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THE ELEMENTS
OF THE
ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

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THE ELEMENTS

OF THE

ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

BY

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P R E F A C E

T O T H E S E C O N D E D I T I O N .

THE first edition of a book is of necessity somewhat tentative. More extended experience, and the suggestions of judicious critics, render certain changes inevitable. But the alterations in this revised edition are so numerous, that some explanation is due to those who have introduced the book into their schools.

It was urged by certain remonstrants that the information imparted was too meagre and elementary in its character; by others, that it was more adapted for the use of teachers than of pupils. Both objections were well grounded, for these outlines were originally prepared for an intermediate class of students.

In the present edition, the author has endeavoured to reconcile these contending views. He has supplied fuller details for the advanced student, and, at the same time, has given greater expansion to the elementary principles. The simple expedient of a variation in the type has rendered this possible. The young pupil should confine his attention to the paragraphs in large type; those in smaller type are intended for more advanced

classes. A judicious teacher may select from these whatever facts he considers likely to prove of interest or advantage to his younger pupils.

In consequence of this compression of the type, the bulk of the volume has been but slightly affected, while the subject-matter has been increased nearly two-fold.

Among the many changes introduced into this edition, the most conspicuous are the following :—

1. It has been thought desirable, at the risk of some repetition, to break up the lists of Prefixes and Suffixes, Compounds, and Diminutives, and to distribute them under their respective heads. Those peculiar to Nouns, Adjectives, Verbs, &c., may thus be studied in connexion with the class of words to which they belong.

2. A list of the principal parts of the so-called Irregular Verbs has been introduced.

3. A fuller list of the English Prepositions has been given, and an attempt made to trace their formation, and exhibit it to the eye in the arrangement of the list.

4. In compliance with the wishes of many experienced teachers, the leading principles of Grammatical Analysis, and the technical terms employed in explaining them, have been embodied in the Syntax; while the Syntax itself has been enlarged and, it is hoped, improved.

5. A set of Examination Questions has been appended, which, by presenting the facts contained in the text in a concise form, may assist the solitary student in his unaided study.

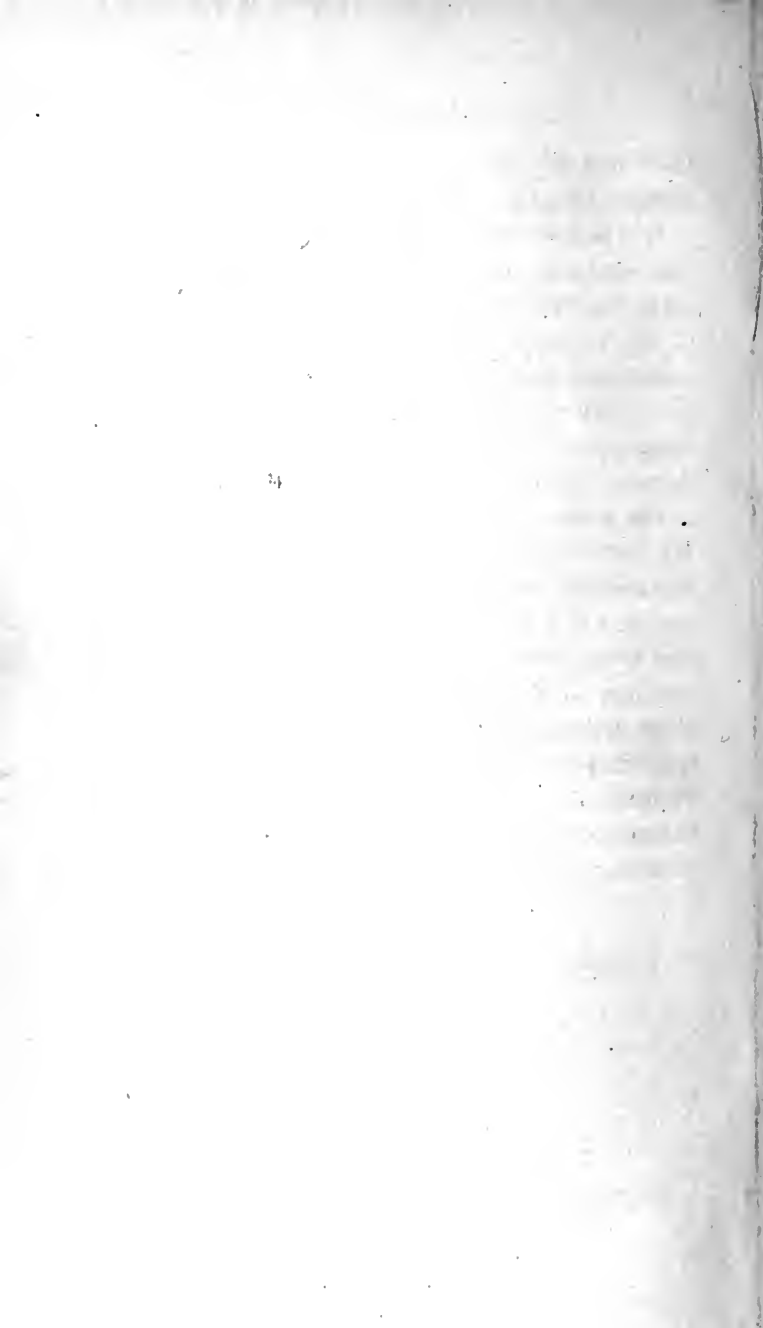
The alterations thus effected are, no doubt, considerable; but it was thought better to introduce them at

once, and so obviate the necessity for any material changes hereafter.

It is scarcely necessary to remind the practical teacher that the numerous Old English forms scattered through these pages should not be intruded upon the attention of the young student: they are given solely for the information and guidance of the teacher. It is impossible fully to appreciate the traces of inflection still lingering in the language, without some knowledge of these archaic forms.

The author begs to acknowledge his obligations to Mr. Marsh's very valuable and interesting Lectures on the English Language; to the careful Manual of Dr. Angus, which has furnished him with numerous hints and illustrations; and to Mr. Mason's excellent Compendium of Analysis. His incidental obligations to other writers are too numerous to admit of distinct specification. But his thanks are especially due to Professor Key, whose valuable suggestions are embodied in nearly every page, and to whose philological writings modern grammarians are so deeply indebted.

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, *May*, 1862.



ELEMENTS

OF

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

PART I.

HISTORY OF THE LANGUAGE.

1. THE languages of the civilised world are divided into two great *families*; the Semitic, and the Indo-European.

As the Semitic words in the English language are very few, it will be sufficient to observe that the Hebrew, Phœnician, Syriac, Chaldee, Arabic, Ethiopic and Coptic, are included in this family.

2. The subdivisions of a family are called *stocks*; and the subdivisions of a stock, *branches*.

The Indo-European family is divided into the following stocks: Sanscrit, Persian, Slavonic or Windic, Keltic, Classical, and Teutonic.

3. The Sanscrit and Persian are Asiatic stocks, and include the ancient languages and most of the modern dialects of India, Persia, and the adjacent tribes.

The languages of the remaining stocks are, or were, spoken by the inhabitants of Europe. Hence the name *Indo-European* has been applied to this family, which has also been called the *Indo-Germanic*, the *Caucasian*, and the *Japhetic*. It is now more commonly known as the *Aryan* family. *Arya* is a Sanscrit word, meaning "noble." Its original signification was "tiller of the soil" or "plougher," but it

became a national name, distinguishing the people that adopted it from the *Turanian*, or nomad, tribes.

The Turkish, the Magyar of Hungary, the Lapp, the Finnic, the Esthonian and the Basque, are not included in the Indo-European or Aryan family.

4. The dialects of the Slavonic, or Windic, stock are spoken throughout Eastern Europe,—in Russia, Poland, Galicia, Slavonia, Illyria, Servia, Croatia, Bulgaria, and parts of Silesia, Bohemia, Moravia, Transylvania, and Hungary. The *Lettic*, or *Lithuanic*, is a subdivision of this stock: Lettish is spoken in Kurland and Livonia; Lithuanian, in the province of Lithuania.

As the three other stocks are, more or less, closely connected with the history of the English language, it is necessary to consider them more in detail.

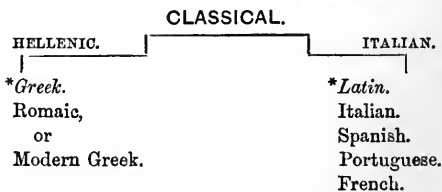
5. The Keltic stock is divided into two branches, the *Kymric* or *Cambrian*, and the *Gadhelic* or *Gaelic*.

To the former belong the Welsh, the Cornish, and the Breton of Brittany in France.

To the latter belong the Irish Gaelic, or Erse; the Scotch Gaelic; and the Manx, or Gaelic of the Isle of Man.

Dialects of this stock were spoken at a very early period throughout Great Britain and Ireland. They have been gradually displaced by immigrants of another race, and at present exist side by side with modern English in certain parts of Scotland, Ireland, Wales, and the Isle of Man.

6. The Classical stock is divided into two branches, the *Hellenic* and the *Italian*. It includes what are commonly called the *Classical* languages, Greek and Latin, and hence the name by which the stock is usually known.



* The italicised names are those of languages no longer spoken: the names that follow them are those of their modern representatives.

The Italian branch also includes the following dialects:—ancient *Umbrian* and *Oscan*; the *Rouman*, spoken in Wallachia, Moldavia, and parts of Hungary, Transylvania and Bessarabia; the *Walloon*, in the Belgian province of Liege; the *Catalonian* and *Gallician*, in Spain; the *Chur-Wälsch*, in the Swiss canton of Grisons; the *Provençal*, *Limousin*, or *Langue d'Oc*, in the south of France; and the old northern French or *Langue d'Oyl*.

Albanian is the modern form of an old Hellenic dialect.

7. The Teutonic stock is divided into two branches: (1) the *Scandinavian*, including the languages spoken in the district anciently called Scandinavia; and (2) the *Gothic*. This latter branch is subdivided into *High* and *Low German*; *i. e.* the dialects spoken in the upland districts of the south, and in the lowlands of the north of Germany.

TEUTONIC.

SCANDINAVIAN.	TEUTONIC.		GOTHIC.
<i>Old Norse.</i> <i>Pictish.</i> Icelandic. Swedish. Norwegian. Danish. Faroic.	HIGH GERMAN.	LOW GERMAN.	
	<i>Old High German.</i> Modern German.	<i>Mæso-Gothic.</i>	<i>Old Friesian.</i> <i>Anglian.</i> Modern Friesian. English. <i>Batavian.</i> Dutch. <i>Menapian.</i> Flemish. <i>Francic.</i> Platt-deutsch.

8. The people commonly known as *Saxons*, who formed so large a proportion* of the German invaders of Britain, were so named by their neighbours and enemies the Franks, the Britons, and the Romans. They were probably *Angles*, and they certainly called their new country *Angle-land* (England), and their language *English*. The name Saxon was subsequently adopted by the Southern Angles of Britain. The

* The early settlers in Kent were probably Friesians.

language spoken by these Anglian settlers is the mother-tongue of the present English: it is commonly known as *Anglo-Saxon*.

The term *Old Saxon* has been applied to a dialect formerly spoken in Westphalia, and closely allied to the ancient English.

The old Friesians occupied the districts extending from the mouth of the Rhine to the frontier of Jutland. They were the ancient inhabitants of Friesland, Oldenburg, Lower Hanover, and part of Holstein.

The Angles and their kinsmen the so-called Saxons, probably inhabited the territory now known as Hanover and Westphalia.

9. Ancient Teutonic tribes were settled in the south-east of Britain, before the Christian era. Fresh settlements were effected in the middle of the third century, and towards the end of the fourth century we find a large population of Saxons, or Angles, combined with Friesians, extending from Portsmouth to the Wash. This district was officially termed by the Roman government the "Saxon shore." The southern invaders having adopted the name of Saxons, extended their settlements to Devonshire, and thus occupied Essex, Middlesex, Sussex, and Wessex.

10. The Scandinavians, who are often called *Norsemen* and *Danes*, had, under the name of *Picts*, early occupied the coast of Scotland and the adjacent islands. They gradually extended their settlements into England; and, at the close of the ninth century, the eastern coast as far south as the Wash was held by a population of Scandinavian conquerors.

11. As the Anglian invaders were at various times in contact with Keltic, Scandinavian and Romanised inhabitants of Britain, their language admitted and retained many words of Keltic, Scandinavian, and Classical origin.

12. The Keltic element in the English language embraces four classes of words: (1) geographical names; (2) words retained in old English literature; (3) words existing in the

dialects of counties bordering on the Keltic districts; (4) words surviving in the current language; with a few of recent introduction.

13. (1) Geographical names :

Rivers : Don, Dee, Thames, Avon, Stour, Severn, Trent, Ouse.

Hills : Malvern, Mendip, Cheviot, Chiltern, Grampian, &c.

Islands : Wight, Man, Arran, Bute, Mull, &c.

Counties : Kent, Devon, Glamorgan, Dor-set, Dur-ham, Wilt-s, &c.

Towns : Liver-pool, Carlisle, Penzance, Pen-rith, Cardiff, Llandaff.

(2) Words existing in old English literature :

cam, crooked; *pele*, a castle; *capull*, a horse; *grise*, a step; *imp*, engraft; *kern*, a Gaelic soldier; *crowd*, a fiddle; *crowder*, a fiddler; *braket*, spiced ale; *kecks*, a reedy plant; *bug*, a ghost; *cuts*, lots; &c.

(3) Provincial words :

kephyll, a horse (Crav.); *berr*, force (Lanc.); *bree*, to fear (Lanc.); *brat*, an apron (Lanc.); *crap*, money (Lanc.); *brause*, brambles (Lanc.); *cob*, beat (North.); *cocker*, fondle (Lanc.); *croo*, a cattle-crib (Lanc.); *flasget*, a basket (Lanc.), &c.*

(4) Words surviving in the current language :

basket	clout	gown	mattock	size
boggle	coat	grid-iron	mesh	solder
bogie	crag	grill	mop	spree
bother	crib	gruel	pike	tackle
brake	crockery	gusset	prance	trap
bran	crook	gyve	pranks	welt
burr	dainty	happy	rail	whip
button	darn	huff	rasher	wicket
cart	flaw	kiln	rug	wire

(5) Words of recent introduction : clan, flannel, kilt, pibroch, plaid, reel, tartan, whisky, fillibeg, dudheen, shillelagh, shamrock.

14. Scandinavian words are found chiefly—(1) in the names of places in the counties north of the Wash and the Mersey; (2) in the provincial dialects of those counties; (3) sparingly in old English literature; (4) in the current language.

* Trans. Phil. Soc. 1855, p. 210.

(1) *Geographical terms.*

<i>ark</i>	} temple or altar	{ Ark-holm.	<i>holm</i> , island . . .	Lang-holm.	
<i>argh</i>		{ Grims-argh.	<i>kell</i> , spring . . .	Kel-by.	
<i>beck</i> , brook . . .		{ Cald-beck.	<i>kirk</i> , church . . .	Orms-kirk.	
<i>brek</i>	} a steep . . .	{ Nor-brek.	<i>ness</i> , headland . . .	Skip-ness.	
<i>brik</i>		{ Kell-briks.	<i>o</i>	} river . . .	{ Thurs-o.
<i>bol</i> , dwelling . . .		{ Thor-bol.	<i>a</i>		{ Skeb-a.
<i>by</i> , town		{ Grims-by.	<i>Orm</i> ,*	Ormes-gill.	
<i>Carl</i> ,*		{ Carl-by.	<i>scar</i> , steep rock . . .	Scar-borough.	
<i>dal</i>	} valley . . .	{ Dal-by.	<i>scaw</i> , wood . . .	Scaw-by.	
<i>dale</i>		{ Scars-dale.	<i>skip</i> , ship . . .	Skip-with.	
<i>dan</i>	} Dane . . .	{ Dan-by.	<i>ster</i> , place . . .	Ulb-ster.	
<i>dane</i>		{ Danes-dale.	<i>suther</i>	} south . . .	{ Suther-land.
<i>ey</i>	} island . . .	{ Orkn-ey.	<i>sutter</i>		{ Sutter-by.
<i>ay</i>		{ Calv-ay.	<i>souther</i>	{ Southr-ey.	
<i>a</i>		{ Grims-a.	<i>sodor</i>	{ Sodor.	
<i>fell</i> , rocky hill . . .		{ Scaw-fell.	<i>tarn</i> , mountain lake	Tarn-syke	
<i>fisker</i> , fish . . .		{ Fisker-ton.	<i>thing</i>	} place of meeting	
<i>ford</i>	} inlet . . .	{ Sea-ford.	<i>ting</i>		{ Thing-wall.
<i>forth</i>		{ Sea-forth.	<i>ding</i>		{ Ding-wall.
<i>firth</i>		{ Holm-firth.	<i>Thor</i>	} * . . .	
<i>force</i> , waterfall . . .		{ Mickle-force.	<i>Thur</i>		{ Thores-by.
<i>garth</i>	} enclosure . . .	{ Dale-garth.	<i>thorpe</i>	{ Thur-low.	
<i>guard</i>		{ Fish-guard.	<i>throp</i>	} village . . .	{ Grims-thorpe.
<i>gate</i> , way		{ Sand-gate.	<i>drop</i>		{ Stain-drop.
<i>gill</i> , ravine		{ Ormes-gill.	<i>toft</i> , small field . . .	Lowes-toft.	
<i>Grim</i> ,*		{ Grims-dale.	<i>vat</i> , lake	Tan-vats.	
<i>hag</i>	} high pasture	{ Hag-gate.	<i>wig</i>	} creek	
<i>haigh</i>		{ Haigh.	<i>wick</i>		} or
<i>haugh</i>	} land	{ Kirk-haugh.	<i>wich</i>	} bay †	
<i>hoe</i> . hi:l		{ Langen-hoe.	<i>with</i> , wood		{ Sand-wich.
				{ Lang-with.	

(2) *Provincial words.*

<i>sarkle</i> , adhere.	<i>dateless</i> , foolish.	<i>gawm</i> , attention.
<i>braid</i> , resemble.	<i>eldin</i> , firing.	<i>gawster</i> , boast (v).
<i>brangle</i> , quarrel (v).	<i>fey</i> , sweep.	<i>greet</i> , weep.
<i>boun</i> , ready.	<i>flit</i> , change house.	<i>late</i> , seek.
<i>clatch</i> , brood of chickens.	<i>for-elders</i> , seniors.	<i>lurgy</i> , idle.
<i>cleg</i> , clever person.	<i>gar</i> , make.	<i>sowl</i> , a relish.

(3) *Words found in Old English literature.*

<i>ber yng</i> , bosom.	<i>boun</i> , ready.	<i>fenge</i> , girl.
<i>bi</i> , town.	<i>busk</i> , prepare.	<i>flosche</i> , chasm.
<i>bike</i> , pitch.	<i>erre</i> , wound.	<i>fraiste</i> , try.

* Names of ancient Scandinavian heroes.

† These must not be confounded with the Anglian words of similar form—(O.N. *vic*, creek or bay, A.S. *wic*, village.)

<i>frie</i> , blame.	<i>lowe</i> , flame.	<i>rippe</i> , basket.
<i>gnaist</i> , rage.	<i>mark</i> , a coin.	<i>sket</i> , quickly.
<i>hething</i> , scorn.	<i>neif</i> , fist.	<i>snepe</i> , foolish.
<i>kaske</i> , bold.	<i>okir</i> , usury.	<i>tyffen</i> , adorn.
<i>lith</i> , liston.	<i>rake</i> , drive.	<i>wandreth</i> , sorrow. *

(4) *Words in the current language.*

bag	bray	doze	husting	rap (n.)
bait (v.)	bunker (coal)	drub	kid	shrug
bloated	bustle	dwel	kindle	sky
blunt	carouse	earl	ling	slant
boil	cast (v.)	flatten	lubber	slush
box (blow)	chime	flimsy	lurk	sly
bracken	dash	gust	pudding	whim †

15. The Classical words in the English language have been introduced at various periods.

- (1) Sparingly during the Roman occupation of the island, between A.D. 43 and A.D. 418.
- (2) At the introduction of Christianity by the Roman missionaries, A.D. 596.
- (3) With the Norman French, A.D. 1042.
- (4) At the revival of classical learning in the sixteenth century.
- (5) By modern writers on science, art, social and political economy, &c.

16. (1) The Latin of the first period is found chiefly in local names connected with the great military works executed by the Roman legionaries.

