## SWEDISH GRAMMAR

## A. LOUIS ELMQUIST

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## ELEMENTARY

## SWEDISH GRAMMAR

BY<br>A. LOUIS ELMQUIST<br>Northwestern University

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## PREFACE.

Under present conditions the chief aim of one writing a Swedish grammar from the point of view of Englishspeaking persons should be to give an accurate and clear statement of the facts. The question of this or that modern method must as yet, at least, remain secondary. Moreover, the presentation as well as the contents must be such that the grammar can be used to the fullest advantage by students with very different qualifications.

This book has been written to meet the point of view of the student who knows nothing at all about Swedish, no previous knowledge of the language being taken for granted. As a matter of fact, however, the book will be used largely by students already able to understand simple Swedish. It has therefore seemed unnecessary to lay so much stress on the translation exercises as it would otherwise perhaps have been well to do. Those already able to read Swedish will naturally begin at once reading the available text-editions in connection with their work in the grammar. For these, also, reproduction in connection with this reading, and original composition, will be most profitable.

The grammatical material has with few exceptions been presented connectedly (see page 14). This will make possible the acquisition of a clear view of the entire subject, and will facilitate reference. In many cases the long lessons will have to be divided; in connection with the reading in the text-editions this will present no difficulty.

I want to call special attention to the material given under the headings PRONUNCIATION, ORTHOGRAPHY, ACCENT and COLLOQUIALISMS. A considerable part of this will in perliaps most cases be used to the greatest advantage in connection with a review or a more advanced study of the grammar. The book is so constructed that there is no need of including any part of this in the first study of the book. It is my hope, however, that users of the book will at all times draw abundantly from the important material therein contained.

Under the heading PRONUNCIATION in each lesson are listed the words from that lesson that are likely to give difficulty, particularly to non-Swedes. Reference is usually made to the introduction on pronunciation, or to my Phonology. I think it is desirable for students who already speak the language to acquire a real knowledge of the rules of Swedish pronunciation. This could not have been accomplished so well by the use of phonetic transcription, which I might otherwise have employed, had the types been available. The introduction on pronunciation, too, has been so constructed that it should invite real acquisition rather than a purely formal survey. My Phonology of the Swedish Language, a book of about fifty pages that will be published before January, 1915, goes into the subject in more detail, still dealing only with essential things. I retain in the introduction on sounds the customary terms "hard" and "soft" vowels, notwithstanding the expressed preference on the part of some for the terms "back" and "front". The use of these latter terms in the connection in which "hard" and "soft" are used would be incorrect in treating of the modern language (see Noreen, Värt Sprảk, Vol. I, page 389). Owing to a misunderstanding it be-
came impossible to use anywhere the customary mark of the grave accent in marking the irregular position of the stress. My use of the sign' therefore does not necessarily signify the acute accent; it simply marks the position of the stress. I have relegated to the Phonology all mention of the differences between the older and the new orthography.

In the attention given to ACCENT (acute and grave) in each lesson, I hope I have made this difficult subject more accessible than heretofore. In connection with this detail the brief account given in the introduction should be thoroughly mastered. A considerably more complete treatment of accent will be found in my Phonology. Owing to the great lack of uniformity in accentual matters in Sweden there will in some instances, no doubt, be differences of opinion. I have in no case either in the matter of accent or pronunciation, nor, indeed, anywhere else in the grammar given preference to my own local inclinations.

Another radical departure from all other similar works is in the attention I have given to the spoken language. It cannot be emphasized too strongly to persons also speaking English that it is in a great many details incorrect in speaking Swedish to use the language of the books. On the other hand it is not incorrect to use the colloquialisms in speaking to anybody. Notwithstanding the urgent suggestion of eminent scholars that I use the terms "higher style" and "lower style", I have decided to retain the terms "spoken language" and "written language". This I have done because I am convinced that the terms chosen are pedagogically better under existing conditions among users of the language of our country. I have wanted to say to the student: "This
is the language you will find in the books, but that is the way you'll have to talk." The American would hesitate to use a form of speech said to be lower stylistically. There is at present in Sweden a growing tendency to use more of the characteristics of the spoken language in the written. Among the best writers I would call attention especially to Selma Lagerlöf in this connection, particularly in the recent revised edition of her works (for text-editions, see Appendix V). No small amount of the material mentioned under colloquialisms in this grammar is frequently found also in books. While I have in many instances called attention to this, my failure to do so must not be taken to mean that the word, form or construction in question does not occur also in the written language. In the case of colloquial matters pertaining only to certain sections of the country, I have not aimed in every case to specify the locality. No teacher will want, perhaps, to emphasize all the colloquialisms mentioned; this is particularly true of local matters of the kind just referred to, none of which, however, is to be avoided as dialectical by persons already using them. For persons not using them I can, on the other hand, see no reason for striving to acquire them. It should be found a valuable exercise to have students recast into colloquial form Swedish of a more literary style of composition. In dealing with matters stylistic $I$ have practically ignored archaic, poetical and dialectical details.

One should not lose sight of the fact, then, that the Swedish-American has no little difficulty in distinguishing between spoken and written Swedish. In speaking Swedish he has, however, two further difficulties: (i) In most cases his parents while in Sweden used a form of Swedish that was rather dialectical, and the Swedish-

American is therefore likely to reveal dialectical traits to an extent to which persoñs in Sweden who are in similar circumstances to those that he is now in would not do it. But there are (I state this emphatically) not a few localisms - usages covering a large or important area - which are entirely permissible, and in no way objectionable. Most cultured Swedes speak a form of Swedish that is colored and enriched with such localisms, and which usually reveals the locality from which they come. (2) American Swedes have allowed the language of this country to influence their Swedish in three leading directions: (a) pronunciation, in that they to a large extent substitute American-English sounds for the corresponding Swedish ones, and tend to use the acute accent in all words; (b) vocabulary, in that they to a large extent substitute American-English words for Swedish words; (c) idiom, in that they transfer or translate American-English idioms directly into Swedish. In Sweden such speech must clearly be avoided. For a bibliography on this subject, see Appendix V.

The following friends I herewith thank heartily for their kindness in reading the proofs and offering many valuable suggestions: Professor Adolf Noreen and Docent Olof Östergren of the University of Upsala, Professor Jules Mauritzson of Augustana College, Professor George T. Flom of the University of Illinois, Dr. Lee M. Hollander of the University of Wisconsin, Professor Louis Baker of Lawrence College, President David Nyvall of North Park College, Professor Gustav A. Peterson of Bethany College, Professor Albert E. Egge of the State College of Washington, Professor Joseph Alexis of the University of Nebraska, Mr. Carl O. Sundstrom of the Lake View High School, Chicago, Mr. E. W. Olson of

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A. LOUIS ELMQUIST

Evanston, Illinois,
January, 1914.

## CONTENTS.

Note. - Besides the usual vocabularies and exercises, each lesson contains, in addition to the contents as given below, a discussion of ORTHOGRAPHY, PRONUNCIATION, ACCENT (acute and grave), and COLLOQUIALISMS, based on the material contained in each lesson.

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## PRONUNCIATION.

Note. - For a more complete account of Swedish pronunciation the student is referred to the author's Phonology (see the announcement in the preface of this book); reference is frequently made to this work in the grammar.

## THE ALPHABET.

1. The Swedish alphabet is the same as the English, with the addition of the three vowel-characters $\dot{a}, \bar{a}, \bar{b}$ (capitals, $\dot{A}, \vec{A}, \ddot{O}$ ) after $z$. In Swedish, $y$ is used only as a vowel. $Q$ and $w$ occur only in proper names; $z$, only in proper names and in a few words of foreign origin. For the names of the letters of the alphabet see $\S 20$.

## STRESS.

2. The first syllable has the main stress, with the following principal exceptions:
(1) Very many words of foreign origin; as, april ${ }^{r}$ April, tea'ter theater.
(2) Words with the prefixes be-, ge- and (usually) for-, which are stressed on the syllable following the prefix; as, berätta relate, gevär weapon, försö'ka try.
(3) Verbs ending in era and nouns ending in -inna, eessa' stress the first syllable of these endings; as, stude'ra study, lärarin'na (woman) teacher, prinses'sa princess.
(4) Nouns ending in -eri stress the last syllable; as, bageri' bakery.
(5) Some adjectives of more than two syllables ending in -lig, and many ending in -isk, stress the syllable immediately preceding; as, egen'tlig real, poli'tisk political, mora'lisk moral.
(6) Many native compounds stress some syllable other than the first; as, densam'ma the same, kanhän'da perlaps, varan'dra each other, ány'o anew, farvä'l farewell, tillba'ka back, átmin'stone at least, omin'tetgöra defeat, frustrate, Götebor'g Gothenburg, Karlskro'na.

Note. - In this grammar the position of the stress is indicated whenever it rests on some syllable other than the first; the stress-mark is placed after the long sound ( see § 7).

## ACCENT.

3. Accent is a combination of various phases of stress and tone. In pronouncing an English word of two syllables, let us say "houses", the second syllable, besides having much weaker stress, has either lower or higher tone than the first. Similarly, during the pronunciation of a monosyllabic word, as "house", the voice either sinks or rises. Swedish words accented as in English are said to have the acute accent. But Swedish has another very different kind of accent called the grave accent.
4. Swedish employs three different tones: high, middle, low. Dissyllabic words having the acute accent have high tone on the first syllable, and low tone on the second; the second syllable has the weakest stress possible. Dissyllabic words having the grave accent begin with the middle tone and sink to the low tone on the first syllable, rising to the high tone on the second syllable; the second syllable has a degree of stress noticeably stronger than that of the corresponding syllable of words with the acute accent.

Trisyllables with the acute accent have high tone on the first syllable, and low tone on each of the other two; trisyllables with the grave accent have middle tone on the first syllable, low tane on the second, and high tone on the third. Trisyllables, whether they have the acute or the grave accent, have on the second syllable the weakest stress possible, and on the third syllable a degree of stress noticeably stronger.

Words not stressed on the first syllable have accentual conditions identical with those described, beginning with the syllable that has the main stress. All syllables preceding the main stress have low tone, whether the rest of the word has the acute or the grave accent; if there is only one syllable preceding, it has the weakest stress possible; if there are two, the syllable immediately preceding the main stress has the weakest stress possible, while the first syllable has a degree of stress noticeably stronger.
5. Swedish employs the acute accent in monosyllables (as stol chair, sjon the lake), and the grave accent in words and forms of two or more syllables (as stolar chairs, tala speak, talade spoke). However, by exception, the acute accent is used also in a number of words and forms of two or more syllables; namely,
(i) Most words of foreign origin, whether stressed on the first syllable or on some other; also many native words not stressed on the first syllable. Examples: juni June, genus gender, koffert trunk, tea'ter theater, berät'ta relate, stude'ra study, egen'tlig real, poli'tisk political, tillba'ka back.
(2) Most words ending in -el, -en, -er; as, aker field, fágel bird, vatten water, vacker pretty, simpel simple, över over, eller or.
(3) The following inflectional forms: (a) The pres. sing. ind. act. ending in -er; as, köper buys. (b) Plurals of the Third Deciension that have modified or shortened the vowel; as, händer, plur. of hand hand; getter, plur. of get goat. (c) Most comparatives ending in -re; as, hogre higher. (d) The definite form of all nouns and forms of nouns having the acute accent; as, stolen, def. of stol (acute accent); händerna, def. of händer (acute) hands; kofferten, def. of koffert (acute) trunk.

## QUANTITY.

6. Stressed vowels are long if final or if followed by only one consonant, but short if followed by more than one consonant. All unstressed rowels are short. Ex.: (Long) se see, tal speech, tala (first vowel) speak. (Short) tall pine, fast firm, falsk false, tallar pines, tala (second vowel) speak, gosse boy.
Note. - I. All vowels followed by a single $j$ or $x$ are short, and very often vowels followed by final $m$ or $n ; i$ is short in the endings -ikel, -ipel, -itel; moreover, in a few individual words the vowel is short, though followed by only one consonant. Ex.: nej (usually a dipthong; cf. § 12) no, sex six, hem home, han he, artik'el article, kapit'el chapter, titel title, april' April, döma judge, frukost breakfast, hade ( $a$ usually short) had.
7. Vowels followed by $r d, r l, r n$ and (in a few cases) by $r t$ are long; for examples see $\S \mathrm{I}_{3}, 3$. In cases like brunt, n. of brun brown, vägs, gen. of väg road, and lekte, past tense of leka play, where the second consonant belongs to an inflectional ending added to a word with a long vowel, the vowel remains long, unless the addition of the ending results in a double consonant (as vit white, n. vitt; möta meet, past tense mötte; leda lead, past tense ledde).
8. In Swedish, consonants, like vowels, may be long or short. The long consonant-sound is particularly noticeable when occurring between two vowels; as, falla fall, mamma mamma, hattar hats.

All consonants not following immediately upon the stressed vowel are short. The consonant (if there is one) following immediately upon the stressed vowel is long if the vowel is short, but short if the vowel is long.

## VOWELS.

Note. - Long vowels in Swedish do not have the vanish so common in English. Moreover, vowels retain their natural sound before $r$.
8. The vowels $a, u, \dot{a}, \dot{b}$ have a different quality of sound when long and when short.
(1) a. Long $a$ has a sound between that of the stressed vowels in "father" and "saw". Ex.: av of, off, hat hate, bra well, tala (first a) speak.

Short $a=$ the first "a" in "aha". Ex.: att that, hatt hat, tala (second a) speak, tacka thank.

Note. - Special care should be taken to pronounce clearly unstressed $a$, which is very common in endings.
(2) u. Long $u$ has no English equivalent. Placing the tongue in position for the beginning of "a" in "ate", round the lips (without protrusion) so that they are almost closed. Ex.: ut out, hus house.

Short $u$ almost $=$ the final vowel in "value", minus the y-sound. Ex.: kung king, honung honey.

Note.-Swedish $u$ never begins with the sound of Eng. consonantal " $y$ ", as in English "use", "unite"; as, universite't university, musi'k music, muse'um museum.
(3) å. Long $\dot{a}$ almost $=$ the beginning of " $o$ " in "rope". Ex.: gá go, bảt boat.

Short $a=$ "o"' in "obey". Ex.: lảng long, gått gone.
(4) $\mathbf{0}$. Long $\bar{o}=$ "ö'" in German "böse". Placing the tongue in position for Swedish $e$ (see § 9, i a), round the lips as for "o"' in "rope". Ex.: dö die, söt sweet, öga eye.

Short $\ddot{a}=$ "ö"' in German "Götter". Placing the tongue in position for Swedish $\vec{a}$ (see § 9, 5), round the lips as for "oo" in "book". Ex.: dött died, sött (n.) sweet, öppen open.
9. The vowels $e, i, o$ (when not $=a$ ), $y, \vec{a}$ have the same quality of sound when long as when short. $O$ is used also to represent the $\tilde{\alpha}$-sound; $e$, also to represent the $\bar{a}$-sound.
(i) e. a) $E$ has a sound between that of the vowels of "hit" and of "hate". Ex.: het hot, se see; hett (n.) hot, sett seen, begri'pa understand.
b) Unstressed (short) $e$ in endings $=$ " $e$ " in German "Gabe". Ex.: gosse boy, vatten water, vacker pretty, fagel bird, finnes is found.
c) Short $e$ very often, long $e$ rarely, has the sound of $\ddot{a}$ (see §9, 5). Ex.: denna this, eller or, sex six, septem'ber (the first two $e$ 's) September; med with, det that, erfara experience.
(2) $\mathbf{i} . \quad I=$ " $\mathfrak{i}$ " in "police". Ex.: $i$ in, liv life, fri free; sitta sit, fritt (n.) free, in in, juli July.
(3) o. a) $O$ almost $=$ "oo" in "shoot". Ex.: god good, bo live; bodde lived, hon she.
b) Short $o$ very often, long $o$ frequently, $=\mathfrak{a}$. Ex.: ofta often, gott (n.) good, doktor doctor; son son, sova sleep, katalo'g catalog.
(4) $\mathbf{y}$. This almost $=$ " $\mathfrak{u}$ " ' in German "über", but is closer to Swedish $i$. Placing the tongue in position for "ee" in "see", round the lips as for "oo" in "book". Ex.: sy sew, ny new, frysa freeze; nytt (n.) new, lyfta lift, syster sister.
(5) ä. This almost $=$ "ai" in "air". Ex.: är is, läsa read, rät straight; sätta put, rätt (n.) straight.
10. hard and soft vowels. The vowels are divided into: (a) hard vowels: $a, o, u, a$, ; (b) soft vowels: $e, i, y, \vec{a}, \ddot{b}$.
11. vOWEL-MODIFICATION. In a number of instances we find related forms lhaving in one case hard vowels, in the other soft vowels; this change from hard to soft vowels is known as vowel-modification (or mutation). Compare Eng. man, men; mouse, mice.

In Swedish, $a$ and $\dot{a}$, when modified, become $\ddot{a}$; o becomes $\overline{0} ; u$ becomes $y$. Such an interchange of hard and soft vowels occurs: (a) between the singular and the plural of some nouns; as man man, plur. män; gàs goose, plur. gäss; bok book, plur. b̈öcker; (b) between the positive and the comparative and superlative in a few adjectives; as, stor large, större, störst; ung young, yngre, yngst; (c) between the past tense and the infinitive of a few verbs; as, valde, past tense of välja choose; sälde, past tense of sälja sell.

## DIPHTHONGS.

12. Swedish lias few diphthongs, and these primarily in words of foreign origin. Ex.: nej (pron. näj) no, maj May, pojke boy, höjd height, augus'ti ( $=$ "ou" in "house") August, reumatis' $m$ (in this word $e u=\bar{o} j$ ) rheumatism.

## CONSONANTS.

13. The following consonants differ in sound from the corresponding English sounds:
(1) Swedish $r$ is very unlike our usual American ' r '"; it is trilled, resembling " $r$ " in "three". Ex.: fara go, er your, förr before.
(2) The dentals ( $d, t, l, n, s$ ) are made a little farther forward toward the teeth than in English, and
usually with the blade of the tongue; in the case of $l$, moreover, the tongue is not hollowed. Ex.: $d u$ you, tala speak, dal valley, nu now, så so.
(3) The combinations $r d, r t, r l, r n, r s$ represent simply another kind of $d, t, l, n, s$, made with the tip of the tongue, farther back than Eng. d, $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{1}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{s}$; no $r$ is heard, except, frequently, in the case of $r l$. These sounds are called supradentals, because they are made "above" (farther back than) the dentals. Ex.: härd hard, hjärta heart, härlig glorious, barn child, vers verse.
(4) The Swedish sound corresponding to Eng. "sh" differs from this; there is a narrowing between the tongue and the roof of the mouth at two places, combining the tongue-positions of Swedish supradental $s$ and of a spirant lying between "ch" in German "Nächte" and in "ich". It is normally, but not usually, written sj. Ex.: sju seven, själ soul, skilja (here sk $=$ sj) separate, stjärna (stj $=s j$ ) star, musta'sch ( $s c h=s j$ ) mustache, pensio'n (si = sj; pron. pangsjo'n) pension, missio'n $(s s i=s j)$ mission, passage'rare (here $g=s j$ ) passenger, lektio'n (here $t i=s j$ ) lesson.
14. $G, k$ and $s k$, when followed by a stressed soft vowel or by an unstressed soft vowel preceding the main stress, have the sounds of Swedish $j$ ( $=$ Eng. consonantal ' $y$ "), $t j$ ( $=$ Eng. "ch") and $s j$, respectively. Ex.: göra do, giva give; gick, past sing. of gà go; köpa buy, kär dear; ske happen, skynda hurry; genera'l general, $k e m i^{\prime}$ chemistry.
$G, k$, $s k$ otherwise have the sounds of Eng. " $g$ " (as in "go"), " $k$ ", "sk", respectively; but•see further details in $\S 19,2$ in the case of $g$. Ex.: $g d$ go; gav, past tense of giva give; glas glass, taga take, egen own, dag day; ko cow, krypa creep, röka smoke, vaken awake, tak
roof; skall shall, skriva write, väska bag, fiskcn the fish, fisk fish.

Note. - Observe människa human being, and kanske perhaps, in which $s k=s j$.
15. $G j, k j$, skj, which are always followed by hard vowels, $=$ Swedish $j, t j$, sj, respectively. Ex.: gjorde, past tense of göra do; kjortel skirt; skjuta shoot.
16. Initial $d, h, l, g$ are silent when followed by $j$. Ex.: djur animal, hjärta heart, ljus light; gjorde, past tense of göra do

Otherwise silent consonants occur chiefly in the following cases: (a) $l$ is silent in värld world, karl man (but not in the proper name Karl, where, on the contrary, $r$ is very often silent); (b) $g$ in morgnar, plur. of morgon morning; (c) $d$ in äldst oldest, handske glove, trädgård garden; (d) $n$ usually when preceded by $m$ or the sound of $n g$ (written $g$ in this case) and followed by $d, t$, $s$; as, lugnt (pron. lungt, not lungnt), n. of lugn calm; hämnd revenge; vagnshjul (pron. vangs-, not vangns-) wagon-wheel.
17. Initial $g$ and $k$ are not silent before $n$; as, gnaga gnaw, knä knee.
18. Swedish $b, d, g, v$, when followed by $t$ or $s$, are ustially pronounced $p, t, k, f$, respectively, except in the genitive singular and the passive singular when a long vowel precedes (as vägs, togs). Ex.: absolu't absolute, halvvägs ${ }^{1}$ half-way, byggs is binilt, Guds ${ }^{1}$ God's, tids ${ }^{1}$ nog time enough, grovt coarse. Note particularly the following: lagt and sagt $t^{1}$, supines of lägga lay, säga (usually pron. säja) say; bragte, bragt, past tense and supine of bringa bring; $h \ddot{o g} t^{1}$, högst ${ }^{1}$, neuter and superlative of $h \ddot{g} g$ high.

[^1]19. ADDITIONAL REMARKS ON THE CONSONANTS:
(1) c. a) Swedish double $k$ is written $c k$; as, icke not, ock also. But in one word, och and, it is written ch.
b) Aside from this use, $c$ occurs only in words of foreign origin: 1) $=$ Swedish $s$, when followed by the soft vowels $e, i, y$; as, centra'l central, cirka about, cykel cycle; 2 ) $=k$, when followed by $c(=s)$; as, accen't (pron. aksen't) accent.
c) $C h=$ Swedish $s j$; it occurs only in words of foreign origin; as, chokla'd chocolate. Cf. also a, above.
(2) g. a) $G=$ Swedish $j$ : 1) before stressed soft vowels and unstressed soft vowels preceding the main stress (for examples see § 14); 2) usually after $l$ and $r$; as, berg mountain, Sver (i)ge ( $i$ always silent) Sweden, talg tallow.
b) $G=$ Swedish $s j$, when followed by $e$ or $i$ in a number of words of foreign origin; as, passage'rare passenger, geni ${ }^{\prime}$ genius.
c) $G$ usually $=$ Swedish $n g$ (see $\S 19,5$ b) when followed by $n$; as, vagn (pron. vangn) wagon, regna to rain.
d) $G$ is silent before $j$ (see $\S \S 15$; 16); also in morgnar (see § 16 b).
e) Otherwise $g$ has the sound of " $g$ " in "go" (for examples see § 14).
(3) j. 7 has the sound of English consonantal " $y$ "; as, jag I, skilja separate.
(4) k. Double $k$ is written $c k$; see $\S 19, \mathrm{I}$ a.
(5) n. a) $N=$ Swedish $n g$ (see below): 1) before $k$, as in English; as, tänka think; 2) often before other consonants (except $n$ ) in words of foreign origin; en $=$ ang; as, annon's (pron. anong's) advertisement, pensio'n (pron. pangsjo'n) pension.
b) $N g=$ Eng. "ng" in "singer" (not "ngg', as in "finger'"); as, sjunga sing, finger finger.
(6) s. a) Swedish $s$ never has the sound of " $z$ ", as in Eng. "roses".
b) $S t j, s c h, . s i, s s i$ have the sound of Swedish $s j$ (for examples see $\S 13,4$ ).
(7) t. a) $T j=$ "ch" in "church"; as, tjäna serve, tjugu twenty.
b) $\tau i:$ 1) $=s j$, when followed by 0 and preceded by a consonant (except $r$ ); as, lektio'n lesson, subskriptio'n subscription; 2) $=t+s j$, when followed by $o$ and preceded by a vowel or $r$; as, statio' $n$ station, portio'n portion; 3) $=t+s+i$, sometimes $s+i$, when followed by $a$ or $e$; as, initiati'v initiative, patien't (pron. pasien't) patient, aktie (usually pron. aksie) share.
(8) w. W has the sound of $v$; as, Walli'n.
(9) x. $X$ never has the sound of " $g z$ ", as Eng. " $x$ " often does when it precedes the stressed vowel; as, exa'men ( $x=k s$ ) examination (' $x$ "' here $=$ " $g z$ ').
(10) z. $Z$ has the sound of Swedish $s$; as, zink zinc, zon zone.
20. THE NAMES OF THE LETTERS OF THE ALPHABET are: $a, b e, s e, d e, e, a ̈ f f, g e, h a ̉, i, j i, k a ̉, a ̈ l l, ~ a ̈ m m, a ̈ n n$, $o, p e, k u$, ärr, äss, te, $u, v e, v e(=w), a ̈ k s, y, ~ s a ̈ t a, ~ a ̀$, ä, $\quad$.

The sound represented by $s j$ is called sje-ljudet; $t j$, tje-ljudet; ng, äng-ljudet.

The names of the letters of the alphabet as here given are pronounced like regular Swedish words, except that $g$ in $g e$ usually has the sound of " $g$ " in "go"; $e$ and $o$ have here their normal quality (not $=\vec{a}, \dot{a}$ ); the final (stressed) vowels are long.

## SYLLABICATION.

21. Compounds are divided into their component parts. Ex.: miss-tag mistake, er-halla receive, be-rät'ta relate, bak-om behind, hand-skrift manuscript.
22. In simple words: (a) after the vowel having the main stress, a consonant standing between two vowels, or, if there is more than one, the last consonant of a consonant-group standing between two vowels, goes with the following vowel; as, ta-la-re speaker, ic-ke not, svenskar Swedes, stör-re larger, högs-te highest, nytt-ja use; (b) before the vowel having the main stress, so many consonants as are capable of standing at the beginning of a Swedish word, go with the following vowel; as, $a$-dres's address in-du-stri' industry.
Note. - Sj, sch and $s k$ (representing the $s j$-sound) are not divided; as, männi-ska human being, vys-sja lull, galo-sch'er rubbers. - $N g$ (when representing a single sound) is usually not divided, but goes with the preceding vowel; as, mang-a many. - $X$ usually goes with the preceding vowel; as, $l a \vec{x}-a$ lesson.

## CAPITALIZATION.

23. The pronoun $I$ you, is always written with a capital letter; sometimes also $n i$, obj. $e(d e) r$, you, poss. $e(d e) r$ your, in letters as a sign of respect; more rarely, $d u$, obj. dig, you, poss. din your.
24. Otherwise capitals are employed less in Swedish than in English. A small initial letter is employed in:
(1) titles (except when used in direct address); as, herr Andersson Mr. Anderson, profes'sor Lundell'l Professor Lundell.
(2) words derived from proper names, both adjectives and nouns; as, amerika'n (an) American, amerika'nsk American, lutera'n (a) Lutheran, lutersk Lutheran, stockholmare inhabitant of Stockholm.
(3) nannes of days (including holidays) and months; as, söndag Sunday, jul Christmas, april' April.
(4) in all but the first word in proper group-names, unless the posterior words in question are proper names in themselves; as, Forenta sta'terna (secondary stress on the second syllable of forenta) The United States, Atlan'tiska ocea'nen the Atlantic Ocean, Svenska akademi'en the Swedish Academy, Karl den sto're Charles the Great.

## PUNCTUATION.

25. After an abbreviation containing the last letter of the word for which it is an abbreviation, no period is used; as, hr (= herr) Mr.; dr (= doktor) Dr.; jfr (= jämfor) cf.; d:o (= dito) ditto.
26. The semicolon is employed less than in English, the exclamation point more.
27. The comma is employed more than in English. It is generally used between clauses of all kinds that contain both a subject and a predicate. Ex.: Kom, om du kan. Come if you can. Han fick, vad han behövde. He got what he needed. Jag vet, att du kan göra det, om du vill. I know that yout can do it if you want to. Boken, som du kopte, kostade tva kronor. The book that you bought cost two crowns.

## CONSPECTUS OF CONTENTS OF THE LESSONS.

The following summary of contents shows at a glance the arrangement of topics in the lessons; those desiring to study the grammar by topics rather than by lessons will find in the column to the right references to all the earlier discussions of the topics standing opposite. Lesson V , containing only material treated more fully in later lessons, is omitted in the column to the left.

LESSON TOPICS
I. GENDER, ARTICLES (exII. cept prepositive).
III.
IV. NOUN: declension; genitive;
VI. $1,2,3,4$, and 5 declension; VII. irregular nouns; foreign VIII. forms; syntax.
IX.
X. ORDER OF WORDS.
XI. ADJECTIVES, ADVERBS;
XII. \} comparison of adjectives
XIII. and adverbs.
XIV. 7 VERBS: 1, 2 and 3 Weak XV. Conjugations; Strong ConXVI. jugation; subjunctive; pas
XVII. sive; deponents; compound XVIII• verbs; reflexive verbs; imXIX. personal verbs; participles;
XX. infinitive; imperative; synXXI. tax; auxiliaries.
XXII. ${ }^{7}$ PRONOUNS: Personal, posXXIII. \} sessive, demonstrative, relaXXIV. tive, interrog., indefinite.
XXV. NUMERALS.

TREATED EARLIER
( V , prepositive article)
(VII, position of negatives) (I, sing., indef.; III, plur., indef.; V , definite adj. and prepos.art.; VII, negatives) (I, pres. sing. of vara, hava; II, present tense; IV, past of vara, hava; V, past tense; VII, past tense of strong verbs, systems; X , future)
(I, du, ni, han, hon, den, det; II, $I, n i$; III, genitive; XIV, objective and reflexive; $I$, min, din, er; II, var, er; III, plur.; XIV, reflexive; I, denna, detta; III, dessa)

## LESSON I.

## GENDER.

28. The Swedish language has two genders, common and neuter.
(i) Of common gender are names of living beings and most names of inanimate objects; as, gosse boy, ficka girl, lampa lamp, stol chair.
(2) Neuter are many names of inanimate objects; as, hus house, bord table.

Note. - I. A few names of living beings are neuter, by exception; as, barn child, fruntimmer woman, fär sheep, bi bee.
2. Observe that while in English the names of inaninate objects are regularly neuter, they are in Swedish partly of conmon and partly of neuter gender. Note also that "common", as used of Swedish in this book, does not mean that a word may be either masculine or feminine (as in English "teacher", "friend"), but simply that it is not neuter (non-neuter gender).
3. The distinction between neuter and common gender has nothing to do with sex, but is purely grammatical; articles and adjectives have a different form in the singular when connected with neuter nouns than when connected with common-gender nouns.
4. Words of common gender that are names of living beings, are in most grammars, according as the sex is male or fenale, said to be of masculine or feminine gender, or they are called common-gender masculines and common-gender feminines. This so-called natural gender is, however, of very little importance, except as regards the use of the personal pronouns corresponding to "he" and "she". See § 36 .

## THE ADJECTIVE.

29. An adjective modifying a common-gender noun in the singular is left unchanged; as, brun stol brown chair, denna stol är brun this chair is brown.

An adjective modifying a neuter noun in the singular adds -t; as, brunt hus brown house, detta hus är brunt ${ }^{1}$ this house is brown.
30. Especially in the case of the articles and many pronouns containing $n$, the neuter is formed by substituting $t$ for $n$; as, denna, n. detta this.

## THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE.

31. The indefinite article is: $\left.\begin{array}{ll}\begin{array}{l}\text { Common gender } \\ \text { Neuter }\end{array} \\ \text { ett }\end{array}\right\}$ a, an
Examples: en stol a chair, en vacker lampa a beautiful lamp, ett hus a house, ett vackert bord a beautiful table.
32. Similarly, possessive pronouns ending in $n$ substitute $t$ in the neuter:
$\left.\begin{array}{ll}\begin{array}{l}\text { Comınon } \\ \text { Neuter }\end{array} & \begin{array}{l}\text { mint } \\ \text { mitt }\end{array}\end{array}\right\}$ my, mine $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { din }^{2}, \text { er } \\ \text { ditt, ert }\end{array}\right\}$ your, yours (sing.)
Ex.: min stol my chair, mitt hus my house.
Note. - Observe that Swedish $\min$ and din, er represent both 'my" and "mine", 'your"' and "yours", respectively.
33. SUMMARY: In adjectives, articles and pronouns $t$ is the sign of the neuter singular.
[^2]
## VERBS.

34. The present indicative singular of the verbs vara to be, and hava (frequently shortened to ha) to have:

| jag | am jag | I have |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $d u, n i$ | är you are $d u, n i$ | har you |
| an ${ }^{1}$,hon ${ }^{1}$, den ${ }^{1}$, | , it is han, etc., |  |

## THE USE OF PRONOUNS.

35. The pronoun $\% u$ (and the corresponding possessive din) is used in familiar address ${ }^{2}$, i. e., in speaking to relatives, friends ${ }^{3}$ and children. The pronoun $n i$ (and its possessive $e r$ ) is formal. Du and $n i$ are both translated "you"'; so din and er are rendered by "your", 'yours'.
36. Han he, and hon she, are used as the corresponding pronouns in English. Den is used in referring to inanimate objects of common gender. Det is used in referring to inanimate objects of netuter gender. Both den and det are rendered into English by "it". In brief:
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Common }\left\{\begin{array}{c}\text { han he } \\ \text { hon she } \\ \text { denter }\end{array}\right\} \text { animate } \\ \text { det }\end{array}\right\}$ it, inanimate
37. OBSERVE THE PRONUNCIATION OF: denna, detta, den, det (§ 9, I c); hon (§ 9, 3 a); bord, barn, stort (n.), ert (n.) (§ 13, 3);jag (§ 19, 3); icke, flicka, vacker, och (§ 19, 1 a). - Notice the quantity in min, din, han, hon, den, en, men- (§ 6, note 1; Phonology § 18 b); bord, barn (§ 6, note 2); brunt, crt, stort (§ 6, note 2).

[^3]38. ACCENT: (i) Swedish words of two or more syllables liave the grave accent (see $\S \S 3 ; 4 ; 5$ ) ; as, denna, detta, flicka, gosse, hava, vara, liten. Some words of two or more syllables, however, have the acute accent. These exceptions are indicated in the following lessons under the heading of ACCENT ${ }^{1}$. The distribution of the grave and the acute accent in the various grammatical categories, as presented in each lesson, is also considered.
(2) Of the words occurring in this lesson, vacker has the acute accent.
39. PRINCIPAL COLLOQUIALISMS: (i) In the spoken language denna (n. detta) is followed by the noun in the definite form (see $\S \S 40 ; 41$ ); as, denna stolen, detta huset. In place of denna ( n . detta) the spoken language usual$1 y$, and the written language sometimes, employs den $h a^{\prime} r$ ( $n$. det $h \bar{a}^{\prime} r$ ), which is also followed by the noun in the definite form.
(2) In the written language $n i$ (and the corresponding possessive er) is regularly used as the formal pronoun of address in the singular. In the spoken language, however, this is very often not considered quite polite, particularly in addressing superiors, and many people object to its use, though much less now than formerly. Instead of $n i$ the spoken language generally, and the written language sometimes, employs the title of the person addressed, with or without the name. For the possessive or the genitive (see §55) of the title or of the name is used. When the name does not follow, the definite form (see $£ \S 40 ; 41$ ) of the title is used, which

[^4]may be preceded by herr ${ }^{1}$ (Mr.) or fru ${ }^{1}$ (Mrs.). When the name follows, the indefinite form is used in the case of most titles; some, however, may have either the definite or the indefinite form, while others are always put in the definite form. Ex.: Var bor herr (=Mr.) Andersson nu? Where do you live now ${ }^{2}$ ? Vad sagger profes'sorn ${ }^{1}$ ( $=$ professor) (or herr profes'sorn, or profes'sor ${ }^{3}$ Ljungmark) om saken? What do you say about the matter? Hur gammal är redaktö'rens (=editor) son? How old is your son?

When addressing a person whose name or title is not known, fröken ${ }^{4}$ is used in the case of unmarried women, and frequently min herre, min fru in the case of men and married women, respectively. To use simply herrn and frun is considered somewhat vulgar.

In order to avoid the use of these cumbersome titles, it is customary even for people of but slight acquaintance to agree that they will use the familiar pronoun $d u$ (and the corresponding possessive din) in addressing each other ${ }^{5}$.
(3) Inte is in the spoken language regularly used instead of icke. See further § 100.
(4) Of the forms hava and $h a$, the spoken language uses only the shorter, while the written language uses either hava or ha.
(5) On a colloquial use of the possessive pronouns see $\S 67,4$.

[^5](6) In easy speech the final consonant-sound is dropped in jag, det, och and är, which are then pronounced respectively $j a, d \vec{a}$ (or $d e$ ), $\vec{a}$ and $\vec{a}$.

## VOCABULARY.

Note.-Gender is indicated in the vocabularies only in the case of neuter nouns, which are not nearly so numerous as those of common gender. It is important to remember which nouns are neater.
bord n. table
brun brown
den ( $n$. det) it
denna ( $n$. detta) this
din ( $n$. ditt) (familiar),
your, yours (sing.)
du (familiar), you (sing.)
en ( $n$. ett) $a$, an
er (formal), your, yours
flicka girl
gosse boy
han he
ha(va) (sing. har) have hon she
hus $n$. house
icke not
jag $I$
lampa lamp
liten small, little
men but
$\min$ (n. mitt) my, mine
ni (formal), yous
och and
på on
stol chair
stor large
vacker beautiful, pretty var where
vara (sing. är) be

## EXERCISE I.

A. I. Jag har ett stort bord. 2. Jag har en lampa pà mitt bord. 3. Den är vacker. 4. Mitt hus är stort, men det är icke vackert. 5. Denna stol är brun. 6. Hon är en vacker flicka. 7. Eir gosse är stor. 8. Har ni en stol och ett bord? 9. Ar ert bord brunt? Io. Detta hus är icke ditt. II. Är din lampa vacker? 12. Var är din gosse? 13. Har du ett hus? 14. Är det vackert?
$B^{1}$. 1. He has a table and a chair. 2. Is your (familar) chair brown? 3. He is a large boy. 4. Have you (formal) a lamp on your table? 5. My house is beautiful, but not large. 6. This girl is beautiful. 7. Where is your (form.) house? 8. This house is mine. 9. It is not yours ( fam. ). 10. Is your (fam.) lamp small? in. Mine is large. 12. You (fam.) are a little girl. 13. Is your (form.) lamp beautiful? 14. He has a beautiful house. 15. It is large.

1 The order of words in a Swedish sentence corresponds pretty well with that of English. Attention will be called to deviations as they occur. Lesson $X$ deals with certain special differences in the order of words.

1 en
2 Thai
3 the

* fyra
stem
- 6 Sex

7 sju
8 atc
ques
10 tio

## LESSON II.

## THE DEFINITE ARTICLE.

40. The definite article is not a separate word as in English, but is an ending added to the noun; as, stol chair, stolen the clair; hus house, huset the house. Its forms are:

Sing. $\underbrace{$\begin{tabular}{l}
COMMON <br>
-en,$n$

}$_{-n a,-a,-e n}$


| NEUTER |
| :--- |
| $-e t,-t$ | <br>

Plur.
\end{tabular}

Nouns with the definite article thus affixed are said to be in the definite form. When no article is added, the noun is said to be in the indefinite form ${ }^{1}$.
41. The singular forms -en, et are used chiefly with words ending in a consonant (see examples in § 40); $-n,-t$, chiefly with words ending in a vowel; as, ficka girl, fickan the girl; gosse boy, gossen the boy; rike kingdom, riket the kingdom.

In the plural there is no such distinction of gender; it is largely the nature of the preceding sound that determines which form of the article ( $-n a,-a$ or $-e n$ ) is to be used.

Note. - Further details about the use and distribution of the various endings are given in subsequent lessons.

## VERBS.

42. The present indicative of:

INFINITIVE vara to be
Sing. jag, etc., är
Plur. vi àro we are
$I$ ären you are
de äro they are
ha(va) to have jag, etc., har
vi ha (hava) we have I han (haven) you have de ha (hava) they have

[^6]43. The present indicative active of all ${ }^{1}$ other Swedish verbs is conjugated in one of the following three ways:

INF. tala to speak skriva to write bo to live Sing. jag, etc., talar Plur. vi tala I talen de tala
jag, etc., skriver jag, etc., bor vi skriva vi bo
$I$ skriven I bon
de skriva de bo
44. Only a few verbs, namely those whose infinitives do not end in $-a$, are conjugated like $b 0$. Except when compounded, these are all monosyllabic. Compare the forms of bo with the shorter forms of ha $v a)$.
45. In all moods and tenses (not only in the present indicative) the second person plural of all verbs ends in -en or $-n$. However, this form is of very limited use (see § 49).
46. In the present indicative active, observe that (1) the singular ends in $-r$, which is preceded by $-a$ or $-e$, except in verbs of the type of $b 0$; (2) in all verbs except those of the type of $b 0$, the first and third persons plural end in $-a$; (3) in all verbs, including those of the type of $b o$, the first and third persons plural are identical in form with the infinitive. But notice vara, pres. plur. $\bar{a} r o$, which is an exception.
47. The progressive and emphatic verb-forms of English are in Swedish rendered by the simple verb:
he is writing
he does write han skriver he writes
Likewise in negative sentences and questions: $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { he is not writing } \\ \text { he does not write }\end{array}\right\}$ han skriver icke ${ }^{2}$

[^7]$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { is he writing? } \\ \text { does he write? }\end{array}\right\}$ skriver han? ${ }^{1}$

## PRONOUNS.

48. Possessive pronouns denoting more than one possessor: var, in. vart, our, ours; er, 11. ert, your, yours.
49. The plur. pronoun $I$ is used only in the more elevated style. In other forms of style and in conversation, $n i$ (identical with the formal sing. pronoun $n i$ ) is used in place of $I$. Accordingly, $I$ talen, $I$ skriven, $I$ bon are used only in the elevated style. The plur. ni has its verb in the singular ( $n i$ talar $^{2}$, etc.), though the plur. verb ( $n i$ tala ${ }^{2}$, etc.) often occurs in the written language.

Note. - I. In the plural pronouns of the second person ( $I, n i$, possessive er) there is no distinction between familiar and formal address.
2. Observe also that the plural possessive er is identical with the formal singular possessive er. Similarly in English, "you", "your" are used both of one and of more than one.
50. ORTHOGRAPHY. The pronoun $I$ you, is capitalized. This distinguishes it from the preposition $i$ (see the vocabulary).
51. PRONUNCIATION: blomma (§9,3 a); giva (§ 14); Sverige ( $i$ silent), spelled also Sverge, (§ 19, 2 a 2 ).
52. ACCENT: (i) All dissyllabic forms that are the result of the addition of the definite article to monosyllabic nouns, have the acute accent; as, hästen (from häst), stolen (stol), brevet (brev), huset (hus). On the other hand, observe the grave accent in gossen (from gosse), blomman (blomma), riket (rike). That is, the ad-

[^8]dition of the definite article does not change the nature of the accent of the word or form to which it is added. For further illustrations see the various declensions. Cf. § 5, 3 d.
(2) All verb-forms of more than one syllable have the grave accent in all tenses and moods ${ }^{1}$, except that present indicative singular verb-forms ending in er have the acute; as, sitter, skriver, giver.
(3) Of the words mentioned in this lesson ${ }^{2}$, not taking into account inflectional forms, eller and Sverige have the acute accent.
53. Colloguialisms: (i) In the spoken language a plural subject is regularly followed by the singular form of the verb ${ }^{3}$, the plural verb-form never being used. Ex.: vi talar, ni talar, de talar; vi är, ni är, de är. Moreover, the pronoun $I$ is not used in the spoken language (see § 49).
(2) In place of giver, giva, the spoken language regularly uses ger, the written language frequently ger, plur. ge, gen, ge.
(3) In the definite form of the singular of neuters, the spoken language of some parts of Sweden omits the final $-t$; as, liuse for huset.
(4) In easy speech, $d \mathrm{em}$ (pronounced $\mathrm{dom}^{2}$, i. e. damm), the objective form of $d e$ (see $\S 186$ ), is in some parts of Sweden used as the subject; as, dom $\ddot{a}$ for de äro.
(5) In conversation $d e$ is pronounced di, and mycket, mycke.

[^9](6) In easy speech röd is pronounced rö, and till is frequently pronounced $t$.

## VOCABULARY.

Note. - It will be found most convenient to learn the gender of nouns by repeating and memorizing the definite form of the singular.
blomma flower
blả blue
bo (sing. -r) live (=dwell) brev $n$. letter
de (plur. of han, hon, den, det) they
där there
eller or
gata strect
giva (sing. -er ${ }^{1}$ ) give
här here
häst horse
i in, into
I you (plur.)
kvinna woman
lảng long
mycket adv., very
plocka (sing. -ar ${ }^{1}$ ) pick, gather rike $n$. kingdom
röd red
sitta (sing. -er) sit
skriva (sing. -er) write
Sverige n. Surcden
tala (sing. -ar) talk, speak
till to
vi we
vảr our, ours

EXERCISE II.
A. 1. Vảr häst är mycket vacker. 2. Här är en blả blomma. 3. Blomman är icke blả. Den är röd. 4. Gossen bor i ett mycket stort hus. 5. Kvinnan sitter på stolen och skriver ${ }^{2}$ ett lảngt brev. 6. Sverige är ett stort rike. 7. Gossen och flickan äro på gatan. 8. Sitter icke gossen pả stolen? 9. Flickan giver kvinnan brevet. 10. Bo de här eller där? II. De ha en brun häst. 12. Var ären I? 13. Gossen plockar en vacker blomma. 14. Denna gata är lảng. I5. De giva brevet till kvinnan.

[^10]B. I. I am writing ${ }^{1}$ a long letter. 2. He is sitting on my chair. 3. Is the flower blue or red? 4. The boy is giving the flower to the woman. 5. This kingdom is very large. 6. Is this street very long? 7. Here is a letter. 8. Where do you (plur.) live?-We live in this house. 9. Is the horse there? 10. The boy and the girl live in Sweden. II. This horse is ours. Where is yours (plur.)? 12. The lamp and the letter are on the table. 13. Are you writing a letter to the boy? 14. Have they a large house? 15 . They are not talking.

[^11]
## LESSON III.

## DECLENSION.

54. Swedish nouns are divided into five declensions according to the formation of the plural: (1) -or, (2) -ar, (3) eer, (4) $-n$, (5) plural without ending.

Note. - The definite form of the plural is made by further adding the proper plur. definite article (see § 41, end); as, flicka, plur. fickor, def. plur. flickorna the girls.
55. The Genitive. Swedish has the same cases as English. The genitive of all nouns is made by adding -s to the base-form, indefinite or definite, both singular and plural. No apostrophe is used. See examples in the following note and in § 59 .

Note. - In Swedish as in English, adjectival words (e. g., adjectives, adjective pronouns, indefinite article) have no genitive ending; as, en liten fickas docka a little girl's doll, min lärarin'nas stol my teacher's chair, denna flickas syster this girl's sister.
56. In English the genitive case is normally used to express possession or connection only in the case of living beings. In Swedish it is freely used also of inanimate objects; as,

Animate: the girl's hat fickans hatt ${ }^{1}$
Inanimate: the color of the book bokens färg

## FIRST DECLENSION.

57. The First Declension (plur. -or) contains only nouns of common gender. To this declension belong almost all nouns that end in $-a^{2}$. The plural is formed

[^12]by dropping - $a$ and adding -or; as, flicka girl, plur. fickor; lampa lamp, plur. lampor.

Note. - This declension contains also a few nouns not ending in -a: ros rose, plur. rosor; vig wave, plur. vagor; toffel slipper, plur. tofflor ${ }^{1}$.
58. DEFINITE FORM. The definite sing. adds $-n$; the def. plur. adds -na; as, lampan, lamporna.

Note. - Ros and vig add en in the def. sing., rosen, vigen; toffel adds $-n$, toffeln ${ }^{2}$. In the plural, $-n a$ is added, rosorna, vagorna, tofflorna.
59. Examples of the First Declension are: gata street, kvinna woman.

INDEFINITE DEFINITE INDEFINITE DEFINTTE
SING. gata gatan kvinna kvinnan

Gen. gatas gatans
PLUR. gator gatorna
Gen. gators gatornas

| INDEFINITE | DEFINITE |
| :--- | :--- |
| kvinna | kvinnan |
| kvinnas | kvinnans |
| kvinnor | kvinnorna |
| kvinnors | kvinnornas |

## ADJECTIVES AND PRONOUNS.

60. An adjective modifying a noun of either gender in the plural adds $-a$ to the uninflected form; as, langa gator long streets, gatorna äro langa the streets are long, bordet och stolen äro bruna the table and the chair are brown.
61. This is also the case with possessive pronouns when denoting possession of more than one object: plur. mina, dina, era (denoting either one or more than one possessor), våra.
62. For the third person, the genitives hans his, henries her, hers, dess (gen. of den, det) its, deras their, theirs, are used in place of possessive pronouns. These

[^13]genitives, not being adjectival forms, are invariable, and have no ending when used with neuter or plural nouns.

Note. - These genitives are not used in the predicate when the word for which they stand is the subject of the clause. Karl plockar hans blomma can not refer to Carl's flower, as is possible in the English: "Carl is picking his flower." On the contrary, the possessive pronouns may also refer to the subject. Ex.: Han plockar min blomma. He is picking my flower. Jag plockar min blomma. I am picking my flower. This subject is treated more fully in § 188.
63. The plural of denna, detta is dessa these.
64. Adjective inflection summarized:

65. PRONUNCIATION: färg (§ 19, 2 a 2 ); sjunga (§§ 13, 4; 19, 5 b); manga (§ 19, 5 b); om (§6, note 1; Phonology § I8 a). Fór the quantity in stols, etc., see $\S 6$, note 2. Observe the change of quantity in min (mitt): mina; din (ditt): dina.
66. ACCENT: (i) All forms of all words in the First Declension have the grave accent, except the monosyllables ros and vag, which have the acute accent in the def. sing. ${ }^{1}$ (rosen, vagen), and toffel, which has the acute accent in the indef. and def. singular. See $\S \S 5,3 \mathrm{~d} ; 5,2$. The plurals rosor $(n a)$, vagor $(n a)$, however, have the grave accent; tofflor $(n a)$ has either the grave or the acute.
(2) The plural of adjectives and possessives has the regular grave accent; as, langa, manga, mina. This is also the case with adjectives of more than one syllable stressed on the first syllable and which have the acute ac-

[^14]cent in the singular; as, vacker (acute), but vackra (grave).
(3) Verbs with the first syllable unstressed (as berät'ta) have the acute accent in all forms in the greater part of Sweden.
(4) Of the words mentioned in this lesson, berät'ta, fagel, toffel and under have the acute accent.
67. COLLOQUIALISMS: (1) Dessa, as the singular denna ( n . detta), is in the spoken language followed by the noun in the definite form. Instead of dessa the spoken language usually, and the written language sometimes, employs de $h a a^{\prime} r$ (very often pron. di $h a ̈ ' r$ ). Cf. § 39, 1 .
(2) The spoken language almost always substitutes a prepositional phrase for the genitive in the case of inanimate objects. See §§ 119; 134, 2.
(3) In the spoken language the use of the genitive dess is avoided. Either the genitive of the def. form of the noun for which dess would stand, is used instead, or the expression is changed so that the use of a genitive is not necessary. Cf. also $\S 67,2$. Even in the written language dess is of less frequent occurrence than "its" in English; cf. §62, note.
(4) In the spoken language (primarily in easy speech) the possessive pronouns and the genitives of the third person personal pronouns are sometimes placed after the noun, which is then put in the definite form, except in the case of words indicating relationship, and frequently hustri wife. When used in the genitive case, the possessive pronoun, and not the noun, has the ending -s. Ex.: gossen min my boy, far min my father, bror mins böcker my brother's books, hustru(n) hans his wife.

## VOCABULARY.

Note.-The following words belonging to the First Declension have been given in previous vocabularies: blomma, flicka, gata, kvinna, lampa.

In the following vocabularies the declension is indicated by Arabic numerals. Words belonging to a declension not yet treated are left undesignated. The declension of these is indicated in the notes preceding the vocabularies in Lessons IV, VI, VII and VIII. berät'ta (sing. -ar) tell, relate lärarin'na (1) (woman) teacher bok book
deras their, theirs
dess its
docka (1) doll
duva (1) dove, pigeon
flyga (sing. -er) fly
fura (1) fir-tree
fagel bird
färg color
gren branch
hans his
hatt hat
hennes her, her's
om about, in, during
prinses'sa (1) princess
ros (1) rose
saga (1) tale, story, fairy-tale sjunga (sing. -er) sing
skog forest, woods
skola (1) school
syster sister
toffel (1) slipper
under under
vảg (1) wave
växa (sing. -er) grow

## EXERCISE III.

A. 1. En liten fảgel sitter pả grenen och sjunger ${ }^{1}$. 2. Furorna äro stora. 3. Duvan flyger till skogen. 4. Lärarinnan är i skolan ${ }^{2}$. 5. Hon berättar en saga om en vacker prinsessa. 6. Blommor växa i skogen. 7. Lärarinnans syster är i skogen och plockar ${ }^{1}$ blommor. 8. Hennes fảgel har en vacker färg. Den är blå. 9. Gossen skriver i en stor bok. ro. Han skriver om Sverige. II. Dessa rosor äro röda. 12. Är din dockas

[^15]hatt brun eller röd? 13. Tofflorna äro under ert bord. 14. Äro vågorna mycket stora? 15. Flickornas lärarinna talar om Sverige. 16. Blommorna äro pả din lärarinnas bord.
$B$. r. The girls' teacher ${ }^{1}$ is sitting under a large branch. 2. She is telling a story about a little bird. 3. Is the story beautiful? 4. Where do these roses grow? 5. Do many fir-trees grow in Sweden? 6. The girl's doll has a blue hat. 7. Have the teachers many flowers? 8. This wave is not large. 9. His slippers are red. 10. Are their pigeons flying to the woods? II. Is the woman's letter on my table? 12. Your sister is speaking about the color of the book. 13. The girl's doll has a beautiful house. 14. My sister's teacher lives in their house.

[^16]
## LESSON IV.

## SECOND DECLENSION.

68. The Second Declension (plur. -ar) contains only nouns of common gender. To this declension belong:
(i) A large number of monosyllabic nouns ending in a consonant; as, stol chair, häst horse.
(2) A few monosyllabic nouns ending in a vowel; as, sjö lake, à river.
(3) Most nouns of common gender ending in unstressed -e, -el, -en, -er; as, gosse boy, fágel bird, socken parish, syster sister.
(4) Nouns ending in -dom, -ing, -ling, -ning, -ung and a few other suffixes; as, sjukdom sickness, konung king, morgon moruing, sommar summer, fjäril butterfly.

Note. - I. Nouns ending in unstressed -e drop this before adding -ar; as, gosse, plur. gossar.
2. Nouns ending in unstressed -el, een, eer drop the vowel of the suffix before adding -ar; as, fagel, plur. faglar; socken, plur. socknar; syster, plur. systrar.
3. Also in a few other cases the vowel of a suffix is dropped before -ar: sommar summer, plur. somrar; morgon morning, plur. morgnar; afton evening, plur. aftnar; djavul devil, plur. djävlar.
4. Moder mother, and dotter daughter, besides dropping the vowel of the suffix, also modify (see § ii) the root-vowel, plur. mödrar, döttrar.
5. Moder is generally contracted to mor in the indefinite singular ${ }^{1}$.-Herre gentleman, becomes herr (Mr.) when used before a proper noun ${ }^{2}$ or before another title; as, herr Johansson Mr. Johnson.-Konung king, has also the form kung, plur. kungar.

[^17]69. DEFINITE FORM. The definite sing. adds en or $-n$; the def. plur. adds $-n a$.

Note. - 1. The ending $-n$ is used: (a) after vowels; as, gosse, gossen; $d, a i n$; (b) after unstressed -ell, -er2; as, fageln, systern.
2. A few suffixes add either en or $-n$; as, $\operatorname{sommar}(e) n$, fjäril(e) $n$.
3. Herre has def. Herren (herren) when it means "the Lord" ("ruler", "lord"), but herrn when it means "the gentleman".
4. Some nouns ending in -en drop the vowel of the suffix and add -en; as, socken parish, def. socknen. But of fröken young lady, and a few other words, the definite form in the singular is the same as the indefinite.
5. In the written language $-n e$ is frequently met with as the def. ending of the plural. While most writers of the present day always use -na, some employ -ne with nouns of this declension referring to persons of the male sex; others, with all nouns whose plurals end in -ar, irrespective of sex; cf. § 107, note 5. Formerly the ending -ne was used much more than now, and in the works of the older writers, it was regularly employed with a certain class ${ }^{3}$ of nouns.
70. Examples of this declension are: hatt hat, $d$ river, gosse boy, fagel bird, socken parish, fröken young lady, mo(de)r mother, morgon morning, sommar summer, fjäril butterfly.

| INDEFINITE | DEFINITE | INDEFINITE | DEFINITE |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Sing. hatt | hatten | $\dot{a}$ | än |
| Plur. hattar | hattarna | åar | áarna |
| Sing. gosse | gossen | fägel | fägeln |
| Plur. gossar | gossarna | fagglar | fäglarna |
| Sing. socken | socknen | fröken | fröken |
| Plur. socknar socknarna | fröknar | fröknarna |  |

[^18]INDEFINITE
Sing. mo (de)r
Plur. mödrar
Sing. sommar Plur. somrar

DEFINITE INDEFINITE
modern
mödrarna
sommar(e)n fjäril somrarna fjärilar

DEFINITE
morgonen morgnarna fjäril(e)n
fjärilarna

Note. - The genitive, which is always regular (except as stated in $\S S$ II2; 119, end), is omitted here and in subsequent paradigms.

## VERBS.

71. Past tense of vara and $h a(v a)$ :

Sing. jag, etc., var
Plur. vi voro
I voren
de voro
jag, etc., hade
vi hade
I haden
de hade
72. ORTHOGRAPHY: sommar, somrar (see Phonology § 18 a). - Concerning titles see § 24, I.
73. PRONUNCIATION: konung (§ 9, 3 b); socken (usually the $o$ of $\S 9,3$ a); morgon ( $g$ here not $=$ Swedish $j$ ); morgnar (§ 16 b); djävul (§ 16); sjuk, sjö (§ 13, 4).The $a$ of hade is usually short ( $\S 6$, note 1 ). For the quantity in fagllar, fröknar, mödrar, etc., see Phonology § 14 B 2 b . Sjön, def. of sjo, is pronounced with a short vowel; cf. § 6, note I.
74. ACCENT: (i) Observe that the def. sing. of monosyllables ending in a consonant (as stolen, hästen) has the acute accent, while the plural, both indefinite and definite, has the grave accent (as stolar, hästar; stolarna, hästarna).
(2) Some nouns of the Second Declension with the suffix $-e l$ have the acute accent in the singular, both indefinite and definite (as fagel, fägeln); others have the grave accent.-All nouns with the suffix en have the acute
accent in the indef. and def. singular. - So also have those ending in eer, with the exception of moder, dotter and syster, which have the grave accent.

The nouns that have the acute accent in the singular, have, however, the grave accent in the plural, according to the rule.
(3) For the accent of verbs see $\S 52,2$.
(4) Of the words mentioned in this lesson, socken, fröken, över, pengar (na) and Björkman have the acute accent.Stockholm has either the acute or the grave accent. Bade usually has the grave, but sometimes the acute, accent.
75. colloquialisms: (i) Kung is more common in the spoken than in the written language.
(2) Of sommar(e) $n$ and fjäril(e) $n$, the longer forms are used in the written language, the shorter in all forms of style, including the spoken language.
(3) The form mor is more common in the spoken than in the written language.
(4) In the spoken language the indefinite form of socken may be used also as the definite.
(5) In the spoken language -ne does not occur in the use mentioned in § 69 , note 5 .
(6) Remember that the spoken language has $v i$, etc., var. See $\S 53,1$. This holds good for all tenses.
(7) In Central Sweden drottning is generally pronounced dronning.
(8) In easy speech var was, were, is pronounced va, and aldrig, aldri.-Instead of dag, dagen, dagar, easy speech employs $d a$, dan, dar ${ }^{1}$.-In the plural morgnar, $g$ is usually not heard (see $\S 16 \mathrm{~b}$ ); in easy speech, $g$ may be omitted in the singular also (pron. morron).

1 In the written language dar is on a higher level, stylistically, than $d a(n)$.

## VOCABULARY.

Note. - The following words belonging to the Second Declension have been given in previous vocabularies: fágel, gosse, gren, hatt, häst, skog, stol, syster.
afton (2) evening; i afton herre (2) gentleman, master this evening; om aftonen in the evening
aldrig never
både . . . och both . . . and dag (2) day; i dag to-day; om dagen in the day-time djävul (2) devil
dotter (2) daughter drottning (2) queen fjäril (2) butterfly fru (2) wife, lady, Mrs. frản from
fröken (2) miss, (young) lady, Miss
hemma at home herr $M r$.
komma (sing. -er) come
konung, kung (2) king moder, mor (2) mother morgon (2) morning; pá morgonen in the -, this -
om in, during, about
pengar (2) plur., money
sjuk sick, ill
sjukdonı (2) sickness
sjö (2) lake, sea
socken (2) parish
sommar (2) summer; i this -; om -en in the á (2) river
över over, across

## EXERCISE IV.

A. 1. Konungen och drottningen bo i Stockholm. 2. Var är Stockholm? 3. Min syster var hos fröken Björkman i dag. 4. Här är ett brev från herr och fru Johansson ${ }^{1}$. 5. Fröken var icke hemma. 6. Hade de många pengar? 7. Dessa socknar ha mánga. sjöar. 8. Fảglarna sitta pả grenarna och sjunga. 9. Pengarna äro hemma. 10. Hade hon många döttrar? 11. Fjärilen sitter på blomman. 12. Fảglarna flyga över ån. 13. Både herrn och frun voro hemma $i$ dag pả morgonen ${ }^{2}$.
B. I. Sweden has many large lakes and many rivers. 2. Your mother was not at home. 3. Where are the butterflies? 4. Are the doves flying across the lake? 5. Mr. and Mrs. Lind do not live there. 6. The horses are coming from the river. 7. The lake is beautiful in the summer. 8. The girls' mother was sick. 9. Does Miss Björkman live with Mrs. Lind? 1o. The gentleman's sister is coming ${ }^{1}$ this evening. II. Where does the King of Sweden live? 12. The boy had many butterflies. 13. The parish is not large. I4. Mrs. Lind's daughters were never at home in the evening.

[^19]
## LESSON V.

## THE ADJECTIVE.

76. INDEFINITE FORM. The forms of the adjective given in the previous lessons ( $\S \S 29 ; 60$ ) are used when the accompanying noun has indefinite meaning or when the adjective is a predicate adjective. This is called the $i n-$ definite form of the adjective.
77. DEFINITE FORM. An adjective modifying a noun with the definite article has the ending $-a^{1}$ for both genders, singular and plural; as, stora. This is called the definite form of the adjective.
78. THE PREPOSITIVE DEFINITE ARTICLE. The definite form of the adjective (followed by a noun with the definite article) is regularly ${ }^{2}$ preceded by another definite article, which is called the prepositive definite article. The article appended to the noun (see § 40) is known as the postpositive definite article. The forms of the prepositive definite article ${ }^{8}$ are:

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79. summary. When used with a noun that has the definite form, the adjective must be put in the definite form ( $-a$ ), and is preceded by the prepositive definite article; as, den vita hästen the white horse, det höga huset the high house, de langa gatorna the long streets.
Note. - Further details about the formation and use of the definite and indefinite adjective are given in Lesson XI.

