

**A MODERN
ENGLISH GRAMMAR**

PUBLIC SCHOOL EDITION

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MORANG'S MODERN TEXT-BOOKS

A MODERN ENGLISH GRAMMAR

BY

HUBER GRAY BUEHLER

AND

PELHAM EDGAR, Ph.D.

*Authorized by the Minister of Education for use in the Public Schools
of Ontario*

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PREFATORY NOTE

SINCE the publication of the former edition of *A Modern English Grammar*, the publishers have received many requests from public school teachers and inspectors for a condensed edition of the book for Canadian public schools. The marked success of the Grammar in the larger form has encouraged the publishers to attempt an edition with the exercises and examples somewhat curtailed. The present volume is the result of this effort. It contains all the best features of the former book, with the additional qualification of brevity. The exercises have been condensed, the whole book revised and corrected, and too advanced material cut out. This book is not intended in any sense to fill the place of the larger book, but it is hoped that it will prove of as great practical value for the ordinary public school classes as the former edition for high schools and continuation classes of public schools.

THE AUTHORS

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INTRODUCTION

1. Language—Everybody has an instinctive desire to tell his thoughts and feelings to others; indeed, exchange of ideas is necessary in social life. One way of expressing thoughts is to make motions with the hands or other parts of the body, as children and deaf and dumb persons do. But the usual and very much better way is to make with the tongue and adjoining organs certain combinations of sounds which by common con-



MAP SHOWING THE EARLY HOME OF ENGLISH.

sent have certain meanings. These combinations of tongue-sounds, by which people express their thoughts and feelings, form **Language** (from Latin *lingua*, "tongue"). Combinations of sounds that stand for single ideas are called **Words**. These are in turn combined into thought-groups called **Sentences**.

2. Why Our Language is Called English—Our language is called English because it is the language that

How far English has outstripped other languages may be seen from the following table, which shows the number of people speaking the principal European languages in 1890:—

English.....	111,100,000
German.....	75,200,000
Russian.....	75,000,000
French.....	51,200,000
Spanish.....	42,800,000
Italian.....	33,400,000
Portuguese.....	13,000,000

4. Old English different from Modern English—The language carried to England by the Anglo-Saxons was so unlike the English of to-day that at first glance it seems to be quite a different tongue. Here, for example, is the Lord's Prayer in Anglo-Saxon, or Old English, with the corresponding modern English words printed underneath:—

Fæder ūre, þū þe eart on heofenum

Father our, thou that art in heavens

Si þīn nama gehalgot

Be thy name hallowed

To becume thīn rīce

Arrive thy kingdom

Geweorþe þīn willa on eorþan, swā swā on heofenum

Be-done thy will on earth, so-as in heavens

Urne dæghwamlican hlāf syle us to dæg

Our daily loaf give us to-day

And forgyf us ūre gyltas, swā swā we forgifaþ urum gyltendum

And forgive us our debts, so-as we forgive our debtors

And ne gelæde þū us on costnunge, ac alȳs us of yfle

And not lead thou us into temptation, but loose us of evil

Sōþlice.

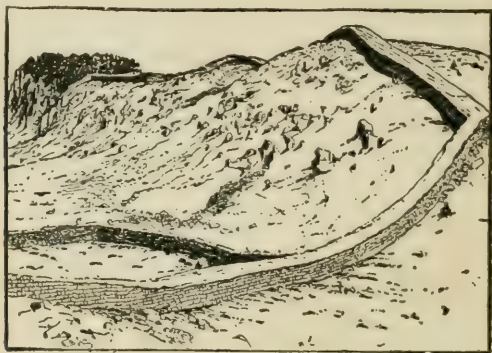
Soothly (Amen).

5. Relation of Old English to Modern English—Strange-looking as this Old English is, it is the same language as that which we use. The difference between it and modern English is no more to be wondered at than the difference between a young child and the same child when grown to manhood. Some knowledge of *how* our language has grown and changed is helpful to the study of it as it is to-day.

6. How Our Language has Grown—When our lan-

guage was carried to England, it consisted of probably not more than two thousand words; now it contains more than two hundred thousand—a much larger number than any other language. These new words have come into the language in many interesting ways:—

(1) *British Words*—When the Anglo-Saxons settled in England and drove off the Britons, they adopted some British words, just as the Americans have adopted some Indian words. Of these words, adopted from the Britons, examples are: “cradle” and “crock.”



ROMAN WALL IN THE NORTH OF ENGLAND.

Built by the Romans as a defense against native tribes.

(2) *Latin Words Found in Britain*—For several hundred years before the arrival of the Anglo-Saxons, England had been in the possession of the Romans. When the Romans withdrew from the island in 410 A. D., they left behind a few Latin words, which were adopted by the Anglo-Saxons. Examples are: “street” (Latin *strata via*, “paved way”), “mile” (Latin *milia passuum*, “a thousand paces”), and “wall” (Latin *vallum*).

(3) *Missionary Words*—About the year 600 A.D. Christianity began to be received by the Saxons through Roman missionaries; and with the missionaries came many new words from the Latin. Examples are: “monk” (Latin *monachus*) and “clerk” (Latin *clericus*).

(4) *Danish Words*—Toward the end of the eighth

century Norsemen or Danes overran parts of England, and many of their words were adopted by the English. Examples are: "sky" and "ugly."

(5) *Norman-French Words*—In 1066 William of Normandy conquered England in the great movement known as the Norman Invasion. The Normans, who came from France, spoke Norman-French, which was for the most part modified Latin. In England they seized the land and all the political power, filled all the offices, and made their language the language of the court, the law, the schools and the church. We cannot dwell on the particulars of the tremendous change in our language which was wrought by this Norman Invasion. It is enough to



ANCIENT DANISH BOAT FOR FOURTEEN PAIRS OF OARS.

78 feet long, 10 feet broad. Found in a peat bog in Jutland.

say that after three hundred years of contact with Norman-French the English language was very much richer in vocabulary and softer in sound. Of the many hundreds of Norman-French words in our language examples are: "battle," "forest," "duke" and "family."

(6) *Words from Latin Books*—In the sixteenth century, through the influence of what is called the Revival of Learning, the study of Latin became very popular in England. No one was considered well educated unless he could read Latin; nearly all important books were written in Latin; and Latin words began to appear in English conversation and writing. Since these Latin-

English words were learned from books, they closely resembled in spelling the original Latin words. Examples are: "example" (Latin *exemplum*), "fact" (Latin *factum*), and "quiet" (Latin *quietus*).

(7) *Imported Words*—The descendants of the Anglo-Saxons have always been great travellers and traders; and in their travelling and trading they have collected words from all parts of the world. Examples are: from Spain, "mosquito;" from Italy, "piano;" from Holland, "skate;" from Germany, "zinc;" from Africa, "gorilla;" from the American Indian, "hammock" and "tomato;" from Arabia, "sofa;" from China, "silk;" from India, "sugar;" from Persia, "awning;" from Turkey, "tulip."

(8) *New Words for New Things*—New discoveries and inventions, as they have occurred, have given new words to our language. Examples are: "photograph" and "telephone."

7. Proportion of Foreign Words in Modern English—The proportion of words in modern English which have been drawn from the sources just described may be roughly represented as follows:—

Old English Words	
Latin Words (including Norman—French)	
Greek Words	Italian, Spanish, Dutch, Hebrew, Arabic, Persian, American Indian, etc.

8. Changes in our Language—Our language has not only grown; it has changed.

(1) *In Inflections*—Old English was what is called a highly inflected language. An inflected language is one that joins words together in sentences by means of "inflections" or changes in the words themselves. For example, in Old English *oxan* meant "oxen," *oxena* meant "of oxen," *oxum* meant "with oxen." Accordingly, instead of saying as we do "tongues of oxen," our Anglo-Saxon ancestors said "tungan oxena." Traces of

these word-changes or inflections still remain in our language: as, "sing," "sings."

(2) *In Order of Words*—The order of words in Old English was clumsy and involved. For example, instead of saying as we do,—

When Darius saw that he would be overcome,
our Anglo-Saxon ancestors would have said,—

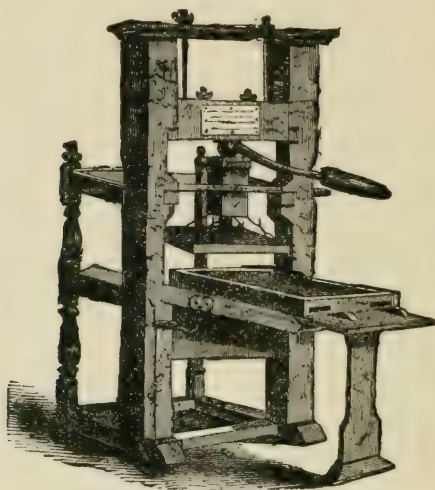
When Darius saw that he overcome be would.

(3) *In Sound*—Old English was a guttural speech, full of harsh, choking sounds. For example, our "holy" was once "hālig," our "bridge" was once "brigg" (as in Scotland to this day), our "day" was once "daeg," our "light" was once pronounced like the Scotch "licht."

9. How Changes Came About—The greatest changes in our language occurred between 1100 and 1500 A.D., that is to say, during the four centuries that followed the Norman Conquest. The story of the changes is too long to be told here; but some idea of how they came about may be gained by noticing what happens to-day when a foreigner who has only half learned English tries to speak it. He mispronounces the words, arranges them after the manner of his own language, neglects the inflections. In somewhat the same way, when the Anglo-Saxons and the Norman-French became one people, and their languages were fused into modern English, sounds were modified, the order was changed, and inflections were dropped.

10. Language Still Subject to Change—Since the invention of printing, changes in English have not been numerous; for the vast number of printed books and papers, and the immense spread of the ability to read and write, have given to our language a rigidity of form which it could not have so long as it existed chiefly on men's tongues. For example, the language of the English Bible, which is sixteenth-century English, differs little from the English of to-day. But some change is still going on, for modifying influences are still at work. English-speaking people in different parts of the world do not talk exactly alike; new words are coming in; old

words are dropping out; the forms and uses of other words are changing. An example of this modern change is found in the word "whom." The "m" in this word is an inflection, once useful in conveying meaning; and



EARLY PRINTING PRESS.

we still say, when we wish to speak very accurately, "Whom did you see?" But since the "m" is no longer necessary to the meaning, people have become very careless about using it, and good speakers often say, "Who did you see?"

11. Good English—Good English is the English used by the best speakers and writers; and the use of such English is "only a phase of good manners." Bad English, that is, English unlike that which is used by well-informed and careful writers, produces in the mind of a well-informed reader an impression of vulgarity or ignorance similar to that which we get from seeing a person eat with his knife. It is with language as with clothes and conduct. Persons who wish to be classed as cultivated people must not only dress and act like cultivated

people; they must also speak and write like them. A help toward this end is the study of grammar.

12. Grammar—Grammar is an account of the relations which words bear to one another when they are put together in sentences. An understanding of these relations requires some knowledge of the nature, the forms, and the history of words, but only so far as these bear on the uses of words in sentences. The proper starting point of English grammar is the sentence. The discussion of words considered by themselves belongs to the dictionary.

13. Uses of Grammar—It is not by grammar, however, that we learn to speak or write. Speaking and writing our mother tongue are habits, formed by imitation long before we acquire that knowledge which is the subject-matter of grammar. The object of the study of grammar is to learn the uses of words in sentences, so that we may test the habits of speech which we have already acquired, and make them conform to the best models. Incidentally the study of grammar affords invaluable mental training.

14. Grammars Old and New—Among English-speaking peoples grammar was first studied as a step toward the learning of Latin, and the first English grammar was called an "Introduction to Lily's Latin Grammar." The author of that first English grammar, keeping his eye on Latin rather than on English, and making his work conform to Latin models, treated English as if it were in all important respects like Latin and Greek, with no history or laws of its own. As a matter of fact, English differs greatly from other languages. In structure it is essentially Anglo-Saxon. Yet the mistake of the first English grammar was followed by succeeding books for nearly four hundred years. Now we have learned better, and study our language with reference to its own nature and history.

PART I

SENTENCES AND THEIR STRUCTURE

CHAPTER I

OF SENTENCES IN GENERAL

15. Ideas and Phrases — The word “dog,” when heard or seen, instantly creates in the mind a mental picture of a well-known animal. This mental picture is called an **IDEA**. The idea may be made more definite by the addition of other words, as, “The big bulldog in Mr. Smith’s yard;” but though the idea is now complex, that is, has several parts, it still remains a single mental picture.

Definition—A group of related words expressing a single idea is called a **Phrase**.

16. Thoughts and Sentences—The phrase “The big bulldog in Mr. Smith’s yard” is satisfactory as an expression of a mental picture or idea; but as a remark made by some one it is incomplete, for we at once find ourselves asking, “Well, what about that dog?” We are satisfied when we hear that “The big bulldog in Mr. Smith’s yard *barked*.” From this group of words, we get, first, the idea of a certain dog, and, secondly, we get an idea of what the dog did. Of these ideas, the second is an assertion about the first. Two ideas of this kind—something thought of and an assertion about it—together form a complete **THOUGHT**.

Definition—A group of related words expressing a complete thought is called a **Sentence**.

17. Sentences and Phrases Distinguished—“The big bulldog barking in the yard” is not a sentence, for it contains no assertion. “Barking” does, indeed, imply ac-

tion; but it does not assert. It is merely a descriptive word, like "big," helping to fill out the mental picture of a certain dog, about which as yet no assertion has been made. "Big" shows the size of the dog, "barking" shows his occupation, "in the yard" shows his whereabouts; what the big dog barking in the yard did, we have yet to learn. The words as they stand express a single complex idea, not a thought; that is, they form a phrase, not a sentence. The phrase will become a sentence if we add an assertion: as, "The big bulldog barking in the yard *frightened me*;" or if we connect "dog" and "barking" by an asserting word like "is," which turns the *implied* action into an *asserted* action: as, "The big bulldog *is* barking in the yard." In either case we shall have two separate ideas, one of which is an assertion about the other.

Query: What other asserting words might be used in the last sentence instead of "is"?

EXERCISE 1

1. *Tell which of the following groups of words are phrases and which are sentences. Make sentences out of the phrases by adding appropriate asserting words:—*

1. The man in the moon.
 2. The man in the moon came down too soon.
 3. The boy in blue.
 4. The boy reciting his lesson.
 5. The boy in blue reciting his lesson.
 6. The boy reciting his lesson is my brother
 7. His attempt to catch the ball.
 8. A primrose by the river's brim.
 9. A rolling stone gathers no moss.
 10. The children playing in the street.
2. *Construct five phrases about things in the schoolroom, and show that they are not sentences.*
3. *Construct five sentences about things in the schoolroom, and show that they are sentences.*

18. Sentences Classified—Examine the sentences in the following conversation:—

Donald: I found these big apples in grandfather's barn.

Dorothy: Show us where you got them.

Jack: Are there any more left?

Helen: Aren't they beauties!

You observe that, in the first sentence, Donald's thought is an *assertion*; in the second, Dorothy's thought is a *request* or a *command*; in the third, Jack's thought is a *question*; in the fourth, Helen's thought seems at first glance to be a question about the beauty of the apples; but a little reflection shows that this cannot be, since she already knows that the apples are beauties. As a matter of fact she is merely expressing her delight by an *exclamation*, which has the interrogative form.

Definitions—Sentences that assert are called **Assertive Sentences**.

Sentences that ask are called **Interrogative Sentences**.

Sentences that command are called **Imperative Sentences**.

When assertive, interrogative and imperative sentences are used as exclamations expressing strong feeling, they are called **Exclamatory Sentences**.

EXERCISE 2

Tell the kind of each sentence in the following selections:—

1. We all do fade as a leaf.
2. Fear God. Honour the king.
3. The king is dead! Long live the king!
4. A living dog is better than a dead lion.
5. Can a man take fire in his bosom, and his clothes not be burned?

19. Written Sentences—In writing, the first word of every sentence begins with a capital letter.

The end of an assertive or an imperative sentence is marked by a period (.). The end of an interrogative sentence is marked by an interrogation point (?). When the sentences are exclamatory, these marks are changed to exclamation points (!).

EXERCISE 3

1. *Write two assertive sentences about noted men.* 2. *Write two interrogative sentences.* 3. *Write two imperative sentences.* 4. *Write an exclamatory sentence.*

20. Assertive Sentences Most Common—Most sentences are assertive in character. Interrogative and imperative sentences are like assertive sentences in fundamental structure, the difference being often only a

difference in the order of words: as, "Can he sing?" "He can sing." Therefore, in our study of sentence-structure, we shall speak chiefly of the assertive sentence, taking it as the type-form.

21. The Origin of Sentences—If you ever cut your finger with a knife or other sharp instrument, you probably exclaimed "Ouch!" before you clearly realised what had happened. By this exclamation, you gave expression to your feeling of pain, and a person hearing you would know that you were suddenly hurt; but *what* hurt you or *how* it hurt you he would not know, for you had not yet said anything definite. Indeed, you said "Ouch!" before you yourself had any clear idea of what the trouble was. As soon as you had time to think, you perceived that the cause of the pain was a cutting, and that the person who did the cutting was yourself. In other words, out of your *feeling* there presently grew a *thought*, which had two parts—the idea of the person who had caused the pain, and the idea of what this person had done. This thought you perhaps expressed in the words, "I cut myself"—a sentence which has two parts corresponding to the two parts of your thought: namely, *somebody* ("I"), and an *assertion* about this somebody ("cut myself"). A person hearing these words would immediately recognise the two parts of your thought—the *somebody* and the *assertion*—in other words, the *actor* and the *act*.

Perhaps you were once frightened by a noise in a dark room. If so, the exclamation "Oh!" probably expressed your fear,—a feeling which was immediately followed in your mind by a thought containing two parts: "That—what is it?" Putting these two parts together—an idea of something, and a query about it—you perhaps expressed your thought in the question, "What is that?"

Similarly, if you should see a child about to eat a poisonous berry, you would say quickly, "Throw that away." In this case the thought aroused by what you see takes the form of a command, with two parts as before—what is to be done, and the person who is to do it; but the latter is not named, because you are speaking to him, and to name him is unnecessary.

CHAPTER II

OF SUBJECT AND PREDICATE

22. Two Necessary Parts to Every Sentence — Examine the following sentences:—

Naming Part	Asserting Part
Fire	burns.
I	cut myself.
The school bell	has just rung.
The big bulldog in Mr. Smith's yard	barked at me.

You observe that each sentence has two parts—the naming part and an asserting part—and that both parts are necessary.

23. Subject and Predicate Defined — The part of a sentence which denotes that about which an assertion is made is called the **Subject**.

The asserting part is called the **Predicate** (Latin, "thing said").

In an **INTERROGATIVE** sentence the predicate *asks* something about the subject.

In an **IMPERATIVE** sentence the predicate *commands*, and the subject is generally omitted, because the subject of a command is always the person or persons spoken to, and to name it is unnecessary: as, "Listen [ye]," "Don't [you] forget."

EXERCISE 4

Write out a thought or a feeling suggested by each of the following subjects:—

1. Flowers —. 2. Lions —. 3. Indians —. 4. Stars —. 5. Chalk —.
6. Farmers —. 7. Chickens —. 8. Bees —. 9. I —.
10. He —. 11. Who —? 12. My desk —.

EXERCISE 5

With what subjects would the following predicates be appropriate?

1. — sing. 2. — climb. 3. — spin. 4. — trot. 5. — grow.
6. — are playing. 7. — will be here soon. 8. Is — coming? 9. Can — ride a bicycle?
10. Twice was — thrown. 11. What large muscles — has! 12. — will help me?

24. Position of the Subject — The subject does not always come first. Thus:—

Predicate	Subject
Up went	the balloon.
Then burst	his mighty heart.
There was	a little man.
The last of all the bards was	he.
In the shade of the great elm trees stands	a weather-beaten house.

Sometimes the subject is put between parts of the predicate like a wedge.

1. Is *Fred* coming? 2. Where do *pineapples* grow? 3. How fast *the snow* falls! 4. Slowly and sadly *we* laid him down. 5. At the appointed time *the gladiators* marched into the arena. 6. Has *every pupil in the class* brought his book?

EXERCISE 6

Construct two sentences in which the subjects come first; two in which the subjects come last; two in which the subjects come between parts of the predicate.

EXERCISE 7

Tell the subject of each of the following sentences:—

1. Which way does the wind come? 2. Up flew the windows all.
3. Down went the Royal George. 4. Flashed all their sabres bare.
5. Great is Diana of the Ephesians. 6. Ten spears he swept within his grasp. 7. One new-made mound I saw close by. 8. Where are those lights so many and fair? 9. Now wherefore stopp'st thou me? 10. There lay the rider distorted and pale. 11. A dainty plant is the ivy green. 12. Deep drank Lord Marmion of the wave.
13. At the door, on summer evenings,
Sat the little Hiawatha.
14. On the ear
Drops the light drip of the suspended oar.
15. To seek thee did I often rove
Through woods and on the green.
16. In the Acadian land, on the shores of the Basin of Minas,
Distant, secluded, still, the little village of Grand-Pré
Lay in the fruitful valley.

25. Compound Subjects — Very often the same predicate is used with two or more connected subjects: as,

Connected Subjects	Predicate
<i>Flowers and ferns</i>	grow beside the brook.
<i>The mountain and the squirrel</i>	had a quarrel.
<i>The present scene, the future lot, his toils, his wants, all</i>	were forgotten.

Definition — Two or more connected subjects having the same predicate form a **Compound Subject**.

26. Compound Predicates — Very often the same subject has several connected predicates: as,

Subject	Connected Predicates
The King of Hearts	States <i>rise and fall.</i> Charity <i>suffereth long and is kind.</i> called for the tarts and beat the knave full sore.

Definition—Two or more connected predicates having the same subject form a **Compound Predicate**.

27. Compound Subject and Predicate — Sometimes both subject and predicate are compound: as,

Compound Subject	Compound Predicate
<i>Spring and summer</i>	<i>came and went.</i>

EXERCISE 8

Construct two sentences with compound subjects; two with compound predicates; two in which both subject and predicate are compound.

EXERCISE 9

In the following sentences separate the subjects from the predicates. If a subject or a predicate is compound, separate it into its parts:—

1. She and her brother were there.
2. Copper and tin are found in England.
3. Spring and summer, autumn and winter, rush by in quick succession.
4. Sceptre and crown
Must tumble down.
5. Jack and Jill went up the hill
To fetch a pail of water
6. The lion and the unicorn
Were fighting for the crown.
7. Only the foolish and the dead never change their opinions.
8. The optic nerve passes from the brain to the back of the eye-ball, and there spreads out.
9. The horses and the cattle were fastened in the same stables and were fed at the same time.
10. The natives of Ceylon build houses of the trunks of cocoanut palms and thatch the roofs with the leaves.
11. In the best books, great men talk to us, give us their most precious thoughts, and pour their souls into ours.
12. Under the benignant influence of peace and liberty, science has flourished, and has been applied to practical purposes.

28. Impersonal Subject — Examine the following sentences:—

It rains.

It is snowing.

It is growing dark

If we try to find the subjects of these sentences by asking "What rains?" "What is snowing?" "What is growing dark?" the only answer is "It." But "it" does not here denote any person or thing. Therefore it is called an **Impersonal Subject**, and the sentence is an **Impersonal Sentence**.

EXERCISE 10

Make five impersonal sentences of your own.

29. "It" Expletive — Compare the following sentences:—

(a) To find fault is easy.

(b) It is easy to find fault.

In meaning these sentences are exactly alike; but, they differ in (1) form and (2) emphasis. The effect of the second form is to shift the emphasis from the predicate to the subject. The sentence tells us, not so much that something is *easy*, as that what is easy is *to find fault*. In such sentences the introductory word "it" has no meaning, and is therefore commonly called an **Expletive** (Latin, "filling up"). Other examples are: "*It* is doubtful whether he will come;" "*It* is certain that the sun spins like a top."

In such sentences, and indeed in all sentences, the subject is invariably the answer to the question formed by putting "who" or "what" before the predicate: as in the sentences above, "What is certain?" "What is doubtful?"

EXERCISE 11

Tell the subject and the predicate of each of the following sentences:—

1. It is good to be here. 2. It does not pay to worry. 3. It is not all of life to live. 4. It will not suit us to go with you. 5. It is easy to see where the fault lies. 6. It is excellent to have a giant's strength; but it is tyrannous to use it like a giant. 7. It has been proved by actual measurement that the thread forming the cocoon of the silkworm is eleven miles long.

EXERCISE 12

Construct five sentences that begin with "it" expletive, and tell the subject and the predicate of each.

30. "There" Expletive—Compare the following sentences:—

(a) A gust of wind came.

(b) There came a gust of wind.

You observe that these sentences, too, are alike in meaning, but differ in (1) form and (2) emphasis. The second sentence shifts the emphasis from the predicate to the subject, which is put last. The second sentence tells us, not so much that a gust of wind *came*, as that what came was *a gust of wind*. The use of the word "there" is precisely like that of the word "it" described in the last section. Having no meaning by itself, it is an **Expletive**. Other examples are: "*There* was water in the well;" "*There* are two sides to every question."

The expletive "there" is regularly used before the various forms of "be" when they denote existence: as "*There is a God*;" "*There were giants in those days*."

EXERCISE 13

Tell the subject and the predicate of each of the following sentences:—

1. There is no one here. 2. There was no help for him. 3. Is there no hope? 4. There is a reaper whose name is Death. 5. There was a sound of revelry by night. 6. There is a higher law than the Constitution. 7. There is no good in arguing with the inevitable. 8. There came to the beach a poor exile of Erin. 9. There is no gathering the rose without being pricked by the thorns. 10. There is now less flogging in the great English schools than formerly.

EXERCISE 14

Construct five sentences that begin with "there" expletive, and tell the subject and the predicate of each.

EXERCISE 15

(REVIEW)

In the following sentences separate the subject from the predicate:—

I

1. Come with me.
2. Our revels now are ended.
3. Give me your attention.
4. There came a burst of thunder-sound.
5. What became of your toy steamboat?
6. A merry heart maketh a cheerful countenance.
7. The sentinel on Whitehall gate looked forth into the night.

8. The history of the Anglo-Saxon race is emphatically the history of progress.

9. In 1895 Nansen got within two hundred and twenty-seven miles of the North Pole.

10. The first astronomical observatory in Europe was erected by the Saracens at Seville, in Spain.

11. From Clive's second visit to India dates the political ascendancy of the English in that country.

II

1. Here stands the man.

2. Wide open stood the doors.

3. Overhead I heard a murmur.

4. Great and marvellous are Thy works.

5. In those days came John the Baptist.

6. From floor to ceiling

Like a huge organ rise the burnished arms.

7. Within a windowed niche of that high hall
Sate Brunswick's fated chieftain.

8. On the British heart were lost
The terrors of the charging host.

9. Full many a gem of purest ray serene
The dark unfathomed caves of ocean bear.

10. Down the street with laughter and shout,
Glad in the freedom of school let out,
Come the boys.

11. Somewhat apart from the village, and nearer the Basin of
Minas,
Benedict Bellefontaine, the wealthiest farmer of Grand-Pré,
Dwelt on his goodly acres.

12. Meanwhile, apart, at the head of the hall, the priest and the
herdsman
Sat, conversing together of past and present and future.

13. Hearing his imperial name
Coupled with those words of malice,
Half in anger, half in shame,
Forth the great campaigner came
Slowly from his canvas palace.

14. His face
Deep scars of thunder had intrenched.

15. Him the Almighty Power
Hurled headlong flaming from the ethereal sky,
With hideous ruin and combustion, down
To bottomless perdition.

16. On each hand the flames
Driven backward slope their pointing spires.

17. The imperial ensign, full high advanced,
Shone like a meteor streaming to the wind,
With gems and golden lustre rich emblazed.

CHAPTER III

OF SUBSTANTIVE AND VERB*

31. Logic vs. Grammar—The distinction between subject and predicate belongs to thought as well as to the expression of thought. It exists in a speaker's mind before he expresses his thought in words. The distinction is therefore a logical distinction rather than a grammatical one; for grammar has to do only with the expression of thought, that is, with words. We come now to consider the words used in forming the subject and the predicate, and here we enter the field of grammar proper.

32. Substantive and Verb Defined—Compare the following sentences:—

Subject	Predicate
The beautiful <i>stars</i> , which are really suns about a million miles in dia- meter and trillions of miles away,	Stars twinkle. <i>twinkle</i> brightly on frosty nights.

You observe that one sentence is composed of two words, the other of many; but the fundamental structure of both is the same. Both make assertions about *stars*, and in both cases the assertion is that stars *twinkle*. But in the second sentence the fundamental words, "stars" and "twinkle," are accompanied by words and groups of words called **Adjuncts** ("joined to").

Definition—A word used (with or without adjuncts) to denote an object of thought is called a **Substantive**.

Definition—A word used (with or without adjuncts) as the predicate of a sentence is called a **Verb** (Latin, "the word;" so named because of its supreme importance).

When we say that a sentence must contain a sub-

* *To the Teacher*—Only those features of the verb are treated in this chapter which are needed for an understanding of the general structure of sentences.

The term "substantive" is in Part I preferred to "noun," because (1) it is a convenient term to include both nouns and substitutes for nouns, and (2) it furnishes the useful word "substantively."

ject and a predicate, we speak logically. Speaking grammatically, we say that it must contain a substantive and a verb.

33. Grammatical and Logical Terms Distinguished—In the sentence "The beautiful stars, which are really suns about a million miles in diameter and trillions of miles away, twinkle brightly on frosty nights," the substantive "stars" is called the **Simple Subject** to distinguish it from the **Complete Subject**, which consists of the simple subject and its adjuncts. "Twinkle" is called the **Verb** to distinguish it from the **Predicate**, which consists of the verb and its adjuncts.

EXERCISE 16

Construct four sentences in which the simple subject is different from the complete subject, and the verb from the predicate.

EXERCISE 17

In the following sentences point out, in the order named, the complete subject, the predicate, the simple subject and the verb:—

1. The ripest fruit falls first.
2. She dwelt on a wild moor.
3. The good news arrived yesterday.
4. A hot fire of coals burned in the grate.
5. A fox jumped up on a moonlight night.
6. The sudden splash frightened the nurse.
7. Bright-eyed daisies peep up everywhere.
8. Three wise men of Gotham went to sea in a bowl.
9. Waldo, playing on the bank of the brook, tumbled into the water.

34. Verbs of Action, Being and State—Compare the meanings of the verbs in the following sentences:—

1. Birds *sing*.
2. My lady *sleeps*.
3. He *loves* children.
4. There *is* a flaw in the metal.

You observe that "sing" asserts *action*; "sleeps" asserts *state or condition*; "loves" asserts *feeling*; "is" asserts *existence or being*. It is sometimes said, therefore, that a verb is a word that asserts action, being, or state—feelings being looked on as mental actions.

Most verbs assert action.

EXERCISE 18

1. In Exercise 7 tell whether the verbs assert action, being, or state.

2. Construct three sentences in which the verbs assert action; two in which they assert state or condition; one in which the verb asserts existence or being.

35. The Verb "To Be"—"Am," "is," "are," "was," "were," and the less common "art," "wast," and "wert"—all of them forms of the verb "to be"—are so peculiar in their use that they require special notice. The peculiarity will appear if we carefully compare the predicates in the following sentences:—

1. The lightning *flashed*.

2. Lightning *is* electricity.

In the first sentence, you observe, the predicate consists of the verb "flashed," which does two things: first, it calls up in the mind an idea of sudden brilliance; secondly, it asserts this brilliance of the lightning. In other words, it has both *meaning* and *assertive power*.

In the second sentence, the predicate consists of two words, "is" and "electricity," each of which is necessary. But mark the difference between them. "Electricity" is a word of definite *meaning*, calling up instantly a mental picture or idea of that something of which it is the name. But it has no *assertive power*, as appears when we try in vain to make a predicate with it alone: as, "Lightning electricity." The assertive part of the predicate is supplied by the verb "is," which connects the two names, "lightning" and "electricity," in such a way as to declare that the objects named are identical. But though "is" has this *assertive power*, it has no *meaning* of its own, that is, it calls up no mental picture. The predicate gets its meaning from the idea-word "electricity."

It appears, therefore, that "is," "are," "was," "were," and the other forms of "be," are mere *instruments of assertion*, conveying in themselves no idea at all, except in those cases in which they express existence. Meaningless themselves they are used to make predicates with words that have meanings, but cannot by themselves make assertions. They link together two different ideas

in such a way as to predicate one of the other. For this reason the verb "be" is often called the **Copula** (Latin, "link"). It often resembles in force the mathematical symbol of equality or identity, "=".

The following verbs, in some of their uses, resemble "be":—

1. Seem. 2. Become. 3. Look. 4. Sound. 5. Appear. 6. Feel.
7. Taste. 8. Smell. 9. Continue. 10. Remain.

EXERCISE 19

1. Construct five sentences in which forms of the verb "to be" are used with assertive power only.

2. Construct two sentences in which forms of "to be" are used to denote existence.

3. Construct sentences in which the following verbs are used, like "be," to form predicates whose meaning is determined by a following word:—

1. Seem. 2. Become. 3. Look. 4. Appear. 5. Feel. 6. Taste.
7. Smell. 8. Remain.

36. Verb Phrases—Examine the following predicates:—

Subject	Predicate
Dorothy	studies. (a)
	does study. (b)
	has studied. (c)
	has been studying. (d)
	will study. (e)
	may be studying. (f)
	may have been studying. (g)
	should have been studying. (h)

Here we have eight different assertions about Dorothy. One of them contains a single asserting word, others two words, others three, still others four. All of the predicates refer to a single action, namely, Dorothy's studying; but they refer to it in different ways. Predicates (a) and (b) assert it as a customary act, with a difference in emphasis; (c) and (d) as a completed act; (e) as a future act; (f) and (g) as a possibility, with a difference in time; (h) as a duty. In other words, the eight predicates are alike in expressing a single action, denoted by one or another form of the verb "study;" they differ in representing

this action under various aspects, as the speaker happens to view it.

Now examine the predicates that contain two or more words, and see whether any one of the words can be omitted without altering or destroying the assertion. You observe that in each case every word is necessary.

Finally, consider whether the helping words "does," "has," "has been," etc., taken by themselves, are of the nature of substantives or verbs. They do not denote objects of thought; therefore they are not substantives. They do have assertive power, as in "Dorothy *does* embroidery," "She *has* a book;" therefore they are verbs.

From all this it appears that frequently, to express varying shades of thought, we employ in our predicates several words which together have the force of a single verb.

Definition—A group of words which together form one verb is called a **Verb Phrase**.

37. Verb Phrases in Interrogative, Negative and Emphatic Sentences—In interrogative and negative sentences modern usage requires verb phrases. Compare, for example, the following sentences:—

She *sings*.

Does she *sing*?

She *does* not *sing*.

Sometimes a verb phrase has the force of an emphatic affirmation, implying that the thing which is asserted has been doubted. Compare for example, the following sentences:—

1. She *sings*.

2. She *does* *sing*.

EXERCISE 20

Point out the verb phrases in the following sentences:—

1. I am reading "Ivanhoe." 2. Katherine has finished the book.
3. To-morrow I shall have finished it. 4. John has cut his finger.
5. Who will help him? 6. Father may be in his study. 7. Carrie must have been dreaming this morning. 8. You will have paid too dear for the whistle. 9. Father has been writing all morning. 10. The child would play by himself for hours. 11. He might have been doing something useful. 12. This ring may have been worn by a Roman dandy.

EXERCISE 21

Change the sentences in Exercise 17 (page 21) into nega-

tive, interrogative and emphatic form, and point out the verb phrases which you use in the new sentences.

38. Caution—In such sentences as “The sun is *shining*” and “The sun is *hot*,” beginners often find it hard to decide at this stage of their work whether the italicised word, coming after a form of the verb “be,” is or is not a part of the verb. A good working test is this: If the predicate of the sentence expresses *action*, the word in question is part of the verb. If the predicate expresses a *condition* or *quality* of the subject, the word in question is not a part of the verb. For example, in the following sentences the verbs are printed in italics:—

“The sun *is shining*” (action).

“The sun *is hot*” (condition).

EXERCISE 22

Tell whether the words printed in italics are to be viewed as parts of the verbs:—

1. The key is *lost*. 2. The key was *lost* by Bridget. 3. Tennyson is *dead*. 4. He was *buried* with solemn ceremony in Westminster Abbey. 5. I shall be *studying* Latin by that time. 6. I shall be *rested* by that time. 7. Charlie has *hurt* his ankle. 8. The ligaments are *sprained*. 9. They were *sprained* in the football game last Saturday. 10. We have been *happy* together.

39. Verb Phrases Separated—The parts of a verb phrase are often separated by other words. For example, the verb phrases in the following sentences are printed in italics:—

1. I *have just returned*. 2. *Have you not heard?* 3. I *do not yet know*. 4. *Has the man in the moon been married* indeed?