(a) CASTRA, a camp.

caster, Don-caster, Lan-caster, Tad-caster, Caster-ton.

castor, Castor, Thong Castor.

caistor, Caistor (Norf. Linc.).

cester, Bi-cester, Glou-cester, Wor-cester, Lei-cester.

chester, Chester, Port-chester, Win-chester, Col-chester.

cister, Bed-cister.

ster, Glo-ster.

eter, Ex-eter (Ex-etre, Ex-cestre, O.E.).

* For other examples see Morris (Story of Genesis, pref. p. xxi.).

† For further details of the Scandinavian element see Worsaae's Danes, and Trans. Phil. Soc. 1855, p. 210; 1859, pp. 18-30.

- (b) STRATA, paved roads.
strad, Strad-sett, Strad-broke, Strad-brooke.
strat, Strat-ford, Strat-ton, Strat-field.
stret, Stret-ton, Stret-ham, Stret-ford.
streat, Streat-ham, Streat-ley.
street, Street, Street-ly, Street-thorpe.
- (c) COLONIA, a Roman settlement.
coln, Lin-corn.
- (d) PORTUS, a harbour.
port, Port-chester, Port-s-ea, Port-s-mouth, Port-gate.*
- (e) VALLUM, a palisaded rampart.
 In Old English, ballum and ballium, bayle and bailey. It is still retained in "Old Bailey" and "bailiff." It is seen again in the names of places connected with Roman forts: *e.g.* Wall-bury (Essex), Wal-bury Hill (Hants), Wall Hill (Heref.), old Roman forts.
- (f) FOSSA, a trench, Foss-way, Foss-dyke, Stratton on Foss, Fosse-cot, Foss-bury, Fos-brook, Fos-bridge, Fos-ton.

17. (2) Classical words of the second period were imported principally by the Roman ecclesiastics during the four centuries following the introduction of Christianity, A.D. 596. They include many words of a religious character, and others connected with social institutions and natural productions previously unknown to the Angles. Many of these terms are Greek transmitted through a Latin medium.

Ecclesiastical.

<i>Greek.</i> alms, <i>eleemosyna</i> .	clerk, <i>clericus</i> .	monk, <i>monachus</i> .
angel, <i>angelus</i> .	deacon, <i>diaconus</i> .	priest, <i>presbyterus</i> .
apostle, <i>apostolus</i> .	heretic, <i>haereticus</i> .	psalm, <i>psalma</i> .
bishop, <i>episcopus</i> .	hymn, <i>hymnus</i> .	psalter, <i>psalter</i> .
canon, <i>canon</i> .	martyr, <i>martyr</i> .	stole, <i>stola</i> .
church, <i>cyriaca</i> .	minster, <i>monasterium</i> .	synod, <i>synodus</i> .
<i>Latin.</i> altar, <i>altar</i> .	disciple, <i>discipulus</i> .	pall, <i>pallium</i> .
chalice, <i>calix</i> .	feast, <i>festus</i> .	porch, <i>porticus</i> .
cloister, <i>claustrum</i> .	font, <i>fons</i> .	preach, <i>praedico</i> .
cowl, <i>cucullus</i> .	mass, <i>missa</i> .	saint, <i>sanctus</i> .
creed, <i>credo</i> .	offer, <i>offero</i> .	shrine, <i>scrinium</i> .
cross, <i>cruz</i> .	pagan, <i>paganus</i> .	sacrament, <i>sacramen-</i> <i>tum</i> .

* At the spot where Watling Street passed through Hadrian's Wall.

Miscellaneous.

<i>Greek.</i>	cymbal, <i>cymbalum</i> . epistle, <i>epistola</i> . giant, <i>gigas</i> .	metre, <i>metrum</i> . plaster, <i>plastrum</i> . philosopher, <i>philosophus</i> .	rheum, <i>rheuma</i> . school, <i>schola</i> . theatre, <i>theatrum</i> .
<i>Latin.</i>	acid, <i>acidus</i> . anchor, <i>ancora</i> . axle, <i>axis</i> . ark, <i>arca</i> . belt, <i>balteus</i> . bench, <i>banca</i> . bile, <i>bilis</i> . candle, <i>candela</i> . capital, <i>capitalis</i> . castle, <i>castellum</i> . chest, <i>cista</i> . circle, <i>circulus</i> . city, <i>civitas</i> . crown, <i>corona</i> . crest, <i>crista</i> .	chancellor, <i>cancellarius</i> . cook, <i>cocus</i> . coultter, <i>culter</i> . crisp, <i>crispus</i> . ell, <i>ulna</i> . empire, <i>imperium</i> . fever, <i>febris</i> . fork, <i>furca</i> . gem, <i>gemma</i> . grade, <i>gradus</i> . mile, <i>mille</i> . mortar, <i>mortarium</i> . muscle, <i>musculus</i> . nurse, <i>nutrix</i> . ounce, <i>uncia</i> .	palace, <i>palatium</i> . plant, <i>planta</i> . plume, <i>pluma</i> . pound, <i>pondus</i> . prove, <i>probo</i> . provost, <i>praepositus</i> . purple, <i>purpur</i> . rule, <i>regula</i> . sack, <i>saccus</i> . senate, <i>senatus</i> . spade, <i>spatha</i> . table, <i>tabula</i> . temple, <i>templum</i> . title, <i>titulus</i> . verse, <i>versus</i> .

Natural objects.

<i>Greek.</i>	agate, <i>gagates</i> . anise, <i>anisum</i> . camel, <i>camelus</i> .	crystal, <i>crystallum</i> . hellebore, <i>Elleborus</i> . myrrh, <i>myrrha</i> .	phoenix, <i>phœnix</i> . sponge, <i>spongia</i> . sycamore, <i>sycamorus</i>
<i>Latin.</i>	beet, <i>beta</i> . box, <i>buxus</i> . cedar, <i>cedrus</i> . chalk, <i>calx</i> . cherry, <i>cerasus</i> . cucumber, <i>cucumis</i> . elm, <i>ulma</i> . fig, <i>ficus</i> . laurel, <i>laurus</i> .	lettuce, <i>lactuca</i> . lily, <i>lilium</i> . lion, <i>leo</i> . mallow, <i>malva</i> . marble, <i>marmor</i> . millet, <i>milium</i> . mule, <i>mulus</i> . oyster, <i>ostrea</i> . palm, <i>palma</i> .	pard, <i>pardus</i> . pea-cock, <i>pavo</i> . pearl, <i>perla</i> . pine, <i>pinus</i> . pumice, <i>pumex</i> . rue, <i>ruta</i> . tiger, <i>tigris</i> . turtle, <i>turtur</i> . vulture, <i>vultur</i> .

18. Towards the close of the ninth century (A.D. 876), a band of marauding Norsemen, under Rolf or Rollo, attacked and ravaged the north of France, and ultimately (A.D. 912) succeeded in extorting from the French King, Charles the Simple, a grant of the dukedom of Normandy, to be held as a fief under the French crown. The language of Normandy at that time was debased Latin, and the efforts of these Scandinavians to speak the language of the country produced a dialect commonly known as *Norman-French*. The original language of the Norse conquerors rapidly disappeared.

19. On the accession of Edward the Confessor, who had been brought up in Normandy, Norman-French became the language of the English court. After the battle of Hastings, it was the language of the Norman nobles and their retainers throughout the kingdom. All religious and secular instruction, and all judicial proceedings, were conducted in French; but the uneducated, who comprised the mass of the population, adhered to their native Anglian. In the year 1362, the English language was formally recognised, by a special enactment, as the language of the English people. But a living language cannot be abruptly suppressed by an Act of Parliament. From the Norman conquest to A.D. 1297, all parliamentary enactments are in Latin: from 1297 to 1487 they are almost wholly in French; after that date, in English.

20. (3) Terms employed in feudalism, war, law, and the chase, are principally Norman-French:

Feudalism and War.

aid	buckler	guardian	mail	trumpet
armour	captain	hauberk	peer	truncheon
array	champion	harness	relief	vassal
assault	chivalry	herald	scutage	vizor
banner	dower	homage	scutcheon	war
baron	esquire	joust	tallage	ward
battle	fealty	lance	tenant	warden

Law.

advocate	case	felony	paramount	statute
approver	contract	judge	plaint	sue
arrest	estate	justice	plea	suit
assize	fee	larceny	sentence	surety

The Chase.

bay	couple (v.)	forest	quarry	tiercel
brace	covert	leash	reclaim	venison
chase	falconer	mew	sport	verderer

Many words of a general character were also introduced: as, abash, adventure, annoy, bachelor, benign, cavil, chamber, comfort, company, contrary, corps, counterfeit, courage, curious, debonair, defame, fancy, folly, frailty, fruit, &c.

21. (4) Down to the year 1523 it is difficult to find a Latin word in the general vocabulary of the language which cannot be traced to Norman-French. During the next hundred years, classical words were so profusely introduced as almost to change the character of the language. This was caused by the enthusiastic study of Greek and Latin literature.

acclamation	controversy	figurative	judicious	portentous
ambitious	convenient	generosity	malicious	restitution
artificial	despicable	impression	mutual	scientific
celebrate	dimension	impotent	numerous	singularity
cogitation	fanatic	indignity	participate	visitation
conjunctural	fastidious	inventory	particular	volubility

Many words introduced by the writers of this age have been rejected by the better judgment or the caprice of modern critics: *e.g.* expulsed, neglection, immanity, mansuetude, consociate, disserve, incuriously, nocive, cecity, torve, tetric, lepid, pauciloquy, stultiloquy, eluctate, arride.

22. (5) Words introduced by modern writers :

Greek. Telegraph, telegram, photograph, telescope, panorama, æsthetic, lithograph, crisis, diagnosis, basis, criterion, stereoscope, geology, biology, &c.

Latin. Terminus, oculist, dentist, caloric, locomotive, detective, platitude, emigrant, prospectus, &c.

23. In addition to the above, the English language includes various words derived from miscellaneous sources :

Hebrew. Abbey, abbot, amen, behemoth, cabal, cherub, ephod, gehenna, hallelujah, hosanna, jubilee, leviathan, manna, sabbath, seraph, shibboleth, pharisaic, Rabbi.

Arabic. Admiral, alchemy, alcohol, alcove, alembic, algebra, alkali, almanac, amber, ambergris, arrack, arsenal, artichoke, assassin, attar, azimuth, cadi, caliph, camphor, carat, caravan, caravanserai, chemistry, cipher, civet, coffee, cotton, crimson, damask, damson, divan, dragoman, elixir, emir, fakir, firman, gazelle, giraffe, harem, hazard, jar, lake, lemon, lime, lute, magazine, mameluke, mattress, minaret, mohair, monsoon, moslem, mosque, mufti, mummy, nabob, nadir, naphtha, nard, opium, ottoman, saffron, salaam, scullion, shrub, sirocco, sofa, sultan, syrup, tabor, talisman, tamarind, tambourine, tariff, vizir, zenith, zero.

Persian. Azure, balcony, barbican, bashaw, bazaar, cneck-mate, chess, dervise, emerald, hookah, howdah, indigo, jackall, jasmin, kaffir, lilac, musk, orange, pasha, pawn (in chess), saraband, scimitar, sepoy, shawl, sherbet, simoom, taffeta, tiffin, turban, paradise.

Hindustani. Banian, batta, betel, buggy, bungalow, calico, coolie, cownie, dimity, jungle, lac, loot, mullagatawny, muslin, pagoda, palanquin, pariah, punch, pundit, rajah, rupee, sandal (wood), sugar, suttee, toddy, shampoo.

Malay. A-muck, bamboo, bantam, caddy, caoutchouc, chintz, cockatoo, creese, curry, gamboge, godown, gong, gutta-percha, junk, mango, orang-outang, rattan, sago.

Chinese. Bohea, congou, hyson, nankeen, pekoe, satin, soy, tea.

Turkish. Bey, chibouk, chouse, janisary, kiosk, sash, tulip, seraglio.

American. Cacique, calumet, condor, lama, maize, moccasin, pampas, pemmican, potato, squaw, wigwam, tobacco, tomahawk, tomat.

Polynesian. Tattoo, taboo, kangaroo.

Italian. Balustrade, bravado, bravo, bust, canto, caricature, carnival, charletan, cupola, ditto, dilettanti, farrago, folio, gazette, gondola, grotto, harlequin, improvisatore, influenza, lava, manifesto, motto, opera, pantaloon, piazza, portico, regatta, scaramouch, sketch, soprano, stanza, stiletto, stucco, studio, tenor, terra-cotta, torso, umbrella, virtuoso, vista, volcano, zany.

Spanish. Alligator, armada, armadillo, barricade, cambist, carbonado, cargo, chocolate, cigar, creole, desperado, don, duenna, embargo, flotilla, gala, grandee, grenade, jennet, mosquito, mulatto, negro, olio, paroquet, platina, poncho, punctilio, savannah, sherry, tornado, verandah.

Portuguese. Ayab, cash, caste, cocoa, commodore, compound, fetish, mandarin, palaver.

French. Beau, belle, belles-lettres, billet-doux, bon-mot, bouquet, déjeuner, dépôt, éclat, ennui, penchant, soirée, trousseau.

Dutch. Block, boom, boor, bow-sprit, reef (v.), schooner, skates, sloop, smuggle, spoor, stiver, tafferel, veer, wear (ship), yacht.

24. Words introduced in the earlier stages of the language are usually much altered in form, as *bishop*, from *episcopus*. At a later period, the terminations only are modified, as *episcopal*, from *episcopalis*. Compare *sure* and *secure*, *fealty* and *fidelity*, *hotel* and *hospital*, *pursue* and *persecute*, *blame* and *blaspheme*. The earlier and more corrupt forms have usually been transmitted through the Norman-French. In

modern times, the ending of a new word is sometimes changed to adapt it to the current forms, as *telegram*, *bivalve*, *detective*; and sometimes the word retains its original form, as *terminus*, *basis*, *diorama*.

25. The meaning of a word frequently differs at different periods in the history of the language. The following words have the Old English meaning subjoined :—

animosity, courage.	franchise, frankness.	miscreant, unbeliever.
caitiff, captive.	frightful, timid.	nice, foolish.
climate, region.	generosity, high birth.	novelist, innovator.
danger, damage.	glorious, boasting.	plantation, colony.
defend, forbid.	insolent, unusual.	reward, regard.
depart, divide.	knave, boy.	talent, desire.
fond, foolish.	maker, poet.	volatile, flying.

26. The pronouns, numerals, prepositions, conjunctions and auxiliary verbs—"the names of the elements and their changes, of the seasons, the heavenly bodies, the divisions of time, the features of natural scenery, the organs of the body, the modes of bodily action and posture, the commonest animals—the words used in earliest childhood—the ordinary terms of traffic—the constituent words in proverbs—the designations of kindred—the simpler emotions of the mind—terms of pleasantry, satire, contempt, indignation, invective and anger, are for the most part Anglo-Saxon."* Words indicating a more advanced civilisation and complex feelings, and most of the terms employed in art, science, mental and moral philosophy, are Classical.

27. The number of words in the English language is probably about 80,000. By actual enumeration of those contained in the best dictionaries it has been ascertained that 13,330 Saxon words and 29,354 of Classical origin are now registered.† In consequence, however, of the popular nature of the Teutonic words in the language, the Saxon element largely preponderates in the works of our greatest writers.‡

* *Edinb. Review*, April, 1859.

† Max Müller's Lectures, 1st series, p. 73.

‡ For some careful and instructive details on this subject, see Marsh's Lectures (Lec. VI.)

28. English is now spoken by about seventy millions of people. It is the general language of Great Britain and Ireland, the United States and British America, Australia, Van Diemen's Land, New Zealand and South Africa. It is spoken in certain portions of the West Indies, and partially in India.

29. As the changes by which modern English has grown out of the old Anglian tongue were gradual in their development, it is impossible accurately to define the successive stages of the language. For convenience in treating the history of English literature the following artificial arrangement has been proposed :—

1. A.D. 550—1150 Anglian or Anglo-Saxon.
 2. 1150—1250 Semi-Anglian or Semi-Saxon.
 3. 1250—1550 Old English.
 4. 1550—1650 Middle English.
 5. 1650—1850 Modern English.
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PART II

LETTERS.

30. LETTERS were once pictures of various objects, but are now used as *symbols to represent sounds*.

A collection of the symbols employed in any language is called an *Alphabet*. The word is derived from *alpha*, *beta*, the Greek names for the first two letters.

31. These sounds are produced by air issuing from the lungs, and modified in its passage through the throat and mouth by the *Organs of speech*.

The Organs of speech are, (1) the *throat* (guttur), (2) the *palate* (palatum), (3) the *tongue* (lingua), (4) the *teeth* (dentes), (5) the *lips* (labia), (6) the *nose* (nasus).

Hence letters have been classed as *gutturals*, *palatals*, *linguals*, *dentals*, *labials*, and *nasals*.

32. The modifications of sound are infinite, and no language, therefore, can possess a separate symbol to represent each separate sound.

In the English language there are twenty-six letters, viz. *a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, p, q, r, s, t, u, v, w, x, y, z*.

These letters are divided into *vowels* and *consonants*.

33. *Vowels*.—A *vowel* is the continuous sound produced when the organs of speech are retained in such a position as not to interrupt the air issuing from the lungs, as *a, e, o*.

It is capable of forming a syllable or a word without the assistance of other letters: *a man, amend*.

34. The vowels, as arranged in the English alphabet, are *a, e, i, o, u*; but the natural order in which they are produced is *i, e, a, o, u*, pronounced *ee, ay, ah, oh, oo*.

Of these vowels, *i* and *e* are frequently called *weak*; *a, o, u* *strong*.

35. Owing to the imperfect nature of the English alphabet, several vowel-sounds frequently occurring in the language are not represented by separate symbols.

Simple vowel sounds and their equivalents.

1. *sit*—Cyril, busy, women, cabbage, pretty, surfeit, guilt, sieve, breeches, carriage, valley, yonder.
2. *set*—any, bury, bread, guest, leopard, connoisseur, friend, heifer, said, says, michaelmas, threepence.
3. *mete*—marine, meet, meat, brief, people, ceiling, æther, phœnix, key, quay.
4. *male*—maid, may, weigh, great, guage, gaol, they, demesne.
5. *marry*—guarantee, plaid.
6. *Mary*—pair, heir, bear, there.
7. *mar*—aunt, guard, heart, ah, clerk.
8. *not*—what, laurel, knowledge, Gloucester.
9. *note*—boat, toe, yeoman, soul, sow, sew, hautboy, beau, owe
10. *north*—call, fraud, broad, fought, awe, bawl, George, floor.
11. *bud*—love, berth, birth, does, rough, flood, myrrh, surgeon, earth, fashion, porpoise, waistcoat, huntsman.
12. *bull*—wolf, good, could, construe.
13. *rude*—move, rood, blew, true, fruit, through, shoe, galloon, two manœuvre, win.

From this table we may appreciate the imperfection of our alphabet and of our system of orthography. Thirteen vowel sounds are represented by *five* symbols, and the same thirteen sounds are expressed by *one hundred* expedients in the written language.

36. The letters *y* and *w*, which have been called *Semi-vowels*, are simply superfluous letters in the alphabet—expedients in the written language for expressing the sounds of *i* in *sit* and *u* in *bull*: e.g. *yon* = *ion*, *million* = *mill-yon*, *span-iel* = *span-yel*; and *win* = *uin*, *suasive* = *swasive*.

37. The sounds represented by the combination of the letters *e* and *o* with *i* and *u*, viz. *ei*, *oi*, *eu*, *ou*, are called *diphthongs*. These are the only true diphthongs in English.* They are variously represented in the written language.

Compound vowel sounds, or diphthongs, and their equivalents.

1. *ei*—thy, thine, *flie*, dye, aisle, buy, guide, height, eye, *aye*.
2. *oi*—boy, boisterous, buoy.
3. *eu*—mute, feud, few, suit, hue, yule, purlicue, beauty, view, ewe, you.
4. *ou*—now, noun.

Four diphthongal sounds are thus represented by twenty-six expedients, and none of these expedients expresses the true character of the sounds it represents.

1. *ei* is a combination of *a* in *car* and *i* in *sit* (aisle).
2. *oi* is the *a* in *all* and *i* in *sit*.
3. *eu* is the *i* in *sit* and the *u* in *rude*.
4. *ou* is the *a* in *car* and the *u* in *rude*.

