, *Sonn.* 71.)

Obs. This use is found only in complex sentences, where the time of one member is the key to that of the other. In Latin the Future-Perfect would be employed.

§ 134. *Present Complete*.—The Present Complete *I have written* may perhaps seem at first to belong rather to the Past Tenses, since it speaks of the action as finished. But we must understand by present time, not merely the immediate instant, but also any portion of time reaching up to and including it. Thus the statement, “I have lived in London seven years,” implies that the speaker is still living in London, and the period of time referred to reaches up to the moment of speaking.

So, if a person says, “I *have* once *seen* a total eclipse of the sun,” the sense is, *once in my life*; and the circumstance is referred as before, to a period of time still continuing and *present*.

On the other hand, when a person says, “I *saw* a total eclipse of the sun in the year 1851,” he distinctly refers the event to a period (the year 1851) altogether detached from the present, and *past*.

§ 135. *Past Indefinite Tense*.—This Tense has three uses:—

1. To indicate in the most general way that something was done or took place in the past: as—

“In the beginning God *created* the heaven and the earth.”
(Gen. i. 1.)

“You all *did see* that, on the Lupercal,
I thrice *presented* him a kingly crown,
Which he *did* thrice *refuse* . . .” (Shaks. *J. C.* iii. 2.)

2. To denote what was usual or customary at some former period: as—

“His sons *went* and *feasted* in their houses, every one his day . . .”
(Job i. 4.)

“He *borrowed* without scruple, and after his return from exile was almost constantly in debt.” (Forsyth, *Cicero*.)

3. It is also used with the force of the Past Incomplete, especially in older English: as—

“While he yet *spake* (= was speaking), behold, a bright cloud overshadowed them.” (Matt. xvii. 5.)

“While the bridegroom *tarried*, they all *slumbered* and *slept*.”
(*lb.* xxv. 5.)

“About them frisking *played*
All beasts of the earth . . .
Sporting the lion *ramped*, and in his paw
Dandled the kid . . .” (*P. L.* iv. 310-314.)

§ 136. *Future Tense*.—This Tense employs in all its forms the two auxiliary Verbs **shall** and **will**, but with a difference of meaning.

§ 137. **Shall** strictly denotes *obligation, authority, or constraint* (Ger. *sollen*); and it retains this sense in the Second and Third Persons Singular and Plural: as—

“Thou *shalt* not steal.” [Prohibition.] (Exod. xx. 15.)

“The man that hath done this thing *shall* surely die.” [Threat.]
(2 Sam. xii. 5.)

“No Italian priest

Shall tithe or toll in our dominions.” [Prohibition.]

(*K. John*, iii. 1.)

“Ye *shall* not eat the blood; ye *shall* pour it upon the earth as water.” [Commands.] (Deut. xii. 16.)

“And ye *shall* be his bride, ladye.” [Promise or consent.] (*Song*)

Hence it is used in the language of prophecy, the very idea of which implies the decision of a superior Power; as—

“He *shall* not strive, nor cry.” (*Matt. xii. 19.*)

“Ye *shall* not surely die.” (*Gen. iii. 4.*)

“This story *shall* the good man teach his son;
And Crispin Crispian *shall* ne'er go by,
From this day to the ending of the world,
But we in it *shall* be remembered.” (*Henry V. iv. 3.*)

Obs. The Interrogative forms *shalt thou?* *shall you?* are used with a simple Future sense.

§ 138. In the First Person Singular and Plural **shall** is used for the simple Future; but here also its proper force may often be traced, though less strongly marked: as—

“I *shall* go to him” (2 Sam. xii. 23.)

“*K. Hen.* Good old knight,

Collect them all together at my tent.

I'll be before thee.

Erp. I *shall* do it, my lord.” (*Henry V. iv. 1.*)

Here the use of **shall** implies that the actions to be done are not dependent upon the will of the speaker. So **shall** serves to indicate a definite resolution of the speaker, by which he considers himself to be bound: as—

“I *shall* send my letters open, that you may take copies”
(*Goldsmith, Cit. 2.*)

“I *shall* trace the course of that revolution which terminated the long struggle between our sovereigns and their parliaments.”
(*Mae. H. E. i.*)

“The two propositions which I *shall* endeavour to establish are these” (*Paley, Ev.*)

§ 139. **Will** in the First Person Singular or Plural of the Future implies that the action is dependent upon the will of the speaker: as—

“ . . . because this widow troubleth me, *I will* avenge her.”

(Luke xviii. 5.)

“ *We will* be avenged . . . *We'll* hear him, *we'll* follow him, *we'll* die with him.” (Shaks. *J. C.* iii. 2.)

But in the Second and Third Persons Singular and Plural **will** usually implies nothing more than futurity, without any reference to the will of the agent: * as—

“ *Thy glass will* show thee how thy beauties wear.” (Shaks. *Sonn.* 77.)

“ *Thine anguish will* not let thee sleep.” (Tennyson, *Two Voices.*)

“ *You will* find the just sum in a silken purse, within the leathern pouch.” (Scott, *Ivan.* ch. xi.)

§ 140. **Number.**—The Verb, like the Noun, has two numbers, Singular and Plural. In modern English, distinct Plural forms are found only in the Verb *to be*: see p. 59. In all other Verbs the Plural is without inflexion.

Obs. In the oldest form of English the Plural suffix for the Present Tense Indicative of Regular Verbs is *-ath*: as, *we lufiath* = we love. In the time of Edward III. this termination had given way to *-en* (*we loven*), which is the regular one in Chaucer, and is occasionally to be met with in the Elizabethan writers.

§ 141. **Person.**—Verbs are also inflected for Person. [See § 78, concerning the distinction of First, Second, and Third Persons.] But this inflexion is confined to the Singular Number. See Paradigms.

* The following practical rules for the use of **WILL** and **SHALL** will be found useful. (Head, p. 119, with alterations.)

TO EXPRESS	First Person.	Second and Third Persons.	EXAMPLES.
1. A simple future } 2. An uncertainty }	shall	will	{ 1. <i>I shall</i> be there to-morrow. 2. Perhaps you <i>will</i> think of it.
3. A question . . .	shall	shall, will	{ 3. <i>Shall</i> I go? <i>Shall</i> you go? <i>Will</i> he go?
4. An intention or a habit.	will	will	4. <i>I will</i> (it is my intention to) send you something to-morrow. <i>He will</i> (i.e. it is his habit to) spend hours together in their company.
5. A promise { active passive	will shall	shall shall	{ 5. <i>I will</i> certainly call for you You <i>shall</i> have the money. He <i>shall</i> be punished.
6. <i>Must</i> , as a future .	shall	shall	6. He says <i>I shall</i> (<i>must</i>) go.
7. A duty or necessity		shall	{ 7. (2nd and 3rd persons only.) Thou <i>shalt</i> not steal. He <i>shall</i> surely die.

§ 142. **Conjugation.**—The complete inflexion of a Verb is called conjugation. [Lat. *conjugare*, “to yoke together.”]

Verbs are divided into two principal classes,* according to their manner of forming the Past Tense: namely,—

(1.) Verbs which form the Past Tense by a change in the body of the word: as, **write, wrote.** These are called **STRONG VERBS.** [Sometimes called Irregular Verbs.]

(2.) Verbs which form the Past Tense by adding **d (ed)** or **t** to the Present: as, **love, loved; leap, leapt.** These are called **WEAK VERBS.** [Sometimes called Regular Verbs.]

COMPLETE PARADIGM OF THE ACTIVE VOICE.

STRONG AND WEAK CONJUGATIONS AT ONE VIEW.

TO WRITE.—TO LOVE.

Principal Parts: { **Write, wrote, written** [Strong].
 { **Love, loved, loved** [Weak].

N.B.—The Pronouns are put in a different type in order to remind the learner that they form no part of the Verb.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

INDEFINITE.	{	<i>Sing.</i> I write or do write	<i>Plur.</i> We write or do write
		<i>Thou writest or dost write</i>	<i>Ye or you write or do write</i>
		He writes or does write	<i>They write or do write</i>

Interrogative form: Do *I* write? Dost *thou* write? &c.

Negative form: *I* do not write; *thou* dost not write, &c. [See § 123, *Obs.*]

[*I love or do love; Do I love? I do not love, &c.*]

INCOMPLETE.	{	<i>Sing.</i> I am writing	<i>Plur.</i> We are writing
		<i>Thou art writing</i>	<i>Ye or you are writing</i>
		He is writing	<i>They are writing</i>

Interrogative form: Am *I* writing? Art *thou* writing? &c.

Negative form: *I* am not writing; *thou* art not writing, &c.

[*I am loving; Am I loving? I am not loving, &c.*]

COMPLETE.	{	<i>Sing.</i> I have written	<i>Plur.</i> We have written
		<i>Thou hast written</i>	<i>Ye or you have written</i>
		He has written	<i>They have written</i>

Interrogative form: Have *I* written? Hast *thou* written? &c.

Negative form: *I* have not written; *thou* hast not written, &c.

[*I have loved; Have I loved? I have not loved, &c.*]

* For a more complete classification, see p. 72, *fol.*

PAST TENSE.

INDEFINITE.	{	<i>Sing.</i> I wrote or did write	<i>Plur.</i> We wrote or did write
		Thou wrotest or didst write	Ye or you wrote or did write
		He wrote or did write	They wrote or did write

Interrogative form: Did I write? Didst thou write? &c.

Negative form: I did not write; thou didst not write, &c.

[I loved or did love, Thou lovedst, &c.; Did I love? I did not love, &c.]

INCOMPLETE.	{	<i>Sing.</i> I was writing	<i>Plur.</i> We were writing
		Thou wast writing	Ye or you were writing
		He was writing	They were writing

Interrogative form: Was I writing? Wast thou writing? &c.

Negative form: I was not writing; thou wast not writing, &c.

[I was loving; Was I loving? I was not loving, &c.]

COMPLETE.	{	<i>Sing.</i> I had written	<i>Plur.</i> We had written
		Thou hadst written	Ye or you had written
		He had written	They had written

Interrogative form: Had I written? Hadst thou written, &c.

Negative form: I had not written; thou hadst not written, &c.

[I had loved; Had I loved? I had not loved, &c.]

FUTURE TENSE.

INDEFINITE.	{	<i>Sing.</i> I shall write	<i>Plur.</i> We shall write
		Thou wilt write	Ye or you will write
		He will write	They will write

Interrogative form: Shall I write? Shalt thou write? Will he write? &c.

Negative form: I shall not write; thou wilt not write, &c.

[I shall love; Shall I love? I shall not love, &c.]

INCOMPLETE.	{	<i>Sing.</i> I shall be writing	<i>Plur.</i> We shall be writing
		Thou wilt be writing	Ye or you will be writing
		He will be writing	They will be writing

Interrogative form: Shall I be writing? Shalt thou be writing? &c.

Negative form: I shall not be writing; thou wilt not be writing, &c.

[I shall be loving; Shall I be loving? I shall not be loving, &c.]

COMPLETE.	{	<i>Sing.</i> I shall have written	<i>Plur.</i> We shall have written
		Thou wilt have written	Ye or you will have written
		He will have written	They will have written

Interrogative form: Shall I have written? Shalt thou have written? &c.

Negative form: I shall not have written; thou wilt not have written, &c.

[I shall have loved; Shall I have loved? I shall not have loved, &c.]

INDEFINITE.

INCOMPLETE.

COMPLETE.

* Observed to be used thus: I

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

Sing. 2nd Pers. Write thou *Plur. 2nd Pers. Write ye*
 [Love thou. Love ye.]

FUTURE TENSE.

Sing. 2nd Pers. Thou shalt write *Plur. 2nd Pers. Ye or you shall write*
3rd Pers. He shall write *3rd Pers. They shall write*
 [Thou shalt love. Ye shall love.]

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

INDEFINITE.	}	<i>Sing. [If, though, &c.] I write</i>	<i>Plur. [If, though, &c.] we write</i>
		" <i>thou write</i>	" <i>ye or you write</i>
		" <i>he write</i>	" <i>they write</i>

Compound or Periphrastic Form: If I should write
*If thou shouldst write **
If he should write, &c.

[If, though, &c. I love or should love, &c.]

INCOMPLETE.	}	<i>Sing. [If, though, &c.] I be writing</i>	<i>Plur. [If, though, &c.] we be writing</i>
		" <i>thou be writing</i>	" <i>ye or you be writing</i>
		" <i>he be writing</i>	" <i>they be writing</i>

Comp. Form: If I should be writing, &c.

[If, though, &c. I should be loving, &c.]

COMPLETE.	}	<i>Sing. [If, though, &c.] I have written</i>	<i>Plur. [If, though, &c.] we have written</i>
		" <i>thou have written</i>	" <i>ye or you have written</i>
		" <i>he have written</i>	" <i>they have written</i>

Comp. Form: If I should have written, &c.

[If, though, &c. I should have loved, &c.]

* Observe that after "if, though, &c." *should* is retained in all persons and not changed to *would* in the 2nd or 3rd. Sometimes, however, this form of the Subjunctive is used in the Principal sentence without any Conjunction: and then it is inflected thus: I *should* (write, &c.), Thou *wouldst*, He *would*, &c.

PAST TENSE.

INDEFINITE.	}	<i>Sing.</i> [If, though, &c.]	<i>I wrote</i>	<i>Plur.</i> [If, though, &c.]	<i>we wrote</i>
		" "	<i>thou</i>	" "	<i>ye or you</i>
		" "	<i>wrotest</i>	" "	<i>wrote</i>
		" "	<i>he wrote</i>	" "	<i>they wrote</i>
[If, though, &c. <i>I loved</i> , &c.]					
INCOMPLETE.	}	<i>Sing.</i> [If, though, &c.]	<i>I were</i>	<i>Plur.</i> [If, though, &c.]	<i>we were</i>
		" "	<i>writing</i>	" "	<i>writing</i>
		" "	<i>thou wert</i>	" "	<i>ye or you</i>
		" "	<i>writing</i>	" "	<i>were</i>
" "	<i>he were</i>	" "	<i>writing</i>		
" "	<i>writing</i>	" "	<i>they were</i>		
" "	<i>writing</i>	" "	<i>writing</i>		
[If, though, &c. <i>I were loving</i> , &c.]					
COMPLETE.	}	<i>Sing.</i> [If, though, &c.]	<i>I had</i>	<i>Plur.</i> [If, though, &c.]	<i>we had</i>
		" "	<i>written</i>	" "	<i>written</i>
		" "	<i>thou</i>	" "	<i>ye or you</i>
		" "	<i>hadst</i>	" "	<i>had</i>
" "	<i>written</i>	" "	<i>written</i>		
" "	<i>he had</i>	" "	<i>they had</i>		
" "	<i>written</i>	" "	<i>written</i>		
[If, though, &c. <i>I had loved</i> , &c.]					

Obs. 1. In the earlier forms of our language, the Subjunctive Mood has all the three Persons Singular alike, both in the Present and the Past Tense. Later on, the Past Subjunctive is found inflected with *-st* in the 2nd Person Singular: *e.g.*—

"If thou *knewest* the gift of God . . ." (John iv. 10.)

"If thou *hadst* been here, my brother had not died." (John xi. 21.)

Obs. 2. Besides *should*, several other auxiliary verbs are used in the compound or periphrastic Subjunctive: as, *may*, *wight*, especially after the conjunctions *that*, *lest*; and *would* in the conclusion of an hypothetical sentence. For examples see Syntax, § 258.

Obs. 3. There is no special Future Subjunctive; the Present tenses of the Subjunctive Mood having a future sense. The same is the case in Greek and in Latin.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

INDEFINITE: **To write.** [To love.]

INCOMPLETE: **To be writing.** [To be loving.]

COMPLETE: **To have written.** [To have loved.]

GERUND, INDEFINITE: **Writing,** [of] **writing,** [by] **writing,** &c.
[loving, of loving, by loving, &c.]

" COMPLETE: **Having written,** [of] **having written,** &c.
[having loved, of having loved, &c.]

PARTICIPLES.

INCOMPLETE: **Writing** [Imperfect Participle.] [Loving.]

COMPLETE: **Having written** [Compound Perfect.] [Having loved.]

PAST: **Written** [Perfect Participle.] [Loved.]

THE VERB TO BE.

§ 143. Before proceeding to the Passive Voice, it is necessary to give the Paradigm of the Verb to be.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

INDE- FINITE.	{	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>I am</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>We are</i>
			<i>Thou art</i>		<i>Ye or you are</i>
			<i>He is</i>		<i>They are</i>
COM- PLETE.	{	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>I have been</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>We have been</i>
			<i>Thou hast been</i>		<i>Ye or you have been</i>
			<i>He has been</i>		<i>They have been</i>

PAST TENSE.

INDE- FINITE.	{	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>I was</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>We were</i>
			<i>Thou wast</i>		<i>Ye or you were</i>
			<i>He was</i>		<i>They were</i>
COM- PLETE.	{	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>I had been</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>We had been</i>
			<i>Thou hadst been</i>		<i>Ye or you had been</i>
			<i>He had been</i>		<i>They had been</i>

FUTURE TENSE.

INDE- FINITE.	{	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>I shall be</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>We shall be</i>
			<i>Thou wilt be</i>		<i>Ye or you will be</i>
			<i>He will be</i>		<i>They will be</i>
COM- PLETE.	{	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>I shall have been</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>We shall have been</i>
			<i>Thou wilt have been</i>		<i>Ye or you will have been</i>
			<i>He will have been</i>		<i>They will have been</i>

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

Sing. 2nd Pers. Be thou *Plur. 2nd Pers. Be ye*

FUTURE TENSE.

Sing. 2nd Pers. Thou shalt be *Plur. 2nd Pers. Ye shall be*
3rd Pers. He shall be *3rd Pers. They shall be*

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

INDEFI- NITE.	{	<i>Sing.</i>	[If, though, &c.] <i>I be</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	[If, though, &c.] <i>we be</i>
			" <i>thou be</i>		" <i>ye or you</i>
			" <i>he be</i>		" <i>be</i>
			" <i>they be</i>		" <i>they be</i>

Comp. Form : If I should be, If thou shouldst be, &c.

COMPLETE.	}	Sing. [If, though, &c.] <i>I have</i>	Plur. [If, though, &c.] <i>we have</i>
		been	been
		" <i>thou have</i>	" <i>ye or you</i>
		" <i>been</i>	" <i>have been</i>
		" <i>he have</i>	" <i>they have</i>
		" <i>been</i>	" <i>been</i>

Comp. Form : If *I* should have been, If *thou* shouldst &c.

PAST TENSE.

INDEFINITE.	}	Sing. [If, though, &c.] <i>I were</i>	Plur. [If, though, &c.] <i>we were</i>
		" <i>thou wert</i>	" <i>ye or you</i>
		" <i>he were</i>	" <i>were</i>
		" <i>they were</i>	

COMPLETE.	}	Sing. [If, though, &c.] <i>I had</i>	Plur. [If, though, &c.] <i>we had</i>
		been	been
		" <i>thou hadst</i>	" <i>ye or you</i>
		" <i>been</i>	" <i>had been</i>
		" <i>he had</i>	" <i>they had</i>
		" <i>been</i>	" <i>been</i>

INFINITIVE MOOD.

INDEFINITE: To be.

COMPLETE: To have been.

GERUND, INDEFINITE: Being, [of] being, &c.

" COMPLETE: Having been, [of] having been, &c.

PARTICIPLES.

INCOMPLETE: Being.

COMPLETE: Having been.

PAST: Been.

Obs. 1. This Verb contains three roots, AS, BE, WAS. AS appears in *am* = *as-m* : *ar-t* = *as-t* : is shortened for *as* *are* = *as-e*. Was is in O.E. *wes-an* "to be."

Obs. 2. The root *be* was formerly inflected for the Present Tense Indicative, Milton uses 2 pers. sing. *beest* (*P. L.* l. 84); and the plural *been* or *bin* is of frequent occurrence in the Elizabethan writers.

Obs. 3. The forms *wast* (Indic.) and *wert* (Subj.) are both comparatively modern. In O.E. *were* is used as 2 pers. sing. both in the Indicative and the Subjunctive.

§ 144. THE PASSIVE VOICE.—The only form of a Verb in English which has a Passive sense, is the Past Participle in *en*, *ed* (*d*) or *t*: as, *beaten*, *loved*, *lost*. But a complete Passive is formed by prefixing to this Participle the various Tenses and forms of the Verb *to be*,

2nd Per

3rd "

Bei

PARADIGM OF THE PASSIVE VOICE.
TO BE BEATEN : Past Part. Beaten.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

INDEFINITE : *I am beaten, &c.*
INCOMPLETE : *I am being beaten, &c.*
COMPLETE : *I have been beaten, &c.*

PAST TENSE.

INDEFINITE : *I was beaten, &c.*
INCOMPLETE : *I was being beaten, &c.*
COMPLETE : *I had been beaten, &c.*

FUTURE TENSE.

INDEFINITE : *I shall be beaten, &c.*
COMPLETE : *I shall have been beaten, &c.*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

2nd Pers. Sing. and Plur. : Be beaten.

FUTURE TENSE.

2nd Pers. Sing. : Thou shalt be beaten *2nd Pers. Pl. : Ye or you shall be beaten*
3rd " " He shall be beaten *3rd " " They shall be beaten*

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

INDEFINITE : [If, though, &c.] *I be beaten.*
COMPLETE : [If, though, &c.] *I have been beaten.*

PAST TENSE.

INDEFINITE : [If though, &c.] *I were beaten.*
COMPLETE : [If though, &c.] *I had been beaten.*

Compound Form : If I should be beaten, &c.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

INDEFINITE : *To be beaten.*
COMPLETE : *To have been beaten.*

GERUND.

Being beaten, [of] being beaten, [by] being beaten, &c.

PARTICIPLES.

INDEFINITE : *Beaten.*
INCOMPLETE : *Having beaten.*
COMPLETE : *Having been beaten.*

IRREGULAR AND DEFECTIVE VERBS.

§ 145. 1. HAVE.

Principal Parts : Have, had, had.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

COM- PLETE.	INDE- FINITE.	{	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>I have</i>	{	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>We have</i>
				<i>Thou hast</i>			<i>Ye or you have</i>
				<i>He has</i>			<i>They have</i>
INCOM- PLETE.	INDE- FINITE.	{	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>I am having</i>	{	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>We are having</i>
				<i>Thou art having</i>			<i>Ye or you are having</i>
				<i>He is having</i>			<i>They are having</i>
COM- PLETE.	INDE- FINITE.	{	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>I have had</i>	{	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>We have had</i>
				<i>Thou hast had</i>			<i>Ye or you have had</i>
				<i>He has had</i>			<i>They have had</i>

PAST TENSE.

COM- PLETE.	INDE- FINITE.	{	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>I had</i>	{	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>We had</i>
				<i>Thou hadst</i>			<i>Ye or you had</i>
				<i>He had</i>			<i>They had</i>
INCOM- PLETE.	INDE- FINITE.	{	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>I was having</i>	{	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>We were having</i>
				<i>Thou wast having</i>			<i>Ye or you were having</i>
				<i>He was having</i>			<i>They were having</i>
COM- PLETE.	INDE- FINITE.	{	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>I had had</i>	{	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>We had had</i>
				<i>Thou hadst had</i>			<i>Ye or you had had</i>
				<i>He had had</i>			<i>They had had</i>

FUTURE TENSE.

INDEFINITE: *I shall have, thou wilt have, &c.*INCOMPLETE: *I shall be having, &c.*COMPLETE: *I shall have had, &c.*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT INDEFINITE.

2nd Pers. Sing. and Plur. Have.

FUTURE.

2nd Pers. Sing. Thou shalt have 2nd Pers. Pl. Ye or you shall have

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

INDEFINITE.	}	Sing. [If, though, &c.] <i>I have</i>	Plur. [If, though, &c.] <i>we have</i>
		" <i>thou have</i>	" <i>ye or you have</i>
		" <i>he have</i>	" <i>they have</i>

Compound Form: If *I should have*, If *thou shouldst have*, &c.

INCOMPLETE. [If, though, &c.] *I be having*, &c. [Not used.]

COMPLETE	}	Sing. [If, though, &c.] <i>I have had</i>	Plur. [If, though, &c.] <i>we have had</i>
		" <i>thou have had</i>	" <i>ye or you have had</i>
		" <i>he have had</i>	" <i>they have had</i>

PAST TENSE.

INDEFINITE.	}	Sing. [If, though, &c.] <i>I had</i>	Plur. [If, though, &c.] <i>we had</i>
		" <i>thou hadst</i>	" <i>ye or you had</i>
		" <i>he had</i>	" <i>they had</i>

INCOMPLETE.	}	Sing. [If, though, &c.] <i>I were having</i>	Plur. [If, though, &c.] <i>we were having</i>
		" <i>thou wert having</i>	" <i>ye or you were having</i>
		" <i>he were having</i>	" <i>they were having</i>

COMPLETE.	}	Sing. [If, though, &c.] <i>I had had</i>	Plur. [If, though, &c.] <i>we had had</i>
		" <i>thou hadst had</i>	" <i>ye or you had had</i>
		" <i>he had had</i>	" <i>they had had</i>

INFINITIVE MOOD.

- INDEFINITE: To have.
- INCOMPLETE: To be having.
- COMPLETE: To have had.

- GERUND, INDEFINITE: Having, [of] having, &c.
- COMPLETE: Having had, [of] having had, &c.

PARTICIPLES.

- INCOMPLETE: Having.
- COMPLETE: Having had.
- PAST: Had.

§ 146. 2. DO.

Principal Parts : Do, did, done.

• INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT INDEFINITE TENSE.

<i>Sing.</i> I do	<i>Plur.</i> We do
Thou doest or dost	Ye or you do
He does, doeth, or doth	They do

(The rest is inflected regularly.)

Obs. 1. The Verb *do* is used both as a Principal and as an Auxiliary. But the old forms *doest*, *doeth*, are limited to the former use.
Examples;—

“If thou *doest* well, shalt thou not be accepted?” (Gen. iv. 7.)

“Whatsoever he *doeth* shall prosper.” (Ps. l. 3.)

In both which cases the Verb is a Principal.

But as auxiliary forms—

“*Dost* thou open thine eyes upon such an one?” (Job. xiv. 3.)

“All things living he *doth* feed.” (Milton.)

Obs. 2. Sometimes *to do*=*to answer the purpose, to be satisfactory*: as, “This will never *do*.” It is then a different word from *do*=*act, carry on*, and derived from a totally distinct root. (O. E. *dugan*; Germ. *taugan*.)

3. WILL.

§ 147. This Verb is also used both as a Principal (= *to be willing; to exercise the will*) and as an Auxiliary. It shares with *shall* the peculiarity of forming the 2nd pers. sing. in *t* instead of *st*. [Compare also the forms *art, wert*.]

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT INDEFINITE TENSE.

<i>Sing.</i> I will	<i>Plur.</i> We will
Thou wilt or willest	Ye or you will
He will, willeth, or wills	They will

PAST INDEFINITE TENSE.

<i>Sing.</i> I would	<i>Plur.</i> We would
Thou wouldest or wouldst	Ye or you would
He would	They would

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PAST INDEFINITE TENSE.

Sing. I would, &c. (same as Indicative).

INFINITIVE.

PRESENT INDEFINITE: To will.

Obs. 1. Concerning the use of *will* in the Future Tense, see § 139.

Obs. 2. The twofold forms, *will* and *willest*, *will* and *willeth* (or *wills*), are probably to be explained by the existence of two Verbs in the earliest form of English, of similar meaning:—

(1) Willan; pres. ic wille, þu (thou) wilt, he wile, &c., *to be willing*. [Primitive and strong Verb.]

(2) Wilnian; pres. ic wilnige, þu (thou) wilnast, he wilnath, &c., *to desire*. [Derivative and weak Verb.]

The forms *willest*, *willeth*, are not used as Auxiliaries.

Obs. 3. In the sense of *to exercise the will* (volition), *to will* is perfectly regular: as—

“It is not of him that *willeth*, nor of him that runneth . . .” (Rom. ix. 16)

“A man that sits still is said to be at liberty, because he can walk if he *wills* it.” (Locke, *Johnson*, s. v.)

“How rarely does it meet with this time’s guise,

When man was *willed* to love his enemies.” (Shaks. *Tim. of Ath.* iv. 3.)

4. SHALL.

§ 148. *Shall* is rarely used except as an Auxiliary. [See §§ 137, 138.]

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT INDEFINITE TENSE.

Sing. I shall
Thou shalt
He shall

Plur. We shall
Ye or you shall
They shall

PAST INDEFINITE TENSE.

Sing. I should
Thou shouldst or shouldst
He should

Plur. We should
Ye or you should
They should

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PAST INDEFINITE TENSE.

Sing. I should (same as in Indicative).

Obs. 1. For the proper sense of *shall* and its use as an Auxiliary in the Future indicative, see § 138.

Obs. 2. Sometimes *should* = *ought*, as when we say, “you *should* not do that. *Should* is then a Principal Verb, not an Auxiliary. But in such a sentence as this—“If you *should* see my friend A., please tell him so-and-so”—*should* see is a periphrasis for the simple Subjunctive. [Compare § 125.]

Obs. 3. According to Grimm, *shall*, in its Gothic form *skal*, is a preterite of a lost present *skila*, "I kill or wound," and so *shall* = I have killed or wounded, and I am therefore liable to pay the fine or *wergeld*;" hence "I am under an obligation, I must." *Shall* is used in the sense of "owe" in early English with a case after it, as in Chaucer's *Court of Love*, "For by the faith 1 shall to God." (Head, p. 77.)

5. MAY.

§ 149. **May** is used both as a Principal Verb and an Auxiliary.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT INDEFINITE TENSE.

<i>Sing.</i>	<i>I may</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>We may</i>
	<i>Thou mayest or mayst</i>		<i>Ye or you may</i>
	<i>He may</i>		<i>They may</i>

PAST INDEFINITE TENSE.

<i>Sing.</i>	<i>I might</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>We might</i>
	<i>Thou mightest or mightst</i>		<i>Ye or you might</i>
	<i>He might</i>		<i>They might</i>

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PAST INDEFINITE TENSE.

(Same as in Indicative.)

Obs. 1. When used as a Principal Verb, *may* denotes permission or liberty to do something. "You *may* go" = You are at liberty to go. (Lat. *licet*.) But in such a sentence as this, "It is possible that I *may* be mistaken," *may* is simply a periphrasis for the Subjunctive, and in Latin would be expressed by a single word (*Vereor ne falsus sim*).

Obs. 2. In *may*, *y* represents an original *g* (comp. Germ. *mäg-en*): hence preterite *mighi*.

6. CAN.

§ 150. **Can, could**, is never a mere Auxiliary.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT INDEFINITE TENSE.

<i>Sing.</i>	<i>I can</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>We can</i>
	<i>Thou canst</i>		<i>Ye or you can</i>
	<i>He can</i>		<i>They can</i>

PAST INDEFINITE TENSE.

<i>Sing.</i>	<i>I could</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>We could</i>
	<i>Thou couldst or couldst</i>		<i>Ye or you could</i>
	<i>He could</i>		<i>They could</i>

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PRESENT AND PAST INDEFINITE TENSES.

(Same as in Indicative.)

Obs. 1. In the earlier forms of English, *could* is spelt *cuthe*, *couthe*, *coude*, without the letter *l*, which has no etymological right to be inserted. It owes its insertion to a false analogy, making *could* correspond with *would* and *should*, where the letter *l* belongs to the root.

Obs. 2. "The old past participle" *kouth* = known, occurs in Chaucer, *Prol. Cant. Tales*, l. 14: whence *un-couth* (O. E. *uncuth*) = unknown, strange. *Cunning* = knowing, is really a present participle of *can*.

7. MUST.

§ 151. **Must** is always a Principal Verb = *I am obliged* (to do something). It is not inflected, but is the same in all Persons and Tenses.

The original forms are—

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Sing.</i>	<i>I mot (must, am able)</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>moton</i>
	<i>Thou most (i.e. must)</i>		(for all persons)
	<i>He mot</i>		

PAST TENSE.

<i>Sing.</i>	<i>moste</i> (for all persons)	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>moston</i> (for all persons)
--------------	--------------------------------	--------------	---------------------------------

Whence it appears that the letter *s* is an intruder in 1st and 3rd pers. sing. (like the *l* in *could*). The form *mot* or *mote* occurs in English of the reign of Queen Elizabeth: as—

"Fraelissa was as fair as fair *mote* (*could*) be."
(Spenser, *F. Q. i. 2, 37.*)

It is also occasionally used by modern writers in imitation of the old style: as—

"Whate'er this grief *mote* be, which he could not conceal."
(*Childe II. i.*)

8. DARE, past-indef. DURST [to have courage, venture].

§ 152. This Verb sometimes omits the *s* of 3rd pers. sing. pres. indic.: e.g.—

"The Duke
Dare no more stretch this finger of mine
Than he *dare* stretch his own." (*Measure for M. v. 1.*)

"For I know thou darest,
But this thing [Caliban] *dare* not." (*Tempest, iii. 2.*)

Obs. 1. According to Mr. Abbott, *dare* is the Subjunctive = *would* [not] *dare*, i.e. *under any circumstances*. (*Shaks. Gr.* § 361.) And it is certain that where an indicative sense is absolutely required, the form *dares* is preferred: as—

"I dare do all that may become a man,
Who *dares* do more is none." (*Macb.* i. 7.)

"Who *dares* receive it other?" (*Ib.*)

"What my tongue *dares* not, that my heart shall say." (*Rich.* II. v. 5.)

But the original form of 3rd pers. sing. is without *s*, as in the case of *may*, *can*, *shall*, *will*. (Koch, i. 351.)

Obs. 2. *Dare*, to *challenge*, is perfectly regular: hence, preterite *dared*.

9. NEED.

§ 153. This Verb resembles *dare* in sometimes omitting the *s* of 3rd pers. sing. pres. indicative. But this rarely occurs, except when it is followed by another Verb, in which case it is apparently regarded as a kind of Auxiliary, like *may*, *can*, *must*, &c.: as—

"... as virtuously given as a gentleman *need* to be."

(*Hen.* IV. Pt. I. iii. 3.)

"To fly from *need* not be to hate mankind." (Byron, *C. H.* iii. 69.)

Obs. 1. The old English form is *needeth*, which is invariably used in the Authorised Version of the Bible: as—

"He will rise and give him as many as he *needeth*." (Luke xi. 8.)

"... to give to him that *needeth*." (Eph. iv. 23.)

"... a workman that *needeth* not to be ashamed." (2 Tim. ii. 15.)

So Chaucer—

"... What *needeth* wordes mo [more]?" (*Knight's Tale.*)

"It *needeth* not to pyne [punish] you with the cowl." (*Ib.*)

Mr. Abbott, however, remarks that "the impersonal *needs* often drops the *s*," in which case "it is sometimes hard to say whether *what* is an adverb and *need* a verb or *what* an adjective and *need* a noun" (*Sh. Gr.* § 297): as—

"What *need* the bridge much broader than the flood?" (*Much Ado*, i. 1.)

In the well-known epitaph on Shakspeare, Milton writes—

"What *needs* my Shakspeare for his honoured bones
The labour of an age in piled stones?"

where *what* is adverb and *needs* clearly a verb.

Obs. 2. This use of *needs* must not be confounded with that of the adverb *needs*:—

"So stooping down as *needs* he must

Who cannot sit upright." (*John Gilpin.*)

10. OWE, OUGHT.

§ 154. The original meaning of the Verb *owe* is to *possess*, in which sense we now say *to own*. It is so used by Shakspeare:—

"I am not worthy of the wealth I *owe*."

(*All's Well that Ends Well*, ii. 5.)

"—— Not poppy nor mandragora

Shall ever medicine thee to that sweet sleep

Which thou *ow'dst* yesterday." (*Othello*, iii. 3.)

Ought is the regular weak preterite of to owe, and is so used by Shakspeare:—

“He said the other day you *ought* him a thousand pounds.”
(*Hen. IV.* Pt. I. iii. 3.)

It is now used as a present, in the sense of moral obligation. To express a past sense the Verb following requires to be past: as,

“These things *ought ye to have done*, and not to leave the other undone.” (Matt. xxiii. 23.)

Owe, to be in debt, is regular. The two senses of the Verb occur in the following passage of Shakspeare:—

“—— Be pleased then
To pay that duty which you truly *owe*
To him who *owes* it.” (*King John*, ii. 1.)

That is, “pay the homage which you owe to the prince to whom it belongs.” (Heal, p. 103.)

Obs. According to Grimm, *owe*, in its Gothic form *aīh*, O. E. *ah*, I have, is the past tense of an infinitive *eigan*, to labour: whence *owe* originally signified, I have worked, I have earned, hence (a) I possess, have, (b) I have it as a duty, I ought. (Compare Morris, *Hist. Outlines*, p. 188.)

II. OTHER DEFECTIVE VERBS.

§ 155. Quoth, wot, worth, me-thinks, me-lists, whist, yclept, hight, dight.

1. Quoth: 1st and 3rd pers. sing. past indef. = *said* (I), *said* (he).

This Verb is no longer in common use, but is still employed in verse, where the style is homely or humorous. It always precedes its subject—*quoth I*, *quoth he*, and is introduced parenthetically, like the Latin *inquit*: as—

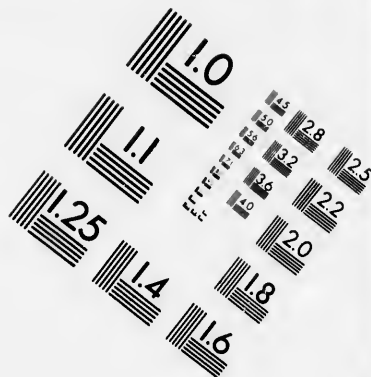
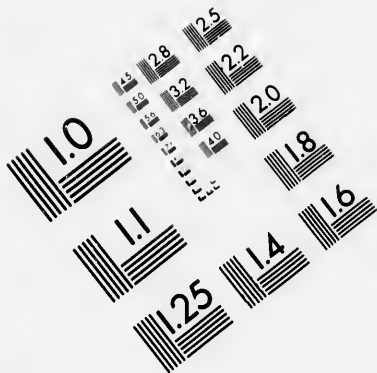
“‘Good iack,’ *quoth he*, ‘yet bring it to me,
My leathern belt likewise.’” (*John Gilpin*.)

Obs. *Quoth* is from O. E. *cweth-an* (infin.), to say; from which is derived also the regular verb *be-queath*, to assign by will.

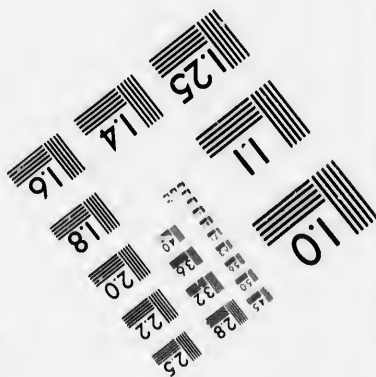
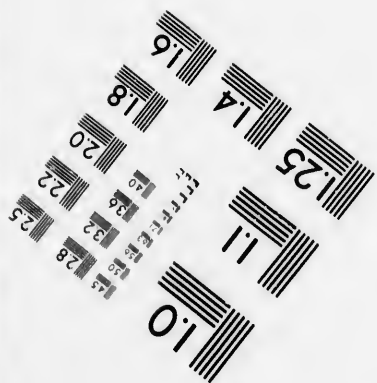
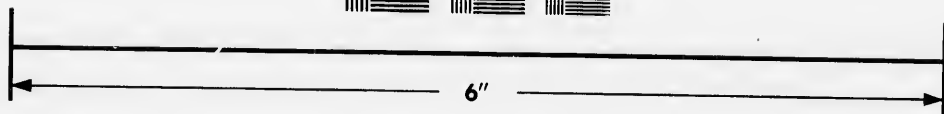
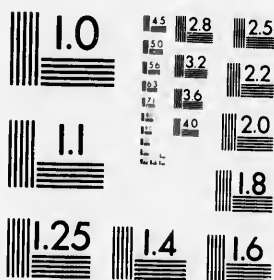
2. Wot, *wit*, *wis*: same as German *wissen*, “to know.” This Verb is now obsolete, but occurs in the Authorised Version of the Bible, and in our older writers.

The following forms are to be met with:—





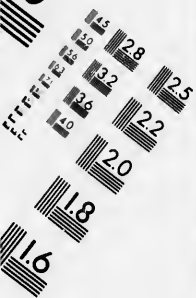
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INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT INDEFINITE TENSE.

<i>Sing.</i> I wot, wis	<i>Plur.</i> We wot
Thou wottest	Ye or you wot
He wotteth	They wot

PAST INDEFINITE TENSE.

Wist (of all Numbers and Persons).

INFINITIVE MOOD.

INDEFINITE FORM: To wit.

PARTICIPLE

INCOMPLETE: Witting, wotting (both in Shakspeare)

Examples:—

“I wot not who hath done this thing.” (Gen. xxi. 26.)

“My master wotteth not what is in the house.” (Ib. xxxix. 8.)

“There be fools alive, I wis,
Silvered o'er.” (Merch. of V. ii. 9.)

“He wist not what to say, for they were sore afraid.” (Mark ix. 6.)

Obs. The form *I wis*, sometimes used as the 1st pers. sing. present of this Verb, is due to a mistake. It has arisen out of the old adverb *ywis* [Germ. *gewiss*], *surely*.

3. Worth:—

This verb occurs only in 3rd pers. sing. pres. subj., with imperative or optative force. Woe worth = woe befall or happen to; a form of execration. (O. E. *weorthan* = Germ. *werden*, “to become, come to pass.”)

“Woe worth the day!” (Ezek. xxx. 2.)

“Woe worth the chase, woe worth the day
That cost thy life, my gallant grey.”

(Scott, *Lady of the L. i.*)

NOTE.—In such phrases the noun which follows *worth* is a dative case, as in *me seems*, *methinks*, or in *woe is me*. (Comp. “Me seemeth then it is no policy.” (Hen. VI. Pt. II. iii. 1.)

4. Me-thinks:—

This expression is sometimes erroneously supposed to be an ungrammatical form for *I think*. But *thinks* is here an Impersonal Verb = (it) *seems*; and *me* is the dative case: (it) *seems to me* = Lat. *mihī videtur*, (O. E. *piucan*, “to seem.”)

The only forms in use are

PRESENT INDEFINITE.

Me-thinks.

PAST INDEFINITE.

Me-thought.

Examples:—

“My father—*me-thinks* I see my father!” (*Ham.* i. 2.)

“*Me-thought* I saw my late espoused saint
Brought to me like Alcestis from the grave.” (*Milt. Sonnet.*)

Milton has also the form **him thought**:—

“*Him thought* he by the brook of Cherith stood.” (*P. R.* ii. 266.)

5. **Me-lists**:—

This is also an Impersonal Verb: **me-lists** = *it pleases me*.

“Ambling palfrey when at need
Him listed ease his battle steed.” (*Marmion*, i.)

Obs. It is to be observed that Shakspeare invariably uses *list* as a personal verb:
as—

“ . . . conquers as *she lists*.” (*Hen. VI. Pt. I.* i. 5.)

“Do as *thou list*.” (*Coriol.* iii. 2.)

“That’s as *we list* to grace him.” (*Lear*, v. 3.)

“ . . . if we *list* to speak . . .” (*Ham.* i. 5.)

[Examples from Cowden Clarke, *Concord. Shaks.*]

In O. E. the verb [*lystan*] is used both personally and impersonally.

6. **Whist**:—

This is properly an Interjection calling for silence, but it is used both by Shakspeare and Milton as the past participle of a Verb:—

“Come unto these yellow sands
And then take hands;
Curtsied when you have, and kist,
The wild waves *whist*.” (*Temp.* i. 2.)

“The winds with wonder *whist*
Smoothly the waters *kist*.”
(*Milt. Hymn on Nativ.*)

Obs. Compare the formation of the present *I wis* out of the adverb *ywis* [No. 2].
The same Interjection (*whist*!) has also become a Noun, giving name to the popular game so called.

7. **Yclept**:—

“But come thou, goddess fair and free,
In heaven *yclept* Euphrosyne. . . .” (*Milt. l’Allegro.*)

Yclept is the past participle of the old Verb (O. E.) *clypian*, "to call." The prefix *y* is identical with the *ge* of the same participle in German, as *gemacht*, *gebracht*, &c.

Obs. Forms like *y-clad* (clothed), *y-drad* (dreaded), are frequent in Spenser, who was fond of archaisms. Shakspeare does not employ them, which proves that they were obsolete in his day.

8. Hight:—

"The city of the Great King *hight* it well

(*i.e.* it is well named so)

Wherein eternal peace and happiness doth dwell." (Spenser, *F. Q.*)

Hight is the past indefinite of an obsolete Verb, *hatan*, "to be named" (German, *heissen*).

Obs. 1. The 2nd pers. sing. of this tense occurs in the following couplet, cited as one of the earliest recorded specimens of English after the Conquest:—

"*Hatest* thou [art thou named] Urse?
Have thou God's curse."

(*Malediction of Archbishop Aldred*, obt. 1069. [Craik, i. 193.]

Obs. 2. *Hight* is also used as a participle:—

"This grisly [horrible] beast which by name Lion *hight*
The trusty Thisbe, coming first by night,
Did scare away . . ." (*Mids. N. D.* v. 1.)

9. Dight:—

This is a defective past participle = *to be decked, adorned*. (O. E. *dihtan*, "to order, to arrange.")

"And storied windows richly *dight*
Shedding a dim religious light." (*Il Penseroso*.)

Classification of Verbs according to Inflexion.

§ 156. It has been seen that Verbs are classified according to their mode of forming the Past Tense (§ 142).

- I. Some form the Past Tense by a change of the vowel in the root: as, sing, sang; climb, clomb (Milton); crow, crew; blow, blew; come, came; lead, led.
- II. Some have not only a change of vowel, in the Past Tense, but also the suffix *d* or *t*: as, tell, told; creep, crept; teach, taught; bring, brought; cleave, cleft.

III. Some use the same form for both Present and Past :
as, cast, cast ; put, put ; shut, shut ; spread, spread ;
thrust, thrust.

Obs. This is the case only with Verbs already in the Present Tense ending in *d* or *t* ;
in which the *ed* of the past forms has coalesced with the final consonant.

IV. Very many form the Past Tense by the addition
of *d* (*ed* after a consonant) or *t* : as, love,
loved ; admire, admired ; adorn, adorned ; affright,
affrighted ; slip, slipped and slipt ; spill, spilled
and spilt.

Obs. A single final consonant preceded by a single vowel is doubled before *-ed* (also
before *-er, -ing*), when the accent is upon it : as, drag, dragged, dragging ; allot,
allotted, allotting. Also *l* is usually doubled independently of the accent : as,
travel, travelled, traveller, travelling.

§ 157. *Strong and Weak Verbs.*—Verbs belonging to Class
I. are STRONG VERBS (§ 142) ; those belonging to Classes
III. IV. are WEAK VERBS. Those of Class II. partake of
both formations, and may be called MIXED VERBS.

§ 158. The first three classes comprise most of the old
monosyllabic verbal roots, belonging all of them to the
original vocabulary of the language. The fourth class—
far more numerous than the other three together—com-
prises the more modern words, including all Verbs adopted
from other languages.

The following table shows the general difference be-
tween Verbs of the first three classes and those of the
fourth :—

CLASSES I. II. III.

give, gave
stand, stood
eat, ate
drink, drank
feed, fed
bring, brought
get, got
run, ran
grow, grew
know, knew
freeze, froze

CLASS IV.

present, presented
establish, established
consume, consumed
absorb, absorbed
digest, digested
convey, conveyed
obtain, obtained
hasten, hastened
increase, increased
ascertain, ascertained
congeal, congealed

Here observe, the Verbs in the left-hand column are
among the very simplest words, and would be understood
and correctly used by every person speaking English as
his mother tongue. Those in the right-hand column are
less common words, belonging rather to the language of
books than of common conversation, and requiring a

certain amount of education to enable anyone to understand and use them properly.

§ 159. *Formation of the Past Participle.*—The Past Participle has one ending which belongs to itself alone, namely, *-en*: as—

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
fall	fell	fallen
beat	beat	beaten
shake	shook	shaken
break	broke	broken

This ending is rarely found except in Verbs of Class I. In Classes II, III, IV, the Past Participle is mostly the same as the Past Indicative: *e. g.*—

	Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
CLASS II. {	tell	told	told
	teach	taught	taught
	buy	bought	bought
CLASS III. {	put	put	put
	shut	shut	shut
CLASS IV. {	love	loved	loved
	adorn	adorned	adorned

Obs. Many Verbs of Classes I, II, III, had originally a Past Participle in *en*, as *clomben*, *foughten*, *sungen*, *slitter*, *borsten* (*burst*), which has become obsolete. Also some others, while retaining the participle in *en*, have lost the strong form of the Past Indicative and substituted for it a form in *d* or *t*: as—

	Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
Mod. Eng.	en-grave	en-graved	en-graven
O. E.	grafan	<i>graf</i>	grafen
Mod. Eng.	hew	hewed	hewed, hewn
O. E.	heawan	<i>heow</i>	heawen
Mod. Eng.	lade, load	loaded	loaded, laden
O. E.	hladen	<i>hlod</i>	hladen
Mod. Eng.	rive	rived	riven
O. E.	rive	<i>-raf</i>	riven [Koch i. 292.]