[^20]
## VERBS.

80. THE PAST TENSE OF WEAK VERBS. Review hade in § 71. Past indicative active of tala speak, bygga build, köpa buy, bo live:
Sing. jag, etc., talade byggde köpte bodde
Plur. vi talade
I taladen
de talade

| byggde | köpte | bodde |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| byggden | köpten | bodden |
| byggde | köpte | bodde |

The past tense of most Swedish verbs ends in -adc, $-d e,-t e$ or $-d d e$. Observe the dental consonant $(d, t)$ in each ending; cf. Eng. lose, lost; call, called. The past tense is never monosyllabic. Such verbs are known as weak verbs. There is no change for person except in the second person plural, where $-n$ is added.
81. THE PAST TENSE OF STRONG VERBS. Review var in $\S 7 \mathrm{I}$. Past indicative active of skriva write:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Sing. jag, etc., skrev } \\
& \text { Plur. vi skrevo } \\
& \text { I skreven } \\
& \text { de skrevo }
\end{aligned}
$$

Some of the verbs most frequently used (though fewer in number than those referred to in § 80) form their past tense by changing the root vowel; as, skriva, past skrev. No tense-sign is added; the past sing. is monosyllabic, unless compounded. Cf. Eng. run, ran; break, broke; fall, fell; sing, sang. Such verbs are known as strong verbs.

Note. - Almost all strong verbs with long $i$ as the root-vowel in the pres. inf., have long $e$ in the past tense. Those having some other root-vowel than long $i$ in the pres. inf., have some other vowel than long $e$ in the past tense. The various systems of vowel-change in the formation of the past tense of strong verbs are treated in subsequent lessons.
82. Verbs ending in
$-r$ in pres. sing. ind. act. have past tense in $-d d e$, -ar in pres. sing. ind. act. have past tense in -ade,
-er in pres. sing. ind. act. have past in $\left\{\begin{array}{l}-d e \\ -t e \\ \text { no tense-sign, but } \\ \text { vowel-change }\end{array}\right.$ Examples are:

PRES. SING.
Weak $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { bor } \\ \text { talar } \\ \text { bygger } \\ \text { koper }\end{array}\right.$

PAST SING. bodde talade byggde köpte skrev
83. orthography. Concerning svensk, tysk see § 24, 2.
84. PRONUNCIATION: nej (§ 12); svensk (§ 9, I c); son (§ 9, 3 b); Götebor'g (§ 19, 2 a); köpa (§ 14); högt (§ 18). The prepos. def. article is pronounced like the personal pronoun (see §37). -For the quantity in vän, vem see $\S 6$, note I . Concerning the quantity of the vowel in kopte see $\S 6$, note 2 . Observe the change in the quantity of the vowel in verbs of the type of bo, bodde.
85. accent. For the accent of the def. form of adjectives, cf. § 66, 2. - For the accent of verbs see § 52 , 2.
86. colloquialisms: (i) The spoken language generally avoids the use of endast, employing in place of it bara, which is also frequently used in the written language. Another literary word with the same meaning is blott; this is not used in speaking.
(2) The colloquial forms of the prepositive article $d c t$, de correspond to those of the personal pronoun; see $\S \S 39,6$;

[^21]53, 5. -When used as the sign of the infinitive, att is generally pronounced $\dot{d}$. Observe the similar pronunciation of $a v$ in (5) below, and of och (§39, 6).

- (3) In a large part of Sweden the past tense ending in -ade drops -de in easy speech; as, tala spoke, for talade.
(4) The definite staden is in the spoken language usually shortened to stan, and in easy speech stad is pronounced sta.
(5) In easy speech köpte (past of köpa) is often pronounced with short $\ddot{0}$; observe that there is in this case change in the quality as well as in the quantity of the ö. - In easy speech $a v$ is in some parts of Sweden pronounced $\dot{a}$; in others, $\dot{a} v$.- In easy speech the $k$ is not pronounced in the neuter forms svenskt, tyskt. - In Central Sweden the vowel of son is frequently pronounced short.


## VOCABULARY.

Note. - The following weak verbs have occurred in previous vocabularies: berät'ta (-ade), plocka (-ade), tala (-ade), bo (-dde), hava (hade ${ }^{1}$ ), växa (-te). In the case of verbs forming their past tense in a way already discussed ${ }^{2}$, the past tense will be indicated instead of the pres. sing.; see § 82 .
att ${ }^{3}$ conj., that; (also used endast only
before infinitives) to
av of, from
bro (2) bridge
bygga (-de) build
flagga (1) flag
den ( $n$. det, plur. de) the
gul yellow
hög high, tall
ja yes
köpa (-te) buy

[^22]lida (led) suffer
ligga (sing. -er) lie, be situated
nej no
rida (red) ride
son son
stad city, town
svart black
svensk Swedish; -a the
Swedish language; pá
-a in Swedish; ent svensk (2) a Swede
svår hard, difficult, severe tro (-dde) think, believe tycka (-te) think (三 be of the opinion), fancy; tycka om ${ }^{11}$ like tysk German; -a the German language; pả -a in German; en tysk (2) a German
vem who?, whom?
vit white
vän friend
vänin'na (1) (woman) friend

## EXERCISE V.

A. I. Är det stora huset ditt?-Ja, det är mitt. 2. Sveriges flagga är blå och gul. 3. Jag tycker om den svenska flaggan. 4. Tycker ni icke, att den är mycket vacker? 5. Min vän byggde det höga huset. 6. Tror du, att diu väninnas mor kommer ${ }^{2}$ i dag? 7. Göteborg $^{3}$ är en stor stad. Var ligger Göteborg? 8. Skrev du ett brev på tyska? 9. Tycken I om att bo i staden? 10. Var har du den gula rosen?- Den ligger pá det vita bordet. ir. Vi tyckte, att de talade svenska. 12. Vem byggde bron över ån? 13. Tycker ni icke, att denna blomma är vacker? 14. Den stora flaggan ligger på din lärarinnas bord. 15. Tyckte ni, att staden var vacker? 16. Jag trodde, att han var vår vän. 17. Modern trodde, att hennes son var sjuk. 18. Vi köpte de vita duvorna i dag pả morgonen. 19. De vita fjärilarna sitta på blommorna. 20. Deras son led av en mycket svår sjukdoni. 21. Gossarna redo på den svarta hästen.

[^23]B. 1. His mother was not there. 2. Did the boys not write a long letter? 3. Did you live in the city? 4. The red flowers grew in the woods. 5. I picked the red rose this morning ${ }^{1}$. 6. Do you not think that the Swedish flag is beautiful? 7. The birds are flying under the bridge. 8. Who bought the red slippers? 9. The girls were writing a letter to the Swedish princess. 1o. Do you like the white flowers? - No, but I like the red roses. II. Do you think that their mother is at home to-day? 12. The lamp is on the yellow table. 13. My sister's friend does not speak Swedislı. She speaks only German. 14. The blue flag is on the bridge. 15. Is the large lake beautiful? 16. The German gentleman wrote a letter in Swedish. 17. Who built the large yellow house? 18. They lived in this parish. 19. Were you speaking German?-No, we were speaking Swedish. 20. We bought the yellow birds in the city. 21. The high house is hers. Do you think that her house is pretty?

[^24]
## LESSON VI.

## THIRD DECLENSION.

87. The Third Declension (plur. -er) contains nouns of both genders, but primarily nouns of common gender. Almost all neuter ${ }^{1}$ nouns of this declension are of foreign origin, as are also very many of the nouns of common gender. To this declension belong ${ }^{2}$ :
(r) Many monosyllabic nouns (almost all of common gender) ending in a consonant; as, bok book, färg color, stad city, vän friend, vin (11.) wine.
(2) Many nouns of more than one syllable ending in various suffixes ${ }^{3}$; as, händelse occurrence, konstnär ${ }^{4}$ artist, solda't soldier, månad month, bageri' (n.) bakery, muse'$u m$ (n.)-museum.

Note. - I. Nouns ending in unstressed -e drop this rowel before adding eer; as, biblioteka'rie librarian, plur. biblioteka'rier; händelse occurrence, plur. händelser; fiende enemy, plur. fiender.
2. The few nouns of this declension that end in unstressed el, -er drop the vowel of the suffix upon adding eer; as, muskel muscle, plur. muskler; neger negro, plur. negrer.
3. Nouns ending in -ium and eeum drop -um before adding eer; as, laborato'rium laboratory, plur. laborato'rier; muse'um museum., plur. muse'er.

[^25]4. A number of words ${ }^{1}$ (chiefly monosyllabic) of this declension modify (see § 11) the root-vowel; as, hand hand, plur. händer; son son, plur. söner; bonde peasant, plur. bönder.
5. In a few words a long vowel of the singular is shortened in the plural; as, get goat, plur. getter; nöt nut, plur. nötter. Some have both shortening and modification of the root-vowel; as, bok book, plur. böcker; fot foot, plur. fötter.
6. A few loan-words, especially all that end in -or, shift the stress in the plural; as, dok'tor doctor, plur. dokto'rer; profes'sor professor, plur. professo'rer.
7. Special attention is called to the fact that the Third Declension contains a very large number of loan-words. Most commongender nouns of foreign origin in Swedish, and some neuters, form their plural with -er. If of more than one syllable - and most of the nouns of foreign origin have more than one syllable - they are generally stressed on some syllable other than the first; as, armé army, biblioteka'rie librarian, profes'sor professor, solda't soldier, bageri' ( $^{\prime}$.) bakery, muse'um (n.) museum. Accordingly, most common-gender nouns that do not stress the first syllable, belong to the Third Declension.
88. DEFINITE FORM. The definite singular adds -en $(-n)$ or $-e t(-t)$ according to the gender; the definite plural adds -na.

Note. - I. Nouns ending in -el, -er, or add -n; as, muskeln the muscle, negern the negro, profes'sorn the professor.
2. Common-gender nouns ending in uustressed $-e^{2}$ add $-n$; as, biblioteka'ric, def. biblioteka'rien; händelse, def. händelsen. -Common-gender nouns of more than one syllable ending in a stressed vowel add either -en or $-n$; as, armé army, def. $\operatorname{armé}(e) n$; fotografi' photograph, def. fotografi ${ }^{\prime}(e) n$. See § 93, I.
3. The very few neuters of this declension that have an unstressed final vowel, add $-t$; as, fängelse ${ }^{3}$ prison, def. fängelset. - Neuter nouns ending in a stressed vowel add -et; as, bageri' bakery, def. bageri'et.

1 For a complete list see Phonology § 33.
2 Note also the irregular história history, story, def. histo'rien, plur. histo'rier.
3 With very few exceptions, words with the suffix else have common gender. See page 46, foot-note 3.
4. Nouns ending in -ium and -eum drop $-u m$ before adding -et; ${ }^{1}$ as, laborato'rium, def. laborato'riet; muse'um, def. muse'et.
89. Examples of this declension are: färg color, vän friend, bok book, vin (n.) wine, mảnad month, händelse occurrence, muskel muscle, solda't soldier, doktor doctor, fotografi' photograph, bageri' (n.) bakery, muse'um (n.) museum.

INDEFINITE
Sing. farg
Plur. färger
Sing. bok
Plur. böcker
Sing. mảnad
Plur. månader
Sing. muskel
Plur. muskler
Sing. doktor
Plur. dokto'rer

DEFINITE INDEFINITE DEFINITE
färgen vän vännen
färgerna vänner ${ }^{2}$ vännerna
boken vin (n.) vinet
böckerna viner vinerna
mảnaden händelse händelsen
mảnaderna händelser händelserna
muskeln solda't solda'ten
musklerna solda'ter solda'terna
doktorn - fotografi fotografi $i^{\prime}(e) n$
dokto'rerna fotografi'er fotografi'erna
Sing. bageri'(n.) bageri'et muséum(n.) muséet Plur. bageri'er bageri'erna muséer muse'erna
90. ORTHOGRAPHY: vän, vänner, vännen (§ 6, note 1; Phonology § 18 b).—"Upsala" is in Sweden usually spelled Uppsala, but sometimes Upsala. - In words of foreign origin ending in stressed final $e$, and in inflectional forms of such words, the position of the stress is always indicated, the mark being directly above the $e$; as, armé, armé(e)n, arméer. Similarly, in some proper names; as, Tegnér, Linné.

[^26]91. PRONUNCIATION: bonde (§9,3 a); muséum (§8,2, note); get (§ 14); om (§ 6, note 1).-For the quantity in negrer, etc., see Phonology § 14 B 2 b. Observe the change of the vowel in quality as well as in quantity in nöt, nötter; doktor, dokto'rer (second o); profes'sor, professo'ver (second o).
92. accent: (i) Monosyllables of the Third Declension have the acute accent in the def. sing.; as, fargen, boken, vinet.

In the plural most of these have the grave accent; as, farger, vanner. But all nouns that modify or shorten the root-vowel of the singular in forming the plural (except soner), and a few other nouns, liave the acute accent; as, böcker, städer, getter, nätter. Even bonde, which in the singular has the grave accent, has the acute in the plural, bönder. Many nouns have either the grave or the acute accent, generally in different localities; as, viner, saker.

As the addition of the definite article does not change the nature of the accent of the form to which it is added, sönerna has the grave accent, böckerna, the acute, etc.
(2) Nouns stressed on the last syllable in the indef. sing. have the acute accent both in the def. sing. and in the indef. and def. plural; as, solda'ten, solda'ter, solda'terna; fotografi'en, fotografi'er, fotografi'erna; bageri'et, bageri'er, bageri'erna.
(3) All nouns of the Third Declension ending in ell, -er have the acute accent in all forms, indef. and def., both singular and plural ${ }^{1}$; as, muskel, muskler (na); neger, negrer(na).

[^27](4) Profes'sor has the grave accent, but professo'rer, the acute. Doktor may have either the acute or the grave accent in the singular; in the plural it has the acute (dokto'rer).
(5) Of the words mentioned in this lesson, neger, muskel and Ame'rika have the acute accent. - Doktor and laborato'rium may have either the acute or the grave accent. Muse'$u m$ usually has the acute accent, but sometimes the grave.
93. COLLOQUIALISMS: (1) Forms like fotografi'en occur primarily in the written language; those like fotografin $n$, primarily in the spoken language. Except in the case of those ending in $-i$, the shorter form is frequently used also in the written language.
(2) Neuters ending in a stressed vowel frequently have only $-t$ in the def. form.
(3) In easy speech bröd is pronounced brō. - Hand is in easy speech pronounced hann, which is used also as the def., for handen. - The def. sing. of manad is not infrequently shortened to manan, and the plural to mảnar; but this less often.

## VOCABULARY.

Note.-The following nouns belonging to the Third Declension have occurred in previous vocabularies: bok, färg, son, stad, vän.
armé ${ }^{1}$ (3) army
bageri' $n$. (3) bakery
bibliote'k n. library
biblioteka'rie (3) librarian
bonde (3) peasant
bröd $n$. bread
doktor (3) doctor
dricka (sing. -er) drink
fiende (3) enemy
fot (3) foot
fotografi' (3) photograph
fängelse $n$. (3) prison
för for, to
get (3) goat
hand (3) hand
händelse (3) occurrence

[^28]konstnär ${ }^{1}$ (3) artist laborato'rium $n$. (3) laboratory
muse'um $n$. (3) museum
muskel (3) muscle
månad (3) month
neger (3) negro
nu now
nöt (3) mut
ovän ${ }^{2}$ (3) (personal) enemy profes'sor (3) professor
pá on, in
sak (3) thing, matter, affair solda't (3) soldier
som $^{3}$ who, whom, that, which vin $n$. (3) wine

## EXERCISE VI.

A. 1. Konungen har många soldater i armén. 2. De svenska bönderna ha icke många getter. 3. Doktorn och konstnären dricka vin. 4. Professorn, som du talade om, är på laboratoriet. 5. Bibliotekarien och professorerna voro vänner, men nu äro de ovänner. 6. Negern berättade händelsen för fienderna. 7. Soldaterna köpte bröd i bageriet. 8. Var voro nötterna? 9. Stockholm, Göteborg och Malmö äro svenska städer. 10. Biblioteket i Uppsala är stort. II. Den tyska herrn har bảde svenska och tyska böcker. 12. Fienderna redo till staden på böndernas hästar. 13. Doktorn är på museet. 14. Fotografien ligger på bordet. 15. Fienderna voro i staden en mảnad. 16. Musklerna i händerna äro icke stora. 17. Den sjuka kvinnan är hos doktorn. 18. Bönderna ha icke många böcker. 19. Negrerna i Amerika bo i städerna. 20. Gossar och flickor tycka om fotografier. 21. Professorns böcker äro hos bibliotekarien.

[^29]B. r. The prison in this city is not beautiful. 2. The peasants picked nuts in the woods. 3. The professor was in the library and the doctor was in the laboratory. 4. The king has a horse which is very beautiful. 5. The birds are sitting on the girl's hand. 6. The soldiers are drinking wine. 7. The peasants are giving the enemies bread. 8. The boy's hands and feet are not large. 9. The professors are not in the city in the summer. 10. The enemy does not like our armies. II. The librarian and the doctor are enemies. 12. The negroes are giving the boys nuts. 13. Do the women buy bread in the bakeries? 14. Sweden does not have many large cities. 15. The artist and his friends were in the museum. 16. Is the photograph beautiful? 17. Where are the laboratories? 18. The bakeries in this city are not large.

## LESSON VII.

## FOURTH DECLENSION.

94. The Fourth Declension (plur. - $n$ ) contains only neuter nouns. To this declension belong most neuters ending in a vowel; namely,
(1) A few monosyllabic neuters ending in a vowel; as, $b i$ bee, frö seed, knä knee.
(2) Neuters of more than one syllable ending in an unstressed vowel ${ }^{1}$ (chiefly $-e$ ); as, rike kingdom, äpple apple, forradllande circumstance, hjärta heart, pia'no piano.
95. DEFINITE FORM. The def. sing. adds et or $-t$; the def. plur. adds $-a^{2}$.

Note.-r. Nouns ending in an unstressed vowel add $-t$; as, apple, def. äpplet; hjärta, def. hjärtat; pia'no, def.pia'not. - Those ending in a stressed vowel add et or $-t$; as, $k n \ddot{a}$, def. $k n \tilde{a}(e) t$. See § io5, r.
2. Monosyllables may also, though less often now than before, form the def. plur. by dropping ${ }^{3}-n$ and adding -en; as, bien ( = bina).
3. Of hjarta heart, there is no def. plur. form in conmon use. As far as possible, the written language avoids expressing the definite meaning of the plural of this word, but it employs hjartana (see § 105, 2) if the def. plur. must be expressed.
96. Examples of this declension are: $b i$ bee, äpple apple, lijärta heart, pia'no piano.

1 There are few exceptions, the leading ones being öra, öga ( $\S 110$ ), fïngelse ( 3 Decl.), kilo ( 5 Decl .), and a few foreign words ending in -ma.-Neuters of more than one syllable that have a stressed final vowel, belong to the Third Declension; see page 46, foot-note 3.

2 Observe that the resulting -na, while here embracing also the plural ending, is identical in form with the def. article of the plural in the first three declensions.

3 In reality $x$ is not dropped; the def. form in question is based on an older plural form $b i$ (identical with the singular), to which eew was added; cf. $88106,107$.

INDEFINITE
Sing. bi
Plur. bin
Sing. hjärta
Plur. hjärtan

DEFINITE biet
bina (bien)
hjärtat
[hjärtana]

INDEFINITE äpple
applen
pia'no
pia'non

DEFINITE äpplet äpplena
pia'not
pia'nona

STRONG VERBS.
97. In Swedish, as in English, there is a great variety of vowel-change in the formation of the past tense of strong verbs ${ }^{1}$ (cf. §81 and note). The most numerously represented systems of vowel-change in Swedish are: ${ }^{2}$

PRESENT
(1) long $i$
(2) short $i$
(3) $u, y$

Examples:
(I) skriva write
(2) finna find
(3) bjuda offer
sjunga sing
flyga fly

long $e$
short $a$; plur., short $u$ $\ddot{0}$
skrev
fann, plur. funno
bjöd
sjöng
flög
98. All strong verbs that have $i, u$ or $y$ as the root-vowel in the infinitive ${ }^{8}$ (and in the pres. sing.), form the past tense according to the systems given in § 97. To this there are only two exceptions: giva give, past gav, past plur. gåvo; and ligga lie, past låg. These two verbs, and those having in the infinitive some other root-vowel than $i, u$ or $y$, form the past tense according to various

[^30]systems. As each of the last named systems is represented by only from one to three or four verbs, these can best be learned individually.
99. The past tense of all strong verbs is conjugated like skrev in § 81. Notice, however, that in system (2) the root-vowel of the past plur. differs from that of the past sing. This is the case also with a few of the individual verbs referred to in $\S 98$, end; as, giva, past gav, past plur. gavo. Cf. var, plur. voro, in §71.

| Sing. jag, etc., skrev | fann | bjöd | siöng | flög |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Plur. vi skrevo | funno | bjödo | siongo | fögo |
| I skreven | funnen | bjöden | sjongen | fögen |
| de skrevo | funno | bjödo | siongo | fögo |

## NEGATIVES.

100. Swedish has three words meaning "not": icke, ej and inte. The written language employs icke, frequently interspersing ej. ${ }^{1}$ The spoken language regularly uses inte, which also occurs in the written language, particularly in dialog.
101. POSITION OF, NEGATIVES. In principal clauses the negative is placed after the finite form of the verb, as in English, but in subordinate clauses it is placed before the finite form. Ex.: Han är icke hemma. He is not at home. Hon sagger, att han icke är hemma. She says that lie is not at home.
102. ORTHOGRAPHY: komma, kom, kommo (§ 6, note I; Plonology § 18 a). - Tegnér (§ 90, end).
103. PRONUNCIATION: lova, sova ( $\S 9,3$ b); hjärta (§ 16); knä (§ 17); Tegnér (§ 19, 2 c); hem, Sven (§ 6, note 1).
[^31]In säga, $g$ usually $=j$; in Holgersson, $g=j$ or $g$ (as in $g \dot{a})$. Observe the change in the initial consonant-sound in giva, gav.
104. accent: (i) Monosyllables of the Fourth Declension have the acute accent both in the def. sing. and def. plur.; as, biet, bina (bien).-Words of more than one syllable have the grave accent in all forms (as rike, riket, riken, rikena), with the exception of a few words (as forrhàllande, pia'no, which latter may also have the grave accent; observe that both of these words are stressed ous some syllable other than the first).
(2) Of the words mentioned in this lesson, vatten, for hal'lande, Holgersson and Fritiof have the acute accent; pia'no has either the acute or the grave accent.
105. Colloquialisms: (i) Forms like knäet occur primarily in the written language; those like knät, primarily in the spoken language.
(2) In the spoken language, hjärtana is used as the def. plur. of hjärta.
(3) The spoken language, not employing plural verbforms (cf. $\S 53$, i) has no vowel-change such as that of fann, plur. funno.
(4) In the spoken language, sa may be used for sade.
(5) Även belongs to the written language; likewise ock, which is synonymous with it. In place of these, ock$s \tilde{a}^{1}$, which also occurs in the written language, is used in speaking. In easy speech, med (pronounced $m \ddot{a}$ ) is employed beside ocksa. When these adverbs modify another word, även is placed before the word; ocksá, before or after (the latter primarily in the spoken language); ock and med, after.

[^32]| Summary: | Written <br> ock (after) <br> även (before) <br> ocksd (before) | Spoken | Easy Speech |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  |  | ocksá (after) | ocks $\dot{\alpha}$ (after) <br> med (after) |

(6) In easy speech, god and träd are pronounced go, trä.

## VOCABULARY.

Note. - "Rike", belonging to the Fourth Declension, has occurred in a previous vocabulary.

The strong verbs that have been given in previous vocabularies are: ${ }^{1}$ lida (past, led), rida (red), skriva (skrev), sitta (satt, plur. sutto), dricka (drack, plur. drucko), sjunga (sjöng), flyga (flög), giva (gav, plur. gảvo), ligga (lảg), vara (var, plur. voro), komma (kom², plur. kommo).
arbeta (-ade) work
arbete $n$. (4) work
barn $n .{ }^{3}$ child
bi $n .^{3}$ (4) bee
bjuda (bjöd) offer, invite
dà then, when
ej not
finna (fann, plur. funno) find
frö ${ }^{4} n$. (4) seed
förhảl'lande $n$. (4) circum-
stance, condition
god good
hem n. home; adv., home
hjärta $n$. (4) heart
hålla (höll) hold, keep
inte not
$\mathrm{jo}^{5}$ yes
jord (2) earth, ground
knä $n$. (4) knee
lova (-ade) promise
läsa (-te) read
löfte $n$. (4) promise
minne $n$. (4), memory, reminiscence
natt (3, plur. nätter) night; om -en during the night; i natt ${ }^{6}$ to-night

[^33]näste $n$. (4) nest
ock also
ocksả also
pia'no $n$. (4) piano
resa (-te) travel, go sova (sov ${ }^{1}$ ) sleep
säga (irregular; -er, past sade) say
träd $n$. tree
vatten $n$. water
äpple $n$. (4) apple även also

## EXERCISE VII.

A. I. Han lovade att skriva, men han höll icke löftet. 2. Han arbetade om natten och sov om dagen. 3. Konstnären sade, att han icke arbetade i dag pả morgonen. 4. Fröna lảgo i jorden. 5. Duvorna flögo hem om aftonen. 6. Fäglarna ha nästen i skogen. 7. Karl och Johan ${ }^{2}$ funno nästena. 8. Förhållandena i Sverige voro svåra, dả Johansson reste till Amerika. 9. Bönderna bjödo soldaterna bröd och vatten. 1o. Dessa gossar tycka om pianon. Ir. Böckerna lảgo på ditt bord. 12. Gossarna och flickorna sutto i skolan och läste om Nils Holgersson. 13. Fienderna lảgo i skogen och sovo. 14. Skrev icke professorn ett stort arbete om Sverige? 15. Vi tycka, att pianot är vackert. 16. Han sade, att fågeln icke var i nästet. 17. Sade gossen, att han icke tycker om att resa? 18. Gossarna drucko vatten. De gảvo även hästarna vatten att dricka. 19. Sven sade, att han icke tycker om att plocka nötter.
$B$. 1. He says that the work is not difficult. 2. He liked to read good books when he was small. 3. Did these good apples grow on this tree? 4. The nights were very long then. 5. Where did the boys find the nuts? 6. The bees were sitting on the flowers. 7. The child was sitting on the doctor's knees. 8. Do butterflies have hearts? 9. Have you many books on your

[^34]table? io. The piano is both large and beautiful. II. I thought that he came house this morning. 12. Do pigeons have nests in the woods? I3. The apples are good. 14. The boys were reading Tegnér's works in school". They like to read "Fritiofs Saga". 15. He had many reminiscences of ${ }^{2}$ Sweden to talk about. 16. Are the apples on this tree yours? 17. They promised to work to-day. Did they keep this promise? 18. The seed is very large. 19. Birds like seeds. 20. The boy has a nest which he found in the woods. 2I. His home is also yours.

[^35]
## LESSON VIII.

## FIFTH DECLENSION.

106. In the Fifth Declension (plural without ending) the indef. plur. is identical in form with the indef. sing., except in the case of the words in (3) below, which modify the root-vowel. Compare English "sheep", "swine", "deer". To this declension, which contains nouns of both genders (primarily neuters), belong:
(i) Almost all ${ }^{1}$ neuters ending in a consonant; as, bord table, hus house, fönster window, smultron wild strawberry, genus gender.
(2) Nouns of common gender ending in -are and -ande; as, lärare teacher, resande traveler, ordförande chairman.
(3) A few nouns of common gender that have vowelmodification (see § II) in the plural ${ }^{2}$ : broder brother, fader father, man man, gàs goose, mus mouse, lus louse, plur. bröder, fäder, män, gäss, möss, löss (the last two with irregular vowel-modification).
(4) Nouns (chiefly of common gender) indicating measure ${ }^{8}$; as, mil mile, fot ${ }^{4}$ foot, tum ${ }^{5}$ inch, meter meter, kilo (1.) kilogram. Man has plur. man ${ }^{6}$ when denoting a group of persons (primarily soldiers) thought of as a whole; as, fem tusen man five thousand men, en här $p \dot{a}$ 10,000 (read tio tusen) man an army of 10,000 men.

[^36](5) Foreign nouns, including names of peoples, ending in -er (common gender); as, bota'niker botanist, egyp'tier Egyptian.

Note. - I. The long vowel of the sing., besides being modified, is shortened in the plur. of gds, plur. gäss; mus, plur. möss; lus, plur. löss.
2. Broder and fader are generally contracted to bror and far in the indef. sing. ${ }^{1}$ - Words in -are, when used before a proper noun, usually drop the $-e$; as, skomakar (= shoe-maker) Karlsson (sometimes, skomakare Karlsson) Mr. Carlson. But in the case of kejsare emperor, the $-e$ is always dropped before a noun; as, kejsar Wilhelm. Cf. § 68, note 5 .
107. DEFINITE FORM. The definite singular ends in -et ( $-t$ ) or -en ( $-n$ ), according to the gender. The definite plural ends in en or $-n a$. The plural form -en is used for both genders when a consonant precedes, except that common-gender nouns ending in er add -na. Also the nouns ending in a vowel add $-n a$. Ex.: husen, smultronen, männen, gässen, bröderna, bota'nikerna, ordförandena.

Note. - I. Common-gender nouns ending in $-e$ and $-e r^{2}$ add $-n$ in the def. sing.; as, läraren, brodern, metern, bota'nikern.
2. The few neuters ending in an unstressed vowel add $-t$; as, kilot the kilogram.
3. Neuters ending in $u s$ employ the indef. sing. and plur. also as the def. sing. and plur.; as, genus gender, indef. and def. singular and plural ${ }^{3}$.
4. Alnost all ${ }^{1}$ neuters ending in ell, een, er drop the vowel of the suffix before adding the sing. -et or the plur.-en; as, hagel, hail, def.

[^37]sing. haglet, def. plur. haglen; vapen weapon, vapnet, vapnen; fönster window, fönstret, fönstren ${ }^{1}$.
5. Words ending in -are drop the $e$ of -arena; as, lärarna for lärarena. In the written language, but not in the spoken language, $-n e$ is in this case frequently used to form the def. plural of nouns referring to persons of the male sex. This was the practice formerly more than now. Cf. $\$ 69$, note 5 .
6. For the def. plur., most nouns ending in -ande substitute the prepositive definite article followed by the corresponding present participle, which is identical with the noun (cf. § 150 ); as, de resande (for resandena).
108. Examples of the Fifth Declension are: bord (n.) table, smultron (11.) wild strawberry, fönster (n.) window, genus (n.) gender, lärare teacher, ordförande chairman, bota'niker botanist, bro(de)r brother, man man, gảs goose.
INDEFINITE
Sing. bord (n.) bordet Plur. bord borden

| Sing. fönster (n.) fönstret | genus (n.) genus |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Plur. fönster fönstren | genus | genus |

Sing. lärare läraren ordförande ordföranden Plur. lärare lärarna(-ne)ordförande ordförandena

Sing. bota'niker bota'nikern bro(de)r brodern²
Plur. bota'niker bota'nikerna brōder bröderna

| Sing. man | mannen $^{4}$ | gảs | gảsen |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Plur. mān |  |  |  |
| männen $^{4}$ | gäss | gässen |  |

[^38]
## IRREGULARITIES IN DECLENSION.

109. A few common-gender nouns (chiefly monosyllabic) ending in various vowels, form their plural by adding $-r$; as, ko cow, plur. kor; sko shoe, skor; tà toe, tàr; hustru wife, hustrur.

The def. sing. adds $-n$; the def. plur. adds $-n a$; as, kon, korna; hustrun, hustrurna.
110. The two neuters öga eye, and öra ear, form their plural by dropping $-a$ and adding -on, plur. ogon, öron.

The def. sing. adds $-t$; the def. plur. adds -en; as, ögat, ögonen.
111. Some nouns form their plural in several (usually two) different ways: (i) A large number of neuters of foreign origin ending in a consonant (chiefly nouns of more than one syllable) may belong either to the Fifth or the Third Declension. Ex.: adjektiv adjective, distrik't district, elemen't element, kapita'l capital, palat's palace, poe'm poem, proble' $m$ problem, verb verb, hotel'l hotel, bibliote'k library. (2) Various other instances of two different plural forms ${ }^{1}$ for the same noun are: huvud head, plur. huvud (def. huvuden), or huvuden (def. huvudena); hammare hammer, plur. hammare or hamrar; härad district, township, plur. härad or härader.
112. Proper names ending in an s -sound do not add -s in the genitive. ${ }^{2}$ In writing, however, an apostrophe is

[^39]very frequently (but less now than formerly) used to indicate the case; as, Fohan'nes (older and biblical form of Fohan) John, Fohan'nes' evange'lium The Gospel According to St. John; Pari's' belä'gring the Siege of Paris.
113. FOREIGN NOUNS. Some loan-words retain their foreign plural; as, faktum fact, plur. fakta; exa'men examination, plur. exa'mina; neutrum neuter, plur. neutrer or neutra; prono'men pronoun, plur. prono'men, prono'miner ${ }^{1}$ or prono'mina.

Of these, the indefinite form is used also as the definite, both in the singular and (foreign) plural. Ex.: De perso'nliga prono'mina the personal pronouns. Futu'rums bety'delse kan ock uttryckas genom hjälpverbet skola och pres. inf. (read presens infinitiv) med att. The future idea (literally, "the meaning of the future tense") may also be expressed by the auxiliary skola and the present infinitive with att. - But those that also have Swedish plurals, i. e., are naturalized, may have the definite article; as, neutret, prono'minet ${ }^{1}$.

Some foreign nouns, especially biblical names, retain their foreign genitive; as, Mattéus Matthew, Matte'i evange'lium The Gospel According to St. Matthew; Paulus Paul, Pauli brev The Epistle of Paul; Kristus Christ, gen. Kristi; Fesus Jesus, gen. Fesu; Nationa'lmuseum National Museum, Nationa'lmusei samlingar the collections of the National Museumi; filosofi' $e^{2}$ doktor Doctor of Philosophy; medici'ne ${ }^{2}$ doktor Doctor of Medicine.
114. ORTHOGRAPHY: man, mannen, män, männen; hem, hemmet, hemmen; hammare, hamrar (§6, note 1 ; Phonology § 18); gås, but in the plural gäss on account of the shortened vowel.

[^40]115. PRONUNCIATION: (a) ${ }^{1}$ neutrum (Phonology § 35); egyp'tier (§§ 14; 19, 7 b 3); exa'men (§ 19, 9); kilo, genus (§ I4); kejsare (§§ 14; 12); evangélium (Phonology § 49, 4, note); Wilhelm (§ 19, 8); tum, fem (§ 6, note 1).

Observe the change in the initial consonant-sound of gàs, gäss. For the quantity in vapnet, etc., see Phonology § 14 B 2 b .- (b) Paulus (§ 12); poém, proble'm (Phonology § 20, 2); medici'ne (§ 19, I b 1); kan (§ 6, note 1); Nationa'lmuseum (§ 19, 7 b 2); perso'nliga (Phonology § 14 B 2 c ); huvud (Phonology § 14 A 3).
116. ACCENT: (i) In the Fifth Declension monosyllables of both genders with more than one syllable in the def. form, have the acute accent in both the def. sing. and plural${ }^{2}$; as, huset, husen; mannen, männen. Similarly, the monosyllables of § iog have the acute accent in the def. plural; as, korna. Also nouns with the stress on the last syllable have the acute accent in the def. sing. and plural; as, bibliote'ket, bibliote'ken.
(2) Almost all words of this declension ending in the suffixes $-e l,-e n,-e r$, have the acute accent. Important exceptions are broder and fader, which, however, have the acute accent in the plural, bröder, fäder.
(3) Words of more than one syllable with the acute accent have this in all forms; as, fonster (sing. and plur.), fonstret, fönstren (fönsterna).
(4) Of the words mentioned in this lesson, the following have the acute accent: (a) ${ }^{1}$ genus, kilo, vatten, vapen, hagel, prono'men, fönster, meter, tusen, egyp'tier, Egyp'ten, Gottland, Lappland. - Evangélium, exa'men, genom and Wilhelm may have either the acute or the grave accent. Bota'ni-

[^41]ker and neutrum usually have the acute accent, but sometimes the grave.-(b) Fohan'nes, Matte'us, Paulus, Karlsson, belä'gring, bety'delse, perso'nlig, presens.
117. colloquialisms: (i) Observe that ne is not used for the def. plur. in the spoken language (see § io7, note 5).
(2) In the spoken language, words ending in -are drop $e$ in the def. sing; as, skomakarn. In Southern Sweden, however, the uncontracted form is more usual.
(3) In a large part of Sweden, neuters drop the $-t$ in the def. form; as, huset, pronounced huse; cf. §53,3. But in the genitive the $t$ is always pronounced (see, however, § 134, 2); as, husets.
(4) In a large part of Sweden, $-a$ is added to the def. plur. ending -en ${ }^{1}$; as, hus, def. plur. husena; bord, bordena; barn, barnena; hagel, haglena; so also gads, def. plur. gässena. Similarly in the case of öga, öra, def. plur. ögona, örona.
(5) Neuters ending in er almost always add -na in the def. plur. in the spoken language; as, monsterna (for mönstren, from mönster pattern); papperna (for papperen, from papper paper); pulverna (for pulvren, from pulver powder). Some of these frequently add $-n a$ also in the written language; see page 62, foot-note 1 .
(6) In the case of many nenters (particularly foreign words) ending in a consonant which have double plural forms without difference in meaning, belonging either to the Third or the Fifth Declension (see § in I, r), the spoken language prefers the plurals ending in ecr, while the written language prefers the plurals without ending.

[^42](7) Far and bror are more common in the spoken language than in the written. Cf. § 75, 3.
(8) In place of man, plur. män, the spoken language generally uses $\mathrm{karl}^{1}$.
(9) In the spoken language, huvud has the forms huve, def. huvet; plur. huven, def. huvena.
(io) In the spoken language, Gottland and Lappland are usually pronounced Gottlan and Lapplan, respectively.

## VOCABULARY.

Note. - The following nouns belonging to the Fifth Declension have occurred in previous vocabularies: barn, bibliote'k, bord, brev, bröd, hetn, hus, träd, vatten; also fot (with the plural er; cf. page 60 , foot-note 4 ).

No declension is indicated for nouns that cannot readily be used in the plural.
bota'niker (5) botanist broder, bror (5) brother egyp'tier (5) Egyptian evange'lium $n$. (3) gospel exa'men (plur. exa'mina) examination
fader, far (5) father
faktum $n$. (plur. fakta) fact
falla (föll) fall
fem five
fönster $n$. (5) window
genus $n$. (5) gender
gảs (5) goose
hagel $n$. (5) hail, hailstone hustru (plur. -r) wife jordgubbe ${ }^{2}$ (2) (cultivated)
kejsare (5) emperor, Kaiser kilo $n$. (5) kilogram (2.2 lbs.) ko (plur. -r) cow
lärare (5) teacher man (5) man, husband meter (5) meter (39 inches)
mil (5) mile (6.8 Eng. miles)
namn n. (5) name
neutrum $n$. (3 or neutra) neuter
ordförande (5) chairman
prono'men $n$. ( 3,5 or prono'mina) pronoun
resande (5) traveler
sko (plur. -r) shoe
skomakare (5) shoemaker strawberry

[^43]smultron $n$. (5) (wild) strawberry
smör $n$. butter
tum (sometimes n.) (5) inch tusen thousand tvả two
tyg $n$. (5 or 3 ) cloth
tả (plur. -r) toe
vapen $n$. (5) weapon
ö (2) island
öga $n$. (plur. ögon) cye
öra $n$. (plur. öron) ear

## EXERCISE VIII.

A. I. Botanikern och hans bröder voro i skogen och plockade smultron. 2. Nils Holgersson satt pả en gảs och red över Sverige. Gässen reste mảnga mil om dagen ${ }^{1}$. De flögo från Skảne till Lappland. Gässen voro även på Gottland. 3. Gottland är en stor ö. Var ligger denna ö? 4. Egyptierna bo i Egypten ${ }^{2}$. 5. Bor icke kejsar Wilhelm i Berlin${ }^{8}$ ? 6. Soldaterna funno fiendernas vapen under träden. 7. "Mitt" är neutrunı av pronominet "min". 8. Haglen föllo till jorden om natten, men de voro icke kvar ${ }^{4}$, då morgonen kom. 9. Ha gässen tår? io. Barnen tyckte, att examina voro svåra. II. Fadern köpte skorna av skomakaren. I2. Kor ha stora ögon. I3. Lärarıa sutto i skolan och talade om barnen. 14. Kons namn är icke vackert. I5. Nötterna föllo från träden. 16. Tvả resande kommo till Uppsala i dag pá morgonen. 17. Skomakarens hustru köpte fem kilo smör ${ }^{5}$ av en bonde, som har två kor. i8. Gossens namn är Johan. 19. Tycker ni om bruna ögon? 20. Grenen är fem tum lảng. 21. Svenskan har tvad genus. 22. "Öga"' och "öra"' äro neutra.
$B$. I. The examination was not difficult. 2. The peasants liave cows and horses. 3. "Detta" is neuter of

[^44]"denna". 4. Strawberries are red. 5. Botanists like flowers and trees. 6. The children's eyes are brown. 7. Swedish children do not have brown eyes. 8. "Jag" and "du" are pronouns. 9. Trees, flowers and strawberries grow in the woods in summer ${ }^{1}$. Io. The birds flew from tree to tree. ir. The men found the weapons in the house. 12. The cows drank the water. 13. The lake is a mile long. 14. The emperor does not live in this city during the summer. 15. The woman bought five meters of ${ }^{2}$ cloth. 16. Peasants do not buy butter. 17. The geese drank the water which the peasant gave the cows. 18. The pronouns "han" and "hon" are not neuters. 19. The chairman's brothers are librarians. 20. Do children like (cultivated) strawberries?

[^45]
## LESSON IX.

## SYNTAX OF THE NOUN.

118. the genitive. A few further illustrations of the more extensive use of the genitive in Swedish (see § 56) are: ${ }^{1}$ husets tak the roof of the house, diktens förfat'tare the author of the poem, husets aggare the owner of the house, berät'telsens slut the end of the story, bokens pärmar the covers of the book, Rysslands kejsare the Czar of Russia, 1772 (read sjutton hundra sjuttitvà') ärs revolutio'n the revolution of the year 1772, pa fem mils avstand at a distance of five miles, on ärans man a man of honor, Finlands förlus't the loss of Finland, Ame'rikas upptäckt the discovery of America, pả Karl XII:s (read tolftes) tid in the time of Charles XII, vart modersmàls studium the study of our native tongue, ett fyra vaningars hus a four-story house, bordets ben the legs of the table, vid krigets slut at the end of the war, stjänans fall the fall of the star, klassens lärare the teacher of the class, klassens bästa gosse the best boy in the class, vid àrets början at the beginning of the year, en fom àrs flicka a girl of five years, vid tva àrs álder at the age of two years, Kronobergs ${ }^{2}$ län the district of Kronoberg, Stockholms stad the city of Stockholm, Sveriges rike the Kingdom of Sweden, Lunds universite't the University of Lund.

In place-names, in the case of certain common expressions (cf. the examples immediately preceding), no genitive ending is added if the proper noun ends in a vowel or in certain consonants (including $s$; see § II2);

[^46]as, Örebró län the district of Örebro, Mora socken the parish of Mora, Uppsala universite't the University of Upsala, Kalmar län the District of Kalmar, Västerä's stad the town of Västerås. - Falu gruva the mine of Falun, from Falun, and Trollhätte kana'l (=canal), from Trollhättan, are irregular.
119. Swedish may, however, also use a prepositional phrase instead of the genitive, especially when the word denoting possession or connection is the name of an inanimate object, but some other preposition than av of, is generally used. Ex.: ${ }^{1}$ taket pa huset the roof of the house, forfat'taren av (or till) dikten the author of the poem, agaren av (till) huset the owner of the house, slutet $a v(p a ̊)$ berät'telsen the end of the story, pärmarna pả boken the covers of the book, kejsaren över (av) Ryssland the Czar of Russia, revolutio'nen ( $a v$ ) 1772 the revolution of the year 1772, på ett avstand avं fem mil at a distance of five miles, en man av ära a man of honor, Viktor är kusi'n till Adolf Victor is Adolph's cousin, en god vän till min far a good friend of my father's.

This substitution ${ }^{2}$ is especially common in the case of common nouns ending in an s- or st-sound; as, taket pd ett hus the roof of a house, doften av en ros the fragrance of a rose. Cf. §II2.
120. In some expressions where English has the prepositional phrase, Swedish uses merely the base-form, especially after nouns of weight, measure, number and kind; as, ett glas kallt vatten a glass of cold water, tvả koppar kaffe two cups of coffee, tre par vita skor three

[^47]pair of white shoes, ett par vita skor a pair of white shoes, ett par böcker a couple of books, en hop människor a lot of people, en skock änder a flock of ducks, en flaska bläck a bottle of ink, en tunna radg a measure ( $=4$ bushels) of rye.

When the following noun has definite meaning, a preposition ( $a v$ of) must be used; as, tvả koppar av detta kaffe two cups of this coffee, ett par av böckerna a couple of the books, en tunna av min bästa ragg a measure of my best rye.

Observe also juni manad the nonth of June, den femte april' the fifth of April (cf. den femte dennes, § 270), staden Berli'n the city of Berlin.
121. Especially in the spoken language, but sometimes also in the written, a form resembling the genitive is used to signify some one's family, house or business, much as in English. Ex.: Fag köpte smöret hos Meli'ns. I bought the butter at Melin's. Hon är hos Anderssons. She is at the Anderson home. Skall du gå till Bergströms? Are you going to Bergstrom's? När man gảr förbi' fiskarns, ser man en vik av sjön. As you pass the fisherman's cottage, you can see a bay of the lake. Fohanssons voro icke där. The Johnsons were not there.
122. Until and during the earlier part of the Old Swedish Period (Old Swedish $=$ about 1225 -1526) the preposition till to, was regularly followed by the genitive case, and not by the base-form, as now. In a fairly large number of phrases this old use of the genitive still obtains, but now only certain nouns can be used in the genitive with till. These phrases usually have a specialized meaning, and the preposition is in most cases not to be translated "to"' as, till lands by land, till sjöss" by sea, gả till sjöss

[^48]go to sea, gå till sängs go to bed, ligga till sängs lie in bed, $g \dot{\alpha}$ (sitta) till bords sit down (sit) at table, vara till hands be at hand, gå till mötes go to meet, vyssja till sömns lull asleep, till fots on foot.

Notice that only the indefinite singular is used in these expressions, and that the reference is therefore never to a particular object.

## THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE.

123. Swedish omits the indefinite article before a predicate noun denoting occupation, profession, state or nationality. Ex.: Han är lärare (skomakare, engelsman). He is a teacher (a shoemaker, an Englishman). Han är bror (vän) till biblioteka'rien. He is a brother (a friend) of the librarian. Dả jag var barn when I was a child. Hon är änka. She is a widow.

The article is in such cases omitted also when som as, is used. Ex.: Som barn var han blyg. As a child he was bashful. Fag värde'rar honom som människa. I appreciate him as a man (human being). Karl XII (read tolfte) visade framstående egenskaper som härförare. Charles XII displayed excellent qualities as a general.

But if the noun is further defined (e. g., by an adjective or a clause), or, more precisely ${ }^{1}$, if the personal characteristics are emphasized, and not the class, the article is used. Ex.: Han är en framstäende vetenskapsman. He is a prominent scientist (scholar). Han är en duktig lärare. He is a good teacher. Han är en vän, som man kan lita pa. He is a friend that one can depend upon.

[^49]124. The indefinite article is also omitted in various other phrases. Ex.: Fag fick brev (svar) fran Karl i dag. I received a letter (an answer) from Carl to-day. Frdgetecken sättes efter direk't fräga. A question-mark is placed after a direct question. Fag har huvudvärk. I have a headache. Han dog àr 1870 (read aderton hundra sjuttio). He died in the year 1870. Falla offer for fall a victim to, fà anställning get a position.

On the other hand, Swedish sometimes uses the indef. .article where English does not; as, till en del in part.

## THE DEFINITE FORM OF NOUNS.

125. The definite form is frequently used in the case of abstract nouns and of nouns denoting material ${ }^{1}$, or a class in its entirety (generic use). Ex.: Livet är kort. Life is short. Människan är dödlig. Man is mortal. Guld (ct) $\bar{a} r$ dyrbarare än järn(et). Gold is more valuable than iron. Försik'tighet är av nöden. Caution is necessary. Han talar $i$ sömnen. He talks in his sleep. Má lyckan följa er! May good fortune attend you. Noden har ingen lag. Necessity has no law. Fattigdom(en) är en hadrd lott. Poverty is a hard lot. Ljuset är snabbare än ljudet. Light travels faster than sound. Vanans makt the force of habit, efter döden after death, av naturen by nature, allt ifra'n ${ }^{2}$ ungdomen from youth, sprakets ursprung the origin of language.

Note also the following expressions, in which the noun in the def. form is used in a general sense: Han gar $i$ kyrkan varje söndag. He goes to church every Sunday. $G \dot{d} i$ skolan go to school. Det ar inte trevigt att bo $i$ staden pa sommaren. It is not pleasant to live in the city in summer. Brukar du inte gả pá tea'tern? Are you

[^50]not in the habit of going to the theater? Mot aftonen toward evening. Det är klart som dagen. It is plain as daylight. Klocka! fem fire o'clock. Middagen är fardig. Dinner is ready.
126. The definite form is used in expressions with distributive meaning; as, mảnga mil om dagen many miles a day, tod kronor $i$ veckan two crowns a week, fem kronor metern five crowns a meter, en krona stycket one crown each (apiece).
127. In the case of nouns referring to parts of the body or to wearing apparel, Swedish may, when the context makes clear the meaning, use merely the definite form of a noun, where English has a possessive prozoun and a noun. ${ }^{1}$ Ex.: Vad har du i fickan? What have you in your pocket? Han stod där med hatten i handen (or $i$ hand). He stood there with his hat in lis hand. Han ryckte pà axlarna och drack under tystnad sitt te. He shrugged his shoulders and drank his tea in silence.

So also with nouns denoting relationship, when the relatives are not those of the person speaking nor of the person spoken to. Ex.: Han gav brodern en vacker bok. He gave his brother a beautiful book. Vad fadern pdbörjat, fortsatte sönerna. The sons continued what their father had started. Stina àr lika wacker som systern. Stina is just as pretty as her sister. Han har ingatt som delagare $i$ faderns affár. He has become a partner in his father's business. Sien reste till Ame'rika. Forāldrarna sörjde mycket, men sonen kom aldrig hcm igen'. Sven went to America. His parents grieved much, but their son never returned home. - But observe: Mor är icke hemma. Mother is not at home. Min bror är sjuk. My

[^51]brother is sick. Din bror är en duktig lärare. Your brother is a good teacher. Hur stàr det till med far? How is my (or, your) father?
128. Swedish employs the definite form in the case of many geographical names; ${ }^{1}$ as, Östersjön the Baltic (literally, "the East Sea"); Mälaren, Hjälmaren, Vänern, Vättern, the names of the four large lakes in Central Sweden; Dalarna, one of the 25 provinces of Sweden; Kolmarden, a large forest on the boundary of the provinces Östergötland and Södermanland. Notice also Turki'et Turkey.-Swedish regularly uses the definite article with names of streets; as, Drottninggatan "Queen Street".
129. When used with a proper noun, titles are sometimes put in the definite form; in the case of some titles, however, either the definite or the indefinite form may be employed, while others are always left in the indefinite form (especially those ending in -al, -or, -ör); as, prinses'san Ingeborg Princess Ingeborg, prosten Lundel'l Reverend Lundell, docen't $t^{2}$ (or docen'ten ${ }^{2}$, = lecturer) Sundén Mr. Sundén, profes'sor ${ }^{2}$ Cederschiöld Professor Cederschiöld, herr Fohansson Mr. Johnson. Cf. § 39, 2.
130. In some instances, Swedish has the indefinite form where English employs the definite article; as, ijuni mánad in the month of June, ar $191 z$ (read nitton hundra tolv) (in) the year 1912, tala sanning speak the truth, i närvarande stund at the present moment, gả àt rätt háll go in the right direction. $\bar{A} r ~ d u ~ s a ̈ k e r ~ p a ̊, ~ a t t ~ d e t ~ a ̈ r ~ r a ̈ t t ~$ adres's? Are you sure it is the right address? Till mu behan'dlade grupp höra de flesta av dessa ord. Most of these words belong to the group just treated. Före'ningen sammanträder pà vanlig loka'l mảndag kl. 8 (read klockan

[^52]atta). The Society will meet in the usual place, Monday at 8 .
131. ORTHOGRAPHY: juni (§ 24, 3); engelsman (§ 24, 2); titles (§ 24, 1); Linnégatan, Tegnér (§ 90).
132. PRONUNCIATION: (a) kyrka ( $\$ 14$; Phonology $\$ 24,2$, note); Esai'as (§ 12); Tegnér (§ 19, 2 c); Hjälmaren (§ 16); engelsk (§ 19, 5 b); Lagerlöf (Phonology § 42, note). -Observe the shortened vowel in till sjöss as compared with the normal genitive (en) sjös; similarly in till fots. - (b) människa (§ 14, note); stjärna (§ 19, 6 b); docen't (§ 19, I b 1); Cederschiöld (§ 19, 1 b $1 ;$ schi $=$ sch, § 19, 6 b); Karl (§ 16 a); änka (§ 19, 5 a 1); än, igen ${ }^{\prime}$ (§ 6, note 1); prost (§ 9, 3 a); revolutio'n (Phonology § 54, 4 b); ljus, ljud (§ 16); universite't (§ 8, 2, note); april' (§ 6, note 1); dödlig, vanlig (Phonology § 14, B 2 c ).
133. ACCENT. The following words have the acute accent: (a) förfat'tare, feber, liter, därför, varför, engelsk, Smảland, Närke, Södermanland, Sörmland, Svensson, Lon-don.-Engelsman, Värmland, Vänern and Vättern have either the acute or the grave accent. - (b) föräldrar, fore'ning, försik'tighet, berät'telse, behan'dla, värde'ra, söndag, mảndag, middag, juni, studium, offer, säker, efter, Ryssland, Finland, Viktor, Kalmar, Turki'et.-Hundra and sjutti(o) usually have the acute accent. Adolf and tea'ter may have either the grave or the acute accent.
134. colloquialisms: (i) In the spoken language, $o p p$ is in the greater part of Sweden used in place of $u p p$.
(2) The spoken language almost always employs a prepositional phrase instead of the genitive to express possession or connection in the case of inanimate objects ${ }^{1}$. Frequently a compound noun is used in place of the geni-

[^53]tive + noun (as bordsfotterna, bokpārmen), or an adjective is used for the genitive.
(3) The use of the $s$-form of nouns treated in § 121 belongs primarily to the spoken language.
(4) Vad is generally pronounced $v a$; the long $a$ of $v a$ is frequently shortened and, particularly when the word is used as an interrogative ${ }^{1}$ pronoun, also changed in quality (cf. Phonology § 30). - In the spoken language, particularly in easy speech, vid is pronounced ve (short vowel, unstressed).
(5) Östergötland, Värmland and Smàland are in the spoken language usually pronounced without the final $d$. Sodermanland is in the spoken language generally shortened to Sörmland, where, as in the case of the words just mentioned, the final $d$ is usually silent.
(6) On the pronunciation of Drottninggatan cf. § 75, 7.

## VOCABULARY.

ben $n$. (5) leg, bone
biskop (2) bishop duktig able, good där there, where därfōr therefore, for that reason
en ( $n$. ett) $)^{2}$ one
engelsk English; -a the
English language; pá
-a in English
engelsman ( 5 ; plur. -män)
Englishman
feber (2) fever
ficka (1) pocket
fà (irregular; sing. -r; past fick, plur. fingo) receive, get
förfat'tare (5) author
glas.n. (5) glass
kaffe $n$. coffee
kopp (2) cup
kosta (-ade) cost
krona (1) crown ( $=27$ cents), crown

[^54]kyrka (1) church
liter (5) liter $(=1.76$ pints $)$
läı $n$. (5) district,
mellan between
ord $n$. (5) word
par n. couple; (5) pair
pá of, to, on
rik rich; rik på rich in, varför why
abounding in
som as
süng (2) bed
till to, of, by
trappa (1) stair; en trappa upp on the second floor; tva -or upp on the third floor ${ }^{1}$ upp up
vad what?, what
vid $a t$, by, in
yrke $n$. (4) trade, occupation

## EXERCISE IX.

A. 1. Deras bror är bibliotekarie. Är han en duktig bibliotekarie? 2. Han bor ett par. engelska mil från London. 3. Mälaren är rik pả öar. Tycker ni icke, att Mälaren är en stor sjö?-Jo, och den är även mycket vacker. 4. Min vän har feber. 5. Svensson är skomakare till yrket. 6. Hennes far får fem kronor om dagen, där han arbetar. 7. Bröderna bodde vid Linnégatan fem ${ }^{2}$, två trappor upp. 8. En liter jordgubbar kostar en krona. 9. Varför har du inte skorna pả fötterna? 10. Stockholm ligger mellan Mälaren och Östersjön ${ }^{3}$. II. Mannen köpte ett par tofflor av skomakaren. De kostade endast fem kronor paret. 12. Hustrun och barnen sutto till bords, då vi kommo. I3. Smöret kostade en krona kilot. 14. Mora socken är i Dalarna. 15. Johan lảg till sängs två dagar. 16. Författaren får en krona ordet. 17. Sverige är rikt på ${ }^{4}$ sjöar. 18. Johan gav modern tvả kronor om dagen. Därför tyckte hon om sonen. 19. Vad är ordets genus?

[^55]B. I. The legs of the table are high ${ }^{1}$. 2. The shoemaker's wife bought two kilograms of butter at Palmér's. 3. The boys are in school now. 4. Hjalmaren is the name of ${ }^{2}$ a large lake that lies between Västmanland, Närke and Södermanland. 5. Selma Lagerlöf lives in Falun in Dalarna. Her home was in Värmland when she was a child. 6. I bought five meters of the red cloth. This cost two crowns a meter. 7. Esaias ${ }^{3}$ Tegnér, who is the author of "Fritiofs Saga", was bishop of Växjö, a little town in the district of Kronoberg in Smaland. 8. The strawberries cost two crowns a liter. 9. The boys found a couple of good apples on the tree. 10. Is the doctor an Englishman? II. He has two crowns in his pocket. 12. Did you drink a cup of coffee or a glass of water? 13. Stockholm is beautiful ${ }^{4}$. 14. Was she pretty as a child? 15 . We lived on the second floor.

[^56]
## LESSON X.

## FUTURE TIME. ORDER OF WORDS.

135. Future time is usually expressed by the present tense when the context shows that the reference is to future time. Ex.: Han kommer $i$ kväll. He is coming ${ }^{1}$ this evening. Fag är hemma i morgon klockan fem. I shall be at home to-morrow at five o'clock. Reser $d u$ snart? Are you going to leave soon?

In many verbs, namely those that denote transition from one condition or action to another, or which point to the attainment of a result ${ }^{2}$ (that is, denote a change of some kind), the present may be used to express future time without such context. Ex.: Fag somnar nog. I'll fall asleep, no doubt. Blir han frisk? Will he get well? Det blir bra. That will be fine. Du faller. You'll fall. Fär jag svar pá brevet? Shall I get a reply to the letter? Fag talar inte om det for nagon. I shall not tell anyone.
136. Future time may also be expressed by means of auxiliaries followed by the infinitive:
(1) Very often by the present of komma followed by alt to, with the present infinitive. This auxiliary-future is conjugated as follows:

[^57]Sing. jag, etc., kommer att tala (bygga, köpa, bo, skriva) Plur. vi komma att tala (bygga, köpa, bo, skriva) I kommen att tala (bygga, köpa, bo, skriva) de komma att tala (bygga, köpa, bo, skriva)
Ex.: Han kommer att resa $i$ morgon. He is going ${ }^{1}$ to leave to-morrow. Det kommer att regna snart. It is going to rain soon. Sjukdomen kommer nog att vara länge. The sickness will no doubt last long. Han kommer att bli vald med stor majorite't. He will be elected by a large majority.
(2) Comparatively seldom by the forms of skola followed by the present infinitive (without att):
Sing. jag, etc., skall tala (bygga, köpa, bo, skriva) Plur. vi skola tala (bygga, köpa, bo, skriva)

I skolen tala (bygga, köpa, bo, skriva)
de skola tala (bygga, köpa, bo, skriva)
Note. - I. Observe the vowel-change in skall, skola. Cf. § 138 , note 2. Also the quantity of the vowel is changed.
2. Notice that skall does not end in $-r$ (see $\S 46, \mathrm{I}$ ). The same is true of vill in § 137 and of kan in § 138 . Corresponding to this, notice in English the absence of $-s$ in the third person singular of "shall", "will" and "can", as compared with " (he) runs", "(he) calls".
3. Skall with the present infinitive is of very frequent occurrence, but it comparatively rarely expresses pure futurity. It usually expresses decision, determination or command. These ideas necessarily point to future time, but the futurity is secondary.
137. There is in Swedish nothing corresponding to the English distinction between "shall" and "will" in the different persons. The Swedish verb corresponding in form to Eng. "will"' is vilja, but this always means "want to", "wish to" or "will" (when this implies volition), and it is never used to express futurity. It is followed by the present infinitive without att to. Its forms are:

[^58]PRESENT
Sing. jag, etc., vill
Plur. vi vilja
$I$ viljen
de vilja

PAST
ville
ville
villen
ville
138. The forms of the verbs bli(va) become, be, and kunna can, be able, are:

|  | PRESENT | PAST | PRESENT |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Sing. jag, etc., blir | blev | jag, etc., kan |  |
| Plur. vi bli(va) | blevo | vi kunna | kunde |
| I bliven | bleven | I kunnen | kunden |
| de bli $(v a)$ | blevo | de kunna | kunde |

Note. - I. Cf. the present of $b l i(v a)$ with that of $h a(v a)$ in $\S 42$.
2. Observe that there is vowel-change in the present of kunna, similar to that in the past tense of finna in §99.

ORDER OF WORDS.
139. INVERSION. Normally, the subject precedes the verb in declarative sentences, just as in English. But in principal clauses ${ }^{1}$ this order is inverted, the verb ${ }^{2}$ being placed before the subject in the following cases:
(i) If any word or words belonging to the predicate (as adverbs, adverbial phrases, the object, a predicate adjective or a predicate noun) precede the subject. ${ }^{3}$ Ex.:

[^59]Sedan skrev han ett brev. Afterwards he wrote a letter. $I$ Stockholm köpte jag ett bord. I bought a table in Stockholm. Glad var han inte. He was not glad. Pengar har han nog. You may be sure the has money. Brodern är han ond pả. He is angry with his brother. Inte vet jag det. I'm sure I don't know.
(2) If a subordinate clause precedes the principal clause. Ex.: Om han icke är sjuk, (sä) kommer han. If he is not ill, he will come. När klockan var ätta, kom han hem igen'. He came home again when it was eight o'clock.
Note. - 1. When inversion has taken place, the negative, if there is one, follows immediately upon the subject. Ex.: Om han är sjuk, (si) kommer han icke. If he is ill, he will not come. (Cf. Han kommer icke. He will not come.)
2. Dad then, when, där there, where, dit thither, whither, are used both as adverbs and as relative conjunctions. When they are conjunctions, the normal order follows. When used as adverbs, they cause inversion when they stand first in the clanse. Fx.: Dd kom han. Then he came. Dd han kom, var jag icke hemma. When he came, I was not at home.
3. When a subordinate clause precedes the principal clause, the latter is very often introduced by $s d$ then, especially after a conditional clause. See $\S 146$, r . This $s d$ is in most cases left untranslated in rendering into English. See the examples in $\S \mathrm{S}_{\mathrm{S}}$ 39, 2; 140.
140. In the condition of a conditional sentence, the conjunction om if, may be omitted. In this case inversion takes place. Ex.: Om han kommer, sa är det bra. Kommer han ${ }^{\mathrm{I}}$, sàär det bra. If he comes, it will be well.