38. Other so-called diphthongs are simple vowel-sounds :

False diphthongs and their simple equivalents.

1. *ae*—aether (ēther), michaelmas (michēlmas).
2. *ai*—maid (made), plaid (plad), pair (pare), said (sed).
3. *ao*—gaol (jale).
4. *au*—caul (call), aunt (*a* in *mar*), gauge (gage), hautboy (hoboy), laurel (lorel).
5. *ea*—serjeant (serjant), bear (bare), heart (hart), bread (bred), yea (ya).
6. *ei*—ceiling (cēling), weighed (wade), heifer (heffer), heir (hare), surfeit (surfit).
7. *eo*—people (pēple), yeoman (yoman), leopard (lepard), surgeon (serjun), galleon (*u* in *rude*).
8. *ia*—carriage (carrige).
9. *ie*—field (fēld,) friend (frend), sieve (sive).
10. *io*—fashion (fashun).
11. *oa*—broad (*a* in *all*), road (rode).
12. *oe*—phoenix (phēnix), hoe (ho), does (dus), shoe (shu).
13. *oi*—connoisseur (connesneur), porpoise (porpus).
14. *ou*—four (for), though (tho), rough (ruff), could (*u* in *bull*), through (thru).

* If, however, *y* and *w* are vowels, we have twenty-eight true diphthongs and two triphthongs.

15. *ua*—*guarantee* (*garantee*), *guard* (*gard*).
16. *ue*—*guest* (*e* in *set*), *construe* (*constrü*), *true* (*trü*).
17. *ui*—*guilt* (*gilt*), *fruit* (*frute*).
18. *ay*—*say* (*sa*), *quay* (*ke*), *says* (*ses*).
19. *aw*—*bawl* (*ball*).
20. *ey*—*key* (*ke*), *prey* (*pra*), *valley* (*valle*).
21. *ew*—*crew* (*cru*), *shew* (*sho*).
22. *ow*—*knowledge* (*o* in *not*).
23. *awe*—*a* in *all*.
24. *owe*—*o*.
25. *eau**—*bcau* (*!o*).

39. *Consonants*.—A *consonant* is the sound produced by the partial or the total closing of the air-tube; *el*, *es*, *ef* (partial), *et*, *ed* (total).

40. *Consonants* are divided into *liquids*, *mutes*, and *sibilants*.

41. *Liquids*.—A *liquid* is the *continuous* sound produced when some organ of speech has so far changed its position as not to *stop* the current of air issuing from the lungs: e.g. *m*, produced by the compression of the lips; *l*, by the application of the tongue to the palate.

These letters are called *liquids*, because the sound *flows on*, *i.e.* is continuous. The name is objectionable, as it is equally applicable to vowels, sibilants, and aspirated mutes.

42. The *liquids*, as arranged in the English alphabet, are *l*, *m*, *n*, *r*; but the natural order, commencing with the throat and ending with the lips, is *r*, *l*, *n*, *m*.

To these must be added the sound of *ng* in *sing*.

43. *Mutes*.—A *mute* is the *interrupted* sound produced when the tube, through which air passes from the lungs, is entirely closed. Thus, after sounding the *t* in *at*, the tongue is pressed against the teeth and palate, the voice is checked, and all articulation interrupted.

44. The *mutes* are classed according to the organs by which they are expressed. Thus, *p*, *f*, *b*, *v*, are called *labials*, or lip-letters, because the lips are employed in producing the sounds they represent. Similarly *t*, *th* (in *thin*), *d*, *th* (in *thine*), are

* The last three are often, but incorrectly, called triphthongs. We have two real triphthongs; viz. *u + a + i* (*oo*, *ah*, *ee*) in *why* and *wine*, and *u + a + u* (*oo*, *ah*, *oo*) in *wound* (past indef. of *wind*) and 'bow-wow.'

called *dentals*, or tooth-letters ; *k*, *ch* (in the Scotch *loch*), *g*, *gh* (in the Irish *lough*), are *gutturals*, or throat-letters.

45. On comparing the sounds of *p* and *b* in *pat* and *bat*, of *t* and *d* in *tin* and *din*, of *k* and *g* in *Kate* and *gate*, it will be found that *p*, *t*, *k*, are pronounced with a sharper and more delicate articulation than *b*, *d* and *g*.

Hence *p*, *f*, *t*, *th* (in *thin*), *k*, have been called *sharp*, *thin*, and *surd* mutes ; and *b*, *v*, *d*, *th* (in *thine*), *g*, *flat*, *medial*, and *sonant* mutes.

46. On comparing *ap*, *ab*, *at*, *ad* with *af*, *av*, *ath*, *athe*, it will be found that in sounding the final letters of the first series the air-tube is *entirely* closed, while in sounding those of the second series it is only *partially* closed.

This organic difference between the perfect and imperfect mutes was recognised by the Latin grammarians, who distinguished the latter by the term *asperatae*. Hence letters of this nature are called *asperates*.

The asperated mutes in English are *f*, *v*, *th* (*thin*), *th* (*thine*). *ch* and *gh* occur only in local names in Scotland, Wales, and Ireland.

47. The distribution of the mutes may be thus represented :

Mutes.

		SHARP.				FLAT.			
		Unasperated.		Asperated.		Unasperated.		Asperated.	
La- bials.	<i>p</i>	<i>pat</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>fat</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>bat</i>	<i>v</i>	<i>vat</i>	
	<i>t</i>	<i>tin</i>	<i>th</i>	<i>thin</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>dine</i>	<i>th</i>	<i>thine</i>	
Den- tals.	<i>k</i>	<i>lock</i>	<i>ch</i> *	<i>loch</i>	<i>g</i>	<i>log</i>	<i>gh</i> *	<i>lough</i>	
Guttu- rals.									

48. A *sibilant* is the continuous *hissing* sound produced when the air-tube is *imperfectly* closed. They are : *s*, *sh*, *z*, *zh* ; and the two compound sounds *tsh* (*chest*), *dzh* (*jest*).

* Not found in English words.

Sibilants.

SHARP.				FLAT.			
Unasperated.		Asperated.		Unasperated.		Asperated.	
s	sin	sh	shin	z	zeal	zh	azure
		tsh	chest			dzh	jest

49. In addition to the above sounds, the English language possesses the letter *h*, which is merely a weakened form of the guttural *ch*. The Latin grammarians described it as a *rough breathing* (*spiritus asper*), and hence it is called the *asperate*.

50. In this arrangement of the consonants four letters are omitted.

- (1) *c*. Because its soft sound is represented by *s* (*cit, sit*); and its hard sound by *k* (*cat, kat*).
- (2) *g* soft. This is expressed by *j* (*gem, jem*).
- (3) *q*. This is merely another way of writing *k* before the vowel *u* (*quick, kuick*).

“*Q* is a letter we might very well spare in our alphabet, if we would but use the serviceable *k* as he should be, and restore him to the right of reputation he had with our fore-fathers—For the English Saxons knew not this halting *Q* with her waiting-woman *u* after her, till custome, under the excuse of expressing enfranchised words with us, intreated her into our language in *quality, quantity, &c.* and hath now given her the best of *k*'s possessions.”—*Ben Jonson*.

- (4) *x*. This is a short way of expressing the combination of a guttural and a sibilant (*fox, foks; exert, egzert*).

In words beginning with *ex* followed by an accented vowel, *x* represents the flat *gz*; *exéempt*.

Tabular Summary.

VOWELS.

(a) Simple vowel sounds.

1. carry.	5. mit.	9. rot.
2. chary.	6. met.	10. note.
3. car.	7. mate.	11. dull.
4. call.	8. mete.	12. full.
	13. rude.	

(b) Compound vowel sounds or Diphthongs.

14. ei.	15. oi.	16. eu.	17. ou.
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CONSONANTS.

Liquids.

18. r.	19. l.	20. n.	21. ng.	22. m.
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Mutes.

Labial.	23. p.	24. f.	25. b.	26. v.
Dental.	27. t.	28. th.	29. d.	30. dth.
Guttural.	31. k.	32. (ch.)	33. g.	34. (gh.)

*Sibilants.**(a) Simple.*

35. s.	36. sh.	37. z.	38. zh.
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(b) Compound.

39. tsh.	40. dzh (j).
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Asperate.

41. h.

Superfluous letters.

c. q. x. w. y.

51. A *perfect* alphabet should contain a distinct symbol for each separate sound.

The English alphabet is imperfect.

(1) It expresses several distinct sounds by one symbol; *e.g.* thirteen vowel sounds are represented by five letters.

f expresses *v* in *of*, and *f* in *fat*.

g expresses a guttural in *gate*, and a sibilant in *gem*.

s expresses *s* in *sun*, *sh* in *sure*, *z* in *dogs*, and *zh* in *pleasure*.

x expresses *z* in *Xenophon*, *ks* in *fox*, and *gz* in *exert*.

(2) A single sound is frequently represented by two or more symbols. (See § 38.)

(3) The same two symbols sometimes represent two or more distinct sounds, *e.g.* *ch* = *tsh* in *chest*, *sh* in *chaise*, *k* in *choral*: *ph* = *f* in *physic*, *v* in *nephew*; *th* in *thin*, and *th* in *thine*.

(4) It contains superfluous letters; *c*, *q*, *x*, *w* and *y*.

(5) Many distinct sounds have no separate symbols to represent them; *e.g.* *th* (*thin*), *th* (*thine*), *sh* (*shine*), *zh* (*azure*), *tsh* (*chest*), *ng* (*singer*).

52. When sharp and flat mutes or sibilants meet in the same word a change usually occurs. The sharp is assimilated to the flat or the flat to the sharp, *e.g.* *pd* becomes either *pt* or *bd*. This principle, which is of great importance in grammatical inquiries, has been termed the Law of Accommodation. Nearly all the ordinary inflections of the English language are regulated by this law; *e.g.* the formation of the Gen. Sing.—of the Plural of nouns—of the 3d Person Sing. (Pres. Imperf.)—of the Past Indefinite—and of the Perf Participle.

53. Another important principle is the modification of the root vowel when a suffix is added to the root—*e.g.* *cock*, *chick-en*; *cat*, *kitt-en*; *brother*, *brethr-en*; *break*, *brok-en*, &c.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

54. *Orthography*, derived from the Greek *ortho-*, “right,” and *graph-*, “write,” is the correct application of *letters* to the formation of words; *i.e.* it teaches us how to *spell* properly.

Orthoëpy, derived from the Greek *ortho-*, “right,” and *ep-*, “speak,” is the correct application of *sounds* to the formation of words; *i.e.* it teaches us how to *speak* properly.

55. A perfect system of orthography would represent each separate sound by a separate and appropriate symbol. Hence it cannot exist without a perfect alphabet.

56. The orthography of the English language is imperfect :

- (a) because the alphabet is imperfect, and various expedients are employed to remedy the imperfection ;
- (b) because the language contains words derived from various sources at different periods, and the orthography of these languages is frequently retained, though the mode of pronouncing the words is changed ;
- (c) because the pronunciation of many native words has changed, while the original spelling has been preserved.

57. The following are examples of the expedients employed to remedy the defects of the alphabet :

- (1) The vowel-sounds in *mate*, *mete*, *note*, and the diphthongs in *bite*, *acute*, are distinguished from the vowel-sounds in *mat*, *met*, *not*, *bit*, *cut*, by adding an unsounded *e* to the word.

Many words of this class were originally disyllabic ; the pronunciation has been changed and the old spelling retained. Hence a mute *e* does not always indicate a lengthened vowel, as in *live*, *give*, &c.

For other modes of representing these variations in sound, see §§ 35, 38.

- (2) A consonant when not final, is often doubled to show that the preceding vowel is short ; as *cärry*, *Nëlly*, *Willy*, *föilly*, *şully*.

Hence monosyllables ending in a single consonant, or other words accented on the last syllable, in which the vowel is short, double the consonant when a suffix is added—*höt*, *hott-er* ; *bïd*, *bidd-en* ; *begïn*, *begïnn-er* ; *allöt*, *allött-ed*.

For this reason doubled consonants do not represent a doubled sound, unless the two letters belong to different parts of a compound or derived word, *soul-less*, *un-natural*, *stern-ness*, *ill-luck*, &c.

- (3) *h* is often added to mark the aspirates of *p*, *t*, *s*.

58. As examples of the second disturbing principle mentioned in § 56, the word *censor* still retains the guttural *c* (*k*) of the Latin language, though we have changed the sound to *s* . *Sign* retains the Latin *g* , though we have ceased to pronounce it. The aspirated *k* of the Greeks (χ) becomes either a *k* or a *tsh* in English; *archangel* , *archbishop* .

59. As an illustration of the third disturbing cause, we may note the suffix *-ed* in the Past Indef. and Perfect Participle, *lov-ed* , *arriv-ed* ; and the suffix *-es* in the Plural and Gen. Sing. of certain nouns, *wolv-es* , *kniv-es* , *wif-es* . The vowel was once sounded and is still retained. So with *bough* , *knave* , *debt* , &c.

60. It may be useful to point out a few of the most striking defects of English orthography:

- (a) *s* is frequently written where *z* is pronounced; *dogs* , *birds* .* This is usually the case when *s* is suffixed to a flat mute, a vowel, or a liquid.
- (b) *ed* is frequently written where *t* is pronounced; *slipped* , *stopped* . This occurs whenever *ed* is suffixed to a sharp mute.
- (c) *ti* , *si* , and *ci* , if followed by a vowel, are sounded as *sh* ; *nation* , *fusion* , *precious* , *patrician* .
- (d) *es* is frequently written where *z* only is sounded; *lives* , *wolves* , *sides* .
- (e) Letters are occasionally written which are not sounded; *tomb* , *indict* , *sign* , *hour* , *knife* , *calm* , *mnemonics* , *condemn* , *receipt* , *island* , *bustle* , *wrong* , *marriage* , *engine* , *fashion* , *gaol* , *coquet* , *dialogue* .
- (f) When a consonant is doubled, one only is sounded; *appear* , *address* , *immature* , *full* , *grass* , *ruff* .

* To remedy this defect, Wallis (c. i., s. 1) proposed to employ *f* when *s* is intended; *cat-f* : and *s* when *z* is required; *dog-s* . Ben Jonson justly observes, "z is a letter often heard among us, but seldome seene."

- (g) At the end of words *le* is written where *el* is sounded.
- (h) A single letter often represents different sounds, and a single sound is often represented by different letters.

SYLLABLES.

61. A *syllable* is a single vowel-sound, with or without one or more consonants ; as *a*, *strength*, *o-mit*, *ug-ly*, *strong-est*.

The word is derived from the Greek *sul-labe*, that which is *taken together* ; *i. e.* a number of letters taken together. This Greek definition is not very accurate. In the following words syllables are formed of single vowels ; *a-part*, *e-mit*, *hol-i-day*, *o-mit*, *turb-u-lent*.

62. Every syllable was once a significant word, *i. e.* had a distinct and independent meaning in the language to which it originally belonged ; but this meaning has very frequently become obsolete. Thus the word *en-tire*, derived from the Latin *in-teger*, meant *not-touched* ; the word *bi-shop*, from the Greek *epi-skopos*, signified *over-looker* ; *god-ly* was *god-like* ; the *er* in such words as *reap-er*, meant *man* ; *a-loft* is *in-air*.

63. When a single syllable, or a combination of two or more syllables, possesses a distinct and independent meaning, it is called a *word* ; as *man*, *sparrow*, *industrious*.

64. A word consisting of *one* syllable is called a *mono-syllable* ; of *two* syllables a *disyllable* ; of *three*, a *trisyllable* ; of *more than three*, a *polysyllable* : from the Greek words for *one*, *two*, *three*, *many*.

ACCENT.

65. *Accent* is the stress laid upon a syllable in pronouncing a word ; as

By scaly Triton's winding shell.—*Milton*.

It must not be confounded with *Emphasis*, which is the stress laid upon a *word* in pronouncing a sentence :

Bear my greeting to the senators,
 And tell them that I will not come to-day ;
Cannot is *false* ; and that I *dare* not, *false* :
 I *will* not come to-day—tell them so, Decius.
Shakspeare.

When a word is a monosyllable, accent and emphasis may coincide :

To *bé*, or *nót* to be.—*Shakspeare.*

66. A monosyllable can have but one accent ; but the accent does not fall upon every monosyllable.

Brightest and *bést* of the *sóns* of the *mórning*.—*Heber.*

Here *best* and *sons* are accented ; *and*, *of*, *the* are not.

67. A disyllable can have but one accent, which may fall on either the first or the second syllable ; *living*, *alóne*. The words *ámén* and *fárewéll* appear to be exceptions.

In all disyllabic compound nouns, the accent falls upon the first syllable ; *stár-light*, *sún-beam*, *ráin-bow*.

68. A trisyllable may have either one or two accents.

The single accent may fall upon *any* syllable ; *mérrily*, *horízon*, *pionéer*. The last are usually foreign words of comparatively recent introduction.

If there are two accents, one must fall upon the first, the other upon the third syllable ; *ínterrúpt*, *cómprehénd*.

In compound words the two accents will sometimes fall on the first and second syllables ; *heád-máster*.

69. A word of four syllables may have either one or two accents.

If it has but one, the accent may fall upon any of the **first three** syllables ; as *mércenary*, *impóssible*, *cavalíerly*.

If there are two, they must fall upon either the first and third, or the second and fourth ; *ínconsistent*, *inaúguráte*.

70. In words of more than four syllables an accent may fall upon any syllable, provided no two successive syllables are accented; *inévitabile*, *hétérogéneous*, *incapacitéted*, *incompatibility*.

71. Words of classical origin, identical in form, but differing in meaning, are frequently distinguished from each other in the spoken language by the position of the accent.

(1) NOUN.	VERB.	NOUN.	VERB.
áccent	accént	éxport	expórt
áffix	affí'x	éxtract	extráct
átribute	attribúte	férment	fermént
aúgment	augmént	ímport	impórt
cólleague	colléague	ímpress	impéss
cóllect	colléct	íncense	incéuse
cómpress	compéss	íncease	incréase
cóncert	concért	ínsult	insúlt
cónduct	condúct	óbject	objéct
cóntest	contést	pérfume	perfúme
cónfine	confi'ne	pérmit	permit
cónflict	conflic't	pérvert	pervért
cónserve	consérve	préfix	prefi'x
cónsort	consórt	prélude	prelúde
cóntrast	contrást	prémise(s)	premise
cónverse	convérse	présage	preságe
cóntvert	convért	próduce	prodúce
cónvict	convic't	próject	projéct
décrease	decréase	prótest	protést
déscant	descánt	récord	recórd
détail	detáil	súrvey	survéy
dígest	digést	tórment	tormént
éssay	essáy	tránsfer	transfér
éxile	exile	tránsport	transpórt
(2) ADJEC.	VERB.	ADJEC.	VERB.
ábsent	absént	fréquent	frequént
(3) NOUN.	ADJEC.	NOUN.	ADJEC.
cómpact	compáct	minute	minúte
éxpert	expért	précedent	precédent
ínstinct	instinct	súpine	supíne
invalid	inválid		
(4) NOUN & ADJ.	VERB.	NOUN & ADJ.	VERB.
ábstract	abstráct	rébel	rebél
cómpound	compóund	réfuse	refúse
cónttract	contráct	rétail	retáil
présent	présént	súbject	subjéct

(5) NOUN & ADJ.	NOUN & VERB.		VERB.	VERB.
désert	desért		cónjure	conjúre

Sometimes the accent remains unchanged, as in *cóncrete* (N. and Adj.), *pátent* (N. and Adj.), *consént* (N. and V.), *respéct* (N. and V.), *contént* (N. A. and V.), *hérald* (N. A. and V.)

72. When two words containing the same root, with a different prefix, are contrasted, the accent is occasionally shifted from the root to the prefix—"His expenses *increased* while his means *décreased*"—"The *éxterior* was tasteful; the *interior* mean."

73. In old English writers the accent is sometimes found on syllables which are not accented at the present day; *aspéct*, *cément*, *trium'phing*, *cónjure* (implore), *recórd* (noun), *chástise*, *incréase* (noun), *instínt* (noun), *exíle* (noun), *contráct* (noun), *natúre*, *figúre*, *creatúre*, &c.

ACCIDENCE OR ETYMOLOGY.

74. Words represent ideas of different kinds: thus, *horse*, *river*, *flower*, represent *visible objects*; *run*, *walk*, *read*, represent *actions*. These different classes of words are called *Parts of Speech*.