EXERCISE 23

Point out the verb phrases in the following sentences:—

1. What did you see? 2. The leaves are slowly changing. 3. He will certainly lose his place. 4. I have not seen him yet. 5. She will sometimes lose her temper. 6. Why is he running away? 7. Have you finished your lesson? 8. We are now reading “Tom Brown’s School Days.” 9. Did the man in the boat see the thief? 10. May not the coat have been taken by some one else?

40. Verbs Transitive or Intransitive—Compare the verbs in the following sentences:—

John frightened Helen
John laughed.

In the first sentence, "frightened" denotes an action which, from its nature, involves two persons: John, the doer of the action; and Helen, on whom the action falls.

In the second sentence, "laughed" denotes an action which involves only one person.

Definition—A verb that denotes an action or feeling that passes over from the doer of the action to an object on which it falls; is called a **Transitive Verb** (Latin *transire*, "to pass over").

Definition—A verb that denotes an action, feeling, or state that involves only the subject, is called an **Intransitive Verb**.

Verbs like "have," "own," "possess," "inherit," etc., though they do not express action or feeling, are nevertheless called transitive, because they involve two objects, the possessor and the thing possessed.

EXERCISE 24

1. Consider the meaning of the following verbs (as ordinarily used), and tell whether they are transitive or intransitive:—

1. Take. 2. Catch. 3. Hear. 4. Fall. 5. Sleep. 6. Earn. 7. Find. 8. Bark. 9. Seems. 10. Use. 11. Go. 12. Cry. 13. Tear. 14. Arise. 15. Wait. 16. Strike.

2. Construct three sentences in which you use transitive verbs not in the preceding list, and two in which you use intransitive verbs.

41. Verbs both Transitive and Intransitive—Compare the following sentences:—

1. He walked.

2. He walked his horse.

You observe that some verbs may in one sentence be transitive and in another intransitive.

EXERCISE 25

Construct ten sentences, using each of the following verbs, first transitively, then intransitively:—

1. Break 2. Fly 3. Move 4. Return 5. Speak

42. Verbs Active and Passive—Compare the following sentences:—

John frightened Helen.

Helen was frightened by John.

These sentences vary in form, but not in meaning. In both of them the verbs are transitive, because they denote action passing from one person to another. But in the first sentence the verb represents the subject as *doing* the action; in the second sentence, as *receiving* it.

Definition — A transitive verb which represents the subject as doing an action is in the **Active** form.

Definition — A transitive verb which represents the subject as receiving an action is in the **Passive** form.

Query: Can an intransitive verb have a passive form? Give the reason for your answer.

EXERCISE 26

Construct two sentences in which the verbs are in the active form; two in which they are in the passive form.

EXERCISE 27

Tell whether the verbs in the following selection are in the active or the passive form:—

APPLES IN ANCIENT TIMES

It appears that apples made a part of the food of that unknown primitive people whose traces have lately been found at the bottom of the Swiss lakes, supposed to be older than the foundation of Rome, so old that they had no metallic implements. An entire black and shrivelled crab apple has been recovered from their stores. * * *

The apple tree has been celebrated by the Hebrews, Greeks, Romans and Scandinavians. Some have thought that the first human pair were tempted by its fruit. Goddesses are fabled to have contended for it, dragons were set to watch it, and heroes were employed to pluck it.—*Thoreau*: "The History of the Apple Tree."

EXERCISE 28

(GENERAL REVIEW)

Point out the simple subjects and the verbs in Exercise 15 (page 18), and tell whether the verbs are transitive or intransitive; if transitive, tell whether the form is active or passive.

CHAPTER IV

OF COMPLEMENTS

IN the last chapter we learned that some verbs cannot form complete predicates without the help of other words (35, 40). We must now look more closely at such verbs and the words which are used with them to complete the predicate.

43. Verbs of Complete Predication—Examine the following sentences:—

1. The wind arose. 2. The lightning flashed. 3. The thunder rolled. 4. The rain fell.

In each of these sentences the predicate consists of a verb which makes a complete assertion.

Definition—A verb that by itself can form a complete predicate is called a **Verb of Complete Predication**.

44. Verbs of Incomplete Predication—Now let us try to make assertions with the verbs "are," "was," "became," "frightened," "built," "have," thus,

1. These men are. 2. Tennyson became. 3. You frightened. 4. The Romans built. 5. Battleships have.

You see at once that something is wanting. Though we have in each case put together a subject and a verb as before, we have not in these groups of words said anything, for the ideas expressed by the verbs are not complete in themselves.

Definition—A verb that does not by itself convey a complete idea is called a **Verb of Incomplete Predication**.

45. Complements Defined—In order to form a predicate with a verb of incomplete predication we must add a completing word: thus,

Subject	Predicate	
	Verb	Complement
These men	are	soldiers.
Victoria	was	queen.
Tennyson	became	poet-laureate.
You	frightened	me.
The Romans	built	ships.
Battleships	have	armour.

Definition—The completing word added to a verb of incomplete predication in order to form a predicate is called a **Complement** ("completing part").

CAUTION—Complements, which *must* be added to make the predicate complete, are to be carefully distinguished from words that *may* be added to make the meaning more precise. For example, in the sentence "The rain fell fast," the word "fast" is not a complement, for we should have a complete sentence without it.

46. Attribute Complements—Are all complements of the same kind? In order to answer, let us examine some typical sentences, taking first the following:—

Subject	Verb	Complement
Tabby	is	a cat.
Tabby	looks	wise.

In both of these sentences the verbs are intransitive, and the complements serve to *describe the subject*. In the first sentence the complement "cat" describes Tabby by attributing to him in a single word all the qualities or marks that distinguish cats from other objects. In the second sentence the complement "wise" describes Tabby by attributing to him a single quality, wisdom.

Definition—A complement that describes the subject is called an **Attribute Complement**. Other examples are:—

These men are soldiers. Roses smell sweet. His name is John.

47. Object Complements—Let us examine, now, the following sentence:—

Tabby catches mice.

In this sentence you observe that the verb "catches" is transitive, denoting an action which involves two things, the doer of the action, and the object on which the action falls. The doer of the action is named by the subject "Tabby;" the complement "mice" names the object on which the action falls.

Definition—A complement that denotes the object on which the action of a transitive verb falls is called an **Object Complement**, or, more briefly, an **Object**.

Since an object complement denotes the object directly affected by the action of the verb, it is often called a **Direct Object**. Other examples are:—

I see you. I cut myself. Battleships have armour. The Romans built ships.

EXERCISE 29

Complete the following sentences, and tell whether the complements which you supply are objects or attribute complements:—

1. Squirrels crack —. 2. Grocers sell —. 3. Lincoln became —.
4. Baden-Powell was —. 5. Charles saw —. 6. The sun gives —.

EXERCISE 30

1. To each of the following subjects add an appropriate predicate consisting of a verb and a complement, and tell whether the complement is an object or an attribute complement:—

1. Hens — —. 2. Jewellers — —. 3. Cats — —. 4. We — —.
5. Birds — —. 6. Elephants — —. 7. Carpenters — —. 8. Monkeys — —.

2. Construct two sentences containing object complements; two containing attribute complements.

EXERCISE 31

Point out the complements in the following sentences, and tell whether they are objects or attribute complements:—

1. Tom broke a window. 2. Bruno bit the tramp. 3. Chaucer was a poet. 4. Who killed Cock Robin? 5. Who will toll the bell?
6. Gladstone became prime minister. 7. Some one took my bicycle.
8. Do you study Latin? 9. None but the brave deserve the fair.
10. My father remained secretary for the rest of his life. 11. Righteousness exalteth a nation. 12. A man's house is his castle. 13. The bird forsook her nest. 14. She looked a goddess. 15. She turned her back. 16. Joan of Arc seemed a holy woman. 17. Britannia rules the waves. 18. King Alfred was called Truth Teller. 19. To-night no moon I see. 20. The laws of nature are the thoughts of God. 21. He came a foe and returned a friend. 22. Ethel grew tall, beautiful and queenly. 23. The dove found no rest for the sole of her foot. 24. A wise son maketh a glad father.

48. Objective Attribute Complements — Examine the following groups of words:—

Subject	Predicate	
	Verb	Object
The Hebrews	made	Saul
This	made	him

In these groups of words we have subject, verb and object; yet we do not have complete sentences. Additional words are needed, to answer the questions, "What did the Hebrews make Saul?" and "What did this make him?" The lack is supplied in the following sentences:—

Subject	Predicate		
	Verb	Object	Second Complement
The Hebrews	made	Saul	king.
This	made	him	vain.

The function or use of the second complements, "king" and "vain," will appear if we write the sentences as follows:—

Subject	Predicate	
	Verb	Object
The Hebrews	made-king	Saul.
	[crowned]	
This	made-vain	him.
	[spoiled]	

From this we see that "king" and "vain" help the verb "made" to express a certain action, and at the same time they denote attributes of Saul resulting from that action.

Definition—A word that helps a verb to express action, and at the same time denotes attributes of the object resulting from that action, is called an **Objective Attribute Complement**, or, more briefly, an **Objective Complement**.

Objective complements complete the predicate and also describe the object. Or, if you prefer, they assist the verb to express the action which falls upon the object. Other examples are:—

Subject	Predicate		
	Verb	Object	Objective Complement
We	elected	Harry	captain.
Swinging	makes	me	giddy.
God	struck	Ananias	dead.
The Persian army	drank	the rivers	dry.
I	consider	him	honest.

EXERCISE 32

1. Fill the blanks with objective complements, and show that they belong both to the verb and to the object:—

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. They named the boy ———. | 4. They called the state ——— |
| 2. Parliament made Cromwell
———. | 5. Let us appoint her ———. |
| 3. Henry painted his house
———. | 6. Do you think him ———? |
| | 7. Why did you choose me ———? |
| | 8. I consider her ———. |

2. Construct three sentences containing objective complements.

EXERCISE 33

Point out the objective complements, and show that they belong both to the verb and to the object:—

1. Victoria made Tennyson a baron. 2. They sang themselves hoarse. 3. Tell the carpenter to plane the board smooth. 4. Cradles rock us nearer to the tomb. 5. You think him humble, but God accounts him proud. 6. We cannot pump the ocean dry. 7. Attention held them mute. 8. One touch of nature makes the whole world kin. 9. Get the horses ready immediately. 10. Time makes the worst enemies friends. 11. Dr. Holmes called Boston the hub of the universe. 12. King George II. appointed Franklin Postmaster-General of the British Colonies in America. 13. Custom renders the feelings blunt and callous. 14. Madame de Staël called architecture frozen music. 15. Cromwell made the poet Milton Secretary of State.

49. Complements with Passive Forms—Compare the uses of the word “captain” in the following sentences:—

(Active) We elected Harry captain.

(Passive) Harry was elected captain.

You observe that in one sentence the verb is active, in the other it is passive, and in each “captain” expresses attributes bestowed on Harry by the election. In the first sentence, where “Harry” is an *object*, “captain” is an *objective* complement describing the object; in the second sentence, where “Harry” is the *subject*, “captain” is an *attribute* complement, describing the subject.

EXERCISE 34

Change the following sentences into the passive form, and show the use of the italicised words in the new sentences:—

1. He kept me *waiting*. 2. This made him *angry*. 3. God called the light *day*. 4. They painted the house *green*. 5. You cannot pump the ocean *dry*. 6. Victoria made Tennyson a *baron*.

50. Several Complements to One Verb—Sometimes a single verb has several complements: as,

1. We study *arithmetic* and *grammar*. 2. Addison was a *gentleman* and a *scholar*.

51. Several Verbs with One Complement—Sometimes a single complement belongs to several verbs: as,

Noble minds *loathe* and *despise* falsehood.

52. Summary of Sentence types—Gathering together the different kinds of sentences that we have been studying, we find nine rudimental types of the simple assertive sentence:—

(1) Dogs bark. Grace is singing. (*Intransitive verb of complete predication.*)

(2) Tabby is a cat. Alice was feeling ill. (*Intransitive verbs with attribute complement.*)

(3) John frightened Helen. Dorothy is studying arithmetic. (*Transitive verb with object.*)

(4) The Hebrews made Saul king. Mr. Smith is painting his house yellow. (*Transitive verb, with object and objective complement.*)

(5) Harry was hurt. (*Passive verb.*)

(6) Saul was made king. (*Passive verb, with attribute complement.*)

(7) It rains. It is snowing. (*Impersonal subject.*)

(8) It is wrong to steal. (*"It" expletive.*)

(9) There was water in the well. (*"There" expletive.*)

EXERCISE 35

Illustrate each of the types of the simple sentence with a sentence of your own.

CHAPTER V

OF MODIFIERS

FROM our previous study it is clear that the essential parts of language are **Subject**, **Verb** and **Complement**. They are, as it were, the bones of every sentence, giving shape to the thought and holding it together. But these essential parts are seldom used alone. Generally they are accompanied by expressions that, without being essential, fill out the thought and give it definiteness and accuracy, something as flesh rounds out the human form.

53. Modifiers Defined—Many words have meanings so wide that they must be narrowed before they exactly

fit our thought. For example, the word "horses" applies to all the horses in the world; but we seldom wish to speak of all horses. To bring the meaning of the word down to the measure of our thought we add to it some word, or words, by way of limitation or description: thus,

Black, big, fast, beautiful, good, trotting, our, your, these, two, some, both horses.

Similarly there are many varieties of the action expressed by the verb "went:" as,

He went slowly, cheerfully, fast, there, before, again soon, immediately, yesterday, twice, little, often.

Often we use several limiting or describing words: as,

1. *Your beautiful black trotting horses.*
2. *He often went there before.*

Definition—A word joined to some part of the sentence to qualify or limit the meaning is called a **Modifier**.

Modifiers may be attached to any or all of the principal parts of a sentence: as,

Modified Subject		Modified Verb		Modified Complement	
The	boys	yesterday	found	some	apples.
Some		to-day		many	
These		often		twelve	
Five		never		big	
Little		there		small	
Big		again		rosy	
Spanish		once		sweet	
Canadian		seldom		sour	
Smith's		quickly		ripe	
Our		surely		green	

EXERCISE 36

Join appropriate modifiers to the following words:—

1. — oranges. 2. — music. 3. — clouds. 4. — roses. 5. — wind.
6. Lie —. 7. Run —. 8. Think —. 9. Sit —. 10. — — balls.
11. — — churches. 12. — — chair. 13. — — — houses.
14. — — — candy. 15. — — — dogs.

54. Caution—Care must be taken not to confound modifiers of the verb with complements. A *modifier* shows the time, place, manner, or degree of the action, being, or state expressed by the verb. An *object complement* denotes the object on which the action expressed

by the verb falls; an *attribute complement* points back to the subject, mentioning one or more of its attributes.

EXERCISE 37

In the following sentences tell whether the italicised words are objects, attribute complements, or modifiers of the verb:—

1. Father called *again*. 2. Some savages are *cannibals*. 3. The regiment marched *forth*. 4. Gehazi went out a *leper*. 5. She sang a *ballad*. 6. Bismarck was a *German*. 7. She sang *well*. 8. The ship sailed *yesterday*. 9. The policeman looked *surlly*. 10. Lot's wife looked *back*. 11. They went *below*. 12. The deacon's horse ran a *race*. 13. The deacon's horse ran *away*. 14. Vesuvius is a *volcano*. 15. Helen wrote *yesterday*.

EXERCISE 38

Separate the following sentences into simple subject, verb, complements, and modifiers:—

1. Have you much time? 2. Where is your hat? 3. Every dog has his day. 4. Many hands make light work. 5. Little strokes fell great oaks. 6. An undevout astronomer is mad. 7. When shall I see you again? 8. The postman comes twice daily. 9. We often meet nowadays; sometimes we exchange a few words; we seldom converse long. 10. Here he comes. 11. They walked up and down. 12. Where did you find those apples? 13. I have nearly finished my work. 14. We shall surely expect you to-morrow. 15. Perhaps your sister will come too.

55. Modifying Phrases and Clauses—Compare the modifiers in the following expressions:—

1. *Blue-eyed* girls. 2. Girls *with blue eyes*. 3. Girls *whose eyes are blue*.

Definition—A group of words used as a single word, and containing neither subject nor predicate, is called a **Phrase**.

Other examples of modifying phrases are :—

1. He stayed *at home*. 2. *Stunned by the sound*, he lay unconscious. 3. *Having finished his work*, John went home.

Definition—A group of words containing a subject and a predicate, and used like a single word as part of a sentence, is called a **Clause**.

Other examples of clauses are:—

1. *If it rains*, we cannot go. 2. They started *when the sun rose*. 3. *Whether he will come* is uncertain. 4. He *that is giddy* thinks the world turns round.

TO THE TEACHER—Phrases and clauses used as substantives are treated separately in Chapter VI.

EXERCISE 39

1. *Narrow the meaning of the following words by adding to them modifying phrases:—*

1. Clouds —. 2. A ride —. 3. A house —. 4. News —. 5. Wind —. 6. He went —. 7. Sit —. 8. Write —. 9. The fox ran —.

2. *Construct four sentences containing modifying phrases.*

EXERCISE 40

1. *Narrow the meaning of the following words by adding to them modifying clauses, and point out the subject and the predicate in each clause:—*

1. Men —. 2. The pictures —. 3. Children —. 4. The train —. 5. The book —. 6. Those —. 7. He came —. 8. Stay —. 9. Make hay —. 10. The ground is wet —. 11. The brook — is deep.

2. *Construct four sentences containing modifying clauses.*

EXERCISE 41

1. *Construct a sentence in which the subject is modified by single words; one in which it is modified by a phrase; one in which it is modified by a clause.*

2. *Construct a sentence in which the verb is modified by single words; one in which it is modified by a phrase; one in which it is modified by a clause.*

EXERCISE 42

Tell whether the following groups of words are phrases or clauses:—

1. How he got home. 2. Whether he is ready. 3. To tell the truth. 4. Doomed for a certain time to walk the night. 5. Standing by the door. 6. Where Shakspeare was born. 7. Before leaving the city. 8. Before we leave the city. 9. Busied with public affairs. 10. That you have wronged me. 11. Ignorant of his duty. 12. Having made his fortune. 13. Made by Indian. 14. Till on dry land he lights. 15. Having struck twelve.

EXERCISE 43

In the following sentences point out the modifying phrases, and tell what they modify:—

1. We sped the time with stories old. 2. A basket of fruit stood on the table. 3. Hearing a shout, she ran to the door. 4. The borrower is servant to the lender. 5. We saw a brick schoolhouse standing by the road. 6. Surrounded by familiar faces, she breathed freely again. 7. A comfortable old age is the reward of a well-spent youth. 8. Pins were first made by machinery in New York, in 1835. 9. The author of the "Ode to a Skylark" was born in a stable. 10. Glass windows were introduced into England in the eighth century.

EXERCISE 44

In the following sentences pick out the modifying clauses, tell what they modify, and give the subject and the predicate of each clause:—

1. They that govern most make least noise. 2. Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown. 3. My eyes make pictures when they are shut. 4. The city to which I refer is Constantinople. 5. When the heart stops beating, life stops too. 6. People who live in glass houses must not throw stones. 7. Rex found a young robin, which had fallen from its nest. 8. The average age of those who enter college is seventeen. 9. The man who wanted to see you went away an hour ago. 10. The fur which now warms a monarch once warmed a bear. 11. He that loses his conscience has nothing left that is worth keeping. 12. Where the carcass is, there will the eagles be gathered together. 13. Kindness is the golden chain by which society is bound together.

14. The moon, that once was round and full,
Is now a silver boat.

56. Modifying Clauses Classified—The principal ideas expressed by modifying clauses are the following:—

- (1) DESCRIPTION: Water *that is stagnant* is unwholesome.
- (2) TIME: He started *when the sun rose*.
- (3) PLACE: *Wherever I went* was my poor dog Tray.
- (4) MANNER: He did *as he was told*.
- (5) CONDITION: Rob will go *if Ethel goes*.
- (6) CONCESSION: *Though pain is not the greatest evil*, yet it is an evil.
- (7) CAUSE: I came *because you called me*.
- (8) PURPOSE: A glutton lives *that he may eat*.
- (9) DEGREE: Ralph is stronger *than Katherine* [is].
- (10) RESULT: I am so tired *that I cannot stand*.

EXERCISE 45

Tell what idea is expressed by each of the modifying clauses in Exercise 44.

57. Indirect Objects—Compare the following sentences:—

1. Jack gave a penny. 2. Jack gave *me* a penny.

In each of these sentences the word "penny" is an object complement, indispensable to the predicate. Giving, however, involves a receiver as well as a thing given, and in the second sentence this receiver is indicated by the single word "me," placed immediately after the verb. But "me" is less closely related to the verb than "penny" because (1) it is not indispensable, and (2) if we change its place, we must indicate its relation by prefixing "to": as, "Jack gave a penny *to me*." Moreover, the action of giving reaches the receiver only indirectly through the thing given. "Me" in sentence (b) is therefore called an **Indirect Object**, in distinction from "penny," which is called the **Direct Object**. Other examples are:—

1. Mother bought *Alice* a doll.
2. She made *Ruth* a new dress.

Definition —A word used to denote the object indirectly affected by the action of a verb is called an **Indirect Object**.

The indirect object of a verb denotes the object *to* or *for* whom the action is performed. But not every word answering the question "to whom or what?" or "for whom or what?" is an indirect object. For example, the italicised words in the following sentence are *not* indirect objects: "Mother went *to town* and bought me a doll *for a dollar*."

The verb "ask" takes an indirect object in a relation sometimes expressed by "of": as, "He asked *me* a question"; "He asked a question *of me*."

EXERCISE 46

1. *With the following verbs form ten sentences, each containing an indirect object:—*

ask, forgive, make, promise, teach, bring, get, pay, send, tell

2. *Change your sentences so that indirect objects that were single words shall now be expressed by phrases.*

EXERCISE 47

Point out the indirect objects in the following sentences:—

1. Will you do me a favour?
2. He paid the men their wages.
3. Give me liberty, or give me death.
4. He wrought the castle much annoy.
5. Riches certainly make themselves wings.
6. Give

every man thy ear, but few thy voice. 7. Nature teaches beasts to know their friends. 8. Owe no man anything, but to love one another.

58. Indirect Objects in Passive Sentences—When sentences containing a direct and an indirect object are turned into the passive form, it would seem that the direct object should become the subject of the passive verb, because it denotes the object which directly receives the action expressed by the verb; and that the indirect object should remain unchanged: thus,

1. (*Active*) He handed *her* a chair. 2. (*Passive*) A chair was handed *her*.

As a matter of fact, however, not the direct object, but the indirect is often made the subject of the passive verb: as,

She was handed a chair.

This cannot be logically explained, but it is accepted as good English. "Chair" is for convenience called a **Retained Object**.

EXERCISE 48

Change the following sentences into the passive form:—

1. Harry gave me a penny. 2. She promised me a book. 3. I gave him a receipt in full. 4. Mother bought Alice a doll. 5. He paid the men their wages. 6. He wrought the castle much annoy.

59. Appositives—Compare the following sentences:—

Paul was beheaded in the reign of Nero.

Paul, *the apostle*, was beheaded in the reign of Nero, *emperor of Rome*.

In the second sentence, you observe, the meaning of "Paul" and of "Nero" is made clear by setting next to each of them a modifier consisting of another name for the same person or thing.

Definition—A name set next to another name by way of explanation, and denoting the same person or thing, is called an **Appositive** (Latin, "set next to").

The two names set next to each other are said to be in **Apposition**.

If an appositive is accompanied by adjuncts, it is usually set off by commas.

In the definition of an appositive, the words "denoting the same person or thing" are needed to distinguish an appositive from a possessive modifier, like "John's" in the expression "John's hat." In this expression the words are not in apposition because they do not denote the same person or thing.

EXERCISE 49

In the following sentences point out the words in apposition:—

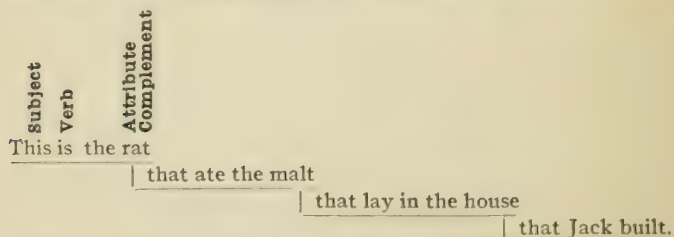
1. Hail, holy light! offspring of heav'n first-born.
2. The meek-ey'd Morn appears, mother of dews,
3. Come, gentle Spring! ethereal Mildness! come.
4. The postman comes, the herald of a noisy world.
5. Labour to keep alive in your breast that little spark of celestial fire—conscience.
6. Let not woman's weapons, water drops,
Stain my man's cheeks!
7. A famous man is Robin Hood,
The English ballad singer's joy.

EXERCISE 50

Construct four sentences containing appositives.

60. Modifiers of Modifiers—Thus far we have considered only modifiers of subject, verb and complement. But modifiers are themselves often modified, and we find phrases attached to phrases, clauses attached to clauses. Thus:—

1. Fanny sings very well.
2. The widow of the fisherman who was drowned lives in a cottage by the sea.
3. This is the rat that ate the malt that lay in the house that Jack built.



61. Analysis—When, in order to show its structure, we separate a sentence into its parts, we are said to **Analyse** it.

Definition—The process of separating a sentence into

its parts in order to show its structure is called **Analysis**. (Greek, "a taking apart").

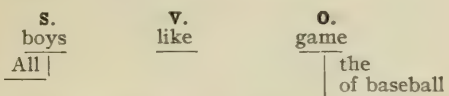
In order to analyse a sentence we must tell—

- (1) The kind of sentence.
- (2) The complete subject.
- (3) The predicate.
- (4) The simple subject.
- (5) The verb.
- (6) The complement, if any.
- (7) The modifiers of subject, verb and complement.
- (8) The subordinate modifiers.

62. Diagrams—It is sometimes convenient, as a time-saving device, to show the fundamental structure of a sentence by means of a graphic representation called a **Diagram**. For example, the structure of the sentence,

All boys like the game of baseball,

may be exhibited thus:—



This diagram shows at a glance that the sentence has three principal parts, and that the subject has one modifier, the object two.

Phrases and clauses being used with the force of single words are best treated as units and not broken up into parts.

For other examples see 60.

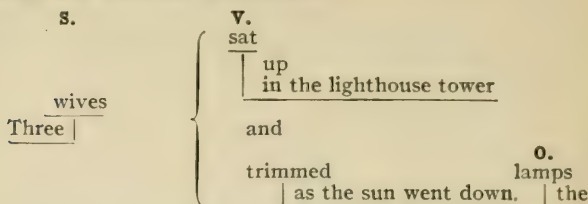
EXERCISE 51

Analyse the following sentences:—

1. Three wives sat up in the lighthouse tower
And trimmed the lamps as the sun went down.

MODEL FOR ORAL ANALYSIS—The subject is "Three wives." There are two predicates, "sat up in the lighthouse tower" and "trimmed the lamps as the sun went down." The simple subject is "wives," modified by "three." The verb in the first predicate is "sat," a verb of complete predication, modified by "up" and the phrase "in the lighthouse tower." In the second predicate the verb is "trimmed," with "lamps" as object complement. "Trimmed" is modified by the time clause "as the sun went down," and "lamps" is modified by "the."

MODEL FOR WRITTEN ANALYSIS—



2. Bright the lamps shone o'er fair women and brave men.
3. Animals that live in the Arctic regions among snow and ice have white fur.
4. Near the "bonny Doon" stands the little clay-built cottage in which Robert Burns was born.
5. Rip Van Winkle assisted at the children's sports, made their playthings, and told them long stories of ghosts, witches, and Indians.
6. Close beside her, faintly moaning, fair and young, a soldier lay, Torn with shot and pierced with lances, bleeding slow his life away.
7. Between the andiron's straggling feet
The mug of cider simmered slow.
8. The house dog on his paws outspread
Laid to the fire his drowsy head.

EXERCISE 52

(GENERAL REVIEW).

Analyse the following sentences:—

1. I came to a shady spot where the grass was wet with the dew that still lay upon it.
2. Nearly all dogs like the water.
3. My bosom's lord sits lightly in his throne.
4. The man in the moon came down too soon.
5. Remember now thy Creator in the days of thy youth.
6. Trust that man in nothing who has not a conscience in everything.
7. When I look upon the tombs of the great every emotion of envy dies in me.
8. Pompeii was suddenly buried beneath a shower of ashes from Mount Vesuvius.
9. People will not look forward to posterity who never look backward to their ancestors.
10. Books that you may carry to the fire and hold readily in your hand are the most useful after all.
11. The deep cave among the rocks on the hillside was long the secret home of a family of foxes.
12. In Holland the stork is protected by law, because it eats the frogs and worms that would injure the dikes.
13. Soon o'er the yellow fields, in silent and mournful procession,
Came from the neighbouring hamlets and farms the Acadian women,
Driving in ponderous wains their household goods to the sea-shore.

14. In the Old Colony days, in Plymouth, the land of the Pilgrims,
To and fro in a room of his simple and primitive dwelling,
Clad in doublet and hose, and boots of Cordovan leather,
Strode, with a martial air, Miles Standish, the Puritan captain.
15. Hearing the Imperial name
Coupled with these words of malice,
Half in anger, half in shame,
Forth the great campaigner came
Slowly from his canvas palace.

CHAPTER VI

OF SUBSTANTIVE PHRASES AND CLAUSES

IN the last chapter we learned (55) that groups of words are often used with the force of single words, and that such groups are **Phrases** if they contain neither subject nor predicate, **Clauses** if they do contain a subject and a predicate. The illustrative sentences and the exercises contained many such groups used as *modifiers*. We are now to learn that phrases and clauses are also used as *substantives*.

63. Phrases as Subjects—Examine the subject of each of the following sentences, and, if possible, pick out the single word that may be used as the simple or bare subject:—

Subject	Verb	Complement
Over the fence	is	out.
To jump across the chasm	was	impossible.
Tom's being there	saved	the house.

You observe that no single word can be taken as the bare subject. The assertion is made about the idea expressed by the entire phrase used as a substantive.

EXERCISE 53

Construct assertions about the ideas expressed by the following phrases:—

- | | |
|--------------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. To die for one's country —. | 4. Chopping wood —. |
| 2. Skating on the pond —. | 5. To find a horseshoe —. |
| 3. To write a story —. | 6. To tell a lie —. |

EXERCISE 54

Fill the blanks with phrases used as subjects:—

- | | |
|------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. — is dishonourable. | 4. — would make you laugh. |
| 2. — annoys me. | 5. — is impossible. |
| 3. — was great fun. | 6. Does — make you tired? |

64. Phrases as Complements—Examine each of the following complements, and determine whether any single word may be taken as the bare complement:—

Subject		Verb	Object Complement	
He		commanded	the bridge to be lowered.	
I		saw	him do it.	
Subject		Verb	Attribute Complement	
That		is	out of bounds.	
They		were	in no danger.	
Subject		Verb	Object	Objective Complement
They		danced	themselves	out of breath.
They		kept	us	waiting an hour.

From this it is clear that the phrases are often used substantively as complements.

EXERCISE 55

Complete the following sentences by adding ideas expressed by phrases, and tell whether the phrases are used as objects, attribute complements, or objective complements:—

1. Our house is —. 2. We intend —. 3. He made us —. 4. He seemed —. 5. What I want is —. 6. The Alps are —. 7. I like —.

EXERCISE 56

In the following sentences point out the phrases, and tell how they are used:—

1. Study to be quiet. 2. The vessels were of oak. 3. Out of sight is out of mind. 4. Out of debt is out of misery. 5. I found the book growing dull. 6. I did not enjoy crossing the ocean. 7. The price of wisdom is above rubies. 8. A man should learn to govern himself. 9. To break a promise is a breach of honour. 10. Giving to the poor is lending to the Lord. 11. To be conscious that you are ignorant is a great step toward knowledge. 12. The only argument available with an east wind is to put on your overcoat.

EXERCISE 57

Write a sentence containing a phrase used as subject; as object; as attribute complement; as objective complement.

65. Clauses as Subjects—Examine the following sentences and consider whether any single word can be named as the bare subject.

Consider, also, whether the groups of words expressing the subject are phrases or clauses. Give the reason for your answer:—

Subject	Predicate
What they say	is not to the point.
That you have wronged me	doth appear in this.
Whether I can go	is uncertain.

From this it is clear that a clause may be used substantively as the subject of a sentence.

EXERCISE 58

Make assertions about the ideas expressed by the following clauses:—

1. What he wants —.
2. Whether you go or stay —.
3. That two and two make four —.
4. Whom it belongs to —.
5. What he does —.
6. Where he went —.
7. When we shall start —.
8. "Charge for the guns" —.

EXERCISE 59

Fill the blanks with clauses used as subjects:—

1. — is unknown.
2. — will never be discovered.
3. — is of no importance.
4. — was foretold.

EXERCISE 60

Review Exercise 11 (page 17), and tell whether the subjects are phrases or clauses.

66. Clauses as Complements—Examine the following sentences, and consider whether any single word can be named as the complement. Consider, also, whether the groups of words expressing the complementary idea are phrases or clauses:—

Subject	Verb	Object
Galileo	taught	that the earth moves.
He	asked	who I was.
She	showed	where she had put it.
I	doubt	whether I can go.

From this it is clear that clauses may be used substantively as object or attribute complements.

EXERCISE 61

Fill the blanks with clauses used as complements, and tell whether they are used as objects or attribute complements:—

1. Do you know —? 2. I fear —. 3. My hope is —. 4. We saw —. 5. His cry was —. 6. Have you heard —? 7. The question is —. 8. Things are seldom —.

67. Clauses as Appositives—Examine the following sentence:—

The Arabs have a superstition *that the stork has a human heart*.

Here the clause "that the stork has a human heart" is in apposition (59) with the word "superstition."

From this we see that clauses may be used substantively as appositives.

EXERCISE 62

Fill the blanks with clauses in apposition with the italicised words:—

1. The *report* — is untrue. 2. The *news* — has just come. 3. We have just learned the *fact* —. 4. I cherish the *hope* —. 5. He made the *assertion* —.

EXERCISE 63

Point out the appositives in the following sentences:—

1. The popular idea that water is purified by freezing is a mistake.
2. Greater love hath no man than this, that a man lay down his life for his friends.
3. Dr. Watts's saying that birds in their little nests agree is far from being true.
4. The proverb "Never cross a bridge till you come to it" is old and of excellent wit.
5. Books have this advantage over travel, that they convey information from remote times.

EXERCISE 64

Write a sentence containing a substantive clause used as subject; as object; as attribute complement; as an appositive.

EXERCISE 65

In the following sentences point out the clauses, and tell how they are used:—

1. Ask if you may go too.
2. Life is what we make it.
3. What he does is well done.

4. What you want is not here.
5. Take whichever you choose.
6. Show us where you found it.
7. This is not what I asked for.
8. What he promises, he will do.
9. No one can tell how this will end.
10. A servant must do what he is told.
11. No man can lose what he never had.
12. "I am going a-milking, sir," she said.
13. Whether you go or stay is of little account.
14. The village all declared how much he knew.
15. One of the many objections to betting is that it demoralises the character.
16. The world will not inquire who you are. It will ask, "What can you do?"
17. Philosophers are still debating whether the will has any control over dreams.
18. The explanation of the apparent daily motion of the sun and stars is that the earth spins like a top.

CHAPTER VII

OF INDEPENDENT ELEMENTS

68. Independent Elements Defined—Examine the following sentence:—

I am going a-milking, sir.

Here, you observe, the subject is "I;" the predicate is "am going a-milking." The word "sir" belongs neither to the subject nor to the predicate, and therefore is not really a part of the sentence. It is merely attached to the sentence to show to whom it is addressed.

Definition—A word or group of words attached to a sentence without forming a grammatical part of it is called an **Independent Element**.

69. Vocatives—Independent elements are of several kinds. In "I am going a-milking, sir," the independent element "sir" indicates the person to whom the sentence is addressed.

Definition—A word used to call to or indicate the person or thing addressed is called a **Vocative** (Latin *voco*, "I call").

Care must be taken not to confound vocatives with the subjects of imperative sentences. In "Come on, boys," "boys" is a vocative. The subject of the command "come on" is omitted as usual; if expressed, it would be "you:" as, "Come (you) on, boys."

EXERCISE 66

Point out the vocative words in the following sentences:—

1. Drink, pretty creature, drink. 2. Give me of your balm, O fir tree. 3. Thou, too, sail on, O ship of State. 4. Ye crags and peaks, I'm with you once again. 5. Wave your tops, ye pines, in sign of worship. 6. Roll on, thou deep and dark blue ocean, roll!

70. Exclamations—Examine the following sentence:—

What! are you going?

Here the subject is "you;" the predicate is "are going." "What!" is an independent word attached to the sentence as an outcry or sudden expression of feeling.

