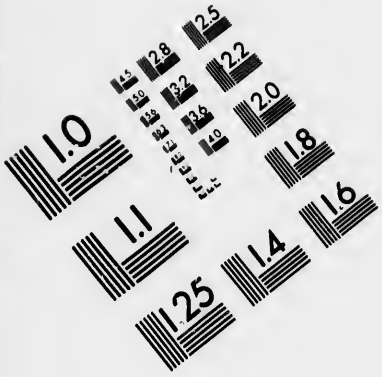

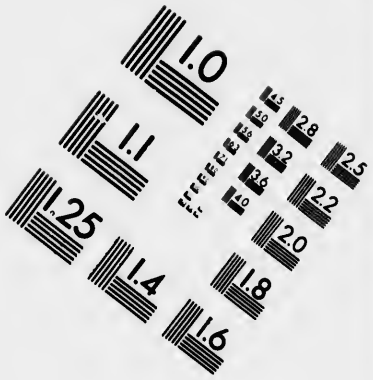

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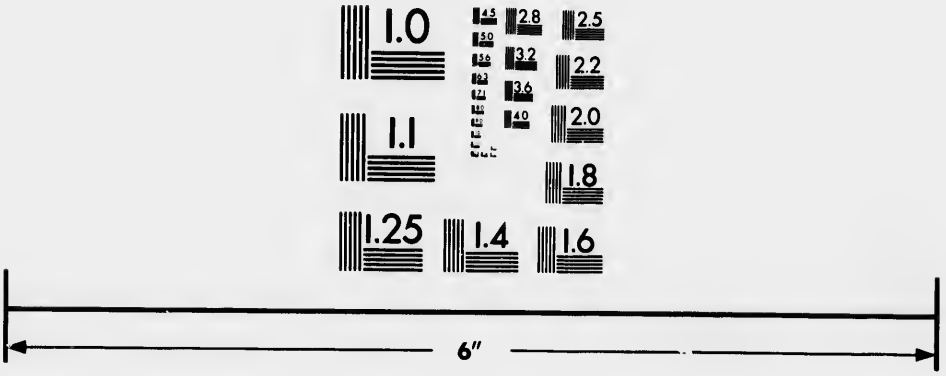

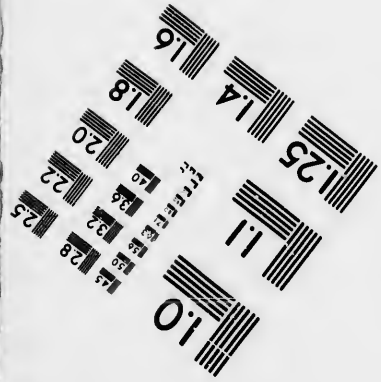

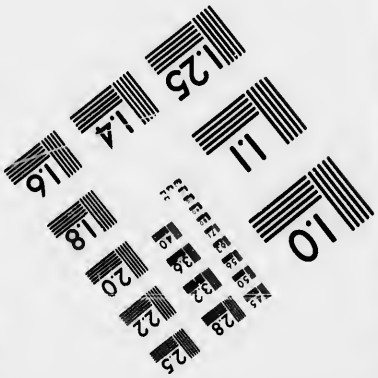

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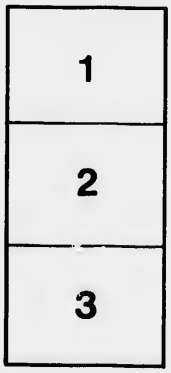

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NOTES ON ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

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NOTES

ON

ENGLISH GRAMMAR

BY

A. ALLEN BROCKINGTON, B.A.,

Master in the Bishop's College School, Lennoxville.

TORONTO:

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PREFACE.

These notes are the outcome of my own experience in teaching English Grammar, of the invaluable instruction of Professor Arber, and of the observations of my brother, Mr. W. A. Brockington, M.A., of the Mason College, Birmingham, England. They would not have been compiled, had it not been thought that they were in some measure needed.

It will be noticed that attention is paid always to the duty that a word performs—what a word *does*. As far as possible the method is inductive, rules and definitions being based upon foregoing examples. A chief object in the arrangement of the book is to enable pupils to *parse* fairly completely at an early stage. Accordingly, a note on the relation of words in sentences is placed immediately after the definitions of the Parts of Speech.

The compiler hopes that the suggested omission of the Abstract Noun, and the slight consideration of the Subjunctive Mood will meet with the approval of teachers. The Abstract Noun is unnecessary for the purposes of grammar, while the Subjunctive mood is rapidly disappearing from English. Sub-classifications are dispensed with, wherever it is convenient or neces-

sary. The philological part has been subordinated to other more rudimentary matter, but it is believed to be accurate and up to date. Exercises have been added where it was thought they would meet the wants of teachers and pupils.

In addition to the gentlemen mentioned, I am indebted to Professor Sonnenschein, whose method deeply impressed me when I attended his classes, and to my friend and colleague, Mr. Bertram Auden, whose suggestions have been of great assistance to me. Principal Adams, D.C.L., of the University of Bishop's College, and Mr. H. J. Hamilton Petry, M.A., Headmaster of the Bishop's College School, have kindly read the proof sheets. My pupils, Mr. F. N. Smith and Mr. H. M. Daly, have helped me to prepare an Index.

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NOTES ON ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

I.—On Parts of Speech.

We may define Language for our purposes as the expression of thoughts by words. Grammar is the science of the use of language. Grammar deals then with words, their changes in form and their arrangements together.

We group words into *Parts of Speech*, but strictly speaking there are no such things. They are merely varieties of logical duty. Just as the same man may at different times perform different duties and be known by different names, so the same word may at different times perform different duties and be known by different names.

For example, in the following sentence the word *back* performs four different duties, and is accordingly known by four different names.

"*Back* the cart into the *back* yard, so that its *back* cannot go any farther *back*."

Similarly the word *that* in the sentence: "He said ***that that that***, ***that*** he had just parsed, was a Pronoun."

After we have fixed upon our names and what they are to signify, we must carefully inquire what a word ***does***, before we give it one of those names.

EXAMPLES.

1. A well-bred child does not think it can teach its parents.
2. I know that none of this wrong is done with deliberate purpose.
3. It is possible.
4. The shrilly whinnyings of the team of hell.
5. Such hearts of oak as they be!
6. The kings rode two and two yesterday.
7. The man completely surpassed himself.
8. Ah! my classifying friend, where will your classes be?
9. Running is a healthy exercise.
10. I see three men.
11. He was an exceedingly good tactician.
12. The lark sings at heaven's gate.
13. The kings were at peace with one another.

(i.) *Child, parents, team, hell, running*, are called Nouns. We notice that all these words are names, and we obtain the definition:

A Noun is a name. (Latin: nomen, *a name.*)

(ii.) *Does (not) think, know, is, rode, surpassed, sings, will be* are called Verbs. They all tell or ask something about somebody or something.

A Verb is a telling or asking word. (Latin: verbum, *word.*)

(iii.) *Deliberate, possible, shrilly, three, your*, are called Adjectives. From an examination of the examples in which these words occur we define:

Adjectives describe, enumerate, or identify what is named. (Latin: adjicere, *to put to.*)

It will be noticed that *deliberate* is an attribute (Latin: ad, *to;* tribuere, *to give*), but that *possible* is a necessary part of the assertion, "It is possible." The Adjective *possible* is called predicative. (Latin: praedicatum, *what is said.*)

(iv.) *It, none, they, himself* are called Pronouns. They stand instead of names; they identify without naming.

A Pronoun is a word used instead of a Noun. (Latin: pro, *instead of;* nomen, *name.*)

(v.) *Yesterday, completely, exceedingly* are called Adverbs. It will be seen that the attribute of "riding" is given to the "kings" (the kings rode), and to this attribute is added another, "yesterday" (the kings rode yesterday). Also in the eleventh example the tactician is given the attribute "good," and this attribute has another, "exceedingly."

An Adverb is an attribute of an attribute. (Latin: ad, *to;* verbum, *word.*)

(vi.) *With, of, at* are called Prepositions:

with shows the relationship between "the doing of the wrong" and the "purpose."

of shows the relationship between "the whinnyings" and "the team."

at shows the relationship between "the singing of the lark" and "the gate of heaven."

Again observe that

with deliberate purpose tells us how, and is adverbial.

at heaven's gate tells us where, and is adverbial.

at peace is the same as *peaceful*, and is adjectival.

Prepositions show the relationship of things, or **Prepositions are used with Nouns or Pronouns to form groups of words equivalent to Adverbs or Adjectives.** (Latin: praeponere, *to place before.*)

(vii.) *That, and,* are called conjunctions:

that connects the two parts of the sentence: "I know" and "none of this wrong is done with deliberate purpose";

and connects the two words "two" and "two."

Conjunctions join together groups of words and single words. (Latin: conjungere, *to join together.*)

(viii.) *Ah!* is called an Interjection. It marks an exclamation outside the expression of the thought.

Interjections are extra-grammatical utterances. (Latin: interjicere, *to throw out in between.*)

These definitions might well be called Grammatical Axioms, and to them might be added:

(ix.) **The Article is an Adjective with special duties.** Some of the arguments for and against the consideration of the Article as a separate Part of Speech will be mentioned later.

EXERCISES—I.

Alkestis.

1. A king lived formerly in Greece, who was well beloved by Apollo. The people then were not believers in one God, but in many gods, and of these Apollo was one of the most powerful. When they worshipped him, they gave thanks for the light of day. Thus, in their own different way, they showed gratitude as much as

we do now. 2. The name of the king was Admetos. His wife was the gentlest, sweetest and most loving woman in Greece. Her name was Alkestis. Now the time had come for Admetos to die, but the noble Apollo besought the chief of the gods to allow some one else to die in his place. 3. The chief of the gods consented. Thereupon Admetos gathered together those, who were dear to him, to see if one among them was willing to do this great thing for him. No one, except Alkestis, had the love and courage to face the dreadful being, Death. 4. She, after the most sorrowful leave-taking of her children and her husband, fell dead and was carried to the tomb. Presently the great Herakles entered the house of mourning. 5. Admetos at first deceived him, concealing from him the fact that the dead woman was his wife, and Herakles passed some time in feasting and drinking. At last he learned the truth, that the wife of his kind host was no more. 6. He determined to go down to the tomb and wrestle with Death for the precious life. This, without the knowledge of Admetos he did, and so mightily he struggled, that he won the woman back. 7. He brought her, veiled, to her husband, and, pretending that she was a stranger in his care, asked Admetos to receive her into his house. When Admetos refused to take her, Herakles drew the veil from the woman's face and revealed Alkestis.

1. Name the Part of Speech of every word in sections 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7.

2. Find all the Nouns in the above story, and class them as names of (1) persons, (2) places, (3) things.

3. Write out sections 3, 5, 7, with Nouns substituted for the Pronouns.

4. Class the Adjectives as descriptive, enumerating, and identifying.

5. Give the attribute of which each Adverb is the attribute.

6. Write down the groups of words, of which a Preposition is the first word, and class them as (1) Adjective-equivalents, (2) Adverb-equivalents, *e.g.*, "*in* Greece"—Adverb-equivalent.

7. Find all the Conjunctions, and show the words or groups of words they connect together.

II.—On the Relation of Words in Sentences.

Our thoughts are conveyed to one another by means of sentences. A sentence makes a statement, a command, an expression of wish, a question, or an exclamation. A single word may sometimes be used:

"Did he come?"

"No" (meaning "He did not come"). But the general rule is **that every sentence contains a Verb.** Examining the sentence, "The hero faced the danger bravely," we see the Verb (*the* word) to be "faced."

"Who faced?" The *hero.*

"What did he face?" The *danger.*

"How did he face the danger?" *Bravely.*

We have, as it were, hung the sentence on the peg of the Verb.

When we have once ascertained the Verb, we may, by the following (or some modification of the following) method, determine its relation to the other words:

(i.) **Ask the question "who?" or "what?" before the Verb.**

The answer will be a Noun (Pronoun) or its equivalent. This is called the *subject* of the sentence. The Noun (Pronoun) is said to be in the *nominative case.*

(ii.) **Where the action of the Verb passes over to somebody, or something, ask the question "whom?" or "what?" after the Verb.**

The answer will be a Noun (Pronoun) or its equivalent. This is called the *object* of the sentence. The Noun (Pronoun) is said to be in the *objective case.*

Observe: In the sentence, "He became king," the word "king" is required to make a distinct assertion, and the action of the Verb does not pass over to an object.

(iii.) **Ask the question "how?" "when?" "where?" or "why?" after the Verb.**

The answer will be an Adverb or its equivalent. This is called the *adjunct of the predicate*— predicate (*what is said*) being the name given to the Verb or its equivalent.

In the answers to the first and second questions there will appear with the subject or object those Adjectives, or Adjective-equivalents, which describe, enumerate, or identify the subject or object. These Adjectives, or Adjective-equivalents, are called the *attributes of the subject* or the *attributes of the object.*

The following is a scheme of relations (= stands for equivalent):

PREDICATE.	ADJUNCT.	SUBJECT.	ATTRIBUTE.	OBJECT.	ATTRIBUTE.
Verb or = (faced)	Adverb or = (bravely)	Noun or = *Noun (Pronoun) said to be in the Nominative Case* (hero).	Adjective or = (the)	Noun or = *Noun (Pronoun) said to be in the Objective Case* (danger).	Adjective or = (the)

EXERCISES—II.

Endymion.

1. In a far country lived the shepherd Endymion. He tended his sheep all day. His beautiful face charmed Selene, the Moon. She loved Endymion, too, because of his dreams. In his dreams

he imagined himself a god. In his dreams he loved Selene. 2. Endymion could not see Selene in the day-time. At the end of a long summer-day he lay down. The sun set slowly behind the hills in the west. The sky was coloured with crimson, yellow, green, gold. 3. Endymion did not see it. He was sleeping. Presently the colours of the sky faded. The shadows crept slowly up the hills. Selene then looked into Endymion's grove. 4. In his sleep he smiled. Perhaps he was thinking of Selene. She loved him very much. She glided serenely past the sleeping sheep. She did not move the twining tendrils of the vine. 5. She came into the sleeping-place of her beloved. With eyes of love she gazed upon him. Endymion still smiled. Perhaps in his dreams Selene stood near him. Slowly she bent her lovely head. 6. The tresses of her hair floated round his face. Nearer and nearer the goddess approached the smiling shepherd. At last her lips met his. That kiss made him a god.

1. Arrange the words in each of the sentences in sections 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, according to the scheme of relations given above.

2. Change each of the statements in sections 1, 2, 4, 5 into questions.

III.—On Parsing.

In parsing we aim at giving complete accounts of words, as regards the part they play in expressions of thought. To do this unfailingly requires a knowledge of (1) *Accidence*—the changes in form that words undergo; (2) *Syntax*—the "arrangement together" of words.

To be perfectly consistent, one should have a thorough knowledge of both these branches of grammar, before attempting to discuss words with any measure of completeness. However, in order to avoid deferring this useful exercise, some preliminary explanations are here subjoined.

I.—The Noun.

A Noun may be a name peculiar to a particular person, or it may not. In the former case it is called a **proper** (Latin: proprius, *one's own*) Noun, in the latter, a **common** Noun;

e.g., "Henry is the tall boy."

Henry is a proper Noun; *boy* is a common Noun. The initial letter of proper names is always a capital.

A Noun is the name of a male, of a female, or of a sexless thing. The names of males (*e.g.*, man) are said to be *masculine* **gender.** The names of females (*e.g.*, woman) are said to be *feminine* gender. The names of sexless things (*e.g.*, home) are said to be *neuter* (or neither) gender.

If a Noun is the name of one person or thing it is said to be *singular* **number** (*e.g.*, man), if of more than one, *plural* number (*e.g.*, men).

Nouns also have **case.** The *nominative* and *objective* cases have been partially explained. The *objective* case also follows prepositions;

e.g., "Render *unto* Caesar."