§ 160. Complete List of Verbs belonging to Classes I, II, III.

(A.) CLASS I.

(a) Root Vowel a or ea.

	Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
1.	awake [wake]	awoke, awaked woke, waked	awaked waked
2.	bear [carry]; bring <i>for "be"</i>	bore, bore	borne, born

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
3. break	brake, broko	broken
4. cleave [<i>adhere</i>]	clave, cleaved	cleaved
5. cleave [<i>split</i>]	clave, clove, cleft	cloven, cleft
6. draw	drew	drawn
7. eat	ate	eaten
8. fall	fell	fallen
9. forsake	forsook	forsaken
10. go	—	gone
11. hang, <i>trans.</i>	hung, hanged	hung, hanged
hang, <i>intrans.</i>	hung	hung
12. heave	hove, heaved	heaved
13. read	read [<i>red</i>]	read [<i>red</i>]
14. shake	shook	shaken
15. shear	shore, sheared	shorn
16. slay	slew	slain
17. speak	spake, spoke	spoken
18. stand	stood	stood
19. steal	stole	stolen
20. swear	sware, swore	sworn
21. take	took	taken
22. tear	tare, tore	torn
23. tread	trod	trodden, trod
24. wear	ware, wore	worn
25. weave	wove	woven

NOTES AND OBSERVATIONS.

1. *Awake* and *wake* are used both transitively and intransitively. In the Past Tense, *awoke* is now preferred in intransitive sense, and *awaked* in transitive sense. Shakespeare, however, always uses *awaked*, *waked*, never *awoke* or *woke*. The forms *awoke*, *woke*, belong exclusively to the Past Tense Indicative, though sometimes incorrectly used as Participles. The derived Verbs *waken* and *awaken* are perfectly regular.

2. *Bare* is now obsolete. *Born* is used only after the Verb *to be*, and as a kind of Adjective (= Lat. *natus*). Elsewhere *borne* is used: e.g.—

“Would I had died . . .

And never seen thee, never *borne* [not *born*] thee son.” (*Hen. VI. Pt. III. i. 1.*)

3. *Brake*, obsolete. Shakespeare frequently uses *broke* as a Participle—

“Most sacrilegious murder hath *broke* ope
The Lord's anointed temple.” (*Mach. ii. 3.*)

Byron—

“The idols are *broke* in the temple of Baal.”

But this use is now of rare occurrence.

4. *Clave*, obsolete.

5. *Clave*, obsolete. *Cleft*, preferred both in Past Tense and Participle.

7. Koch gives *eat* as an alternative form in Modern English, both in Past Indicative and Participle, and cites the following examples:—

“The baron *eat* like a furnished soldier.” (*Waverley*, xi.)

“He might *have eat* his part.” (*K. John*, i. 1.)

But this is neither the usage of the present day, nor is it founded on the original forms of the language. (O. E. *at*; Orm. *ett*. Koch, i. p. 274.)

8. The collateral Verb *to fill* belongs to Class IV., and is perfectly regular.

9. Shakespeare uses *forsook* as Participle—

“His red colour hath *forsook* his cheeks.” (*Rich. III. ii. 1.*)

10. *Go*.—The Past Tense of this Verb has been lost, and its place supplied by that of the Verb *wend*.
11. In the sense of *to inflict death by hanging*, this Verb takes Past Tense and Participle *hanged* rather than *hung*: as—
 “If he be not born to be *hanged* . . .” (*Temp.* i. 1.)
 “He went and *hanged* himself.” (*Matt.* xxvii. 5.)
 Otherwise *hung* is preferred.
12. *Hove* (*to*) is a sailor's phrase. Otherwise always *heaved*.
13. *Rede*, to interpret (as in “rede me the riddle”), is an obsolete form of the same word.
14. Shakspeare frequently uses *shook* as Participle—
 “Hadst thou but *shook* thy head.” (*K. John*, iv. 2.)
17. *Spake*, obsolete. *Spoke* as Participle: Shakspeare often. The compound *bespeak* currently takes *bespoke* as Participle in commercial language.
19. *Stole* as Past Participle—
 “On him who had *stole* Jove's authentic fire.” (*P. L.* iv.)
20. *Sware*, obsolete (E. V.).
21. *Took* as Participle—
 “He that might the vantage best have *took*.” (*Meas. for M.* ii. 2.)
22. *Tare* (E. V.), obsolete.
23. *Trod* as Participle—
 “Mischance hath *trod* my title down.” (*Hen. VI. Pt. III.* iii. 3.)
 So not unfrequently in modern poetry.

(b) Root Vowel e, ee.

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
1. bleed	bled	bled
2. breed	bro	bred
3. feed	fed	fed
4. freeze	froze	frozen
5. get	gat, got	gotten, got
6. meet	met	met
7. [<i>cweth-an</i> , § 155, 1]	quoth	—
8. see	saw	seen
9. seethe	sod, seethed	sodden, seethed
10. speed	sped	sped

NOTES AND OBSERVATIONS.

4. So provincially, *squeeze*, *squoze*, *squozen* (*Lanc.*).
5. *Gat*, *gotten*, obsolete. Compound *forget*, same principal parts.
9. This Verb is nearly obsolete, except in figurative sense: as, *the seething waters*. Also *sodden* in sense of *wet through*.

(c) i long, as in *drive*. i short, as in *begin*.

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
1. abide (hide)	abode	abode
2. bind	bound	bounden, bound
3. bite	bit	bitten, bit

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
4. chide	chode, chid	chidden, chid
5. climb	clomb, climbed	climbed
6. drive	drave, drove	driven
7. fight	fought	foughten, fought
8. find	found	found
9. grind	ground	ground
10. hide	hid	hidden, hid
11. lie	lay	lien, lain
12. ride	rode, rid	ridden
13. rise	rose	risen
14. shine	shone, shined	shone, shined
15. shrive	shrove	shriven
16. slide	slid	slidden, slid
17. smite	smote	smitten
18. strike	struck	struck, stricken, strucken
19. strive	strove	striven
20. thrive	throve	thruven, thrived
21. wind	wound	wound
22. write	wrote	written

NOTES AND OBSERVATIONS.

1. The simple Verb *bide* has lost its Past Tense and Past Participle.
2. *Bounden* only used as Adjective, as *bounden duty*. *Bound*, prepared for, ready to go to (Icel. *buinn*), is from a distinct root.
4. *Chode* (Gen. xxxi. 36), obsolete.
5. *Clomb*, obsolete. It occurs in Milton—
 "So *clomb* this first grand thief into God's fold." (*P. L. iv.*)
6. *Drave* (Exod. xiv. 15), obsolete.
7. *Foughten* is occasionally used in the phrase, a "well *foughten* field."
11. *Lien* (Ps. lxxviii. 13), obsolete. *Lien* (Lat. *ligamen*), as a law term, is a distinct word.
14. *Shined*, obsolete.
17. *Smote* occurs also rarely as Participle. (Shakspeare.)
18. *Strucken* (Shaks.), obsolete.
19. *Strove* as Participle, Shakspeare.
20. *Thruven*, Participle, Shakspeare, who does not use *throve*.
22. *Wrote* as Participle, Shakspeare.

i short.

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
1. begin	began, begun	begun
2. bid	bade, bid	bidden, bid
3. cling	clung	clung
4. dig	dug, digged	dug, digged
5. drink	drank, drunk	drunk, drunken
6. fling	flung	flung
7. give	gave	given
8. ring	rang	rung
9. shrink	shrank, shrunk	shrunk, shrunken
10. sink	sank, sunk	sunken, sunk
11. sit	sat (sate)	sitten, sat

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
12. sling	slung	slung
13. slink	slunk	slunk
14. spin	span, spun	spun
15. spit	spat, spit	spitten, spit
16. spring	sprang, sprung	sprung
17. stick	stuck	stuck
18. sting	stung	stung
19. stink	stank, stunk	stunk
20. swim	swam, swum	swum
21. swing	swang, swung	swung
22. win	won	won
23. wit (§ 155, 2)	wist	—
24. wring	wrung	wrung

NOTES AND OBSERVATIONS.

1. *Begun* as past indicative: Shakspeare, Pope, &c.

Obs. The original form of the Past Tense of such verbs as *begin, drink, cling, sing, ring*, was in singular *a* with plural in *u*: as —

<i>Sing.</i>	ic [I] on-gan [began]	<i>Plur.</i>	we on-gannon
"	ic dranc [drank]	"	we dranon
"	ic sang	"	we sangon
"	ic hrang [rang]	"	we hrangon

In several verbs the *a* has been lost altogether, having given place to the *u* sound of the plural and of the Past Participle. Thus we say, *clung, stung, swung*, instead of *clang, stang, swang*. In other verbs both forms exist side by side, as *drank* and *drunk, shrank* and *shrunken, rang* and *rang*, &c.

The forms in *a* should not be used as participles. Thus "he had drank deeply" is incorrect and contrary to etymology.

9, 10. *Sunken, shrunken*, only used adjectively: as, a *sunken* reef, *shrunken* limbs.

11. *Sitten*, obsolete.

21. *Swang*, obsolete.

(d) Root Vowel o, oo, ow.

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
1. blow	blew	blown
2. choose	chose	chosen
3. come (become)	came	come
4. crow	crew, crowed	crowed
5. grow	grew	grown
6. hold (behold)	held	held, holden
7. know	knew	known
8. shoot	shot	shot
9. throw	threw	thrown

NOTES AND OBSERVATIONS.

4. *Crew*, nearly obsolete.

6. *Holden*, nearly obsolete.

(e) One Verb in u.

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
1. run	ran	run

(f) One Verb in y.

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
1. fly	flew	flown

(B.) CLASS II.

(Arranged Alphabetically.)

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
1. bereave	berest	berest, bereaved
2. beseech	besought	be-sought
3. bring	brought	brought
4. buy	bought	bought
5. can [ken]	could	[eouth]
6. catch	caught	caught
7. clothe	clad, clothed	clad, clothed
8. creep	crept	crept
9. deal	dealt	dealt
10. do	did	done
11. dream	dreamt, dreamed	dreamt, dreamed
12. feel	felt	felt
13. flee	fled	fled
14. hear	heard	heard
15. keep	kept	kept
16. leap	leapt, leaped	leapt, leaped
17. leave	left	left
18. lose	lost	lost
19. may	might	—
20. mean	meant	meant
21. owe	ought, owed	ought, owed
22. say	said	said
23. seek	sought	sought
24. sell	sold	sold
25. shall	should	—
26. shoe	shod	shod
27. sleep	slept	slept
28. sweep	swept	swept
29. teach	taught	taught
30. tell	told	told
31. think	thought	thought
32. weep	wept	wept
33. will	would	—
34. work	wrought, worked	wrought, worked

NOTES AND OBSERVATIONS.

1. *Bereaved*: Ger. xlii. 36, "me have ye *bercaved* of my children:" so often in literal sense. In figurative sense *berest* is preferable.
5. *Can*, see § 150.
7. *Clad*, as past indicative, obsolete.
8. *Creep*.—Past tense *crope*, Lancashire.
19. *May*, see § 149.

21. *Ought*, only in distinct sense of *duty* or *obligation*. In speaking of debts, always *owed*, see § 154
 25. *Shall*, see § 148.
 33. *Will*, see § 147.
 34. *Wrought*, now little used, except as Adjective, *wrought iron*.

(C.) CLASS III.

(Arranged Alphabetically.)

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
1. beat	beat	beaten, beat
2. burst	burst	burst
3. cast	cast	cast
4. cost	cost	cost
5. cut	cut	cut
6. hit	hit	hit
7. hurt	hurt	hurt
8. knit	knitted, knit	knitted, knit
9. let	let	let
10. put	put	put
11. rid	rid	rid
12. set	set	set
13. shed	shed	shed
14. shred	shred	shred
15. shut	shut	shut
16. slit	slit	slit
17. split	split	split
18. spread	spread	spread
19. sweat	sweated, sweat	sweated. sweat
20. thrust	thrust	thrust

NOTES AND OBSERVATIONS.

9. *Let*, to *allow* [Germ. *lassen*]; and *let*, to *hinder*, are from distinct roots. The latter is connected with adjective *late* (O.E. *lat*): compare Lat. *tardo*, *retardo*.
Obs. Verbs of Class III. have in some cases lost their strong forms. Thus, an old past tense of *cut* occurs, *kitte* [Angus, p. 213]; and an old past tense of *sweat*, *swatte* [Morris, p. 311].

(D.) CLASS IV.

§ 161. This Class is far too extensive to admit of all the Verbs belonging to it being enumerated. Moreover, it is continually being enlarged by the formation and introduction of new words, while the other classes continue limited in number. Among late additions to Class IV. may be mentioned the Verbs to *electrify*, to *galvanise*, to *telegraph*, to *photograph*, to *stereotype*, to *fraternise*, to *guillotine*, to *lynch*, to *garotte*—all forming their Past Tense in *d* or *ed*.

Obs. Just as in Nouns the plural ending *s* has become the regular one (§ 31) so in Verbs the addition of the suffix *d* or *ed* has become the regular mode of forming the Past Tense. All the other processes are obsolete. But the *strong forms* (§ 158) should not be looked upon as irregular, since they conform to what was the law of the language at the time when they arose.

§ 162. The following Verbs of Class IV. are enumerated because of their having peculiarities of formation:—

(a) Verbs ending in *d*, in which the Past Tense and Past Participle are formed by a simple change of *d* to *t*:—

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
1. bend	bent	bent
2. blend	blended, (blent)	blended, (blent)
3. build	(builted), built	(builted), built
4. gild	gilded, gilt	gilded, gilt
5. gird	girded, girt	girded, girt
6. lend	lent	lent
7. rend	rent	rent
8. send	sent	sent
9. spend	spent	spent
10. wend	wended, went	wended

The forms *bent*, *blent*, *built*, *gilt*, *girt*, &c. have arisen out of *bended*, *blended*, *builted*, &c. by contraction.

(b) Verbs which have adopted the suffix *-d* or *-ed* in the Past Tense in lieu of the *strong* formation (§ 158), but which retain the ending *-en* in the Participle:—

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
1. bake	baked	baken, baked
2. grave	graved	graven
	engrave	engraved, engraven
3. hew	hewed	hewn
4. lade, load	laded, loaded	laden, loaded
5. mow	mowed	mown, mowed
6. rive	rived	riven
7. shape	shaped	shapen, shaped
8. shave	shaved	shaven, shaved
9. show	showed	shown, showed
10. sow	sowed	sown
11. strew	strewed	strewn

[See § 159, *Obs.*]

NOTES AND OBSERVATIONS.

1. *Baken*: "a cake *baken* on the coals" (1 Kings xix. 6) — obsolete.
4. *Lade*, *laded*, *laden*, now used specially of ships. *Laden* also in figurative sense, according to Matt. xi. 28, "ye that labour and are heavy laden."

7. *Shapen*, Ps. li. 5. Now only adjectively, especially in con.pounds, *mis-shapen* *ill-shapen*.

8. *Shaven*, nearly obsolete, except in adjectival *sense*, as a closely *shaven* beard. The only form used in E. V.

Obs. Also *saw*, *sew*, both strictly weak verbs, have participial forms *sawn*, *sewn* which are probably due to the analogy of *sow*.

(c) Certain contracted forms :—

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
1. have	had [= haved]	had [= haved]
2. make	made [= maked]	made [= maked]
3. lay	laid	laid
4. pay	paid	paid
5. say	said	said

Obs. So *afraid* is strictly Past Participle of the verb "to affray." *to frighten* *alarm*. *stay* is regular, *stay*, *stayed*, *stayed*. *staid* is Adjective.

§ 163. The Verb *am*, *was*, *been*, cannot be classified, as each of these forms belongs to a separate root (§ 143, *Obs.* 1). So in Latin, *s-um* [for *es-um*] and *fu-i* are formed from totally distinct roots.

Adverbs.

§ 164. Adverbs are words used with Verbs, Adjectives, and other Adverbs, to qualify or limit their application in some way: as, to speak *eloquently* (Adverb qualifying Verb); he shouted *aloud* (Adverb qualifying Verb); *very* good (Adverb qualifying Adjective); *too* soon (one Adverb qualifying another).

Obs. An Adverb of time is sometimes used Adjectively for the sake of brevity: as, *the then* Mayor, § 232.

§ 165. *Etymology of Adverbs.*—Unlike the other parts of speech, Adverbs are almost without exception derived from other words.

1. Some Adverbs are derived from Nouns: as, *needs*, *sideways*, *lengthways*, (probably once Possessives); *whilom* (at times, some time ago: old Dative Plural); *piecemeal*, *i.e.* a piece at a time (*mal*, "time," O. E.); *abreast*, *ashore*, *away*, *across*, *aside* (*i.e.* on-breast, on-shore, &c.); *perhaps*, *betimes*, &c.
2. Others are derived from Pronouns: as, *here*, *hence*, *hither*; *there*, *thence*, *thither*; *where*, *whence*, *whither*, *whereon*, *wherever*; *thus*, *than*, &c.

Obs. Those Adverbs that are derived from the Relative Pronoun, as *where, when, whence, whereas, &c.*, retain the connective power which belongs to the Relative itself (§ 89). The same is the case with the Adverbs *while or whilst, as, than*. Each of these words is Adverb and Conjunction in one. Thus, in the line—

“ I know a bank | whereon the wild thyme grows ” (*Mids. N. Dr.*)

we have really two sentences. But they are so connected by the Relative Adverb *whereon* as to form one complete sentence. Substitute the Demonstrative Adverb *thereon* for *whereon*, and the two simple sentences remain distinct:—

I know a bank. Thereon the wild thyme grows.

This connective force is still more apparent in such sentences as the following:—

“ I cast my eyes towards the summit of a rock . . . *where* I discovered one in the habit of a shepherd . . . ” (*Vision of Mirzah*):

i.e. *and there* I discovered, &c.

“ She fancied that she saw her first husband coming towards her *when* in the midst of the pleasure which she expressed he reproached her in the following manner . . . ” (*Spect.* No. 110);

i.e. *and then* he reproached her, &c.

{Compare § 233, on the twofold use of the Relative.}

3. Very many are derived from Adjectives; as, *badly, beautifully, wonderfully; once, twice, thrice; first, secondly, thirdly, &c.* In other cases, Adjectives are used as Adverbs without being made to undergo any change: as, *like* (to sing *like* a bird); *late* (to arrive too *late*); *pretty* (*pretty* good): see § 167, *Obs.* 3.

4. Others are derived from Prepositions: as, *to and fro* (from); *too* (= *thereto*); *off*; *upwards, downwards, &c.* In other cases Prepositions are used as Adverbs without being made to undergo any change: as, *above* (to dwell *above*); *down* (the clock has run *down*); *in and out* (in sense of *at home, abroad*).

§ 100. *Classification of Adverbs.*—Adverbs may be classified according to their meanings, as follows:—

N. B.—The following classified lists of words are not intended to be committed to memory, but simply to enable the pupil more readily to distinguish the great variety of Adverbs from other kinds of words.

1. Adverbs of TIME: as, *when* (interrogative and relative), *now, then, while, whilst, whilom, before, afterwards, soon, presently, immediately, since, ago, to-morrow, yesterday, always, ever, never, by-and-by, &c.*
2. Adverbs of PLACE: as, *where, whence, whither* (interrogative and relative), with their compounds: as, *wherever, everywhere, nowhere, whithersoever, &c.*; *hence, thence, hither, thither, above, below, within, without, around, upwards, downwards, to and fro, &c.*

3. Adverbs of SEQUENCE or ORDER: as, *first* (*firstly*), *secondly*, *thirdly*, *lastly*.
4. Adverbs answering the question, "How many times?" as, *once*, *twice*, *thrice*, *often*, *seldom*.
5. Adverbs of MANNER: as, *how* (interrogative and relative), *well*, *ill*, *badly*, *wisely*, *foolishly*, *right*, *rightly*, *aright*, *aloud*, &c.
6. Adverbs of DEGREE: as, *very*, *too*, *almost*, *quite*, *rather*, *altogether*; *much*, *little*, *no* (with a Comparative or Superlative: as, *much* better, *little* better, *no* better); also *the* before a Comparative [§ 231]; *more*, *most*, *less*, *least*.
7. Adverbs of INFERENCE and ARGUMENT: as, *why* (interrogative and relative), *therefore*, *accordingly*, *hence*, *thence*, *whence* ["*whence* it follows . . ."].
8. One Adverb of negation: *not*. (In O. E. also *ne*.)

Obs. 1. *First* is better than *firstly*. The latter is not given by Johnson at all, being of later date than the appearance of the *Dictionary*. The following instances show the usage of our standard writers:—

"*First*, metals are more durable than plants; *secondly*, they are more solid and hard; *thirdly*, they are wholly subterraneous." (Bacon, in Johnson, s. v.)

So Hume, *Essays*, i. 76; i. 96; &c.:—

"*First* . . . *secondly* . . . *thirdly*."

"*First* . . . *secondly*." (Berkeley, *Works*, p. 7.)

Obs. 2. *Yes* and *no* are sometimes called Adverbs. This is incorrect. They are substitutes for sentences, and not parts of sentences at all. Thus, in the question and answer—Are you willing?—*Yes*—the word *yes* is equivalent to the sentence, *I am willing*. The same may be said of the words called Interjections—*oh*, *O*, *ah*, *alas*, &c. They are compendious expressions, each equivalent to a sentence. [Word-Sentences.]

§ 167. *Adverbs in -ly*.—Adverbs of Manner and Sequence are usually formed by adding *-ly* to the Adjectives from which they are derived: as, beautiful, *beautifully*; bad, *badly*; wise, *wisely*.

Adjectives ending in *y* not preceded by another vowel change *y* into *i* before *-ly*: as, pretty, *prettily*; hasty, *hastily*. But *coy*, *coily*.

Adjectives ending in *-le* simply change the *e* into *y*: as, single, *singly*; able, *ably*; terrible, *terribly*.

Obs. 1. *Gaily* is now spelt thus, with *i*. In Johnson's time it was spelt either *gayly* or *gaily*. (*Dict.* s. v.) *Shyly* is spelt thus, with *y*.

Obs. 2. Some Adjectives are also used as Adverbs without the addition of *-ly*; it may be, with a difference of meaning. Thus we say, the sun shines *brighly*,

well as *brightly* (especially in poetry); to hit any one *hard* (but in different sense, to be *hardly*—i.e. *severely* or *unjustly*—used); *pretty* well (but with a Verb, *prettily*: as, *prettily* dressed); to aim *high* (but "*highly* displeased," Acts xii. 20); "he called so loud" (*P. L.* i.), but in ordinary language, to speak *loudly*.
The use of Adjectives as Adverbs is frequent in poetry, and that in the case of words which could not be so used in prose.

Obs. 3. The O. E. formation of Adverbs is in *é*. So *hardé* (*P. Plowman*, i. 42); *streyté*, i.e. *straitly* (*ib.* 52); *faire*, i.e. *fair*, *fairly* (*ib.* ii. 467), &c. In the Elizabethan period the *e* had in such cases become lost, and thus the form of Adjective and Adverb became in many cases identical. The current Adverbial ending in *-ly* (= like) is properly an Adjectival ending (O. E. *-lic*, adv. *-licé*).

Obs. 4. In the case of Adjectives ending in *-ly*, the same form is sometimes used for the Adverb: as, "to live *godly*" [for *godlily*], (2 Tim. iii. 12); "to act *lively*" [like life], (*Two Gent. of V.* iv. 4); "*lovely* fair" (*Oth.* iv. 2): § 226. Obs. 2. *Likely* is in common use both as Adjective and as Adverb.

§ 168. *Comparison of Adverbs*.—Most Adverbs are compared by *more* and *most*: as, *sweetly*, *more sweetly*, *most sweetly*. But some take *-er*, *-est*: as, *soon*, *sooner*, *soonest*; *often*, *oftener*, *oftenest*; *hard*, *harder*, *hardest*; *loud*, *louder*, *loudest*, &c. See also Obs. 3.

A few are irregularly compared:—

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
well	better	best
badly, ill, evilly	worse	worst
much	more	most
little	less	least
far	farther	farthest
[forth]	further	furthest
nigh, near	near	nearest, next
late	later	latest, last

Obs. 1. *Farther*, *farthest*, are altogether anomalous forms. They are corrupted from *ferther*, *ferthest*, the old Comparative and Superlative of *forth* (Koch, ii. 203), and have taken the place of the old Comparative and Superlative of *far*, which have become obsolete [*ferre*, *ferrest*, Chaucer].

Farther, *farthest*, are now used in comparison of distances; *further*, *furthest*, with reference to *position in advance*, *forwardness*, or *progress*:—

"He went a little *farther*." [away]. (Matt. xxvi. 39.)

"*Farthest* from Him is best." (*P. L.* i.)

"*Farthest* from perfection." (Hooker, in *Johnson*.)

It is—

"Hitherto shalt thou come, but no *further*." (Job xxxviii. 11.)

"I will proceed no *further*." (*ib.* xl. 5.)

"When they had *further* threatened them." (Acts iv. 21.)

Obs. 2. *Near* is itself strictly the Comparative Degree; so that *nearer* is an instance of double formation.

Obs. 3. The Adverb *early* is compared

early	earlier	earliest
-------	---------	----------

like the Adjective. And in poetry, some other Adverbs in *-ly* are occasionally compared by *-er* and *-est*: as, "*gladlier*" (*P. L.* vi.); "*rightlier*" (*P. L.* xl.); "*more proudlier*" (Sh. *Coriol.* iv. 7), an instance of double comparison; "*keenlier*" (Tennyson, *In Mem.* 94); "*freshlier*" (*ib.* 114); "*gladlier*" (*Id. En.*

Arden); "*quickest*" (Words. *Excurs.* iii.). In the older prose writers, these forms were frequently used: as,

"Touching things which generally are received,—we are *happiest* able to bring such proofs of their certainty, as may satisfy gainsayers." (Hooker, v. 2.)

"That he may the *stronglier* provide." (Hobbes, *Life of Thucyd.*)

"The things *highest* important to the growing age."
(Shaftesbury in Lowth.)

§ 169. Defective Comparison:—

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
[<i>rathe</i> , adj. obs.]	rather	[<i>rathest</i> , obs.]
—	[<i>ere</i>]	erst
lief	liefer	[<i>liefest</i> , adj. Sh.]

Obs. *Rathe*, early (obs.), was originally an Adj.: "the *rathe* primrose" (Milt. *Lycidas*). *Rathe* ripe (a species of apple, Sussex) = *early* ripe. *Ere* used only as Conj.: *erst* = *in former days, once*. As Adverb: "Powers that *erst* in Heaven sat on thrones" (*P. L.* l.).

Ere is found in *erewhile* (*once, formerly*).

Lief = *willingly*: "I had as *lief* the town-crier spoke my lines" (*Hamlet*, iii. 2).

§ 170. *Phrase Adverbs*.—Such are, *at random*; *in the dark*; *at a loose end* (colloq.); *spick and span* (colloq.); *at large*; *upside down*; *topsy-turvey* (colloq.); *pell-mell*; *at cross purposes*.

Prepositions.

§ 171. A Preposition is a word which shows the relation of one Noun to another: as, a man *of* Rome, a man *in* Rome, a man *from* Rome, a man journeying *towards* Rome; a treatise *by* Milton, a treatise *on* Milton, a treatise *against* Milton.

Here *of, in, from, by, on, against*, are Prepositions.

§ 172. Prepositions are usually put before [*præ-positio*, "placing before"] Nouns and Pronouns which they connect with some preceding Noun, Adjective, or Verb: as—

"I saw a *smith* stand *with* his *hammer* thus." (*K. J.* iv. 2.)
[Noun connected with Noun.]

"Poor soul! his eyes are *red with weeping*." (*J. Cæs.* iii. 2.)
[Verbal Noun connected with Adjective.]

"A old man *broken with the storms* of state." (*Hen. VIII.* iv. 2.)
[Noun connected with Participle of Verb.]

Obs. Occasionally a Preposition comes after the Noun to which it belongs: as—

"*His spear*—to equal which the tallest pine
Hewn on Norwegian hills were but a wand—
He walked *with* . . ." (*P. L.* l.);

i.e. He walked with his spear.

§ 173. When a Preposition connects Noun with Noun, the relation is between one object and another = [smith *with* hammer]; when it connects a Noun with an Adjective, the relation is between an object and the Quality expressed by the Adjective [red *with* weeping]; when it connects a Noun with a Verb, the relation is between an object and an action [broken *with* storms].

Obs. It has been maintained [Meiklejohn, i.] that a Preposition always connects Noun with Noun passing over any intermediate words. This mode of explanation does not appear satisfactory in all cases. In such a sentence as the following—

The man is ignorant *of* his own language,

the noun *language* stands in no grammatical relation to the noun *man*, but is the object of the verbal adjective *ignorant*. In all cases where an Adjective or a Verb takes after it a preposition-phrase as complement, the grammatical connection is between the Noun and the Verb or Adjective, not between the Noun and some other Noun preceding both.

§ 174. Prepositions may be classified as follows:—

1. Simple Prepositions.
2. Compound and Derivative Prepositions.
3. Phrase-Prepositions.

1. SIMPLE PREPOSITIONS.

at	for	of, off	to
by	from	on	up
down	in	through	with

2. COMPOUND AND DERIVATIVE PREPOSITIONS.

above	before	into	since
about	below	<i>maugre</i>	throughout
across	beneath	near	till
after	beside, -s	notwithstanding	toward(s)
against	between	outside	under
along	betwixt	over	underneath
amid, -st	beyond	past	until
among, -st	but *	respecting	upon
<i>anent</i>	concerning	<i>sans</i>	within
(a)round	during	save, saving	without
athwart	except, -ing		

3. PHRASE-PREPOSITIONS.

according to	because of	by reason of
along with	in behalf of	for the sake of
on account of	by means of	instead of, &c.

* In sense of *except*: as, nothing *but* water: comp. § 286.

Obs. 1. Some of the above words are used both as Adverbs and as Prepositions: *as, above, below, up, down, since, &c.* They are Adverbs when used absolutely, and without either a Noun or a part of a sentence dependent upon them. Thus, in the sentence, "he has *since* left the country," *since* is an Adverb modifying the Verb *left*: but in this—"since his departure, the matter has been allowed to rest"—*since* is a Preposition. Again, *since* may also be used as a Conjunction—since he left the country. [See below, "Conjunctions."]

Obs. 2. *Anent*, i.e. *concerning*: a Scotticism, often used in colloquial language.

Obs. 3. In *after, over, under*, the *-er* is the Comparative suffix.

Obs. 4. Concerning the etymology and uses of *but*, see § 294.

Obs. 5. *Beside* (not *besides*) where *place* is denoted: as, "*beside* the still waters" (Ps. xxiii.); so, to sit down *beside* anyone. *Beside* also in sense of *out of the way of*: as, "*beside* the mark" (Cowper); "then art *beside* thyself" (Acts xxvi. 24). Either *beside* or *besides* in sense of *over and above, in addition*: as, "*beside* all this" (Luke xvi. 26; and so always as Preposition in E. V.); "*besides* all these" (Arnold, *Rom. II. ii.* 229). Both forms are used adverbially.

Obs. 6. *Malgre* (obsolete): Fr. *malgre*, in spite of:—

"Shall lead Hell captive *malgre* Hell." (*P. L.* iii. 256.)

Obs. 7. For the etymology of *near*, see § 68, *Obs. 4.*

Obs. 8. *Notwithstanding* is used as Adverb (*I shall go notwithstanding*); and less frequently as Conjunction: see § 286.

Obs. 9. *Sans* (Fr. obsolete), *without*:—

"*Sans* teeth, *sans* eyes, *sans* taste, *sans* everything."

(*Sh., As You Like It*, II. 7.)

Obs. 10. *Save, saving*: nearly obsolete, except in poetry. *Save, except*, are sometimes used as Conjunctions: see § 286.

Conjunctions.

§ 175. Conjunctions are words which connect sentences together. Thus they sustain the same relation towards sentences which Prepositions sustain towards single words. Examples:—

"Cromwell died, *and* the Stuarts were recalled."

"We shall not all sleep, *but* we shall all be changed."

(1 Cor. xv. 51.)

"If he do bleed,

I'll gild the faces of the grooms withal,

For it must seem their guilt." (*Macbeth*, ii. 2.)

§ 176. Conjunctions being thus the links or bonds between sentences, when these are removed, the separate members of a complex sentence appear in a detached form. Thus in the last of the above examples we have a complex sentence consisting of three members:—

(1) He bleed(s).

(2) I'll gild the faces of the grooms withal [with the blood].

(3) It must seem their guilt.

§ 177. The Conjunction **and** sometimes unites single words, not sentences: as, "two *and* [= *with*] two are four." Here *and* does the work of a Preposition. So in the adverbial phrase, "[to walk] two *and* two."

§ 178. The Conjunctions **and**, **either**, **or**, **neither**, **nor**, conduce to brevity of expression. Thus—

"Caesar and Pompey were both great men" } = { "Caesar was a great man;"
"Pompey was a great man."

"Neither oxygen nor hydrogen alone is fitted for respiration" } = { "Oxygen alone is not fitted for respiration;"
"Hydrogen alone is not fitted for respiration."

Such sentences are called contracted sentences.

§ 179. *Classification of Conjunctions.*—Conjunctions may be classified as follows:—

1. Simple connectives, positive or negative: **and**, **or**, **nor**, **neither**, **nor**, **either**, **or**, **both** . . . and.
2. Causal Conjunctions, which denote a cause or reason: **because**, **therefore**, **for**, **since**, **whereas**, **seeing that**, **in order that**, **that**, **lest**.
3. Adversative Conjunctions, implying opposition or contrast between two statements: **but**, **yet**, **however**, **notwithstanding**, **nevertheless**, **though**, **although**, **granting that**; **except**, **save** (saving), (rare as Conjunctions).
4. Hypothetical Conjunctions: **if**, **so**, **provided**, **unless**.
5. Temporal Conjunctions, expressing relations of time: **before**, **after**, **as soon as**, **when**, **while**.
6. Comparative Conjunctions: **as**, **than**.

Obs. Concerning *when*, *where*, *while*, &c., see § 165, *Obs.*

Interjections.

§ 180. Interjections are words used by way of exclamation, to call attention or to express surprise, pain, grief, exultation, vexation, &c.: as, **O!** **oh!** **ah!** **heigho!** **alas!** **hurrah!** &c. They rarely stand in any grammatical relation to other words, being in fact word-sentences, like **Yes** and **No** [§ 166, *Obs.* 2].

Obs. Some Interjections are mere inarticulate cries: as, *oh!* *ah!* *ha!* *haha!* *he, he!* Others have arisen from the corruption of entire sentences or phrases: as, *marry!* (Shaks.) = [*I swear*] by *St. Mary*; *zounds!* (obsol.) = by *God's wounds*, &c.

Formation of Words.

Simple and Complex Words.

§ 181. SIMPLE WORDS are such as cannot be traced back to any more elementary forms in the language. Such are—

1. The Pronominal Forms *I, me, thou, he, who.*
2. The Numeral Adjectives *one ten*
3. A large number of common NOUNS belonging to the oldest type of English: as, *man, boy, girl, dog, cat, sun, moon, earth, star, water, fire, &c.*
4. A large number of common monosyllabic ADJECTIVES, also belonging to the oldest type of English: as, *go d, bad, long, short, black, white, red, blue, sweet, high, low, clear, dark, rough, hard, soft, cold, &c.*
5. Very many common monosyllabic VERBS, also belonging to the oldest type of English: as, *be, is, go, come, live, die, speak, see, hear, feel, smell, freeze, thaw, blow, flow, &c.*
6. The simple PREPOSITIONS: as, *in, out, up, down, &c.*
7. A few ADVERBS and CONJUNCTIONS: as, *now, not, and, for.*

§ 182. COMPLEX WORDS are such as are formed from other words by COMPOSITION or DERIVATION, or by a combination of both processes.

§ 183. COMPOUND WORDS.—Words formed by the coalescing* of two or more distinct words are called COMPOUND WORDS: as, *rainbow, walking-stick, corn-field, foresee, notwithstanding, nevertheless.*

When the coalescence is complete, the Compound is written as a single word, as *blackbird, sunflower, railway.*

When the coalescence is less complete, a hyphen is used to tie the component words together: as, *Will-o'-the-Wisp, homeward-bound, rosy-fingered, penny-wise, pound-foolish, man-of-war, grass-plot, field-botany.*

* It is often difficult to decide whether a given combination of words should be regarded as a Compound or not. Take as examples, "*mountain-range,*" "*sea inlets,*" "*land-drainage,*" "*land-wind,*" "*coast-line,*" "*lip, tooth, and throat consonants,*" "*Old High Dutch,*" "*New High Dutch,*" "*the Noun-group,*" "*the Adjective group,*" "*demonstrative-relative,*" "*pronoun-adverb*" (*Varle, Phil. of English Tongue*). The best test is the accent. If there is only one dominant

* Lat. coalescere, to grow into one.

accent, we have before us a true compound, even though the compound words are written without any hyphen. Thus, *lip-consonant*, *tooth-consonant*, *throat-consonant*, are true compounds, however written, the accents on the syllables *lip*, *tooth*, *throat*, dominating over the entire word; and the same may be said for the philological terms, *Old High Dutch*, *New High Dutch*.

So, *blackbird* (Lat. *merula*, "the merle"), being a true compound, has but one accent; whereas, if in describing a crow or raven, we were to speak of it as a *black bird*, each word would bear its own separate accent (Latham). But the ear may often leave us in doubt after all.

§ 184. DERIVED WORDS.—Words formed from other words by some change of form in themselves, or by the addition of some element never found standing by itself, are called DERIVED WORDS or DERIVATIVES. Such are, *man-ly*, *man-i-kin*, *man-hood*, *un-man*, from the Noun MAN; *spoke*, *speak-er*, *speak-ing*, *be-speak*, from the Verb SPEAK; *king-ly*, *king-dom*, *king-ship*, *un-king-ed*, from KING.

Obs. It is sometimes possible to trace back a formative element to a distinct word. Thus, the ending *-ly* comes from the Adjective *like*. But since *-ly* is not used as a separate word, Adjectives and Adverbs in *-ly* must be regarded as Derivatives rather than as Compounds.

§ 185. When a Compound word has been taken bodily from another language, it is for us simply a Derived word, although in the language from which we have borrowed it, it may be a true compound. Thus *economy* is for the English student a Derived word, being in fact the Greek *οικονομία* (Lat. *œconomia*) transferred to our language by a simple change of termination. The composition of the Greek word *οικονομία* belongs to Greek etymology.

§ 186. COMPOUND-DERIVED WORDS.—Some words are at once compound and derived, being formed from two or more words by the addition of an inflexional element:* as, *grey-haired*, *white-robed*, *web-footed*, *long-legged*, *hundred-handed*, "many-fountain'd" (Tennyson), "full-faced" (*ib.*), *iron-jointed*, "supple-sinewed" (*ib.*); *heart-rending*, *money-getting*, "many-twinkling" (Byron, Keble), "hollow-sounding" (Hemans), *all-personifying*, "all-governing" (Grote); *old-maidish*, "screech-owlish" (Carlyle), "old-friendish-ness" (*Q. Rev.*, example in Earle); "grind-grinder" (Carlyle); "ill-odorous," i. e. *having an ill-odour* (E. B. Browning).

* "In such instances the inflection reacts upon the whole compound with a consolidating force. . . . Where the last member of a linked composite has an inflection, it seems to run back pervadingly through the others, supplying the whole with a thread of coherence." (Earle, p. 512.)

[For the inflexional elements employed in such words, see § 196.]

§ 187. The most numerous and important Compounds are—

- A. Compound Nouns.
- B. Compound Adjectives.
- C. Compound Verbs.

A. COMPOUND NOUNS.

§ 188. (1.) The great mass of Compound Nouns are formed by the simple juxtaposition of two Nouns, the former of which modifies the latter: as, *song-thrush*, *missel-thrush*, *rose-tree*, *tree-rose*, *ring-finger*, *finger-ring*, *town-hall*, *parish-church*, *railway*, *printing-press*, &c.

N.B.—This class of Compound Nouns far outnumber all the rest put together.

(2.) In some cases an Adjective has coalesced with a Noun from being frequently joined with it in a particular sense: as, *freeman*, *nobleman*, *black-cock*, *bluebird*, *off-side* and *on-side* (in foot-ball).

(3.) In a few other cases a Noun appears preceded by a Transitive Verb, of which it is the Object: as, *dare-devil*, *pick-pocket*, *turn-spit*, *spit-fire*. (Here common phrases have been made Nouns of.)

(4.) Also a considerable number of verbal Nouns are found in composition with adverbial prefixes: as, *fore-sight*, *fore-thought*, *after-thought*, *after-math* (*that which is mowed after the first crop*), *after-glow*, *after-effect*, &c.

(5.) A few miscellaneous Noun Compounds remain to be noted: such are, *god-send*, *wind-fall*, *fore-noon*, *after-noon*, *ne'er-do-well*, *forget-me-not*, *bread-and-butter*, *no-ball* (in cricket), &c. These again are instances of common phrases which have been made Nouns of.

B. COMPOUND ADJECTIVES.

§ 189. (1.) The most important class of Compound Adjectives consists of those in which the meaning of an Adjective is modified by a Noun prefixed: as, *snow-white* (*white as snow*), *blood-red* (*red as blood*), *ice-cold* (*cold as ice*), *sea-green* (*of a greenish hue resembling the*

green of the sea), sky-blue (*blue as the sky*), pitch-dark (*dark as pitch*), breast-high (*up to the breast*), &c.

(2.) Another class consists of those in which the meaning of an Adjective is modified by an adverbial prefix: as, *all-powerful*, *al-mighty*, *over-strict*, *over-precise*, *non-resident*.

(3.) Sometimes two Adjectives are brought into juxtaposition, when the former modifies the latter: as, blue-black, blue-green, yellowish-white; "grim-white" (Carlyle), "miscellaneous-historical" (*do.*), "mysterious-terrific" (*do.*); "silent-bare" (E. B. Browning), "innocent-wild" (*do.*). Such combinations are often used by authors without any idea of their becoming permanent words.

Obs. When the two Adjectives are of Latin or Greek origin, they are often tied together by the vowel *o* [stem-vowel]: as, "theosophico-m-taplyscial" (Carlyle), "concavo-convex lens" (Galbraith and Haughton).

C. COMPOUND VERBS.

§ 190. Compound Verbs are formed by means of Prefixes: as, *fore-tell*, *out-do*, *over-do*, *over-lay*, *over-lie*, *under-lie*, *up-rise*, &c. [Compare lists of Prefixes, English and Latin, §§ 194, 199.]

Many Verbs are really Compounds which have their meaning modified by a Preposition [Adverb] following: as, to call *out*, drive *back*, pull *down*, laugh *at*, root *up*, &c. In such cases the Preposition [Adverb] adheres to the Verb in the Passive Voice: as, he was called-out (*challenged*); the house was pulled-down; to be laughed-at, rooted-up, driven-back.

Obs. A few Compound Verbs are formed from a Noun and a Verb: as, to *back* bite (i.e. to bite or snarl at a person *behind his back*); to *brone*-beat ("to depress with *severe brows and stern or lofty looks*"—Johnson); to *top*-dress (*dress or manure soil at the top*); to *hen*-peck (Verb formed by false analogy from participial adjective *henpecked*), &c.

§ 191. *Compounds of other Parts of Speech.*—These are mostly of a miscellaneous character. For Compound Pronouns [*whoso*, *whosoever*, &c.], see § 98, foll.; Compound Relative Adverbs [*whereby*, *wherein*, &c.], see § 165, *Obs.*; Compound Prepositions, § 174.

Obs. Other compound Adverbs are of various growths: take as examples, *head-foremost*, *upside-down*, *straightway*, *eftsoones* [= presently: obsol.], *in-doors*, *up-stairs*, "plunged *elbow-deep*" (E. B. Browning), *forsooth*, *somehow*, *somewhere*, *somewhen* [rare]; *nowise*, *otherwise*, *by-and-by*, *of-yore*, &c.

Derivatives.

§ 192. There are three principal modes of Derivation:—

1. By a Prefix: as, do, *un-do*; say, *gain-say*; daub, *be-daub*, &c.
2. By a Suffix or ending: as, good, *good-ness*.
3. By a change in the body of the word itself: as, sing, *song*; gold, *gild*; break, *breach*; dig, *ditch*.
[*N.B.*—The most important class of words formed by internal change consists of the Past Tenses of primary Verbs, which are not usually classed as Derivatives: see § 156.]

§ 193. Also in many cases Verbs have been formed from Nouns (or *vice versa*) and Adjectives, without any change whatever: compare, fish, and *to fish*; weed, and *to weed* [a garden]; air, and *to air* [clothes]; dust, and *to dust* [a room]; black, and *to black* [boots]. In the earlier stages of our language the Verb-formation would be marked by a termination (*-ian, -an, -en*).

As instances of Verbs used as Nouns, take the following: to run, and *a run*; to struggle, and *a struggle*; to cry, and *a cry*.

§ 194. COMMON ENGLISH PREFIXES:—

1. a-, on a-bed, a-side, a-loft, a-field, a-wait, a-bide.
2. be-, near, upon, over { *be-neath, be-fore, be-side*—often serves to form Verbs from Nouns or other Verbs: as, *be-nighted, overtaken by night; be-clouded, covered over with cloud; be-dizen, to dizen all over; be-daub, to daub all over, &c.*
3. for-, completely, so as to make an end of { *for-lorn* [quite lost: Germ. *verloren*]; *for-give, for-wandered* [that has wandered and lost his way: *Piers Plowman.*]
4. fore-, before fore-tell, fore-warn, &c.

N.B.—*Fore-* in *fore-go, fore-do (to ruin), fore-fend*, belongs to No. 3, in spite of the spelling; indeed these three words ought rather to be written without the *e*. See Wedgwood, *Diet. art. for*.

6. *mis-*, *a-miss* { *mis*-deed, *mis*-chance, *mis*-shapen,
mis-begotten, &c.
7. *un-*, *not* (with Ad- }
 jectives) { *un*-wise, *un* kind, &c.
- [Rarely found with Nouns: "*un*-rest" (Shaks.),
 "*un*-reason" (Scott).]
1. *un-*, with Verbs, to }
 denote *undoing* } *un*-roll, *un*-fold, *un*-bend, *un*-twist.
what has been }
done: Germ. *ent-*

The following (all meaning, *against*, *in opposition*) occur only in isolated words: —

and- [Gr. ἀντί-]: *an*-swer ["*swar*-ian," *to swear*, *affirm*].
gain-, *i.e. again-st*: *gain*-say.
with- [cf. Germ. *wider-*]: *with*-stand, *with*-hold.

N.B.—A list of Latin prefixes, separable and inseparable, is given at § 199.

§ 195. PRINCIPAL ENGLISH SUFFIXES.—The following are the Principal English Suffixes:—

A. OF NOUNS.

N.B.—Suffixes in *Italics*, French naturalised.

1. **-er**, denoting *the agent* or *doer*: as, *paint-er*, *speak-er*, *writ-er*, &c.
 This Suffix also appears in the forms *-ar*, *-or*, *-yer*: as, *beg-g-ar*, *sail-or* [*i.e. a seaman*: but *sail-er*, *a ship that uses sails*], *law-yer*, *saw-yer* [these two, according to others, are augmentatives: Angus, p. 133].
2. **-ster**, denoting *a female agent*: as, *spin-ster*, *she that works at the spinning-wheel*; hence, *an unmarried woman*. See p. 10.
3. **-ee** [Lat. *-atus*, Fr. *-é*], *person to whom a thing is done*: passive correlative to *-er*, *-or*: *trust-ee*, *mortgag-ee*, *pay-ee*, *nomin-ee*.
4. **-eer**, *-ier* [Lat. *arius*], *characterizing a person by what he has to do with*: as, *mountain-eer*, *mutin-eer*; *halbard-ier*, *cash-ier*.

5. **-th** { denoting abstract Nouns : as, *length*, *breadth*,
6. **-ness** { *wealth* [strictly, *well-being*]; *good-ness*, *sweet-*
ness, *bitter-ness*, &c.
7. **ing**, patronymic : *Athel-ing* : and in names of families
and places, *Pilk-ing-ton*, *Penn-ing-ton*, &c.
8. **-kin**, Germ. { Diminutive terminations : as, *lamb-ki*,
-chen { *Peter-kin*, *man-i-kin* ;
9. **-ing, -ling** { *farth-ing* (fourth part), *tith-ing*, *gos-ling*,
duck-ling ;
10. **-ock** { *bull-ock*, *hill-ock* ;
11. **-et, -let** { *pock-et*, *tick-et*, *lock-et*, *buck-et*, *flask-et* ;
12. **-ie*** (*-y*) { *stream-let*, *leaf-let*, *root-let*.
13. **-ric** [Germ. *Reich*, kingdom], *domain*, *place of authority*
as, *bishop-ric*, *archbishop-ric*.
14. **-dom**, termination of abstract Nouns [Germ. *-thum*]
also, concrete, *all that belongs to a title or office* : as
wis-dom, *free-dom*, *king-dom*, *duke-dom*, *hali-dom*
[*holy state*].
15. **-hood**, *state, condition* [Germ. *-heit*] : as, *boy-hood*,
girl-hood, *maiden-hood*.
16. **-head**, same as **-hood** : *God-head* ; Old Eng. *drowsi-*
hed (*drowsiness*), [Spenser].
17. **-ard**, † *-art* : characterizing a person by some habit or
other peculiarity ; often by way of contempt : as,
cow-ard, *drunk-ard*, *bast-ard*, *loll-ard* (old form,
loll-er) ; *bragg-art*, *sweet-(he)art* (nothing to do
with *heart*, organ of life), *Spani-ard*, *Savoy-ard*.
18. **-ry**, collective, [Germ. *-rei*], *all that belongs to any given*
notion : as, *fine-ry*, *chival-ry*, *herald-ry*, *knight-*
errant-ry, *peasant-ry*, *Jew-ry*.
19. **-ship**, *state or office* [Germ. *-schaft*] : as, *friend-ship*,
lord-ship.