Definition—A word or group of words used as an outcry or sudden expression of feeling is called an **Exclamation**.

EXERCISE 67

Point out all the independent elements in the following sentences, and tell whether they are vocatives or exclamations:

1. Oh, hurry, hurry! 2. Well, let us try it. 3. Why, that is strange! 4. The boy, oh, where was he? 5. Poor man! he never came back. 6. Mortimer! who talks of Mortimer?

71. Parenthetical Expressions—Examine the following sentence:—

This, to tell the truth, was a mistake.

Here the subject is "This;" the predicate is "was a mistake." "To tell the truth" is a phrase, forming no part of the sentence (which is complete without it), but attached to it as a sort of comment or side remark.

Definition—A phrase or a clause attached to a sentence as a sort of side remark or comment is called **Parenthetical** (Greek, "put in beside").

EXERCISE 68

Pick out the parenthetical expressions in the following sentences:—

1. At all events, he did his best. 2. In fact, there was nothing else to do. 3. Considering his age, he did very well. 4. I felt, to say the least, a little nervous. 5. So far as I can see, there is nothing more to do. 6. Her conduct, generally speaking, was admirable. 7. Properly speaking, there is no such thing as luck.

72. Pleonasm—Examine the following sentence:—

Thy rod and thy staff, they comfort me.

Here the words "Thy rod and thy staff" name the subject of the thought, but are independent of the sentence "they comfort me," which is complete in itself, the grammatical subject being "they" and the predicate "comfort me." It is as if we used two subjects denoting the same thing: thus,

Thy rod and thy staff	}	comfort me.
They		

Definition—The use of more words than are needed is called **Pleonasm** ("more than enough").

Other examples of pleonasm are:—

The smith, a mighty man is he.

My banks, they are furnished with bees.

This construction was once very good English, but it is now uncommon, and as a rule should not be imitated.

73. Punctuation of Independent Elements—It is customary to separate independent elements from the rest of the sentence by commas or (in the case of exclamations) by exclamation points.

EXERCISE 69

Write two sentences of your own with vocatives attached; two with exclamations; two with parenthetical expressions.

74. Summary of the Parts of a Sentence—The parts of a sentence, which we have now studied, may be summarised as follows:—

CHAPTER VIII

OF SENTENCES AS SIMPLE, COMPLEX AND COMPOUND

WITH respect to meaning, sentences are classified as **Assertive, Interrogative, or Imperative**. With respect to form, they are either **Simple, Complex or Compound**.

75. Simple Sentences—Examine the following sentences:—

Subject	Predicate
a. The horses	were in the stable.
b. The horses and the cattle }	were in the same stable.
c. The horses	{ took fright and ran away.
d. The horses and the cattle }	{ were fastened in the same stable and were fed at the same time.

Each of these sentences, you observe, consists of but one subject and one predicate, though several of the subjects and predicates are compound.

Definition—A sentence which contains only one subject and one predicate, either or both of which may be compound, is called a **Simple Sentence**.

In a simple sentence with compound subject and predicate, every verb belongs to every grammatical subject, and every grammatical subject belongs to every verb.

Some grammarians hold that there are as many sentences or clauses in anything we say as there are verbs. According to them, sentences (c) and (d) are not simple sentences, but two separate sentences united, with some words omitted: as, "The horses took fright and [the horses] ran away;" "The horses and the cattle were fastened in the same stable and [the horses and the cattle] were fed at the same time."

76. Complex Sentences—Examine the following sentences:—

Subject	Predicate
<i>Where the accident occurred</i> Substantive Clause	is not known.
The spot <i>where the accident occurred</i> Modifying Clause	is not known.

In each of these sentences a clause, performing the office of a single word, forms an indispensable part of the whole. It cannot be removed without injury to the meaning of the sentence. On the other hand, it depends on the rest of the sentence for its own significance. It is clear that the subject and the predicate of such a clause are *subordinate* to, that is, of lower rank than, the subject and the predicate of the sentence of which the clause is only a part.

Definition—A clause used like a single word as a dependent or subordinate part of a sentence is called a **Dependent or Subordinate Clause**.

Definition—A sentence containing a principal clause and one or more subordinate clauses is called a **Complex Sentence** (Latin, "woven together").

The "principal clause" in the first illustrative sentence is the entire sentence; in the second sentence it is, "The spot . . . is not known."

Subordinate clauses are either modifying or substantive clauses; and all modifying or substantive clauses are subordinate.

It is sometimes said that subordinate clauses can be recognised by the fact that they do not by themselves make complete sense. This is not a sure test; for—

(1) Some subordinate clauses make complete sense by themselves; for example, "'I am going a-milking, sir,' she said." Here the direct quotation is clearly the object of "said," and is therefore a dependent clause; yet it makes complete sense by itself.

(2) Some principal clauses cannot stand by themselves; for example, "As a man lives, *so must he die*."

77. Compound Sentences—Examine the following sentence:—

The rain descended, | and | the floods came, | and | the winds blew, | and | [they] smote upon that house; | and | it fell: | and | great was the fall thereof.

In this selection we see united into one sentence several that are complete in themselves. Although closely related in thought, they could be separated without injury; therefore they are *independent* of one another. Not being dependent one on another, they are said to be *coordinate*, that is, of equal rank.

Definition—A sentence consisting of several independent or coordinate sentences joined together is called a **Compound Sentence**.

The independent sentences joined together may themselves be complex.

EXERCISE 71

Show whether the following sentences are simple, complex, or compound:—

1. In the multitude of counsellors there is safety. 2. A cow is a very good animal in the field; but we turn her out of a garden.

3. Where the bee sucks, there suck I;
In a cowslip's bell I lie.

4. Flow gently, sweet Afton, among thy green braes;
Flow gently, I'll sing thee a song in thy praise.

5. My heart's in the Highlands, my heart is not here;
My heart's in the Highlands a-chasing the deer.

6. The mossy marbles rest
On the lips that he has prest
In their bloom;
And the names he loved to hear
Have been carved for many a year
On the tomb.

78. Compound Sentences Classified—If we examine compound sentences closely, we find that they are of four kinds:—

(1) Copulative sentences in which the separate sayings are united because of a *similarity* of meaning or a *continuation* of the same line of thought: as,

He called for his pipe, | and | he called for his bowl, | and | he called for his fiddlers three.

(2) Adversative sentences in which the separate sayings are united because they stand in *contrast*: as,

He ran to the station, | but | he missed the train.

(3) Alternative sentences in which the separate sayings are united because they present thoughts between which one must make a *choice*: as,

The book is lost | or | some one has taken it.

(4) Causal sentences in which the separate sayings are united because they express *cause and effect*: as,

Carl was tired, | therefore | he went to bed.

79. Connecting Words—In the sentences given in the last section as illustrations, the connecting words

are "and," "but," "or," and "therefore." These are the most common joining words in the four kinds of compound sentences; but other connectives are frequently used, such as "also," "moreover," "nor," "nevertheless," "for." Often there are no connecting words at all, the connection between the united sentences being indicated only by the punctuation. To tell, therefore, how the separate parts of a compound sentence are related to one another, we must consider, not the connectives, but the meaning of the parts.

EXERCISE 72

Separate the following compound sentences into their independent parts, and tell how the parts are related:—

1. Man proposes, but God disposes.

MODEL FOR ORAL ANALYSIS—This is a compound sentence, formed by uniting, by way of contrast, the separate sentences "Man proposes" and "God disposes." The connecting word is "but."

2. She must weep or she will die.
3. They toil not, neither do they spin.
4. It rained on Saturday, so we put off the game.
5. He says what he means, and he means what he says.
6. The leaves are falling; therefore the swallows will soon be gone.
7. The words of his mouth were smoother than butter, but war

was in his heart.

8. The fool doth think he is wise, but the wise man knows himself to be a fool.

9. The heavens declare the glory of God; and the firmament sheweth his handiwork.

10. Some are born great, some achieve greatness, and some have greatness thrust upon 'em.

11. Truly there is a tide in the affairs of men; but there is no gulf stream setting forever in one direction.

12. There were gentlemen and there were seamen in the navy of Charles II; but the seamen were not gentlemen, and the gentlemen were not seamen.

80. Improper Compound Sentences—Untrained speakers and writers sometimes unite in one compound sentence thoughts that are not related: as,

Oliver Goldsmith was the son of a clergyman, and when he was young he had the smallpox.

Such a sentence offends the taste of a cultivated person. There is no connection at all between the two facts that are mentioned, and this independence should be indicated by putting them in separate sentences.

EXERCISE 73

1. Construct a simple sentence with compound subject; with compound predicate; with both subject and predicate compound.

2. Construct a complex sentence containing a modifying clause; a substantive clause used as subject; a substantive clause used as complement.

3. Construct a compound sentence in which the separate sayings are related by similarity of meaning; by contrast; by alternate choice; by cause and effect.

CHAPTER IX

OF ELLIPTICAL SENTENCES

81. Elliptical Sentences Defined—Language is an intensely practical matter, designed only to express thought, and never employed for its own sake. In using it we very properly think far more of clearness and force than we do of grammatical completeness. It is, therefore, both natural and proper that we should from time to time omit from our sentences grammatical parts which it is unnecessary to use, our meaning being well understood without them. Such omissions are especially common in familiar conversation, where language has the aid of tone and gesture, and in lively or impassioned speech, where from haste or strength of feeling we express only the most important ideas.

Definition—The omission of part of a sentence necessary to grammatical completeness but not to the meaning is called **Ellipsis** (Greek, “a leaving out”).

A sentence in which an omission occurs is called an **Elliptical Sentence**.

The following examples of ellipsis should be carefully studied. The words inclosed in brackets are usually omitted:—

(1) This is important if [it is] true. (2) He fell while [he was] bravely leading his men. (3) Who did that? Jack [did it]. (4) I

can't come. Why [can you] not [come]? (5) He has gone, no one knows where [he has gone]. (6) Do you promise? I do [promise]. (7) He is not so tall as I [am tall]. (8) You are wiser than I [am wise]. (9) He looks as [he would look] if he were tired. (10.) [They being as] poor as they are [poor], they will not beg. (11) She is seventeen [years old]. (12) It is half past ten [o'clock]. (13) [I] thank you. (14) Why [is] this noise [made]? (15) [I wish you a] good morning, sir.

EXERCISE 74

What words, necessary to grammatical completeness, but not to the meaning, are omitted in the following elliptical sentences?

1. I walk when I can. 2. He is witty but vulgar. 3. I treat him as a friend. 4. She is as pretty as ever. 5. She loves Fido as well as I. 6. She loves Fido as well as me. 7. Love thy neighbour as thyself. 8. I love my mother more than he. 9. I love my mother more than him. 10. Who steals my purse steals trash. 11. You have known her longer than I. 12. There is nothing so powerful as truth—and often nothing so strange. 13. Reading maketh a full man, conference a ready man, and writing an exact man. 14. Some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed, and some few to be chewed and digested. 15. Histories make men wise; poets, witty; the mathematics, subtle; natural philosophy, deep; moral, grave; logic and rhetoric, able to contend.

EXERCISE 75

Construct five elliptical sentences, and tell what words are omitted.

PART II

THE PARTS OF SPEECH

CHAPTER I

OF THE RECOGNITION OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH

HAVING in Part I studied sentences as wholes and become familiar with their general structure, we are now prepared to study the uses and forms of single words.

82. Words Classified According to Function—Our language contains more than two hundred thousand words; but when we examine the ways in which these words are used in sentences, we find that we can arrange them all in a few general classes according to their function, that is, according to *what they do*. These general classes are called the **Parts of Speech**.

83. Nouns—Examine the italicised words in the following sentence:—

The *crew* of the *battleship* *Victoria* were under perfect *discipline*.

The italicised words, you observe, are *names*.

Definition—A word used as a name is called a **Noun**.

Other examples are:—

Names of objects: Wellington, Quebec, army, iron.

Names of actions: walking, laughter, retreat, delay.

Names of qualities: sweetness, warmth, beauty, vice.

Names of conditions: sickness, sleep, death, fatigue.

Names of thoughts: idea, doubt, belief, opinion.

EXERCISE 76

Write the names of two things that you can see; of two that you can hear but not see; of two that you can feel but not

see; of two that you can taste but not see; of two that you can smell but not see; of two that you can neither see, taste, feel, hear, nor smell.

EXERCISE 77

Point out the nouns in the following sentences:—

1. Brevity is the soul of wit. 2. Misery acquaints a man with strange bed-fellows. 3. They that die by famine die by inches. 4. Nothing is impossible to diligence and skill. 5. The music of the great organ sometimes sounds like the roll of thunder. 6. The length of the journey and the difficulty of the road over the mountains discouraged the soldiers, though the general spirit of the army remained excellent. 7. Sailing on this lake is somewhat dangerous, because the wind comes through the gaps of the mountains in sudden and uneven puffs. 8. Pride goeth before destruction, and an haughty spirit before a fall. 9. Solitude is as needful to the imagination as society is wholesome for the character.

84. Pronouns—No one would ever say: "Charles bought Charles a top; the top Charles afterward gave to Charles's sister Frances; Frances wanted the top." Such a sentence would be both disagreeable to the ear and obscure: it might refer to one Charles and one Frances or to more than one. We should probably say instead: "Charles bought *himself* a top, which *he* afterward gave to *his* sister Frances, *who* wanted it."

In asking a question about some object the name of which we do not know, we represent the object by "who" or "what:" as, "*Who* is there?" "*What* did you say?"

Definition—A word used to stand for a noun is called a **Pronoun**.

Definition—A noun for which a pronoun stands is called the **Antecedent** of the pronoun.

The antecedents of pronouns are often not expressed.

EXERCISE 78

What is your name? What five substitutes for your name do you use in referring to yourself? What five substitutes for names do you use in speaking of yourself and others together? What words do you use as substitutes for the names of persons to whom you are speaking? of a boy about whom you are speaking? of a girl? of a thing? of two boys? of three girls? of four things?

EXERCISE 79

Point out the pronouns, and give their antecedents, if the antecedents are expressed:—

I

Then spake the chief butler unto Pharaoh, saying, I do remember my faults this day: Pharaoh was wroth with his servants, and put me in ward in the house of the captain of the guard, me and the chief baker: and we dreamed a dream in one night, I and he; we dreamed each man according to the interpretation of his dream. And there was with us there a young man, an Hebrew, servant to the captain of the guard; and we told him, and he interpreted to us our dreams; to each man according to his dream he did interpret. And it came to pass, as he interpreted to us, so it was; me he restored unto mine office, and him he hanged. Then Pharaoh sent and called Joseph, and they brought him hastily out of the dungeon: and he shaved himself, and changed his raiment, and came in unto Pharaoh. (Genesis xli, 9-14.)

85. Adjectives—Many nouns have very wide meanings. The noun "horses," for example, applies to all the horses in the world; and to bring the meaning of the word down to the measure of our thought we add to it one or more distinguishing words or modifiers: as,

Black, trotting, two, these, some, both, no.

Pronouns have no meaning in themselves; but they represent objects which have distinguishing attributes, and therefore they, too, may be accompanied by distinguishing or modifying words: as,

Tired and hungry, I lay down to sleep.

Definition —A word joined to a noun or a pronoun by way of limitation or description is called an **Adjective**.

Though the word "adjective" means "put next to," adjectives are often separated from the nouns or pronouns which they modify: as,

1. *You look happy.* 2. *The pears that you laid away have become ripe.*

Some adjectives show a *quality* or *attribute* of the object we have in mind; others show *which* objects; others show *how many* or *how much*.

EXERCISE 80

Join appropriate adjectives to the following nouns, and tell what each adjective shows:—

- | | | | | |
|------------|--------------|-------------|--------------|------------|
| 1. House. | 4. Soldiers. | 7. Grass. | 10. Flowers. | 13. Cents. |
| 2. Bottle. | 5. Paper. | 8. Store | 11. Wisdom. | 14. Money. |
| 3. Pens. | 6. Shoes. | 9. Peaches. | 12. Dollars. | 15. Road. |

EXERCISE 81

Point out the adjectives, and tell what each shows:—

1. Little strokes fell great oaks. 2. Please make no noise. 3. Where did you find those big apples? 4. I found them in the third bin. 5. Let us climb yonder mountain. 6. Certain women were there. 7. All men must die. 8. Most boys like football. 9. There are several sailboats on the lake. 10. Every dog has his day. 11. No school to-morrow! 12. He has enough money. 13. Along both banks are beautiful shaded walks; and near the mill are two little islands covered with ancient trees.

86. Articles—Examine the words attached to the nouns in the following selection:—

A man and a lion once had a dispute as to which belonged to the nobler race. The man pointed to an ancient monument on which was sculptured a triumphant hunter standing over a vanquished lion. "That doesn't settle the question," said the lion; "for if a lion had been the sculptor, he would have represented the lion as standing over the hunter."

Every noun in this selection is accompanied by "a," "an," or "the," of which "a" and "an" are merely different forms of the same word. These remarkable little words, attached to nouns by way of limitation, are of the nature of adjectives; but they are so peculiar in their function and so frequent in recurrence that they are usually put in a class by themselves, with a name of their own.

Definition—"A" or "an" and "the" are called **Articles**.

EXERCISE 82

(REVIEW)

Tell what part of speech each word is in the following sentences:—

1. Facts are stubborn things.
2. Order is Heaven's first law.
3. Time rolls his ceaseless course.
4. No mate, no comrade, Lucy knew.
5. The groves were God's first temples.

87. Verbs—The nature and importance of verbs have already been studied in Part I, Chapter III.

88. Adverbs—The action or state denoted by a verb may vary in time, place, manner, or degree. For example, a person may laugh now or to-morrow, here or there, loudly or quietly, much or little. Words joined to verbs to express such modifications of time, place, manner, or degree are called **Adverbs**. Other examples are:—

Adverbs		
He went	again	TIME
	soon	
	yesterday	
	there	
	yonder	PLACE
	before	
	cheerfully	MANNER
	fast	
	thus	
	twice	DEGREE
	often	
	little	

A few adverbs denote affirmation, negation, emphasis, or uncertainty: as,

1. He *certainly* went.
2. He did *not* go.
3. *Yes*, he went.
4. He went *indeed*.
5. *Perhaps* he went.

The attributes or qualities denoted by many *adjectives* may vary like the actions denoted by verbs, especially in degree; therefore adverbs, especially of degree, are often attached to adjectives: as,

Adverbs		Adjective
He is	very	shy
	exceedingly	
	rather	
	somewhat	
	too	

Similarly, the ideas denoted by many *adverbs* may vary in degree; therefore adverbs of degree are often attached to adverbs: as,

Adverbs		Adverb
He writes	very	slowly
	too	
	rather	
	more	

Gathering together these different uses of adverbs, we have the following definition.

Definition—An **Adverb** is a word joined by way of limitation to a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

EXERCISE 83

Join adverbs to the verbs in the following sentences, and tell what they show:—

1. Come —. 2. He came —. 3. He will come —. 4. The ship sailed —. 5. The agent called —. 6. We heard the noise —. 7. The policeman looked —. 8. The tired traveller slept —.

EXERCISE 84

Join appropriate adverbs to the following adjectives:—

1. — good. 3. — more. 5. — tired. 7. — sick.
2. — happy. 4. — rich. 6. — famous. 8. — discouraged.

EXERCISE 85

Join appropriate adverbs to the adverbs in the following sentences:—

1. He ran — fast. 2. She sings — well. 3. She reads — more.
4. They come — often. 5. Write — carefully. 6. I must go — soon. 7. Don't go — far. 8. I went — before.

EXERCISE 86

Point out all the adverbs, and tell what they modify:—

1. I was very kindly received. 2. Go directly south. 3. You read very much too fast. 4. Do not show your feeling too plainly. 5. That was not done well enough. 6. I will surely disturb you no more. 7. We are indeed almost there. 8. He is always there. 9. Yes, we unfortunately arrived too soon. 10. I surely expect him to-morrow. 11. The current runs very fast here. 12. The shadow on the dial never goes backward. 13. To and fro, and in and out, the wan stars danced between. 14. She dances very well indeed. 15. He is not much distressed. 16. Possibly he has forgotten how much you grieved. 17. The clock that usually stands here has never run accurately. 18. Why did you come to-day? 19. You are far too hasty. 20. I am now much better; I hope to be quite well very soon, but I must not try to walk too far to-day. 21. You may do that once too often. 22. 'Tis always morning somewhere in the world. 23. He's armed without that's innocent within. 24. Hitherto shalt thou come, but no further; and here shall thy proud waves be stayed.

EXERCISE 87

REVIEW

Tell what part of speech each word is in the following sentences:—

1. Thou shalt surely die.
2. This child was very little hurt.
3. Little white lily smells very sweet.

89. Prepositions—Compare the following expressions:—

- (a) Last year. (b) The last year of *the century*.

In the first expression we describe the year by the adjective “last.” In the second expression we further describe it by telling its relation to the century. To express this relation we use the word “of,” which unites with the words “the century” to form an adjunct or modifying phrase.

Definition—A word placed before a noun or a pronoun to show its relation to some other word, and forming with it a modifying phrase, is called a **Preposition**.

Definition—The noun or the pronoun used with a preposition is called its **Object**.

Definition—A phrase consisting of a preposition and its object (with or without modifiers) is called a **Prepositional Phrase**. Other examples are:—

Prepositional Phrases used as Adjectives		
	Preposition	Noun or Pronoun
The book	on	the table.
	in	the desk.
	under	the seat.
	behind	the door.
	by	the window.

The preceding prepositional phrases are attached to a noun; the following are attached to a verb or an adjective:—

Prepositional Phrases used as Adverbs		
	Preposition	Noun or Pronoun
We walked	over	the bridge.
	past	the schoolhouse.
	through	the tunnel.
	during	the storm.
	with	him.
It is long	after	sunset.
	before	dark.
	till	morning.

Though the word “preposition” means “placed before,” a preposition and its object are often separated

by other words; and sometimes the preposition comes after its object: as,

1. He came *with* at least two thousand *men*. 2. The top *of* yon high eastern *hill*. 3. *What* are you looking at? (i.e., *At what* are you looking?)

EXERCISE 88

Show relation between the following words by using appropriate prepositions:—

- | | |
|---------------------|----------------------|
| 1. Clouds — us. | 5. Asleep — sermon. |
| 2. Men — wealth. | 6. Talk — nothing. |
| 3. Train — Boston. | 7. Dust — door. |
| 4. Born — Savannah. | 8. Travel — England. |

EXERCISE 89

Point out the prepositions and their objects, and tell what the prepositional phrases modify:—

THE BATTLE OF PLASSEY

The day broke—the day which was to decide the fate of India. At sunrise the army of the Nabob, pouring through many openings of the camp, began to move toward the grove where the English lay. Forty thousand infantry, armed with firelocks, pikes, swords, bows and arrows, covered the plain. They were accompanied by fifty pieces of ordnance of the largest size, each tugged by a long team of white oxen, and each pushed on from behind by an elephant. Some smaller guns, under the direction of a few French auxiliaries, were perhaps more formidable. The cavalry were fifteen thousand. The force which Clive had to oppose to this great multitude consisted of only three thousand men. * * *

90. Conjunctions—Examine the following:—

Compound Sentences

Independent Clause	Connecting Word	Independent Clause
The wind blew, I ran fast	and but	the rain fell. I missed the train.

Complex Sentences

Principal Clause	Connecting Word	Subordinate Clause
Rob will go He says Guy is older	if that than	Ethel goes. he will come. Lewis [is old].

Connected Phrases

	Connecting Word	
By the people	and	for the people.

Connected Words

Connecting
Word

Sink or swim.

From this it appears that some words are used as mere connectives, joining together sentences, phrases, or words.

Definition—A word used to connect sentences, phrases, or words is called a **Conjunction**.

When subordinate clauses come first, they carry with them the conjunction which connects them with the principal clauses: as,

Conjunction	Subordinate Clause	Principal Clause
If	Ethel goes	Rob will go.
Unless	it rains	we shall all go.
That	he will come	is certain.
Whether	father can come	is doubtful.

Conjunctions sometimes occur in pairs, the first of the pair being not really a connective, but a sort of forerunner announcing that something will presently be added: as,

Either you *or* I must go.
It is *neither* useful *nor* ornamental.
The king was weak *both* in body *and* in mind.

Sometimes a conjunction is used at the beginning of a separate sentence, or even of a paragraph, to connect it with what precedes.

Prepositions connect words, but not in the same way as conjunctions. When words are connected by prepositions, one always bears a modified relation to the other. When words are connected by conjunctions, they are grammatically on an equality, the conjunction merely indicating that they are to be taken together.

EXERCISE 90

Fill the blanks with appropriate conjunctions:—

1. Poor — honest. 2. Beautiful — good. 3. I wonder — he will come. 4. I could — buy — borrow it. 5. I cannot deny — he means well. 6. He was punished, — he was guilty. 7. We cannot go — we finish our task.

EXERCISE 91

Point out the conjunctions, and tell what they connect:—

1. She was good as she was fair. 2. Handsome is as handsome does. 3. Neither a borrower nor a lender be. 4. Better one bird in hand than ten in the wood. 5. Rich gifts wax poor when beggars prove unkind. 6. If chance will have me king, why, chance may crown me. 7. Experience keeps a dear school, but fools will learn in no other. 8. So teach us to number our days, that we may apply our hearts unto wisdom. 9. A dwarf sees farther than the giant when he has the giant's shoulder to mount on. 10. Dost thou love life? Then do not squander time; for that is the stuff life is made of.

91. Interjections—Examine the use of the italicised words:—

(1) *Ouch!* I cut myself. (2) *Bravo!* that was well done.

You observe that “*Ouch!*” and “*Bravo!*” form no part of the accompanying sentences (which are complete without them), but are sudden outcries, uttered as condensed expressions of some kind of feeling. Other examples are: “*Oh!*” “*Pshaw!*” “*Alas!*” “*Hurrah!*” “*Fie!*”

Definition—A word used as a sudden expression of feeling, but not forming part of a sentence, is called an **Interjection**.

EXERCISE 92

Mention five interjections different from those given above.

EXERCISE 93

(REVIEW)

Tell the part of speech to which each word in the following sentences belongs:—

1. Procrastination is the thief of time. 2. Custom reconciles us to everything. 3. The march of the human mind is slow. 4. Patience is a necessary ingredient of genius. 5. Earth with her thousand voices praises God. 6. How blessings brighten as they take their flight!

92. Verbals—Besides these nine parts of speech just described, there are two important kinds of words that are intermediate between verbs on the one hand, and nouns and adjectives on the other. They are formed from verbs and retain some of the characteristics of verbs, with which they are usually classed; but they differ from verbs in being used, not as predicates of sentences, but as nouns or adjectives. They are called

Verbals, and they are of two kinds: noun-verbals, called **Infinitives**; and adjective-verbals, called **Participles**. These words are, in a sense, forms of the verb; but they are so peculiar in their nature and frequent in their occurrence that they require separate description now.

93. Infinitives—Examine the italicised words in the following sentence:—

To climb } steep hills requires a slow pace.
Climbing }

Here “To climb” and “Climbing” are formed from the verb “climb,” and are followed by a direct object, “hills;” therefore they partake of the nature of verbs. They are used, however, not to *assert* an action, but to *name* it; therefore they partake also of the nature of nouns.

Definition—A word that partakes of the nature of both verb and noun is called an **Infinitive**.

The *distinguishing marks* of an infinitive are these: (1) it is derived from a verb; (2) it takes, or may take, the same complements and modifiers as the verb from which it is derived; (3) it is used as a noun.

With regard to form, infinitives are of two principal kinds: (1) the **Root Infinitive**, with or without “to,” so called because it is the same as the root, or simple form, of the verb; (2) the **Infinitive in -ing**.

The infinitive with “to” sometimes has the force of an adjective or an adverb: as, “Water *to drink*,” “He came *to see* us.” In such cases “to” is a real preposition with the infinitive as its object, the two forming a prepositional phrase.

The root infinitive without “to” is seen in “You need not *wait*,” where “wait” is the object complement of “need.” Other examples are:—

“You dare not *do* it;” “I saw him *fall*,” “We must *go* now;” “I had rather *die* than *do* it.”

EXERCISE 94

Point out the infinitives in the following sentences, and show that they partake of the nature of both verb and noun.

1. Always take time to do your best.
2. It is better to wear out than to rust out.
3. Wounds made by words are hard to heal.

4. It is much easier to be critical than to be correct.
5. One can show his moral courage by daring to do right.
6. Censure is the tax a man pays to the public for being eminent.
7. If to do were as easy as to know what were good to do, chapels had been churches, and poor men's cottages princes' palaces.
8. How sharper than a serpent's tooth it is
To have a thankless child!
9. Of all those arts in which the wise excel
Nature's chief masterpiece is writing well.
10. Truth from his lips prevailed with double sway,
And fools who came to scoff remained to pray.

EXERCISE 95

Construct sentences illustrating the use of the root infinitive and the infinitive in "-ing" as subject; as object; as attribute complement; as object of a preposition.

94. Participles—Examine the italicised words in the following sentences:—

The girl intently *reading* a book is my cousin.

The plant commonly *called* Nightshade is poisonous.

In the first sentence "*reading*," formed from the verb "*read*," has an object, "*book*," and is modified by an adverb, "*intently*;" therefore it partakes of the nature of a verb. But it is attached to the noun "*girl*" by way of description, and therefore it partakes also of the nature of an adjective.

In the second sentence "*called*," formed from the verb "*call*," has an attribute complement, "*Nightshade*," and is modified by an adverb, "*commonly*;" therefore it partakes of the nature of a verb. But it is attached to the noun "*plant*" by way of description, and therefore it also partakes of the nature of an adjective.

Definition—A word that partakes of the nature of both verb and adjective is called a **Participle**.

The distinguishing marks of a participle are these: (1) it is derived from a verb; (2) it takes, or may take, the same complements and modifiers as the verb from which it is derived; (3) it is used as an adjective.

From simple participles are derived **Phrasal Participles**: as, "*Florence, having said* good-bye, turned to go."

Very often a participle is loosely attached to the sub-

ject of a sentence, not so much to describe it, as to express some attendant action or condition: as,

Hearing a noise in the street, I went to the window.

EXERCISE 96

Point out the participles in the following sentences, and show that they partake of the nature of both verb and adjective:—

1. I am going the way of all the earth.
2. The smallest worm will turn, being trodden on.
3. He rushed into the field, and foremost fighting fell.
4. Sweeping and eddying through the bridge rose the belated tide.
5. Peter the hermit, dressed in a coarse robe, and bearing in his hand a crucifix, travelled through Italy and France, preaching the duty of rescuing the Holy Sepulchre from the Mohammedans.
6. A little fire is quickly trodden out;
Which, being suffered, rivers cannot quench.
7. Now morn, her rosy steps in the eastern clime
Advancing, sowed the earth with orient pearl.
8. The world is too much with us; late and soon,
Getting and spending, we lay waste our powers.

EXERCISE 97

Construct two sentences containing participles ending in “-ing;” two containing other participles.

95. Caution—Not all words ending in “-ing” are infinitives or participles. Examine, for instance, the italicised words in the following sentences:—

(1) The child slept *during* all the noise. (2) *Nothing* daunted, he began again. (3) There is *something* in the wind. (4) This constant *climbing* of steep hills takes my breath.

In (1) the word ending in “-ing” is a preposition. In (2) it has the force of an adverb, modifying the participle “daunted.” In (3) it is a noun derived, not from a verb, but from the vague noun “thing.” In (4) it is a noun derived from a verb, and so far it resembles an infinitive; but it differs from an infinitive in having completely lost its verbal characteristics, for it is modified by adjectives instead of by adverbs, and instead of taking a direct object like the verb from which it came, it is followed by a prepositional phrase. In (5) it is impossible to tell whether the word ending

in “-ing” should be classed as an infinitive or as a pure noun, for it has no adjuncts to guide us. Nor is the question important. When adjuncts are present the classification is easy: thus,

Good *spelling* is easier for some than for others. (Pure noun, because modified by an adjective, “good.”)

Spelling long words is easier for some than for others. (Infinitive, because accompanied by an object, “words.”)

EXERCISE 98

Classify the italicised words in the following sentences:—

1. He would do *nothing* to relieve the distress of his *starving* tenants. 2. Linnæus knelt beside the mountain gorses, *thanking* God for their beauty. 3. In the battle off Cape Vincent, Nelson gave orders for *boarding* the “San Josef,” *exclaiming*, “Westminster Abbey, or victory!” 4. I have done with *expecting* from her any course of steady *reading*, for she will not submit to *anything requiring* industry and patience or much exercise of the *understanding*. 5. Gladstone protested against people’s *going* to Monte Carlo, and *putting* down their five francs just for the fun of the *thing*, and so *adding* to the respectability of the place, and then *thinking* that they are *doing* no harm.

EXERCISE 99

Construct a sentence containing an infinitive in “-ing;” a participle ending in “-ing;” a pure noun ending in “-ing;” a preposition ending in “-ing.”

96. Caution — It must not be supposed that the same word is always the same part of speech. Examine, for instance, the function of “iron” in the following sentences:—

(a) *Iron* is heavy. (b) An *iron* kettle hung on the crane. (c) Laundresses *iron* clothes. (d) An *iron-bound* bucket hung in the well.

EXERCISE 100

Tell to what part of speech each word in italics belongs:—

1. (a) The sun shines on *rich* and *poor* alike. (b) He is a *rich* man, but a *poor* scholar.

2. (a) You *must*, *must* you? (b) “*Must*” is made for the queen.

3. (a) They *summer* at Bar Harbour. (b) One swallow does not make a *summer*. (c) This is a *summer* hotel.

4. (a) *Farewell*! (b) *Adieu*! (c) Where thou art gone *adieux* and *farewells* are a sound unknown.

5. (a) I am *very* glad to see you. (b) You are the *very* man I was looking for. (c) “*Very*” is a common word.

6. I was about to send *for* you, *for* I have something to show you.
7. (a) Farmers *till* the soil. (b) Look in the *till*. (c) Stay *till* the bell rings. (d) Stay *till* the next train.
8. (a) Do not lose a *second*. (b) I *second* your motion. (c) She *won second* prize. (d) You come *second*.
9. (a) We walked *about*. (b) What did you talk *about*? (c) We talked *about* golf. (d) *About* a dozen girls were there.
10. (a) The tops of many mountains are *above* the clouds. (b) The captain went *above*. (c) *Above* five hundred were present. (d) A voice came from *above*. (e) He rooms on the floor *above*.
11. (a) *All* men are mortal. (b) He staked his *all* on the turn of a card. (c) *All* agree with me. (d) That is *all* right.
12. (a) Take *either* road. (b) He must *either* work or starve. (c) Ask *either* of them.
13. (a) He ran *fast*. (b) He was a *fast* runner. (c) They *fast* twice in a week. (d) This *fast* lasted forty days.
14. (a) I *like* him. (b) I shall not look upon his *like* again. (c) He looks *like* his grandfather. (d) He talks *like* his mother. (e) *Like* causes produce *like* results. (f) *Like* produces *like*.
15. (a) A *little* child shall lead them. (b) It matters *little* what he says. (c) Give me a *little*.
16. (a) We want *more* men. (b) Fear *no more* the heat of the sun. (c) Have you any *more* of this?
17. (a) He laughs too *much*. (b) *Much* learning hath made you mad. (c) She made *much* of him.
18. (a) It was his *only* chance. (b) He went *only* to the corner. (c) "*Only*" should come next to the expression that it modifies.
19. (a) Turn *over* a new leaf. (b) We came *over* the mountain. (c) We must have walked *over* six miles.
20. (a) *Since* that time I have not seen her. (b) *Since* it is raining, we will not go. (c) I have not seen her *since*.
21. (a) The house *still* stands. (b) All is *still*. (c) A *still* small voice. (d) Alcohol is made in a *still*. (c) With his name the mothers *still* their babies.
22. (a) *That* bird is a thrush. (b) I thought *that* it was a robin. (c) A city *that* is set on a hill cannot be hid. (d) *That* you have wronged me doth appear in this. (e) *That* is what I meant.
23. (a) Since *then* he has done better. (b) The apple trees were *then* in blossom. (c) If you stay, *then* I will stay.
24. (a) *There* is a spider. (b) *There* is nothing more to do. (c) *There! there!* be quiet.
25. (a) We read for a *while*. (b) We read *while* they played tennis. (c) They *while* away the time with books and games.

EXERCISE 101

1. Use each of the following words first as a noun, then as a verb:—

bark cheat comb fall guide pen run talk

2. *Use each of the following words first as a noun, then as an adjective:—*

autumn cloth dinner hollow much plain silver tin

3. *Use each of the following words first as an adjective, then as a verb:—*

clean dull lame left lower smooth thin weary

4. *Use each of the following words first as a noun, then as an adjective, then as a verb:—*

blind calm last light roast sound spring steel

5. *Use each of the following words first as an adjective, then as an adverb, then as a verb:—*

better long wrong

6. *Use each of the following words first as an adverb, then as a preposition:—*

about above behind down on up

7. *Use each of the following words first as an adverb, then as a preposition, then as a conjunction:—*

after before since

97. Summary of the Parts of Speech—The classes of words described in this chapter comprise all the words of our language. They may be summarised as follows:—

NOUNS: Words used as names.