Caesar is objective case.

If a Noun denotes the possessor by the addition of an *s* with an apostrophe ('), the *s* being sometimes omitted if the Noun terminates with *s*, it is said to be in the *possessive* case;

e.g., "St. Paul's Epistles," "Jesus' sake," "Boys' games."

Paul's, *Jesus'*, *Boys'* are possessive case.

Example: In the sentence, "The hero faced the danger bravely,"

hero is not a name peculiar to a particular person,
it is, therefore, a *common* Noun;
hero is the name of a male,
it is, therefore, *masculine* gender;
hero is the name of one person,
it is, therefore, *singular* number;
hero is the subject of the sentence, "The hero faced the danger bravely,"
it is, therefore, *nominative* case.

II.—The Verb.

The subject of a sentence may denote the doer of the action;

e.g., "The hero *faced* the danger bravely."

The Verb (faced) is then said to be in the *active* **voice.** If the subject of the sentence denotes what in the active construction is denoted by the object, the Verb is said to be in the *passive* voice;

e.g., "The danger was faced by the hero bravely."

If the action expressed in the Verb "passes over" to an object, the Verb is said to be **transitive** (Latin: transire, *to pass over*). Verbs in the active voice, which do not take an object, are said to be **intransitive** (*not passing over*);

e.g., "He *fought* with the courage of despair."

If a Verb describes an action as occurring now, the Verb is said to be in the *present* **tense** (French temps,

Latin tempus, *time*); if as occurring in the past, *past* tense; if as about to occur, *future* tense;

e.g., He *takes*—present;
He *took*—past;
He *will take*—future.

If the past tense is formed by suffix *ed* (*d*, *t*), *ed* only being sounded as a separate syllable after *d* or *t*, the Verb is said to be of the *weak* **conjugation**;

e.g., "I *thanked* him heartily."

If on the other hand the past tense is formed without a suffix, but by change of radical vowel, the Verb is said to be of the *strong* conjugation;

e.g., "My brother *wrote* me an interesting letter."

Some Verbs are *mixed*; their past tense is formed by changing the radical vowel and adding *-ed* (*d*, *t*);

e.g., *teach*, *sell*.

A Verb may be used to express a command, or to make a direct statement or question. In the former case it is said to be in the *imperative* **mood** (Latin: imperare, *to command*), in the latter, in the *indicative* mood (Latin: indicare, *to point out*);

e.g., "*Govern* well thy appetite"—imperative;
"You *appear* my friend"—indicative.

Obs.: The *subjunctive* mood is as yet omitted. It occurs infrequently and presents many difficulties.

A Verb agrees with its subject in* **person** and **number**.

* When a Noun is the subject of a sentence, it is always the name of what is *spoken of*, and may therefore be considered as third person. The second person is *spoken to*; the first person *speaks*.

Example: In the sentence, "The hero faced the danger bravely," the subject of the Verb is the doer of the action,

faced is therefore *active* voice;
the action "passes over" to an object (danger),
faced is therefore *transitive*;
the action is described as occurring in the past,
faced is therefore *past* tense;
the past tense is formed by adding -d,
faced is therefore *weak* conjugation;
a direct statement is made,
faced is therefore *indicative* mood;
faced is *singular* number and *third* person in agreement with "hero."

III.—The Adjective.

Adjectives are:

(1) Descriptive—*tall* men;
(2) Enumerating—*three* books;
(3) Identifying—*our* house.
(4) Verbal—*singing* bird, *withered* tree.

Note that *identifying* Adjectives are connected with Pronouns, and *verbal* Adjectives with Verbs.

If an Adjective indicates a comparison between two persons or things, it is said to be of the *comparative* **degree;**

e.g., "He is a *merrier* fellow than I."

If it indicates the highest degree, it is said to be *superlative* degree;

e.g., "He is the *merriest* fellow of us all."

The simple form of the Adjective is the *positive* degree.

Example: In the sentence, "The valleys of the country, luxuriantly *green*, delighted us, as we rode along,"

green is an *attributive* Adjective, describing "valleys";
it is the simple form of the Adjective,
green is therefore *positive* degree.

IV.—The Pronoun.

Pronouns may stand directly for names of persons, as *I* (*me*), *thou* (*thee*), *he* (*him*), *she* (*her*), *it*, *we* (*us*), *you*, *they* (*them*)—**Personal.**

They may be "bending-back Pronouns," referring to some other word in the sentence, as *myself*, *thyself*, *himself*, *herself*, *itself*, *ourselves*, *yourselves*, *themselves* (*e.g.*, "Man, know thyself"—where *thyself* refers to *man*)—**Reflexive** (Latin: reflectere, *bend back*).

They may be "possessing Pronouns": *mine*, *thine*, *his*, *hers*, *its*, *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*—**Possessive.**

They may be "questioning Pronouns": *who* (*whom*, *whose*), *which*, *what*—**Interrogative** (Latin: interrogare, *ask a question*).

They may be "referring Pronouns": *who*, *which*, *what*, *that*—**Relative** (Latin: relatum, *carried back*)

They may be "pointing-out Pronouns": *this* (*these*), *that* (*those*)—**Demonstrative** (Latin: demonstrare, *to point out*).

They may be "unbounded Pronouns": *any*, *one*, *anyone*, *both*, *other*, *another*, *either*, *neither*, *each*, *none*, *all*, *many*, *some*, *few*, *enough*—**Indefinite** (Latin: indefinitus, *without a boundary*).

The first **person** *speaks*, the second is *spoken to*, the third is *spoken of*.

Pronouns, being substitutes for Nouns, may have **gender**, **number** and **case**, as Nouns have.

Obs.: Relative Pronouns agree in gender, number and person with the Nouns or Noun-equivalents to which they refer, their *antecedents* (Latin: ante, *before*; cedere, *to go*);

e.g., I do speak that, *which* I do know.

Example: In the sentence, "The valleys of the country, luxuriantly green, delighted us, as we rode along,"

us stands directly for a personal name,
it is therefore a *personal* Pronoun;

us stands for the name of the person or persons speaking,
it is therefore *first* person;

us may refer either to males or to females,
it is therefore *masculine or feminine* gender.

Obs.: Words either masculine or feminine gender are sometimes said to be *common* gender.

us refers to more than one person,
it is therefore *plural* number;

us answers the question "whom?" after the Verb *delighted*,
it is therefore *objective* case

V.—The Adverb.

As a rule, the attribute of the attribute will answer one of the questions "when?" "where?" "how?" or "why?" asked with the last attribute;

e.g., "The valleys, luxuriantly green."

Green is the attribute of valleys.

"How green?"—*luxuriantly.*

"When?" of course refers to time.

"Where?" " " place.

"How?" " " manner.

"Why?" " " cause.

Adverbs admit of *comparative* and *superlative* **degree.**

Example: In the sentence, "The valleys, luxuriantly green, . . ."

luxuriantly answers the question "how?" with the attribute *green,*
it is therefore an Adverb *of manner;*
luxuriantly is the simple form of the Adverb,
it is therefore *positive* degree.

VI.—The Preposition.

Example: In the sentence, "The valleys of the country . . ."

of shows the *relationship* between "valleys" and "country"; it is also joined with the words "the country" to form an *Adjectival group.*

VII.—The Conjunction.

Conjunctions may link together sentences, parts of sentences or single words of equal rank and importance: *and, but, or, nor,* and sometimes *for.*

e.g., "Allen *and* Mary are a romantic couple."

These Conjunctions are called **co-ordinating** (Latin: co, *together;* ordo, *rank*).

Conjunctions, other than those mentioned, introduce parts of sentences, which are of under rank.

e.g., "*Though* the breath of these flowers is sweet to me, I will give them all back again."

These Conjunctions are called **sub-ordinating** (Latin: sub, *under;* ordo, *rank*).

Example: In the above sentence,

Though introduces a part of the sentence, which is of "under rank" to the other or principal part, it is therefore a *sub-ordinating* Conjunction.

VIII.—The Interjection.

We may, if possible, indicate the emotion the Interjection expresses.

Summary.

Noun—Proper *or* Common, Gender, Number, Case, Relation to other words.

Verb—Voice, Transitive *or* Intransitive, Tense, Strong, Weak, *or* Mixed, Mood, Person, Number, Relation to other words.

Adjective—Attributive *or* Predicative, Kind, Degree.

Pronoun—Kind, Person, Gender, Number, Case, Relation to other words.

Adverb—Kind (relation to attribute should be pointed out), Degree.

Preposition—Relationship indicated, Group formed.

Conjunction—Kind, Groups of words or Single words linked together.

Interjection—

[*Article*—Definite (the) *or* Indefinite (a, an)].

EXERCISES—III.

Orpheus and Eurydice.

1. Eurydice, the wife of Orpheus, the great poet, was dead. 2. By day and by night, with the rising and the setting sun, he sat in a cave on the lonely shore and sang of her love. 3. Then, trusting to his lyre, he dared to enter the kingdoms of the dreadful king of Hades. 4. As he played and sang the lowest foundations of the kingdom were moved. 5. The bodiless shades, mothers and men, the great heroes of other days, boys and girls, who had perished before their time, gathered round him spell-bound. 6. Even the Furies paused in their unhallowed tasks, and the Dog with his three mouths stood dumb and gaping. 7. Then Proserpina, the queen of this lower world, allowed the inspired singer to lead his wife away to the land of light. 8. He was not permitted to look at her, till the gates of Hades were passed. 9. But the love and desire of Eurydice were too strong. 10. To her the past was nothing; she cared not for the future. 11. She only had the thought of seeing her husband's face and hearing his voice. 12. She cried to him to turn and speak. 13. The unhappy poet could not (was not able to) resist her appeal. 14. On the very threshold of Hades he looked back and, even as he did so, Eurydice sank again into the gloom. 15. Vainly she stretched her hands to her husband. 16. Vainly, too, he tried to grasp and keep her. 17. He shouted aloud, but she neither heard his voice nor gave him sign. 18. All was lost.

Parse every word in the above 18 sections.

Obs. 1. When one Noun is placed close **(in apposition)** to another, as *wife* in the first sentence is to *Eurydice*, it is in the same case as the Noun to which it is in apposition.

2. The Verb *could* (*can*) is followed by the **Infinitive without the sign to.** The same remark applies to the Verbs *may*, *must*, *let*, *do*, *shall*, *will*, *dare*, *need*, and the Active Voice of *bid*, *see*, *feel*, *hear*, *make*.

3. Infinitives (the *name* of the Verb), and Nouns in *-ing* with the construction of a Verb (*Gerunds*), are called *Verbal*, and should be parsed as follows: *to lead* (section 7) **Verbal Noun** (Present Infinitive), Object of the Verb *allowed*, Active Voice, Transitive, Weak.

4. Adjectives with the construction of a Verb are called *Verbal*. Parse as follows: *trusting* (section 3) **Verbal Adjective,** attributive to *he*, Active Voice, Intransitive, Weak.

5. The **Adjectives,** *his*, *her*, *their*, are *Identifying*.

6. The use of *as* after *such* and *same* should be carefully noticed, *e.g.*, 'He is the same thief *as* robbed me.' In such cases *as* is a **Relative Pronoun.**

IV.—On Common Nouns.

Sub-classifications of Nouns, not proper, are usuall made. They involve great difficulties and are not abso lutely necessary for our purposes. The growth of th abstract from the concrete, and in some instances *vi versa*, is a part of another study. It seems hitherto t have created much confusion to introduce the nam *Abstract Noun* into Grammar.

Mr. Venn, in his *Empirical Logic*, calls the distinction betwee the terms 'concrete' and 'abstract,' "slender" and "in many case artificial."

Mill appears to limit his Abstract Names to such a *are only directly definable by reference to the kindre Adjective or Verb*,

e.g., blackness, Adj. black.
virtue, " virtuous.
flight, Verb fly.

The following examples suggest the application o three distinctive names:

(1) The *army* was efficient.
(2) The *army* were delighted with their reception.
(3) *To err* / *Erring* } is human.

In the first example, *army* denotes a collection o individuals considered as one.

It is called a **Collective Noun.**

In the second example, *army* denotes a multitude o individuals considered individually.

It is called a **Noun of Multitude.**

In the third example, *To err* (*erring*), has the construc tion of a Verb. It is called a **Verbal Noun.**

V.—On Gender of Nouns.

Gender, as has already been indicated, is the grammatical signification of sex; that is, it is the form of the Noun or Pronoun, which tells whether we are speaking of males or females. (Latin: genus, *race, kind, sort.*)

Observe: Gender is applied by personification to inanimate things.

e.g, An engine-driver speaks of his engine as "she," even if it is called "The Lord of the Isles"; similarly a ship is "she," a church is "she" (mother-church).

This Gender of Personification depends, to a large extent, upon the genius of the people, but as a rule the masculine is applied to ideas embodying strength and putting forth [*e.g.*, Time, Death, Love (Cupid), Sun], and the feminine to ideas embodying beauty, softness, affection or bringing forth [*e.g.*, Moon, Earth, Virtue, Philosophy].

There are in English three different ways of distinguishing Gender.

I.—One word for Masculine, another for Feminine,

in limited number:

e.g., *Masculine.*	*Feminine.*
Father	Mother
Bachelor	Maid
Monk.	Nun.

Others are Earl, Countess; lad, lass; drone, bee; buck, doe; bullock, heifer; stag, hind; ram, ewe; hart, roe; cloven, slut; wizard, witch.

II.—By the Use of Suffixes.

As a rule the feminine is formed from the masculi by the use of a suffix, that often involves vowel-chan But there are four exceptions, *bridegroom*, *widow drake*, *gander*. These masculines are all formed fr feminines.

(1) A.S., bry'd *bride*, guma *man*, formed bry'dguma *bridesm* which became *bridegroom* (the *r* growing out, probably, of t want of euphony of the syllable).

(2) A.S., widuwe, a *widow*; mas. widuwa *widower*, which becam *widower*.

(3) A.S., ened *duck*, rica *powerful person*, *king*, formed *endra* which became *drake* (signifying "king of the ducks"), bishop*ric*.

(4) A.S., go's *goose*, O.H.G., gans. Masculine *ganda* or *gand* which became *gander*. (For the principles of *Umlaut*, on whi some of these changes are based, see Appendix III., 1.)

Anglo-Saxon Suffixes.

(1) **en**—preserved in one word *vixen*.

A.S., fox, fem. fixen, which became *vixen*.

(2) **ster**—preserved in one word *spinster*. A.S., sangc *singer*, sangestre *songstress*; baccere *baker*, ba cestre *a woman who bakes*.

Because a certain set of men performed that work, which w originally done by females, baccestre came to mean a *baker* (En baxter, preserved in proper names).

Modern Suffixes.

(1) **trix** (Latin)

Masculine.	*Feminine.*
executor	executrix
testator.	testatrix.

(2) **ine** (Greek)

Masculine	*Feminine.*
hero	heroine
margrave.	margravine

(3) **a** (It. or Sp.)

Masculine.	*Feminine.*
signor	signora
infant.	infanta.

(4) **ess.** This suffix, the great modern suffix, supplanted *-ster* in the 14th century.

(*a*) Simply added to masculine,
e.g., baron, baroness ; giant, giantess ;

(*b*) supplanting the masculine,
sorcer*er*, sorcer*ess* ; murder*er*, murder*ess* ;

(*c*) contracting the masculine,
actor, actress ; hunter, huntress.

Notice the forms *duchess*, *marchioness* (A.S., mearc—boundary), *mistress*.

A combination of the two suffixes, *-ster* and *-esse*, occurs in *songstress*.

III.—By Word-Building.

The following are examples of this formation :

Masculine.	*Feminine.*
man-servant	maid-servant
he-goat	she-goat
buck-rabbit.	doe-rabbit.

VI.—On Number of Nouns.