The following are the Parts of Speech commonly recognised in Grammars of the English language—Noun or Substantive, Adjective, Pronoun, Verb, Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction Interjection and Article.

75. The connexion between two or more ideas is often expressed by a change in the form of the words. Words thus changed are said to be *inflected*.

The explanation of inflectional changes is called *Accidence*.

76. The term *Etymology* has two meanings; (1) the tracing of a word to its original source; (2) the explanation of inflectional changes. In this latter sense it is employed in Grammar, and is identical with *Accidence*.

NOUNS.

77. *Noun*, from the Latin *nomen*, 'name,' is the name of any thing we can perceive by means of (1) the *senses*, or (2) the *understanding*:

- (1) Thunder, lightning, heat, perfume, acidity;
- (2) Justice, virtue, truth, fortitude, despair.

78. Nouns may be arranged in two classes: (1) *Simple*, when the thing named is represented by a single word, *gun, dog, bird*: (2) *Compound*, when the thing named is represented by a combination of several words: "*To credit ordinary and visible objects is not faith, but persuasion.*"—*Sir T. Browne*.

(1) *Simple*.

1. Noun. *God is our fortress.*—*Shakspeare*.
2. Numeral. *He stoppeth one of three.*—*Coleridge*.
3. Pronoun. *I will cherish thee for this.*—*Wither*.
4. Gerund.

(a) *You should not reprehend my laughing.*—*Burton*.

(b) *I come to bury Cæsar, not to praise him.*—*Shakspeare*.

5. Infinitive. *Learn to labour and to wait.*—*Longfellow*.

(2) *Compound*.

1. Infinitive clause. *I love [to lose myself in a mystery].*—*Sir T. Browne*.
2. Sentence. *In my solitary and retired imagination I remember [I am not alone].*—*Id.*

Any combination of words that can form the subject or object of a verb is virtually a noun.

79. The name by which *one* object is distinguished from all others is called a *Proper Noun*, from the Latin *proprius*, 'peculiar,' *i.e.* a name *peculiar* to an individual—*Rome, Ganges, Plato, Milton*.

80. The name by which *several* objects are distinguished from others of a different class is called a *Common Noun*, *i.e.*

a name common to all individuals of the same class—*ship, hook, flower.*

81. It is possible for a noun to be both Proper and Common: *e.g. Roman* is a name peculiar to a single nation; but it is also common to all the citizens of that nation.

82. A *Collective Noun* is the name of many individuals viewed as a single object:

These persons are called, when spoken of in a body, the *ministry.*—*Cobbett.*

A *Noun of Multitude* is the name of a class of individuals, each of which is viewed as a separate object.

The *clergy* began to withdraw *themselves* from the temporal courts.—*Blackstone.*

83. Every object possesses certain qualities. Thus a star may be *bright* and *distant*; a horse, *swift* and *strong*; a man, *good* and *wise*, &c. If we separate or *draw off* these qualities, and consider them apart from the object, the names of the qualities so separated are called *Abstract Nouns*; *e.g. brightness, distance, swiftness, strength, goodness, wisdom.*

The object itself, in contradistinction to these abstracted qualities, is called a *Concrete Noun*; *e.g. star, horse, man.*

84. In connexion with nouns we must consider the grammatical terms *Gender, Number, and Case.*

Gender.

85. The word *Gender*, derived from the Latin *genus*, a kind or class, signifies a class of nouns or adjectives.

In Old English the word commonly meant a *kind* or *class*, and even in the time of Shakspeare we find, "Supply it with one *gender* of herbs, or distract it with many." (*Othello.*) It is important not to confound *Gender*, a grammatical term signifying a *class* of nouns, with *sex*, the distinction between male and female. In the English language it happens that *sex* is adopted as the basis of classification; in most other languages this is not the case. In those languages masculine and

femiline do not mean male and female. B. Jonson makes *six* genders of English nouns.

There are in English four *kinds* or *genders* of nouns :

- (1) Those indicating the male sex ; *boy, father.*
- (2) Those indicating the female sex ; *girl, mother.*
- (3) Those that are neither male nor female ; *book, house.*
- (4) Those that include both male and female ; *parent, child.*

The first are called *masculine* ; the second *feminine* ; the third *neuter* ; and the fourth *common*.

86. In the ancient, and in most modern languages, nouns with certain terminations are of a definite gender, without reference to the sex of the thing described. Thus in Latin, *puella*, a girl, and *villa*, a farm, are both feminine ; in French, *fille*, a daughter, and *ville*, a city, are both feminine ; in Anglo-Saxon, *wyrhta*, a workman, and *stecorra*, a star, are both masculine. In modern English this artificial system does not exist† As a general rule gender is determined by sex alone. The probable cause of this change is shown in the following extract :—

“The Saxon nouns had three genders, and the masculine and feminine were very often applied to objects incapable of sex. The Norman had but two genders, the neuter not being recognised in its grammar. When the two languages coalesced, a compromise was effected by employing the masculine and feminine as indications, not of grammatical gender or termination, but of sex, and confining the neuter to objects without sex.” (Marsh, Lect. p. 385.)

87. Nouns of the neuter and common gender in English are unaltered ; but there are three ways of distinguishing the masculine and the feminine.

- (1) By employing a different word for each sex :

(a) *Simply* :

boar	sow		bull	cow
boy	girl		cock	hen
brother	sister		colt	filly
buck	doe		dog	bitch

* Traces of it exist in O. E. See Morris (Allit. P. p. xxxi. and Genesis, p. xxiii.).

father	mother	papa	mamma
gentleman	lady	ram	ewe
hart	roe	sir	madam
stallion	mare	sire	dam
husband	wife	son	daughter
king	queen	stag	hind
man	woman	steer	heifer
monk	nun	uncle	aunt

(b) *With a suffix :*

bachelor	spin-ster	earl	count-ess
tailor	seam-str-ess	mall-ard	wild duck

These pairs are often represented by a single word when no distinction of sex is required, thus :—

child = son or daughter	monarch = king * or queen
deer = hart or roe	parent = father or mother
fowl = cock or hen	pig = bear or sow
horse = stallion or mare	sheep = ram or ewe

(2) *By prefixing a word indicating the sex :*

buck-rabbit	doe-rabbit	he-goat	she-goat
cock-sparrow	hen-sparrow	man-servant	maid-servant
he-bear	she-bear	man-kind	woman-kind

In the following compounds a descriptive word is prefixed to limit the meaning of the words indicating sex :—

foster-father	foster-mother	mer-man	mer-maid
gaffer (grand-père)	{ gamner (grand-mère)	moor-cock	moor-hen
gentle-man	gentle-woman	pea-cock	pea-hen
grand-father	grand-mother	school-master	school-mistress
grand-duke	graund-duckess	step-father	step-mother
land-lord	land-lady	step-son	step-daughter
		turkey-cock	turkey-hen

(3) *By a suffix :*(a) *When the masculine undergoes no change :*

author	author-ess	count	count-ess
baron	baron-ess	dauphin	dauphin-ess

* In O. E. *king* is both masculine and feminine: "Guendolyn was *king* fiftene yer."—*Rob. Glos.*

deacon	deacon-ess	peer	peer-ess
giant	giant-ess	poet	poet-ess
heir	heir-ess	priest	priest-ess
host	host-ess	prince	princ-ess *
Jew	Jew-ess	prior	prior-ess
lion	lion-ess	prophet	prophet-ess
mayor	mayor-ess	shepherd	shepherd-ess
patron	patron-ess	viscount	viscount-ess

(b) *When the ending of the masculine is changed or lost :*

abbot	abb-ess	founder	foundr-ess
actor	actr-ess	hunter	huntr-ess
ambassador	ambassadr-ess	idolater	idolatr-ess
arbiter	arbitr-ess	lad	la-ss
benefactor	benefactr-ess	marquis	marchion-ess
chanter	chantr-ess	negro	negr-ess
conductor	conductr-ess	ogre	ogr-ess
director	directr-ess	porter	portr-ess
editor	editr-ess	tiger	tigr-ess
elector	electr-ess	votary	votr-ess
enchanter	enchantr-ess	victor	victr-ess

(c) *When the root-vowel and the ending of the masculine are changed :*

duke	duch-ess	lord	lad-y
fox	vix-en	master	mistr-ess

(d) *When both masculine and feminine have distinctive suffixes :*

adulter-er	adultr-ess	murder-er	murder-ess
cater-er	cater-ess	sing-er	song-ster
emper-or	empr-ess	spinn-er	spin-ster
govern-or	govern-ess	sorcer-er	sorcer-ess

(e) *When the masculine is formed from the feminine :*

bride	bride-groom	widow	widow-er
goose	gand-er	witch	wiz-ard

88. The following words, of foreign origin, retain their original distinctions of gender :—

administrator	administratrix	czar	czarina
beau	belle	don	donna

* Observe the accent on the suffix, probably to distinguish it from princes. In O. E. the accent is on the root, princess.

executor	executrix	landgrave	landgravine
heritor	heritrix	margrave	margravine
hero	heroine	signore	signora
infante	infanta	sultan	sultana

89. The syllable *-er* (A. S. and O. E. *-ere*) was originally a masculine suffix. It was once a significant word meaning *man*, but is now used principally to denote an *agent*, without reference to sex; *singer*, *reader*. In *sail-or* and *begg-ar*, the vowel is changed; in *law-yer*, *saw-yer*, and *bow-yer*, the *y* is intrusive. Compare the O. E. *saw-er* and *bow-er*.

90. The syllable *-rake*, *-rok*, or *-rich* was a masculine suffix in most of the Gothic dialects, but not in Anglo-Saxon. *-rake=er-ake*, in which *er* alone is the masculine suffix. *önd* is the Norse for duck, and is itself a corruption of *öndu*, and that of an earlier *önduk*. This is cut down to *duck*, just as *andrake* (a mallard) becomes *drake*.

91. Another masculine suffix, found only in O. E., is *-e* (A. S. *-a*), *hunt-e*, a hunter (A. S. *hunt-a*): "The hunté strangled with the wildé beres."—*Chaucer*.

92. The ordinary feminine suffix is *-ess*. It is not Anglo-Saxon, but was introduced into the language with the Norman-French, and has displaced the suffix of the mother-tongue. It represents the Latin *-ix*.

93. The usual feminine suffix in Anglo-Saxon was *-estre* or *-istre*; in later English, *-ster*.

In early times, brewing, baking, weaving, spinning, fulling, &c., were carried on exclusively by *women*. Hence such names as *Maltster*, *Brewster* or *Browster*, *Baxter* or *Bagster*, *Spinster*, *Kempster*, *Whitster*.

That this suffix was commonly employed in the 15th century, is shown by the following extract from an old vocabulary of that date:

Nomina artificum mulierum.

Pectrix, a <i>kempster</i> .	Siccatrix, a <i>dryster</i> .
Textrix, a <i>webster</i> .	Palmaria, a <i>brawdster</i> .
Sutrix, a <i>sewster</i> .	Salinaria, a <i>saltster</i> .
Pistrix, a <i>baxter</i> .	Auxiatrix, a <i>hukster</i> .

The feminine signification is still preserved in *spinster*:

The spinsters and the knitters in the sun
Do use to chant.—*Shakspeare*.

In old English, *tap-ster* meant a "bar-maid," and *tap-er*, a "bar-man."

-ster is also found in combination with the Norman *-ess*; *scam-str-ess*, *song-str-ess*.

It is now used as a suffix of depreciation; as *youngster*, *punster*, *gamester*, *trickster*, &c.

94. *-en* or *-in* is a feminine suffix in many Indo-European languages: Latin, *reg-in-a*; Greek, *hero-in-a*, *hero-ine*; German, *freund-in*, a female friend. A single example exists in English; *vix-en* a female fox (A. S. and O. E. *fix-en*), the *o* of *fox* being modified by the suffix *-en*. In provincial English we find *carl*, peasant; fem. *carl-in*. The suffix also appears in a few words of foreign origin; *landgrav-ine*, *margrav-ine*, *Czar-ina*, &c., and is often employed in forming the names of women; *Joseph-ine*, *Carol-ine*, *Paul-ine*, &c.

95. As a general rule, the feminine is formed from the masculine; but in the words *drake*, *gand-er*, *widow-er*, *bride-groom*, the masculine is formed from the feminine.

The first two may be thus explained. The flocks are composed chiefly of female birds. Hence a distinguishing name would be first applied to *them*. Afterwards it became necessary to distinguish the less numerous males, and a masculine suffix was added to the existing word.

Widow and *widower* in Anglo-Saxon were *wuduwe* (f.) and *wuduwa* (m.) The final vowels were gradually lost, and *widow* in Old English is both masculine and feminine. The word was afterwards limited in its application to women, because the position of a widow is so often of a distressing character; and when it again became necessary to distinguish a man who had lost his wife by a single word, the masculine suffix was added to the recognised feminine *widow*.

In the case of *bride-groom*, the lady possibly absorbs the interest of the spectators of a marriage ceremony, and hence received a distinctive name; but as it was sometimes necessary to mention the intended husband, the word *goom* (A. S. *guma*, man), afterwards corrupted into *groom*, was added to the word *bride*.

96. *Lady* is an irregular derivative from *lord* (A. S. *hlaf-ord*, loaf-giver; O. E. *lav-erd* and *lov-erd*). The cook, in Alfric's Saxon Dialogues, states that, if they drive him away, they will all be thralls, or slaves, because without a *loaf* there could be no *loaf-giver* or *master* among them. In *lad-y*, *y* is the feminine suffix (A. S. *hlæfd-ige*, O. E. *leved-y* and *led-y*),

“Levedy Mary, full of might!”—*Guy of War*.

Niece is Norman French, from the Latin *neptis*; but it is somewhat doubtful whether *nephew* is from *nepos* (A. S. *genefa* and *nefa*, Sem.

S. *neva* ; O. E. *nevev*). The Saxon for niece is *nef-ene* ; O. E. *nev-en*, where *-en* is the feminine suffix seen in *vix-en*.

97. Neuter nouns have no generic ending ; but the *t* in certain pronouns and their compounds is said to be a neuter suffix ; *i-t*, *tha-t*, *wha-t*, *whi-t*, *augh-t*, *naugh-t*, *no-t*. This is very doubtful.

98. When an inanimate object is represented as a living person, it is said to be *personified*. Poets and uneducated persons are fond of this form of speech. Hence in English, as in other languages, imaginary sex is often bestowed upon words of the neuter gender :

For *Winter* came : the wind was *his* whip :
 One choppy finger was on *his* lip :
He had torn the cataracts from the hills,
 And they clanked at *his* girdle like manacles.

Shelley.

With the uneducated, inanimate objects, to which the speaker is most attached, are usually considered feminine. In this light the sailor regards his ship, the woodman his axe, the ploughman his plough, the gamekeeper his gun, &c.

99. The religions of the ancient world personified visible objects, such as the sun, the moon, the ocean ; and moral qualities, such as truth, mercy, vengeance. The influence of the old writers is felt in later ages. Our Saxon ancestors, taught by their national faith, considered the sun feminine, and the moon masculine. Our modern poets, influenced by Greek and Roman literature, have made the sun a god, and the moon a goddess.

Truth, Justice, Mercy, Peace, &c. are represented as feminine, because these words in the classical languages have a feminine form. Love, Fear, Terror, are represented as masculine, because the words in those languages are masculine. In other instances the fancy of the early poets has guided the writers of a later age.

Number.

100. When a single object is mentioned, the noun is said to be of the *singular* number. When two or more objects of the same kind are mentioned, the noun is *plural*.

101. In some languages a separate form is employed when *two* objects, or objects usually seen in pairs, such as *eyes, hands, legs, arms, &c.* are mentioned. This is called the *Dual* number. It is not found in modern English, but existed in Anglo-Saxon in the two personal pronouns.

102. The plural is usually distinguished from the singular by the addition of certain suffixes. In Anglo-Saxon the suffix of the nominative plural in a certain class of nouns was *-as*. In later English this became *-es* :

The smale bird-*es* singen clear.—*Chaucer*.

and in modern English the vowel is lost.

103. The following extract contains a probable reason for the selection of *-as* by the early English writers to express plurality. "This agreed with the Norman grammar, which, like the modern French, used *s* or *z*, and, in a few cases, *x*, as the sign of the plural, and it was natural that this coincidence should have been seized upon and adopted as a general rule for the construction of all plurals. Some plurals formed by letter-change or in *n* remained, but most Saxon nouns dropped the regular inflection, and from the very commencement of the English language took a plural in *s*." (*Marsh, Lect. p. 384.*) This change is observed in operation in the 13th century.

104. The omission of *e*, by bringing *s* in contact with letters of various kinds, rendered changes for facility of pronunciation necessary. The following rules represent the usual mode of forming the plural of English nouns :

- (a) The sharp sibilant *s* is suffixed when the noun ends in a *sharp mute*; as *drop-s, chief-s, bat-s, wreath-s, oak-s*.
- (b) The flat sibilant *z* (written *s* or *es*) is suffixed when the noun ends in a *flat mute*, a *liquid*, or a *vowel*.
slab-s, groov-es, bed-s, booth-s, frog-s, pen-s, folio-s.

(c) When the noun ends in a sibilant, the original suffix *-es* is retained; *loss-es*, *fish-es*, *priz-es*, *judg-es*, *church-es*.

In *wolv-es*, *calv-es*, *wiv-es*, &c. it is still written, but the vowel is not sounded.

105. When the letter *y* represents the diphthong *ei*, as in *fly*, or the vowel *e*, as in *glory*, it is changed into *ie* when the plural suffix is added; *flie-s*, *glorie-s*. But when *y* is used in combination with another vowel to form a diphthong, or to express a simple vowel sound, no change occurs; *key-s*, *valley-s*, *chimney-s*, *boy-s*, *play-s*, &c. In Old English, nouns like *glory*, ended in *ie*; *glorie*, *fancie*, *ladie*, &c. In the modern plurals the old spelling is retained.

A few foreign words ending in *i* adopt this form of the plural: *alkali*, *alkalie-s*; *hour*, *hourie-s*.

106. Certain nouns ending in *o*, of foreign origin, change the *o* into *oe*; *cargoe-s*, *echoe-s*, *heroe-s*, *negroe-s*, *potatoe-s*, *volcanoe-s*, *mulattoe-s*, *calicoe-s*, *manifestoe-s*, *dominoe-s*. To these may be added the plural of *no* in the phrase "the *Noe-s* have it," and that of *o*, meaning a "circlet:" "all you fiery *oe-s* and eyes of light."—*Shaks*. Others, including all proper names, are unchanged: *canto-s*, *grotto-s*, *quarto-s*, *Cato-s*, *Scipio-s*, &c.

107. Nouns of Gothic origin, ending in *f* (with the exception of *fife* and *strife*), form the plural by changing *f* into *v*, and then suffixing *z* (written *es*); *wolf*, *wolv-es*; *half*, *halv-es*; *wife*, *wiv-es*, &c.

This irregularity is probably due to the fact that in Anglo-Saxon a final *f* had the sound of *v*. (Rask, Ang.-Sax. Gram. p. 12.) Hence, we find in Old English, *live*, *wive*, *calve*, *selve*, *beleve*, for *life*, *wife*, *calf*, *self*, *belief*. The singulars, not the plurals, of these nouns may be considered irregular.

On the same principle may be explained the seemingly irregular plurals of *youth*, *cloth*, *path*, *bath*, *oath*, *truth*, *mouth*, *house*. The first seven in Anglo-Saxon ended in a flat *th*.

This form of the plural is limited to words of Gothic origin, with perhaps the single exception of *beef*, *beeves*,* and, in Old English, *proof*, *prooves*; *grief*, *grievs*; *kerchief*, *kerchyves*. Even in Gothic words, those ending in *ff*, and those in which *f* is preceded by a doubled vowel (*roof*, *reef*), retain *f* in the plural.

108. A few nouns of Gothic origin exhibit both forms of the plural; *scarf-s*, *scarv-es*; *dwarf-s*, *dwarv-es*; *turf-s*, *turv-es*; *wharf-s*, *wharv-es*; *staff-s*, *stav-es*; but in modern English the form in *f* is preferred.

109. Many nouns form their plurals by processes which are now obsolete; *i.e.* by processes which are never employed to form the plurals of words recently introduced into the language.

110. (a) By the suffix *-en* (A. S. *-an*).