PRONOUNS: Words used to stand for nouns.

ADJECTIVES: Words joined to nouns or pronouns by way of limitation or description.

ARTICLES: The words "a" "an," or "the."

VERBS: Words used, with or without adjuncts, as the predicates of sentences.

INFINITIVES: Words that partake of the nature of both verb and noun.

PARTICIPLES: Words that partake of the nature of both verb and adjective.

ADVERBS: Words joined by way of limitation to verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs.

PREPOSITIONS: Words placed before nouns or pronouns to show their relation to other words, and forming with them modifying phrases.

CONJUNCTIONS: Words used to connect sentences, phrases, or words.

INTERJECTIONS: Words used as sudden expressions of feeling, but not forming part of a sentence.

CHAPTER II

OF INFLECTION, DERIVATION, AND COMPOSITION

BEFORE proceeding with the study of the parts of speech, we must learn to distinguish those changes in the form of a word that are made by **Inflection, Derivation and Composition**.

98. Inflection—Examine the following groups of words:—

Noun	Pronoun	Adjective	Verb
man	he	sweet	sing
man's	his	sweeter	sings
men	him	sweetest	sang

In each of these groups we recognise the same word under different forms. These variations in form denote slight modifications in the meaning and use of the word, but they do not change either the general meaning or the part of speech; the noun remains a noun, the verb a verb. Moreover, most other words of the same class, as "boy," "they," "sick," "hear," undergo similar alterations in form, corresponding to similar changes in meaning and use.

Definition—A change in the form of a word to show a slight change in its meaning or use is called **Inflection**.

EXERCISE 102

Mention as many inflections as you can of the following words:—

child do eat heavy move they teeth who

99. Derivation—Compare the following words:—

1. true 2. truly 3. truth 4. truthful 5. untruth 6. untruthfulness

Here we have six words entirely different in meaning and use. Some belong to one part of speech, others to another; and those that belong to the same part of speech, as "truth," "untruth," and "untruthfulness," have distinctly different meanings. But though they are thus different in meaning and use, the last five words

are clearly formed from the first by attaching a **Prefix** ("un-") or a **Suffix** ("-ly," "-th," "-ful," "-ness"), or both.

Definition—The process of forming a new word from another word by attaching a prefix or a suffix, or by changing a vowel, is called **Derivation**. The new word is called a **Derivative**.

Examples of derivation by change of vowel are: bless, bliss; feed, food; gild, gold; heat, hot; pride, proud; raise, rise; tale, tell.

Definition—The original form of a word in inflection or derivation is called the **Root**.

EXERCISE 103

Mention derivatives formed from the following words, and show that the new forms are derivatives, not inflections:—

child friend give man pure wise

100. Composition—Examine the following words:—

black
board
blackboard

Here we have three different words, entirely distinct in meaning and use; but the last is formed by combining the first two.

Definition—The process of forming a new word by combining two other words is called **Composition**. The new word is called a **Compound** word.

The parts of a compound word are often connected with a hyphen: as, "hair-brush," "son-in-law." Whether to use the hyphen or not cannot be decided by rule. It is for the most part a question of usage, which must be learned from observation or from the dictionary.

EXERCISE 104

Make a list of five compound words, determining from a dictionary how they should be written.

CHAPTER III

OF NOUNS

I. CLASSIFICATION

A **Noun** is a word used as a name (83).

101. Different Kinds of Nouns—Examine the names in the following sentence:—

The *crew* of the *battleship Victoria* were under perfect *discipline*.

“Battleship” and “Victoria” both name the same object, but in different ways: “Battleship” is the name of any one of a class of ships resembling one another in structure and purpose; “Victoria” is the name of a particular battleship. “Crew” is the name of a body of men considered collectively. “Discipline” is the name of a condition.

102. Proper Nouns—The noun “Victoria,” in our illustrative sentence, is the name of a particular battleship.

Definition — A noun that is the name of some particular object, to distinguish that object from others of its kind, is called a **Proper Noun**.

Other examples of proper nouns are:—

John Cabot Monday Ottawa Ontario Mont Blanc

Proper nouns, when written, always begin with capital letters; so also do words derived from them: as, America, American, Americanism.

103. Common Nouns—The noun “battleship” is a name common to all ships of the same class.

Definition—A noun that is common or applicable to all objects of the same class is called a **Common Noun**.

Other examples of common nouns are:—

city day man mountain state

Common nouns, when written, begin with small letters.

EXERCISE 105

Write two proper nouns suggested by each of the following common nouns:—

boy city dog girl newspaper ocean river state

EXERCISE 106

Give the common nouns that are applicable to the following individual objects:—

Toronto Manitoba Donald England Friday Helen July

104. Collective Nouns—The common noun "crew" is applied to a body of men considered collectively.

Definition—A noun that is the name of a number of objects taken together is called a **Collective Noun**.

Other examples of collective nouns are:—

1. army (a collection of soldiers). 2. fleet (a collection of vessels).

This distinction is important when collective nouns are referred to by pronouns or are used as subjects of sentences. For instance, we refer to a committee as "it" when we think of it as a whole; when we think of the individuals who compose it, we use the pronoun "they." Similarly we say, "The jury *has* retired," thinking of it as a single body; "The jury *have* dined," thinking of the members.

EXERCISE 107

What objects are grouped together by the following collective nouns?

audience choir drove flock squadron swarm team

105. Abstract Nouns—An ivory ball we know to be round, white, and elastic. These qualities exist together in the ball; but in the mind we can consider them separately, apart both from the ball and from one another. The mental power that enables us thus to separate a quality or attribute from the object that possesses it is called **Abstraction** (Latin, "separating").

Definition—A noun that is the name of a quality, action, or condition withdrawn or abstracted in thought from the object to which it belongs, is called an **Abstract Noun**.

Examples of abstract nouns are:—

ability	discipline	freedom	hardihood	strength
carelessness	faith	friendship	influence	velocity

This distinction has only slight grammatical bearing ; but it is important for other reasons.

EXERCISE 108

Give two abstract nouns suggested by each of the following objects:—

a flower a lemon a mountain a race horse a stone

EXERCISE 109

Classify the nouns in Exercise 77 (page 58).

Nouns are occasionally inflected to show **Gender**, and regularly inflected to show **Number** and **Case**.

II. GENDER

106. Gender Defined—Observe the distinction between the following nouns:—

lion lioness

Both nouns name animals of the same general class, but one is the name of the male animal, the other of the female. This distinction is indicated by the inflection “-ess.” The distinction between the objects themselves is called **Sex**. The distinction between their names is called **Gender**.

Definition—**Gender** is a classification of nouns and pronouns according to the sex of the objects for which they stand.

Definition—A word denoting a male object is in the **Masculine Gender**.

Definition—A word denoting a female object is in the **Feminine Gender**.

Definition—A word denoting an object that has no sex is in the **Neuter Gender** (Latin, “neither”).

Words like “friend,” “child,” “thief,” “bird,” which apply without change to either male or female objects, are masculine or feminine according to the sex of the particular object spoken of.

Words that apply to objects of either sex are said by some grammarians to be in the **Common Gender** ; but most modern grammarians reject this classification as useless.

107. Ways of Denoting Gender—Compare the following pairs of words:—

Masculine	Feminine
waiter	waitress
man-servant	maid-servant
brother	sister

You observe there are three ways of distinguishing gender:—

1. BY A FEMININE SUFFIX, USUALLY “-ESS”—In the following list note the occasional changes in the body of the word:—

Masculine	Feminine	Masculine	Feminine
abbot	abbess	host	hostess
actor	actress	hunter	huntress
administrator	administratrix	idolater	idolatress
adventurer	adventuress	Jew	Jewess
baron	baroness	lad	lass
benefactor	benefactress	lion	lioness
count	countess	marquis	marchioness
czar	czarina	master	mistress
deacon	deaconess	patron	patroness
duke	duchess	preceptor	preceptress
emperor	empress	prince	princess
enchanter	enchantress	prophet	prophetess
executor	executrix	shepherd	shepherdess
giant	giantess	sorcerer	sorceress
god	goddess	sultan	sultana
heir	heiress	tiger	tigress
hero	heroine	waiter	waitress

2. BY A PREFIX DENOTING GENDER —The following are important examples:—

Masculine	Feminine	Masculine	Feminine
bull-elephant	cow-elephant	he-goat	she-goat
cock-sparrow	hen-sparrow	man-servant	maid-servant
he-bear	she-bear		

3. BY SEPARATE WORDS —These are to be learned from conversation and reading. The following is a list of some that are often confounded or otherwise misused:—

Masculine	Feminine	Masculine	Feminine
bachelor	spinster, maid	monk	nun
buck	doe	ram	ewe
bullock	heifer	stag	hind
drake	duck	wizard	witch
gander	goose		

EXERCISE 110

TO THE TEACHER —(1) and (2) should be used as a dictation exercise. Other words may be added from the foregoing lists at discretion.

1. Write the feminine word corresponding to:—

abbot	bachelor	bullock	drake	earl	marquis	ram	sultan
actor	buck	czar	duke	hero	monk	stag	tiger

2. Write the masculine word corresponding to:—

doe	duck	ewe	goose	heifer	hind	spinster	witch
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3. Construct sentences illustrating the correct use of the foregoing words, consulting a dictionary for their meaning.

108. Gender and Pronouns—Distinctions of gender are grammatically important because on them depends the right use of the pronouns "he," "his," "him," "she," "her," "hers," "it," and "its." Examine, for instance, the italicised nouns and pronouns in the following selection:—

KING MIDAS AT BREAKFAST

King Midas took a nice little *trout* on *his* plate, and, by way of experiment, touched *its* tail with *his* finger. To *his* horror, *it* was immediately transmuted from an admirably fried brook trout into a goldfish, though not one of those goldfishes which people often keep in glass globes, as ornaments for the parlour. No; but *it* was really a metallic fish, and *it* looked as if *it* had been very cunningly made by the nicest goldsmith in the world.

"Well, this is a quandary!" thought *he*, leaning back in *his* chair, and looking quite enviously at little *Marygold*, who was now eating *her* bread and milk with great satisfaction. The poorest *labourer*, sitting down to *his* crust of bread, and cup of water, was far better off than King Midas, whose delicate *food* was really worth *its* weight in gold.

Observe that the **Masculine Nouns**, like "King Midas," are referred to by "he," "his," or "him;" **Feminine Nouns**, like "Marygold," by "she," or "her;" **Neuter Nouns**, like "food," by "it," or "its." "Trout," which is either masculine or feminine, is here referred to by "it" or "its," because the object named is thought of as a mere thing, without any reference to sex. "Labourer," which is also either masculine or feminine, but which denotes a person instead of a thing, is referred to as "he," in accordance with an established custom of our language when there is no desire to emphasise distinctions of sex. If the author had thought distinctions of sex were here important, he would have said, "The labourer sitting down to *his* or *her* crust of bread."

Sometimes animals are referred to as "he" or "she," even when no distinction of sex is intended. Thus, "The *tiger* steals silently on *his* prey;" "A *hare* popped out from a furze brake, and ran for *her* life." In such cases the speaker uses "he" if he fancies the animal to possess masculine qualities, such as strength, fierceness; "she" if he thinks the animal's qualities are rather feminine, such as timidity, gentleness.

109. Gender in Personification—Examine the following sentence:—

Spring hangs *her* infant blossoms on the trees.

You observe that the writer refers to spring, which has neither life nor sex, by a feminine pronoun. The explanation is that he imagined spring as a gracious goddess, and spoke accordingly. When we thus speak of an object without life as if it were a person, we are said to **Personify** it. Gender in personification is determined by the same principle as in speaking of animals without regard to sex: things remarkable for size, power, strength, or other manly qualities are referred to as masculine; things remarkable for beauty, gentleness, grace, or other womanly qualities are referred to as feminine. Other examples are:—

- (a) The *sun* now rose upon the right;
 Out of the sea came *he*.
- (b) Now *morn*, *her* rosy steps in the eastern clime
 Advancing, sowed the earth with orient pearl.

EXERCISE 111

Fill the blanks in the following sentences with appropriate pronouns:—

1. Can a leopard change — spots? 2. Close in — covert cowered the doe. 3. The ewe lamb bleated for — mother. 4. The child was unconscious of — danger. 5. The heifer rubbed — nose against the bars. 6. The goose had wandered from — companions. 7. The hind knew the dogs to be — mortal enemies. 8. The duck was pluming — feathers after — swim. 9. Even a fool, when — holdeth — peace, is counted wise. 10. If any person in the class needs a pencil, I will lend — mine.

EXERCISE 112

1. Write sentences in which the following things shall be personified as masculine:—

time war winter electricity

2. Write sentences in which the following things shall be personified as feminine:—

a ship the earth night liberty

III. NUMBER

110. Number Defined—Examine the difference between the words in the following pairs:—

book	fox	ox	man
books	foxes	oxen	men

The first word of each pair suggests a single object; the second word suggests more than one. In the first three pairs the difference in meaning is brought about by the addition of a suffix; in the last, by an internal change in the word.

Definition—A difference in the form of a word to distinguish objects as one or more than one is called **Number**.

Definition—The form of a word that denotes one object is called the **Singular Number**.

Definition—The form of a word that denotes more than one object is called the **Plural Number**.

Number has an important influence on pronouns, verbs, and the adjectives “this” and “that.” For example, we say:—

This bell was ringing, but it has stopped.

These bells were ringing, but they have stopped.

111. Formation of the Plural—Most nouns form the plural by adding “s” to the singular; as, book, books. The following variations from this regular rule are important:—

1. “-ES.”—When the singular ends in a sound that does not unite with “s” alone, “es” is added, forming an additional syllable as, fox, foxes.

2. PLURAL OF NOUNS ENDING IN “O”—If the final “o” is preceded by a vowel, the plural is formed regularly, i.e., by adding

"s:" as, cameo, cameos. If the final "o" is preceded by a consonant, the tendency of modern usage is to form the plural by adding "es:" as, hero, heroes; potato, potatoes. The following common words, however, still form the plural by adding "s" alone:—

banjo	chromo	halo	octavo	solo
burro	contralto	junto	piano	stiletto
canto	duodecimo	lasso	proviso	torso
casino	dynamo	memento	quarto	tyro

3. PLURALS OF NOUNS ENDING IN "Y"—If the "y" is preceded by a vowel, the plural is regular; as, valley, valleys.

If the "y" is preceded by a consonant, "y" is changed to "i" and "es" is added to form the plural; as, lady, ladies; city, cities.

4. PLURAL OF NOUNS ENDING IN "F"—The following nouns ending with the sound of "f" change "f" or "fe" to "v" and add "es":—

beef	elf	knife	life	self	shelf	wife
calf	half	leaf	loaf	sheaf	thief	wolf

5. SURVIVALS OF ANCIENT PLURALS—In Old English there were other ways of forming the plural, traces of which survive:—

(1) PLURALS IN "—EN"—These were once in very common use. The only surviving examples are: *oxen*, *brethren*, *children*. *Kine* (cows) is used in poetry.

(2) PLURALS BY INWARD CHANGE—Of this method the surviving examples are: foot, *feet*; tooth, *teeth*; goose, *geese*; louse, *lice*; man, *men*; mouse, *mice*; woman, *women*.

6. PLURAL OF PROPER NOUNS—Proper nouns, when made plural, are not changed internally: as, Henry, Henrys; Nero, Neros.

Proper names preceded by titles, as "Mr. Smith," "Miss Smith," "Colonel Smith," are treated in two different ways. We say "the Mr. Smiths," the "Mrs. Smiths," "the Miss Smiths," "the Colonel Smiths;" but we also say "the Messrs. Smith," the "Misses Smith," and "the Colonels Smith."

7. PLURAL OF COMPOUND NOUNS—Most compound nouns form the plural by adding the proper sign of the plural to the fundamental part of the word, i.e., to the part which is described by the rest of the phrase: as ox-cart, ox-carts; court-martial, courts-martial; aide-de-camp, aides-de-camp. When no single word is fundamental, as in "forget-me-not," the sign of the plural is put at the end: as, forget-me-nots. Words like "spoonful," the compound nature of which has been almost forgotten, also take the sign of the plural at the end: as, spoonfuls, cupfuls. "Man-servant," "woman-servant," and "knight-templar" often add the plural sign to both words: as, men-servants.

CAUTION—"Brahman," "Mussulman," "Ottoman," and "talisman" are not compounds of "man." They resemble "German" and "Norman," and form the plural by adding "s": as, Mussulmans, talismans.

8. LETTERS, FIGURES, and other SYMBOLS are made plural by adding an apostrophe and "s" ('s): as, "There are more *e's* than *a's* in this word;" "Dot your *i's*, and cross your *t's*."

9. **UNCHANGED PLURALS**—Some names of animals are the same in both singular and plural. The important examples are: cod, deer, grouse, sheep, salmon, swine, trout.

Some nouns of number and measure may be used in a plural sense without change of form. Important examples are: "Two *brace* of ducks;" "She bought three *dozen*;" "His years are four *score*;" "Ten *head* of cattle;" "Two *hundredweight* of iron;" "Three *pairs* of horses;" "Twelve *yoke* of oxen." In these expressions the plural meaning is sufficiently indicated by the preceding numeral.

EXERCISE 113

(DICTATION EXERCISE)

Write the plural of the following nouns:—

- (1) Deer, trout, grouse.
- (2) Apple, peach, rose, box, bush, grass.
- (3) Ox, child, tooth, goose, mouse, woman.
- (4) Mary, George, Harry, Miss Clark, Mr. Brown, Dr. Young.
- (5) German, Dutchman, Frenchman, Brahman, Mormon, Mus-sulman, Ottoman, talisman.
- (6) Ally, chimney, fairy, baby, mystery, turkey, body, journey.
- (7) Chief, calf, dwarf, fife, elf, grief, gulf, half, hoof, knife, leaf, loaf, roof, sheaf, shelf, strife, thief, wife, wolf.
- (8) Buffalo, echo, canto, volcano, portfolio, banjo, dynamo, solo, memento, mosquito, bamboo, negro, hero, chromo.
- (9) Man-of-war, goose-quill, spoonful, commander-in-chief, major-general, man-servant, court-yard, court-martial, father-in-law, step-son, forget-me-not, bill-of-fare, looker-on, knight-errant.

112. Two Plurals—We say "There are big fish in the lake," using fish in a plural, collective sense, and we also speak of "The story of the three *fishes*," having in mind a story about three separate fish. From this it appears that some nouns have two plurals, which differ in meaning. The following is a list:—

Singular	Plural
brother	brothers (by birth), brethren (of a society).
cloth	cloths (of different kinds), clothes (garments).
die	dies (for coining or stamping), dice (for play).
fish	fishes (separate objects), fish (collective).
genius	geniuses (persons of great ability), genii (spirits).
index	indexes (in books), indices (in algebra).
penny	pennies (separate coins), pence (sums of money).
shot	shots (discharges), shot (balls).

EXERCISE 114

Distinguish between:—

1. How many shot (shots) did you count?
2. The story tells of two genii (geniuses).

3. He gave the beggar six pennies (pence).
4. He showed me some new cloths (clothes).
5. I have two handfuls (hands full) of gold dust.
6. He was always kind to his brothers (brethren).
7. Two dice (dies) were found in the prisoner's pockets.
8. He carried two pailfuls (pails full) of water up the hill.
9. There are serious errors in the indexes (indices) in this new algebra.

113. Foreign Plurals—Some nouns of foreign origin have peculiar foreign plurals. In the following list of such nouns, when two plural forms are given for the same noun, the English plural is preferable:—

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
alumna (feminine)	alumnae	formula	{ formulas formulæ
alumnus (masculine)	alumni	genius	{ geniuses (persons of great ability) genii (spirits)
analysis	analyses	genus ("class")	genera
animalculum	animalcula	hypothesis	hypotheses
antithesis	antitheses	memorandum	{ memorandums memoranda
bacterium	bacteria	oasis	oases
bandit	{ bandits banditti	parenthesis	parentheses
beau	{ beaus beaux	phenomenon	phenomena
cherub	{ cherubs cherubim	seraph	{ seraphs seraphim
crisis	crises	stratum	strata
curriculum	curricula	tableau	tableaux
datum	data	thesis	theses

EXERCISE 115

(DICTATION EXERCISE)

1. Write the plural of:—

Alumna, analysis, bandit, beau, cherub, crisis, curriculum, datum, formula, genius, genus, hypothesis, oasis, nebula, parenthesis, phenomenon, seraph, stratum, synopsis, tableau.

2. Write the singular of:—

Alumni, animalcula, bacteria, cherubim, curricula, data, genera, oases, phenomena, seraphim, strata, theses.

EXERCISE 116

Construct sentences containing the plural of the following words, first consulting a dictionary for their meaning:—

Aide-de-camp, ally, animalculum, antithesis, bacterium, canto, court-martial, crisis, curriculum, datum, elf, genus, hypothesis, memento, phenomenon, solo, stratum, talisman.

114. Divided Usage—Some singular nouns look like plurals, e.g., “alms;” and some plural nouns are singular in sense, e.g., “measles.” In regard to such nouns custom is divided, treating them at one time as singulars and at another as plurals.

The following are generally treated as singular: amends, gallows, news, the United States, mathematics, optics, and other words in “ics,” except “athletics,” which is generally plural.

The following are generally treated as plural: ashes, assets, dregs, eaves, nuptials, oats, pincers, proceeds, riches, scissors, shears, suds, tongs, trousers, victuals, vitals.

For further information on cases of doubtful usage a large dictionary must be consulted.

EXERCISE 117

Construct sentences illustrating the number of the following nouns:—

amends news oats physics pincers shears tongs trousers

IV. CASE

115. Case Defined—In the sentence “John has given Henry Annie’s pencil,” each of the four nouns bears a peculiar relation to other words. Three of them are related to the verb: “John,” as subject, “pencil,” as direct object, “Henry,” as indirect object. “Annie’s” is related to “pencil” by showing ownership—a relation indicated by the suffix “’s.”

In Old English these relations were often indicated, as in Latin and Greek, by special forms of the noun, called **Cases**. After the Norman Conquest these forms fell into disuse, and nouns in modern English retain only one relic of them, namely, the **Possessive**. With the single exception of the “’s” denoting ownership or possession, the relation of a noun to the other parts of a sentence is now shown mainly by its position.

But though most of the forms have disappeared, the names of some of them have been retained to denote relations which the forms used to show. For example, in the sentence "John has given Henry Annie's pencil," we still say "John" is in the **Nominative** case, referring to its relation as subject; and some grammarians say that "Henry" is in the *Dative* case, and "pencil" in the *Accusative*. But since the dative and accusative cases are now never distinct in form, most grammarians merge them into one case called the **Objective**.

Definition—The form of a noun or pronoun that shows its relation to other words is called **Case**.

Definition—The form of a noun or pronoun that shows the relation of subject is called the **Nominative Case**.

Definition—The form of a noun or pronoun that shows possession is called the **Possessive Case**.

Definition—The form of a noun or pronoun that shows the relation of object is called the **Objective Case**.

The nominative and objective cases of nouns, being always alike in modern English, might be merged into one if it were not for the fact that in pronouns these cases have distinct forms: as, *I* help *him*, and *he* helps *me*.

116. Form of the Possessive Case—In the **SINGULAR** number the possessive of nouns is formed, as a rule, by adding an apostrophe and "s" ('s): as, "The *boy's* coat." Often the pronunciation of the added "s" makes a new syllable. If this additional syllable makes an unpleasant sound, the "s" is omitted, but the apostrophe is retained: as, "For *goodness'* sake." If the "s" is sounded, it is always written: and if it is written, it should be pronounced in reading. The putting in or the leaving out of the "s" in such cases is chiefly a matter of taste. Whenever there is doubt it is well to add the "s": as, "*Horace's* odes," "*Charles's* ball," "*Dickens'* *David Copperfield.*"

In the **PLURAL** number, when the plural already ends in "s" (as it usually does), the possessive case is formed by adding an apostrophe alone ('): as, "*Boys'* shoes." The possessive of those few nouns whose plural does not end in "s" is formed, as in the singular number, by adding an apostrophe and "s" ('s): as, "*Men's* shoes."

The possessive case of COMPOUND nouns and expressions used as compound nouns is formed by adding the proper sign of the possessive to the end of the compound: as, "That is my *sister-in-law's* pony;" "This is the *Prince of Wales's* palace."

When two or more persons possess a thing in common, the sign of the possessive is attached to the last name only: as, "John and Mary's home."

Separate ownership is indicated by adding the sign of the possessive to each name: as, "Alice's and Jessie's dresses."

In forming the possessive of "anybody else" and "who else" usage is somewhat divided and inconsistent. The weight of good usage seems to incline to "anybody else's;" but, on the other hand, we usually say "whose else."

EXERCISE 118

1. Write the possessive case, singular and plural, of the following nouns:—

Actor, calf, child, countess, day, deer, eagle, elephant, fairy, farmer, fox, goose, horse, king, lady, lion, man, monkey, mouse, mouth, ox, prince, princess, thief, wife, witness, wolf, woman, year.

2. Write the possessive case of—

Charles, Dickens, Douglas, Eggleston & Co., father-in-law, Frederick, the Great, Harper & Brothers, Henry the Eighth, his sister Mary, James, Jones, man-of-war, Miss Austen.

117. Declension — We are now prepared to draw up a scheme of the inflection of any English noun for number and case: thus,

	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
<i>Nominative:</i>	man	men	dog	dogs
<i>Possessive:</i>	man's	men's	dog's	dogs'
<i>Objective:</i>	man	men	dog	dogs

Definition — The inflection of nouns and pronouns for number and case, arranged in order, is called **Declension**.

When we give the declension of a noun or a pronoun we are said to **Decline** it.

EXERCISE 119

Decline the following nouns:—

calf	deer	Henry	king	monkey	ox	princess
child	fox	James	lady	mouse	prince	wolf

V. PERSON

118. Person—In the sentence, "I, John, was in the isle Patmos," John names the *speaker*; in "John, please come here," John names the person *spoken to*; in "John has come," John names the person *spoken of*.

Definition—The distinction between nouns or pronouns as denoting the person speaking, spoken to, or spoken of, is called **Person**.

Definition—A noun or pronoun that denotes the person speaking is in the **First Person**.

Definition—A noun or pronoun that denotes the person or thing spoken to is said to be in the **Second Person**.

Definition—A noun or pronoun that denotes a person or thing spoken of is in the **Third Person**.

Nouns do not change in form to denote person; and most nouns are in the third person. The distinction has importance only in connection with pronouns and verbs.

VI. CONSTRUCTIONS

119. Construction Defined—In the study of sentences the most important question about a noun, or any other part of speech, is its relation to the other words of the sentence.

Definition—The relation of a word to the rest of the sentence is called its **Construction** (Latin, "putting together").

120. Constructions of Nouns Summarised—If we examine the constructions of the word "day" in the following sentences, we shall find that a noun may be used in fourteen different ways:—

1. *Subject of verb*: The day is past and gone.
2. *Attribute complement*: To-morrow is the appointed day.
3. *Object complement*: I've lost a day.

4. *Objective complement*: God called the light *day*.
5. *Possessive*: Another *day's* work is done.
6. *Appositive*: Sunday, the *day* of rest, is precious to the labourer.
7. *Adjective modifier*: The *day* star arise in your hearts.
8. *Adverbial modifier*: We waited a *day*.

NOTE—In this construction the noun expresses *measure* of some kind.

9. *Object of preposition*: Rome was not built in a *day*.
10. *Indirect object*: Give *every day* its task.
11. *Vocative*: Come, *day*, and chase the shadows of the night.
12. *Exclamation*: O happy *day*! The battle's won.
13. *Nominative absolute*: The *day* being rainy, we stayed at home.
14. *Subject of infinitive*: I considered the *day* to be unfavourable.

Of these constructions the first twelve need no explanation beyond what has been said in preceding pages. The last two require explanation now.

121. Subject of Infinitive — Compare the following sentences:—

- (a) I think *that he is honest*.
- (b) I think *him to be honest*.

In (a) the object of "think" is the clause "that he is honest," in which "he" is the subject of the verb "is;" in (b) the object of "think" is the phrase "him to be honest," in which the objective "him" has the same relation to the infinitive "to be" that the nominative "he," in the corresponding clause, has to the verb "is." "Him," therefore, is called the **Subject of the Infinitive**.

The subject of an infinitive is always in the objective case.

Other examples are:—

"He ordered me *to move on*."

"The teacher saw *her go*."

"The colonel commanded the *bridge to be burned*."

"He declared *them to be counterfeit*."

122. Nominative Absolute — Compare the following sentences:—

- (a) *When night came on*, we lighted a fire.
- (b) *Night coming on*, we lighted a fire.

These sentences are alike in meaning, but differ in form. In (a) the time of the principal action is shown by the subordinate clause, "When night came on," in which "night" is the subject of the verb "came." In

(b) the connective "when" has been dropped and the verb "came" has been changed to a participle attached to "night." "Night" is thus left without any grammatical connection with the rest of the sentence, and is said to be in the **Nominative Absolute** (Latin, "free").

Other examples of the nominative absolute are:—

The *sea* being smooth, we went for a sail.

Bruce lay down, his *heart* [being] heavy with sorrow.

The *ceremony* [having been] completed, we dispersed.

CAUTION—The nominative absolute must not be confounded with constructions in which a participle is loosely attached to the subject of a sentence (94).

The participle belonging to a nominative absolute may be omitted, but the nominative itself may not; otherwise the participle will be left dangling, apparently attached to the nearest substantive. For example, in the incorrect sentence, "Crossing the ferry, my hat blew off," "crossing" seems to be attached to "hat," which is not intended.

EXERCISE 120

Construct sentences illustrating each of the ways in which nouns may be used. (It is not necessary to use the same noun).

123. Uses of the Nominative Case—A noun is said to be in the *nominative* case when it is—

1. The subject of a verb.
2. An attribute complement. (Often called a *predicate noun* or *predicate nominative*).
3. A vocative. (Often called *nominative of address*).
4. An exclamation. (Often called *nominative of exclamation*).
5. A nominative absolute.

Exception—An attribute complement of the infinitive "to be" is in the *objective* case if the infinitive has a subject of its own; because the subject of an infinitive is in the objective case, and forms of the verb "to be," which resemble the sign "=", take the same case after them as before them.

124. Uses of the Objective Case—A noun is said to be in the *objective* case when it is—

1. A direct object.
2. An objective complement.
3. An indirect object.
4. The object of a preposition.
5. An adverbial modifier. (Often called an *adverbial objective*).
6. The subject of an infinitive.

125. Use of the Possessive Case—It is sometimes a question whether to use the possessive case or a phrase

beginning with "of," i.e., whether to say "Arnold's treason" or "the treason of Arnold." The tendency of the best modern usage is to confine the possessive case to nouns denoting living beings, and with them to use it only in instances of actual or imagined possession: as, "Arnold's sword," "the treason of Arnold." Yet some short phrases, like "a week's wages," "a day's march," "a dollar's worth," "at death's door," "for pity's sake," are supported by the best usage. With pronouns still greater latitude is allowed. No one hesitates to write "on our account," "in my absence," "to their credit," "for my sake," "in his defense."

The possessive case and a phrase introduced by "of" are not always exact equivalents. For instance, "John's story" means a story told by John; but a "story of John" means a story about John.

EXERCISE 121

Express relation between the nouns in the following pairs by putting one of them in the possessive case or by using the preposition "of," as seems best from what you have learned in Section 125. Give the reason for your choice:—

Witness, testimony; horse, hoof; the Speaker, public reception; Delmonico, restaurant; battleship Victoria, destruction; Charles the Second, reign; Henry the Eighth, wives; teacher, advice; Paris, siege; book, cover; princess, evening gowns; Spain, navy; Napoleon, banishment; Napoleon, camp chest.

EXERCISE 122

Distinguish between the following:—

1. Mother's love. Love of mother.
2. Ethel's drawing. A drawing of Ethel.
3. Charles and Harry's toys. Charles's and Harry's toys.
4. Lord Roberts's reception. The reception of Lord Roberts.
6. Let me tell you a story of Doctor Brown. Let me tell you a story of Doctor Brown's.

126. Double Possessive—The sentence, "Let me tell you a story of Doctor Brown's," contains a *double possessive* ("of Doctor Brown's"), in which we use both the possessive case, after the manner of Old English, and the preposition "of," after the manner of Norman-French. Though this double possessive cannot be logically justi-

fied, it is nevertheless recognised by the best writers as good English. Moreover, it is often convenient ; as when it enables us to distinguish between " a story of Doctor Brown " and " a story of Doctor Brown's." Other examples are:—

1. That boy of *yours*. 2. A friend of my *brother's*.

127. Case in Apposition—Nouns in apposition are said to be in the same case. But when the nouns are in the possessive, the sign of possession is usually attached only to one of them: as, "Jack the Giant Killer's boots."

128. Substitutes for Nouns—Words or groups of words that are not commonly to be classed as nouns are often used substantively in the construction of nouns, as follows:—

- (1) *Pronoun*: I see *him*.
- (2) *Adjective*: I did my *best*.
- (3) *Adverb*: *Now* is the accepted time.
- (4) *Infinitive*: *To delay* is fatal.
- (5) *Phrase*: "*Ay, ay, sir!*" burst from a thousand throats.
- (6) *Clause*: *What you want* is not here.

129. How to Parse Nouns—When we describe a word as it stands in a sentence we are said to **Parse** it. To parse a word we must give a description of its class, form and use.

To parse a noun we must give its—

- (1) Class. (2) Gender. (3) Number. (4) Construction. (5) Case.

EXERCISE 123

Parse the nouns in the following selections:—

A FAREWELL

My fairest child, I have no song to give you;
No lark could pipe to skies so dull and gray;
Yet, ere we part, one lesson I can leave you
For every day.

* * * * *

Be good, sweet maid, and let who can be clever;
Do lovely things, not dream them, all day long;
And so make life, death, and that forever
One grand sweet song. —Charles Kingsley

CHAPTER IV

OF PRONOUNS

A **Pronoun** is a word used to stand for a noun (84).

The noun for which a pronoun stands is called its **Antecedent**.

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS

130. Personal Pronouns Defined—Examine the pronouns in the following sentence:—

I have lost my pencil; please lend me yours till you need it yourself.

“I,” “my,” and “me” stand for the person speaking, and cannot be used to refer to the person spoken to or spoken of. “You,” “yours,” and “yourself” stand only for the person spoken to. “It” is used only for a thing spoken of.

Definition—Pronouns that distinguish between the person speaking, the person spoken to, and the person or thing spoken of are called **Personal Pronouns**.

EXERCISE 124

Point out the personal pronouns in Exercises 20 and 38, and tell of each whether it stands for the person speaking, the person spoken to, or the person or thing spoken of. If it stands for the person or thing spoken of, give its antecedent.

131. Personal Pronouns of the First Person—Fill the blanks with personal pronouns representing (1) a boy speaking, (2) a girl speaking, and note the differences, if there are any:—

— know Mary. Mary knows —. Mary is — cousin. The pen she is using is —.

Fill each of the following blanks with a pronoun representing the speaker and some others:—

— love Carlo. Carlo loves —. Carlo is — dog. Yes, he is —.

You observe that personal pronouns of the first person are not inflected to denote gender, since the sex of

the person speaking is always supposed to be known; but they are inflected to show number and case.

Tabulating the forms used in filling the blanks, we find that the personal pronoun of the first person is thus declined:—

	Singular	Plural
<i>Nominative:</i>	I	we
<i>Possessive:</i>	my, mine	our, ours
<i>Objective:</i>	me	us

These forms are really fragments of different words, and not true inflections. But they serve the same purpose as inflections.

"I" is always written as a capital letter.

The plural forms represent, not two or more speakers, but the speaker and others for whom he speaks. Sometimes they are used by an editor or a sovereign to refer to himself alone: as,

EDITOR: *We* are sure *we* voice the sentiments of the people.

This is called the "editorial" or "majestic" use of *we*.

EXERCISE 125

Construct sentences containing the different forms of the personal pronouns of the first person.

132. Personal Pronouns of the Second Person—In the following selections examine the pronouns that stand for the persons spoken to:—

BIBLICAL

Singular. Rejoice, O young man, in *thy* youth; and let *thy* heart cheer *thee* in the days of *thy* youth, and walk in the ways of *thine* heart, and in the sight of *thine* eyes: but know *thou*, that for all these things God will bring *thee* into judgment.

Plural. Ye stand this day all of *you* before the Lord *your* God. . . . Blessed are ye poor, for *yours* is the kingdom of God.