In English we have only two numbers, the **Singular Number** and the **Plural Number.** In Anglo-Saxon a dual form existed in the first and second Personal Pronouns, but with the tendency to throw away special forms of inflexion these dual forms have disappeared. We still retain the dual *idea* in certain words (*e.g.*, scissors, spectacles, nuptials).

The Plural of Nouns is formed in two ways.

I.—By Use of Suffixes.

en—Survives commonly only in *oxen; chicken* now used in singular is really the plural of *chick.* This suffix is still in use in some dialects, *e.g.*, *hosen, housen* (Suffolk).

ru+en—The old plurals of A.S. *cild*—child and *bro'ther*—brother were *cildru* and *brothru.* To these plurals was added the suffix *-en* to form *children* and *brethren.*

Note.—A.S., *cu'*, Plural *cy'*, English *kine.*

s *or* **-es**—This is the great modern suffix.

The A.S. suffix *-as*, weakened to *-es*, which was at one with the Norman suffix.

(i.) *-es* is added to sibilants: *e.g.*, glasses, wishes, foxes.

(ii.) Many words of English origin in *f* or *fe* change *f* or *fe* into *ve* before the Plural *-s*; *e.g.*, leaf, leaves; life, lives; loaf, loaves; shelf, shelves; wharf, wharves or wharfs; wife, wives.

Notice chiefs, gulfs, safes (of French origin), dwarfs, hoofs.

iii.) Words terminating in *y*, preceded by a Consonant, change *y* into *ie* before Plural *s*; *e.g.*, fly, flies; city, cities.

This is merely a peculiarity of spelling, not of sound.

II.—By Vowel Change.

The following are examples of this formation:

Singular.	*Plural.*
foot	feet
mouse	mice
louse	lice
woman	women
tooth	teeth
man	men
goose.	geese.

Obs.: The operation of the law of Umlaut, previously referred to, ects these changes.

e.g., A.S., go's *goose.* Nom. Plur. was originally *go'si.* Here a strong vowel *o* is followed by a weaker vowel *i*; *o* accordingly weakens to *e*, and we obtain *ge's*, and thence *geese.*

Foreign Words, when borrowed, tend to become acimatised, and to form plurals in *s* or *es.* We have, however, such entirely **unacclimatised** words as *axes*, *crises*, *ta*, *radii*, and such **partially acclimatised** words as *ndits*, *banditti*; *indexes*, *indices*; *cherubs*, *cherubim.*

Compound Words. The sign of the Plural is added the principal word, irrespective of its position, ., black-*birds*, *courts*-martial, maid-*servants*, *maids*-of-nour. Words of French origin are usually inflected in th forms, *e.g.*, *knights-templars*, *lords-justices.*

A.—(*a*) Words that are plural in form and express the **dual** idea have no singular form;

e.g., bellows, antipodes, banns, scissors, snuffers, shears, trousers, spectacles, tweezers, nuptials.

Words that are plural in form and express the **plural** idea exclusively have no singular form:

e.g., measles, victuals, molasses, dregs, ashes, lees.

(*b*) The following words, plural in form, express the **collective** idea:

Mathematics, Metaphysics, Ethics, Politics, Optics, Pneumatics:

Amends, means, odds, scissors, pains, news, summons, tidings.

(*c*) The following Nouns, though apparently Plural and often Plural in use, are in origin **singular**: *alms, riches, eaves.*

alms, A.S., *aelmesse*, Vulgar Latin, *alimosina.*

riches, French, *richesse.*

eaves, A.S., *efes* brink, edge, side (cf. eaves-dropper).

(*d*) Some Nouns have two forms of the Plural, one having a collective and the other a distributive meaning.

Collective.	*Distributive.*
fish	fishes
fowl	fowls
brethren	brothers
clothes	cloths
dice	dies
pease	peas
pence.	pennies.

(*e*) Differences of meaning occur between the singular and plural forms of Nouns.

e.g., *iron, content, good, salt, spectacle, copper, ground, pain, custom, horse, foot, powder, light, compass, letter.*

B.—In some Nouns the form is unaltered in whatever sense they are used. In such cases the *singular* idea is shown by prefixing *a*, the *dual* idea is shown by prefixing *two*, the *plural* idea by prefixing a number higher than two, the *collective* idea by the word itself, the Noun of Multitude by the Verb.

(*a*) *deer, sheep, neat, swine.*

In A.S. these were Neuter Nouns, and their form the same in the Nom. and Acc., Sing. and Plur. These were the cases most generally used.

(*b*) *mackerel, salmon, trout, grouse.*

Their form has become fixed from constant use by poulterers, etc.

VII.—On Case of Nouns.

It will have been already gathered from Note II. that **Case** (Latin: cadere, *to fall*) is that form of the Noun which shows the relation to other words in the sentence. This relation in English may be either a Subjective (or Nominative), an Objective or a Possessive relation (see

pages 6, 7, 9). The name *case* (falling-away) was applied to those forms which fell away from the original form, perhaps identified with the stem or trunk.

e.g., Stem, voc. Naming-falling-away or Nominative Case, voc + s = vox. Accusative Case voc-em, and so forth.

Cobbett, one of the most vigorous English grammarians, holds case to signify "state of things."

"For instance," he says, "a Noun may be the name of a person who *strikes* a horse, or of a person who *possesses* a horse, or of a person whom a horse *kicks*. And these different situations or states are therefore called *Cases*."

Nominative Case.

(i.) The Subjective relationship has already been explained.

(ii.) The Nominative Case is also used as the **case of address**. This is the English equivalent of the Latin Vocative (vocativus, *person addressed*).

e.g., Great *king*, I greet thee;

king is said to be Nominative of Address.

(iii.) The Nominative Case is the **Absolute Case** (Latin *Ablative;* Greek, *Genitive;* A. S., *Dative*, till 1350)

e.g., "*Weather* permitting, we will join you."

"In gallant trim the gilded vessel goes,
Youth on the prow, and *Pleasure* at the helm."

From these examples we gather that: A Noun is said to be *Nominative Absolute*, when it is independent of any finite Verb and is followed by a Verbal-Adjective (or Participle) expressed or understood.

Objective Case.

(i.) The Objective relationship has been explained.

(ii.) The Objective is also the case used in **exclamations,** *e.g.*, Ah, wretched *me!*

(iii.) The Latin Accusative of **time, space and place whither** has its equivalent in the English Objective.

e.g., He reigned *three years* (Latin: *Tres annos* regnum obtinuit).

He marched six *miles* (Latin: *Sex milia* passuum progressus est).

He returned *home* (Latin: *Domum* rediit).

years, *miles*, *home* are Adverb-equivalents in English.

(iv.) In the following cases an *Adjectival* Objective seems to be used, though a Preposition may be supplied before each of the examples:

He is the *colour* of a sheet. He is the *age* of a patriarch.

(v.) In the examples:

Give *me* the book.
*Me*thinks the man is mad.
Go and write *me* a full list.

me is not the direct object of the Verb. It answers the question "To whom?" or "For whom?"

me is the English equivalent of the Dative Case. It may be called either the dative Case or the Case of the **Indirect Object.** It is reasonably argued that in none of the instances mentioned above is *me* necessarily Objective. Nor is it necessarily Dative (Latin: dativus, *given to*), except in the first example.

Shakespeare illustrates the distinction admirably in "Taming of the Shrew," I., ii., Petruchio says to his serving-man Grumio, "Villain, I say, knock me here soundly" (*me* being the Indirect Object or Ethical Dative, and the gate, the Direct Object). Grumio mistakes *me* for the Direct Object and answers, "Knock you here, sir? Why, sir, what am I, sir, that I should knock you here?"

Possessive Case.

This case, sometimes called the Genitive, has distinct inflexions.

In the Singular and Plural, when the Plural is not formed with *s* or *es*, **'s**;

e.g., *girl's*, *Chambers's* Journal, *men's*, *children's*.

In the Plural, when the Plural is formed with *s* or *es*, **'**;

e.g., boys', girls'.

Obs.: This is also used sometimes in the Singular Possessive when a Noun ends in a sibilant;

e.g., *Jesus'* sake.

When a collection of words is used as a Noun the sign of the possessive is placed at the end;

e.g., Bryant and *May's* matches, my brother-in-*law's* wife, Felix Holt the *Radical's* end.

Obs.: The following sentences deserve remark:

(1) The *A's* were on one side, the *B's* on the other.

(2) And this we beg for *Jesus Christ his sake*.

The apostrophe in the time of Charles I. took the place of *e* in the Plural suffix *es*.

In Milton we find :

"In wine and oil they wash his *wounde's* wide."

This afterwards would be written *wound's*, and the forms *A's*, *B's*, *M.P.'s* are survivals of this use. The use of the apostrophe for *e* was applied to Verbs ;

e.g., "Thro' the dear might of Him that walk'd the waves."

The *-es* of the Anglo-Saxon Genitive was sometimes carelessly written *-is*. The latter was then supposed to represent *his*, so : "*Jesus Christ his* sake." By analogy we have "*Jane her* dress." Addison says that the single letter *'s* does on many occasions represent a whole word and is the "*his*" or "*her*" of our forefathers.

VIII.—On the Conjugation of the Verb.

The Conjugation of the Weak Verb, which is here given, is incomplete in two respects :

(1) The continuous (or continued forms) of the tenses are not included.

(2) The Subjunctive Mood is omitted.

(1) Each of the principal tenses has a continuous form, formed with the auxiliary *be*.

e.g., Present Continuous—*I am loving.*

Past Continuous—*I was loving.*

(2) **Mood** is the form of the Verb, which indicates the attitude of the mind. It is used to mark to what class a sentence or part of a sentence belongs. The name **Subjunctive Mood** naturally leads us to suppose that this mood is used only in *subjoined* parts of sentences. But this is not so.

e.g., Long *live* the Emperor!

In modern English the Subjunctive Mood is rapidly disappearing.

Comparing—

Present Indicative and *Present Subjunctive.*

I love	I love
Thou lovest	Thou love
He loves	He love
We love	We love
You love	You love
They love.	They love.

We find differences in the Second and Third Persons Singular. The use of the Second Person Singular is now special and discontinued in ordinary intercourse. In the Third Person Singular we substitute the Indicative for the Subjunctive form with growing frequency. One word, *were*, seems to withstand this tendency.

e.g., "If he *were* a king he would find out a way."

The **Present Tense** is used (1) to describe an action as going on now, or a state as existing now.

e.g., 'Close he *sits* within,'
'It *rains* hard,'

(2) to describe an action as recurring continually now.

e.g., 'I *work* six hours a day.'

The **Past Tense** is used (1) to describe an action as going on in the past, or a state as existing in the past.

e.g., 'We all *charged* and *cleared* the streets.'
'Men *were* not so magnanimous then.'

(2) to describe an action as recurring continually in the past.

e.g., 'I *worked* six hours a day.'

	Active Voice.				Passive Voice.			
	Indicative Mood.				Indicative Mood.			
	Present.		*Perfect.*		*Present.*		*Perfect.*	
I	love		have	loved	am	loved	have been	loved
thou	lovest		hast		art		hast been	
he	loves		has		is		has been	
we	love		have		are		have been	
you	love		have		are		have been	
they	love		have		are		have been	
	Past.		*Past Perfect.*		*Past.*		*Past Perfect.*	
I	loved		had	loved	was	loved	had been	loved
thou	lovedst		hadst		wast		hadst been	
he	loved		had		was		had been	
we	loved		had		were		had been	
you	loved		had		were		had been	
they	loved		had		were		had been	
	Future.	*Secondary Future.*	*Fut. Perf.*	*Secondary Fut. Perf.*	*Future.*	*Secondary Future.*	*Fut. Perf.*	*Secondary Fut. Perf.*
I	shall	should	shall have	should have	shall be	should be	shall have been	should have been
thou	wilt	wouldst	will have	wouldst have	wilt be	wouldst be	wilt have been	wouldst have been
he	will	would	will have	would have	will be	would be	will have been	would have been
we	shall	should	shall have	should have	shall be	should be	shall have been	should have been
you	will	would	will have	would have	will be	would be	will have been	would have been
they	will	would	will have	would have	will be	would be	will have been	would have been
	Imperative Mood.				Imperative Mood.			
	love (thou) love (ye)				be (thou) loved be (ye) loved			
Verbal Adjectives.	loving		having loved		being loved		(having been) loved	
Verbal Nouns.	(to) love loving		(to) have loved having loved		(to) be loved being loved		(to) have been loved having been loved	

(3) to describe an action as simply occurring in the past.

e.g., 'He *defeated* me.'

The **Future Tense** is used to describe an action or state as in prospect.

e.g., 'We *shall* all *be changed*.'

The **Present Tense** is used for both Past and Future.

e.g., 'Anon, he *finds* (= found) him
Striking too short at Greeks.'

e.g., 'He *comes* (= will come) to-morrow.'

The uses of the **Perfect** and **Continuous** Tenses are sufficiently indicated in their names.

The **Secondary Future** describes an action as in prospect in the past.

e.g., I said that I *should* soon come back.

The Future Tense. In A. S. there was no Future Tense, and, as strictly speaking, there can be no Tense without inflection, the Future Tense does not exist in Modern English. We express the future idea by help of the auxiliaries *shall, will (must, ought)*, partly in writing and partly by stress of voice. There are three degrees of emphasis: (1) *Simple futurity*, (2) *purpose* or *volition*, (3) *compulsion*.

	Futurity.	Purpose.	Compulsion.
I, we	shall die	shall *or* will die	must / ought to } die
You	will die	will die	shall die
He, she, they	will die	will die	shall die

In questions, "shall" is used in 2nd Pers., *e.g.*, "*Shall* you go?" *Must, ought, shall* in the 3rd column, and *will* in the 2nd column, have independent meaning.

In addition to the auxiliaries, *be, have, shall will,* **Do** is also used:

(1) In *questions;*

e.g., "*Does* he *love* his neighbour?"

(2) In *negative statements* and *commands;*

e.g., "He *does* not *love*." "*Do* not *love*."

(3) In *emphatic statements* and *entreaties;*

e.g., "I *did* strike him.

"*Do* forgive him."

IX.—On the Connection of the Verb and the Object.

We have already distinguished between **Transitive** and **Intransitive** Verbs. Some Verbs are transitive with one meaning, intransitive with another;

e.g., "The eagle *flew*," and "He *flew* his kite."

"Mary *ran* two miles," and "Mary *ran* a needle into her hand."

"He *broke* the glass," and "The glass *broke*."

Many Verbs, when constructed with a fixed preposition (prefixed in A.S.) become transitive;

e.g., "He *laughed* at him."

"We *sighed for* peace."

Some Verbs may only be followed by objects, which are akin to them in meaning (**Cognate Object**);

e.g., "He *laughed* a bitter laugh."
"He *is sleeping* the sleep of the just."

Some Verbs (*e.g.*, *promise*, *give*, *ask*) are followed by an *Indirect* as well as a Direct Object;

e.g., "The king promised *him* a place."
"We asked *him* this question."

Verbs, such as *make*, *call*, *elect*, may have in addition to an Object, a Noun or Adjective describing what the object denotes;

e.g., "Nature has made Mr. Churchill a *poet*."
"They call their Governor *happy*."

In the sentences:

"John *is* a sailor,"
"He *seemed* honest,"
"It *is* thou,"
"He *proved* a trusty servant,"

Each of the Verbs (*is*, *seemed*, *is*, *proved*) fails of itself to make a distinct assertion, *i.e.*, to completely predicate. Verbs that cannot of themselves make a distinct assertion are called **Verbs of Incomplete Predication** or Copulative Verbs. The completion of the Predicate is called the **Predicate Noun** (sailor, servant), **Predicate Adjective** (honest) or **Predicate Pronoun** (thou).

In the sentence, "Once upon a time there *was* an old woman," *was* denotes *existence*, and is not a Verb of Incomplete Predication.

Certain Verbs are used **Impersonally;**

e.g., "It *rains.*" "It *threatens.*"

It here is not to be confused with *It* in such a sentence as "*It* is a matter of great consequence that we make inquiries." (See Note XXI., N.B.)