In other cases, inversion does not take place in subordinate clauses. ${ }^{2}$ Ex.: Inte kan jag veta, vilken bok du vill

[^60]ha. I'm sure I don't know which book you want. (Cf. Vilken bok vill du ha? Which book do you want?) See also the illustrations in § $139,2$.
141. The rule given in $\S$ ror holds also for ${ }^{1}$ (1) aldrig ${ }^{2}$ never, and the other words that have negative force ${ }^{8}$; (2) adverbs referring to indefinite time ${ }^{2}$; as, ofta often, alltid always, snart soon; (3) certain adverbs belonging to the whole clause; as, väl no doubt, nog no doubt, surely.

Words which thus vary their position in principal and subordinate clauses are called movable words. Ex.: Böcker, som icke äro inbundna, äro icke starka. Books that are not bound are not strong. Han far sallan till staden. He rarely goes to town. Fag vet, att han sallan far till staden. I know that he rarely goes to town. Fag har ingenting sett. I have seen nothing. Han säger, att han ingenting har sett. He says that he has seen nothing. (On the contrary: Fag har sett nagonting. I have seen something. Han säger, att han har sett ndgonting. He says that he has seen something.) Han mat. He said that he had not had any food for three days. Mamma kom ut ock ropade, att nu var det färdigt. Mother came out and said that it was ready now. Urmakaren paistod, att ett sådant ur kunde ingen annan göra. The watchmaker asserted that no one else could make such a watch. Han visste. aft om han gav efter för tröttheten, sà var kan förlo'rad. He knew that he would be lost if he yielded to his weariness.

1 In principal clauses the adverbs and negative words here mentioned (as also icke) may stand first and cause inversion in the regular way (see $\oint 139,1)$. - In the auxiliary-tenses, e. g., in the future, the auxiliary is the finite form of the verb.

2 Observe that English, contrary to the practice in Swedish, frequently places temporal adverbs of indefinite time between the subject and the verb when the latter is used in the simple tenses. Ex.: He often came for a visit. Han kom ofta pd besök. He always told the truth. Han talade allid sanning. He never wrote home. Han skrev aldrig kem. - But in the case of auxiliarytenses, the adverb stands after the auxiliary in English as well as in Swedish. Ex.: He has never written home. Han har aldrig skrivit hem.

3 If the negative word is an adjective, the word it modifies (which must be in the predicate in the cases under consideration) goes with it.
kom lyckligtvis $i$ tid. He fortunately came in time. $\mathfrak{F a g}$ har ingen underrättelse haft. I have had no information. Du borde ingen mat fá. You ought not to get any food.
142. Swedish to a large extent places the modifiers of a noun between an article (or adjective pronoun) and the noun, where a similar order is not possible in English. Ex.: en före'ningens medlem a member of the society, varje dess del every part of it, denna deras egenskap this quality of theirs, ndgra mina vänner some friends of mine, denna min anmärkning this remark of mine, en min yngre syster a younger sister of mine, det efter min mening basta stycket the piece that in my opinion is best, sysselsatt med utarbetandet av en ännu làngt ifrä'n avslutad, vidlyftig nysvensk grammati'k engaged in the writing of a large Modern Swedish grammar that is as yet far from finished, en grupp av med varan'dra efter vissa principer inti'mt associe'rade ord a group of words closely associated with each other according to certain principles.

Similarly, it is quite regular to place words between att and the infinitive. Ex.: Vanan att uti läsning av god litteratu'r söka vila och vederkvickelse the practice of seeking rest and recreation in the reading of good literature.

Note.-Negative adverbs, ingenting nothing, and the object when modified by a negative word, are regularly placed between att and the infinitive. Ex.: Att aldrig tala osanning never to tell a lie. Att ingenting säga är bättre än att säga nagot dumt. It is better to say nothing than to say something foolish. Att inga vänner ha är en stor olycka. It is very unfortunate not to have any friends. Det är bra att icke vara sjuk. It is well not to be sick.
143. orthography: kunna, kan, kunde (Phonology § 18 b); vill, vilja (Phonology § 17).
144. PRONUNCIATION: (a) regna (§ 19, 2 c ); igen' (§ 14); om (§ 6, note 1); snart (§ 6, note 2). - Observe
the change in the initial consonant-sound in $g \dot{a}$, gick. - (b) princi'p, associe' ra (§ 19, I b I); läsning (Phonology § 14 B 2 c ).
145. ACCENT. The following words have the acute accent: (a) försik'tig, väder, Linder. - Oskar has either the acute or the grave accent. - (b) associe'ra, fore'ning, yngre. - Vilken may have either the acute or the grave accent.
146. COLLOQUIALISMS: (i) Particularly after clauses other than conditional clauses (see § 139, note 3 ), $s \dot{a}$ is much more frequently used in the spoken than in the written language. Ex.: Eftersom du inte vill folja med, sả fär jag väl gả ensam. Seeing that you don't want to go along, I suppose I'll have to go alone.
(2) Skall is in the spoken language pronounced ska (vowel short when not stressed), which is then also used for the plur. skola.
(3) In the written language both the longer and the shorter forms of $b l i(v a)$ are used; in the spoken language, only the shorter forms. Cf. § 39, 4.
(4) Of sedan afterwards, there is also a shorter form, sen (vowel usually short). In the written language, sedan is of more frequent occurrence; in the spoken language, sen.
(5) The word-order described in § 142, beginning, belongs to the written language only.
(6) In the spoken language, kvälln is in many parts of Sweden used as the def. form of kväll.
(7) In the spoken language (primarily in easy speech), alltid, försik'tig and försik'tigt are pronounced allti, försik'ti, försik'tit. - Kunde is in easy speech pronounced kunne.

## VOCABULARY.

alltid always
bliva (blev) become, be, get bra adj. and adv., well ${ }^{1}$, good, fine det $i t^{2}$
frisk well (=not sick) försik'tig careful
glad glad, happy
gả (irregular ${ }^{3}$; sing. -r; past sing. gick, plur.
gingo) go
igen' again
i gả'r yesterday
i mor'gon to-morrow
klocka (1) clock; kloc-
kan ett (at) one o' clock;
klockan tvá (at) two o' clock
kunna (kunde) can, be able
kväll (2) evening; i kväll this evening
nog enough; no doubt, surely ofta often
om if, whether
regna (-ade) rain
sedan, sen afterwards, then, after
skola shall
snart soon
somna (-ade) go to sleep svar $n$. (5) answer, reply svara (-ade) answer, reply så so, then
vilja (ville) want to, wish to, will
väder $n$. (5) weather
väl well; no doubt, I suppose åtta eight

Observe the following series: (1) adverb, (2) adverb or relative conjunction ${ }^{4}$, (3) interrogative (used also in indirect questions).

TIME WHEN PLACE WHERE PLACE WHITHER
(1) nut how här here hit here (= hither)
(2) dả then, when ${ }^{5}$ där there, where dit there ( $=$ thither), where ( $=$ whither) vart where?
(=whither?)
(3) när when? Also var where? used as rel. conj.

[^61]
## EXERCISE X.

A. 1. Om sommaren äro dagarna lảnga. 2. Nu kommer gossen. 3. Här bor jag. Var bor du? 4. Om du vill, sả kommer jag i morgon kväll klockan åtta. 5. Kommer fröken Linder att sjunga i kväll? 6. Dả jag kom, sutto de och läste. 7. Om du skriver i morgon, sả blir det bra. 8. I morgon kväll klockan åtta skola vi resa. 9. En god vän till min bror reser till Amerika i morgon. 10. När jag kom, lảgo gossarna och sovo under trädet. II. Var han inte hemina? - Nej, men han kommer väl snart. 12. Vi komma att resa i morgon klockan fem. 13. I går var Sven där. I dag kommer han hit. 14. Anders ${ }^{1}$ sade, att jag får svar i dag. 15. I dag på morgonen fick jag brev från herr Lindgren. 16. När han kommer till staden, får han fem kronor om dagen. 17. Skall ni rida hem nu? 18. I dag på morgonen var jag i kyrkan. - Vart gick du sedan? - Sedan gick jag hem. 19. Du får snart svar. 20. Blir ni glada, om ni fảr dessa böcker?-Nej, böckerna vilja vi inte ha. 21. I Stockholm är det vackert. 22. Kommer han, så får du brev i dag. 23. Oskar är sjuk, men han blir väl frisk snart. 24. Om du vill, sả skall du fả ett par stolar. 25. Gossen sade, att han aldrig ville gå dit igen. 26. Fảr jag böckerna? 27. Du finner nog glaset. 28. Har du 110 g smör på brödet?
B. 1. Are you going to buy the horse? 2. I shall soon fall asleep. 3. If I get an answer from my brother to-day, I shall write a long letter this evening. 4. He will soon get well.-Did the doctor say that he will soon get well? 5. Do you think it is going to rain? 6. Our friends came at eight o'clock. 7. The boys will no doubt find many nuts in the woods. 8. I am going to like

[^62]this house. 9. Your mother gave my brother these nuts. 10. If he is not careful, he will get sick. II. If you give your sister your apple, you shall have ${ }^{1}$ a crown. Then I can buy many apples. 12. Then the shoemaker's wife went to Lundgren's and bought a kilogram of butter. 13. The boy has two pair of sloes. His father bought this pair ${ }^{2}$ yesterday. 14. Are you coming here this evening? 15 . The doctor's sister is going to sing to-morrow evening. 16. When is the professor coming here again? 17 . It is well that summer is here. 18. Why did the boys go home again? 19. We couldn't come yesterday evening, but if the weather is fine ("vackert"), we shall come to-morrow evening. 20. They wanted to fly, but they couldn't. 21. Birds can fly. 22. The children were always happy in school ${ }^{3}$. 23. She said that her brother is not sick now, but that he will get sick if he is not careful.

[^63]
## LESSON XI.

## THE ADJECTIVE.

147. It has been seen ( $\$ \Omega 77$; 79) that adjectives used with nouns (attributive adjectives) have the definite form ( $-a$ ) when the noun has definite form. The definite form of the adjective is also used when the nounhas definite meaning without being definite in form; namely, ${ }^{1}$
(1) after genitives and possessive pronouns; as, gossens (hans, min) stora bror the boy's (his, my) big brother;
(2) after demonstrative pronouns ${ }^{2}$; as, denna lànga dag this long day;
(3) before proper names; as, den heliga Birgit'ta Saint (literally, "the holy") Birgitta, det rika Ame'rika wealthy America;
(4) in direct address; as, kära syster dear sister.

Note. Egen, when it means "own", never has the definite form ${ }^{3}$; as, gossens egen bror the boy's own brother, ditt eget ${ }^{4}$ hem

[^64]your own home. But when egen means "peculiar", "strange", it has the definite form in the regular way; as, det är eget, att han icke kommer it is strange that he doesn't come, ett eget sätt a peculiar manner, hans egna ${ }^{1}$ sätt his peculiar manner, hans egna stil his peculiar handwriting, but hans egen stil his own handwriting.
148. In all other cases the indefinite form is used with attributive adjectives. Predicate adjectives are always put in the indefinite form.
149. We have seen ( $\S \S 78 ; 79$ ) that when an adjective is used with a noun in the definite form, the prepositive article is used with it. Contrary to this rule, however, the prepositive article is in a large number of phrases omitted before the definite adjective ${ }^{2}$ followed by a noun in the definite form, particularly in certain common phrases, and when the adjective expresses location; as, svenska spraket the Swedish language, $i$ norra delen in the northern part, Atlan'tiska ocea'nen the Atlantic Ocean, Forenta ${ }^{3}$ sta'terna The United States, Mindre Asien Asia Minor, bestäm'da artik'eln the definite article, tredje ${ }^{4}$ gangen the third time, femte upplagan the fifth edition, $i$ fria luften in the open air, gula febern the yellow fever, $i$ sista minu'ten in the last minute, se spöken mitt på ljusa dagen see ghosts in broad daylight, rena sanningen the plain truth, ligga pa bara golvet lie on the bare floor, $i$ övre váningen in the upper story, högra sidan the right side, Svenska akademi'en the Swedish Academy, svenska flaggan the Swedish flag.

[^65]Note. - The words hel whole, halv half, and själv himself, herself, etc., are never preceded by the prepositive article when followed by a noun in the definite form; as, hela dagen the whole day, halva manuden half the month, sjalva drottningen the queen herself, själva döden even death.
150. Swedish and English employ different methods of expression in using adjectives with the noun understood, English in most cases requiring "one" or "ones" after the adjective. Ex.: Vill $d u$ ha en stor bok? - Nej, jag vill ha en liten. Do you want a large book?-No, I want a small one. Vill du icke ha den stora? Do you not want the large one? Jag hade rivit sönder min nya rock; jag fick $g a$ ut $i$ den gamla. I had torn my new coat; I had to go out in the old one.

The adjective in the definite form preceded by the prepositive article may be used as a noun. See further $\S 15 \mathrm{I}, 8 \mathrm{~b}$. In this case it has the regular genitive in -s. Ex.: den sjuka the sick woman, den sjukas feber the fever of the sick woman.
151. Notes on the inflection of adjectives:
r. Adjectives ending in unstressed en substitute $t^{1}$ for $n$; as, liten small, n. litet; öppen open, n. öppet.
2. Those ending in $-d$ substitute for this (a) $-t$, if a consonant precedes or if the syllable is unstressed; as, blind blind, n. blint; härd hard, n. härt; mild mild, n. milt; godhjörtad kindhearted, n. godhjärtat; älskad beloved, n. älskat; (b) -tt, if a stressed vowel precedes; as, god good, n. gott; glad glad, n. glatt; röd red, n. rott.
3. Those ending in -dd substitute $-t t$ for this; as, högljudd vociferous, 11. högljutt; bebod'd inhabited, n. bebot't.

[^66]4. Adjectives ending in $-t$ preceded by a consonant do not add $t$, but remain unchanged; as, svart black, n. svart; stolt proud, n. stolt; intressan't interesting, n. intressan't; trött tired, 11. trölt.

When the adjective ends in a single $t$ preceded by a vowel, another $t$ is added; as, vit white, n. vitt; söt sweet, n. sött. In a few adjectives of foreign origin, however, no $t$ is added; as, aku't acute, n. aku't; konkre't concrete, n. konkre't.
5. Adjectives ending in a stressed vowel double the $t$ of the neuter ending; as, bld blue, n. blétt; ny new, n. nylt; frifree, n. fritt.
6. Adjectives ending in unstressed $-a l$, -el, -en, er drop the vowel of the suffix before adding the $-a$ of the indefinite plural and of the definite form; as, gammal old, indef. plur. and def. gamla; ädel noble, ädla; öppen open, öppna; vacker beautiful, vackra.
7. For the indef. plur. and the def. of bld blue, and grd gray, either blåa or bld, gråa or grå may be used.
8. Instead of the ending $-a$ of the indefinite plural and of the definite form, $-e$ is used:
(a) For euphony, after -ad (in adjectives and past participles ${ }^{1}$ ) and -ast (in superlatives ${ }^{2}$ ); as, det godhjärtade barnet the kindhearted child; den barhuvade flickan the bareheaded girl, de brunasle ofronen the brownest eyes.
(b) When adjectives in the def. sing. used as nouns refer to persons of the male sex; as, den sjuke the sick man, but den sju$k a$ the sick woman; den gamle the old man, but den gamla the old woman; den gamles hus the old man's house. So also when the adjective follows the word it modifies; as, Karl den store Charles the Great, Karl den stores ${ }^{3}$ rike the empire of Charles the Great; Olov den helige Saint Olof (literally, "Olof the Holy"), Oskar den andre Oscar II, Katari'na den andra Catherine II, Sigrid den fagra Sigrid the Fair.
(c) In the written language, but rarely in the spoken language, it may also be used with adjectives whenever the noun modified refers to a person of the male sex. This substitution is more common in the def. sing. than in the def. plur., while in the indef. plur. it occurs only rarely, in the more elevated style. Ex.: den

[^67]gode kejsaren the good emperor, min gode vän, herr Pettersson my good friend, Mr. Peterson, den sköne ynglingen the beautiful youth, den lycklige mannen the happy man, den ädle hjälten the noble hero, käre broder dear brother; but kära moder dear mother, min goda syster my good sister, heliga Birgit'ta Saint Birgitta.
152. The forms of the adjective liten small, little, are irregular; for the plural, a different root is used:

INDEFINITE DEFINITE
Sing. liten, n. litet lilla
Plur.
sma
153. Some adjectives are indeclinable, especially those ending in $-a,-e,-e s ; ~ a s, ~ b r a ~ g o o d, ~ w e l l, ~ a ̈ k t a ~ g e n u i n e, ~$ öde desolate, främmande strange, foreign, utvärtes external; also all present participles and all comparatives, which end in $-e$ (see $\S \S 163 ; 238$ ). Some indeclinable adjectives can be used only in the predicate; as, de äro släkt they are related.
154. ORTHOGRAPHY: gammal, gamla (Phonology § 18); Mindre Asien, Karl den store, etc. (see § 151, 8 b) (§ 24, 4).
15.). PRONUNCIATION: (a) hảrd (§ 6, note 2 ); själv (§ 13, 4); högt (§ 18); halvt, heligt (§18, and Phonology § 38); högljudd (compound, § 16); intressan't, konkre't (Phonology § 49, 3 b). - For the quantity in egna, ädla, etc., see Phonology § 14 B 2 b . Observe the change ${ }^{1}$ in the quantity of the vowel in: vit, vitt; ny, nytt; fri, fritt. Observe the change ${ }^{1}$ of the vowel in quality as well as in quantity in: god, gott; glad, glatt; hög, högt: röd, rött; söt, sött; blả, blảtt. - (b) Birgit'la (g not = J); artik'el (§ 6, note 1); ocea'n (§ 19, I b 1); skön (§ 14).
156. ACCENT: ( 1 ) Adjectives ending in unstressed $-c l$ and er (as $\ddot{a} d e l$, vacker) have the acute accent in the

[^68]indef. sing., while those ending in unstressed en (as oppen, liten) have the grave. All adjectives, including those that have the acute accent in the indef. sing., have the grave accent in the $a$-form ${ }^{1}$; as, ädla, vackra, öppna, gamla, bruna.

However, adjectives of more than one syllable that in the uninflected form are stressed on the last syllable, have the acute accent in the $a$-form; as, konkre'ta, bebod'da, aku'ta, intressan'ta.
(2) The following words have the acute accent: (a) ädel, Norge, Ryssland.-(b) artik'el, sönder, atlan'tisk, Pettersson, Mindre Asien, Sigrid. - Övre may have either the acute or the grave accent.
157. Colloquialisms: (i) Bear in mind that in the spoken language $-e$ rarely occurs in the use mentioned in § $151,8 \mathrm{c}$.
(2) The use of the def. form of the adjective alone with the prepositive article ( $\$ 150$, end) is in general less common in the spoken than in the written language. Den vise fruktar ej döden the wise man does not fear death, is usually changed to den, som är vis, or, en vis människa (karl).
(3) In the spoken language, litet ( n . of liten) is pronounced lite. - In some parts of Sweden, final $t$ of -et is not pronounced in the neuter of adjectives; as, ege $(t)$ own, peculiar, mule( $t$ ) cloudy.
(4) In the spoken language, land, especially in compounds, usually has the final $d$ silent (cf. § 134,5 ); as, Ryssland, Västergötland.-In easy speech the final $d$ is not pronounced in blind. - Primarily in easy speech, helig, heligt are pronounced heli, helit.

[^69]
## VOCABULARY.

aku't acute
bebod'd inhabited
blind blind
egen own; peculiar, strange
fri free
främmande (indecl.) foreign, strange
för too
gammal old
godhjärtad kindhearted
grá gray
halv half
hel whole, entire
helig holy
hảrd hard
högljudd loud, vociferous
intressan't interesting
konkre't concrete
kär dear
land $n$. (5) land, country öppen open

## EXERCISE XI.

A. I. Är kaffet för sött, eller är det icke sött nog? 2. Amerika är ett fritt land. 3. Det är mycket intressant att resa i ett främmande land. 4. Ett blint barn gick pá gatan och sjöng. 5. Sade du, att du inte tycker om blả ögon? 6. Selma Lagerlöf reste till det heliga landet. Sedan skrev hon 'Jerusalem"'. 7. Fadern tyckte aldrig, att hans eget barn var för högljutt. 8. En skomakare, som arbetar hela dagen, är trött, när aftonen kommer. 9. Fönstren voro öppna hela kvällen. io. Pro-

[^70]fessorn är författare till ett nytt arbete, som är mycket intressant. II. Landet lảg öde. I2. Vattnet är gott. 13. Ett barn, som är trött, sover bra. i4. Dả sommaren kommer, tröttna barnen på böckerna. 15. När jag kom dit, var den gamle icke hemma. 16. Denna lilla flicka är endast tvả ảr gammal. 17. Om du kommer, så bli barnen mycket glada. 18. Karl och hans syster sutto vid bordet och läste halva dagen. 19. Detta träd är icke många meter högt. 20. Dả gossarna blevo stora, reste de till fränmande land och kommo aldrig hem igen. 21. Eitt kärt barn har många namn. 22. Sitter fảgeln vid ditt öppna fönster? 23. Detta stora rike, som ligger mellan Norge ${ }^{1}$ och Ryssland ${ }^{2}$, är Sverige. 24. Flickan är trött på systerns lilla docka. 25. Var icke professorns nya bok intressant?-Jo, men icke den gamla. 26. Lilla Stina blev glad, då hon fick den vackra hatten. 27. Onı denna klocka icke är bra nog, sá fảr du en ny.
$B$. I. The gray house is very old now. It was new when I was a boy. 2. His little girls are kindhearted. 3. This hat is too large. 4. When they were small, they lived in Västergötland. 5. John and Carl are not related, are they ${ }^{3}$ ?-No, John is not related to Carl. 6. The soldiers are proud of the noble king. 7. Do you not think that Swedish books are interesting? 8. Mr. Lundgren is a true Swede. 9. The professor found the land uninhabited. 10. He always thought that his own work was not good enough. II. I have a dear friend who is very sick. 12. The kindhearted little boy wanted to give the old woman a crown. 13. Have you your blue book in school? 14. This large city has many long streets. 15. Is your friend's new house high? 16. Do you think

[^71]that it is going to rain all ${ }^{1}$ day? 17. The new teacher's old books were interesting. 18. He always has one window open. 19. Where did you find these pretty flowers? 20. Afterwards the island lay deserted. 21. The old man's house is small. 22. Little Carl has beautiful eyes. 23. Is it not strange that he thinks that his own name is not pretty? 24 . I received an interesting letter this morning.

[^72]
## LESSON XII.

## COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

158. The comparative is made by adding -are, and the superlative by adding -ast, to the uninflected form of the positive; as, rik rich, comp. rikare, superl. rikast.

Note. - I. Adjectives ending in unstressed eel, en, eer drop the vowel of the suffix before adding -are or -ast; as, adel noble, ädlare, ädlast; öppen open, öppnare, öppnast; vacker beautiful, vackrare, vackrast.
2. Also a few indeclinable adjectives ending in unstressed $-a$ may be compared. They drop -a before adding -are, -ast; as, noga particular, nogare, nogast; äkta genuine, äktare, äktast.-Nära near, close, is irregular, having the forms, comp. närm(a)re ${ }^{1}$, superl. närm(a)st ${ }^{1}$ or näst.
159. In the following adjectives the comparative is made by adding -re, and the superlative by adding -st. All these modify (see § II) the root-vowel of the positive if this is hard.

| grov coarse, thick | grövre | grövst |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| hög high, tall | högre | högst |
| lảg low | lägre | lägst |
| läng long | längre | längst |
| stor large, great | större | störst |
| trảng tight, narrow | trängre | trängst |
| tung heavy | tyngre | tyngst |
| ung young | yngre | jngst |

Note. - When ldg signifies "low" in a moral sense, it is compared regularly, ldgare, liggast. Also grov and trang sometimes have -are, -ast.
160. Two adjectives in forming their comparative add -rre, before which the long vowel of the positive is shortened and modified:

[^73]$\begin{array}{ll}f \dot{a}, \text { plur., few } & \text { färre } \\ \text { smáa }{ }^{1} \text {, plur., small } & \text { smärre }\end{array}$
161. A few adjectives employ a different root for the comparative and superlative:


Note. - God, in the meaning "good (tasting)", and ond, when it means "angry", are compared godare, godast, ondare, ondast. Also elak, and, rarely, dalig may have the forms in -are, -ast.
162. A few comparatives and superlatives, chiefly such as designate place, have no positive. They are derived from roots not used as adjectives. In these the comparative ends in -re, and, in almost all, the superlative ends in -rst. In främre, främst, yttre, ytterst, övre and överst a hard vowel has been modified. The principal ones are:

| (bak hind, back) | bakre rear, posterior | bakerst |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| (bort away, off) | bortre farther | borterst |
| (fram forward) | framre fore, anterior | främst |
| (fore before) | forre (-a) former | forst |
| (in in) | inre inner | innerst |
| (ned down) | nedre lower, nether | nederst |
| (under under) | undre lower | underst |
| (ut out) | yttre outer | ytterst |
| (ovan above) | öve upper | överst |

[^74]Also the comparative $\operatorname{se}(d)$ nare ${ }^{1}$ latter, later, and the superlative $s e(d) n a s t$ latest, or sist last, latest, employing the endings -are, -ast, are derived from a root not used as an adjective, sedan, sen (vowel usually short) afterwards.
163. The comparative is indeclinable (see § 153 ); as, en bättre stol, ett bättre hus, bättre stolar, de bättre stolarna.

When used as a noun after the prepositive article (cf. $\S 150$ ), the comparative adds $-s$ in the genitive. Ex.: Den yngres arbete är bäst. The work of the younger is best.

164 . When used as a predicate adjective (not preceded by the prepositive article), the superlative has its original form (-ast, -st) and is invariable. Ex.: Denna blomma (detta barn) är vackrast. This flower (this child) is the prettiest. Dessa blommor äro vackrast. These flowers are the prettiest.

In all other cases, i. e., when used attributively, or alone after the prepositive article, superlatives in -ast add $-e^{2}$ (see § 15 1, 8 a), those in $-s t$ add $-a^{2}$ (or $-e$; see § ${ }^{151} 5$, 8 b and $c$ ). When used substantively, it has the regular ending $-s$ in the genitive. Ex.: Den vitaste blomman är den vackraste. The whitest flower is the prettiest. Det största huset är icke alltid det bästa. The largest house is not always the best. Svens yngsta syster är tre är. Sven's youngest sister is three years old. Han är den äldste av oss. He is the oldest of us. Det äldsta av barnen är en gosse. The oldest of the children is a boy. Närmaste granne bodde på en mils avständ. The nearest neighbor lived a mile away. I senaste nummer av Stockholms Dag-

[^75]blad. In the last number of S. D. Nästa månad next month, ett sista försö'k a final trial. In cases such as the last, the prepositive article is usually inserted between the indef. article and the adjective; as, en den skönaste utsikt a most beautiful view.
165. The comparative and superlative ideas may be, but usually are not, expressed by using mera and mest with the positive in the case of all adjectives, though less frequently those whose comparative ends in -re.

Some adjectives, ${ }^{1}$ especially those of more than one syllable ending in $-a d,-e,-s e,-e s,-i s k$, and all participles, both present and past, never have the endings of comparison, but use only $\operatorname{mer}(a)$, mest; as, godhjärtad kindhearted, mer (a) godhjärtad, mest godhjärtad; partisk partial, mer (a) partisk, mest partisk; öde desolate, mer (a) öde, mest öde.
166. The superlative is often used of two objects compared. Ex.: Hans högra hand är starkast. His right liand is the stronger. Vilken av dina tvả söner är yngst? Which of your two sons is the younger? Den mest lovande sökanden av de tva (bland de tre) the most promising of the two (three) applicants; den största delen av äpplet (also when cut into two pieces) the larger half of the apple.
167. The comparative and the superlative are sometimes used absolutely ${ }^{2}$, without any idea of real comparison, to denote a rather high degree and a very high degree, respectively. Superlatives formed with mest can also be so used, but rarely comparatives with mer $(a)$. Superlatives used absolutely may or may not be pre-

[^76]ceded by the prepositive definite article, but the accompanying noun almost always has the indefinite form. Ex.: En längre promena'd a (rather) long walk, en äldre herre an elderly gentleman, de nyare spràken modern languages. Denna sanning är accepte'rad av de flesta mera framstarende psykolo'ger. This truth is accepted by most of the leading psychologists. Med största nöje with the greatest pleasure, bäste broder dear brother (friend). Det gjorde inte den minsta nytta. It didn't do the least good. De äro de bästa vänner. They are the best of friends. Detta gjorde han i största välmening. He did this with the best of intentions. Han sade henne nagra de utsöktaste artigheter. He paid her some very fine compliments. En den mest hardnackade kamp a most stubborn fight.
168. PRONUNCIATION: (a ${ }^{1}$ ovan ( $\S 9,3$ b); fram (§ 6, note 1); äldst (§ 16 c); högst (§ 18); grovt, grövst, lagt, lagst (§ 18, and Phonology § 38). -Observe the shortened vowel in större, störst, färre, smärre; also in förre, yttre, flest, mest. In högst (and forre) there is a change both in the quantity and the quality of the $\bar{o}$. - (b) gjorde (§§ 15; 16); accepte'ra (§ 19, I b 2); psykolo'g (§ 9, 3 b , and Phonology § 50, note 2); nöje (§ 6, note 1).
169. ACCENT: (r) Dissyllabic comparatives formed with -re or -rre have the acute accent, except that forre has the grave accent, and nedre, undre and övre may have either the acute or the grave accent.-Flera and mera rarely have the acute accent.-Superlatives ending in -erst have either the acute or the grave accent.
(2) The following words have the acute accent: (a) forsö'ka, promene'ra, partisk, Danmark, Finland, Öland. -(b) accepte'ra, nummer.

[^77]170. colloquialisms: (i) Ned down, is used in the written language, but ner primarily in the spoken language.
(2) Taga and pres. sing. tager are employed in the written language; ta, tar, primarily in the spoken language.
(3) In the spoken language, mycket ( n . of mycken) is pronounced mycke; cf. § $157,3$.
(4) In easy speech, med, dàlig, dàligt, ond are pronounced mä, dàli, dàlit, onn.-Grovt is in easy speech often pronounced groft (vowel short, quality unchanged). -Concerning Finland and Öland see § 157, 4.

VOCABULARY.
bortre farther
dålig poor, bad
dö (irregular; pres. sing.
-r; past dog) die
elak bad, naughty
fả, plur., few
försö'k n. (5) attempt, trial
försö'ka (-te) try, attempt
grov coarse, thick, large hur (u) how
làg low
med with
mot against, to, toward mycken much noga (indecl.) particular, accurate
nämligen namely
nära (indecl.) near, close
nöje $n$. (4) pleasure
ond angry, evil; - på angry at
partisk partial, prejudiced
promena'd(3)promenade, walk
promene'ra (-ade) walk, promenade
stilla (indecl.) still, quiet
ta (ga) (tog) take
trång tight, narrow
tung heavy
ung young
ut ${ }^{1}$ out; gả ut och gả go out for a walk
ute ${ }^{1}$ out, out of doors
än than
ännu still, yet
övre upper

[^78]
## EXERCISE XII. ${ }^{1}$

A. I. Öland och Gottland äro Sveriges största öar. 2. Är du icke stolt över att ${ }^{2}$ vara svensk? 3. Den lille gossen blev ond pá brodern. 4. Våra träd äro grövre ãn era. 5. Det är bättre att vara den förste än den siste. 6. Stockholm är den största av Sveriges städer. 7. Vättern lıar endast en större ö, nämligen Visingsö̉3. 8. Nuär han försiktigare. Därför är han även friskare. 9. Sven gick med Olov till närmaste stad för att ${ }^{4}$ köpa en bättre häst. ıo. Bảde Sverige och Finland äro rikare pả sjöar än Danmark ${ }^{5}$ och Norge ${ }^{6}$. II. Skomakaren bor i det bortersta huset. i2. Den sjuka är sämre i dag än hon var i går. i3. Dả Strindberg dog, var han Sveriges störste författare. 14. Karls äldsta syster och hans yngsta bror äro ute och gả. 15. Det röda huset är lägst. 16. De flesta gossarna i skolan äro både äldre och större än Johan. 17. Skola vi icke gả ut och gả? 18. Den främste gossen är störst. 19. Tog du icke en längre promenad $\mathbf{i}$ dag än i går? 20. Han är elak mot systern, men ännu värre mot den främmande gossen. 21. Sedan han kom hit, är han både friskare och gladare. 22. De voro ute och promenerade hela kvällen. 23. Jag vill ha den översta boken.
B. 1. Your name is still longer than mine. 2. The highest trees are not always the thickest. 3. Glass is heavier than water. 4. In old cities the streets are often narrow. 5. The best butter is not too good. 6. The

[^79]white doves are the prettiest. 7. This chair is the heaviest that I have. 8. Do you think that your old house is more beautiful than my new one? 9. Sweden is larger than Norway, but Norway is more beautiful. 1o. Now the days are longer than the nights, but soon the nights will be the longer. II. These two apples are the reddest. 12. How many names have you? Only two. - Then I have more names than you. I3. His fever is worse again to-day. 14. These trees are the smallest. 15. I shall go if the weather becomes better. 16. English has more neuters than Swedish. 17. Do you wish to go out for a walk? 18. The black table is lower than the brown one. 19. This author thinks that his own books are the most interesting. 20. Their oldest daughter is only five years old. 2r. Why is the shoemaker more particular with your shoes than with mine? 22. The lake became more quiet in the evening. 23. I thought I was old then, but now I am still older.

## LESSON XIII.

## ADVERBS.

171. Of most adjectives, the form in $-t$ may be used as an adverb; as, ädel noble, ädelt nobly; vacker beautiful, vackert beautifully; söt sweet, sött sweetly; mycken much, mycket much, very; liten small, litet a little.
172. Besides these adverbs there are a great many others, formed variously:
r. Primitive adverbs and their compounds; as, nej no, nu now, här here, bort away, off, häri herein. Adverbs compounded with här, där, var are very numerous.

Note. - i. In general, compound adverbs of the kind mentioned in $\S_{172, \mathrm{I}}$, have the main stress on the last syllable when they stand at the end of a declarative sentence; as, häri', däri'. Otherwise the first syllable is stressed.
2. Pronominal adverbs compounded with a preposition are often used in place of a pronoun governed by a preposition. These compounds are, however, not used in referring to persons, and are used less freely in referring to a plural than to a singular nouri. Ex.: (Personal) Jag har ej hört ndgot därom. I have not heard anything about it. (Demonstrative) Däremot är intet att invän$d a$. There is nothing to say against that. Härav följer, att trianglarna miste vara kongruen'ta. From this it follows that the triangles must be congruent. Däri har han rätt. He is right in that. (Interrogative, direct and indirect) Varpd beror detta? What is the cause of this? (Literally, "On what does this depend?") Det ar icke lätt att säga, vari denna skillnad besta'r. It is not easy to say what this difference consists of. (Relative) Detta är en fraga, varom i senare tid mycket talats. This is a question about which much has recently been said. Egil lärde sina söner många idrotter, vari han sjïlv var mästare. Egil taught his sons many sports in which he himself excelled.
2. Adverbs formed with various suffixes; as, $-a$ (as hem$m a$ at home); -e (ute out); -an (redan already); -om
(stundom at times); -deles (alldeles entirely); -ledes (sáledes consequently); -ligen (nämligen namely); -lunda (annorlunda differently); -vis (lyckligtvis fortunately).

Note. - Some adverbs ending in $-a,-e$ and denoting place where, are formed from adverbs denoting place to which; as, hem home, hemma at home; bort away, off, forth, borta away; ut out, ute out, out of doors; in in, inne within, in the house; upp up, uppe up, above; ned, ner down, nere down, below; fram forth, to one's destination, framme there, at one's destination.
3. A number of adverbs, especially compounds, end in $-s$, which is really the genitive ending. These are not felt as genitives, but as adverbs. Ex.: alls, in the expressions alls icke or icke alls not at all; dels partly; hundratals by hundreds; hur dag's (at) what time (literally, "how of the day'’); liggdags bed-time; halvvägs half-way.

In adverbial expressions of time, the preposition $i$ is in a few cases followed by an adverbial genitive in the indefinite singular. These expressions refer to the latest previous time of the kind denoted by the noun. Only certain words can be used in this way, not, for example, vecka week, månad month, år year. Instead of $-s$, the endings -as, -se are used in some words. Ex.: i söndags (mảndags, tisdags, onsdags, torsdags, fredags, lördags) last Sunday (Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, Saturday); $i$ somras (höstas, vintras, vảras) last summer (autumn, winter, spring), from sommar, höst, vinter, vå; $i$ julas last Christmas, from jul; imorse ${ }^{1}$ this (past) morning, from morgon.

## COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

173. Almost all adverbs formed by adding $-t$ to the uninflected form of the adjective may be compared. Their comparatives and superlatives are the same as the comparatives and superlatives (uninflected form) of the

[^80]corresponding adjectives; as, ädelt nobly, ädlare more nobly, ädlast most nobly; sött sweetly, sötare, sötast; högt liigh, loudly, högre, högst; lảngt far, längre ${ }^{1}$, längst; mycket much, very, mera, mest; gott well, bättre, bäst.

Most of the indeclinable adjectives ending in unstressed $-a$, and having forms of comparison, are also used as adverbs. Their comparatives and superlatives are the same as those of the corresponding adjectives; as, noga accurately, nogare, nogast; nära near, närm(a)re ${ }^{2}$, närm(a)st ${ }^{2}$; sakta slowly, saktare, saktast.
174. Of other adverbs, only a few can be compared:
I. fort fast, quickly fortare fortast länge long, a long time längre ${ }^{1}$ läst ofta often oftare oftast
2. The following employ a different root $^{3}$ for the comparative and superlative:

| $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { bra }{ }^{4} \text { well } \\ \text { väl well }\end{array}\right\}$ | bättre $^{5}$ | bäst |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| gärna gladly | hellre | helst |
| illa badly | värre | värst |

3. The superlative forms given in $\S 162$ are in the uninflected form used also as adverbs. Of sedan, both the comparative and the superlative forms are used as adverbs. ${ }^{6}$ The same is true of forst, of which the adverbial comparative is forr, and not forre.
[^81]Note. - The other adverbs capable of the idea of comparison have mera, mest. Ex.: De flesta tala mycket mera ologiskt än de själva tro. Most people talk much more illogically than they themselves believe.
175. EXPRESSIONS USED IN CONNECTION WITH THE COMPARATIVE AND SUPERLATIVE OF ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS. Allt followed by a repeated (or single) comparative is equivalent to the doubled comparative of English, denoting an increasing degree. Ex.: Han blir allt förstan'digare med tiden. He is beconing more and more sensible as time passes. Den blev allt mindre och mindre. It became smaller and smaller.

The adverbial "the", used with comparatives, is rendered by desto or dess; the correlatives "the . . . the", by $j u .$. dess, desto or (more rarely) $j u$. The first clause (introduced by the adverb $j u$ ), being the subordinate clause, does not have inverted order; the second clause (introduced by one of the adverbs dess, desto, $j u$ ) is the main clause and has inverted order. Ex.: Ju längre de betrak'tade jätten, desto större syntes han för deras ögon, och desto mindre och kraftlösare förefollo de sig själva. The longer they looked at the giant, the larger he appeared to their eyes, and the smaller and weaker they felt. $J u$ forr, dess hellre the sooner the better, dess bättre so much the better. Observe also icke desto mindre nevertheless.

Allra followed by the superlative is equivalent to the superlative with "of all", to "very" followed by the superlative, and to the simple superlative, in English; as, den allra största boken the largest book of all, min allra bästa häst my very best horse, allra först first of all, det allra bästa the very best, den allra heligaste the most holy, de allra flesta most of them.

Equality is expressed by lika (likasd) . . . som (just) as . . . as, or, primarily after a negative, sd . . . som so . . .
as. Ex.: Johan är lika gammal som Karl. John is as • old as Carl. Han är icke sà stor som Karl. He is not so large as Carl. En sten sả stor som ett hus a stone as large as a house. Observe the phrase sả snart som möjligt as soon as possible. Som may be omitted in a number of cases. Ex.: Sà fort du kan as soon as you can, sà mycket han vill as much as he wants to. Du fär taga sà mänga du behö'ver. You may take as many as you need.

A lower degree is expressed by mindre less, and minst least, with the positive, as in English.
176. ORTHOGRAPHY: fram, framme; hem, hemma; in, inne, därinne (Phonology § 18). Concerning jul, söndag, mảndag, etc., see § 24, 3.
177. PRONUNCIATION: (a) fort ( $\S 9,3$ a); lyckligtvis, hur dag's, liggdags, halvvägs, till död's, söndags (mảndags, etc.) (§ 18, and Phonology § 38). -The vowel in dags (-dags), -vaggs, döds is short in these expressions, though long in dag, etc. - (b) kongruen't (Phonology §49, 3 b); ologiskt (second $o, \S 9,3$ b).
178. ACCENT: (I) The accent of dissyllabic comparatives ending in -re and superlatives in -erst is the same in the case of adverbs as in adjectives. See $\S 169$, 1 .
(2) The adverbial compounds referred to in § 172, 1 , and notes, have the acute accent.
(3) The following words have the acute accent: (a) vinter and the names of the days of the week (söndag, sondags, etc.). - Desto, allra and således usually have the grave accent. - (b) betrak'ta, förstän'dig, behö'va.
179. COLLOQUIALISMS: (i) In the spoken language, oppe is in the greater part of Sweden almost always used in place of $u p p e$, as $o p p$ for $u p p$. So ner, which is sometimes found also in the written language, particularly in dialog, is used for ned; but nere has no alternative form.
(2) Most adverbial compounds (see § $172, \mathrm{I}$, and notes) are avoided in the spoken language. Däri har han rätt is in the spoken language usually expressed det har han rätt $i$.
(3) Dess, which is also very common in the written language, is generally used in the spoken language in place of desto. - The use of $j u$ in the principal clause (and therefore in both clauses, since $j u$ regularly introduces the subordinate clause) belongs to the spoken language, and is particularly common in proverbs.

## VOCABULARY.

Note. - In the vocabularies, adverbs formed from adjectives by adding $-t$ will not be given if the adjectives from which they are derived are already known.
alldeles entirely
allra of all, very
alls at all
allt more and more
annorlunda different(ly)
bort away, off
borta away; där borta over there
dels partly
dess, desto the (adv.)
däri in that
död dead; (2) death; till döds ${ }^{1}$ to death, fatal
fort fast, quickly
fram forth, to one's desti-
nation; fram till up to
framme there, arrived, at one's destination
gärna gladly, fain
halvvägs half-way
hundratals by hundreds; hundreds of
hur dag's (at) what time häri in this
höst (2) autumn; i höst this autumn; i -as last autumn
illa bad, badly
in in; in i into
inne within, in the house; inne i in; där inne in there, within
ju the ( $a d v$.)
liggdags bed-time
lika, likaså (just) as
lyckligtvis fortunately

[^82]länge long, for a long time morse; i morse this (past) morning mycket much möjlig possible ned, ner down
nere down
redan already
rätt right; ha(va) rätt be right
sakta (indecl.) slow; $a d v$. , slowly
stundom at times
The names of the days ${ }^{1}$ of the week are:
söndag Sunday
mảndag Monday
tisdag Tuesday onsdag Wednesday
sả so, thus
sảledes thus, accordingly
sallunda thus, in this manner uppe up
varom about which, about what
vecka (1) week
vinter (2) winter; i - this winter; i vintras last winter vàr (2) spring; $\mathbf{i}$ vå this spring; i -as last spring väl well

## EXERCISE XIII.

A. 1. Borta bra, men hemma bäst. 2. Fảglarna sjöngo vackert. 3. Sven och hans far gingo bort. Modern och systern voro hemma hela dagen. 4. Det blir snart höst. 5. I söndags reste jag till Malmö. Jag kom fram klockan åtta pả morgonen. Sả snart jag kom fram, gick jag till min gamle vän Nyblom. Lyckligtvis var han hemma, men han var ännu icke uppe. 6. Sjukdomen är icke till döds. 7. Där borta i det gula huset bodde vi i somras. $-\mathrm{Nej}^{2}$, är det möjligt! 8. Vi voro ute och promenerade i onsdags kväll. 9. Den sjuke är bättre nu än han var i morse. 10. Ju mera gossen fick, dess mera ville han ha. II. Om du talar saktare, så

[^83]blir det bättre.-Ja, jag skall försöka ${ }^{1}$ tala sả sakta som möjligt. 12. I dag röd, i morgon död. 13. Hur dags gick du hemifrån ${ }^{2}$ ? - Klockan var fem, tror $\mathrm{jag}^{3}$. - Och du var redan framme klockan åtta? i4. Sigtuna är en intressant liten stad, som ligger vid Mälaren halvyägs mellan Stockholm och Uppsala. 15. Där inne sutto kvinnorna och drucko kaffe. 16. Gamle Björklund dog i morse klockan fem. Han hade lidit ${ }^{4}$ länge av en svår sjukdom. Stundom blev den sjuke mycket glad. Dá ville han helst sitta uppe och berätta sagor för barnen. Sảluuda satt han i gȧr kväll länge uppe och talade med de smá. Till sist blev han trött. Det var dà redan liggdags, och även barnen gingo därför till sängs. Men på morgonen voro barnen ännu icke uppe, dả deras mor kom in och sade, att den gamle var död.
B. I. We went to the woods last Tuesday ${ }^{5}$ and picked flowers. 2. It was already five o'clock. 3. The boys tried to walk faster, but they became more and more tired. 4. I didn't believe my friend when he said it, but lie was right. 5. The weather was not at all beautiful last summer. It rained entirely too much. 6. The bird flew down from the tree. 7. When they arrived at their destination ${ }^{6}$, they were no doubt still more tired than we. 8. My house is just as large as yours, but it is not so beautiful. 9. The sooner you believe that I an right, the better. ro. I shall be glad to $\mathrm{go}^{7}$ with your friends. Fortunately I am not at all tired yet. At what time are they coming? II. Your sister sings better now than before. 12. The boys sat in the house all day because ${ }^{8}$

[^84]it rained. 13. I came as soon as possible. 14. Did you arrive at your destination yesterday morning ${ }^{1}$ ? 15 . Old Johnson was the very best friend of the children. 16. The chairman spoke louder and louder. i7. They walked farther to-day than yesterday, but it didn't take so long. I8. When it rained, the boys went into the house. ig. The woman went up to the table and took the money. 20. It is raining too much this spring. Last spring it didn't rain at all.

1 Yesterday morning i går morse.

## LESSON XIV.

THE VERB.
180. It has been seen ( $£ \delta 80 ; 81$ ) that Swedish verbs are divided according to the formation of the past tense into weak verbs and strong verbs.
(A) WEAK verbs. While weak verbs in forming their past tense all have in common the addition of an ending containing a dental consonant ( $d, t$ ) followed by $e$, yet they fall naturally into three groups: (I) those that have the tense-characteristic -de preceded by $a^{1}$; (II) those that have only the tense-characteristic $-d e$, which after certain consonants becomes -te; (III) those that double the $d$ of the tense-characteristic. Verbs whose past tense ends in
-ade (talade) belong to the First Weak Conjugation, -de or -te (byggde, köpte), to the Second Weak Conjugation, -dde (trodde), to the Third Weak Conjugation.
(B) strong verbs. These are characterized by vowelchange in the formation of their past tense, no tense-sign being employed. This group will be spoken of as the Strong Conjugation.
181. PAST PARTICIPLE AND SUPINE. In the case of weak verbs, the common-gender form of the past participle can be found by dropping the final $-e$ of the past tense, the neuter being formed by changing the $-d(-d d)$ of

[^85]the common-gender form to $-t(-t t)^{1}$. Those ending in $-t$ are not changed in the neuter ${ }^{2}$. The endings of the past participle, then, are: (I) -ad, 11. -at (talad, n. talat); (II) $-d$ or $-t$, 11. -t (byggd, n. byggt; köpt, n. köpt); (III) -dd, 11. -tt (trodd, n. trott). The Strong Conjugation has in the past participle the ending -en, n. $-e t^{3}$, which is added directly to the stem ${ }^{4}$ (skriven, 11. skrivet).

The neuter of the past participle of all verbs is used after the present and past tense of $h a(v a)^{5}$ have, to form the present perfect and the past perfect, respectively; as, jag har talat I have spoken, jag hade talat I had spoken. Observe that English similarly employs the past participle in the formation of these tenses. In both languages it has in this case active, and not passive, meaning.

When so employed in Swedish, the neuter of the past participle is called the Supine. In the Strong Conjugation, $i$ is substituted for $e$ in the neuter of the past participle when used in this way. The endings of the supine are accordingly in weak verbs (I) $-a t$, (II) $-t$, (III) $-t t$, and in the Strong Conjugation -it.
182. OMISSION OF THE AUXILIARY. In dependent clauses the auxiliary is very often omitted in the present perfect and past perfect, the supine alone being used ${ }^{6}$ (see § i91, r). The context shows whether the supine has present perfect or past perfect meaning. Ex.: Här är en liten bok, som jag skrivit $i$ sommar. Here is a little book that I have written this summer. Fag trodde, att han tröttnat. I thought he had grown tired. När

[^86]det slutut regna, skola vi gáa ut och gád. When it has stopped raining, we shall go out for a walk. Striden rasade, ända tills solen gatt ned. The battle raged until the sun had set. Om vi varit forsik'tigare, skulle detta ej ha hänt. If we had been more careful, this would not have happened. Vad fadern påbörjat, fortsatte sönerna. The sons continned what their father had started.
183. summary. (A) Weak Conjugations:

| INF. | PRES. | PAST | PAST PART. | SUP. |
| ---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| I. tala | talar | talade | talad, n. talat | talat |
| II. a) bygga | bygger | byggde | byggd, n. byggt | byggt |
| b) köpa | köper | köpte | köpt, n. köpt | köpt |
| III. tro | tror | trodde | trodd, n. trott | trott |

(B) Strong Conjugation:
skriva skriver skrev skriven, 11. skrivet skrivit
Note. - To facilitate the formation of the various tenses, it is desirable to know in the case of all verbs: (1) the present infinitive, (2) the past sing. ind. (and the past plur. if its stem-vowel differs from that of the singular), and (3) the supine. These are called the principal parts of a verb. Ex.: tala, talade, talat; bygga, byggde, byggt; köpa, köpte, köpt; tro, trodde, trott; skriva, skrev, skrivit; finna, fann, funno, funnit.

## FIRST WEAK CONJUGATION.

184. The First Weak Conjugation contains about five-sixths of all Swedish verbs, though many of the verbs that are most commonly used belong to other conjugations. To the First Weak Conjugation belong:
(1) Almost all weak verbs that before the $-a$ of the infinitive have a consonant preceded by a hard ${ }^{1}$ vowel; as, kalla call, bruka use, fràga ask.
(2) All verbs having a vowel before the $-a$ of the infinitive; as, roa amuse, forny'a renew.
(3) Almost all verbs derived from other words by means of a suffix containing a consonant; as, gulna turn yellow, from gul yellow; vidga widen, from vid wide.

Note. - Most verbs of foreign origin belong to this conjugation. Observe especially the verbs ending in -e'ra; as, stude'ra study, telefone'ra telephone.
185. Example of the active indicative of the First Weak Conjugation: kalla call.
jag, etc., kallar
vi kalla
I kallen
de kalla
PRES. PERF.
jag har kallat
vi hava kallat ${ }^{2}$
I haven kallat
de hava kallat

PAST
kallade
kallade
kalladen
kallade
PAST PERF. FUTURE PERFECT ${ }^{3}$
hade kallat kommer att hava kallat ${ }^{2}$
hade kallat komma att hava kallat haden kallat kommen att hava kallat hade kallat komma att hava kallat

## FUTURE ${ }^{1}$

kommer att kalla komma att kalla kommen att kalla komma att kalla

INFINITIVES*: Present, kalla; present perfect, ha(va) kallat SUPINE: kallat

Note. - I. The future perfect is formed by the auxiliary-verb komma, followed by the perfect infinitive with att ${ }^{3}$. The future perfect is rarely used, the present perfect being employed instead. Ex.: I morgon ha vi bott här jamt ett air. By to-morrow we shall have lived here exactly a year. Jag har strax slutat. I shall be through very shortly. När jag har läst boken, skall du fä den. When I have read the book, you may have it.
2. Concerning irregularities in conjugation see § 191, 3. Cf. also $\$ 8194,3$ and $4 ; 203,3$ and 4 ; page 131, foot-notes 1 and 3.

[^87]
## PERSONAL AND REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS.

186. Personal pronouns. In Swedish, as in English, the personal pronouns have a special form when used in the objective case.

| NOM. | OBJ. | NOM. | OBJ. | NOM. | OBJ. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| jag | mig | han | honom | $v i$ | oss |
| du | dig | hon | henne | $I, n i$ | eder, er |
| $n i$ | $e r$ | den, det | = Nom. | de | dem |

Note. - Den, det, as the English "it", has no special form for the objective case.
187. REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS. The objective forms of the personal pronouns of the first and second persons, both singular and plural, may also be used reflexively, referring back to the subject. In that case they are translated "myself", "yourself", "ourselves", "yourselves'. Ex.: Skadade du dig? Did you hurt yourself? (Cf. Skadade han dig? Did he lurt you?)

For the third person, however, a special pronoun sig is employed to convey the reflexive idea. Of this there is necessarily no nominative form. It is used in referring back to a subject of either gender, singular and plural, and is rendered into English by "himself", "herself", "itself", "one's self", "themselves". It thus corresponds to "sich" in German and "se" in Latin. Ex.: Gossen (djuret, gossarna) skadade sig. The boy (the animal, the boys) hurt himself (itself, themselves).

Note. - In translating from English into Swedish, the reflexive "himself", etc., must be carefully distinguished from the intensive pronoun "himself", etc., which in Swedish is an entirely different word, själv, n. självt, plur. själva. Ex.: Han gick själv. He went himself. Han byggde huset at sig sjalv. He built the house for himself. De flesta tala mycket mera ologiskt än de själva tro. Most people talk much more illogically than they themselves believe. En furste måste först och främst kunna behär'ska sig själv.

A ruler must in the first place be able to control himself. $\operatorname{Sma}$ barn bruka icke kalla sig sjalva "jag". Little children are not in the habit of speaking of themselves as "I".
188. REFLEXIVE POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS. The possessive pronouns of the first and second persons may also be used reflexively, as in English. For the third person, however, Swedish does not employ hans, hennes, dess, deras (cf. §62, note), corresponding to the English "his", "her", "its", "their", but uses for all these ${ }^{1}$ a special reflexive possessive pronoun denoting either one or more than one possessor, $\sin$, n. sitt, plur., when denoting possession of more than one object, ${ }^{2}$ sina. It thus corresponds in use to the Latin "suus', but not to the German "sein", which is equivalent to the Eng. "his" and "its", and which is used as these, both reflexively and non-reflexively. Ex.: Gossen skadade sin hand (sina händer). The boy hurt his hand(s). De köpte sin häst $i$ staden. They bought their horse in town. But observe: Gossen skadade hans hand (händer). The boy hurt his (二some one else's) hand(s). De köpte deras häst. They bought their ( $=$ some other people's) horse. Observe that in the following sentences Eng. "his' is ambiguous: Fohan har sin bok. John has his (二 his own) book. Fohan har hans bok. John has his ( $=$ some one else's) book.
189. PRONUNCIATION: (a) ${ }^{3} \sin , \operatorname{dem}(\S 6$, note I); honom (Phonology §§ 14 A 3; 22, 4); djur (§ 16); $\operatorname{berg}$ (§ 9, 1 c); fattigt, byggt, sjülvt (§ 18, and Phonology § 38).-Observe the long quantity of the vowel in: lekte, past tense of leka (§ 6, note 2); gulna, härdna (Phonology $\S 14 \mathrm{~B} 2 \mathrm{c}$ ). In vitt, n. of vid, the vowel is shortened

[^88](§ 6, note 2).- (b) Stjärnhök (§ 19, 6 b); tjugu (§ 19, 7 a).
190. ACCENT: (1) In the greater part of Sweden, verbs in -e'ra have the acute accent in all forms (cf. § 66, 3).
(2) The following words have the acute accent: (a) aker, varifrän (cf. page 125, foot-note 3), forny'a, stude'ra, telefone'ra, Fridolf. - Framfor, when stressed on the first syllable (see page 124, foot-note 3), usually has the grave accent. The objective eder usually has the acute accent.-(b) histo'ria, behär'ska, heller, Henrik.
191. COLLOQUIALISMS: (i) The omission of the auxiliary in the present perfect and past perfect belongs almost exclusively to the written language.
(2) In the spoken language the fut. perf. is not used.
(3) A number of verbs of the First Weak Conjugation, most of which have $l$ or $n$ before the $-a$ of the infinitive, may in the spoken language have the endings $-t e,-t$ and $-t$ of the Second Weak Conjugation (cf. köpte, köpt, köpt) instead of -ade, -ad and -at, in the past tense, the past participle and the supine, respectively; as, talte, talt, talt instead of talade, talad, talat. Similarly, dela divide, spela play, mena mean, tjäna serve, lana borrow, visa show, koka cook, etc. In the case of compound verbs containing these verbs as final components, the shorter form is still more common than in the simple verbs. All other forms of these verbs than those mentioned are regular, following the First Weak Conjugation; accordingly, always talar.
(4) In a large part of Sweden the past tense ending in -ade of the First Weak Conjugation drops - de in easy speech; similarly the supine drops $-t$. Ex.: Han svara inte. (Han svarade icke.) He did not answer. Fa tala mä Fohan i gär. ( Fag talade med Fohan igar.) I spoke to John yesterday.
(5) Instead of the objective forms of the personal pronouns in the singular, easy speech employs certain unstressed (enclitic) pronouns: 'en or ' $n$ instead of honom and den', 'et or 't for $\operatorname{det}^{1}$, 'na for henne. The use of the forms ' $n$ and ' $t$ is similar to that of the corresponding forms of the postpositive definite article (see §4I). Ex.: fa såg'en $i$ gảr kväll. I saw him (it) last night. Fick du't? Did you get it? Fa tror'na inte. I don't believe her. Tycker du om'et? Do you like it? Vill $d u$ $h a^{\prime} n$, så ta'n. Take him (it) if you want hin (it).
(6) In colloquial speech, mig, dig and sig are pronounced as if spelled mäj, $d \ddot{a} j, s a ̈ j$. -In the spoken language (primarily in easy speech), dem is in some parts of Sweden pronounced dom, i. e., damm. - In easy speech, the objective form dem, pronounced dom, is in some parts of Sweden used in place of the nominative de. Ex.: Dom ä inte hemma nu. (De äro icke hemma nu.) They are not at home now. - Primarily in easy speech, fattig, fattigt are pronounced fatti, fattit.

## VOCABULARY.

Note. - In this and the following vocabularies the conjugation of weak verbs will be indicated with Roman numerals: (I), (II), (III). Strong verbs will be designated by (STR.).

The following verbs belonging to the First Weak Conjugation have appeared in previous vocabularies: arbeta, berät'ta, kosta, lova, plocka, promene'ra, regna, somna, svara, tala, tröttna.
berg $n$. (5) mountain, hill, dal (2) valley
rock
bruka (I) use, be accustomed to
bäck (2) brook
$\operatorname{det}^{2}$ there
djur $n$. (5) animal
fattig poor
framför ${ }^{3}$ before, in front of

[^89]frảga (1) question; (1) ask sig refl., himself, herself, etc. (a question)
förny'a (I) renew
gulna (1) turn yellow gảng (3) time; en gảng once
hav $n$. (5) sea, ocean
höjd (3) height
kalla (1) call, summon
leka (II, -te) play
mellan between, among, in
the midst of
mörkblá dark blue
plats (3) place
roa (1) amuse
se (irregular; pres. -r; past
sảg) see, look; se pà look
at; se $\mathbf{u}^{\prime} \mathbf{t}^{1}$ look, appear sed(an) after, afterwards;
för . . . sedan ${ }^{2}$ ago
$\sin (n . \operatorname{sitt})$ refl., his, her(s), its, one's, their (s)
själv self, himself, herself, etc. skada (1) injury; (1) hurt
strimma (1) streak, band, line
stude'ra (I) study
telefone'ra (r) telephone
till adv., more, in addition
timme (2) hour
träffa (i) meet
varifrản ${ }^{3}$ from where, from which
vid wide
vidga (1) widen
ảker (2) field
àt for, to
äng (2) meadow
änka (1) widow

## EXERCISE XIV.

Note. - All new words occurring in Exercises $A$ and $B$ will be found in the vocabulary of each lesson. For unfamiliar words found in Exercises $C$ and $D$ the general vocabulary must be consulted. Words in brackets [ ] are to be omitted in translation.
A. 1. Barnens mor är änka. Hennes man dog i vintras. 2. Gossen har arbetat hela dagen. Därför har hans far lovat att giva honom en ny hatt och ett par vackra skor. 3. Det har regnat halva veckan. Jag tycker, att det är nog ntı. 4. Karl gav sina tvả vackraste böcker åt systern. 5. Det roade dig väl att träffa honom en

[^90]gång till ${ }^{1}$ ? 6. Doktorn såg på barnet. Han sade, att det såg mycket sjukt ut. 7. Den fattiga änkans lilla flicka brukade sjunga mycket vackert. 8. Telefonerade du själv? 9. När Erik studerat tyska ett par ảr, kunde han tala det mycket bra. io. Roade ni er i skogen? ir. Korna äro ute på ängen. 12. Violanta ${ }^{2}$ och Fridolf tyckte allra bäst om att leka vid bäcken. 13. När de roat sig i vattnet ett par timmar, gingo de hem. 14. Vill du inte ha en kopp kaffe till ${ }^{3}$ ?
$B$. There ${ }^{4}$ was once a poor widow who lived in a little house high ${ }^{5}$ up on a mountain with her two little children, Fridolf and Violanta. The house was situated in the midst of large trees, but before it [there] was an open place from which they could look far ${ }^{6}$ away across forests, fields and meadows, heights and valleys. But farthest ${ }^{6}$ away they saw a dark blue streak, and that ${ }^{7}$ was the ocean.
C. Allaredan finns det ${ }^{4}$ manga historier ${ }^{8}$ on greve Henriks dumhet, och han är inte mer än nadgra och tjugu $1^{9}$ år gammal. Man kan ${ }^{10}$ tala onn hur han underhöl111 Anna Stjärnhök på ett slädparti för några år sedan. "Du är vacker, du Anna," sade han.-"Du pratar, Hen-rik."-"Du är den vackraste i hela ${ }^{12}$ Värmland."-"Det

[^91]är jag visst inte."-"Den vackraste pả slädpartiet är du i alla fall."-"Ack, Henrik, det är jag inte heller.""Ja, men nog är du vackrast i denna släden. Det kan du dả ${ }^{1}$ inte neka." Nej, det kunde hon inte. Ty ${ }^{2}$ greve Henrik är inte vacker, han. Haı är lika ful som dum.
D. 1. They used to relate many stories about her. 2. They thought that their own parish was the most beautiful in all Sweden. 3. I have promised to tell a story to the children. 4. When it had rained a whole week, I became tired of it. 5. The children had been amusing themselves at the river all day. 6. I saw both him and her yesterday. 7. He had built his house himself. 8. He has promised me the book many times. Do you think that he is going to keep his promise? 9. The sea is dark blue. 10. It looks as if it is never going to rain again. II. If he hasn't gone to sleep, I want to talk to him. 12. I asked my friend if he did not want to meet them once more. 13. If he has not answered, I shall write another ${ }^{8}$ letter.