This mode of forming the plural was common in Anglo-Saxon, is frequently found in Old English,† and is still retained in many provincial dialects; *ox-en*, *hos-en*, *hous-en*, *shoon* (shoe-en), *eyne* (eye-en), *peas-en*. *Swine*, *chicken*, and *welkin* are sometimes erroneously included in this class of nouns. They are genuine singulars:—

O monstrous beast! how like a swine he lies.—*Shakspeare*.

In *peas-en*, *s* belongs to the root; *pease* is singular in Old Eng.: “*Pisum, a pease*” (Cooper’s Thesaur.). The forms *pea*, *pea-s*, are therefore irregular. *Peas-e*, which is now used with a collective meaning, has probably lost a final *n*.

111. (b) By modifying the root-vowel, *man*, *men*.

These words had once a plural suffix, which modified the root-vowel: as *brother*, *brethr-en*; *ox*, O. E. *ex-en*; *cow*, *ky-en* (*kine*). This modified vowel was found to be sufficient to distinguish the singular from the plural, and the suffix was omitted: O. E. *brether*; *kye*. Ben Jonson (Eng. Gram.) gives *brether-n* as a plural of *brother*. In *women* (O. E. *wymen*), the modified *a* affects the preceding *o*.

112. (c) By the suffix *-er*, or *-ry* (A. S. *-ra*, *-ru*). The suffix *-ry* has a collective meaning in modern English; *heron-ry*, *yeoman-ry*, *jew-ry*, *rook-e-ry*, *nunn-e-ry*, *shrub-e-ry*, &c. *Ei-ry*, a nest, is a corruption of *egg-ry*, a set of eggs.

* In O. E. *beefs* is often found. “They have no want of Beefs and Buffles.”—Ray.

† See the list in Morris’ Introd. to Dan Michel, pp. xi.—xiv.

The suffix *-er* is found only in old and provincial English : *rock-er*, (rocks), *child-er*, (children) :

“The *childer* are pretty *childer*.”—*Beaumont and Fletcher*.

This suffix (*-ra*, *-ru*) is confined in A. S. to four nouns, *child*, *lamb*, *calf*, and *egg*. These objects are in their nature diminutive, and it is possible that they received the diminutive *-er*, and then formed their plurals by the ordinary suffix *-a* or *-u*. In that case, the words *child-er-en* (children), *lamb-er-en* (lambren), *ey-er-en* (eyren), no longer present the anomaly of a double plural. *Eiren* in O. E. means *eggs*.* Thus Caxton writes (A.D. 1490), “What sholde a man in theyse days now wryte—*egges* or *eyren*?”

Mid [with] a baggeful of *eyren* a woman ther com.

Life of St. Swithin.

113. (*d*) By retaining the form of the singular ; as *deer*, *sheep*, *grouse*, *teal*, *salmon*, *trout*, *heathen*, &c.

A few nouns have both forms, a collective and an ordinary plural : *fish*, *fishes* ; *wild-duck*, *wild-ducks* ; *mullet*, *mulletts* ; *cannon*, *cannons* ; *shot*, *shots*.

Of *carps* and *mulletts* why prefer the great,

Yet for small *turbots* such esteem profess?—*Pope*.

114. Certain nouns have two forms of the plural, one regular, the other irregular. These distinctive forms have usually different meanings. Thus,

<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	
brother	brothers (by blood)	brethren (of a community)
cloth	cloths (kinds of cloth)	clothes (garments)
die	dies (impressions)	dice (for play)
genius	geniuses (men of talent)	genii (spirits)
index	indexes (contents)	indices (algebraic signs)
pea	peas (regular)	pease (collective)
penny	pennies (regular)	pence (collective)

Observe the unusual *sharp* sibilant suffixed to a vowel and a liquid in *dice* and *pence*.

115. *New-s*, *pain-s*, *mean-s*, *amend-s*, *tiding-s*, are true plurals.

* The singular *ey* is found occasionally in O. E. :

“So greet as a Gos *ey*.”—(*Creed of P. Ploughman.*)

News, which is commonly plural in O. E.,

These are news indeed,—Shakspeare.

and occasionally in modern English,

Evil were the news he heard,—Scott.

is now used only as a singular, meaning "intelligence." It seems, like the French *nouvelles*, to be a literal translation of the Latin *nova*, "new things," and may thus be classed with nouns like *politics*, *ethics* (§ 117).

Pains is found occasionally, and *means* very rarely, with a singular verb :

There is means, madam.—Shakspeare.

The singular of *pains* (care) is rare :

Look down to the ground to it and take *some pain*.—*Gam. Gur. Need*

The singular of *means* is not uncommon :

Let a man in the choice of his *mean* rather chuse the fittest *mean* than the greatest *mean*.—*Bacon*.

Tidings, *i. e.* things that *betide* or happen, is generally used as a plural :

These tidings will well comfort Cassius.—Shakspeare.

But occasionally it is viewed as a singular :

For with her death *that tidings* came.—*Id.*

The singular, *tiding*, is not found.

116. *Alms*, *riches*, and *eaves* are true singulars.

Alms is derived from the Greek *eleemosune*, "pity." The Saxons contracted this into *ælmesse*; Old English, *almesse* and *almes* :

This almes schalt thou doon.—Chaucer.

A plural *almesses* also occurs :

These ben general almesses, or werkes of charity.—Chaucer.

Riches is derived from the Norman-French *richesse*; Old English, *richesse* and *riches* :

Richesse that cometh litel and litel.—Id.

And for *that riches* where is my deserving?—*Shakspeare.*

A plural *richesses* is not unfrequently found in O. E. :

By concord and pees the smale *riches wexen grete*, and by debaat
and discord the greté *richesses fallen down*.—*Chaucer*.

Eaves, from A. S. *efese*, a brim or edge.

117. *Politic-s, ethic-s, optic-s, physic-s*, and similar words, are literal translations of the plural terms that express these sciences in Greek. *Ta politika*, "things relating to the state," politics; *ta ethika*, "things relating to morals," ethics. They are frequently used as singulars.

The words *Physic, Music, Logic, &c.* are singular both in form and meaning. They are abbreviations of the Greek words for those arts.

118. A few English nouns have no singular :

antipodes	billiards	pincers	shears	tongs
banns	draughts	pliers	snuffers	trousers
bellows	drawers	scissors	spectacles	tweezers

(These are duals in meaning.)

aborigines	calends	ides	nuptials	tidings
amends	credentials	lees	oats	trappings
annals	dregs	matins	obsequies	vespers
archives	entrails	measles	odds	victuals
assets	filings	news	premises	vitals
bowels	hustings	nones	thanks	wages

The singulars of *nuptials, thanks, and wages*, occur in old and provincial English. Shakspeare always writes *nuptial*.

119. Objects, which from their nature cannot be counted, have no plural: *gold, silver, darkness, pride, &c.*

But when, as in the case of materials, natural or artificial productions, &c., the object may vary in quality, a plural form is sometimes used to express these variations; *wines, sugars, wools*. "Turf, and peat, and cowshards, are cheap fuels"—(*Bacon*). Even abstract nouns are thus occasionally plural: "Insolent *zeals* that do decry good works"—(*Sir T. Browne*).

120. The plurals of a few nouns differ in meaning from

the singulars. *Iron, irons; content, contents; domino, dominoes; good, goods; salt, salts, &c.*

121. Some nouns have *two* meanings in the singular, and only *one* in the plural :

horse, <i>cavalry, animal.</i>	horses, <i>animals.</i>
foot, <i>infantry, part of body.</i>	feet, <i>parts of body.</i>
powder, <i>for guns, mixture.</i>	powders, <i>mixtures.</i>
light, <i>of a lamp, a lamp; &c.</i>	lights, <i>lamps; &c.</i>

The noun *compass* has *two* meanings in the singular, and a *third* in the plural; sing., *circuit, mariners' compass.* Plur., *instrument for measuring.*

122. Some nouns have *two* meanings in the plural, and *one* in the singular :

pain, <i>suffering.</i>	pains, <i>sufferings, trouble.</i>
custom, <i>habit.</i>	customs, <i>habits, revenue duties.</i>

The noun *letter* has *two* meanings in the singular and *three* in the plural; sing., *of alphabet, epistle.* Plur., *of alphabet, literature, epistles.*

123. Certain nouns have no plural form, but are usually found with a plural meaning: *cattle, artillery, infantry, cavalry, militia, &c.* They have also a *collective* meaning.

124. Proper nouns sometimes have a plural denoting objects of a similar character: "There have been many *Diogeneses*, and as many *Timons*, though but few of that name."—(*Sir T. Browne.*)

125. The names of towns are occasionally plural; as *Well-s, Sevenoak-s, Athen-s, Thebe-s, &c.* The names of mountain ranges are frequently plural, because they include many separate elevations: *Alp-s, Apennine-s, Pyrenee-s, &c.*

126. The inhabitants of a country are commonly described by the definite article and an adjective: *the British, the French, the Dutch, &c.*; but in O. E. we meet with *the Chineses, the Portugueses, &c.* National names compounded of *man*, make the plural in *men*: *Frenchman, Frenchmen, &c.* but *Norman* and *German* have the plurals *Normans* and

Germans, possibly because *Nor* and *Ger* were obsolete. The names *Mussulman*, *Brahman*, *Turcoman* are not compounds of *man*, and therefore form their plurals regularly.

127. A few foreign words still retain the plural form of the languages from which they were taken. Hebrew, *seraph-im*, *cherub-im*, *saba-oth* (hosts); Greek, *antipodes*, *phaenomena*; Latin, *tumuli*, *strata*, *genera*, *indices*, *formulae*, *series*; French, *beaux*, *mesdames*, *messieurs*; Italian, *banditti*.

The present tendency of the English language is to reject these foreign plurals. Hence we find *crocus-es*, *genius-es*, *terminus-es*, *vivarium-s*, *formula-s*, *bandit-s*, *cherub-s*, *seraph-s*, *dogma-s*, &c.

128. Compounds consisting of a noun and an adjective, such as *court-martial*, or of a noun and the equivalents of an adjective, such as *father-in-law*, usually attach the plural suffix to the *noun*, e.g. *courts-martial*, *fathers-in-law*.

Case.

129. A suffix is frequently added to a noun or pronoun to mark the relation in which it stands to other words. Thus, in "the bird-*s* song," the letter *s* shows the relation existing between the bird and the song, viz. that the song proceeds *from* the bird.

The simple word and the suffix are together called a *Case*.

130. These suffixes originally marked the relation of *place*: and from this local meaning relations of a more abstract nature were subsequently developed. Thus, if we obtain a thing *from* a person, we are apt to consider that person as the owner or possessor of the thing in question. Hence the idea of *possession* became associated with the case that marked the source *from* which an object proceeds. If, again, we give or entrust anything to a person, we place the object *by* him, or deposit it *at the place* where he is: hence the idea of *giving*, &c. became associated with the case that marks *at a place*.

131. The old grammarians imagined that nouns, which in every sentence express some definite relation between themselves and other nouns or verbs, figuratively *leaned* or *fell upon* those words with which

they were grammatically connected. Hence they spoke of the "falling" or "inclination" of a noun—in Latin *casus*, whence the English term *case*. Hence also the terms *decline* and *declension* applied to nouns.

132. Modern languages frequently drop the case-endings of nouns and substitute prepositions of equivalent meaning. Thus, "the *bird's* song" may be expressed by "the song *of the bird*," where *of* represents the suffix *s*. Cases expressed by prepositions may be called *syntactical*: those expressed by suffixes, *inflectional*. A knowledge of both is required in explaining the structure of a sentence in the English language; but Accidence is concerned only with the latter.

The case-endings, with one exception, are usually dropt in English.

133. It is evident that a modern language may have as many cases as there are prepositions employed in that language to mark the relations existing between nouns. It is usual, however, to limit the number to those recognised in the classical languages, and to include the later relations under the primitive local idea whence they sprung.

There are six cases commonly recognised: the Nominative, the Accusative or Objective, the Genitive or Possessive, the Dative, the Ablative, and the Vocative.

134. The *Nominative* denotes the source of an *action*, as, "the bird sings." The act of singing proceeds from the bird. It is often called the *Subject*.

The terms *subject* and *nominative* are not always identical. The term *Nominative* can be applied with propriety only to the simple noun or nouns from which the action proceeds. If explanatory phrases or sentences are added to the noun these combined words form the *subject* of the verb, and the noun remains in the nominative case. The terms can be used indifferently only when the subject of the verb is a simple noun.

135. The *Accusative* or Objective marks the object *to* which the action is directed, as, "the boy strikes the ball." The act of striking is directed to the ball. It is often called the *Object* and the *Objective* case.

The terms *Object* and *Accusative* are not always identical. When a simple noun is the object of a verb it is usually in the Accusative case, but the noun may be accompanied by explanatory phrases or sentences.

The accusative and the explanatory adjuncts combined constitute the *object* of the verb. The terms are identical only when the object of a verb consists of a simple noun in the accusative case.

136. The *Genitive* shows the source *from* which something proceeds; as, "the sun's light:" *sun's* marks the source of the light.

The person *from* whom anything is obtained is frequently the owner of the thing. Hence this case is often called the *Possessive*.

137. The *Dative* originally denoted *locality*, i. e. the place *at*, or *in*, which something *rests*. "I stand *here*," i. e. *in this* place.

The *Ablative* marks the *means*, *instrument*, or *manner*, and is also used to denote the *agent* with a passive verb.

When we address an object, we sometimes name the object addressed :

Enchantress, fare thee well.—*Scott*.

A noun so employed is said to be in the *Vocative* case.

138. No example of a nominative or accusative *suffix* occurs in modern English. *I, thou, he, she, we, they*, are called nominatives, and *me, thee, us, you*, accusatives, but they have no case-endings. In A. S. the accusative suffix was *-n*, and a few examples occur in O. Eng. :—*hy-ne*, ac. of *he*; *tha-ne*, ac. of *the*; *an-ne*, ac. of *one*; *hwa-n*, ac. of *who*.

139. The genitive suffix in most of the Indo-European languages is *s* preceded by a vowel. In Anglo-Saxon the form *-es* was often used, as *leaf-es*; in Old English, *-es* or *-is*, *leaf-es*, *leaf-is*.* In modern English the vowel is omitted, and its place indicated by (^o), *leaf's*.

140. The omission of the vowel in the old genitive suffix *-es* produces changes similar to those required in forming the plural, viz. :

- (a) *s* is added when the noun ends in a *sharp* mute; *chief's*.
- (b) *z* (written *s*) when it ends in a *flat* mute, a vowel, or a liquid; *bird's*, *fly's*, *sun's*.
- (c) *es* (written *'s*) remains unchanged when the noun ends in a sibilant; *fox's*, *church's*, *fish's*, *judge's*.

* "The Northern dialect during the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries adopted the termination *es* as the inflexion of the gen. sing. for nouns of all genders. The Southern, following the usage of the older stage of the language, formed the gen. of masc. and neut. nouns in *es*, but of fem. substantives in *e*."—Morris (Introd. to Dan Michel, p. xxv.).

141. In the genitive plural *-es* is dropt to avoid the unpleasant sound of so many sibilants: "the dogs' tails," "the judges' wigs," instead of the *dogs-es* and the *judges-es*. For the same reason it is usually lost in the singular when a noun of more than two syllables ends in a sibilant: "Euripides' dramas;" and occasionally in disyllables; "for conscience' sake." The lost suffix is indicated by the apostrophe. But when the plural is formed by an obsolete process, and consequently does not end in *s*, the suffix may be added as usual—"the men's hats," "the children's laugh," "the oxen's horns."

142. Compounds, such as *fathers-in-law*, *men-of-war*, which attach the plural suffix to the first part of the word (§ 128), form the genitive singular by placing the suffix at the end of the word; *father-in-law's*, *man-of-war's*. The genitive plural of these compounds is expressed by the preposition *of*.

When two or more nouns connected by *and* are in the genitive case, the suffix is employed only with the last.

Thy wife and children's blood.—*Shakspeare*.

Nard and cassia's balmy smells.—*Milton*.

And so with many short phrases regarded as compounds: "William the Conqueror's army," "the Queen of England's palace."

143. In A. S. *-es* was the gen. suffix in a certain class of nouns. It is probable that the preference for this form in later English was due to Norman-French influence. About the sixteenth century the recognised form was *-is*. Palsgrave writes:—"We seem to have a genityve case: for as moche as, by adding of *-is* to a substantive, we signifye possessyon;" and Ben Jonson (*Eng. Gram. c. xiii.*) confirms this statement. This change from *-es* to *-is* was the cause of a singular grammatical error, and "brought in first the monstrous syntaxe of the pronoune *his* joyning with a nounge betokening a possessor, as the *Prince his* house, for, the *Princis* house." (B. Jonson.) Addison and his contemporaries frequently employ this form, and the former even defends it. "The same single letter *s* on many occasions does the office of a whole word, and represents the *his* and *her* of our forefathers" (*Spectator*, 207). The form is not recognised in the current language.

The use of the preposition *of* to express the genitive was unknown in A. S. It was introduced from the O. Norse by the Danes. It is sometimes found in the corrupted form *o*, as "four *o'clock*," "Jack *o' lantern*;" and, even when *of* is written, it is frequently pronounced *o*, as in *man-of-war*.

144. In the plural and in the feminine singular the genitive suffix in A. S. was sometimes *-re*, O. E. *-er*; *al-re*, *all-er*, of all; * *bry-re*, of both, *twei-re*, of two; it is still retained in the pronouns *he-r* and *thei-r*.

145. Another genitive suffix in A. S. was *-en*, or *-n*, still preserved in *mi-ne* and *thi-ne*, and in such adjectives as *gold-en*, "of gold." In the plural (A. S. *ena*) *ene* or *en*, '*Kyng-ene kyng*,' Rex regum.

The suffixes *-es*, *-er*, or *-re*, and *-en*, were probably identical in origin.

146. In A. S. a suffix of the gen. plural was *-a*. Traces of this occur in O. E. in the form *-e*. Thus Chaucer, "Hire greatest *oth-ē* nas but by Seynt Loy;" *i. e.* her greatest *of oaths*. (A. S. *ath-a*.) "Her *hors-ē* knave" (Gower); *i. e.* their horses' groom.

147. The usual A. S. suffix for the dat. plur. of nouns, and the dat. sing. and plur. of adjectives, is *-um*. Traces of this are said to exist in *hi-m*, *the-m*, *who-m*, and *whil-om*. The last is very doubtful.

148. The suffix of the dative singular feminine in A. S. adjectives is *-re*. It is said to be preserved in the following words: *he-r*, *the-re*, *we-re*, *he-re*. Compare the Latin forms, *ibi*, *ubi*, *hic*, which are old datives.

149. The usual suffix of the dative singular of A. S. nouns is *-e*. This is frequently found in O. E. :

The drought of March had perced to the *rot-ē*.—*Chaucer*.

It appears again in the old adverbs, *bright-ē*, brightly; *first-ē*, firstly; *swift-ē*, swiftly, &c.:

And in a cloth of gold that *bright-ē* shone.—*Chaucer*.

150. The disuse of the dative suffixes, and the substitution of the preposition *to*, commenced in the Semi-Saxon period. In Robert of Gloucester (1260) *um* entirely disappears.

151. The A. S. suffix of the ablative singular is *y*. It still survives in *wh-y* and the O. E. *for-th-y* = therefore. *How*, *so*, and *the* (before comparatives), are ablatives which have lost or absorbed the suffix.

DERIVATION AND COMPOSITION.

152. Words which cannot be referred to any simpler form in a given language, may be called the *roots* of that language: *man*, *do*, *bad*.

* Hence the O. E. words *aller-best*, *aller-mest*, or, with an intrusive *d*, *al-d-er-best*, *al-d-er-mest*, best of all, most of all.

These ultimate forms are frequently capable of further analysis by comparing them with similar forms in the family of languages to which they belong. They are not, therefore, roots or elementary forms in human speech, but only with reference to the special language in which they are found.

153. A word which is formed from a simple root by additions, or internal changes, or both, is said to be *derived*: *man, man-ly*; *tell, tale*; *break, breach*; *die, death*.

154. When the addition made to any root consists of a significant word, the result is a *compound*; *star-beam, sunlight, watch-dog*.

All derived words were once compounds in which one or more of the elements has gradually lost its significance. Even when the root vowel only is changed, this change is due to a suffix since lost, as *cock, chicken, chick*.