POETIC

Singular. Roll on, *thou* deep and dark blue Ocean—roll'
Ten thousand fleets sweep over *thee* in vain;
Man marks the earth with ruin—his control
Stops with the shore;—upon the watery plain
The wrecks are all *thy* deed.

* * * *

Time writes no wrinkle on *thine* azure brow,—
Such as creation's dawn beheld, *thou* rollest now.

Plural. Ye crags and peaks, I'm with *you* once again.

ORDINARY PROSE

Singular. Young gentleman, *your* spirit is too bold for *your* years. I pray *you*, give over this attempt. It requires greater strength than *yours*.

Plural. Come early, girls; and if *you* feel like it, bring *your* mandolins, I want to hear *you* play.

These selections show that the pronouns used to represent the person spoken to differ according to the character of the language employed. In the Biblical and poetical passages they are, for the *singular*, "thou," "thy," "thine," and "thee," according to the case; for the *plural*, "ye," "your," "yours," and "you." In the ordinary prose passages they are, for both *singular and plural*, "you," "your," and "yours." There is no inflection to denote gender, because the sex of the person spoken to is presumably always known. Tabulating these forms, we may say that the personal pronoun of the second person is thus declined:—

	Biblical and Poetic		Ordinary
	Singular	Plural	Singular and Plural
<i>Nominative:</i>	thou	ye	you
<i>Possessive:</i>	thy, thine	your, yours	your, yours
<i>Objective:</i>	thee	you	you

EXERCISE 126

Construct sentences containing those forms of the personal pronoun of the second person that are used in ordinary discourse.

133. Personal Pronouns of the Third Person—Fill the blanks with personal pronouns representing (1) a boy spoken of, (2) a girl spoken of, (3) a tree spoken of:—
— is ten years old. I do not know — height. I often go to see —.

Fill the blank in the following sentence with a pronoun referring to (1) a boy spoken of, (2) a girl spoken of:—

This book is —.

Fill the blanks in the following sentences with pronouns representing (1) two or more boys spoken of, (2) two or more girls spoken of, (3) two or more trees spoken of:—

— are each ten years old. I do not know — heights. I often go to see —.

Fill the blank in the following sentence with a pronoun referring to (1) two or more boys spoken of, (2) two or more girls spoken of:—

These books are —.

You observe that personal pronouns standing for persons or things spoken of vary with gender, number and case. Tabulating the forms used in filling the blanks, we find that the personal pronouns of the third person are thus declined:—

	Singular			Plural
	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	All Genders
<i>Nominative:</i>	he	she	it	they
<i>Possessive:</i>	his	her, hers	its	their, theirs
<i>Objective:</i>	him	her	it	them

"Its" is a modern form, found only once in the English Bible of 1611 (Lev. xxv, 5). The old possessive of "it" was "his:" as, The iron gate "opened to them of *his* own accord" (Acts xii, 10). Since "his" was also the possessive of "he," confusion arose, which led gradually to the formation of a new possessive for "it."

EXERCISE 127

Construct sentences containing the different forms of the personal pronouns of the third person.

134. Special Uses of "It"—The pronoun "it" has a variety of special uses:—

(1) *As substitute for a group of words:* as,

To cross the ocean was once a mighty undertaking; now *it* is a mere pleasure trip.

I heard that *he was coming*, but I didn't believe *it*.

(2) *As impersonal subject (28):* as,

Is *it* well with thee?

It has been raining.

(3) *As impersonal object:* as,

They roughed *it* for two weeks.

Thy mistress leads thee a dog's life of *it*.

(4) *As an expletive (29):* as,

What pain *it* was to drown!

How is *it* that you come so soon?

EXERCISE 128

Describe the use of the pronoun "it" in each of the following sentences:—

1. I won't go, and that's an end of *it*.
2. *It* is excellent to have a giants' strength, but *it* is tyrannous to use *it* like a giant.
3. There was nothing for *it* but to return.
4. Come and trip *it* as you go.
5. He deserved his punishment, and he knew *it*.
6. Is *it* far to London?
7. Low-born men like to lord *it* over their inferiors.
8. *It*

is I. 9. I will fight *it* out on this line if *it* takes all summer. 10. *It* will soon strike ten. 11. They footed *it* through the streets. 12. *It* is growing dark fast.

135. Uses of the Possessive Forms—Each of the personal pronouns except “he” and “it” has two possessives in each number: namely, “my,” “mine;” “our,” “ours;” “thy,” “thine;” “your,” “yours;” “her,” “hers;” “their,” “theirs.”

“My,” “our,” “thy,” “your,” “her,” and “their” are always followed by nouns indicating the thing possessed: as, “*My* new sled.”

In Biblical and poetical language “mine” and “thine” are used before nouns beginning with a vowel sound or “h:” as,

1. “If *thine* enemy hunger, feed him.” 2. “Stretch forth *thine* hand.”

In ordinary discourse “mine” and “thine,” and the forms ending in “s” (“ours,” “yours,” “hers,” “theirs”) are never followed by nouns, but are used only as substantives. They represent both the possessor and the thing possessed, and are equivalent to a noun in the nominative or the objective case modified by a possessive: as, “This book is *mine*” (i.e., “my book”); “*Yours* (i.e., “your book”) is on the table.” “His” is often used in a similar manner.

CAUTION—No apostrophe is used in writing the possessive case of pronouns.

EXERCISE 129

Construct sentences containing the possessive forms of each of the personal pronouns, both singular and plural, and tell how each form is used.

136. Uses of the Nominative Forms—The nominative forms of personal pronouns—“I,” “we,” “thou,” “he,” “she,” “they”—are used mainly in the following constructions:—

1. *Subject of a verb*: as, “*I* am young;” “*We* are coming;” “*He* fell;” “*She* laughed.” “*They* live in New Orleans.”

2. *Attribute complement*: as, “Is it *I*?” “It was not *we*;” “Was it *he*?” “I think it was *she*;” “No, it was *they*.”

Exception—The attribute complement of the infinitive *to be* is in the *objective case* if the infinitive has a subject; as, “He knew it to be *me*” (123)

3. *Vocative*: as, "O thou who hearest prayer."

4. *Nominative absolute*: as, "He being there, we said nothing about it."

137. Uses of the Objective Forms—The objective forms of the personal pronouns—"me," "us," "thee," "him," "her," "them,"—are used mainly in the following constructions:—

1. *Direct object*: as, "Help us, O Lord."

2. *Indirect object*: as, "Give me your hand."

3. *Object of preposition*: as, "Show it to them."

4. *Subject of infinitive*: as, "Did you see him fall?"

Exclamations—In exclamations either the nominative or the objective is used: as, "O, unhappy I!" "O, wretched me!"

EXERCISE 130

Tell the case and construction of each personal pronoun in Exercise 20; in Exercise 38; in Exercise 74.

EXERCISE 131

Insert the proper form of pronoun in each blank, and give the reason for your choice:—

I, me.

1. Who will go? —. 2. He is taller than —. 3. She knew it to be —. 4. He is not so old as —. 5. Wait for Helen and —. 6. She knew that it was —. 7. She will come, and — too. 8. You and — will go together. 9. May Annie and — go home? 10. It was — that gave the alarm. 11. If you were —, would you go? 12. Will you go with John and —? 13. Jessie gave Roy and — a kitten. 14. She let Annie and — come home.

II. We, us.

1. He knew it was —. 2. He knew it to be —. 3. It was — whom you saw. 4. — boys are going swimming. 5. They play golf more than —. 6. They know that as well as —. 7. Everybody was late except —. 8. Our parents are wiser than —. 9. The Smiths are going, and — too. 10. The Browns, as well as —, are invited.

III. He, him.

1. I knew it was —. 2. I knew it to be —. 3. Was it — you saw? 4. It must have been —. 5. — that is idle, reprove. 6. His sister is darker than —. 7. If I were —, I wouldn't go. 8. Whom can I trust, if not —? 9. — and James played together. 10. Let — who can answer this question. 11. What were you and — talking about? 12. Was it — who objected to our going?

IV. *She, her.*

1. I am stronger than —. 2. It was — or her mother. 3. I wouldn't go if I were —. 4. — and Constance sang a duet. 5. Was it — that came yesterday? 6. When will you and — come again? 7. Father told you and — to stay here. 8. I invited them all, — among the rest. 9. With Edith and — I have no trouble. 10. Grace and — met at a dancing school. 11. Very few girls can play as well as —. 12. What can you expect from such as —? 13. I suppose the tall, stately lady was —. 14. I suppose the tall, stately lady to be —. 15. What is the trouble between you and —?

V. *They, them.*

1. It was —. 2. It must have been —. 3. We are not so poor as —. 4. I know it to have been —. 5. I never saw Guy and — together. 6. — that talk must stay after school. 7. — that talk I will keep after school. 8. It isn't for such as — to dictate to us. 9. None so blind as — that will not see. 10. Let none touch it but — that are clean.

138. Use of Gender Forms—In the very nature of things pronouns should be of the same gender and number as the nouns for which they stand. The following peculiar uses of gender forms require special mention (108, 109):—

1. Words like *trout* and *child*, which apply to both male and female objects, are referred to by the neuter pronouns "it" and "its" when the object named is thought of as a mere thing, the sex being unknown or unimportant: as, "King Midas took a nice little *trout* on his plate, and touched *its* tail with his finger;" "The child reached out *its* little hands."

2. Words like *labourer* and *person*, which apply to both men and women, are referred to by the masculine pronouns "he", "his," and "him" when there is no desire to emphasise distinctions of sex: as, "The labourer is worthy of *his* hire;" "Let every person do as *he* likes." In such cases "he," "his," and "him" stand for mankind in general, and include women as well as men.

EXERCISE 132

1. *Review Exercise* 111.

2. *Fill each blank with a pronoun, and give the reason for its gender:—*

1. Every author has — faults. 2. A writer should be careful with — pronouns. 3. Venice sat in state, throned on — hundred isles. 4. A person who is rude in — table manners will be disliked. 5. Winter had bound the lakes and rivers fast in — icy grasp. 6. The mocking-bird shook from — little throat floods of delirious music. 7. The "Oceanic" is a huge steamer. — is longer than the "Great Eastern." 8. A calf can distinguish — mother's lowing from that of a hundred other cows.

139. Use of Number Forms—Difficulties in the use of the number forms of personal pronouns arise mainly in connection with such expressions as "anybody," "everybody," "each," "either," "neither," and "nobody." Such expressions, in spite of the comprehensive meaning of some of them, are grammatically singular; and in literary English they are referred to by singular pronouns: as, "If anybody calls, ask *him* to wait." If the writer considered reference to sex worth while, he* would say, "ask *him or her* to wait. Ordinarily, however, he would use "him" only, taking for granted the application to women.

In colloquial English such expressions as "anybody," "everybody," "each," "either," etc., are referred to by the genderless plurals "they," "their," "them:" as, "If anybody calls, ask *them* to wait." This usage is partly an attempt to find a pronoun that will stand for both "he" and "she," and partly a reflection of the comprehensive meaning of "anybody," "everybody," etc. It is shunned by those who have an ear for grammatical accuracy.

EXERCISE 133

Fill the blanks with the proper pronouns:—

1. Each must take — turn. 2. Anyone can do this if — tries.
3. Has everyone finished — work? 4. Every girl can do this if — tries.
5. Each day and each hour brings — own duty. 6. Either Mary or Lizzie will lend you — pencil.
7. Each pupil was requested to name — favourite colour. 8. Probably everybody is eloquent at least once in — life.
9. Man after man passed, carrying — golf clubs with —.
10. Each of the girls married well, at least in — own opinion.
11. Each of the children married well, at least in — own opinion.
12. Whoever loves — school should do — best to keep its school tone high.

140. Compound Personal Pronouns—Examine the form and uses of the italicised pronouns in the following sentences:—

- (a) She *herself* told me.
- (b) We saw the Queen *herself*.
- (c) He cut *himself*.
- (d) They think too much of *themselves*.

You observe that "herself," "himself," and "themselves" are formed from personal pronouns by adding

* Note the author's unconscious use of "he" to refer to "writer," which here includes in its meaning women as well as men.

the words "self" or "selves;" and that they are used (a, b) for emphasis, or (c, d) after a verb or preposition to refer back to the subject of the verb.

Definition—A pronoun formed from a personal pronoun by adding "self" or "selves" is called a **Compound Personal Pronoun**.

Definition—A compound personal pronoun used after a verb or a preposition to refer back to the subject of the verb is called a **Reflexive Pronoun**.

The compound personal pronouns are *myself*, *ourselves* (editorial or majestic), *thyselves*, *yourselves*, *himselves*, *herselves*, *itselves*, *ourselves*, *yourselves*, and *themselves*. Notice that in the first and second person the compound is made from the possessive form of the simple pronoun, and in the third person from the objective form.

The compound personal pronouns have the same form for both nominative and objective, and have no possessive. The place of a possessive is supplied by "my own," "your own," etc.: as, "He keeps *his own* horse;" "He has a house of *his own*."

In the last sentence the phrase "his own" is used substantively as the object of the preposition "of," like the possessive "mine" in "He is a friend of *mine*" (135).

141. Uses of the Compound Personal Pronouns—The compound personal pronouns are properly used as follows:—

1. *For emphasis*: as, "I will do it *myself*;" "The great globe *itself* shall dissolve;" "We saw the king *himself*."

2. *As reflexives*: as, "I cut *myself*;" "We told him to give *himself* plenty of time."

Besides these well-established uses, the compound personal pronouns are sometimes employed as substitutes for simple personal pronouns: as, "She invited Ethel and *myself* to go driving." This usage is avoided by the most careful writers.

Sometimes, especially in poetry, a simple pronoun is used reflexively: as, "Now I lay *me* down to sleep;" "He looked about *him*."

EXERCISE 134

1. *In the following sentences point out the compound personal pronouns, and tell whether they are used reflexively or for emphasis*:—

1. I myself have seen him. 2. I think myself happy. 3. Thou shalt love thy neighbour as thyself. 4. Quit yourselves like men. 5. He will tell you himself. 6. Whosoever shall exalt himself shall be abased. 7. Sinai itself trembled at the presence of God. 8. You have yourselves heard the report. 9. Why should you be so cruel to yourselves? 10. It is usually best to study by ourselves.

2. *Construct sentences illustrating the use of each of the compound personal pronouns for emphasis; as a reflexive.*

II. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

142. Demonstrative Pronouns Defined—Examine the italicised pronouns in the following sentences:—

This is my book; *that* is yours.

These are my books; *those* are yours.

In these sentences "this" (plural "these") and "that" (plural "those") are used to point out certain objects. Each is, in a way, equivalent to a gesture.

Definition—A pronoun used to point out is called a **Demonstrative Pronoun**.

The only demonstrative pronouns are "this" (plural "these") and "that" (plural "those").

"He," "she," "it," "they," are sometimes called the **Demonstratives of the Third Person**.

"So" has occasionally demonstrative force: as, "He said *so*."

143. Uses of the Demonstrative Pronouns—"This" and "these" are used to indicate persons or things near in space, time, or thought; "that" and "those" indicate persons or things farther away: as, "*These* are my jewels," "Our rivers are larger than *those* of Europe."

When "this" and "that" are followed by nouns they are **Pronominal Adjectives**: as, "*This* book is mine;" "*That* word is hard to pronounce."

EXERCISE 135

Construct sentences illustrating the use of the demonstrative pronouns, singular and plural.

III. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

144. Interrogative Pronouns Defined—Examine the italicised pronouns in the following sentences:—

<i>Who</i> is he?	<i>Whom</i> did you see?	<i>Which</i> is he?
<i>Who</i> is she?	<i>What</i> is that?	<i>Which</i> is yours?
<i>Who</i> are they?	<i>What</i> are these?	<i>Which</i> are yours?
<i>Whose</i> is this?	<i>What</i> do you want?	<i>Which</i> do you prefer?

These pronouns, you observe, are questioning words, "who," "whose," and "whom" asking for names of persons, "what" asking for names of things, and "which" asking for a selection from a group of persons or things. Each stands for the noun or pronoun that answers the question.

Definition—A pronoun used to ask questions is called an **Interrogative Pronoun**.

Tabulating the forms used in the illustrative sentences, we find that the only interrogative pronoun which is inflected is "who," and that it is declined as follows:—

	Singular and Plural.
<i>Nominative:</i>	who
<i>Possessive:</i>	whose
<i>Objective:</i>	whom

The interrogative "whether," meaning "which of the two," is no longer used as a pronoun, though it is found in the English Bible: as, "Whether is easier?"

When "which" and "what" are followed by nouns they are **Pronominal Adjectives**: as, "*Which* book is yours?" "*What* new trick is this?"

EXERCISE 136

Point out the interrogative pronouns in the following sentences, and tell the construction of each:—

- Who ran to help me when I fell?
- What are the wild waves saying?
- What care I how fair she be?
- What do you read, my lord?
- What is so rare as a day in June?
- What did you ask for?
- Whose dog is that?
- Whom did you see?
- Whom were you speaking to?
- Which of the samples have you selected?
- Who do you think she is?
- Whom do you take her to be?

145. Interrogative Pronouns Distinguished—Ordinarily "who" asks for names of persons, "what" for names of things; but sometimes "what" has a personal reference: as, "*What* is he?—a lawyer?" In such cases "what" asks for a *description*, in distinction from "who," which asks for *identity*: as, "*Who* is he?—the new minister?"

"Which" is selective; that is, it implies that the right one is to be selected from a number of persons or things:

as, "*Which* is she?" "*Which* of the pictures do you like best?" "*Which* have you decided to take?"

EXERCISE 137

Construct sentences illustrating the use of the interrogative pronoun "who;" the ordinary use of the interrogative "what;" the personal use of the interrogative "what;" the use of the interrogative "which."

146. "Who" or "Whom" — In spoken English "whom," as an interrogative form, has been practically abandoned by most persons as an unnecessary and cumbersome inflection; but in literary English, and in the conversation of persons who have a strong feeling for grammatical consistency, "who" is used only in nominative relations, and "whom" in objective relations: as, "*Who* is that?" "*Whom* did you see?" "By *whom* was this written?" "*Whom* are you making that sofa-pillow for?"

EXERCISE 138

Insert in each of the blanks the proper form of pronoun ("who" or "whom") according to literary usage, and give the reason for your choice:—

1. — do you mean? 2. — have we here? 3. — will you invite?
4. — did you give it to? 5. — do you think I am? 6. — are you writing to?
7. — were you talking to? 8. I don't know — to send.
9. — do you take me to be? 10. I don't know — to ask for? 11. — was that speaking to you? 12. I do not know — he has met.

147. Direct and Indirect Questions Distinguished— Compare the following sentences:—

- (1) Maude asked, "*Who* is he?" (2) Maude asked *who* he was.

In the first sentence Maud's question is given in her exact words, and the question is said to be quoted. In the second sentence the question blends with the principal clause, and the original words are changed.

Definition—A question expressed in the exact words of the speaker is called a **Direct Question**.

Definition—A question used as a dependent clause, with changes from the original words of the speaker, is called an **Indirect Question**.

A direct question may be (1) *independent*: as, "Who is he?" or (2) *dependent*: as, "Maude asked, 'Who is he?'"

Indirect questions depend on expressions implying *inquiry, doubt, knowledge, ignorance*, or the like: as, "Maude wondered who he was;" "Maude discovered who he was;" "Maude did not know who he was;" "Maude told us who he was." (The direct question presented to Maude's mind was, "Who is he?")

EXERCISE 139

Construct three direct questions, and then change them into the indirect form.

IV. RELATIVE PRONOUNS

148. Relative Pronouns Defined—Compare the following sentences:—

- (a) The man thinks the world turns round. The man is giddy.
- (b) The man that is giddy thinks the world turns round.

In (a) we have two separate sentences about "the man," with nothing to show that they are related. In (b) the two sentences are brought into their proper relation by the word "that," which takes the place of the noun "man" as subject of the second sentence, and also connects this sentence with "man" in the first sentence, as a modifying clause. In other words, it is both pronoun and connective.

Definition—A pronoun which attaches to its antecedent a subordinate clause of which it is a part is called a **Relative Pronoun**.

A relative pronoun is so called because it relates directly to a substantive in the principal clause.

EXERCISE 140

Point out the relative pronouns in Exercise 44, and give their antecedents.

149. Relative Clauses—A clause introduced by a relative pronoun is called a **Relative Clause**.

Compare the relative clauses in the following sentences:—

1. Water *that is stagnant* is unwholesome.
2. The water, *which was beautifully clear*, gently lapped the side of the boat.
3. She brought the boy a glass of water, *which he drank eagerly*.

In the first sentence the relative clause, "that is stagnant," limits or restricts the general meaning of "water" to the particular sort that is in mind. The clause cannot be removed without changing the meaning of the sentence.

In the second sentence the relative clause, "which was beautifully clear," describes the water which the speaker has in mind, but does not restrict the meaning of the word "water." The clause might be removed without injury to the sentence, being in fact parenthetical.

In the third sentence the relative clause, "which he drank eagerly," neither limits nor describes the word "water," but merely carries on the narrative, like the second member of a compound sentence. "Which" is, in fact, here equivalent to "and it," and the relative clause, although subordinate in form, is logically co-ordinate with the first clause.

Definition—A relative clause which limits or restricts the meaning of the antecedent is called a **Restrictive Relative Clause**.

Definition—A relative clause which describes the antecedent without restricting its meaning is called a **Descriptive Relative Clause**.

Definition—A relative clause which neither describes nor limits, but merely carries on the narrative, is called a **Progressive Relative Clause**.

Descriptive and progressive relative clauses, being either parenthetical or independent in their nature, should be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

Restrictive relative clauses should not be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

EXERCISE 141

1. *Point out the relative clauses in Exercises 44 and 52, and tell whether they are restrictive, descriptive, or progressive.*

2. *Construct a sentence containing a restrictive relative clause; a descriptive relative clause; a progressive relative clause.*

150. Relative Pronouns Distinguished—Examine the forms of the relative pronouns in the following sentences:—

He prayeth best *who* loveth best. The lady *who* went out is my aunt. They *who* will not work must starve. The boy *whose* manners you liked is my brother. I know the person of *whom* you speak.

The letter *which* came this morning was from Ruth. We played a new game, the name of *which* I forget. I still have the letter *which* Ruth wrote last week.

This is the house *that* Jack built. Happy is the man *that* findeth wisdom.

What (i.e., *That which*) is done cannot be undone. *What* (i.e., *That which*) you say is true.

From these examples we see that the ordinary relative pronouns are “*who*,” “*which*,” “*that*,” and “*what*.” Tabulating the various forms, we find that only “*who*” is inflected, and that it is declined as follows:—

	Singular and Plural
<i>Nominative:</i>	who
<i>Possessive:</i>	whose
<i>Objective:</i>	whom

Who, *whose* and *whom* are used chiefly of persons, but sometimes of animals: as, “He prayeth best *who* loveth best;” “The robins have succeeded in driving off the blue jays *who* used to build in our pines.” “*Whose*” is occasionally used of things (153).

Which, as a relative pronoun, is used of animals or things. Sometimes it refers to an idea or thought expressed by a preceding phrase or clause: as, “This description may seem much exaggerated, *which* it certainly is not;” “I relieved his pain, *which* made him very grateful.”

That is used of either persons or things. It is always very closely connected with its antecedent in both meaning and position, never being used when there is any pause between the relative clause and the antecedent. Hence it is never used to introduce a clause that is merely descriptive or progressive. We say, “Water *that* [or, *which*] is stagnant is unwholesome;” “The water, *which* was beautifully clear, lapped the sides of the boat.” Another peculiarity of *that* is that it never has a preposition before it. We say, “The book *of which* you

told me," or, "The book *that* you told me of," putting the preposition last when "that" is substituted for "which."

What is peculiar in that it combines the functions of both antecedent and relative pronoun: as,

"I mean { *what*
 that which } I say."

"Who," "which," and "that" introduce adjective clauses; clauses introduced by "what" are substantive clauses.

EXERCISE 142

Insert appropriate relative pronouns in the blanks in the following sentences, and give the reason for your choice:—

1. Man is the only animal — can talk. 2. Time — is lost is never found again. 3. The dog — bit the child has been killed. 4. That is the man — spoke to us yesterday. 5. We have a mastiff, — follows us everywhere. 6. I met the boatman — took me across the ferry. 7. The crow dropped the cheese, — the fox then ate. 8. I worked six problems, — was the best I could do. 9. Do you know that man — is just entering the car? 10. Shakespeare was the most expressive man — ever lived. 11. The cat — you despise so much is a very useful animal.* 12. We have done many things — we ought not to have done.

EXERCISE 143

Construct sentences illustrating the use of the relatives "who," "which," "that," and "what."

151. Gender, Number and Person of Relative Pronouns—In the nature of things the gender, number and person of a relative pronoun are the same as those of its antecedent, but they are never indicated by the form of the relative. "Who," for example, may be singular or plural, masculine or feminine, and may refer to the person speaking, spoken to, or spoken of: as, "I, *who* am your friend, would not pain you needlessly;" "You, *who* are my trusted friend, should not deceive me;" "They *who* refuse to work must starve." Since relatives thus agree in number and person with their antecedents, it follows that the form of a verb used after

*The punctuation of this sentence, and probably the choice of pronoun, will vary with the meaning.

a relative should be the same as that which we should use after its antecedent.

EXERCISE 144

Tell which of the italicised forms is right, and give the reason:—

1. She is one of the best mothers that *has* (*have*) ever lived. 2. My room is one of those that *overlook* (*overlooks*) the lake. 3. That is one of the best books that *was* (*were*) ever written. 4. She is one of the writers who *is* (*are*) destined to be immortal. 5. It was one of the best games that *has* (*have*) ever been played on our field. 6. You are not the first man that *has* (*have*) been deceived by appearances. 7. He is one of those restless boys who *is* (*are*) always wanting to do something. 8. One of his many good traits that *come* (*comes*) to my mind was his modesty.

152. Case of Relative Pronouns—The case of a relative pronoun has nothing to do with its antecedent, but is determined by its use in the clause in which it stands. It may be—

- (1) *The subject of a verb*: as, "The lady *who* went out is my aunt."
- (2) *A possessive modifier*: as, "The boy *whose* manners you liked is my brother."
- (3) *A direct object*: as, "He *whom* thou lovest is sick."
- (4) *The object of a preposition*: as, "I know the person of *whom* you speak."

EXERCISE 145

Tell the construction and the case of each relative pronoun in Exercises 44 and 142.

EXERCISE 146

Insert the proper form of pronoun ("who," "whom") in each of the following blanks, and give the reason for your choice:—

1. She is a girl — I know *is* trustworthy. 2. She is a girl — I know *to be* trustworthy. 3. We recommend only those — we can trust. 4. I met a man — I have no doubt *was* your uncle. 5. A lady entered, —, I afterwards learned, *was* his aunt. 6. He gave the watch to Norman, — he thinks *will* take care of it. 7. They have found the woman — they thought *had been* murdered. 8. We like to be with those — we love and — we know *love us*, let them be — they may.

153. "Whose" or "Of which"—"Whose," which is properly the possessive of the masculine or feminine

"who," is sometimes used of neuter objects as a substitute for the longer and harsher "of which:" as, "The undiscovered country from *whose* bourne no traveller returns." When this substitution is not required by euphony it is avoided by careful writers.

EXERCISE 147

Tell which of the italicised expressions you consider preferable, and give your reason:—

1. She asked for a book *whose name* (*the name of which*) I had never heard. 2. The "White Captive" is a woman bound to a tree, in *whose bark* (*the bark of which*) arrows are sticking. 3. Another side of one's education is the scientific—a side *whose importance* (*the importance of which*) is fast being recognised the world over. 4. Through the heavy door *whose bronze network* (*the bronze network of which*) closes the place of his rest, let us enter the church itself. 5. I swept the horizon, and saw at one glance the glorious elevations, on *whose tops* (*the tops of which*) the sun kindled all the melodies and harmonies of light. 6. Beneath the sluggish waves of the Dead Sea lay the once proud cities of the plain, *whose grave* (*the grave of which*) was dug by the thunder of the heavens. 7. Men may be ready to fight to the death for a religion *whose creed* (*the creed of which*) they do not understand, and *whose precepts* (*the precepts of which*) they habitually disobey.

154. "As" and "But" as Relatives—After the words "such" and "same" the word "as" is used as a relative pronoun: as, "Tears, *such as* angels weep, burst forth." After "such" the relative is always "as." After "same" it is "as" or "that," with a difference in meaning. "The same as" usually means "of the same kind:" as, "My trouble is the *same as* yours." "The same that" means "one and the same:" as, "He uses the *same books that* his brother does." This distinction, however, does not hold in elliptical sentences, where "the same that" is never found: as, "He uses the *same books as* his brother." Occasionally "who" or "which" is used instead of "that:" as, "This is the very same rogue *who* sold us the spectacles" (Goldsmith); "With the same minuteness *which* her predecessor had exhibited" (Scott).

Occasionally "as" is used as a substitute for "which" to refer to a preceding idea or thought: as, "The ship was frozen in, *as* often happens in polar regions."

“But” is sometimes used as a relative pronoun equivalent to “that not” or “who not:” as,

There is not a wife in the west country
But has heard of the well of St. Keyne.

EXERCISE 148

1. Construct sentences illustrating the uses of relatives after “such” and “same.”

2. Fill the blanks in the following sentences with the proper relative (“as,” “that”), and give the reason for your choice:—

1. Such — I have give I thee. 2. This is the same book — my father used. 3. I hold the same political opinions — my father. 4. I hold the same political opinions — my father holds. 5. These are not the same tramps — were here yesterday. 6. She is the same merry girl since her marriage — she was before it.

155. Relative Pronouns Omitted—The relative “that” (or its substitute), when it would be the object of a verb or a preposition, is often omitted: as, “The book [*that* or *which*] I left here is gone;” “The girl [*that* or *whom*] you are looking for has not come yet.”

Occasionally a relative pronoun in the nominative case is omitted: as, “’Tis distance [*that*] lends enchantment to the view.”

NOTE—The term CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUN is frequently substituted for the term “Relative Pronoun,” to emphasise the fact that the conjunctive introduces a clause and joins it in adjectival relation to its antecedent.

156. Compound Relative Pronouns—Examine the forms and uses of the relative pronouns in the following sentences:—

Whoever (i.e., Any person who) goes must start at once.

Whosoever (i.e., Any person who) exalteth himself shall be abased.

Take *whichever* (i.e., any which) you want.

Whatever (i.e., Any thing which) he does he does well.

Sell *whatsoever* (i.e., anything which) thou hast, and give to the poor.

With regard to form you observe that the italicised pronouns are made from “who,” “which,” and “what” by adding “ever” or “soever.” With regard to use, (1) they perform the functions of both relative and antecedent, like “what” (150); and (2) they are very

indefinite in their meaning, being equivalent to "any person who," "any which," or "anything which."

Definition—A pronoun formed from "who," "which," or "what" by adding the suffix "ever" or "soever" is called, with reference to its form, a **Compound Relative Pronoun**; with reference to its meaning, an **Indefinite Relative Pronoun**.

Other compound relatives, seldom used now, are "whoso" and "whichsoever."

"Who," "which," and "what" are sometimes used as indefinite relatives: as, "*Who* steals my purse steals trash;" "Take *which* you will;" "Do *what* you can."

157. "Whoever" or "Whomever"—The only difficulty likely to arise in connection with the use of indefinite relatives lies in the words "whoever" and "whomever." One is a nominative form, the other an objective. "Give it to *whoever* comes to the door" and "Give it to *whomever* you see" are both correct. "Whoever" is the subject of "comes;" "whomever" is the object of "see." In each sentence the object of the preposition "to" is the relative clause, used substantively.

"Whosoever" and "whomsoever" are used in the same way: as, "Unto *whomsoever* much is given, of him shall be much required;" "*Whosoever* exalteth himself shall be abased."

EXERCISE 149

Fill the blanks with the proper forms ("whoever," "whomever"), and give the reason for your choice:—

1. Ask — you meet. 2. Elect — you wish. 3. I will entertain — you send. 4. We will give it to — you say. 5. — did it ought to be ashamed of himself. 6. We will give it to — seems to need it most.

V. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

158. Indefinite Pronouns Defined—Examine the italicised words in the following sentences:—

1. *Some* have gone. 2. *Each* took his turn.

You observe that "some" and "each" are substitutes for names, but do not refer definitely to any particular individuals.

Definition—A pronoun that does not refer to any particular individual is called an **Indefinite Pronoun**.

The indefinite pronouns may be grouped as follows:—

1. *Distributives, referring to individuals of a class taken separately:* each, either, neither.

2. *Words of number or quantity:* all, any, both, few, many, much, several, some, aught, naught, one, none.

3. *Comparatives:* such, other, another.

4. *Phrasal pronouns:* each, other, one another, (called *reciprocals*): a certain one, many a one.

5. *Other pronouns or parts of speech used indefinitely:* a man, people, you, they, etc.: as, "A man must live," "They say he is rich," etc.

When these words accompany nouns, they must be classed as adjectives: as, "Each boy took his turn;" "Some men are born great."

EXERCISE 150

Construct sentences illustrating the use of each of the indefinite pronouns.

159. How to Parse Pronouns—To parse a pronoun one must give its—

(1) Class. (2) Antecedent (if it has one). (3) Gender. (4) Number. (5) Person. (6) Construction. (7) Case.

EXERCISE 151

Parse the pronouns in the following sentences:—

1. Love thy neighbour as thyself. 2. God helps them that help themselves. 3. Let not him that girdeth on his harness boast himself as he that putteth it off. 4. I find the Englishman to be him of all men who stands firmest in his shoes. 5. Ye are the salt of the earth: but if the salt have lost his savour, wherewith shall it be salted?

6. I am monarch of all I survey,

My right there is none to dispute.

7. There's a divinity that shapes our ends,
Rough-hew them how we will.

8. What's in a name? That which we call a rose
By any other name would smell as sweet.

CHAPTER V

OF ADJECTIVES

AN **Adjective** is a word joined by way of description or limitation to a noun or a pronoun (85).

160. Classification of Adjectives—Adjectives may be arranged in two general classes, as follows:—

1. **Descriptive Adjectives**, denoting *qualities* or *attributes* of objects: as, "A *black* hat."

2. **Limiting Adjectives**, denoting *which*, *how many*, or *how much*: as "Yonder mountains;" "Three kittens;" "Great pleasure."

Among limiting adjectives we distinguish **Numeral Adjectives**, denoting *number*: as, "Three kittens;" "Second base;" and **Pronominal Adjectives**, words often used as *pronouns*: as, "*This* (adjective) hat is mine;" "*This* (pronoun) is yours." Such words are pronouns when they stand for nouns; adjectives when they accompany nouns (143, 144, 158).

161. Singular and Plural Adjectives—The only adjectives that have separate forms for singular and plural are the pronominal adjectives "this" (plural "these") and "that" (plural "those"). Mistakes in the use of these forms frequently occur in connection with such words as "sort" and "kind," which are grammatically singular. The following sentences are correct: "*That kind* of house is common in New England;" "How do you like *this sort* of horses?"

EXERCISE 152

Insert the proper form ("this," "these," "that," "those") in each of the following blanks:—

1. I do not like — sort of men. 2. We want no more of — sort of goods. 3. What do you think of — kind of golf clubs? 4. Young gentlemen should let — sort of thing alone. 5. I always delight in overthrowing — sort of schemes.

162. Comparison of Adjectives—Examine the adjectives in the following sentences.

This is a *high* mountain.

That is a *higher* mountain.

Yonder is the *highest* mountain of all.

“High,” “higher,” and “highest” are all forms of the same adjective, and all denote the same quality; but they denote it in different *degrees*. “High” merely denotes a quality; “higher” denotes that the object described has more of that quality than another object with which it is compared; “highest” denotes that the object described has the most of the quality.

Definition —A difference in the form of an adjective to denote degree is called **Comparison**.

Definition —The simple form of an adjective is called the **Positive Degree**.

Definition —The form of an adjective that represents an object as having more of a quality than another object is called the **Comparative Degree**.

Definition —The form of an adjective that represents an object as having the most of a quality is called the **Superlative Degree**.

Sometimes the superlative degree is used when no comparison is intended: as, “My dearest mother.” In such cases the superlative inflection has nearly the same force as the adverb “very.”

This form of the Superlative is known as the **Absolute Superlative**, whereas the ordinary superlative is called the **Relative Superlative**.

163. Methods of Comparison—Examine the italicised forms in the following sentences:—

I never knew a $\left\{ \begin{array}{c} \textit{nobler} \\ \textit{more noble} \end{array} \right\}$ man.

He is the $\left\{ \begin{array}{c} \textit{noblest} \\ \textit{most noble} \end{array} \right\}$ man I ever saw.

From this it appears that there are two ways of comparing adjectives:—

1. By **Inflection**, adding “er” and “est” to the positive to form the comparative and the superlative.

2. By **Phrasal Comparison**, using the adverbs “more” and “most.”

Adjectives of one syllable, and some adjectives of two syllables, are usually compared by the addition of “er” and “est.”