[^92]
## LESSON XV.

## SECOND AND THIRD WEAK CONJUGATIONS.

192. SECOND WEAK CONJUGATION. With very few exceptions, all verbs belonging to this conjugation have a soft vowel in the stem. ${ }^{1}$ The past tense is formed by adding -de to the stem (see p. irf, foot-note), and the past participle (common-gender forın), by adding $-d$. But after voiceless ${ }^{2}$ consonants ( $k, p, t, s$ ) the $d$ of these endings becomes voiceless by assimilation ${ }^{3}$, past tense -te, past part. $-t$. Compare in Eng.: call, called; fear, feared; but laugh (pron. laf), laughed (pron. laft); bake, baked (pron. bakt). Accordingly, this conjugation is divided into two classes: ${ }^{4}$
a) Verbs whose stems end in a voiced ${ }^{2}$ consonant; these have $-d e,-d$; as, bygga build, byggde, byggd ( n . byggt); höra hear, hörde, hörd (n. hört).
b) Verbs whose stems end in a voiceless ${ }^{2}$ consonant; these have -te, -t; as, köpa buy, köpte, köpt (n. köpt); leka play, lekte, lekt (11. lekt); resa travel, reste, rest (n. rest); växa grow, växte, växt (n. växt). So also a few ${ }^{5}$ verbs with stems ending in $n$; as, begyn'na begin, past begyn'te.
[^93]Note. - Verbs whose stems end in $d^{1}$ or $t$ preceded by a consonant do not add another $d$ or $t$; as, sända send, sände, sänd (n. sänt); gifta marry, gifte, gift (n. gift). But verbs with stems ending in $d$ or $t$ preceded by a vowel have the regular endings; as, leda lead, ledde, ledd (n. lett); möta meet, mötte, mött (11. mött).
193. Examples of the indicative active of the Second Weak Conjugation are: bygga build, köpa buy.

| PRESENT | PAST | PRESENT | PAST |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| jag, etc., bygger | byggde | köper | köpte |
| vi bygga | byggde | köpa | köpte |
| I byggen | byggden | köpen | köpten |
| de bygga | byggde | köpa | köpte |

FUTURE: kommer (komma, kommen, komma) att bygga, köpa PRESENT PERFECT: har (hava, haven, hava ${ }^{2}$ ) byggt, köpt PAST PERFECT: hade (hade, haden, hade) byggt, köpt
FUTURE PERFECT: kommer (komma, kommen, komma) att ha(va) byggt, köpt
INFINITIVES: bygga, ha(va) byggt; köpa, ha(va) köpt
SUPINE: byggt, köpt
Note. - Verbs whose stems end in $r$ preceded by a long vowel have no ending in the singular of the present indicative; as, höra hear, pres. sing. hör, not hörer; göra do, gör; lära teach, learn, lär. So also three verbs whose stems end in $l$ : tâla endure, tolerate, tal; mala grind, mal; gala crow, gal. The plural is regular, höra, göra, lära, tåla, mala, gala.
194. IRREGULAR VERBS OF THE SECOND WEAK CONJUGATION. (i) A few verbs add to the stem in the infinitive and in the pres. ind. a $j$ which does not reappear in the other tenses: ${ }^{8}$

[^94]INFINITIVE
skilja separate stödja support

PRESENT PAST ${ }^{1}$ SUPINE
skiljer, skilja skilde skilt stöd $j$ )er ${ }^{2}$, stödja stödde stött

In most verbs of this kind there is in the infinitive and present indicative a modified vowel that does not reappear in the other tenses, the corresponding hard vowel being used instead. The most important of these are: glädja gladden gläder ${ }^{2}$, glädja gladde glatt smörja grease, oil spörja ask, hear sälja sell välja choose vänja accustom smörjer, smörja spörjer, spörja säljer, sälja väljer, välja vänjer, vänja

| gladde | glatt |
| :--- | :--- |
| smorde | smort |
| sporde | sport |
| sálde | salt |
| valde | valt |
| vande | vant |

(2) Also a few verbs ${ }^{3}$ without this $j$ have in the infinitive and present indicative a modified vowel that does not reappear in the other tenses:

| göra do, make | gör, göra | gjorde ${ }^{4}$ | gjort4 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sätta set, put | sätter, sätta | satte | satt |

Two verbs, in addition to changing the vowel, drop a consonant in forming the past tense; this consonant reappears in the past participle (pronounced $g$ ) and in the supine (pronounced $k$ ).

| lägga lay, put | lägger, lägga | lade ${ }^{5}$ | lagt |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| säga say | säger, säga | sade ${ }^{5}$ | sagt |

[^95]One verb with $i$ in the inf. and pres. ind. substitutes $a$ for this in the other forms, also changing the following consonant-sound (to $k$ ):

| INFINITIVE | PRESENT | PAST | SUPINE |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| bringa bring | bringar ${ }^{1}$, bringa | bragte | bragt |

(3) A few verbs are irregular only in the supine; as, leva live, exist lever, leva levde levat heta be called heter, heta hette hetat
(4) A few verbs may follow: a) either the Second or the First Weak Conjugation; as, bringa ${ }^{1}$; see also § 191, 3 ; b) either the Second Weak Conjugation or the Strong Conjugation; as, gala (see page 139, foot-note 1); see also § 203, 4.
(5) Most of the auxiliaries ${ }^{2}$, though more or less irregular, have forms resembling those of the Second Weak Conjugation; as, kunna can, be able kan, kunna kunde kunnat ${ }^{3}$ $h a(v a)^{4}$ have vilja want to, will har, ha(va) vill, vilja hade haft ville velat ${ }^{3}$
Also veta ${ }^{2}$ know, is very irregular: veta
vet ${ }^{2}$, veta visste vetat ${ }^{3}$

## THIRD WEAK CONJUGATION.

195. The Third Weak Conjugation contains verbs whose infinitives ( $=$ the stem1) end in a stressed ${ }^{5}$ vowel.
[^96]These verbs, which are not numerous, are monosyllabic, unless compounded. Examples of the active indicative of this conjugation are: tro believe, sy sew.

PRESENT
jag, etc., tror
vi tro
I tron
de tro

PAST
trodde
trodde
trodden
trodde

PRESENT
PAST
syr sydde
sy sydde
syn sydden sy sydde

FUTURE: kommer (komma, kommen, komma) att tro,-sy
PRESENT PERFECT: har (hava, haven, hava) trott, sytt PAST PERFECT: hade (hade, haden, hade) trott, sytt FUTURE PERFECT: kommer (komma, kommen, komma) att ha(za) trott, sytt
INFINITIVES: tro, ha(va) trott; sy, ha(va) syit
SUPINE: trott, sytt
Note.-1. When the $a$ of hade is pronounced short, which is usually the case, the verb $h a(v a)$ have, belongs formally to the Third rather than the Second Weak Conjugation, the single $d$ being only an orthographic irregularity. This verb is irregular, however, in laving hava besides ha; moreover, its supine and past participle follow the Second Weak Conjugation ${ }^{1}$.
2. Not all verbs whose infinitives end in a stressed vowel belong to the Third Weak Conjugation, the others being irregular verbs belonging to the Strong Conjugation; see the next lesson, § 203, 1; cf. § 203, 2.
196. ORTHOGRAPHY: (i) Observe that verbs whose stems end in $m m$ or $n n$ drop one of the double consonants when followed by the endings $-d e,-d$ or $-t$ : glömma, glömde, glömd, glömt; känua, kände, känd, känt; begyn'na, begyn'te, begyn't; see Plionology § 18.

[^97](2) Observe that while the supines sagt, lagt and bragt are written with the character of a voiced ${ }^{1}$ consonant, which is pronounced voiceless ${ }^{1}$, haft, from hava, is both pronounced and written with a voiceless consonant.
197. pronunciation: (i) skilja (§ 14); gjorde, gjort (§ 15); hjälpa (§ 16); sagt, lagt, bragte, bragt, hastigt (§ 18, and Phonology § 38 and note); trädgärd (§ 16 c ). - Observe the changes in the pronunciation of $g$ in saga, sagd, sagt. - In stödja, stödde, möta, mötte the quality as well as the quantity of $\bar{b}$ changes; similarly in the case of $a$ in hava, hade (when short), haft.
(2) The addition of the endings $-d e,-t e,-d,-t$ to a consonant preceded by a long vowel does not cause this vowel to be shortened, except ${ }^{2}$ when the resulting con-sonant-combination is $d d$ or $t t$; as, leda, ledde, ledd, lett; glädja, gladde, gladd, glatt; stödja, stödde, stödd, stött; möta, mötte, mött; heta, hette. Cf. § 6, note 2. On the contrary, a few verbs have a long vowel in the past tense, past part. and supine, though that of the present is short: smörja, smorde, smord, smort; spörja, sporde, spord, sport; välja, valde, vald, valt; vänja, vande, vand, vant. So also in lade, sade, the past tense of lägga and säga, and in velat, the irregular supine of vilja.-In the Third Weak Conjugation the addition of endings containing $d d$ or $t t$ causes the stem-vowel to be shortened; as, sy, sydde, sydd, sytt; tro, trodde, trodd, trott.
198. ACCENT. (a) begyn'na, Tyskland, trädgärd (usually). - (b) stövel, ater. - Sadel (acute or grave accent).
199. colloquialisms: (i) In the spoken language, glädja and stödja are usually pronounced without the $j$, gläda, stöda. - Frequently, on the contrary, verbs with $j$

[^98]in the present have it also in the other forms; as, valjde, väljt; smörjde, smörjt.
(2) In the spoken language, $s a$ and $l a$ are generally used in place of sade, lade.
(3) Vilja is frequently pronounced villa, and velat sometimes villat.
(4) In easy speech, köpte and köpt may be pronounced with a short vowel.
(5) The verb begyn'na is not of frequent occurrence, being used chiefly in the elevated style; elsewhere börja (1) is used. - Bringa belongs primarily to the written language.

## VOCABULARY.

Note. - Verbs belonging to the Second Weak Conjugation and having $-d e$ in the past tense will be designated by (IIa), those having -te, by (IIb).

The following verbs belonging to the Second Weak Conjugation have occurred in previous vocabularies: (IIa) bygga, säga, kunna, (hava); (II b) försö'ka, köpa, leka, läsa, resa, tycka, växa. In addition, note vilja, skola (see § 252 ). The following verbs of the Third Weak Conjugation have occurred previously: bo, tro, (hava).
begyn'na (IIb) begin
bringa (IIb or I) bring bàt (2) boat
bära (STR., bar, plur.
buro) carry, bear, wear gala (ıa ${ }^{1}$ ) crow gifta (IIb) marry; gifta $\operatorname{sig}^{2}$ (med) be married (to), marry
glädja (Ira) please, give pleasure (to), cheer; det gläder mig $I$ am glad; glädja sig ${ }^{2}$
(àt) rejoice (at, in) glömma (iIa) forget göra (ıIa) do, make hastigt rapidly, quickly heta (IIb) be called, be (one's) name

[^99]hjälpa (rib) help liöra (iIa) hear
källa (1) spring
känna (ira) know, feel leda (ira) lead, guide leva (iIa) live (=exist) lägga (iIa) lay, put;
lägga sig $^{1}$ lie down, go to bed
lära (iIa) teach, learn²;
lära sig learn
mala ( $1 \mathrm{a}^{8}$ ) grind medan while
möta ( I I b) meet, encounter ro (iii) row
sexton sixteen
skilja (ira) separate, dis-
tinguish
smörja (ira) grease, oil
spinna (STR., spann, plur. spumino) spin
spörja (ira) ask, learn, hear stödja (ira) support, lean
sy (iII) serw
sälja (ina) sell
sända (ira) send
sätta (irb) seat, set, place, put; sätta sig sit down
trädgård (2) orchard, garden
tvätta (1) wash
tảla (i Ia) endure, tolerate, bear ull wool
veta (ira, visste) know
välja (ira) choose, elect
vänja (IIa) accustom

## EXERCISE XV.

A. i. Den gamla gumman ${ }^{4}$ sålde ull och köpte sedan bröd àt sina smả barn. 2. Jag visste, att de voro fattiga och försökte därför att hjälpa dem litet ${ }^{5}$. 3. När han lärt engelska, reste han till Tyskland ${ }^{6}$ för att lära sig tyska. 4. Jag vet icke, om jag kan vänja mig vid dessa förhällanden. 5. Den gamle läraren hör inte, vad du säger. Kan du inte tala litet högre? 6. Vad har ni gjort i skolan i dag? 7. När barnen lagt sig, satte modern sig pả en stol och läste i en bok. 8. Jag har vetat det länge. 9. De små ha lekt i trädgȧrden hela dagen. ıo. Jag har sport, att han gift sig med en rik änka. 11. Det lilla bar-

1 See page 134, foot-note 2.
2 Learn = "1ära" or "lära sig".
3 Also STR. in the supine and past participle.

[^100]net ledde den blinde, när han var ute i staden. 12. Det gläder mig att höra, att du hade rätt. 13. När han rott båten ett par timmar, tröttnade han. 14. Vad heter du? — Jag heter Lina. 15. Han hade väl glömt, att de valt honom till ordförande. 16. Gossen har redan tvättat sig om liänderna ${ }^{1}$. 17. Berggren tảl icke att se sina ovänner. I8. Det gläder mig att höra, att du är frisk igen.
$B$. Up on the mountain where the house was situated [there] was a spring, which rapidly grew into ${ }^{2}$ a brook. At this brook the mother washed the wool which she had spun ${ }^{3}$, while the children played in the water or made small boats which they put down into the brook.

When the children becane larger, they began to help their mother with her work. Fridolf carried water from the spring and worked in the orchard. Violanta learned to ${ }^{4}$ sew and spin. During the winter she sat in the house and spun, but when spring ${ }^{5}$ came, her mother sent her with the wool to the brook, to ${ }^{6}$ wash it. Slie was now sixteen years old and was a tall and beautiful girl.
C. Han ${ }^{7}$ hade varit ${ }^{8}$ i Munkeryd på besök ${ }^{9}$ hos lagmannens för nágra år sedan. Ridande ${ }^{10}$ hade han kommit ${ }^{8}$ burit hög hatt, gula byxor och blanka stövlar ${ }^{11}$ och suttit ${ }^{8}$ styv och stolt i sadeln. Vid ankomsten gick allt väl. Men då han skulle rida bort igen, hände $\operatorname{sig}^{12}$, att en av de nedhängande kvistarna i björkallén slog av honom hatten ${ }^{13}$. Han steg av, satte pá sig hatten och red åter fram under samma kvist. Åter blev hatten avslagen ${ }^{14}$.

[^101][^102]Det upprepades ${ }^{1}$ fyra gånger. Lagmannen gick till sist fram till honom och sade: "Om bror skulle rida" pá sidan om kvisten nästa gảng?" Femte gảngen kom han lyckligen förbi ${ }^{8}$ kvisten.
D. 1. They were visiting friends in Stockholm. 2. I know who he is, but I do not know him. 3. His brother was married a few years ago. 4. One of the branches struck him in the eye. 5. He put on his hat and rode away once more. 6. Do you want me to repeat ${ }^{4}$ what I said yesterday? 7 . When I met them the first time, they were walking on this side of the street. 8. Did you go past an old house with a red roof? 9. When the peasant had sold the cow, he bought three goats. 10. The good woman went into the poor man's cottage and put ten crowns on his table. 11. What was your father's name? 12. They sat in the cottage spinning ${ }^{6}$ all winter. 13. The branches of the birches are very pretty in spring. 14. If you sit down on the chair over there, I shall tell you ${ }^{6}$ the story: 15 . He said that he had put the book on your table. 16. He did as well as he could. 17. I do not know whether he has lived a happy life. 18. Have you learned your lessons yet? 19. It began to rain before I went to bed. 20. Do you think that you can accustom yourselves to the conditions in this country? 21. He hasn't much to be happy over. 22. Have you forgotten what ̧ou did?

[^103]
## LESSON XVI.

## STRONG CONJUGATION. ${ }^{1}$

200. Learn the principal parts of the following strong verbs, arranged according to the vowel of the past singular: ${ }^{2}$

INFINITIVE

bära carry
skära cut
stjäla steal
svälta ${ }^{4}$ starve giva ${ }^{5}$ give
bedja $^{5}$ ask, pray
vara ${ }^{7}$ be
\{taga ${ }^{5}$ take
fara go, travel
draga ${ }^{5}$ draw, pull
svär( $j$ )a swear
$\left\{\right.$ komma ${ }^{7}$ come
$\left\{\right.$ sova ${ }^{7}$ sleep
ligga lie

## PAST

bar, plur. buro
skar, plur. skuro
stal, plur. stulo
svalt, plur. svulto
gav, plur. gavo
bad, plur. bảdo
var, plur. voro
tog
for
drog
svor, plur. svuro
kom ${ }^{8}$
sov
ldg

SUPINE ${ }^{3}$
burit
skurit
stulit
svultit
givit
bett (bedit ${ }^{6}$ )
varit
tagit
farit
dragit
svurit
kommit
sovit
$\operatorname{leg} a t^{9}$

1 Concerning the membership of the Strong Conjugation nothing further can be said than that it contalns, besides the individual verbs mentioned in § 200 , a number of verbs having $i, u$ or $y$ as the root-vowel. Strong verbs have been treated above, $8881 ; 97 ; 98 ; 99 ; 180 \mathrm{~B} ; 181$.

2 The brackets embrace the verbs that form groups with identical vowel-change throughout. See also page 139, foot-note 1.

3 The form of the past participle will in almost all cases be clear from the supine. For a further discussion of the past participle see $\S \mathrm{S}_{2} 40 ; 241$.
4. Intransitive. Szülta may also be conjugated according to the Second Weak Conjugation, in which case it is either transitive or intransitive.

5 See § 203, 2.
6 This form is used in the meaning "pray".
7 Note that in komma and sova there is no vowel-change. Of vara, the vowel of the past sling. = that of the present; so in varda (page 139, foot-note 1).

8 Concerning the plur. kommo see Phonology § 18.
9 Note the irregularity; see § 203, 3.

INFINITIVE
äta eat
$\{$ lata let, sound
grảta weep
falla fall
hålla hold

## PAST

àt
lät
grät
föll
höll

## SUPINE

ätit
lảtit
gråtit
fallit
hảllit
201. All other ${ }^{1}$ strong verbs follow one of four systems of vowel-change, arranged here according to the vowel of the present:
(1) All strong verbs with long $i$ as the root-vowel, except giva, have $i-e-i$, as in
skriva write skrev skrivit
(2) All strong verbs with short $i$ as the root-vowel, except ligga, have $i-a$, plur. $u,-u$, as in
finna find
fann, plur. funno funnit
(3) All strong verbs with $u$ (long and short) as the root-vowel have $u-\bar{o}-u$, as in

| bjuda offer | bjod | bjudit |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sjunga sing | sjöng | sjungit |

(4) ${ }^{2}$ All strong verbs with $y$ (long) as the root-vowel have $y-\bar{o}-u$, as in
Ayga
flög
flugit
1 This does not take into account a few verbs that may be either weak or strong (see § 203, 4), and which would belong under §200. Most such verbs are of relatively infrequent occurrence and many of them are in ordinary style used more in the weak than in the strong forms; in some instances, one or more of the strong forms of these verbs are archaic. These verbs will offer no difficulty when met with, especially as most of them follow büra ortaga, having as the root-vowel ü ora. Ex.: begra'va (IIa or STR.) bury; gala (IIa or sTR.) crow; smülla. (IIa or STR.) make a report, bang; skülva (IIa or STR.) tremble; smïlta (IIb or STR.) melt; löøa (Ilb or STR., past lofp, luøo, supine lutit) run.-Observe also the irregular verb varda (zart, vordo, past part. vor den) become, which, except in the elevated style, is used only in the past sin-gular.-Finally, the irregular verbs of §203, 1 are not here taken into account.

2 Class 4 may be combined with 3 , if desired; see 897 .

Note. - I. The vowel of the supine of all regular strong verbs is the same as that of the infinitive, except that it is changed to $u$ in all verbs having in the infinitive $i, y$ or $\vec{a}$ (except in giva and äta). Among irregular verbs, note ligga, legat; slå, slagit (§ 203, 1 end); see also § 203, 3 .
2. Observe that in some of the systems mentioned in $\$ \$ 200,201$, there are three different vowels, in most of the others, two, while komma and sova have one and the same vowel throughout. ${ }^{1}$ When there are three different vowels: (a) The vowel of the past plur. differs from that of the past sing., but is the same as that of the supine. This is the case with verbs of the type of finna, and all verbs having $\ddot{a}$ as the root-vowel, except $a ̈ t a$. All these have $u$ in the past plur., and all but svärja have $a$ in the past singular. (b) The vowel of the past plur. differs from that of the past sing., but the vowel of the supine is the same as that of the present, in bedja and giva. (c) The vowel of the past plur. is the same as that of the past sing., but the vowel of the supine differs both from that of the past tense and that of the present. This is the case with verbs of the type of $\operatorname{flyga}$, and in ligga (with weak supine) and slo̊ ( $(\$ 203,1$ ).

When there are two different vowels, the vowel of the past plur. is the same as that of the past sing., and that of the supine is the same as that of the present, except in the case of vara.
202. Examples of the active indicative of the Strong Conjugation are: skriza write, finna find.

| PRESENT | PAST | PRESENT | PAST |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| jag, etc., skriver | skrev | finner | fann |
| vi skriva | skrevo | finna | funno |
| I skriven | skreven | finnen | funnen |
| de skriva | skrevo | finna | funno |

FUTURE: kommer (komma, kommen, komma) att skriva, finna

[^104]PRESENT PERFECT: har (hava, haven, hava) skrivit, funnit PAST PERFECT: hade (hade, haden, hade) skrivit, funnit FUTURE PERFECT: kommer (komma, kommen, komma) att
ha(va) skrivit, funnit
INFINITIVES: skxiva, ha(va) skrivit; finna, ha(va) funnit SUPINE: skrivit, funnit

Note. - Verbs whose stems end in $r$ add no ending in the singular of the present indicative; these are bära, fara, skära and svära (for svärja). So also in the case of stjäla. Cf. § 193, note.
203. IRREGULAR VERBS OF THE STRONG CONJUGATION. (1) Six strong verbs, with infinitives ending in a stressed vowel, have in the present indicative the same endings as the verbs of the Third Weak Conjugation. On account of their similarity to this conjugation in the present, they also add $-t t$ in the supine, but the past tense remains strong. These are:

| INFINITIVE <br> std stand | PRESENT <br> stär, stả, stản, stả | PAST stod | SUPINE <br> stått |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| dö die | dör, dö, dön, dö | dog | dött |
| le smile | ler, le, len, le | $l o g$ | lett |
| se see | ser, se, sen, se | sadg | sett |
| $f u ̈$ get |  | fick, fingo ${ }^{1}$ | fätt |
| gả go | gàr, gá, gản, gá | gick, gingo ${ }^{1}$ | gảtt |

The verb sla strike, hit, is similar to these in the inf. and pres. ind., but has a strong supine, slagit: slả; slảr, slä, slản, slả; slog; slagit.
(2) Five of the verbs included under $\S \S 200,201$, have a shortened form in the inf. in addition to the full form: bedja, be; giva, ge; bliz'a², bli; taga, ta; draga, dra. Ending in a stressed vowel, these, too, naturally add in the pres. ind. the same endings as the verbs of the Third Weak

[^105]Conjugation. On account of their similarity in the pres. to the irregular verbs just mentioned, and to the verbs of the Third Weak Conjugation, these also have formed supines in -tt, which, however, except in the case of bett and gett, are considered dialectical. See further, $\S 207,1$.
INFINITIVE PRESENT PAST SUPINE
bedja (be) beder ${ }^{1}$ (ber), etc. bad, bdddo bett (bedit ${ }^{2}$ ) giva (ge) giver (ger), etc. gav, gavo givit (gett) bliva (bli) bliver (blir), etc. blev blivit taga (ta) tager (tar), etc. tog tagit draga (dra) drager(drar), etc. drog dragit
(3) In a few verbs the supine is irregular; as, nysit or nusit (but usually nyst; see § 203, 4) from nysa sneeze; suttit or setat, from sitta sit; tigit or tegat, from tiga be silent; legat, from ligga lie. - In a few cases, verbs belonging to other conjugations have a strong supine; as, krympt (tr. or intr.) or krumpit (intr.) from krympa shrink; tvagit or tvätt, from tvã wash (see p. I32, foot-note).
(4) A number of verbs may follow: a) either the Strong Conjugation or the First Weak Conjugation; as, simma swim, past sam or simmade ${ }^{3}$; tvinga compel, past tvang or tvingade ${ }^{4}$; b) either the Strong or the Second Weak Conjugation; as, nysa sneeze, past nōs or nyste; svälta starve, past svalt or svälte (see page 138 , foot-note 4); växa grow, which frequently has strong forms in the past plur. and supine, vuxo, vuxit; particularly common is the past participle vuxen. For further illustrations see page I39, foot-note I. In a few cases, a difference in meaning accompanies the difference in conjugation; as, sluta, past slöt closed, past slutade stopped.

[^106]204. ORTHOGRAPHY: komma, kom, kommo, kommit; simma, sam, summo, summit (Phonology § 18).
205. PRONUNCIATION: (a) skära, skälva, skynda (§ 14); stjäla (§ 19, 6 b); ihjä'l (compound, § 16); knä (§ 17). - (b) Euro'pa (Phonology § 35).-Observe the changing initial consonant-sound in giva, gav; skära, skar; skälval, skalv; stjäla, stal; gda, gick. - In most strong verbs the quantity of the vowel is the same throughout the entire system, but there is change of quantity in ${ }^{2}$ ligga, lag; svärja, svor; löpa ${ }^{1}$, lopp; fá, fick; gả, gick; varda ${ }^{1}$ (vowel long; sometimes slort, with changed quality), vart (vowel short, with changed quality).
206. ACCENT. The following words have the acute accent: (a) försvin'na, begra'va, nedför (see page 145, footnote 2). -Bråttom and kärsbär may have either the acute or the grave accent. - (b) Stränder ( $n a$ ) has the acute accent; numera may have either the acute or the grave accent.
207. collogutalisms: (i) In the case of the verbs mentioned in §203, 2, the shorter forms occur primarily in the spoken language; but particularly be, ber, ge, ger and bli, blir are also frequently used in the written language, except in the more elevated style. The supine bett is used in all kinds of style, while gett belongs primarily to the spoken language; the corresponding supines of $b l i, t a$ and $d r a$ are dialectical.
(2) In the past tense of a number of strong verbs the final consonant, when preceded by a long vowel, may be omitted in easy speech: $g a(v), v a(r), \operatorname{dro}(g), \operatorname{slo}(g)$, $l \hat{a}(g), \operatorname{sa}(g)$, sto $(d)^{3}$, etc.
(3) In the greater part of Southern Sweden the supine in -it is pronounced like the neuter of the past part., $-c t$; in

[^107]the rest of Sweden it is usually pronounced as spelled, though in Stockholm and a number of other places it loses the final $-t^{1}$ in easy speech; as, vari for varit. -Similarly, the final $t$ of the past part. is omitted in some parts of the country (including Stockholm); as, give ( $t$ ); cf. § $157,3$.
(4) In the spoken language, ndgonsin is usually shortened to nánsin. Cf. nản for nágon in Lesson XXIV.
(5) Of verbs that may be either strong or weak, the spoken language in most cases prefers the weak forms.
(6) In verbs of the type of fyga, easy speech frequently has the same vowel in the supine as in the infinitive: Ayga, flög, fygit.
(7) Tvá is used only in the elevated style, tvàtta being the word otherwise employed.

## VOCABULARY.

Note. - The following verbs belonging to the Strong Conjugation have occurred in previous vocabularies: bjuda, bliva, bära, dricka, dö, falla, finna, flyga, fá, giva, gả, hảlla, komma, lida, ligga, rida, se, sitta, sjunga, skriva, spinna, sova, taga, vara.
all ( $n$. allt, plur. alla) all böja (Ira) bend; böja sig ${ }^{4}$ bakom ${ }^{2}$ behind
bedja (STR.) ask ${ }^{3}$, request, pray; - om ask for blommande blooming blåsa (IIb) blow
brusa (i) roar, rush bråttom in a hurry; ha bråttom be in a hurry, be busy

[^108]ihjä'l to death
kıä $n$. (4) knee
kvar ${ }^{1}$ left, behind, remaining
körsbär n. (5) cherry
körsbärsblomma (1) cher-ry-blossom
körsbärsträd $n$. (5) cher-ry-trce
le (IRREG. STR.) smile
låta (STR.) let, sound; lảta bli leave off, let alone, cease
mot against, towards
nedför ${ }^{2}$ down
nysa (STR. or I I b) sneeze
nảgonsin ever
simma (I or STR.) swim
skynda (I) hurry; skynda sig hurry
skära (STR.) cut
sluta ( I$)$ finish, end, stop; (STR.) shut, close
slả (IRREG. STR.) strike, hit stjäla (STR.) steal
stả (IRREG. STR.) stand; stả till ${ }^{3}$ be, do
svälta (STR. or in b) starve svär( j )a (STR.) swear
tiga (STR.) be silent
tvinga (I or STR.) compel
två (III) wash
vidare further, more, on
vild wild
vind (2) wind
äta (STR.) eat

## EXERCISE XVI.

A. i. Många av soldaterna svulto ihjäl under ${ }^{4}$ vintern.
2. Onlı du icke liar bråttom, så skall jag be dig sitta kvar litet längre. 3. När det slutat regna, skola vi gå ut och gå. 4. Jag vet, att han gjort det, men.jag är icke ond pả honom. 5. Då lıon kommit ned till bäcken, lade hon sig på knä och tvättade ullen. 6. Det såg ut, som om hon liade mycket bråttom. 7. När hon slutat, skyndade hon sig nedför berget för att träffa brodern. 8. Sedan gingo de till en liten trädgård, som deras moder hade köpt, och plockade körsbär. 9. Om våren hade de tyckt, att körsbärsblommorna voro det vackraste, de nảgonsin

[^109]sett, och nu tyckte de, att körsbăren voro de bästa, de någonsin ätit. Io. Vi bảdo honom lảta bli att göra det. ir. Hur stå det till hemma? 12. Vi tego. I3. Om det icke blåser för mycket i morgon, så skola vi fara ut på landet.
$B$. When it had become spring, she went to the brook one day with her wool. She was lying on [her] knees, bending ${ }^{1}$ over the water which rushed down toward the falls. It seemed as if all the waves were in a hurry to get ${ }^{2}$ down the mountain and out toward the meadows and fields.

Violanta lay still for a long time ${ }^{8}$ looking ${ }^{4}$ at the water, and then ${ }^{5}$ she asked the brook: "Whither are you hurrying away ${ }^{6}$ ?" Then the brook answered: "To the wild waves of the sea ${ }^{7}$. To the wild waves of the sea,' and rushed on.

Behind Violanta [there] stood a blooming cherry-tree. When the wind blew, many of the white blossoms fell down into the brook and floated away. "Whither are you floating away. Whither are you floating away, you pretty, white flowers?" asked Violanta, when she saw the flowers floating ${ }^{9}$ along on the water. "To the wild waves of the sea. To the wild waves of the sea', answered the cherry-blossoms and disappeared.
C. Då talade gumman om, att det en gång skulle ha legat ett slott norr om Stora Djulö på en backe, där det

[^110]
## W. IRVING CROWLEY

numera inte fanns annat än ${ }^{1}$ skog, och framför det ${ }^{2}$ slottet skulle ha legat en skön lustgảrd. Sả hade det en gång hänt, att en, som kallades herr Karl, och som på clen ${ }^{2}$ tiden styrde hela Sörmland, hade kommit resande ${ }^{3}$ till slottet. Och sedan han hade spisat och druckit, hade han gått ut i lustgården, stått där bảde länge och väl ${ }^{4}$ och sett ut över Stora Djulö sjö och de vackra stränderna. Men bäst han stod där ${ }^{5}$ och gladde sig åt det, som han såg, och tänkte för sig själv, att det inte fanns vackrare land än Sörmland, så hade han hört nảgon sucka helt djupt alldeles bakom honom.
$D$. I. The book has been lying on the table all the time. 2. Have you ever seen the royal palace in Stockholm? 3. If you have been in Stockholm, you have seen the most beautiful capital in Europe ${ }^{6}$. 4. What has happened over there? 5. At that time there was nothing but woods here. 6. The naughty boys stole cherries from the old man's orchard. 7. He bent the branch until it broke. 8. I have caught a cold. I have been sueezing all day. 9. How are you to-day, uncle? 10. He smiled when I told him that I had wept. II. I asked him to hurry. 12. We took our knives and cut off all the small branches. 13. Formerly the water flowed much more slowly than now. 14. They disappeared among the trees. I5. When he had been standing a long time admiring the shores of this lake, he said that he had never seen anything more beautiful. 16. I sighed when I lieard that he had died. 17. The little boy asked for an apple.

[^111]
## LESSON XVII.

## THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

208. The subjunctive ends in $-e$ in all persons, both singular and plural; to this the second person plural adds the usual $-n$, and ends in $-e n^{1}$. In all conjugations the present and past subjunctive can be found by substituting $e$ for the plural ending of the corresponding tense of the indicative. ${ }^{2}$ Weak verbs have no special form for the past subjunctive, but employ the past indicative, which in such verbs already has the $e$-ending characteristic of the subjunctive.

The auxiliaries $m \dot{\alpha}^{3}$, måtte ${ }^{3}$ may, and skulle ${ }^{4}$ should, would, with the infinitive may be substituted for the subjunctive in most of its uses.

The subjunctive ending in $e$ may conveniently be called the $e$-subjunctive, and that formed by means of auxiliaries the auxiliary-subjunctive.

Note. - I. Verbs whose infinitives end in a stressed vowel (Third Weak Conjugation and the irregular strong verbs of $\S 203$, $\mathbf{1}^{5}$ ) do not form the present $e$-subjunctive, but have only the auxil-iary-subjunctive.
2. Strong verbs which in the plural of the past indicative have a root-vowel differing from that of the past singular, employ the root-vowel of the indicative plural both in the singular and plural of the $e$-subjunctive.

[^112]209. The forms of the present ${ }^{1} e$-subjunctive illustrated by verbs of the various conjugations are:

> I. II. III. STRONG IRREG. STR.

| jag, etc., älske | leve | \% | blive | give |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| vi älske | leve | $\stackrel{+}{+}$ | blive | give |
| $I$ älsken | leven | E | bliven | given |
| de älske | leve | \% | blive | give |

In place of the present $e$-subjunctive, the present aux-iliary-subjunctive, consisting of $m \dot{a}$ or mátte with the present infinitive, may be used: jag, etc., må (or mátte) ălska, leva, tro, bliva, giva, stå vi má (mätte) älska, leva, tro, bliva, giva, stå I mản (mảtten) älska, leva, tro, bliva, giva, stå de mả (måtte) älska, leva, tro, bliva, giva, stå
210. The forms of the past ${ }^{2} e$-subjunctive are:
I.
II.
III.
STRONG
IRREG. STR.

| bleve | gàve | stode |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| bleve | gàve | stode |
| bleven | gàven | stoden |
| bleve | gãve | stode |

In place of the past $e$-subjunctive, the past auxiliarysubjunctive, consisting of skulle ${ }^{3}$ with the present infinitive, may be used:
jag, etc., skulle älska, leva, tro, bliva, giva, sta
vi skulle älska, leva, tro, bliva, giva, stả
I skullen älska, leva, tro, bliva, giva, stå
de skulle älska, leva, tro, bliva, giva, stả

[^113]211. There is no present perfect $e$-subjunctive, the present perfect auxiliary-subjunctive, consisting of ma or matte with the perfect infinitive, being used instead; as, jag má (or matte) ha(va) àlskat, etc.
212. For the past perfect $e$-subjunctive the forms of the past perfect indicative are used ${ }^{1}$; in place of this, the past perfect auxiliary-subjunctive, consisting of skulle followed by the perfect infinitive, is very often employed; as, jag hade àlskat or jag skulle ha(va) älskat, etc.

## USE OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

213. The use of the e-subjunctive is rather limited, the auxiliary-subjunctive ${ }^{2}$ being employed in many cases where German and Latin would have the subjunctive. Even in most constructions where Swedish does employ the $e$-subjunctive, the auxiliary-subjunctive is used interchangeably with it. In the present tense the auxiliarysubjunctive is more common than the $e$-subjunctive; in the past tense it occurs frequently in the case of some constructions, while others require the $e$-subjunctive and do not allow the substitution.

The present and past subjunctive do not, except very rarely, denote different kinds of time as do the corresponding tenses of the indicative. In the subjunctive, both these tenses refer to present or future time. In general, the present subjunctive is used of an action that may take place, the past subjunctive of one that cannot or is not likely to take place. The past perfect subjunctive refers to past time, and is used of an act that did not take place.

[^114]214. WISH. (1) A wish that can be realized is expressed by the present $e$-subjunctive, or by the auxiliaries $m a$, matte with the present infinitive, madte imparting more vividness to the wish and usually implying fear that it may not be realized. As there is no present perfect $e$-subjunctive, a wish that may have been realized is expressed by these auxiliaries with the perfect infinitive. Ex.: Lange leve konungen! Long live the king. Má det gá honom väl! May he prosper. Mätte det bli bättre snart! I hope things will get better soon. Mätte jag hinna fram i tid! I hope I'll get there in time. Mätte ingen olycķa ha hänt honom! I hope no misfortune has befallen him.
(2) A wish that cannot be realized, or is not likely to be realized ${ }^{1}$, is expressed by the past $e$-subjunctive when the reference is to present time, and by the past perfect $e$-subjunctive when the reference is to past time. One of the expressions o att, ack om would that, is very often used to introduce such wishes. Ex.: Ack, om jag vore ung igen'! O that I were young again. $O$, att jag aldrig sett honom! O that I had never seen him. Ack, om jag bara hade vetat det! Or, Hade jag bara vetat det! If I had only known it. Om han àndà ginge snart! I do hope he will go soon. Finge jag bara fem minu'ter pa mig! I wish I could have just five minutes more time.
215. UNREAL CONDITIONS. In unreal conditional sentences (conditions contrary to fact), in which the conclusion depends upon a condition that cannot be fulfilled, or is not likely to be fulfilled, the verb, both that of the subordinate clause (the condition) and that of the principal clause (the conclusion), is put in the past $e$-subjunctive

[^115]if the reference is to present time, and in the past perfect $e$-subjunctive if the reference is to past time. In the principal clause ${ }^{1}$ the auxiliary skulle with the infinitive is very often used in place of the $e$-subjunctive. ${ }^{2}$ Ex.: $O m$ du gäve mig boken, sả bleve jag glad. If you gave me the book, I should be glad. Vore jag icke trött, sa ginge jag pả tea'tern. If I were not tired, I should go to the theater. Om jag hade pengar, sả skulle jag resa. I should go if I had the money. Om du hade kommit hit i gar, hade du träffat en gammal bekan't. If you had come here yesterday, you would have met an old acquaintance. Jag skulle ha köpt huset, om det icke varit sà gammalt. I should have bought the house if it had not been so old. The condition may be expressed by an adverbial phrase, or it may be omitted. Ex.: Med din hjälp vore det möjligt. With your assistance it would be possible: I sã fall fore jag strax. In that case I should leave 'at once. Ett dussin av dessa skulle kosta mig fem kronor. A dozen of these would cost me five crowns.

Closely related to these are hypothetical comparisons introduced by som (om), sasom (om), lik(a)som (om) as if, just as if, which also are followed by the past or past perfect $e$-subjunctive. If $o m$ is omitted, the subject and verb of the subordinate clause are inverted (cf. § i40). Ex.: Du kommer, som om du vore kallad. You are coming as though called. Han behan'dlar mig, som om han vore min husbonde. He treats me as if he were my master. Rocken var sà vàt, som om den hade legat i vatten. The coat was as wet as if it had been lying in water. Han bar sig at, som om han hade varit galen. He acted as if he had been crazy.

[^116]216. Summary:

E-SUBJUNCTIVE
AUX.-SUBJ.
Present ${ }^{1}$ Realizable wish
má, mátte
Unrealizable wish past perf. Unreal condition, a) princ. cl.' skulle
b) subord. cl.

Hypothetical comparison
217. ORTHOGRAPHY: ensam, ensamma; annan, andra (Phonology § 18).
218. PRONUNCIATION: (a) värld' (§ 16 a). - Observe the long quantity of the vowel in mogna, segla (Phonology § 14 B 2 c); nagra (cf. Phonology § 14 B 2 b). In matte the vowel is shortened. - In liksom the vowel is sometimes long, but frequently short. - (b) dagakarl (§ 16 a); skogsbacke (§ 18 ).
219. ACCENT. (a) Funde'ra has the acute accent.-Ocksã, tea'ter and tillsam'mans have either the acute or the grave accent.-Liksom may have the grave or (less often) the acute accent.-(b) Behan'dla has the acute accent.
220. Colloquialisms: (i) In the spoken language the use of the $e$-subjunctive is very limited, while in easy speech it is rarely used. In cases where the written language employs only the $e$-subjunctive, the spoken language generally employs the indicative. When the written language may employ either the $e$-subjunctive or the aux-iliary-subjunctive, the spoken language prefers the latter, or, in some cases, uses the indicative. Ex.: Om jag fick, sả for jag med samma. If I could, I should go this minute. On jag var kung, sà skulle du bli drottning. If I were a king, you should be a queen. Ack, om jag fick ga ut! I do wish I could go out. Du kommer, som om du var kallad. You are coming as

[^117]though called. Jag sade till honom, att om han ville komma med taget, sa fick han skynda sig. I told him he would have to hurry if he wanted to catch the train.
(2) In place of the n . intet, the spoken language employs the form inget.
(3) The words varje and saisom belong primarily to the written language.
(4) For nagon and annan, easy speech may use the shorter forms nãn and ann.
(5) Concerning bara see § 86, I. Concerning börja see § 199, 5 .

## VOCABULARY.

ack oh, $o$, alas annan ( $n$. annat, plur. and def. andra) other
bara only, just
bär $n$. (5) berry
börja (I) begin
ensam alone
funde'ra (1) think, ponder;

- på meditate about
galen mad, crazy
genast at once
Gud God
hjälp help
hända (iIa) happen, befall ingen ( $n$. intet, plur. inga)
no, no one, none
$\operatorname{lik}(\mathrm{a})$ som as, just as
liv $n$. (5) life lycklig happy
mogen ripe
mogna (1) ripen, grow ripe nâgon (n. nảgot, plur. nảgra) some, any, some one, any one
- oh, o
ocksà also, too
olycka (1) misfortune
resa ( Irb ) raise; resa sig rise, raise one's self, get up
ropa (I) call out, shout, cry, call
segla (1) sail
skratta (i) laugh
slätt (3) plain
ställe $n$. (4) place
sucka ( 1 ) sigh
såsom as, like
tea'ter (2) theater
tillsam'mans together
tyst silent, quiet
underlig strange, curious, peculiar
varje every, each
värld (2) world
älska (i) love


## EXERCISE XVII.

A. I. Om jag kunde, sả ville jag nog. 2. Ack, om det snart bleve vår! 3. Om jag vore kung, sả skulle du bli drottning. 4. Gud give oss ett gott nytt ár! 5. Om det icke blåste, så skulle vi fara ut på sjön och segla. 6. De sutto där underligt tysta och sảgo ut över havet. 7. Körsbären se ut, som om de vore mogna, men de äro icke goda. 8. Det finns ingen i hela världen, som vet detta. 9. Om det icke vore vackrare pá andra ställen, sả skulle jag genast resa hem igen. 1o. Var det nảgot ${ }^{1}$, du ville säga? ir. Hade han bara gjort som jag sade, så hade det varit bättre bảde för honom och andra.
B. The mother and her children lived a happy life together in the little house up on the mountain. When the cherries had begun to ripen, Fridolf and Violanta were sitting together one day under the cherry-tree by the brook. "Listen", sister," said the boy, "do you think that there is ${ }^{3}$ any more beautiful place in the world than this?" - 'I don't know," answered Violanta. -"But there are ${ }^{3}$ none in the whole world who are as happy as we," said Fridolf.-"Well", who knows?" replied Violanta. "We don't know how others are situated ${ }^{5}$." - "But every day is happy with us, and all days are alike ${ }^{6}$ here." -'Yes, all days are alike here," said Violanta and sighed.

[^118]4 Ja.
5 Ha det.
6 Are alike likna varan'dra.

Just then ${ }^{1}$ some ripe cherries fell down from the tree into the brook and floated away. "Whither are you sailing away? Whither are you sailing away?" cried Violanta. "To the wild waves of the sea. To the wild waves of the sea," answered the cherries and disappeared.

Violanta got up and looked out over the broad ${ }^{2}$ land below her. The wind was blowing ${ }^{8}$ over the plain, and very far away she saw the dark blue streak. "The wild waves of the sea. The wild waves of the sea," Violanta said ${ }^{4}$ slowly. "I too want to go to them."

Fridolf laughed. "You won't go away from mother and me and from our dear little home up here ${ }^{5}$ among the cherry-trees," he said ${ }^{4}$. Violanta did not answer, but Fridolf saw that there was ${ }^{6}$ something that she was pondering over. She began to be $^{7}$ so strangely quiet and preferred to sit ${ }^{8}$ alone at the brook and look out over the broad land at her feet.
C. Då hade han vänt sig om och sett en gammal dagakarl, som stod böjd över $\sin$ spade. "Ăr det du, som suckar så djupt," hade herr Karl sagt. "Vad har du att sucka över?" - "Jag mả väl sucka, som ska ${ }^{9}$ gả här och arbeta i jorden dag ut och dag in," hade dá dagakarlen svarat. Men herr Karl hade ett häftigt humör ${ }^{10}$, och han tyckte inte om att folk klagade. "Har du inte annat att klaga över?" hade han ropat. "Jag säger dig, att jag skulle vara nöjd, om jag finge gà ${ }^{11}$ och gräva i Sörmlands jord i all min tid." - "Mätte det gả ers náde sá, som ni önskar," hade dagakarlen svarat.

[^119]$7 \mathrm{Be} \mathrm{bli}(\mathrm{va})$.
8 Preferred to sit satt helst.
9 See§ $146,2$.
10 Humö'r.
11 See § 245 , note 2 .

Men sedan sade folk, att herr Karl för det talets skull efter döden inte hade fått ro i sin grav, utan var natt brukade komma till Stora Djulö och gräva i sin lustgård. Ja, nu fanns det varken slott eller lustgård mer där borta, utan där de en gång skulle ${ }^{1}$ ha legat, var det nu bara en vanlig skogsbacke. Men om någon skulle gå genom skogen en mörk natt, så kunde det hända, att han finge syn på lustgården.
$D$. I. I should go with you if it were not raining. 2. May he never return. 3. I shouldn't be eating the cherries if they were not ripe. 4. You have nothing to complain about. 5. If I were not so old, I should be able to work more. 6. Would you be satisfied if he gave you a crown? 7. He used to come every night. 8. He liad no peace in his grave. 9. May you soon recover. 1o. If it were dark, you would see nothing. 11. May no misfortune befall them. 12. If my parents permitted me, I should become a sailor.

## LESSON XVIII.

## THE PASSIVE.

221. The passive is formed by adding $-s$ to the active forms. In the auxiliary-tenses (future, present perfect, past perfect and future perfect) this is affixed to the supine or infinitive, and not to the auxiliary. The final $-r$ of the singular of the present indicative active is dropped before the $-s$ of the passive. Examples of the passive inflection are:

PRESENT: I.
jag, etc., kallas
vi kallas
I kallens
de kallas

| II. | III. | STRONG |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| köpes | tros | bjudes |
| köpas $^{1}$ | tros | bjudas ${ }^{1}$ |
| köpens | trons | bjudens |
| kopas | tros | bjudas |

PAST:

| jag, etc., kallades | köptes | troddes | bjöds |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| vi kallades | köptes | troddes | bjödos |
| I kalladens | köptens | troddens | bjödens |
| de kallades | köptes | troddes | bjödos |

FUTURE: kommer att kallas, köpas, tros, bjudas PRESENT PERFECT: har kallats, köpts, trotts, bjudits PAST PERFECT: hade kallats, köpts, trotts, bjudits FUTURE PERFECT: kommer att ha (va) kallats, köpts, trotts, bjudits.
inFinitives: kallas, ha(va) kallats; köpas, ha(va) köpts; tros, ha(va) trotts; bjudas, ha(va) bjudits
SUPINE: kallats, köpts, trotts, bjudits

[^120]
## PRESENT SUBJUNCTIVE: ${ }^{1}$

| I. | II. | III. | STRONG |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| jag, etc., kalles | köpes |  | bjudes |
| vi kalles | köpes | 윽 | bjudes |
| $I$ kallens | köpens | $\stackrel{\circ}{\circ}$ | bjudens |
| de kalles | köpes |  | bjudes |

Or, mả (måtte) kallas, köpas, tros, bjudas. PAST SUBJUNCTIVE:
I. II.

Same as the past indicative.
III.

STRONG
bjödes
bjödes
bjödens
bjödes

Or, skulle kallas, kopas, tros, bjudas.
Note. - I. In the singular of the present indicative passive, the $e$ of the ending es (Second Weak Conjugation and Strong Conjugation) is very often dropped, unless the nature of the preceding sound makes this impossible; as, $k o ̈ p(e) s, h o ̈ r(e) s, \operatorname{giv}(e) s, f i n n(e) s$; but, läses. Cf. § 225, note 2.
2. The past participle, though passive in meaning, does not have $-s$. But the supine ( $=$ the neuter of the past participle in a special use, which is active in sense) adds $-s$ in the passive.
3. Agent is expressed by av by. Ex.: Han blev övergiven av sina vänner. He was deserted by his friends. Fordom valdes konungen av folket. Formerly the king was chosen by the people.
4. When no agent is expressed, Swedish sometimes uses the indefinite pronoun man one, they, people, with the active forms of the verb, where English would have the passive; as, man sager or det säges it is said. See § 304. Ex.: Det var ett fruntimmer, som svimmade. Man bar ut henne i nästa rum. A woman fainted. She was carried into the adjoining room.
222. The passive idea may also be expressed by means of an auxiliary combined with the past participle. This can conveniently be called the auxiliary-passive,

1 The e-subjunctive is rare in the present passive. Cf. page 149, footnote 1 , end.
and that formed by the addition of $-s$, the $s$-passive. The auxiliary is put in the form corresponding to the tense wanted for the passive. The past participle agrees with the subject in gender and number. ${ }^{1}$

The auxiliary most used is bli(va), which may be employed with all verbs. In the past singular, vart (see $\S 228,5$ ), from varda ${ }^{2}$, may be employed instead of blev; the other forms of varda are used only in the elevated style, and have all archaic coloring.

Cursive verbs (see page 81, foot-note 2) may employ vara as their auxiliary. When bliva is used with such verbs it often calls attention to the beginning of the action, while vara emphasizes its duration.

Note. - I. The auxiliary bliva, when used in the present tense, generally expresses future time; cf. § 135 , end.
2. The auxiliary-passive and the $s$-passive are on the whole used interchangeably, without much difference in the slade of meaning. Ex.: Läroboken har använts (har blivit använd, hav varit använd) här snart ifem är. The text-book has been used here almost five years. In the present tense, however, the $s$-forms are the more common, except when the reference is to future time, in which case bliva is usually employed. Ex.: Här hålles val. (An) election is held here. I morgon blir han installe'rad som profes'sor. To-morrow he will be installed into his professorship. Mycket aiterstar, innan allt blir ordnat. Much remains before everything is adjusted. Especially is the $s$-passive regularly used in general statements, rules and directions. Ex.: Min klocka drages upp varje dygn. My watch is wound every twenty-four hours. Stöld straffas med füngelse. Theft is punished with imprisonment. Observe the frequent use of this form also in recipes, where English employs the imperative: Äpplena skalas, skäras $i$ bitar, och kärn-

[^121]husen tagas bort. Peel the apples, cut them in pieces and remove the cores. Note also: Förva'ras pà kyligt ställe. Keep in a cool place.
223. The forms of the auxiliary-passive are:

PRESENT: ALL VERBS
jag, du, han, hon, den blir bjuden, älskad det blir bjudet, älskat
चi bli(va) bjudna, älskade
I blizen bjudna, älskade
de bli(va) bjudna, älskade
PAST:
jag, etc., blev (चart) bjuden, älskad det blev (vart). bjudet, älskat
«i blevo bjudna, älskade
I bleven bjudna, älskade
de blevo bjudna, älskade
FUTURE: kommer att bli(va) bjuden, älskad
PRES. PERF.: har blivit bjuden, älskad PAST PERF.: hade blivit bjuden, älskad

CURSIVE VERBS
är älskad
är älskat
äro älskade
ären älskade
äro älskade
var älskad var älskat
voro älskade
voren älskade
woro älskade
kommer att vara älskad
har varit älskad
hade varit älskad and so on, in the other forms.

Note. - The English expressions consisting of the verb "be" and the past participle are not always passives. We have passives in cases like the following: A large house is being built over there. How many houses are built annually in this city? If the knife is broken while in my possession, I shall pay you for it. The farm was sold last year. Very often, however, "be" is an independent verb followed by a past participle used like any predicate adjective. Ex.: That house is built of brick. My knife is broken. The farm was already sold. The sheet of paper that you gave me was torn half-way across. His life was insured for fifty thousand dollars at the time of his death. When the subject in such sentences is made the object, these expressions correspond, not to the present, but to the present perfect. In case of doubt as to whether a construction is passive, change it into the corresponding construction with the subject used as the object; if the
tense does not remain the same, it is not a passive. These nonpassive constructions call attention to the fact that the act is completed and is not going on, that a result which has been reached remains in present time. If the past tense is used, the meaning is that the result which had been reached remained in past time. In the present perfect and past perfect, the meaning is that the result has been present or had been present, often with the implication that it is no longer there. Ex.: Bordet har varit målat rött (en gaing). The table was (once) painted red.

In Swedish, these expressions are rendered by vara, corresponding to Eng. "be", and the past participle. In Swedish, and so in English, the terminative verbs (see p. 81) are used in this way. Ex.: Brevet är skrivet. The letter is written. Han är sarad. He is wounded. Huset var redan byggt. The house was already built.

Observe, then, that the Eng. "be" combined with the past participle of terminative verbs frequently has a meaning not passive, but that one and the same auxiliary is used in both cases. In Swedish, on the other hand, an entirely different word, bliva (or, in the past sing., vart) is used as the auxiliary of the passive. Vara, corresponding to Eng. "be" may be employed only in the case of cursive verbs. ${ }^{1}$ Vara with the past participle of terminative verbs is not a passive.
224. summary: ${ }^{2}$ In English, PASSIVE

CURSIVE "be" + past part.
TERMINATIVE "be" + past part. "be" + past part.
In Swedish, CURS. -s; bliva (vart), vara + past part. TERM. -s;bliva (vart) + past part.

NON-PASSIVE

225. DEPONENTS. ${ }^{3}$ Many verbs have $s$-forms with active meaning. (r) Of some verbs that have both active and passive forms used in the regular way, the $s$-forms

[^122]may also be employed in an active sense, but generally with some distinction of meaning from that of the active forms. $S$-forms so used are called deponent forms. These are used absolutely, that is, without an object expressed. Most of them mean "to harm" or "to annoy" one in some way. Ex.: Han nyps. He's pinching me (some one). Den här hästen bits. This horse bites (is in the habit of biting people). Det bränns. It's hot. (You'll burn yourself. It has the characteristic of burning anyone that touches it.) Johan släss ${ }^{1}$. John is hitting me (some one). De slass ${ }^{1}$ for sitt land. They are fighting for their country. En solda't, som svälter, släss ${ }^{1}$ dàligt. A starving soldier is a poor fighter.
(2) In the case of many verbs there are no active forms, the $s$-forms being the only ones used, and these always with active meaning. Such verbs are called deponent verbs. A number of these are even transitive, and may take an object. Ex.: andas breathe, hoppas hope, minnas remember, lyckas succeed. Här kan man andas frisk luft. Here we can breathe fresh air.

Note. - I. A number of deponent forms and a few deponent verbs are used (in the plural) with reciprocal ${ }^{2}$ meaning. Ex.: Hästarna bitas. The horses are biting each other. Vi hjalptes it. We helped each other. De möttes. They met. Vi träffades i gar. We met yesterday. De klappas och kyssas. They caress and kiss each other. De brottas. They are wrestling. Karl och Johan slass ${ }^{1}$. Carl and John are at blows. Some have reflexive ${ }^{2}$ meaning; as, gladjas ${ }^{3}$ rejoice. When ambiguity would arise, the use of the $s$-forms as passives is generally avoided in the case of verbs that employ these forms more often with reciprocal or

[^123]reflexive than with passive meaning; as, bliva slagen be struck, bliva retad be irritated, bliva skilda ait be separated; cf. sldiss fight, retas tease, skiljas at part.
2. Deponents usually have -s in the singular, and not -es; cf. § 22I, note 1 . Verbs of the Second Weak Conjugation and the Strong Conjugation of which the $s$-forms may be used either with passive or active meaning, drop the $e$ in the present singular when the sense is active, but very often have es when the sense is passive (cf. § 228, 4). See the examples above, nyps, bits, bränns. Ex.: Traden bites av. The thread is bitten off. Hunden bits. The dog bites. Potatisen rives. The potato is grated. Katten rivs. The cat scratches.
226. PRONUNCIATION: djup (§ 16); tidigt (§ 18). -Ifrán may be pronounced with the $\dot{a}$ long or short (with different quality).
227. ACCENT: (i) Acute: (a) tillba'ka. - (b) förva'ra, installe'ra. - When stressed on the first syllable, framat almost always has the acute accent; detsam'ma and potatis have either the acute or the grave accent.
(2) The singular of the present indicative passive ending in es usually has the grave accent, but it may also have the acute accent.
228. COLLOQUIALISMS: (i) On the whole, the spoken language prefers the active construction to the passive. This is especially the case when the agent of the action is expressed. Ex.: Räven sköts (blev skjuten) av jägaren. The fox was shot by the hunter. Coll.: Jägaren sköt räven. The hunter shot the fox. When the agent is not indicated, the passive is more freely used, though the indefinite pronoun man often takes its place (see §221, note 4).
(2) When the passive construction is used in the spoken language, the auxiliary-passive is generally employed, while the $s$-forms with passive meaning are avoided. ${ }^{1}$

[^124]Particularly rare in the spoken language, except in deponents, is the $s$-form of the supine, that is, of the present perfect and past perfect tenses. Ex.: Rocken har blivit lagad (not har lagats) av skräddaren. ${ }^{1}$ The coat has been mended by the tailor.
(3) When $s$-forms occur in the spoken language, they usually have reciprocal or ordinary active meaning. Indeed, the spoken language uses deponent forms far more frequently than the written language, especially those with ordinary active meaning.
(4) Verbs having either es or $-s$ in the singular of the pres. ind. passive usually have es (though often -s) in the written, and $-s$ in the spoken language. Cf. § 22 I , note I .
(5) In a large part of Sweden the auxiliary vart occurs very frequently in the spoken language, while in others (e. g., in Southern Sweden), it is not used in speaking. Though this auxiliary is primarily colloquial, it is employed also in the written language.
(6) In the present singular of deponents ending in -s (for -es), a long root-vowel is shortened; as, nyps, bits; cf. släss. In easy speech, a long vowel is sometimes shortened also in the passive ending in -s; as, hörs, köps.
(7) Middag is in the spoken language usually pronounced without the $g$. - On tidig, tidigt cf. § 146, 7. In easy speech, tillba'ka may be pronounced teba'ka.

## VOCABULARY.

alltjäm't ${ }^{2}$ always, constantly, bred broad, wide
continually
andas (I) breathe
bita (STR.) bite; bitas bite
bredd (3) breadth, wideness
bredvi'd beside
brottas (I) wrestle, struggle

[^125]bränna (IIa) burn (tr.) nå (III) reach, arrive at
djup deep; n. (5) depth
följa (ı Ia) follow; följas åt accompany each other, go together
hoppas (I) hope
klappa (I) knock, rap, clap, caress; -s, recipr. dep., caress each other
kyssa (inb) kiss; -s, recipr. dep., kiss each other
locka (I) entice, tempt
lyckas (1) succeed; be successful
lảngsam slow
middag (2) mid-day, noon, dinner
minnas (iIa) remember
mörk dark
narra (I) fool, deceive; -s, dep., fib
nypa (STR.) pinch; -s, dep., pinch
sak (3) thing, matter
skaka (I) shake
smảningom by degrees, gradually
springa (STR.) run
stiga (STR.) walk, step; stiga upp get up
susa (I) murmur, whisper, sough
söka (IIb) seek, look for
tidig early
tillba'ka back
tills until
ty for
tänka (IIb) think; - på
think of
ur out of, from; ut ur out of vakna (I) awake
viska (I) whisper
vänta (1) wait, await, expect överal'lt ${ }^{1}$ everywhere

## EXERCISE XVIII.

A. I. Du brukar aldrig gå så här tidigt ${ }^{2}$, om jag minns rätt ${ }^{3}$. 2. Vem blev vald till ordförande? 3. Körsbärsträden skakades av vinden. 4. När han tyckte, att han väntat länge nog, gick han hem. 5. Rom ${ }^{4}$ blev icke byggt pả en dag. 6. Mả han lyckas i allt ${ }^{5}$. 7. Han säges vara ${ }^{6}$ sjuk. 8. Minns du, vem det var, som du tala-

[^126][^127]de med? 9. Jag blev narrad. 1o. Om du väntar tills jag kommer, sá skola vi bjälpas àt. ir. Fienden var nu slagen. 12. Jag hoppas, att du gör sá gott ${ }^{1}$ du kan. 13. Huset sảldes i gảr. 14. Gossarna slảss. 15. Middagen var redan äten. 16. Grenarna böjdes av vinden. 17. Kunde vi icke träffas på nảgot ställe i morgon för att talas vid $\mathrm{om}^{2}$ de här sakerna? 18. Har han lyckats finna sin bok? 19. Följdes ni àt till Stockholm? 20. Varför blev han satt i fängelse? 21. Vi träffades på teatern i gảr kväll. 22. Vad tänker du pá?
B. One morning when Fridolf and his mother awoke, Violanta was gone ${ }^{8}$. They looked for her everywhere, they waited from morning till ${ }^{4}$ noon and from noon till evening, but she did not come.

Then the mother went to the brook and asked it: "Can you tell me ${ }^{5}$ who ${ }^{6}$ has lured my little girl away?" "The wild waves of the sea. The wild waves of the sea," sang the brook and hurried on. Then she looked up into the cherry-tree and asked: "Will she never come ${ }^{7}$ back? Will my child never come ${ }^{7}$ back?" Then the cherry-tree shook its crown and whispered: "The wild waves of the sea. The wild waves of the sea."

But then the mother and Fridolf wept, for they felt ${ }^{8}$ that they would ${ }^{9}$ never again ${ }^{10}$ see Violanta.