X.—On Strong and Weak Verbs.

The division of Verbs into two Conjugations is based upon the differences in formation of the Past Tense and Perfect (or Complete) Participle, another name for the Perfect Verbal-Adjective. In *Weak Verbs* the Perfect Participle is formed with the suffix *-ed;* in *Strong Verbs* the Perfect Participle is formed with the suffix *-en*, dropped in many Verbs. In A.S., Perfect Participles sometimes had the prefix *ge-* (cf. German *ge-*), and this prefix has left traces of itself in Modern English; *e.g.*, *yclept* (=called).

In A.S. there were two classes of Weak Verbs, one forming the Past Tense with *-ode*, the other, with *-de* or *-te*.

There were seven classes of Strong Verbs, represented by the Verbs:

	Present.	*Past.*	*Perf. Part.*
(i)	bear	bore	borne
(ii)	fall	fell	fallen
(iii)	shake	shook	shaken
(iv)	give	gave	given
(v)	bind	bound	bound
(vi)	shine	shone	shone
(vii)	choose.	chose.	chosen.

In the conjugation of A.S. Strong Verbs, the 2nd Pers. Sing. of the Past Indic. always ended in *-e*. The ending *-est* was characteristic of Verbs not strong.

A third class of Verbs existed in A.S. The Past Tense of these Verbs was formed by vowel change, and by adding the suffix *-de* or *-te*. They are called **Mixed Verbs.** This name might well apply to such modern Verbs as,

Present.	*Past.*	*Perf. Part.*
teach	taught	taught
seek	sought	sought
sell.	sold.	sold.

In some **Weak Verbs** the suffix of the Past Tense and Perf. Part. has disappeared, sometimes having the effect of changing the final *d* of the Verb into *t* (a). In other Weak Verbs *t* takes the place of the suffix *ed* (b). The vowel of Weak Verbs is sometimes shortened in the Past Tense (c).

Present.	*Past.*	*Perf. Part.*
breed	bred	bred (a) and (c)
shred	shred	shred (a)
bend	bent	bent (a)
burn	burnt	burnt (b)
leave	left	left (b) and (c)
sleep	slept	slept (b) and (c)

Notice the verbs

have	had	had
make	made	made

No discrimination was formerly made between the forms of the Past Tense and Perf. Part of some **Strong Verbs** (of the "bind," "shine" and "choose" classes). For example, *sung* was both the Past Tense and Perf. Part. of *sing*.

Some verbs, formerly of the "choose" class, have become weak.

e.g., *melt*, *cleave*, *crow*.

Principal Parts of Some Strong Verbs.

Weak forms are marked (W).

Present.	*Past.*	*Perf. Part.*
abide	abode	abode
awake	awoke	awoke
	awaked (W)	awaked (W)
bear (carry)	bore	borne
bear (bring forth)	bore	born
bid	bade, bid	bidden, bid
chide	chid (W)	chidden, chid (W)
cleave	clove	cloven
	cleft (W)	cleft (W)
crow	crew, crowed (W)	crowed (W)
do	did	done
	(formed by Reduplication, A.S., *dide*; cf. Latin, *cu-curri*)	
eat	ate	eaten
fling	flung	flung
get	got	got
		(gotten used as an Adjective)
go	went (W)	gone
	(derived from A.S. *wendan*)	
hang	hung	hung
	hanged (W)	hanged (W)
(only Transitive when it means "to execute by hanging")		
hew	hewed (W)	hewn
		hewed (W)

Principal Parts of Some Strong Verbs—(*Continued*).

lade	laded (W)	laden
		laded (W)
lie	lay	lain
mow	mowed (W)	mown
		mowed (W)
rive	rived (W)	riven
		rived (W)
shave	shaved (W)	shaved (W)
	(shaven used as an Adjective)	
show, shew	showed, shewed (W)	shown, shewn
sling	slung	slung
slink	slunk	slunk
sow	sowed (W)	sown
		sowed (W)
spit	spat	spat
	spit (W)	spit (W)
stink	stank, stunk	stunk
strew	strewed (W)	strewn
		strewed (W)
strike	struck	struck
	(stricken used as an Adjective)	
swell	swelled (W)	swollen
		swelled (W)
thrive	throve	thriven
	thrived (W)	thrived (W)
wake	woke	waked (W)
	waked (W)	
win	won	won
wind	wound	wound
wring	wrung	wrung

The Verb BE.

In Anglo-Saxon there were two Verbs representing existence, *be'on* and *wesan*, of which *wesan* was, perhaps, the more forcible.

	Indicative. *Present.*	*Subjunctive.* *Present.*
Sing.:	eom ; be'o ; am eart ; bist ; art is ; bith ; is	sy' ; be'o ; be.
Pl.:	sind (on) ; beoth ; are	si'n ; be'on ; be.

	Past.		*Past.*	
Sing.:	wœs ;	was		were
	wœ're ; (wanting)	wast wert	wœ're ; (wanting)	wert
	wœ's ;	was		were
Pl.:	wœron ;	were	wœ'ren ;	were

From the above it will be seen that the Past Tenses are derived from *wesan* (root WES) ; that the Pres. Subj. is derived from *be'on* (root BHEU) ; that the Pres. Indic. is derived from a third source (root ES, cf. Sanscrit *a's-ti*, Greek ἔσ-τι, Latin *es-t*, Gothic *is*, German *is-t*).

(1) The form *aron* (whence *are*) is found in place of *sind* in the Anglo-Saxon version of the Gospel of St. Matthew (ed. by Kemble).

(2) The form *be* is sometimes used as an Indic. ;

e.g., "The powers that be."

(3) *Wast* and *wert* are late forms, imitations of *shalt*, *wilt*.

XI.—On Verbal-Nouns and Verbal-Adjectives.

Verbal-Nouns and *Verbal-Adjectives* are Nouns and Adjectives taking the construction of a Verb.

Verbal Nouns are of two kinds:

(i.) Infinitive.
(ii.) Gerund.

Verbal Adjectives are of two kinds:

(i.) Present Participle.
(ii.) Perfect Participle.

The Infinitive is the *name* of the Verb, and was declined in Anglo-Saxon.

e.g., Nom. *wri'tan*—write.
Dat. (*to'*) *wri'tanne*.

The Dative form gradually lost its distinctive meaning and became equivalent to the Nominative. Its prefixed preposition *to'* also lost its original significance of purpose, and became **the Sign of the Infinitive.** It is often so used in Modern English;

e.g., "He loves *to hear* good music."

It is to be noticed, however, that the old usages survive. The Infinitive with *to* frequently signifies purpose;

e.g., "A sower went out *to sow*,"

and the bare Infinitive is also found in dependence on the verbs *bid, make, see, feel, hear* (Active Voice only), *can, may, must, shall, will, do, let, dare, need*;

e.g., "Make him *sit* down."
"I can *understand* his words."
"That dare *look* on that which might appal the devil."

Sit, understand, look, are Infinitives.

The Gerund is the Verbal-Noun in *-ing: e.g., seeing* is *believing.* In the southern dialect of Middle English, the Present Participle ended in *-inde*, which became *-inge.* There were also Nouns, not Verbal, ending in *-ung* and *-ing.* Out of the confusion of Participle and Noun arose the *Verbal-Noun* in *-ing.*

The following are **examples of Verbal-Nouns:**

Subject—*To walk* is healthy.

Toiling here is very wearisome.

Object—I counsel you *to wait* patiently (Adverb).

He likes *making* his own arrangements.

I dare *do* that (Object).

I thought him *to be* a fool (cf. Latin: Accusative and Infinitive).

Exclamation—*To think* of such insolence!

Depending on a Preposition—He has a passion for *painting.*

The Squire went a (another form of *on*)-*shooting.*

I can do it without *being seen.*

Predicate Noun—Seeing is *believing.*

To see is *to believe.*

The Present Participle is the Verbal-Adjective in *-ing.* It is formed from the Verb, and refers to some agent.

e.g., He was a *thieving* vagabond (Attribute).

The boy appears *designing* (Predicate-Adjective).

The Perfect Participle is the Verbal-Adjective in *-ed*, *-d*, *-t* or *-en*.

e.g., A sorely *wounded* knight (Attribute). He lies *pierced* through the heart (Predicate-Adjective).

As the Participle in *-ing* is not necessarily present, and as the Participle in *-ed*, *-d*, *-t* or *-en* is not necessarily perfect, the less misleading names *Incomplete* for Present and *Complete* for Perfect are sometimes used.

The Participles used in Compound Tenses (*e.g.*, "He is *loving*," "He had *loved*") were originally predicative.

XII.—On Anomalous Verbs.

Anomalous (*not regular*) Verbs have no final *-s* in the formation of the 3rd Sing. Pres. Indic.

	Present Indicative.								
Sing. 1.	ought	can	dare	may	must	shall	will	wot	need
2.	oughtest	canst	dar(e)st	may(e)st	must	shalt	wilt		
3.	ought	can	dare	may	must	shall	will	wot	need
Plur. 1.	ought	can	dare	may	must	shall	will	wot	need
	Past Indicative.								
Sing. 1.		could	durst	might		should	would	(wist)	
2.		couldst	durst	might(e)st		shouldst	wouldst		
3.		could	durst	might		should	would	(wist)	
Plur.		could	durst	might		should	would	(wist)	

All these Verbs (except *must*, *ought*, *need*) are derived from A.S. Verbs, of which the Present Tenses were

originally Pasts, and accordingly did not terminate in *-s*. As these Pasts had assumed Present meaning, new Pasts were supplied by Weak forms, hence, *would*, *should*, etc.

Must and *ought* are in origin Weak Pasts. It is to be noticed that although the word *need* is not in origin a Past, the A.S. word *thearf* (need) is to be classed with *cunnan*, *sculan*, and the other so-called preterite-present Verbs.

1. *Ought* [A.S., *á'gan*, to possess, of which the Indic. Past, *á'hte* (M.E., *oughte*), is the original of *ought*]. Shakespeare uses the word *owe* (M.E., Pres. *á'gan*) with the sense of *own* (A.S., *á'gnian*).

   Ought now denotes obligation or compulsion.

   e.g., "*Ought* I to stay?"

2. *Can* (A.S., *cunnan*, to know) is followed by the Infinitive without the sign *to*. "I *can*not (*could* not) do it."

3. *Dare* (A.S., *ic dearr*, I dare), is followed by the Infinitive without the sign *to*. It must be distinguished from the weak Verb *dare*.

   e.g., "He *dares* not fight." "I *dared* him to fight."

4. *May* (A.S., *ic mæg*) is followed by the Infinitive without the sign *to*.

   e.g., "It *may* (=can) be attempted."

   "You *may* not (= are not permitted to) try."

In such a sentence as "We ate that we *might* live," *might live* is sometimes considered as a subjunctive equivalent.

Compare: "*May* he find a fit companion."

"I *might* do it, if I tried."

5. *Must* (A.S. *mo'tan*, to be able, of which the Indic. Past *moste* is the original of *must*). *Must* is followed by the Infinitive without the sign *to*.

6. *Shall* (A.S., *ic sceal*).
7. *Will* (A.S., *willan*).

We have already seen the uses of *shall* and *will* (*should* and *would*) as auxiliaries of Tense. They also have independent meaning:

e.g., "*Shall* we share the profits?" (*Are* we *permitted?*)
"I *will* not go." (I *am resolved*.)

In such a sentence as "It *would be* wrong to do so,' *would be* is sometimes considered as a Subjunctive equivalent.

8. *Wot* (A.S., *witan*, to know). From the same Verb are derived "to wit," and "wittingly."

9. *Need*—*e.g.*, He *need* not go = He *is* not *obliged to* go.

Need is followed by the Infinitive without the sign *to*. It must be distinguished from the Verb *need* (Weak) = to be in want of.

XIII.—On Kinds of Adjectives.

The following classes of Adjectives are usually given: (1) of *Quality*, (2) of *Quantity*, (3) Demonstrative (or of *Distinction*). This classification of Adjectives for purposes of syntax (*i.e.*, considering words arranged together in sentences) is open to

objection. If we say "He is a *good* boy," we may mean that the attribute of *goodness* distinguishes him from other boys. Or we may intend merely to imply that he has the quality of goodness. In the former case *good* may be justly considered as an Adjective of Distinction, and still preserve its character as an Adjective of Quality. Again, "My brother is a *splendid* fellow," may mean that he is "tall and well-proportioned in body, intellectual, and morally upright." The attribute or attributes implied by the word *splendid* may also serve to distinguish him from others. In such a case the Adjective is of Quality, Quantity (as applied to Measure) and Distinction.

The question of the consideration of the **Article as a separate part of speech** is of some interest. (1) The Article is Adjectival in origin. (2) It is used as an *attributive* Adjective. (3) We derive our formal Grammar from Latin, and in that language no Article exists. These are three reasons why the Article should *not* be considered as a separate part of speech.

On the other hand: (1) The Article cannot be used *predicatively*. We cannot say "He is *a*" or "You are *the*." The Articles have no meaning in themselves. (2) The Article existed in both forms in Anglo-Saxon. (3) The Articles have distinct logical uses. The absence of the Article denotes *universality;*

e.g., "Man is a rational animal."

The use of the Indefinite Article denotes *generality;*

e.g., "A man's a man for a' that."

The use of the Definite Article denotes *particularity;*

e.g., "The man is rational."

Counting Words.

I. Cardinals (Latin: *cardo*, a hinge). Numbers alone, *e.g.*, one, two, three.

(1) *One*, pronounced *wun* (West of England). Contrast: al*one*, *on*ly.

(2) *Two*, derived from the Feminine and Neuter forms of A.S. *twegen*, the original of *twain*. Notice as connected with this derivation that *twain* refers to men, *two* to things, when "twain" is used.

(3) *Four*, A.S. *feower*; cf. *eower* = your.

(4) *Eleven*, A.S. *endlufon*—*en* = *án* = one; *lufon* = Latin: decem; *cf.* lingua = tongue (Liquid-Dental). Similarly *twelve*.

(5) Anglo-Saxon has no counting words above "thousand." *Million* is derived from Italian.

II. Ordinals express relation; *e.g.*, First, Second, Third.

(1) *First*, A.S. *fyrrest*, superlative of *forma*.

(2) *Second*, French *seconde*, Latin *secundus* (favourable, following after).

(3) *Fourth*. The suffix *th* is to be compared with the suffix *th* in *wealth*. It denotes state or condition and is equivalent to Latin *tas* (sani*tas*, state of being healthy).

III. Distributives, answering the question "How many at a time?" *e.g.*, *By fours*, *Four and four*, *Four each*, *Every four*.

IV. Multiplicatives, answering the question "How many fold?"

Examples.—(*a*) Three thousand fold, (*b*) Once, twice [Genitive Forms: *ones*], (*c*) Double, triple [Romance Adjectives], (*d*) Three *times* one.

V. Both, derived from the Feminine and Neuter forms of A.S. *begen, bā*. The origin of *th* is obscure.

XIV.—On Comparison of Adjectives.

Adjectives are not inflected, except to mark comparison. Some Adjectives do not admit of comparison;

e.g., solar, two, right.

Adjectives used in the sense of perfection or completeness do sometimes approximately or popularly admit of comparison;

e.g., "The *chiefest* among ten thousand."

A similar remark applies to Mathematical and even National Adjectives;

e.g., rounder, more English.

I. The *Comparative* is formed by adding *-er;*

e.g., softer.

The *Superlative* is formed by adding *-est;*

e.g., softest.

(*a*) Adjectives of one syllable are usually so compared.

(*b*) Some Adjectives of two syllables, with the accent on the last syllable, or in which the last syllable is elided before the suffix ;

e.g., gente'eler, abler.

(*c*) Adjectives of two syllables ending in *y* or *er*, preceded by a Consonant ;

e.g., happier, tenderer.