Some adjectives of two syllables, and all longer ad-

jectives, are usually compared by using "more" and "most."

In general the method of comparison is a matter of taste, determined for the most part by the ear.

EXERCISE 153

Compare the following adjectives:—

Able, happy, honest, fearless, worldly, lively, careful, particular, unkind, earnest, beautiful, virtuous, proud, ungrateful.

164. Irregular Comparison—The comparison of the following adjectives is irregular:—

Positive	Compar.	Superl.	Positive	Compar.	Superl.
bad	worse	worst	late	{ later	latest
evil				{ latter	last
ill			little	less	least
far	farther	farthest	many	{ more	most
fore	former	{ foremost	much		
		first	near	nearer	{ nearest
[forth, <i>adv.</i>]	further	furthest			next
good	better	best	old	{ older	oldest
well				{ elder	eldest

165. Adjectives Incapable of Comparison—Some adjectives denote qualities that do not vary in degree: as, "straight," "perfect," "circular," "daily," "square," "round," "untiring." Strictly speaking, such adjectives cannot be compared; yet custom sanctions such expressions as "straighter," "roundest," "more perfect," because they are convenient and their inaccuracy is of no consequence.

166. Use of the Comparative and Superlative—The comparative degree properly implies a comparison of two things or sets of things; the superlative, of more than two: as, "He is *older* than I;" "She is the *youngest* of the family."

In modern English, however, this distinction is not always followed, good writers frequently using the superlative when only two things are compared: as, "Who was the *first*, Ruth or Maude?" "He is the *best* of the two." In general, when two things or sets of things are compared, the comparative degree is preferable: as, "Which is the *taller*, Ruth or Maude?"

The words denoting the objects compared are called the "terms" of the comparison. When two objects are compared, the latter term must exclude the former; as, "*Iron is more useful than any other metal.*" When more than two objects are compared, the latter term must include the former; as, "*Iron is the most useful of metals.*"

EXERCISE 154

Construct sentences comparing the following things, using first a comparative, then a superlative form:—

1. The large population of China; the smaller populations of other countries.

Example—China has a larger population than any other country. China has the largest population of all countries in the world.

2. John, who is very mischievous; other boys in the school, who are less mischievous.

3. Mary's recitations; the poorer recitations of her classmates.

4. The population of London; the population of the other cities in the world.

167. Substitutes for Adjectives—The function of an adjective may be performed by—

(1) A *noun or a pronoun in the possessive case*: as, "That is *John's* book;" "This is *my* book."

(2) A *prepositional phrase*: as, "The path *by the lake* is shady."

(3) An *infinitive phrase*: as, "Water *to drink* was scarce."

(4) A *participial phrase*: as, "The boy *reciting his lesson* is my brother."

(5) A *clause*: as, "The girl *whom you saw* is my sister."

(6) An *adverb*: as, "The *then* Emperor."

168. How to Parse an Adjective—To parse an adjective one must tell—

(1) Its class.

(2) Its comparison.

(3) Its use.

EXERCISE 155

Parse the adjectives in Exercise 15.

CHAPTER VI

OF ARTICLES

THE Articles are the words "the" and "an" or "a."

The articles always limit nouns, and therefore might be classed as limiting adjectives. But their uses are so peculiar and delicate that it is best to treat them separately.

169. Origin of the Articles—"The" is a weakened form of the demonstrative pronoun "that."

"An" (shortened to "a" before consonant sounds) is a weakened form of the numeral adjective "one," which was formerly written "ān." In general it always implies oneness, but usually in a vague, indefinite sense that does not belong to the numeral adjective "one."

170. "An" or "A"—The choice between "an" and "a," which are different forms of the same word, is determined by sound. Before a vowel sound "an" is used; before a consonant sound "a" is used.

EXERCISE 156

Put the proper form of the article "an" or "a" before each of the following expressions:—

Article, onion, union, uniform, uninformed, reader, universal belief, useful invention, umpire, unfortunate mistake, eulogy, European, hour, honest man, house, humble dwelling, habitual drunkard, hotel, heroic people, hereditary disposition.

171. The Articles Distinguished—Compare the italicised expressions in the following sentences:—

1. *Man* is mortal. 2. *The child* is dying. 3. *A soldier* stood on guard.

"Man," unlimited by an article, applies to all mankind. "Child," limited by "the," applies to an individual, singled out as already before the mind. "Soldier," limited by "a," applies to an individual, singled out at random as a representative of his class. "The" points definitely to a particular object; "a" selects one, no matter which.

Definition—"The" is called the **Definite Article**; "an" or "a" is called the **Indefinite Article**.

172. Uses of the Articles—In general both the definite and the indefinite article single out individuals from the rest of a class: the definite, a particular individual; the indefinite, any individual. Ordinarily, therefore, they are used, not with proper nouns or names of materials, but with nouns that apply to many objects of the same class. Yet no one principle covers all the uses of articles. These must be learned chiefly through observation and imitation. It may be helpful, however, to enumerate some of their special functions.

The Definite Article is used—

(1) To designate objects as *already before the mind*: as, "One night a wolf fell in with a dog. *The* wolf was all skin and bones, while *the* dog was as fat as he could be."

(2) To designate objects as *near by or prominent in the mind*: as, "I sprang to the window;" "*The* birds are singing;" "We saw *the* queen;" "There is a higher law than *the* Constitution;" "*The* Scriptures tell the story of *the* Flood."

This use of the article tends to change a common into a proper noun, as indicated frequently by the use of capitals.

(3) To give to a common noun a *representative* or *collective* force: as, "*The* reindeer is a native of Norway."

This use of the article—called the **GENERIC** (Latin *gener*, "a class")—is borrowed from the French. The English article, as remarked above, *singles out*; the generic article *collects*.

The Indefinite Article is used—

(1) In its original numerical sense of "*one*:" as, "Not *a* word was said;" "Two at *a* time."

When nouns have the same form for both singular and plural, this use of the article distinguishes the numbers: as, "He has *a* sheep;" "He has *sheep*."

(2) In the vague sense of "*a certain*:" as, "One night *a* wolf fell in with a dog." (The word "one" in this sentence hardly differs in function from the articles).

(3) In the sense of "*any*," to single out an individual as the representative of a class: as, "A ball is round."

(4) To make a *common noun* of a *proper noun*; as, "A Daniel come to judgment."

NOTE—In "many *a* child," "such *a* person," and similar expressions, the article follows the adjective, instead of preceding it.

EXERCISE 157

1. Construct sentences illustrating the common uses of the definite article.

2. Construct sentences illustrating the common uses of the indefinite article.

EXERCISE 158

Distinguish between—

1. Give me a (one) pen. 2. I have caught (a) cold. 3. A black and (a) white cat. 4. Bring me the (that) candle. 5. Grass (The grass) is green. 6. Earth (The earth) is heavy. 7. I sprang to a (the) window. 8. Birds (The birds) are singing. 9. Men (The men) admired him. 10. He has (a) trout in his basket. 11. Bring me a (the) lighted candle. 12. Trees (The trees) are in blossom. 13. Man (The man) is a strange being. 14. Wanted a cook and (a) housemaid. 15. Men (The men) ran to give the alarm.

EXERCISE 159

Insert the proper article in each blank, if an article is needed; if no article is needed, leave the place blank:

1. — lion is — king of beasts. 2. What kind of — bird is that? 3. My favourite flower is — violet. 4. At — present he is out of work. 5. What sort of — pen do you like? 6. Colonel Waring died of — yellow fever. 7. He well deserves the name of — scholar. 8. Omit — third and — fourth page (pages). 9. An adjective modifies a noun or — pronoun. 10. There are two articles, the definite and — indefinite.

173. Caution—Not every “the” is an article, nor every “a.”

In “*The* more they get *the* more they want,” and similar constructions, “the” is an adverb, a survival of an old adverbial case-form of the pronoun “that.”

In “Who goeth *a* borrowing, goeth *a* sorrowing,” and similar constructions, “a” is a survival of an old preposition.

174. How to Parse Articles—To parse an article one must tell—

(1) What it limits. (2) Its effect.

EXERCISE 160

Parse the articles in Exercise 89.

CHAPTER VII

OF VERBS

A **Verb** is a word used, with or without adjuncts, as the predicate of a sentence (32).

The verb is the instrument of assertion. Usually it denotes action; less often, being or state (34); sometimes it is without meaning, having assertive power only (35). Sometimes it is a single word, sometimes a phrase (36).

I. CLASSIFICATION

A. ACCORDING TO MEANING

Classified according to meaning, verbs are either **Transitive or Intransitive**.

175. Transitive Verbs—A transitive verb denotes action that passes over from the doer of the action to an object on which it falls: as, "A hunter shot a deer" (40).

The action expressed by a transitive verb involves two persons or things, either of which may be made the subject of the sentence. In one case we represent the action as passing from the subject; in the other, as passing to it. In other words, we may represent the subject either as performing the action, or as receiving or suffering it. Thus:—

Subject	Action	Object	Subject	Action	Agent
A man	shot	a deer.	A deer	was shot	by a man.

Sometimes, when the subject of the verb names the receiver of the action, the agent or doer of the action is not mentioned; but this does not change the nature of the verb, which remains transitive. Thus:—

Subject	Action
A deer	was shot

For such verbs as "have," "own," "possess" "inherit," etc., see 40

176. Intransitive Verbs—An intransitive verb denotes action, being, or state that involves only the subject: as, "The rainbow *comes* and *goes*;" "Enough *is* as good as a feast." (40).

Intransitive verbs are of two kinds: (1) *Verbs of Complete Predication*, which can be used by themselves as complete predicates: as, "The rainbow *comes* and *goes*;" (2) *Verbs of Incomplete Predication*, which cannot by themselves be used as complete predicates: as, "Enough *is* as good as a feast" (43, 44).

177. Some Verbs Either Transitive or Intransitive—The distinction between transitive and intransitive verbs is based solely on meaning and use, and if the meaning and use of a verb change, its classification changes too. Hence it happens that some verbs are at one time transitive, at another intransitive: as,

Transitive: She *wore* a wreath of roses
 The night that first we met.

Intransitive: Never morning *wore*
 To evening, but some heart did break.

A peculiar instance of change from one class to another occurs when a verb usually intransitive becomes transitive through the addition of a preposition used as an inseparable adjunct: as, "They *laughed*;" "They *laughed at* me." That the words "laughed at" in the last sentence are to be taken together as a transitive verb is shown by the fact that if the sentence is thrown into the passive form, "at" remains attached to the verb: as, "I *was laughed at* by them."

Sometimes the preposition is *prefixed* to the verb: as, "Cæsar *overcame* the enemy."

Causative Verbs—Another way for an intransitive verb to become transitive is by being employed in a **Causal** sense: e.g.,

Intransitive	Causal (or Causative)
Water boils.	He boils the water. (i.e., he causes the water to boil).

The causative verbs are frequently formed from intransitive verbs by vowel change (see Section 178).

Cognate Object—Intransitive verbs cannot be followed by an ordinary *outside* object. They may, however, be followed by a noun which repeats the meaning of the verb (Cognate means "akin") e.g.,

1. To fight a good fight. 2. To fight a hard battle. 3. To laugh a hearty laugh.

An adjective may represent this cognate object: as, "He fought his best" ("fight," understood). Such an adjective may of course be parsed as an adverb.

A cognate object-noun must be abstract, as it represents merely the noun idea implied in the verb.

Reflexive Verbs—So called because the action of the verb is as it were reflected back upon the subject, instead of passing over to a different object. These verbs may be transitive or intransitive. When the reflexive object is expressed, as in "He hurt himself," the verb is **Transitive Reflexive**. But when the object is suppressed, as in "He kept out of the way," the verb is really an **Intransitive Reflexive verb**. *

Reciprocal Verbs—In these the action denoted by the verb is reciprocated by the objects whether these are expressed or implied. These verbs likewise may be transitive or intransitive. In the sentence "These kittens scratch each other," the verb is transitive with a reciprocal object. In the sentence "These kittens always scratch when they meet," the verb "scratch" is reciprocal and intransitive.

Passival or Middle Verbs—In the sentence "Newspapers sold well during the war," the transitive verb *sold* is used without an object. If we examine the construction carefully we shall see that the grammatical subject is logically the direct object, for the meaning is that "news-venders sold papers well during the war." Such a verb is called *Passival* or *Middle*.

NOTE—In sentences like "He ran a mile," "It rained a day," "It rained cats and dogs," the nouns must not be considered as objects of an intransitive verb, which would be impossible. They must be treated as adverbial modifiers of the verb.

EXERCISE 161

1. *Review Exercises 24 and 25.*
2. *Tell whether the verbs in Exercises 17 and 37 are transitive or intransitive.*
3. *In the following sentences state the kind of verb, and the nature of the object or objects, if any:—*

1. He ran a mile. 2. She dresses well. 3. He died a soldier.
 4. Beauty is a snare. 5. Lemons taste sour. 6. He ran over the hill. 7. She dresses the doll. 8. He was named John. 9. He overran the mark. 10. He stayed two hours. 11. The tree stayed his fall. 12. He was paid his wages. 13. He died a soldier's death. 14. He walked over the links. 14. He went home to Toronto. 16. They accused him of theft. 17. He looks every inch a king. 18. The day broke over the sea. 19. He proved to be incorrigible. 20. I never forgave him the insult.

178. Transitive and Intransitive Distinguished by Form
 —A few verbs in common use are distinguished as transitive or intransitive by their spelling, the transitive being causative forms of the corresponding intransitive verbs. They are:—

Intransitive	Transitive
Fall: as, "Divided we <i>fall</i> ."	Fell ("cause to fall"): as, "Woodmen <i>fell</i> trees."
<i>Past</i> , fell: as, "Great Cæsar <i>fell</i> ."	<i>Past</i> , felled: as, "They <i>felled</i> all the good trees."
<i>Past Participle</i> ,* fallen: as, "She has <i>fallen</i> asleep."	<i>Past Participle</i> ,* felled: as, "This tree was <i>felled</i> yesterday."
Lie: as, " <i>Lie</i> still."	Lay ("cause to lie"): as, "Lay the book down."
<i>Past</i> , lay: as, "Behold, Sisera <i>lay</i> dead."	<i>Past</i> , laid: as, "He <i>laid</i> the book down."
<i>Past Participle</i> , lain: as, "Had he <i>lain</i> there long?"	<i>Past Participle</i> , laid: as, "He has <i>laid</i> the book down."
Rise: as, " <i>Rise</i> with the lark."	Raise ("cause to rise"): as, " <i>Raise</i> your head."
<i>Past</i> , rose: as, "Then up he <i>rose</i> ."	<i>Past</i> , raised: as, "He <i>raised</i> his head."
<i>Past Participle</i> , risen: as, "The lark has <i>risen</i> ."	<i>Past Participle</i> , raised: as, "He has <i>raised</i> his head."
Sit. as, let us <i>sit</i> down."	Set ("cause to sit"): as, "Set the lamp on the table."
<i>Past</i> , sat: as, "We <i>sat</i> on the piazza."	<i>Past</i> , set: as, "She <i>set</i> the lamp on the table."
<i>Past Participle</i> , sat: as, "He has <i>sat</i> there all day."	<i>Past Participle</i> , set: as, "She has <i>set</i> the lamp on the table."

EXERCISE 162

Insert the proper word in each blank in the following sentences:—

I. *Lie, lay, lying, laying, lain, laid.*

1. Let him — there. 2. It has never — smooth. 3. I found it — on the floor. 4. Now I — me down to sleep. 5. Ireland — west of England. 6. Slowly and sadly we — him down. 7. You had better — down for a while. 8. Hush, my dear, — still and slumber. 9. During the storm the ship — at anchor. 10. He told me to — down, and I — down.

II. *Rise, rose, risen, raise, raised*

1. — up, you lazy fellow. 2. The price of corn has —. 3. Let them — up and help you. 4. She cannot get her bread to —. 5. Cain — up against Abel, his brother. 6. Many are they that — up against me. 7. Abraham — up early in the morning. 8. He — himself up before I could reach him.

* English verbs have two simple participles: the *Present Participle*, ending in "ing," and the *Past Participle*, used in word-phrases after forms of "be" and "have."

III. *Sit, sat, set*

1. Where do you —? 2. Have you — there long? 3. — down and talk a while. 4. Let us — a good example. 5. She had to — up all night. 6. The calamity — heavy on us. 7. Let us — here and listen to the music. 8. Yesterday we — round the fire telling stories.

B. ACCORDING TO FORM.

Classified according to form, verbs are either **Strong** or **Weak**.

179. Strong Verbs—Examine the forms of the verb “give” in the following sentences:—

Present	Past	Past Participle
They <i>give</i> liberally.	They <i>gave</i> liberally.	They have <i>given</i> liberally.

You observe that the past is formed from the present by changing the vowel “i” to “a,” and the past participle has the suffix “-en.”

Definition—A verb that forms its past tense* by an internal vowel change, without any suffix, is called a **Strong Verb**.

All strong verbs originally had the ending “n”- or “-en” in the past participle; but this ending has been lost in many verbs, as “fight,” “fought[en];” therefore no mention of it is made in the definition. An added “-n” or “-en” in the past participle is, however, always a sign of a strong verb.

Strong verbs are among the oldest verbs in our language; therefore their mode of forming the past tense is sometimes called the **Old Conjugation**.

180. Weak Verbs—Examine the forms of the verbs “obey,” “hope,” and “mean” in the following sentences:—

Present	Past	Past Participle
I <i>obey</i> you.	I <i>obeyed</i> you.	I have <i>obeyed</i> you.
We <i>hope</i> for the best.	We <i>hoped</i> for the best.	We have <i>hoped</i> for the best.
They <i>mean</i> well.	They <i>meant</i> well.	They have <i>meant</i> well.

You observe that both the past tense and the past participle are formed by adding “-ed,” “-d,” or “-t.”

Definition.—A verb that forms its past tense by adding “-ed,” “-d,” or “-t,” is called a **Weak Verb**.

The past participle of a weak verb is always like the past tense.

* See Section 189.

Many weak verbs undergo an internal vowel change, like strong verbs; but they differ from strong verbs in having an added "-d" or "-t" in the past tense; as, tell, *told*; teach, *taught*; buy, *bought*.

In such strong verbs as "find," "found," "fight," *fought*," the "-d" or "-t" of the past tense is not a suffix, but belongs to the present form also.

Some weak verbs change "d" of the present to "t" in the past: as, build, *built*; send, *sent*; spend, *spent*.

In general, the test of a weak verb is the presence in the past tense of a "d" or a "t" that is not in the present.

The following verbs, in which the past tense is like the present, or merely shortens the vowel sound, have lost their suffix and are known to be weak only from a study of Old English: bet, bleed, breed, cast, cost, cut, feed, hit, hurt, lead, let, meet, put, read, rid, set, shed, shoot, shut, slit, speed, spit, split, spread, thrust, wet.

Most weak verbs are of later origin than strong verbs. Hence this mode of forming the past tense is sometimes called the **New Conjugation**.

181. Mixed Verbs—Some strong verbs have adopted the method of the new conjugation while retaining also that of the old: as, crow, *crew* or *crowed*; dig, *dug* or *digged*; hang, *hung* or *hanged*; thrive, *throve* or *thrived*.

A few verbs form their past tense according to one conjugation, and their past participle according to another: as, hew, *hewed*, *hewn*; show, *showed*, *shown*; sow, *sowed*, *sown*; swell, *swelled*, *swollen*; wake, *woke*, *waked*.

182. Principal Parts of a Verb—The present, the past and the past participle are commonly called the **Principal Parts** of a verb, because from them we can determine all the other forms or parts.

The principal parts of a verb are the forms used in filling the blanks in the following sentences:—

Present	Past	Past Participle
I — now.	I — yesterday.	I have —.

EXERCISE 163

Give the principal parts of the following verbs, tell whether the verbs are strong or weak, and give the reason for the classification:—

arise	blow	come	fight	hope	seek
bake	break	cost	find	keep	send
beat	bring	dream	freeze	laugh	set
begin	build	eat	have	lay	sing
bend	buy	fall	hear	lead	sit
beseech	catch	feed	hide	lend	teach
bind	choose	feel	hold	make	tell

C. ACCORDING TO USE

Classified according to use, verbs are either **Notional** or **Auxiliary**.

183. Notional and Auxiliary Verbs Defined—Compare the uses of the verb “have” in the following sentences:—

1. I *have* a ball.
2. I *have* lost my ball.

In the first sentence “have” expresses a distinct idea or notion of its own, namely, the idea of possession.

In the second sentence it has laid aside this meaning and merely helps to express the meaning of another verb, “lost.”

Definition—A verb that expresses a distinct idea or notion of its own is called a **Notional Verb**.

Definition—A verb that merely helps to express the meaning of another verb is called an **Auxiliary Verb**.

The verb that follows an auxiliary is always an infinitive or a participle, and is sometimes called the **PRINCIPAL VERB** in the verb-phrase.

TO THE TEACHER—There is much divergence among grammarians in the treatment of *can*, *let*, *may*, *must*, *ought*, *should*, and *would*. These verbs cannot stand alone as predicates, but are always followed by the infinitive of another verb; therefore they are all often classed as auxiliaries. On the other hand, *can*, *must*, and *ought* always have meanings of their own; therefore many object to calling them auxiliaries. According to the latter view, which is adopted in this book, *let*, *may*, *should*, and *would*, are sometimes notional, sometimes auxiliary (218-222).

EXERCISE 164

Tell whether the italicised verbs are notional or auxiliary:—

1. She *does* her work well.
2. She *does* not see me.
3. *Do* you know where my book is?
4. *Have* you a sled?
5. *Have* you read “Ben-Hur?”
6. I *am* reading it now.
7. It *is* an interesting story.
8. *May* I leave the room?
9. I *hope* you may succeed.
10. You *may* come to see me whenever you can find time.
11. She was afraid we *might* lose the way.
12. You *should* be punctual.

184. Verbal Inflections—Verbs undergo many modifications in form, which add to their root meanings certain ideas of time, completion, uncertainty, number, person, etc. These accessory ideas are attached partly by inflections and partly by auxiliaries.

II. NUMBER AND PERSON

185. Inflection for Number and Person—In some languages the form of the verb changes with the number and person of the subject, and the verb is said to *agree* with its subject in number and person. In Old English such number and person forms were numerous; and in the case of the verb “be” we still say: “*I am;*” “*Thou art;*” “*He is;*” “*We are;*” “*I was;*” “*You were;*” etc. Other verbs in modern English have lost all their inflections for number and person, except in the second and third persons of the singular number, as follows:—

First Person: I make.

Second Person: Thou makest.

Third Person: He makes (*maketh*).

The termination “-st” (subject “thou”) is used only in Biblical and poetical language (132).

The termination “-th” or “-eth,” which was once used instead of “-s,” survives only in Biblical language and in poetry: as, “He that *maketh* haste to be rich shall not be innocent;” “He *prayeth* well who *loveth* well.”

Therefore, except in the verb “be,” the only inflection for number and person in common use is “-s” in the third person singular.

186. Construction of Number Forms—Examine the verbs and their subjects in the following sentences:—

A sense of duty pursues us ever. (Singular subject; singular verb.)

Troubles never *come* singly. (Plural subject; plural verb.)

Half of them *are* gone. (Subject singular in form but plural in sense; plural verb.)

“Gulliver’s Travels” *was* written by Swift. (Subject plural in form but singular in sense; singular verb.)

Tom and his *sister* *were* there. (Two singular subjects together forming a plural; plural verb.)

Bread and *butter* *is* good enough for me. (Two singular subjects taken together as one thing; singular verb.)

Neither *Fred* nor his *sister* *was* there. (Two singular subjects considered separately; singular verb.)

You observe that, in general, a singular form of the verb is used when the subject is singular or regarded as singular; a plural form, when the subject is plural or regarded as plural.

The principle that a verb agrees with its subject in number is in most cases followed unconsciously. A few constructions, however, require special notice:—

1. The pronoun "you" takes a plural verb even when the meaning is singular: as, "Tom, you *were* late."

2. A collective noun in the singular number takes a singular verb when the collection is viewed as a whole; a plural verb when the members of the collection are thought of as individuals: as, "The committee *was* discharged." (Here the committee is thought of as a body.) "The committee *were* eating dinner." (The committee ate, not as a body, but as separate individuals.)

3. Sometimes a singular noun takes a plural sense from the presence of two or more distinguishing adjectives: as, "Mental, moral, and physical *education* here *go* hand in hand."

4. When subjects connected by "or" or "nor" are of different numbers, the verb usually agrees with the nearest: as, "One or two *were* there."

EXERCISE 165

Construct sentences illustrating each of the special cases of agreement mentioned in Section 186.

EXERCISE 166

Insert in each of the blanks the proper form of the verb "be," and give the reason for your choice:—

1. I know you — there. 2. One of you — mistaken. 3. One or two — ready now. 4. Two years — a long time. 5. Books — a common noun. 6. Five years' interest — due. 7. A hundred yards — not far. 8. There — many things to do. 9. Bread and milk — good diet. 10. The public — cordially invited. 11. Each of the sisters — beautiful. 12. Neither of the girls — very much at ease. 13. A number of the boys — waiting outside. 14. Manual and physical training — necessary. 15. Either the master or his servants — to blame.

187. "Don't"—"Don't," which is a contraction of "do not," and which is proper enough in its place, should not be misused for "doesn't" when the subject is in the third person singular. The following sentences are correct: "Why *doesn't* she come?" "Why *don't* you speak?"

EXERCISE 167

Insert the proper contraction (don't, doesn't) in each blank, and give the reason for your choice:—

1. Why — he write? 2. It — seem possible. 3. She — like croquet. 4. I — know what it is to be afraid. 5. The captain says he — know what it is to be afraid.

188. Construction of Person Forms—A practical difficulty in using correctly the personal forms of verbs arises when the subject consists of two or more substantives of different persons connected by *either—or*, or *neither—nor*. Shall we say, for example, "Either he or I *is* mistaken," or "Either he or I *am* mistaken?" If driven to a choice, we usually, but by no means always, let the verb agree with the nearest subject; or, we give the preference to the first person over the second or third. But it is far better to avoid such difficulties (1) by using some verb that has the same form for all persons: as, "Either he or I *must be* mistaken;" or (2) by rearranging the sentence: as, "Either you are mistaken, or I am;" "One of us is mistaken," etc.

Occasionally mistakes in person are made in relative clauses, the speaker forgetting that the verb should have the same person as the antecedent of the relative pronoun (151).

III. TENSE

189. Tense Defined—Compare the verbs in the following sentences:—

I *see* the Victoria Bridge.
I *saw* the Victoria Bridge.
I *shall see* the Victoria Bridge.

Here we have three different forms of the same verb, denoting the same action, but referring it to different times—the present, the past, and the future.

Definitions—A difference in the form of a verb to denote time is called **Tense** (Old French, "time").

A verb that denotes present action is in the **Present Tense**.

A verb that denotes past action is in the **Past Tense**.

A verb that denotes future action is in the **Future Tense**.

190. Simple Tenses—The English verb has only two simple tense forms: the **Present Tense**, which is the same as the root-form of the verb: as, "I *write*," "I *hope*;" and the **Past Tense** which is formed from the present by inflection: as, "I *wrote*," "I *hoped*." To denote future

action the present tense was at first employed, as it still is occasionally: as, "We *begin* practice to-morrow."

The methods of forming the past tense are described in 179-180.

191. Phrasal Tenses—In course of time the two simple tenses were found insufficient; and to denote further distinctions of time, verb-phrases were employed, formed by means of auxiliary verbs. By combining the present and past tenses of *will*, *shall*, *have*, *be*, or *do* with infinitives and participles, a system of **Phrasal Tenses** was built up, by which we are able to express the time of the action with great accuracy.

The infinitive used in forming verb-phrases is the root infinitive, without "to" (93).

The participles used in forming verb-phrases are the present participle and the past participle.

The present participle ends in "-ing."

The past participle of a weak verb is the same as the past tense and ends in "-ed," "-d," or "-t" (180). The past participle of a strong verb changes the vowel of the present tense, and often ends in "-en" or "-n" (179).

192. Phrasal Tenses : Future—To form a **Future Tense** we use "shall" or "will" as an auxiliary, followed by the root infinitive without "to:" as, "I *shall write* to him;" "He *will write* to me."

The distinction between *shall* and *will* as future auxiliaries is given in 199.

EXERCISE 168

Construct sentences containing the present, past and future tenses of "fight" and "stand."

193. Phrasal Tenses : Perfect—To represent an action as ended or complete at a given time we use the present, past, or future of "have" as an auxiliary, followed by the past participle: as, "There, I *have written* my exercise;" "Yesterday, when the clock struck nine, I *had written* two pages;" "To-morrow, by dinner time, I *shall have written* all my letters." Since these phrasal tenses denote action as completed or perfect in present, past, or future time, they are called the **Perfect Tenses**.

The Present Perfect Tense denotes action completed at the time of speaking. It is formed by putting "have" ("hast," "has") before the past participle.

The Past Perfect Tense denotes action completed at some point in past time. It is formed by putting "had" ("hadst") before the past participle.

The Future Perfect Tense denotes action that will be completed at some point in future time. It is formed by putting "shall have" or "will have" before the past participle.

EXERCISE 169

Construct sentences containing the perfect tenses of "fight" and "stand."

194. Phrasal Tenses: Progressive—Compare the verbs in the following sentences:—

I write my letters carefully.

I am writing my letters carefully.

Both of these sentences refer to present time, but with a difference. In the first sentence the simple present "write" does not necessarily mean that the writing is going on at the present moment; it merely asserts a present custom. In order to represent an action as going on or progressing, we usually put a form of "be" before the present participle, as in the second sentence. Since such phrasal tenses denote action as progressing in present, past, or future time, they are called **Progressive Tenses**.

The Present Progressive Tense represents an action as going on at the time of speaking. It is formed by putting "am" ("art," "is," "are") before the present participle.

The Past Progressive Tense represents an action as going on at some point in past time. It is formed by putting "was" ("wast," "were") before the present participle.

The Future Progressive Tense represents an action as going on at some point in future time. It is formed by putting "shall be" or "will be" before the present participle.

Now compare the verbs in the following sentences:—

1. I *have written* my letters. 2. I *have been writing* my letters.

In the sentence “I *have written* my letters” the verb “have written” merely represents the action as completed. If we wish to add to the idea of completion the idea of previous duration or progress, we combine the perfect tenses of “be” with the present participle: as, “I *have been writing* a composition;” “Yesterday evening my hand was cramped, for I *had been writing* all day;” “When the clock strikes ten I *shall have been writing* twenty minutes.” Since these phrasal tenses denote action as completed in present, past, or future time, after continuance or progression, they are called respectively the **Present Perfect Progressive Tense**, the **Past Perfect Progressive Tense**, and the **Future Perfect Progressive Tense**.

EXERCISE 170

Construct sentences illustrating each of the six progressive tenses of “fight” and “stand.”

195. Phrasal Tenses: Emphatic, Interrogative, and Negative—In the sentences “I *write* my letters carefully” and “I *wrote* to her yesterday” “write” and “wrote” merely assert action. If we wish to make the same assertions emphatically, in the face of doubt or denial we substitute for the simple tenses certain phrasal tenses formed by putting the present or the past of “do” before the root infinitive of the principal verb: as, “I *do write* my letters carefully;” “I *did write* to her yesterday.” These phrasal tenses are appropriately called the **Present Emphatic Tense** and the **Past Emphatic Tense**. Other tenses are made emphatic by laying emphasis on the auxiliary that is already present: as, “I *have written* my letters.”

In **Negative** and **Interrogative** sentences the same phrasal tenses formed with “do” and “did” are substituted for the simple present and past tenses, without the effect of emphasis: as, “*Do you write* to her often?” “*Did you write* to her to-day?” “You *do not write* well;” “You *did not write* carefully.”

EXERCISE 171

Construct sentences illustrating the present and past emphatic, negative, and interrogative tense forms—six kinds in all.

196. Summary of Tense Forms—Gathering together the different tense forms described in the preceding sections, we may tabulate the tenses of the English verb as follows:—

	Ordinary	Emphatic, etc.	Progressive
<i>Pres.</i>	write	do write	am writing
<i>Past</i>	wrote	did write	was writing
<i>Fut.</i>	will write		will be writing
<i>Pres. Perf.</i>	have written		have been writing
<i>Past Perf.</i>	had written		had been writing
<i>Fut. Perf.</i>	will have written		will have been writing

NOTE—Besides these regular tenses, we sometimes employ a sort of future tense phrase formed by combining the progressive tenses of "go" with the root infinitive of the principal verb: as, "*I am going to write a composition*;" "*I have been going to write to him for a week*." It is best to resolve such phrases into their parts, rather than to classify them as parts of the tense system. The same is true of such phrases as "*I used to write*" and "*I am about to write*."

EXERCISE 172

Give the tense of each verb in Exercises 23 and 38.

197. Uses of the Simple Present—The simple present tense has the following uses:—

1. To denote action belonging to a period of time that includes the present: as, "*He goes to town every Saturday*;" "*Two and two make four*."
2. As an occasional substitute for the present progressive, to denote action going on at the present moment: as, "*I see a robin*;" "*I hear the bell*."
3. As an occasional substitute for the future: as, "*We sail for Europe next Saturday*."
4. In vivid narrative as a substitute for the past: as, "*At this news Cæsar hurries to Gaul*." This is called the *Historical Present*.

198. Uses of the Present Perfect—The present perfect tense, which ordinarily represents something as *completed* at the time of speaking, is also used, instead of a past tense, to represent a past action (1) as continuing to the present, at least in its consequences, or (2) as belonging to a period of time not yet ended: as,

- (1) "*I have lost my book*" (so that now I am without it).
 (1) "*We have lived here five years*" (we live here now).
 (2) "*I have seen him three times to-day.*"
 (2) "*We have had a great deal of rain this year.*"

The use of a past tense in any of these sentences would cut away the action from all connection with present time: as,

- "*I lost my book*" (it may have since been found).
 "*We lived here five years*" (we have moved away).
 "*I saw him three times yesterday.*"
 "*We had a great deal of rain last year.*"

EXERCISE 173

Distinguish between:—

1. He studies (is studying) now. 2. I came (have come) to see you. 3. I read (am reading) Thackeray. 4. She always goes (is going) to church. 5. He lived (has lived) here a good many years. 6. We expected (were expecting) you yesterday. 7. You did not tie (have not tied) it fast enough. 8. I have written (have been writing) letters all day. 9. What have you done (have you been doing) to-day? 10. I have received (have been receiving) letters from him.

EXERCISE 174

Tell which of the italicised forms is preferable, and give the reason for your answer:—

1. I *was* (have been) here yesterday. 2. Shakespeare *says* (said) that love is blind. 3. I *knew* (have known) him since he was a child. 4. How far did you say it *is* (was) from here to Chicago? 5. The earth is a ball that always *turns* (is turning) round. 6. When we *saw* (had seen) everything in Geneva we went on to Paris. 7. As soon as the ships were within range the Admiral *opens* (opened) fire. 8. By this time to-morrow I *shall pass* (shall have passed) my examinations.

199. Shall or Will—There is an important distinction between the auxiliaries used in forming the future tenses. At first "shall" and "will" were notional verbs, "shall" meaning "to be obliged," and "will" meaning "to wish." At present they often retain some trace of their original meanings, "will" implying a reference to the will of the subject, and "shall" implying obligation or compulsion: as, "*I will never forsake you;*" "*He shall be brought to justice.*" Just as often, however, "shall" and "will"

are mere auxiliaries, with no trace of their original meaning: as, "The bell *will* soon ring, and I *shall* be late."

Modern usage may be exhibited as follows:—

Simple Future

I (we) shall

You will*

He (they) will

**Future, with added
idea of determination**

I (we) will

You shall†

He (they) shall†

In clauses introduced by the conjunction "*that*," expressed or understood, the same auxiliary is used that would be used if the clause were an independent sentence: as, "I fear that we *shall* miss the train." (Independent: "*We shall* miss the train.")

Such clauses are common after *say, declare, think, believe, hope, fear*, and words of similar meaning.

In all other subordinate clauses "*shall*" in all persons denotes simple futurity; "*will*" in all persons implies an exercise of will: as, "When He *shall* appear (simple futurity) we shall be like Him;" "If you *will* come (i.e., are willing to come), we will give you a good time."

In questions "*shall*" is the proper auxiliary in the first person; in the second and third persons the same auxiliary is used that is expected in the answer: as, "*Shall* we go to-morrow?" "*Will* you go?" (Answer: "*I will* go.") "*Shall* you be glad when to-morrow comes?" (Answer: "*I shall* be glad.")

"*Should*" and "*would*" are the past tenses of "*shall*" and "*will*" and in general follow the same rules. See, however, 220 and 221.