Early one autumn morning ${ }^{11}$ Violanta had awakened. She got up and went out of the house quietly, and put her shoes on ${ }^{12}$ outside. Then she began to run. She followed the brook until she reached the valley. There

[^128]the brook flowed more slowly. Gradually it grew in depth and width until it flowed like a broad river through ${ }^{1}$ the silent, dark forest, where the high trees soughed above it. Violanta ran beside it constantly. I shall follow $^{2}$ it, she thought ${ }^{3}$. I shall follow ${ }^{2}$ it wherever ${ }^{4}$ it goes. Then I shall no doubt reach them at last ${ }^{5}$, the wild waves of the sea.
C. "Jo, det ska ${ }^{6}$ jag säga dig," sade gumman, "att min egen far en gång sảg den. Han kom gảende ${ }^{7}$ genom skogen en sommarnatt, och plötsligen såg han bredvid sig en hög trädgárdsmur, och ovanför den skymide han de raraste träd ${ }^{8}$, som var ${ }^{9}$ så tyngda av blommor och frukter, att grenarna hängde lảngt ut över muren. Far gick helt sakta framåt och undrade var trädgården hade kommit ifrån ${ }^{10}$. Då öppnades hastigt en port i muren, och en trädgårdsmästare kom ut och frágade on far inte ville se hans lustgård. Karlen hade spade i hand och bar ett stort förkläde ${ }^{11}$ som andra trädgảrdsmästare, och far skulle just följa honom, när han kom att kasta en blick på hans ansikte. Med detsamma ${ }^{12}$ kände far igen den spetsiga pannluggen och pipskägget. Det var alldeles herr Karl, sådan ${ }^{13}$ far hade sett honom avbildad på tavlor på alla herrgårdar, där far hade ${ }^{14}$
D. I. Your friend seems to be satisfied with his new work. 2. A large hole had been made in the glass. 3. When hie returned, the gate had been opened by an old man. 4. The chair has been painted at last. 5. Boys

[^129]that fight are naughty. 6. English is spoken in America. 7. Do you know when these flowers were picked? 8. He will be hurt if he does not look out. 9. I hope that he will do it as well as he can. 1o. They didn't remember who he was. II. Does your neighbor's dog bite? 12. We shall meet again to-morrow, I hope ${ }^{1}$. 13. He was struck by a bullet in the last war. 14. Shall we not help each other? $15 . \mathrm{He}$ is breathing very heavily. I6. Is he not ashamed now? 17. You have aged much. 18. In the evening we went to church ${ }^{2}$ together.

[^130]
## LESSON XIX.

## COMPOUND, REFLEXIVE AND IMPERSONAL

## VERBS.

229. COMPOUND VERBS. From the point of view of the relation between the components, verb-composition is of two kinds:
( 1 ) CLOSELY ATTACHED. Ex.: berät'ta relate, undervisa instruct, angá concern, omtala relate. Cf. in Eng., begin, understand, upset. The verb proper stands last, and the two components can not be separated by other words. The components are written together without intervening space, as one word. Except in the case of the prefixes $b e$ - and for $r$-, the $a f f x^{1}$ is stressed, the verb proper having secondary stress.
(2) LOOSELY ATTACHED. Ex.: tala om' relate, $g \dot{a} a n^{\prime}$ do, be allowable, tycka om' like. Cf. in Eng., get off, set out, look over. The verb proper stands first, and the two components can be separated by other words. ${ }^{2}$ In writing, a space is left between the two components, as between two words. The stress rests on the affix ${ }^{1}$, the verb proper being unstressed.
230. There are three types of compound verbs:
(I) INSEPARABLE compound verbs are those whose components are always closely attached; the components cannot be separated by other words. Ex.: berät'ta relate, undervisa instruct, angả concern. Det angảr ingen. That does not concern anyone.
(2) SEPARABLE compound verbs are those whose components are always loosely attached; the components can

[^131]be separated by other words. Ex.: tycka om' like, gå $a n^{\prime}$ do, be allowable. Jag tycker om' honom. I like him. Den där boken tycker jag visst icke om'. I certainly do not like that book. Jo, det går an'. Yes, that's all right. Det gar.nog an'. That will do, no doubt.
(3) INVERTIBLE compound verbs. Many compound verbs may have either the closely or the loosely attached form of composition, without change of meaning. The affix is stressed whether it precedes or follows the verb proper. Ex.: om'tala or tala om' relate, génomläsa or läsa ge'nom read through. Ex.: Man hade igen'stängt (or stängt igen') luckan. The shutter had been closed. Under grävningen pàträffade han (or träffade han $p \dot{a}^{\prime}$ ) en urna. While digging, he came upon an urn. In some cases, however, such verbs usually have figurative meaning when closely attached, but literal meaning when loosely attached. Ex.: Han a'vbröt samtalet. He discontinned the conversation. Han bröt a'v käppen. He broke the stick.

Note. - I. In the past participle the components are always ${ }^{1}$ closely attached, in all types of compound verbs (even the separable). Ex.: Han bröt a'v käppen. Käppen är avbruten. Alla tycka om' honom. Han är allmänt (universally) omtyckt. But the supine does not show this peculiarity. Ex.: Han har brutit a'v käppen. Jag har alltid tyckt om' honom. Concerning the present participle of compound verbs see page 180, foot-note.
2. In the loosely attached form of verb-composition the two components are, except in the case of a few verbs, not separated by the object. Ex.: Jag lade ne'd pennan. I put the pen down. Jag lade ne'd den. I put it down. Hon bad oss att ej glömma bor't henne. She told us not to forget her. Det ar lika bra att plocka a'v bären, som att grdsparvarna skola äta up'p dem. It is just as well to pick the berries as to let the sparrows eat them.

The components are separated by many adverbs. Ex.: Jag lade icke ned pennan. I did not put the pen down. Jag lagger aldrig ned pennan. Han lägger nog ned pennan. Cf. p. 172, foot note I.

[^132]Note also separation such as the following: När solen har gaitt $n e^{\prime} d$, och luften blir avkyld, stiger ofta dimma upp. When the sun has set and the air becomes cooled off, fog often rises. Gair det inte an'? Won't it do? Hugger man ned skogen i ett land, försäm'ras klima'tet. If the forests in a country are cut down, the climate suffers.
3. Some separable compounds have the same components as inseparable compounds, but with entirely different meaning, being, in fact, different verbs. These are not included under the term "invertible" compounds. Ex.: angå concern; gå an' do, be allowable; avgå depart, leave; $g a a^{\prime} v$ break (intr.). Cf. Eng., overlook, look over; upset, set up.

Similarly, some separable compounds have the same components as invertible compounds; as, utse or se $u^{\prime} t$ elect, choose; se $u^{\prime} t$ look, appear.
4. Compound verbs having the loosely attached form must be carefully distinguished from a simple verb followed by a prepositional phrase. The affix of the verb-compound is stressed, while the preposition is unstressed. ${ }^{1}$ Ex.: Han bröt a'v käppen. He broke the stick. Han brö't av brödet. He broke (a piece) of the bread. En sats innehåller alltid en sak, som man ta'lar om, och en sak, som man talar om'. A sentence always contains one thing that one talks about, and one thing that one tells. Bonden häl'sade på konungen. The peasant greeted the king. Karl XII brukade hälsa $p a^{\prime}$ hos bönderna. Charles XII used to visit the peasants.
231. The following prefixes are always closely attached (inseparable): be-, bi-, ent- ${ }^{2}$, er-, för-, gen-, här-, miss-, sam-, um-, und-, van-, veder-, $\dot{a}-$.

Adverbs and prepositions may be either closely or loosely attached (inseparable, separable or invertible).

Note I. - Adjective compounds are usually invertible; as, rödmála or måla röd paint red. Some, however, are inseparable; as, godkänna approve.

[^133]2. Noun compounds are usually inseparable; as, rdidfraga consult. Some, however, are invertible; as, aktgiva or giva ak't pay attention.
232. Compound verbs do not differ in their inflection from simple verbs, except as indicated above. A synopsis of the invertible verb omtala, tala om relate, is here given. ${ }^{1}$

CLOSELY ATTACHED
Pres. jag omtalar
Past omtalade
Future kommer att omtala
Pres. Perf. har omtalat
Past Perf. hade omtalat
Fut. Perf. kommer att ha (va) omtalat
$S$-Passive:

| Pres. | omtalas |
| :--- | :--- |
| Past | omtalades |

Future kommer att omtalas
Pres. Perf. har omtalats
Past Perf. hade omtalats
Fut. Perf. kommer att ha (va) omtalats
Auxiliary-Passive: ${ }^{2}$
Pres. blir omtalad
Past blev omtalad
Future kommer att bli(va) omtalad
Pres. Perf. har blivit omtalad
Past Perf. hade blivit omtalad Fut. Perf. kommer att ha(va)
blivit omtalad

LOOSELY ATTACHED
talar om
talade om
kommer att tala om
har talat om
hade talat om
kommer att ha(va) talat om
talas om
talades om
kommer att talas om
har talats om
hade talats om
kommer att ha (va) talats om

## REFLEXIVE VERBS.

233. A reflexive verb is one that has as its object a reflexive pronoun (see $\S 187$ ), that is, a pronoun referring back to the subject; the subject is both the doer and the recipient of the action. Reflexive verbs are used much more extensively in Swedish than in English. They are most conveniently divided into two groups:
(i) REFLEXIVE FORMS. Any transitive verb whose sense permits may be used with reflexive meaning, through the addition of the reflexive pronouns; as, tvinga sig force one's self, skada sig hurt one's self. Ex.: En bra karl hjälper sig själv. A good man helps himself.

Frequently the verb has a developed meaning when used in the reflexive forms. Particularly often do the reflexive forms have the intransitive meaning corresponding to the transitive meaning of the non-reflexive forms. In these cases English almost always uses merely an intransitive verb, ${ }^{1}$ without the reflexive pronoun. In many verbs the English idiom differs from the Swedish also in other respects. Examples of difference in idiom are: gifta sig marry (intr.), be married; glädja sig rejoice; tvätta sig wash (intr.), wash one's self; böja sig bend (intr.), stoop; lägga sig lie down, go to bed; sätta sig sit down, be seated; befin'na sig be, do (intr.), fare; lära $(s i g)^{2}$ learn; erinra sig remember; förky'la sig catch a cold; kläda sig dress (intr.), dress one's self; röra sig move (intr.); ändra sig change (intr.); akta sig take care, be on one's guard; vända sig turn (intr.); visa sig appear.

[^134]Ex.: Jag erinrar mig hans utseende. I recollect his appearance. Vi satte oss $i$ skuggan. We sat down in the shade. Jag känner mig trött $i$ dag. I feel tired to-day. Angrar han sig? Does he repent?
(2) REFLEXIVE VERBS. Some verbs are used only reflexively, that is, they are never used without a reflexive pronoun; as, begi'va sig betake one's self; misstaga sig be mistaken; förhas'ta sig be over hasty, act under the impulse of one's first feelings.

Note. - I. There is no reflexive passive.
2. The intensive pronoun själv (see § 187 , note) may be used with the reflexive pronouns, but only for emphasis or contrast. Ex.: Enva'r känner sig själv bäst. Each one knows himself best. Man bör älska sin nästa mer än sig själv. One should love one's neighbor more than one's self.
3. Swedish sometimes uses the ending $-s$ to express the reflexive idea (see § 225, note 1); as, glädjas (=glädja sig) rejoice; närmas (= närma sig) approach; skämmas be ashamed.

234 . The inflection of these verbs is regular, but care must be taken to employ the proper reflexive pronouns in the various persons, singular and plural.

PRESENT
jag misstager mig
du misstager dig
ni misstager er
han, hon, den, det misstager sig
vi misstaga oss
I misstagen eder
de misstaga sig

PAST
misstog mig
misstog dig
misstog er
misstog sig
misstogo oss
misstogen eder
misstogo sig

FUTURE jag kommer att misstaga mig
PRES. PERF. jag har misstagit mig
PAST PERF. jag hade misstagit mig
FUT. PERF. jag kommer att ha(va) misstagit mig

## IMPERSONAL VERBS.

235. Impersonal verbs ${ }^{1}$ are used more extensively in Swedish than in English. They are of various types:
(i) Verbs referring to the phenomena of nature; as, det regnar it is raining, $i$ gar regnade det it rained yesterday, det snöar it is snowing, det fryser it is freezing, det har åskat it has been thundering, det blaser it is windy, det är varmt it is warm, det är mörkt it is dark, det är sommar it is summer.
(2) A large variety of other expressions; as, det knackar somebody is knocking, det ringer there is a ring, det rör sig something is moving, det gäller concern, be at stake, det bär av go. Hur stảr det till med dig? How are you? Det värker $i$ armen. I have a pain in my arm. I detsam'ma knackade det pà hans dörr. Just then there was a knock at his door. Det brinner $i$ byn. There is a fire in the village. Han arbetar, som om det gällde livet. He is working as if it were a matter of life and death.
(3) In the case of many verbs, many of these even intransitive ${ }^{2}$, the $s$-passive may be used impersonally. Ex.: Det dansades hela natten. There was dancing all night. Här måste stigas högst försik'tigt. You have to step very carefully here. Det målas och fejas över allt $i$ huset. The whole house is being painted and cleaned. Det läses, arbetas och ätes $i$ samma rum. They eat, work and sleep in the same room. Men runt ikring soves, ängslas av oroliga sinnen, anas av hjärtan, som längta. Och det gråtes mot örngott, som kantats med spetsar, ock det skrattas $i$ drönmar . . . ${ }^{3}$ But round about, people

1 Some of these (impersonal forms) may also be used with a personal subject; others (impersonal verbs), only as impersonals.

2 In fact, most intransitive verbs can be used impersonally in the passive.
3 Quoted from Levertin Samlade Skrifter, vol. III, p. 207.
are sleeping, there is worrying by restless minds, foreboding by hearts that long. And some are weeping on pillows that have been bordered with lace, and some are laughing in their dreams.

Note. - Det is also used as an expletive, anticipating the subject of a verb, corresponding to Eng. "there". In Swedish, contrary to the practice in German, the verb is always put in the singular, irrespective of the number of the following noun, that is, the verb agrees with the formal, and not with the real subject. Ex.: Det var en gaing en liten gosse, som . . . There was once a little boy who. . . Det bor rätt manga svenskar här i staden. There are rather many Swedes living in this town. Det har gatt mainga somrar sedan dess. Many summers have passed since then. Det syns ansikten bakom fönsterrutorna. Faces appear behind the window-panes. Hade det hänt nagot? Had anything happened? Det hade fallit mycket snö. Much snow had fallen.

Note especially the expressions $\operatorname{det} \operatorname{finn}(e) s$ (rarely and stiffly, det gives; somewhat more frequently det ges) and det är, denoting mere existence. Det ar is more definite than det finns. Ex.: Det gives sanningar, som ej kunna javas. There are truths that can not be challenged. Det finns människor, som icke hava nagot samvete. There are people who have no conscience. Här finns (det) sa mycket att titta pa. There is so much to look at here. Det fanns fartyg av mánga olika slag. There were ships of many different kinds. Jag undrar om det finns levande varelser där. I wonder if there are living beings there. Det fanns inga biljet'ter kvar. There were no tickets left. Det finnes 64 (read sextify'ra) rutor $p d$ ett schackbrade. There are 64 squares on a chess-board. Det finnes manga gossar, som heta Karl. There are many boys whose name is Carl. Det finns mainga utlänningar $i$ Stockholm. There are many foreigners in Stockholm. Det är ingenting annat att göra än. . . There is nothing else to do than. . . Det är mannga, som tro det. There are many who believe that. Det var en ging tre pojkar, som gingo i samma skola. There were once three boys who attended the same school.
236. ACCENT: ${ }^{1}$ Verbs containing the unstressed prefixes $b e$ - and for have the acute accent in all forms

[^135]in the greater part of Sweden; ${ }^{1}$ as, befin'na, begi'va, förky'la, förhas'ta.
237. colloguialisms: (i) In the case of invertible compounds the written language to a large extent prefers the closely attached form, ${ }^{2}$ while the spoken language in the case of most verbs regularly employs the loosely attached form.
(2) Very many inseparable compound verbs belong primarily to the written language.

## EXERCISE XIX.

Note. - Beginning with this exercise, the general vocabulary must be consulted for unfamiliar words and idioms.

And the river grew and grew. At last it reached a large lake, and hurled itself into its waves. Violanta followed the shore of the lake. At the opposite end of the lake, the river came forth again, stronger and fresher, as if it had gathered new strength from its water.

But here [there] was ${ }^{8}$ a mill. High up on the stairs above the wheels stood the miller himself. He was round and white as a flour-bag, and beside him stood his three little children, round and white as freshly-baked wheatrolls, and with eyes as black as raisins.

When the miller caught sight of the girl who came running, he called to her: "Whither away", little girl, so early in ${ }^{5}$ the day ?" - "To the wild waves of the sea," answered Violanta, and ran on.-"O wait a little and calm yourself!" cried the miller. "No waves can be wilder than the waves in the river, but $I$ have never-

[^136]theless forced them to turn the mill-wheels and grind the grain. And you may be sure things are jolly here. ${ }^{1}$ There is dancing ${ }^{2}$ and work $^{2}$ the whole day."

Violanta stopped. She heard the mill-wheels rumble and clatter. She heard people laughing ${ }^{3}$ and singing ${ }^{3}$ in the mill. "If you want to enter ${ }^{4}$ my service," said the stout miller, "you shall get plenty of food and drink, and a new dress for ${ }^{5}$ Christmas." -"What are the dressgoods like?" ${ }^{6}$ asked Violanta. -"You can see ${ }^{7}$ that then," answered the miller and laughed.

Violanta entered ${ }^{8}$ the service of ${ }^{9}$ the miller. The wheels went night and day. Bag after bag of the very whitest flour was carried up. The miller was just as friendly and good as he was stout, and his wife was still more friendly, and still more fat.

The only ones who did not work were the little children. They sat on the flour-bags most of the time eating ${ }^{10}$ wheat-rolls, played [at] hide-and-seek among the bags, or stood looking ${ }^{10}$ at the mill-wheels.

[^137]6 What are . . . like hurudant ār.
7 Can see fár se.
8 Tog.
9 Hos.
10 Do not use a participle in Swedish.

## LESSON XX.

## PARTICIPLES, INFINITIVES, IMPERATIVE.

238. PRESENT PARTICIPLE. The present participle ${ }^{1}$ ends in -ande, but verbs whose infinitives end in a stressed vowel (Third Weak Conjugation and irregular strong verbs) have -ende; as, talande, köpande, finnande; but troende, seende.

The present participle is indeclinable (see § 153), but it has $-s$ in the genitive when used as a noun; as, en döendes sista ord the last words of a dying person. Ibland kunna vi t. o. m. (= till och med) pa stilen gissa oss till den skrivandes yrke. Sometimes we can even guess the writer's occupation from his handwriting.

When employed as an adjective, the present participle may be compared by means of $\operatorname{mer}(a)$, mest.

Note. - I. The verbs giva (ge), $h a(v a), b l i(v a), b e(d j a), t a(g a)$, $d r a(g a)$ employ only the longer form (see $\S 203,2)$ in the present participle.
2. The present participle of deponents ends in -ande (-ende), but a few have the ending -andes when not used attributively. Many have no present participle. Ex.: Minnandes (from minnas) sitt löfte infann han sig, churu han är en åldrande (from åldras) man. Remembering his promise, he came, although he is getting well along in years.

Likewise a few verbs that are not deponents may in certain expressions end in-andes, which, however, in all such cases is more colloquial than -ande. Ex.: Han kom akande(s). He came driving. Hon skyndade till fönstret för att se efter, vem som kom akande. She hurried to the window to see who came driving.

[^138]239. The present participle is used ${ }^{1}$ : (I) As an adjective, attributively or predicatively. As is the case with many adjectives, so some adjectival participles can be used adverbially. ${ }^{2}$ Ex.: De funno ett sovande barn. They found a sleeping child. Hon sảg pả honom med en forskande och djup blick. She looked at him with an enquiring and penetrating glance. Karl XII vann lysande segrar. Charles XII won brilliant victories. De ảkande lyckades rädda sig, men häst och släde försvun'no i vaken. The occupants succeeded in saving themselves, but the horse and sleigh disappeared in the hole (in the ice). Hästen riktade en blick pà honom, som var både bedjande och förebraiende. The horse directed at him a glance that was both suppliant and reproachful. Kölden är bitande. The cold is piercing. Adv.: Han talade svenska flytande. He spoke Swedish fluently. Det var kvävande hett. It was stifingly hot.
(2) As a modifier of both subject and verb. Ex.: Hon gick tiggande kring landet. She went about the country begging. Pojken sprang gråtande hem. The boy ran home weeping. Han svarade skrattande. He answered laughing. De kommo ákande $i$ en droska. They came riding in a cab. Han föll av vagnen och blev liggande $i$ diket, tills folk kom och hjalpte honom. He fell off the wagon and lay (remained lying) in the ditch until people came and helped him.

Note. - I. Where English uses the participle to tell the circumstances under which the act of the main verb takes place (time, cause, concession, etc.), Swedish usually employs a subordinate clause instead, or coordination. Ex.: Being ill, I decided to stay at home. Emedan jag var sjuk, beslu'tade jag att stanna hemma. Or, Jag var sjuk och beslu'tade (därför) att stanna hemma.
1 The present participle is used much more sparingly in Swedish than in English.
2 The pres. part., being indeclinable, does not add -t when used as an adverb.
2. After the verbs höra and se, Swedish does not use the participle, as English may do. Ex.: Jag hörde dem tala. I heard them talking. Jag har hört honom beröm'mas som talare. I have heard him praised as a speaker. Det blev så tyst, sà tyst $i$ rummet, att jag hörde mitt hjärta sla.. It became so very quiet in the room, that I heard my heart beating. - On the use of the infinitive in Swedish, where English idiom requires the verbal noun, see $\S 242,2$.
3. As English uses the participial ending -ing, so Swedish employs -ande, -ende in the formation of verbal nouns. Ex.: Det var ett fasligt springande fram och tillba'ka. That (or, there) was an awful running back and forth. Tänkandet försiggair $i$ allmänhet mycket snabbare än talandet och hörandet. Thought is usually much ninore rapid than speech and hearing.
4. Swedish does not employ the participle in the formation of a progressive form, as English does; see $\S \S 47 ; 245$.
240. PAST PARTICIPLE. In weak verbs the past participle can be found by dropping the $-e$ of the past indicative; on the formation of the past part. of strong verbs see $\S 181$, and cf. § 20I, note 1 .

Note. - I. Transitive verbs, both cursive and terminative (see page 8 I , foot-note 2) have past participles, which have passive meaning; as, en krossad tallrik a broken plate, en aktad medborgare a respected citizen. Also intransitive terminative verbs have past participles; their meaning is active; as, en bortflugen fagel a bird that has escaped. The meaning of the past participle varies as follows:

Transitive terminative Transitive cursive Intransitive terminative Intransitive cursive
action completed, passive: funnen action going on, passive: älskad action completed, active: kommen no past participle
2. Most deponents have no past participle.
3. On the supine as connected with the neuter of the past part., see § 18r.-On the past part. of comp. verbs see § 230 , note 1 .
241. The past participle is inflected and used like an adjective (see § 151); when used substantively, it adds -s in the genitive. Ex.: Vàr älskade konung our beloved king. Jag har en hund, kallad Kato. I have a dog called Cato. Segern är vunnen (cf. § 223, note).

The victory is won. Rummen äro fore'nade genom en smal gang. The rooms are connected by a narrow passage. Observéra den ändrade tiden. Notice the change in time. Min rock är utsliten. My coat is worn out. Frản den tid, dả runorna utgjorde det enda slags skrift, som stod vara forfäder till buds, hava vi i regel blott kortfattade uppteckningar beva'rade. From the time when the runes were the only kind of writing at the disposal of our ancestors, we have as a rule only brief records preserved. Den älskades namn the name of the loved one.

Note especially its use in forming the auxiliary-passive; see § 222.

Note. - The past participle of terminative verbs, both transitive and intransitive, denotes an action as completed (see § 240 , note I). In § 223, note, we have seen the past participle of transitive terminative verbs used in a passive sense with vara, to denote a result attained in the past as remaining in the present.

The past participle of intransitive terminative verbs may be used in an active sense (cf. § 240 , note I) with vara, to denote a result attained in past time as remaining in the present. Ex.: Vären är kommen. Spring is here. Sangen är tystnad. The singing has ceased. Blomman är vissnad. The flower is withered. Är han ännu icke derkommen? Has he not returned yet? (Isn't he back yet?) Angaren är sjunken. The steamer has gone down. Han var redan gangen. He was already gone. När han vaknade, var mànen uppgàngen för längesedan. When he awoke, the moon had long been up.

## INFINITIVE. ${ }^{1}$

242. The leading differences between Swedish and English in the use of the infinitive are:

[^139](1) Swedish much more frequently uses the infinitive without att to ${ }^{1}$, many Swedish verbs being followed by the infinitive with or without att, while the corresponding English verbs require "to"; as, lova promise, synas seem, appear, tänka intend, börja begin, bedja ask, önska wish. Ex.: Vi lära oss alla (att) tala, innan vi lära (att) skriva. We all learn to talk before we learn to write. Han bad mig (att) skriva genast ${ }^{2}$. He asked me to write at once. Jag tänker (att) resa $i$ morgon. I intend to leave to-morrow.
(2) Swedish in several constructions employs the infinitive where English has the verbal noun:
(a) Many prepositions can be followed by att and the infinitive when the subject of the infinitive is the same as that of the leading verb ${ }^{3}$. The English idiom requires a preposition with the verbal noun, and sometimes the infinitive with "to" (but without a preposition ${ }^{4}$ ). Ex.: Han gick förbi' utan att hälsa. He passed without greeting. Ingen tänkte på att vila. No one thought of resting. Efter att ha läst brevet, kastade han det $i$ elden. After having read the letter, he threw it into the fire. Men de sovo, utan att ett oggonblick störas av oljudet. But they slept, without being for a moment disturbed by the noise. Fiskare utmärka sig ofta för stor skicklighet $i$ att segla. Fishermen often display great skill in sailing.

[^140]Änkan livnärde sig med att sticka, sy och tvätta. The widow supported herself by knitting, sewing and washing. Du fär välja emel'lan att sitta stilla och att bli utvisad. You may choose between sitting still and being dismissed. Genom att vara sparsam, blir man rik. One becomes rich through saving. Jag är stolt över att vara svensk. I am proud of being Swedish. Jag tröttnade pa att vänta. I became tired of waiting. Jag är glad över att vara hemma igen'. I am glad to be at home again. Han strävar efter att bliva rik. He is striving to become rich. Hunden var rädd for att bada. The dog didn't like to have his bath.
(b) When Swedish has the infinitive depending on a noun, English frequently uses the verbal noun preceded by the preposition "of''. Also after adjectives, English sometimes uses the verbal noun. Ex.: Jag hade nöjet (att) mottaga ert brev. I had the pleasure of receiving your letter. Konsten att bli rik the art of beconing rich; faran att uppskjuta the danger of procrastinating. Äran av att ha utfört ett sådant arbete är stor. The honor of having completed such a work is great. Boken är icke värd att läsa. The book is not worth reading.
(c) A number of English verbs may be followed either by the infinitive or the verbal noun; a few are regularly followed by the verbal noun. Swedish idiom in all such cases requires the infinitive. Ex.: Han undvek att svara mig. He avoided answering me. Hon har upphört att sjunga. She has ceased singing (to sing). Han har slutat att arbeta. He has stopped working.

Note. - I. Swedish sometimes uses the infinitive (with the subject in the objective form in the case of pronouns) in indirect statement, where English idiom requires a clause. Ex.: Jag tror mig hava rätt. I believe that I am right. Han säger sig hava lidit
mycket. He says that he has suffered much. Man pastod honom vara skyldig. People declared that he was guilty. Jag anser mig uppfylla min skyldighet. I feel that I am doing my duty. Jag tyckte mig höra en stämma. I thought that I heard a voice.

Both Swedish and English employ the infinitive when the main verb is passive, but Swedish does not use att to. Ex.: Han sades hava lidit mycket. He was said to have suffered much. Han pistods vara oskyldig. He was declared to be innocent.
2. The auxiliary of the perfect infinitive is not infrequently omitted in the written language, the supine alone being used. Ex.: Karl XII borde atervänt tidigare. Charles XII ought to have returned sooner. Hon skulle icke hört honom, om han talat. She would not have heard him if he had spoken. Den synes varit skriven för länge sedan. It seems to have been written long ago.
3. In Swedish, as in English, purpose is frequently expressed by the infinitive with att to, when the subject of the purpose clause is the same as that of the main verb. In Swedish, however, the preposition för is usually placed before att. Ex.: Jag har kommit hit för att tala med dig om ett och annat. I have come here to talk to you about a few things. Dà reste han sig upp för att $\mathrm{g} \mathrm{a}^{\circ}$. Then he got up to go. Ett lejon hade lagt sig att soza, men väcktes plötsligt. A lion had lain down to sleep, but was suddenly a wakened.
4. Concerning the exclusive use of the infinitive in Swedish after the verbs se and höra, see $\S 239$, note 2 .
5. Concerning word-order in connection with the infinitive, see $\S 142$, end, and note.

## IMPERATIVE.

243. Second person singular. ${ }^{1}$ The mere stem of the verb is used (see page irf, foot-note). Its forms are accordingly: (I) tala, (ir) köp, (iII) tro, (STR.) finn.

First person plural: lät (or lảtom) oss tala, köpa, tro, finna.
Second person plural. This is identical with the corresponding form of the present indicative: talen, köpen,

1 The imperative singular is employed more extensively than the pronoun $d x$ is; in addressing persons to whom $d u$ would not be used (but the title), the title in direct address is sometimes added in speaking.
tron, finnen. It occurs chiefly in the elevated style; outside of this the singular imperative is generally used also for the plural. ${ }^{1}$

Note. - 1. The imperative of the passive can not be used. Deponents (see § 225) add -s to the forms given in § 243 ; in the forms that have an auxiliary, the $-s$ is added to the dependent infinitive (cf. §221). Ex.: Minns detta! Remember this. Lat oss minnas detta! Let us remember this. Nyps inte! Don't pinch. Sparkas inte! Don't kick.
2. Formerly all Swedish verbs except those whose infinitives end in a stressed vowel had the ending oom in the first person plural of the imperative. This is now archaic, and is used only in certain forms of style (primarily in the ecclesiastical style). Only låta, employed as the auxiliary in the first person plural imperative, may now end in -om; but even this has archaic associations, and the singular lat is generally used instead. Ex.: Tackom och lovom Herran ${ }^{2}$ ! Let us thank and praise the Lord. Laitom oss bedja. Let us pray. Låtom oss skärskdda vardera slaget för sig. Let us examine each kind by itself. Làt oss lämna det här ämnet. Let us leave this subject.
3. The subject of the inperative is not frequently expressed, but when used, it follows the verb-form. Ex.: Sköt ni er, sa skall jag sköta mig. You take care of yourself, and I'll take care of myself. Kom du, det är inte farligt. Come on, it's not dangerous. Kom $d u$ (pointing to a certain one), men inte $n i$ andra. You come, but not the rest of you.

## SYNTACTICAL REMARKS.

244. PAST FOR PRESENT. Swedish sometimes uses the past tense of the verb vara in exclamations, where the English idiom requires the present. This use of the past tense emphasizes the first impression, which is already past. Coining to something which one considers beauti-

[^141]ful one could say: Det var vackert! That is beautiful. (How beautiful!) Further examples are: Det var utmärkt! That is fine. Det var en vacker blomma! What a pretty flower. Det var en otäck dimma, det här! What a nasty fog this is. Det var ledsamt, att du skall resa! I am sorry you are going. Det var roligt, att du kan komma! I am glad you can come. Det var dà besyn'nerligt, att jag inte kan finna boken! It is strange that I can't find the book. Det var roligt att göra er bekan'tskap! I am glad to make your acquaintance.
245. PROGRESSIVE. Swedish does not, like English, have a special way of expressing the progressive idea (see §47). But when the idea of continued action is very prominent, Swedish uses hảlla pả or hâlla pả med be engaged in, be occupied with, with att and the infinitive of durative ${ }^{1}$ verbs. Ex.: Han hâller pá (med) att àta. He is just eating. Han höll pà att màla huset. He was engaged in painting the house. Han háller pả att raka sig. He is just shaving.

Note. - I. When employed with point-action ${ }^{2}$ verbs, hâlla $p \mathfrak{d}$ means "be near", and the idea is not progressive; in this use halla $p a ̊$ med does not occur. Ex.: Gossen hảller pd att drunkna. The boy is near drowning. Jag höll pad att glömma det. I was near forgetting it. Han höll på att bryta av sig benet. He was near breaking his leg. Jag höll pa att tappa klockan. I was near dropping the watch.
2. To emphasize the progressive idea Swedish sometimes places before a verb another durative verb such as sitta, stid, ligga,

[^142]$g \dot{a}$, connecting the two verbs with och. Ex.: Han ligger och sover. He is sleeping. Jag satt och skrev, dd du kom. I was writing when you came. Nu stär du och pratar dumheter. Now you are talking nonsense. Vad sitter $d u$ och tänker $p d$ ? What are you thinking of? Han gar och tigger. He is begging.

In the spoken language also halla $p i$ may be so used. Ex.: Han haller på och äter. He is eating.
246. COLLOQUIALISMS: ( 1 ) The present participle is less used in the spoken than in the written language, especially in the construction mentioned in § 239, 2 . The spoken language prefers hon gick och tiggde to hon gick tiggande.

The past participle is on the whole less employed in the spoken than in the written language, except in the use mentioned in § 223, note, and in the auxiliarypassive, which is in the spoken language usually employed in place of the $s$-passive.
(2) The infinitive in indirect statement is not used in the spoken language, which employs instead an indicative clause introduced by att that, which may be omitted, as in English (cf. page 43, foot-note 3). Ex.: Jag tror, (att) jag har rätt (for Jag tror mig hava rätt). I believe (that) I am right.
(3) The polite colloquial language (largely also the written language) tends to avoid the use of the imperative. Primarily in the spoken language, various expressions are used with the imperative to make it sound less harsh when a stern or harsh effect is not desired. Ex.: Gör det, sả är du snäll. Please do that. Also, om jag fär be if I may ask, is so used. Note also: Var sá god och gör det. Var snäll och gör det. A question may take the place of the imperative. Ex.: Vill ni vara sá god och göra det?
(4) The use of the past for the present (see § 244) belongs primarily to the spoken language.
(5) On the colloquial use of haller pa och see § 245, note 2 , end.

## EXERCISE XX.

Violanta was a strong and powerful girl who worked cheerfully ${ }^{1}$, and all liked her. On Saturday evenings when the work of the week was finished and the wheels stopped, the people got permission to dance on the meadow above the fall. The miller's servant played the fiddle. He played faster and faster, to see how lightly Violanta could whirl about and how high she could jump, and then he laughed and said: "I believe you are swifter than the mill-wheels themselves."

When Christmas cane, all the people got their pay and in addition a Christmas present. Violanta got a pair of new shoes and also the dress-goods which the miller had promised her.
[During] the entire Christmas period things were lively ${ }^{2}$ in the mild. There were visits ${ }^{3}$ from other mills, and all the boys that came were anxious to ${ }^{4}$ dance with Violanta. She was so young and beautiful, and could dance like a whirlwind. The miller's servant had to bring out ${ }^{5}$ the fiddle all the time ${ }^{6}$, but while he played, his eyes followed Violanta, and every time she went past him, he sent a friendly word after her.

Then it happened one evening when Violanta was dancing, that her braid fell down. She ran aside ${ }^{7}$ to braid it again, but when she came past the miller's serv-

[^143]ant, he cried out: "Well", look at the wild waves of the sea."-"What do you mean by ${ }^{2}$ that?" asked Violanta and stopped.- "I mean only that your locks are fluttering and rolling like the waves of the sea," he said. But his words reminded Violanta of something that she had forgotten, and after that evening she was not as before. She went to her work more quietly, and no longer danced with the same joy ${ }^{8}$.

When spring came, Violanta often went to the meadow above the fall and sat down on the little bench under the large blooming bird-cherry trees." While she sat there alone one evening, the miller's servant came walking and asked that he might ${ }^{4}$ sit beside her on the bench.

[^144]
## LESSON XXI.

## AUXILIARIES.

247. Several Swedish auxiliaries have somewhat more complete forms than those of English, particularly in the perfect system. The difficulty is thus in a number of instances due to the English rather than the Swedish idiom. Most of the auxiliaries (all that are not strong) have a past tense belonging to the Second Weak Conjugation ${ }^{1}$ (see $\S 194,5$ ). Their inflection is more or less irregular. In several instances, moreover, forms that have endings characteristic of the past tense are used with present meaning.
248. $\mathrm{Ha}(\mathrm{va})$ (for conjugation see § 194, 5 , and § 195, note 1 ) is in the simple tenses used with the supine of all verbs to form the tenses of the perfect system. See § 18 I.

Note. - As an independent verb, hava means "have", "possess"; in this case it has also a present perfect tense, etc.; as, jag har haft.
249. Vara (see § 200) may be used with the past participle of transitive cursive verbs to form the auxil-iary-passive. See § 222.

Note. - I. Vara is also employed as an independent verb, meaning "be". Note especially its use with the past participle of terminative verbs, both transitive (see § 223, note) and intransitive (see § 241, note).
2. There is also a verb vara, conjugated according to the First Weak Conjugation, meaning "last". Ex.: Stormen varade ifem dagar. The storm lasted five days. Sa länge det varar as long as it lasts. Det varade ej länge, innan jag märkte detta. It was not long before I noticed this.
250. $\operatorname{Bli}(\mathrm{va})$ (see $\S \S \mathrm{I}_{3} 8$; 201, r ) is employed with the past participle of transitive verbs, to form the auxiliarypassive. See § 222.

1 One, lär, has no past tense. - Mä, mäste, lär and tör have no infinitive.

Note. - I. The forms of bliva may be united with the present participle of some verbs of position; as, bliva liggande fall prostrate, come to lie (there), remain (lying there); bliva sittande get stuck, stick, remain seated, keep one's seat; bliva stående stop, come to a stand, remain standing.
2. As an independent verb, bliva means "become", "remain". Ex.: Han blir nog frisk. He will get well, no doubt. Han blev strax ond. He at once became angry. Bliv där du är. Stay where you are. Huru länge blir du här? How long are you going to stay here? - Note especially the expression lata bli, used with att and the infinitive, or independently of an infinitive, meaning "cease", "leave off". Ex.: Lat bli! Don't. Lat bli det där! Stop that. Lat bli mig! Let me alone. Lait bli att tala! Stop talking. Don't talk.
251. Varda (see page 139 , foot-note 1 ) may be employed in the past sing., in place of bliva, with the past participle of transitive verbs, to form the auxiliary-passive. See § 222.

Note. - Varda (in the past singular) may be used as an independent verb, and is in this case also limited to certain localities (cf. § 228,5 ). Ex.: Han vart ond. He became angry.
252. Skola, pres. skall, skola; past skulle ${ }^{1}$; supine skolat ${ }^{2}$. It denotes:

1. Futurity. The present of skola is sometimes used with the present and perfect infinitive of verbs, to form the future and future perfect tenses; see $\S \S 136,2$; 185 , note 1 , and page $\mathbf{1 2 0}$, foot-note 3 . The past of skola followed by the present infinitive frequently denotes time as future to a definite time in the past. ${ }^{3}$ Ex.: Vi skulle just gå till bords, dả du kom. We were just going to sit down to table when you came. Han sade, att han skulle resa som $i$ dag. He said that he was going to leave to-day.

[^145]2. In the principal clause of an unreal conditional sentence, skulle followed by the infinitive may be used in place of the past $e$-subjunctive. See §215. In this and the following uses, skulle does not refer to past time.
3. Volition. Ex.: Vad skall jag göra? What shall I do? Jag skall ha det, trots honom. I will have it in spite of him. Han skall, antingen han vill eller inte. He shall, whether he wants to or not. Jag skall aldrig göra sả mer. I will never again do that. Du skall icke dräpa! Thou shalt not kill. Även om han ber mig pả sina bara knän, sa skall han straffas. Even if he asks me on his bare knees, he shall be punished.
4. Duty, obligation: Du skall vara rädd om din hälsa. You ought to take good care of your health. Det skulle du inte ha gjort. You should not have done that. Ni skulle ha svarat honom, att . . . You should have answered him that. . . Man skulle straffa honom. He ought to be punished.
5. Reputation, general opinion: Hon skall vara mycket rik. She is supposed to be very wealthy. Han skall hava rest till Ame'rika. He is said to have gone to America.

Note.- I. The past perfect of skola is hade skolat. But Swedish idiom prefers skulle ha (väntat) (cf. English) to hade skolat (vänta) should have (waited).
2. Skola may also be used independently of an infinitive, particularly in the spoken language; the omitted infinitive in most cases expresses motion, and there is an adverb or an adverbial phrase to show its direction or end. Ex.: Jag skall hem., I shall go home. Jag skall till staden i morgon. I shall go to town to-morrow. Vart skall du hän? Where are you going? Vad skall du med den där boken? What do you want that book for? Vad skulle han där? What business had he there? Jag skall upp klockan fyra $i$ morgon bittida. I shall get up at four o'clock to-morrow morning. Fram skall jag. I'm going to get there.
2553. Mả, mảtte ${ }^{1}$ (does not refer to past time):

1. $M \dot{a}$ and mátte are used to express a wish, in place of the $e$-subjunctive. See $\S \S 209 ; 214,1$.
2. Máa (not mátte) is used to express concession ${ }^{2}$. Ex.: Det $m \dot{d}$ sá vara. It may very well be. Du mád göra som du vill. You may do as you please. Nu má fienderna gärna komma. Now the enemy may come.
3. Mátte (not $m \dot{\alpha}$ ) may express likelihood, supposition: Det matte vara hemskt. It must be grewsome. Nu matte han vall vara framme. He must be there by this time, I should think. Det måtte väl ej vara möjligt. It can't be possible, can it? Den där karlen mátte vara stark. That fellow must be strong. Hon mátte vara sjuk. She must be sick. Det här bläcket mätte vara dàligt. This must be poor ink.

Note. - There is another verb $m \dot{a}$ (pres. $m \dot{d} r, m \dot{a}$; past maddde; supine matt), belonging to the Third Weak Conjugation, which means "do", "feel". Ex.: Hur mdr du? How are you?

254 . Kunna (see §§ 138 ; 194, 5) denotes:
I. Ability. Ex.: Jag kan icke finna boken. I cannot find the book. Jag kunde icke komma i gdr. I couldn't come yesterday. Du kunde nog komma, om du ville. You could no doubt come if you wanted to. Jag har ej kunnat höra ett ord. I have not been able to hear a word. Denna lista hade lätt kunnat göras längre. This list could easily have been made longer.
2. Possibility: Jag kan misstaga mig. I may be mistaken. Det kan vara sant. It may be true. Sadant kan hända. Such things will happen. Jag kunde just tro det. I might have known that.
3. Permission: Nu kan du gd. Now you may go.

[^146]4. Habit, repeated action: Här kan vara mycket varmt. It is sometimes very warm here. Han kunde sitta i timtal och skriva. He would sit writing by the hour.

Note. - I. The past perfect of kunna is hade kunnat. But Swedish idiom prefers kunde ha (väntat) (cf. English) to hade kunnat (vänta). Ex.: Jag kunde ha gjort (or hade kunnat göra) det, men jag ville inte. I could have done it, but I didn't want to.
2. Kunna may also be used without a following infinitive (="know"). Ex.: Kan du din läxa? Do you know ${ }^{1}$ your lesson? Han kan engelska. He knows English.
255. Vilja (see §§ 137; 194, 5) denotes:

1. Volition. Ex.: Jag vill gả. I want to go. Jag bad honom komma, men han ville inte. I asked him to come, but he didn't want to. Han ville, att jag skulle vänta. He wanted me to wait. Gör som du vill. Do as you wish. Hur mycket vill du ha? How much do you want? Vad vill du, att han skall göra? What do you want him to do? Vill du vara sả god och hjälpa mig? Please help me. Min klocka vill inte gå. My watch won't run. Veden vill inte brinna. The wood won't burn. Det vill säga that is.
2. Modest statement: Jag ville helst träffa honom i dag. I should prefer to see him to-day. Du ville väl inte vara snäll och be honom komma? Would you kindly ask him to come?

Note. - Vilja is frequently used independently of an infinitive, particularly in the spoken language; cf. § 252, note 2. Ex.: Det vill jag inte. I don't want to (do it). Jag vill dig väl. I wish you well. Vad vill du mig? What do you want with me? Hunden vill in. The dog wants to get in. Vart vill ni? Where do you want to go? Vill du med? Do you want to go along?
256. Måste ${ }^{2}$, supine måst. Mäste refers to past as well as to present and future time. Ex.: $N u$ mảste jag gả. Now I must go. Du mảste komma genast. You'll have

[^147]to come at once. Jag kunde ej komma, ty jag mástc skriva brev. I couldn't come, for I had to write some letters. Jag hade mảst vänta, om jag velat träffa honom. I should have been obliged to wait if I had wanted to see hini.

Note. - I. For the missing infinitive, other verbs must be employed, as nödgas, vara tvungen.
2. On fa lov att see $\S 262,2$ end.
3. Maste is sometimes used without a dependent infinitive, particularly in the spoken language; cf. $\$ \Omega^{\$ 252}$, note $2 ; 255$, note. Ex.: Jag maste hem. I must go home.
257. Lär, plur. lära, expresses relatively certain likelihood or probability, generally such as is based on report. Ex.: Han lär vara hemkommen. People say that he has returned. Vi lära fả krig. They say that we are going to have war. Jag lär aldrig mera aterse honom. I am not likely to see him again. Han lär vara sjuk. He is reported to be sick. Du lär ha sagt detta. You are reported to have said this.
258. Tör, plur. töra; past torde ${ }^{1}$. Both tör and torde refer to present time; tör is less frequently used, being somewhat archaic. Also this word denotes likelihood or probability (a lesser degree than that denoted by lär). Ex.: Han tör komma snart. He will perhaps come soon. Det torde icke vara omöjligt. I dare say it would not be impossible. Ni tör veta, vad jag menar. I dare say you know what I mean. Som man torde erinra sig as will probably be remembered. Denna åsikt torde vara rätt allmän. This view is no doubt pretty general. Ytterligare exem'pel torde vara överflödiga. Further examples are hardly necessary.

Note. - This idea is very often expressed by adverbs; as, nog, allt, visst.

1 See § 194, 2 and 5, and page 130 , foot-note 3.
259. Böra, pres. bör, böra; past borde ${ }^{1}$; supine bort. Borde almost always ${ }^{2}$ denotes the same kind of time as bör. This word denotes:
I. Duty, propriety. Ex.: Du borde skämmas. You ought to be ashamed. Man bör hålla sitt löfte. One should keep one's promise. Han borde ingen mat fả. He ought not to have any food. Bör jag göra det? Ought I to do that? Det hade i så fall bort uttryckligen sägas ifrän. It ought in that case to have been expressly stated.
2. Expectation, calculation: Tàget bör vara här om fyra minu'ter. The train should be here in four minutes. A little later: $N u$ borde det vara här. Now it ought to, be here.

Note. - The past perfect of böra is hade bort, but Swedish idiom prefers borde ha (väntat) (cf. English) to hade bort (vänta). Ex.: Han borde ha gjort (or hade bort göra) det. He ought to have done it. Detta borde dimin'stone ha omnämnts. This ought at least to have been mentioned.
260. Låta (see $§ 200$ ) is used to express:
i. The first person plural of the imperative in the form lảt (or latom) with the infinitive. See §243.
2. Permission and concession: Jag lät honom ej göra det. I didn't let him do it. Lät honom sova. Let him sleep. Làt det vara. Let the matter rest. Never mind. Lảt sả vara. Granted. Very well. Lảt vara, att . . . What though . . . Cf. låta bli; see § 250 , note 2 end.
3. "Cause some one to do a thing." Ex.: Jag har làtit dig vänta. I have kept you waiting. Jag har lảtit sy mig en rock. I have had a coat made. Jag lät laga rocken. I had my coat mended.

[^148]Note. - There is another verb ldita conjugated in the same way, meaning "sound".
261. Komma (see § 200) expresses:

1. Futurity, with att and the infinitive. See § 136 , 1 .
2. "Happen to", almost exclusively in the past tense. Ex.: Han kom att gá forbi". He happened to pass by. Jag kom att röra vid karaffi'nen, och så foll den i golvet. I happened to touch the water-bottle, and (then) it fell to the floor.
3. "Cause some one to do a thing." Ex.: Han kom mig att tro den där histo'rien. He got me to believe that story. Lejonets rytande kom àskảdarna att darra. The roaring of the lion caused the spectators to shudder.

Note. - As an independent verb, komma means "come".
262. Fº (see § 203, 1) expresses:

1. Permission. Exx.: Fär jag gả? May I go? Fár man röka här? Is smoking permitted here? (Lit.: May one smoke here?) Det fär du icke. No, you must not. Inga oförskämdheter, om jag fär be. No insolence, please.
2. Necessity: Du fär stanna hemma. You will have to stay at home. Man făr tảla mycket här $i$ världen. One has to put up with a great deal in this life. Som gosse fick han ofta svälta. As a boy he often had to go without food. Han kommer att fá vänta. He will have to wait. Om du ej hade haft inträdesbiljett, hade du fätt stanna utanfor. If you hadn't had a ticket, you would have had to stay outside. Jag hade rivit sönder min nya rock; jag fick gả ut i den gamla. I had torn my new coat; I had to wear the old one. - Frequently fá lov att is used with the same meaning.

[^149]3. With the infinitive of the verbs höra, se, veta it denotes the beginning of the action of these verbs. Ex.: Jag fick veta det i gär. I learned of it yesterday. Vi fă se. We shall see. Sà snart jag fär se honom. As soon as I see (catch sight of) him.
4. "Get some one to do a thing." Ex.: Jag fick honom inte att säga ett ord. I couldn't get him to say a word.

Note. - As an independent verb, $f d$ means "get", "receive", "obtain".
263. colloquialisms. After the supine of modal auxiliaries (sometimes also of other verbs) the spoken language frequently employs another supine in place of the normal infinitive. Ex.: Jag har inte kunnat hört (for höra) ett ord. I have not been able to hear a word. Jag hade bort sagt (for säga) det foru't. I ought to have said it before. Flickan hade fâtt sâlt (for sälja) sina tändstickor. The girl had succeeded in getting her matches sold. Om jag bara hade kunnat sluppit (for slippa) ifrán det här. I wish I could have gotten out of this.

## EXERCISE XXI.

At first he sat there for a long time and was silent, as if it were hard for him to utter that which ${ }^{1}$ he wanted to say, but at last it came. He then asked Violanta humbly whether she would not be able to love him a little, and become his wife.

If Violanta promised to become his wife, he would promise to make her whole life as happy as a dance. "Why, we two are ${ }^{2}$ as [if] made ${ }^{3}$ for each other," he said. Violanta seemed surprised, almost a bit frightened. She had never thought that she and the miller's servant were as

[^150][^151][if] made for each other. But when she looked at his face and saw how sincerely he meant it, she asked him to come early the next morning ${ }^{1}$ to the same place, and ${ }^{2}$ she would give him her answer. And with that he would have to be satisfied. ${ }^{3}$

Early the next morning before the sun was up, Violanta went down to the meadow by the river. She bent down over the waves so that the foam blew into her face ${ }^{4}$. "Whither are you hurrying away?" she whispered. "Whither are you hurrying away?" - "To the wild waves of the sea. To the wild waves of the sea," answered the river and rushed on.- "Oh, yes," said Violanta aloud and spread out her arms. "I too am going there."

And then she tied her kerchief about her hair and began to run as fast as she could along the narrow path which led through the pastures along the river.

When the sun rose, the miller's servant rose also, and went down to the meadow by the fall: Not finding Violanta there, ${ }^{5}$ he smiled and thought: "She'll come, all right ${ }^{6}$. The sun has just risen." He sat there until the noonday sun glowed on the water, and when she still was not to be seen", he sighed and thought: "She will come, no doubt ${ }^{6}$. The sun has not yet set." "But when the sun at last set, he wept and thought: "She will never come." And she never came.

[^152]4 Into her face henne i ansiktet.

[^153]
## LESSON XXII.

## PERSONAL, POSSESSIVE AND DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

264. PERSONAL AND POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS. These have the following forms:

| NOM. | OBJ. | GEN. | POSSESSIVE |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| jag | mig | - | min, mitt, mina |
| du | dig | - | din, ditt, dina |
| ni | er | - | er, ert, era; (eder, edert, edra) |
| han | honom hans | - |  |
| hon | henne hennes | - |  |
| den, det | $=$ Nom. dess | - |  |
| vi | oss | - | vår, värt, vära |
| $I, n i$ | eder, er | deras |  |
| de eder, edert, edra; er, ert, era | dem | deras |  |

The special reflexive for the third person, singular and plural, is:
$\qquad$ sig

- $\sin , \operatorname{sitt}, \sin a$

Note - I. On the use of these pronouns see $\$ \Omega 32$, note; $35 ; 36$; 49; 6I; 62; 186 ff.; cf. § 127.
2. The neuter det may be used to represent any word or expression. Ex.: Pojken hade fallit $i$ vattnet, men han tordes inte tala om det. The boy had fallen into the water, but he didn't dare tell it. Det är farligt att profete'ra, och jag vagar det inte. It is dangerous to prophesy, and I don't dare do it. Han är ingen förfat'tare, men han önskarbli det. He is not an author, but he wants to be one. Om ndgon känner sig sjuk, är han det natu'rligtvis. If anyone feels sick, he is sick, of course.
3. In constructions for emphasis with det är, det var, followed by a personal pronoun and a relative clause, the personal pronoun is put in the objective case by attraction, if the following relative is the object, that is, if the personal pronoun in the unemphatic construction would be the object; the relative pronoun is usually
omitted. Ex.: Det är dig, han vill träffa. ${ }^{1}$ (Cf. Han vill träffa dig.) You are the one he wants to see. Det är dig, han är ond pd. ${ }^{1}$ You are the one he is angry at. Det är oss, han talar om. ${ }^{1}$ He is talking about us. Det var henne, jag sdg i gir. She is the one I saw yesterday.
4. On the use of adverbial compounds in place of personal pronouns depending upon a preposition, see $\S 172$, 1 , note 2.
5. In the second person, a genitive $E(d e) r s$ occurs with a few titles; as, $E(d e) r s$ majestä't Your Majesty, $E(d e) r s n d i d$ Your Grace.
6. Particularly before derogatory words, Swedish generally uses a possessive pronoun of the second person (rarely one of the first person), in cases where English employs the personal pronoun; as, din lymmel you rascal, era bytingar you urchins, era stackare you wretches, ditt dumhuvud you blockhead.
7. The plural form of the possessive pronouns ${ }^{2}$ used without a following noun may be preceded by the prepositive definite article; these expressions embrace the menbers of the family, relatives, and persons. of one's immediate surroundings: de mina, de di$n a$, de vira, de sina; gen. de minas, etc. But de e(d)ra cannot be so used. Ex.: Hur stir det till med de dina? How are your people? Det var hemskt att sitta ensam $i$ sena kvällen för henne, som nyss hade drömt sig omgiven av alla de sina. It was grewsone to sit alone in the late evening for her who had just dreamt herself surrounded by all her kindred.
8. The pronoun varan'dra each other, one another, is used with the plural verb-forms of transitive verbs to express the reciprocal idea. ${ }^{3}$ Varan'dra is used either of two or more than two. In the genitive it adds -s. Ex.: De alskade varan'dra. They loved each other. Vi fá hjälpa varan'dra. We shall have to belp each other. I liknen varan'dra. You resemble each other.
9. On the use of själv see § 187, note, and § 149, note. Själv may omit $t$ in the neuter, particularly in certain phrases; as, $a v$ sig själv, för sig sjalv. Ex.: Barnet gör det av sig själv. The child does it of its own accord.

[^154]
## DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

265. GENERAL RULE. Adjective pronouns, like adjectives, are not inflected in regard to case, but substantive pronouns have a genitive ending in $-s$. Pronouns that can be used either substantively or adjectively may have the genitive when used as nouns but not when employed as adjectives. This rule applies to all the classes of pronouns treated in the following pages (demonstrative, relative, interrogative, indefinite). Observe also the objective plural form dem of the demonstrative, used only substantively.
266. The demonstratives are denna this, this one ${ }^{1}$, den that, that one, den $h \ddot{a}^{\prime} r$ this (one), den $d \vec{a}^{\prime} r$ that (one), samma the same, densam'ma ${ }^{2}$ the same. Samma is used only as an adjective; the others are used both substantively and adjectively. They have forms as follows:

| COMMON | NEUTER | PLURAL |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| denna $(-e)$ | detta | dessa |
| *dennas ${ }^{3}(-e s)$ | *dettas | *dessas |
| den | det | de |
| *dess, *dens | *dess | *deras |
|  |  | *dem |


| den $h a ̈ ' r$ | det $h a{ }^{\prime} r$ | de $h \ddot{a}^{\prime} r$ |
| :--- | :--- | :---: |
| den dä'r | det däar $^{\prime} r$ | de dä'r |
| samma $(-e)$ | samma | samma |
| densam'ma $(-e)$ | detsam'ma | desam'ma |
| *densam'mas $(-e s)$ | *detsam'mas | *desam'mas |

[^155]Note. - 1. The forms ending in -e, es (denne, samme, densam'me) are used when the reference is to persons of the male sex. ${ }^{1}$ Cf. § 151,8 b and c. Ex.: Denne gosse är sjuk. This boy is sick. Det är samme man, jag sdg i gar. It is the same man I saw yesterday. Han är alltid densam'me. He is always the same.
2. The genitive dess, which is used only in referring to things, is rare as a demonstrative; when this form occurs, it is usually the genitive of the personal pronoun (see $\S \S 264 ; 67,3$ ). The genitive dens is used only when a determinative (restrictive) clause follows (see § 267); it refers to persons.
3. On the use of den $h a^{\prime} r$, den $d \ddot{a}^{\prime} r$, see $\S 273,5$, with reference. These pronouns have no genitive even when used substantively, and no objective plural, to correspond to the forms dess, deras, dem of the pronoun den. Ex.: Tag de här. Take these. De där vill jag inte ha. I don't want those.
4. Densam'ma $(-e)$ is almost always used substantively, samma $(-e)$ only as an attributive adjective. Observe that densam'ma, though used substantively, does not have an objective form in the plural, corresponding to dem, from den; cf. the preceding note. The ending is in both these words that of the ordinary definite form of the adjective. Ex.: Är den där boken densam'ma, som lagg pd ditt bord $i$ gdr? Is that book the same one that lay on your table yesterday? Varje morgon börjar samma trägna arbete vid samma tidiga timme. Every morning the same hard work begins at the same early hour. Vi kommo pai samma gaing. We came at the same time. For further examples see note 1 .
5. In referring back to a word that is not in the subject-relation, denna is often used as a personal proncun of the third person, in order to preclude ambiguity; the personal pronouns (han, hon, den, det, de) usually refer to the subject of a previous clause. Ex.: Fadern skrev till sin son, att denne maste resa hem. The father wrote to his son, that he (the son) had to come home. Dd objek'tet utgöres av ett perso'nligt prono'men, stär detta alltid i objektiv. When the object consists of a personal pronoun, it (the pers. pron.) is always in the objective form. Om en häst skyggar för en velocipe'dryttare, bör denne genast stiga $a v$. If a horse shies at a cyclist, he (the cyclist) should at once dismount. Cf. Om en velocipe'dryt-

1 In the dictionaries these pronouns will be found under the forms denne. samme, densamme.
tare möter en skyggande häst, bör han genast stiga av. If a cyclist meets a timid horse, he should at once dismount.
6. Densam'ma is sometimes used in place of the personal pronouns of the third person, particularly in long sentences; when so employed, it is usually for variety or for clearness. Jag sprang till$b a^{\prime} k a$ till skrivbordet, drog ut den låda, där jag en gaing lagt ned nyckeln, och började leta efter densam'ma. I ran back to the desk, opened the drawer into which I once had put the key, and began to look for it. Ehu'ru framstallningen av ellip'sens natu'r egen'tligen tillhör formläran, torde det dock vara lämpligt att här redogöra för densam'mas förnä'msta typer. Although the description of the nature of ellipsis really belongs to accidence, it is perhaps in order to give here an account of its leading types.
267. VARIOUS USES OF DEMONSTRATIVES. Besides its ordinary demonstrative use, of which an example is given in § 268 , the pronoun den may be used as the antecedent of a determinative (restrictive) clause. ${ }^{1}$ In this case it is usually rendered into English by "he" or "the one", when used substantively, and by "the" when used adjectively. The genitive singular is in the determinative use dens, which form can be used only in this way. ${ }^{2}$ Ex.: Den åsikten, att solen går runt om jorden, är längesedan övergiven. The theory that the sun passes around the earth is long dead. Det land, ${ }^{3}$ vi kalla vart the land we call ours. De prono'mina, ${ }^{3}$ vi nu tala om, kallas determinati'va. The pronouns we are now talking about are called determinative pronouns. Jag har den äran att gratule'ra. Allow me to congratulate you. (Lit.: I have the honor . . .). Den, som kommer sist, fär inte mycket. The one who comes last won't get much. Den är ädlast, som först räcker handen till förso'ning. He is noblest who first extends his hand in reconciliation. De, som äro rika,

1 Also other pronouns may be so used, but such use calls for no comment in the case of these, there being no difference in idiom between the two languages.

2 Cf. § 266, note 2.
3 Relative pronoun omitted; see § 281.
äro icke alltid lyckliga. Those who are rich are not always happy. Rätta dig efter dens rảd, som vill ditt bästa. Follow the advice of him who wishes you well. Stort är deras antal, som blivit svikna. Large is the number of those who have been deceived.

Note. - I. The neuter singular of demonstratives may be used as the subject, irrespective of the number and gender of a predicate noun. Ex.: Detta är samma hund, som jag sdg i gar. This is the same dog I saw yesterday. Det här är en gammal bok. This is an old book. Det där var en bra häst. That is a good horse. Det ar min bror. That is my brother. Det ar ${ }^{1}$ alla stolar, ${ }^{2}$ jag har kunnat anskaffa. Those are all the chairs I have been able to get. Är ${ }^{1}$ det dina barn? Are those your children? Detta är ${ }^{1}$ svarta körsbär. These are black cherries.
2. The neuters det and detta may be used to represent any word or expression. Ex.: Jag är gammal. Det (=gammal) är du för resten ocksd. I am old. So are you, for that matter. Han är skomakare. Det var hans far ocksd. He is a shoemaker. So was his father. Man bör göra sitt bästa. Det kan vem som helst göra. One should do one's best. Any one (at all) can do that. Han vill bli läkare, men det passar han inte till. He wants to be a physician, but he isn't cut out for that.
3. On the use of adverbial compounds in place of demonstratives depending upon a preposition, see $\S 172$, 1 , note 2 .
268. When these demonstratives are used as adjectives, the following noun is put in the definite form, except in the case of denna $(-e)$ and samma ( $-e$ ). Ex.: Den tavlan är vackrast. That picture is the prettiest. Bor $d u$ i det här huset? Do you live in this house? On the other hand: Detta är mitt sista ord i denna sak. .This is my last word in this matter. Denna vackra stad är Sveriges huvudstad. This beautiful city is the capital of Sweden. Det är samme man. It is the same man. Vi kunna ju gå samma väg. We might go the same way.