* **-ie** is Lowland Scotch in origin, but much used in forming dimi-
natives of endearment : as, *bird-ie*, *lamm-ie*, *dogg-ie* ; especially from
proper names : as, *Will-ie*, *Ann-ie*, *Jess-ie*, &c.

† This suffix is commonly spoken of as English. Dr. Morris iden-
tifies it with the Adj. *hard* (*Hist. Outlines*, p 219). It is of frequent
occurrence in French words : compare *bâtard*, *barcard*, *blafard*, *braillard*,
coward, &c. The *d* is in some words a mere accretion : compare the
vulgar pronunciation *scholar-d*. This termination appears also in
names of things : as, *stand-ard*, *tab-ard*, *gizz-ard*, in which the *d* is
an accretion.

20. **-age**,* *that which is the result or product of some action*: ton-n-age, pound-age, sew-age, lever-age, bond-age, selv-age.
21. **-t**, passive termination, *that which is made or done*: as, wef-t [weave], drif-t [drive], gif-t, clef-t, draugh-t [draw].
22. **-le, -el**, usually *an instrument*: as, gird-le, hand-le, hurd-*le*; shov-el, pik-el [Lane. *pitchfork*].

[See also feminine terminations. § 27].

The following words exhibit suffixes of less frequent occurrence: laugh-ter [Germ. *Gelächter*]; ball-oon, gall-con [-one, Italian augmentative]; sea-m [from *sew*: the -m has perhaps the same force as the Gk. -μα, cf. *πρᾶγμα, δέριμα*], flood [Germ. *Fluth*]; wed-lock, know-ledje [O. E. *lac*, "gift," "play"].

§ 196. B. OF ADJECTIVES:—

1. **-ful**, *having much of something*: hope-ful, wrath-ful, duti-ful.
2. **-ish**, *rather so*: red-d-ish, whit-ish, green-ish, fair-ish.
3. **-less** [Germ. -los], *void of*: hope-less, fear-less, god-less. [N.B.—Nothing to do with Adjective *less*.]
4. **-some** [Germ. -sam], *partaking of a certain quality*: glad-some, light-some, lithe-some. So, flot-sam and jet-sam.
5. **-y, -ey**, *of the nature of*: ic-y, snow-y, frost-y, clay-ey.
6. **-ly**, i.e. *like*: god-ly, man-ly, spright-ly. (Also such Adjectives as, god-like, man-like, are used.)
7. **-en**, *made of*: wood-en [O. E. *tre-en*], flax-en, gold-en.
8. **-able, † -ible**, *that may be done*: eat-able, drink-able, honour-able, aud-ible.
9. **-le**, denoting *a tendency* [Lat. -ilis]: brit-t-le (*easily broken*: bryttan, *to break*), fick-le, id-le. ‡
10. **-fold**, denoting *multiplication*: two-fold, three-fold, mani-fold.

* -age, of Latin origin, but naturalised and in common use.

† -able is a Latin termination naturalised.

‡ Noble, subtle, double, horrible, fragile, and others come direct from the Latin.

11. **-ward**, denoting *direction* [Lat. *versus*]: east-*ward*, west-*ward*; to-*ward*, fro-*ward* [from-*ward*]; earth-*ward*, heaven-*ward*. (Almost all used as Adverbs also.)
12. **-th**, ordinal: four-*th*, fif-*th*, six-*th*.
13. **-ing**, Participial Adjective *active*: pleas-*ing*, try-*ing* [= *vexatious*], annoy-*ing*. [N.B.—This termination is much used in forming Compound-Derivative words: as, truth-tell-*ing*, law-abid-*ing*, heart-rend-*ing*, &c. See § 186.]
14. **-d, -ed**, Participial Adjective *passive*: educate-*d*, learn-*ed*, gift-*ed*.

Some Adjectives in **-d, -ed**, are formed immediately from Nouns: as, horn-*ed*, wing-*ed*, bonnet-*ed*, boot-*ed*, money-*ed*, land-*ed* [gentry], talent-*ed* (a word of doubtful authority). This termination is also much used in forming Compound-Derived words: as, bright-eye-*d*, silver-foot-*ed*, golden-hair-*ed*, rosy-finger-*ed*. [See § 186.]

The following words exhibit suffixes of less common occurrence: north-*ern*, south-*ern*, &c. [cf. Lat. hes-t-*ernus*, ac-t-*ernus*]; right-*eous* (properly "right-wise," *St. Manual Eng.* p. 217); sted-*fast*, shame-*faced* (corrupted from shame-*fast*, owing to a false notion of its meaning), sooth-*fast* (obsol.) = *truthful* [*fast* = *firm*].

C. OF VERBS.

§ 197. (1.) The most general English suffix for Verbs is **-en = to make**: as—

black, black- <i>en</i>	thick, thick- <i>en</i>
dark, dark- <i>en</i>	dead, dead- <i>en</i>

(2.) The suffix **-le** has a kind of diminutive force [compare Lat. *canto*, *cant-illo*]:—

crack, crack- <i>le</i>	(? drip), trick- <i>le</i>
drip (?), drib-b- <i>le</i>	crumb, crumb- <i>le</i>
dab, dab-b- <i>le</i>	drag, drag- <i>le</i>

§ 198. Some other verbal suffixes, occurring less frequently or in less defined senses, may be noted: *e.g.* **-se** (*to make*), as in clean-*se*, rin-*se*; **-er** (perh. frequentative or intensive), as in glim-m-*er*, shim-m-*er*, sim-m-*er*, shiv-*er*, stut-t-*er*, mut-t-*er*, &c.

§ 199. LATIN AND GREEK PREFIXES AND SUFFIXES.

A. LATIN PREFIXES.

1. INSEPARABLE.

con-, co- [=cum-], <i>together</i>	<i>con-vivial, co-eval, com-mittee</i>
di-, dis-, <i>apart</i>	<i>di-vision, dis-sent</i>
re-, red-, <i>back, again</i>	<i>re-turn, re-gain, red-emption</i>
se-, sed-, <i>apart</i>	<i>se-cede, sed-ition, se-parate</i>

2. SEPARABLE.

ab-, abs-, <i>from, away</i>	<i>abs-ent, abs-tinent, ab-duction</i>
ad-, <i>to</i>	<i>ad-vent, ac-cess, af-finity, ag-gregate, al-luvial</i>
ante-, <i>before</i>	<i>ante-date, anti-cipato</i>
eirenum-, <i>around</i>	<i>circum-jacent</i>
cis-, <i>on this side of</i>	<i>cis-alpine, cis-I cithan</i>
contra- (counter), <i>against</i>	<i>contra-dict, counter-act</i>
de-, <i>down</i>	<i>de-scend, de-ciduous</i>
e-, ex-, <i>out of</i>	<i>e-ducate, e-liminate, ef-ficacy</i>
extra-, <i>outside of</i>	<i>extra-ordinary</i>
in-, <i>in, into</i>	<i>in-duce, in-sert</i>
in- (en-, em-, Fr.), <i>in, into</i>	<i>in-duce, in-slave, em-balm</i>
inter-, <i>between, among</i>	<i>inter-vene, inter-cept</i>
intra-, <i>within</i>	<i>intra-mural</i>
intro-, <i>in, within</i>	<i>intro-duce</i>
ob-, <i>against, over</i>	<i>op-posite, ob-tain</i>
per-, <i>through</i>	<i>per-vade, per-meate</i>
post-, <i>after</i>	<i>post-pone, post-date</i>
præ-, <i>before</i>	<i>pre-fer, pre-vent, pre-lude, pre-historic</i>
præter-, <i>beside, contrary to</i>	<i>preter-natural</i>
pro-, <i>forward</i>	<i>pro-duce, pro-tract, pro-long</i>
sub-, <i>under</i>	<i>sub-terranean</i>
subter-, <i>under</i>	<i>subter-fuge</i>
super-, <i>over, above</i>	<i>super-excellent, super-natural</i>
supra-, <i>above</i>	<i>supra-mundane</i>
trans-, <i>across</i>	<i>trans-alpine</i>
ultra-, <i>beyond</i>	<i>ultra-montane</i>

B. LATIN SUFFIXES.

1. OF NOUNS.

-tor, -trix (-tress); -sor	} <i>doer</i>	} <i>execu-tor, ac-tor, spon-sor</i>
-ant, -ent (part. form)		
-tion, -sion	} <i>action</i>	} <i>mo-tion, ascen-sion</i>
-ment*		
-t	<i>thing done</i>	<i>fac-t, jes-t, effec-t</i>

* To some extent naturalised and used with English roots: *es, wonder-ment, bewilder-ment.*

-ty, -acity, -osity	} abstract nouns	{ uni-ty, ten-acity, pomp-osity forti-tude, recti-tude val-our, col-our, err-or priva-cy, seere-cy justi-ce, mali-ce
-tude		
-our, -or		
-cy		
-ce [-tia]		
-ance	} verbal nouns	{ vigil-ance pres-ence, pati-ence relig-ion, opin-ion, domin-ion
-ence		
-ion		
-escence	{ becoming more and more so }	conval-escence, putr-escence
-cy [-tus]	{ state, office, condition }	{ magistra-cy, cura-cy patri-mony, matri-mony
-mony		
-ary [-arius]	{ one who pur- sues a craft }	statu-ary, lapid-ary
-ary [-arium]	{ place for, col- lection }	library, statnary
-tory	{ place of doing a thing }	dormi-tory, lava-tory
-icle*	} diminutives	{ parti-cle, euti-cle reti-cule, animal-cule animal-culum corpus-cle, mus-cle eire-le lib-el, satch-el
-eule		
-eulum		
-cle		
-le		
-el		
-tre (i.e. -trum)	} instrument (in a few words)	{ scep-tre, spee-tre sepul-chre vesti-bule, sta-ble tenta-cle, vehi-cle candela-brum escape-ment
-chre (i.e. -crum)		
-bule, -ble (i.e. -bulum)		
-cle (i.e. -culum)		
-brum		
-ment		

2. OF ADJECTIVES.

-aceous	{ of the nature of }	argill-aceous
-ate	{ made of or with }	laure-ate
-an, -ane	} belonging to	{ hum-an, hum-ane femin-ine, fel-ine civ-ic un-ique, ant-ique, obl-ique civ-il, juven-ile reg-al
-ine		
-ic		
-ique		
-il, -ile		
-al	} full of	{ oner-ous, copi-ous, aque-ous verb-ose, oper-ose viru-lent, turbu-lent, pesti-lent
-ous		
-ose		
-lent		

* Iei-cle must not be referred to this element. The O. E. form is is-giel (? giel = Germ. *Kugel*, "round ball").

-id	} <i>having a certain quality</i>	{ <i>ac-id, stup-id, luc-id</i> <i>jo-cund, rubi-cund</i>
-cund		
-acious	} <i>do. (actively : the first often in bad sense)</i>	{ <i>contum-acious, aud-acicus</i> <i>express-ice, intens-ire</i> <i>inflamma-tory, satisfac-tory</i>
-ive		
-tory		
-able	} <i>that may be done</i> (§ 196, No. 8)	{ <i>port-able, toler-able</i> <i>aud-ible, sens-ible</i>
-ible		
-fic	} <i>making (intensive)</i>	{ <i>beati-fic, omni-fic</i> <i>mori-bund</i>
-bund		
-escent	} <i>becoming more and more so</i>	{ <i>na-scent, cande-scent</i> <i>convale-scent</i>
-and, -end		
-endous	} <i>requiring to be done</i>	{ <i>multiplie-and, divid-end</i> <i>stup-entous,* trem-endous *</i>

3. OF VERBS

-ate, -ite, -it	<i>act or do</i>	<i>fluctu-ate, ed-ite, ind-ite, ed-it</i>
-fy	{ <i>make to be (causative)</i>	{ <i>beauti-fy, fructi-fy, forti-fy</i>
-esce	{ <i>become more and more</i>	{ <i>coal-esce, efferv-esce</i>

C. GREEK PREFIXES.

an-, a- (ἀν, ἀ)	(negative)	<i>an-archy, a-pathy</i>
amphi- (ἀμφί)	<i>twofold</i>	<i>amphi-bious, amphi-theatre</i>
ana- (ἀνά)	{ <i>up, according to ; in pieces</i>	{ <i>ana-basis, ana-logy ; ana-lysis</i>
anti- (ἀντί)		
apo- (ἀπό)	<i>away from</i>	<i>apo-gee, ap-heliön</i>
arch- (ἀρχή)	<i>head</i>	<i>arch-bishop, arch-liend</i>
auto- (αὐτο-)	<i>self</i>	<i>auto-graph</i>
cata- (κατά)	{ <i>down, according to</i>	{ <i>cata-ract, cat-holic</i>
dia- (διά)		
dys- (δυσ-)	<i>ill</i>	<i>dia-gonal</i> <i>dys-pepsia</i>
ec-, ex- (ἐκ, ἐξ)	<i>out of</i>	<i>ec-centric, ex-ercise</i>
en- (ἐν)	<i>in</i>	{ <i>en-eyclical, en-demic, em-piric,</i> <i>el-lipsis</i>
epi- (ἐπί)	<i>upon</i>	<i>epi-demie, epi-cycle</i>
eu- (εὖ-)	<i>well</i>	<i>eu-phony, eu-logy</i>
hemi- (ἡμι-)	<i>half</i>	<i>hemi-sphere</i>
homo- (ὁμο-)	<i>the same</i>	<i>homo-geneous</i>
hyper- (ὑπέρ)	<i>over, beyond</i>	<i>hyper-b.ble, hyper-calvinist</i>
hypo- (ὑπό)	<i>under</i>	<i>hypo-cr.ite</i>
meta- (μετά)	<i>change</i>	<i>meta-morphosis</i>
mono- (μονο-)	<i>single</i>	<i>mon-archy</i>
pan- (παν-)	<i>all</i>	<i>pan-theism</i>
para- (παρά)	<i>beside</i>	<i>para-ble, para-phrase, par-heliön</i>

* These words are properly passive, *fit to be amazed at*, &c.

peri- (περί)	round	peri-gee (opp. apo-gee)	peri-meter
phil- (φιλο-)	loving	philosophy, Phil-adelphia	
poly- (πολυ-)	many	Poly-nesia, poly-theism	
pro- (πρό)	before, forth	pro-blem, pro-phet	
pro- (πρός)	towards	pros-ody	
pseudo- (ψευδο-)	false	pseudo-martyr	
syn- (σύν)	with	{syn-thesis (opp. analysis), sym- pathy, syl-logism, sy-stem	

D. GREEK SUFFIXES.

-te (-της)	}	agent	{athle-te, hypocri-te, come-t
-st* (-στης)			{gymna-st, antagoni-st, dramati-st
-sis		action, process	analy-sis, synthe-sis
-m-a	}	thing made or	panora-ma, paradig-m, epigra-m †
-sm, -asm, -ism		done	spa-sm, pleon-asm, anachron-ism
-ad	}	concretes embodi- ment of an idea;	mon-ad, tri-ad
-id		poem	Ili-ad, Æne-id, Dunci-ad
-y		{abstract, esp. of sciences)	astronom-y, histor-y, philosoph-y
-isk		(diminutive)	aster-isk
-ic, -ics		(names of sciences)	log-ic, arithmet-ic, phys-ics
-ic-i-an (-αν, Lat.)		{one who engages in a science	arithmet-ician, polit-ician
-tery		place of doing	{baptis-tery, phalan-tery, mona- tery

-ic, -ic-al (-al, Lat.)	}	of the nature of	{Hellen-ic, angel-ic, spher-ical
-id-al			{pyram-idal
-tic, -tic-al	}	do. (active)	{here-tic, here-tical
-stic, -stic-al			{sophi-stic, sophi-stical
-oid, -oid-al		resembling in nature	{typh-oid, cycl-oid, cycl-oidal

-ize (active) bapt-ize, betaïn-ize

§ 200. Nouns and Verbs differing only in accent:—

Verbs.	Nouns.	Verbs.	Nouns.
abstract	abstract	compress	compress
accent	accent	concert	concert
affix	affix	conduct	conduct
augment	augment	confine	confine
colleague	colleague	conflict	conflict
collect	collect	conserve	conserve
compact	compact	consort	consort
compound	compound	construct	construct

* Analyst, for *analyser*, is strictly a false formation

† *Telegram* formed by false analogy.

Verbs.	Nouns.	Verbs.	Nouns.
contract	contract	permit	permit
contrast	contrast	pervert	pervert
converse	converse	prefix	préfix
convert	convert	premise	prémise [more freq. prémiss]
désert	désert	presage	présage
descant	désçant	présent	présent
digest	digest	produce	produce
essay	éssay	project	project
export	éxport	protest	protést
extract	éxtract	rebel	rébel
ferment	férmént	record	récord
frequent	fréquent	refuse	réfúse
import	ímport	subject	súbjéct
impress	ímpress	survey	súrvéy
incense	íncense	torture	tórmént
insult	ínsult	transfer	tránstér
object	óbjéct	transport	tránsport
perfume	perífume		

The following differences may usefully be noted here :—

Verbs.	Nouns.	Verbs.	Nouns.
devise	device	prophecy [y long]	prophecy [y short]
advise	advice	use [s = z]	use [s = c]
practise	practice	abuse "	abuse "

Verbs.	Adjectives.
diffuse [s = z]	diffuse [s = c]
separate [long a]	separate [a as in at]
precipitate "	precipitate, "
consummate "	consummate "
discriminate "	in-discriminate "
determinate "	determinate "
reprobate "	reprobate "
elaborate "	elaborate "
&c.	&c.

PART II.—SYNTAX.

Syntax treats of the grammatical relations of words to each other in sentences.

I. NOUNS: THE CASES.

1. Nominative.

§ 201. The Nominative Case is the Case of the Subject [see § 41]: as, *the sun* shines; *kings* reign.

Obs. The Nominative of the Subject is sometimes repeated in a pronominal form, mostly for the sake of emphasis: as—

“The Lord, *he* is the God.” (1 Kings xviii. 39.)

“Year after year my stock *it* grew.” (Wordsw.)

“The skipper, *he* blew a whiff from his pipe.” (Longfellow.)

Analogous to this is the repetition of the Object in a pronominal form: as—

“The lofty city, *he* layeth *it* low.” (Is. xxvi. 5.)

§ 202. The Nominative Case usually comes before the Verb, and in the case of Transitive Verbs that position is necessary to distinguish the Nominative Case of a Noun from the Objective [§ 207]: as,—

“Alexander [*Subject*] conquered Darius [*Object*].”

But the Nominative Case may come after an Intransitive Verb, since no ambiguity can then arise from its position: and this arrangement is often adopted when an Adverb or an Adverbial phrase precedes the Verb: as,—

“Then *rose* from sea to sky the last *farewell*.” (Byron.)

“*The same day* came to him the Sadducees.” (Matt. xxii. 23.)

“Upon thy right hand *did stand* the Queen in gold of Ophir.” (Ps. xlv. 9.)

Obs. Occasionally, for the sake of poetical effect, the Verb is placed at the very beginning of a sentence: as—

“*Flashed* all their sabres bare,

& lashed as they turned in air.” (Tennyson, *Light Brigade*.)

§ 203. Every Nominative Case, except the Nominative Absolute (§ 206), belongs to some Verb, either expressed or implied; as in the answer to a question,—

“Who wrote the *Task*?”—“Cowper”: that is, “Cowper *wrote it*.”

Or where the Verb is understood: as,—

“To whom thus Adam” (Milton): that is, *spoke*.

Obs. Hence such an expression as the following is incorrect:—

“Which rule, if it had been observed, a neighbouring prince would have wanted a great deal of that incense, which hath been offered up to him by his adorers.” (Atterbury, vol. 1 serm. i.)

The Pronoun *it* is here the Nominative Case to the Verb *observed*; and *which rule* is left by itself, a Nominative Case without any Verb following it. (Lowth.)

§ 204. *Complementary Nominative*.—The Verbs **to be** and **to become**, with some others, take a Nominative after as well as before them: as—

“And Nathan said unto David, Thou art *the man*.” (2 Sam. xii. 7.)

“He had been bred a *Presbyterian*, but the Presbyterians had cast him out, and he had become an *Independent*.” (Mac. II. of E. i. 531.)

“My Lord dies a *Protestant*.” (*Ib.* p. 565.)

The Noun following in such cases is descriptive of the Subject, and therefore agrees with it.

Obs. In colloquial language such expressions occur as the following:—

“The oog is *me*, and I am myself.” (Shaks. *Two Gent.* ii. 3.)

“It’s *me*.” (*Felix Holt*, ch. xxii.)

“That’s *him*.” (*Jackdaw of Rheims*.)

“Impossible, it can’t be *me*.” (Swift.)

But in dignified language, such expressions are inadmissible. Compare—

“It is I! be not afraid!” (Mark vi. 50)—

where the use of the Objective would be fatal to the majesty of the expression.

§ 205. The Complementary Nominative is also used after Passive Verbs of **naming**, **making** or **appointing**, **deeming**, &c., being still descriptive of the Subject: as—

“Churchill had been made a *baron of England*.”

(Mac. II. E. i. 521.)

“Titus Antoninus has been justly denominated a *second Numa*.”

(*Decline and Fall*, ch. iii.)

“He mounted the scaffold, where the rude old guillotine of Scotland, called *the Maiden*, awaited him.” (Mac. II. E. i. 365)

Often the adverb **as** is introduced without affecting the Syntax of the following Noun : **as**—

“Young Numerian with his **absent** brother Carinus were [cf. § 247, *Obs.* 3] unanimously acknowledged **as** Roman Emperors.”
(*Decl. and F.* ch. xii.)

“Dioeletian may be considered **as** the founder of a new empire.”
(*Ib.* ch. xiii.)

§ 206. *Nominative Absolute*.—The Nominative Case may also be used with a Participle, forming with it a clause grammatically independent of the rest of the sentence :
as—

“Then I shall be no more,
“And Adam, wedded to another Eve,
Shall live with her enjoying—*I extinct.*” (*P. L.* ix.)

“I shall not lag behind, nor err [*miss*]
The way, *tho' leading.*” (*Ib.* x.)

“God from the mount of Sinai, whose grey top
Shall tremble, *He descending,* will himself,
In thunder, lightning, and loud trumpet's sound,
Ordain these laws.” (*Ib.* xii.)

“The guide trotted on before, *Mr. Burchell* and *I bringing up the rear.*” (*Vicar of W.* ch. iii.)

Obs. In Latin the Ablative is used as the case absolute, and in Greek the Genitive. In O. E. the Dative is so used. (Adams, § 493.) In the following examples, the pronouns may be parsed either as Datives or as Objectives :—

“Do you, that presumed
It overthrown, to enter lists with Heaven . . .” (*Samson Ag.*)

“ . . . so, *him* destroyed,
Or won to what may work his utter loss,
For whom all this was made, all this will soon
Follow . . .” (*P. L.* ix.)

2. The Objective.

§ 204. *Direct Object*.—The Objective Case depends upon a Transitive Verb, and denotes the Direct Object of an action. It is also used after a Preposition. See § 45.

The Objective Case usually follows the Verb (see § 202). But when the Objective differs in form from the Nominative, as in the case of the Personal Pronouns, it may stand before the Verb without causing any ambiguity : **as**,—

“*Me* he restored unto mine office, and *him* he hanged.” (Gen. xl. 13.)

“*Him* the Almighty Power
Hurled headlong flaming. . .” (*P. L.* i.)

“*Him* answered then the goddess ample-eyed.” (Cowper, *Il.* i. 677)

§ 208. *Complementary Object.*—Verbs of making or appointing, also of calling, naming, thinking, take after them two Objectives. The former of these is the Direct Object, the latter is called the Complementary Object, being necessary to complete the meaning of the Verb: as

“Of all these bounds”

We make *thee* [Direct Obj.] *lady* [Compl. Obj.]” (*Lear*, i. 1.)

“They hailed *him* [Direct Obj.] *father* [Compl. Obj.] of a line of kings.”
(*Macb.* iii. 1.)

“I’ll call *thee* [Direct Obj.], *Hamlet*,
King, father, Royal Dane [all Compl. Obj.]” (*Ham.* i. 1.)

Obs. 1. The Complement of such Verbs, whether in the Active or the Passive Voice, is very often an Adjective: as, to make (one) *wise*, to be made *wise*. Similarly after the Verbs *to be, become*. see § 204.

§ 209. Also the Verbs *teach, ask or beg, forgive, and less frequently banish, forbid*, with some others like them, often take a second Objective: as—

“Teach *me thy statutes*” (*Ps.* exix. 12.)

“I ask *you pardon!*” (*Oth.* v. 2.)

“Forgive *us our trespasses!*”

“We banish *you our territories.*” (*Rich. II.* i. 3.)

Obs. Sometimes it is difficult to say whether the former Noun (or Pronoun) should be regarded as an Objective or a Dative. Thus in the sentence—

“Teach *me thy statutes,*”

me may be either a Direct or an Indirect Object of the Verb *teach*. In the latter case *me = to me*, as in O. E. On the other hand, Verbs of *teaching* take in Latin and in German a double Objective, so that the word *me* may without impropriety be parsed as an Objective.

§ 210. *Objective after Passive Verbs.*—The Verbs mentioned in the preceding section, with some others, are capable of taking an Objective Case after them even in the Passive Voice. In such cases, the one Objective becomes the Subject of the sentence, and the relation of the other to the Verb remains unaffected: as—

“Were you well served, you would be taught your *d. ‘n.*”
(*Rich. III.* i. 3.)

“Rawdon was denied the *door.*” (*Van. Fair*, ch. xvii.)

“The dead were refused Christian *burial.*” (*Goldsmith.*)

§ 211 *Objective after Intransitive Verbs.*—Intransitive Verbs often take after them an Objective Case similar in meaning to the Verb itself. This is called the Cognate [Lat. *cognatus*, “akin”] Objective. This construction is

most frequent when there is an Adjective of Quality used with the Noun: as—

“Well hast thou fought
The better fight.” (*P. L.* vi.)

“There lay Argyle on the bed, sleeping in his irons *the placid sleep of infancy.*” (*Mac. II. E. i.* 565.)

“He laughed his *great laugh.*” (*Thaek. Esmond*, ch. xiv.)

“The wind had blown a *gale* all day.” (*Southey*.)

Obs. 1. In all such cases there is a transitive force in the Verb: thus, to dream a dream = to *have* or *imagine* a dream; to fight a fight = to *carry on* or *engage in* a fight; &c. The Object is not always strictly of cognate signification to the Verb, but it must bear some analogy to it: thus, to rain fire and brimstone = to *send down* fire and brimstone *like rain*; “to weep millstones” (*Rich. III. i.* 4) = to *shed* millstones from the eyes *for tears*.

Obs. 2. Under this rule come such expressions as “to trip *it*” (*L'Allegro*), i.e. to trip *the dance*; to fight *it* (the fight) out, &c. See § 244, 5.

§ 212. The Objective is used after Intransitive Verbs and after Adjectives to denote extent, duration, age, value: as—

“His other parts besides

“Lay floating many a *rood* . . .” (*P. L.* i.)

“And Noah was 600 *years* old when the flood of waters was upon the earth.” (*Gen. vii.* 6.)

“She is not worth *thee*.” (*Twelfth Night*, ii. 4.)

“. . . make us temples worthy *Thee*.” (*Hymn*.)

Also in such expressions as, ten *years* ago, this *day week*, not many *days* hence, the Nouns denoting time are to be regarded as Objectives.

§ 213. *The Objective with Impersonal Verbs.*—The Objective denotes the virtual though not the grammatical Subject after some old Impersonal Verbs: as, *it* repenteth, *it* behoves, *it* becomes or *beseems*: as—

“It repenteth *me* that I have made them.” (*Gen. vi.* 7.)

“Behoves *me* keep.” (*Cymb. iii.* 1.)

Obs. The number of Impersonal Verbs was once considerably greater than at present. Compare *methinks*, *meseems*, *melists*, *melikes*. The *me* in these words is a Dative. See § 155, Nos. 4, 5.

3. The Dative.

§ 214. The Dative denotes the Indirect Object, and may always be explained by *to* or *for*: as, “Give *me* the daggers,” i.e. *to me*; “Heat *me* these irons hot,” i.e. *for me*.

Obs. 1. Although all distinction of form between the Objective and the Dative has long been lost, yet the functions of the two cases are so different that it is impossible to parse or analyse a sentence properly without noting the distinction.

Examples:—

"Solomon built *Him* [= for Him] an house." (Acts vii. 47.)

"Heaven send *the Prince* a better companion!—Heaven send *the companion* a better prince!" (*Hen. IV. Pt. II. i. 2.*—Example in Meiklejohn.)

"The dwarf dealt *one* of the champions a most angry blow. . . . It did *the Saracen* but very little injury." (*Vic. of Wakef. xiii.*)

"Villain, I say, knock *me* [= for me] at this gate." (*Taming of Shrew, i. 2.*)

"He plucked *me* [= for me: but the Pronoun is here idiomatically redundant] open his doublet, and offered *them* his throat to cut." (*J. Cas. i. 3.*)

Obs. 2. The Indirect Object is often indicated by a Preposition: as—

"He left Normandy and Maine *to Robert*."

Here *Robert* is the Indirect Object, and in *Analysis* is classified as such (see § 304.) But in *parsing*, it is treated simply as an Objective Case, governed by the Preposition *to*.

§ 215. The words **like** and **unlike**, **nigh**, **near** (nearest, next), are followed by the Dative: as—

"Oh for breath to utter what is like *thee!*"

(Shaks. *Hen. IV. Pt. I. ii. 4.*)

"Few in millions

Can speak like *us*." (*Temp. ii. 1.*)

[N. B.—This use of the Dative after the Adverb *like* is scarcely to be imitated.]

" . . . Chaos umpire sits,
 . . . *next him* high arbiter

Chance governs all." (*P. L. ii.*)

Obs. When used as a Preposition, *near* is said to govern an Objective (§ 207).

§ 216. The Impersonal Verbs **thinks**, **seems**, **lists**, take before them the Dative of the Personal Pronoun. [see § 155, Nos. 4, 5.]

4. The Possessive.

§ 217. The Possessive Case denotes possession, and is therefore rarely used except where the Noun denotes a living thing: as, *Milton's* poems, a *negro's* skin, an *elephant's* skull, a *butterfly's* wings. The use of the Possessive with reference to things without life belongs to imaginative language, objects being there freely personified: as—

" the *cannon's* mouth." (Shaks. *As you Like it, ii. 7.*)

"Mountains above, *Earth's*, *Ocean's* plains below."

(*Ch. Harold, ii. 90.*)

"Alike the *Armada's* pride and spoils of Trafalgar." (*Ib. iv. 184.*)

" *Snowdon's* sovereign brow." (*Excursion.*)

Obs. 1. Also the Possessive is idiomatically used in such phrases as, a *month's* notice, a *day's* wages, half an *hour's* walk, &c. So, "at their *wit's* end" (Ps. cvii. 27). This agrees with the original use of the Case, which was a Genitive, having a much wider application than the present Possessive.

Obs. 2. Sometimes for the sake of euphony the Possessive 's is omitted: as, *for Jesus' sake*, "*for conscience sake*" (1 Cor. x. 27). This should not, however, be done in the case of names of persons ending in *s*. We say, *Bass's ale*, not *Bass' ale*; *Chambers's Cyclopædia*, not *Chambers'*.

§ 218. *Ellipsis*.—In familiar language the Possessive Case is often used alone, and the Noun upon which it depends omitted, being readily understood: as, St. Paul's (Cathedral), the Princess's (Theatre), the Queen's (Hotel), a bookseller's (shop), Tattersall's (office).

On the same principle must be explained such expressions as, a work of *Bacon's* (*i.e.* one of Bacon's works) a poem of the *Laureate's* (*i.e.* one of the Laureate's poems) a painting of Sir Edwin Landseer's (*i.e.* one of his paintings).

5. The Vocative.

§ 219. The Vocative Case is used both with and without the Interjection *O*. Its function is chiefly to attract the attention of the person to whom we are speaking: as—

"*Br.* What, *Lucius!* ho!

Exc. Called you, *my lord?*" (*J. Cas.* ii. 1.)

"I should be much for open war, *O peers.*" (*P. L.* ii.)

"These are thy glorious works, *Parent* of good,
Almighty!" (*Ib.* v.)

Obs. Often, however, the form of address is suited to convey a compliment or invective: as—

"O speak again, *bright angel!*" (*Rom. and J.* ii. 2.)

"Go, *baffled coward,* go!" (*Sams. Ag.*)

"*Naughty lady!*

These hairs, which thou dost ravish from my chin,
Will quicken, and accuse thee." (*Lear* iii. 7.)

"Hence, home, *you idle creatures!*" (*J. Cas.* i. 1.)

II. APPOSITION.

§ 220. Any Noun or Pronoun may have another Noun or Pronoun attached to it without any connective, when referring to the same person or thing. The latter word is

then said to be in *apposition* [*appositus*, "placed near" or "by the side of"] and agrees with the former in Case: as—

"He enjoys, *le tinner* [Nom.], a glimpse of the glorious martyr's very only." (Carl. *Past and Present*, ii. 16.)

"Old John of Gaunt, *time-honoured Lancaster!*" [Voc.]
(*Rich. II.* i. 1.)

"Ye men of Angiers, open wide your gates,
And let young Arthur, *Duke of Bretagne* [Obj.], in!"
(*K. John*, ii. 2.)

"*Wayfarers* [Nom.] through the world, *we* meet now and again with such purity . . ." (Thack. *Newc.* ch. xxxviii.)

Obs. The sign of the Possessive is not usually repeated with the Noun in Apposition: cf. Shaks. *K. John*, i. 1—

"And put the same into young *Arthur's* hand,
Thy nephew, and right royal sovereign."

The following example of the contrary usage is cited by Mitzner:—

"At *Albin's* house, the *jeweller's*." (B. Jons. *Poet.* i. 1.)

(In ordinary language—

At *Albin the jeweller's* house: cf. § 49.)

[So Thack. *Newc.* ch. xii.—"Hers and our other relation's, *Mrs. Mason*;" *i.e.* Mrs. Mason's.]

§ 221. Sometimes a Noun stands in apposition to an entire sentence: as—

"There were seven of them, and they were drawn with seven oranges—a *thing* quite out of taste . . ." (*Fear of W.* ch. xvi.)

"They not only tore the lead from the roof of the magnificent Cathedral to make bullets,—*an act* for which they might fairly plead the necessities of war, but wantonly defaced the ornaments of the building." (Mac. *H. E.* i. 601.)

III. ADJECTIVES.

§ 222. An Adjective placed immediately before or after a Noun is said to be used attributively: as, a *wise* man, a *luminous* tail, a *total* eclipse, "my *high-blown* pride . . . has left me *weary* and *old* with service . . ." (*Hen. VIII.* iii. 2.)

But when the Verb *to be* or any similar Verb intervenes, it is said to be used predicatively: as—

"Oh, how *wretched*

Is that poor man who hangs on princes' favours." (*Hen. VIII.* i. c.)

"It is twice *blest* . . ." (*Merchant of V.* iv. 1.)

§ 223. When the same quality in different things is compared, the Adjective in the Positive has after it the Conjunction *as*, in the Comparative the Conjunction *than*, and in the Superlative the Preposition *of*: as,—

“White *as* snow.”

“Wiser *than* Solomon.”

“Greatest *of* all.”

§ 224. After the Definite Article *the*, an Adjective is often used with a Noun understood but not expressed, to denote a class of objects: as,—

“The *wicked* (= wicked men) flee when no man pursueth.”
(Prov. xxviii. 1.)

“Cowards die many times before their deaths :
The valiant never taste of death but once.”
(Shaks. *J. C.* ii. 2.)

“They gathered *the good* [fish] into baskets, but cast the bad away.”
(Matt. xiii. 48.)

§ 225. Some Adjectives have actually become Nouns, and as such may be used with an Adjective before them. This is the case with the words *good*, *evil*, and a few others: as,—

“*Evil*, be thou my *good*.” (Milt. *P. L.* iv. 110.)

“All partial *evil*, universal *good*.” (Pope, *Ess.* i.)

In this way are used Adjectives denoting colour: as, *black*, *white*, *red*, &c.

N.B.—Occasionally the use of the Definite Article before an Adjective gives to it the force of an Abstract Noun. Thus, *the beautiful*=*beauty* (Gk. τὸ καλόν); *the sublime*=*sublimity* (τὸ ὑψηλόν): so,—

“From *grave* to *gay*, from *lively* to *severe*.”
(Pope, *Epist.* iv.)

§ 226. *Adjectives with Verbs*.—Adjectives sometimes appear to be attached to Verbs, and so to take the place of Adverbs. Thus we say, to keep a thing *safe*, to serve dinner up *hot*, to stand *firm*, to look *fierce* or *angry*, &c. But in all these examples, the Adjective really belongs to the Noun and not to the Verb.

Obs. 1. Some Adjectives are really used as Adverbs. This is the case with the word *bright*, and others: cf. Byron, *Ch. Harold*, lii. 21—

“ . . . and *brigh̄t*

The lamps shone o'er fair women and brave men.”

See § 167, *Obs.* 3, concerning the formation of Adverbs.

Obs. 2. Before an Adjective or an Adverb the Elizabethan writers rarely use the form in *-ly*. Thus, Shakspeare writes "*indifferent cold*" "*indifferent red*," "*indifferent honest*," "*indifferent well*" [once only "*indifferently well*," *Ilen V. i. 2*]; so always "*exceeding*" not "*exceedingly*" before an Adjective in the English Bible. But with a Verb the form in *-ly* is preferred:—

"I will look on death *indifferently*." (Shaks. *J. (As. i. 2.)*)

"And the waters prevailed *exceedingly*." (Gen vii. 19.)

So "*marvellous sweet*," "*marvellous little*," "*marvellous witty*," &c. (Shaks.), but with a Verb—

"Believe me, you are *marvellously* changed." (*Merch. of V. i. 1.*)

"God thundereth *marvellously* with his voice." (Job xxxvii. 5.)

Writers of the age of Queen Anne often use Adjectives adverbially with Verbs: as,

"I shall endeavour to live hereafter *suitable* to a man in my station."

(Addison, *Spect.* No. 530.)

"The Queen having changed her ministry *suitable* to her own wisdom."

(Swift, *Exam.* No. 21.)

"The assertions of this author are *easier* detected."

(Swift, *Public Spirit of the Whigs.*)

[N.B.—This latter usage must on no account be imitated.]

THE ARTICLES.

§ 227. When several Nouns denoting distinct things come together in enumerations, the same Article is usually placed before each: as,—

"[Hudrian] possessed the various talents of *the* soldier, *the* statesman, and *the* scholar." (Gibbon, *D. and F. i.*)

"A vacant space was left between *the* tents and *the* rampart." (*Ib.*)

"The use of *the* spade and *the* pickaxe." (*Ib.*)

"The ancient dialects of Italy, *the* Sabine, *the* Etruscan, and *the* Venetian, sunk into oblivion." (*Ib.*)

"In some of these fields, *the* rye, *the* pease, and *the* oats were high enough to conceal a man." (Mac. *II. E. i. 616.*)

"Our streams . . . yield nothing but *the* bull's head or miller's thumb, *the* trout, *the* eel, *the* lampern, and *the* stickle-back." (White, *Selb. Letter II.*)

"Their more useful arms consisted in *a* helmet, *an* oblong shield, light boots and *a* coat of mail." (Gibbon, *l. c.*)

"The necessity of amusement made me *a* carpenter, *a* binleage-maker, *a* gardener." (Southey's *Cowper*, iv. p. 5.)

§ 228. But when the objects are represented not as perfectly distinct, but as closely connected with each other, the Article is not repeated: as,—

"*The* forests and morasses of Germany were filled with a hardy race of barbarians." (Gibbon, *D. and F. i.*)

"*The recruits and young soldiers* were constantly trained in the morning and the evening." (*Ib.*)

"*The Prince and Princess of Orange* had now ceased to regard him as a rival." (*Mac. H. E. i. 530.*)

". . . . among *the pots and pans.*" (*Ib. 331.*)

"*The willow-wrens* are horrid pests in a garden, destroying *the pease, cherries, currants, &c.*" (*White, Selb. Letter 16.*)

"*Its craw* was filled with *the legs and wings* of beetles."

(*Ib. Letter 29.*)

Sometimes the Article appears to be omitted merely for the sake of brevity: especially in such common expressions as "from head to foot," "from snout to tail," "from top to bottom," "from 'Tweed to 'Tay" (*Bain.*)

Obs. When any ambiguity would result from the omission of the Article, it must be repeated: as, —

"The Queen sent for *the Secretary and the Treasurer.*" (*Cobbett.*)

Cobbett correctly remarks that if the second *the* were omitted, it would not be clear whether "the Secretary and Treasurer" were two persons or one only.*

§ 229. Sometimes the Article is repeated even before Nouns denoting things closely connected with each other; when it serves to call attention to each separately: as, —

"There were the markets at which *the corn, the cattle, the wool, and the hops* of the surrounding country were exposed." (*Mac. H. E. i. 339.*)

"*The bankers, the merchants, and the chief shopkeepers* repair thither on six mornings of every week." (*Ib. 352.*)

". . . . *the fireside, the nursery, the social table, the quiet bed,* are not there." (*Ib. 353.*)

"*The bedding, the tapestry, above all, the abundance of clean and fine linen,* was a matter of wonder." (*Ib. 385.*)

"And when the Queen of Sheba had seen all Solomon's wisdom, and *the house* that he had built, and *the meat* of his table, and *the attendance* of his ministers, and *their apparel,* . . . there was no more spirit in her." (1 Kings x. 4.)

"And Hezekiah . . . showed them *the house* of his precious things, *the silver, and the gold, and the spices, and the precious ointment* . . . and all that was found in his treasures." (Is. xxxix. 2.)

§ 230. The Definite Article *the* is sometimes used to give to an Adjective the force of an Abstract Noun. See § 225, *Obs.*

* This rule is disregarded by Macaulay in the following passage:—

"Crammer held that his own spiritual functions, like the secular functions of *the Chancellor and Treasurer,* were at once determined by a demise of the crown." (*H. B. i. 56.*)

△ An ambiguity is the result.

§ 231. The word **the** = *by so much*, used before the Comparative Degree, is a different word from the Definite Article. It is the old Ablative or Instrumental case of the Demonstrative Adjective **the**, **that** (O. E. *se, seo, thæt*), and must be parsed as an Adverb: as,—

“But *the* more they afflicted them, *the* more they multiplied and grew.” (Ex. i. 12.)

“*The* nearer the bone, *the* sweeter the meat.” (Prov.)
[Compare Latin, *Quo . . . eo.*]

“I love not man *the* less but Nature more.” (Byron, *Ch. Harold*.)

IV. PRONOUNS.

§ 232. **Thou** and **you**.—The Pronoun **thou**, which strictly denotes *a single person spoken to*, is now rarely used except in the elevated style of poetry, eloquence, or devotion; its place being elsewhere taken by the plural **you**.

Obs. A still stranger corruption has taken place in the German language, in which a person is commonly addressed as *they* (*Sie*). Both this, and the English use of *you*, owe their origin to an anxiety to speak to superiors in tones of deference and a shrinking from straightforward familiarity.

Thou, *thee*, *thine*, are still the current forms with the Labouring classes of Lancashire, Yorkshire, and other counties.

§ 233. The Relative Pronouns **who**, **which**, **that**, have a twofold use:—

1. To limit and define the antecedent, which would otherwise express too much or too little: as—

“I dare do *all*—*that may become a man*.” (*Macb.* i. 7.)

“The *rest* is labour—*which is not used for you*.” (*Ib.* i. 4.)

“Is *this* a dagger—*which I see before me*?” (*Ib.* ii. 2.)

“Have you a flower-pot like *that*—[*which*] I bought some weeks ago?” (*Bulwer, Cartons*, i. 4.)

NOTE.—This is called the *restrictive* use of the Relative.

2. To introduce some additional statement when the principal sentence is complete already: as—

“We had best begin our account of our hero with his family history—*which luckily is not very long*.” (*Thack. Nevee*, ii.)

“He bowed to the Colonel politely over his glass of brandy-and-water—*of which he absorbed a little in his customer's honour*.” (*Ib.* i.)

“My father suddenly discovered that there was to be a book-sale, twenty miles off,—*which would last four days*.” (*Cart.* i. 3.)

NOTE.—This may be called the *conjunctive* use of the Relative.

This double use sometimes causes ambiguity, as in the following instance:—

“The loftiest mountain in Britain *which* I have climbed . . .”

This ambiguity may be removed by punctuation.
§ 336, *Obs.*

§ 234. The Relative agrees with its Antecedent in Number and Person: its case is determined by some word in its own sentence: as—

“You may easily imagine to yourself what appearance *I* made *who* am pretty tall . . .” (*Spect* No. 113.)

“*I that speak* in righteousness.” (Isaiah lxiii 1.)

“O Shepherd of Israel, *Thou that leadest* Joseph like a flock; *Thou that dwellest* between the Cherubims.” (Ps. lxxx. 1.)

“And chiefly *Thou, O Spirit, that dost prefer*
Before all temples the upright heart and pure . . .” (*P. L. i.*)

“*He that hath bent* him o’er the dead . . .” (Byron.)

“ . . . he is gone

Ere ceased the inhuman shout which hailed the *wretch* [Obj]
who [Nom.] won.” (*Ch. Harold*, iv 140.)

“*Scots* [Voc.] *whom* [Obj.] Bruce hath often led . . .” (Burns)

Obs. For the sake of euphony the termination *-st* of the 2nd pers. sing. of the Past Tense is sometimes omitted in poetry after a Relative Pronoun: as,

“O *Thou* my voice inspire,
Who *touched* Isaiah’s hallowed lips with fire!” (Pope *Messiah*.)

“And *Thou*, who never yet of human wrong
Left the unbalanced scale, great Nemesis.” (*Ch. Harold*, iv. 132.)

“O *Thou* who *poured* the patriotic tide.” (*Cotter’s Sat Night*.)

§ 235. The Relative and Interrogative Pronouns differ from other words in preceding the Verbs which govern them instead of following them: as—

“ . . . *whom* the fables name of monstrous size.” (*P. L. i.*)

“ . . . *whom* no man hath seen nor can see.” (1 Tim. vi. 16.)

“*What* went ye out for to see?” (Luke vii. 26.)

“*Which* but the Omnipotent none could have foiled.” (*P. L. i.*)

Obs. 1. In familiar language *who* is sometimes incorrectly used for *whom* in asking a question: as, “*Who* did you meet at the party?” “I know *who* you mean.” This should be carefully avoided, though the usage frequently occurs, even in good writers: as,

“Those *who* he thought true to his party.” (Clarendon.)

Who should I meet the other night but my old friend.” (*Spect* No. 32.)

Who should I see in the f’d of it but the Doctor?”

(*Spect.* No. 57.) (Examples from Lowth.)

Obs. 2. Such a sentence as the following is ungrammatical:--

"Whom do men say that I am?" (Mark viii. 27.)

For *whom* read *who*. The clause, *do men say*, is parenthetical, and *who* is the Nominative, agreeing in case with the Pronoun *I*, according to § 204. If the Verb were in the Infinitive mood, *whom* would be correct, agreeing with the Pronoun *me*, "Whom think ye, or do ye think, me to be?"

§ 236. **Who** is sometimes used briefly for **he who**, or **he that**, especially in poetry: as—

"Who steals my purse, steals trash" (*Othello*, iii. 2.)

" . . . Who overcomes

By force, hath overcome but half his foe." (*P. L.* i.)

"So fall not thou *who* thee implores." (*P. L.* vii.)

"I dare do all that may become a man:

Who dares do more, is none." (*Macbeth*, i. 7.)

§ 237. **That** is preferred to *who* or *which* when the antecedent is incomplete, requiring to be defined by the Relative clause (see § 233, 1): as—

"Blessed is the man *that* walketh not in the counsel of the ungodly." (Ps. i. 1.)

" . . . the thousand natural shocks

That flesh is heir to." (*Hamlet*, iii. 1.)

"He *that* goes a-borrowing goes a sorrowing." (Prov.)

§ 238. Hence **it** is often used after Superlatives; after the words *all*, *same*, *any*, *none*, *nothing*; and after the Interrogative *who*: as—

"Mammon, *the least erec' a spirit that* fell
From heaven. . ." (*P. L.* i.)

"*All* is not gold *that* glitters." (Prov.)

"That face is thine; thine own sweet smile **I** see.
The same that oft in childhood solaced me." (Cowper.)

" . . . he will never follow *anything*
That other men begin." (*J. Caesar*, ii. 1.)