II. The *Comparative* is formed by putting *more* before the Positive ;

e.g., *more positive.*

The *Superlative* is formed by putting *most* before the Positive ;

e.g., *most positive.*

(*a*) Adjectives of two syllables other than those in I. (*b*), (*c*), are so compared.

(*b*) Adjectives of more than two syllables are so compared. This method is of Romance origin. Both methods, I. and II., were once combined ;

e.g., *most fairest.*

Notice that the Comparative and Superlative may both be used when no comparison is implied ;

e.g., This is suitable for *weaker* (= somewhat weak) pupils; *Most worthy* gentlemen !

III. **Irregular or Defective Comparison.**

good (A.S. *gō'd*)	**better** (A.S. Comp. Adj. *bet*)	**best** (A.S. *betest*)

bad (Celtic) **evil** (A.S. *yfel*) **ill** (Scandinavian)	**worse** (Scotch *weor*)	**worst** (A.S. *wyrsest*)
much **many**	**more** (A.S. *má*; cf. Lat. *mag*-nus)	**most**
little (A.S. *lyt*)	**less** (A.S. *læssa*)	**least** (A.S. *læsest*)

Notice the by-form *lesser*.

old	**older** **elder**	**oldest** **eldest**

Elder than is not now used.

nigh	**nigher**	**nighest** **next**

An old Comp. of *nigh* is *near* forming Double Comp. *nearer*.

far	**farther** **further** (A.S. *forih*)	**farthest** **furthest**

Former is from A.S. *forma* (*forth*) = first, M.E. *foremest* = foremost.

late	**later** **latter**	**latest** **last**
(A.S. *hræst* cf. M.E. *rathe*)	**rather** ——	—— **first** (A.S. *fyrrest*, superl. of *fore*)

IV. Notice the following Double forms, formed usually by the addition of another superlative sign to the old superlative sign *ma*:

foremost, inmost, outmost, hindmost, innermost, outermost.

XV.—On Pronouns and the Adjectives Connected with Them.

I.—Personal Pronouns.

	SINGULAR.		
	FIRST PERSON.	SECOND PERSON.	THIRD PERSON.
Nom.	I	thou	he she it
Obj. / Ind. Obj.	me	thee	him her it
	PLURAL.		
	FIRST PERSON.	SECOND PERSON.	THIRD PERSON.
Nom.	we	you (ye)	they
Obj. / Ind. Obj.	us	you	them

The following is the A.S. declension of Personal Pronouns:

	FIRST PERSON.			SECOND PERSON.			THIRD PERSON.	
	Sing.	*Dual.*	*Plur.*	*Sing.*	*Dual.*	*Plur.*	*Sing.*	*Plur.*
Nom.	ic	wit	we'	thu'	git	ge'	he' he'o hit	hi'
Acc.	me'	unc	u's	the'	unc	eo'w	hine hi hit	hi'
Gen.	mi'n	uncer	u're	thi'ne	uncer	eo'wer	his hire his	hira
Dat.	me'	unc	u's	the'	unc	e'ow	him hire him	him

The Dual Number of the First and Second Personal Pronouns disappeared in the 13th century. The Gen. Case of the Sec. Pers. Dual occurs in "Havelock the Dane" (line 1882, Early English Text Soc., ed. by Skeat) "Gripeth ether *unker* a god tre."

First Person—*Me* was written *mee* as late as the time of Milton. The *e* was dropped in *mee* and not in *thee* on

account of the greater frequency of use of the former. The form *thee* also distinguishes the Pronoun from the Article *the*.

We and *us* may be used of single persons (Plural of Dignity);

e.g., "We therefore have great cause of thankfulness." (Shakespeare, *Henry V.*)

Second Person—*Thou* used to be used by a superior to an inferior, *you* by an inferior to a superior, or formally between equals. *Thou* is now used as the Pronoun of reverence and in poetry. *You* is now used in familiar as well as formal intercourse in addressing a single person. The use of *ye* in any other case than the Nominative is historically incorrect.

Third Person—*She*, *her*, *they*, *them* are not derived from the A.S. Personal Pronoun, but from the A.S. Demonstrative se' *se'o* thaet, the plural of which is *tha' thæ'm*.

II.—Reflexive Pronouns.

	SINGULAR.		
	FIRST PERSON.	SECOND PERSON.	THIRD PERSON.
Obj.	(me)	(thee)	(him, her, it)
Ind. Obj.	myself	thyself	himself, herself, itself
	PLURAL.		
	FIRST PERSON.	SECOND PERSON.	THIRD PERSON.
Obj.	(us)	(you)	(them)
Ind. Obj.	ourselves	yourselves	themselves

The forms *me*, *thee*, etc., are now not commonly used, though we still have "I bethought *me*," "They made *them* ready," "Haste *thee* to help me," and similar instances.

In the sentence "I slew him *myself*," myself is merely *emphatic*, and may be called a Definitive Adjective; in the sentence "I slew *myself*," myself is *reflexive*. In the first case, *self* is derived from the A.S. Adjective *selfa*, which agreed with the Pronoun in Gender, Number and Case.

Nom., ic selfa.
Gen., mi'n selfes.
Dat., me' selfum.

Of these forms, the most common was the Dative, so that finally the *me'* became inseparable from the form, and we have: ic meself = I *myself*.

In the second case, *self* is derived from the Noun *self*, and here the Genitive form gradually established itself.

e.g., mi'nself = the self of me.

In transition English we have the forms *hisself* and *theirselves*, still used by so-called illiterate people.

III.—Possessive Pronouns.

Singular.		
First Person.	Second Person.	Third Person.
mine.	thine.	his, hers.
Plural.		
First Person.	Second Person.	Third Person.
ours.	yours.	theirs.

Possessive Adjectives.

my, our ; thy, your ; his, her, its, their.

All these were originally Genitives of the Personal Pronouns :

(1) In Milton's time, *mine* and *thine* were used both pronominally and as Adjectives, and the latter use also still survives, but not in ordinary diction.

e.g., "*Mine* host of the Garter."

"O love, *thine* eyes
Build the shrine my soul abides in."

(2) *Hers*, *ours*, *yours*, *theirs* are Genitives of Genitives. *Hires* occurs in Chaucer, and *theirs* is derived from the A.S. Demonstrative.

(3) **The Neuter Possessive, its** is derived from the A.S. *his*. The changes were *his*, *hit*, *it*, *its*. During the last years of Elizabeth, *its* was coming gradually into use. It was acclimatized by Dryden and others, though almost wholly avoided by Milton. In the authorized version (1611) of the Bible, *its* occurs once, Levit., xxv., 5 :

"That which groweth of *its* own accord of thy harvest shalt thou not reap."

Elsewhere *his* is used.

e.g., "But if the salt have lost *his* savour" (St. Matthew, v., 13).

Shakespeare and other Elizabethan dramatists used *it* with the sense of *its ;*

e.g., "Do, child, go to *it* grandam, child :
Give grandam kingdom, and *it* grandam will
Give it a plum, a cherry, and a fig." (*King John*, Act ii., Sc. i.) Also cf. *King Lear*, Act i., Sc. iv. (Folio).

IV.—Interrogative Pronouns.

Singular and Plural.		
Nom.	who	what (indeclinable).
Obj.	whom	which
Poss.	whose	

Interrogative Adjectives.

whose, what, which.

The following compound words are also used as Interrogative Pronouns, *whoever*, *whatever*, *whichever*, *whether*. *Whatever* and *whichever* may be also used as Adjectives. *Who* has reference to persons; *which* and *what* have reference usually to sexless things or animals. They may also be used of persons;

e.g., "*Which* of those men is your enemy?"

(1) *Whose* is the Gen. of the Neut. as well as of the Mas. and Fem., and may be so used.

(2) *Which* is derived from the A.S. Instrumental Case of hwa, *hwi* (why) and *lic*, like, and meant *why-like.*

(3) *Whether*, A.S. *hwæther*, *-ther* being a comparative ending, whether, "which of two."

V.—Relative Pronouns.

who (declined like Interrog. who), that,
which, what,
as, but.

Relative Adjectives.

which, what.

The following compound words may also be used as Relative Pronouns: *whoever*, *whoso*, *whosoever*, *which-*

ever, *whatever*, *whichsoever*, *whatsoever*. The four last mentioned may be used as Adjectives.

Who refers to persons, *which* to sexless things or animals, *that* to persons, things without sex, or animals.

That is correctly used when what it introduces serves to define the antecedent;

e.g., "We left behind the painted buoy
That tosses at the harbour mouth."

Contrast: "There is a tide in the affairs of men,
Which, taken at the flood, leads on to fortune."

Here "*which* . . . *fortune*" does more than define the antecedent. *That* [rel.] can never immediately follow a Preposition.

What is equivalent to *that which*, and therefore is generally used without antecedent.

e.g., "He did *what* he desired."

As is derived from the A.S. *ealswá* = also, and is used as a Relative Pronoun after *such* and *same*;

e.g., "Its beauties were such *as* defy description."

But, A.S. *bútan* (*be*, by; *útan*, out) is equivalent to "who-not" (Latin: *qui non*);

e.g., "There is none of us, *but* has his faults."

VI.—Demonstrative Pronouns.

Singular.		
This	That	Yon
Plural.		
These	Those	Yon

These words may also be used as *Demonstrative Adjectives:*

Such, *so* (when it is the equivalent of *such*), *same*, have sometimes the force of Demonstrative Pronouns. *The* (A.S., thy') before a Comparative is a Demon. Pron. in origin ;

e.g., *The* more the merrier."

Yon did not exist in A.S.

In Anglo-Saxon there were two Demonstratives:

1. Mas. *se'* (Acc. Sing. *thone*), Fem. *se'o*, Neut. *thæt.*
   Plur. Nom. *tha'*, Plur. Gen. *thæ're*, Plur. Dat. *thæ'm*, which weakened into *thæ'*, *thæ're*, *thæ'm.*
2. Mas. *thes*, Fem *the'os*, Neut. *thi's;* Plur. Nom. *tha's*, which weakened into *thæ's.*

The derivations from these forms are many and interesting.

1. From *se'* (by form *the'*) the Article or Demon. Adj. *the.*
2. From *se'o* the Personal Pronoun *she.*
3. From *thæt* the Relative and Demonstrative Pronoun *that.*
4. From *thæ'* the Personal Pronoun *they.*
5. From *thæ're* the Possessive Pronoun and Adjective *their.*
6. From *this* the Demonstrative Pronoun and Adjective *this.*
7. From *tha's*, *thæ's*, the Demonstrative Pronouns and Adjectives *these*, *those.*
8. From *thone*, *than* and *then.*

VII.—Indefinite Pronouns.

Who may be used indefinitely ;

e.g., "As *who* should say, 'I am Sir Oracle.'"

See Notes III. and XVI.

XVI.—On some Identifying Words.

The following Identifying Words are here discussed: *one*, *any*, *some*, *other*, *another*, *many*, *few*, *each*, *either*, *neither*, *such*, *same*. Each of them may at one time perform the duty of a Pronoun, and at some other time the duty of an Adjective.

(1) *One* is derived from the A.S. *a'n*, and is the same in origin as the numeral. Used pronominally, when it stands for a single thing already mentioned;

e.g., "Give me another gun; I have *one*."

One forms a Plural;

e.g., "These are bad *ones*."

In "*One* would imagine," *one* has the sense of the French *on* (Latin: *homo*). The corresponding word in A.S. is *man*, different from *mann*, a human being. This form *man* is used in Zech., xiii., 5:

"I am an husbandman; for *man* taught me to keep cattle from my youth."

None, A.S., *na'n* (*ne*, not; *a'n*, one). *Not one* is more emphatic than *none*.

(2) *Any*, A.S., *a'n* + *ig* = *æ'nig*.

Used pronominally *any* is the correlative of *none*.

e.g. Brutus. Who is here, so vile, that will not love his country?
If *any*, speak, for him have I offended.
I pause for a reply.
Citizens. None, Brutus, none.
Brutus. Then *none* have I offended.
Julius Caesar, Act iii., Sc. 1.

Any, as an Adjective, has three constructions:

(1) Qualifying Nouns in Singular, it often implies quantity.

(2) Qualifying Nouns in Plural, it always refers to number.

(3) With words of negation, it is exclusive.

e.g. (1) Is there *any* ink here?
(2) Are there *any* books in the room?
(3) I have not received *any* letters.

Notice the instructive derivation of *Aught* and *Naught:*

Aught, A.S. *á*, ever; *wiht*, any created living thing (Eng. *wight*).

Naught, A.S. *ne*, not; *á*, ever; *wiht*. *Not* is a shortened form. Cf. Eng. *naughty* (originally *worthless*).

(3) *Some*, A.S. *sum*, a certain one (different from "some" in *winsome*).

some = not none = some at least = one or more.

any = some, no matter which.

(4) *Other*, A.S. *ó'der*, the ultimate meaning of which is "*beyond this.*"

Notice the constructions:

the other day = some one day, but not this day;
the other way involves duality.

(5) *Another* = one and a second. *Other* is alternative = second of two; *another* is indefinite = any one above two.

2 Kings, x., 21: "And the house of Baal was full from one end to *another*." *Another* should be *the other*.

(6) *Many*, A.S. *manig*. Sometimes used with *a*, *e.g.*, "*Many* a man."

(7) *Few*, A.S. *fé'a*.

(8) *Each*, A.S. *æ'lc* (*a'*, ever; *li'c*, like). Cf. *such*.

Notice, *Every*, A. S. *æ'fer* + *æ'lc* (*a'* + *ge* + *li'c*). *Every* = ever ever like.

(9) *Either*, A.S., *a'*, ever+*ge* (Prefix)+*hwæther*, whether:

(i.) =one of two; *e.g.*, "*Either* will serve my purpose."

(ii.) =both; *e.g.*, "On either side the efforts were praiseworthy."

(10) *Neither*, A.S., *na'*+*ge*+*hwæther*. *Neither* is the negative of *Either*.

(11) *Such*, A.S., *swa'*, so; *li'c*=like, formed *swy'le*, whence *such; li'c* [modern -ly], which is the ending of so many Adverbs, means in A.S., *A body* [*living or dead*]; the word remains with this meaning in *lich*-gate, *lyke*-wake (*v.* Anglo-Saxon Dictionary, Bosworth-Toller, 1882).

Such is commonly used as an Adjective;

e.g., "*Such* harmony is in immortal souls."

It is also used pronominally;

e.g., "Mere strength of understanding would have made him *such* in any age."

The word *so* is often used for *such*.

e.g., "We think our fathers fools, so wise we grow;
Our wiser sons no doubt will think us *so*."

(12) *Same.* Same in A.S. occurs always in combination with *swá* = similarly, in the same way.

Same is used pronominally in: "that they might teach their children the *same*."

Our word *same* is believed to be of Scandinavian origin.

XVII.—On Adverbs.

Adverbs may be classified (1) according to their individual *meaning*, (2) as regards their *origin*, (3) into *flat*, *sectional* and *phrasal*.

(1) To the Adverbs of Time, Place, Manner, Cause (See Note III., 5), we may add *Numeral Adverbs;*

e.g., *once*, *twice*.

Adverbs used interrogatively may be called *Interrogative Adverbs;*

e.g., "*Where* have you been?"

Notice the use of these words in introducing parts of sentences which would be questions in their independent form;

e.g., "Tell me *where* you have been."

Some Ad-verbs are in use Ad-sentences; *i.e.*, what the Ad-verb ordinarily is to a word, these are to sentences;

e.g., "This is *assuredly* true."

(2) Adverbs are derived

(i.) From **Nouns;**

e.g., *needs* (Genitives), cf., *o'nights*, *o'clock*.
alway, *meanwhile* (Accusative).
whilom (Dat. Pl. *hwi'lum*).
abed, *ashore*, *betimes* (with Prepositions).

(ii.) From **Adjectives**;

e.g., *once, twice* (Gen.), *seldom* (Dat.), *afar* (Prep.), *deeply* (=deep-like).