[^156]Note. - I. Den is followed by the noun in the indefinite form when it is the antecedent of a determinative (restrictive) relative ${ }^{1}$ clause. Ex.: De gossar, som vilja följa med, fä räcka upp handen. The boys who want to go along may hold up their hands. Kellgren angrcp häftigt de ${ }^{2}$ svenska skalder, som icke diktade efter franska mönster. Kellgren attacked vigorously the Swedish poets that did not write after French models. De former, av vilka övriga bildas, kallas temaformer. The forms from which the rest are made, are called the principal parts. Den sak, (som) du talade om the matter you were speaking of. Jag har sett det ställe, varom ${ }^{3}$ du talar. I have seen the place you are speaking of. Det arbete, $v a r m e d ~^{3}$ du är sysselsatt, synes aldrig bli färdigt. The work in which you are engaged seems never to become finished. Atskilliga lånord behdilla den plura'l, de ha $i$ det språk, varifrain ${ }^{3}$ de lainats. Several loan-words retain the plural-ending they have in the language from which they have been borrowed. Den tid, dd vapen och verktyg huvudsakligen gjordes av sten, har kallats stenaldern. The period when weapons and implements were made chiefly of stone has been called the Stone Age. Den bok, jag $n u$ läser $i$, är rolig. The book I am now reading is amusing. Den plats, där han tillbragt natten. The place where he has (or had) spent the night. Den dag skall komma, dả du fär aingra detta. The day will come when you will be sorry for this.
2. On the form of adjectives that follow demonstrative pronouns (except those of § 269) see § $147,2$.
269. OTHER DEMONSTRATIVES. In addition to the pronouns of $\S 266$, the following adjectives have demonstrative meaning: sadan such; likadan ${ }^{4}$ similar, of the same sort; dylik such, similar. These are never put in the definite form. Both adjectives and nouns following these have the indefinite form. These pronouns may be preceded by

[^157]the indefinite article; observe in this case the difference in word-order in connection with the English "such". Ex.: Sädana djur har du väl aldrig sett föru't. I suppose you hare never seen such animals before. En saddan bok such a book. Han är ej en sådan, som du tror. He is not such a one as you think. Sädant duger icke. Such a thing won't do. Han talade om vädret och annat dylikt. He talked about the weather and other things like that.
270. IDIOMATIC EXPRESSIONS. Note the following expressions connected with demonstratives: det gör (är) detsam'ma it doesn't matter, it makes no difference; $i$ detsam'ma just then, at that moment; med detsam'ma at once; till dess till then; innan dess before that; sedan dess since then; cf. dess (bättre), § 175; den trettonde dennes the thirteentl instant.
271. SUMMARY OF THE VARIOUS USES OF "DEN". ${ }^{1}$ In previous lessons we have seen den employed:
(I) adjectively, as the prepositive definite article (forms, den, det, de);
(2) substantively, as a personal pronoun (forms, den, det, de, dem, dess, deras). In both these uses it is unstressed.

Thirdly, we have in this lesson seen it employed as a demonstrative pronoun. As such it may be used either adjectively or substantively. When used adjectively, its forms are identical with those of the prepositive definite article. When used substantively, it has forms identical ${ }^{2}$ with those of the personal pronoun. The demonstrative pronoun is stressed (except, frequently, in the use mentioned in § 267). In short:

[^158]
## ADJECTIVE USE SUBSTANTIVE USE <br> (den, det, de, dem, dess, deras)

$$
(d e n, d e t, d e)
$$

Stressed: Demonstrative Unstress.: Prepos. article

Demonstrative
Personal pronoun
272. ACCENT. Sadan has the acute accent. - Samma and densam'ma may have either the acute or the grave accent; varan'dra usually has the grave accent. - Eder (objective) usually has the acute accent; eder (possessive) usually has the grave accent.
273. colloguialisms: (i) Colloquial matters relating to pronouns have been treated above, $\S \S 39,1,2$ and 6 ; 53,4 and $5 ; 67,1,3$ and $4 ; 191,5$ and 6.
(2) In easy speech the objective form of the personal pronouns may be used after $a n$ and som. Ex.: Han är äldre än mig. He is older than I.
(3) Primarily in the spoken language the personal pronoun as a subject is often repeated. Ex.: Han är inte dum, han. He is not such a blockhead either. Din stackars mor har aldrig sett nägot annat än Värmland, hon. Your poor mother has never seen anything else than Värmland.
(4) The objective form eder of the personal pronoun belongs to the elevated style, er being the form otherwise used. On the contrary, the forms eder, edert, edra of the possessive pronoun are employed beyond the limits of elevated style, occurring not infrequently in the ordinary written and spoken language beside the shorter forms er, ert, era. Easy speech, however, always has the shorter forms of the possessives.
(5) Den $d a ̈ r$ is in the spoken language and frequently in the written language used instead of the demonstrative den; cf. § 39, I.
(6) The genitives dess and dens are not used in the spoken language; cf. $\S 67,3$, on the use of dess as genitive of the personal pronoun of the third person.
(7) When denna is employed in the spoken language ${ }^{1}$ (cf. $\S \S 39,1 ; 67,1$ ), it is regularly followed by the noun in the definite form.
(8) In the spoken language, den is followed by the noun in the definite form also when it is the antecedent of a restrictive relative clause (cf. $\S 268$, note 1 ). In place of den followed by the noun in the definite form, merely the definite form of the noun is preferred in the spoken language when the noun is not modified by an adjective. Ex.: Ge mig boken, som ligger därbor'ta. Give me the book that is lying over there. Jag bar in alla mina saker $i$ rummet, där jag skulle bo. I carried all my things into the room where I was to live.

SUMMARY:

WRITTEN
(Without adj.) den bok, som (With adj.) den nya bok, som

## SPOKEN

$\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { den boken, som, or } \\ \text { boken, som }\end{array}\right.$
den nya boken, som
(9) The demonstrative pronoun dylik is foreign to the spoken language. So also expressions like den trettonde dennes (§ 270).
(10) In the spoken language, samma en is frequently used in place of the substantive densam'ma. -The use of denna and densam'ma, mentioned in $\S 266$, notes 5 and 6, is entirely foreign to spoken Swedish.
(iI) In easy speech, sadan may be shortened to sán (vowel long or short).

[^159]
## EXERCISE XXII.

But Violanta followed the course of the stream through pastures and groves, over fields and plains. And then the river came to a long range of green hills. When Violanta and the river arrived at the other side [of] the hills ${ }^{1}$, [there] lay a beautiful region before them. Meadows full of tall grass and fragrant flowers spread out under oaks and linden-trees, and right on ${ }^{2}$ the very prettiest meadow [there] was a large white house in a flower-garden.

Violanta saw that in the shadow of a large chestnuttree [there] reclined a woman in an easy-chair reading a book. She was tall and slender, and very pale. Her black eyelashes cast a shadow on her white cheeks, and over her black hair she had a violet-colored veil. Her dress was of the softest silk $^{3}$.

She lay so quiet that Violanta at first thought that she was sleeping. But all of a sudden she looked up with a pair of large, thoughtful eyes. "Come closer," she said with [a] gentle voice and extended her hand. It was a slender, white hand, on which ${ }^{4}$ [there] flashed a blue jewel. "Whither are you running in the summer's heat ${ }^{5}$ ?" she asked. Violanta stopped, warm and out of breath ${ }^{6}$. "To the wild waves of the sea," she answered. -"Oh yes,"7 said the beautiful lady and smiled, "so many go that way ${ }^{8}$, but they rarely come back. You had better stay ${ }^{9}$ with me; I may need ${ }^{10}$ you, and it is good to be here; the longer you stay with me, the more it will please you."

[^160][^161]Then Violanta asked in what way ${ }^{1}$ she could help her, for she thought that this was a good place. "Well, you see $^{2}$," answered the stranger, "I lie here quietly under the trees. I can see both the sky and the earth and the river; and I can read about all the wonders of nature in this book. But I lack one thing. ${ }^{3}$ I cannot walk, but must always lie still."

[^162]
## LESSON XXIII.

## RELATIVE AND INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

274. RELATIVE PRONOUNS. ${ }^{1}$ The relative pronouns are som, vilken, vad, den, den' där and the genitive vars.
275. Som, which is used only substantively, is the relative pronoun occurring most frequently. It is indeclinable, and may be used in referring both to persons and to things, and to nouns of either gender or number, both in the subject and object relation. But it cannot stand in the genitive relation, the other relatives that have genitive forms being used instead. It may be governed by a preposition, but the preposition must always follow, standing at the end of the clause. As a rule, the use of the other relative pronouns is avoided when som can he used. Ex.: Han är en vän, som jag kan lita pả. He is a friend on whom I can depend. Alla, som känna honom, veta att han är pallitlig. All who know him, know that he is reliable. Detta är ett ämne, som är svärt att behan'dla. This is a subject that is hard to treat. For further examples see $\$ \delta 267 ; 268$, note 1 .

Note. - After superlatives, and personal and indefinite pronouns, som is the relative regularly used. Ex.: Detta ar den vackraste stad, som jag någonsin sett. This is the most beautiful city I have ever seen. Ingen, som vill gd, behö'ver stanna hemma. No one who wants to go, need stay at home. Är det ndgon, som vet det? Is there anyone who knows it?
276. Vilken, which may be used either adjectively or substantively (usually the latter ${ }^{2}$ ), referring either to persons or things, has the following forms:

[^163]COMMON<br>vilken<br>*vilkens ${ }^{1}$

NEUTER<br>vilket ${ }^{2}$<br>*vilkets ${ }^{3}$

This pronoun is not of nearly so frequent occurrence as som. However, when an adjectival relative pronoun is needed, vilken must be used. As a substantive pronoun it must be employed in place of som when the antecedent is a clause. ${ }^{4}$ Ex.: (Adj.) Sverige slöt sig 1855 till England och Frankrike, vilka stater da voro Rysslands fiender. In 1855 Sweden allied itself with England and France, which countries were at that time hostile to Russia. (Subst.) Konung Erik frigav sin broder Johan, vilket ${ }^{4}$ han sedan angrade. King Eric released his brother John, a thing which he afterwards regretted.

Note.-I. To some extent, vilken (in its substantive use) and som are used interchangeably. ${ }^{5}$ In some cases, vilken may even be used to advantage: (a) Its use sometimes prevents ambiguity. Because it is inflected, it is generally clear what the antecedent is, while with som this may be doubtful. Ex.: Fönstren pd huset, vilka vi betrak'tade. The windows which we were looking at in the house. Ett märkligt tidens tecken äro ocksd de strävanden till införande av ett geme'nsamt världsspråk, vilka länge låtit höra av sig. A notable sign of the times are also the attempts to introduce a universal language which have long been heard of. (b) Sometimes it may be advantageously used for the sake of euphony, when som, as a relative or as a conjunction, stands near. Ex.: Hans släktingar, som nu kommit hit och vilka han ej selt pà länge, äro mycket rika. His relatives, who have now come here, and whom he has not seen for a long time, are very wealthy. (c) If a governing preposition cannot be placed at the end of the clause, vilken must be employed. Moreover, some people (unneces-

[^164]sarily) object to placing prepositions at the end of the clause, preferring to put them before the relative, in which case vilken must be used. ${ }^{1}$ Ex.: Denna egendomliga stilart tvang honom till djärva ordskapelser, av vilka de flesta torde stà enstaka inom var litteratu'r. This peculiar style forced him into many bold word-coinages, most of which are unique in our literature. Den sak, om vilken vi talade the matter about which we were speaking.
2. Vars (see § 277) is frequently used in place of the genitive singular (especially in the neuter) of vilken, and sometimes, though much more rarely, in place of the genitive plural. Examples of the genitive of vilken: Enkla kallas ord, vilkas delar icke hava nagon egen bety'delse. Words whose parts have no meaning of their own, are called simple.
277. Vars, which, being a genitive, can be used only substantively, is employed chiefly in referring to a singular antecedent, but sometimes also to an antecedent in the plural. The antecedent may be of either gender, referring either to persons or to things. Since som cannot be used in the genitive relation, and since the genitive of vilken is not of particularly frequent occurrence, it follows that vars is the word usually employed to express the genitive idea in the case of relative pronouns. Ex.: Ingen, vars samvete är vaket, kan handla sà. No one whose conscience is awake can do that. Värda det träd, $i$ vars skugga $d u$ sitter! Care for the tree in the shade of which you sit.
278. Vad, which is used only substantively, is neuter singular. When it is used as the subject of the clause, som is almost always added. This pronoun has two uses:
(I) Meaning 'that which", including its antecedent. Ex.: Vad du säger, är sant. What you say is true. Säg alltid, vad som är sant. Always say that which is true. Vad som mest oroade mig, var mina fienders tyst-

[^165]nad. That which disturbed me most was the reticence of my enemies. Mycket av vad hon sag misshagade henne. Much of what she saw displeased her. Vad fadern pábörjat, fortsatte sönerna. The sons continued what their father had started. Vad Anders mest ängslades for, var exerci'sen. That which A. was most worried about was the military drill.
(2) With allt all, as the antecedent. ${ }^{1}$ When vad is governed by a preposition, the preposition must in this case follow at the end of the clause. Ex.: Det är allt, vad jag har hort om honom. That is all that I have heard about him. Allt, vad jag förr glatt mig àt, var nu borta. All that I had formerly delighted in was now gone. Min bror lyckas i allt, vad han ägnar sig àt. My brother is successful in everything to which he applies himself. Den där gossen ville hava allt, vad han sadg. That boy wanted everything he saw. Allt, vad som hittills nämnts såsom verkande àtskillnad i spràket, fick ökad kraft genom skriften. All that has hitherto been mentioned as producing a distinction in language, got fresh impetus through the art of writing.
279. Den, which is used only substantively, is not of frequent occurrence. When used, it is employed chiefly for variety or euphony. It is inflected like the demonstrative den (see $\S 266$ ), but can not be used in the genitive, nor as subject. Its forms, then, are den, det (these used only in the object relation) and dem. The neuter form is very little used. This pronoun is rare as indirect object. It refers more often to persons than to inanimate objects. When den is governed by a preposition, the preposition must follow at the end of the clause. Ex.: En man, den alla beri'sa aktning a man

[^166]whom all respect. Kungen lovade mig sitt porträtt, det jag en tid efterat fick mottaga. The king promised me his picture, which I received some time later. Om fienden en gảng skulle anfalla oss, det Gud förbju'de, màste han finna oss rustade. If the enemy should ever attack us, which Heaven forbid, he must find us prepared. Det hela var henne ännu som en dröm, den hon sag in $i$ och forlo'rade sig $i$. It was still all as a dream to her, into which she looked and in which she lost herself. Jag nämner detta sàsom villkor, dem jag ej vill eftergiva. I state these as conditions that I do not want to withdraw. Alla planer, dem han icke fatt fullborda all the plans that he has (or, had) not been able to carry out. Perso'ner, dem alla hederliga människor avsky persons whom all honorable people detest.
280. Den' där, ${ }^{1}$ which is used only substantively, is not of frequent occurrence. When used, it is employed chiefly for variety or euphony. It is inflected like the demonstrative den ${ }^{\prime} d^{\prime} r r$ (see § 266), having the forms $d e n^{\prime} d a ̈ r, d e^{\prime} t d a ̈ r, d e ́ d a ̈ r$, and no genitive; note, however, the difference in the syllable stressed. ${ }^{1}$ It can be used practically only as the subject. It is employed perhaps more freely in referring to persons than to inanimate objects. Ex.: Rastlös sàsom en, den där skall börja en lảng resá. Restless like one who is about to start on a long journey. Detta fär stà sàsom ett pàstäende, det där förfat'taren efter beha'g kan antaga eller förkas'ta. This may stand as an assertion which the author can adopt or reject as he likes. Den närvarande tiden företer ganska mänga tecken, de där tyda pa fara. The present time shows very many signs that point to danger.

[^167]281. General remarks on relatives. Relative pronouns introducing restrictive clauses may be omitted when they would be in the object relation (both direct and indirect). They may also be omitted when depending on a preposition; this then stands after the predicate. Ex.: Var är den där boken, jag gav dig? Where is that book I gave you? Var är den, jag gav dig i somras? Where is the one I gave you last summer? Det var min bok, du tog. It was my book you took. Den bok, jag nu läser $i$, är rolig. The book I am now reading is amusing. Man bör uppfylla de löften, man givit. One should fulfill the promises one has made. Blommorna, jag fick, satte jag $i$ vatten. The flowers that I received, I have placed in water. Var är fágelboet, du talade om? Where is the bird's nest you spoke of? Här är den gosse, du gav applet at. Here is the boy you gave the apple to. Vem var det, du hälsade paं? Who was it you greeted?

Note. - I. Som, den and vad (when used after allt) cannot be preceded by a preposition. When these relatives are governed by a preposition, this must stand at the end of the clause. For examples see under the various relatives, and $\S \S 267 ; 268$, note 1 .

Vilken, while usually preceded by a governing preposition, if there is one, may have it at the end of the clause. Ex.: Det arbete, med vilket du sysselsätter dig (or vilket du sysselsätter dig med), är mycket mödosamt. The work in which you are engaged is very difficult.

Vad (when = "that which") is usually, but not always, followed by the preposition.
2. In proverbs and legal language the relative is sometimes omitted after den, when it would be the subject. The verb in the den-clause stands last. Ex.: Den illa gör, han illa far. He who does ill, fares ill. Den ndgot spar, han ndgot har. He who saves something, has something. Den det gör, straffas med böter. He who does that is liable to a fine.
3. On the use of adverbial compounds in place of relatives depending upon a preposition, see §\% 172, 1, note 2.

## INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

282. The interrogative pronouns are vem who, whom; vilken which, who(m); vad what; vad för (en) what kind of (a), what; vilkendera which, which of two (or, them); hurudan ${ }^{1}$ of what kind.
283. Vem is used only substantively, as a singular ${ }^{2}$ pronoun, referring to persons. It may stand either in the subject or object relation ( $=$ "who", "whom"). It has a genitive, vems. Ex.: Vem har öppnat dörren? Who has opened the door? Vem kan vara glad under sadana förhállanden? Who can be glad under such conditions? Vem kommer i kväll? Who is coming this evening? Vem vill du träffa? Whom do you want to see? Vems hus är detta? Whose house is this? Vems är den där hästen? Whose is that horse?
284. Vilken (for its forms see § 276) is used both adjectively ${ }^{3}$ and substantively, referring either to persons or things. Ex.: Vilken bok vill du ha? Which book do you want? Vilka voro hans vänner? Who were his friends? Vilka äro dina föräl'drar? Who are your parents? Vilken av dem har köpt huset? Who of them has bought the house? Vilken menar du? Whom do you mean? Vilkens berät'telse tycker du bäst om? Whose story do you like best?
285. Vad is generally used substantively, as neuter singular, referring to things. It has no genitive. Ex.: Vad sade du? What did you say? Vad gör du? What are you doing? Vad vill du ha? What do you want? Vad nytt? What news?

Sometimes it is used as an adjective (indeclinable),

[^168]modifying nouns of either gender in the singular, rarely nouns in the plural. Ex.: Vad rätt har du att gära detta? What right have you to do this? Vad nytta hade $d u$ dära'v? What good did you have from it? Pả vad grund handlade han sá? For what reason did he do that? Vad fördelar har du dära'v? What advantages have you from it?
286. Vad för en, n. vad for ett, is used both adjectively and substantively. When employed substantively, the plural is vad for ena; as an adjective, the plural is vad for. In all forms, vad may be separated from for with intervening words. There is no genitive. Ex.: Vad för en konung hade Sverige pà den tiden? What king did Sweden have at that time? Vad har du för en hatt? What sort of a hat have you? Vad för ett ärende har $d u$ ? What is your errand? Vad är det för gossar? Who are those boys? Vad är du för en? Who are you? (What sort of a fellow are you?) Vad är ni för ena? Who are you (plur.)?

Before nouns that on account of their meaning cannot have the indefinite article, en and ett of the forms vad för en, vad för ett are omitted. Ex.: Vad är det här för smör (vatten)? What sort of butter (water) is this? Vad var det for folk? What sort of people was that? Cf. the omission of $e n$ in the plural.
287. Vilkendera, ${ }^{1}$ n. vilketdera, is generally used substantively, sometimes also as an adjective, in which case the following noun is in the definite form. On account of its meaning it can be used only in the singular. It refers to one of certain definitely known objects, very often, but not always, two in number. The genitive is vilkenderas, vilk̇etderas. Ex.: Vilkendera fär jag? Which may I have?

Vilketdera huset köpte du? Which of the houses did you buy? Det bör vara ett av dessa tre. Välj vilketdera ${ }^{1}$ ! It ought to be one of these three. Decide which. Här är en bok; är det Gerdas eller Axels, säg mig, vilkenderas det är ${ }^{1}$. Here is a book; is it Gerda's or Axel's,-tell me whose it is.
288. Hurudan, n. hurudant, plur. hurudana, is used only as an adjective. Ex.: Hurudana skor köpte du? What kind of shoes did you buy? Hurudant ar vattnet? How is the water?
289. GENERAL REMARKS ON INTERROGATIVES. (1) In indirect questions the forms of the interrogatives given above are used only in the object relation. When an interrogative is the subject of an indirect question, som is almost always added. Ex.: (Direct.) Vem har tagit den? Who has taken it? (Indirect; subject.) Jag vet icke, vem som har tagit den. I don't know who has taken it. (Indirect; object.) Jag vet icke, vem han sökte. I don't know whom he was looking for. Further examples of interrogatives as subjects of indirect questions are: Han fràgade, vad som hade hänt. He asked what had happened. Jag vet inte, vems kreatur som ha betat här. I don't know whose cattle have been grazing here. Vet $d u$, vilken vag som är genast? Do you know which way is the shortest? Se efter, vem som ringde pả tambu'rdörren. Look and see who rang the door-bell. Jag vet icke, vilken som kommer. I do not know who is coming. Jag vet nog, vad som vore bra for honom. I know what would be good for him. I fă ord fick hon veta, vad som hänt och vad (obj.) drängen hade gjort. In a few words she was told what had happened and what the man-servant had done. Vet $d u$, vad for folk som har bott här? Do you know what sort

[^169]of people have lived here? Pả sả sätt finner man, vilket av de bäda objek'ten som mảste gả före det andra. In that way one can tell which of the two objects must stand before the other. Vilkendera formen som kan tänkas underförstädd, fär ses av sammanhanget. Which form is implied, must be gathered from the context. In cases like $j a g$ vet inte, vem det ar vem is not the subject.
(2) In both direct and indirect questions, prepositions on which interrogatives depend, very often stand at the end of the clause. Ex.: (Before.) At vem gav han ringen? To whom did he give the ring? (At end.) Vem gick han sedan till? To whom did he go afterwards? Jag vet icke, vem han gick till. I don't know whom he went to. Vilket hus bor du $i$ ? Which house do you live in? Vad tänker du pá? What are you thinking about? Ingen vet, vem den girige samlar at. No one knows for whom the miser collects. Vilka böcker sätter du mest värde pả? Which books do you value most? Vem har du fätt boken ifrán? From whom have you gotten the book?

Note. - Concerning the use of adverbial compounds in place of interrogative pronouns depending upon a preposition, see $\S 172$, I, note 2.
290. accent. Vilken may have either the grave or the acute accent.
291. colloguialisms: (i) On the whole, relative clauses, as other subordinate clauses, are used more sparingly in the spoken than in the written language; the spoken language frequently substitutes two coordinate clauses or two sentences.
(2) The relative pronoun vilken is foreign to spoken Swedish. ${ }^{1}$ Where in the written language its use is advantageous to the style, or necessary for grammatical

[^170]reasons, the spoken language in the former case uses som, in the latter it employs some other construction. Examples of the latter: Han fick roo (read hundra) kronor, vilken summa han skulle använda efter eget beha'g. Spoken language: Han fick 1 oo kronor, och den summan skulle han ( $f a ̈$ ) använda efter eget beha'g. He received 100 crowns, which sum he was to use as he liked. Han fick Ioo kronor, vilket gjorde honom stor glädje. Spoken language: Han fick roo kronor, och det gjorde honom stor glädje. He received 100 crowns, which afforded him great pleasure.
(3) The relative pronoun vars is not natural to the spoken language, which in the case of the genitive idea usually employs some other manuer of expression than the relative construction. Ex.: Han fick roo kronor, vilkas (or vars) användning han själv fick bestäm'ma. Spoken language: Han fick roo kronor, och användningen fick han själv bestäm'ma. He received 100 crowns, about the disposal of which he himself could decide.
(4) The relative pronouns $d e n$ and $d e n ' d \ddot{a} r$ are not used in the spoken language.
(5) In the spoken language the preposition regularly stands at the end of a relative clause. In the written language, on the contrary, it frequently precedes the relative pronoun; this is due to the frequent use of the relative vilken in the written language.
(6) While prepositions governing interrogative pronouns frequently stand at the end of the clause in the written language, this is to a greater extent characteristic of the spoken language.
(7) Vad for ena (plur.) is used substantively both in the spoken and in the written language; in the spoken language it may also be used adjectively.
(8) In the spoken language, a shorter form hurdan ${ }^{1}$ may be used for hurudan.
(9) Concerning the pronunciation of vad see $\S 134,4$.
(10) In easy speech the interrogative vilken is frequently pronounced vicken.

## EXERCISE XXIII.

And then ${ }^{2}$ she related how she formerly had roamed about everywhere. No forest had been too dense for her ${ }^{8}$, no mountain too steep. She wanted to see and know everything ${ }^{4}$ in nature, she wanted to reach everything ${ }^{4}$.

But one day she had wandered high up on a mountain, and out on a ledge she had caught sight of a little flower which she had never seen before. It was very beautiful. It grew so far ont over the abyss that she had at once understood that it would be hard to reach, but she could not turn her eyes from it, and her heart beat loudly with ${ }^{5}$ longing to pick $^{6}$ it.

Then ${ }^{2}$ she crept cautiously on [her] hands and feet out towards the abyss to pick the flower. She was already ${ }^{4}$ so close to it ${ }^{7}$ that she was extending her hand to take it, but then her foot slipped, and she fell. When she regained consciousness ${ }^{8}$, she found herself lying with [a] broken hip-bone.
"And now," she said to Violanta, "I cannot even pick the flowers in my own orchard. But you, who are young and healthy, you can climb up to the heights ${ }^{9}$ I cannot reach, and press into the thickets where I have never been. You shall fetch me the most hidden flowers ${ }^{9}$,

[^171]7 So close to it den så nära.
8 Ater kom till medvetande.
9 Use prepositire, but no postpositire, article. Look for other (undesignated) cases of this kind in this exercise.
the most beautiful butterflies, and then I shall tell you the most wonderful things about them. You don't dream of the secrets that are written in the smallest little stone; every flower has its own word to say."

Violanta listened to the fair lady. Her voice was so soft, and her eyes so beaming, and around her resting-place the violets smelled so sweetly. "Yes," said Violanta, "I want to stay here with you. But what shall I call you? I don't know what your name is ${ }^{1}$."-"Call me Penserosa," said the stranger.

And so Violanta entered the service of ${ }^{2}$ beautiful Penserosa. And everything that she found on her wandering she had to bring home. Then Penserosa told Violanta with beaming eyes about everything she had found. It was as if the flowers which she had picked and which already began to wither, again became fresh and told about the place where they had grown, and about everything they had seen and heard from the moment they peeped forth out of the earth. The dead butterflies again became living. The very stones muttered words which Penserosa could understand and explain. Everything in nature became so new and wonderful.

[^172]
## LESSON XXIV. <br> INDEFINITE PRONOUNS. ${ }^{1}$

292. Någon, in. ndgot ${ }^{2}$, plur. nàgra, some, some one ${ }^{8}$, something, any ${ }^{4}$, any one, anything, a few. Nagon is used either as adjective or noun. Gen. nagons, nagras. ${ }^{5}$ Ex.: Nagon visslade. Some one whistled. Jag gav gossen nägra slantar. I gave the boy a few pennies. Har han nagon vän? Has he any friend? Nej, han har icke ndgon. No, he hasn't any. Nagra av mina vänner ha varit här $i$ eftermiddag. Some of my friends have been here this afternoon. Har du nagot nytt att berät'ta? Have you anything new to tell? Att ingenting säga är bättre än att säga nágot dumt. It is better to say nothing than to say something foolish. For further examples see § 294.

Note. - Concerning ndgondera see § 306; concerning någonting see § 307 .
293. Ingen ${ }^{6}$, n. intet ${ }^{2}$, plur. inga, no, no one, nothing. It is used either as adjective or noun. Gen. ingens. In place of ingen, icke nagon may generally be used; in some cases, however, especially at the beginning of a clause, ingen must be employed. Ex.: Ingen vet, vart han gick. No one knows where he went. Ingen regel utan undantag. No rule without exceptions. Han äringen förfat'tare, men han

[^173]önskar bli det. He is not an author, but he wants to become one. Gossen har inga blommor kvar. The boy has no flowers left. Ingens utsikter voro bättre än hans. No one's prospects were better than his. For further examples see § 294.

Note. - Concerning ingendera see § 306; concerning ingenting see § 307.
294. Annan, 11. annat ${ }^{1}$, plur. and def. andra $\left(-c^{2}\right)$, other, else (this meaning frequently after nagon, ingen). It is used either as adjective or noun. Gen. annans, andras. Ex.: Vill du ha den andra hatten? Do you want the other hat? Han bor i ctt annat hus nu. He lives in another house now. Skulle ai icke tala om nagot annat? Should we not talk about something else? Ingen annan var hemma. No one else was at home. Är detta bord stort nog, eller vill du ha ett annat? Is this table large enough, or do you want another? Hans förstàn'd var lika gott som nagon annans. His mind was just as good as any one else's. Numera härskar en helt annan mening bland spràkforskarna. Now an entirely different opinion prevails among philologists. Dessa ord bety'da nágot helt annat. These words have an entirely different meaning. Intet av dessa ord har, sà vitt man vet, naggot etymolo'giskt sammanhang med nagot av de andra. None of these words has, as far as is known, any etymological connection with any of the others. For further illustrations see $\S 305$.

Note. - I. Observe that Eng. "another" means either "a different (one)" or "one more". Swedish en annan means "another" only in the sense of "a different (one)".
2. Various expressions connected with annan: en och an'nan, n. ett och an'nat, a few, some, some few, something, one or two things; en eller an'nan, n. ctt eller an'nat, some one or other,

[^174]something or other. These have a (rare) genitive when used substantively, en och an'nans, en eller an'nans. Ex.: Vi sprakade om ett och annat. We talked about various things. En och annan gaing a few times. Han var frinvarande av en eller annan anledning. He was absent from one cause or another.-On varan'nan see $\S 295$, note 2.-Andra $(-e)$ is also used as an ordinal numeral; see §§ 312; 318. -On the reciprocal varan'dra see § 264 , note 8.
295. Var, n. vart, each, every. Var is used almost only as an adjective, modifying nouns in the singular. The corresponding noun is enva'r, n. ettva'rt' (rare) or var och en', n. vart och et't; sometimes also en och va'r, n. ett och $v a^{\prime} r t^{1}$ is used. Gen. enva'rs, va'rs och en's. Ex.: Var har sin sed. Each one has his own way. Var gang jag kommer dit every time I go there. De resa till Euro'pa vart dir. They go to Furope every year. Enva'r vill bliva gammal, men ingen vill vara det. Everyone wants to become old, but no one wants to be old. Det vet var och en. Everyone knows that. Var och en av pojkarna fick berät ta en histo'ria. Each of the boys had to tell a story. Denna är lampad efter vars och ens smak och lynne. This is suited to each one's taste and disposition.

Note. - I. Observe the expressions var sin, n. var sitt, plur. var sina. Ex.: Vi fingo var sitt apple. We got each an apple. Jag gav gossarna var sitt apple. I gave the boys each an apple. De sutto pd var sin sida av bordet. They were sitting on opposite sides of the table. De gingo at var sitt hdll. They parted (went in opposite, different, directions).
2. Varan'nan, n. vartan'nat, means "every other", "every second". So var tre'dje, n. vart tre'dje, every third; var fja'rde, n. vart $\mathrm{fja}^{\prime} r d e$, every fourth, etc. In the substantive use, $s$ is added in the genitive. Ex.: Bdten gar varan'nan dag. The boat leaves every other day. - On v'aran'dra see § 264, note 8. - Concerning vardera see § 306 .
3. Varen'da, n. varten'da, every, every one. It is used as a (singular) adjective. For the corresponding noun, en, n. ett, is added.

[^175]296. Varje every, each, indeclinable adjective ${ }^{1}$, used with nouns in the singular. Ex.: Varje gata är lika vacker som denna. Every street is just as beautiful as this one. Han stannade vid varje hus. He stopped at every house. Varje särskilt fall each individual case.
297. All, n. allt, plur. alla, all. This may be used substantively only in the neuter singular and in the plural. Gen. (plur.) allas. When Eng. "all" means "whole", it must generally be rendered by hel ${ }^{2}$ in Swedish, but sometimes by all. Ex.: Han talade om' allt. He toldeverything. All mjölk är vit. All milk is white. Alla blevo sjuka. All became sick. All (or hela) världen vet det. All the world knows that. Av allt (or hela) mitt hjärta with all my heart; på allt sätt in every way; en gàng for alla once for all.

Note. - Concerning allting see §307.
298. Mången, n. mảnget ${ }^{3}$, plur. mảnga, many a, many. This is used either as adjective or noun. Gen. mangens, mảngas. Ex.: Mången gảng many a time. Många av gossarna voro trötta. Many of the boys were tired. Det bör heta: "Han är större än jag," men mången säger: "än mig." One should say, "He is larger than I," but many a one says, "than me." Mangen yngling drömmer om bragder. Many a youth dreams of achievements. I allmänhet kan under samtal mera utelämnas än i skrift, som skall komma infor mảngas ögon. More can usually be omitted in conversation than in writing, which is intended to come before the eyes of many. Enligt mangas uttal according to the pronunciation of many.

Flera ( $-e$ ) more, several (when there is no idea of comparison). In the meaning "more" there is also a

[^176]shorter form fler. Flera is comparative of manga. Gen. fleras, fleres. Ex.: Han gjorde detta pả feras begä'ran. He did this at the request of several. Flera fartyg hava anlänt. Several vessels have arrived.

Flesta ( $-e$ ) most, the majority, is the superlative of manga. Gen. -s. A noun following flesta is indefinite in form when there is no idea of comparison; otherwise it has definite form. Ex.: De flesta voro redan gangna. Most of them were already gone. De flesta tala mycket mera ologiskt än de själva tro. Most people speak much more illogically than they themselves think. De flesta inänniskor anse sig ha alldeles tillräckligt reda pa sitt modersmal. Most people consider themselves sufficiently familiar with their native language. De flesta fallen av sjukdomen ha inträffat pá Kungsholmen. Most of the cases of the disease have occurred in K. Jag hoppas, att mina uppgifter $i$ de flesta fall skola befin'nas korrek'ta. I hope that my statements will in most cases be found correct.
299. Få few, indeclinable plural. $F a$ is used either as adjective or noun. Note the expression nagra fá a few. The comparative is färre. Ex.: Fd veta det, och ännu färre borde veta det. Few know it and still fewer ought to know it.
300. Båda, bägge, both, used either as adjectives or nouns. Gen. $-s$. When badda and bägge are used as adjectives, the accompanying noun practically always has definite form, unless a demonstrative or possessive pronoun, or a genitive, is used in connection with the noun. They are often followed by tva for emphasis. Ex.: Bada gossama sprungo bort. Both the boys ran away. De voro bada gamla. They were both old. Bada tva kommo for tidigt. Both of them came too early. Bägge dessa foran'dringar both of these changes; bada dessa fragor both of these questions.

Bàda and bägge are rendered into English by "two" when they have the position and construction of definite adjectives, that is, when they stand between the prepositive def. article and a noun in the def. form, or between a genitive, possessive pronoun or demonstrative pronoun and a noun in the indef. form. Ex.: De badda gossarna äro bröder. The two boys are brothers. Hennes kvarlevande bäda systrar Bernhardi'na och Wilhelmi'na äro respetti've 82 (read àttitvà') och 80 (read àttio) àr. Her two surviving sisters B. and W. are 82 and 80 years old, respectively. De bäda foregàende kapitlen the two preceding chapters; de bägge första ordningstaten the two first ordinals; dessa bàda gravar these two graves; vi bäda (cf. page 91, foot-note 2) we two; en av de bägge (cf. § 150 , end) one of the two.

Note. - Concerning bådadera, bäggedera, see § 306 .
301. Somlig, n. somligt (also somt), plur. somliga, some. Gen. somligas. It is used either as adjective or substantive. The singular is used almost only with names of materials and with abstract nouns. Ex.: Somligt vin $\ddot{a} r$ nästan vitt. Some wine is almost white. Somliga voro för stora. Some were too large. Somliga människor bli förmögna utan att arbeta. Some people become wealthy without working. Att läsa somlig skönlitteratur kan i vissa avseenden jämföras med att drömma. The reading of some literature can in certain respects be compared with dreaming.
302. Fnda ( $-e$ ) only, only one. This has the regular definite form. It is used either as adjective or substantive; as a substantive it is always preceded by the indefinite or definite article. Gen. -s. Ex.: Detta är den enda stolen, som $\ddot{a} r$ kvar. This is the only chair that is left. En enda son an only son. Han är enda sonen. He is the only son. Han fick icke en enda. He did not get a single one. De voro de enda,
som icke kommo. They were the only ones who did not come.
303. Egen, n. eget ${ }^{1}$, plur. egna, own; only the indefinite form is used in this meaning; see examples, § 147, note. Swedish egen, while usually preceded by a genitive or a possessive pronoun as the English "own", frequently stands alone, a use which in English is rare and archaic. Ex.: Jag talar av egen erfarenhet. I speak from personal experience. Han bor $i$ eget hus. He lives in a house of his own. Jag har sett det med egna ogon. I have seen it with my own eyes. De lappar, som icke hava egna renar, biträda dem, som hava sädana. The Laps who do not have reindeer of their own, assist those who do. Människorna värde'ra det främmande mycket mera än det egna. People value that which is foreigu much more than what they themselves have.
304. $\mathrm{Man}^{2}$ one, we, you, they, people. Singular. It is used only substantively, as subject. When Swedish has man followed by a transitive verb, English often uses a passive construction. For the objective relation, the pronoun $\mathrm{en}^{3}$ is used, and for the genitive, ens ${ }^{8}$. The reflexive is sig, and the reflexive possessive, $\sin$ (see $\S \S 187 \mathrm{f}$., and page 122, foot-note 2). Ex.: Man kan inte gärna tiga, när folk ljuger pà en, i synnerhet om ens vänner börja tro pá förta'let. One can not very well remain silent when people lie about one, especially if one's friends begin to believe the slander. Man bör göra sitt bästa. One should do one's best. Man misstager sig lätt. People easily make mistakes. Man brukar ropa 'Stig in!"', när nàgon knackat pà ens dörr. It is customary to say "Come", whẹn someone has rapped at one's door. Man vet icke, vad som kan hāndaen. You

[^177]don't know what may happen to you. See also § 221 , note 4.
305. Den ena $(-e)$, n. det ena, the one. This is used either as adjective or noun. Gen. -s. Den ena sàväl som den andra one as well as the other. Han gick frän den ena till den andra. He went from one to the other. Den ena gossen var lat, den andra fitig. One of the boys was lazy, the other industrious.-Concerning en see § 304 .

Note. - I. In using adjectives as nouns, Swedish does not add en, corresponding to the English use of "one"; as, "this is a good one", "anyone", "this one". See § 150 .
2. On the interrogative vad för en see §286.-On en as numeral see § 312.-On en och annan, en eller annan, see § 294, note 2.
306. Compounds with -dera ${ }^{1}$ :
endera, n. ettdera, either, one of then nagondera, n. nagotdera, either, one or other ingendera, n. intetdera, neither
vardera, n. vartdera, each bäggedera, bàdadera (more rare), both
These are generally used as nouns; they have the regular genitive, enderas, ingenderas, etc. When they are employed as adjectives, the following noun has definite form. They refer to certain definitely known objects, very often, but not always (except for baggedera, bddadera) two in number. Ex.: I Ame'rika sökte de lycka och guld, men funno intetdera. They sought happiness and gold in America, but found neither. Inom vardera av dessa tre kategori'er erhảllas tre underavdelningar. In each of these three categories there are three subdivisions. Här behan'dlas vartdera av dessa bäda fall särskilt for sig. Each of these two cases is here treated by itself. Vartdera av dessa fyra uttryck each of these four expressions. Om $A B$ icke är

[^178]$=(\mathrm{read}$ lika med) $A C$, sả mảste endera vara större. If AB is not equal to AC, one of them must be the larger. Stundom stär ettdera objek'tet främst $i$ satsen. Sometimes one of the objects is placed first in the clause. Latom oss skärskada vartdera slaget for sig. Let us examine each kind by itself. Differen'sen i fraga om ljud eller bety'delse eller bädadera är oursprunglig. The difference in regard to sound or meaning, or both of these, is not original. Ingendera kan klaga. Neither can complain. Nagondera kommer väl. One of them will come, no doubt.
307. Compounds of -ting: nagonting something, anything; ingenting ${ }^{1}$ nothing; allting everything. They are used only substantively, as neuter singulars. Ex.: Han sade ingenting. He said nothing. Att ingenting säga är bättre än att säga nagot dumt. It is better to say nothing than to say something foolish. Här är ndgonting gott. Here is something good.
308. The interrogative pronouns (see § 282) followed by som helst are used as indefinite pronouns. When they are used adjectively, the noun which they modify is placed between the interrogative pronoun and som helst; as, vilken gosse som helst any boy. Ex.: Det kan vem som helst göra. Any one can do that. Du far taga vilken bok som helst. You may take any book. Vädret má bliva hurudant som helst. No matter what the weather may be.

Note. - The indefinite pronouns ndgon and ingen may also be followed by som helst: nagon som helst any (one) at all, ingen som helst no (one) at all.
309. The interrogative pronouns may also be used as indefinite relatives ${ }^{2}$, either alone or followed by a $n$ or helst. When they stand in the subject relation, som is added

[^179](cf. §S 278; 289, 1). Ex.: Begä'r, vad du vill. Ask whatever you wish. De valde, vem de ville, till konung. They chose as king whomever they wished. Vilken väg du än far, så blir resan trevlig. Whatever way you go, the journey will be pleasant. Jag kommer att resa, hurudant vädret än blir. I shall go, whatever the weather will be. Vem som har gjort det, sả bör han straffas. Whoever has done it, he should be punished. De ofredade, vem de mötte. They molested whomever they met. Han hade ständig framgang, vad helst han tog sig för. Whatever he undertook, he had constant success.
310. ACCENT: Allting has the acute accent. - Andra usually has the grave accent.
311. COLLOQUIALISMS: (i) In the spoken language the form inget is used as the neuter of ingen, in place of the written intet.
(2) The indefinite pronouns enva'r, en och var, varje, bäggedera, bảdadera and bảda (but not bägge) belong primarily to the written language.
(3) In the spoken language, $d e^{1}$ they, is very often used instead of man. Ex.: De säger, att han har rest till Ame'rika. They say that he has gone to America.-En may in easy speech be used in place of man, that is also as subject, but this use is rather dialectical. Ex.: En ${ }^{2}$ vet inte, hur en ska' fä varmt i rummena, när de' ä' så kallt ute. One doesn't know how to get the rooms warm when it's so cold outside.
(4) In the spoken language, the singular mangen is not employed except in proverbs.
(5) In easy speech, nảgon and annan may be shortened to nản, ann, nágot to nát. So nágonting becomes nản-

[^180]ting. Cf. § 273, 11. Ex.: En ann ä' sà go' som en ann. One man's as good as another. - In Central Sweden, ndgot may in easy speech be pronounced náge.

## EXERCISE XXIV.

Violanta never grew weary of sitting ${ }^{1}$ at Penserosa's feet and listening to the words of wisdom that passed out from her mouth. The longer Violanta lived there, the more she liked to be there. She wanted to become acquainted with ${ }^{2}$ all the secrets of nature, and for that ${ }^{3}$ a whole life-time was not long enough ${ }^{4}$.

Summer passed like a single day of sunshine. Then one evening an icy cold breeze blew over the river, and the first withered leaves came whirling down from the chestnut-trees. "Oh," said Penserosa and sighed, "that was the first greeting of winter. Now it will soon drive ${ }^{5}$ us away from here. Now the storks and swallows and ducks will fly ${ }^{5}$ away, but you, Violanta, you will always stay ${ }^{5}$. with me, won't you ${ }^{6}$ ?"- "'Always', that is a hard word," answered Violanta. "I'll promise ${ }^{5}$ nothing.""In that" you do right," said Penserosa and looked grave. "For you would not keep it."

Violanta became red in her face. For, to be sure ${ }^{8}$, one can say such things about one's self, but one doesn't like to hear others say them. "Why don't you think that I would keep my promise?" asked Violanta.- "I [can] see that by ${ }^{9}$ your eyes", answered Penserosa, and looked deep into her eyes. ${ }^{10}$ "In there ${ }^{11}$ are ${ }^{12}$ all the wild waves of the

[^181]7 Adverbial compound; cf. foot note 3.
8 To be sure nog.
9 På.
10 Såg henne djupt i ögonen.
11 Därinne. See foot-notes 3 and 7.
12 Gå.
sea."-"The wild waves of the sea. The wild waves of the sea," sang ${ }^{1}$ the forest above her head. "All the wild waves of the sea. All the wild waves of the sea," roared ${ }^{1}$ the river at her feet. - "Oh, yes," sighed Violanta, "the wild waves of the sea. It is to them [that] I long [to go]. ${ }^{2}$ If I could only get to see ${ }^{3}$ them once. I want to see them. I want to reach them, all the wild waves of the sea."

When Violanta awoke [the] next morning ${ }^{4}$ there was a storm ${ }^{5}$. She dressed quickly and ran out. The storm took hold of ${ }^{6}$ her dress, lifted her like a leaf, and she whirled over the plain into the forest. "The wild waves of the sea," roared ${ }^{1}$ the forest. "The wild waves of the sea," stormed ${ }^{1}$ the river. She flew onward like a wild swan with her veil fluttering like wings behind her. From the forest she came out upon the open heath where there grew neither trees nor bushes, and there she went ${ }^{5}$ along with double speed. The storm carried her onward, nearer and nearer to the sea. Her feet scarcely touched the ground, and she could no longer breathe. All of a sudden a blast of wind threw her down, and she lay ${ }^{7}$ under a ridge of sand, unconscious.

[^182]4 Nästa morgon.
5 Impersonal construction; as, it stormed, it zent.

6 Took hold of tog $\mathbf{i}$.
7 Blev liggande; see \& 250, note 1.

## LESSON XXV.

## NUMERALS.

312. CARDINALS
313. en, n. ett, one
314. tvả (tvenne, tu)
315. tre (trenne)
316. fyra
317. fcm
318. sex
319. sju
320. àtta
321. nio
322. tio
ir. eliva
323. tolv
324. tretton
325. fjorton
326. femton
327. sexton
328. sjutton
329. aderton
330. nitton
331. tjugu, tjugo
332. tjuguen', n. tjuguet't
333. tjugutva'
334. trettio, tretti
335. tretti(o)en', n. tret-

$$
t i(o) e t^{\prime} t
$$

40. fyrtio, fyrti ${ }^{2}$
41. femtio, femti

ORDINALS
första (-e) first
andra $^{3}(-e)$
tredje
fjärde
femte
sjette
sjunaie
àttonde
nionde
tionde.
elfte
tolfte
trettonde
fjortonde
femtonde
sextonde
sjuttonde
adertonde
nittonde
tjugonde
tjugufor'sta (-e)
tjuguan'dra (-e)
trettionde
tretti(o) för'sta (-e)
fyrtionde ${ }^{2}$
femtionde

[^183]60. sextio, sexti
70. sjuttio, sjutti
80. àttio, åtti
90. nittio, nitti
100. (ett) hundra
roi. hundra en, n. hundra ett
200. två hundra
211. två hundra elva

1,000. (ett) tusen
1, 165. ett tusen ett hundra sexti(o)fem
sextionde
sjuttionde
àttionde
nittionde
hundrade
hundraför'sta
tva hundrade
tva hundra elfte
tusende
ett tusen ett hundra sexti(0)femte

1,000,000. en millio'n
2,000,000. två millio'ner

## REMARKS ON THE CARDINALS. ${ }^{1}$

313. When used as adjectives the cardinals are indeclinable, except that en has the neuter eit. This is declined also in compound numerals. Ex.: en gosse one boy, ett bord one table, tretti(o)et't àr och tjuguen' dagar thirty-one years and twenty-one days.

When occasionally employed as nouns, cardinals have the usual genitive in $-s$; as, de Adertons beslu't the decision of the Eighteen (of the Swedish Academy). Det är ej ens skull, att tvả träta. It is not the fault of one that two quarrel.

Note. - When hundra and tusen are used as nouns, they may also have the forms hundrade and tusende, which are neuters of the Fourth Declension; these are in ordinary style used chiefly in the definite form; as, det första tusendet the first thousand.
314. Tvenne and trenne are not infrequently employed in place of tva and tre, but they never occur in compound

[^184]numerals; as, tvenne (or tvá) gainger two times, but only tjugutvá. I vardera av dessa tre orter har jag tillbragt omkring tvenne ảrtionden. In each of these three places I have spent about two decades.
$T u$ is in certain expressions used in place of $t w d$; as, pá tu man hand in private, alone; de unga tu the young couple; det är icke tu tal om den saken there is no doubt about that matter; ett tu tre' suddenly; ett, tu, tre, used in counting before something is to happen; klockan är tu (or tvá) ( $t u$ in this case not used in Götaland) it is two o'clock. Cf. the adverb itu' in two, in pieces; as, skära itu' cut in two; g\& itu' break (intr.).

Note. - Concerning bdda, bägge, see § 300.
315. Tretti, fyrti, etc., for trettio, fyrtio, etc., are used freely; except in the elevated style; in compound numerals the shorter form is particularly frequent; as, trettien', fyrtitre'. So also in the case of ordinals; as, trettifor'sta, fyrtitre' dje.
316. Hundra and tusen are usually preceded by ett except in counting. Before hundra, however, ett may be omitted at the beginning of a compound numeral; as, ett hundra en or hundra en, but always ett tusen ett hundra en.

Och is not employed to connect hundreds with tens.
317. Cardinals are in certain cases used after nouns where ordinals followed by the noun would be more natural, as in English; as, sid. 8 (read sidan atta, or sid àtta) page 8; àr 1913 (read nitton hundra tretton) (in) the year 1913; kap. 7 (read kapit'el sju) chapter 7.

## REMARKS ON THE ORDINALS.

318. The ordinals forsta ( $-e$ ) and andra ( $-e$ ) have the form of weak adjectives; the others are indeclinable adjectives, ending in $-e$; cf. § I53. A following noun always
has the def. form; the ordinals are also generally preceded by the prepositive def. article, but not always; see $\S 149$.

When used as nouns, ordinals have the usual genitive in -s; as, Karl den tolftes bedrif'ter the feats of Charles the Twelfth. Den tredjes anförande var bäst. The address of the third speaker was best.

Note. - I. As in English, only the last member of a compound numeral is an ordinal; as, tjugufor'sta.
2. The ordinals are sometimes written with the arabic numeral alone, sometimes with the ending indicated; as, den 7 juni June 7 , den 6:e, den 2:a, den 1o:de, den r:sta, 3 pers. sing.

## VARIOUS FORMATIONS CONNECTED WITH NUMERALS.

319. Formed with cardinals: (i) Once, twice, eto. For these, Swedish employs the cardinal with gang time, plur. gảnger; as, en gàng ${ }^{1}$, tvả gánger, tre ganger.
(2) Simple, double, two-fold, triple, eto. The Swedish word for "simple" is enkel (n. enkelt, plur. enkla); that for "double" is dubbel (n. dubbelt, plur. dubbla). Above two ${ }^{2}$, -dubbel, or, less frequently, -faldig ( $\mathrm{n} .-t$, plur. -a) is added to the cardinal; as, tredubbel or trefaldig, fyrdubbel or fyrfaldig.
(3) One by one, by twos, eto. Swedish expresses the distributive idea by means of the repeated cardinal with och between, or by adding $i$ sänder to the cardinal; as, tvả och tvả or tvả $i$ sänder.
(4) Kinds of. Swedish expresses this idea by means of the neuter word slag kind, with an added $-s$; as, ett slags, tva slags, tre slags, mảnga slags.

[^185](5) Swedish uses tal (n.) number, to denote the decade or century; as, 80 -talet the eighties, the period (i8) $80-89$; I800-talet the nineteenth century, the period $1800-1899$.

Tal also denotes an approximate number; as, ett tiotal about ten.

Tal is used with an added $-s$ in a few expressions like hundratals hundreds (of); tusentals thousands (of); as, hundratals flugor hundreds of flies.
(6) Names of the numerals, particularly through "twelve", are formed by adding to the cardinal the ending $-a$, before which an unstressed vowel is dropped. These are nouns of the First Declension. Ex.: en etta a figure 1, en tvảa, en fyra, en nia; fyran the figure 4, nian; tva treor two threes. Note also: en femma a five-crown bill; en tia a ten-crown bill; en femtia a fifty-crown bill; en sexa a light supper. Sjuttiofern'man är förse'nad. (Train) number 75 is behind time.
320. FORMED WITH ORDINALS. (i) First(ly), second(ly), etc. For these ideas Swedish uses the expressions för det första, för det andra, etc.
(2) Fractions. One-half is en halv. Ex.: Man kan gá en halv mil pà en timme. You can walk half a mile in an hour. Ett halvt äpple half an apple. Note also: tvá och en halv timme two hours and a half; en halvtimme half an hour.

Denominators above two are formed by adding del part, plur. delar, to the ordinals; as, en tredjedel a third, tva tredjedelar two thirds, en fjärdedel, en sjundedel. In the case of ordinals ending in -onde, -de is dropped before -del, except in the elevated style; as, en átton(de)del, en nion(de)del, en tretton(de)del; so also in hundra(de)del, tusen(de)del.

When used before a noun, the ending-dels is added to the ordinal both in the singular and plural; as, ett fjürde-
dels år a quarter of a year, tre fjärdedels air three fourths of a year; but en fjärdedel av ảret a quarter of the year, tre fjärdedelar av áret three fourths of the year.

Note.-1. In place of en och en halv, halvan'nan, n. halv( $t$ )an'nat is frequently used; so, though much more rarely, halvtre'dje for tva och en halv, etc. A following noun is put in the singular.
2. In place of fjardedel, kvart (5) is in some cases employed; when it stands before a noun, $s$ is added; as, en kvarts timme a quarter of an hour; en kvarts mil a quarter of a mile.
3. Observe: den förre the former, den senare the latter.
4. On varan'nan, var tre'dje, etc., see § 295, note 2.

## EXPRESSIONS OF TIME AND DATE.

321. TIME OF DAY. Note the following expressions:

Hur mycket är klockan?
Vad är klockan?
Hur dags är det?
Klockan är ett (fem). It is one (five) o'clock.
Klockan är halv fem. It is half past four.
Tio minu'ter över fem. Ten minutes past five.
En kvart över fem. A quarter past five.
En kvart före ( $i$, till) fem. A quarter to five.
Klockan fattas tio minu'ter i fyra. It is ten minutes to four.
Klockan är tre kvart pả fem. It is a quarter to five.
Klockan är mer, än jag trodde. It is later than I thought. Kom klockan ett (halv ett, fem). Come at one (half past twelve, five).
Vid femtiden. (At) about five o'clock.
På slaget fem (or, klockan fem preci's). Five o'clock sharp. Klockan slår (har slagit) fem. The clock is striking (has struck) five.
322. DATE, ADDRESS:

Den 5 (read femte) juni. The fifth of June. June 5 . Ar 1913. (In) the year 1913.
Drottninggatan 16. I6 Queen Street.
323. ACCENT. Tusen has the acute accent. Tretti(o) - nitti(o), and hundra usually have the acute accent, but sometimes the grave.
324. colloquialisms: (i) Except in case of intentional rendition of the written form, nio, tio and tjugo ( $-u$ ) are pronounced nie, tie, tjuge.-Tretti, fyrti, trettiför'sta, etc., are the forms generally used in speaking, and also in reading.-Except in careful speech, aderton ${ }^{1}$ is often pronounced arton.-Fyrti(o) is pronounced forti. ${ }^{2}$
(2) The words tvenne and trenne are not used in the spoken language.
(3) In easy speech, fjärndel is used in place of fjärdedel. -The longer forms ending in -dedel are not employed in the spoken language except for emphasis; as, niondedel.
(4) On the whole, compounds with -dubbel are more common in the spoken language, while those with -faldig are more common in the written. To a certain extent, however, there is a difference in meaning, and not in style, -dubbel being used of measure, -faldig of time. Ex.: Vi fick tredubbla lexor. We got lessons three times the usual length. Mängfaldiga gảnger many many times.
(5) In the written language, en och en, etc., are preferred to en $i$ sänder, etc., which are more colloquial.
(6) In easy speech, tjuen', tjutva', etc., are often used instead of tjugeen', tjugetva', etc.

## EXERCISE XXV.

At first she did not know where she was. Everything about her was desolate. But then she.got up and went

[^186]farther out on the sand. She saw something blue lying behind the ridges. It was the sea.

But the storm had died away, and the sea was entirely calm. As far [as] she could see [there] was ${ }^{1}$ not a sign of land, not a boat, not a ship. Clear to the outermost horizon all was one single glittering, quiet expanse of blue ${ }^{2}$.
"This is not the sea," thought Violanta. "It is the sky." And she went clear down to the edge of the water and put the tip of her shoe in the water. "Is this the sea," said Violanta again and looked about her. "I hadn't imagined the sea like that ${ }^{4}$. Shall I never get to see you, all the wild waves of the sea?'"

But, behold. Then it grew dark at the horizon. The outermost line of the sea became dark blue, then coalblack. A whole host of little rippling waves flowed forth. Then Violanta laughed and clapped her hands ${ }^{5}$. "Now they are coming. Now they are coming, the wild waves of the sea." Then the whole sea raised itself, dark blue and roaring, and came in large columns toward the shore. "The wild waves of the sea," said Violanta. "They are glorious to look at." But nevertheless she felt a shudder.

But then the waves rose and stretched $u p^{6}$ their necks. They became green, they became dark blue, they became coal-black. They all got white foam on the tops. With [a] furious noise they roared against the shore. "Ugh, ugh," whispered Violanta, "they are awful, the wild waves of the sea." But the sea rose higher and higher. The waves became [as] high as houses, as churches, as steeples. There were black abysses between them.

[^187]4 Like that sad. Place first.
5 Tr.: "clapped in the hands".
6 Sträckte på.

They crept together, and rose up, sprang forward like tigers, roared like wild lions, howled like evil spirits. Then Violanta lifted her arms in terror to the sky. "The wild waves of the sea," she cried. "The wild waves of the sea. Whither shall I flee?" She turned to get away, but the sea was after her. The waves knocked her down. She uttered only one single shriek, and then she disappeared in the deep. And the waves danced above her, tugged at ${ }^{1}$ her, and crushed her, laughed and sang, shouted and howled. "Do you know us now?" they called out to her as ${ }^{2}$ she was floating like white foam over the deep. "Do you know us now? All the wild waves of the sea."

## APPENDIX I.

## DISTRIBUTION OF VARIOUS TYPES OF NOUNS IN THE DIFFERENT DECLENSIONS.

1. MONOSYLLABLES are distributed as follows:

DECL.
1
2
3
4
5
Irreg. (-r)

ENDING IN
consonant cons., vowel consonant vowel consonant vowel

GENDER
common
common
com., few n.
neuter
neuter, few com. common

EXAMPLES
only ros, vag
stol, sjo
vän, vin
knä
hus, mil
sko
2. NOUNS ENDING IN A VOWEL are distributed as follows:
A) Monosyllables (various vowels):

| DECL. | GENDER | EXAMPLES |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2 | common | $s j \delta, d$ |
| 4 | nenter | $k n \dot{a}, b i$ |
| Irreg. | common | $s k o, t \dot{a}$ |

B) More than one syllable:
a) Stressed final 3 vowel (various vowels)
b) Unstr. final vowel ( $-a$ in 1 decl.; in the others, $e$, with 4 few exceptions 5 in 4 and 5) Irreg.
com., neuter
armé, bageri'

Note 1 . In general, nouns ending in unstressed $e$ belong to the Second Declension if of common gender, but to the Fourth if they are neuter. But note particularly in the Third Declension nouns ending in else and -arie, and in the Fifth those ending in -are, -ande.

Note 2. In general, neuters ending in a vowel belong to the Fourth Declension (which contains only such), while neuters ending in a consonant belong to the Fifth. The Third Declension contains not
a few neuters ending in a consonant, and some ending in a vowel, practically all of foreign origin.

Note 3. Final stressed vowels remain upon the addition of a plural ending beginning with a vowel; as, sjö, plur. sjöar; bageri', plur. bagerier. Final unstressed vowels (that is, $-a$ and $-e$ ) are dropped upon the addition of a plural ending beginning with a vowel; as, ficka, plur. flickor; histo'ria, plur. histo'rier; gosse, plur. gossar; händelse, plur. händelser.
3. NOUNS ENDING IN -EL, -EN, -ER are distributed as follows: COMMON COMMON COMMON NEUTER
-EL 1, only toffel 2, fagel 3, muskel 5, hagel
-EN 2, socken 5, vapen
-ER 2, moder 3, neger 5, fönster

Note 1. There are in the Fiftli Declension a few conmongender nouns ending in -er; as, broder, meter, bota'niker.

Note 2. The vowel of the endings eel, -en, eer is dropped upon adding a plural ending beginning with a vowel; as, toffel, plur. tofflor; socken, plur. socknar; neger, plur. negrer.
4. VOWEL-MODIFICATION. The following nouns, almost all of common gender, modify the vowel in connection with the formation of the plural:
2 Decl.: moder, dotter.
3 Decl.: and, bok, bonde, fot (also plur. fot), hand, land (also plur. land), natt, rot, son, stad, bokstav, strand, tand, and a few less common nouns (for complete list, see my Phonology).
5 Decl.: broder, fader, man, gds, lus, mus.

## APPENDIX II.

## THE POSTPOSITIVE ARTICLE.

## 1. RULES FOR THE USE OF THE VARIOUS FORMS:

## A) SINGULAR

(1) -en is used with all common-gender nouns ending in a consonant, except those ending in unstressed ell, eer, -or; see (2) below; cf. also (3), note. Ex.: ros, def. rosen; natt, natten; man, mannen.

Note. - Most nouns ending in unstressed -en use the indefinite form also as the definite (see Appendix II, 2). A few, however, drop the $e$ of the suffix and add -en; as, socken, def. socknen; öken, öknen.
(2) $-n$ is used with all common-gender nouns ending in an unstressed vowel, with monosyllables ending in a vowel (stressed), and with all nouns ending in unstressed eel, eer, oor. Ex.: flicka, def. fickan; gosse, gossen; händelse, händelsen; lärare, läraren; hustru, hustrun; d, àn; ko, kon; toffel, toffeln; fàgel, fageln; muskel, muskeln; moder, modern; neger, negern; bota'niker, bota'nikern; profes'sor, profes'sorn.
(3) $-(e) n$ is used with nouns of more than one syllable ending in a stressed vowel; these are nouns of foreign origin belonging to the Third Declension. Ex.: armé, def. $\operatorname{armé}^{(e)} n$; fotografi', fotografi'(e)n.

Note. - In addition, $-(e) n$ is employed with a few nouns ending in $l$ and $r$; as, sommar, def. sommar(e) $n$; fjäril, def. fjä$\operatorname{ril}(e) n$.
(4) -et is used with all neuter nouns ending in a consonant and with all of more than one syllable ending in a stressed vowel (which colloquially may have only $-t$ ); these latter are of foreign origin and belong to the Third Declension. Ex.: hus, def. huset; bageri' bageri'et.

Note 1. Nouns ending in el, -en, ecr drop the $e$ of these suffixes upon adding -et. Ex.: hagel, def. haglet; vapen, vapnet; fönster, fönstret.

Note 2. Nouns ending in -ium and -eum drop -um before adding -et; as, laborato'rium, def. laborato'riet; muse'um, muse'et.
(5) $-t$ is used with all neuter nouns ending in an unstressed vowel. Ex.: fängelse, def. fängelset; äpple, äpplet; hjärta, hjärtat; pia'no, pia'not; kilo, kilot; öga, ögat.
(6) $-(e) t$ is used with all monosyllabic neuter nouns ending in a vowel (stressed). These belong to the Fourth Declension. Ex.: $k n a ̈$, def. $k n \tilde{a}(e) t$. Cf. also under (4).