"France had *no* infantry *that* dared to face the English bows and bills." (*Mac. II. E.* i. 19.)

" . . . who hatest *nothing that* Thou hast made." (Collect.)

"*Who* is among you *that* feareth the Lord?" (Is. l. 10.)

§ 239. *Omission of the Relative.*—(1) When a Relative sentence serves merely to define the antecedent [*Restrictive use of Relative*, § 233, 1], the Relative Pronoun is often

omitted—not however when it would be either in the Nominative or the Possessive Case: as—

“The labour \wedge we delight in physics pain.” (*Macb.* ii. 3.)

“He presented his children to his sovereign as the most valuable offering \wedge he had to bestow.” (*Vicar of W.* ch. i.)

“He is the most attentive man \wedge I ever saw.” (*Nicholas N.* ch. xlix.)

“The hours \wedge we pass with happy prospects in view are more pleasing than those crowned with fruition.” (*Vicar of W.* ch. x.)

Obs. 1. “In the English Bible the Relative is not once omitted; in Milton, seldom; in Shakspeare, often.” (Koch, ii. p. 274.)

Obs. 2. Sometimes a Preposition is omitted, as well as the Relative: as,—

“In the temper of mind \wedge he was then.” (Addison, *Spect.* No. 549.)

“In the posture \wedge I lay.” (Swift, *Gulliver*, Part I. ch. vii.)

It would be better to say “in the temper of mind *in which* he was then;” “in the posture *in which* I lay.”

Obs. 3. In the poetry of Shakspeare, the Relative is sometimes omitted even in the Nominative: as—

“I have a brother [who] is condemned to death.” (*Measure for M.* ii. 2.)

So occasionally in later prose authors, but not those of the present day: as—

“Mr. Prince has a genius \wedge would prompt him to better things.” (*Spect.* No. 466.—Steele.)

“If the calm, in which he was born, and [which] lasted so long, had continued.” (Clarendon, *Life*, p. 43.)

“This I filled with the feathers of several birds I had taken with springes made of Yahoos’ hairs, and [which] were excellent food.” (*Gulliver*, ch. x.) (See Abbott, *Sh. Gr.* § 244.)

[N.B.—This usage must on no account be imitated.]

(2) But when the Relative sentence specifies some additional and independent circumstance about the antecedent, the Pronoun can never be omitted. Compare the following examples:—

“My second boy Moses,—*whom I designed for business*,—received a sort of miscellaneous education at home.” (*Vicar of W.* ch. i.)

“When Sunday came, it was indeed a day of finery,—*which all my sumptuary edicts could not restrain*.” (*Ib.* ch. iv.)

“The earth is covered thick with other clay.—*Which her own clay shall cover*.” (*Ch. Harold*, iii. 28.)

In each of these sentences the Relative is indispensable.

§ 210. When a Relative sentence defines a Noun or Pronoun connected by the Verb *to be* to a Pronoun of the 1st or 2nd Person, the Verb in the Relative sentence is

often made to agree in Person with the preceding Pronoun: as—

“Art not *thou* that Egyptian which before these days *madest* an uproar . . . ?” (Acts xxi. 38.)

“If *thou* beest he, but O how fallen, how changed
From him who . . . *didst* outshine
Myriads though bright . . .” (*P. L.* i.)

“I am no orator as Brutus is,
But as you know me all, a plain blunt man
That *love* my friend . . .” (*J. Cas.* iii. 2.)

But the 3rd Person is also used: as—

“Art *thou* he that *troubleth* [not *troublest*] Israel?” (1 Kin. xviii. 17.)

“Oh, a cherubin
Thou wast that *did* [not *didst*] preserve me.” (*Shak. Temp.* i. 2.)

§ 241. “Than **whom**.”—The Relative Pronoun **who** is used in the Objective Case after the Conjunction **than** where any other pronoun would be in the Nominative Case: as—

“Belial came last, *than whom* a spirit more lewd
Fell not from heaven.” (*P. L.* i.)

“Beelzebub, *than whom*,
Satan except, none higher sat.” (*P. L.* ii.)

“Than *whom* a fiend more fell nowhere is found.” (*Castle of Ind.*)

“The old martial stock, *than whom* better men never did and never will draw sword for king and country.” (*Scott, Nigel*, ch. xxvii.)

Obs. In older English the Objective is found after *than* in the case of other Pronouns besides *who*: as—

“A stone is heavy, and the sand weighty, but a fool’s wrath is heavier than *them* both” (*Prov.* xxvii. 3)—

a construction founded on the Latin [Ablative after the Comparative Degree].

[N.B.—Not to be imitated.]

§ 242. Sometimes the Antecedent to a Relative is implied in a Pronominal Adjective: as—

“This rural politeness is very troublesome to a man of *my* temper, *who* generally take the chair that is next me,” &c. (*Spect.* No. 119.)

§ 243. Sometimes an entire sentence forms the Antecedent: as—

“Ho-ti himself—*which* was the more remarkable—instead of chastising his son, seemed to grow more indulgent to him than ever.” (*Lamb, Elia.*)

Compare § 221, *Apposition*.

§ 244. The Neuter Pronoun *it* is used in a peculiar manner without any foregoing Noun to which it can be referred.

1. It is used before the Verb *to be* when the Subject follows, and it then serves as a kind of temporary or provisional Subject: as,

“*It is I; be not afraid.*” (Mark vi. 50.)

“*It is more blessed to give than to receive.*” (Acts xx. 35.)

“*It was the schooner Hesperus
That sailed the wintry sea.*” (Longfellow.)

Real Subjects: (1) *I*, (2) *to give*, (3) *the schooner Hesperus*.

Obs. 1. The Pronoun *it* is sometimes used even when a Plural subject follows: as,—

“I did hear
The galloping of horse: who was it came by?”—
“*Tis two or three, my Lord, that bring you word,
Macduff is fled to England.*” (Shaks. *Macb.* iv. 1.)

[*i. e.* the sound you hear is . . .]

“*It was the English, Kaspar cried,
That put the French to rout.*” (Southey.)

In the same way the Germans say *es sind*, and the French *ce sont*.

Obs. 2. In the same way is used the Adverb *there*, which thus has a kind of Pronominal force: as,—

“*There was a Brutus once.*” (Shaks. *J. C.* i. 2.)

“*There are more things in heaven and earth, Horatio,
Than are dreamt of in your philosophy.*” (Id. *Hamlet*, i. 5.)

2. In like manner the Pronoun *it* is employed to represent a circumstance or history to be related: as,—

“*And it came to pass, [i. e. the following circumstance came to pass] at the end of two full years, that Pharaoh dreamed, and behold he stood by the river.*” (Gen. xli. 1.)

“*It happened on a solemn eventide,
Soon after He that was our surety died,—
Two bosom friends, each pensively inclined,
The scene of all those sorrows left behind.*”
(Cowper, *Convers.*)

“*'Twas at the royal feast for Persia won
By Philip's warlike son.*” (Dryden.)

3. The Pronoun *it* is used as the Subject of Verbs denoting natural phenomena: as, *it rains, it snows, it freezes, &c.*

Obs. In Greek the subject of such Verbs as *to rain, to snow*, is the name of the deity regarded as the author of such phenomena:—*Ζεὺς ὕει, νίφει, Zeus rains, snows, &c.*

4. The Pronoun *it* is also used to represent *state* or condition in the most indefinite manner possible: as,—

“How *is* 't, my noble lord?” (Shaks. *Ham.* i. 5.)
[Germ., *wie geht es?*]

5. After an Intransitive Verb, *it* is used to denote the action of the Verb in a general way: as,—

“Come and *trip it* as we go.” (*L'Allegro.*)
“I cannot daub *it* further.” (Shaks. *Lear*, iv. 1.)
[*i. e.* continue my former dissembling.
Abbott, *Sh. Gr.* § 226.]

6. In asking a question, *it* is used of that which is altogether unknown: as, Who is *it*? what is *it*?

§ 245. The Indefinite Pronouns *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither* (§§ 163, 169), are followed by Nouns, Pronouns, and Verbs, of the Singular Number only: as,—

“The king of Israel and the king of Judah sat, *each* [king] on *his* throne, having [*both*] put on their robes.” (1 Kings xxii. 10.)

“*Every tree* is known by *his* own fruit.” (Luke vi. 44.)

“Lepidus flatters both.
Of both is flatter'd; but he neither loves,
Nor *either* cares for him.” (Shaks. *Ant. and Cleop.* ii. 1.)

Unless the Plural Noun used after them convey a Collective Idea:

“That *every twelve years* there should be set forth two ships.”
(Bacon.)

Obs. 1. In the older writers *each*, being equivalent to *both* or *all* taken singly, is sometimes found with a Plural Verb [so Lat. *uterque*]: as,

“*Each* in her sleep *themselves* so beautify.” (Shaks. *Lucr.*)

“Let *each* [plur. in the Greek original] esteem other better than *themselves*.” (Phil. ii. 3.)

A construction not admissible in modern English.

Obs. 2. *Either* properly signifies *one of two, exclusive of the other*. By the older writers it is sometimes wrongly used in the sense of *each* or *both*: as,—

“Nadab and Abihu, the sons of Aaron, took *either* [each] of them his censor.” (Lev. x. 1.)

“They crucified him, and two other with him, on *either* side one, and Jesus in the midst.” (John xix. 18.)

“On *either* side of the river was there the tree of life.” (Rev. xxii. 2.)

“Proposals for a truce between the ladies of *either* party.”
(Addison, *Freeholder*, contents of No. 28.)
(From Lowth.)

V. THE VERB.

1. Concord of Predicate.

§ 246. A Verb agrees with its Subject in Number and Person : as, man *wants* or *wanteth*, men *want* ; thou *reasonest*, they *reason* ; if I *were*, if thou *wert*, &c.

Obs. 1. In consequence of *you* having taken the place of *thou*, the Verb is sometimes incorrectly put in the Singular with *you* as its subject. Thus some of our best writers, of the age of Queen Anne, use *you was* instead of *you were* : as, -

“ Knowing that *you was* my old master’s good friend.”

(Addison, *Spect.* No. 517.)

“ Would to God *you was* within her reach.” (Bolingbroke to Swift, *Letter* 46.)

“ If *you was* here.” (Ditto, *Letter* 47.)

“ I am just now as well, as when *you was* here.”

(D’Ape to Swift, *P.S. to Letter* 56.)

Obs. 2. An apparent violation of concord takes place with titles of books in the plural : as -

“ The *Characteristics* [of Shaftesbury] . . . consist of a collection of disquisitions.” (Crailk, ii. 251.)

“ The *Bones of Joseph* is an introduction to the Talmud.”

(D’Ape *Curios. Gaming.*)

“ The *Memoirs of the Most Famous Gamesters* . . . appears to be a bookseller’s job.” (*Ib.*)

“ The *Pleasures of Memory* was published in 1792.” (Example in Bain, p. 174.)

In such cases we speak of the work as a whole, and consequently as *one* thing, not *many*. But having regard to the contents, we should say -

“ These *Memoirs are* [not *is*] forcibly written.”

Similarly in speaking of sums of money : 100*l.* was spent, &c.

Obs. 3. Owing to confusion of thought, a Verb is sometimes made to agree with a word which is not its real Subject : as, -

“ The *richness* of her arms and apparel *were* [was] conspicuous in the foremost ranks.” (Gibbon, *D. and F.*)

“ The terms in which the *sale* of a patent to Mr. Hine *were* [was] communicated to the public.” (Junius’s *Letters.*)

“ It is in such moments . . . that the immortal *superiority* of genius and virtue most strongly *appear* [appears].” (Alison, *Essay on Chateaubriand.*)

These are simple blunders : see Breen, p. 17, where more examples are given.

§ 247. Two or more Nouns in the Singular Number, with or without a Conjunction, take a Verb in the Plural Number : as -

“ The evening and the morning *were* the first day.” (Gen. i. 5.)
[Hebrew : the evening was—the morning was.]

“ Thy prayer, thy praise, thy life to vice unknown,
In sweet memorial *rise* . . .” (Parnell, *Hermit.*)

“ No sooner said, but from the hall
Rush chaplain, butler, dogs, and all.” (Pope.)

Obs. 1. Sometimes the Verb is made to agree with the Subject next to it alone, being mentally supplied with the rest. This is especially the case when one Subject stands out in some way by itself: as—

“Both death and *I am* found eternal.” (*P. L.* x.)

“To rive what Goth and Turk and *Time hath* spared.” (*Ch. Harold*, ii.)

Also frequently when the Verb stands first: as—

“Now *was* there bustle in the Vicar’s house
And earnest expectation.” (*Excurs.* ix.)

Or when two Nouns connected by *and* are so nearly synonymous as to suggest but one idea: as—

“Wherein *doth* sit the fear and dread of kings.” (*Merch.* — *v.* 1.)

“Hostility and civil tumult *reigns* . . .” (*K. John*, iv. 2.)

Obs. 2. Sometimes two nouns connected by *and* form a sort of compound noun, which is then regarded as Singular. Such are—*bread and butter*, *Punch and Judy*, *two and sixpence*, *a carriage and pair*, also, *a hue and cry*. In these cases the Verb is Singular: as—

“The hue and cry of heaven *pursues* him.” (Dryd in, *A Dream*.)

Obs. 3. *With* is sometimes to be met with used in the same way as *and*: as—

“ . . . Gedaliah, who *with* his sons and his brethren were twelve.”

(1 Chron. xxv. 9.)

“Your poor gamekeeper *with* all his large family . . . have been perishing.”

(Fiechling, *T. J.* iii. 8.)

[*N.B.*—This should be avoided: use rather *and*.]

§ 248. Every Verb, except in the Infinitive or the Participle, has its Nominative Case, either expressed or implied: as,—

“Awake [ye], arise [ye], or be [ye] for ever fall’n.” (*P. L.* i.)

§ 249. (1.) (**Either**) . . . **or**.—When two Singular Subjects are connected by (**either**) . . . **or**, the Verb remains Singular: as—

“ . . . a faint scream might be heard, as a lover, a brother, or a husband, *was* struck from his horse.” (*Jean*. xii.)

Obs. 1. Such sentences belong to the class of contracted sentences (§ 308). The Verb expressed belongs to the latter subject and agrees with it, being understood with the former: as,—

“Either you or he *is* to blame.”

The words “*are to blame*” are understood after “*you*.”

Obs. 2. The Plural is occasionally to be met with: as—

“It must be confessed that a lampoon or a satire *do not carry in* them robbery or murder.” (*Spect.* 23.—Addison.)

[*N.B.*—Not to be imitat. d.]

(2.) **Neither** (nor) . . . **nor**.—The same rule is usually observed with **neither** . . . **nor**: as—

“ . . . Where *neither* moth nor rust *doth* corrupt.” (Matt. vi. 20.)

“*Neither* the modern dray-horse nor the modern race-horse *was* then known.” (Mac. *H. E.* i. 316.)

“Nor man nor fiend *hath* fallen so far.” (Byron, *Napoleon*.)

“*Nor* obvious hill
Nor straitening vale *nor* wood *nor* stream *divides*
 Their peaceful ranks.” (P. L. vi.)

But the Plural not seldom occurs, especially when several Singulars are connected by **nor . . . nor . . .** nor: as—

“Neither physic *nor* law *are* to be practically known from books.”
 (Fielding, *T. J.* ix. 1.)

“Neither he *nor* Broadhem *smoke.*” (*Piccadilly*, p. 31.)

“Nor wood *nor* tree *nor* bush *are* there.” (Scott, *Waterloo.*)

Especially in the case of the Personal Pronouns: as—

“Neither *you* *nor* *I* *are* in fault.” (McCulloch, in Mätzner.)

[Compare Terence, *Andria*, i. 2, 23—

“Hæc si neque ego neque tu *fecimus.*”]

§ 250. *Collective Nouns.*—These are sometimes followed by the Singular and sometimes by the Plural. The Singular is preferred when the Subject is regarded as a whole; the Plural, when attention is directed to the individuals composing it.

Examples:—

SINGULAR.

“An English *mob* *is* often contented with the demolition of a few windows . . .” (S. Smith, i. 19.)

“The *government* *has* begun to turn *its* attention . . .” (*Ib.* p. 30.)

“The *congregation* *was* dispersing . . .” (*F. Holt*, ch. xiii.)

“In the same ranks *was* found the whole *body* of Nonconformists.”
 (*Mac. H. E.* i. 103.)

“The grand *jury* *consists* ordinarily of twenty-four grave and substantial yeomen.” (Cowell, in *Johnson.*)

PLURAL.

“The *assembly* of the wicked *have* inclosed me.” (Ps. xxii. 16.)

“The *jury* *were* right in finding the prisoner guilty . . .”
 (S. Smith, ii. 114.)

“Imitate the stary *choir*
 Who . . . lead . . .” (*Comus.*)

“How *are* the *Parliament* to be awakened from that dust in which they repose?” (S. Smith, ii. 62.)

“. . . all the *world* go by them.” (Tennyson, *Will. W.*)

2. The Subjunctive Mood.

§ 251. The chief use of the Subjunctive Mood is in hypothetical sentences. It then usually follows such Conjunctions as **if**, **unless**, **except**, **although**, **albeit**, **notwithstanding**, **whether . . . or**: as—

“What matter where *if I be* still the same?” (*P. L.* i.)

“Now this, *though it make* the unskilful laugh, cannot but make the judicious grieve.” (*Ham.* iii. 2.)

“No man can do these miracles *except God be* with him.”
(*John* iii. 2.)

“. . . *if* the scale *do* turn
But in the estimation of a hair.” (*Merch. of V.* iv. 1.)

It also frequently follows such expressions as **provided** (that), **suppose** (supposing), &c.: as—

“. . . so we will, *provided* that he *win* her.” (*Taming of S.* i. 2.)

“*Suppose you were* to take a little journey now . . .”
(*Dickens, David C.* ch. xix.)

§ 252. Sometimes the Verb in the Subjunctive Mood is placed before its Subject, and no Conjunction is then used: as—

“. . . *were I* [=if I were] Brutus,
And Brutus Antony, there *were* an Antony
Would ruffle up your spirits . . .” (*J. C.* iii. 2.)

“*Were I* the Moor, I would not be Iago.” (*Oth.* i. 1.)

“Oh, *wert thou* (=if thou wert) in the could blast . . .” (*Burns.*)

“*Leel* Bertrand Risingham [=if Le led] the hearts
That countered there on adverse parts,
No superstitious fool had I
Sought Eldorados in the sky.” (*Lilkeby*, i.)

Obs. Such sentences as the last are not uncommon in our older writers. See Abbott, *Sh. Gr.* p. 261.

§ 253. The Subjunctive is also used in indirect questions after **if**, **whether**, and in the case of double questions (*i. e.* where there are two alternatives), after **whether** (if) . . . **or**: as—

“Tell me, moreover, hast thou sounded him,
If he appeal the duke on ancient malice
Or worthily.” (*Rich. II.* i. 1.)

“Look *if* your helpless father yet *survive*.” (*Dryden, Æn.* ii.)

§ 254. The Subjunctive Mood is also used in dependent sentences to denote a *command* or *wish*. It is then often introduced by the word **that**.

Examples :—

“Heat me these irons hot; and look thou *stand*
Within the arras.” (*K. J.* ix. 1.)

“The king’s further pleasure is
That such a writ be served against you.” (*H. VIII.* iii.)

“And ere our coming see thou *shake* the bag
Of hoarding abbots.” (*K. J.* iii. 3.)

“I would *that I were* low laid in my grave.” (*Ib.* ii. 1.)

§ 255. Hence arises the use of the Subjunctive Mood in an Imperative or Optative [*wishing* : Lat. “opto,” *I wish*] sense : as—

“Now, good digestion *wait* on appetite,
And health on both!” (*Macb.* iii. 4.)

“Never harm, nor spell nor charm,
Come our lovely lady nigh.” (*Mids. N. D.* ii. 3.)

Obs. Or these Verbs may be said to be in the Imperative Mood. In Latin and French also the Subjunctive is used with an Imperative sense.

§ 256. The Subjunctive is likewise used, especially in our older writers, after the words *that*, *so that*, *lest*, to denote a purpose or consequence of something to be done : as,—

“Take heed, *that thou speak* not to Jacob.” (*Gen.* xxxi. 24.)

“Come, thick Night,
That my keen knife see not the wound it gives.” (*Macb.* i. 5.)

“He that smiteth a man, *so that he die*, shall be surely put to death.” (*Ex.* xxi. 12.)

“And if a man smite the eye of his servant . . . *that it perish*; he shall let him go free for his eye’s sake.” (*Ib.* ver. 26.)

“Let him that standeth take heed, *lest he fall*.” (1 *Cor.* x. 12.)

“Get on your night-gown, *lest occasion call* us,
And *show* us to be watchers.” (*Macb.* ii. 2.)

§ 257. It must not be supposed that all Verbs used in hypothetical sentences are necessarily in the Subjunctive Mood. The Indicative is used after *if* in speaking of what is present at the time

Examples :—

“If I *am* to be a beggar [as appears likely], it shall never make me a rascal.” (*V. of Wakefield.* ch. ii.)

“And though my portion *is* but scant, I give it with good will.”
(*Ib.* ch. viii.)

The Indicative is also used in hypothetical sentences, where there is no real contingency or doubt : as,—

‘ Though he *was* rich, yet for your sakes he became poor.”
(2 Cor. viii. 9.)

Also, the Indicative is sometimes used in preference to the Subjunctive for the sake of greater energy of expression. Compare the following examples :—

“ If thou *speakest* false,
Upon the next tree shalt thou hang alive.” (*Macb.* v. 5.)

“ . . . if thou *cutst* more
Than a just pound
Thou diest” (*Merch. of V.* iv. 1.)

Obs. The use of the Indicative and the Subjunctive Mood, in the same sentence, and in the same connection, though either of them might separately be right, is not to be justified : as,

“ If there *be* but one body of legislators, it is no better than a tyranny; if there *are* only two, there will want a casting voice.” (*Addison, Spect.* No. 237.)

“ Therefore if thou *bring* thy gift to the altar, and there *rememberest* that thy brother hath aught against thee.” (*Matt.* v. 23.)

§ 258. *Sequence of Tenses.*—**May, shall, will,** are regularly used in subordinate sentences after Present and Future Tenses in the Principal sentence; and **might, should, would,** after Past Tenses : as,—

1. Sentences expressing a Purpose.

PRESENT AND FUTURE IN PRINC. SENT.	}	I come, am coming	}	that I <i>may</i> see, &c.
		have come		„ thou <i>mayst</i> , &c.
		shall come		„ he <i>may</i> , &c.
PAST TENSE IN PRINCIPAL SENTENCE.	}	I came, was coming	}	that I <i>might</i> see, &c.
		had come		„ thou <i>mightst</i> , &c.
				„ he <i>might</i> , &c.

2. Sentences expressing a Consequence.

PRESENT AND FUTURE IN PRINC. SENT.	}	I fear, am fearing	}	that I <i>may</i> or <i>shall</i> see, &c.
		[have feared*]		„ thou <i>mayst</i> or <i>will</i> , &c.
		shall fear		„ he <i>may</i> or <i>will</i> , &c.
PAST TENSE IN PRINC. SENT.	}	I feared, was fearing	}	that I <i>might</i> or <i>should</i> see, &c.
		had feared		„ thou <i>mightst</i> or <i>wouldst</i> , &c. „ he <i>might</i> or <i>would</i> , &c.

* The Present Complete *I have feared* is more naturally followed by *might, should, or would*, because it implies that the consequence feared belongs to the Past. “I have feared that I *might (should)* fall into danger, &c.”

3. The Infinitive Mood.

§ 259. The Infinitive Mood is in modern English usually indicated by the prefix *to*. But the old form without *to* is used after the following classes of Verbs:—

1. Some which serve as Auxiliaries in forming various Tenses and Moods: viz. *do, shall, will*; to which may be added, *may, can, might, could, would, should*.
2. The following old root-verbs: *bid, dare, have, make, let, must, list, need*.
3. Many Verbs denoting the operation of the senses, as, *see (behold, watch, mark, &c.), hear, feel*.

Examples [2 and 3]:—

(2) "Bid me *tear* the bond." (*Merch. of V.* iv. 1.)

"Dare'st thou, Cassius,
Leap in with me . . . ?" (*J. Cesar*, i. 2.)

"We often *had* the traveller or stranger *visit* us" (*Vicar of W.* i.)

"It was mine art
When I arrived and heard thee, that *made* gape
The pine and *let* thee out." (*Temp.* i. 2.)

"I will not *let* thee go . . ." (*Gen.* xxxii. 26.)

"It *must seem* their deed . . ." (*Macb.* ii. 2.)

"Ambling palfrey when at need,
Him *listed* ease his battle steed." (*Marm.* i.)

"They *need* not *depart*; give ye them to eat." (*Matt.* xiv. 16.)

"Nor with less dread the loud
Ethereal trumpet from on high *gan* blow." (*P. L.* vi.)

(A purely poetical construction.)

(3) "I *see* before me the gladiator *lie*." (*Ch. Harold*, iv.)

"I *feel*
The bond of Nature *draw* me to my own." (*P. L.* ix.)

Obs. 1. Most of the Verbs included under (2) and (3) sometimes admit the Infinitive with *to* after them. Thus, *dare* [Present Tense] occurs a few times in Shakspeare followed by *to*, and *hath dared, he dared*, in every case so, where they occur. *Bid* is also sometimes followed by *to*, and likewise *have, make, list, need*. *Let* is occasionally followed by *to*:—

"Which shall we *let to* triumph for ourselves?" (*Newcomes*, ch. xxxvii.)

But this construction should be avoided. The use of *to* after the Verb *see* is obsolete:—

"To *see* so many *to* make so little conscience of so great a sin—"

(*Tillotson*, vol. i. serm. 22.)

Obs. 2. The Passive Infinitive after some of these Verbs is in danger of being confounded with the simple Past Participle: as—

"I heard the bell toll'd on thy burial day." (Cowper, *Lines*.)

Here, toll'd = to be toll'd.

Obs. 3. *Ought* was formerly often followed by the Infinitive without *to*: as,—

"What, know you not,
Being mechanical, you *ought* not walk.
Upon a labouring day, without the sign
Of your profession?" (Sh. *Jul. Cæs.* i. 1.)

§ 260. The Infinitive with *to* is often the Subject of a sentence; especially before the Verb *to be*: as—

" . . . to be weak is miserable,
Doing or suffering . . ." (P. *L.* i.)

"To reign is worth ambition." (*Ib.*)

"'Tis sweet to hear the watch-dog's honest bark
Bay deep-mouthed welcome . . ." (Byron.)

[I.e. *to hear* is sweet: see § 244, No. 1.]

"To be contents his natural desire." (Pope, *Ess.* i.)

Obs. 1. Such a sentence as this—

"Better dwell in the midst of alarms."

is probably to be explained as elliptical = one had better dwell.

Obs. 2. In sentences like the following, the Infinitive is to be regarded as the Subject:—

"This was all thy care,
To stand approved in the sight of God." (P. *L.* vi.)

§ 261. The Infinitive not unfrequently denotes the Object, especially after Verbs expressing the action of the MIND or WILL: such as, *to mean, purpose, intend; expect, hope, fear; wish, desire, love, hate; learn, remember, forget*: as—

"Cromwell, I did not think to shed a tear
In all my miseries . . ." (Hen. *VIII.* iii. 2.)

"Which [will], pardon me, I do not mean to read." (J. *Cæs.* iii. 2.)

"The Countess of Kew purposes to stay here this evening."
(Newc. ch. xxxviii.)

"By that sin fell the angels; how can man then,
The image of his Maker, hope to win by it?" (Hen. *VIII.* iii.)

"I like a thousand times better to think of Raphael's loving spirit."
(Newc. ch. xxxv.)

"I should like to have known that good Samaritan . . ."
(*Ib.* ch. xxxviii.)

"Cease to do evil, learn to do well." (Is. i. 17.)

"Such groans of roaring wind and rain, I never
Remember to have heard." (*Lear*, iii. 2.)

§ 262. *Peculiar Use of Past Infinitive.*—The Past Infinitive [*to have . . . to have been . . .*] is sometimes used by a kind of attraction after a Verb in the Past Tense: as,—

“I thought *to have slain* him where he stood.” (Scott, *Marm.*)

“I should have certainly endeavoured *to have executed* [incorrect: it should be, *to execute*] vengeance on his baseness.” (Fielding, *T. J.* viii. 14.)

“My purpose was . . . *to have withdrawn* my health to a safer country.” (Johnson, *Rambler*, 120.)

§ 263. *Complementary Infinitive.*—The Infinitive, when not the Object of the Verb, is often its COMPLEMENT, serving to define its application in some way. This is especially the case with Verbs of *commanding, compelling, persuading, teaching, &c.*, which do not convey a complete sense by themselves. Also the Infinitive often expresses the Purpose of the action denoted by the Verb.

Examples:—

“Claudius had *commanded* all Jews *to depart* from Rome.”
(Acts xviii. 2.)

“He was *forced to depart*, so as to be within Grey Friars' gate before ten.” (*Newc.* ch. xii.)

“I *wrote* this morning . . . *to have* all my horses sold . . .”
(*Ib.* ch. xxxvii.)

“He *invoked* Heaven *to witness* the sincerity of his professions.”
(*Mac. H. E.* i. 110.)

“*Teach* me *to live* that I may dread . . .” (*Ec. Hymn.*)

“God spoke and *gave* us the word *to keep* . . .”
(*Rob. Browning, H. Cross Day.*)

“I *come to bury* Cæsar, not *to praise* him . . .” (*J. Cæs.* iii. 2.)

“He spoke, and *to confirm* his words out *flew*
Millions of flaming swords.” (*P. L.* i.)

The Complementary Infinitive of Purpose is often introduced by **so as to**, **in order to**, and in older English by **for (to)**: as—

“Max *gave up* a costume and a carriage *so as to help* Paul.”
(*Newc.* ch. xxxviii.)

“A dragoon was a soldier who *used* a horse only *in order to* arrive with more speed at the place where military service was required.”
(*Mac. H. E.* i. 296.)

“What went ye out *for to see*?” (*Matt.* xi. 9.)

§ 264. The Infinitive is often the Complement of an Adjective [Adverbial]: as—

- “*Swift to hear, slow to speak.*” (Jas. i. 19.)
 “*Things hard to be understood.*” (1 Pet. iii. 16.)
 “*Eager to be pleased and to please . . .*” (Newc. ch. xxxviii.)
 “*A body of members anxious to preserve and eager to reform . . .*”
 (Mac. II. E. i. 99.)
 “*Desirous to erect a commonwealth.*” (Ib. 117.)

§ 265. The Infinitive may also be the Complement of a Noun [Adjectival]: as—

- “*A time to weep and a time to laugh . . .*” (Ecl. iii. 4.)
 “The sight of *means to do* ill deeds
 Makes ill deeds done . . .” (K. John, iv. 2.)
 “*Hast thou a charm to stay the morning star?*”
 (Coleridge, *Hymn*.)
 “*A crime to be expiated by blood.*” (Mac. II. E. i. 109.)
 “*A house to let;*” “*Chairs to mend,*” &c.

§ 266. Sometimes an Infinitive Mood is attached as a Complement to an entire sentence [Adverbial]: as—

- “*In politics, the Independents were—to use the phrase of their time*
-root and branch men . . .” (Mac. II. E. i. 117.)
 “*Not favoured spots alone, but the whole earth*
The beauty wore of promise,—that which sets
(To take an image which was felt no doubt
Among the bowers of Paradise itself)
The budding rose above the rose full-blown.” (Wordsworth.)

Under this head come all such parenthetical expressions as, *to be brief, so to speak, to return to the point, not to make a long story of it, not to mince matters, &c.*

§ 267. Sometimes the Infinitive is used by way of exclamation: as—

- “*Thus to rob me of my child!*” (Vicar of W. xvii.)
 “*To think that there she is in the market . . .!*” (Newc. xxxvii.)

4. Gerund.

§ 268. A Gerund is a Verbal Noun, and may be used in most of the constructions of a Noun. Thus it may be the Subject or the Object of a Verb, and it may be under the government of an Adjective or of a Preposition.

1. GERUND AS SUBJECT.

"The leaving a neighbourhood in which we had enjoyed so many hours of tranquillity, was not without a tear." (*Vicar of W.* ch. iii.)

"Running to see fireworks alone is dreary work."
(*Newc.* ch. xxxviii.)

"It is not *dying* for a faith that is hard . . ." (*Esmond*, ch. vi.)

"The sea begins, and there is no more *jumping* ashore."
(*F. Holt*, ch. xxvii.)

2. GERUND AS OBJECT.

"Thou respectst not *spilling* Edward's blood." (*Rich. II.* ii. 1.)

"He contemplated *marrying* Esther." (*F. Holt*, ch. xxxvi.)

3. GERUND AFTER AN ADJECTIVE.

"If it be *worth* stooping for." (*Twelfth N.* ii. 2.)

"Whether it is truth *worth* my *knowing* is another question."
(*F. Holt*, ch. xxviii.)

4. GERUND GOVERNED BY A PREPOSITION.

"Cannot but *by annihilating* die." (*P. L.* vi.)

". . . Who can hold a fire in his hand
By thinking on the frosty Caucasus?" (*Rich. II.* i. 3.)

Obs. Such expressions as the following are occasionally to be met with in writers of the present day:—

"We do not dance for *dancing's* sake." (*Standard*, Feb. 9, 1872.)

"To go for *going's* sake." (*Sunday Mag.*)

Here the Possessive forms are to be parsed as Nouns, not as Gerunds. See § 127, *Obs.* 1. (But it is better to say, "for the sake of dancing, going," &c.)

§ 269. The Gerund of a Transitive Verb retains the same power of governing the Objective Case as the Verb to which it belongs: as,

"The year was spent in *visiting* our rich neighbours and *relieving* such as were poor." (*Vicar of W.* ch. i.)

"I determined to increase my salary by *managing* a little farm."
(*Ib.* iii.)

§ 270. It must be borne in mind that the original use of the forms in *-ing* (also *-ung*) was that of Nouns, the Gerund being a totally distinct thing. (See § 127, *Obs.* 1 and 2.) And they must still be parsed as Nouns when they have the full construction of Nouns; admitting an Adjective or

Article before them, and being followed by the Preposition of. This is the case in the following examples :—

“The middle station of life seems to be the most advantageously situated for *the gaining* [Noun] of wisdom. Poverty turns our thoughts too much upon *the supplying* [Noun] of our wants, and riches upon enjoying [Gerund] our superfluities.” (Addison, *Spect.* No. 464.)

“*The planting* [Noun] of woods.” (Fuller, *Holy St.* ii. 9.)

“*The attaining* [Noun] of happiness.” (*Ib.* 10.)

“*The making* [Noun] of saleable drugs.” (*F. Holt*, ch. xxxvii.)

“*The tolling* [Noun] of the curfew.” (*Ivanhoe*, ch. iii.)

“*The bursting* [Noun] of a night storm.” (*Ib.* ii.)

“*The posing* [Noun] of figures and drapery; *the dexterous copying* [Noun] of the line.” (*Newc.* ch. xxxviii.)

“*The smoking* [Noun] of a certain number of pipes.” (*Ib.*)

“A great *whacking* [Noun] of whips, *blowing* [Noun] of horns, and *whirring* [Noun] of wheels . . .” (*Ib.* xxxvii.)

Obs. Our older writers show an irregularity in the use of the forms in *-ing*. Sometimes—(1) These forms, even when marked as Nouns by having an Adjective or Article prefixed, are followed by an Objective Case: at other times (2), although not marked in this way as Nouns, they are followed by the Preposition of: as,—

1. Adjective or Article prefixed and Objective following.

“God, who . . . didst teach the hearts of thy faithful people, by *the sending* to them *the light* of Thy Holy Spirit.” (Collect, Whitsunday.)

“. . . no tyrannical penance, *no whipping* themselves.” (Fuller, *Holy St.* i. 11.)

“*The giving* a bookseller a price for his book has this advantage.” (Selden, in Morris, p. 178.)

“*The leaving* a neighbourhood in which we had enjoyed so much happiness, was not without a tear.” (*Tear of W.* iii.)

2. No Adjective or Article prefixed and Preposition of following.

“Sent to prepare the way . . . by *preaching* of repentance.”
(Collect, St. John Baptist.)

“*Quoting* of authors is most for matter of fact.” (Selden, in Morris, p. 178.)

“. . . she can make the sun rise by *lighting* of a candle.” (Fuller, *l. c.* 1.)

“To prove him, in *defending* of myself,
A traitor to my God, my king, and me.” (Sh. *Rich. II.* i. 3.)

N.B.—These constructions are now obsolete.

§ 271. The following is the modern rule for the use of Verbals in *-ing*:—

When the precedes, of must follow; or both the and of must be omitted together: namely,—
Either,—

“By *the sending* of the light.”

“By *the preaching* of repentance.”

5. Participles.

§ 274. Participles are Verbal Adjectives, and attach themselves to Nouns and Pronouns in the same manner as ordinary Adjectives: as—

“*Overcome by remorse, Oñu endeavoured to atone for his crime by liberality to the Church.*” (Hume.)

“*He ended frowning, and his look denounced Desperate revenge.*” (*P. L.* ii.)

“*Thee I revisit now with bolder wing Escaped the Stygian pool.*” (*Ib.* iii.)

Obs. 1. In the following examples, Milton, while retaining the proper grammatical construction of the Participle, has followed a Greek idiom:—

“*[She] knew not eating death.*” (*P. L.* ix. 792.)

Compare Gr. ἐλαθε φαγούσα.

“*Knowing as needs I must by thee betrayed.*” (*Sams.* 810.)

Obs. 2. Sometimes a Participle refers to a Noun or Pronoun implied in a pronominal Adjective: as—

“*Thus repulsed, our final hope Is flat despair.*” (*P. L.* ii.)

(*I.e.* the hope of us thus repulsed.)

Obs. 3. It is sometimes difficult to decide whether a form in *-ing* should be regarded as a Participle or a Verbal Noun. This is the case in such sentences as, he lay *sleeping*, they came *flying*, &c. Regarded as a Verbal Noun or Gerund, *sleeping, flying* = *in sleeping, in flying*; in which case it is an Adverbial phrase. Regarded as a Participle, it is of course Adjectival.

§ 275. A Participle sometimes refers to an entire sentence: as—

“*Owing to the numerous attempts which have been made to find a N.E. or N.W. passage to India, the Arctic Ocean has been much more thoroughly explored than the Antarctic.*” (Clyde, *Geog.* p. 20.)

Obs. The phrase *owing to* might perhaps be regarded as a Preposition. Like *according to*. If not actually a Preposition, it is at least in a fair way to become one.

§ 276. An Imperfect Participle is sometimes used adverbially, at the beginning of a sentence: as—

“*Generally speaking, these peculiar orgies obtained their admission at periods of distress, disease, public calamity, and danger . . .*” (Grote, i. 36.)

[*I.e. to one speaking generally* the case appears so: comp. Gr. ὡς συνελόντι εἰπεῖν.]

“*No literature, not excepting even that of Athens, has ever presented such a . . . theatre of life . . .*” (De Quincey, v. 51)

VI. ADVERBS.

§ 277. An Adverb usually stands as near as possible to the word which it modifies. Its ordinary place is

before an Adjective or other Adverb, and *after* a Verb.
as,—

Exceedingly great.
Exceedingly well.
To prosper *exceedingly*.

But the Adverb may precede the Verb whenever it is intended to be at all emphatic: as,—

“He fell through . . . into the tide and *immediately* disappeared.”
(Addison, *Vision of Mirzah*.)

“England has had many heroes, but never one who *so entirely* possessed the love of his fellow-countrymen as Nelson.” (Southey.)

“Imagination *fondly* stoops to trace
The parlour splendours of that festive place.”
(Goldsmith, *Des. Vill*.)

“*Merrily, merrily*, bounds the bark.
Before the gale she bounds.” (Scott, *Lord of the Isles*.)

Obs. 1. A frequent position for the Adverb is between the Auxiliary and the Verb: as,—

“What mean those flights of birds that are *perpetually* hovering about the bridge?” (Addison, *l. c.*)

“The sea was *gradually* gaining on the buildings, which at length *almost* entirely disappeared.” (Mac. *H. E.* i. 346.)

“The city had *again* risen with a celerity . . .” (*ib.* p. 352.)

Obs. 2. The Adverbs *only*, *not*, *even*, are particularly liable to be misplaced, and when this is the case, an ambiguity is caused: as,—

“*One* wretched actor *only* deserted his sovereign.” (Gifford in Breen, p. 50.)

“*One* species of bread of coarse quality was *only* allowed to be baked. . . .”
(Alison, *ib.*)

(It should be in each case, “*Only one* . . .”)

“. . . follies that are *only* to be killed by a constant and assiduous culture.”
(Addison, *Spect.* No. 10.)

(Better—“that are to be killed *only by a constant* and assiduous culture.”)

“The laws of this country . . . are *not* contained in fewer than fifty folio volumes.” (Paley, *Morals*, i. 4.)

Better—“are contained in *not [no] fewer* than . . .”)

Obs. 3. Such misplacements of the Adverb as the following are frequently to be met with in inaccurate writers:—

“The honour and dignity of Her Majesty *reluctantly* compel her to withdraw from the arbitration.” (Daily Paper.)

(It should be—“compel her *reluctantly to withdraw* . . .”)

§ 278. Sometimes an Adverb belongs to an entire sentence, and it then usually stands at the beginning: as,—

“*Unfortunately*, the old lines of the streets had been to a great extent preserved.” (Mac. *H. E.* i. 352.)

“*Perhaps*, cried he, there may be such monsters as you describe.”
(*Vicar of W.* ch. xv.)

§ 279. The Adverbs *like*, *unlike*, are followed by the Dative Case (see § 215). Also some other Adverbs have the same construction as the Adjectives from which they are derived : as,—

“*Previously* to the bill last passed in favour of the Catholics . . . the opinions of the most celebrated of foreign Universities were taken.” (S. Smith, *P. Pym.* iii.)

“What sagacity can enable a man, *previously* to legal investigation, . . . to guard against deception in such a case?” (Jer. Bentham, *Follacies.*)

“The position of London, *relatively* to the other towns of the empire, was far higher than at present.” (Mac. *H. E.* i. 349.)

“They may look into the affairs of Judea and Jerusalem, *agreeably* to that which is in the law of the Lord.” (1 Esdras, in Johnson.)

§ 280. Some Adverbs do not differ in form from the Adjectives to which they correspond : as, *hard*, *fair*, *bright*, *pretty* [with Adjectives or Adverbs], *loud*, etc. : see § 167, *Obs.* 2.

§ 281. Two negatives occasionally come together in poetry, when they neutralise each other : as,—

“*Nor* did they *not* perceive the evil plight
In which they were, or the fierce pains *not* feel.”
(Milt. *P. L.* i. 335.)

[A Latinised expression : *neque illi non sentiebant.*]

This is not the case in earlier writers. Chaucer constantly uses double negatives : as,—

“There was also a Doctour of Physik,
In all the world *ne* was there *none* him like.”
(*Prol. Cant. Tales.*)

[Comp. French, *n'était pas.*]

“Wyd was his parissh, and houses fer asondur,
But he *ne* lefte [failed] *not* for reyne ne thondur
In sikness ne in mischief to visite
The ferrest in his parissh, moch and lite”
[great and little]. (*Ib.*)

So Shakspeare :—

“Give not me counsel
Nor let *no* comforter delight mine ear.” (*Much Ado*, v. 1.)

Obs. In the age of Chaucer the negative Adverb *ne* often combines with parts of the Verb *to be* : as, *nis* = is not : *was* = was not, etc.

§ 282. Some Adverbs of Time are occasionally used as Adjectives, for the sake of brevity: as,—

“Use a little wine for thy stomach’s sake and thine *often* infirmities
(1 Tim. v. 23.)

“. . . wars, of which they hope for a *soon* and prosperous issue.”
(Sidney in Johnson.)

“Good *sometime* queen. . .” (Shaks. *Rich. II.* v. 1.)

“In my *then* circumstances.” (Thack. *Paris Sk. Blk.*)

“In the *then* condition of my mind.” (Dickens, *D. C.* ch. xix.)

So often, “the *then* mayor,” &c. Compare in Greek, *οἱ τότε Πέτρος*. Put these usages as in English either obsolete, or inadmissible in writing which professes to be accurate.

§ 283. The Adverbs **even**, **only**, appear sometimes to modify a Noun or Pronoun, as in such sentences as the following:—

“*Even Homer* sometimes nods.”

“I, *even I* only [only, *Adj.*], am left.” (1 Kings xix. 10.)

“*Even a fool*, when he holdeth his peace, is counted wise.”
(Prov. xvii. 28.)

“*Only a fool* would act so.”

But it is clear that the emphasis laid upon the Noun or Pronoun in each case depends for its significance entirely upon the Predicate; and the Adverbs **even**, **only**, must be regarded as belonging to the whole sentence, though serving at the same time to call special attention to the Subject.

Obs. In the last of the above examples—“*only a fool*,”—“*only*” should perhaps be parsed as an Adjective, which it frequently is in older writers: as,—

“*Noah only* remained alive and they that were with him in the ark.” (Gen. vii. 23.)
Modern English would prefer: *Noah alone* [*Adj.*].

§ 284. Some Adverbs, as **not**, **just**, **exactly**, are used to modify entire phrases, especially phrases consisting of a Preposition and a Noun [“Prepositional Phrases”]: as,—

“Thus twice before and *jump* [i.e. *just, exactly*] at this dead hour.”
(*Hamlet* i. 1.)

“Immortal Amaranth, a flower which once
In Paradise, *fast by the tree of Life*,
Began to bloom. . . .” (*E. L.* iii.)

So often, **not** in vain, **not** without reason, &c.

VII. PREPOSITIONS.

§ 285. Prepositions govern the Objective Case: as, with *me*; without *thee*; concerning *us*; from *London* to *York*.

§ 286. **Save, except, but** (= *except*), **notwithstanding**.—It is sometimes difficult to decide whether these words are to be regarded as Prepositions or as Conjunctions. They may however be parsed as Prepositions when followed by a Noun or Pronoun which is not the Subject of a Verb; as in the following examples:—

“. . . all, *save thee*,
I fell with curses.” (Shaks. *Tim.* iv. 3.)

“Many of the best respect in Rome
Except immortal Caesar.” (Id. *J. C.* i. 2.)

“. . . all *but* the wakeful nightingale.” (*P. L.* iv. 602.)

“I swear that no one was to blame *but me*.” (Thack. *Esm.* ch. xiv.)

“*Notwithstanding this*, they were all good friends in general.”
(Dickens in Matzner.)

Obs. 1. The use of the Objective Case of a Personal Pronoun after any of the above words is to be avoided. In Shakspeare, both *save* and *but* (= *except*) are ordinarily followed by the Nominative (Abbott, *Sh. Gr.* p. 81.): as,—

“All the conspirators, *save only he*.” (*J. C. s. fin*)

“*Save thou*.” (*Sonn.* 109.)

So, “There is none other that fighteth for us, but only Thou, O Lord.”
(Eng. Service.)

“The Lord of Hosts and none but *He*
The King of Glory is.” (Scottish Psalter.)

Also Byron:—

“Where nothing *save* the waves and *I*
Shall hear our mutual murmurs sweep.” (*Gk. Bard.*)

And Bulwer:—

“Who *but I* can seal the lips of those below.” (*Caztons*, pt. xvi. l.)

(Compare Latin *nisi*: Greek *ει μη*.)

Obs. 2. *Notwithstanding this*, strictly = hoc non obstante, Ablative Absolute. See Johnson's *Dict.* s. v.

§ 287. In Interrogative and Relative sentences, the Preposition instead of coming before the Pronoun is very often placed at the end: as,—

“*What* could it proceed *from*?” (Lamb, *Ess.* p. 188.)
[instead of, “From what could it proceed?”]

“Was this the face *which* I had so often made merry *with*?”
(*Id.* p. 214.)

[instead of “*with which* I had so often,” &c.]

“Two young ladies *whom* I have some knowledge *of*.”
(*Vicar of W.* ch. xv.)

[instead of “*of whom* I have,” &c.]

This arrangement is specially adapted for an easy, familiar style. In finished and dignified language, the Preposition is more suitably placed *before* the Pronoun: as,—

“I will show you *to whom* he is like.” (Luke vi. 47.)

“*Under what* captain serve you?” (Sh. Hen. V. iv. 1.)

“. . . a victim *over whom* Providence holds the scourge of its resentment.” (*Vicar of W.* ch. vi.)

“I was not displeased that we were rid of a guest *from whom* we had much to fear.” (*Ib.* ch. xiii.)

Obs. When the governing Preposition follows, the Pronoun is sometimes carelessly allowed to stand in the Nominative Case: as,—

“*Who* do you speak *to*?” (Shaks. *As you Like it*, v. 2.)

This should on no account be imitated.

§ 288. The Preposition is most frequently placed at the end of the sentence, when the Relative Pronoun is omitted (see § 239): as,—

“We had at last the satisfaction of seeing him mounted upon the colt, with a deal-box before him \wedge to bring home groceries *in*” [i. e. *in which* to bring, &c.] (*Vicar of W.* ch. xiii.)

“It was a thing \wedge I was used *to*” [i. e. *to which* I was used]. (*Ib.* xx.)