155. The first term of a compound word usually limits and defines the meaning of the second: thus *watch-dog* means a dog that *watches*; *house-dog*, a dog for the *house*; *lap-dog*, a dog for the *lap*; *sheep-dog*, a dog for *sheep*, &c. Even those compounds which include three or more significant elements, can be resolved into two distinct terms, the generic and the specific, as, *deputy=quarter-master-general*. *Court-martial* appears to be an exception.

DERIVATION OF NOUNS.

A. TEUTONIC.

1. *By Internal Changes.*

156. *Change of vowel.* (Nouns) *cat, kit*; *stake, stick*; *top, tip*.

(Verbs) *bless, bliss*; *feed, food*; *sing, song*; *tell, tale*.

Change of consonant. (Verbs) *dig, ditch*; *speak, speech*; *strive*
strife.

Change of vowel and consonant. (Nouns) *goat, kid*; *cock, chick*.

(Verbs) *break, breach*; *live, life*; *wake, watch*; *weave, woof*

2. *By a Suffix, with or without root changes.*

157. *-ock, -ick, ie*; *hill-ock, bull-ock, padd-ock, lass-ick, lass-ie*.

-ow, -w; *shad-ow, minn-ow, glo-w, stra-w, de-w*.

-*ck*, -*k*; spe-ck, do-ck, par-k, spi-ke, brin-k, lin-k.
 -*ch*; hut-ch, blot-ch, scrat-ch, win-ch, sten-ch.
 -*g*, -*gh*, -*y*; fro-g, slu-g, lau-gh, trou-gh, penn-y, popp-y.
 -*ng*; pro-ng, thro-ng, sti-ng, sli-ng, spri-ng, ri-ng.
 -*ff*, -*f*; sta-ff, stu-ff, shea-f, lea-f, tur-f, sur-f.
 -*v*, -*b*, -*p*; gra-ve, groo-ve, we-b, clu-b, dro-p, ste-p.
 -*et*, -*ot*, -*t*; lock-et, pock-et, magg-ot, spig-ot, blo-t, spo-t.
 -*sh*, -*ss*; fla-sh, di-sh, flu-sh, fle-sh, gra-ss, cre-ss.
 -*er*, -*el*, -*l*; splint-er, whisp-er, shov-el, freck-le, stoo-l.
 -*en*, -*n*; chick-en, kitt-en, maid-en, bair-n, scor-n.
 -*em*, -*om*, -*m*; O. E. bloss-em, bloss-om, glea-m, bloo-m, sea-m.
 -*ing*; farth-ing, shill-ing, herr-ing, whit-ing.
 -*ikin*, *kin* (ock + en); mann-ikin, boot-ikin, lamb-kin, bul-chin (calf)
 -*ikle*, -*kle* (ock + el); knu-ckle, barn-acle, horn-icle, spar-kle.
 -*lock* (el + ock); war-lock, char-lock, knob-lock (small lump).
 -*erock*, -*rk* (er + ock); lav-erock, O. E. lau-erc = la-rk.
 -*ling* (el + ing); duck-ling, kit-ling, gos-ling, dar-ling.
 -*let* (el + et); arm-let, stream-let, brook-let, ham-let.
 -*erel*, -*rel* (er + el); cock-erel, pik-erel, puck-rel (small fiend).

These words either were, or are, diminutives.*

158. -*ard*, -*art*, -*heart*, augmentative; drunk-ard, bragg-art, sweet-heart.
 -*dom*, O. E. -*dam* (A. S. -*dom*); state or condition; king-dom, free-dom, O. E. wis-dam.
 -*e* (A. S. -*a*); O. E. male agent; hunt-é (hunt-er). (§ 91.)
 -*en*, -*in* (A. S. -*en*); feminine suffix; vix-en, carl-in. (§ 94.)
 -*er* (A. S. -*ere*); agent; sing-er, sail-or, begg-ar, law-yer.
 -*er* (A. S. -*ere*, -*ra*); masculine suffix; widow-er, gand-er.
 -*er* (A. S. -*er*); verbal noun; fodd-er, lay-er, lai-r, dinn-er.
 -*ery*, -*ry* (A. S. -*ru*); place: brew-ery, found-ry; collective: heron-ry, yeoman-ry, jewel-ry; abstract: knavery.
 -*eth* (A. S. -*ath*); O. E. verbal noun: hunt-eth (hunt-ing).
 -*head*, -*hood*, O. E. -*hede*, L. Sc. -*heid*, -*het* (A. S. -*had*); condition: God-head, boy-hood, man-hede, wedo-heid, fals-het.
 -*ing* (A. S. -*anne*); gerund: read-ing, stand-ing.
 -*ing* (A. S. -*ung*); kneel-ing, dawn-ing, morn-ing.
 -*ing* (A. S. -*ing*); patronymic: Brown-ing, Hard-ing.
 -*lock*, -*ledge*, O. E. -*lake*, -*lak*, -*lech* (A. S. -*lac*); state: wed-lock, wed-lake, wyf-lak; know-ledge, know-lech.
 -*ness* (A. S. -*nes*); forms abstract nouns from adjectives: good-

* Prof. Key, Trans. Phil. Soc. 1856.

ness, weak-ness. *Witness*, which originally meant knowledge, has been irregularly applied to persons.

-rake; masculine suffix; d-rake.

-red, O. E. *-reden*, *-rede*, *-reth* (A. S. *-ræden*); condition: kind-red, felaw-rede, wand-reth (sorrow), hund-red, O. E. a hund-reth, hat-reden (hat-red).

-ric (A. S. *-rice*); jurisdiction: bishop-ric.

-scape, *-skip*, *-ship*, O. E. *-shepe* (A. S. *-scipe*); land-scape, land-skip; fellow-ship, felaw-shepe.

-st (A. S. *-st*); tru-st, ru-st, re-st, ne-st, twi-st.

-ster (A. S. *-estre*); feminine suffix; spin-ster. It has since acquired the meanings of (1) an agent: huck-ster, malt-ster, song-ster; (2) a term of contempt: young-ster, game-ster, pun-ster, trick-ster.

-ter (A. S. *-ter*); raf-ter, laugh-ter, slaugh-ter.

-y; stith-y, smith-y.

-t; (nouns) bay, high-t: (adjective) dry, drough-t; high, heigh-t: (verbs) give, gif-t; freeze, fros-t; weave, wef-t; draw, draugh-t.

-d; do, dee-d; flow, floo-d; mow, mea-d; sow, see-d.

-th; (noun) weal, weal-th: (adjective) dear, dear-th; true, tru-th: (verbs) bear, bir-th; die, dea-th; heal, heal-th; ear (till), ear-th.

159.

3. *By Prefixes.*

After- (A. S. *æfter-*); after-thought, after-noon, after-crop.

be- (A. S. *be-*); be-half, be-hest, behoof, be-quest.

by- (A. S. *bi-*); by-stander, by-play.

by- (O. N. *town*); by-law, by-path, by-word.

down- (A. S. *dun-*); down-fall, down-stroke.

fore- (A. S. *fore-*); fore-father, fore-head, fore-ground.

ill-; ill-will, ill-luck, ill-health.

in- (A. S. *in-*); in-come, in-let, in-sight.

mid- (A. S. *mid-*); mid-night, mid-day, mid-summer.

mis- (A. S. *mis-*); mis-take, mis-trust, mis-hap.

off- (A. S. *of-*); off-shoot, off-set, off-spring.

on- (A. S. *on-*); on-set, on-slaught, on-looker.

out- (A. S. *ut-*); out-break, out-burst, out-cry.

over- (A. S. *ofer-*); over-throw, over-sight, over-seer.

to- (A. S. *to-*); to-day, to-night, to-morrow.

thorough- (A. S. *thurh-*); thorough-fare, thorough-bass.

twi- (A. S. *twy-*); twi-light, twi-bill.

um- (A. S. *um-* around), O. E. um-gang (circuit), um-gripe (embrace), um-standing (circumstance).

un- (A. S. *un-*); un-truth, un-belief, un-rest.

under- (A. S. *under-*); under-wood, under-growth.

up- (A. S. *up-*); up-land, up-roar, up-start.

upper-; *upper-hand*.

wan- (A. S. *wan-*); O. E. *wan-hope* (despair), *wan-trust* (mistrust).

wel- (A. S. *wel-*); *wel-come*, *wel-fare*, *well-wisher*.

y-, *i-* (A. S. & O. E. *ge-*); O. E. *y-fere* (companions), *i-hold* (fortress), *i-bude* (command), *ge-swinc* (toil).

B. CLASSICAL.

160.

1. *By Internal Changes.*

Change of consonant: (nouns) *cattle*, *chattle*; *arc*, *arch*; (verbs) *descend*, *descent*; *relieve*, *relief*; *prove*, *proof*; *advise*, *advice*; *grieve*, *grief*; *excuse*, *excuse*; *abuse*, *abuse*.

Change of cons. & vow.: (nouns) *critic*, *critique*; *bank*, *bench*; (verbs) *choose*, *choice*.

Change of accent: *pro-ject*, *pró-ject*; *convért*, *cónvert*.

Change of accent & cons.: *refúse*, *réfuse*.

Change of accent & vow.: *inválid*, *invalid*.

Change of acc. cons. & vow.: *premise*, *prémiss*.

161.

2. *By Suffixes.*

(a) *Latin.*

-ace, *popul-ace*.

-acy, *fall-acy*.

-ade, *ambusc-ade*.

-age, *cour-age*.

-al, *capit-al*.

-ain, } *capt-ain*.

-an, } *public-an*.

-ance, *convey-ance*.

-ancy, *pli-ancy*.

-ar, *registr-ar*.

-arium, *viv-arium*.

-ary (place), *gran-ary*.

-ary (person), *lapid-ary*.

-aster, *poet-aster*.

-ate, { *magistr-ate* (person).
 { *consul-ate* (office).
 { *postul-ate* (thing).

-bule, *vesti-bule*.

-cle, *taberna-cle*.

-cule, *animal-cule*.

-ee, *committ-ee*.

-eer, } *musket-eer*.

-ier, } *grenad-ier*.

-el, } *mors-el*.

-il, } *penc-il*.

-le, } *cast-le*.

-ence, *cad-ence*.

-er, *pray-er*.

-eur, *grand-eur*.

-ess, *lion-ess*.

-et, *lanc-et*.

-ic, *calor-ic*.

-ice, *serv-ice*.

-ine, *fam-ine*.

-ion, *reg-ion*.

-let, *brace-let*.

-men, *regi-men*.

-ment, *regi-ment*.

-mony, *patri-mony*.

-nce, *dista-nce*.

-on, *pris-on*.

-one, } *tromb-one*.

-oon, } *ball-oon*.

-or, } *lab-or*.

-our, } *col-our*.

-ory, *arm-ory*.

-ped, } *quadru-ped*.

-pede, } *centi-pede*.

-sion, *ten-sion*.

-sive, *mis-sive*.

-sor, *spon-sor*.

-sure, *ton-sure*.

-t, *edic-t*.

-tic, *luna-tic*.

-tion, *na-tion*.

-tive, *cap-tive*.

-tor, *doc-tor*.

-trix, *execu-trix*.

-try, *poul-try*.

-tude, *forti-tude*.

-ture, *na-ture*.

-ty, *hones-ty*.

-ule, *glob-ule*.

-ulence, } *vir-ulence*

-olence, } *vi-olence*

-y, *miser-y*.

162.

(b) *Greek.*

<i>-ac</i> , zodi-ac.	<i>-ine</i> , morph-ine.	<i>-on</i> , criteri-on.
<i>-ad</i> , mon-ad.	<i>-ish</i> , obel-isk.	<i>-pathy</i> , hydro-pathy.
<i>-arch</i> , mou-arch.	<i>-ism</i> , critic-ism.	<i>-pod</i> , tri-pod.
<i>-e</i> , stroph-e.	<i>-ist</i> , soph-ist.	<i>-scope</i> , micro-scope.
<i>-ene</i> , Nazar-ene.	<i>-ite</i> , Abder-ite.	<i>-sis</i> , } cri-sis.
<i>-cracy</i> , demo-cracy.	<i>-logy</i> , zoo-logy.	<i>-sy</i> , } poe-sy.
<i>-crat</i> , demo-crat.	<i>-ma</i> , } dra-ma.	<i>-se</i> , } pha-se.
<i>-gram</i> , tele-gram.	<i>-mate</i> , } cli-mate.	<i>-sm</i> , cha-sm.
<i>-graph</i> , tele-graph.	<i>-me</i> , } sche-me.	<i>-t</i> , } prophe-t.
<i>-ian</i> , physic-ian.	<i>-m</i> , } phleg-m.	<i>-ete</i> , } athl-ete.
<i>-ic</i> , crit-ic.	<i>-meter</i> , thermo-meter.	<i>-taph</i> , ceno-taph.
<i>-id</i> , Nere-id.	<i>-nomy</i> , astro-nomy.	<i>-y</i> , philosoph-y.

163.

3. *By Prefixes.*(a) *Latin.*

<i>abs-</i>	} away from	<i>abs-cess.</i>	<i>ex-</i>	} out of . . .	<i>ex-cise.</i>		
<i>ab-</i>		<i>ab-use.</i>	<i>ef-</i>		<i>ef-fect.</i>		
<i>a-</i>		<i>a-version.</i>	<i>e-</i>		<i>e-dict.</i>		
<i>ad-</i>		} to . . .	<i>ad-vice.</i>	<i>extra</i> , without	} extra-vagance.	<i>in-sect.</i>	
<i>at-</i>			<i>at-tempt.</i>	<i>in-</i>		} in, into, on	<i>im-pulse.</i>
<i>ac-</i>			<i>ac-cent.</i>	<i>im-</i>	<i>il-lusion.</i>		
<i>af-</i>			<i>af-fix.</i>	<i>il-</i>	} in, into, on		<i>ir-ruption.</i>
<i>ap-</i>			<i>ap-plause.</i>	<i>ir-</i>			<i>em-brace.</i>
<i>am-</i>			<i>am-munition.</i>	<i>em-</i>	} not . . .		<i>en-vy.</i>
<i>al-</i>			<i>al-lusion.</i>	<i>en-</i>			<i>in-action.</i>
<i>ar-</i>	<i>ar-rest.</i>		<i>in-</i>	} in-action.	<i>im-prudence.</i>		
<i>as-</i>	<i>as-sault.</i>		<i>im-</i>		<i>il-legality.</i>		
<i>a-</i>	<i>a-spect.</i>		<i>il-</i>	} not . . .	<i>ir-reverence.</i>		
<i>am-</i> , round . . .	<i>am-bition.</i>	<i>ir-</i>	<i>i-gnomy.</i>				
<i>ante</i> , before . . .	<i>ante-chamber.</i>	<i>i-</i>	<i>inter-</i> , between . . .	<i>inter-course.</i>			
<i>ar</i> = <i>ad</i> . . .	<i>ar-biter.</i>	<i>inter-</i>	} up, off . . .	<i>inter-dict.</i>			
<i>bene</i> , well . . .	<i>bene-fit.</i>	<i>intel-</i>		<i>intel-lect.</i>			
<i>bi</i> , two . . .	<i>bi-ped.</i>	<i>intel-</i>	} up, off . . .	<i>enter-prise.</i>			
<i>bis</i> , twice . . .	<i>bis-cuit.</i>	<i>enter-</i>		<i>intro-</i> , into . . .	<i>intro-duction.</i>		
<i>circum-</i>	} round . . .	<i>circum-stance.</i>	<i>juxta-</i> , close by . . .	<i>juxta-position.</i>			
<i>circu-</i>		<i>circu-it.</i>	<i>male-</i>	} ill . . .	<i>male-factor.</i>		
<i>con-</i>	} with . . .	<i>con-quest.</i>	<i>mali-</i>		<i>mali-gnity.</i>		
<i>com-</i>		<i>com-merce.</i>	<i>mal-</i>	<i>mal-content.</i>			
<i>col-</i>		<i>col-lege.</i>	<i>manu-</i> , hand . . .	<i>manu-script.</i>			
<i>cor-</i>		<i>cor-rosion.</i>	<i>non-</i> , not . . .	<i>non-sense.</i>			
<i>co-</i>		<i>co-heir.</i>	<i>ob-</i>	} against,	<i>ob-ject.</i>		
<i>coun-</i>	<i>coun-cil.</i>	<i>op-</i>	} towards . . .		<i>op-ponent.</i>		
<i>contra-</i>	} against	<i>contra-distinc-tion.</i>		<i>of-</i>	<i>of-fice.</i>		
<i>contro-</i>		<i>contro-versy.</i>	<i>oc-</i>	<i>oc-casion.</i>			
<i>counter-</i>	} against	<i>counter-poise.</i>	<i>os-</i>	<i>os-tentation.</i>			
<i>de-</i> , down from . . .		<i>de-scent.</i>	<i>per-</i> , through . . .	<i>per-fume.</i>			
<i>dis-</i>	} difference	<i>dis-cord.</i>	} for, before	<i>pro-mise.</i>			
<i>dif-</i>		<i>dif-fusion.</i>		<i>por-</i>	<i>por-tent.</i>		
<i>di-</i>	} separation	<i>di-voce.</i>	<i>pol-</i>	<i>pol-lution.</i>			

<i>pur-</i> , = pro . . .	pur-pose.	<i>sur-</i>	} = sub . . .	{ sur-rogate.	
<i>post-</i> , after . . .	post-script.	<i>sus-</i>		{ sus-pense.	
<i>pre-</i> , before . . .	pre-caution.	<i>su-</i>	{ su-spicion.		
<i>red-</i>	{ back, again	{ red-emption.	<i>subter-</i>	beneath . . .	{ subter-fuge.
<i>retro-</i> , backward . . .	retro-spect.	<i>sur-</i>	} across . . .	{ sur-plus.	
<i>se-</i> , apart . . .	se-dition.	<i>trans-</i>		{ trans-it.	
<i>semi-</i> , half . . .	semi-circle.	<i>tra-</i>	{ tra-dition.		
<i>sub-</i>	{ up, under	{ sub-ject.	<i>tri-</i> , three . . .	{ tri-dent.	
		{ sup-port.	<i>ultra-</i> , beyond . . .	{ ultra-marine.	
		{ suf-fix.	<i>uni-</i>	{ one . . .	{ uni-form.
		{ suc-cess.			<i>un-</i>
<i>sug-</i>	{ sug-gestion.	<i>vice-</i> , instead . . .	{ vice-roy.		

164.

(b) Greek.

<i>amphi-</i> , on both sides	amphi-theatre.	<i>hemi-</i> , half . . .	hemi-sphere.		
<i>an-</i>	{ without . . .	{ an-archy.	<i>hept-</i> , seven . . .	hept-archy.	
		{ am-brosia.	<i>hexa-</i> , six . . .	hexa-gon.	
<i>a-</i>	{ a-pathy.	<i>hydro-</i>	water . . .	{ hydro-pathy.	
<i>ana-</i> , up . . .	ana-tomy.			<i>hydr-</i>	{ hydr-aulics.
<i>anti-</i>	{ against . . .	{ anti-pathy.	<i>hyper-</i>	over . . .	{ hyper-bole.
		{ ant-agonist.			<i>hypo-</i>
<i>apo-</i>	{ away from	{ apo-state.	<i>hyph-</i>	} under . . .	
		{ aph-orism.			<i>meta-</i>
<i>arch-</i>	{ ruler . . .	{ arch-angel (gutt.)	<i>meth-</i>	change . . .	{ meth-od.
		{ arch-bishop (sib.)			<i>met-</i>
<i>archi-</i>	{ archi-tect.	<i>mono-</i>	} alone, one . . .	{ mono-tone.	
<i>auto-</i>	{ self . . .	{ auto-graph.		<i>mon-</i>	{ mon-arch.
		{ aut-opsy.	<i>ortho-</i>	right . . .	{ ortho-graphy.
<i>cata-</i>	{ down . . .	{ cata-strophe.	<i>panto-</i>	} all . . .	{ panto-mime.
		{ cath-edral.	<i>pan-</i>		{ pan-orama.
<i>cat-</i>	{ cat-egory.	<i>para-</i>	} beside . . .	{ para-graph.	
<i>deca-</i> , ten . . .	deca-logue.	<i>par-</i>		{ par-ody.	
<i>dia-</i> , through . . .	dia-meter.	<i>penta-</i>	five . . .	penta-meter.	
<i>di-</i> , two . . .	di-phthong.	<i>peri-</i>	around . . .	peri-od.	
<i>dys-</i> , ill . . .	dys-entery.	<i>philo-</i>	} friend . . .	{ philo-sophy.	
<i>ec-</i>	{ out from . . .			{ ec-stasy.	<i>phil-</i>
		{ ex-odus.	<i>poly-</i>	many . . .	
<i>en-</i>	{ en-ergy.	<i>pro-</i>	before . . .	pro-gram.	
<i>em-</i>	{ in . . .	{ em-blem.	<i>pros-</i>	to . . .	pros-ody.
		{ el-lipsis.	<i>pseudo-</i>	} false . . .	{ pseudo-critic.
<i>epi-</i>	{ upon . . .	{ epi-taph.			<i>pseud-</i>
		{ ep-och.	<i>syn-</i>	} with . . .	
<i>exo-</i> , without . . .	exo-tic.	<i>syl-</i>	} with . . .		{ sym-pathy.
<i>eu-</i> , well . . .	eu-logy.	<i>syl-</i>		{ syl-lable.	
<i>hama-</i> , with . . .	Hama-dryad.	<i>sy-</i>	{ sy-stem.		
		<i>tri-</i> , three . . .		tri-pod.	