SUMMARY FOR THE SINGULAR. Nouns ending in CONSONANT add -en (but $-n$ after unstr. -el, eer, or ) (but en or $-n$ after a few suffixes)

VOWEL, unstressed................... - $n$
stressed, monosyllables....-n

$$
-(e) t
$$

str., more than one syll. - (e)n
OBSERVE: Common-gender nouns in el, er retain the vowel of the suffix upon adding $-n$; common-gender nouns in een drop the vowel of the suffix upon adding -en, or, in most cases, use the indef. form as definite. Neuter nouns in el, -en, eer drop the $e$ of the suffix upon adding -et.
B) PLURAL. The general rule is:
$-n a$ after a plural ending in $r$
$-a$ after the ending $-n$
-en when the plur. indef. $=$ sing. indef.
In detail:
$-n a$ is used after $r$ : ( 1 ) after the plural endings -or, -ar, eer, $-r$. Ex.: fickorna, gossarna, bageri'erna, korna.
(2) after common-gender nouns ending in eer which add no plural ending. Ex.: bröderna, bota'nikerna.
(3) after a vowel in the Fifth Decl.; but the vowel is dropped; as, lärar(e)na. (In addition, $n a$ is used in cases like sökandena, after a vowel, where there is no $r$.)
$-a$ is used with plurals formed by adding $-n$ (except ogon, öron). Ex: bina.
-en is used with nouns which add no plur. ending (both genders), except as above; -en is used also with ögon and öron. Ex.: borden, gässen, männen, ögonen.
Note. - Nouns ending in -el, een, eer drop the $e$ of the suffix upon adding en. Ex.: haglen, vapnen, fönstren.
2. NOUNS USING THE INDEFINITE FORM ALSO AS THE DEFINITE:
(1) Verbal abstracts (common-gender) ending in unstressed -an; as, början, predi'kan, undran, traktan, längtan. Ex.: Den hemska klagan hade icke förstum'mats. Att själva början väcker intres'se eller nyfikenhet, är ju dd nödvändigt.
(2) Most common-gender nouns ending in unstressed -en; as, fröken, borgen, exa'men, myrten, leka'men, tenta'men, orden. Ex.: Är fröken hemma?
(3) In general, neuter words of foreign origin ending in unstressed $-u s$ and $-u m$ (usually not $-i u m$ and -eum). Ex.: genus, kasus, faktum, centrum.

Note. - Do not confuse the idea of nouns using the indef. form also as the definite (that is, using the indef. form when most nouns would be in the def. form) with that of nouns being indef. in form although definite in meaning (that is, in constructions where all nouns would be indef. in form although definite in meaning).

## APPENDIX III.

## USE OF -E AS ENDING. MALE SEX.

1. The ending $-e$ is used instead of $-a$ in referring to persons of the male sex in the following cases:
a) Denne, samme, densam'me.
b) Adjectives used as nouns preceded by the prepositive definite article.
c) Attributive adjectives, mostly in the def. sing., less often in the def. plur., rarely in the indef. plural.
d) Sometimes in the def. plur. of words whose plural ends in -ar, and with nouns of the Fifth Declension ending in are ( $e$ of suffix dropped).
2. The ending $-e$ is always (that is, for both genders, and irrespective of sex) used in place of $-a$ in the following cases:
a) Past participles in -ad.
b) Superlatives in -ast.

Note. - Observe also that some indeclinable adjectives end in $-e$; as, obde. Note especially present participles in -ande, -ende, and comparatives in -are, -re.

## APPENDIX IV.

## LIS' OF STRONG AND IRREGULAR VERBS.

Note. - The following list has been compiled principally from "Svenska Akademiens Ordlista" (7 ed.).

Forms that follow the rules of the grammar are usually not given (as, past participle, present singular and plural, gal, far, sände, gifte, etc.). In cases like bliva, bli, the pres. sing. is bliver or blir. The past plural is given only when it differs from the past singular. Irregularities in the present tense and the past participle are, among other matters, treated under REMARKS. No account is taken of the imperative and the present participle.

Among irregularities are included also verbs that are conjugated in full, or in part, according to more than one conjugation. In the case of the Weak Conjugations, only the number (I, IIa, IIb, III) has usually been given (under the second column). These numbers mean that the verb has all the forms belonging to the conjugation in question, except as modified under REMARKS. Forms belonging to different conjugations are (except in the infinitive and under REMARKS) put in different lines, but in the case of the Weak Conjugations, numerals representing two or more conjugations are usually put together; as, I or IIa.
$\begin{array}{ll}(\quad)=\text { colloquial } & *=\text { poetical } \\ {[\quad \text { p. p. }=\text { past participle }}\end{array}$

INFIN. PAST
bedja, be bad, bảdo


| infin. | PAST | supine | meaning | REMARKS |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| betala | I, IIa or IIb |  | pay | Pres. always -ar |
| bida | I |  | bide |  |
|  | * bidde | * bitt |  |  |
| binda | band, bundo | bundit | tie, bind |  |
| bita | bet | bitit | bite |  |
| bjuda | bjöd | bjudit | offer, invite | Supine and p.p.also $\dagger$ budit, †buden |
| bliva, bli | blev | blivit | become, be |  |
| bringa | I |  | bring | Pres. always -ar |
|  | bragte | bragt |  |  |
| brinna | brann, brunno | brunnit | burn |  |
| brista | brast, brusto | brustit | break, burst |  |
| bryna | brynte | brynt | whet | IIb instead of IIa |
| bryta | bröt | brutit | break |  |
| bära | bar, buro | burit | carry, bear |  |
| böra | borde | bort | ought |  |
| böta | I or IIb |  | pay a fine |  |
| dela | I or (IIb) |  | divide | Pres. always -ar |
| dimpa | damp, [dumpo] | [dumpit] | fall |  |
| draga, dra | drog | dragit | pull, draw |  |
| dricka | drack, drucko | druckit | drink |  |
| driva | drev | drivit | drive |  |
| drypa | dröp | drupit | drip |  |
| dräpa | IIb |  | kill | Also p.p. [dräpen] |
|  | $\dagger$ drap, †dråpo | [dräpit] |  |  |
| dväljas | dvaldes | dvalts | dwell |  |
| dyka | IIb or I dök |  | dive |  |
| dö |  | dött | die |  |
|  | dog |  |  |  |
| dölja | dolde | dolt | conceal |  |
| falla | föl1 | fallit | fall |  |
| fara | for | farit | go, travel |  |
| fika | I or IIb |  | seek to |  |
| finna | fann, funno | funnit | find |  |
| flyga | flög | flugit | fly |  |
| flyta | flöt | flutit | flow, float |  |
| fnysa | IIb |  | sniff |  |
|  | fnös | [fnusit] |  |  |


| INFIN: frysa | PAST <br> frös | SUPINE <br> frusit | Meaning <br> freeze | REMARKS |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| frälsa | IIb or I |  | save | Pres. always -ar |
| fả |  | fàtt | get | $P . p$.ảter-fådd, få |
|  | fick, fingo |  |  | gen |
| fästa | IIb or I |  | fasten |  |
| förena | I |  | unit | Iso |

förgäta †förgat
förläna I or [IIb]
förnim- förnam, förna nummo
försmäda I
†försmädde
försona I or *IIb
försvinna
förvärva I or IIa
gala gol
IIa
gitta
gittade
gat
gitte
giva, ge gav, gåvo
gjuta göt
glida gled
glädja gladde
gläfsa IIb or I
gnaga IIa or [I]
gnida gned
gripa grep
gråta grät
gräva IIa tgrov

| gå | gick, gingo | go | P. p. gången |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| gälda | I | pay | P. p. also gulden, |  |
| gälla | IIa or I |  | geld |  |

förgätit forget grant
förnum- perceive mit
scoff at
$\dagger$ försmätt
atone for Pres. always -ar
disappear See svinna
acquire
galit crow
gittat care Pres. always -er; no plur. of gat
givit give
(gett)
gjutit pour, cast
glidit glide
glatt gladden Pres.gläder,glädja yelp
gnaw P.p.also [gnagen]
[gnagit]
gnidit rub
gripit seize
gråtit weep
dig
go
pay
geld
cf. Förenta staterna
No past plur.

| 256 | STRONG AND IRREGULAR VERBS |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | APP. IV

APP. IV



| INFIN. | PAST | SUPINE | MEANING | PEMARKS |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| sjunka | sjönk | sjunkit | sink |  |
| skapa | I or (*IIb) |  | create | Pres. always -ar |
| skava | IIa |  | scrape | P.p. also skaven |
|  |  | skavit |  |  |
| skilja | skilde | skilt | separate |  |
| skina | sken | skinit | shine |  |
| skira | I or IIa |  | clarify |  |
| skjuta | sköt | skjutit | shoot |  |
| skola | skulle |  | shall | Pres. skall, skola |
| skona | I or (*IIb) |  | spare | Pres. always -ar |
| skrida | skred | skridit | move |  |
| skrika | skrek | skrikit | cry, shriek |  |
| skrinna | I |  | glide |  |
|  | skrann, skrunno | skrunnit |  |  |
| skriva | skrev | skrivit | write |  |
| skrympa | IIb |  | become | $P \cdot p . a l s o$ skrumpen |
|  |  | skrumpit | wrinkled |  |
| skryta | skröt | skrutit | boast |  |
| skvätta | IIb |  | squirt | Strong form not |
|  | skvatt |  |  | transitive |
| skälva | IIa |  | tremble | No plur. of skalv |
|  | skalv |  |  |  |
| skära | skar, skuro | skurit | cut |  |
| slinka | slank, [slunko] | [slunkit] | slink |  |
| slinta | slant, [slunto] | [sluntit] | slip |  |
| slippa | slapp, sluppo | sluppit | not to have |  |
| slita | slet | slitit | tear |  |
| sluka | I |  | devour |  |
|  | slök | slukit |  |  |
| sluta | slöt | slutit | close |  |
| sluta | I |  | finish, end |  |
|  | slöt |  |  |  |
| slå | slog | slagit | strike | Cf. slảss fight |
| smita | sniet | smitit | sneak |  |
| smyga | smög | smugit | steal, slip |  |
| smälla | IIa |  | make a re- | Strong form not |
|  | small |  | port | transitive |


| infin. | PAST | SUPINE | meaning | REMARKS |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| smälta | IIb <br> smalt, smulto | smultit | melt | Strong forms not transitive |
| smörja | smorde | smort | grease |  |
| snida | I |  | carve | Pres. -ar or -er |
| snyta | snöt | snutit | blow the nose |  |
| snärja | snärjde <br> *†snärde | snärjt | ensnare | P. p. also * $\dagger$ snärd |
| ${ }^{\text {s }}$ sona | I or IIb |  | atone for | Pres. always -ar; cf. försona |
| sova | sov | sovit | sleep |  |
| spara | I or IIa |  | save |  |
| spela | I or (*IIb) |  | play | Pres. always -ar |
| spinna | spann, spunno | spunnit | spin |  |
| spricka | sprack, sprucko | spruckit | crack |  |
| sprida | IIa spred |  | spread |  |
| springa | sprang, sprungo | sprungit | run |  |
| spritta | spratt, [sprutto] | [spruttit] | start, jump |  |
| sprätta | IIb or I |  | rip, dandyize | Sprätta $=$ kick, sprinkle, only IIb |
| spörja | sporde | sport | ask, learn | Pres. sing. pass. spörjes, spörjs or ( $\dagger$ spörs) |
| sticka | stack, stucko | stuckit | stick | Sticka $=k n i t$, belongs to I |
| stiga | steg | stigit | step |  |
| stinga | [stang], stungo | stungit | sting |  |
| stinka | stank, [stunko] | [stunkit] | stink |  |
| stjäla | stal, stulo | stulit | steal |  |
| stjälpa | IIb [*stalp] |  | upset | Strong form not transitive |
| strida | IIa stred | stridit | fight |  |
| stryka | strök | strukit | stroke |  |
| stupa | 1 |  | fall |  |
|  | stöp |  |  |  |
| stå |  | stått | stand | $P . p$ in över-stản- |
|  | stod |  |  | den,för-stảdd |
| städja | stadde | statt | engage | Pres. sing. städjer |


| INFIN. stödja | PAST <br> stödde | SUPINE <br> stött | MEANING support | REMARKS Pres. sing. stödjer or stöder |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| suga | sög | sugit | suck |  |
| supa | söp | supit | drink |  |
| svida | sved | svidit | smart |  |
| svika | svek | svikit | disappoint. |  |
| svinna | svann, svunno | svunnit | vanish | $C f$. försvinna |
| svälja | sväljde | sväljt | swallow |  |
|  | [svalde] | [svalt] |  |  |
| svälta | svalt, svulto IIb | svultit | starve | Strong forms not transitive |
| svärja, svära | svor, svuro | svurit | swear | Pres. svärjer or svär |
| syna | I or [.(IIb) $]$ |  | examine | Pres. always -ar |
| synas | syntes | synts | seem | IIb instead of IIa |
| syra | I |  | make sour | Syra = be sour, IIa |
| säga | sade | sagt | say |  |
| sälja | sålde | sålt | sell |  |
| sämjas | sämdes | sämts | agree | Pres. sämjes or |
|  | sämjdes |  |  | säms |
| sätta | satte | satt | set |  |
| taga, ta | tog | tagit | take |  |
| tala | I or (*IIb) |  | speak | Pres. always -ar |
| tiga | teg | [tigit] tegat | be silent | Pres. -er; $p . p$. förtegad |
| tjusa | I or *IIb |  | charm | Pres. always -ar |
| tjuta | tjöt | tjutit | howl |  |
| tjäna | I or (*IIb) |  | serve | Pres. always -ar |
| trivas | IIa |  | thrive, get |  |
|  |  | trivits | on |  |
| tryta | tröt | trutit | come to an | $P \cdot p . i n$ oför-truten |
|  |  |  | end |  |
| $\dagger$ tråda | IIa |  | tread | Pres.tråder or tràr |
| tvinga | tvang, tvungo | tvungit | compel | Pres. always -ar |
|  | I |  |  |  |
| tvá | III |  | wash | $P \cdot p$. tvagen or |
|  |  | tvagit |  | [tvådd] |
| tảla | IIa or IIb |  | endure |  |
| tälja | täljde | täljt | count | Tälja $=$ cut,always |
|  | talde | talt |  | täljde, täljt |


| INFIN. <br> tämja | PAST tannde tämıde tämde torde | SUPINE <br> tamt <br> tämjt <br> tämt | MEANING tame | REMARKS Pres. tör, töra |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| töras | tordes | torts | dare | Pres. törs |
| vara | var, voro | varit | be | Pres. är, äro |
| varda | vart, vordo |  | become, be | P.p. vorden. §222 |
| veta | visste |  | know | Pres, vet |
|  |  | vetat |  |  |
| vetta | vette |  | face | Pres. -er |
|  |  | vettat |  |  |
| vika | vek | vikit | give way |  |
| vilja | ville |  | want to | Pres. vill, vilja |
|  |  | velat |  |  |
| vina | ven | vinit | sough |  |
| vinna | vann, vunno | vunnit | win |  |
| visa | I or (IIb) |  | show | Pres. always -ar |
| vrida | vred | vridit | twist |  |
| vräka | IIb |  | throw |  |
|  | * vrok |  |  |  |
| välja | valde | valt | choose |  |
| välta | IIb or I |  | upset | Forms of I notintransitive; välta |
| vämjas | vämjdes | vämjts | nauseate | Pres. vämjes |
|  | vämdes | vämts |  |  |
| vänja | vande | vant | accustom |  |
| växa | IIb |  | grow | $P \cdot p$ also vuxen |
|  | plur. vuxo | vuxit |  |  |
| yra | I |  | be delirious | Yra $=d r i f t$, IIa |
| ysta | I or IIb |  | make cheese |  |
| äta | àt | ätit | eat |  |
| öka | I or (IIb) |  | increase | Pres. always -ar |

## APPENDIX V.

## BIBLIOGRAPHY.

The following is a list of the leading works helpful in the further study of the Swedish language. The books that are particularly adapted for this purpose have been indicated by an asterisk. The orthography has been indicated, wherever important.

## TEXT-EDITIONS.

The following text-editions, edited with English notes (and introductions) and Swedish-English vocabularies, are at the present time (Jan. I, 1914) obtainable or in preparation. They are here enumerated in the approximate order of difficulty.
*LAGERLÖF: Selections from Selma Lagerlöf's Nils Holgerssons underbara resa genom Sverige, edited with vocabulary and notes by A. Louis Elmquist. Stockholm, 1912. Pages 187 (of this, text, 131). New orthography. Twelve short stories.
*GEIJERSTAM'S Mina Pojkar, edited with vocabulary and notes by Joseph Alexis. Rock Island, igir. Pages 165 (of this, text, 128). New orthography.
*LAGERLÖF'S En Herrgárdssägen, edited with vocabulary and notes by A. Louis Elmquist. Stockholm, 1910. Pages 194 (of this, text, 149). New orthography.
*LAGERLÖF: Valda Berättelser, edited with vocabulary and notes by Jules Mauritzson. Rock Island, 1913. Pages 153 (of this, text, 115). New orthography. Selected short stories.
*NYBLOM'S Det Ringer, edited with vocabulary and notes by A. Louis Elmouist. Stockholm, 19io. Pages 73 (of this, text, 51). An older orthography. Comedy in one act.
*HEDBERG'S Pá Torpa Gård, edited with vocabulary and notes by Carl J. Bergman. In preparation.
*RUNEBERG'S Fänrik Ståls Sägner, edited with introduction, vocabulary and notes by A. Louis Elmouist. In preparation. New orthography.
*TEGNÉR'S Frithiofs Sag'a, edited with introduction, notes and a bibliography by George T. Flom. Chicago, 1909. Pages 24 (introduction) and 202 (of this, text, 174). An older orthography. Illustrated edition.
*TEGNÉR'S Fritiofs Saga, edited with introduction, vocabulary and notes by A. A. Stomberg. Rock Island, 1914. Pages 197 (of this, introduction, 12; text, 114). New orthography.

## PRONUNCIATION.

*ELMQUIST, A. LOUIS, Phonology of the Swedish Lanǵuaǵe. In press. New orthography. A detailed presentation of Swedish pronunciation. Intended for use as a text-book in schools.
*LYTTKENS, I. A., \& WULFF, F. A., Svensk Ordlista med uttalsbeteckning . . . och med stavning enlig't 1906 års cirkulär. Lund, 191r. Pages 59 (introduction) and 456. New orthography.
LYTTKENS, I. A., \& WULFF, F. A., SvensK uttals-ordbok. Lund, 1889. Pages 68 (introduction) and 373. Much attention is given to the variations of pronunciation in different forms of style and in different localities.
LYTTKENS, I. A., \& WULFF, F. A., Svenska Spràkets Ljudlära. Lund, 1885. Pages 351 (sounds), 115 (accent).
*DANELL, GIDEON, Svensk Ljudlära. Stockholm, igir. Pages 83 . Considerable attention is given to phonetics.
*NOREEN, ADOLF, Vårt Språk (see under grammars). Volumes I and II deal with Swedish phonology.
KOCK, AXEL, Svensk Akcent. Lund, 1878-1885. 2 volumes. Pages 21I, 524.
KOCK, AXEL, Die Alt- und Neuschwedische accentuierung. Strassburg, 1901. Pages 298.

## GRAMMARS.

> *NOREEN, ADOLF, Vårt Språk, nysvensk grammatik i utförlig framställning. Lund, 1903-. This work, which is to embrace 9 volumes, is in process of publication. Volumes I (pages 579), II (pages 491), V (pages 706) and a part of III (pages 160) and VII (pages 96) have been pub-
lished up to January 1, 1914, and are purchaseable. The most comprehensive and up-to-date work on the subject, and one of the greatest works ever published.
*BECKMAN, NATANAEL, Svensk Språklära. Stockholm, 1904. Pages 278 . A highly interesting, clear, and modern presentation.
*REBBE, CARL, Svensk Språklära. Stockholm 1912. Pages 152. A very attractive and useful little book.

SUNDÉN, D. A., Svensk Språklära i sammandrag. 20 edition, revised by K. F. Sundén, a son of the author. Stockholm, 1912. Pages 268. Some valuable new material has been incorporated in this latest edition.
LINDER, N., Regler och råd angående svenska språKets behandling i tal och skrift. 3 edition. Stockholm, 1908. Pages 231.
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SWEET, HENRY, Sounds and forms of spoken Swedish. In "Transactions of the Philological Society", 1877-1879 (pages 457-543). London, 1879.
*SPRAK OCH STIL (see under JOURNALS, below) contains many valuable articles dealing with Swedish grammar.

## STYLE.-WORKS DEALING WITH THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN WRITTEN AND SPOKEN SWEDISH.

*CEDERSCHIÖLD, GUSTAV, Om svenskan som skriftspråk. 3 edition. Lund, 1911. Pages 253. An interesting and very valuable presentation of the differences between spoken and written Swedish.
CEDERSCHIÖLD, GUSTAV, Språk i Språket. Stockholm, 1909. 2 volumes. Numbers 163 and 164 of "Verdandis smáskrifter". Pages 51 and 28.
*SPRAK OCH STIL (see under JOURNALS, below) contains much material on this subject. See also LYTTKENS-WULFF,

Svensk Uttals-ordbok (under PRONUNCIATION, above). All the grammars mentioned above emphasize stylistic differences more or less.

## DICTIONARIES.

*WENSTRÖM \& HARLOCK, Svensk-Engelsk Ordbok. Skolupplaga. Stockholm, 1908. Pages 88o. An older orthography. BJÖRKMAN, C. G., Svensk-Engelsk Ordboh Stockholm, 1902. Pages 1360. An older orthography (older than that of the preceding book).
*LINDGREN, ERIK, Engelsk-Svensk Orabok. Skolupplaga. Stockholm, 1909. Pages 673 and 50 (proper names). An older orthography.
SUNDÉN, D. A., Ordbok öfver svenska språket. Stockholm, IS92. Pages 415, 692.
DALIN, A. F., Ordbok öfver svenska spráket. Stockholm, 1850, 1S53. Two volumes, pages 896, 772.
*ÖSTERGREN, OLOF, is the author of a Swedish-Swedish dictionary now (January 1, 1914) in press, or shortly to go to press. Being written by one who is an authority on stylistic matters, this book will be a most valuable lexicographical help to the student of Swedish.
SVENSKA AKADEMIENS Ordbok öfver svenska spradket. Lund, 1893 -. This invaluable work, which will embrace a large number of volumes, is in process of publication. Up to the present time (January 1, 1914) there has appeared: ABlifva and C-Dikta. The letter A embraces 2780 columns (two columns to the page); of $B, 3200$ columns have been published; C embraces 304 columns; of D, 1344 columns have appeared. There are at present three bound volumes, while volumes IV and V are almost full. As the work is being published at the rate of two small sections a year, the annual outlay is very small. Notwithstanding the comparatively small portion of the complete work as yet arailable, the dictionary is already an extremely valuable work of reference.
*SVENSKA AKADEMIENS Ordlista öfver svenska språket. 7 edition. Stockholm, 1903. Pages 327. A standard work of reference showing the inflection of words, but not giving definitions. An older orthography.

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LYTTKENS \& WULFF; see their dictionaries given above under PRONUNCIATION.
*MORÉN \& VON FRIESEN, Ordlista. Stockholm, 1906. Pages 38. Shows the differences between the present orthography and that used prior to the year 1906.
STURZEN-BECKER, V., Svensk Ordlista. Stockholm, 1906. Pages 60. Purpose same as the foregoing.
ÖSTERGREN, OLOF, 5000 främmande ord med uttal och förklaring, 2 edition. Stockholm, 1909 Number 146 of "Verdandis smảskrifter". Pages 6r.
EKBOHRN, O. M., 60,000 främmande ord och namn tillika med deras härledning och uttal. 4 edition. Stockholm, 1902, 1904. Pages 424, 378.

## JOURNALS.

*PUBLICATIONS OF THE SOCIETY FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF SCANDINAVIAN STUDY. Publications free to members of the Society. Annual membership fee, one dollar. The back numbers, which extend back to 1911, can be purchased separately. Applications for membership may be sent to the Editor, Prof. Geo T. Flom, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois. Among other things, the publications contain articles dealing with Swedish grammar and literature, of value to students of the language. The announcement of books published and about to be published on Scandinavian subjects (both in this country and in the Scandinavian countries) deserves special mention.
*SPRÅK OCH STIL, tidskrift för nysvensk språkforsk. ning. Upsala, Sweden. This journal is devoted entirely to the study of the Swedish language. Valuable and varied contents, contributed by the leading scholars of Sweden. The annual subscription is for America, including postage, $\$ 1.50$. Subscription may be sent to Prof. A. Louis Elmquist, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill., who is the representative of the journal in America. There are four or five numbers a year. The back volumes, which extend back to the year

1900, can be purchased for $\$ 1.00$ per volume. The editors are: Olof Östergren, Bengt Hesselman, and Ruben G:son Berg.

## AMERICAN SWEDISH.

Persons born in this country, and speaking Swedish, in almost all cases speak a form of the language that has been much influenced by (American-)English. In the case of these the study of the Swedish of Sweden can hardly be successful unless they understand the nature and extent of this influence. The works here named deal with this subject.
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ANDREEN, GUSTAV, Det svenska språket i Amerika. Stockholm, 1900. Number 87 of "Verdandis smảskrifter." Pages 18.
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WARBURG, KARL, Svensk Litteraturhistoriai isammandrag. 7 edition. Stockholm, 1907. Pages 172. Illustrated edition, 1908. Pages 219.
SCHÜCK, HENRIK, \& WARBURG, KARL, Illustrerad Svensk Litteraturhistoria. 2 edition. Stockholm, igir1912. Two volumes, pages 549 and 667.

ISBERG, A. R., Svensk Litteratur i urval (1526-). Stockholn, 19Ir. Pages 747. An excellent anthology of poetry and prose in one volume.
STEFFEN, R., Översikt av svenska litteraturen. Stockholm, 1906-1908. 5 volumes, pages 264, 390, 494, 297, 327. Selections from the literature of the different periods.
SVERIGES NATIONALLITTERATUR, 1500-1900. Edited by Henrik Schück and Ruben G:son Berg. 26 volumes.
SVENSKA VITTERHETSSAMFUNDET. Svenska Författare. Stockholm, 1910-. Critical texts of authors after ${ }_{1} 526$ with notes dealing with style, language, literature and biography.
TEXT-EDITIONS, see above.

## HISTORY.

GRIMBERG, CARL, Sveriges Historia i sammandrag med Danmark och Norge Stockholm, 1907-1910. 5 volumes, pages 692. Abridged edition, 1908-1910. 2 volumes, pages 380 .
BERGGREN, P. G., Sveriges Historia. Stockholm, 1906. Pages 197.

## MAPS AND ATLASES.

COHRS', Atlas öfver Sverige. 8 edition. Stockholm, 1908. 23 maps. Index, 32 pages. Each map about 7 by 9 inches.
GODTKÖPS-RESKARTA öfver Sverige, prepared by N. P. Petterson. Stockholm, 1910. Map about 23 by 24 inches; special map of Göta Canal. Obtainable in several styles.
HELA SVERIGE för 1.50. 16 Kartor öfver Sveriges landskap. Stockholm, 1912. Each map, 6 by 8 inches.
EN-KRONAS-KARTA ÖFVER SVERIGE samt special-Karta öfver Göta Kanal. Stockholm, 1908. This map is 23 by 27 inches. Obtainable in several styles.

## NOTE TO THE VOCABULARIES.

Gender is indicated only in the case of neuter nouns (n.). Declension is indicated by Arabic numerals (1, 2, 3, 4, 5). No declension is given in the case of nouns that are not used in the plural. Vowel-modification is indicated by placing the modified vowel after the declension-number; as, hand (3, ä). In the case of further irregularities the full plural form is given.

Of strong verbs (STR.) the principal parts are given. In the case of weak verbs the Conjugation is indicated by Roman numerals, I, IIa (past tense, -de), IIb (past tense, -te), III. See also list of strong and irregular verbs, APPENDIX IV.

The stress, whenever not on the first syllable, is indicated by' placed after the long sound; this mark does not necessarily signify acute accent. Only the principal stress is indicated.

For references to the grammar (pronunciation, acute and grave accent, forms, etc.), see the INDEX OF WORDS.

## SWEDISH-ENGLISH VOCABULARY.

| A <br> Ack oh!, o!, alas <br> afton (2) evening; $\mathbf{i}$ - this -; om -en in the evening | bar, see bära |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | bara only, just |
|  | barn $n$. (5) child |
|  | be, see bedja |
| aku't acute | bebod'd inhabited |
| aldrig never | bedja, be (STR., bad, bådo, bett) |
| all all, every; allt evcrything allaredan already | to ask, request, pray; - om ask for |
| alldeles entirely | begyn'na (IIb) to begin |
| allra of all, very | ben $n$. (5) bone, leg |
| alls at all | berg $n$. (5) mountain, hill, rock |
| allt more and more; see | berät'ta (I) to rela |
| alltid always | besö'k $n$. (5) visit |
| alltjäm't (or al'ltjämt) always, | bi $n$. (4) bee |
| constantly, continually | bibliote'k $n$. |
| andas, dep., (1) to breathe | biblioteka'rie (3) librarian |
| nders Andrew | biskop (2) bishop |
| andra, see annan ankomst arrival | bita (STR., bet, bitit) to bite; bitas, dep., bite |
| annan ( $n$. annat, plur. and def. andra) other | bjuda (STR., bjöd, bjudit) to offer, invite |
| norlunda different(ly) | bjödo, see bjuda |
| ansikte $n$. (4) face | björkalle (main stress on first |
| beta (I) to work bete $n$. (4) work | nue |
| né (3) army | blank bright, polished, clean |
| att, conj., that; to (with inf.) | blev, bleve, blevo, see bliv |
| av of, from, by; off | bli, see bliva |
| avbilda (I) to image, represent | blick (2) glance |
| slagen, past part. of avslà to | blind blind |
| knock off | blir, see bliva |
| B | bliva, bli (STR., blev, blivit) to become, get, be |
| backe (2) hill | blomma (1) flower, blossom |
| bageri' $n$. (3) bakery | blommande blooming |
| bakom (or bakom') behind | blả blue |

blàsa (IIb) to blow
bo (III) to live ( $=$ dwell)
bok (3, böcker) book
bonde (3, ö) peasant
bor, see bo
bord $n$. (5) table
bort away, off
borta away; där - over there
bortre farther, further; borterst farthest, furthest
bota'niker (5) botanist
bra, adj. and adv., good, fine, well
bred broad, wide
bredd (3) breadth, wideness
bredvi'd beside
brev $n$. (5) letter
bringa (I or IIb, bragte) to bring
bro (2) bridge
broder, bror (5, bröder) brother bron, see bro
bror, see broder
brottas, dep., (I) to wrestle, struggle
bruka (I) to use, be accustomed to
brun brown
brusa (I) to roar, rush
bråtom in a hurry; ha(va) to be in a hurry
bränna (IIa) to burn (tr.)
bröd $n$. (5) bread
bröder, see broder
burit, see bära
bygga (IIa) to build
byxor, plur., trousers, breeches
bảde both; bảde. . . och both and
bådo, see bedja
bảt (2) boat
bäck (2) brook
bär $n$. (5) berry
bära (STR., bar, buro, burit)
to carry, bear, wear
bäst best; conj., just as
bättre better
böcker, see bok
böja (IIa) to bend; - sig bend, stoop
böjd bent, bending
bönder, see bonde
börja (I) to begin
dag (2)day; i - to-day; i - pá
morgonen this morning; om
-en in the day-time, a day
dagakarl (2) workman
dags; huru - (at) what time
dal (2) valley
Danmark Denmark
de (plur. of den, etc.) they, the dels partly
dem (obj. plur. of den, etc.) them
den (det, de, dem) the, it, that den hä'r this, this one
denna (detta, dessa) this, this one
deras their, theirs
dess (gen. of den) its
dess, desto the (adv.)
dessa these; see denna
desto, see dess
det it, the, that, there; see den detsam'ma; med - all at once
detta, see denna
dig, see du
din (ditt, dina) (familiar) your,
yours (sing.)
dit there (= thither)
ditt, see din
djup deep
djup $n$. (5) depth
djur $n$. (5) animal
djävul (2) devil
docka (1) doll
dog, see dö
doktor (3, dokto'rer) doctor
dotter ( 2,0 ö) daughter
draga, dra (STR., drog, dragit) to draw, pull
dricka (STR., drack, drucko, druckit) to drink
drottning (2) queen
druckit, drucko, see dricka
du (dig) (familiar) you (sing.)
duktig able, good
dum stupid
dumhet (3) stupidity
duva (1) dove, pigeon
dà then, when; surely, now, at least
dålig poor, bad
där there, where; där borta over there; där inue in there, within
därfor therefore, for that reason
däri in that
dö (IRREG. STR., dog, dött) to die
död dead
död (2) death; till -s to death, fatal
döttrar, see dotter

## E

efter after
egen own; peculiar, strange
Egyp'ten Egypt
egyp'tier (5) Egyptian
ej $n o t$
elak bad, naughty
eller or
en (ett) $a$, an; one
endast only
engelsk English; -a the English
language; på -a in English
engelsman (5, ä) Englishman
ensam alone
er (formal) your, yours
er, see ni
ers your
ett, see en
evange'lium $n$. (3, -e'lier) gospel
exa'men (exa'mina) examination

## F

fader, far ( 5 , fäder) father
faktum $n$. (fakta) fact
fall $n$. (5) case, event; i alla
fall at all events, anyhow
fall $n$. (5) waterfall
falla (STR., föll, fallit) to fall
fann(s), see finna
far, see fader, fara
fara (STR., for, farit) to go, travel
fattig poor
feber (2) fever
fem five
femte the fifth
fick, see fá
ficka (1) pocket
fiende (3) enemy
finge, see fả
finna (STR., fann, funno, funnit)
to find; -s to be, exist; det
finns there is, there are
fjäril (2) butterfly
flagga (1) flag
flesta; de - most (of the, of them), most people
flicka (1) girl
flyga (STR., flög, flugit) to fly
flyta (STR., flöt, flutit) to flow, float
flögo, see flyga
folk $n$. (5) people
fort fast, quickly
fot (3, fötter; 5, diff. meaning) foot
fotografi' (3) photograph
fram forth, forward, on, up, to one's destination; fram till up to
framför before, in front of
framme there, at one's destination, arrived
framåt (or framå't) forth, along
fredag (2) Friday
fri free
frisk well
fritt, see fri
fru (2) lady, wife, Mrs.
frukt (3) fruit
fråga (1) question
fråga (I) to ask (a question)
från from
främmande, indecl. adj., foreign, strange
främst foremost
frö $n$. (4; 3, diff. meaning) seed
fröken (2) (young) lady, miss, Miss
ful homely
funde'ra (I) to ponder, think; - pá meditate about
funno, see finna
fura (1) fir-tree
fyra four
fả (IRREG. STR., fick, fingo, fått) to receive, get, be permitted to
fả, plur., few
fảgel (2) bird
får, see fả
fảtt, see fả
fängelse $n$. (3) prison
färg (3) color
följa (IIa) to follow, accompany;
-s àt, recipr. dep., accompany each other, go together
föllo, see falla
fönster n. (5) window
för for, to; too; för att (in order)
to; för . . . sedan, see sedan;
för . . . skull, see skull
förbi' past
förfat'tare (5) author
förhảl'lande $n$. (4) circumstance, condition
förkläde $n$. (4) apron
förny'a (I) to renew
försik'tig careful
först first
försvin'na (STR., -svan'n, -svun'no, -svun'nit', to disappear
försö'k $n$. (5) attempt; trial
försö'ka (IIb) to try, attempt
fötter, see fot

## G

gala (IIa or STR.) to crow
galen mad, crazy
gammal old
gata (1) street
gav, see giva
genast at once
genom through
genus $n$. (5) gender
get ( 3 , getter) goat
gick, see gà
gifta (IIb) to marry; - sig
(med) be married (to), marry
gingo, see gả
giva, ge (STR., gav, gảvo, givit)
to give
gjort, see göra
glad glad, happy
gladde, see glädja
glas $n$. (5) glass
glädja (IIa, gladde) to please, give pleasure (to), cheer; sig (at) rejoice (at, in)
glömma (IIa) to forget
god good
godhjärtad kindhearted
gosse (2) boy
gott, see god
grav (2) grave
gren (2) branch
greve (2) count
grov coarse, thick, large
grá gray
gråta (STR., grät, gråtit) to weep
gräva (IIa) to dig
grövre, see grov
Gud God
gul yellow
gulna (I) to turn yellow
gumma (1) old woman
gả (IRREG. STR., gick, gingo, gått) to go, walk; gå ut och gá go out for a walk
gảng (3) time; en - once
gảr; i - yesterday
gảr, see gả
gảs (5, gäss) goose
gảtt, see gả
gảvo, see giva
gärna gladly, fain
gäss, see gảs
göra (IIa, gjorde) to do, make
Götebor'g Gothenburg

## H

ha, see hava
hade, see hava
hagel $n$. (5) hail, hailstone
halv half
halvvägs half-way
han (honom) he
hand (3, ä) hand
hans his
har, see hava
hastigt rapidly, quickly, suddenly
hatt (2) hat
hav $n$. (5) sea, ocean
hava, ha (hade, haft) to have
hel whole, entire, all
helig holy
heller either; icke heller neither
helst; vilja - to prefer to, like
best to
helt wholly, very
hem $n$. (5) home
hem, adv., home
hemifrản from home
hemma at home
hennes, her, hers
herr (2) Mr., Sir
herre (2) gentleman, master
herrgård (2) estate, manor
heta (IIb) to be called, be one's

## name

histo'ria (3, histo'rier) story
hit here ( $=$ hither)
hjälp help
hjälpa (IIb) to help; -s át help each other
hjärta $n$. (4) heart
hon (henne) she
honom, see han
hoppas, dep., (I) to hope
hos with, by, at the house of
humö'r $n$. (5 or 3) temper
hundratals by hundreds, hundreds of
huru, hur how; - dags (at) what time
hus $n$. (5) house
hustru (-r) wife
hảlla (STR., höll, hảllit) to hold, keep
hảrd hard
häftig violent, hasty, impetuous hän from here, away
hända (IIa) to happen, befall
händelse (3) occurrence
händer, see hand
hänga (IIa) to hang
hänt, see hända
här here
häst (2) horse
hög high, tall, loud
högljudd loud, vociferous
höjd (3) height
höll, see hảlla
höra (IIa) to hear
höst (2) autumn; i höst this autumn; i as last autumn

## I

i in, into
I (eder) you (plur.)
icke not
ifrà'n from
igen' again
igen'känna (IIa) to recognize
ihjä'l to death
illa bad, badly
in $i n$; in i into
ingen (intet, inga) no, no one, none
inne within, in the house; inne i in; där inne in there, within inte not
intressan't interestiny

## J

ja yes, well
jag (mig) $I$
jo yes
Johan John
Johansson Johnson
jord (2) earth, ground
jordgubbe (2) (cultivated) strawberry
ju the (adv.)
just just

## K

kaffe $n$. coffee
kalla (I) to call, summon
kan, see kunna
karl (2) man
kasta (I) to throw, cast
kejsare (5) emperor, Kaiser
kilo $n$. (5) kilogram (=2.2 lbs.)
klaga (I) to complain
klappa (I) to knock, rap, clap, caress; -s, recipr. dep., caress each other
klocka (1) clock; -n ett (at) one o'clock; -n tvà (at) two o'clock knä $n$. (4) knee
ko (-r) cow
kom, see komma
komma (STR., kom, kommo, kommit) to come; - att shall, will, happen to; -fram arrive
konkre't concrete
kons, see ko
konstnär (or konstnä'r) (3) artist
konung, kuing (2) king
kopp (2) cup
kor, see ko
kosta (I) to cost
krona (1) crown, crown $(=27$ cents)
kunde, see kunna
kung, see konung
kunna (kunde, kunnat) to be able, can
kvar left, remaining, there, behind
kvinna (1) woman
kvist (2) twig, bough
kväll (2) evening; $\mathbf{i}$ - this evening
kyrka (1) church
kyssa (IIb) to kiss; -s, recipr. dep., kiss each other
källa (1) spring
känna (IIa) to know, feel; - igen' to recognize
kär dear
köpa (IIb) to buy
körsbär $n$. (5) cherry
körsbärsblomma (1) cherry-blossom
körsbärsträd $n$. (5) cherry-tree

## L

laborato'rium $n$. (3, -o'rier) laboratory
lade, see lägga
lagman (5, -män) district judge lagt, see lägga
lampa (1) lamp
land $n .(3, a ̈ ; 5)$ land, country
le (STR., $\log$, lett) to smile
led, see lida
leda (IIa) to lead, guide
legat, see ligga
leka (IIb) to play
leva (IIa) to live (=exist)
lida (STR., led, lidit) to suffer
ligga (STR., làg, legat) to lie, be situated
liggdags bed-time
lika (just) as
lik(a)som as, just as
likaså (just) as
lilla (-e), see liten
liten (litet, lilla, små) small, little
liter (5) liter ( $=1.76$ pints)
litet a little; see liten
liv $n$. (5) life
locka (I) to entice, tempt
lova (I) to promise
lustgård (2) pleasure-garden, park
lyckas (I) to succeed, be successful
lycklig happy
lyckligen safely
lyckligtvis fortunately
lảg low
lảg, lảgo, see ligga
lảng long
lảngsam slow
langt far
lảta (STR., lät, låtit) to let, sound; - bli leave off, let alone, cease
lägga (IIa, lade, lagt) to lay,
put; - sig lie down, go to bed lägst, see lag
län $n$. (5) district
länge long, for a long time
längre, see lảng, lảngt, länge
lära (IIa) to teach, learn; - sig learn
lärare (5) teacher
lärarin'na (1) (woman) teacher
läsa (IIb) to read
löfte $n$. (4) promise
lördag (2) Saturday

## M

mala (IIa) to grind
man (5, ä; special meaning man) man, husband
man one, they, people
med with, to
medan while
mellan between, among, in the midst of
men but
mera, mer more; longer
meter (5) meter ( $=39$ inches)
middag (2) noon, dinner
mig, see jag
mil (5) mile (Swedish mile $=$ 6.8 Eng. miles)
mild mild, gentle
min (mitt, mina) my, mine minnas, dep., (IIa) to remember
minne $n$. (4) memory, reminiscence
mitt, see min
moder, mor (2, mödrar) mother
mogen ripe.
mogna (I) to ripen, grow ripe mor, see moder
morgon (2) morning; i morgon
to-morrow; i dag pả -en this morning
morse; i - this (past) morning mot against, to, toward
mur (2) wall
muse'um $n$. ( 3 , muse'er) museum
muskel (3) muscle
mycken much
mycket much, very
må may
mảnad (3) month
mảndag (2) Monday.
mảnga, plur., many
måtte may
möjlig possible
mörk dark
mörkblả dark blue
möta (IIb) to meet, encounter

## N

namn $n$. (5) name
narra (I) to fool, deceive; -s, dep., to fib
natt ( 3, ä) night; i - to-night;
om -en during the night
ned, ner down
nedför (or nedfö'r) down
nedhängande hanging down, low
neger (3) negro
nej no; really
neka (I) to deny
ner, see ned
nere down
neutrum $n$. (3 or neutra) neuter ni (er) (formal) you
nog enough, no doubt, surely
noga, indecl., accurate, particular
Norge Norway
norr north
nu now
numera now, nowadays
ny new
nypa (STR., nöp, nupit) to pinch;
-s, dcp., pinch
nysa (STR., nös, nysit, or IIb) to snecze
nytt, see ny
nả (III) to reach, arrive at
nảde grace
nảgon (nảgot, några) some, any,
someone, anyone
nảgonsin ever
nảgra, see nàgon
nämligen namely
när when
nära, indecl., near, close
närmaste, superl. of nära
näst next
näste $n$. (4) nest
nöjd satisfied
nöje $n$. (4) pleasure
nöt (3, nötter) nut

o o, oh
obebodd uninhabited
och and
också also, too
ofta often
olycka (1) misfortune
om around, about, concerning, in, of, during, if, whether
omtala (I) to relate, tell
ond angry, evil; - på angry at (with)
onsdag (2) Wednesday
ord $n$. (5) word
ordförande (5) chairman
oss, see vi
ovanför above
ovän (3) (personal) enemy

## P

pannlugg (2) hair on the forehead, tuft, fringe
par $n$. (5) pair; ett - a couple of partisk partial, prejudiced
pengar, plur., (2) money
pia'no $n$. (4) piano
pipskägg $n$. (5) imperial
plats (3) place
plocka (I) to pick, gather
plötsligen suddenly
port (2) gate
prata (I) to talk, chat, talk nonsense
prinses'sa (1) princess
profes'sor (3, -o'rer) professor promena'd (3) promenade, walk promene'ra (I), to walk, promenade
prono'men (3, 5 or -no'mina) pronoun
pả on, in, at, of, to

## R

rar rare, exquisite
red, redo, see rida
redan already
regna (I) to rain
resa (IIb) to travel, journey, go; raise; - sig rise, raise one's self, get up
resande (5) traveler
rida (STR., red, ridit) to ride
rik rich; - pà rich in, abounding in
rike n. (4) kingdom
ro (III) to row
ro peace
roa (I) to amuse
Rom Rome
ropa (I) to call, call out, shout, cry
ros (1) rose
rctt, see ro
Ryssland Russia
rätt right; hava - be right röd red

## S

sade, see säga
sadel (2) saddle
saga (1) tale, story, fairy-tale sagt, see säga
sak (3) thing, matter, affair sakta, indecl., slow, slowly samma the same
satt, see sitta, sätta
satte, see sätta
se (IRREG. STR., sảg, sett) to see, look; se pả look at; se ut look, appear
sedan, sen afterwards, then, after, since, ago; för . . . sedan ago
segla (I) to sail
sen, see sedan
sett, see se
sexton sixteen
sida (1) side
sig himself, herself, etc.
simma (I or STR., sam, summo, summit) to swim
$\sin$ (sitt, sina) his, her(s), etc. (reflex.)
sist last; till - at last, finally sitta (STR., satt, sutto, suttit) to sit
sjuk sick
sjukdom (2) sickness
sjunga (STR., sjöng, sjungit) to sing
själv self, himself, herself, etc.
sjö (2) lake, sea
sjöng, sjöngo, see sjunga
ska ( $=$ skall), see skola
skada (1) injury
skada (I) to hurt
skaka (I) to shake
skall, see skola
skilja (IIa, skilde) to separate, distinguish
sko (-r) shoe
skog (2) forest, woods
skogsbacke (2) wooded hill
skola (skulle, skolat) shall, will
skola (1) school
skomakare (5) shoemaker
skor, see sko
skratta (I) to laugh
skrev, see skriva
skriva (STR., skrev, skrivit) to write
skull; för . . . skull on account of
skulle should, was to, was said to; see skola
skymta (I) to catch a glimpse of
skynda (I) to hurry, hasten; skynda sig hurry
skära (STR., skar, skuro, skurit) to cut
skön beautiful
slagen, see slá
slog, see slà
slott $n$. (5) castle, palace, chateau
sluta (I) to finish, end, stop; (STR., slöt, slutit) to shut, close
slả (IRREG. STR.. slog, slagit) to hit, strike, knock, defeat; -ss, recipr. dep., to fight
släde (2) sleigh
slädparti $n$. (3) sleighing-party släkt, indecl. pred. adj., related; - med related to
slätt (3) plain
smultron $n$. (5) (wild) strawberry
smả, plur. of liten
smảningomby degrees, gradually smör $n$. butter
smörja (IIa, smorde) to grease, oil
snart soon
socken (2) parish
solda't (3) soldier
som who, whom, that, which; as sommar (2) summer; i - this summer; om -en in the summer
sommarnatt ( 3, ä) summer night
somna (I) to go to sleep
somras; i - last summer
son ( $3, \ddot{\circ}$ ) son
sova (STR., sov, sovit) to sleep
spade (2) spade
spetsig pointed
spinna (STR., spann, spunno, spunnit) to spin
spisa (I) to eat, dine
sport, see spörja
springa (STR., sprang, sprungo, sprungit) to run
spörja (IIa, sporde) to ask, learn, hear
stad (3, ä) city, town
stiga (STR., steg, stigit) to step,
walk; - av dismount; - upp get up
stilla, indecl., still, quiet
stjäla (STR., stal, stulo, stulit) to steal
stod, see stả
stol (2) chair
stolt proud, haughty; - över proud of
stor large
strand ( 3, ä) shore
strimma (1) streak, band, line
stränder, see strand
stude'ra (I) to study
stundom at times
styra (IIa) to govern, rule
styv stiff, rigid
stà (IRREG. STR., stod, stått)
to stand; - till be, do
stått, see stả
städer, see stad
ställe $n$. (4) place
stödja (IIa, stödde) to support, lean
större, see stor
störst, see stor
stövel (2) boot
sucka (I) to sigh
susa (I) to murmur, whisper, sough
suttit, sutto, see sitta
svar $n$. (5) answer, reply
svara (I) to answer, reply
svart black
svensk Swedish; -a the Swedish langzage; pà -a in Swedish; en svensk a Swede
Sver(i)ge Sweden
svulto, see svälta
svår hard, difficult, severe
svälta (STR., svalt, svulto, svul-
tit, or IIb) to starve
svär(j)a (STR., svor, svuro, svu-
rit) to swear
sy (III) to sew
syn sight; fà - pà to catch sight of
syster (2) sister
sả so, thus, then, as, (or omit)
sảdan such
sảg, sågo, see se
sảlde, sả̉ldes, see sälja
sáledes thus, accordingly
sálunda thus, in this manner
sảsom as, like
säga (IIa, sade, sagt) to say, tell
sälja (IIa, sålde) to sell
sämre worse; see dảlig
sända (IIa) to send
säng (2) bed
sätt $n$. (5) manner, way
sätta (IIb, satte) to set, put,
place; - sig sit down
söka (IIb) to seek, look for
söndag (2) Sunday
söt sweet

## T

taga, ta (STR., tog, tagit) to take
tal $n$. (5) speech, words
tala (I) to talk, speak; - om,
see omtala; -s vid speak to each other
tavla (1) picture
tea'ter (2) theater
tego, see tiga
telefone'ra (I) to telephone
tid (3) time, life
tidig early
tiga (STR., teg, tegat) to be silent
till to, of, by, at, as; more, in addition
tillba'ka back
tills until
tillsam'mans together
timme (2) hour
tisdag (2) Tuesday
tjugu twenty
toffel (1) slipper
tog, see taga
torsdag (2) Thursday
trappa (1) stair; en - upp on the second floor; två trappor upp on the third floor
tro (III) to think, believe
trảng tight, narrow
träd $n$. (5) tree
trädgảrd (2) garden, orchard
trädgảrdsnıur (2) garden wall
trädgårdsmästare (5) gardener
träffa (I) to meet; -s to meet
trött tired; - pa tired of
tröttna (I) to become tired; -pa to get tired of
tum, common or $n$., (5) inch
tung heavy
tusen thousand
tvinga (I or STR., tvang, tvungo, tvungit) to compel
tvả two
två (III) to wash
tvätta (I) to wash
ty for, because
tycka (IID) to think, be of the opinion, fancy; - om like
tyg $n$. $(3 ; 5)$ cloth
tynga (IIa) to weigh (down)
tysk German; -a the German language; pá -a in German
Tyskland Gcrmany
tyst silent, quiet
tà (-r) toe
tảla (IIa) to endure, tolerate, bear
tänka (IIb) to think; - på think of

## U

ull wool
under under, beneath, during underhàlla (STR., -höll, -hảllit) to entcrtain
underlig strange, curious, peculiar
undra (I) to wonder
ung young
upp $u$ p
uppe $u p$
upprepa (I) to repeat
ur out of, from; - ur out of
ut out; gà - och gả to go out for a walk
utan without; but
ute out, out of doors
utvärtes, indecl., external

## V

vacker beautiful, pretty
vad what
vakna (I) to awake
vald, valt, see välja
vanlig ordinary
vapen $n$. (5) weapon
var where
var every
var, see vara
vara (STR., var, voro, varit) to be varför why
varifrån (or varifrả'n) from
where, from which
varit, see vara
varje every, each
varken; - . . . eller neither . . . nor
varom (or varom') about which, about what
vart where ( $=$ whither)
vatten $n$. (5) water
recka (1) week
vell who, whom
veta (IIb, visste, vetat) to know vi (oss) we
vid $a t$, by, $i n$, to
vid wide
vidare further, more, on
vidga (I) to widen
vilja (II, ville, velat) to want to,
will; - hava want
vill, ville, see vilja
vin $n$. (3) wine
vind (2) wind
vinter (2) winter; i - this winter
vintras; i - last winter
visst surely, certainly
visste, see veta
vit white
vore, voro, see vara
våg (1) wave
vàr our, ours
vår (2) spring; i - this spring vàras; i - last spring
väder $n$. (5) weather
väl well, no doubt, I suppose
välja (IIa, valde) to choose, elect
vän (3) friend
vända (IIa) to turn; - sig turn
vänin'ua (1) (woman) friend
vänja (IIa, vande) to accustom vänt, see vända
vänta (I) to wait, await, expect värld (2) world
värre, comparative of elak växa (IIb) to grow

## Y

yngst, comparative of ung yrke $n$. (4) trade, occupation

A
à (2) river
àker (2) field
àn, see à
àr $n$. (5) year
àt for, to, at
àter again, once more
àtta eight

## $\ddot{A}$

ädel noble
äkta, indecl., genuine, pure äldre, comparative of gammal äldst, superlative of gamnial
älska (I) to love
älskad beloved
än than
äng (2) meadow
änka (1) widow
ännu stili, yet
äpple $n$. (4) apple
är, ären, äro, see vara
äta (STR., àt, ätit) to eat
även also

## 0

ö (2) island
öde, indecl., desolate, deserted, uninhabited
öga $n$. (ögon) eye
önska (I) to wish
öppen open
öppna (I) to open
öra $n$. (öron) ear
Östersjön The Baltic
över over, across, about
överal'lt (or överallt) everywhere
överst uppermost
örre upper

## ENGLISH-SWEDISH VOCABULARY.

$A$ en (ett)
able; be - kunna (kan; kunde, kunnat)
about om, kring, omkring', över
above över, ovanför
abyss avgrund (3)
accustom vänja (IIa, vande)
across över
addition; in - därtill (or -til'1)
admire beun'dra ( I )
after efter, frản
afterwards sedan, sen
again igen', àter, mera
against emo't
age àldras (I)
ago för . . . sedan
alike; be - likna (I) varan'dra all all, hel; all of a sudden plötsligt
almost nästan
alone ensam
along fram, framảt (or -å't), längs
aloud högt
already redan
also även, ocksá
always alltid
among bland, mellan
amuse roa (I); - one's self roa sig
an, see a
and och
another en annan (annat), en . . . till
answer svar $n$. (5)
answer svara (I)
any nảgon (nảgot, nảgra)
anything nảgonting, något
apple äpple $n$. (4)
arm arm (2)
army armé (3)
around runt om
arrive (at one's destination) komma fram (kom, kommo, kommit)
artist konstnär (or -nä'r) (3)
as som, sả
ashamed; be - skämmas (IIa)
ask fråga (I); bedja, be (bad,
bảdo, bett); ask for bedja om
asleep; fall - somna (I)
at vid, hos, på, till; at all alls;
at first först; at last slutligen, till sist; at once genast; at home hemma
author förfat'tare (5)
autumn höst (2); - morning höstmorgon (2)
awake vakna (I)
away bort, borta, hän, undan; away from frản
awful förfä'rlig

## B

back tillba'ka
bag säck (2)
bakery bageri' $n$. (3)
Baltic Sea (the) Östersjön
be vara (är, äro; var, voro, varit); bliva, bli (blev, blivit); finnas (fanns, funnos, funnits); stả till (stod, stått); be situated ligga (lảg, legat)
beaming stràlande
beat slà (slog, slagit)
beautiful vacker, skön
because därför att
become bliva, bli (blev, blivit)
bed; go to - lägga sig (lade, lagt)
bee bi $n$. (4)
bcfall hända (IIa)
before förr, framför (or -fö'r), innan
begin börja (I); begyn'na (IIb)
behind bakom (or bakom'), efter
behold se (ság, sett)
believe tro (III)
below under
bench bänk (2)
bend böja (IIa), böja sig
bending böjd
berry bär $n$. (5)
beside bredvi'd
best bäst
better bättre
between mellan, emel'lan
birch björk (2)
bird fägel (2)
bird-cherry tree häggbuske (2)
bishop biskop (2)
bit; $a$ - litet
bite bita (bet, bitit); bitas
black svart
blast of wind vindstöt (2)
blind blind
blooming blommande
blossom blomma (1)
blow blảsa (IIb); spruta (I)
blue blà; dark - mörkblà
boat bảt (2)
book bok (3, böcker)
botanist bota'niker (5)
both . . . and bảde . . . och
boy gosse (2)
braid fläta (1); fläta (I)
branch gren (2)
bread bröd $n$. (5)
break gả sönder (gick, gingo, gått)
breathe andas (I)
breeze bris (3)
bridge bro (2)
bring föra (IIa)
broad bred, vid
broken bruten
brook bäck (2)
brother broder, bror (5, bröder)
brown brun
build bygga (IIa)
bullet kula (1)
bush buske (2)
but men, utan
butter smör $n$.
butterfly fjäril (2)
buy köpa (IIb)
$b y$ av, vid, med

## C

call kalla (I); call (out) ropa (I) calm lugn
calm lugna ( I )
can kunna (kan; kunde, kunnat)
capital huvudstad (3, ä)
careful försik'tig
carry bära (bar, buro, burit);
föra (IIa)
cast kasta (I)
catch; - a cold förky'la sig (IIa); - sight of fả syn pá (fick, fingo, fått)
cautiously försik'tigt
chair stol (2)
chairman ordförande (5)
cheek kind (3)
cherry körsbär $n$. (5)
cherry-blossom körsbärsblomma (1)
cherry-tree körsbärsträd $n$. (5) chestnut-tree kastan'jeträd $n$. (5) child barn $n$. (5)
Christmas jul (2);-period jultid; - present julklapp (2)
church kyrka (1)
city stad (3, ä)
clap klappa (I)
clatter klappra (I)
clear ända
climb stiga upp (steg, stigit)
closer närmare
cloth tyg $n$. $(3 ; 5)$
coal-black kolsvart
coffee kaffe $n$.
cold kall; catch $a$ - förky'la sig (IIa)
color färg (3)
column kolon'n (3)
come komma (kom, kommo, kommit)
complain klaga (I)
condition förhàl'lande $n$. (4)
constantly alltjäm't (or alltjämt)
cost kosta (I)
cottage stuga (1)
country land $n$. (3, ä; 5)
couple of ett par
course lopp $n$. (5)
cow ko (-r)
creep krypa (kröp, krupit)
crown krona (1)
crown kröna (IIb)
crush krossa (I)
cry out ropa (I)
cultivated, see strawberries
cup kopp (2)
cut skära (skar, skuro, skurit);

- off skära av, avskära


## D

dance dans $(2 ; 3)$
dance dansa (I)
dark mörk; grow - mörkna (I); dark blue mörkblả
daughter dotter ( 2,0 )
day dag (2); day of sunshine
solskensdag (2)
dead död
dear kär
deep djup
deep djup $n$. (5)
dense tät
depth djup $n$. (5)
deserted öde, indecl.
desolate öde, indecl.
destination; at - framme; to fram
die dö (dog, dött)
difficult svảr
disappear försvin'na (-svan'n, -svun'no, -svun'nit)
district län $n$. (5)
do göra (gjorde, gjort)
doctor doktor (3, dokto'rer)
dog hund (2)
doll docka (1)
double dubbel
doubt; no-nog
dove duva (1)
down ned, ner, nedför (or -för)
dream of ana (I)
dress klänning (2)
dress kläda sig (IIa)
dress-goods klänningstyg $n .(3 ; 5)$
drink dryck (3)
drink dricka (drack, drucko, fall fall $n$. (5) druckit)
drive jaga (I)
duck and (3, ä)
during om

## E

each other varan'dra
early tidigt
earth jord (2)
easy-chair vilstol (2)
eat äta (àt, ätit)
edge of the water strandbrädd(2)
eight àtta
emperor kejsare (5)
end ände (or ända) (2)
enemy fiende (3); (personal) ovän (3)
English engelsk, engelska
Englishman engelsman (5, ä)
enough nog
entire hel
entirely alldeles
Europe Euro'pa
even ens
evening afton (2); kväll (2); this

- i afton; in the -om aftonen ever nàgonsin
every varje, var
everything allt
everywhere överal'It (or överallt)
evil ond
examination exa'men (-a'mina)
explain förkla'ra (I)
extend sträcka ut (IIb)
eye öga $n$. (ögon)
eye-lash ögonhår $n$. (5)
F
face ansikte $n$. (4)
fair skön
fall falla (föll, fallit); - asleep somna (I)
far lảngt (längre, längst)
farther vidare, längre
fast fort
fat fet
father fader, far (5, fäder)
feel känna (IIa), känna med sig
fetch hämta (I)
fever feber (2)
few; $a$ - uågra
fiddle fio'1 (3)
field áker (2); fält $n$. (5)
fight slảss (slogs, slảtts)
find finna (fann, funno, funnit)
fine vacker
finish sluta (I)
first först; at - först
fir-tree fura (1)
five fem
flag flagga (1)
flash blixtra (I)
flee fly (III)
float flyta (flöt, flutit)
floor; on the second - en trappa upp; on the third - tva trappor upp
flour mjöl $n$.
flour-bag mjölsäck (2)
flow flyta (flöt, flutit)
flower blomma (1)
flower-garden blomsterträdgård (2)
flutter fladdra (I)
fly flyga (flög, flugit)
fly fluga (1)
foam skum $n$.
follow följa (IIa)
food mat
foot fot (3, fötter; in special meaning, 5)
for till, ty, för
force tvinga (I or tvang, tvungo, tvungit)
forest skog (2)
forget glömma (IIa)
formerly förr
forth fram
fortunately lyckligtvis
forward fram
fragrant doftande
fresh frisk
freshly-baked nygräddad
friend vän (3); (woman) - vänin'na (1)
friendly vänlig
frightened förskräc'kt
from från, av; from which var-
ifrån (or -frå'n); from here
härifrản (or -frå'n)
full full
furious våldsam


## G

gate port (2)
gather samla (I)
gentle mild
gentlcman herre (2)
German tysk; the German language tyska
get fả (fick, fingo, fått); bliva,
bli (blev, blivit); komma (kom,
kommit); get to fả; get up re-
sa sig (IIb), stiga upp (steg,

- stigit)
girl flicka (1)
give giva (gav, gåvo, givit)
glass glas $n$. (5)
glittering strålande
glorious härlig
glow glöda (IIa)
go gả (gick, gingo, gått); is go-
ing to kommer att; go out for
a walk gả ut och gå; go to
sleep somna (I)
goat get (3, getter)
gone borta
good god, bra, snäll
goose gảs (5, gäss)
gradually smảningom
grain säd
grass gräs $n$. (5)
grave grav (2)
grave allvarlig
gray grá
green grön
greeting hälsning (2)
grind mala (IIa)
ground mark
grove lund $(2 ; 3)$
grow växa (IIb); - dark mörkna (I); - weary tröttna (I)