“I had no pence \wedge to console him with” [i. e. *with which*, &c.]
(Lamb, *Ess.* p. 195.)

§ 289. In very many instances a Preposition, though remaining separate from the Verb, forms with it a virtual compound: as, *to laugh at*, *to see through*, *to pick up*, *to meet with*, *to agree to*, &c. These expressions must be parsed as single words, and both in the Passive Voice and in Relative sentences the Verb and Preposition are kept together: as,—

“Moses, on the contrary, gave him a question or two from the ancients, for which he had the satisfaction of being *laughed at*.” (*Vicar of W.* ch. v.)

“It appeared to me one of the vilest instances of unprovoked ingratitude [that] I had ever *met with*.” (*Ib.* xv.)

“. . . those little recreations *which* our retirement would *admit of*.”
(*Ib.* xvi.)

“A stick and a wallet were all the moveable things upon *this earth that* he could *boast of*.” (*Ib.* xx)

VIII. CONJUNCTIONS.

§ 290. Conjunctions are the links by which simple sentences are united together and formed into complex ones.

Conjunctions have therefore no power of governing a Case, the Case of every Noun or Pronoun being dependent upon some word in its own sentence.

EXCEPTION.—The Conjunction *than* is followed by the Objective Case of the Pronoun *who*: see § 241.

§ 291. When a Conjunction is followed by a Noun or Pronoun without a Verb, the sentence is incomplete; and the Case of the Noun or Pronoun can be determined only by supplying the Verb which is understood. This is often the case with *as*, *than*.

Examples:—

“His face did shine *as* the sun.” (Matt. xvii. 2.)
[Supply, *shines*: so that “sun” is Nom.]

“No country suffered so much from these invaders *as* England.”
(Mac. II. E. i. 10.)
[Supply, *suffered*: so that “England” is Nom.]

“I shall be pardoned for calling it by so harsh a name *as* madness.”
(Lœke in *Mätzner*.)
[Supply, *is*: “madness” is therefore Nom.]

“I like the one *as* well as the other.”
[Supply, *I like* (the other): “the other” is therefore Obj.]

“You are a much greater loser *than* *me* by his death.”
(Swift in Lowth.)
[The sense is, “*than I am*?” “*me*” is therefore incorrect. It should have been “*I*.”]

“If the king gives us leave, you *or* I may *as* lawfully preach *as* *them* that do.” (Hobbes, *ib.*)
[The sense is, “*as they preach*?” so that “*them*” is incorrect. It should have been “*they*” or “*those*.”]

Obs. 1. This incorrect use of an Objective Case after *than* is probably due to the influence of Latin [Ablative after Comparative].

Obs. 2. The following passage from Milton is rightly defended by Lowth:—

“Nor hope to be myself less miserable
By what I seek, but others to make such
As I” (*P. L.* ix. 126.)

“The Syntax,” says Dr. Bentley, “requires ‘*make such as me*.’” On the contrary, the Syntax necessarily requires, ‘*make such as I*’ for it is not, ‘*I hope to make others such as to make me*’ the Pronoun is not governed by the Verb *make*, but is the Nominative Case to the Verb *am* understood: “to make others such as *I am*.”

§ 292. On the use of the Conjunctions *if*, *provided*, *unless*, *that*, *lest*, etc., with the Subjunctive Mood, see §§ 251, foll.

§ 293. Some Conjunctions form pairs; one member of the pair preceding and preparing the way for the other. These are called Corresponding Conjunctions: as,—

neither . . . nor	although . . . }	{ yet
either }	though . . . }	{ still
whether } . . . or	notwithstanding . }	{ nevertheless
as so		

because therefore

Obs. 1. Concerning the Syntax of *neither, nor*, see § 219.

Obs. 2. In poetry *nor* sometimes appears without a preceding *neither*: as,—

“Simois *nor* Xanthus shall be wanting there.” (Dryden.)

also instead of *neither . . . nor*, occur sometimes *nor . . . nor*: as,—

“Stout Deloraine *nor* sighed *nor* prayed.” (Scott, *Lay*.)

Obs. 3. *As . . . so*.

“As a war should be undertaken upon a just motive, *so* a prince ought to consider the condition he is in when he enters on it.” (Swift in Johnson, “So.”)

This usage is nearly obsolete.

In the phrase “*as* white *as* snow,” the first *as* is an Adverb and the second a Conjunction.

§ 294. **But.**—The word **but** may be a Preposition, an Adverb, or a Conjunction. Its use as a Preposition has been already explained (§ 286). It is in certain cases difficult to decide whether it is to be regarded as a Conjunction or as an Adverb, especially in some familiar idioms: as,—

“I cannot *but* think . . .”

“There is no one *but* knows . . .”

These expressions are elliptical: “I cannot *but* . . .” = “I cannot *do otherwise*, but [*i. e.* only] . . .;” “there is no one *but* . . .” = “there is no one *else*, but [*i. e.* only] (he) who . . .” As introducing a new member of the sentence, *but* is in these cases best parsed as a Conjunction.

Obs. 1. *But* is strictly *by-out* or perhaps *be-out*. [O.E. *butan* = *bi-utan* or *be-utan*: and *so* = without, except, only.]

Obs. 2. *But* is sometimes found in the place of *than*; especially after the words “no sooner. . .”

“No sooner said, *but* from the hall
Rush chaplain, butler, dogs, and all.” (Pope.)

This use of *but* is matter of rhetoric rather than of grammar. It serves to give greater vivacity to the construction. (Compare Lat. *vix . . . et*, instead of *vix quum*: *Virg. Aen. v. 857*.)

PARSING.

§ 295. To PARSE words is to state what part of speech they each are, to explain their form, so far as inflexion is concerned, and to show their grammatical relations.

§ 296. EXAMPLE OF PARSING.

"A king sat on the rocky brow
That looks o'er sea-born Salamis.
And ships in thousands lay below." (Byron.)

- a.** adj. of number, called *Indefinite Article*: belongs to noun "king."
king, noun com. masc., sing. nom.; subject to verb "sat."
sat, verb intrans. strong conj., "sit, sat or sate, sat;" indie. mood, past indef. tense, sing. 3rd pers.; agreeing with subject "king."
on, prep. governing obj. case "brow."
the, adj. of distinction, called *Definite Article*: belongs to noun "brow."
rocky, adj. of quality, belongs to noun "brow."
brow, noun com. neut., sing. obj.; governed by prep. "on."
that, rel. pron., sing. nom.; refers to antecedent "brow: subject to verb "looks."
looks, verb intrans. weak conj., indie. mood, pres. indef. tense, sing. 3rd pers.: agreeing with subject "that" (= brow).
o'er, prep. governing obj. case "Salamis."
sea-born, adj. of quality, not compared: belongs to noun "Salamis."
Salamis, noun prop. neut., sing. obj.; governed by "on."
and, conj. connecting sentence, "Ships in thousands," &c., to sentence, "A king sat," &c.
ships, noun com. neut., plur. nom.; subject to verb "lay."
in, prep. governing noun "thousands."
thousands, noun com. neut., plur. obj.; governed by "in." [*Thousands* is a noun, as is seen by its taking a plural form: so, *dozen, dozens; hundred, hundreds; million, millions.*]
lay, verb intrans. strong conj. "lie, lay, lain:" indie. mood, past indef. tense, plur. 3rd pers.; agreeing with subject "ships."
below, adv. modifying "lay."

(See also Appendix No. 2.)

PART III.—ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES

§ 297. To analyse a sentence is to take it to pieces, and show its constituent parts.

§ 298. Sentences are either SIMPLE or COMPLEX.

§ 299. A Simple Sentence has only one Subject and one Predicate: as—

“Swift [Subject] wrote [Predicate] the *Tale of a Tub*.”

§ 300. A Complex Sentence is made up of several simple sentences, united together by means of connectives: as—

“It is said that one day, in the latter part of his life, Swift, after looking over the *Tale of a Tub* for some time, suddenly shut the book and exclaimed, ‘What a genius I had when I wrote that!’” (Craik, *E. Lit.* ii. 222.)

Here are no less than *five* Simple Sentences:—

- (1) I [Swift] wrote that [*Tale of a Tub*].
- (2) What a genius I [Swift] had (then)!
- (3) Swift one day in the latter part of his life, after looking over the *Tale of a Tub* for some time, suddenly shut the book.
- (4) Swift exclaimed [What a genius, &c.]
- (5) It [this story] is said.

These simple sentences are linked together by the connectives *that, and, when*.

1. ANALYSIS OF SIMPLE SENTENCES.

§ 301. The constituent parts of a Simple Sentence are these:—

- | | | | |
|-----|----------------------|---|------------------|
| (a) | In all sentences | { | 1. Subject; |
| | | | 2. Predicate. |
| | | | 3. Object; |
| (b) | Not in all sentences | { | 4. Complements; |
| | | | 5. Enlargements; |
| | | | 6. Extensions. |

§ 202. The SUBJECT denotes that which is spoken of.

It must therefore always be a Noun or some word equivalent to a Noun. Thus the Subject may be:—

1. A Noun;
2. A Pronoun;
3. An Adjective used substantively or with a Noun understood;
4. An Infinitive Mood or Gerund;
5. A Participle with a Noun understood;
6. An entire phrase or sentence.

Examples:—

- (1) "A soft *answer* turneth away wrath." (Prov. xv. 1.)
"The hungry *sheep* look up and are not fed." (Milt. *Lycid.*)
- (2) "Thou art the man." (2 Sam. xii. 7.)
"We shall not all sleep." (1 Cor. xv. 51.)
- (3) "The *evil* that men do lives after them.
The *good* is oft interred with their bones." (J. *Cæs.* iii. 2.)
"Oh, Sir! *the good* die first!" (*Excurs.* i.)
- (4) "To be contents his natural desire." (Pope, *Ess.* i.)
"Seeing is believing." (Prov.)

[See also Examples, § 268.]

- (5) "The *sleeping* and the dead are but as images." (*Marb.* ii. 2.)
"The *living, the living* [he] shall praise Thee." (Is. xxxviii. 19.)
- (6) "To be or not to be [that] is the question." (*Hamlet.* iii. 1.)

§ 303. THE PREDICATE is that which is stated of the Subject. It must therefore [see § 114] always be a Verb, either alone or with some other word or words.

1. Predicate a Verb by itself;

The sun *shines*; winds *blow*; the grass *is growing*; the stream *is flowing*; all *is not lost*; we *come, we come!*

2. Predicate a Verb with its Complement.—This occurs in the case of Verbs which do not convey a complete sense by themselves (§ 204): namely—

(a) Verbs signifying *to be, to become, to be called, to be appointed, to be considered, &c.* as—

"The way *was long* . . ." (Scott, *Lay.*)

"Rollo, abjuring his pagan gods, *became a Christian.*"

(*Hume*, p. 79.)

"Harold *was crowned king* by Aldred, archbishop of York."

(*Ib.* p. 66.)

(b) All those Verbs which require an Infinitive Mood to follow them [see §§ 259, 261]: as—

"I did not think to shed a tear . . ." (*H. VIII. iii. 2.*)

"What conscience *dictates to be done . . .*" (Pope.)

"No living wight
Had dared to cross the threshold-stone." (Scott, *Lay.*)

[For more Examples, see §§ 259, 261.]

Obs. 1. The Object of a Transitive Verb is strictly a complement, since the sense of the Verb is incomplete without it. But on account of its importance and distinctive character, the Object is treated as a separate member of a sentence.

Obs. 2. The term Predicate is strictly applicable only to sentences containing a direct statement. But its application is extended to sentences of all kinds, including those which express a question or a command: as—

"Whence *camest* thou?" [Predicate, *camest.*]

"*Tell* me not in mournful numbers." [Predicate, *tell.*]

§ 304. THE OBJECT may be either Direct or Indirect. Both are very often combined in the same sentence [see § 214].

The Indirect Object may be indicated either by a simple Dative or by the Preposition *to* or *for*: as—

Give *me* [Ind. Obj.] *the book* [Direct Obj.]; or, Give *the book* [Direct Obj.] *to me* [Ind. Obj.].

[For other Examples, see Syntax.]

§ 305. ENLARGEMENTS.—All words attached to Nouns, in whatever position in the Sentence, are called Enlargements. They are so named because they enlarge our knowledge of the thing spoken of. An enlargement may be—

- (1) An Adjective: *red* snow.
- (2) A Noun in Apposition: William *the Conqueror*; Bacon *the sculptor*.
- (3) A Noun in the Possessive Case, or a Noun under the government of a Preposition [Prepositional phrase]: a *poet's* cat; the man *in the moon*; a monkey *without a tail*.
- (4) An Adjectival sentence: see § 312.

N.B.—An Enlargement is either an Adjective or some word or phrase having the nature of an Adjective.

§ 306. EXTENSIONS.—The term Extension is applied to all words and phrases which attach themselves to the Verb or Predicate. An Extension is therefore either an Adverb, or some word or phrase partaking of the nature of an Adverb. Thus it may be:—

(1) An Adverb: cut *boldly*.

(2) A Prepositional phrase [Adverbial phrase]: cut *with boldness*.

(3) A Nominative Absolute:—

“The North-east spends his *rage*; *he now shut up*
 Within his iron cage, the effusive South
 Warms the wide air . . .” (Thomson.)

“Vesuvius came in view—*its great shape shimmering blue in the distant haze.*” (Newc. ch. xxxviii.)

(4) An Adverbial Sentence: see § 313.

§ 307. For the sake of clearness the Analysis of Sentences is usually presented in a tabular form. The following may serve as examples of the treatment of Simple Sentences:—

1. “By sunrise we all assembled in our common apartment.”
 (*Vicar of W.*)

Subject.	Enlargement of Subj. ct.	Predicate.	Extensions.
We	all	assembled	(1) by sunrise (2) in our common apartment

2. “His harp, his sole remaining joy,
 Was carried by an orphan boy.” (*Scott, Lay.*)

Subj. ct.	Enlargements of Subject.	Predicate	Extension.
Harp	(1) his (2) his sole remaining joy	was carried	by an orphan boy

3. “At a small distance from the house, my predecessor had made a seat overshadowed by a hedge of hawthorn and honeysuckle.”
 (*Vicar of W.*)

Subj. ct.	Enlargement of Subject.	Predicate.	Object.	Enlargement of Object.	Extension.
Predecessor	my	had made	a seat	overshadowed by a hedge of hawthorn and honeysuckle	at a small distance from the house

SAME SENTENCE: SIMPLER SCHEME.

Subject with enlargement.	Predicate.	Object with Enlargement.	Extension.
My predecessor	had made	a seat overshadowed by a hedge of hawthorn and honeysuckle	at a small distance from the house

4. "It was my constant rule in life never to avoid the conversation of any man." (*Vicar of W.*)

Subject [Phrase].	Predicate.
Never to avoid the conversation of any man	was my constant rule in life [<i>was</i> , Verb of incomplete predication]

N.B.—Here the word *it* disappears in analysis, being only a *locum tenens* for the real Subject. So likewise *there* in No. 5. (See § 244.)

The real Subject may be ascertained by putting the question, *What was my constant rule . . . ?*—*Answer*, Never to avoid the conversation of any man.

5. "There is no place like home." (Song.)

Subject.	Enlargement of Subject.	Predicate.
Place	no	is like home [<i>is</i> , Verb of incomplete predication]

6. "The courageous dwarf dealt one of the champions a most angry blow." (*Vicar of W.*)

Subject.	Enlargement of Subject.	Predicate	Objects.	Enlargement of Object.
The dwarf	courageous	dealt	(1) a blow [Direct] (2) one of the champions [Indirect]	most angry

7. "The potent rod
Of Amram's son in Egypt's evil day
Waved round the coast up called a pitchy cloud
Of locusts, warping on the eastern wind." (P. L. i.)

Subject.	Enlargements of Subject.	Predicate.	Object.	Enlargements of Object.	Extension of Predicate.
The rod	(1) potent (2) of Amram's son (3) waved round the coast	up called	a cloud	(1) pitchy (2) of locusts warping on the eastern wind	in Egypt's evil day

SAME SENTENCE : SIMPLER SCHEME.

Subject with Enlargements.	Predicate.	Object with Enlargements.	Extension of Predicate.
The potent rod of Amram's son waved round the coast.	up called	a pitchy cloud of locusts warping on the eastern wind.	in Egypt's evil day.

8. "But me, scarce hoping to attain that rest,
Always from port withheld, always distressed,—
Me howling winds drive devious,—tempest-tossed,
Sails rent, seams opening wide, and compass lost.
(Cowper, *Lines*.)

Subject.	Enlargement of Subject.	Predicate.	Object.	Enlargements of Object.	Extensions of Predicate.
Winds	howling	drive devious [devious is here Compt. of Pred.]	me	(1) scarce hoping to attain that rest (2) always from port withheld (3) always distressed (4) tempest-tossed	(1) sails rent (2) seams opening wide (3) compass lost [Nominatives Absolute]

§ 308. *Co-ordinate Sentences*.—When two or more distinct statements [Simple Sentences], not dependent upon each other, are brought together by means of **and**, **or**, **nor**, they are said to be *Co-ordinate*, and are analysed as Simple Sentences.

A Sentence made up of Co-ordinate Sentences is sometimes called a Compound Sentence.

Examples:—

(1) "My orchard was often robbed by schoolboys, and my wife's custards plundered by the cats." (*Vicar of W.*)

Analyse:—1. My orchard was often robbed by schoolboys.

2. My wife's custards were often plundered by the cats.

(2) "The giant and the dwarf were friends, and kept together." (*Ib.*)

Analyse:—1. The giant and the dwarf were friends.

2. The giant and the dwarf kept together.

(3) "They were all very joyful at this victory, and the damsel . . . fell in love with the giant, and married him." (*Ib.*)

Analyse:—1. They were all very joyful at this victory.

2. The damsel fell in love with the giant.

3. The damsel married him (the giant).

(4) "We had no revolutions to fear, nor fatigues to undergo." (*Ib.*)

Analyse:—1. We had no revolutions to fear.

2. We had no fatigues to undergo.

N.B.—Sentences in which the repetition of Subject or Predicate is avoided by the use of a Conjunction, are called *Contracted Sentences*.

Obs. Sometimes the word *and* has rather the force of a Preposition than of a Conjunction; and then the Nouns connected by it must be treated as the *conjoint Subject* or *Object*. This is the case in such sentences as the following: *Bread and butter* is wholesome fare; *two and two* are four; *copper, zinc, and calamine* stone form brass; the book costs *two and sixpence*.

2. ANALYSIS OF COMPLEX SENTENCES.

§ 309. The first thing to be done is to break up a Complex Sentence into Simple ones: as in the following example:—

A. Complex Sentence.

"Of man's first disobedience and the fruit
Of that forbidden tree whose mortal taste
Brought death into our world, and all our woe,
With loss of Eden, till one greater Man
Restore us and regain the blissful seat,
Sing, Heavenly Muse."

B. Detached Sentences of which the above Complex Sentence consists:—

1. Sing, Heavenly Muse, of man's first disobedience.
2. Sing, Heavenly Muse, of the fruit of that forbidden tree.
3. Whose mortal taste brought death into our world, and all our woe, with loss of Eden. [Contracted sentence.]
4. [till] one greater Man [shall] restore us.
5. [till] one greater Man [shall] regain the blissful seat.

The proposition first in order of thought, and on which the others depend, is called the **PRINCIPAL SENTENCE**. [Here, "Sing Heavenly Muse"] The others are called **Subordinate Sentences**.

§ 310. The Subordinate Sentences which go to make up a Complex Sentence are classified thus:—

1. Noun Sentences.
2. Adjectival Sentences.
3. Adverbial Sentences.

§ 311. A **NOUN SENTENCE** is one that stands in the place of a Noun. A Noun Sentence is usually either the Subject or the Object of a Verb. It may also stand in apposition to a Noun.

Examples:—

"How I came to overlook so obvious an objection is to me surprising." (*Vicar of W.* ch. xx.)

[Noun S., "How I came objection." Subject to Verb "is."]

"After a few questions he found I was fit for everything in the world." (*ib.*)

[Noun S., "that I was fit for everything in the world," Object of Verb "found."]

"The fact that Monmouth was in arms against the government was so notorious . . ." (*Mac. H. E.*, i. 580.)

[Noun S., "that Monmouth . . ." in apposition to Noun "fact."]

Obs. Noun Sentences very often follow Verbs of *saying and thinking* ["Verba sentiendi et declarandi"], and occur where in Latin we should have the construction, *Accusative and Infinitive*.

§ 312. An **ADJECTIVAL SENTENCE** is one that attaches itself to a Noun, and does the work of an Adjective. An Adjective Sentence is always introduced by a Relative Pronoun or Adverb.

Examples:—

"He was known in our neighbourhood by the character of the poor gentleman that would do no good when he was young."

(*Vicar of W.* ch. vi.)

[Adj. S., "that would do no good young," attaching itself to Noun "gentleman."]

"I was happy at finding a place where I could lose my fears in desperation." (*Ib.* ch. xx.)

[Adj. S., "where (= in which) I could lose myself in desperation," attaching itself to Noun "place."]

Obs. Sentences serving in this way to define a Noun might from another point of view be called *Sentence-Adjectives*.

§ 313. AN ADVERBIAL SENTENCE is one that does the work of an Adverb, modifying in some way the application of a Verb, an Adjective, or an Adverb.

Examples:—

"The severity of this remark I bore patiently, because I knew that it was just." (*Vicar of W.* ch. xx.)

[Adv. Sent., "Because I knew . . . just," attaching itself to Verb "bore."]

"Whenever I approached a peasant's house towards nightfall, I played one of my most merry tunes." (*Ib.*)

[Adv. Sent., "Whenever . . . nightfall," attaching itself to Verb "played."]

"Tears such as angels weep burst forth . . ." (*P. L.* i.)

[Adv. Sent., "as angels weep," attaching itself to Adjective "such."]

"The picture was so very large that we had no place in the house to fix it." (*Vicar of W.* ch. xx.)

[Adv. Sent., "that we had . . . to fix it," attaching itself to Adverb "so."]

Usually, however, an Adverbial Sentence attaches itself to the Predicate. The words *such*, *so*, are exceptional.

§ 314. After a Complex Sentence has been broken up into Simple Sentences, each of these must be assigned to its proper class, as Noun Sentence, Adjectival Sentence, or Adverbial Sentence. All that then remains is to analyse the Subordinate Sentences according to the method already explained.

In presenting a tabular analysis of a Complex Sentence, the connecting words are detached and placed in a column by themselves.

§ 115. EXAMPLES OF ANALYSIS OF COMPLEX SENTENCES.

1. "As I was going out with that resolution, I was met at the door by the captain of a ship with whom I had formerly some little acquaintance, and he agreed to be my companion." (*Vicar of W.*)

Detached Sentences.	Kind of Sentence.	Connective.	Subject, with Enlargements, if any.	Predicate, with Complement, if any.	Object, with Enlargements, if any.	Extension of Predicate.
1 I was met at the door by the captain of a ship	P. S.	••	I	was met	••	(1) at the door (2) by the captain of a ship
2 (as) I was going out with that resolution	Adv. S.	as	I	was going out	••	with that resolution
3 with whom I had formerly some little acquaintance	Adj. S. to "captain" in No. 1	Rel.*	I	had	some little acquaintance	(1) with whom (2) formerly
4 (and) he agreed to be my companion	P. S. (co-ord. with No. 1)	and	he	agreed to be my companion		

* The Relative Pronouns and Adverbs have in themselves a connective force. See § 66.

EXAMPLES OF ANALYSIS OF COMPLEX SENTENCES—continued.

2. "The impression was increased when, the tapestry being drawn aside, a female form, dressed in a rich habit, which partook more of the Eastern taste than of that of Europe, glided through the door which it concealed, and was followed by a swartly domestic." (*Leahoe*, ch. xxviii.)

	Phrases detached.	Kind of Sentence.	Connective.	Subject, with Enlargements.	Predicate.	Object, with Enlargements.	Extensions of Predicate.
1	The impression was increased	P. S.	..	The impression	was increased		
2	[when] a female figure, dressed in a rich habit, glided through the door, the tapestry being drawn aside	Adv. S. to No. 1	when	a figure (1) female (2) dressed in a rich habit	glided		(1) the tapestry being drawn aside (2) through the door
3	which [habit] partook more of the Eastern taste	Adj. S. to "habit"	<i>Rel.</i>	which [the habit]	partook of	the Eastern taste	more
4	[than] it [partook] of that [the taste] of Europe	Adv. S. modifying "more" in No. 3	than	[the habit]	[partook of]	the taste of Europe	
5	which [door] it [<i>i.e.</i> the tapestry] concealed	Adj. S. to "door" in No. 2	<i>Rel.</i>	[the tapestry]	concealed	which [the door]	
6	[when] [the female figure] was followed by a swartly domestic	Adv. S. co-ord. with No. 2	when	[the female figure]	was followed		by a swartly domestic

PART IV.—RELATIONS OF ENGLISH
TO OTHER LANGUAGES.

§ 316. Languages are arranged in Families according to resemblance in their Grammar and Vocabulary.

§ 317. The most important Family is the **INDO-EUROPEAN**, so called from its comprising the greater number of languages that are or have been spoken from India to the western limits of Europe.

It is also called the **ARYAN*** Family, from an ancient Asiatic race of that name.

§ 318. The Indo-European Family is divided into groups of languages bearing more intimate relations to each other. Among these groups (or "branches") the following are the most important :—

1. Indian—including Sanskrit, the classic language of India. This language exhibits the Indo-European Grammar in its most perfect form.
2. Persian—the earliest literary form of which is called Zend. In their oldest inscriptions the Persians call themselves Aryans.
3. Græco-Latin—including Greek and Latin, with the so-called Romance languages derived from Latin. These are six in number—French, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, Wallachian, and Romanch or Romanese, spoken in the Grisons in Switzerland.
4. Slavonic—including Russian, Lettish, Lithuanian, Polish, Bohemian [Czechish], &c.
5. Teutonic—including the German and Scandinavian branches, the latter comprising the Icelandic, Swedish, Norwegian, and Danish.

* Root *ar-*, meaning *brave, noble*. Hence, **Αρ-ης, ἀρ-ετης*,

by a swartly domestic
[the female figure] was followed by a swartly domestic
when
Adv. S. co-ord. with No. 2
[where] [the female figure] was followed by a swartly domestic
6

6. Keltic—divided into two branches, the Gaelic and Cymric; the Gaelic comprising the Irish or Erse, the Scottish Gaelic, and the Manx of the Isle of Man; and the Cymric including the Welsh, the Cornish (now extinct), and the Armorican of Brittany.

N.B.—Among European languages, Hungarian [*i.e.* Magyar], Finnish, and Turkish, are of a totally distinct family, having been introduced from Central Asia in comparatively modern times.

§ 319. ENGLISH belongs to the German division of the Teutonic branch of the Aryan or Indo-European family of languages. In its oldest form (O.E.), it was brought into England by German tribes speaking Low-German dialects; that is, German dialects spoken on the coast of the German Ocean. The term Low-German is used by way of distinction from High-German, which denotes the kind of German spoken in the interior.

§ 320. The vocabulary of the English language has been largely enriched from Latin and other sources.

Of the foreign elements, the Latin is so extensive and important as to render all the others insignificant in comparison.

§ 321. The attempt has been made to show the relative importance of the Teutonic and Latin elements by computing the number of English words belonging to each.

Such calculations are misleading. The difference between the two elements is one of *function*, not of quantity or number. Thus—

1. The grammar of the language is entirely Teutonic, not Latin.
2. The Pronominal Forms, the Auxiliary Verbs, the Prepositions, and almost all the Conjunctions—without which we could not frame a single sentence—are all Teutonic.
3. Nearly all the most common and necessary NOUNS are Teutonic: such are, *God, man, father, mother, brother, sister, son, daughter; sun, moon, star, wind, rain, frost, snow, water, fire [not air]; bird, fish, fowl, &c.*

4. Nearly all the most common and necessary ADJECTIVES are Teutonic: as, *good, bad, hot, cold, hard, soft, long, short, black, white, red, green, bitter, sweet, &c.*
5. Nearly all the most common and necessary VERBS are Teutonic: as, *live, love, eat, drink, breathe, see, hear, swell, feel, speak, tell, sing, cry, &c.*

§ 322. The English Teutonic ["Saxon"] Vocabulary belongs to a period of less advanced civilisation than the present. It is almost entirely *monosyllabic*, and the words are of a simple and homely character. The conversation of country folk is almost entirely Teutonic; and words derived from Latin are used by such people with less propriety and accuracy.

§ 323. The Latin-English words are of two classes:—

1. Those taken direct from Latin.
2. Those which have come to us through the medium of French [French-Latin].

(1) The former are easily recognised as Latin, the only change for the most part being in the termination: as—

longitude	<i>from</i> longitudo		equal	<i>from</i> aequalis
delectable	„ delectabilis		equality	„ aequalitas
bellicose	„ bellicosus		&c.	&c. &c.

(2) The French-Latin words are often much more difficult to recognise as Latin, having undergone the wear and tear of the speech of another nation before being transferred to ours. Such are—

English.	French.	Latin.
chief	chef	caput
charm	charmo	caru-en
clair*	clair	clar-us
journal	journal	diurn-us
nourish	nourrir	nutri-re
poor	pauvre	pauper
powder	poudre	pulver- (<i>stem</i>) (<i>Nom. pulvis</i>)
ransom	rançon	redemption- (<i>stem</i>) (<i>Nom. redemptio</i>)
siège	siège	sed-ere, sessio
sir	sire	senior
treason	trahison	tradition- (<i>stem</i>) (<i>Nom. traditio</i>)

* No doubt formerly pronounced *clair*: as in *Clare-mont, St. Clair*, Sinclair. Compare Earle, p. 159.

Obs. The difficulty of recognising French-Latin words as Latin is greatly increased by their having been in many cases developed from words unknown to pure Latinity: e.g.—

English.	French.	Lat. Latin.
blame	blâmer	blasphemare*
homage	hommage	homagium (homo)
parliament	parlement	parlamentum

§ 324. Some books contain few besides Teutonic words. In others the Latin words abound. This arises partly from difference of subject and partly from difference of style.

A work such as Darwin's *Origin of Species*, or Ruskin's *Modern Painters*, could not be written without frequent recourse to the Latin Vocabulary. But a Fairy Tale, or any simple narrative, may be written in almost pure Saxon. Compare the two following paragraphs:—

A. SCIENTIFIC PASSAGE FROM
The Origin of Species, p. 160.

"If under *changing conditions* of life, *organic beings* present *individual differences* in all *parts* of their *structure*, and this cannot be *disputed*; if there be, owing to the *high geometrical ratio* of *increase* of each *species*, a *severe* struggle for life at some *age, season, or year*, and this *certainly* cannot be *disputed*, then *considering* the *infinite complexity* of the *relation* of all *organic beings* to each other and to their *conditions* of life *causing* an *infinite diversity* in *structure, constitution, and habits* to be *advantageous* to them, it would be a most *extraordinary fact* if no *variations* ever *occurred* useful to each being's own *welfare*, in the same *manner* as so many *variations* have *occurred* useful to man."

B. NARRATIVE PASSAGE FROM
Silas Marner, chap. xii.

"This morning he had been told by some of his neighbours that it was New Year's Eve, and that he must sit up and hear the old year rung out and the new rung in, *because* that was good luck, and might bring his *money* back again. This was only a friendly Ravecloe-way of *jesting* with the half *crazy* oddities of a *miser*, but it had *perhaps* helped to throw Silas into a more than *usually excited state*. Since the on-coming of twilight he had opened his door again and again, though only to shut it *immediately* at seeing all *distance veiled* by the falling snow. But the last time he opened it the snow had *ceased*, the clouds were *parting* here and there."

Setting aside the common element of these extracts—Pronominal forms, Auxiliary Verbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, &c.†—it will be seen that the vocabulary of the scientific passage is almost entirely Latin, while the

* Taken directly from Greek βλασφημεῖν. Many other Greek words have come to us through the Latin.

† "Link-words" (Earle).

staple of the narrative passage is Saxon, though with a free intermixture of Latin.

Paragraphs may without difficulty be found in the English Bible, and in the writings of Defoe and Bunyan, consisting almost entirely of Saxon words.

§ 325. *Keltic Element*.—Before the Saxon Conquest, the language spoken by the people of Britain was Keltic. But the language of the Britons was completely displaced by that of their conquerors; and, with the exception of names of places, rivers, and mountains, few Keltic words appear to have maintained their ground.

Probably some portion of the original inhabitants—especially British women—were preserved alive by the Saxons, and kept in a menial condition. This is rendered in the highest degree probable by the fact that many of the Keltic words preserved are names of implements with which serfs and menials would have most to do. Such are the nouns *basket*, *clout*, *crook*, *flasket* [*a kind of large clothes-basket*], *mop*, *mattock*, *pail*, *pan*.*

Among Keltic geographical names may be mentioned, Kent, Thames, Exe, Avon [= *water*], Ouse [also = *water*], Dee, Derwent, Man [Isle of], Pen-y-gant, Helvellyn, Aberdeen, &c.

§ 326. *Greek Element*.—A very large number of our philosophical, ecclesiastical, and scientific words are from the Greek: as, *logic*, *metaphysics*, *physics*, *philosophy*, *ethics*, *astronomy*, *electricity*, *hydrostatics*, *hydraulics*, *statics*, *theory*, *problem*, *diagram*; *bishop*, *priest*, *clergy*, *baptism*, *eucharist*, *church*, *monastery*, &c. Many of these have come to us through the Latin.

Also the terminations *-ize*, *-ism*, have been naturalised from the Greek: see § 199.

§ 327. *Miscellaneous Elements*.—Almost every language in the world has contributed some word or words to our Vocabulary. Thus the word *taboo* comes from the Sandwich Islands; the word *tea* is Chinese; the phrase *a-muck* (to run a-muck) is Malay, &c. &c.

* See Mr. Garnett's list, *Student's Manual Eng. Lang.* p. 45; and Morris, *Hist. Outlines*, p. 251. Some of these words, as *clout*, *crook*, exist in the oldest form of English. They are, however, known to be Keltic from their being without cognates in the other Teutonic dialects (Morris, *l. c.*).

Some of the miscellaneous contributions are important enough to be noticed separately: *e.g.*—

Arabic: algebra, almanac, alcohol, alembic, islam, tariff, zero, zenith, nadir, talisman, coffee, sugar, &c.

Hebrew: amen, hallelujah, hosanna, cherub, seraph, jubilee, sabbath, Messiah, Satan, &c.; with very many Proper Names, as Adam, Abraham, David, John, Matthew, Mary, Elizabeth, &c. &c.

Italian: stanza, opera, sonata, punchinello (punch) buffoon, pantaloen, banditti, macaroni, bankrupt, agio, folio, quarto, &c.*

Gaelic: tartan, plaid, claymore (*broadsword*), slogan (*war-cry*), pibroch, clan.

Scandinavian: by (*town*), as in Whitby, Kirkby; fell (mountain), tarn, dale, &c.

Spanish: punctilio, alligator, armada, matador, galleon (or Italian), hooker (a kind of ship), embargo, cargo, eldorado, tornado, renegado (renegade), albino, peccadillo, &c. &c.

Dutch: schooner, sloop, sheet (sail-cable), skipper, smuggle, yacht.

Hindoo: calico, muslin, bungalow, rupee, lac, brahmin, sepoy, thug, suttee, &c.

§ 328. For a fuller treatment of the subject of this chapter, see *Student's Man. Eng. Lit.*, especially Lectures i. and ii., Latham's *Handbook*, chapters i. xix. xx.; Max Müller, vol. i., Lecture v.; Earle's *Philology of the English Language*; Trench, *English Past and Present*.

* Also the suffixes *-ese, -esque*: Malt-*ese*, Johnson-*ese*, Cingal-*ese* (?); Arab-*esque*, grot-*esque*, pictur-*esque*, &c.

PART V.—PROSODY.

§ 329. Prosody treats of the laws of Verse.

§ 330. English Versification is based on two principles:—

1. RHYTHM.
2. RHYME.

To these must be added, for the earlier periods of English, *Alliteration*.

§ 331. RHYTHM (Gr. *ῥυθμός*) consists in the recurrence of accent or stress of voice at regular intervals.

“ I sprang to the stirrup, and Jōris and hé,
I galloped, Direk galloped, we galloped all thrée.”
(R. Browning.)

Rhythm in verse may be marked by *beats* as in Music. See further § 336, foll.

§ 332. RHYME consists in a kind of chiming of syllables, one syllable or combination of syllables following up and in a manner echoing another.

“ The fair breeze *bléé*, the white foam *fléé*,
The furrow followed *frée*;
We were the *frist* that ever *húrst*
Into that silent *seé*.” (Coleridge, *Ancient Mar.*)

§ 333. A **Single Rhyme** is a rhyme in one syllable; as, *blew, flew; free, see; first, burst*.

A **Double Rhyme** is a rhyme in two syllables:—

“ And *grámbing* and *rúmbing* and *túmbing*.” (Southey.)

A **Treble Rhyme** is a rhyme in three syllables:—

“ And *cláattering* and *báattering* and *sháattering*.” (Southey.)

Obs. Treble rhymes are rare, and usually of a grotesque kind. See *Ingoltsby Legends*, *passim*.

§ 334. Rhymes usually occur only at the end of lines, and always coincide with the rhythmical beat.

“To form a perfect rhyme, three things are essential:—

1. That the vowel sound, and the parts following it, be the same: [B-a-*rk*, sh-a-*rk*; b-ou-*nds*, h-ou-*nds*; l-*ce*, Tir-*ee*.]
2. That the parts preceding the vowel be different: [So that de-*c-eive*, re-*c-eive*; as-*s-ent*, con-*s-ent*, are no true rhymes.]
3. That the rhyming syllables be accented alike.” (Angus, p. 345.) [*Cárgo*, *embárgo*; *stupéndous*, *treméndous*.]

§ 335. Rhyme is addressed to the ear not the eye, and therefore is independent of orthography. Thus *cow* rhymes with *plough*, but not with *low*; *lost* rhymes with *crossed*, but not with *ghost* or *most*. But owing to the difficulty of finding perfect rhymes in every case, imperfect ones are admitted more or less frequently by all writers of verse.

Obs. Many words which formerly rhymed, no longer do so; one or the other having undergone a change of pronunciation (compare § 12, *Obs.* 3):—

“Yet wisdom warnes, whilst foot is in the *gob*,

To stay the step, ere forc'd to *retrate*” [*i.e.* retreat]. (*E. Queen*, l. 1, 13.)

“If e'er ambition did my fancy *cheat* [? pron. *cheat*]

With any wish so mean as to be *great*.” (Cowley: Earle, p. 153.)

“Here thou, great Anna, whom three realms *obey*,

Dost sometimes counsel take, and sometimes *tea*” [tay]. (*Rape of Lock*, l.)

§ 336. FEET.—Verse is usually written in lines containing a uniform number of syllables as well as of rhythmic beats; and the lines may then be divided into syllabic measures.

These syllabic measures are called FEET.

§ 337. The ordinary syllabic measures or feet used in English versification are these:—

Iambus,	as	away, begone;
Trochee,	„	forwards, lightly;
Anapest,	„	Lochinvar;
Dactyl	„	merrily, wearily.

These names of feet refer properly to Quantity or length of syllables, and are not therefore strictly applicable to English versification, which is based on Accent. Accent and Quantity do not always coincide. Thus the word *A'jac*, consisting of two long syllables [— —], is in

Latin versification a spondee ; whereas in English it is a trochee, being accented on the first syllable. So *Cyclops* is in English a trochee, whereas in its original Greek form it is an iambus, *Κύκλωψ* [— —].

Obs. Two other three-syllable feet are sometimes given :—

Amphibrachys [— — —] : believing | deceiving.

Amphimacer } [— — —] : { " Dreadful gleams,
or Creticus } } " Dismal screams." (Pope.)

But lines containing either of these rhythms can always be scanned in some other way : e.g.—

" Tho' losses and crosses [Amphibr. Dim. ; or Dactyl. Dim. Catal. with Anacrusis.]

Be lessons right severe, [Lamb. Trim].
here's wit there, ye'll get there,
Ye'll find nae other where." (Burns.)

So the lines—

" Dreadful gleams,
Dismal screams,"

are usually scanned as Trochaic Dim. Catal.

§ 338. A line consisting of one foot is } Monometer.*
in English versification called }

A line consisting of two feet is called Dimeter.

- " three " Trimeter.
- " four " Tetrameter.
- " five " Pentameter.
- " six " Hexameter.
- " seven " Heptameter.
- " eight " Octometer.

Lines ending in an incomplete foot are called Catalectic or truncated : as,—

" To the | ocean | now I | fly." (Milt. *Comus*.)

(See also § 344, *Dactylic Metres*.)

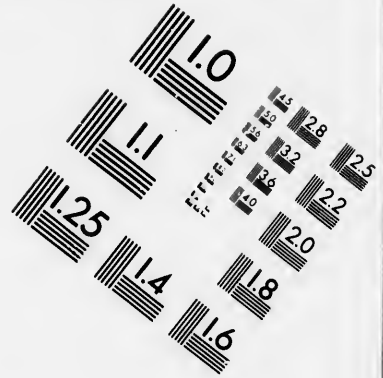
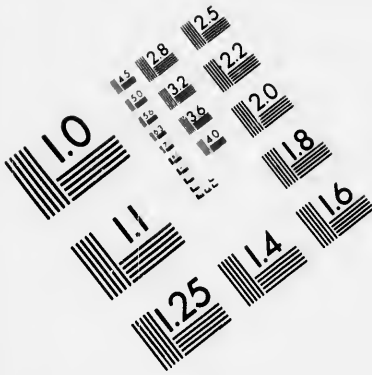
Lines having a syllable over are called Hypermeter or Hypermetrical : as,—

" Hence bathed Me lanch ^{thy}
Midst horrid shapes, | and shrieks | and sighs | unhó ly."
(Milt. *L'Allegro*.)

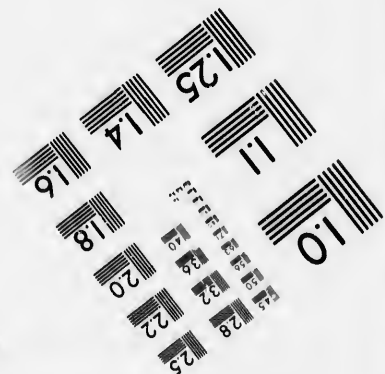
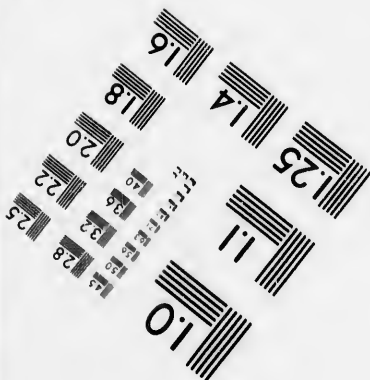
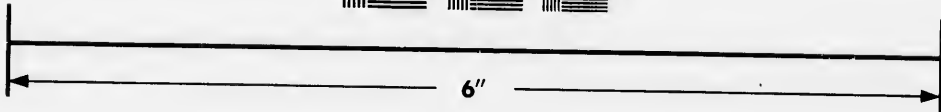
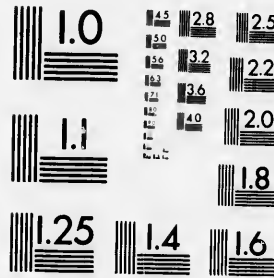
§ 339. IAMBIC METRES.—Iambic is the prevailing rhythm in English verse. It is equally adapted to light and to grave subjects. Thus while the burlesque poem of *Hudibras* is written in Iambic verse (Tetrameter)—

* In Greek versification, two iambs, trochees, or anapaests, go to a metre ; but only one Dactyl.





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1



“ When civil dudgeon first grew high,
And men fell out they knew not why ;
When pulpit, drum ecclesiastic,
Was beat with fist instead of a stick ”— } *Hypermeter.*

so also is the elevated and romantic poem of *Marmion*—

“ Day dawned on Nórham’s castled steep,
And Twéed’s fair river, broad and deep.”

§ 340. The following stanza exemplifies a variety of Iambic measures :—

“ Now that the hearth is crowned with smiling fire, [Pent.]
And some do drink and some do dance, [Tetram.]
Some ring, [Monom.]
Some sing, ”
And all do strive to’ advance : [Trim.]
Wherefore should I’ [Dim.]
Stand silent by, ”
Who not the least ”
Both love the cause and author of the feast ?” [Pent.]
(B. Jonson.)

Obs. Monometer and Dimeter are found only in combination with other metres. They are now rarely employed.

§ 341. **TROCHAIC METRES.**—These are far less frequent than the Iambic. The absence of an *Anacrusis* (Gr. *ἀνάκρουσις*, *up-beat*), or unaccented starting note, gives to the Trochaic rhythm a kind of briskness which renders it well adapted to lively subjects.

“ Haste thee, Nymph, and bring with thee [Troch. Tetram. Catal.]
Jest and youthful jollity,
Quips and cranks and wanton wiles,
Nóls and bécks and wreathed smiles.” (*L’Allegro.*)

Trochaic metre is seldom used in poems of any considerable length.

N.B.—Trochaic lines are, oftener than not, Catalectic or truncated ; and may thus be regarded as Iambic without the *Anacrusis*.

§ 342. *Examples of Trochaic Metre :—*

- (1) “ Turning [Monom.]
Burning, ”
Churning, ”
Ringing, ”
Full of grief and full of love.” [Tetram. Catal.]
(Addison : example in *Angus*.)
- (2) “ Rhyme the rick of finest wits, [Tetram. Catal.]
That expresseth but by fits
True conceit ; [Dim. Catal.]

Spoiling senses of their treasure,
 Cozening judgment with a measure,
 But false weight . . ." (B. Jonson.)

- (3) "Comrades, leave me here a little, while as yet 'tis early morn;
 Leave me here, and when you want me, sound upon the bugle
 horn." [Octom. Catal.] (Tennyson.)

§ 343. ANAPÆSTIC METRES.—These are used only in short lyric pieces:—

- (1) "Where the sun loves to pause [Dim.]
 With so fond a delay, " "
 That the night only draws " "
 A thin veil o'er the day." " (Moore.)
- (2) "I am monarch of all I survey, [Trim.]
 My right there is none to dispute; " "
 From the centre all round to the sea, " "
 I am lord of the fowl and the brute." " (Cowper.)
- (3) "The Assyrian came down like a wolf on the fold, [Tetram.]
 And his cohorts were gleaming in purple and gold; " "
 And the sheen of their spears was like stars on the sea " "
 When the blue wave rolls nightly on deep Galilee." " (Byron.)

§ 344. DACTYLIC METRES.—These occur only in lyric poetry, where their occasional introduction—especially as a variation from the Trochaic rhythm—has an enlivening effect.

"Where the bee sucks, there suck I, In a cowslip's bell I lie: There I couch when owls do cry. On the bat's back I do fly A'fter summer merrily. <i>Merrily, merrily, shall I live now, Under the blossom that hangs on the bough.</i> "	}	Trochaic Tetram. Catalectic Dactylic Tetram. Catal. (Shaks. <i>Tempest.</i>)
--	---	--

Sir W. Scott's spirited lyric, *Pibroch of Donuil Dhu*, is written throughout in Dactylic metre:—

"Pibroch of Donuil Dhu, [Dim. Dactyl]
 Pibroch of Donuil; [Dim. Catalectic]
 Wake thy wild voice anew,
 Summon Clan Donuil!
 Come away, come away,
 Hark to the summons,
 Come in your war array
 Gentes and commons."

§ 345. Sometimes Dactyls are introduced with good effect at the beginning of Trochaic lines:—

“ Merrily, merrily, bounds the bärk, [Troch. Tetram. Catal.]
 Before the gäle she bounds.” [Iamb. Trim.]
 (Scott, *Lord of the Isles*.)

Obs. The so-called *English Hexameter*, formed in imitation of that of Homer as Virgil, is not discussed here, as not being naturalised.

SPECIAL METRES.

§ 346. *Heroic Couplet*.—This consists of Iambic Pentameter lines rhymed in couplets:—

“ Heaven fröm all créatures hides the book of *fäte*,
 All büt the päge prescribed their présent *stäte*.” (Pope.)

Occasionally a *Triplet* (three lines rhyming) is introduced into this kind of verse:—

“ Now n'ight's dim shädes agäin invólve the *skij*,
 Agäin the wänderers wänt a pläce to *lie*,
 Agäin they search and find a lodging *nigh*.” (Parnell's *Hermit*.)

In this metre are written Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales* (greater part), the *Absalom and Achitophel* of Dryden, Pope's *Homer*, &c.

§ 347. *Blank Verse*.—The same [*Heroic*] measure *unrhymed* is called Blank Verse.

EXAMPLES.—Milton's *Paradise Lost* and *Paradise Regained*; Cowper's *Task*; Wordsworth's *Excursion*; Tennyson's *Idylls*, &c.

Blank Verse is best adapted to grand subjects. It requires elevation of thought and a sustained flow of sonorous and impressive language.

§ 348. *Ballad Metre*.—This consists of rhyming couplets of Iambic Heptameter. Each line divides naturally after the fourth foot; and the couplet is now commonly written as a stanza of *four* lines:—

“ God präser löng our nöble k'ing, our líves and säfeties äll,
 A woful hün'ting ónce there did in Chévy Chäse befäl.” (*Ballad*.)