(iii.) From **Prepositions**;

e.g., *on, beneath, through.*

(iv.) From **Pronouns**;

where, whither, whence (who A.S. *hwa*); *thence, there, thither* (that A.S. *thæt*); *here, hence, hither* (he A.S. *he*).

Compound Adverbs are formed; *e.g.*, *hereunto, hereafter, therein, wherewith.*

(3) The third classification is Prof. Earle's. A *flat* Adverb has the form of an Adjective;

e.g., "He walks *fast*," "We speak *loud.*"

Needs, upwards are examples of *sectional* Adverbs; *of a truth* is an example of a *phrasal* Adverb.

Comparison of Adverbs.

Adverbs admit of comparison;

e.g., sincerely, more sincerely, most sincerely.

The following are *irregularly compared:*

well	better	best
ill	worse	worst
much	more	most
late	later	last
little	less	least
far	farther	farthest
forth	further	furthest

XVIII.—On Prepositions.

Relationships that in Anglo-Saxon used to be shown by case-endings are now shown by Prepositions. This is the result of the tendency of our language towards analytical expression. Where, in Anglo-Saxon speech and writing, *fōtum* was used, we now say and write, *to feet* or *for feet;* for *scipes*, we say and write, *of a ship;* for *thy's* we say and write *with this* or *by this.* Modern English Prepositions also correspond to ancient Prepositions, with more or less change through constant usage. The Anglo-Saxon *tō* is the Modern English *to*, the A.S. *fram* our *from*, but the A.S. *with* had the meaning of our *against.* We have already seen that some verbs are constructed with Prepositions, the particular Preposition used determining the meaning of the Verbal Phrase. We *confer* a benefit *on* a man, but we *confer with* him about a matter of business. A company of soldiers may *fall in*, or *fall upon* the enemy, or, after they have *fallen to*, may *fall off* because their commanders have *fallen out.*

Prepositions are of two kinds: *Simple* and *Compound.*

I. The **Simple** Prepositions of English origin are: *at, by, for, from, in, of, on, out, to, up, with.* Two Latin Prepositions are commonly used, *per* (*e.g.*, six *per* cent.), and *versus* (*e.g.*, P. *versus* W.).

II. **Compound** Prepositions are formed by the use of comparative suffixes; *e.g., after, over, under;* or by compounding simple Prepositions; *e.g., into, upon, before;* or from Nouns; *e.g., abreast, atop, ahead, astride;* or from Adjectives; *e.g., along, amid;* or from Verbs; *e.g., notwithstanding, owing to.*

Prepositions not of pure English origin derived from Nouns, Adjectives and Verbs are:

across (F., *croix*), *because* (Latin: *causa*), *by means of* (from Nouns); *agreeably to, exclusive of, maugre, around* (from Adjectives); *during, pending, excepting* (from Verbs).

XIX.—On Conjunctions.

Subordinating Conjunctions introduce groups of words that play the part of Noun or Adverb.

(1) **Noun.**

e.g., I feared *lest* he should come.

I know *that* you are not my friend.

If after the Verb of the principal part of the sentence we ask the question "What?" we obtain as answer the other part of the sentence.

Q. I feared "What?" A. Lest he should come.

We have already noticed that the object of a Verb is a *Noun* or its *equivalent*. We conclude that the group of words, "*lest he should come*," is the equivalent of a Noun.

(2) **Adverb.** These Conjunctions may express Time, Place, Cause, End (or Purpose), Consequence (Result), Condition, Concession, Comparison.

1. **Time**: when, while, till, until, after, since, before, ere.
2. **Place**: where, whence, whither.
3. **Cause**: because, since.
4. **End**: that (in order that), lest.
5. **Consequence**: that (so that).
6. **Condition**: if, unless, except (but).
7. **Concession**: although, though.
8. **Comparison**: as, than.

(i.) **But** may be (1) *Co-ordinating Conjunction, e.g.*, "He is here to-day, *but* he departs to-morrow," (2) *Sub-ordinating Conjunction, e.g.*, "I cannot be condemned, *but* (unless) I be tried." (3) *Adverb, e.g.*, "I am *but* (only) a poor old man," (4) *Preposition, e.g.*, "All *but* him were lost."

(ii) **The** before a Comparative, in origin a Demonstrative Pronoun, may be considered as a Conjunction;

e.g., "*The* more, the merrier."

A comparison is instituted between the increase in number, and the increase in merriment.

SYNTAX.

XX.—On Syntax.

Syntax [*syn* together, *taxis* arrangement] deals with the arrangement of words for the expression of thoughts. The chief rules of the three parts of Syntax, **Position, Government, Agreement,** have already been illustrated. The sentence, which I am now writing, will lead us to the following conclusions about the position of words in a sentence: the *Subject* comes first; *words relating to each other* are placed together; *qualifying words* if possible precede the words they qualify. Readers of English books are familiar with the changes made in grammatical order for the sake of emphasis or rhetorical effect;

e.g., "Great is Diana of the Ephesians."

"In Him was life."

"Dear is the memory of our wedded lives."

Notice the confusion caused by not placing together the words relating to each other.

"A piano for sale by a lady about to cross the Atlantic in an oak case with carved legs."

What remains to be said upon the subjects of Government and Agreement may be treated under *five rules*, which are already known to those who have followed these notes.

Rule I.

The Subject, if it is declinable, stands in the Nominative Case.

This needs no further comment.

Rule II.

The Verb (finite) agrees with its Subject in Person and Number.

EXAMPLES.

"The opinion of several lawyers, who held the highest positions in their profession, *was* (not *were*) in his favour"

(i.) "The multitude *were* on our side."
"The multitude *was swayed* like one man."

(ii.) "William *and* Mary *were* English sovereigns."
"The Bishop, the Earl and the Sheriff *hold* the shire-moot."

(iii.) "Her heart, her mind, her love *is* his alone."
"A laggard in love and a dastard in war
Was to wed...."
"Slow and sure *out-travels* haste."

(iv.) "The Secretary *or* the Treasurer *draws* up the report."

(v.) "My poverty, not my wishes, *consents*."
"My wishes, not my poverty, *consent*."
"Not a loud voice but strong proofs *bring* conviction."

(vi.) "Now *abideth* Faith, Hope and Charity."
"For Thine *is* the Kingdom, the Power and the Glory."

(vii.) "*Every* boy and girl *is* to have a prize."
"*Each* thought and each desire *is* to be pure."
"*No* part of the nation and no party in the Church *thinks* as you do."

(viii.) The whole book, *and every part of it*, *is* on a large scale (*parenthesis*).

The conclusions (i.) to (viii.) on this page refer to the Examples (i.) to (viii.) respectively on page 66. A similar remark applies to the other Rules.

(i.) A *Noun of Multitude* takes a Plural Verb, and a *Collective Noun* a Singular Verb.

(ii.) When the subject is *compound, i.e.*, when it consists of two or more Nouns or their equivalents united by *and*, expressed or understood, the Verb is Plural.

(iii.) When the words that make up the Subject can be regarded as *forming one idea* the Verb may be Singular.

(iv.) Two or more Singular Nouns or their equivalents united by *or* (*nor*, *either*, *neither*), expressed or understood, take a Singular Verb.

Caution I.—Avoid connecting Nouns or Pronouns of different numbers by *or* (*nor*....).

Say: "He was or his servants were to blame."

Caution II.—Avoid connecting Pronouns of different persons by *or* (*nor*....).

Say: "Neither is she to blame nor am I."

(v.) When an affirmative Noun and a negative Noun occur in the same sense, the Verb agrees with the *affirmative Noun*.

(vi.) Sometimes when several Subjects *follow* one Verb, it agrees with the first and is understood for the rest.

(vii.) *Every*, *each* and *no* demand a Singular Verb.

(viii.) A *parenthetical* part of a sentence does not influence the Verb.

Rule III.

The Object, if it is declinable, stands in the Objective Case.

EXAMPLES.

(i.) "In this case Frank Churchill found her, *her* (not *she*) trembling," "*them* (not *they*) loud and insolent."

(ii.) He journeyed many miles with the famous African explorer and me (not *I* or *myself*).

A mistake is easily made (i.) when the Objects are in apposition, or (ii.) do not directly follow a Preposition.

Rule IV.

The Relative Pronoun agrees with its antecedent in Gender, Person and Number, but its case depends upon the part it plays in its own part of the sentence.

EXAMPLES.

"I am one of those *that* cannot describe what *they* do not *understand*."

"The Duke of Wellington is one of those *who* never *interfere* (not *interferes*) in matters over which *they* (not *he*) *have* (not *has*) no control"

(i.) "Beelzebub . . . than *whom* none higher sat."

(ii.) "Who steals my purse steals trash."
"The horse I stole."

(iii.) "The stone *which* the builders rejected"

(iv.) "Solomon, son of David, *who* slew Goliath."
"Solomon, son of David, *who* built the temple."

(v.) "There was a public house next door *which* was a great nuisance."

(i.) A Relative after *than* is always *Objective*, though there is no grammatical justification for this Case.

(ii.) The *antecedent* or the *Relative* may sometimes be omitted.

(iii.) In *metaphors* the Relative usually agrees with the Noun in its literal sense. Contrast: "Behold I lay in Zion a chief corner-stone and he that believeth on Him shall not be ashamed."

(iv.) If there are two words, each capable of being the antecedent, discriminate by *nearness* or *importance*.

(v.) "The Relative Pronoun causes ambiguity when the antecedent is not clearly indicated. . . . Here *which* may refer to the 'public-house,' but it may refer, not to the 'public-house,' but to the fact that the public-house was next door. Strictly speaking *that* should have been used in the former case, and *which* in the latter."

Rule 7

An Adjective agrees as far as possible with the word it qualifies, and a Predicate Adjective, Noun or Pronoun agrees as far as possible with the word to which it refers.

The following examples illustrate the Syntax of the Adjective, Adjective-equivalent, Predicate-Adjective, and Pronoun.

(i.) "Jacob loved Joseph more than *all his other* children."

"Montreal is the most populous *of Canadian cities*."

(ii.) "I am not so tall as *he* (is)."

"I hate no one more than (I hate) *thee*."

(iii.) "The *Huguenots'* Persecution," = (*a*) The Persecution carried on *by* the Huguenots; (*b*) The Persecution carried on *against* the Huguenots.

(iv.) "It grows *clearer*."
"He seems *different*."

(v.) "It is *me*." (Fr. *c'est moi.*)

(i.) When the *Comparative* is used with *than*, what is compared is always excluded from the class of things with which it is compared. The contrary holds for the *Superlative*.

(ii.) To find the *case after than* and *as*, mentally complete the sentence.

(iii.) The Possessive may have either (*a*) *Subjective* or (*b*) *Objective* meaning.

(iv.) Be careful not to use an *Adverb* for a *Predicate-Adjective*.

(v.) This form of speech is now almost generally regarded as correct, notwithstanding its lack of justification grammatically and historically. Chaucer has "Sir, *it am I*." "It is *I*" conveys an impression of grave dignity.

Exercises.

Correct, where necessary, the following sentences, stating in each case why you correct. Where a justification seems to be demanded, give it.

1. A pair of famous friends was Orestes and Pylades.

2. His courtesy, his love of truth, his modesty, his courage—in short, his goodness endears him to me.

3. What difference does his action make to you or I?

4. None of those, our trusted friends, are here.

5. I cannot tell you anything about the diseases of cattle; I have only studied them in human beings.

6. The derivation of the Noun is the Latin *nomen*.

7. I heard of him being done to death by savages.

8. You know my father hath no child but I.

9. My soul hates nothing more than he.

10. Those that she makes honest she makes very ill-favouredly.

11. Awful devout Puritanism, decent dignified Ceremonialism appeared here facing one another for the first time.

12. He was awfully sorry that so awful a calamity had occurred.

13. Verse and prose run into one another like light and shade.

14. I will be ignorant, because no one shall teach me.

15. This handkerchief was found in the house, which was put in evidence with the pistol, and this is the point in question.

16. He of all others is the most remarkable.

17. A friend matched his "he" against another's "she" in a trial of wit.

18. How funny that sounds!

19. What he is indeed
More suits you to conceive than I to speak of.

20. He says he shall do so with great pleasure.

21. Why did you not report the matter to myself?

22. The boy wants his hair cutting.

23. Ruskin is one of the greatest writers, that has appeared in this century.

24. Shakespeare is different to Dante; their writings cannot be compared.

25. Who on earth is the craven waiting for—you or I?

26. Neither he nor I am going to market to-day.

27. How are you? Nicely, thank you.

28. That's me he means.

29. The Canadian Pacific Railway runs straight through Lennoxville.

30. Smith looks different to-day.

31. If you write me down an exercise, do not write me down an ass.

32. These kind of things always annoys me.

33. The seat of Deity supreme, us dispossessed, he trusted to have seized.

34. It will make you sleep like Juliet's drug.

35. I know a man than whom none is more honourable.

36. You cannot see as well as I?

37. He can see you as well as I.

38. The Miss Browns called this afternoon, and found us out.

39. Players are only allowed on the grass.

40. Adam the goodliest man of men since born
His sons, the fairest of her daughters Eve.

41. I am one, that have found it so.

42. In her indignation she called the man a thing, which had done it.

43. Who injures me my father will punish.

44. From the evidence before us we would think the prisoner guilty.

45. The man was of such a dissatisfied disposition that he always said "Would it were!", if it were not, and "Would it were not!", if it were.

46. The house of Baal was full from one end to another.

47. The boy stood on the burning deck,
Whence all but he had fled.

48. Prize me no prizes, for my prize is death!

49. The jury were agreed upon a verdict.

50. Her dashing little carriage and ponies was whirling down the street.

Example: (14) I will be ignorant, because no one shall teach me;

Correct form: I *shall* be ignorant, because no one *will* teach me;

Reason: *Will* with the first person signifies *purpose*, with the third person, *simple futurity; shall* with the first person signifies *simple futurity*, with the third person, *compulsion.*

ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

XXI.—On the Simple Sentence.

The Analysis [*ana* up, *lysis* breaking] of a Sentence is the *breaking of it up* into its parts. This process is not new to us; we found it (Note II.) an essential preliminary to Parsing. The relations of the Predicate, Subject and Object, with their attributes and adjuncts were briefly discussed. We dealt there with Sentences, containing only one group of words having Subject and Predicate. Such sentences are called **Simple** or one-fold.

The **Predicate** may consist of

1. The Verb alone.

   e.g., "I *came*."

2. The Verb (of Incomplete Predication) together with a Predicate Adjective, Noun or Pronoun;

   e.g., "He is *miserable*."

   "My brother *turned out a vagabond*,
   I *am he*."

The Predicate may be followed by

1. One **Object**;

   e.g., "He killed his *enemy*."

   "We are planning a *yacht*."

   "He dreamed a *dream*."

2. One Object and a word describing the person or thing of which the Object is the name (*Complement*);

   e.g., "That stamps *you* a *fool*."

   "We think *him proud*."

3. An Object and an *Indirect Object;*

e.g., "I gave *him* (Ind.) *money*."
"I told *you* (Ind.) *to come*."

N.B.—The word **it** sometimes does the duty of a **Formal Subject;**

e.g., "*It* is pleasant to ride through the country"
= To ride through the country is pleasant.

Predicate "is pleasant," *Subject* "To ride through the country."

"*It* is my opinion that he did it"
="That he did it is my opinion."

Predicate "is my opinion," *Subject* "That he did it."

"To ride through the country" and "That he did it" are both **Equivalents** of a Part of Speech (Noun), but while the former contains no Subject and Predicate of its own, the latter contains both Subject and Predicate. The former Equivalent is called a **Phrase,** the latter Equivalent is called a **Subordinate Clause.** It is evident that the group of words "That he did it is my opinion" is not a *Simple Sentence.*

Obs.: Sometimes it is difficult to distinguish between the Subject and the Predicate Noun or Pronoun;

e.g., "Clematis is Travellers' Joy."
"My father is a Doctor."
"That is he."