## H

hair hảr $n$. (5)
hand hand ( $3, \ddot{a}$ )
happen hända (IIa)
happy glad, lycklig
hard svàr
hat hatt (2)
have hava, ha (har; hade, haft);
have to máste
he han
head huvud $n$. (-en or 5 )
healthy frisk
hear höra (IIa)
heart hjärta $n$. (4)
heat värme
heath hed (2)
heavy tung (tyngre, tyngst)
height höjd (3)
help hjälpa (IIb); - each other hjälpas àt
her henne; hennes; refl., sin (sitt, sina)
here här; hit (=hither)
hers hennes; refl., sin (sitt, sina)
herself sig; själv
hidden dold
hide-and-seek kurra gömma
high hög (-re, -st)
hill kulle (2); backe (2)
him honom
himself sig; själv
hip-bone höft (3)
his hans; sin (sitt, sina)
hole hál $n$. (5)
home hem; at home hemma
home hem $n$. (5)
hope hoppas (I)
horizon horison't (3)
horse häst (2)
host här (2)
house hus $n$. (5)
how huru, hur
howl tjuta (tjöt, tjutit)
human life människoliv $\boldsymbol{n}$. (5)
humble ödmjuk
hurl kasta (I)
hurry skynda (sig) (I); be in a - ha bråttom
hurt skada (I)

## I

$I$ jag
icy isande
if om
imagine tänka sig (IIb)
in i , om, på; in there därin'ne;
in addition därtill (or därtil'1)
interesting intressan't
into in, in i, till island ö (2)
it den (det); det
its dess; refl., $\sin$ (sitt, sina)
itself sig; själv

## J

jewel ädelsten (2)
John Johan
Johnson Johansson
joy lust
jump hoppa (I)
just nyss; just then i detsam'ma;
just as lika, likasá

## K

keep hålla (höll, hảllit)
kerchief halsduk (2)
kilogram kilo $n$. (5)
kindhearted godhjärtad
king konung, kung (2)
kingdom rike $n$. (4)
knee knä $n$. (4)
knife kniv (2)
knock slả (slog, slagit)
know känna (IIa); veta (vet; visste, vetat)

## L

laboratory laborato'rium n. (3, -o'rier)
lady dam (3)
lake sjö (2)
lamp lampa (1)
land land $n$. ( 3, ä; 5)
large stor (större, störst)
last sist; at - till sist, slutligen
laugh skratta (I)
lead föra (IIa)
leaf blad n. (5); 1öv $n$. (5)
learn lära (IIa), lära sig
ledge klippavsats (3)
leg ben $n$. (5)
lesson läxa (1)
letter brev $n$. (5)
librarian biblioteka'rie (5)
library bibliote'k $n$. (5)
lie ligga (lảg, legat)
life liv $n$. (5)
life-time mäuniskoliv $n$.; livstid
lift 1yfta (IIb)
lightly lätt
like som
like tycka om (IIb)
linden-tree lind (2)
line rand (3, ä)
lion lejon $n$. (5)
listen lyssna (I)
liter liter (5)
little liten (litet, lilla, små); $a$ - litet
live bo (III); leva (IIa)
living levande
lock lock (2)
long lảng (längre, längst); long,
for a long time länge; no longer icke längre
long längta (I)
longing längtan
look se (såg, sett); se ut; look at se på; look for söka (IIb); look out akta sig (I)

## loud hög

love älska (I)
low làg (lägre, lägst)
loyal trogen
lure locka (I)

## M

make göra (gjorde, gjort); skapa (I)
man man (5, ä); karl (2); old gubbe (2)
many mảnga, plur.
march marsche'ra (I)
March mars
marry gifta (IIb); be married gifta sig
me mig
meadow äng (2)
mean mena (I)
meet möta (IIb); träffa (I), träffas
meter meter (5)
midst; in the - of mellan
mile mil (5)
mill kvarn (2)
miller mjölnare (5); miller's servant mjölnardräng (2)
mill-wheel kvarnhjul $n$. (5)
mine, see my
misfortune olycka (1)
Miss fröken (2)
moment ögonblick $n$. (5)
money pengar, plur.
more mera, mer; flera (-e); till
morning morgon (2); this - $\mathbf{i}$ dag på morgonen, i morse
most mest; flesta (-e); most of the time för det mesta
mother moder, mor ( 2 , mödrar)
mountain berg $n$. (5); bergshöjd (3)
mouth mun (2)
Mr. herr (2)
Mrs. fru (2)
much mycket
museum muse'um $n$. (3, -e'er)
must måste
mutter mumla (I)
$m y$ min (mitt, mina)

## N

name namn $n$. (5); be one's name heta (IIb)
narrow trång (trängre, trängst); smal
nature natu'r (3)
naughty elak
near nära
neck hals (2)
negro neger (3)
neighbor granne (2)
neither. . . nor varken . . . eller nest näste $n$. (4)
neuter neutrum $n$. ( 3 , neutrer; neutra)
never aldrig
nevertheless ändà, i alla fall
new ny
next nästa
night natt ( 3, ä)
no nej; no doubt nog, väl; no longer icke längre, icke mera no ingen (inget, inga)
noble ädel
noise brak $n$.
none ingen (inget, inga)
noon middag (2)
noonday sun middagssol
nor eller; see neither
Norway Norge
not icke, ej, inte
nothing ingenting; - but icke annat än
now nu
nut nöt (3, nötter)
$o$ à
oak ek (2)
ocean hav $n$. (5)
o'clock klockan; (at) eight klockan átta
of av, pá, till, om, i
off av
often ofta
oh ack
old gammal (äldre, äldst)
on pá, om, i; vidare
once en gảng; - more en gảng till; at - genast
one en (ett); man
one's self sig; sig själv
only endast, bara, blott
only enda (-e)
onward framảt (or framả't)
open öppen
open öppna (I)
opposite motsatt
or eller
orchard trädgård (2)
other annan (annat, andra)
our, ours vảr
out ute, ut; out of (ut) ur; out of breath andfådd
outermost ytterst
outside ute, utanför
over över; - there där borta
own egen

$$
\mathbf{P}
$$

paint mảla (I)
pair par $n$. (5)
palace slott $n$. (5)
pale blek
parents förä1'drar, plur.
parish socken (2)
particular noga, indecl.
pass gả (gick, gingo, gått); out gả ut, utgá
past förbi'
pasture hage (2)
path stig (2)
pay lön (3)
peace ro
peasant bonde ( $3,0 \ddot{\text { o }})$
peep forth titta fram (I)
people folk $n$. (5)
period, see Christmas
permission tillåtelse
permit tillảta (-lät, -låtit); lảta
photograph fotografi (3)
piano pia'no $n$. (4)
pick plocka (I); bryta (bröt, brutit)
pigeon duva (1)
place plats (3); ställe $n$. (4)
plain slätt (3)
play leka (IIb); spela (I)
please beha'ga (I)
plenty of fullt upp med
pocket ficka (1)
ponder (over) funde'ra (pà) (I)
poor fattig
possible möjlig
powerful kraftig
present, see Christmas
press tränga (IIa)
pretty vacker
princess prinses'sa (1)
prison fängelse $n$. (3)
professor profes'sor (3, professo'rer)
promise löfte $n$. (4)
promise lova (I)
pronoun prono'men $n$. (5;3; prono'mina)
proud (of) stolt (över)
put sätta (satte, satt); lägga (lade, lagt); sticka (stack, stucko, stuckit); put on taga pả (tog, tagit)
quickly hastigt
quiet, quietly stilla, tyst

## R

rain regna (I)
raise resa (IIb); lyfta (IIb)
raisin russin $n$. (5)
range ás (2)
rapidly hastigt
rarely sällan
reach nå (III)
read läsa (i) (IIb)
receive fả (fick, fingo, fått)
recline ligga (lág, legat)
recover bliva bra (blev, blivit)
red röd
region trakt (3)
relate berät'ta (I); tala om (I), omtala
related (to) släkt (med), indecl. remember komma ihả'g (kom, kommit)
remind (of) páminna (om) (IIa)
reminiscence minne $n$. (4)
repeat upprepa (I)
reply svara (I)
resting-place viloplats (3)
return ảtervända (IIa)
ride rida (red, ridit)
ridge ảs (2); - of sand sandảs (2)
right rätt; be vight hava rätt (hade, haft); - on mitt pá
ripe mogen
ripen mogna (I)
rippling krusig
rise stiga upp (steg, stigit); gå upp (gick, gingo, gått); resa sig (IIb); lyfta sig (IIb)
river å (2); flod (3)
roam vandra (I)
roar brusa (I); dåna (I); vråla
(I); ryta (röt, rutit)
roll rulla (I)
roof tak $n$. (5)
rose ros (1)
round rund
royal kunglig
rumble dảna (I)
run springa (sprang, sprungo, sprungit)
rush brusa (I)

## S

sail segla (1)
sailor sjöman (5, ä)
same samma (-e)
sand sand
satisfied nöjd
Saturday lördag (2); - evening lördagskväll (2)
say säga (sade, sagt)
scarcely knappt
school skola (1)
sea hav $n$. (5)
second, see floor
secret hemlighet (3).
see se (sảg, sett)
seed frö $n$. (4; 3)
seem synas (IIb); se ut (såg, sett)
self själv
sell sälja (sálde, sålt)
send sända (IIa); skicka (I)
service tjänst (3)
set gà ned (gick, gingo, gảtt)
sew sy (III)
shadow skugga (1)
shake skaka (I)
shall komma att; skola (skall)
she hon
ship skepp $n$. (5)
shoe sko (-r)
shoemaker skomakare (5)
shore strand (3, ä); - of lake sjöstrand
should skulle
shout skrika (skrek, skrikit)
shriek skrik $n$. (5).
shudder rysning (2)
sick sjuk
side sida (1)
sigh sucka (I)
sight; catch - of fả syn pà (fick, fingo, fảtt)
sign spår $n$. (5)
silent tyst; be - tiga (teg, tegat)
silk silke $n$. (4)
sincerely ärligt
sing sjunga (sjöng, sjungit)
single enda (-e)
sister syster (2)
sit sitta (satt, sutto, suttit); -
down sätta sig (satte, satt)
situated; be - ligga (làg, legat)
sixteen sexton
sky himmel (2)
sleep sova (sov, sovit); go to somna (I)
slender smärt, smal
slip glida (gled, glidit)
slipper toffel (1)
slow(ly) sakta; smáningom
small liten (litet, lilla, smá; mindre, minst)
smell dofta (I)
smile le (log, lett)
sneeze nysa (nös, nysit; or IIb)
so sá
soft mjuk; mild
soldier solda't (3)
some nảgon (nảgot, nảgra)
something nảgot
soon snart, fort
sooner förr
sough susa (I)
speak tala (I)
speed fart
spin spinna (spann, spunno, spunnit)
spirit ande (2)
spread breda (IIa); -out breda sig
spring vår (2); this - i vảr; last

- i våras
spring källa (1)
spring springa (sprang, sprungo, sprungit)
stairs trappa (1)
stand stả (stod, stått)
stay stanna (I)
steal stjäla (stal, stulo, stulit)
steep brant
steeple tornspira (1)
still ännu (or ännu'); stilla
stone sten (2)
stop stanna (I)
stork stork (2)
storm storm (2)
storm storma (I)
story histo'ria ( 3, -o'rier); saga (1)
stout tjock
strange underlig; egen
stranger (den) okända (-e)
strawberries; (wild) - smultron
$n$. (5); (cultivated) - jordgub-
be (2)
streak strimma (1)
stream flod (3)
street gata (1)
strength kraft (3)
stretch sträcka ${ }^{(I I b)}$
strike slå (slog, slagit)
strong stark
such sảdan
summer sommar (2); in (during)
the - om sommaren; last - i
somras; summer's heat som-
marvärme
sun sol (2)
sunshine solsken $n$.
surprised förvá'nad
swallow svala (1)
swan svan $(1 ; 2 ; 3)$
Swede (en) svensk (2)
Sweden Sver(i)ge
Swedish svensk; the - language svenska; in - pá svenska
sweetly ljuvligt
swift rapp


## T

table bord $n$. (5)
take taga, ta (tog, tagit)
talk tala (I)
tall lảng, hög
teacher lärare (5); (woman) lärarin'na (1)
tell berät'ta (I); säga (sade, sagt); tala om (för) (I), omtala
ten tio
terror skräck

## than än

that att; som, vad; det, den (det, de)
the den (det, de); ju, dess, desto; see § 40
theater tea'ter (2)
their deras, sin (sitt, sina)
them dem
themselves sig, själva
then då, därefter (or -ef'ter), se(da) n, sá
there där, det, dit (= thither);
over - där borta
these dessa
they de, man
thick grov (grövre, grövst)
thicket skogsdjup $n$. (5)
thing ting $n$. (5); sak (3)
think tänka (IIb); tycka (IIb); tro (III)
this denna (detta, dessa)
thought tanke (2)
thoughtful tankfull
three tre
through genom
throw kasta (I)
tie binda (band, bundo, bundit) tiger tiger (2)
till till
time tid (3); gång (3); at that - pá den tiden; at what huru dags; a long - länge
tip spets (2)
tired (of) trött (pã); become (of) tröttna (pả) (I)
to till, för, att, för att, med, pà, vid, mot
to-day i dag
together tillsam'mans
to-morrow i morgon
tongue tunga (1)
too för, ocksá
top topp (2)
touch berö'ra (IIa)
toward (s) mot
town $\operatorname{stad}(3$, ä)
train tảg $n$. (5)
tree träd $n$. (5)
true äkta, indecl.
try försö'ka (IIb)
Tuesday tisdag (2); last - i tisdags
tug slita (slet, slitit)
turn vända (IIa), vända sig; driva (drev, drivit)
two tvà
ugh hu
uncle farbror (5); morbror (5)
unconscious utan medvetande
under under
understand förstå' (-sto'd, -stảt't)
uneasy orolig
uninhabited obebodd
until tills
$u p$ upp, uppe; $u p$ on pá; up to fram till
upon pá
us oss
use bruka (I)
useful nyttig
usual vanlig
usually vanligen
utter uppgiva (-gav, -gảvo, -givit)
vacant ledig
valley dal (2)
veil slöja (1)
very mycket, allra, själv
vicinity närhet
village by (2)
violet vio'1 (3)
violet-colored violet't
visit besö'k $n$. (5)
visit besö'ka (IIb)
voice röst (3)

## W

wagon vagn (2)
wait vänta (I)
walk gả (gick, gingo, gàtt); go
out for $a$ - gå ut och gà
wander vandra (I)
wandering vandring (2)
want to vilja (ville, velat)
war krig $n$. (5)
warm varm
wash tvätta (I)
water vatten $n$. (5)
water vattna (I)
wave vảg (1); bölja (1)
way väg (2)
we vi (oss)
weak svag
weapon vapen $n$. (5)
weary; grow - tröttna (I)
weather väder $n$. (5)
Wednesday onsdag (2)
week vecka (1)
weep gråta (grät, gråtit)
weigh väga (IIa)
well väl, bra, gott; frisk; ja, jo wet vàt
what vad
wheat vete
wheat-roll vetebulle (2)
wheel hjul $n$. (5)
when när, då
where var, där
wherever ( = whither) vart
whether om
which som; from - varifràn (or -frả'n); on - varpå (or -på)
while medan
whirl virvla (I); -about svinga sig (I)
whirlwind virvelvind (2)
whisper viska (I)
white vit
whither vart
who vem, som
whole hel
why varför (or -fö'r)
widow änka (1)
width bredd (3)
wife hustru (-r)
wild vild
will komma att, skola, vilja (ville, velat)
wind vind (2)
window fönster $n$. (5)
wine vin $n$. (3)
wing vinge (2)
winter vinter (2)
wisdom visdom; words of - visdomsord
wish to vilja (ville, velat)
with med; hos
wither vissna (I)
withered vissen
within inom
without utan
woman kvinna (1)
wonder under $n$. (5)
wonder undra (I)
wonderful underbar
woods skog (2)
wool ull
word ord $n$. (5); words of wisdom visdomsord
work arbete $n$. (4)
work arbeta (I)
world värld (2); jord (2)
worse värre
would skulle
write skriva (skrev, skrivit)
$\mathbf{Y}$
year àr $n$. (5)
yellow gul
yes ja, jo
yesterday i gảr; - morning i går morse
yet ännu (or ännu'), än yield vika (vek, vikit)
you du (dig); ni (er); I (eder)
young ung
your, yours din (ditt, dina); er, eder
yourself dig, er, eder

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Note. - References are to paragraphs, unless preceded by p. ( = page); fn. =foot-note; n. = note.

The accent (i. e., primarily the acute accent) is given only for words whose accent has been mentioned in the lessons; ac. = acute; gr. = grave; acgr. = acute or grave. Reference is rarely made to the paragraph in which the accent is given.

For the pronunciation, reference is made not to the paragraph in which each word is mentioned in the lessons, but to the place in the introduction on sounds or the Phonology to which reference is there made. A reference to pronunciation is preceded by pr.; Phon. = Phonology.

Coll. = colloquial; orth. = orthography. Other abbreviations will be clear. For compounds in -dag(s) see this.
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## NOTES AND CORRECTIONS.

$\S 6$, note 2. It must not be inferred that the $a$ of hjärta in $\S I_{3}, 3$ is long. No examples of a long vowel before $r t$ were intended to be given; art is an example.
$\S 9$, I b. Unstressed $e$ in endings is also like the " $a$ " in "ago".
$\S 39$, I. It must not be inferred that den här is in the written language followed by the noun in the indefinite form.
$\S$ go. In a few words, not very common, $\hat{e}$ sometimes occurs also medially, though usage varies. In proper names, however, medial $\delta$ is more common, as in Tegnér, the example given in the grammar.
§ 124. Omit the example: Han $\operatorname{dog}$ ar 1870.
Page 97, vocabulary. Land may also have the plural länder.
Page 128, foot-note 5. In addition to the verbs here listed as irregularly belonging to IIb , there are a number of verbs that in the spoken language may have the forms of IIb, though belonging to other conjugations. See § 191, 3.
$\S 214,2$. The inversion, when om is omitted, should perhaps have been expressly stated (cf. § 215 , end); it is referred to (§ 140 , beginning) in the foot-note.
§ 229, 2. Read: "The verb proper normally stands first, . . ." In case of emphasis the affix may stand first.
§ 281, note 2. Observe that also the verb in the principal clause stands last in two of the examples given.
§ 289. Read: "When an interrogative is the subject, or modifies the subject, of an indirect question, . . " I am referring to adjective pronouns and the genitive of the interrogatives.
§ 297, line 4. When hel means "all", it is always in the definite form; cf. page 126 , foot-note 12.

Appendix I, 1. From the use of the word "only" in the case of the examples of monosyllables in the First Declension, it must not be inferred that also the other examples are the only ones. Sinilarly in Appendix I, 3.

Appendix I, 2 B b. The example hustru, given under Irregular, is purposely omitted from the generalizing remarks in the column to the extreme left.


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[^0]:    IV. Second Declension. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 34

    Past tense of hava, vara.

[^1]:    1 Vowel shortened.

[^2]:    1 In Swedish, as in Latin, predicate adjectives as well as attributive adjectives are inflected. In German, predicate adjectives remain uninflected.

    2 In en, min, din the vowel is short though followed by only one consonant; see § 6 , note 1 , and Phonology § 18 b (concerning Phonology see the note preceding $\S 1$ in this book). The substitution of $t t$ for $n$ in ett. ditt. mitt is therefore only orthographic, since the common-gender forms are pronounced as though written enn, minn, dinn.

[^3]:    1 The vowel in han, hon, den is short; see \& 37.
    2 In poetry, and in prose in the elevated style, $d u$ and din are used in addressing any person. These pronouns are also employed in addressing the Deity. In these cases, English uses the corresponding pronouns "thou" and "thine".

    3 Between friends, $d u$ is normally used only after a definite agreement to use it; ef. \& 39, 2 end.

[^4]:    1 Concerning the position of the main stress in Swedish, see $\S 2$ and note. The question of stress is treated in notes and foot-notes, whenever comment is necessary, and not under ACCENT.

[^5]:    1 Concerning the small initial letter see $\AA_{24,1 .}$
    2 Or, "Where do you live now, Mr. Anderson?" Similarly in the other cases.

    3 As in English, so in Swedish, words used as titles before proper names are relatively unstressed; accordingly, the stress on the syllable indicated is in this instance relatively weak.

    4 Cf. 869 , note 4.
    5 Lägga bort titlarna dispense with titles, as it is called. See page 17, foot-note 3.

[^6]:    1 Care should be taken not to confuse the term "indefinite form" with "indefinite article."

[^7]:    1 Except most of the auxiliaries.
    2 Observe that the negative follows the finite form of the verb in both languages.

[^8]:    1 Observe the inverted order of the questions, as in English.
    2 For the sake of convenience these forms are not included in the verbparadigms. The student should constantly bear in mind that these are the usual forms for the second person plural. Pronouns of the second person plur. are, however, by the nature of things, not of frequent occurrence.

[^9]:    1 A ferv verbs, however, have the acute accent in all forms. See $\S 66,3$.
    2 In the following lessons the acute accent will be indicated only in the case of words occurring for the first time in each lesson.

    3 But a predicate adjective is in the plural (see 860 ) if the subject is plural; as, dïä(r) bruna (de ärobruna) they are brown.

[^10]:    1 That is, giver, flock-ar.
    2 In cases of this kind, English usually omits the conjunction and uses a participle for the second verb.

[^11]:    1 See §4\%.

[^12]:    1 Never hatten fickans; the genitive stands first. The following noun has indefinite form, though definite in meaning.

    2 The principal words ending in $-a$ that do not belong to the First Declension are the neuters öga eje, öra ear (see §110) and hjürta heart (see §94,2); also a few nouns of common gender; as, histo'ria story, which belongs to the Third Declension (see page 47, foot-note 2).

[^13]:    1 Cf. §68, note 2.
    2 Cf. §69, note 1 b .

[^14]:    1 The monosyllabic indef. sing. vos and vag also have the acute accent. Notice is taken only of words and forms of more than one syllable having the acute accent.

[^15]:    1 See page 26, foot-note 2.
    2 Observe the def. form of the noun. Cf. $\$ 125$.

[^16]:    1 See page 28, foot-note 1.

[^17]:    1 But the def. sing. and the plural (indef. and def.) are never so contracted (cf. § 69, note 1 b , and page 35, foot-note 2). See the paradigm, § 70. On the contrary, note $k$ (on)ungen, k(on)ungar. $k$ (on)ungarna.

    2 Observe also furste prince, but furst Bismarck: ef. § 106, note 2.

[^18]:    1 Of himmel heaven, the def. form is himmeln, himlen or himmelen.
    2 Instead of modern, dottern, the forms modren, dottren are sometimes used. Cf. \$107, note 1 and foot-note.

    3 Nouns that according to an older (now only dialectical) gender-system were masculine, though not names of living beings.

[^19]:    1 Both English and Swedish sometimes use the present tense to indicate future time, as here.

[^20]:    1 Identical with the plural of the indefinite form.
    2 Except as stated in $\$ 149$.
    3 Observe that the prepositive definite article is identical in form with the personal pronoun den, det, de.

[^21]:    1 Observe that all strong verbs have -er in the pres. sing., but that not all verbs with er in the pres. sing. are strong.

[^22]:    1 Irregular.
    2 That is, for this lesson, weak verbs, and strong verbs with the vowelchange $i$ : $e$.

    3 "Att" with infinitives is in Swedish omitted much more often than to in English; see §242, 1.-As in English, "att" ( $=$ that) is frequently omitted, particularly in the spoken language.

[^23]:    1 Observe the order in: "Jag tycker icke om gula blommor." "Tycker du om gula blommor?"

    2 Cf. page 39, foot-note.
    3 Götebor'g, the clty of Gothenburg.

[^24]:    1 Cf. 18 in Exercise $A$.

[^25]:    1 Of the neuters that do not belong to this declension, those ending in a vowel belong to the Fourth Declension, and those ending in a consonant, to the Fifth.

    2 Some nouns otherwise having no plural, or, in a few instances, having a plural according to another declension, form a plural ending in eer denoting "kinds of", "brands of" in the mercantile sense; as, vin (n.) wine, te (n.) tea, frö (n.; also 4) seed.

    3 The commonest suffixes are: (1) common-gender, -else, -het, -skap, -ad, -nad, -nür, beside a large variety of suffixes in words of foreign origin; (2) nenter (foreign origin), evi', $e^{\prime} u m,-i u m$. Nouns ending in $-e^{\prime}-i^{\prime}$ are partly neuter, partly of common gender.

    4 Konstnär may, thongh less frequently, also be pronounced with the stress on the final syllable.

[^26]:    1 Or they may remain unchanged; as, det anato'miska muse'um the anatomical museum.

    2 As the vowel of vün is short, the change to a double consonant invünner is not parallel to that of $b o k: b \ddot{\sigma}$ ker. See $\$ 90$.

[^27]:    1 On the contrary, nouns with these suffixes belonging to the Second Declension have the grave accent in the plural; see $\delta 74,2$ end.

[^28]:    1 See § 90 .

[^29]:    1 See page 46, foot-note 4.
    2 The prefix "o-" (together with "in-", "im-") in Swedish corresponds to the English un- (in-, im-). The prefix "o-" is stressed. Further examples are: ovan unaccustomed, obebodd uninhabited, odelbar indivisible, omöjlig impossille.

    3 Indeclinable relative pronoun. It can be used only as a substantive pronoun, but it may refer to nouns of either gender and number, and may be used as the subject or as the object. When a preposition is used, it regu-- larly follows the relative (as generally in spoken English).

    4 Ame'rika.

[^30]:    1 E. g., in English: run, ran; eat, ate; fall, fell; shoot, shot; break, broke; tear, tore; bite, bit; drive, drove; bind, bound; sing, sang; give, gave.

    2 A more complete account is given in Lesson XVI.
    3 For further illustrations see the note preceding the vocabulary of this lesson.

[^31]:    1 Not infrequently both icke and ej occur in the same sentence. Ex.: Detta mürker lütt den, som försöker att föra ett samtal med nägon, som han icke ser, och som ej ser honom. This will readily be observed by one who tries to carry on a conversation with someone whom hedoes notsee and who does notsee him.

[^32]:    1 Acute or grave accent.

[^33]:    1 Learn the past tense of these verbs as here given.
    2 Observe that while "komma" and "sova" do not change the vowel in the past tense, they have the other characteristics of a strong verb; note also "vara".

    3 See $\S 28$, note 1.
    4. See page 46 , foot-note 2 .

    5 "Jo" is used in place of "ja" in answer to a question containing a negative.
    6 Never used with the meaning of "this evening", as is the Eng. to-night.

[^34]:    1 See page 57, foot-note 2.2 John.

[^35]:    1 See 12 in Exercise $A$.
    2 Use "fràn".

[^36]:    1 The Third Declension contains a small number of neuters ending in a consonant, partly monosyllables, and partly words of more than one syllable; see $\S 87,1$, and page 46 , foot-note 3 . See, in addition, $\S 111$.

    2 Cf. Eng.: brother, brethren; man, men; goose, geese.
    3 Cf. Eng.: "I put in ten ton of coal last month."
    4 When fot does not indicate measure, it belongs to the Third Declension, plur. fötter.

    5 Tum may be either of common or of neuter gender.
    6 When individuals are thought of, the plur. mün is used.

[^37]:    1 But the def. sing. and the plural (indef. and def.) are never so contracted (cf. $\S 107$, note 1, and foot-note 2 on this page). See the paradigm, $\S 108$. Cf. § 65 , note 5 , and page 34, foot-note 1 .

    2 Instead of fadern, brodern, the forms fadren, brodren are sometimes used; cf. page 35 , foot-note 2 .

    3 Genus sometimes has the Latin plur. scnera, which is used perhaps more often with dcf. than with indef. meaning.

    4 Not, however, siden silk, sidenet; bäcken basin,bückenet, bückenen: fatter paper, papseret, дapseren.

[^38]:    1 Fönster sometimes uses as the def. plur., fönsterna. Similarly, fruntimmer woman, has fruntimen or fruntimmerna: filler pill, has fillren or fillerna.

    2 See foot-note 2 on the preceding page.
    3 Or man: see § 106,4 .
    4 The change from $n$ to $n n$ is only orthographic (see Phonology 518 ). On the contrary, the change from $s$ to ss in gas, güss is due to a change in quantity.

[^39]:    1 In some instances a difference in meaning is connected with the difference in form in the plural. This is the case with fot, plur. fötter or fot; man, plur. män or man; frö seed, plur. frön (— seeds) or fröer (一 kinds of seeds; see page 46, foot-note 2). -Note also gang walk, plur. gangar; gang time, plur. gänger: bok book, plur. böcker: bok beech, plur. bokar; not note, plur. noter; not seine, plur. notar; bank bank, plur. banker: bank (sand)bank, plur. bankar: skänk gift, plur. skünker; skünk sideboard, plur. skünkar; and so on, in the case of a few others.

    2 Concerning the genitive of common nouns ending in ans-sound, see § 119, end.

[^40]:    1 Notice the change from e to $i$, in accordance with Latin; cf. exa'men, exa'mina. Recent Swedish text-books frequently retain the e, brono'menet.

    2 This $-e=$ Latin "-ae".

[^41]:    1 The words given under (a) occur in the vocabulary and exercises; those under (b) occur only in the text of the grammar (exclusive of foot-notes).

    2 Similarly in the colloquial forms (see § 117, 4), husena, bibliote'kena, etc.

[^42]:    1 In those parts of Sweden where $-a$ is added, the def. plur. of all nouns ends in-na; as, fickorna, gossarna, sakerna, knüna, husena, fönsterna, güssena, ögona, korna.

[^43]:    1 The $l$ is silent, and the vowel is long; see $\delta 16$ a.
    2 "Gubbe" means "old man".

[^44]:    1 Many miles a day.
    2 Egyp'ten Egypt.
    3 Berli'n.
    4 Kvar left, remaining, there.
    5 Observe that Swedish does not use the genitive or a preposition in such expressions.

[^45]:    1 Use the def. form of the word for summer.
    2 See 17 in Exercise $A$, and foot-note.

[^46]:    1 Not all the genitives in the following examples denote possession or connection.

    2 Kronoberg may be siressed Kro'noberg or Kromober'g.

[^47]:    1 The following examples include cases of animate beings. The first 9 examples correspond to the first 9 of $\$ 118$.

    2 The genitive may also be avoided by the use of the def. form. Ex.: Ekorren jagas for pälsens skull (instead of for sin fials skwll). Squirrels are hunted for the sake of their fur. Blixtens snabbhet (for en blixts snabbhet) the rapidity of lightning.

[^48]:    1 See § 132, a.

[^49]:    1 The presence of a modifier is not necessary. Ex.: $D_{u}$ är ett barn. You are a child. A. ür en narr. A. is a fool. Jag betrak'tar honom som en vün. I consider him a friend. - On the other hand: Mängen av oss har som litet barn förtju'st lyssnat till sin moders röst, nür hon ut力läst sköna dikter. Many a one of us has as a little child listened with fascination to his mother's voice as she read beautiful poems.

[^50]:    1 With nouns denoting material the indef. form is the more common.
    2 Ifràn may have the rowel either long or short, ifrän or ifran'.

[^51]:    1 Or Swedish may use the possessire (or genitive), as English. But see 62, note.

[^52]:    1 English uses the def. article similarlr. But observe that some of the examples differ from English usage.

    2 See page 19, foot-note 3 .

[^53]:    1 A prepositional phrase is often used also in the case of living beings.

[^54]:    1 liad may be either an interrogative or a relative pronoun; see Lesson XXiII.

    2 The forms are identical with those of the indefinite article, but the latter is unstressed, while the numeral en is stressed.

[^55]:    1 On the first Aoor is "pá nedra (or, nedre) botten" or "i bottenvåningen".
    2 Linne'gatan fem 5 Linné St. - Observe the order.
    3 The Baltic.
    4 Names of countries, provinces, towns and estates are neuter. - Är rikt pả abounds in.

[^56]:    1 Use "lảng".
    3 Esai'as.
    4 See page 79, foot-note 4.

[^57]:    1 Observe that English also sometimes uses the present tense to express future time.

    2 These are called terminative verbs. Ex.: I bought you a book. The boy hit the window with a ball and brokeit. I lay down on the couch and soon fell asleep. He wounded his enemy. I have written a few letters. Please remind me if I forget to light the lamp. The boy fell off the fence.

    On the other hand, verbs that denote an action as going on, and which do not point to its beginning or end, or to the result of the action (that is, do not denote a change of any kind), are called cursive verbs. Ex.: I have a beautiful book. I admire his good qualities. He is sleeping. He was lying on the ground. I hate (love) him. It rained all day.- Many verbs may be at one tine terminative, at another, cursive.

[^58]:    1 Note the use of "go" as an auxiliary of the future in English.

[^59]:    1 In direct questions, inversion takes place (see page 24, foot-note 1), unless the subject is an interrogative word, or is modified by an interrogative word. Further, questions introduced by manne or containing the adverb ju do not have inversion. Ex.: Vem sade detta? Who said this? Vilkendera vägen ür vackrast? Which way is the prettiest? Männe han kommer? Will he come? Han ür ju kry igen'? He's well again, isn't he?

    Concerning inversion in connection with the imperative see § 243 , note 3 .
    2 That is, the finite form of the verb.
    3 Note that there is much more freedom in the order of words in Swedish than in English. In principal clauses, words belonging to the predicate are very often placed first, and, as a result, inversion is very common. Almost any word can be placed at the beginning of a principal clause, to indicate transition from what has gone before, or for emphasis.

[^60]:    1 Observe that this conditional clanse is in form the same as a question.
    2 Except, frequently, in clauses introduced bs att, which haveinversionjust as do principal clauses when, as is here permissible, a word belonging to the predicate, or another subordinate clause, is inserted immediately after the conjunction. Ex.: Han sade, att pà tre dagar hade han icke fätt nảgon

[^61]:    1 Swedish "bra", like English well. is also frequently used in the sense of "frisk" (not sick).

    2 Used, e. g., in sentences such as: it is raining det regnar.
    3 Cf. "fá" in the vocabulary of Lesson IX.
    4 See § 139 , note 2.
    5 "Dá" also frequently has the meaning since.

[^62]:    1 Andrew.

[^63]:    1 Have $=$ receive .
    2 Place the Swedish for this fair first in the sentence.
    3 Place the Swedish for in school first in the sentence.

[^64]:    1 Another case of the use of the def. adj. with a noun that has def. meaning, though indef. in form, is represented by examples such as the following, where the adjective is a participle: nyss cite'rade arbete the work just cited, ovan angivna plan the plan stated above, enligt bifogade cirkulia'r according to the enclosed circular. - Similarly, in the case of the superlative. Ex.: $/$ senaste nummer av Stockholms Dagblad in the last number of S. D. Hangick in $\not \subset a ̊$ nürmaste kafé. He entered the nearest café. For further examples see Lesson XII.

    2 Most demonstratives are followed by a noun in the definite form, as is also denna in the spoken language. If an adjective modifies the noun, the adjective is of course put in the definite form; no prepositive definite article is used in this case (cf. $\S \S 77 ; 78 ; 79$ ). See $\S 39,1$, and Lesson XX11. -The def. form of the adjective is used also after relative and personal pronouns, but these cases are of infrequent occurrence; as, jag olyckliga münniska I unhappy being; $i$ vilken vảdliga fürd de ej deltogo in which perilous journey they did not take part.

    3 In the plural there is no distinction between the def, and the indef. form. 4 Concerning the form see $\S 151,1$.

[^65]:    1 Concerning the form see § $151,6$.
    2 Or indeclinable adjective (see § 153) used with def. meaning.
    3 The second syllable of Förenta has more stress than either of the other two, but the main stress in the group-compound is on the first syllable of staterna.
    4 On the other hand, a cardinal numeral, when used with a noun in the def. form, must be preceded by the prepositive article. Ex.: Jag köpte de tvd borden $i$ Götebor'g. I bought the two tables in Gothenburg.

[^66]:    1 Cf. § 30. In adjectives, $n$ is changed to $t$ only after $e$, and this only in unstressed syllables, not, for example, in ren clean, geme'n common, low, allmün common. In pronouns the change takes place also after stressed vowels (denna, detta) and after unstressed vowels other than e: as, nagon any, n. ndgot: annan other, n. annat. But the pronominal adjective sådan such, has n. sädant.

[^67]:    1 Those of the First Weak Conjugation; see Lesson XIV.
    2 Most superlatives end in -ast, some, however, in -st; see the next lesson.
    3 Observe the genitive; cf. \$150, end, and \$67,4.

[^68]:    1 Concerning the shortened vowel before the double consonant sse $\$ 6$. note 2. Observe that högt irregularly has a short vowel.

[^69]:    1 That is, in the indef. plur. and in the def. form. The substitution of $e$ for $-a$ (see $\S 151,8$ ) does not change the accent.

[^70]:    1 See page 51 , foot-note 2.
    2 Jeru'salem.

[^71]:    1 Norway.
    2 Russia.
    3 Render are they by "väl". The word-order is "äro väl icke".

[^72]:    1 Use a form of "hel".

[^73]:    1 The forms nürmre, nürmst are less common than nürmare, närmast.

[^74]:    1 Sma is used as the plural of liten (see §152). Sma may also have mindre. minst as its comparative and superlative; cf. $£ 161$.

[^75]:    1 This word, which is opposite in meaning to förre. först. should be carefully distinguished from sen (vowel long) late, tardy, slow, comp. senare. superl. senast.

    2 These forms of the superlative are really the definite form of the adjective, but observe the extended use of the definite form of the superlative as illustrated in the examples.

[^76]:    1 All indeclinable adjectives, with the exception of those that end in $-a$ (cf. \& 158, note 2), belong here; also many that can be declined.

    2 This use is of much less frequent occurrence in English. Ex.: the lower classes, higher education, Greater New York. Your task is a most arduous one. See also the translation of the Swedish examples.

[^77]:    1 Including words prominent in the lesson.

[^78]:    1 For the distinction in meaning between "ut" and "ute", see § 172 , 2 , note.

[^79]:    1 This exercise contains some words given in the discussion of the grammar, but not included in the vocabulary.
    2 When Swedish uses a preposicion followed by "att" and the infinitive, English usually has a preposition with the gerund, but sometimes an infinitive.

    3 Pronounced "Visingsör" or "Vi'singsö".
    4. "För att" with the infinitive denotes purpose.

    5 Denmark.
    © Norzuay.

[^80]:    1 Observe the irregular formation.

[^81]:    1 Lüngre is the comparative both of the adjective láng (see § 159), and of the adverbs långt far (see §173) and lünge long (§174).

    2 See page 100 , foot-note.
    3 Adverbs ending in $-t$ that employ a different root for the comparative and superlative are included under $\$ 173$.
    4. Bra is also used in the sense of "very", "rather", "pretty". In this meaning it cannot be compared.

    5 Büttre is the comparative both of the adjectives god, bra, and of the adverbs grott, bra, väl: see $\S \S 161 ; 173$.

    6 Cf. page 102, foot-note 1. The adverb corresponding to sen late, tardy, slow, is sent, senare, senast.

[^82]:    1 see 8122.

[^83]:    1 These belong to the Second Declension.
    2 "Nej" here means "really". This is a frequent use.

[^84]:    1 See $\$ 242,1$.
    2 From home.
    3 Note the inversion.
    4 Had suffered.
    5 Place the $\$$ wedish for last Tuesday first in the sentence.

[^85]:    1 This $a$ belongs to the stem, and so the tense-ending is in reality -de here just as in the Second Weak Conjugation. The stems of the various conjugations, illustrated by the verbs mentioned on this page, are: (I) tala: (II) bygg, köp: (1II) tro: (Strong) skriv. Observe that in the First and Third Weak Conjugations the stem is identical with the infinitive, while in the Second Weak Conjugation and in the Strong Conjugation, $a$ is added to the stem to form the infinitive. The stem is in all conjugations the same as the singular of the present imperative.

[^86]:    1 As in adjectives; see § 151, 2 a, and 3.
    2 As in adjectives; see § 151, 4.
    3 As in adjectives; see $\S 151,1$.
    4 Concerning root-rowel of past participle and supine see § 201, note 1 .
    5 As in English, this is used both as an auxiliary and as an independent verb.

    6 But never in conditional clauses with om omitted; cf. § 140.

[^87]:    1 Sometimes skall kalla, etc.; see § 136, 2.
    2 Or the shorterforms of hava may be used: vihakallat, jagkommeratt ha kallat.
    3 Sometimes skall ha(va) kallat, etc.; cf. § 136, 2.
    4 These forms of the infinitive are given here because they are used in the formation of the compound tenses. Infinitives aretreated more fully in Lesson XX.

[^88]:    1 Also for "one's", "hers", "theirs".
    2 Observe that the sing. sin, n. sitt, may denote either one or more than one possessor, but only one object possessed. The plural sina may denote one or more than one possessor, butalways the possession of more than one object.

    3 Does not include words occurring in Exercises $C$ and $D$.

[^89]:    1 See § 186, note.
    2 Concerning the use of this see page 126, foot-note 4.
    3 Stressed "fram'för" or, more rarely, "framfö'r".

[^90]:    1 Predicate adjectives, and some other words, are regularly placed between these two words; as, han ser sjuk ut he looks sick.

    2 Adverbs and adverlial phrases denoting time are placed between "för" and "sedan"; as, för tvà år sedan two years ago: för länge sedan long ago.

    3 Stressed "va'rifrân" or "varifrà'n".

[^91]:    1 En gâng till once more.
    2 Violan'ta.
    3 En kopp kaffe till another cup of coffee.
    4. Oloserve: det är there is, there are: det var there was, there were. Compare the phrase, det finns there is, there are; det fanns there was, there were: see $\$ 235$, note. These expressions with the verb in the singular may be followed by a noun in the singular or plural.

    5 Use the form in -t of the corresponding adjective.
    6 See § 173.
    7 Det.
    8 See page 4.7, foot-note 2.
    9 Nảgra och tjugu ảr some twenty odd years.
    10 The use of "kan" here is idiomatic; translate, teotle sometimes talk.
    11 See "underhalla" in the general vocabulary.
    12 Here, as frequently when in the definite forin, to be translated all.

[^92]:    1 When unstressed, this word must be variously translated, according to the context. Here it means surely, at least.

    2 In the spoken laguage "für" is used in place of " $t y$ ".
    3 Cf. page 126, foot-note 3.

[^93]:    1 Most verbs belonging to this conjugation are derived from other words, many of which belong to other parts of speech. Of these the stemvowel is regularly modified, unless already a soft vowel; as, välja choose, elect, from val choice, election; kröna crown, from krona crown; värma make warm, from varm warm; vüta make wet, from våt wet; hysa to house, from hus bouse; brünna burn (trans.), from brann, past tense of brinna burn (intrans.); sütta set, from satt, past tense of sitta sit. By no means all Swedish verbs with a soft root-vowel belong to the Second Weak Conjugation. Especially noteworthy as exceptions are the verbs of the Strong Conjugation with $i$ or $y$ as the stem-rowel (see § 201).

    2 Concerning the meaning of this term see Phonology § 37.
    3 Concerning assimilation see Phonology § 38 and note (end).
    4 Except for the past indicative and the past participle, the inflectional forms are alike in both classes.

    5 There are, altogether, five of these verbs, the others being bryna whet, kröna crown, röna experience, and synas seem, appear (concerning the -s of synas see §221). A few verbs with stems ending in $l$ sometimes have $-t$ : as, tàla endure, tàlde or tàlte.

[^94]:    1 In every case preceded by $n$.
    2 Also the shorter forms may be used.
    3 But some verbs with $j$ in the pres.inf. retain this throughout; as, skönja discern, past skönjde: följa follow, past följde: hölja cover, past höljde. Others may retain or lose it; as, svülja swallow, svüljde, sometimes svalde: tümja tame, tamde, tümde or tümjde.

[^95]:    1 The past participle of each verb can be found by dropping the finale of the past tense.

    2 Observe that glüder omits the $j$ in the singular; some verbs, as stödjer, are pronounced and written with or without $j$.

    3 The auxiliaries tör (see § 258) and böra (see § 259) are omitted here. Töras dare, with past tense tordes, supine torts, is omitted here because its ending has not yet been discussed (see § 221).
    4. Note the orthographic change from $g$ to $g j$ : cf. $\S \S 14,15$.

    5 In lïgga, sïga and hava (sce $\delta 194,5$ ), the past part. can not be formed by dropping the $e$ of the past tense, their past participles being lagd, sagd. havd. Some verbs do not have the past participle.

[^96]:    1 Observe the pres. sing. bringar. following the First Weak Conjugation; also the other forms may follow this: see $\S 194,4$.

    2 Only the auxiliaries already familiar to the student in the past tense are given here. When the others occur (Lesson XXI), reference to this paragraph will be made. See also page 130 , foot-note 3 . Veta, though not an auxiliary, is put here on account of the absence of the $r$ in the present singular like that in kan, vill: cf, §136, 2, note 2.

    3 Supines according to the First Weak Conjugation as in (3) above.
    4 This verb can properly be considered as belonging to this conjugation only when hade is pronounced with a long vowel; see $\oint 195$, note 1 .

    5 Stressed final vowels are long.

[^97]:    1 There are no other irregularities in the Third Weak Conjugation, except that twa wash, may follow the Strong Conjugation in the past participle and supine, in this case also changing the stem, tragen or tridd, tvagit or tvått.

[^98]:    1 For the meaning of "roiced" and "voiceless" see Phonology § 37.
    2 Note also the quantity-variations in the forms of hava and veta.

[^99]:    1 Or STR.; see page 139, foot-note 1.
    2 The reflexive pronoun here and in the similar cases below varies according as the subject is first, second or third person; as, jag gifter mig, du gifter dig, han, hon gifter sig, vi gifta oss, de gift a sig.

[^100]:    4. Woman.

    5 A little.
    6 Germany.

[^101]:    1 Washed his hands.
    2 Till.
    3 Supine, "spunnit".
    4. "Att" may be used, but need not.

    5 Use the def. form; cf. § 125 , end.
    6 "För att".
    7 The Count of Exercise XIV C.
    8 For ending of supine in strong verbs see § 181; cf. § 201, note 1.

[^102]:    9 Besö'k.
    10 Present participle.
    11 The vowel of "stövel" is usual1y short.

    12 It haspened.
    13 Knocked off his hat.
    14 Past participle; see the vocabu. lary.

[^103]:    1 Was repeated.
    2 Suppose you ride.
    3 Förbi'.
    4. Translate as if: Do you wish that Ishall repeat . . .

    5 Do not use a participle in Swedish.

    6 För dig. This phrase is in Swedish placed after the word for story.

[^104]:    1 It will be well to bear in mind that all rerbs that have $a$ in the past sing., have in the plural a rowel different from that of the past sing., and no others, with the exception of svürja (svor. syuro, syurit). This plural rowel is in all instances $u$, except in the case of giva, bedja and vara. - Note also that the only verbs having three rowels in the system are (a) all verbs with $i, y$ or $\ddot{a}$ (except $\ddot{a t a}$ ) as the root-vowel in the present, and (b) the verbs bedja and slä $(\$ 203,1)$.

[^105]:    1 Observe the consonant-change in the plaral.
    2 Cf. §jे 138; 201, 1.

[^106]:    1 Note the dropping of the $j$, the form bedjer is rare.
    2 See page 138 , fuot-note 6.
    3 Pres. ind. sing. simmar or simmer.
    4 Pres. ind. sing. always tvingar.

[^107]:    1 See page 139 , foot-note 1.
    2 In addition, in the weak supines of the verbs of $\S 203,1$ and 2.
    3 In place of stod the form stog is used in a large part of Sweden.

[^108]:    1 Cf. §191,4.
    2 "Ba'kom" or "bakom"".
    3 Never used in the meaning "ask a question".
    4. Bend as translation for "böja" is transitive, while it is intransitive when it translates "böja sig".

[^109]:    1 Used as in: sitta kvar remain sitting, stà kvar remain standing, etc.
    2 "Ne'dför" or (infrequentls) "nedfo'r".
    3 Used as in: Hur står det till (med dig)? How are you? How do you do?
    4. During.

[^110]:    1 Böjd.
    2 Att komma.
    3 Translate for a long time with one word.

    4 Do not render with a participle. 5 Sả.
    $6 \mathrm{Hän}$.
    7 Use the genitive, not a prepositional phrase.

    8 Bort.
    9 Translate with the infinitive.

[^111]:    1 Inte annat än nothing but.
    2 Den, det that, demonstrative pronoun; note that the following noun is in the definite form.

    3 Present participle of "resa".

[^112]:    1 As has been seen, - en (or $-n$ ) is the ending for the second person plural in all moods and tenses.

    2 Except in the case of vara, pres. ind. plural äro, subj. vare. The past tense is regular, subj. vore.

    3 Observe that $m i$, like the other auxiliaries (cf. § 136,2 , note 2) does not add $r$ in the singular. Matte is its past tense in form, but is not used to express past time.

    4 The form skulle is the past tense of skall: cf. § 194,5, and § 252.
    5 Cf. also the shorter forms in § 203, 2.

[^113]:    1 The present subjunctive may also be called the optative, because it almost always expresses wish. Outside of the third person singular, theforms given are very rarely used.

    2 Those who call the present subjunctive "optative", call the past subjunctive simply "subjunctive".

    3 Skulle - both "should" and "would"; cf. § 137, beginning.

[^114]:    1 In subordinate clanses the supine alone may be used; cf. $\oint 182$.
    2 Other auxiliaries besides ma, matte and skatle are used to express ideas that in German and Latin require the subjunctive.-The auxiliaries mad mäte, skulle are used extensirely also in constructions where Swedish could not hare the e-subjunctive. See Lesson XXI.

[^115]:    1 These wishes have the word-order of subordinate clauses (see 65140, end; 101; 141). See 5140 , beginning. When the past perfect is used, the auxiliary kade may be omitted (cf. page 130, foot-mote 1).

[^116]:    1 But not in the subordinate clause.
    2 Observe that English regularly employs "should" and "would" in the principal clause.

[^117]:    1 Concerning the present perfect see § 211.

[^118]:    1 Observe the omission of the relative; cf. $\$ 281$.
    2 Hör du.
    3 Det finns.

[^119]:    1 I detsam'ma.
    2 Vid.
    3 The wind was blowing det blâste.
    4 Invert in translating.
    5 Ub here här uppe.
    6 There was det var.

[^120]:    1 Observe that the first and third persons plural differ from the singular in the present indicative only in the case of the Second Weak Conjugation and the Strong Conjugation.

[^121]:    1 On the formation and inflection of the past participle see the references given in $\S \delta 240 ; 241$. Care should be taken not to confuse the past participle with the active supine ( - the nenter of the past participle, slightly modified in the case of strong verbs). The past participle has three forms, the supine only one. Ex.: Han blìr (är) älskad, det blir älskat, de bliva älskade. But han (det) har älskat, de ha ülskat; cf. § 181.
    2 See page 139, foot-note 1.

[^122]:    1 As the number of transitive cursive verbs is rather limited, the passive use of the auxiliary vara is not of frequent occurrence.

    2 For examples see $\delta \S 221,223$ and note.
    3 On the participles of deponents see $\S 238$, note 2 , and $\$ 240$, note 2 . Concerning the imperative of deponents see $\delta 243$, note 1 .

[^123]:    1 Note the short vowel and the double s.
    2 These could be called reciprocal and reflexive deponents, to distinguish them from the other deponents. The reflexive idea may also be expressed by a pronoun (see § 233); similarly the reciprocal idea (see § 264, note 8).

    3 This form is identical in meaning with the reflexive expression glädja sig: see page 134, vocabulary, and § 233, note 3 .

[^124]:    1 Except in the infinitive. Ex.: Rocken behöver lagas. The coat needs to be mended.

[^125]:    1 Or still better: Skrüddaren har lagat rocken. The tailor has mended the coat. Cf. $8228,1$.

    2 Or al'ltjämt.

[^126]:    1 Or stressed on the first syllable.
    2 As early as this.
    3 Correctly, rightly.

[^127]:    4 Rome. Pron., § 9, 3 a.
    5 Everything.
    6 Observe the omission of "att".

[^128]:    1 See § 175 , end.
    2 To talk over.
    3 Borta.
    4. Till.

    5 Tell me säga mig.
    6 Vem som.

    7 Use the present tense.
    8 Kände med sig.
    9 Skulle.
    10 Mera.
    11 Autumn morning höstmorgon.
    12 Put on tog på sig.

[^129]:    1 Genoin.
    2 Use the present tense.
    3 Order?
    4. Vart.

    5 Till sist.
    6 See § 146, 2.
    7 Present participle.
    8 See § 167.

    9 See §53,1.
    10 Ifrå'n.
    11 In the spoken language shortened to förklä (vowels short).

    12 Med detsam'ma all at once.
    13 Sådan such as.
    14 The speaker is here interrupted.

[^130]:    1 Order?
    2 See § 125.

[^131]:    1 The term "affix" includes both "prefix" and "suffix".
    2 See § 230, note 2.

[^132]:    1 To this there are few exceptions (primarily in the spoken language).

[^133]:    1 Except, usually, when a personal pronoun follows the preposition. Ex.: Ga inte ifrä'n mig. Do not go away from me.-The affix is not infrequently unstressed owing to the sentence-rhythm. Ex.: Jag lade ic'ke ned pennan.

    2 This prefix, which occurs only in one verb, entle'diga dismiss, is usually unstressed (cf. §229, 1), but sometimes stressed.

[^134]:    1 Many English verbs are either transitive or intransitive; as, bend, move, change, turn. As this is much less frequently the case in Swedish, care must be taken not to transfer the English idiom to Swedish, incorrectly.

    2 This verb may also be used intransitively without sig. See example, § 242, 1 .

[^135]:    1 Lists of words having the acute accent will now be discontinued, except as the words may occur in the grammar lesson (outside of examples).

[^136]:    1 The forms in er (as befin'ner, forky'ler) have the acute accent everywhere.
    2 Even in the written language the closely attached form of invertible compounds is in most forms of style much less common now than formerly.

    3 Use a form of "ligga".
    4. For azvay use the impersonal "det bär av": "Vart bär det av ?"

    5 På.

[^137]:    1 Du má tro, att här går det lustigt till.

    2 Use the impersonal passive.
    3 Use the infinitive.
    4 Komma $i$.
    5 Till.

[^138]:    1 In the case of compound verbs, only the closely attached form can be employed when the present participle is used attributively; in other cases the loosely attached form of composition is possible. Tagande av hatten, steg jag ät sidan för att lümna blats àt den gamle. Taking off my hat, I stepped aside to make room for the old man. Dagarnas avtagande lüngd the diminishing length of the days.

[^139]:    1 The future infinitive, which is of rare occurrence, is formed by means of the inf. komma, followed by the pres. inf. with att (rarely with skola and the pres. inf.); as, komma att tala, komma att kallas. Ex.: Dröjer Siljans tillfrysning ひ̈ver janua'ri, anses den komma att uteblìva hela vintern. If (Lake) Siljan does not freeze during January, it is thought probable that it will not freeze all winter. - The present and perfect infinitives have been given in the paradigms nnder the various conjugations, §f 185; 193; 195; 202; 221.

[^140]:    1 As in English, so in Swedish, most auxiliaries are not followed by the sign of the infinitive.

    2 Or, Han bad mig, att jag skulle skriva genast.
    3 When the subject of the infinitive would not be the same as that of the leading verb, Swedish uses after the preposition, att that, and a finite form of the verb. Ex.: Och utan att jag märkte det, slöto sig mina ögon. And my eyes closed without my noticing it. Han avlügsnade sig, utan att någon visste dürom'. He went away without anyone's knowing of it.
    4. The Swedish prepositions that may be thus used are much more numerous than is the case in French and German. This use hardly occurs in English; but observe: "There is nothing to do except to go along." "He is about to go."

[^141]:    1 The use of the singular imperative for the plural is accordingly higher stylistically than the use of the indicative singular for the plural; it sbould be remembered that the sing. imperative replaces a form with the ending en, which is limited to the elevated style.

    2 Archaic for Herren.

[^142]:    1 Durative (or progressive-action) verbs are such as represent an act or condition as simply progressing, without thought of any temporal limitation; that is, it may go on indefinitely; the mind's eye follows the progress of the act. Durative verbs are to a great extent identical with cursive verbs (see page 81 , foot-note 2 ).

    2 Point-action (or congressive-action) verbs are such as represent an act with temporal limitations, thought of simply as an occurrence; the progress of the act is not before the mind's eye, but the entire actis viewed as a whole and reduced, as it were, to a point in the mind's eye. Point-action verbs are to a great extent identical with terminative verbs (see p. 81, foot-note 2 ).

[^143]:    1 Cheerfully med liv och lust.
    2 Gick det muntert till.
    3 Det kom besö'k.
    4 Ville gärna.

[^144]:    1 Nej.
    2 Med.

    3 Med samma lust.<br>4. Asked that he might bad att få.

[^145]:    1 Cf. \& 194, 5.
    2 Of infrequent occurrence.
    3 Such past future time may be past, present or future to present time.

[^146]:    1 Cf. § 194, 5.
    2 Rarely, the e-subjunctive is so employed in the present tense.

[^147]:    1 Other words meaning "know", but not usable here, are veta, künna.
    2 Cf. § 194, 5.

[^148]:    1 See $\S 194,2$ and 5 , and page 130 , foot-note 3.
    2 Except sometimes in subordinate clauses.

[^149]:    1 Fä lov may also, especially in questions, mean "get permission". Ex.: Fär jag lov? May I? Om jagfär lov if I may.

[^150]:    1 Som om han hade svårt att komma fram med, vad...

[^151]:    2 Vi två äro ju...
    3 Use a form of "skapa" (I).

[^152]:    1 Nästa morgon.
    2 Sả.
    3 Och därmed máste han láta sig nöja.

[^153]:    5 Use a clause with a finite form of the verb; see \& 239, note 1.

    6 Nog.
    7 Was not to be seen icke syntes till.

[^154]:    1 Cf. Det är $d u$, som vill träffa honom. Det är $d u$, som är ond pà honom. Det är vi, som tala om honom.

    2 The genitives of the personal pronouns of the third person cannot be so used.

    3 In a number of verbs, Swedish employs the ending -s to express the reciprocal idea; see § 225 , note 1.

[^155]:    1 See foot-note 3, page 227.
    2 Some write den samma, using densamma only in the use described in note 6.
    3 The forms preceded by an asterisk are used only substantively (see §265). When these pronouns are employed substantively, all the forms given are used; when they are employed adjectively, only the forms not preceded by an asterisk are used.

[^156]:    1 Note that the verb is in the singular, and not in the plural, as is the case in German.

    2 See page 206, foot-note 3.

[^157]:    1 Including clauses introduced by a relative adverb of time or place.But the demonstrative den is almost always (except in certain phrases) followed by the noun in the def. form when a clause introduced by att (followed by the indicative) follows. Similarly, when an infinitive follows the noun, the latter rarely has the indefinite form. See the examples in § 267.

    2 Note that $d e$ is not the prepositive article here, which it would be if the noun had definite form; the meaning of the sentence would then be different.

    3 See § 281, note 3.
    4 Li'kadan or likada'n.

[^158]:    1 In addition, certain of the substantive forms of den may be used as a relative pronoun; see the following lesson.

    2 The demonstrative pronoun has, in addition, the form dens: see \& 266, note 2.

[^159]:    1. In the spoken language, denna is used chiefly in Southern and Western Sweden.
[^160]:    1 På andra sidan kullarna.
    2 Mitt på.
    3 Use prepositive, but no postpositive, article

    4 On which varpå.
    5 Sommarvärme.

[^161]:    6 Out of breath andfädd.
    7 Jasả.
    8 Place the Swedish for that way immediately after smiled.

    9 Stanna du hellre.
    10 Jag kan behö'ra.

[^162]:    1 Pả vilket sätt.
    2 Invert, "ser du".

[^163]:    1 Concerning indefinite relatives see $\$ 309$.
    2 Vilken is the only adjective pronoun among the relatives in Swedish, but, as in English, adjectival relatives are not of frequent occurrence.

[^164]:    1 Concerning the meaning of the asterisk see page 204 , foot-note 3 .
    2 On the substitution of $t$ for $n$ in the neuter see $\$ 830 ; 151,1$, and p. 93, foot-note.

    3 This form is rare; see $\oint 276$, note 2.
    4 In such cases, nagot som may be used instead, but never som alone.
    5 Authors differ much in the extent of their use of vilken, many employing it freely beside som, in no way limiting themselves to the uses here specified.

[^165]:    1 See $\$ 281$, note 1.

[^166]:    1 After allt, also som may be used as a relative pronoun. Ex.: Allt är ej guld. som glimmar. All is not gold that glitters.

[^167]:    1 In connected speech the stress on den is weaker than when den dür is pronounced by itself. Not infrequently, owing to the stress-conditions of surrounding words, this (weak) stress is shifted to där, and den becomes unstressed.

[^168]:    1 Also stressed on the last syllable.
    2 Very rarely as a plural.
    3 As an interrogative, vilken is much more frequently used as an adjee. tive than when it is a relative.

[^169]:    1 Indirect question.

[^170]:    1 Not so the interrogative vilken.

[^171]:    1 Acute accent.
    2 Sả.
    3 Hade varit henne för tät.
    4 Place first in the clause.
    5 Av.
    6 Att fả plocka.

[^172]:    1 Vad du heter.
    2 Komitjänsthos.

[^173]:    1 For convenience, some words and uses not strictly indefinite in meaning have been here included.

    2 On the substitution of $t$ for $n$ in the neuter, cf. $\S \delta 30 ; 151,1$, and page 93, foot-note.-Notice the form intet (not inget); see § 311, 1.

    3 On the use of "one" in English in the case of adjectival words used substantively, see $\$ \S 150 ; 305$, note 1 . Note also the addition of "-thing" in "something", etc.
    4. English uses "any" primarily in interrogative, negative and conditional clauses.

    5 Only the genitives in fairly frequent use are given here and below. If the genitive is not given (as in this case the neuter ndgots), it means that the omitted form(s) are either not, used, or used only rarely. On the use of the genitive see $\$ 56$.

    6 Concerning word-order see § 141 , and $\$ 142$, note.

[^174]:    1 Cf. page 227 , foot-note 2.
    2 On the use of $-c$, cf. $\S 151, S, b$ and $c$. The same reference applies to similar cases in other pronouns below.

[^175]:    1 Or the vowel may be short, ettvart, ett ock var't.

[^176]:    1 Rarely used as noun: litet av varje a little of everything.
    2 Cf. \& 149, note.
    3 See page 227, foot-note 2.

[^177]:    1 See page 227 , foot-note 2.
    2 Used less extensively than "man" in German.
    3 These have something of a colloquial coloring; cf. § 311, 3 end.

[^178]:    1 Cf. vilkendera, § 287.-Etymologically, -dera means "of them".

[^179]:    1 Concerning word-order, cf. page 227, foot-note 6.
    2 In this use the pronouns are stressed, but not when used as interrogatives. When än, helst follow, however, these are sometimes stressed instead.

[^180]:    1 Pronounced $d i$ (see $\$ 53,5$ ). Also dom ( $=$ dem) may be used.
    2 En may include the speaker, which de does only very exceptionally.

[^181]:    1 See § 24.2, 2 a.
    2 Become acg. with lära känna.
    3 Därtill.
    4. Was long enough räckte.

    5 What tense in Swedish? See $\$ 135$.
    6 Use "väl".

[^182]:    1 Use impersonal construction;
    as, it sang in the forest, it roared in the river, etc.

    2 See § 264, note 3.
    3 Get to see fá se.

[^183]:    1 Or, tjugoen', tjugotvá', etc.
    2 Pronounced förti, förtionde.
    3 Cf. 8294.

[^184]:    1 See also page 92 , foot-note 4.

[^185]:    1 When en gaing means "once", "one time", en has more stress than caing. When gding has the greater stress, this phrase means "once (upon a time)".

    2 Even in case of "two", similar compounds may be used: tvådubbel, tvadfaldig. Enfaldig is not equivalent to enkel, but means "simple-minded". "foolish".

[^186]:    1 The pronunciation of aderton as spelled is more common than a similar pronunciation of nio, trettio, tjugo.

    2 The remark on the pronunciation of fyrti(o), though not belonging under colloquialisms, is included here for the sake of completeness; see also page 239 , foot-note 2 .

[^187]:    1 Use "finnas".
    2 Expanse of blue blått.
    3 Såg sig omkring'.