Macaulay's *Armada* and *Battle of Irvy* are in this metre:—

“ Now list ye äll who löve to héar our noble England's präise,
 I tell of thé thrice fämous déeds she wroug't in äncient days.”

§ 349. *Elegiac Stanza*.—This consists of four lines of Iambic Pentameter, rhyming alternately.

EXAMPLES.—Gray's *Elegy*; Sir John Davies's *Nosce Teipsum* [published 1599].

§ 350. *Alexandrine Verse*.—This is Iambic Hexameter. It is used in the final line of the Spenserian Stanza (§ 351); and occasionally as the wind-up to a passage in Heroic verse. The last line of Pope's *Messiah* is an Alexandrine:—

“The seas shall waste, the skies in smoke decay
Rocks fall to dust, and mountains melt away;
But fixed His word, His saving power remains
Thy realm for ever lasts, thy own Mess ah reigns.”

Drayton's *Polyolbion*, a poem in thirty books descriptive of England, is in this metre. [Mich. Drayton, ob. 1631.]

“My native country then which so brave spirits* hast bro'd,
If there be virtues yet remaining in thy earth,
Or any good of mine thou bred'st into my birth,
Accept it as thine own, while now I sing of thee,
Of all thy later brood unworthiest tho' I be!”

§ 351. *Spenserian Stanza* (nine lines).—This consists of eight Heroics, followed by one Alexandrine, rhymed. There are only three different rhymes in a single stanza, arranged in the following manner:—

“He there does now enjoy eternal	<i>rest</i>	
And happy ease, which thou dost want and		<i>crave,</i>
And further from it daily wander-	<i>est.</i>	
What if some little pain the passage		<i>have,</i>
That makes frail flesh to fear the bitter		<i>wave;</i>
Is not short pain well borne that brings long		<i>ease,</i>
And lays the soul to sleep in quiet	<i>grave?</i>	
Sleep after toyle, port after stormy		<i>seas,</i>
Ease after toyle, death after life does greatly		<i>please.”</i>

(F. Q. i. 9, 40.)

Here note: lines 1, 3 rhyme together.

“ 2, 4, 5, 7 ”
“ 6, 8, 9 ”

§ 352. *Ottava Rima* (eight-line stanza).—Consists of six Heroics, rhyming three and three alternately, followed by an Heroic Couplet.

“’Tis sweet to hear the watch-dog's honest	<i>barke</i>	
Bay deep-mouth'd welcome as we near our		<i>home;</i>
’Tis sweet to know there is an eye will	<i>mark</i>	
Our coming, and look brighter when we		<i>come;</i>
’Tis sweet to be awaken'd by the	<i>larke</i>	
Or lull'd by falling waters; sweet the		<i>hum</i>
Of bees, the voice of girls, the song of		<i>birds,</i>
The lip of children and their earliest		<i>words.”</i>

(Byron.)

* Formerly pronounced *sprights*: compare adj. *sprightly*.

Byron's *Beppo* and *Don Juan* are in this stanza; which, as the name implies, is borrowed from the Italian.

§ 353. *Sonnet* (fourteen lines).—The Sonnet also is of Italian origin. In its perfect form its rhyme-system is very elaborate. Only two different rhymes are allowed in the first eight lines (which are arranged in two quartets); and two, or sometimes three, in the remaining six lines:—

“When I’ consider hów my líght is		<i>spént</i>
Ere hálf my díys, in thís dark wórd and	<i>wíde,</i>	
And thát one talént whích is déath to	<i>híde,</i>	
Lodg’d with me úsèless, thóugh my sóul more	<i>bént</i>	
To sérvè therewíth my Mákèr, and pre-		<i>sént</i>
My trúè a’còunt, lest hé rétúrníng	<i>ch’íde,</i>	
Dóth Gód exáct day lábour, líght de-	<i>níed?</i>	
I fóndly ásk: but Patíence, tó pre-		<i>cént</i>
That múrmur, sóon réplíes, Gód dóth not	<i>néed</i>	
Eíthér man’s wórk, or hís ówn gífts, who	<i>b’st</i>	
Béar hís míld yóke, they sérvè hím bést, hís		<i>státe</i>
Is kíngly. Thóúsánds at hís bíddíng	<i>spé:d</i>	
And póst ó’er lánd and ócéan wíthóut	<i>rést</i>	
They álsò sérvè who ónly stáúd and		<i>wáit.”</i>
		(Milton.)

Milton followed his Italian models with great fidelity: and he has in every case maintained the exact correspondence between the rhymes of the first and second quartet. In the arrangement of the rhymes of the concluding six lines, greater variety is allowed, but they must not run in couplets.

The most successful writers of the pure Sonnet in English Literature are Milton, Wordsworth, and E. B. Browning.

§ 354. *Shakspearian Sonnet*.—In its less proper form the Sonnet is simply a poem of fourteen Heroic lines, rhymed alternately and ending with a Couplet.

The Sonnets of Shakspeare belong to this class.

§ 355. *Combinations of Verse*.—Lyric poetry admits of the most varied combinations of verse, the transitions being adapted to the turns of thought and emotion. Thus the *L’Allegro* of Milton presents the following varieties •

1. Iambic Trim. . . . "In Stýgian cæve forlórñ."
2. do. do. Hyperm. "Hence loathed Mclanchóly."
3. lo. Tetram. . . . "But còme, thou góddess fáir and fréé,
In héaven yelèpt Euphrósýné."
4. do. Pentam. . . . "Of Cérberús and bláckest in dníght bórñ,
Where broóding dárkness spréads his
ráven wíngs."
5. do. do. Hyperm. "Mídst hórríd shápes and shrícks, and síghts
unhóly."
6. Troch. Tetram. . . . "Thére to còme in spíte of sórrow,
7. do. do. with } And át my wíndow bíd góod mórrów."
- Anacrusis . . . }
8. do. do. Catal. "Còme and tríp it ás you gó
O'n the líght fantástic toé."

For additional examples of such combinations, see Collins, *Ode on the Passions*; Gray's *Progress of Poetry*; Dryden's *Alexander's Feast*, &c.

§ 356. ALLITERATION.—This consists in the recurrence of words or syllables beginning with the same letter: as in the well-known line—

"By apt alliteration's artful aid."
(Churchill, *Proph. of Famine*.)

§ 357. Alliteration is now only occasionally used. It was once an important principle of English versification. Anglo-Saxon poetry, like Icelandic, is entirely alliterative; and it is not till about the beginning of the thirteenth century that alliteration begins to give place to rhyme.

§ 358. The often quoted lines—

"Merie [swe. tly] sungen the munches binnen Ely,
Tha Cnut ching rew there by:
Roweth, enlites, noer the laut,
And here we these munches seng"

(Craik, i. p. 195.)

are proof that rhyme was not unknown previous to the Norman Conquest; and in the *Brut* [Brutus] of Layamon [1200 A.D.] rhyming couplets are of frequent occurrence. But it is not till about the year 1300 that our literature can boast of any extensive poetical work written throughout in rhyme. The *Chronicle of Robert of Gloucester* is in fourteen-syllable rhyming verse.

§ 359. The change from alliteration to rhyme was no doubt due in great measure to the influence of French versification, which has always been based on rhyme. The

old alliterative method maintained its ground among the masses of the people, and can boast the earliest great work of imagination in our literature—*The Vision of* [i.e. concerning] *Piers Plowman*. This is the earliest of the three great allegorical works which have successively gained the ear of the English people.*

§ 360. The *Vision* is written in lines of from about ten to twelve syllables. Each line readily divides itself into two hemistichs, and is often so written.

There are four accents or rhythmic beats [§ 331] to each line; and the words or syllables on which the first three at least of these fall, begin with the same letter:—

“ I was wēary for-wāndered, and wēnt me to rest
Under a brōod bānk by a būres side;
And as I līy and lēned and looked on the waters,
I slūmbered into a slēping, it swayed † so mury.” (Pass. i.)

§ 361. Soon after the date of the *Vision* [latter half of the fourteenth century] the alliterative method fell into disuse. But though abandoned as a principle of versification, alliteration has continued to be more or less employed by almost all our poetical writers. Scarcely a stanza of the *Fairy Queen* is free from it; and Shakspeare, Milton, Pope, and others occasionally introduce it with very pleasing effect: e.g.—

“ Sweet slumbering dew the which to sleep them bids.”
(*F. Q.* i. 1, 36.)

“ A bold bad man, that dared to call by name
Great Gorgon, prince of darkness and dead night;
At which Coeytus quakes and Styx [*x=ks*] is put to flight.”
(*Ib.* 38.)

“ This precious stone set in the silver sea.”
[Ex. in Earle.] (*Sh. Rich. II.* ii. 1.)

“ It was the winter wild }
When the heaven-born child } †
All meanly wrapt in the rude manger lay.” (*Milt. Nativ.*)

“ And waving wide her myrtle wand.” (*Ib.*)

“ The sound must seem an echo to the sense.” (*Pope, Crit.*)

“ Puffs, powders, patches, Bibles, billet-doux.” (*Id. Rape of L. i*)

* *Piers Plowman*; *Fairy Queen*; *Pilgrim's Progress*.

† Swayed so mury = sounded so sweetly.

‡ These two lines are exactly after the manner of the *Vision*;

“ It was the winter wild, when the heaven-born child.”

“ In a summer season, when softe was the sonne.” (*P. P.* line 1.)

"The bookful blockhead ignorantly read,
With loads of learned lumber in his head." (Id. *Dunc.*)

"A life of pain, the loss of peace
For every touch that woo'd its stay
Hath brushed its brightest hues away,
Till charm and hue and beauty gone,
'Tis left to fly or fall alone.
With wounded wing and bleeding breast." (Byron, *S. of Corinth.*)

"Give us long rest or death, dark death, or dreamful ease!"
(Penmyson, *Lotos-Eaters.*)

PUNCTUATION.

§ 362. POINTS or STOPS are used to mark the divisions of sentences. The following are the principal stops:—

1. Period or Full Stop (.)
2. Colon (:)
3. Semicolon (;)
4. Comma (,)
5. Note of Interrogation (?)
6. Note of Exclamation (!)

Other marks in common use are the dash —; parenthesis () ; inverted commas or Quotation marks " "; brackets [] or ().

§ 363. A FULL STOP or PERIOD marks the end of a sentence, whether simple or complex.

§ 364. A COLON is used after a member of a sentence which makes a complete and independent sense by itself: especially when the succeeding member is not linked to it by a Conjunction: as—

"The fifth race, which succeeds to the Heroes, is of iron: it is the race to which the poet himself belongs, and bitterly does he regret it." (Grote, *Hist. Gr.* i. 90.)

"Among the Commons there was a strong opposition, consisting partly of avowed Republicans, and partly of concealed Royalists: but a large and steady majority appeared to be favourable to the plan of reviving the old civil constitution under a new dynasty." (Mac. *H. E.* i. p. 142.)

"But Mr. Pendennis wanted to see him, and begged him, with a smile, to enter: whereupon Mr. Foker took off the embroidered tarboosh or fez . . . and advanced, bowing to the gentlemen and smiling on them graciously." (*Pendennis*, ch. xiii.)

"How she became Madame Fribsby, nobody knows: she left Clavering to go to a milliner's in London as Miss Fribsby . . ." (*ib.* ch. xvi.)

It is sometimes difficult to decide whether a Colon or a Full Stop is more appropriate: but the Colon is preferable whenever the succeeding member is closely connected with the former one.

A Colon is used before a quotation; often with a dash:—

"The most sensible thing said in the House of Commons, on this subject, came from Sir William Coventry:—'Our ancestors never did draw a line to circumscribe prerogative and liberty.'" (Mac. *H. E.* i. p. 223.)

§ 365. A SEMICOLON marks a less complete pause than a colon. It is used—

- (1) After a member of a sentence which, while it makes a complete sense by itself, is yet closely connected with a succeeding one, the connection being usually marked by a Conjunction: as—

"In this morass the Roman army, after an ineffectual struggle, was irrecoverably lost; nor could the body of the emperor ever be found." (Gibbon, ch. x.)

"The conflict was terrible; [for] it was the combat of despair against grief and rage." (*Ib.*)

"His pride was flattered by the applause of the senate; and medals are still extant, representing him with the name and attributes of Hercules the Victor and of Mars the Avenger." (*Ib.*)

"The pike had been gradually giving place to the musket; and, at the close of the reign of Charles the Second, most of his Foot were musketeers." (Mac. *H. E.* i. 297.)

- (2) Between the co-ordinate members of a sentence combining a number of statements:—

"The Samaritans were condemned; the leaders of the insurrection adjudged to death; the rest of the people expelled and interdicted from settling again in Naplous; and, by a strange edict, the Samaritans were no longer to inherit the property of their fathers." (Milm. *H. of Jews*, iii. 65.)

"The first line of the Goths at length gave way in disorder; the second advancing to sustain it shared its fate; and the third only remained entire, prepared to dispute the passage of the morass, which was imprudently attempted by the presumption of the enemy." (Gibbon, ch. x.)

"He attended his beloved master during the trial; undertook to plead his cause; indeed, began a speech which the violence of the judges would not allow him to continue; and pressed his master to accept a sum of money sufficient to purchase his life." (Lewes, *Plato*.)

§ 366. A COMMA is the slightest pause of all. It serves to mark off members of a sentence which do not make a complete sense of themselves. A comma is used—

- (1) Before and after all phrases and sentences *enlarging* the Subject or other Noun: as—

"His father, *the Marquess of Argyle*, had been the head of the Scotch Covenanters." (Mac. *H. E.* i. 537.)

"The court, *sick of the importunities of two parties*, . . . at length relieved itself from trouble by dictating a compromise." (*Ib.* 188.)

"Dunkirk, *won by Oliver from Spain*, was sold to Lewis the Fourteenth, *king of France*." (*Ib.* 191.)

Faith is one of these [words], which was formed upon the French *foi*, Anglicised *fey*." (Earle, p. 267.)

"The aristocracy, *which was held in great honour by the middle class and by populace*, had put itself at the head of the movement against Charles the First . . ." (Mac. *H. E.* i. 187.)

Put when the Adjectival sentence is merely defining and restrictive (§ 233), commas are not used: as—

"The design was disapproved by every Scotchman *whose judgment was entitled to respect.*" (*Ib.* 185.)

(2) When two or more Adverbs or Adverbial phrases come together, to mark off one from the other: as—

"*Then, at length*, tardy justice was done to the memory of Oliver." (*Ib.* 192.)

"*Lastly, in our own days*, Mr. Finlaison, an actuary of eminent skill, subjected the ancient parochial registers of marriages, baptisms, and burials, to all the tests which the modern improvements in statistical science enabled him to apply." (*Ib.* 234.)

(3) Before and after any single Adverbial phrase when let into the body of a sentence and brought before the Verb to which it refers: as—

"Such inquiry, *according to him*, was out of their province." (*Ib.* 196.)

"But, *both in public and in the closet*, he, *on every occasion*, expressed his concern that gentlemen so sincerely attached to monarchy should unadvisedly encroach on the prerogative of the monarch." (*Ib.*)

"Everywhere it was remembered how, *when he ruled*, all foreign powers had trembled at the name of England." (*Ib.* 193.)

"But, *though she had rivals on the sea*, she had not yet a superior." (*Ib.* 201.)

But a comma is not needed when the Adverbial comes at the end of the sentence: as—

"The Chevalier was pacing down below in the hall of the inn *when Pen descended from the drawing-room.*" (*Pendennis*, ch. xxvii.)

"I will keep what I had to say *till you come home.*" (*Ib.*)

The same rule is usually observed in the case of the Conjunctions *therefore, however*: as,

"The Long Parliament, *however*, had passed ordinances which had made a complete revolution in church government," (*Mac. H. E.* i. 158.)

"These ordinances, *therefore*, were never carried into full execution." (*Ib.* 159.)

(4) When more than two Nouns or other words are brought together in the same connection, a comma is placed after each one excepting the last: as—

"Everywhere men magnified his *valour, genius, and patriotism.*" (*Ib.* 193.)

"And after three days, Jesus taketh *Peter, James, and John* his brother . . .

(*Matt.* xvii. 1.)

"To *love, honour, and succour* my father and mother . . ." (*Catechism.*)

"With an *humble, lowly, penitent, and obedient* heart . . ." (*C. Prayer.*)

Similarly, when words are arranged in pairs, each connected together by *and*, a comma is used after each pair.

". . . that *peace and happiness, truth and justice, religion and piety*, may be established among us for all generations." (*C. Prayer.*)

* *Temperance and abstinence, faith and devotion*, are in themselves[,] perhaps[,] as laudable as any other virtues." (*Spect.* No. 243.)

(5) After various impersonal phrases followed by a Noun-sentence which is the real Subject: as—

"It was an ancient tradition, that when the Capitol was founded . . . , the god Terminus . . . alone . . . refused to yield his place to Jupiter himself." (Gibbon, ch. i.)

"It is true, that such slighter compositions might not suit the severer genius of our friend Mr. Oldbuck." (Scott, *Ivanhoe*, pref.)

(6) A comma is often used to mark the end of a lengthened Noun-sentence or Infinitive-phrase forming the Subject to a Verb: as—

"The Soplists are a much calumniated race. *That they should have been so formerly,* is not surprising; *that they should be so still,* is an evidence that historical criticism is yet in its infancy." (Lewes, *Biog. Hist. Phil.*)

"To match an English and a Scottish author in the rival task of embodying and reviving the traditions of their respective countries, would be, you alleged, in the highest degree unequal and unjust." (Scott, *Ivanhoe*, pref.)

§ 367. The NOTE OF INTERROGATION is put after all questions: as—

" . . . where are they? and where art thou,
My country?" (Byron.)

Obs. 1. The Note of Interrogation is not used after an indirect or reported question, as—

"He had been asked *if he came on business*, and had answered No."
(*David C.* ch. lxiii.)

"How could he make a more honourable entry on the bustling scene, than sent by, and acting in behalf of, one of the noblest houses in England; and should he," &c. (*Peveril*, ch. xviii.)

Obs. 2. Exclamatory sentences, such as the following —

"O, what a fall was there, my countrymen!"

must not be confounded with Interrogatives.

§ 368. The NOTE OF EXCLAMATION is used after Interjections and similar expressions; also, usually, after the Vocative Case, and after entire sentences pronounced as with a sudden emotion: as—

"Hark! 'tis the twanging horn o'er yonder bridge —" (Cowper, *Task*.)

"This folic of four pag s, *happy work!*
Which not e'en critics criticise." (*Ib.*)

"*Earth!* render back from out thy breast
A remnant of our Spartan dead!
Of the three hundred grant but three,
To make a new Thermopylae!" (Byron.)

The *O* of address, often used before the Vocative Case, is not written with (!); but this sign is very often put after the Noun itself: as—

"O Scotia! my dear, my native soil!" (Burns.)

But the Interjection *O* or *oh*, denoting a burst of feeling, is usually written with (!) when it stands by itself: † as—

* It is not easy to see why a comma is not placed here as well as after the second parallel Noun-sentence.

† Concerning the difference between *O* and *oh*, see Earle, p. 161. [The distinction appears to be modern: Milton always uses *O*; and in the Globe Shakspeare *O* is printed in the most impassioned places: see *thello*, act 5.]

"Oh! why has worth so short a date . . ." (Burns);

the sign (!) stands at the end of the sentence: as—

"When, rising from the bed of death,
Overwhelmed with guilt and fear,
I see my Maker face to face,
Oh, how shall I appear!" (Addison.)

§ 369. The DASH is used rather as a help to the reader, than as a *Stop* properly so called. It denotes a sustaining of the thought and voice, as in the following passage:—

"He looked—
Ocean and earth, the solid frame of earth
And ocean's liquid mass, in gladness lay
Beneath him:—Far and wide the clouds were touched,
And in their silent faces could be read
Unutterable love." (Words. *Excursion*, i.)

The Dash is much used by modern writers in long sentences, containing many co-ordinate members. (See De Quincey, *passim*.)

§ 370. Curved brackets () are used to isolate a phrase or sentence which is introduced into the body of another sentence [parenthesis]: as—

"The meek intelligence of those dear eyes—
(Blest be the art that can immortalize,
The art that baffles Tim's tyrannic claim
To quench it!)—here shines on me still the same." (Cowper, *Lines*.)

§ 371. Square brackets [] are used for various purposes: as, for example, to enclose the date of an event, the explanation of a peculiar word, or a running commentary, &c. The student will readily find examples of these uses.

§ 372. Quotation marks are only used when the actual words of the speaker or writer are given. When a quotation occurs within a quotation, the inner quotation is usually indicated by single, instead of double, commas: as—

"Is this," the gray-haired Wanderer mildly said,
"The voice, which we so lately overheard,
To that same child, addressing tenderly
The consolations of a hopeful mind?—
'His body is at rest, his soul in heaven.'" (*Excursion*.)

Obs. When a quotation is introduced by such expressions as, *said he, replied &c.*, &c., let into the sentence parenthetically, the parenthesis is pointed off with commas.

ENGLISH EXERCISES.

[The Numerals in thick type, prefixed to the Exercises, refer to the Sections in the Grammar which the Exercises are intended to illustrate.]

The Alphabet: Syllables.

EXERCISE 1.

§§ 1, 2. (1.) What letters no longer in use are employed in earlier stages of our language?

(2.) Write out the following paragraphs with the proper Capital Letters:—

1. iona is the sacred island of the scottish nation, being indeed the cradle of north british christianity. it was here that the irish saint, columba, fixed his permanent abode when engaged in his missionary operations. for a full account of his mission, see mr. burton's 'history of scotland.'

2. it was at rome on the 15th of october, 1764, as i sat musing among the ruins of the capitol, while the bare-footed friars were singing vespers in the temple of jupiter, that the idea of writing the decline and fall of the city first started to my mind.

3. john gilpin was a citizen,
of credit and renown.
a trainband captain eke was he
of famous london town.

EXERCISE 2.

§ 3. (1.) Mark the vowel in the *first syllable* of each of the following words, according as it is long (—) or short (˘):—

notice	accident	splendid	cynic
father	fable	decent	tyrant
timbrel	temple	tumbler	ominous
hostile	tidings	curious	humour
calling	catholic	omnibus	sugar

- (2.) How may the true long sound of *i* be represented? What difference exists between Continental nations and ourselves in the pronunciation of long *e* and long *i*?

EXERCISE 3.

- §§ 5-8. (1.) How are the Consonants divided? Arrange all the Consonants accordingly?
- (2.) Into what three classes are the Mutes divided? Arrange them accordingly.
- (3.) Write down five words containing **th** hard and five containing **th** soft.

EXERCISE 4.

- §§ 9-11. (1.) Write out the following words, underlining **w** and **y** whenever they are vowels:—

wait	unyoke	will	unwilling
away	tory	twill	unyielding
window	toy	cow	coward
yes	town	yacht	annoy
yellow	trying	aye	annoying

- (2.) Write out all the words you can think of containing **h** silent. (Compound and Derivative words included.)

EXERCISE 5.

- § 12. (1.) Write out all the words in the following list containing true diphthongs. (Underline the diphthongs.)

gown	maid	crawl	employ
beat	sieve	strait	contrive
gauge	believe	quite	rough
frown	deceive	yeoman	raw
boy	haul	jeopardy	Europe
threaten	noun	aye	renown

- (2.) Write out all the words in the same list which contain apparent diphthongs only; and add in each case the vowel which alone is actually sounded. [Thus: beat (*e*.)]

EXERCISE 6.

§§ 13-15. (1.) Divide the following words into syllables :—

purpose	second	recount	gentry
history	within	errors	priesthood
England	memory	alienated	revolution
accession	living	loyal	struggle
terminated	people	reigning	dynasty

(2.) Write down five Polysyllables, with four, five, six, seven, and eight syllables.

(3.) Place the accent on the proper syllable of each word in (1)

The Noun.

EXERCISE 7.

§§ 19, 20. (1.) What is the difference between Proper Nouns and Common Nouns?

(2.) Write down in two columns the Proper Nouns and the Common Nouns in the following list :—

Adam	man	ship	cotton
Eve	William	mouth	England
boy	city	Portsmouth	Tiber
girl	York	defence	Paris
Thames	ball	Plymouth	paper
soldier	Thomas	Seine	Rome
David	bat	war	Rhine
sailor	London	peace	Danube
Severn	Dublin	France	mountain

EXERCISE 8.

§ 19. (1.) Write down in four columns the Proper Nouns in Exercise 7, according as they are the names of persons, countries, towns, or rivers.

(2.) When are Proper Nouns used in the Plural? Write down five such Nouns. (See *Obs.* 2.)

EXERCISE 9.

§§ 21, 22. (1.) Define Collective Nouns and Abstract Nouns, and write down five examples of each.

- (2.) What other name is given to Collective Nouns ?
- (3.) Enumerate five kinds of Abstract Nouns, and write down three examples of each kind.
- (4.) Write down in three columns the following Common Nouns, according as they are Collective Nouns, Abstract Nouns, or Names of Materials :

wit	committee	council	gas
jury	quicksilver	wisdom	water
club	painting	valour	crowd
reign	literature	commerce	chemistry
duty	government	geometry	education

EXERCISE 10.

- §§ 24-26. (1.) How many Genders are there, properly so called ?
- (2.) What is the meaning of Neuter Gender ?
- (3.) What is the meaning of Common Gender ?
- (4.) Write down in four columns five Masculine Nouns, five Feminine Nouns, five Neuter Nouns, and five Nouns of Common Gender.

EXERCISE 11.

- § 27. (1.) Mention the three ways of indicating difference of Gender in Nouns, and write down five examples of each way.
- (2.) Explain the origin of the forms *duchess*, *marchioness*, *songstress*, *sempstress*, *vixen*, *bridegroom*, *lass*.
- (3.) Write down in four columns the following Nouns according as they are Masculine, Feminine, Neuter, or of Common Gender :—

emperor	John	crowd	lass
heroine	sheep	witness	drone
parliament	Maria	sister	house
executrix	deer	cousin	ball
peeress	stag	widow	child
ape	elector	ewe	heiress
hind	fish	fox	heifer
sovereign	pig	ox	foal
snake	wizard	gander	abbess
goat	friend	boor	infanta

§§ 28, 29. (4.) When are names of things without life treated as Masculine or as Feminine? Write down ten examples of such Masculine Nouns and ten examples of such Feminine Nouns.

EXERCISE 12.

§§ 31-33. (1.) When is -s added to form the Plural, and when is -es added to form the Plural?

Write down ten Plurals ending simply in -s, and ten Plurals ending in -es.

§ 34. (2.) Write down ten Nouns in which f in the Singular is changed into v in the Plural.

Write down ten Nouns in which f in the Singular remains unchanged in the Plural.

§ 35. (3.) When does y remain unchanged in the Plural, and when is it changed into i?

Write down ten Plurals in which the y remains unchanged, and ten Plurals in which it is changed into i.

EXERCISE 13.

§ 36. (1.) What are the other Plural formations besides -s and -es? Write down seven examples of each.

(2.) Write down ten Nouns which make no change for the Plural.

EXERCISE 14.

§§ 31-36. Write down the Plurals of the following Nouns:—

woman	fox	valley	deer
wife	boy	chimney	sheep
brother (2)	day	spray	toy
hero	sky	story	lass
summons	leaf	drama	larch
monarch	strife	child	gas
omnibus	thief	chief	fief
potato	echo	roof	grief
folio	quarto	fife	pouy

EXERCISE 15.

§ 37. (1.) Distinguish between *pennies*, *pence* — *dies*, *dice* — *geniuses*, *genii* — *indexes*, *indices*.

§ 38. (2.) Write down ten Nouns which, owing to the nature of their meaning, are used only in the Singular.

(3.) What is the meaning of such Plurals as *wines*—*brandies*—*sugars*?

(4.) What is the meaning of such Plurals as *follies*—*negligences*—*omissions*?

§ 39. (5.) Write down twenty Nouns used only in the Plural.

EXERCISE 16.

§ 40. (1.) Write down any Nouns Plural in form, but Singular in meaning.

§ 41. (2.) Write down the Plurals of the following Nouns:—

datum	axis	index (in	genius (2)
animalculum	ellipsis	algebra)	effluvium
automaton	vertex	radius	phenomenon
cherub	flambeau	seraph	genus
bureau	terminus	formula	metamorphosis

EXERCISE 17.

§§ 42-51. (1.) Explain the meaning of the five Cases—*Nominative, Objective, Dative, Possessive, Vocative*.

(2.) What is the ending of the Possessive case? What was the original ending? (§ 50, *Obs. 1.*) How did the mistake of "Thomas *his* book" arise? (§ 50, *Obs. 2.*)

(3.) Write down the Possessive Singular and Plural of the following Nouns:—

man	queen	sheep	fish
boy	king	deer	witch
wife	chief	ox	duck
sister	emperor	bird	bear
lady	attorney	fox	mouse

(4.) Correct the following:—

1. Mens' and womens' clothing. 2. Both masters' and servants have their duties. 3. A boys' hat. 4. Several boy's hats. 5. The nine mens morrice. 6. Kings crowns'. 7. Peasants cottages'

EXERCISE 18.

(Cases continued.)

Arrange the Nouns in italics in three columns, as Nominatives, Objectives, Vocatives:—

1. *Tom* never disobeyed his *father*. 2. *Maggie* heard a *step* on the *stairs*. 3. *Jane*, you must come down. 4. *William* and *Mary* saw the *comet*. 5. So ended the *sorrows* of this *day*. 6. The *boy* knew all about *worms* and *fish* and such *things*. 7. *Henry* thought this sort of *knowledge* wonderful. 8. *Edward* and *Elizabeth* were on their *way* to the *Round Pool*. 9. Look, look, *Richard*! 10. *Edward* drew out the *line* and brought a large *tench* bouncing on the *grass*. 11. The *girl* liked *fishing* very much. 12. *Life* changed for the *boys*.

EXERCISE 19.

(Cases continued.)

- (1.) Make four sentences each containing a Nominative and an Objective.
- (2.) Make four sentences each containing an Objective and a Vocative.
- (3.) Make four sentences each containing a Vocative and a Nominative.

EXERCISE 20.

(Cases continued.)

Arrange in four columns *Nominatives, Objectives, Datives, and Possessives*:—

(N.B.—Only the Nouns to be done.)

1. Give every man *thine* ear but few thy *voice*. 2. Happy is the *bride* the sun shines on. 3. *Meat* and *matins* hinder no man's *journey*. 4. One man's *breath* is another man's *death*. 5. *April* showers bring forth *May* flowers. 6. Give a dog a bad name and hang him. 7. One good turn deserves another. 8. Give a *rogue* his *due*. 9. *Reproof* never does a wise man *harm*. 10. *Tenterden* steeple is the cause of *Goodwin Sands*. 11. The burnt child dreads the *fire*. 12. Set a thief to catch a thief.

EXERCISE 21.

(Cases continued.)

- (1.) Make four sentences each containing an Objective and a Dative.
- (2.) Make four sentences each containing a Possessive and an Objective.

- (3.) Make four sentences each containing a Vocative, an Objective, and a Dative.

EXERCISE 22.

(Cases continued.)

Arrange the Nouns in italics in the following passage in five columns, according to Case :—

"*Wolsey* was as high in *station* as it was possible for any English subject to be, but this did not content him. He wanted to climb higher still and be Pope. In the meantime he surrounded himself with *pomp* and *magnificence*, and the sons of the noblest families in England rendered the great *Cardinal service* as pages in his palace. Even his daily progress to Westminster Hall furnished the *multitude* a *spectacle* to gaze at. In front went his *gentlemen-ushers* bare-headed, calling out, 'Make way, my *lords* and *masters*, give the *Lord Cardinal* room.' Then came the tallest *priests* that could be found in the kingdom, riding on horses which were clothed in scarlet, and bearing in their hands great silver *crosses*. They were followed by gentlemen who carried silver *pillars*, to denote that their *master* was a pillar of the *Church*. Behind these rode a long *train* of gentlemen splendidly apparelled, and in the midst was the great *man* himself in his robes of scarlet or crimson satin, mounted on a mule with trappings of gold. A hundred *servants* attended him and prevented the *crowd* from pressing too closely round their *master*."

EXERCISE 23.

Exercises on Gender, Number, and Case.

Correct the following errors :—

1. The vallies of Switzerland have innumerable beautys.
2. He has a place among the Alexanders, the Cæsars, the Lewis', and the Charles'.
3. These news were as unexpected as they were unwelcome.
4. These things were done by the two Charles's.
5. Proper names are sometimes used to denote classes, or groups: as, the two Pompey's.
6. Court-martials are held.
7. I saw a large herd of buf-falos grazing.
8. Never ask any bodies leave to be honest.
9. M^r. Morris' poetry is admired by some persons.
10. He slept in the mens apartments.
11. He bought many ladies gloves.
12. Dr. Watts' *Logic* may still be rend.
13. Mens happiness depends for the most part upon themselves.
14. He filled his head with suitable idean's.
15. He was unable to account for the phenomenas.
16. He could not learn the formula of logic.
17. Simon, the witch, was feared by the common people.
18. He married a wife, who had lived at Crete, but was a Jew by birth.
19. Some writers have confined their attention to minutia of style.
20. Similies should, even in poetry, be used with moderation.
21. Three days time was requisite to prepare matters.
22. The sun pours her bright light upon the fields.
23. The water abounds in animalculæ.
24. It is necessary to learn the order of the stratas.
25. The Lord's amendments' were considered by the Commons.

The Adjective.

EXERCISE 24.

§ 52. (1.) Define an Adjective.

(2.) Write down the Adjectives in the following sentences, and opposite each Adjective the Noun to which it belongs :—

1. The good boy has a black horse. 2. The pretty girl has a muslin frock. 3. The wise man has many books. 4. Cotton grows in the hot fields of the south. 5. John and Jane have the same father and the same mother. 6. The honest peasant enjoys a warm hearth and a good meal. 7. Thirty horses are in the stable of the rich man. 8. The book stands on the second shelf of the library. 9. This book is written on parchment. 10. Those books are printed on fine paper. 11. There were many labourers on the farm. 12. There were few women in the settlement. 13. The soldiers marched the whole day. 14. All men despise mean actions. 15. The first book of *Paradise Lost* contains many fine passages.

EXERCISE 25.

§§ 53–58. (1.) Enumerate the different classes of Adjectives.

(2.) Write down in four columns the Adjectives of Quality, Quantity, Number, and Distinction in the following list :—

hard	each	little	both
soft	white	any	tenth
much	some	hot	Spanish
French	yonder	enough	brown
thirty	black	sandy	those
this	every	all	same

(3.) Write down three sentences containing Adjectives of Quality, three sentences containing Adjectives of Quantity, three sentences containing Adjectives of Number, and three sentences containing Adjectives of Distinction.

EXERCISE 26.

§§ 59–67. (1.) What Adjectives of two syllables form the Comparative in *-er* and the Superlative in *-est* ?

- (2.) Write down the Comparatives and Superlatives of ten Adjectives of two syllables taking the forms -er and -est.
- (3.) Write down the Comparatives and Superlatives of ten Adjectives of two syllables *not* taking the forms -er and -est.
- (4.) Write down the Comparatives and Superlatives of the following Adjectives :—

pretty	sweet	difficult	big
gay	bitter	easy	free
sly	active	lonely	wealthy
wonderful	joyful	coy	decent
noble	learned	hot	divine
red	stupid	dry	complete

EXERCISE 27.

§ 68. (1.) Write down the Comparatives and Superlatives of the following Adjectives :—

good evil little much many

(2.) Write down the Comparatives and Superlatives of Adjectives formed from the following Adverbs and Prepositions :—

forth in out late up nigh

(3.) Make four sentences showing the difference in meaning between *older*, *oldest*, and *elder*, *eldest*. (*Obs.* 2.)

(4.) Mention some instances of Double Comparatives or Superlatives.

Articles.

EXERCISE 28.

§§ 60-73. (1.) Write down the proper form of the Indefinite Article before each of the following words :—

host	European	hour	unguent
hotel	unit	heresy	eulogy
hero	heir	herb	heretical doctrine
history	hermit	yew-tree	humble man
historical event	harp	unicorn	hypothesis

(2.) Make four sentences in which *a* is used with the words *few* and *many*. (§ 73, *Obs.*, and § 50.)

The Pronoun.

EXERCISE 29.

- §§ 74-78. (1.) "Pronouns are used to avoid the repetition of the same Nouns." Is this the only use of Pronouns? (§ 74, *Obs.*)
- (2.) Which is the only Pronoun used in the Vocative Case? Why so?
- (3.) When are the forms *mine, thine, hers, yours, theirs* preferred to *my, thy, her, our, your, their*?
- (4.) What is meant by First, Second, and Third Person?
- (5.) Write out the Dative Singular and Plural of all the Personal Pronouns.

EXERCISE 30.

(*Personal Pronouns continued.*)

Write down the Personal Pronouns in the following sentences, arranged in five columns, according to Case:--

1. Lend me a pencil. 2. I will go with you, Tom. 3. They gave us leave to enter. 4. Ye blind guides! 5. Me he restored unto my office and him he hanged. 6. It is ill playing with edged tools. 7. He was wiser than you. 8. Lead her gently along, you fellow. 9. Have patience with me, and I will pay thee all. 10. He gave them sixpence apiece. 11. Thou great first Cause, least understood! 12. Come near, all ye people, and hearken unto me.

EXERCISE 31.

(*Same continued.*)

- (1.) Make five sentences with different Personal Pronouns in the Objective Case.
- (2.) Make five sentences with different Personal Pronouns in the Dative Case.
- (3.) Make five sentences with Personal Pronouns in the Vocative Case.

EXERCISE 32.

- §§ 79, 80. (1.) What is meant by Reflexive Pronouns?

- (2.) Make six sentences, each containing a Reflexive Pronoun.
- (3.) Make six sentences, each containing one of the Pronouns *myself*, *thyself*, &c., used not reflexively but for the sake of emphasis.

EXERCISE 33.

(Same continued.)

In the following sentences, point out where the forms in *self* are Reflexives, and where they are simply emphatic:—

1. Love thyself last. 2. Himself is his own dungeon. 3. She prided herself on being an excellent contriver in housekeeping. 4. I published some tracts upon the subject myself. 5. Do thyself no harm. 6. I wrap myself up in my own integrity. 7. We deceive ourselves with words. 8. The Stoics allowed a man to kill himself in extremity. 9. Even Deborah herself seemed to share the glory of the day. 10. You forget yourself. 11. You wronged yourself to write in such a case. 12. He himself fetched himself water from the spring.

EXERCISE 34.

- § 81. (1.) To what class of Adjectives do the words **this**, **that**, strictly belong?
- (2.) Make four sentences with **this**, **that** (singular and plural) used Adjectively.
- (3.) Make six sentences with **this**, **that**, used as Pronouns.

EXERCISE 35.

- §§ 82-84. (1.) How was the Pronoun **who** originally used?
- (2.) Make three sentences with **who** as Interrogative and three with **who** as Relative.
- (3.) What is the difference between **who** and **which** when used interrogatively? Give three examples to illustrate each use.

EXERCISE 36.

- §§ 85-87. (1.) Make three sentences with **what** used interrogatively, and three with **what** used by way of exclamation.

- (2.) What is the exact meaning of **whether**? How is it now used? Give an example.
- (3.) Make three sentences introducing the Compound Interrogative Adverbs **whereto**? **whereat**? &c.

EXERCISE 37.

§ 88. Write down all the Relative Pronouns in the following sentences in one column, and in a parallel column their Antecedents opposite to them.

1. On the fifth day of the moon, which, according to the custom of my fathers, I always keep holy. I ascended the high hills of Bagdad, in order to pass the rest of the day in meditation and prayer. 2. Whilst I was thus musing, I cast my eyes towards the summit of a rock that was not far from me, on which I discovered one in the habit of a shepherd, but who was in reality a being of superior nature. 3. He smiled upon me with a look of compassion and affability that familiarized him to my imagination, and at once dispelled all the fears with which I approached him. 4. The valley that thou seest is the vale of misery, and the tide of water that thou seest is part of the great tide of eternity. 5. What thou seest is that portion of eternity which is called time. 6. Examine this sea that is bounded with darkness, and tell me what thou discoverest in it. 7. I found that the bridge consisted of three score and ten entire arches, which added to those that were entire, made up the number about a hundred.

EXERCISE 38.

§ 88 (*continued*), 89. (1.) What is meant by the connecting power of the Relative? By what other name may Relative Pronouns be called?

(2.) Write down in a column the Relative Pronouns contained in the following sentences, and place on the right and on the left the sentences connected by them (see specimen: p. 189):—

1. This sportsman was the squire's chaplain, who had shot one of the blackbirds. 2. The two ladies, who were apprehensive of catching cold, moved to break up the ball. 3. Upon our return to the house, we found a very elegant cold supper, which Mr. Thornhill had ordered to be brought with him. 4. I was very soon sorry for the warmth with which I had spoken. 5. My wife had the most agreeable dreams in the world, which she took care to tell us every morning. 6. Mr. Burchell, who was of the party, was always fond of seeing some innocent amusement going forward. 7. There is the colt that has been in our family these nine years, and his companion Blackberry, that has scarcely done an earthly thing for this month past.

Specimen of the manner of doing the above Exercise :—

	Sentence.	Relative	Sentence.
No. 1.	This sportsman was the squire's chaplain.	who	(He) had shot one of the blackbirds.

EXERCISE 39.

- §§ 90-92. (1.) What is the difference between **who** and **which**? Make two sentences to illustrate the use of each of these Relatives.
- (2.) Write out any sentences from Exercise 38, in which the Antecedent may without impropriety be repeated with the Relative; putting in the repeated Antecedent in brackets. (See § 92.)
- (3.) What change has taken place in the use of the Relative Pronoun **which**?
- (4.) Which is the most ancient Relative in the English language?

EXERCISE 40.

- §§ 93-97. (1.) Make three sentences with **what** as a Relative.
- (2.) Make three sentences with **that** as a Relative.
- (3.) What Relative is used without any Antecedent expressed?
- (4.) Point out in which of the following sentences **who**, **what**, are Relatives, and in which they are Interrogatives. (§ 96, *Obs.*)
1. Tell me who thou art. 2. He was called upon to say what he knew of the affair. 3. What thou seest is the vale of human life. 4. Give me what thou wilt. 5. What is past cannot be recalled. 6. I know who was present and what was done.

EXERCISE 41.

- §§ 98-102. (1.) Enumerate the compounds of **who**, **which**, and **what**: underlining those which are still in common use.

- (2.) What Adverb has often the force of a Relative? After what words? (One sentence to exemplify each.)
- (3.) What are the Relative Adverbs **whereon**, **wherewith**, **whereby**, equivalent to?
- (4.) Write out any sentences in Exercise 37 in which a Preposition and Relative may be expressed by one of the Relative Adverbs.

EXERCISE 42.

- §§ 103-107. (1.) Enumerate the different uses of the Pronoun **one**. Make one sentence to exemplify each use.
- (2.) What is the difference between **no** and **none**? Make two sentences to exemplify the use of each.
- (3.) What difference is there between the words **everyone** and **everybody**? Make one sentence to exemplify each.
- (4.) Which is the more correct spelling, **naught** or **nought**? Why so?

EXERCISE 43.

§§ 108-111. (1.) Correct the following sentences:—

1. Each of the three great Epic poets have distinguished themselves.
 2. It embraces five great periods, each of which have stamped their own peculiar impress on the character of the people.
 3. Every one of this grotesque family were the creatures of genius.
 4. Either of the three will do.
 5. If either of the jurors disagrees with the opinion of the rest, no verdict can be given.
 6. Each of these great poets have their peculiar beauties.

(2.) Parse the words in italics in the following sentences:—

1. Bear ye *one another's* burdens.
 2. The children loved *each other* tenderly.

(3.) What is meant by Reciprocal Pronouns?

EXERCISE 44.

(Pronouns.)

Write out the following paragraph, underlining all the Pronouns.

"English history does not record a more daring action than that of Edward Stanley, an English officer who attacked one of the forts of Zutphen, in the year 1586. Three hundred Spaniards defended the fort, and when Stanley approached it, one of them thrust a pike at him, to kill him. Stanley seized hold of it with such force that the Spaniards, unable to wrest it from him, drew him up into the fort. He instantly drew his sword and dispersed all that were present. This so astounded the Spaniards, that it gave Stanley's followers time to storm the fort, and establish themselves in it." (*Percy Anecdotes.*)

- (2.) Write out the same passage with Nouns substituted for Pronouns wherever it is possible.

The Verb.

EXERCISE 45.

- §§ 114-115. (1.) Write out all the Verbs contained in the narrative passage given in Exercise 44.
- (2.) Give the derivation of the word *transitive*, and explain its use in Grammar.
- (3.) Write down twelve Transitive Verbs and twelve Intransitive ones.

EXERCISE 46.

- § 116-119. (1.) Make six sentences, each containing Subject and Object; underscoring the former with a single line, and the latter with a double line.
- (2.) Write down twelve Intransitive Verbs which denote some kind of action, and twelve which denote a state of being.

EXERCISE 47.

§ 120. (1.) Express the sense of the following sentences by means of the Passive Voice :—

1. Cain killed Abel. 2. Romulus founded Rome. 3. Gambling has ruined many. 4. Our habits make us slaves. 5. A grape-stone suffocated Anacreon; a tile crushed the skull of Pyrrhus.

- (2.) Make six sentences in which the Active Voice of a Transitive Verb is used intransitively. (*Obs.* 1.)
- (3.) Write down twelve Verbs used both transitively and intransitively.

EXERCISE 48.

- §§ 121-126. (1.) Make four sentences, each containing a Verb in the Indicative Mood.
- (2.) Make four sentences, each containing a Verb in the Imperative Mood.
- (3.) Make four sentences, each containing a Verb in the Subjunctive Mood.
- (4.) Make four sentences, each containing a Verb in the Infinitive Mood.

EXERCISE 49.

§§ 127, 128. In the following sentences note when the form in *-ing* is a Gerund, and when it is an Imperfect Participle.

1. You see how little is to be got by attempts to impose upon the world, in coping with our betters. 2. But come, Dick, repeat the fable you were reading to-day. 3. The Saracen, lifting up his sword, fairly struck off the poor dwarf's arm. 4. Three satyrs were carrying away a damsel in distress. 5. Instead of reasoning more forcibly, he talked more loudly. 6. Thus saying, he took up his hat, nor could our united efforts prevent his going. 7. We doubted what were the best methods of raising money; or, more properly speaking, what we could most conveniently sell. 8. Wandering from village to village, he supported himself by painting signboards.

EXERCISE 50.

(Same continued.)

- (1.) Make six sentences, each containing the Gerund of a Transitive Verb.
- (2.) Make six sentences, each containing the Gerund of an Intransitive Verb.
- (3.) Make six sentences, each containing a Participle in *-ing*.

EXERCISE 51.

(Same continued.)

- (1.) Explain the phrase "When he was a-dying."
- (2.) Write down ten words compounded of a Noun and a Gerund.

(3.) Distinguish between the Abstract Nouns in -ing and the Gerunds in the following sentences. Arrange in columns.

1. Reading and writing are indispensable. 2. The art of printing was invented in Germany. 3. He spent hours in correcting and polishing a single couplet. 4. I intend building a house. 5. The groaning of prisoners and the clanking of chains were heard. 6. The bee was employed in cleansing his wings and disengaging them from the ragged remnants of the cobweb. 7. "I hope you will henceforth take warning." 8. "Sirrah," replied the spider, "if it were not for breaking an old custom in our family, I should come to teach you better manners."

EXERCISE 52.

§§ 129-130. (1.) In what respect does a Participle resemble an Adjective?

(2.) Write down ten Imperfect Participles and ten Perfect Participles, each with a Noun to which it belongs.

(3.) Express the meaning of the following sentences by means of the Gerund:—

1. While the horses are being changed, we take some refreshments. 2. The ark was then being built. 3. While all this was being done, the travellers were fast asleep. 4. I saw three pieces of ordnance being made. 5. We came in just as the minutes of the last meeting were being read.

EXERCISE 53.

§§ 131-133. (1.) What are the three natural divisions of Time, and what subdivisions have they in grammar?

(2.) Enumerate the different uses of the Present Tense [Indefinite], giving one example of each.

(3.) Distinguish between description and narration. Write one short paragraph of description and one of narration.

EXERCISE 54.

§§ 131-139. Write out all the Verbs in the following sentences, stating what Tense each is:—

1. Lord Ascot scarcely spoke a word. 2. He had performed his commission faithfully. 3. He did not for a moment doubt the correctness of her ladyship's calculations. 4. The ship is going straight

upon the rock. 5. She was fighting for her life. 6. Then he saw that the end had come. 7. The Warren Hastings had gone down in fifteen fathoms. 8. The time will never return again. 9. Three months had elapsed since the foregoing events. 10. The players have often mentioned it as an honour to Shakspeare that he never blotted out a line. 11. In six days we shall be crossing the mid-Atlantic. 12. We shall not have finished our task by the time appointed.

EXERCISE 55.

(Same continued.)

- (1.) Make three sentences, each containing a Verb in the Present Complete Tense.
- (2.) Make three sentences, each containing a Verb in the Past Indefinite Tense.
- (3.) Make three sentences, each containing a Verb in the Past Incomplete Tense.
- (4.) Make three sentences, each containing a Verb in the Present Indefinite Tense used Interrogatively.
- (5.) Make three sentences, each containing a Verb in the Past Tense Indefinite used Negatively.