EXERCISE 175

Distinguish between:—

1. He will (shall) not go.
2. Shall (will) you be there?
3. I shall (will) not hear you.
4. She will (shall) not see me.
5. He thought I would (should) go.
6. We will (shall) see you to-morrow.
7. What shall (will) the admission be?
8. If he would (should) help, we could do it.

EXERCISE 176

Insert the proper auxiliary ("shall," "will") in each blank in the following sentences:—

* Sometimes used in a courteous command to a subordinate officer.

† Also used in speaking of what is destined to take place.

1. — we go to-morrow? 2. We — have rain soon. 3. I — be glad to see you. 4. — you be able to come? 5. — we ask her to come too? 6. I — be twelve in December. 7. How — I send the package? 8. If I do not hurry, I — be late. 9. I hope you — be able to come. 10. — I bring a chair for the lady? 11. He thinks we — soon have rain. 12. I am afraid we — miss the train. 13. She says she — be glad to see us. 14. We — never forget this kindness. 15. — we have time to get our tickets?

EXERCISE 177

Insert the proper auxiliary ("would," "should") in each blank in the following sentences:—

1. He thought I — be hurt. 2. We — be sorry to be late. 3. He thought he — be hurt. 4. He thought she — be hurt. 5. He thought you — be hurt. 6. I — like to see a yacht race. 7. What — we do without cooks? 8. At first I didn't think I — like Latin. 9. If I tried to walk a tight-rope, I — fall. 10. I asked him whether he — come again.

200. Misused Forms—The past tense and the past participle of the verbs in the following list are often confounded or incorrectly formed:—

Present	Past	Past Participle
begin	began	begun
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
burst	burst	burst
come	came	come
dive	dived	dived
do	did	done
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fly	flew	flown
flow	flowed	flowed
freeze	froze	frozen
forget	forgot	forgotten
get	got	got
go	went	gone
lay ("to cause to lie")	laid	laid
lie ("to recline")	lay	lain
prove	proved	proved
ride	rode	ridden
rise	rose	risen
raise ("to cause to rise")	raised	raised
run	ran	run
see	saw	seen
set ("to put," of the sun, moon, etc., "to sink")	set	set

Present	Past	Past Participle
sit	sat	sat
shake	shook	shaken
show	showed	shown
speak	spoke	spoken
slay	slew	slain
steal	stole	stolen
take	took	taken
throw	threw	thrown
wake	woke	waked
write	wrote	written

In using the verbs *drink, ring, shrink, sing, sink, spring, swim*, it is better to confine the forms in "a" to the past tense and the forms in "u" to the past participle: as, "The bell *rang* five minutes ago;" "Yes, the bell has *rung*."

EXERCISE 178

Change the italicised verbs in these sentences to the past tense:—

1. I do it myself. 2. Tom *swims* very well. 3. Harry *sees* me coming. 4. The sun *wakes* me early. 5. The wind *blows* furiously. 6. The guests *begin* to go home. 7. They *sit* in the third pew from the front. 8. The Susquehanna River *overflows* its banks. 9. Helen *comes* in and *lays* her coat on a chair. 10. Both short-stop and pitcher *run* for the ball. 11. The wild goose *flies* southward in the autumn. 12. They *eat* their supper as if they were half starved.

EXERCISE 179

Change the italicised verbs in these sentences to the perfect tense:—

1. He *writes* home. 2. I *forget* his name. 3. The sleeper *awakes*. 4. He *stole* my watch. 5. Ethel *broke* her arm. 6. They *go* by steamer. 7. Some one *takes* my hat. 8. I *see* the Premier often. 9. He *gets* along fairly well. 10. They *slay* their prisoners. 11. The enemy *come* in force. 12. The boys *dive* three times. 13. I *set* the lamp on the table. 14. A mist *rises* before my eyes. 15. The water in my pitcher *froze*. 16. He *speaks* his declamation well. 17. The boys *are eating* their supper. 18. He *throws* cold water on my plan. 19. The Ohio River *overflows* its banks. 20. He *sits* by the hour talking politics.

IV. MODE*

201. **Mode Defined**—Compare the verbs in the following sentences:—

* In recognising only three modes the author has followed the best modern philologists. The forms often called "potential" fall easily within either the indicative or the subjunctive.

He *is* here.
 Would he *were* here.
 Be here at daylight.

In these sentences we have three different forms of the verb "be," indicating different ways in which the thought is presented to the mind. "Is" shows that it is presented as a *fact*; "were" shows that it is presented as a *mere thought* (he is *not* here); "be" shows that it is presented as a *command*.

Definition —A difference in the form of a verb to show how the thought is presented to the mind is called **Mode**.

Definition —The form of a verb used to present a thought as a fact is called the **Indicative Mode**.

Definition —The form of a verb used to present a thought as a mere thought, uncertain or contrary to fact, is called the **Subjunctive Mode**.

Definition —The form of a verb used to present a thought as a command or entreaty is called the **Imperative Mode**.

202. The Indicative Mode—The indicative mode is the most common, being used in expressing a fact, or what is assumed to be a fact, and in asking questions of fact.

CAUTION —The indicative is often used in sentences that express what is uncertain or contrary to fact; but in such cases the uncertainty or untruth is expressed by *some other word*: as, "*Perhaps* it will rain;" "He *is not* here." The subjunctive, on the other hand, often expresses uncertainty or untruth by *its own form* without the help of other words: as, "*Were* he here, he would go with us."

203. The Subjunctive Mode : Form—In form the subjunctive differs from the indicative in the following ways:—

1. In the single case of the verb "be" the subjunctive has distinct forms for the present and past tenses, namely:—

Present	
Indicative	Subjunctive
I <i>am</i>	I <i>be</i>
Thou <i>art</i>	Thou <i>be</i>
He <i>is</i>	He <i>be</i>
We <i>are</i>	We <i>be</i>
You <i>are</i>	You <i>be</i>
They <i>are</i>	They <i>be</i>

Past	
Indicative	Subjunctive
I <i>was</i>	I <i>were</i>
Thou <i>wast</i>	Thou <i>were</i>
He <i>was</i>	He <i>were</i>
We <i>were</i>	We <i>were</i>
You <i>were</i>	You <i>were</i>
They <i>were</i>	They <i>were</i>

EXAMPLES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE OF "BE"—"Judge not, that ye *be* not judged;" "Hallowed *be* Thy name;" "If I *were* you, I would not say that;" "Would that Alice *were* here!"

2. In other verbs the subjunctive has the same form as the indicative, except that in the second and third persons singular there are no personal endings: as,

Present		Past	
Indicative	Subjunctive	Indicative	Subjunctive
I write	I write	I wrote	I wrote
Thou writest	Thou write	Thou wrotest	Thou wrote
He writes	He write	He wrote	He wrote

EXAMPLES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE OF OTHER VERBS THAN "BE"—"It is better he *die*;" "Govern well thy appetite, lest sin *surprise* thee;" "Long *live* the King!" "If thy hand *offend* thee, cut it off."

3. Sometimes the subjunctive is phrasal, being formed by means of the auxiliaries "may" (past, "might"), "had," "would," and "should."

EXAMPLES OF THE PHRASAL SUBJUNCTIVE—"Bring me a light, that I *may see* what this is;" "I hope you *may succeed*;" "May you *live* long and happily;" "We were afraid we *might miss* the train;" "It is better he *should die*;" "Let us start early, lest we *should be* late;" "It *would be* better if we *should start* now;" "If my sister *had seen* that mouse, she *would have screamed*."

Caution—It does not follow that the verbs "may," "would," "should," and "had" are always subjunctive. In the following sentences, for example, they make simple statements of fact, and are therefore indicative: "You *may* (i.e., are permitted to) go now;" "You *should* (i.e., ought to) start earlier;" "Annie *would* not (i.e., was unwilling to) sing." (218-222).

204. The Subjunctive Mode : Uses—The subjunctive mode expresses action, being, or state, not as a fact, but as something merely conceived of in the mind. It is the thought-mode as distinguished from the fact-mode, and indicates some uncertainty or disbelief in the speaker's mind. It is most frequently used to express—

1. *A wish*: as, "God forbid!" "O, that I *were* a man."
2. *A purpose*: as, "Judge not, that ye *be* not judged;" "Bring me a light, that I *may see* what this is."
3. *A possibility*: as, "We were afraid we *might miss* the train;" "Strike ere it *be* too late."
4. *A supposition regarded as untrue or unlikely*: as, "If I *were* you, I *would go*."
5. *A conclusion regarded as untrue or unlikely*: as, "If I *were* you, I *would go*;" "If my sister *had seen* that mouse, she *would have screamed*."

The subjunctive is much less used than it was formerly; but it is still common in the writings of authors who are artistic and exact in expression.*

205. The Subjunctive Mode: Tenses—The use of the tenses of the subjunctive is peculiar, the time referred to not always corresponding to the name of the tense. Frequently the present subjunctive refers to future time, and the past subjunctive to present time: as, "Strike ere it *be* too late;" "O, that I *were* a man." (207.)

206. The Imperative Mode—The imperative mode expresses commands, entreaties, or advice addressed to the person spoken to. It is used only in the second person; and it has the same form for both singular and plural, namely, the root-form of the verb: as, "*Be* just, and *fear* not;" "*Have* mercy on us." It is usually distinguished from the present indicative by the omission of the subject.

Caution—Commands or entreaties addressed to the person spoken to must not be confounded with wishes concerning a person or thing spoken of: as, "Long live the Queen!" "Thy kingdom come." In these sentences the verbs are in the subjunctive (204).

For "let" as an imperative auxiliary see 218.

EXERCISE 180

Tell the mode of each verb in the following sentences, and give the reason for your opinion:—

1. God forbid. 2. Love me, love my dog. 3. I could cry my eyes out. 4. Thy money perish with thee. 5. The law is good if a man use it lawfully. 6. He serves his party best who serves the country best. 7. Gather up the fragments that remain, that nothing be lost. 8. Take heed that ye do not your alms before men, to be seen of them. 9. If it be possible, as much as lieth in you, live peaceably with all men. 10. Boast not thyself of to-morrow; for thou knowest not what a day may bring forth.

207. Modes in Conditional Sentences—A sentence containing a supposition or condition is called a **Conditional Sentence**. Now, a supposition may refer to present, past, or future time. If it refers to present or

* "Some people seem to think that the subjunctive mood is as good as lost, that it is doomed, and that its retention is hopeless. If its function were generally appreciated, it might even now be saved. . . . If we lose the subjunctive verb, it will certainly be a grievous impoverishment to our literary language, were it only for its value in giving variation to diction—and I make bold to assert that the writer who helps to keep it up deserves public gratitude,"—*John Earle*: "English Prose, Its Elements, History, and Usage." p. 172.

past time, it may be viewed by the speaker as true, untrue, or as a mere supposition with nothing implied as to its truth; if it refers to the future, it may be viewed as either likely or unlikely. A supposition which is assumed to be true, or which is made without any hint of its incorrectness, is expressed by the indicative: as, "If it *is* raining, we cannot go." A supposition which is viewed by the speaker as untrue or unlikely is properly expressed by the subjunctive. When the character of the supposition makes the conclusion untrue or unlikely, the conclusion also is expressed by the subjunctive: as, "If I *were* you, I *would* not go."

In clauses that express conditions, the **Present Subjunctive** refers to either *present* or *future time*, and suggests *doubt*.

The **Past Subjunctive** refers to *present time* and implies that the supposition *is not a fact*.

The **Past Perfect Subjunctive** refers to *past time*, and implies that the supposition *was not a fact*.

NOTE 1. When "if" is equivalent to "whenever," the condition is called "general," to distinguish it from "particular" conditions, which refer to some particular act at some particular time. General conditions properly take the indicative: as, "If (i.e., whenever) it *rains*, I stay at home."

NOTE 2. Sometimes there is no "if," and then the verb or a part of the verb precedes the subject: as, "*Were* it raining, I should be sorry;" "*Had* it *been* raining, I should have been sorry."

NOTE 3. Clauses introduced by "though," "although," and "unless" take the same forms as clauses introduced by "if."

EXERCISE 181

Tell the difference in meaning between the sentences in each of the following groups, and tell the mode of each verb:—

1. (a) If she goes, I will go. (b) If she should go, I would go. (c) If she were going, I would go. (d) If she had gone, I would go. (e) If she had gone, I would have gone.
2. (a) If he follows my advice, he will succeed. (b) If he followed my advice, he would succeed. (c) Had he followed my advice, he would have succeeded. (d) If he should follow my advice, he would succeed.
3. (a) If she speaks French, she does not need an interpreter. (b) If she speaks French, she will not need an interpreter. (c) If she spoke French, she would not need an interpreter.
4. (a) If he is faithful, he will be promoted. (b) If he should

be faithful, he would be promoted. (c) If he were faithful, he would be promoted. (d) If he had been faithful, he would have been promoted.

5. (a) O, that he may be truthful! (b) O, that he were truthful! (c) O, that he had been truthful!

6. (a) Even though it is raining, I will go. (b) Even though it rain, I will go. (c) Even though it should rain, I would go. (d) Even though it rained, I went. (e) Even though it rains, I will go. (f) Even though it rained, I would go. (g) Even though it has rained, I will go. (h) Even though it had rained, I would go. (i) Even though it had rained, I would have gone.

EXERCISE 182

Tell which of the italicised forms is preferable, and give the reason:—

1. I wish I *was* (*were*) a man.
2. I wish she *was* (*were*) at home.
3. If I *was* (*were*) you, I would stay at home.
4. The train could go faster if it *was* (*were*) necessary.
5. Though a liar *speaks* (*speak*) the truth, he will not be believed.
6. Though gold *is* (*be*) more precious than iron, it is not so useful.

V. VOICE

208. Voice Defined—We have already seen (42, 175) that a transitive verb may represent the subject as doing the action expressed by the verb or as receiving it: as, "*John frightened Helen;*" "*Helen was frightened by John.*"

Definition—A difference in the form of a verb to show whether the subject acts or is acted upon is called **Voice**.

Definition—The form of a verb that represents the subject as doing an action is called the **Active Voice**.

Definition—The form of a verb that represents the subject as receiving an action is called the **Passive Voice**.

209. Form of the Passive Voice—Compare the following sentences:—

(Active) Grocers *sell* butter.

(Passive) Butter *is sold* by grocers.

(Active) The Queen *appointed* Lord Aberdeen.

(Passive) Lord Aberdeen *was appointed* by the Queen.

You observe that the passive voice of a verb is formed by putting a form of the verb "be" before the past participle.

You observe, also, that when a sentence is changed

from the active to the passive form, the object of the active verb becomes the subject of the passive verb.

The subject of the active verb becomes an agent after the passive verb—a relation expressed by the preposition "by."

An objective complement becomes an attribute complement (49).

An indirect object usually remains an indirect object. Sometimes, however, it is made the subject of the passive verb, the direct object then becoming a "retained object" (58).

EXERCISE 183

1. *Review Exercises 27, 34, and 48.*

2. *Change the following sentences into the passive form:—*

1. Sculptors make statues. 2. Maisonneuve founded Montreal in 1817. Many United Empire Loyalists abandoned their homes. 4. Manners reveal character. 5. A sense of duty pursues us ever. 6. Gentle deeds make known a gentle mind. 7. Little strokes fell great oaks. 8. Public amusements keep people from vice. 9. No one ever achieved anything great without enthusiasm. 10. Garrick's death eclipsed the gaiety of nations, and impoverished the public stock of harmless pleasure. 11. God had sifted three kingdoms to find the wheat for this planting. 12. Before man made us citizens great Nature made us men. 13. A crumb of bread thrown in jest made Prescott, the historian, blind for life. 14. They saw the storm approaching. 15. They found her lying in the snow frozen to death. 16. All believed him to be an honest man. 17. She told me to stand up. 18. We dropped the subject, and have not referred to it since. 19. The sly agent imposed upon us both. 20. The wounded man's wife took care of him.

3. *Change the following sentences into the active form:—*

1. The corn has been badly damaged by the late storm. 2. Forty thousand persons were killed in 1883 by the eruption of the volcano of Krakatoa. 3. It will be said by the newspapers that congratulations are showered on you by your friends. 4. In 1453 Constantinople was captured by the Turks and made the capital of their empire.

210. Caution—Sometimes the past participle of a verb is used as an attribute complement, to denote the condition of the subject: as, "Our revels now are *ended*;" "He is *gone*." Such constructions must not be confounded with the passive voice, which denotes action received by the subject.

Beware, also, of confounding the passive voice, which consists of "be" and a *past* participle, with progressive tenses, which consist of "be" and a *present* participle: as, (Passive) "*Birds are shot* for their feathers;" (Progressive) "*The birds are singing.*"

EXERCISE 184

1. *Review Exercise 22.*

2. *Tell whether the italicised words in the following sentences are attribute complements or parts of passive verb-phrases:—*

1. The melancholy days *are come*. 2. Our little life *is rounded* with a sleep. 3. The school bell *is rung* at nine o'clock. 4. The quality of mercy *is not strained*. 5. It *is enthroned* in the hearts of kings. 6. The apples *were picked* yesterday. 7. The spectacle *was well adapted* to excite wonder. 8. Man *is born* unto trouble, as the sparks fly upward.

3. *Tell the voice of each verb in the following sentences:—*

1. Annie *is studying* her lesson. 2. Tom *has been mending* his kite. 3. The lion and the unicorn *were fighting* for the crown. 4. The lawn *is being watered* by the gardener. 5. The stars *are shining* brightly. 6. The grammar class *is taught* by Miss H. 7. By whom *was this ink spilled*? 8. *Is it raining*?

VI. INFINITIVES

An **Infinitive** is a form of the verb that partakes of the nature of both verb and noun (93).

211. Nature of Infinitives—Infinitives are intermediate between verbs on the one hand and nouns on the other. They express action, being, or state, and take the same adjuncts or modifiers as the verbs from which they are formed; but they have the constructions of nouns. They differ from verbs in not being instruments of assertion; they differ from nouns in having the adjuncts of verbs. An infinitive is "a verb in a substantival aspect."

The name "infinitive" means "unlimited," and refers to the fact that the action, being, or state expressed by an infinitive is usually not limited to a particular subject or time: as, "*To climb* steep hills requires strength and endurance."

The indicative, subjunctive and imperative forms of the verb, which take the person and number of their subject, are often called **Finite** ("limited") verbs.

212. Form of Infinitives—With regard to form, infinitives are of three principal kinds.

1. The **Root-Infinitive**, which always has the same form as the root or simple form of the verb: as, "Better *wear out* than *rust out*;" "You need not *wait*." This simple Root-Infinitive is used as follows:—

- (a) After verbs of perception—*hear, see, feel, observe, perceive, know*, etc.; "I heard him *sing*." "I saw him *run*." Yet some verbs of perception take the "to" form: as, "I felt him *to be* honest."
- (b) After the Auxiliaries—*shall, will, may, do*: "Do not *interrupt* me."
- (c) After *may, shall, will*, used as Principal verbs: "He may *come* if he wishes to."
- (d) After certain verbs—*bid, let, make*, etc.: "We made him *answer*."
- (e) After certain expressions—*had better, had (would) rather*: "You had better *go*."
- (f) After the conjunction *than*: "Rather than *do* that I would die."

2. The **Root-Infinitive with "to:"** as, "It is better *to wear out* than *to rust out*;" "I prefer *to wait*." The Infinitive with "to" is frequently called the **Gerundial Infinitive** from a supposed connection with what we now call the "Gerund."

3. The **Infinitive in "-ing," or Gerund:** as, "She understands *boiling* an egg better than anybody else."

The gerund is usually active: as,

Present: Loving.

Perfect: Having loved.

The passive gerund is occasionally found: as,

Present: Being loved.

Perfect: Having been loved.

A gerund is in function a noun-verbal. In the last example given above it takes a direct object like any transitive verb. But in the sentence, "He is fond of *walking*," it is used solely with the force of a noun. The present participle (which bears the same form as the gerund) is an adjective-verbal (see 215-217), and should not be difficult to distinguish. There is one construction, however, which might give rise to some difficulty, as in these two examples:—

"We did not like his coming so often." (Gerund.)

"We did not like him coming so often." (Participle.)

When a possessive noun or pronoun precedes the form in “-ing,” the latter must be parsed as a gerund.

In function it is often difficult to detect a difference between the gerund and the infinitive with “to,” although the forms are so different. In the following examples they have both the value of abstract nouns: “To see is to believe;” and “Seeing is believing.” Yet in Hamlet’s soliloquy, “To be or not to be,” we feel that a substitution of the gerund forms, “Being or not being,” would impair the force of the passage. Again there are many constructions in which only the gerund is permissible: as, “He was punished for not coming in time,” and conversely many constructions in which only the infinitive with “to” may be employed: as, “He was advised to come in time.”

The gerund is not identical in form with the participle only. It also resembles in its present tense the verbal noun in “-ing.”

“He praised him for the *handling* of his men.” (Verbal-noun.)

“He praised him for *handling* his men so well.” (Gerund.)

This gerund form is really the old verbal noun broken down and disguised by the omission of the article and the preposition following.

NOTE—There is an infinitive construction in English which has occasioned much discussion among purists. Opinion is divided as to whether what is termed “the split infinitive” should be countenanced as correct English. Mr. Brander Matthews, in a recent essay in which he makes a plea for greater flexibility of speech, considers the construction to be justified on the score of usage.

Examples of the “split infinitive” placed beside the regular construction are as follows:—

Split Infinitive: “I wish to clearly point out.”

“I wish to point out clearly.”

Split Infinitive: “I hope to soon go and see you.”

“I hope soon to go and see you.”

EXERCISE 185

Review Exercise 97. When the root-infinitive is preceded by “to,” tell whether or not “to” has the force of a preposition.

213. Tenses of the Infinitive—With the infinitives of “be” and “have” as auxiliaries we form certain

Phrasal Infinitives, corresponding to some tense forms of the indicative, active and passive: as,

ACTIVE

- Present Progressive:* "I expect *to be writing* letters."
Perfect: "I am sorry *to have written* so poorly."
 "He was reproved for *having written* it."
Perfect Progressive: "I ought *to have been writing* my exercise."
 "His arm was cramped from his *having been writing* all morning."

PASSIVE

- Present:* "The exercise *must be written*."
 "She disliked *being called** proud."
 "The exercises ought *to have been written*."
Perfect: "She is angry at *having been called** proud."

The infinitive forms may be tabulated as follows:

Root-Infinitives and Gerundials

ACTIVE

- | | | |
|-----------------|--------------------|-------------------------|
| | — Ordinary — | — Progressive — |
| <i>Present:</i> | [to] write. | [to] be writing. |
| <i>Perfect:</i> | [to] have written. | [to] have been writing. |

PASSIVE

- Present:* [to] be written. *Perfect:* [to] have been written.

Infinitives in "-ing," or Gerunds

ACTIVE

- | | | |
|-----------------|-----------------|----------------------|
| | — Ordinary — | — Progressive — |
| <i>Present:</i> | writing. | |
| <i>Perfect:</i> | having written. | having been writing. |

PASSIVE*

- Present:* being called. *Perfect:* having been called.

A *Present Infinitive* denotes action which is incomplete at the time expressed by the principal verb: as, "He tries *to write*;" "He tried *to write*;" "He will try *to write*."

A *Perfect Infinitive* is properly used to denote action which is completed at the time expressed by the principal verb: as, "Alfred is said *to have drawn* up a body of laws;" "I felt glad *to have seen* Niagara Falls;" "I shall be glad *to have finished* my task."

Exception — "Ought," "must," "need," and "should" (in the sense of "ought") have no distinctive form to denote past time; and with these verbs distinctions of time are denoted by changes in the form of the following infinitive, the present forms denoting present time, and the perfect forms past time: as, "You ought *to go*," "You ought *to have gone*;" "He should *be careful*," "He should

* Passive infinitives in "-ing" are rare, occurring only with certain verbs.

have been careful." A similar use of the infinitive forms to denote time is found after "could" and "might" in some of their uses: as, "I could go," "I could have gone;" "You might answer," "You might have answered."

EXERCISE 186

1. Construct sentences illustrating the use of the different tenses of the infinitive.

2. Tell which of the italicised forms is right, and give the reason:—

1. Wolfe intended to *attack* (to have attacked) at daybreak.
2. We meant to *start* (to have started) long ago.
3. It was his business to *prevent* (to have prevented) such an accident.
4. He is said to *lose* (to have lost) ten dollars.
5. It would have been better to *wait* (to have waited).
6. He could not *fail* (have failed) to *arouse* (to have aroused) suspicion.

214. Constructions of the Infinitive—The infinitive, with or without adjuncts, is common in the following constructions:—

1. *Subject of a verb*: as, "*To find fault is easy*;" "*Being able to play the piano is not knowing music*."

2. *Attribute Complement*: as, "Her greatest pleasure is *to raise flowers*;" "His chief difficulty is *learning to spell*."

3. *Object Complement*: as, "He likes *to read history*;" "I hate *travelling alone*."

Here belong, historically, infinitives used after "ought," "must," "dare," "need," "can," and in verb-phrases after auxiliaries (183, 191).

4. *Object of a Preposition*: as, "He had no choice but (i.e., except) *to obey*;" "Gladstone was fond of *chopping down trees*."

This construction properly includes root-infinitives used as the object of "to" in infinitive phrases that have the force of adjectives or adverbs: as, "*Boats to let*;" "He came *to see me*."

5. *With a subject in the Objective Case, after verbs of Telling, Thinking, Perceiving, and Knowing*: as, "I saw him *go*;" "We heard her *cry*" (121).

EXERCISE 187

Construct sentences illustrating the uses of the root-infinitive, the gerundial infinitive and the gerund (or infinitive in "-ing").

VII. PARTICIPLES

A **Participle** is a form of the verb that partakes of the nature of both verb and adjective.

215. Nature of Participles—Participles are intermediate between verbs on the one hand and adjectives on the other. They express action, being, or state, and take the same adjuncts or modifiers as the verbs from which they are formed; but they have the constructions of adjectives. They differ from verbs in not being instruments of assertion; they differ from adjectives in having the adjuncts of verbs. A participle is "a verb in an adjectival aspect."

216. Form of the Participles—With regard to form, participles are of two principal kinds:—

1. The **Present Participle**, formed from the root of the verb by adding "-ing:" as, "The girl *reading* a book is my cousin."

The present participle describes an action as *going on* at some particular time.

2. The **Past Participle**, usually formed from the root of the verb by adding "-ed," "-d," "-t," "-en," or "-n" (179, 180): as, "The plant *called* Nightshade is poisonous;" "The book *taken* from my desk has been returned."

The past participle describes an action as *past* or *completed* at some particular time.

With the participles of "be" and "have" as auxiliaries we form certain **Phrasal Participles**: as,

ACTIVE	
<i>Perfect:</i>	" <i>Having written</i> my letters, I went to bed."
<i>Perfect Progressive:</i>	" <i>Having been writing</i> all day, I am tired."
PASSIVE	
<i>Present:</i>	<i>Being written</i> in ink, the name was hard to erase.
<i>Perfect:</i>	<i>Having been written</i> hastily, the letter contained many mistakes.

The participles may be tabulated as follows:—

ACTIVE		
<i>Present:</i> writing.	<i>Perfect:</i>	having written.
<i>Past:</i> written.	<i>Perfect Progressive:</i>	having been writing.
PASSIVE		
<i>Present:</i> being written.	<i>Past:</i> written.	<i>Perfect:</i> having been written.

EXERCISE 188

1. Review Exercise 99.
2. Point out the participles in Parts III and IV of Exercise 15, and tell the tense of each.

217. Constructions of Participles—Participles have all the ordinary uses of adjectives, and the following special uses in addition:—

1. *Loosely attached to the Subject of a Sentence*, to express some attendant action or condition: as, "*Hearing* a noise in the street, I sprang to the window;" "*Morn, waked* by the circling hours, unbarred the gates of light."
2. *Attached to a Nominative Absolute (122)*: as, "*Night coming* on, we lighted a fire."
3. *With Auxiliaries in Verb-Phrases*: as, "*Mother is looking* for you;" "*He has written* a letter."
4. *Gerundive use of Participles*, as in the sentence "I insist on the work *being done* thoroughly." Here we must parse "*being done*" as a participle, and yet it does more than qualify the noun "*work*." The sentence does not mean "I insist on the work which is being [or 'was being'] done thoroughly," but on the *work-being-done* thoroughly; that is, *on the thorough doing of the work*. Such a participle, therefore, has the force of a gerund or verbal noun, and may be said to be used "gerundively."

EXERCISE 189

In the following sentences examine the forms in "-ing," and determine whether they are verbal nouns, participles or gerunds.

1. It is hardly worth *bothering* about.
2. It is not worth the *asking*.
3. The *weeping* woman stood *wringing* her hands.
4. We gain wisdom by *living*.
5. He was engaged in the *building* of a house.
6. The miser goes on *accumulating* wealth.
7. He went out *hunting*.
8. Do you like *sketching*?
9. Do you like *sketching* trees.
10. They went out *sketching* together.
11. I have no time for *sketching*.
12. His father objected to his *sketching* for a living.
13. I can see him *sketching* every day.
14. He made a *losing* bargain in *buying* that horse.
15. I did not feel like *losing* any time.
16. *Losing* their way the children went along *weeping*.
17. We were *hoping* to see you.
18. He could not speak for *laughing*.
19. *Laughing* is good for the digestion.

VIII. PECULIAR VERB-PHRASES

Some verb-phrases are difficult to classify, because they have several meanings, according to the connection in which they are used.

218. Let—"Let," followed by the root-infinitive without "to," has in modern English two common uses:—

1. As a notional verb meaning "to permit:" as, "At last Pharaoh *let* the Israelites go."
2. As an auxiliary, to form a verb-phrase expressing an exhortation in the first or third person: as, "*Let* us be merry;" "*Let* us do or die;" "*Let* thy words be few;" "*Let* him that thinketh he standeth take heed lest he fall."

219. May, Might—"May" (past, "might"), followed by the root-infinitive without "to," has in modern English the following common uses:—

1. As a notional verb denoting *permission*: as, "You *may* go now;" "She *may* come in;" "Mother said we *might* go."
2. As a notional verb denoting *possibility*: as, "It *may* rain;" "She *may* be at home;" "It *might* have been."
3. As an auxiliary, to form a subjunctive verb-phrase: as, "I hope you *may* succeed;" "May you *live* long and happily;" "He said he hoped that we *might* succeed."

220. Should—"Should," followed by the root-infinitive without "to," has the following common uses:—

1. As a notional verb denoting *duty* or *obligation*: as, "You *should* speak more slowly."
2. As an auxiliary to express futurity from the standpoint of past time: as, "He said he *should* go."
3. As an auxiliary to form a subjunctive verb-phrase: as, "If he *should* come, I *should* have no more fear;" "It is better he *should* die."

221. Would—"Would," followed by the root-infinitive without "to," has the following common uses:—

1. As a notional verb denoting *determination*: as, "He *would* not lie."
2. As a notional verb denoting *custom*. as, "He *would* sit there by the hour."
3. As an auxiliary to express futurity from the standpoint of past time: as, "She said he *would* come."
4. As an auxiliary to form a subjunctive verb-phrase: as, "It *would* be better if we should start now."

222. Can, Must, Ought—*Can*, meaning "to be able;" *must*, meaning "to be obliged," and *ought*, meaning "to

be in duty bound," are sometimes classed as auxiliary verbs, because they are usually followed by an infinitive. But since they always retain their regular meanings, it seems better to class them as notional verbs, with the infinitive as complement.

IX. CONJUGATION

223. Conjugation Defined—It is often convenient to have the different forms of the verb arranged together in regular order.

Definition—The regular arrangement of the forms of a verb in a table or scheme is called its **Conjugation**.

224. Conjugation of "Be"—The irregular verb "be" is conjugated as follows:—

Indicative Mode

Present

I am	We are
You are (Thou art)	You are
He is	They are

Past

I was	We were
You were (Thou wast, or wert)	You were
He was	They were

Future

I shall be	We shall be
You will be (Thou wilt be)	You will be
He will be	They will be

Present Perfect

I have been	We have been
You have been (Thou hast been)	You have been
He has been	They have been

Past Perfect

I had been	We had been
You had been (Thou hadst been)	You had been
He had been	They had been

Future Perfect

I shall have been	We shall have been
You will have been (Thou wilt have been)	You will have been
He will have been	They will have been

Subjunctive Mode *

(Often preceded by "if"

Present

I be	We be
You be (Thou be)	You be
He be	They be

* For subjunctive verb-phrases formed with "may," "might," "should," and "would" see 219-221.

		Past		
I were			We were	
You were (Thou wert)			You were	
He were			They were	
		Present Perfect		
I have been			We have been	
You have been (Thou have been)			You have been	
He have been			They have been	
		Past Perfect		
I had been			We had been	
You had been (Thou had been)			You had been	
He had been			They had been	

Imperative Mode

Present
Be, do be

Infinitives*Root-Infinitives*

Present	Perfect
[To] be	[To] have been

Infinitives in "-ing"

Present	Perfect
Being	Having been

Participles

Present	Past	Perfect
Being	Been	Having been

225. Conjugation of "Call"—The conjugation of the verb "call," which may be taken as a type of all regular verbs, is given below. For the sake of brevity, only the third person singular is given in the indicative and subjunctive, since the other forms may be easily supplied:—

Active Voice**Indicative Mode**

Present	Present Emphatic	Present Progressive
He calls	He does call	He is calling
Past	Past Emphatic	Past Progressive
He called	He did call	He was calling
Future		Future Progressive
He will call		He will be calling
Present Perfect		Present Perfect Progressive
He has called		He has been calling
Past Perfect		Past Perfect Progressive
He had called		He had been calling
Future Perfect		Future Perfect Progressive
He will have called		He will have been calling

Subjunctive Mode *
(Often preceded by "if")

Present
He call
Past
He called
Present Perfect
He have called
Past Perfect
He had called

Present Emphatic
He do call
Past Emphatic
He did call

Present Progressive
He be calling
Past Progressive
He were calling
Present Perfect Progressive
He have been calling
Past Perfect Progressive
He had been calling

Imperative Mode

Present
Call

Present Emphatic
Do call

Present Progressive
Be calling, do be calling

Infinitives

Root Infinitives

Present
[To] call
Perfect
[To] have called

Present Progressive
[To] be calling
Perfect Progressive
[To] have been calling

Infinitives in "-ing"

Present
Calling

Perfect
Having called

Perfect Progressive
Having been calling

Participles

Present
Calling
Perfect
Having called

Past
Called
Perfect Progressive
Having been calling

Passive Voice

Indicative Mode

Present
He is called
Past
He was called

Present Progressive
He is being called
Past Progressive
He was being called

Future

He will be called
Present Perfect
He has been called
Past Perfect
He had been called
Future Perfect
He will have been called

Subjunctive Mode †
(Often preceded by "if.")

Present
He be called
Past
He were called

Past Progressive
He were being called

* For subjunctive verb-phrases formed with "may," "might," "should," and "would" see 219-221.

† For subjunctive verb-phrases formed with "may," "might," "should," and "would" see 219-221.

Present Perfect
He have been called

Past Perfect
He had been called

Present
Be called

Present
[To] be called

Present
Being called

Imperative**Infinitives****Participles**

Past
Called

Present Emphatic
Do be called

Perfect
[To] have been called

Perfect
Having been called

226. How to Parse Verbs—To parse a finite verb (211), we must give its—

- (1) Class: whether transitive or intransitive, strong or weak.
- (2) Principal parts.
- (3) Voice.
- (4) Mode.
- (5) Tense.
- (6) Person.
- (7) Number.
- (8) Construction.

To parse an infinitive or a participle we must give its—

- (1) Class: whether transitive or intransitive, strong or weak.
- (2) Voice.
- (3) Tense.
- (4) Construction.

EXERCISE 190

Parse the verbs and verb-phrases in the following sentences; also the infinitives and participles that are not used with auxiliaries to form verb-phrases:—

1. She watches him as a cat would watch a mouse.
2. What is read twice is commonly better remembered than what is transcribed.
3. A man may write at any time if he will set himself doggedly to it.
4. I am satisfied that the vast majority of the people of Canada are in favour of the continuance and perpetuation of the connection between the Dominion and the Mother Country. There is nothing to gain and everything to lose by separation. I believe that if any party or person were to announce or declare such a thing, whether by annexation with the neighbouring country, the great Republic to the south of us, or by declaring for independence, I believe that the people of Canada would say "No."

—Sir John A. Macdonald

CHAPTER VIII

OF ADVERBS

AN **Adverb** is a word joined by way of limitation to a verb, adjective, or other adverb (88).

Most adverbs are used only with verbs; hence the name "adverb." The adverbs that are joined to adjectives or other adverbs are few in number.