It will be noticed that *Travellers' Joy* might be something else besides *Clematis;* that "*a Doctor*" is the name of other people as well as of *my father;* that *he* might refer to others besides *that,* the particular person we are pointing out. None of these words (Travellers' Joy, Doctor, he) is used distributively. Each of them is a Predicate Noun or Pronoun.

XXII.—On Equivalents.

The Subject or Object is a Noun or a Noun-Equivalent; the Attribute of the Subject or Object is an Adjective or an Adjective-Equivalent; the Adjunct of the Predicate is an Adverb or an Adverb-Equivalent. Such Equivalents may be words, phrases or clauses. In the latter case the clause itself must be in its turn analysed;

e.g., "That he did it is my opinion."

Sentence.—*Pred.* "is my opinion, *Subj.* "that he did it."

Clause.—*Pred.* "did," *Subj.* "he," *Obj.* "it" ["That" Conjunction].

The Attributes are sometimes called *Enlargements*, and the Adjunct the *Extension*.

When a *Verbal-Noun* or a *Verbal-Adjective* is used as an Equivalent, it retains, of course, the constructions of the Verb with which it is connected;

e.g., "To write *clearly* is an accomplishment."
"To become *a king* pleased him."
"Knowing *Churchill* educated me."
"Giving *beggars money* is dangerous charity."

In each of these cases the Adverb, Predicate-Noun, Object, or Two Objects *forms part* of the Subject.

Noun-Equivalents.

(i.) A Verbal-Noun:

"*Fishing (To fish)* is my favourite sport."

(ii.) A Pronoun:

"*He* is here"

(iii.) An Adjecti ve:

"The *good* are happy."

(iv.) A Quoted Word:

"Your '*If*' is the only peacemaker."

(v.) A Quoted Phrase:

"'*Mark's way*,' said Mark."

(vi.) A Clause:

"*That thou art a villain* shall be proven straight."

(vii.) A Quoted Clause:

"'*England expects every man to do his duty*' was the signal."

(viii.) An Accusative and Infinitive Phrase Equivalent to a Clause:

I know *him to be a fool* (=that he is a fool).

Adjective-Equivalents.

(i.) A Noun in the Possessive Case:

"*Harry's* hat flew off."

(ii.) A Verbal-Adjective:

"A *running* deer is a difficult mark."

"A well *written* pamphlet is good reading."

(iii.) Words in Apposition:

"*The very strong man*, Kwasind."

(iv.) A Prepositional Phrase:

"The fear *of man*."

"Horses *in stalls*."

"Men *with beards*."

"Bread *to eat*" (=Bread for eating).

(v.) A Noun or Gerund forming part of a Compound Noun:

A *milk*-pail.

A *walking*-stick (=a stick for walking).

(vi.) A Clause:

The man, *who is conscious of right*, fears nothing.

Adverb-Equivalents.

(i.) A Noun, usually equivalent to a Prepositional Phrase:

I stayed *months* (=for months).

He went *yesterday* (=on the day before this day).

We *walked* home (=towards home).

(ii.) A Prepositional Phrase:

"The king has gone *into the woods*."

A sower went forth *to sow* (=for sowing).

(iii.) A Pronoun, equivalent to a Preposition and a Pronoun:

"Make *me* that" (me=for me).

"Knock *me* at the gate" (me=for me).

(iv.) A Nominative Absolute Phrase, equivalent to a Clause:

"*This being so*, we set to work" (=Since this was so);

"*Winter over*, our friends rejoice" (=When winter is over).

(v.) A Clause:

After Will had gone, we breathed more freely.

The following sentence illustrates the use of Adjective-Equivalents. The Subject, Predicate and Object are in italics:

"*William* the Conqueror, Harold's old enemy, a man of great ambition and capable of great achievements, having carefully prepared for the enterprise and attracted adventurers from all parts of Europe to share in it, *crossed* the *Channel*, resolved on the conquest of England."

The following sentence illustrates the use of Adverb-Equivalents:

"Winter over, day after day, when it was fine, *he went* out into the lanes to cut me a stick."

XXIII.—On the Complex Sentence.

A Complex Sentence is one that contains at least two groups of words, each containing a Subject and Predicate of its own, standing in the relation to one another of Principal to Subordinate. The Principal group of words, which is of the nature of a Simple Sentence, is called the **Principal Clause**, and the subordinate group of words, which is an Equivalent, is called the **Subordinate Clause.**

Subordinate Clauses are called **Noun Clauses, Adjective Clauses** or **Adverb Clauses**, according as they are Noun-Equivalents, Adjective-Equivalents or Adverb-Equivalents.

I.—Noun Clauses.

e.g. (i.) "I found out *that he did not love me.*"

"*That he had wronged me* was apparent."

(ii.) "I command *that you do so.*"

(iii.) "He asked me *whether I was going.*"

(iv.) "The woman pointed out *how just her cause was.*"

(i.) Dependent **Statement**, (ii.) Dependent **Command**, (iii.) Dependent **Question**, (iv.) Dependent **Exclamation**.

II.—Adjective Clauses.

"He is not the man, *who met me.*"

"Within the hollow crown
That rounds the mortal temples of a king
Keeps death his court."

"All *I hear* is a faint tapping sound"
= All that I hear is a faint tapping sound.

"*Who steals my purse* steals trash"
= He, who steals my purse, steals trash.

"*What you stated* was proved false"
= That, which you stated, was proved false.

"I know the place *where the ghost is seen*"
= I know the place, in which the ghost is seen.

Obs.: An Adjective Clause usually begins with a Relative Pronoun, expressed or understood. Words like *where, why*, which sometimes introduce Adjective Clauses, are the equivalents of a Preposition and a Relative Pronoun.

III.—Adverb Clauses.

(i.) I have not seen him *since he returned* (Time).

(ii.) I am going *where he fears to follow* (Place).

(iii.) He does not write *because he is busy* (Cause).

(iv.) *Lest I should die*, I bowed my head to him (End).

(v.) We are so exhausted *that we cannot attend to you* (Consequence).

The Principal Clause always contains *so* or some equivalent word.

(vi.) I would not do it *if I found him false* (Condition).

The word *if* (= *whether*) sometimes introduces a Noun Clause;

e.g., "He knows not *if* he will come."

(vii.) *Although the messenger was terrified*, he was not utterly dismayed (Concession).

(viii.) He is no more a hero *than I am a heathen* (Comparison).

Such sentences sometimes require mental completion.

e.g., "'Tis better to have loved and lost
Than never to have loved at all"

= To have loved and lost is better [Principal]
Than never to have loved at all (*is good*) [Subordinate].

"We were as astonished as if a thunderbolt had fallen"

= (*a*) We were as astonished [Principal]
(*b*) as (*we should have been*) [Subordinate of Comparison]
(*c*) if a thunderbolt had fallen [of Condition Subordinate to (*b*)].

XXIV.—On Co-ordinate Sentences and Clauses.

Sentences and Clauses may be joined together by the Co-ordinating Conjunctions *and, but, or, nor, for.* Such sentences and clauses are called Co-ordinate Sentences and Co-ordinate Clauses. Co-ordinate Clauses are subordinate to the same clause;

e.g., **Co-ordinate Sentences:**

"*The boy has spoken correctly* but *I cannot decide the cause.*"

"*I am not right* nor *is he* (*right*)."

"*For thither too I went* and *much people* (*went*) *with me.*"

Co-ordinate Clauses:

"It must be, methinks, *that I am near men of human speech* and *I shall find shelter.*"

"*When the moon is up* and *the plain is visible,* I will make ready."

Obs.: "*I have no resources* and *if you can help me, I hope you will.*"

Here a simple sentence is co-ordinated with a complex.

(*a*) I have no resources [Simple Sentence].

(*b*) If you can help me [Adverb Clause of Condition Subordinate to (*d*)].

(*c*) I hope [Principal Clause, co-ordinate with the sentence (*a*)].

(*d*) (*that*) you will (*help me*) [Noun Clause, subordinate to (*c*)].

In the example of Analysis that follows the column for the Predicate may stand before that for the Subject. Indeed it is suggested that this should be done, until familiarity with the process is acquired. Some prefer to have the last column reserved for the *adjunct*.

"Dare I say
No spirit ever brake the band
That stays him from the native land
Where first he walk'd when claspt in clay?"

Obs.: *That* is omitted before "*No spirit*"; *where=in which; he was* is elided before *claspt in clay*.

	Clause.	Kind.	Subject.	Attribute of the Subject.	Predicate.	Adjunct.	Object.	Attribute of the Object.
A	Dare I say	*Principal*	I		dare		(to) say	
B	No spirit . . . . . band	*Noun, Subordinate to A*	spirit	no	brake	ever	band	the
C	That stays . . . . . land	*Adjective, Subordinate to B*	that		stays	from the native land	him	
D	Where . . . . . walk'd	*Adjective, Subordinate to C*	he		walk'd	(i.) where (ii.) first		
E	[When] . . . . . clay	*Adverb (of Time) Subordinate to D*	(he)		(was) claspt	in clay		

EXERCISES.

Analysis.

1. Take, for instance, your great English virtue of enduring and patient courage.

2.
Thereupon she took
A bird's-eye-view of all the ungracious past.

3. To be or not to be—that is the question.

4. So Willie and I were wedded.

5. The man who likes what you like, belongs to the same class with you, I think.

6.
The great Intelligences fair
That range above our mortal state,
In circle round the blessed gate,
Received and gave him welcome there.

7. And she seized her doughty spear, shod with sharp bronze, weighty, and huge and strong, wherewith she quells the ranks of heroes with whomsoever she is wroth, the daughter of the mighty sire.

8.
If you can be merry then, I'll say
A man may weep upon his wedding day.

9. The worst of it is, we are both clever fellows enough.

10.
They carved at the meal
With gloves of steel,
And they drank the red wine through the helmet barr'd.

11. In a word, then, I do not care about this Exchange,—because you don't; and because you know perfectly well I cannot make you.

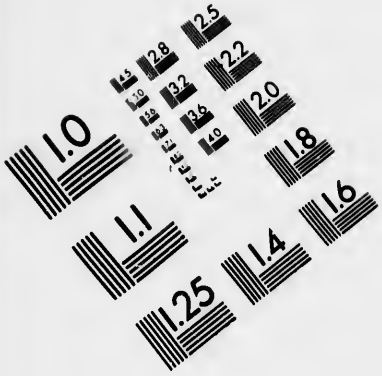
12. It had been so with us, had we been there.

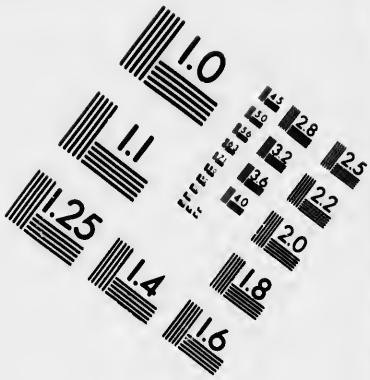
13. He keeps them, like an ape doth nuts, in the corner of his jaw.

14.
Sitting by a river's side,
Where a silent stream did glide,
Muse I did of many things
That the mind in quiet brings.

15.
I said, "I toil beneath the curse,
But, knowing not the universe,
I fear to slide from bad to worse."

16. You knock a man into a ditch, and then you tell him to remain content in the "position in which Providence has placed him."





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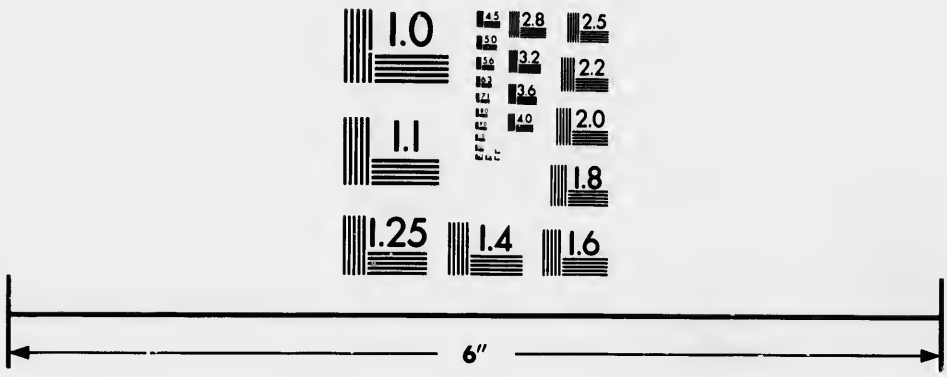

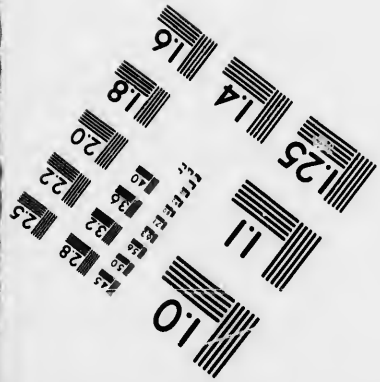

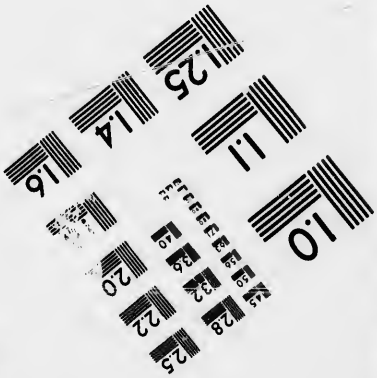

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17. I did look, sharp as a lynx,
(And yet the memory rankles)
When models arrived, some minx
Tripped up stairs, she and her ankles.

18. Sooner or later I, too, may passively take the print of the golden age.

19. And now to that same spot in the south of Spain are thirty similar French artizans, from a French Dumdrudge, in like manner wending, till at length, after infinite effort, the two parties come into actual juxtaposition.

20. What is fair conquers what is near.

21. The old mist again
Blinds me as then it did.

22. I read and seem as if I heard thee speak.
v. Note XXIII., III. (viii.), p. 80.

23. Never morning wore
To evening, but some heart did break.
v. Note XIX. (i.), p. 64.

24. Now he kept watch for the space of a year, lest Agamemnon should pass by h'm when he looked not, and mind him of his wild prowess.

25. He did not discover the fair lady, Truth, though he sought her night and day, because he wandered through the lofty places.

26. I hold it true, whate'er befall ;
I feel it, when I sorrow most ;
'Tis better to have loved and lost
Than never to have loved at all.
v. Note XXIII., III. (viii.), p. 80.

27. Let us, then, enquire together what sort of games the playing class in England spend their lives in playing at.

28. The purple from the distance dies,
My prospect and horizon gone.
v. Note XXII., Adverb-Equivalents (iv.), p. 77.

29. It gives me wonder great as my content,
To see you here before me. *v.* Note XXI., N.B., p. 74.

30. Remember who commended thy yellow stockings and wished to see thee cross-gartered.

APPENDICES.

APPENDICES.

I.—On the Development of English.

[*Extract from an Essay on Chaucer's Prologue.*]

"What was the instrument of expression to Chaucer's hand? It is pertinent to ask this of every writer, but especially of one, who lived at a time when language was beginning to emerge from what Mr. Marsh calls a 'Babylonish confusion.' This confusion was the result of the separate incomings of various races contending for monopoly in power and speech. The first races came from the North of Germany, bringing with them a language, now called Anglo-Saxon or First English, which was an inflected language. They changed the form of words to express those relations which we now express by the aid of helping words, *to*, *for*, *of*, etc. They said, for example, *stánes*, where we say *of a stone*; they said *wyrcan*, where we say *to work*. The next races to arrive were the neighbours of the Saxons, the Danes. They were unwilling to learn the language of those among whom they settled: the Saxons were equally disinclined to learn the Danish tongue. Consequently, by way of compromise, many of the inflexions were made simpler, and changes took place in the construction of sentences. Men did not learn these new things in a day nor a generation; even after a hundred and fifty years there was no settled speech for the people, especially in the North and East, where the Danes had made their home.