EXERCISE 56.

§§ 137-139. Explain the force of **shall** in the following sentences:—

1. Thou shalt do no murder. 2. You shall hear from me once a week. 3. The lion shall lie down with the lamb. 4. We shall reach Edinburgh in an hour. 5. There are two things which I shall seek to prove. 6. I shall never forget that day. 7. He shall take of the blood and sprinkle it upon the liatel. 8. I shall attend to your orders. 9. I shall be ten years old next June. 10. There thou shalt lack nothing.

EXERCISE 57.

- §§ 140-142. (1.) Trace the historical changes in the form of the Plural Number of the Present Indefinite Tense.
- (2.) What is meant by Strong and Weak Verbs? Give ten examples of each.

EXERCISE 58.

§ 142. (1.) Write out the Indicative Mood of the Verb *to admire*. (First Person Singular only.)

- (2.) Write out in full the Future Indefinite of *to go*, as used affirmatively, interrogatively, and negatively.

EXERCISE 59.

(Same continued.)

- (1.) Write out in full the Periphrastic form of the Present Indefinite Tense, Subjunctive Mood, of the Verb *to speak*.
- (2.) Write out the Imperative, Subjunctive, and Infinitive Moods, with the Gerunds and Participles, of the Verb *to declare*.

EXERCISE 60.

- § 143. (1.) Write out the Past and Future Tenses Indicative of *to be* in the Interrogative form (in full).
- (2.) How many roots are employed in the conjugation of the Verb *to be*? Name them.

EXERCISE 61.

- § 144. Write out the Passive Voice of the Verb *to beat* according to Paradigm.

EXERCISE 62.

- §§ 145, 146. (1.) Write out the Past Indefinite and Future Indefinite of *to have*: Interrogative form.
- (2.) Enumerate the four different uses of the Verb *to do*. [See also § 132, *Obs.* 2.] Which of them belongs to a distinct root?

EXERCISE 63.

- §§ 147, 148. (1.) Which forms of *will* are never used as Auxiliaries?
- (2.) Mention all the Verbs which form the Second Person Singular by adding *-t* only.
- (3.) Make four sentences in which *should* is a Principal Verb.

- (4.) What is supposed by Grimm to have been the original meaning of *shall*? In what sense is it found in earlier authors? [*Obs.* 3.]

EXERCISE 64.

- §§ 149-151. (1.) Make three sentences in which *may* is a Principal Verb, and three in which it is an Auxiliary.
- (2.) Account for the appearance of the letter *l* in *could*.
- (3.) Give the etymology of *uncouth*.
- (4.) What is the old form for (*I*) *must*, Present Indicative?

EXERCISE 65.

- §§ 152-154. (1.) Enumerate all the Verbs which have the same form for First and Third Person Singular, Present Indicative.
- (2.) Write out the Past Indefinite of *dare to venture*, and *dare to challenge*, in full.
- (3.) Parse *need, needs*, in the following sentences :—
1. I must needs be friends with thee. 2. Needs must I like it well.
3. It need not be so. 4. Need he go away? 5. What need we fear who knows it? 6. Good wine needs no bush. 7. Must he needs die?
- (4.) Explain the following :—

“ I will not touch thine eye
For all the treasure that thine unele owes.”
(*K. John*, iv. 1.)

“ Will you with those infirmities she owes,
Unfriended, new-adopted to our hate . . .
Take her or leave her ? ”

(*Lear*, i. 1.)

EXERCISE 66.

- §155. (1.) Write out the Present Indicative of *to wit*, Interrogative form.
- (2.) Explain the origin of the forms *I wis* and *whist* (Past Participle).
- (3.) Parse and explain fully the words in italics in the following sentences :—

1. "Woe worth the man
That first did teach the cursed steel to bite
In his own flesh." (Spenser.)
2. "Me seemeth good, that with some little train
Forthwith from Ludlow the young prince be fetched."
(Shaks. *Rich. III.*)
3. "Whilom [see § 165, 1], as olde stories tellen us
There was a duke that *highte* Theseus." (Chaucer.)
4. "He conquered all the regne [realm] of Fomynye
That whilom was *y-cleped* Seythia." (Ib.)
5. *Me thinks* I see in my mind a noble and puissant nation rousing
herself like a strong man after sleep, and shaking her invincible locks.
(Milton.)

EXERCISE 67.

- §§ 156-158. (1.) Arrange Verbs in four classes, according to their formation of the Past Tense. Mention ten Verbs of each class.
- (2.) What general difference may be traced between the meaning of Verbs of the first three classes and that of most Verbs of the fourth class?
- (3.) Draw out a further table of twelve Strong Verbs, compared with the same number of Weak Verbs resembling them in meaning. [As in § 157.]

EXERCISE 68.

§§ 159, 160. Write out the Principal Parts of the following Verbs:—

teach	steal	climb	wend	drink
seek	weave	lay	thrust	sit
deal	knit	rive	go	cut
shoe	win	sow	hew	thrive
seethe	freeze	lie (2)	shine	bid

EXERCISE 69.

(Same continued.)

Write out the Principal Parts of the following Verbs:—

break	fell	ring	blow	call
shake	crow	begin	shoot	know
awake	hang (2)	lose	rove	tread
eat	bleed	flee	drive	escape
fall	speed	will (2)	shrink	cleave (2)

EXERCISE 70.

Correct the following sentences :—

1. He had spoke only a few words when he was interrupted. 2. There let him lay! 3. This cloth is wove of two different kinds of thread. 4. On recovering his senses he drunk eagerly a draught of water. 5. He was froze to death. 6. We asked at the station, but they had not yet came. 7. All the statues had had parts of them broke off during the night. 8. He had never saw such a sight before. 9. First it freezed sharply, and then as suddenly it thew. 10. As soon as he was awoke, he rose his head from the pillow. 11. The letter was wrote with invisible ink. 12. The water was drew from a deep well. 13. After he had eat a little food, he laid down on the sofa. 14. Corn was ground in hand-mills for daily use. 15. She had sank with all on board. 16. We had not yet chose our berths. 17. The figure was squozen completely out of shape. 18. After laying for some time insensible, he at length opened his eyes. 19. With great effort he had sawed the beam in two. 20. The ground was strewed with flowers. 21. The legs and arms had been hewed off. 22. The king had, with some excess of vanity, showed Solon the whole of his treasure. 23. The brig was loaded with timber and tar. 24. He had no sooner sowed his seed, than a swarm of small birds alighting cat up every grain.

The Adverb.

EXERCISE 71.

- §§ 164, 165. (1.) Make six sentences, each with an Adverb modifying a Verb.
- (2.) Make six sentences, each with an Adverb modifying an Adjective.
- (3.) Make six sentences, each with an Adverb modifying another Adverb.

EXERCISE 72.

- § 166. (1.) Make two sentences illustrating each of the eight Classes of Adverbs given.
- (2.) Show that the word *yes* is not an Adverb.
- (3.) Explain what is meant by *Word-Sentences*.

EXERCISE 73.

- §§ 167, 168. (1.) What was the original Adverbial termination in English? [§ 167, *Obs.* 3.] Mention six Adverbs which formerly had this termination,

but now are the same in form as the Adjectives from which they are derived.

- (2.) Form Adverbs from *able, noble, free, mighty, gay, coy, hasty, dutiful, horrible, exceeding, inhospitable, eternal.*
- (3.) Compare the Adverbs *prettily, splendidly, wisely, much, ill, well, gladly, proudly, freshly.* Mention any of these which are occasionally found with Comparative in *-ier.*

EXERCISE 74.

Write out all the Adverbs in the following sentences, arranging them in columns according to the Classes to which they belong [§ 166]:—

1. To-morrow I commence school-life again. 2. He looked thoughtfully towards the glimmering sea-line. 3. Our little habitation was situated just at the bottom of the hill. 4. My door is open still. 5. He was a very tall shambling youth with a cast in his eye. 6. The blow did the Saracen very little injury. 7. So truth be in the field, we do injuriously, by licensing and prohibiting, to misdoubt her strength. 8. After you had passed several courts, you came to the centre, wherein you might behold the constable himself. 9. Thrice the bell sounded loudly: and presently there was a running hither and thither. 10. The reason why I cannot tell. 11. Not a* drum was heard, not a funeral note. 12. Hit him hard, he has no friends. 13. He called so loud that all the hollow deep of hell resounded. 14. Again and again the dull sound was heard below. 15. These I may call pretty good out not thoroughly good.

The Preposition.

EXERCISE 75.

§§ 171, 172. Write out the Prepositions contained in the following sentences in a column, and right and left of each Preposition place the Nouns or Pronouns connected by it. (See specimen on p. 200):—

1. Gold is found in the sands. 2. The moth continued fluttering round the light. 3. The clouds go up the hill. 4. Through the valley flows a clear brown stream. 5. In the large hall is a splendid picture of a sea-fight, by a Dutch painter. 6. We were walking away from the village when we thought we were walking towards it. 7. Underneath this hall is a miserable dungeon. 8. From nothing nothing can come. 9. Without favour, it is like a windmill without wind. 10. In time of prosperity friends will be plenty; in time of adversity not one amongst twenty.

* Bear in mind that the so-called Articles are really Adjectives.

Specimen of the mode of working this Exercise.

	Noun or Pronoun.	Preposition.	Noun or Pronoun.
No. 1.	Gold	in	sands

EXERCISE 76.

§ 173. Write out in column the Prepositions contained in the following Exercise, placing on the right hand of each Preposition the Noun or Pronoun following it, and on the left the Noun, Pronoun, Verb, or Adjective to which the governed word has relation.

1. With long travel I am stiff and weary. 2. Patience is stale and I am weary of it. 3. The gardener presently dispatched the intruder with his hoe. 4. The sky became perfectly black with clouds and the rain poured down in torrents. 5. The labour we delight in physics pain. 6. A public meeting was held to protest against the change. 7. Twixt cup and lip there's many a slip. 8. Throughout this trying march, the captain was untiring in his endeavours to cheer and assist his men.

9. Of these the false Achitophel was first;
A name to all succeeding generations curst;
For close designs and crooked counsels fit,
Sagacious, bold, and turbulent of wit.

10. In that fair clime, the lonely herdsman stretched
On the soft grass through half a summer's day,
With music lulled his indolent repose.

EXERCISE 77.

§ 174. (1.) Make ten sentences with *down, near, since, through, beyond, round, by, along, below, within*, used as Prepositions.

(2.) Make ten sentences with the same words used as Adverbs.

The Conjunction.

EXERCISE 78.

§§ 175-179. (1.) Make six sentences with *for, but, since, notwithstanding, except, because*, used as Conjunctions.

(2.) Make six sentences with the same words used as Prepositions.

EXERCISE 79.

Arrange in three columns the Adverbs, Prepositions, and Conjunctions in the following sentences :—

1. It is now sixteen or seventeen years since I *saw* the queen of France, then dauphiness, *at* Versailles ; and surely never lighted on this orb, which she hardly seemed to touch, a more delightful vision.
2. I then turned again to the vision which I had been so long contemplating ; but instead of the rolling tide, the arched bridge, and the happy islands, I saw nothing but the long valley of Bagdad, with oxen, sheep, and camels grazing upon it.
3. Thee I revisit now with bolder wing
Escaped the Stygian pool, though long detained
In that obscure sojourn, while, in my flight,
Through utter and through middle darkness borne
To other notes than to the Orphean lyre
I sung of Chaos and eternal Night.

ADDITIONAL EXERCISES DISCRIMINATING
THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

EXERCISE 80.

Arrange in columns the words in Italics as Nouns or Adjectives :—

1. A large chestnut-tree stood on the village *green*.
2. The *police* regulations were rigorously enforced.
3. Our liberties are protected by our *police*.
4. Sea water has a *green* tint.
5. There was great distress in the *cotton* districts.
6. *Cotton* is a valuable article of commerce.
7. The *gold* crown was lost in the waves of the Wash.
8. His watch is of pure *gold*.
9. Our hearts beat *funeral* marches.
10. He stayed till after Barkis's *funeral*.
11. Her home is on the *deep*.
12. In *deep* waters.
13. The colour of the mountain peaks was a delicate *purple*.
14. All is one dreary *level*.

EXERCISE 81.

- (1.) Make twelve sentences with the following words used as Nouns :—*plain, wild, black, level, light, calm, evil, round, salt, plane, good, sound*.
- (2.) Make twelve sentences in which the same words are used as Adjectives.

EXERCISE 82.

Arrange in columns the Nouns and Verbs in italics :—

1. He counselled *war*.
2. Vain it is to *war* with Heaven.
3. He *sets* the lamp with a waxen *light*.
4. *Ferry* me over the river.
- 5.

I'll row thee o'er the *ferry*. 6. The eagle *eyes* his prey. 7. They both had bright twinkling *eyes*. 8. The fishermen *man* the life-boat and push off to the rescue. 9. Our *need* is the sorest. 10. I *need* not tell you that. 11. One more *plunge* and out. 12. That man *ages* fast.

EXERCISE 83.

- (1.) Make twelve sentences with the following words used as Nouns:—*pay, fight, order, fly, bear, spring, plough, walk, wonder, mark, cook, bridle*.
- (2.) Make twelve sentences in which the same words are used as Verbs.

EXERCISE 84.

Arrange in columns the Nouns, Adjectives, and Verbs in italics:—

1. In our street there are none but *brick* houses. 2. He would be ever *double* both in his words and meaning. 3. Who was the first to *double* Cape Horn? 4. Caesar's soldiers carried *ground* meal. 5. They shall be *ground* to *powder*. 6. Men used to *powder* their hair. 7. Now, *tread* we a *measure*. 8. The *measured tread* of the sentinel. 9. *Idle* men seldom *better* their condition. 10. *Better* it is not to *idle*. 11. The light is so intense as almost to *blind* you. 12. To order myself lowly and reverently to all my *bettors*. 13. *Better* half a loaf than no bread. 14. The voice returns again to childish *treble*. 15. In this way you will soon *treble* your capital. 16. No, not for *treble* the sum.

EXERCISE 85.

- (1.) Make twelve sentences with the following words used as Adjectives:—*still, plane, salt, rest, lame, round, left, smooth, free, near, awake, fine*.
- (2.) Make twelve sentences in which the same words are used as Verbs.

EXERCISE 86.

Arrange in columns the Adjectives and Adverbs in italics:—

1. My *first* master will succeed me. 2. *Still* waters run *deep*. 3. A second time he failed, but *still* persevered. 4. He came by the *late* train. 5. My *late* espoused wife. 6. Call me *early* mother dear. 7. The *early* and the latter rain. 8. *Deep* drank Lord Marmion. 9. The winds blew *hollow* frae the hills. 10. The *hollow* winds whistle through the battlements. 11. Pouring a nation's blood *like* water. 12.

Thou wast too *like* a dream of heaven. 13. He made *straight* for the coppice. 14. You have a *quick* ear. 15. This will pierce him to the *quick*. 16. *Quick, quick*, fear nothing!

EXERCISE 87.

- (1.) Make twelve sentences with the following words used as Adjectives:—*wide, less, cheap, pretty, fast, ill, long, low, like, yonder, high, loose.*
- (2.) Make twelve sentences in which the same words are used as Adverbs.

EXERCISE 88.

Arrange in columns Prepositions and Conjunctions:—

1. She took nothing for two days but toast-and-water. 2. Come twice in the week, but not oftener. 3. The Lord of Hosts, and none but He, the King of Glory is. 4. After lingering for half an hour over the fire, we went upstairs. 5. After dinner I resolved to go to the play. 6. After I had written to my aunt, we went to see a panorama. 7. The book of martyrs had been unthumbed since my days. 8. Does he call you Daisy because you are young and innocent? 9. Because of her impertunity I will do it. 10. Since you wish it, I will attend to the matter. 11. It was not long before he came. 12. Except ye repent, ye shall all likewise perish.

EXERCISE 89.

- (1.) Make ten sentences with the following words used as Prepositions:—*for, but, except, till, until, before, after, because (of), notwithstanding, since.*
- (2.) Make ten sentences in which the same words are used as Conjunctions.

EXERCISE 90.

Write out the following sentences, stating what Parts of Speech the words in italics are.

[Thus: 1. To think *that* (Conj.) it should come to this]:—

1. To think *that* it should come to this! 2. Yes, *that's* the way. 3. *Whose* fault is *that*? 4. Do you remember *what* Steerforth said? 5. I could not conceal *that* I had done it. 6. I don't brood over all *that* I want. 7. I had you in my thoughts many times *that* day. 8. *What* could I think, but *that* you had fallen into hands *that* could manage you? 9. *What* I found out, led me to suspect something wrong. 10. I can't spare *what* powers I have. 11. No one can fill *that* place *that's* empty. 12. Solomon himself was not as wise as these men. 13. Tom could *only* chew the cud of resentment. 14. We *salt* fish with *salt* to make them *salt*.

**EXERCISES ON COMPOUND AND DERIVED
WORDS, PREFIXES, AND SUFFIXES.**

EXERCISE 91.

- §§ 181-186. (1.) What is meant by Simple Words and what is meant by Complex Words? Write down ten examples of each.
- (2.) What is meant by Compound words? Ten examples.
- (3.) What is meant by Derived Words? Ten examples.
- (4.) What is meant by Compound-Derived Words? Ten examples.
- (5.) Arrange in three columns the following words as Compound, Derived, or Compound-Derived Words :—

window	grindstone	blackish	kingdom
gate	leapfrog	enslave	boyhood
human	murderer	unkind	hedgehog
honeybee	beggar	misdeed	bloodhound
windbag	drunkard	mistress	whipcord
longheaded	snubnosed	twohanded	ivyclad

EXERCISE 92.

- §§ 187-189. (1.) Write down ten Compound Nouns formed by the union of one Noun with another.
- (2.) Write down and explain the meaning of ten Compound Adjectives formed from an Adjective with a Noun prefixed.
- (3.) Which is regularly the modifying element in a Compound, the former or the latter of its component parts?—Apply your answer to the Compound Nouns, *apple-tree*, *pear-tree*, *lap-dog*, *song-thrush*, *ring-dove*, *screw-steamer*.

EXERCISE 93.

- §§ 190, 191. (1.) How are Compound Verbs formed? Write down ten Compound Verbs with different Prefixes.

- (2.) Write down ten Compound Verbs having the Preposition written as a distinct word.
- (3.) Make ten sentences with the same ten Verbs.
- (4.) Mention ten Compound Adverbs.
- (5.) Mention ten Compound Prepositions.

EXERCISE 94.

Form Abstract Nouns in **-th** or **-ness** from—

broad	hard	holy	steal	strong
merry	weal	good	rue	dear
long	sick	true	grow	meek
deep	dry	dark	slow	saucy
wide	high*	kind	blue	great

N.B.—When both forms exist, give them.

EXERCISE 95.

(1.) Form Nouns in **-head**, **-hood**, or **-ship** from—

God	boy	girl	companion	kin
general	hardy	fellow	child	king
maiden	apprentice	sister	lord	widow
worth	lady	likely	knight	friend

(2.) Point out the force of the ending in those formed from *boy*, *companion*, *friend*, *knight*.

EXERCISE 96.

(1.) Form Nouns in **-y**, **-ry**, or **-dom** from—

serf	rook	rival	wise	smith
free	master	gun	revel	martyr
stationer	knave	heathen	mason	jewel
flatter	king	musket	peasant	fine
Christian	grocer	cutler	potter	Jew

(2.) Point out the force of the endings in those formed from *serf*, *rook*, *martyr*, *mason*, *jewel*, *grocer*.

EXERCISE 97.

(1.) Form Nouns in **-age** or **-t** from—

bond	shave	cleave	patron	sue
porter	blaze	break	draw	ton
wave	broker	drive	carry	weigh
(in-)herit	rive	post	shrive	fly

* Height, formerly spelt *hight*, as always by Milton.

- (2.) Point out the force of the endings in those formed from *porter, cleave, rive, draw, fl3, weave.*

EXERCISE 98.

- (1.) Form Nouns in **-er, -or, -ar, -yer, -ee** from—

lie	pay	visit	refer	saw
consign	(in-)herit	trust	idle	brew
sail (2)	law	mortgage	dig	beg
swim	direct	collect	commit	gun

- (2.) Point out the force of the endings in those formed from *pay (2), visit, beg, trust, mortgage (2), refer.*

EXERCISE 99.

Form Nouns from the following phrases:—*to deal in horses—catch birds—deal in pictures—survey land.—make dresses—fit gas—found [cast] iron—paint portraits—make brushes—manufacture cotton—weave silk—paint houses—refine sugar—edit a newspaper—collect taxes—gauge spirits—make shoes—work iron—gaze at the stars—hunt after fortunes.*

EXERCISE 100.

Form Diminutives from—

man	hill	lamb	owl	lad
bull	leaf	goose	cover	cat (2)
corse	dun	butt	dear	stream
bill	poke (bag)	duck	lance	pup

EXERCISE 101.

Point out the force of the ending in each of the following words:—

baker	confectionery	cashier	sweetheart
spinster	lordship	laggard	lollard
executrix	seam	girlhood	sailer
mannikin	beggar	handle	bullock
balloon	committee	satchel	leverage
welt	halidom	gos	bishopric
streamlet	Willie	lawyer	shrift

EXERCISE 102.

- (1.) Form Adjectives in **-y, -ey, or -ly** from—

fog	storm	clay	rock	neighbour
cousin	stone	like	crag	love
air	sky	shade	kind	water
dew	brother	cloud	bone	woman
thorn	grass	man	bog	soldier

(2.) Point out the force of the terminations in *six* of the Adjectives given.

EXERCISE 103.

(1.) Form Adjectives in *-ish*, *-ful*, or *-some* from—

meddle	boy	grace	fear	knave
glad	hand	fever	red	frolie
slave	joy	full	white	hurt

(2.) Point out the force of the endings in those formed from *boy*, *fear*, *fever*, *white*, *hurt*.

EXERCISE 104.

(1.) Form Adjectives in *-en* or *-ed* from—

wood	rag	flax	wing	honey
wall	gold	leather	earth	wheel
wool	brass	beech	feather	wheat

(2.) Point out the force of the endings in those formed from *wood* (2), *brass*, *flax*, *earth*, *wheel*, *beard*.

EXERCISE 105.

(1.) Form Compound Adjectives from the following phrases:—

Four feet—golden hair—web feet—the heart of a lion—clear head—sight from afar—golden mouth—deep thought—many voices—brawny arm—low roof—[a monster with] a hundred hands.

(2.) Form Adjectives in *-ing* from the following phrases:—*to rend the heart*—*subdue the soul*—*point to the stars*—*make merry*—*sing psalms*—*bear tales*—*abide by the laws*—*laugh aloud*—*never to fail*.

EXERCISE 106.

(1.) Form Adjectives in *-able* from—

eat	drink	love	charity	charge
utter	agree	change	rely (upon)	bear

(2.) Explain the force of the ending in each of the following Adjectives:—

wheaten	friendly	wrathful	blithesome
reddish	clayey	craggy	fairish
houseless	portable	ninefold	ninth
feathered	steadfast	upward	flaxen
witless	green [Obsol.]	truthful	moody

EXERCISE 107.

Form Verbs with suffix *-en*, or prefix *be-* or *en-* (*em-*) from—

glad	bitter	fool	red	dew
body	black	rich	fresh	cloud
straight	daub	bosom	wide	friend
trap	sweet	height	able	fat

EXERCISE 108.

Form Adverbs from—

wise	careful	hearty	silly	one
graceful	mighty	safe	wide	moody
pompous	fourth	single	surlly	cherry
late	two	comfortable	handsome	kingly

EXERCISE 109.

Form as many Derivatives and Compounds as possible from the following words:—

two	sew	stand	turn	grace
sit	do	go	give	bear
dig	man	woman	run	see

EXERCISE 110.

Point out the force of the Prefix in each of the following words, and say to what language it belongs. (The Prefixes to be written separately.) Also explain the words.

superfluous	obstacle	anagram
extramural	antichrist	metempsychosis
circumnavigate	antediluvian	amphitheatre
apogee	prenatal	percolate
hypercritical	sublunary	depend
postnatal	contravene	cisatlantic
dysphonia	pan Slavism	abstemious
ultramarine	archdeacon	diameter
autoerotic	pseudo-martyr	sympathy
antipathy	polyhedron	philology

EXERCISE 111.

Point out the force of the Suffix in each of the following words, and say to what language it belongs. (The Suffixes to be written separately.) Also explain the words—

pastor	sylvan	poesis	pacific
election	heroic	poem	insuperable
physics	primal	divine	curriculo
dormitory	verbose	acrid	iridescence
cemetery	spheroid	rapacious	rapacity
conduct	speculum	subtrahend	electrician
plenitude	rectify	tangible	harpist
deodorize	Lusid	leonine	silence

EXERCISES ON THE SYNTAX.

EXERCISE 112.

§§ 201-203. (1.) Take the sentences of Exercise 81 and arrange in parallel columns the Nominative Cases and the Verbs to which they belong.

(2.) Under what circumstances may the Verb stand before the Nominative Case?

EXERCISE 113.

§§ 204, 205. (1.) Construct six sentences, each containing a Complementary Nominative after the Verb *be* or *become*.

(2.) Construct six sentences, each containing a Complementary Nominative after a Passive Verb of *naming*, *appointing*, *thinking*, &c.

EXERCISE 114.

(Same continued.)

Write out the following sentences, underlining the Complementary Nominatives:—

1. Thou sitt'st a queen.
2. Rome was the capital city of Latium.
3. As a consequence of this revolution Rome became a republic.
4. Exiles go we hence, not criminals.
5. Sir Robert Peel was made First Lord of the Treasury.
6. Addison was deemed a successful dramatic author on the strength of this play.
7. Cincinnatus was appointed dictator.
8. Frugality of manners is the nourishment and

strength of bodies politic. 9. Philosophy and religion may be called the exercises of the mind. 10. The youngest son hastily enlisted as a soldier. [Disregard *as*.] 11. Sunbeams on mountains with shadows in their train seemed Orreads; while withered boughs grotesque were lurking Satyrs. 12. He sought rather to be than to appear good.

EXERCISE 115.

- § 206. (1.) What is meant by the Nominative Absolute?
- (2.) Make six sentences with a Nominative Absolute introduced in each.
- (3.) What Case does Milton sometimes employ in this construction? How is this to be accounted for?

EXERCISE 116.

- § 207. (1.) Take the sentences of Exercise 173 and write out in parallel columns the Objective Cases, and the Verbs or Prepositions by which they are governed.

Specimen of the mode of working this Exercise.

	Verbs.	Prepositions.	Objective Cases.
No. 1.	had-on		hat
" 2.	covered		eyes
		with	hand

- (2.) Make six sentences with the Objective Case coming before the Verb.

EXERCISE 117.

- § 208. (1.) Write out the following sentences, underlining the Complementary Objectives:—

1. They crowned Roland king of the feast. 2. Cromwell made Milton his secretary. 3. Make the good only thy bosom friends. 4. In this infernal vale first met thou call'st me father. 5. Deem thou the wise and good alone true heroes.

- (2.) Make five sentences, each containing a Complementary Objective. [Use Verbs *elect*, *appoint*, *nominate*, *install*, *hold* = *think*.]

EXERCISE 118.

§§ 209, 210. (1.) Make five sentences, each containing a Verb of *teaching, asking, &c.*, followed by two Objective Cases.

(2.) In the following sentences arrange all the Nouns and Pronouns in columns according to Case.

1. At this school I was taught Latin and arithmetic. 2. The two dukes were banished the kingdom. 3. I refuse you permission. 4. I forgave thee all that debt, because thou desiredst me. 5. He was refused admittance at the door.

EXERCISE 119.

§§ 211-213. (1.) Explain the term *Cognate Objective*. Give six examples.

(2.) In the following sentences arrange all the Nouns and Pronouns in columns according to Case.

1. These reasons are not worth a straw. 2. How many miles have you walked? 3. The park wall is a mile long. 4. He slept the sleep of death. 5. Methinks the wain was very evil led. [§ 213, *Obs.*] 6. And Joseph dreamed yet another dream. 7. They shall weep tears of blood for this, said he. 8. The river was about a mile wide at the broadest part.

EXERCISE 120.

§ 214. (1.) How may the Dative Case always be explained?

(2.) Make six sentences with both an Objective and a Dative. The Objectives to be underscored with a single line, and the Datives with a double one.

(3.) Arrange in columns the Objectives and Datives in the following sentences:—

1. The servant handed his master the card. 2. He offers no salary. 3. These connections did us no great honour. 4. Give your brother some cherries, Tom. 5. I shall not yield thee one inch of the soil. 6. The dwarf dealt the champion an angry blow. 7. Villain, I say, rap me the door! 8. Heaven grant his majesty good advisers!

EXERCISE 121.

(*Objective and Dative continued.*)

Parse all the Nouns and Pronouns in the following sentences:—

1. Heaven send the prince a better companion! 2. Canst thou thunder like him? 3. The end is not worth the means. 4. Give me

neither poverty nor riches. 5. Thee I revisit safe, escaped the Stygian pool. 6. It behoves us to act well our part. 7. Heat me these irons hot. 8. Nothing can compensate for a wounded conscience. 9. Write me word without delay. 10. Give every man thine ear, but not thy voice.

N.B. The reason for the Case of each word is to be given.

EXERCISE 122.

§§ 217, 218. (1.) Construct sentences, introducing each of the following words and expressions in the Possessive Case [see also § 50]:—*men—brothers—my lord Cardinal—His Grace the Duke of Devonshire—the Archbishop of Canterbury—His Holiness the Pope—the Speaker of the House of Commons—Messrs. Spendle and Jorkins—Charles Dickens—the Emperor of the French—Truman, Hanbury, and Buxton—the Lords.*

(2.) Explain the expressions—*a picture of Turner's—a poem of Milton's.*

EXERCISE 123.

§ 219. (1.) Make three sentences, each containing a Vocative and an Objective.

(2.) Make three sentences, each containing a Vocative, an Objective, and a Dative.

(3.) Make three sentences, each containing a Vocative, an Objective, and a Possessive.

(4.) Make three sentences, each containing a Nominative, a Vocative, an Objective, and a Dative.

Specimen of the mode of working this Exercise.

(1.) Guard [Voc.], unlock this carriage [Obj.].

EXERCISE 124.

(*The Cases continued.*)

Parse all the Nouns in the sentences of Exercise 175.

EXERCISE 125.

§§ 220, 221. (1.) Make sentences with suitable Appositions attached to the following Nouns:—*Duke William—Matilda—Oliver Cromwell—Charles II.—*

the Earl of Strafford—Lord Bacon—the elephant—the seal—Great Britain—Australia.

- (2.) Make two sentences, each with a Noun in Apposition to an entire sentence.

EXERCISE 126.

§§ 222-226. (1.) Make six sentences with Adjectives used Attributively.

- (2.) Make six sentences with Adjectives used Predicatively.

(3.) Mention six Adjectives which are used as Nouns.

(4.) Correct or justify the following sentences:—

1. The rolls were served up hot upon the table. 2. I hope you will arrive home safe and sound. 3. The messenger acted conformable to his instructions. 4. His smile was extraordinary sweet. 5. I assure you it was mighty amusing. 6. Dispatch you as quick as possible. 7. He did not act at all manly in that affair. 8. The wheels were exceeding high. 9. Not near so handsome as she was. 10. Who calls so loud? 11. How bright the stars shine to-night! 12. Strike hard or not at all. 13. He stood triumphant on the summit. 14. Live happy! 15. Come, play fair!

EXERCISE 127.

§§ 227-230. Correct or justify the repetition or omission of the Article in the following sentences:—

1. The spider and fly are natural enemies. 2. The spider beholding the chasms, the ruins, and the dilapidations of his fortress, was very near at his wit's end (§ 229). 3. I visit all the flowers and blossoms of the field and garden. 4. The decline and fall of the Roman empire. 5. The eastern frontier was faintly marked by the mutual fears of the Germans and the Sarmatians. 6. In the time of Cæsar the rein-deer, as well as the elk and the wild bull, was a native of the Hercynian forest. 7. These rude fortifications were designed to secure the women, children, and cattle. 8. Each barbarian fixed his habitation on a spot to which a plain, a wood, or a stream of fresh water had induced him to give the preference. 9. The heavy javelin and sword were the simple weapons by which the Roman legionaries won so many fields. 10. The ox, sheep, ass, and camel must have been domesticated at an earlier period than the horse. 11. The eagle, horse, hippopotamus, and crocodile are impressively described in the Book of Job. 12. The farrier was to be heard of at the sign of the Axe and Cleaver. 13. The meeting requested the secretary and treasurer to bring the subject before the authorities. 14. From grave to gay, from lively to severe,

EXERCISE 128.

- §§ 231, 232. (1.) When is *the* an Adverb? Make five sentences by way of illustration.
- (2.) What Number is the Pronoun *you*? When is the Singular *thou* preferred to *you*?
- (3.) Make three sentences in which *thou* is more appropriate than *you*; and three in which *you* is more appropriate than *thou*.

EXERCISE 129.

- § 233. (1.) Distinguish between the Restrictive and the Conjunctive use of the Relative.
- (2.) State in which of the following sentences the Relative is used restrictively and in which it is used conjunctively:—

1. He that goes a-borrowing goes a-sorrowing. 2. Blessed is the man that walketh not in the counsel of the ungodly. 3. The policeman brought the delinquent before the magistrate, who imposed upon him a fine of five shillings. 4. The sportsman was the squire's chaplain, who had shot one of the blackbirds that so agreeably entertained us. 5. The morning arrived on which we were to entertain our young landlord. 6. My wife insisted on entertaining them all; for which, by the bye, our family was pinched for three weeks after. 7. This style of remark had a very different effect upon Olivia, who mistook it for humour.

8. No flocks that range the valley free,
To slaughter I condemn.
9. Alas! the joys that fortune brings
Are trifling, and decay;
And those who prize the paltry things
More trifling still than they.

- (3.) Make three sentences in which the Relative is used restrictively, and three in which it is used conjunctively.

EXERCISE 130.

- §§ 234, 236. (1.) Parse all the Relative Pronouns occurring in the following sentences:—

1. We are the deliverers of the commonwealth, who ease every man of his burden. 2. A mutiny broke out which all the vigour of Cromwell could hardly quell. 3. I did send to you for gold, which you denied me. 4. You have done that you should be sorry for [see § 97]. 5. After this I allotted to each of the family what they were to do

6. I can't help wondering what you could see in my face, to think me a proper mark for deception.

7. Like whom the fables name of monstrous size,
Titanian or earthborn that warred on Jove.
8. Whom I most hated living, thou hast made mo
With thy religious truth and honesty,
Now in his ashes honour.

(2.) Correct the following, and give reasons for your corrections :—

1. I wonder who they have asked to the party. 2. Whom do you think was there? 3. The man whom you thought was a philanthropist turns out to be a scoundrel. 4. Who should you think I met at the concert? 5. Tell me whom you suppose it was.

EXERCISE 131.

§§ 237-239. (1.) Which Relative Pronoun is most frequently used restrictively?

(2.) Make six sentences in which *that* is preferable to *who* or *which*.

(3.) When may the Relative without impropriety be omitted? Give three examples.

(4.) Correct the following sentences :—

1. The remonstrance he had lately received from the Commons and was dispersed throughout the kingdom. 2. A man whose inclinations led him to be corrupt, and had great abilities to manage and defend his corruptions. 3. Here is a person denies all you have said. 4. Omit nothing may give us aid. 5. Market-gardening was no longer the profitable business it had been. 6. There are so many gratifications attend this public sort of obscurity.

EXERCISE 132.

§§ 241-244. (1.) Before what Pronoun does the Conjunction *than* govern the Objective Case? Make two sentences containing this construction.

(2.) Parse the Relatives in the following sentences :—

1. "Nothing could have exceeded my surprise, who had been led to form the most brilliant expectations."

2. "All this time the sharpshooters—which was most trying to the morale of inexperienced soldiers—harassed them with a galling fire."

(3.) Enumerate the different uses of the Pronoun *it*, giving one example of each.

EXERCISE 133.

§ 245. Correct the following sentences :—

1. Each of these personages come from different provinces in the land of pantomime. 2. Every one of this grotesque family were the creatures of national genius. 3. Every one of these polysyllables still keep their ground. 4. Everything that painting, music, and even place furnish, were called in to interest the audience. 5. Each of them went their own way. 6. Let each take care of themselves. 7. There was a row of limes on either side of the drive. 8. How happy it is that neither of us were ill in the Hebrides! 9. Neither of them bear any sign of ease at all. 10. Neither of the workmen had their tools with them. 11. When consider how each of these professions are crowded . . . 12. They perceive the lion and the eagle, each of them pursuing their prey, towards the eastern gate of Paradise.

EXERCISE 134.

§§ 246–250. Correct or justify the following sentences, giving your reasons in each case :—

1. A lampoon or a satire do not carry in them robbery or murder. 2. One of the popes refused to accept an edition of a saint's works, which were presented to him. 3. To heighten the calamity which the want of these useful labours make every literary man feel . . . 4. The pronunciation of the two vowels have been nearly the same. 5. The use of fraud and perfidy were often subservient to the propagation of the faith. 6. Thomson's 'Seasons' is now comparatively little read. 7. At present the trade is thought to be in a depressed state if less than a million of tons are produced in a year. 8. There sleep many a Homer and Virgil, legitimate heirs of their genius. 9. In such a subject nothing but clearness and simplicity are desirable. 10. A few hours of mutual intercourse dispels the alienation which years of separation may have produced. 11. We have already made such progress, that four or five millions of reduction in our expenditure has taken place. 12. The logical and historical analysis of a language generally in some degree coincides.

EXERCISE 135.

(*Same continued.*)

Correct or justify the following expressions :—

1. Either the one or the other are mistaken. 2. Neither Charles nor his brother were qualified to support such a system. 3. This Thyre, with her twelve children, were notorious robbers. 4. Concerning some of them little more than the names are to be learned from literary history. 5. Half a million human beings was crowded into that labyrinth. 6. There was now a large number of waverers. 7. There are always a set of worthy and moderately gifted men. 8. I am by no means satisfied that the jury were right in finding the prisoner guilty. 9. The House of Commons declines to accept the

Lords' amendments. 10. There were an immense crowd assembled before the doors. 11. The congregation were exceedingly attentive. 12. The committee were sitting at the Town Hall.

EXERCISE 136.

(Collective Nouns continued.)

- (1.) Make six sentences with different Collective Nouns followed by Singular Verbs.
- (2.) Make six sentences with different Collective Nouns followed by Plural Verbs.

N.B.—The same six Collective Nouns may be used in (2) as in (1).

EXERCISE 137.

- §§ 251–258. (1.) What is the principal use of the Subjunctive Mood? Make six sentences with Verbs in the Subjunctive Mood, preceded by six different hypothetical Conjunctions.
- (2.) Make three sentences with *should* as a Principal Verb, and three with *should* forming a Periphrastic Subjunctive.

EXERCISE 138.

(Same continued.)

- (1.) "See thou do it not!" What part of the Verb is *do*, and why? Quote the Rule.
- (2.) "Did I tell this . . . who would believe me?" What Mood is *did I tell*? Express the same by means of a hypothetical Conjunction.
- (3.) Make three sentences in which the Subjunctive is used Optatively.
- (4.) When must the Indicative be used after *if*, *although*, &c.? Make three sentences by way of illustration.
- (5.) What is meant by the *sequence* of Tenses? Give two examples.

EXERCISE 139.

- § 259. (1.) Make six sentences with the Verbs *bid*,

have, watch, hear, feel, dare, followed by the Infinitive Active without *to*.

- (2.) Make six sentences with the Verbs *have, see, hear*, followed by the Infinitive Passive without *to*.
- (3.) "I saw the flowers cut for the bride's bouquet." Parse *cut*.
- (4.) "A soothsayer bids you beware of the Ides of March." What Mood is *beware*? Is there room for a difference of opinion on this point? If so, show why.

EXERCISE 140.

- §§ 260-262. (1.) Make six sentences with an Infinitive Mood as Subject.
- (2.) Make six sentences with an Infinitive Mood as Object.
 - (3.) Account for the use of the Past Infinitive in the following sentence:—

"The graceless youth pulled the old gentleman by the beard, and had like *to have knocked* his brains out."—Spect. No. 359.

EXERCISE 141.

Take the sentences of Exercise 179, and point out the Infinitives with the Verbs upon which they depend.

EXERCISE 142.

- §§ 263-267. (1.) What is meant by the use of the Infinitive as *Complement*?
- (2.) Write out the Complementary Infinitives in the following sentences, with the words upon which they depend. (See specimen on p. 219.)

1. I will do anything to serve you. 2. The Government decided to withdraw the Bill. 3. We resolved to start at once, so as to secure our berths without loss of time. 4. There was at least an attempt to execute the order. 5. In short, to sum up everything in a word, he was an utterly unscrupulous man. 6. Both quick to hear and eager to obey. 7. In spite of all our protestations we were beginning to feel decidedly quilmish. 8. We took care to provide ourselves with all the proper tickling, not forgetting a net to land our prizes. 9. Cense to do evil, learn to do well. 10. Not to make a long story of it, his in-
portunity at last prevailed.

Specimen of mode of working this Exercise.

	Complementary Infinitive.	
No. 1.	to serve	dependent upon verb 'do.'
" 2.	to withdraw	" " 'decided.'

EXERCISE 143.

(Same continued.)

Take the sentences of Exercise 180 and parse *all* the Infinitives occurring in them.

EXERCISE 144.

§§ 268-273. (1.) What is a Gerund?

(2.) Make three sentences with a Gerund as Subject; three with a Gerund as Object; and three with a Gerund under the government of a Preposition.

(3.) When are the forms in *-ing* to be regarded as Nouns, and when are they to be regarded as Gerunds?

EXERCISE 145.

(Same continued.)

(1.) Correct the following expressions:—

1. That commandment which forbids the doing murder . . . 2. The notion of attempting of a compromise . . . 3. The guarding ourselves from universal disaffection by police . . . 4. Much depends on the posing figures and drapery. 5. The dwelling on such thoughts is almost as blamable as the executing of them. 6. He put a stop to making of saleable drugs. 7. In constructing and depicting of characters, Werner, indeed, is little better than a mannerist. 8. In reading of poetry, above all, what forces, through this ignorance, are lost!

(2.) Make six sentences in which forms of the Gerund compounded with **be**, **have**, are introduced.

EXERCISE 146.

§§ 274-276. (1.) Distinguish clearly between the Participle in *-ing* and the Gerund in *-ing*.

(2.) Make six sentences with Participles in *-ing* and six with Gerunds in *-ing*.

(3.) Explain the use of the Imperfect Participle in the following sentence:—

“Looking at the whole circumstances of the case, the following seems the wisest course.”

EXERCISE 147.

§§ 277–284. Correct the following sentences:—

1. Homer describes this river agreeable to the vulgar reading. 2. No one ever acted nobler or more suitable to a great emergency. 3. Faction only fills the town with pamphlets and greater subjects are forgotten. 4. The dead are only happy. 5. The minister was unwillingly induced to accept the amendment. 6. Siberia even has some places where Nature smiles. 7. The sublime Longinus, in somewhat a later period, preserved the spirit of ancient Athens. 8. Always the new age brings with it new men. 9. Still going farther and farther back, we arrive at the name of Paul. 10. His exposition was so clear as even to be plain to the dullest.

EXERCISE 148.

§ 286. (1.) Make three sentences with *except* used as a Preposition and three with *except* used as a Conjunction. Show that in each sentence the rule given is observed.

(2.) How are the so-called Prepositions *save*, *but*, used in Shakspeare?

(3.) Make three sentences with *notwithstanding* used as a Preposition, and three with the same word used as a Conjunction.

EXERCISE 149.

§§ 287–289. Alter the arrangement of the following sentences so as to bring the Prepositions to the end.

1. The letter-case was quickly known to belong to Mr. Burchell, with whom it had been seen. 2. A feast was provided for our reception, to which we at once sat down. 3. The little republic to which I gave laws was regulated in the following manner. 4. He gave Tom a box in which to keep his tools, and a purse in which to keep his money, when he got any. 5. Whence comest thou? 6. Whereof art thou compounded? 7. Of what is brass made? 8. We were the happiest family on which the sun ever shone. 9. From what does this proceed? 10. This is the famous digging from which the monster nugget was obtained.

EXERCISE 150.

(Same continued.)

Alter the arrangement of the following sentences so as to bring the Prepositions before the Pronouns which they govern.

1. What country comest thou from? 2. It is hard to be without a single person to talk to. 3. You know not whom you sit beside. 4. The labour we delight in physics pain. 5. The year Napoleon was born in was also the birth year of Wellington. 6. This was somewhat difficult to accomplish in the posture I then lay in. 7. What port are you bound for? 8. The shore we hope to land on only by report is known. 9. The subjects which I shall have to touch on are as interesting as they are varied. 10. I saw her just above the horizon, decorating and cheering the elevated sphere she just began to move in. 11. Here are principles to live by, here are hopes to die with! 12. You have now heard the principles which Mr. Hastings governs British India upon: you have heard who the persons were whose authority he relies on.

EXERCISE 151.

§ 290, 300. Break up the following complex sentences and paragraphs into simple sentences, beginning each simple sentence with a new line.

1. These resolute men feared neither the rage of ocean, nor the hardships of uncivilized life, neither the fangs of savage beasts, nor the tomahawks of more savage men.

2. All crimes shall cease, and ancient frauds shall fail,
Returning Justice lift aloft her scale,
Peace o'er the world her olive-wand extend,
And white-robed Innocence from heaven descend.

3. As the ears of Isaac received the hopes of escape, which this speech intimated, he began gradually, and inch by inch as it were, to raise himself up from the ground, until he fairly rested upon his knees. 4. The clouds still rested on one half of the tide, insomuch that I could discern nothing in it: but the other appeared to me a vast ocean, planted with innumerable islands that were covered with fruits and flowers, and interwoven with a thousand little shining seas that ran among them. 5. These are the mansions of good men after death, who, according to the degrees and kinds of virtue in which they excelled, are distributed among these several islands, which abound with pleasures of different kinds and degrees, suitable to the relishes and perfections of those who are settled on them: so that every island is a paradise accommodated to its respective inhabitants.

EXERCISE 152.

§ 291. (1.) Correct or justify the following sentences, giving your reason in each case:—

1. Amongst all the champions there was none so doughty as he. 2. Thinkest thou that thou art wiser than me? 3. I think quite as highly of his brother as he. 4. This is good enough for such as him. 5. I would see all men such as thee!

(2.) Point out what part of speech the word *but* is in each of the following sentences.

1. The man is good but not wise. 2. Speak but the word and thousands are ready. 3. This is nothing but the merest jealousy. 4. I cannot but hope well of one whose impulses are so generous. 5. Heaven forbid but I should still be true to him. 6. There is no man but hates me. 7. There's ne'er a villain dwelling in all Denmark, but he's an arrant knave. 8. It cannot be but I am pigeon-livered (i. e. fainthearted).

MISCELLANEOUS EXERCISES IN SYNTAX.

EXERCISE 153.

Correct or justify the following expressions, giving in each case a reason for your decision.

1. Who's it for, eh? (*D.*) 2. One and another has made his bed and so must he lie on it. (*Th.*) 3. No one was to blame but me. (*Th.*) 4. There was only three of us to-day. (*Th.*) 5. Dreams are instances of that agility and perfection which is natural to the faculties. (*Sp.*) 6. In relation to a fortune which they are never likely to come at. (*Sp.*) 7. When folly or superstition strike in. (*Sp.*) 8. In proportion as either of these qualities are wanting. 9. Half a million human beings was crowded into that labyrinth. (*Ma.*)

10. Where nothing save the waves and I
Shall hear our mutual murmurs creep. (*B.*)

EXERCISE 154.

(*Same continued.*)

1. There are so many gratifications attend this public sort of obscurity. (*Sp.*) 2. All that stood at that bar, save him alone, are gone. (*Ma.*) 3. He has an uncle will leave him some thousands. (*Sp.*) 4. Let her as well as I, taste of the tortures. (*Sc.*) 5. The question is whether any one or all of these symptoms suffices. 6. They were all younger than her. 7. Sparta hath many a worthier son than he. (*B.*) 8. A diamond necklace, with pendants of inestimable value, were by this means made more conspicuous. (*Sc.*) 9. But Ferdinand did not do this, and hence has arisen boundless calamities to his country. (*A.*) 10. Of such who, he observed, were good at heart. (*Sp.*)

EXERCISE 155.

(Same continued.)

1. Not upon such as thou. (*Sc.*) 2. When I consider how each of the professions are crowded . . . (*Sp.*) 3. If it were me, I would accept . . . 4. Having arose . . . (*Sp.*) 5. Having drove . . . (*Sp.*) 6. Neither he nor his brother smoke. 7. It is not for such as we to sit with the princes of the land. (*Sc.*) 8. Me and George should not part in anger. (*Th.*) 9. Oh, a cherubim thou wast that did preserve me! (*S.*) 10. Why should all the world be happy but me? 11. About 4 A.M., I felt rather chilly, and got up and put on an overcoat, and then laid down on the car seat. 12. The splendour of the furniture, the decorations and the pictures, were perfectly dazzling.

EXERCISE 156.