165. Many nouns are derived from verbs apparently without changing the form of the word ; *fall, bend, flow, stand, drive, stride, tread, reprieve, &c.* In such cases a distinguishing affix has been usually lost.

166. Adjectives are frequently converted into nouns by the omission of the qualified word, *good, wrong, black, red, &c.*

167. Any word when quoted may be made the subject or object of a verb, and consequently be employed as a noun : "Mark you his absolute *shall*." (*Shak.*) "Talkest thou to me of *ifs* ?" (*Id.*) Even a sentence is sometimes employed as the name of an object : *rendez-vous, neer-do-well.*

168. A few nouns owe their present form to the loss of a portion of the original word : *clump, lump; estate, state; slime, lime; nadder, adder, &c.*

COMPOSITION OF NOUNS.

169. (a.) *Noun + noun* ; rose-tree, moon-light, rail-way, wind-mill.
- (b.) *Noun + gerund* ; cock-crowing, bull-baiting, fox-hunting.
- (c.) *Noun + adjective* ; court-martial, princess-royal.
- (d.) *Noun + verb* ; god-send, wind-fall.
- (e.) *Gerund + noun* ; walking-stick, carving-knife, drawing-room.
- (f.) *Adjective + noun* ; good-will, blue-bell, free-man.
- (g.) *Pronoun + noun* ; he-goat, she-bear.
- (h.) *Verb + noun* ; scare-crow, break-fast, spit-fire.
- (i.) *Adverb + noun* ; in-step, out-law, after-thought.
- (j.) *Adverb + gerund* ; up-rising, out-going, in-gathering.
- (k.) *Adverb + verb* ; out-lay, off-set, wel-come.
- (l.) *Adverb + participle* ; by-gones.
- (m.) *Verb + adverb* ; cast-away, run-away, draw-back.
- (n.) *Verb + verb* ; hear-say, make-believe.

Compounds belonging to class (c) are French in origin. Those included under class (h) are peculiar. They consist of a transitive verb and its grammatical object; e. g. *spit-fire*, "one who spits fire;" *break-fast*, "a meal which breaks our fast." The verb simply defines the relation in which the object stands to the suppressed subject.

170. As a general rule, inflexional suffixes are not attached to the qualifying word. Sometimes, however, the genitive case-ending is retained; *mark-s-man*, *Thur-s-day*, *monk-s-hood*. Compare *sea-man* and *land-s-man*, *bride-groom* and *brid-es-maid*. Even the form with *of* is occasionally found; *Jack-o-lantern*, *Will-o-the-wisp*. Hence such forms as *hand-i-craft*, *night-in-gale* (*night-singer*).

171. In certain compounds principally of foreign origin, the component elements are either corrupted and disguised, or unknown in the English language. Such words are compounds only to those who are acquainted with the languages from which they were introduced; e. g. *bis-cuit* (twice baked); *ver-dict* (true saying); *vin-egar* (sour wine); *dais-y* (day-s-eye); *re-public* (common-wealth), &c.

172. Many compound nouns are formed by reduplication; *chit-chat*, *sing-song*, *see-saw*, *knick-knack*, *tittle-tattle*, *ding-dong*, *riff-raff*, &c., and others by a species of alliterative rhyme; *hurly-burly*, *pick-nick*, *hum-drum*, &c.

173. When the elements of a compound word are drawn from different languages, the word is called a *hybrid*, from a Greek word meaning "an outrage upon nature." Hybrid nouns are not uncommon; e. g. *demi-god* (Lat. and Angl.); *hi-gamy* (Lat. and Greek); *hero-worship* (Greek and Angl.) &c.

ADJECTIVES.

174. An adjective is a word used with a noun to express some peculiarity of time, place, number, quality, or quantity; "The *early* primrose;" "The *distant* hills;" "The *three* swans;" "The *blue* sky." Hence adjectives may be classified as temporal, local, numeral, qualitative, and quantitative.

175. An adjective, by indicating some peculiarity in the noun, limits and at the same time more accurately defines, its meaning. Thus the name, *rose*, represents any individual of the genus. The addition of the epithet *white*, limits the application of the name to a certain class.

If the local adjective, *this*, is added, the description becomes still more definitive ; “ *this white rose*.”

176. Adjectives were originally genitive cases of nouns or pronouns ; “ a *gold-en ring*,” = “ a ring of *gold*.” In some languages the genitives of nouns actually receive suffixes indicating the gender and number of the noun upon which they depend. As a familiar illustration, compare the Latin *cujus, cuja, cujum*.

Many adjectives, however, of later formation, are otherwise derived. See § 191, &c.

177. The adjective is attracted into the same gender, number, and case, as the noun it defines, and in most European languages this agreement is marked by suffixes, or by a change in the termination of the word. In modern English, with the exception of a few pronominal adjectives, these suffixes have disappeared ; “ a *tall boy* ; ” “ a *fair girl* ; ” “ a *small book* ; ” “ *tall boys* ; ” “ *fair girls* ; ” “ *small books*.”

178. These suffixes existed in the old Anglian tongue, and traces of them are visible in Old English.

(a) When the adjective is used with the definite article, a possessive, or a demonstrative pronoun, it is frequently found with the suffix *-e*.

The sharp-é, gren-é, sweet-é juniper.—James I. (of Scotland).

Upon *the smal-é, soft-é, sweet-é gras.—Chaucer.*

Yelde every man hys own-é thing.—Robt. of Brunne.

Thus sayd this old-é knight.—Chaucer.

Myn own-é, deer-é, brother and my lord.—Id.

(b) When an adjective was not preceded by a demonstrative or possessive pronoun, the plural in Old English often ended in *-e* ; but the *e* was seldom suffixed to the perf. partic. of irregular verbs.

And smal-é fowles maken melodie.—Chaucer.

Every god tree maketh god-é fruytis.—Wyclif.

Four-é tymes in the yere.—Robt. of Brunne.

(c) “ *Es* is a mark of the plural very common in Southern writers of the fourteenth century, and employed as a plural inflexion of the adjective until a very late period of our literature.” — Morris (Allit. Poems, pref. p. xxvi.).

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

179. The adjective in its simple form is said to be of the *Positive degree*; as, "a tall boy." When *two* objects, or sets of objects, are compared, a suffix is employed to show that one possesses a given quality in a greater degree than the other; as, "the boy is tall-*er* than the girl." The adjective is then said to be of the *Comparative degree*.

180. The earlier form of the comparative suffix was *-ter* or *-ther* (Latin and Greek *ter-o*). It signified *one of two*, and traces of it are still found in a few words, which in their nature imply *duality*: *whether*, *either*, *neither*, *farther*, *father*, *mother*, *brother*, *sister*, *daughter*. The form *-ter* in *sister* is owing to the sibilants in *sis-*; in *daughter*, to the *gh*, which was originally an aspirated guttural.

181. In Anglo-Saxon the usual suffix of the comparative was *-re* (O. E. *bett-re*=better) or *-se* for adjectives, and *-or* or *-os* for adverbs (Latin *-ior*, *-ios*). In Old English the forms *-or* and *-er* are used indifferently with adjectives and adverbs.

In modern English the comparative suffix of both adjectives and adverbs is *-er*: *bright-er*, *soon-er*.

When the simple adjective ends in *y*, it becomes *i* before a suffix of comparison; as, *holy*, *holi-er*, *holi-est*.

A final consonant preceded by a short accented vowel is usually doubled: *thin*, *thinn-er*, *thinn-est*.

182. When the adjective consists of more than two syllables, it is usual to express the comparative by placing the adverb "more" before the positive: "more beautiful."*

183. If, on comparing two objects, it is stated that one possesses *less* of a certain quality than the other, this form of expression is called a *Comparative of Diminution* or *Negation*. Unlike the *Comparative of Increase*, it takes no suffix, but is expressed in English by the adverb *less* and the positive form of the adjective: "less graceful."

* 'More' and 'most' are not used in the comparison of adjectives in A. Sax. The usage is probably due to Norman influence. Under certain conditions the comparative is expressed by 'more' in O. Norse. See Marsh, *Or. and H. Eng. Lang.* pp. 47, 74.

184. A few adjectives of Latin origin retain the Latin comparative suffix *-ior*: *interior, exterior, superior, inferior, anterior, posterior, prior, ulterior, senior, junior, major, minor*. But, though the form is retained, the comparative character of the suffix is not recognised in English. This is evident from the fact that these words cannot be followed by *than*. They share this peculiarity with a few adjectives of Anglian origin: *former, elder, latter, hinder, upper, under, nether, inner, outer, &c.*

185. When *more than two* objects or sets of objects are compared, the suffix *-est* is employed to show that *one* possesses a certain quality in a greater degree than *all* the rest. The adjective is then said to be of the *Superlative degree*:

The wis-est, bright-est, mean-est, of mankind.—*Pope*.

If the word end in *-le*, the *e* is lost: *idle, idl-er, idl-est*.

186. The usual suffix of the superlative is *-est*. In A. S. there were two: (1) *-est* or *-ost*; (2) *-ema*. Compare the Greek *meg-ist-o*, "great-est," and the Latin *inf-imo*, "low-est."

A few words retain traces of both suffixes: *fore-m-ost* (A. S. and O. E. *for-m-est*), *in-m-ost*, *out-m-ost*, &c.

187. Another mode of expressing the superlative is by placing the word "most" before the simple adjective:

Most musical of mourners.—*Milton*.

188. If, on comparing more than two objects, it is stated that one possesses *less* of a certain quality than all the rest, this form of expression is called a *Superlative of Diminution* or *Negation*. It is expressed in English by the adverb *least* and the positive form of the adjective.

Adjectives denoting peculiarities that cannot be *increased* or *diminished*, are incapable of comparison: "a *lunar* rainbow," "the *solar* system," "a *monthly* holiday."

190. The following are either irregular or obsolete comparisons:—

(a) *Good, better, best*. The simple word *bet*, which is another form of *good*,* is still found in provincial English (Hereford). In A. S. and O. E. it is used as a comparative. *Better* (A. S. *bet-era*, *bet-ra*) appears in O. E. as *bet-er* and *bet-re*. *Best* is a compression of the A. S. *bet-est*, *bet-st*.

* See Professor Key's ingenious paper—*Alphabet*, p. 153.

- (b) *Bad, worse, worst.* In *wor-se* (O. E. *wer-re, wer-s*), the *-se* is another form of *-re* (§ 181). It is the A. S. *weor-es, wyr-es, wyr-s*, the comparative of *Weor*, bad. *Wor-st* (O. E. *wer-st*) is a compression of A. S. *weor-est*, which also appears as *wyr-est* and *wyr-st*. It is probably connected with the root *wor* in O. E. *wor-en*, to *worr-y*.
- (c) *Much, more, most* (singular), of quantity; [*many*], *more, most* (plural), of number. The root is *mag*. *Mick-le* (A. S. *mic-el*, O. E. *mik-el, much-el*), is formed from *much* by a diminutive suffix *-el*, just as *litt-le* (O. E. *lit-el*) is formed from the root *let*. Compare Gr. *meg-al-o-*. *Mo-re* is the A. S. *ma-re* (*mag-re*), and *mo-st*, the A. S. *mæst* (*mag-est*). Compare Gr. *meg-ist-o*. In A. S. and O. E. the shortened forms *ma* and *moe* are often used for the comparative.
- Man-y* (A. S. *man-ig*) has no connection with the root *mag*. The *-y* is a diminutive suffix modifying the root-vowel.
- (d) *Little, less, least.* The root is *lite* (O. E. *lite, lute*). In the Anglian and Old English *lit-el* or *lut-el*, the *-el* is a diminutive suffix. In the comparative *les-s* (A. S. *læssar*, O. E. *lasse*), the radical *t* is assimilated to *s*, and the root-vowel is modified by the suffix *-se*. The superlative *least* (A. S. *læst*) is a contraction from *let-est*. Compare *last*=*lat-est*, and *best*=*bet-est*.
- (e) *Near, nearer, nearest.* The correct forms are *nigh, near, next*. In *ni-gh* (A. S. *ne-ah*, O. E. *ne-h, nei-h*) the *-gh* is a diminutive suffix. *Nea-r* (A. S. *nea-r*) has lost the guttural. In *next* (A. S. *neh-st* and *nyh-st*) the guttural and the sibilant form *x*, just as we find in O. E. *high-est* written *hext* :

For the first apple and the *hext*,
Which groweth unto you *next*.—Chaucer.

In later times we find the forms *nigh, nigher, nighest*, and *near, nearer, nearest*. In these last the *-ar* is possibly a corruption of the Anglian *-ah*.

- (f) *Old, elder, eldest* (A. S. *cald, yldra, yldest*). The suffix *has*, as usual, modified the root-vowel. *Elder*, and *eldest*, are now limited in use to animate beings. We can say, "the elder brother," "the eldest brother," but not "the elder *building*," "the eldest *building*." *Elder* has lost its true comparative character, for it cannot be followed by *than*. The modern forms *older* and *oldest*, are the true comparative and superlative in the current language. The noun *elder* is a different word; it is the A. S. *ealdor*, "a ruler."

- (g) *Rathe*. The positive is seen in the Old English *rathe* (A. S. *hræth*, quick):

And the *rathe* primrose which forsaken dies.—*Milton*.

The men of *rathe* and riper years.—*Tennyson*.

Rath-er meant *earlier*, *sooner* :

Wolde God this relyke had come *rather* !—*Heywood*.

And it arose ester and ester, till it arose full este; and
rather and *rather*.—*Warkworth*.

Seynt Edward the Martyr was his sone
By his *rathere* wyf—*i. e.* his *former* wife.

Robt. Gloucest.

We still use the word *sooner* as an equivalent for *rather*.
The superlative *rath-est* is found in Old English.

Accept be now *rathest* unto grace.—*Chaucer*.

- (h) *Farther*, *further*. *Farther*, from *far* (A. S. *feor*; O. E. *ferre*), is applied to the more *distant* of two objects: "the sun is *farther* from the earth than the moon." *Further* (O. E. *forther*), from *forth* (A. S. *forth*), is applied to movement in *advance*: "the ship moves *further* on." In the superlative, *far-th-est* (O. E. *ferr-ost*), the *th* appears to have been introduced from a false analogy with *furth-est*.

- (i) From the root *for* there was a Saxon superlative *for-ma*, "fir-st." So in O. E. we meet with "the *forme* part" of the head (Pict. Voc. 15 cent.). The ordinary superlative *fir-st* (A. S. *fyr-st*) is a contraction of *for-est* (O. E. *for-st*), as Lat. *primo-* from *pro-imo-*, and Gr. *proto-* from *pro-ato-*. In *for-m-ost* (O. E. *for-m-est*) we have a double superlative:—

He was the *fyrsté* that hit wan
Syn Adam lost hit, our *formest* man.

Rob. Brunne.

In *for-m-er* a comparative is formed from a superlative. In *out-er-m-ost*, *inn-er-m-ost*, *utt-er-m-ost*, a double superlative is formed from a comparative. The same root is seen in *for-ward* and *fro-ward*.

(k) *Latter, last*, are formed from *late* (A. S. *læt*), as *better* and *best* from *bct*, and the root-vowel is modified by the suffix. The regular forms, *lat-er*, and *lat-est*, are still used, but with a different signification; *latter* and *last* refer to *order*; *later* and *latest*, to *time*.

DERIVATION OF ADJECTIVES.

A. Teutonic.

191.

1. *By Internal Change.*

Change of vowel; (noun) *heat, hot*; *pride, proud*; (verb) *live, live*.
Change of vowel and cons.; *cool, chill* (diminutive).

192.

2. *By a Suffix, with or without root changes.*

-ow, holl-ow.	-y, dr-y.	-ish, black-ish.
-w, ra-w.	-ff, gru-ff.	-r, drea-r.
-ck, sla-ck.	-b, gli-b.	-el, lit-el, O. E.
-k, dar-k.	-p, shar-p.	-le, litt-le.
-g, snu-g.	-t, per-t.	-il, ev-il.
-gh, tou-gh.	-ss, gro-ss.	-m, war-m.
-ng, stro-ng.	-sh, har-sh.	

Words of this class either are, or were, diminutives.*

193. -d; probably perf. part.; *har-d, kin-d, col-d, bal-d.*-ed; added to nouns; *gift-ed, wretch-ed, feather-ed, tuft-ed.*-en, -n; perf. part.; *brok-en, drunk-en, forlor-n, shor-n.*-en, -n; probably old gen. suffix (*of*); *gold-en, wood-en leather-n.*-er, -re; comparative suffix; *low-er, upp-er, bright-er, mo-re.*-ern; *north-ern, south-ern, east-ern, west-ern.*-est, -st; superlative suffix; *weak-est, bold-est, mo-st, be-st.*-fold; usually added to numerals; *two-fold, three-fold, mani fold.*-ful; added to nouns; *scorn-ful, truth-ful, tear-ful.*-ish; like; added to nouns; *boy-ish, girl-ish, brut-ish.*-ish; gentile suffix; *Engl-ish, Span-ish, Ir-ish.*-ing; imperf. part.; *sleep-ing, dar-ing, ris-ing.*

* See note, § 157.

- less; added to nouns; god-less, hope-less, tear-less.
 -ly, -lic; like; added to nouns, adj. and verbs; man-ly, sur-ly, frolic (A. S. *freo-lic*, Ger. *fröh-lich*), like-ly.
 -most; superlative suffix; inner-most, outer-most, utter-most.
 -se, -s; comparative suffix; wor-se, les-s.
 -some; added to nouns, adj. and verbs; tooth-some, game-some, glad-some, win-some.
 -t; probably perf. part.; short-t, tigh-t, sligh-t.
 -teen; forms cardinal numerals; four-teen, six-teen.
 -th; forms ordinal numerals; four-th, six-th, seven-th.
 -ty; forms cardinal numerals; six-ty, seven-ty.
 -ward; added to nouns and prepositions; out-ward, home-ward.
 -y, -ey if the word ends in y; wood-y, bush-y, wear-y, clay-ey.

194.

3. *By a Prefix.*

<i>a-</i> , a-weary.	<i>ill-</i> , ill-bred.	<i>over-</i> , over-weening.
<i>be-</i> , be-girt.	<i>in-</i> , in-wrought.	<i>thorough-</i> , thorough-bred.
<i>by-</i> , by-gone.	<i>mis-</i> , mis-spelt.	<i>un-</i> , un-wise.
<i>down-</i> , down-cast.	<i>off-</i> , off-hand.	<i>up-</i> , up-right.
<i>fore-</i> , fore-named.	<i>on-</i> , on-coming.	<i>under-</i> , under-hand.
<i>for-</i> , for-lorn.	<i>out-</i> , out-spread.	<i>wan-</i> , O. E. wan-thrivæn.

B. *Classical.*

195.

1. *By Internal Change.*

Change of consonant; diffuse (vb.), diffuse (adj.).

Change of conson. and vowel; refuse (vb.), refuse (adj.).

2. *By a Suffix.*(a) *Latin.*

-al, reg-al.	-esque, pictur-esque.	-olent, vi-olent.
-an, hum-an.	-fic, terri-fic.	-ose, verb-ose.
-ane, hum-ane,	-ian, plebe-ian.	-ous, danger-ous.
-aneous, cut-aneous.	-ible, tang-ible.	-ple, sim-ple.
-ar, singul-ar.	-ic, publ-ic.	-se, inten-se.
-ary, station-ary.	-id, ferv-id.	-sive, persua-sive.
-ble, solu-ble.	-il, civ-il.	-t, perfec-t.
-ble, dou-ble.	-ile, frag-ile.	-te, fortuna-te.
-ceous, farina-ceous.	-ine, sal-ine.	-tive, na-tive.
-ent, flu-ent.	-ious, cur-ious.	-ulent, turb-ulent.
-eous, vitr-eous.	-nt, innoce-nt.	-ulous, quer-ulous.