"But a greater change was to come. In 1066 William the Norman, whose ancestors were not far remote from the ancestors of the English, conquered Harold the son of the Good-Fighter, and obtained possession of England. His Normans spoke as nearly as they could, or as they thought fit, the tongue of those French people, whose land they had taken, and whose women they had married. This Norman-French came to be spoken at the English Court, in the English Courts-of-Law, by predominant people everywhere. Children were compelled, says Ralph Higden, to leave their own language, and to construe their lessons and their things in French. Gentlemen's children were taught to speak French from their cradle. It is not to be supposed that English was dead. The subject people were speaking it, and after a struggle of three hundred years, it ousted the language of its former conquerors. What led to this turning of the tables is a matter of history. Henry II. was half an Englishman, and his familiar friend Becket had his home in London. John, whose strange fate it was to be the unwilling and vile instrument of much that was good, lost Normandy, and signed Magna Carta. At Creçy and Poitiers it was seen that the English yeoman was more than a match for the boasted blue-blood of Europe. All things made for liberty and truer relations of man to man. So that after the first murrain (1349) the manner of teaching French was changed, and by 1385 'in all the grammar schools of England children leaveth French, and construeth and learneth in English.' In 1362 a statute ordered English to be used in the pleadings of the Courts-of-Law, 'because the French tongue was much unknown.' As regards Literature, the author of the

Testament of Love claims for Englishmen like himself to 'show their fantasies in such words as they learned of their mother's tongue.'

"But it was a changed English tongue, changed in form, and changed in substance. In fact the old inflected Anglo-Saxon was becoming a synthetic language, using auxiliary words and simpler forms. Many new words of Norman-French origin came in, as (to mention those whose incoming is most easily understood) *beef* for the meat that was dressed by the Saxon servant and called by him *ox, mutton* (English *sheep*), *veal* (English *calf*). Nor was there a national language, but in North, Midlands, and South, were spoken different dialects. Now, though the speech of the Northern farmer, of the Cockney coster, of the Midland labourer, of the Somerset yokel, is diverse, yet there is an English language, without the peculiarities of any of these local variations of speech, in which English books are written, and which all educated Englishmen can use. We cannot easily over-estimate the influence of Chaucer in fostering this national language. He was able, by using the East Midland dialect with such power and grace, to make his writing a standard of literary excellence."

II.—On the Alphabet.

There are twenty-six letters in the English Alphabet, divided into Vowels and Consonants. The sounds, that these characters represent, are called Vowel-Sounds and Consonant-Sounds.

A **Vowel-Sound** is produced by the vibration of the vocal chords, without the help of the mouth, throat or nose. Each vowel has its proper articulation, *e.g.*, *a*, *e*.

A **Diphthong** (twice-sound) is produced by running together two vowel-sounds into one sound, *e.g.*, the sounds of *ou*, *oi*.

A **Consonant-Sound** is produced by means of the mouth, throat or nose, with or without vibration of the vocal chords, *e.g.*, the sounds of *b*, *g*, *n*.

Consonants, which represent sounds, produced with vibration are called *Voiced*, *e.g.*, *b*, *d*. Those, which represent sounds, produced without vibration are called *Voiceless*, *e.g.*, *p*, *t*.

The letters of the Alphabet do not accurately represent the sounds of the language. There are **thirteen vowel-sounds**, which are variously represented. The letter *a* may represent *five* sounds as in *father*, *fat*, *fate*, *law*, *rare*. The other *eight* vowel-sounds are shown in the words, *bed*, *tin*, *machine*, *not*, *note*, *cool*, *rude*, *but*.

Obs. : *au*, *e* represent the same sound in *laugh*, *clerk*, as *a* in *father*; *ai*, *ei* represent the same sound in *pain*, *vein*, as *a* in *fate*. These instances may be multiplied.

The **Vowels** are : *i*, *e*, *a*, *o*, *u*.

There are **four diphthongs**, represented in the words *feud*, *oil*, *mouse*, *height*.

We may classify **consonant-sounds** into **Mutes** and **Spirants**. In the formation of a *Mute*, the mouth is closed, and then opened suddenly with a sort of explosion ; in the formation of a *Spirant*, the air rubs against a narrow passage of the mouth.

The Spirants represented by the letters *l*, *m*, *n*, *r*, *ng* are called **Liquids**.

The spirants represented by the letters *z* (both in *zeal* and *azure*), *s*, and *sh* are called **Sibilants** (Latin: sibilare, *to hiss*.

The other spirants are the sounds of: *w*, *the*, *th*, *v*, *f*, *ch* [*e.g.*, *loch*], *y*.

The mutes are the sounds of: *b*, *p*, *d*, *t*, *g*, *k*.

Consonants are classified, according to the means employed to produce the sounds they represent, into Labials (lips), Dentals (teeth), Gutturals (throat), Palatals (palate), Linguals (tongue), Nasals (nose). The letters *v* and *f* may be called Labio-Dentals, as the utterance of the sounds they represent demands the use of the lower lip and teeth:

	Voiced.	Voiceless.
LABIALS	b, w	p
DENTALS	d, the, z	t, th, s
LABIO-DENTALS	v	f
GUTTURALS	g	k, ch
PALATALS	z, y	sh
LINGUALS	l, r	
NASALS	m, n, ng	

h and *wh* (*e.g.*, whole) may be called ROUGH BREATHINGS.

Obs.: 1. The letter *w* is sometimes classed by itself; *y* is not always treated as here; nor is the class of Palatals always included in the classification of Consonants. Some authorities do not consider Linguals at all, and only allow one Nasal: *ng*.

2. The letter *s* is pronounced:

(1) after voiced letters as *z*, *e.g.*, cab*s*, loave*s*,

(2) after voiceless letters as *s*, *e.g.*, cap*s*, cat*s*.

When the ending *ed* is used to form the Past Tense, and is not sounded as a separate syllable, it is pronounced:

(1) after voiced letters as *d*, *e.g.*, begg*ed*, obey*ed*,

(2) after voiceless letters as *t*, *e.g.*, ask*ed*, pass*ed*.

(3) The letter *c* is represented by *s* (*c*itizen) or *k* (*c*ap); *q* is clearly *ku*; *x*=*ks* (fo*x*) or *gz* (e*x*ert).

III.—On Some Laws of Language.

1. The **Law of Umlaut** or Mutation is of very frequent operation. It relates to the **change of vowels** in words. There appears to be a constant struggle to return to what may be called the natural order of vowels, **i, e, a, o, u** (m*i*sc*e*ll*a*ne*o*us). When we add *en* to the Noun *cat* to form the name of a young cat, we see that *e* follows instead of preceding *a*. Accordingly, *a* is weakened to *i* and we have *kitten*. A similar change will be noticed in *thimble*, formed from *thumb* by adding *el*. The plural of *woman*, though written *women*, is pronounced as if it were written *wimen*. There are many examples of the operation of Umlaut in Accidence, *e.g.*, the plurals *feet*,

geese, men, lice, mice, teeth; the feminine form, *vixen;* the comparatives, *elder, further.* It is very interesting, and not difficult, to find instances scattered here and there in Grammar. Umlaut operates in proportion to the frequency of use of words.

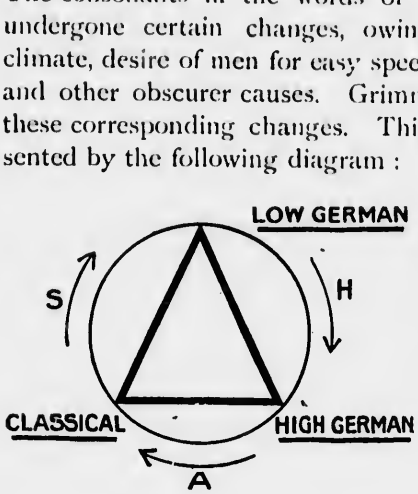
The origin of Umlaut is, no doubt, to be found in desire for ease of utterance and a muscular relaxation of the throat. The speech of our forefathers was slower and broader than ours. In this connection the tendency to throw the accent as much to the front of a word as possible must be noticed. For example, we now say *incómparable* (formerly *incompárable*), *véhemently* (formerly *vehémently*), *interesting* (formerly *interésting*).

Of Laws affecting **Consonants** may be mentioned the Law of Consonantal Affinity and Grimm's Law.

2. **Law of Consonantal Affinity.** — We write *cabs*, but pronounce it as if it were written *cabz;* we write *cupboard*, but pronounce it as if it were written *cubbud.* On examination, it is found that *b* is a voiced consonant, *z* a voiced consonant, *s* a voiceless consonant. We may infer then that **voiced consonants have an affinity for voiced consonants, and voiceless for voiceless.** From the French *sucre* and *flacon* (*c* = *k*) we derive *sugar* and *flagon*, *g* being a voiced consonant. This is due to the fact that **voiced consonants combine more easily with vowels than voiceless consonants do.**

The affinity of voiced for voiced, of voiceless for voiceless will explain many instances of substitution, as in the language of children and negroes, *e.g.*, *frough* for *through*, *lub* for *love*, *tahib* for *sahib*.

3. **Grimm's Law** relates to the **change of consonants** in languages, supposed to be derived from the same stock. The Greek, Latin [Classical]; Anglo-Saxon, English [Low German], and High German languages are related, and may be considered once to have been one language. The consonants in the words of these languages have undergone certain changes, owing to differences in climate, desire of men for easy speech, mixing of nations and other obscurer causes. Grimm formulated a law of these corresponding changes. This law may be represented by the following diagram:



H = Hard (Voiceless)

A = Aspirate

S = Soft (Voiced)

This signifies that a Hard (Voiceless) Consonant in Classical corresponds to an Aspirate in Low German, a Soft in High German; and so on, going round the circle with the letters and the names.

Examples.

Greek	*Latin*	*Anglo-Saxon*	*English*	*H. German*
duo	duo	twa′	two	zwei
kardia	cor	heorte	heart	herz
pater	pater	faeder	father	vater

IV.—On Word-Building.

What a word is ultimately derived from is called its **Root**. The question of Roots is one of considerable difficulty. Examples have been given in the conjugation of the Verb *be*. The forms, *be*, *been*, etc., are derived from BHEU; *am*, *art*, etc., are derived from ES. What we can more easily determine is that modified form of the Root called the **Stem**, to which we add inflexions for the various purposes of Accidence; *e.g.*, *love* is the stem of *loved*.

We build up words in two ways:

(1) By joining words of independent meaning; *e.g.*, *lion-hunter*, *break-water*.

(2) By the use of **prefixes** (Latin: praefigere, *to fasten before*), and **suffixes** (Latin: suffigere, *to fasten on*), which may or may not have separate existence.

(1) Several examples of words formed by joining together two independent words have already been given. It will be noticed that in some cases both words are equally significant, *e.g.*, *sunbeam*, *dogstar*, *freeman*; that in others the first qualifies the second, *e.g.*, *finger-ring* (=ring for the finger), *walking-stick* (=stick for walking); that in others a change of accent alters the significance, *e.g.*, *madhouse*, *blackbird*.

(2) Prefixes and suffixes are of English, Latin and Greek origin. Those who study the classical languages will be able to identify those of classical origin, while, to students, who are not acquainted with these languages, committing the prefixes and suffixes to

memory will be a work of much labour, and of comparatively little value. The English prefixes and suffixes are often more difficult to identify, as they have naturally undergone greater changes than those not native.

The following are *inseparable* **prefixes:**

(i.) **A** (=on), as—abed, aloft, away.

(ii.) **Bye** (=hamlet), as—byelaw (the law of a hamlet) c.f. Whitby.

(iii.) **Mis** (=wrong), as—misbehave.

Obs.: The words *misapply*, *misinterpret* are **hybrids**—they are formed from two different languages.

(iv.) **Ne** (=not), as—naught, none.

(v.) **Wan** (=wanting), as—wanton (*wantogen*=uneducated.

(vi.) **With** (=against, back), as—withstand, withhold.

English **Suffixes** are to Nouns, Adjectives, Adverbs, and for Verbs.

(i.) **D, t, th**, as—seed (sow), flight (fly), death (die).

(ii.) **Dom** (=judgment, power, office), as—dukedom, wisdom.

(iii.) **Lock** (A.S. la'c, *gift*), as—wedlock.

Obs.: Lock becomes *ledge* in *knowledge*.

(iv.) **Red** (=originally counsel—mode), as—Ethelred, kindred.

(v.) **Ric** (A.S. ri'ce, *power*), as—bishopric.

(vi.) **Ship** (A.S. sci'pe, *form*), as—fellowship, workmanship.

(vii.) **Ward** (=keeper), as—Hayward, Howard, steward.

(viii.) **Ish** (A.S. isc) (1) like, as—childish, boorish.
(2) a little like, as—blackish.
(3) like in race, as—English.

(ix.) **Meal** (A.S. maelum, *at times*) as—piecemeal (cf. Chaucer, stoundmeal, *hour by hour*).

(x.) **Le, er (r), k** have frequentative force, as—waddle, glimmer, talk (tell).

Obs.: *Le* is sometimes diminutive, as—dribble.

(xi.) **En (n), se (s)** have causative force, as—broaden, cleanse.

[NOTE.—Dr. Adams and the Rev. Dr. Allnatt, Dean of the Divinity Faculty of Bishop's College, in their very careful revision of the proof-sheets, have, in addition to making many valuable suggestions, incorporated in the text, offered the following remarks:

(1) The word "assuredly" in the sentence "This is assuredly true" (p. 60) is related *adverbially* to the Verb "is," and is not, as stated, an Ad-sentence. My conviction, however, that my own view is correct, is unshaken.

(2) In connection with the change of meaning that certain Prepositions have undergone (p. 62), Dr. Allnatt mentions St. Paul's words (I. Cor. iv., 4), "I know nothing *by* myself," where *by*=against.

(3) The use of the word "out" as a Preposition is very rare.

(4) In Example (ii.) Rule III., p. 68, Dr. Adams holds that *myself* is not incorrect. I am unable to justify it grammatically, though that is not a final argument that it is not correct (cf. "It is me," p. 70)].

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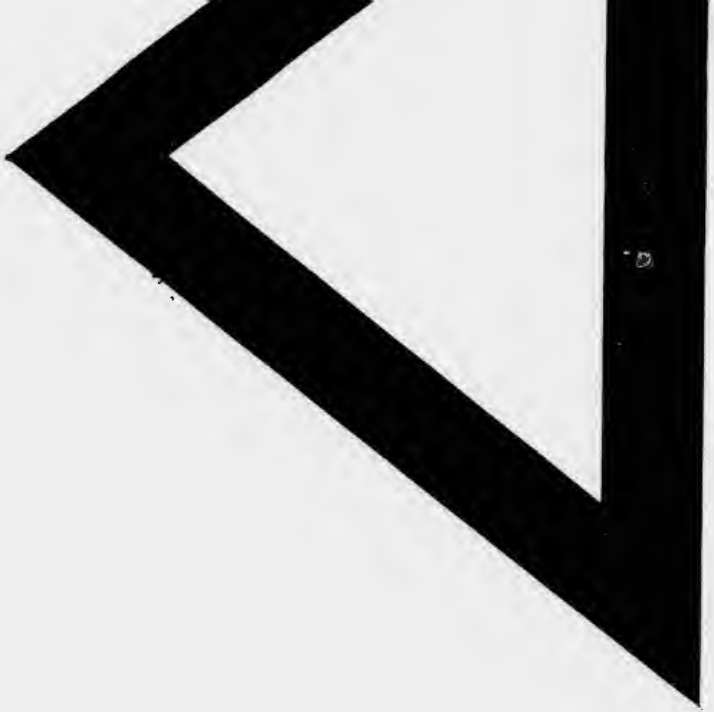
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