(Same continued.)

1. At last there remained only Godfrey and me. 2. Corrupting each their way. (*M.*) 3. Which is thinnest, thine or mine? (*P.*) 4. Let me play tricks and kick the straw, not I. (*G.*) 5. There's no man more independent than me. (*G.E.*) 6. In our extremest fit. (*K.*) The very chiefest apostles. (*E.V.*) 7. There are always a set of worthy men . . . (*S.S.*) 8. A protestant panel may conduct themselves . . . (*S.S.*) 9. The battle of Eylau should have been the signal for the contracting the closest alliance with the Russian government. (*A.*) 10. Whose God is strongest, thine or mine? (*M.*)

EXERCISE 157.

(Same continued.)

1. My robe and mine integrity to heaven
Is all I dare now call my own. (*S.*)

2. The congregation were dispersing. 3. The system and organization of the ring is virtually unknown. 4. Where the Saxons were in the habit of going. (*D.*) 5. Let you and I pray that it may animate our English hearts. (*D.*) 6. Rapine of every kind were the privileges of the feudal lords. (*D.*) 7. I prefer dying rather than to save my life by a mortal sin. 8. Neither my father nor my brother were then in Westmorland. (*Br.*) 9. In consequence of the spite and unfairness that runs through them. (*il.*) 10. His firmness and decision was derived from his mother.

EXERCISE 158.

(Same continued.)

1. Such, and no less is he
On whom depend the sum of things. (*Dr.*)

2. In saying "ay" or "no" the safety of our country and the sum of our well-being lies. 3. It is the only sect that have never persecuted. (*Br.*) 4. To this lady he presented David as his mother. (*D.*) 5. Are you sure it was me? (*D.*) 6. Either a pestilence or a famine, a victory or a defeat, an oracle of the gods or the eloquence of a daring leader, were sufficient . . . (*Gi.*) 7. "Laws" of course is far from having the

charm of "Republic." (*E. Rev.*) 8. The first and second part. (*Co.*)
9. Before the dagger or cup of poison were brought in. 10. Either
the one statement or the other are false.

EXERCISE 159.*

(*Same continued.*)

1. You will soon find such peace which it is not in the power of the world to give. 2. He was no sooner out of the wood but he beheld a glorious scene. 3. Other geniuses I put in the second class; not as I think them inferior to the first, but for distinction's sake. 4. Many writers employ their art in propagating of vice. 5. You have weakened instead of strengthened your case. 6. The Chinese laugh at European institutions which are lain out by rule and line. 7. It bears some remote analogy with what I have described. 8. When we look at English comedies, we would think that their authors do not care to brand the vices they describe. 9. You are in no danger of him.

EXERCISE 160.

(*Same continued.*)

1. It is quite true, what you say. 2. The latter solution is more preferable. 3. We guarded Sir Walter in the same manner that we brought him to the playhouse.

4. What shall we say, since silent now is he,
 Who when he spoke, all things would silent be.

5. Of all others he is the ablest man they have. 6. The Thames is derived from the Latin *Tamensis*. 7. I am afraid you will be displeased with my meddling, which I should on no account have dared to do had not the alteration been small. 8. There are often a great variety of causes at work.

EXERCISE 161.

(*Same continued.*)

1. Every thought and feeling are opposed to it. 2. Methinks I see a mighty nation renewing her youth. 3. I had wrote to him the day before. 4. It was sang at the Philharmonic last year. 5. Ill would it fare with your lordship and I, if such a law should pass in parliament. 6. Such a periodical as Arnold would have loved and Coleridge promise to contribute to.

7. No other river such fine salmon feed,
 Nor Taff, nor Tay, nor Tyne, nor Thames,
 Nor Trent nor Tweed.

8. You may take either of the nine. 9. The porch was the same width with the temple.

* Exercises 159-165 selected from the Matriculation Papers of the University of London.

EXERCISE 162.

(Same continued.)

1. It is most likely that neither of these is the correct version. 2. This man and that man was born there. 3. In modern English two negatives destroy one other. 4. Every one has their faults. 5. The admiration of his poem was unanimous. 6. The boats were drawn ashore, having first taken out the cargo. 7. He trusted to have equalled the Most High. 8. The Duke of Wellington is not one of those who interferes with matters over which he has no control. 9. We know little, individually, of his hearers.

EXERCISE 163.

(Same continued.)

1. Let each esteem other better than themselves. 2. Are either of these men your friend? 3. It is not me who he is in love with. 4. Who shall I give it to? 5. They will never believe but what I have been to blame. 6. Neither precept nor discipline are so forcible as example. 7. The thunder was heard roll over our heads. 8. I am verily a man who am a Jew. 9. Extravagance as well as parsimony are to be avoided.

EXERCISE 164.

(Same continued.)

1. His worship and strength is in the clouds. 2. Neither Charles nor William were there. 3. Good order and not mean savings produce great profit. 4. The two first boys in the class. 5. Alfred, than whom wiser prince never governed England. 6. He does not know but what it is true. 7. Are either of these horses yours? 8. He went away all of a sudden. 9. It was thought to be he. 10. All the better.

EXERCISE 165.

(Same continued.)

1. Many a time. 2. Each shall be rewarded in their turn. 3. Between you and I, there is little hope that I will succeed. 4. A few hours of intercourse is enough for forming a judgment in the case. 5. His aversion from that cause is strong. 6. All males are of the masculine gender. 7. Him excepted all were lost. 8. He is not the man as told me the story. 9. That is not such a practice as I can sanction. 10. The following facts may, or have been adduced on the other side.

EXERCISES ON THE ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES

EXERCISE 166.

- § 302. (1.) Make three sentences, each having the Subject a Noun.
- (2.) Make three sentences, each having the Subject a Pronoun.
- (3.) Make three sentences, each having the Subject an Adjective with a Noun understood.
- (4.) Make three sentences, each having the Subject an Infinitive Mood or Gerund.

EXERCISE 167.

§ 303. Arrange in columns the Subjects and Predicates of the following sentences:—

1. The lighthouse was destroyed. 2. The tempest raged. 3. Blessed are the peacemakers. 4. Great is Diana-of-the-Ephesians. 5. Depart ye! 6. Fallen is Babylon-the-Great. 7. The playhouse is in flames. 8. The ship sank. 9. To see is to be convinced. 10. (It) is proverbial that bad masters make bad servants.

N.B. State in each case of what the subject consists.

EXERCISE 168.

(Same continued.)

- (1.) Add to the following Subjects, Predicates consisting each of a single word [Simple Predicates]: *dog*—*sheep*—*tempests*—*the sun*—*stars*—*the wind*.
- (2.) Add suitable enlargements to the following Nouns:—*Wolsey*—*Cranmer*—*Milton*—*Nelson*—*Wellington*—*Franklin*.
- (3.) Add suitable Predicates to the above Subjects so enlarged.

EXERCISE 169.

(Same continued.)

- (1.) Make six sentences, each with the Predicate consisting of a Verb and Noun or Adjective Complement.

- (2.) Make six sentences, each with the Predicate consisting of a Verb and Infinitive Complement.

EXERCISE 170.

§ 304. (1.) Make six sentences, each containing a Direct and Indirect Object.

- (2.) Arrange the same sentences in a tabular form so as to exhibit Subject, Direct Object, Indirect Object, and Predicate.

EXERCISE 171.

§§ 305, 306. (1.) Distinguish between Enlargements and Extensions.

- (2.) Make twelve sentences, each having some kind of Extension of the Predicate.

N.B. Each kind of extension to be introduced three times.

EXERCISE 172.

Simple Sentences for Analysis.

1. The chief in silence strode before. (S.) 2. My eldest son, George, was bred at Oxford. (G.) 3. Here the poor boy was locked-in by himself all day. (L.) 4. We had plenty of recreation after school-hours. (L.) 5. So loud a report startled my daughters. (G.) 6. Adulation ever follows the ambitious. (G.) 7. The horsemen soon overtook them on the road. (S.) 8. We were sitting one night by the fire, alone. (D.) 9. I deplored his untimely death most sincerely. (D.) 10. They both had little bright round twinkling eyes. (D.)

EXERCISE 173.

Simple Sentences continued.

1. The gentleman spoken-of had a tall white hat on. [Connect, had-on.] (D.) 2. My aunt covered her eyes thoughtfully with her hands. (D.) 3. Next morning, after breakfast, I commenced school-life again. (D.) 4. He looked again over his shoulder towards the glimmering sea-line. (D.) 5. The mild Mr. Chillip could not possibly bear malice at such a moment. (D.) [Connect, could-bear: not, extension of pred.] 6. She was thoughtfully sticking her needle into her face . . . all the time (D.) 7. His hair must-have-taken all the obstinacy out of his character. (D.) 8. Our little habitation was-situated at the foot of a sloping hill. (G.)

9. There she weaves by night and day
A magic web with colours gay. (T.)

10. Here to the houseless child of want
My door is open still. (G.)

EXERCISE 174.

Simple Sentences continued.

[ENLARGEMENTS IN FORM OF PREPOSITIONAL-PHRASES
INTRODUCED.]

1. Fine old Christmas, with the snowy hair and ruddy face, had done his duty that year in the noblest fashion. (*E.*) 2. The complaints of the old man excited the indignation of the bystanders. (*Sc.*) 3. He carried a jaunty sort of a stick, with a large pair of rusty tassels to it. (*D.*) 4. He was a tall shambling youth, with a cast in his eye, not at all calculated to conciliate hostile prejudices. (*L.*) 5. Over the little mantelshelf was a picture of the Sarah Jane lugger, built at Sunderland, with a real wooden stem stuck on to it. (*D.*) 6. The shouts of the multitude, together with the acclamations of the heralds, . . . announced the triumph of the victors. (*Sc.*) 7. A fellow with a bundle of straw for my bed . . . led me along a dark narrow passage into a paved room. (*G.*)

8. So all day long the noise of battle rolled
 Among the mountains by the winter sea. (*T.*)

9. The grey-haired, venerable-looking old man, with no flaps to his pocket-holes, talked a long string of learning about Greek. (*G.*)

10. One summer noon, an arm
 Rose up from out the bosom of the lake,
 Clothed in white samite, mystic, wonderful,
 Holding the sword. . . . (*T.*)

EXERCISE 175.

Simple Sentences continued.

[DIRECT AND INDIRECT OBJECT.]

1. The dwarf dealt one of the champions a most angry blow. (*G.*) 2. The blow did the Saracen but very little injury. (*G.*) 3. You will not refuse me that favour. (*Sc.*) 4. Just at that instant a servant delivered him a card. (*G.*) 5. In this office Mr. Crispe kindly offers all his Majesty's subjects a generous promise of 30*l.* a year. . . . (*G.*) 6. Friend I do thee no wrong. (*E. V.*) [*The Voc., friend, does not enter into the analysis.*] 7. I have settled on him a good annuity for life. (*G.*) 8. Some of them did us no great honour by these claims of kindred. (*G.*) 9. Sometimes, with the music-master's assistance, the girls would give us an agreeable concert. (*G.*) 10. At last a small cure of fifteen pounds a year was offered me in a distant neighbourhood. (*G.*)

EXERCISE 176.

Simple Sentences continued.

[INVERSIONS INTRODUCED.]

1. In front of me sat an old lady in a great fur cloak (*D.*) 2. A barking sound the shepherd hears. (*W.*)

3. Within a windowed niche of that high hall
Sate Brunswick's fated chieftain. (*B.*)
4. Then rose from sea to sky the sad farewell. (*B.*)
5. Then shook the hills by thunder riven;
Then rushed the steed to battle driven;
[And] louder than the bolts of heaven
Far flashed the red artillery. (*C.*)
[To be treated as three separate sentences.]
6. On the right shoulder of the mantle there was cut, in white
cloth, a cross of peculiar form. (*Sc.*) [In analysis, omit "there."] 7.
Beside each person of rank was placed a goblet of silver. (*Sc.*) 8. There
comes out of the cloud, our house—not new to me but quite familiar—
in its earliest remembrance. (*D.*) [Treat "not new . . . familiar," as
one phrase.]
9. Ill could the haughty Daere brook
His brother warden's sage rebuke. (*Sc.*)
10. Then went Sir Bedivere the second time
Across the ridge, . . .
Counting the dewy pebbles, fixed in thought. (*T.*)
11. Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight,
[And] all the air a solemn stillness holds. (*Gr.*)
[Treat as two separate sentences.]
12. Full many a gem of purest ray serene
The dark unfathomed caves of ocean bear. (*Gr.*)

EXERCISE 177.

Simple Sentences continued.

[NOUN AND ADJECTIVE COMPLEMENTS.]

1. I have made thee, my country, the wonder of earth. (*B.*)
2. All sat mute
pondering the danger with deep thought. (*M.*)
3. In this infernal vale first met, Thou call'st
Me Father. (*M.*)
4. These rufflings will only make us hated by all the wives of our
neighbours. (*G.*)
5. Our torments also may in length of time
Become our elements. (*M.*)
6. Young Francesca's hand remain'd
Still by the church's bonds unchain'd. (*B.*)
7. In this manner, I considered my children as a very valuable pre-
sent made to my country. (*G.*) ["As" disregarded in analysis.]
8. Numberless were those bad angels seen,
Hovering on wing under the cope of Hell. (*M.*)

9. Sage he stood
With Atlantean shoulders fit to bear
The weight of mightiest monarchies. (*M.*)
10. This place lies exposed,
The utmost border of his kingdom. (*M.*)

EXERCISE 178.

Simple Sentences continued.

[INFINITIVE AND GERUND INTRODUCED.]

1. Our going thither is uncertain. (*Sc.*)
2. There was arming heard in Valencia's halls. (*Ue.*)
3. I hate to learn the ebb of time
From you dull steeple's drowsy chime. (*Sc.*)
4. His trust was with the Eternal to be deem'd
Equal in strength. (*M.*)
5. I remember his pointing with his wooden sword. (*Sc.*) 6. I could not avoid expressing my concern at seeing a gentleman in such circumstances. (*G.*) 7. It was worse in the days of winter to go prowling about the streets. (*L.*)
8. 'Tis something in the dearth of fame . . .
To feel at least a patriot's shame. (*B.*)
9. 'Twere better by far
To have match'd our fair cousin with young Lochinvar. (*Sc.*)
10. It cost some exercise of the white truncheon, well seconded by the exertions of the domestics, to silence this canine clamour. (*Sc.*)

EXERCISE 179.

Simple Sentences continued.

[INFINITIVE COMPLEMENTS.]

1. I see before me the gladiator lie. (*B.*)
2. My wife would bid the girls hold up their heads. (*G.*)
3. And did they dare
Obey my frenzy's jealous ravings? (*B.*)
4. I never knew one of the travellers find fault with our gooseberry wine. (*G.*)
5. To me 'tis doubly sweet to find
Remembrance of that love remain. (*B.*)
6. I would fain lay my ineffectual fingers on the spoke of the great wheel of the years. (*L.*) 7. Now I . . . see her solitary brother pass through the dark streets at night, looking among the wandering faces (*D.*) 8. I have known him double his knotty fist at a poor trembling child with the maternal milk hardly dry upon his lips. (*L.*)

Still I feel

My father's slow hand

Stroke out my childish curls across his knee. (*E. B.*)

10. I have seen your bed-makers in spectacles drop me a curt-sy, mistaking me for something of their own sort. (*L.*)

EXERCISE 180.

Simple Sentences continued.

[INFINITIVE AS COMPLEMENT CONTINUED.]

1. Mr. Wilmot was by this blow soon determined to break-off the engagement. (*G.*) 2. By that time, I began to have a hearty contempt for the poor animal myself. (*G.*) 3. At that age I should have been disposed to laugh-at the grotesque Gothic heads grinning in stone around the inside of the old Round Church of the Templars. (*L.*) 4. The old gentleman, hearing my name mentioned, seemed to look-at me for some time with attention. (*G.*) 5. Mr. Spiker, after the receipt of such a confidence, naturally desired to favour his friend with a confidence of his own. (*D.*) 6. George was to depart for town the next day, to secure his commission, in pursuance of his generous patron's directions. (*D.*) 7. I am about to establish myself in one of the provincial towns of our favoured island, in immediate connexion with one of the learned professions. (*D.*) 8. Mankind in general are observed to warp their speculative conclusions to the bent of their individual humours. (*L.*) 9. Instead of returning him a decent acknowledgment, she appeared to resent his compliments. (*L.*) 10. It was not difficult for me, on Peggotty's solicitation, to resolve to stay with her until after the poor carrier's funeral. (*D.*)

EXERCISE 181.

Simple Sentences continued.

[NOMINATIVE OMITTED, AND IMPERSONAL VERBS.]

1. Together let us beat this ample field. (*P.*)
2. Let us draw upon content for the deficiencies of fortune. (*G.*)
3. Earth! render back from out thy breast
A remnant of the Spartan dead. (*B.*)
4. Then rest you in Tantallon hold. (*Sc.*)
5. Behold the child, by Nature's kindly law,
Pleased with a rattle, tickled with a straw. (*P.*)
6. There behoves him to set up the standard of her grace. (*Ma.*)
7. Let thy gentle fingers fling
A melting murmur o'er mine ear. (*B.*)
8. Me lists not at this tide declare
The splendour of the spousal rite. (*Sc.*)

9. Let us not then pursue,
By force impossible our state
Of splendid vassalage. (*M.*)
10. Now possess
. a spacious world, to our native Heaven
Little inferior, by my adventure hard,
With peril great achieved. (*M.*)

EXERCISE 182.

Simple Sentences continued.

[INFINITIVE AS COMPLEMENT CONTINUED.]

1. We were all desirous to show ourselves very grateful to him. (*D.*)
2. Mr. Thornhill made no efforts to restrain her nuptials. (*G.*) 3. The butler, in his master's absence, had a mind to cut a figure for my entertainment. (*G.*) 4. He was able to retire at night to enjoy himself at a club of his fellow-cripples over a dish of hot meat and vegetables. (*L.*) [Treat the whole phrase, "to retire . . . vegetables," as complement.] 5. Some efforts to cut a portion of the wreck away were then being made. (*D.*) 6. I received an awful summons to attend the presence of the whole assembled firm in the formidable back-parlour. (*L.*) 7. The creation of the world had not, in my opinion, anything to do with my business. (*G.*) 8. After an elaborate estimate of his resources, he had come to the conclusion to select a sum representing the amount with compound interest. (*D.*)
9. Fell not from Heaven spirit more gross to love
Vice for itself. (*M.*)
10. Railing at the writer with unrestrained resentment, my wife had scarcely patience to hear me to the end. (*G.*)

EXERCISE 183.

§ 308. *Co-ordinate and Contracted Sentences.*

1. Fair Science frowned not on his humble birth,
But Melancholy marked him for her own. (*Gr.*)
2. The Moor had belaguered Valencia's hall,
And lances gleamed up through her citron-bowers,
And the tents of the desert had girt her plain,
And camels were trampling the vines of Spain. (*He.*)
3. The curfew tolls the knell of parting day,
The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea,
The ploughman homeward plods his weary way,
And leaves the world to darkness and to me. (*Gr.*)
4. Die he, or Justice must. (*M.*)
5. The freshening breeze of eve unfurled t' at banner's massy fold.
The parting gleam of sunshine kissed that haughty scroll of gold,
Night sank upon the dusky beach, and on the purple shore:
Such night in England ne'er had been, nor e'er again shall be.
(*Ma.*)

6. Slowly and sadly we laid him down,
From the field of his fame fresh and gory,
We carved not a line, and we raised not a stone,
But we left him alone in his glory. (*Wolfe*)
7. No war nor battle's sound
Was heard the world around,
The idle spear and shield were high up hung. (*M*)
8. That oaten pipe of hers is mute,
Or thrown away: but with a flute
Her loneliness she cheers:
This flute, made of a hemlock stalk,
At evening in his homeward walk,
The Quantock woodman hears. (*W*)

EXERCISE 184.

§§ 309-315. *Complex Sentences.*

[ADVERBIAL SENTENCES INTRODUCED.]

1. While our thoughts were thus employed, the hostess entered the room. (*G*) 2. They fought equally, until the miller began to lose temper at finding himself so stoutly opposed. (*Sc*) 3. His countenance bore as little the marks of self-denial, as his habit indicated contempt of worldly splendour. (*Sc*) 4. When the two champions stood opposed to each other at the two extremities of the lists, the public expectation was strained to the highest pitch. (*Sc*) 5. Open rebuke is better than secret love. (*Eng. Bible*) 6. The same execrable tyranny drove the younger part of us from the fires, when our feet were perishing with cold. (*L*) 7. There has not been a lawsuit in the parish, since he has lived among them. (*G*)

8. I am so deeply smitten through the helm,
That without help I may not last till morn. (*T*)

9. As I had some opinion of my son's prudence, I was willing to entrust him with this commission. (*G*) 10. Though the same room served us for parlour and kitchen, that only made it the warmer. (*G*)

EXERCISE 185.

Complex Sentences continued.

[ADJECTIVAL SENTENCES INTRODUCED.]

1. We are the deliverers of the commonwealth, who ease every man of his burden. (*Sc*) 2. This petty Nero actually branded a boy who had offended him with a red-hot iron. (*L*) 3. The greatest part of Sir Roger's estate is tenanted by persons who have served himself or his ancestors. (*Spect*) 4. A mutiny broke out which all the vigour and resolution of Cromwell could hardly quell. (*Ma*) 5. I determined to send my eldest son to town, where his abilities might contribute to our support. (*G*) 6. The austere Puritans who bore sway at Edinburgh, had permitted Charles to assume the crown. (*Ma*) 7. I had

reached that stage of sleepiness, when Peggotty seemed to grow immensely large. (*D.*) 8. We agreed to breakfast together on the honey-suckle bank, where my youngest daughter, at my request, joined her voice to the concert on the trees above us.

9. I did send
To you for gold to pay my legions,
Which you denied me. (*Sh.*)
10. Whom I most hated living, thou hast made me
With thy religious truth and modesty,
Now in his ashes honour. (*Sh.*)

EXERCISE 186.

[ADJECTIVAL SENTENCES CONTINUED.]

1. After this, I allotted to each of the family what they were to do. (*G.*) 2. Bring home every night what money you earn for our support. (*G.*) 3. Here I am to speak what I do know. (*Sh.*) 4. You have done that you should be sorry for. (*Sh.*)
5. This same day
Must end the work the ides of March begun. (*Sh.*)
6. I can't help wondering at what you could see in my face, to think me a proper mark for deception. (*G.*)
7. Let all the ends thou aim'st at be thy Country's,
Thy God's, and Truth's. (*Sh.*)
8. The vile strength man wields
For earth's destruction, thou dost all despise,
Hurling him from thy bosom to the skies. (*B.*)
9. The flinty couch we now must share,
Shall seem with down of eider piled,
If thy protection hover near. (*Sc.*)
10. Report speaks you a bonny monk, that would hear the matin chime ere he quitted his bowl. (*Sc.*)

EXERCISE 187.

[NOUN SENTENCES INTRODUCED.]

1. Frugal by habit, they scarcely knew that temperance was a virtue. (*G.*) 2. I soon found by their looks they had met with a thousand misfortunes on the road. (*G.*) 3. I should like to hear how that is made good. (*Sc.*) 4. Finding himself now at his ease, he demanded of the guide who and what he was. (*Sc.*) 5. That the king could not impose taxes without consent of Parliament is admitted to have been, from time immemorial, a fundamental law of England. (*Ma.*) 6. Wentworth distinctly saw in what manner alone his end could be obtained. (*Ma.*)
7. Tell me not, in mournful numbers,
Life is but an empty dream. (*Lo.*)

8. Who was to represent the Queen of Beauty and of Love, on the present occasion, no one was prepared to guess. (*Sc.*)

9. Alp knew by the turbans that rolled on the sand
The foremost of these were the best of his band. (*B.*)

10. I thought ten thousand swords must have leaped from their scabbards to avenge even a look that threatened her with insult. (*Burke.*)

EXERCISE 188.

[MISCELLANEOUS EXAMPLES.]

1. A few weeks before the death of Elizabeth the conquest [of Ireland], which had been begun more than a hundred years before by Strongbow, was completed by Mountjoy. (*Mt.*)

2. It's dull in our town since my playmates left!
I can't forget that I'm bereft
Of all the pleasant sights they see,
Which the Piper also promised me. (*R. B.*)

3. The part of the mill she liked best was the topmost story, where were the great heaps of grain, which she could sit on and slide down continually. (*G. E.*)

4. Chief
Thee, Sion, and the flowery brooks beneath,
That wash thy hallowed feet, and warbling flow,
Nightly I visit. (*M.*)

5. Since such were the consequences of going to law, Tom thought his father really blameable, as his aunts and uncles had always said he was. (*G. E.*)

6. Ill fares the land, to hastening ills a prey,
Where wealth accumulates and men decay.
Princes and lords may flourish or may fade,
A breath can make them, as a breath hath made. (*G.*)

7. If the knight touched his opponent's shield with the reverse of his lance, the trial of skill was made with what were called the arms of courtesy. (*Sc.*)

8. Half afraid, he first
Against the window beats; then, brisk alights
On the warm hearth; then, hopping o'er the floor,
Eyes all the smiling family askance,
And pecks, and starts, and wonders where he is:
Till, more familiar grown, the table crumbs
Attract his slender feet. (*Th.*)

9. Maggie hung on his neck in rather a strangling fashion, while his blue-grey eyes wandered towards the croft and the river, where he promised himself that he would begin to fish to-morrow morning. (*G. E.*)

10. As Chaos, which, by heavenly doom,
Had slept in everlasting gloom,
Started with terror and surprise
When light first flashed upon her eyes--

So London's sons in nightcap woke,
 In bedgown woke her dames :
 For shouts were heard 'mid fire and smoke,
 And twice ten hundred voices spoke—
 "The playhouse is in flames!" (H. S.)

11. In November, 1640, met that renowned Parliament which, in spite of many errors and disasters, is justly entitled to the reverence and gratitude of all who enjoy the blessings of constitutional government. (Ma.)

12. Nor second he that rode sublime
 Upon the seraph wings of ecstasy,
 The secrets of the abyss to spy ;
 He passed the flaming bounds of space and time :
 The living throne, the sapphire blaze,
 Where angels tremble while they gaze,
 He saw : but, blasted with excess of light,
 Closed his eyes in endless night. (Gr.)

13. Traddles never said who the real offender was, though he smarted for it next day, and was imprisoned so many hours that he came forth with a whole church-yardful of skeletons swarming all over his Latin dictionary. (D.)

14. There he slept.
 And dream'd, as appetite is wont to dream,
 Of meats and drinks, Nature's refreshment sweet ;
 Him thought, he by the brook of Cherith stood
 And saw the ravens with their horny beaks
 Food to Elijah bringing even and morn. (M.)

15. The numerous cooks who attended on the prince's progress, having exerted all their art in varying the forms in which the ordinary provisions were served up, had succeeded in rendering them perfectly unlike their natural appearance. (Sc.)

16. He scarce had finish'd, when such murmur fill'd
 Th' assembly, as when hollow rocks retain
 The sound of blustering winds, which all night long,
 Had roused the sea now with hoarse cadence lull
 Sea-faring men o'erwatch'd, whose bark by chance
 Or pinnace anchors in a craggy bay
 After the tempest. (M.)

17. She had told Tom that she should like him to put the worms on the hook for her, although she accepted his word when he assured her, that worms couldn't feel. (G. E.)

18. The large white owl that with age is blind,
 Is carried away in a gust of wind,
 His wings could bear him not as fast
 As he goeth now the lattice past—
 He is borne by the winds ; the rains do follow. (E. B.)

19. A few minutes' pause having been allowed that the combatants and their horses might recover breath, Prince John with his truncheon signed to the trumpets to sound the onset. (Sc.)

20. From yonder wall
 There flashed no fire, and there hissed no ball,
 Though he stood beneath the bastion's frown
 That flanked the seaward gate of the town,
 Though he heard the sound, and could almost tell
 The sullen words of the sentinel
 As his measured step on the stones below
 Clanked as he paced it to and fro. (*B.*)

21. The squire's life was quite as idle as his sons', but it was a fiction kept up by himself and his contemporaries that youth was exclusively the period of folly. (*G. E.*)

22. As when the potent rod
 Of Amram's son in Egypt's evil day
 Waved round the coast, up-call'd a pitchy cloud
 Of locusts, warping on the eastern wind,
 That o'er the realm of impious Pharaoh hung
 Like night, and darkened all the land of Nile,
 So numberless were those bad angels seen
 Hovering on wing under the cope of Hell
 'Twixt upper, nether, and surrounding fires. (*M.*)

23. Seen at a little distance as she walked across the churchyard and down the village, she seemed to be attired in pure white, and her hair looked like a dash of gold on a lily. (*G. E.*)

24. Now when the rosy-fingred Morning faire
 Weary of aged Tithones saffron bed,
 Had spread her purple robe through dewy aire,
 And the high hills Titan discovered,
 The royall virgin shook off drowsyhed;
 And, rising forth out of her baser bowre
 Lookt for her knight, who far away was fled,
 And for her dwarfe, that went to wait each howre
 Then gan she wail and weepe to see that woeful stowre. (*Sp.*)

EXERCISES IN PUNCTUATION.

EXERCISE 189.

(*Period or Full Stop.*)

§ 363. Punctuate :—

1. I pass over all that happened at school until the anniversary of my birthday I remember scarcely anything about it. 2. I left Salem House upon the morrow afternoon I little thought then that I left it never to return. 3. His hair was quite white now he was very neatly dressed in a blue coat. 4. We went home early in the evening it was a very fine evening. 5. I observed that Mr. Murdstone was graver and steadier than the two gentlemen they were very gay and careless they joked freely with one another. 6. Both plots were soon discovered cowardly traitors listened to save themselves. 7. Valuable plate was often set on the table there were signboards which had cost thirty or forty pounds. 8. The innkeepers were not like other innkeepers on the

Continent the landlord was the tyrant of those who crossed the threshold in England he was the servant. 9. The military glory of France was at the height she had vanquished mighty coalitions she had subjugated great cities and provinces. 10. There was no sympathy between the two classes the earnest of each was the jest of the other the pleasures of each were the torments of the other.

EXERCISE 190.

(Colon and Semicolon.)

§§ 364, 365. Punctuate :—

1. The king alone was entitled to convoke the estates of the realm he could at his pleasure dismiss them. 2. Edward the First ventured to break through the rule but he encountered an opposition to which he found it expedient to yield. 3. His grandson attempted to violate this solemn compact but the attempt was strenuously withstood. 4. They were interdicted from taxing but they claimed the right of begging and borrowing. 5. The art of war has been carried to a perfection unknown to former ages and the knowledge of that art is confined to a particular class. 6. No resource was left but a Parliament and in the spring of 1640 a Parliament was convoked. 7. The extreme section of one class consists of bigoted dotards the extreme section of the other consists of shallow and restless empirics. 8. Hampden's regiment was regarded as one of the best and even Hampden's regiment was described by Cromwell as a mere rabble of tapsters and serving men out of place. 9. The siege of Gloucester was raised the Royalists in every part of the kingdom were disheartened and the lords hastened back from Oxford to Westminster. 10. His troops were comparatively few but he was little in the habit of counting his enemies.

EXERCISE 191.

(Same continued.)

Punctuate :—

1. He publicly disclaimed all thought of calling in foreign aid against his people he privately solicited aid from France and from Denmark. 2. France was our old enemy it was against France that the most glorious battles recorded in our annals had been fought the conquest of France had been twice effected by the Plantagenets. 3. For a time his suggestions had been slighted but it was now thought expedient to act upon them. 4. He represented to them that the relaxation of discipline had introduced a long series of disorders that a people ruined by oppression could no longer supply a numerous army with the means of luxury that the danger of each individual had increased with the despotism of the military order. 5. A select body of the Gothic youth was received among the imperial troops the remainder was sold into servitude. 6. The youths he trained in the exercise of arms to the damsels he gave a liberal and Roman education and he gradually introduced between the two nations the closest and most endearing connections. 7. From an early period the kings of England had been assisted by a Privy Council during several centuries this body deliberated on the most delicate affairs by degrees its character changed it became too large for dispatch and secrecy. 8. The national spirit swelled and rose high the terms offered by the

allies were firmly rejected the dykes were opened the whole country was turned into a great lake. 9. Charles was insatiably greedy of French gold he had by no means relinquished the hope of establishing absolute monarchy by force of arms. 10. Honour all men love the brotherhood fear God honour the king.

EXERCISE 192.

(Comma; with Colon and Semicolon.)

§ 366 and preceding §§. Punctuate:—

1. A few eminent men who belonged to an earlier and better age were exempt from the general contagion. 2. Cowley distinguished as a loyalist and as a man of letters raised his voice courageously against the prevailing immorality. 3. The playhouses shut by the meddling fanatic in the day of his power were again crowded. 4. Scenery dresses and decorations dazzled the eyes of the multitude. 5. To this day Palamon and Arcite Cymon and Iphigenia Theodora and Honoria are the delight both of critics and schoolboys. 6. The wits as a class had been impelled by their hatred of Puritanism to take the side of the Court. 7. Dryden in particular had done good service to the government. 8. Cavalier and Roundhead Churchman and Puritan were for once allied. 9. Divines jurists statesmen nobles princes swelled the triumph. 10. The Treasurer was in truth exposed to the vengeance of Parliament.

EXERCISE 193.

(Same continued.)

Punctuate:—

1. The most probable supposition seems on the whole to be 2. If this were so the assassin must have afterwards bitterly execrated his own wickedness and folly. 3. Accordingly in January 1679 the Parliament which had been in existence ever since the beginning of the year 1661 was dissolved and writs were issued for a new election. 4. The tale of Oates though it had sufficed to convulse the whole realm would not unless confirmed by other evidence suffice to destroy the humblest of those whom he had accused. 5. For by the old law of England two witnesses are necessary to establish a charge of treason. 6. Oates that he might not be eclipsed by his imitators soon added a large supplement to his original narrative. 7. The chief judges of the land were corrupt cruel and timid. 8. The scheme which he proposed showed considerable ingenuity. 9. Among the statesmen of those times Halifax was in genius the first his intellect was fertile subtle and capacious. 10. Instead of quarrelling with the nickname he assumed it as a title of honour.

EXERCISE 194.

(Note of Interrogation, Quotation Marks, &c.)

§§ 367-372. Punctuate:—

1. Pray have patience said the bee or you'll spend your substance and for nought I see you may stand in need of it all. 2. Rogue rogue replied the spider yet methinks you should have more respect to a per-

son whom all the world allows to be so much your better. 3. What mean said I those great flights of birds that are perpetually hovering about the bridge and settling upon it from time to time 4. These said the genius are envy avarice superstition despair love with the like cares and passions that infest human life. 5. I here fetched a deep sigh alas said I man was made in vain here is he given away to misery and mortality tortured in life and swallowed up in death. 6. Then suddenly would come a dream of a far different character a tumultuous dream commencing with a music such as now I often heard in sleep music of preparation and of awakening suspense. 7. In conclusion for the manuscript here is a little tedious both father and son fairly sat down to the mess and never left off till they had despatched all that remained of the litter.

8. I would not enter on my list of friends
Though graced with polish'd manners and fine sense
Yet wanting sensibility the man
Who heedlessly sets foot upon a worm.
9. Unfading Hope when life's last embers burn
When soul to soul and dust to dust return
Heaven to thy charge resigns the awful hour
Oh then thy kingdom comes immortal power.
10. It must be so Plato thou reasonest well
Else whence this pleasing hope this fond desire
This longing after immortality
Or whence this secret dread and inward horror
Of falling into nought Why shrinks the soul
Back on herself and startles at destruction.

APPENDIX I.

ADDITIONAL EXAMPLES OF PARSING.

[ONLY THE MORE DIFFICULT WORDS TREATED.]

- A. "You were silent
- when accused*
- a clear
- confession*
- of guilt."

when: conj. [temporal], connecting sentence, "[you were] accused," to sentence, "you were silent."**accused**: *i.e.* (you) were accused: verb trans. wk. conj. pass. indic. past indef. plur. 2 pers., agr. subject "*you*."**confession**: noun com. neut. abstr. sing. nom., in apposition to sentence "you were silent" (=this was a clear confession).

- B. "
- This done*
- they went to
- dine*
- ."

"A time *to laugh*." . . . "I saw them *killed*."**This**: pron. demonstr. neut. sing. nom. absol. with "*done*." ["*This done*," adverbial phrase modifying verb "*went*."]]**to dine**: verb intrans. wk. conj. act. infin. indef.; complement (adverbial) to "*went*."**to laugh**: . . . complement (adjectival) to noun "*time*."**killed**: . . . pass. infin. indef. (=to be killed: § 259), complement to verb "*saw*."

- C. "
- Let*
- us go;" "
- let*
- A B C be a triangle," &c.

In such cases the word *let* must be parsed as a separate and independent verb, in the Imperative Mood. *Let* is here equivalent to *suffer*, *permit*; and the command or request may be regarded as addressed to some imaginary person or persons whose *permission* is assumed [2nd. pers. sing. or pl. pres. imperative].

- D. "He was busy
- writing*
- letters;" "let us go
- fishing*
- ;" "while the bread was
- baking*
- ."

In such phrases as these, it is sometimes difficult to say whether the form in *ing* should be parsed as a Participle or a Verbal Noun [Gerund, § 268]. It may with propriety be treated as a Verbal Noun, whenever a Preposition might naturally be introduced. Thus: "he was busy *writing* letters," *i.e.* *in* or *at* writing; *writing*, Gerund:—"let us go *fishing*," *i.e.* *on*, *about*, or *for* fishing; *fishing*, Gerund:—"while the bread was *baking*," *i.e.* *in* (the act of) baking; *baking*, Gerund. After the verb to be

the form in *ing* may be treated as a Participle when not used in a passive or reflexive sense: *e.g.* "Noah was *preparing* the ark;" *preparing*, Participle:—"while the ark was *preparing*;" *preparing*, Gerund.

The Infinitive Mood.—It has been seen that the Infinitive Mood is a kind of Noun. As such it may be parsed as either the Subject (§ 260) or the Object (§ 261) of another Verb; or as the Complement of a Verb, a Noun, an Adjective, or an entire sentence (§§ 263-266).

The parsing of a Subject-Infinitive presents no difficulty.

With reference to the Object-Infinitive, there is sometimes a difficulty in deciding whether the preceding Verb is transitive or intransitive. Take the phrase "he hopes to win." The simple Verb *hope* is rarely or never used transitively. In a transitive sense we say, to hope *for*. Yet here *to win* is so evidently the direct Object of *hope*, that it ought in spite of this difficulty to be parsed as an Objective, and not as a mere Complementary Infinitive [Adverbial].

Bear in mind also that some Verbs, taking two Objects in the Active Voice [*teach, ask*, § 209], may retain a single Object in the Passive. Hence in such a sentence as "I was taught *to parse*," *to parse* is object of the Verb *I was taught*, in spite of its being in the Passive Voice.

The Complementary Infinitive after a Verb, Adjective, or entire sentence, is virtually an Adverb, and in parsing should be so described: *e.g.*

I come *to bury* Caesar: *to bury*, Compl. Infin. to "come,"—Adverbial.

Things hard *to be understood*: Compl. infin. to *hard*,—Adverbial.

The Independents were—*to use* the phrase of their time—root and branch men: *to use*, Compl. Infin. to sentence, *The Independents were root and branch men*,—Adverbial.

The Complementary Infinitive after a Noun is virtually an Adjective, and in parsing should be so described: as,

A crime *to be expiated* with blood:—*to be expiated*, Compl. Infin. to *crime*,—Adjectival.

APPENDIX II.

A DIFFERENT MODE OF EXHIBITING THE ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

The tabular form is by no means essential to Analysis. Some may prefer such a mode of arrangement as the following, as being more simple:—

No. 1 (p. 147).

SUBJECT : We
 ENLARGEMENT OF SUBJECT : all
 PREDICATE : assembled
 EXTENSIONS OF PREDICATE : (1) by sunrise (2) in our common apartment.

No. 2 (p. 147).

SUBJECT : predecessor
 ENLARGEMENT OF SUBJECT : my
 PREDICATE : had made
 OBJECT : a seat
 ENLARGEMENT OF OBJECT : overshadowed by a hedge, &c.
 EXTENSION OF PREDICATE : at a small distance from the house.

No. 7 (p. 149).

SUBJECT : the rod
 ENLARGEMENTS OF SUBJECT : (1) potent (2) of Amram's son
 (3) waved round the coast.
 PREDICATE : up-called
 OBJECT : a cloud
 ENLARGEMENTS OF OBJECT : (1) pitchy (2) of locusts, warping on the eastern wind.

Or, "*warping*," i.e. *working shore-ward*, may be taken as referring to the collective noun "*cloud*," rather than to the "*locusts*" forming the "*cloud*."

Further, those who prefer to do so, may use the terms "Adjectival" and "Adverbial," instead of "Enlargement" and "Extension." See §§ 305, 306. Thus—

No. 8 (p. 149).

SUBJECT : winds
 ADJECTIVAL TO SUBJECT . : howling
 PREDICATE w. COMPLEMENT : drive devious
 OBJECT : me
 ADJECTIVALS TO OBJECT . : (1) scarce hoping to attain that rest (2) always from port withheld (3) always distressed
 ADVERBIALS TO PREDICATE : (1) sails rent (2) seams opening wide (3) compass lost.

COMPLEX SENTENCES, No. 1. (p. 158.)

GENERAL ANALYSIS.

- A. I was met at the door by the captain
of a ship : Principal Sentence.
- a¹. (as) I was going out with this reso-
lution : Adv. Sent. to A.
- a². with whom I had formerly some
little acquaintance : Adj. Sent. to "captain."
- B. (and) he agreed to be my companion : Principal sentence, co-ord.
with A.

DETAILED ANALYSIS.

- A. "I was met at the door," &c.
SUBJECT : I
PREDICATE : was met
EXTENSIONS OF PREDICATE : (1) at the door (2) by the captain
of the ship. [Adverbials.]
- a¹. (as) "I was going out," &c.
SUBJECT : I
PREDICATE : was going out
EXTENSION OF PREDICATE : with that resolution. [Ad-
verbial.]
- a². "with whom I had formerly," &c.
SUBJECT : I
PREDICATE : had
OBJECT WITH ENLARGEMENTS : some little acquaintance.
EXTENSION OF PREDICATE. . . : (1) with whom (2) formerly.
[Adverbials.]

Sentence a² may be perhaps more logically analysed thus:—

- SUBJECT : I
PREDICATE : had-some-little-acquaintance-with
OBJECT : whom
EXTENSION OF PREDICATE . . . : formerly. [Adverbial.]
(I have acquaintance with=I know.)
- B. "he agreed," &c.
SUBJECT : he
PREDICATE WITH COMPT. (Adverbial) : agreed to be my companion.

No. 5. (EXERCISE 188.)

GENERAL ANALYSIS.

- A. Tom thought his father really blame-
able : Princ. Sent.
- a¹. (as) his aunts and uncles had always
said [contracted co-ordinate sentences
taken together for brevity] . . . : Adv. Sent. to A.

a². (that) he was [blameable] : Noun Sent. obj. of "said."
 a³. (since) such were the consequences of

going to law : Adv. Sent. to A.

(Detailed Analysis as in previous examples.)

N.B. In this mode of analysis, the capital letters may conveniently be used to mark the Principal Sentences, whether single or co-ordinate; and the small letters, numbered thus, a¹, a², a³, b¹, b², b³, &c., to denote the subordinates to each.

No. 24. (EXERCISE 188.)

- A. Now the royal virgin shook off drousy:
 hed : Princ. Sent.
- a¹. [when] the rosy-fingered Morning fair,
 weary of, had spread . . .
 through dewy air : Adv. Sent. to A.
- a². and [when] the high hills Titan dis-
 covered : Adv. Sent. to A (co-ord.
 with a¹).
- B. (She) rising forth looked for
 her knight . . . and for her dwarfe . . . : Prin. Sent. (contr.) co-ord.
 with A.
- b¹. who (the knight) far away had fled : Adj. Sent. to "knight"
 in B.
- b². that (the dwarfe) wont to wait each
 hour : Adj. Sent. to "dwarfe" in
 B.
- C. Then gan she wail and weep to see
 that woeful stour : Princ. Sent. (contr.) co-
 ord. with A and B.

(Detailed Analysis as in previous examples.)



APPENDIX III.

ON THE INTERCHANGE OF CONSONANTS, as seen by comparison of words belonging to the native English vocabulary (see p. 156) with corresponding words in the Greek and Latin languages, (Græco-Latin branch of the Aryan or Indo-European Family).

At some remote period in the history of the human race, the tribes of the Aryan Family—now so widely dispersed, and broken up into so many distinct branches,—appear to have dwelt together, and to have possessed a common language.

This appears from the identity which can still be traced in a large number of Aryan words, in spite of the changes which they have undergone in different countries, in the course of ages. The words which show this identity are, in almost every case, those which stand for the most common and universal notions: as, *father, mother*; the numerals *one, two, three, &c.*; the personal pronouns *I, thou*; and others.

As we cannot conceive of a language existing without words to express notions such as these, we are led to conclude that the identity referred to points to an original common stock, rather than to a transfer of words from one language to another.

This may be illustrated by observing that our own language, while borrowing freely from Latin and French [Latin in a modified state], has kept its own names for all the simplest and most necessary ideas: § 321.

It is not possible to trace the changes which these originally identical words have undergone, in the same manner as we can trace the gradual transformation of Latin into French or Italian. The materials for such a history do not exist. It is impossible to do more than conjecture why one section of the Aryan Family should have for ages employed an aspirated consonant where another section employs an unaspirated one; or a hard consonant for a soft one (§ 7). But these changes must have taken place according to certain physical laws; and the regularity of interchange between particular consonantal sounds furnishes an unerring clue to the recognition of words fundamentally identical, under their various transformations.

The law of interchange of Consonants is usually called Grimm's Law, from the name of the eminent philologist who was the first to discover and formulate it.

The correspondence of consonants between English and Græco-Latin is as follows:—

1. Labials.

Græco-Latin	:	p	b	f
English	:	f	[p]	b

2. Dentals.

Græco-Latin	t	d	th
English	th	t	d

3. Gutturals.

Græco-Latin	k	g	ch (χ)
English	h	k	g

(for ch)

The above order of interchange may be easily remembered by noting it in figures: thus,

Græco-Latin	1	2	3
English	3	1	2

But no instance appears to have been observed of change of Gr.-Lat. *b* to Eng. *p*.

The letters *l, m, n, r, s*, for the most part remain the same in English as in Græco-Latin.

The interchange of vowel sounds is too difficult a subject to enter upon in an elementary work like the present.

Examples of words showing the above interchange of consonants:—

(1) Græco-Latin	<i>p-a-t-ē-r</i>	<i>f-r-a-t-er</i>	
English	<i>f-a-th-er</i>	<i>b-r-o-th-er</i>	
(2) Græco-Latin	<i>t-r-a-ho*</i>	<i>d-en-t-is</i>	<i>th-ēr</i>
English	<i>d-r-a-g</i>	<i>t-oo-th</i>	<i>d-eer</i>
(3) Græco-Latin	<i>c-orn-u</i>	<i>g-n-ō</i>	<i>ch-ên</i>
English	<i>h-orn</i>	<i>h-n-ow</i>	<i>g-oo-se†</i>

The student may practise himself by tracing the correspondence between the following Greek or Latin words and their English equivalents:—

<i>pellis</i>	<i>skin</i> [<i>fell</i> , as in <i>fellmonger</i>]
<i>ποῦς, ποδός</i>	<i>foot</i>
<i>πῶλος</i>	<i>foul</i>
<i>nepos</i>	<i>grandson</i> [<i>nephew</i>]
<i>pro, por</i>	<i>for, fore</i>
<i>ὄφρις</i>	<i>brow</i>
<i>for-are</i>	<i>bore</i>
<i>fer-o</i>	<i>bear</i>
<i>φόνος</i>	O.E. <i>bana</i> = murderer
<i>tres</i>	<i>three</i>
<i>tonitru</i>	<i>thunder</i>
<i>tectum</i>	<i>roof</i> [<i>thatch</i>]
<i>te</i>	<i>thee</i>
<i>δαΐδω</i>	<i>tame</i>

* In *traho* the *h* had undoubtedly a guttural sound, similar to that of the Greek χ .

† In *goss*, the *s* is a part of the original word which has disappeared in the Greek form: Germ., *gaus*.

δρῦς	<i>oak</i> [tree]
sudo	<i>sweat</i>
sedeo	<i>sit</i>
edo	<i>eat</i>
οὔθαρ	<i>udder</i>
θύρα	<i>door</i>
μέθυ	<i>mead</i>
θε (rt.)	<i>place</i> [do, as in <i>to don</i>]
calamus	<i>reed, stalk</i> [haulm]
καρδία	<i>heart</i>
caput	<i>head</i> : O.E. <i>heafod</i>
δάκρυ	<i>tear</i>
decem	<i>ten</i>
Ἔργον	<i>work</i>
ager	<i>acre</i> *
gen (rt.)	<i>kin</i>
genu	<i>knee</i>
ἄ-μέλω	(to) <i>milk</i>
χθές	<i>yes-terday</i> [spelt with g in O.E.]

* As in the expression *God's acre*, i.e. *God's field*: the churchyard.

THE END.

O.E.]

nyard.