227. Adverbs Classified According to Meaning—Classified according to meaning, adverbs are of six kinds:—

- (1) *Adverbs of time*: as, "Let us go *now*."
- (2) *Adverbs of place*: as, "Come *here*."
- (3) *Adverbs of manner*: as, "He fought *bravely*."
- (4) *Adverbs of degree*: as, "He talks *little*."
- (5) *Adverbs of cause*: as, "*Why* did you come?"
- (6) *Adverbs of assertion*: as, "*Perhaps* I can help you;" "No; you can *not* help me."

"No" and "yes," which are used by themselves as the equivalents of sentences, are classed as adverbs for historical reasons.

EXERCISE 191

Construct sentences illustrating the different kinds of adverbs, classified according to meaning.

228. Adverbs Classified According to Use—Classified according to use, adverbs are of three kinds:—

1. *Limiting Adverbs*, used to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or an adverb: as, "He walked *rapidly*;" "She is *very* pretty, and talks *exceedingly* well."
2. *Interrogative Adverbs*, used to ask questions: as, "*When* did you arrive?" Indirect: "He asked *when* we arrived."
3. *Conjunctive Adverbs*, used to introduce clauses: as, "We went on to Paris, *where* we stayed a week."

Conjunctive adverbs shade off into conjunctions, from which they frequently cannot be distinguished.

EXERCISE 192

Construct sentences illustrating the different kinds of adverbs, classified according to use.

229. Adverbs Classified According to Form—Classified according to form, adverbs are of three kinds:—

1. *Simple Adverbs*, which express their meaning without the aid of an adverbial termination: as, "Come *here*," "That is *too* bad." This class includes nouns and adjectives that are made into adverbs by being set in an adverbial position: as, "He was *stone* dead;" "Pull *hard*."

2. *Flexional Adverbs*, which have distinctive adverbial terminations: as, "You acted *wisely*."

3. *Phrasal Adverbs*, which are idiomatic adverbial phrases that cannot easily be separated into parts. The following are common examples:—

arm-in-arm; as yet; at all; at best; at large; at last; at least; at length; at most; at once; at worst; by all means; by far; face to face; for good; ere long; in general; in short; in vain; now-a-days; of course; of late; of old; on high; one by one; two by two.

The most common form of adverb in literary English is the flexional form in "-ly." It is made freely from all kinds of adjectives except those that already end in "-ly." Adjectives that already end in "-ly," as "lively" and "friendly," usually have no corresponding adverb. We use instead some adverbial phrase: as, "in a friendly way;" "in a lively manner."

Adjectives used as adverbs are frequent in the literature of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries: as, "Then was the king *exceeding* glad" (Dan. vi, 23); "The sea went *dreadful* high" (Robinson Crusoe). They also occur somewhat freely in modern poetry. In modern literary prose they are seldom used, good writers preferring the adverbial forms in "ly," except in a few cases which may be learned by observation: "*Pitch* dark;" "He ran *fast*;" "Come *quick*;" "Stand *right*;" "I bought it *cheap*."

EXERCISE 193

Tell which of the italicised words is correct according to the best usage, and give the reason:—

1. She gets her lessons *easy* (*easily*) enough.
2. Are you coming with us? *Sure* (*surely*).
3. Speak *slow* (*slowly*) and *distinct* (*distinctly*).
4. He could *scarce* (*scarcely*) control his feelings.
5. A person should dress *suitable* (*suitably*) to his station.

230. Comparison of Adverbs—Many adverbs denote ideas that vary in degree, and therefore they admit of comparison, like adjectives (162).

Monosyllabic adverbs (and a few others) usually form their comparative and superlative degrees by adding "-er" and "-est:" as, "Pull *harder*."

Adverbs in “-ly” usually form the comparative and superlative by prefixing “more” and “most:” as, “He felt it *most keenly*.”

In other respects the comparison of adverbs resembles in form and meaning the comparison of adjectives.

EXERCISE 194

Tell which of the italicised expressions is preferable, and give the reason:—

1. I can study *easiest* (*most easily*) in the morning.
2. He writes *plainer* (*more plainly*) than he used to.
3. You ought to value your privileges *higher* (*more highly*).
4. Which can run the *faster* (*fastest*), Conner or Boardman?
5. Which is the *farther* (*farthest*) north, Halifax, Quebec or Vancouver?

231. Adjective or Adverb—It is sometimes a question whether to use an adjective or an adverb after such verbs as “grow,” “look,” “sound,” “smell,” “taste.” If the added word applies to the subject of the verb, it should be an adjective, if to the verb it should be an adverb. We say, “We feel *warm*,” when we mean that we are warm; we say, “We feel *warmly* on this subject,” when we mean that our feelings are stirred up. In the first sentence “warm” is an attribute complement; in the second, “warmly” is a modifier of the verb. As a rule, it is proper to use an adjective whenever the verb resembles in meaning some form of the verb “be” or “seem;” otherwise we use an adverb. Sometimes we may use either adjective or adverb, with no difference in meaning: as, “We arrived *safe* (*safely*).”

EXERCISE 195

1. *Distinguish between:—*

1. That looks *good* (*well*).
2. We found the way *easy* (*easily*).
3. The potatoes are boiling *soft* (*softly*).
4. The new bell-boy appeared *prompt* (*promptly*).

2. *Tell which of the italicised words is correct, and give the reason:—*

1. She plays very *good* (*well*).
2. The door shut *easy* (*easily*).

3. Deal *gentle* (*gently*) with them.
4. How *sweet* (*sweetly*) those blossoms smell!
5. He stood *firm* (*firmly*) in spite of opposition.
6. He felt *awkward* (*awkwardly*) in her presence.
7. She looks *beautiful* (*beautifully*) in a pink gown.

232. Position of Adverbs—Adverbs, like other modifiers, should be placed next to the word or words that they modify.

The word "only" requires special care, as will appear from observing how changes in its position affect the meaning of the following sentences:—

(a) *Only* he lost his hat. (b) He *only* lost his hat. (c) He lost *only* his hat. (d) He lost his *only* hat. (e) He lost his hat *only*.

As a general rule, "only" should be placed immediately before what it is intended to modify. Occasionally, when no ambiguity would arise (as at the end of sentences), it may be placed after the word it modifies, with an emphatic, almost disparaging effect: as, "He lost his hat *only*."

233. Double Negatives—Formerly two or more negative adverbs were frequently used to strengthen one another.

In modern literary English two negatives destroy each other, and are equivalent to an affirmative: as, "I can't do nothing"="I can (and must) do something."

234. Substitutes for Adverbs—The adverbial function may be performed by—

- (1) *A noun*: as, "The book cost a *dollar*:" "We studied an *hour*."
- (2) *A pronoun*: as, "*This* much we may affirm."
- (3) *An adverbial phrase*: as, "He came *on foot*."
- (4) *An adverbial clause*: "They started *when the sun rose*."

235. How to Parse Adverbs—To parse an adverb we must give its—

- (1) Class according to (a) meaning, (b) use, and (c) form.
- (2) Comparison.
- (3) Construction.

EXERCISE 196

Parse the adverbs in Exercise 190.

CHAPTER IX

OF PREPOSITIONS

A **Preposition** is a word placed before a noun or a pronoun to show its relation to some other word (89).

The function of a preposition is to bring a noun or a pronoun into a modifying relation with a noun, a pronoun, an adjective, a verb, or an adverb: as, "The book *on* the table;" "What *in* the world was that?" "I am sorry *for* them;" "We travelled *through* England;" "He stayed out *in* the cold."

236. Prepositions Classified—The following is a classified list* of the prepositions in common use:—

Simple Prepositions

After; at; but; by; down; ere; for; from; in; of; off; on; over; since; through; till; to; under; up; with.

Compound Prepositions

Aboard; about; above; across; against; along; amidst, amid; among, amongst; around, round; aslant; athwart; before; behind; below; beneath; beside, besides; between; betwixt; beyond; despite; into; throughout; toward, towards; underneath; until; unto; upon; within; without.

Prepositions Derived from Verbs

Barring; concerning; during; excepting, except; past; pending; notwithstanding; regarding; respecting; saving, save; touching.

Phrasal Prepositions

According to; apart from; as for; as regards; as to; because of; by means of; by reason of; by way of; for the sake of; in accordance with; in addition to; in case of; in compliance with; in consequence of; in front of; in opposition to; in place of; in preference to; in spite of; instead of; on account of; out of; with regard to.

EXERCISE 197

Construct sentences illustrating the use of such prepositions as the teacher may select.

237. Objects of Prepositions—The substantive following a preposition is called its **Object**, and is in the objective case. It is commonly a noun or a pronoun; but it may be any word or group of words used as a noun: as,

* *To the Teacher*—This list is for reference, not for memorising.

- (1) *Noun*: Come into the garden.
- (2) *Pronoun*: I stood behind him.
- (3) *Adverb*: I never felt it till now.
- (4) *Adjective*: Lift up your eyes on high.
- (5) *Prepositional phrase*: He stepped from behind the tree.
- (6) *Infinitive phrase*: None knew thee but to love thee.
- (7) *Substantive clause*: Listen to what I say.

Used before clauses, prepositions often become indistinguishable from conjunctions: as, "He came *before* I did."

EXERCISE 198

Construct sentences illustrating the different kinds of object that a preposition may have.

238. Prepositional Phrases—A phrase consisting of a preposition and its object, with or without modifiers, is called a **Prepositional Phrase**. If it modifies a noun or a pronoun, it is an **Adjective Phrase**: as, "The wages of sin is death." If it modifies a verb, an adjective, or an adverb, it is an **Adverbial Phrase**: as, "Man shall not live *by bread alone*."

Occasionally a prepositional phrase is used substantively: as, "*Over the fence* is out." In such cases there is really an ellipsis of some word which the prepositional phrase modifies.

EXERCISE 199

Construct two sentences containing adjective prepositional phrases; two containing adverbial prepositional phrases.

239. Position of Prepositions—Ordinarily a preposition, as its name implies, is placed before its object: as, "I sprang *to the window*." Sometimes, however, it is put after its object: as, "*What* are we coming *to*?"

240. Prepositions Used as Adverbs—Some of the simplest prepositions, such as "in," "on," "off," "up," "to," were originally adverbs; and in modern English many of them are used adverbially.

1. Sometimes a preposition is used adverbially as an *inseparable adjunct of the verb*: as, "She carried *off* the prize;" "The people laughed *at* Fulton's steamboat." The adverbial force of such prepositions is shown by the fact that they stay with the verb when the sentences are changed into the passive form: as, "Fulton's steamboat was laughed *at* by the people." From this last sentence it is clear that in the former sentence, "The people

laughed at Fulton's steamboat," "steamboat" is the object, not of the preposition "at," but of the transitive verb "laughed at."

2. Sometimes a preposition becomes an adverb through the omission of its object: as,

It was nothing to joke *about*. (Omission of "which.")

That is all I ask *for*. (Omission of "that.")

241. Special Use of Some Prepositions—Prepositions play a very important part in our language, and have many idiomatic uses. Most of these can be learned only by observing the custom of good speakers and writers. The following notes on some special uses of a few prepositions may prove helpful:—

At, in:—Before names of places to denote "where," *at* is used when the place is viewed as a mere point; *in* is used when the speaker desires to make prominent the idea "within the bounds of:" as, "He arrived *at* Liverpool in the morning and remained *in* that city two days."

Compare to, compare with:—We compare one thing *to* another to show similarity: as, "Burke *compared* the parks of a city *to* the lungs of the body." We compare one thing *with* another to show either similarity or difference, especially difference: as, "Compare our comfort *with* their poverty."

Confide in, confide to:—*Confide in* means "trust in:" as, "In thy protection I *confide*." *Confide to* means "intrust to:" as, "He *confided* the secret *to* his mother."

Differ from, differ with:—We use *differ from* when we refer to unlikeness between objects; when we refer to disagreement in opinion we use either *differ from* or *differ with*: as, "These two books differ entirely *from* each other;" "I differ *from* or *with* the honourable gentleman on that point."

Different from:—According to the best usage the proper preposition after "different" and "differently" is *from*: as, "He is very *different from* his brother."

Like:—*Like*, which is historically an adjective or an adverb, is in some of its uses frequently called a preposition, because it resembles a preposition in function: as, "Quit yourselves *like* men;" "She looks *like* him." Since, however, it admits of comparison, some grammarians prefer to call it, even in these sentences, an adjective or an adverb governing the objective case. Similar remarks apply to some of the uses of *near*.

Of:—*Of* is often used to denote identity; and then the prepositional phrase has the force of an appositive: as, "the city *of* St. John," "the Province *of* Ontario," "the island *of* Newfoundland."

Wait for, wait on:—*Wait for* means "await:" as, "We will *wait for* you at the corner." *Wait on* means "attend;" as, "At dinner the women *waited on* the men."

EXERCISE 200

Fill the following blanks with appropriate prepositions:—

1. The king confided — his ministers.
2. We stayed — London two weeks — the Victoria Hotel.
3. The marriage customs of the Russians are very different—ours.
4. He says that he shall be back in an hour; but we cannot wait — him.
5. He reflected — the conduct — the Government — not supporting him.
6. The conspirators confided the execution of their plot — the youngest of their number.

242. How to Parse Prepositions—To parse a preposition one must give—

- (1) Its object.
- (2) The construction of the phrase which it introduces

EXERCISE 201

Parse the prepositions in Exercise 196.

CHAPTER X

OF CONJUNCTIONS

A **Conjunction** is a word used to connect sentences, phrases, or words (90).

Conjunctions must be carefully distinguished from prepositions and relative pronouns, which are also connecting words. A *preposition* introduces a modifying phrase; a *relative pronoun* stands for a noun with which it connects a modifying clause; a *conjunction* merely connects sentences, phrases, or words that have the same grammatical construction.

Sometimes a conjunction is used at the beginning of a paragraph to connect it with what precedes.

The most important conjunctions are: "and," "as," "although," "though," "because," "but," "for," "however," "if," "lest," "nevertheless," "nor," "or," "since," "still," "than," "that," "therefore," "wherefore," "whether," "unless," "yet."

243. Classification of Conjunctions—Conjunctions may be arranged in two general classes:—

(1) *Coördinating Conjunctions*, which connect words, phrases, or independent sentences: as, "Sink or swim;" "By the people and for the people;" "I ran fast, *but* I missed the train."

(2) *Subordinating Conjunctions*, which introduce dependent clauses: as, "I came *because* you called me;" "Guy is older *than* Lewis [is];" "Galileo taught *that* the earth moves;" "*Unless* it rains, we shall all go."

244. Correlative Conjunctions — Conjunctions are sometimes used in pairs, the first of the pair indicating that something will presently be added: as, "His conduct was *neither* wise *nor* just;" "*Both* John *and* Henry may go with you."

Definition—Conjunctions used in pairs are called **Correlative Conjunctions**.

The most common correlative conjunctions are: "both—and," "either—or," "neither—nor," "whether—or," "not only—but also."

When conjunctions are used as correlatives, as "both—and," "either—or," each of the correlated words should be so placed as to indicate clearly what ideas are to be connected in thought. This principle is violated

in "He *not only* visited Paris, *but* Berlin *also*." In this sentence the position of "not only" before the verb "visited" leads one to expect some corresponding verb in the second part of the sentence; in fact, however, the two connected words are "Paris" and "Berlin;" "visited" applies to both. This meaning is clearly indicated by putting "not only" before "Paris:" thus, "He visited *not only* Paris, *but* Berlin *also*." As a rule, the word after the first correlative should be the same part of speech as the word after the second correlative.

245. Phrasal Conjunctions—The following expressions are best parsed as **Phrasal Conjunctions**:—

as if	as though	as long as	as soon as
as sure as	except that	in case that	in order that
for as much as	provided that		

246. How to Parse Conjunctions—To parse a conjunction we must tell—

- (1) Its class.
- (2) What it connects.

EXERCISE 202

1. Review Exercises 90 and 91.
2. Parse the conjunctions in Exercise 190.

CHAPTER XI

OF INTERJECTIONS

AN **Interjection** is a word used as a sudden expression of feeling, but not forming part of a sentence (91).

247. Classification of Interjections—Interjections may be arranged in three general classes:—

1. *Simple Interjections*, which are never anything else than interjections: as, "Oh!" "eh!" "hurrah!" "pooh!" "psha!" "tut!"

2. *Secondary Interjections*, which are other parts of speech used as interjections: as, "Mercy!" "farewell!" "nonsense!"

3. *Phrasal Interjections*, which are groups of words used as single interjections: as, "Goodness gracious!"

EXERCISE 203

Point out the interjections in Exercise 67.

EXTRACTS FOR ANALYSIS

1. We all feel, I suppose, the pathos of that mythic situation in Homer, where the Greeks at the last throb of battle around the body of Patrocles find the horror of supernatural darkness added to their other foes; feel it through some touch of truth to our own experience how the malignancy of the forces against us may be doubled by their uncertainty and the resultant confusion of one's own mind—blindfold night there too, at the moment when daylight and self-possession are indispensable. (*Pater* : "Gaston de La-tour").

2. Dramatic writers, when the fabulous hero of their play, after having been educated under some poor shepherd ignorant of his true parent, is discovered to be of royal lineage, or the offspring, perhaps, of some celestial divinity, always think it necessary to exhibit the noble youth as still retaining a grateful affection for the honest rustic to whom he had so long supposed himself indebted for his birth; but how much more are these sentiments due to him who has a legitimate claim to his filial tenderness and respect ! (*Cicero* : "Friendship").

3. Suspicions, founded on such circumstances, rushed on Butler's mind, unprepared as it was by any previous course of reasoning to deny that which all of his time, country, and profession believed; but common sense rejected these vain ideas as inconsistent, if not with possibility, at least with the general rules by which the universe is governed,—a deviation from which, as Butler well argued with himself, ought not to be admitted as probable upon any but the plainest and most incontrovertible evidence. (*Sir Walter Scott* : "The Heart of Midlothian").

4. That is a doctrine for a misanthrope; to those who like their fellow creatures it must always be meaningless; and, for my part, I can see few things more desirable, after the possession of such radical qualities as honour and humour and pathos, than to have a lively and not a stolid countenance; to have looks to correspond with every feeling; to be elegant and delightful in person, so that we shall please even in the intervals of active pleasing, and may never discredit speech with uncouth manners or become unconsciously our own burlesques. (*Stevenson* : "Virginibus Puerisque").

5. But now we must admit the shortcomings, the failures, the defects, as no less essential elements in forming a sound judgment as to whether the seer and artist were so united in him as to justify the claim, first put in by himself and afterwards maintained by his sect, to a place beside the few great poets who exalt men's minds, and give a right direction and safe outlet to their passions through the imagination, while insensibly helping them towards balance of

character and serenity of judgment by stimulating their sense of proportion, form, and nice adjustment of means to ends. (*Lowell* : "Among my Books").

6. Observance, loyal concurrence in some high purpose for him, passive waiting on the hand one might miss in the darkness, with the gift of gifts therein of which he had the presentiment, and upon the due acceptance of which the true fortune of life would turn ; these were the hereditary traits alert in Gaston, as he lay awake in the absolute, moon-lit stillness, his outward ear attentive for the wandering footsteps which, through that wide, lightly accentuated country, often came and went about the house, with weird suggestion of a dim passage to and fro, and of an infinite distance. (*Pater* : "Gaston de Latour").

7. As it is not unusual (for I am still speaking of common friendships) that dissensions arise from some extraordinary change of manners or sentiments, or from some contrariety of opinions with respect to public affairs, the parties at variance should be much upon their guard, lest their behaviour toward each other should give the world occasion to remark that they have not only ceased to be cordial friends, but are become inveterate enemies; for nothing is more indecent than to appear in open war with a man with whom one has formerly lived upon terms of familiarity and good fellowship. (*Cicero* : "Friendship").

8. If you look long enough across the sands, while a voice in your ear is telling you of half buried cities, old as time, and wholly unvisited by Sahibs, of districts where the white man is unknown, and of the wonders of far-away Jeysulmir ruled by a half-distraught king, sand-locked and now smitten by a terrible food and water famine, you will, if it happen that you are of a sedentary and civilised nature, experience a new emotion—will be conscious of a great desire to take one of the lolling camels and get away into the desert, away from the last touch of To-day, to meet the Past face to face. (*Kipling* : "From Sea to Sea").

9. In pursuing her solitary journey, our heroine, soon after passing the house of Dumbiedikes, gained a little eminence, from which, on looking to the eastward, down a prattling brook, whose meanders were shaded with straggling willows and alder-trees, she could see the cottages of Woodend and Beersheba, the haunts and habitation of her early life, and could distinguish the common on which she had so often herded sheep, and the recesses of the rivulet where she had pulled rushes with Butler, to plait crowns and sceptres for her sister Effie, then a beautiful, but spoiled child, of about three years old. (*Sir Walter Scott* : "The Heart of Midlothian.")

10. Railways, which bring together, easily and often, people who used to spend the greater portion of their lives apart; cheap postage, which relieves a man from any serious responsibility for what he writes,—the most insignificant scrawl seems worth the

stamp he puts on it; the hurried, restless pace at which we live, each day filled to the brim with things which are hardly so important as we think them, and which have cost us the old rich hours of leisurely thought and inaction,—these are the forces which have conspired to destroy the letter, and to crown into its place that usurping and unprofitable little upstart called the note. (*Replier* : “Essays in Idleness”).

11. When you have given yourself the titles of a man of goodness and modesty, of truth and prudence, of resignation and magnanimity, take care that your practice answers to your character, and if any of those glorious names are lost in your mismanagement, recover them as soon as you can : remembering withal, that prudence implies consideration, care, and discriminating enquiry ; that to be resigned signifies a cheerful compliance with the allotments of universal nature; that magnanimity imports a superiority of the reasoning part to the pleasure and pain of the body, to glory and death, and all those things which people are either fond or afraid of. (*Marcus Aurelius*).

12. Until we are able to believe, with that enthusiastic Greek scholar, Mr. Butcher, that ‘intellectual training is an end in itself, and not a mere preparation for a trade or a profession’; until we begin to understand that there is a leisure which does not mean an easy sauntering through life, but a special form of activity, employing all our faculties, and training us to the adequate reception of whatever is most valuable in literature and art; until we learn to estimate the fruits of self-culture at their proper worth, we are still far from reaping the harvest of three centuries of toil and struggle; we are still as remote as ever from the serenity of intellectual accomplishment. (*Replier* : “Essays in Idleness”).

13. You may safely go to school with hope; but ere you marry, should have learned the mingled lesson of the world: that dolls are stuffed with sawdust, and yet are excellent playthings; that hope and love address themselves to a perfection never realised, and yet, firmly held, become the salt and staff of life; that you yourself are compacted of infirmities, perfect, you might say, in imperfection, and yet you have a something in you lovable and worth preserving; and that, while the mass of mankind lies under this scurvy condemnation, you will scarce find one but, by some generous reading, will become to you a lesson, a model, and a noble spouse through life. (*Stevenson* : “*Virginibus Puerisque*”).

14. Though we have heard a great deal, Athenians! in almost every assembly, of those acts of violence which Philip hath been committing, ever since his treaty, not against ours only, but the other states of Greece; though all (I am confident) are ready to acknowledge, even they who fail in the performance, that we should every one of us exert our efforts, in council and in action, to oppose and to chastise his insolence; yet to such circumstances are you reduced by your supineness that I fear (shocking as it is to

say,) that, had we all agreed to propose, and you to embrace such measures, as would most effectually ruin our affairs, they could not have been more distressed than at present. (*Demosthenes* : "The Third Philippic").

15. Jeanie could not help comparing the irregular yet extensive and commodious pile of building before us, to the "Manse," in her own country, where a set of penurious inheritors, professing all the while the devotion of their lives and fortunes to the Presbyterian establishment, strain their inventions to discover what may be nipped, and clipped, and pared from a building which forms but a poor accommodation even from the present incumbent, and, despite the superior advantage of stone masonry, must, in the course of forty or fifty years, again burthen their descendants with an expense, which, once liberally and handsomely employed, ought to have freed their estates from a recurrence of it for more than a century at least. (*Sir Walter Scott* : "The Heart of Midlothian").

16. We appeal to anyone who is acquainted with the common run of Lanes' novels—as they existed some twenty or thirty years back—those scanty intellectual viands of the whole female reading public, till a happier genius arose, and expelled for ever the in-nutritious phantoms—whether he has not found his brain more 'betossed,' his memory more puzzled, his sense of when and where more confounded, among the improbable events, the incoherent incidents, the inconsistent characters, or no characters, of some third-rate love intrigue, where the persons shall be a Lord Glen-damour and a Miss Rivers, and the scene only alternate between Bath and Bond Street—a more bewildering dreaminess induced upon him than he has felt wandering over all the fairy grounds of Spencer. (*Charles Lamb* : "Last Essays of Elia").

17. So far as the sight and knowledge of the human form, of the purest race, exercised from infancy constantly, but not excessively, in all exercises of dignity, not in twists and straining dexterities, but in natural exercises of running, casting, or riding; practised in endurance, not of extraordinary hardship, for that hardens and degrades the body, but of natural hardship, vicissitudes of winter and summer, and cold and heat, yet in a climate where none of these are severe; surrounded also by a certain degree of right luxury, so as to soften and refine the forms of strength; so far as the sight of this could render the mental intelligence of what is right in human form so acute as to be able to abstract and combine from the best examples so produced that which was most perfect in each, so far the Greek conceived and attained the ideal of bodily form. (*Ruskin* : "Sculpture").

18. It is also their blessing that my children were neither stupid nor misshapen; that I made no farther advances in rhetoric, poetry and such other amusements, which possibly might have engaged my fancy too far, had I found myself a considerable proficient; that, without asking, I gave my governors that share of honour which they seemed to desire, and did not put them off from time

to time with promises and excuses, because they were yet but young; that I had the happiness of being acquainted with Apollonius, Rusticus, and Maximus; that I have a clear idea of the life in accordance with nature, and the impression frequently refreshed: so that, considering the extraordinary assistance and directions of the gods, it is impossible for me to miss the road of nature unless by refusing to be guided by the dictates and almost sensible inspirations of heaven. (*Marcus Aurelius*).

19. My companion saw my embarrassment, and, the alms houses beyond Shoreditch just coming in view, with great good-nature and dexterity shifted his conversation to the subject of public charities, which led to the comparative merits of provision for the poor in past and present times, with observations on the old monastic institutions and charitable orders; but finding me rather dimly impressed with some glimmering notions from old poetic associations, than strongly fortified with any speculations reducible to calculation on the subject, he gave the matter up; and the country beginning to open more and more upon us, as we approached the turnpike at Kingsland (the destined termination of his journey), he put a home-thrust upon me, in the most unfortunate position he could have chosen, by advancing some queries relative to the North Pole Expedition. (*Charles Lamb*: "The Essays of Elia").

20. Then let us pass further towards the north, until we see the orient colours change gradually into a vast belt of rainy green, where the pastures of Switzerland, and poplar valleys of France, and dark forests of the Danube and Carpathians stretch from the mouths of the Loire to those of the Volga, seen through clefts in gray swirls of rain-cloud and flaky veils of the mist of the brooks, spreading low along the pasture lands, and then, farther north still, to see the earth heave into mighty masses of leaden rock and heathy moor, bordering with a broad waste of gloomy purple that belt of field and wood, and splintering into irregular and grisly islands amidst the northern seas, beaten by storm, and chilled by ice-drift, and tormented by furious pulses of contending tide, until the roots of the last forests fail from among the hill ravines, and the hunger of the north wind bites their peaks into barrenness, and, at last, the wall of ice durable like iron, sets, death-like, its white teeth against us out of the polar twilight. (*Ruskin*: "Architecture").

21. The powers of sudden destruction lurking in the woods and waters, in the rocks and clouds; kelpie and gnome, Lurlei and Hartz spirits; the wraith and foreboding phantom; the spectra of second sight; the various conceptions of avenging or tormented ghost, haunting the perpetrator of crime, or expiating its commission; and the half fictitious and contemplative, half visionary and believed images of the presence of death itself, doing its daily work in the chambers of sickness and sin, and waiting for its hour in the fortalices of strength and the high places of pleasures; these partly degrading us by the instinctive and paralysing terror with which they are attended, and partly ennobling us by leading our thoughts to dwell in the

eternal world, fill the last and the most important circle in that great kingdom of dark and distorted power, of which we all must be in some sort the subjects until mortality shall be swallowed up of life; until the waters of the last fordless river cease to roll their untransparent volume between us and the light of heaven, and neither death stand between us and our brethren, nor symbols between us and our God. (*Ruskin*: "Architecture").

22. Stand for half an hour beside the fall of Schaffhausen, on the north side where the rapids are long, and watch how the vault of water first bends, unbroken, in pure, polished velocity, over the arching rocks at the brow of the cataract, covering them with a dome of crystal twenty feet thick—so swift that its motion is unseen except when a foam globe from above darts over it like a falling star; and how the trees are lighted above it under their leaves at the instant that it breaks into foam; and how all the hollows of that foam burn with green fire like so much shattering chrysoprase; and how, ever and anon, startling you with its white flash, a jet of spray leaps hissing out of the fall like a rocket, bursting in the wind and driven away in dust, filling the air with light; and how, through the curling wreaths of the restless, crashing abyss below, the blue of the water, paled by the foam in its body, shows purer than the sky through white rain-cloud; while the shuddering iris stoops in tremulous stillness over all, fading and flushing alternately through the choking spray and shattered sunshine, hiding itself at last among the thick golden leaves which toss to and fro in sympathy with the wild water; their dripping masses lighted at intervals, like sheaves of loaded corn, by some stronger gust from the cataract, and bowed again upon the mossy rocks as its roar dies away; the dew gushing from their thick branches through drooping clusters of emerald herbage, and sparkling in white threads along the dark rocks of the shore, feeding the lichens which chase and checker them with purple and silver. (*Ruskin*: "Water")

23. But so far as the higher education has a tendency to narrow the sympathies and harden the heart, diminishing the interests of all beautiful things by familiarity, until even what is best can hardly please, and what is brightest hardly entertain;—so far as it fosters pride, and leads men to found the pleasure they take in anything, not on the worthiness of the thing, but on the degree in which it indicates some greatness of their own (as people build marble porticoes, and inlay marble floors, not so much because they like the colours of marble, or find it pleasant to the foot, as because such porches and floors are costly, and separated in all human eyes from plain entrances of stone and timber);—so far as it leads people to prefer gracefulness of dress, manner, and aspect, to value of substance and heart, liking a well *said* thing better than a true thing, and a well trained manner better than a sincere one, and a delicately formed face better than a good-natured one, and in all other ways and things setting custom and semblance above everlasting truth;—so far, finally, as it induces a sense of inherent distinction between class

and class, and causes everything to be more or less despised which has no social rank, so that the affection, pleasure, or grief of a clown are looked upon as of no interest compared with the affection and grief of a well-bred man;—just so far, in all these several ways, the feeling induced by what is called a “liberal education” is utterly adverse to the understanding of noble art; and the name which is given to the feeling,—taste, goût, gusto,—in all languages, indicates the baseness of it, for it implies that art gives only a kind of pleasure analogous to that derived from eating by the palate. (*Ruskin: “Sculpture”*).

24. I will not, therefore, admit the inference or the argument, that because a people, bred under a proud, insolent, and grinding despotism, maddened by the recollection of former injuries, and made savage by the observation of former cruelties; a people in whose minds no respect for property or law ever could have existed, because property never had been secured to them, and law had never protected them; a people separated and divided into classes by the strongest and harshest lines of distinction, generating envy and smothered malice in the lower ranks, and pride and insolence in the higher; that the actions of such a people at any time, much less in the hour of frenzy and fury, provoked and goaded by the arms and menaces of the surrounding despots that assailed them, should furnish an inference or ground on which to estimate the temper, character, or feelings of the people of Great Britain; of a people who though sensible of many abuses which disfigure the constitution, were yet not insensible to its many and invaluable blessings; a people who revered the laws of their country, because those laws shielded and protected all alike; a people among whom all that was advantageous in private acquisition, all that was honourable in public ambition, was equally open to the efforts, the industry and the abilities of all; among whom progress and rise in society and public estimation was an ascending slope, as it were, without a break or landing-place, among whom no sullen line of demarcation separated and cut off the several orders from each other, but all was one blended tint, from the deepest shade that veiled the meanest occupations of laborious industry to the brightest hue that glittered in the luxurious pageantry of title, wealth and power. (*Richard Brinsley Sheridan: “Contrast between the French and English Nations”*).

25. Beyond the dusky cornfields, towards the west,
Dotted with farms, beyond the shallow stream,
Through drifts of elm with quiet peep and gleam,
Curved white and slender as a lady's wrist,
Faint and far off out of the autumn mist,
Even as a pointed jewel softly set
In clouds of colour warmer, deeper yet,
Crimson and gold and rose and amethyst
Towards dayset, where the journeying sun grown old
Hangs lowly westward darker now than gold
With the soft sun-touch of the yellowing hours

Made lovelier, I see with dreaming eyes,
 Even as a dream out of a dream, arise
 The bell-tongued city with its glorious towers.

(*Lampman*: "The City").

26. Against that time, if ever that time come,
 When I shall see thee frown on my defects,
 When as thy love hath cast his utmost sum,
 Call'd to that audit by advised respects;
 Against that time when thou shalt strangely pass,
 And scarcely greet me with that sun, thine eye,
 When love, converted from the thing it was,
 Shall reasons find of settled gravity;
 Against that time do I ensconce me here
 Within the knowledge of mine own desert,
 And this my hand against myself uprear,
 To guard the lawful reasons on thy part:
 To leave poor me thou hast the strength of laws,
 Since why to love I can allege no cause.

(*Shakespeare*: "Sonnet 49").

27. Of Man's first disobedience, and the fruit
 Of that forbidden tree, whose mortal taste
 Brought Death into the world, and all our woe,
 With loss of Eden, till one greater Man
 Restore us, and regain the blissful seat,
 Sing Heavenly Muse, that on the secret top
 Of Oreb, or of Sinai, didst inspire
 That shepherd, who first taught the chosen seed,
 In the beginning how the Heav'ns and Earth
 Rose out of Chaos: or if Sion hill
 Delight thee more, and Siloa's brook that flow'd
 Fast by the oracle of God; I thence
 Invoke thy aid to my adventurous song,
 That with no middle flight intends to soar
 Above th' Aonian mount, while it pursues
 Things unattempted yet in prose or rime.

(*Milton*: "Paradise Lost," Bk. I).

28. Tho' all men else their nobler dreams forget,
 Confused by brainless mobs and lawless Powers,
 Thank Him who isled us here, and roughly set
 His Briton in blown seas and storming showers,
 We have a voice, with which to pay the debt
 Of boundless love and reverence and regret
 To those great men who fought, and kept it ours,
 And keep it ours, O God, from brute control!
 O Statesmen, guard us, guard the eye, the soul
 Of Europe, keep our noble England whole,
 And save the one true seed of freedom sown
 Betwixt a people and their ancient throne,
 That sober freedom out of which there springs
 Our loyal passion for our temperate kings;

For, saving that, ye help to save mankind
 Till public wrong be crumbled into dust,
 And drill the raw world for the march of mind,
 Till crowds at length be sane and crowns be just.
 (Tennyson: "Ode on the Death
 of the Duke of Wellington").

29. Cedars, that high upon the untrodden slopes
 Of Lebanon stretch out their stubborn arms,
 Through all the tempests of seven hundred years
 Fast in their ancient place, where they look down
 Over the Syrian plains and faint blue sea,
 Where snow for three days and three nights hath fall'n
 Continually, and heaped those terraced boughs
 To massy whiteness, still in fortitude
 Maintain their aged strength, although they groan;
 In such a wintriness of majesty,
 O'ersnowed by his uncounted years, and scarce
 Supporting that hard load, yet not o'ercome,
 Was Adam: all his knotted thews were shrunk,
 Hollow his massy thighs, toward which his beard,
 Pale as the stream of far-seen waterfalls,
 Hung motionless; betwixt the shoulders grand
 Bowed was the head, and dim the gaze; and both
 His heavy hands lay on his marble knees.
 (Laurence Binyon: "The Death of Adam."
 From "The Monthly Review").

30. And even in saying this,
 Her memory from old habit of the mind
 Went slipping back upon the golden days
 In which she saw him first, when Lancelot came,
 Reputed the best knight and goodliest man,
 Ambassador, to yield her to his Lord
 Arthur, and led her forth, and far ahead
 Of his and her retinue moving, they,
 Rapt in sweet talk or lively, all on love
 And sport and tilts and pleasure, (for the time
 Was Maytime, and as yet no sin was dream'd,)
 Rode under groves that look'd a paradise
 Of blossom, over sheets of hyacinth
 That seem'd the heavens unbreaking thro' the earth,
 And on from hill to hill, and every day
 Beheld at noon in some delicious dale
 The silk pavilions of King Arthur raised
 For brief repast or afternoon repose
 By courtiers gone before; and on again,
 Till yet once more ere set of sun they saw
 The Dragon of the great Pendragonship
 That crown'd the state pavilion of the King,
 Blaze by the rushing brook or silent well.
 (Tennyson: "Idylls of the King").

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