(b) *Greek.*

-ad, nom-ad.	-ian, Christ-ian.	-id, cono-id.
-iac, demon-iac.	-ic, graph-ic.	-ine, cedr-ine.

196.

3. *By a Prefix.*(a) *Latin.*

<i>abs</i> -*	abs-tract.	<i>counter</i> -	counter-feit.	<i>op</i> -	op-portune.
<i>ab</i> -	ab-undant.	<i>de</i> -	de-ficient.	<i>os</i> -	os-tensible.
<i>a</i> -	a-verse.	<i>dis</i> -	dis-honest.	<i>per</i> -	per-fect.
<i>ad</i> -	ad-ult.	<i>dif</i> -	dif-fuse.	<i>pel</i> -	pel-lucid.
<i>ac</i> -	ac-curate.	<i>di</i> -	di-verse.	<i>par</i> -	par-amount.
<i>af</i> -	af-fable.	<i>ex</i> -	ex-act.	<i>pro</i> -	pro-found.
<i>ag</i> -	ag-gressive.	<i>ef</i> -	ef-ficient.	<i>post</i> -	post-humous.
<i>al</i> -	al-luvial.	<i>e</i> -	e-laborate.	<i>pre</i> -	pre-mature.
<i>ap</i> -	ap-parent.	<i>extra</i> -	extra-vagant.	<i>preter</i> -	preter-natural.
<i>ar</i> -	ar-rogant.	<i>in</i> -	in-carnate.	<i>re</i> -	re-mote.
<i>as</i> -	as-siduous.	<i>il</i> -	il-lustrious.	<i>red</i> -	red-olent.
<i>at</i> -	at-tentive.	<i>im</i> -	im-minent.	<i>retro</i> -	retro-grade.
<i>am</i> ,	am-bitious.	<i>ir</i> -	ir-ruptive.	<i>se</i> -	se-parate.
<i>amb</i> -	amb-iguous.	<i>in</i> -	in-active.	<i>semi</i> -	semi-barbarous.
<i>ambi</i> -	ambi-dextrous.	<i>en</i> -	en-tire.	<i>sub</i> -	sub-sequent.
<i>ante</i> -	ante-cedent.	<i>il</i> -	il-licit.	<i>suc</i> -	suc-cinct.
<i>ant</i> -	ant-ique.	<i>im</i> -	im-mense.	<i>suf</i> -	suf-ficient.
<i>bene</i> -	bene-volent.	<i>ir</i> -	ir-regular.	<i>sup</i> -	sup-pliant.
<i>beni</i> -	beni-gn.	<i>i</i> -	i-gnable.	<i>sur</i> -	sur-reptitious.
<i>bi</i> -	bi-fid.	<i>inter</i> -	inter-mediate.	<i>sus</i> -	sus-ceptible.
<i>bin</i> -	bin-ocular.	<i>intel</i> -	intel-ligent.	<i>su</i> -	su-spicious.
<i>circum</i> -	circum-spect.	<i>male</i> -	male-volent.	<i>super</i> -	super-human.
<i>cis</i> -	cis-alpine.	<i>mali</i> -	mali-gnant.	<i>trans</i> -	trans-ient.
<i>con</i> -	con-cave.	<i>manu</i> -	manu-script.	<i>tra</i> -	tra-montane.
<i>com</i> -	com-plete.	<i>non</i> -	non-descript.	<i>tri</i> -	tri-ennial.
<i>cor</i> -	cor-rupt.	<i>obs</i> -	obs-tinate.	<i>uni</i> -	uni-form.
<i>co</i> -	co-eval.	<i>ob</i> -	ob-durate.	<i>un</i> -	un-animous.
<i>contra</i> -	contra-band.	<i>oc</i> -	oc-cult.	<i>vice</i> -	vice-regal.

197.

(b) *Greek.*

<i>an</i> -	an-onymous.	<i>cata</i> -	cata-lectic.	<i>eso</i> -	eso-teric.
<i>a</i> -	a-morphous.	<i>cath</i> -	cath-olic.	<i>exo</i> -	exo-tic.
<i>amphi</i> -	amphi-bious.	<i>dia</i> -	dia-phanous.	<i>homo</i> -	homo-geneous.
<i>anti</i> -	anti-septic.	<i>en</i> -	en-demic.	<i>ortho</i> -	ortho-dox.
<i>ant</i> -	ant-arctic.	<i>epi</i> -	epi-demic.	<i>peri</i> -	peri-patetic.
<i>archi</i> -	archi-episcopal.	<i>eph</i> -	eph-emeral.	<i>syn</i> -	syn-chronous.

198. Many nouns are used occasionally as adjectives, *gold*, *silver*, *yew*, *ivy*, *morning*, *evening*, &c. In such cases the old adjectival suffix has been lost.

* These prefixes are explained, § 163. In this list all adjectives formed directly from nouns and all participles are omitted.

199. COMPOUND ADJECTIVES.

1. *Noun + adjective* ; sea-green, sun-bright, sea-sick, purse-proud.

2. *Noun + imperf. particip.* ; heart-breaking, ear-piercing, spirit-stirring.

3. *Noun + perf. particip.* ; moth-caten, night-founded, terror-stricken.

4. *Adverb + imperf. part.* ; high-soaring, swift-darting, ill-looking.

5. *Adverb + perf. part.* ; high-born, home-sprung, well-bred.

6. *Noun + noun + ed* ; hare-lipp-ed, lion-heart-ed, eagle-ey-ed.

7. *Adjec. + noun + ed* ; fair-hair-ed, long-legg-ed, gray-head-ed.

8. *Numeral + noun + ed* ; three-corner-ed, ten-string-ed, four-sid-ed.

NUMERALS.

200. *Cardinal* numerals are those which show *how many* objects are specified, as "two bats," "three balls."

The cardinal numerals from *one* to *ninety-nine* are *adjectives* denoting number ; but they are occasionally used as nouns : "We are to come to him by *ones*, by *twos*, and by *threes*" (*Shaksp.*). The higher numbers, *hundreds*, *thousands*, *millions*, &c. are nouns.

Ordinal numerals show *in what order* objects are arranged : "the first prize," "the second boy," "the third day." They are adjectives.

201. *One* (A. S. *an*, *æn*, *on*, O. E. *ane*, *an*, *a*, *o*). It may be necessary to remark that there exist in English two words of this form, the numeral *one* and the noun *one*.

The latter is commonly said to be a word of classical origin, intro-

duced from the Norman-French, meaning originally "a person" (*homo* *homme, om, on*). It is, however, probably a corruption of the A. S. *man* (O. E. *mon*) = one. "When *mon* withouten eyr of him to dethe were ybrought" (Rob. Glouc.), *i. e.* "If any one died without an heir." It has naturally a plural, *ones*, and should not be confounded with the numeral.

202. *Two* in O. E. is thus declined: Nom. and ac. *two, twei, twynne*, and *twain*; gen. *twei-re* (A. S. *tweg-ra*); dat. *twa-m* and *two-m* (A. S. *twá-m*).

In *three*, originally *thir*, *r* has shifted its position. (A. S. *threo*, O. E. *threo, thre, thrinne*.)

The abstract equivalents of *one, two, and three*, are *unity, duality, and trinity*.

Five and *seven* (A. S. *fif* and *seofon*) have assumed a flat *v* for the old *f*.

Nine is a compression of the A. S. *nigon*.

203. *Eleren* (A. S. *end-lufon*, O. E. *end-levene, en-leven, en-lene, el-lene*) is a compound of *en* = "one," and *leven* = "ten," and thus corresponds in formation with the Latin *un-decim* and the Greek *en-deka*.

Twelve (A. S. *twe-lfe*) is a compound of *twe*, "two," and *lufon* or *leven*, "ten," thus corresponding with the Latin *duo-decim* and the Greek *do-deka*. As in *five*, the final *f* of the A. S. is pronounced *v*.

204. The cardinals from *thirteen* to *nineteen* are formed by suffixing *-teen* (A. S. *tyn*, "ten," O. E. *tyme, tene*) to the first nine numerals.

In *thir-teen* *r* retains its original position; but in O. E. we find *threttene* and *throttene*, and in A. S. *threottyne*.

Fif-teen contains *five* in its original form (A. S. *fif*), and the suffix has modified the root-vowel.

Eighteen has a *t* performing double duty; but in O. E. we meet with *eighte-tene*, from the A. S. *eahta-tyne*.

205. The cardinals from *twenty* to *ninety* are formed by suffixing *-ty* (A. S. *-tíy*) to the first nine numerals: *-ty* or *-tig* is another form of *ten*.

Twen-ty (A. S. *twen-tig*) contains the word *twain* (A. S. *twegen*, "two").

Thir-ty. The A. S. *thri-tig* and the O. E. *thri-tty* have transposed the *r*.

Fif-ty (A. S. *fif-tig*) has the original *fif*, and has modified the root-vowel.

* *Me*, so common in O. E. with the meaning of the indefinite *one*, is possibly a truncated form of *men*.

In *Eighty*, *t* performs a double duty. The A. S. form was *cahta-tig* and hence the O. E. *eighte-ty*.

Ninety is a compression of A. S. *nigontig*.

206. The A. S. word for *hundred* was *hund*. To this in O. E. was appended the suffix *-er*, "an *hunder* fold" (*Rob. of Brunne*), "an *hunder* syth." (*Id.*) The word then received the suffix of an abstract noun, *-ath* or *-eth*. Hence we frequently find *hundr-eth*—"ane *hundreth* ladies" (*Dunbar*), "a *hundreth* poetical spirits" (*Ret. from Parn.*). The *th* was sometimes written *t*—"thre *hondret*" (*Rob. Glouc.*), but more commonly *d*. The word *hundred* exists in A. S., but it means a subdivision of a shire.

Thousand (A. S. *thusend*) in O. E. is often written *thousant*.

Mill-ion, *bill-ion*, &c. are modern words, of French origin, the termination indicating the square of the number (1000×1000 , &c.).

207. In compounding numerals, from *twenty-one* to *ninety-nine*, it is usual to prefix the higher number, *twenty-two*, *thirty-five*, &c.; but when they are connected by *and*, the lower number is placed first—*two and twenty*, *five and thirty*, &c. In O. E., however, we read *ninety and nine*, &c. In compounds from 101 to 999, we write the hundreds first, and connect the lower numbers by *and*—"nine hundred and ninety-nine." In expressing numbers above 1000, it is usual to place the higher numbers first, and to write *and* before the tens; or if there are no tens, before the units—*e. g.* "one thousand eight hundred," "two thousand eight hundred and sixty-two," "three thousand eight hundred and two." In this form of expression the nouns *hundred*, *thousand*, &c. never receive a plural suffix, the plurality being sufficiently marked by the preceding numeral.

208. The *ordinal* numerals are adjectives, formed, with the exception of the first two, from the cardinals. In fractional numbers they are used as nouns, a *third*, a *fourth*, &c.

Half, *quarter*, and *tithe*, are the fractional equivalents of *two*, *four*, and *ten*.

First, the superlative of *for*, "the foremost" (see § 190, *i.*).

Second. This word is peculiar, being derived, not from the Saxon *two*, but from the Latin *secundo*, "following." This peculiarity may be explained. In Anglo-Saxon there was no single word to express "second;" the phrase *the other* being used for that purpose (as in Latin *altero*). Hence Robert of Brunne, in an enumeration, writes, "the fyrst, *the tother*, the thrid," &c. To remedy this defect, our ancestors adopted the Norman-French term *second*, and employed *the other* in a more general sense.

209. The suffix of the ordinal numerals is *th* (A. S. and

O. E. *-the*). These words were probably superlatives. Compare Latin *dec-imo-*, Greek *dek-ato-*.

Thir-d (A. S. *thri-dde*). The original form is retained in Old English, *thridde* or *thrid*, and in the word *rid-ing*, or rather *thrid-ing*, a division of Yorkshire. As the word commences with an asperate, the unasperated *d* takes the place of *th*; two asperates so near being objectionable. The flat *d* is owing to the liquid *r*.

Fourth (A. S. *feorthe*), O. E. *ferthe* and *ferth*.

Fif-th retains the original *fiƿ*, with a modified vowel. In the A. S. *fiƿ-te* and O. E. *fiƿ-t*, the loss of the asperate and the sharp *t* are due to the sharp asperate *f*.

Six-th. The A. S. *six-te* and the O. E. *six-t* are due to the sharp-sibilant *x*.

In *Eigh-th* *t* does double duty; but in A. S. we have *eahto-the*, and in O. E. *eighte-the*.

Tenth (A. S. *teothe*). The old form is still retained in the word *tithe*.

Eleven-th. A. S. *endlyƿ-te*, O. E. *endleƿ-te* and *enleƿen-th*.

Twelf-th (A. S. *twelf-te*) retains the original *f*.

In both these the loss of the asperate in *-te* is caused by the preceding *f*.

210. The ordinal numerals above *sixth* in A. S. have the suffix *-othe*, with the exception of *eleventh* and *twelfth*, and those from *13th* to *19th* drop the final *n* of the cardinal. Hence instead of *thirteenth*, we find in O. E. *thrett-eth* (A. S. *thrytte-othc*).

211. In compound ordinal numbers the last only assumes the ordinal form; "twenty-third," "one-hundred-and-twenty-fourth," "two-thousand-one-hundred-and-twenty-fifth." The whole is viewed as a single compound word.

212. *Distributive* numerals signify *how many at a time*. There are no separate forms to express them in English, but the following phrases are employed: "by twos," "two by two," "two and two," "two each," "two at a time," "two apiece."

Fading *one by one* away.—Coleridge.

The stars are out *by twos* and *threes*.—Wordsworth.

These *three and three* with osier bands we tied.—Pope.

Which will be less than *a farthing apiece*.—Swift.

I took four muskets and loaded them with *two* slugs and *five* small bullets *each*.—Defoe.

213. *Multipliers* are expressed : (1) by Saxon words formed by the suffix *-fold* (A. S. *-feald*, O. E. *-felde*), as *two-fold*, *three-fold*, *four-fold*; and (2) by Latin words, as *sim-ple* (or *sin-gle*, Lat. *sin-guli*), *dou-ble*, *tre-ble* or *tri-ple*, *quadru-ple*, &c. (Lat. *simplici-*, *du-plici-*, *tri-plici-*, *quadru-plici-*), the suffix *-ble* or *-ple* (Lat. *-plica*) meaning the same as *-fold*.

214. *Bo-both* (A. S. *ba-twa*, *bu-tu*; O. E. *bathe*, *bethe*, *bothé*, *bo*, *beye*). *Bo* is a compression of *two*; so Latin *am-bo* and *bis* of *duo* and *duis*; and A. S. *ba* of *twa*. Hence *ba-twa* and *bu-tu*, "bo-th," is *twa-twa*, or *two-two*, i. e. two taken together. In O. E. a genitive *bey-re*, "of both," is found, A. S. *begra*, as *tweire* from A. S. *twegra*.

215. The following are nouns employed as *collective numerals*: *pair*, *brace*, *couple*, *leash*, *dozen*, *score*, and *gross*.

216. There are two classes of *numeral adverbs*: (1) Cardinal; (2) Ordinal. The cardinal adverbs answer to the question "How often?"—*once*, *twice*, *thrice*, &c. The ordinal adverbs show in what order certain facts are treated—*first*, *secondly*, *thirdly*, &c.

The first three cardinal adverbs are formed by the suffix *-ce*; *on-ce*, *twi-ce*, *thri-ce*, formerly written *on-es*, *twi-es*, *thri-es*, and pronounced as a disyllable: "twi-és or thri-és in the year." Hence the O. E. forms of *once*—*an-is*, *en-es*, *on-ys*. The others are expressed by the cardinal numbers and the word "times":

Nine times the space that measures day and night.—*Milton*.

In O. E. they were sometimes formed by the suffix *-sythe* (time); e. g. a *hunder-sythe*, a hundred times.

In *once*, *twice*, *thrice*, observe the *sharp* sibilant after a liquid and a vowel; possibly to distinguish these adverbs in later times from *ones*, *twos*, *threes*. In O. E. when the vowel *e* was dropt, *twice* and *thrice* were written *twise*, *thrise*, and pronounced *twize*, *thrize*.

217. An adverb of a peculiar form is frequently seen in O. E. It is a compound of the old preposition *an*, and a cardinal numeral: *an-tuo*, *a-two*, *a-twain*, *a-three*, *a-sevene*, i. e. in two, three, seven parts.

This lond was deled *a-thre* among thre sones.—*Rob. Glouc*.
The modern English form is *in two*, &c.

218. *Indefinite Article*. A modification of the numeral *one* (O. E. *ane*, *an*, *a*) is used to denote a single object inde-

finitely: *An* adder, *an* hour, *a* flower, *a* year.* It is usually called the *Indefinite Article*. When placed before a word beginning with a consonant, the asperate, *w*, or *y*, the *n* was rejected: *a* man, *a* horse, *a* year, *a* wall. There is a tendency in modern English to omit it before *u* when that letter represents the diphthong *eu*; *a* union.

This use of the numeral prevails in most modern languages of the Indo-European family.

219. *N-one* is a compound of the negative and "one." It is frequently shortened into *no*, "none other," "no other." It is both an adjective and a noun, and, though containing the numeral *one*, can be used either in the singular or the plural.

On-ly (O. E. *on-liche*), *an-y*, *at-one*, and *al-one*, are also derivatives of this numeral.

PRONOUNS.

220. *Pronouns* are short words used to represent nouns without *naming* them. They thus avoid a repetition that would be always tedious, and often obscure.

Gabriel thus bespake the Fiend :

Satan, *I* know *thy* strength, and *thou* know'st *mine*.—*Milton*.

If we had no pronouns, the last line must have appeared thus :—

Satan, Gabriel knows Satan's strength, and Satan knows Gabriel's.

221. A pronoun may represent a noun in any of the forms specified in § 78.

- (1) *Noun*. Nathan said unto *David*, *Thou* art the man.—*Eng. Bib.*
- (2) *Numeral*. Of them he chose *twelve*, *whom* also he named Apostles.—*Id.*
- (3) *Gerund*. As he loved *cursing*, therefore let *it* come upon *him*.—*Id.*
- (4) *Infinitive*. Can *it* be sin to *know*?—*Milton*.
- (5) *Infinitive clause*. The first thought was to *confine him to the Tower*; but *that* was contrary to the *politesse* of modern war.—*Horace Walpole*.

* *An* hule and *one* nightingale.—*Owl and N.*

(6) *Sentence.*

You all did see that on the Lupercal
 I thrice presented him a kingly crown,
 Which he did thrice refuse. Was this ambition?—*Shakspeare.*

222. As nouns are often implied in adjectives, so certain pronouns are used as adjectives to represent such nouns. Pronouns so used are called *Pronominal Adjectives*.

223. Pronouns are divided into Personal, Demonstrative, Relative, Interrogative, Possessive, Reflective, Reciprocal, Indefinite, and Distributive.

Personals.

224. *Personal* pronouns are words used to denote the person who speaks and the person addressed :

I am thy father's spirit.—*Shakspeare.*
 King did *I* call thee? No, thou art not king.—*Id.*

These two are the only true personal pronouns. To mark the person or thing of which we are speaking, a form of the demonstrative is used. (See § 233.)

They have no distinctions of gender, because, as the persons are in actual communication, such distinctions are unnecessary.

The person who speaks is usually called the *First* person ; the person addressed, the *Second*.

225. The inflection of the personal pronouns is irregular. The cases and numbers are sometimes erroneously considered to be derived from various roots.

226. Inflection of the First Personal Pronoun :

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i> I.	<i>Nom.</i> we.
<i>Acc.</i> me.	<i>Acc.</i> us.
<i>Gen.</i> mi-ne, my.	<i>Gen.</i> our-s, our.
<i>Dat.</i> me.	<i>Dat.</i> us.

227. *I* (A. S. *ic*, O. E. *ich*, *ic*, *ik*) has lost the final guttural, and perhaps an initial *m* (*mic*). In Old and provincial English we frequently find *cham* = *icham*; *chill* = *ich will*; *chold* = *ich wolde*, &c., in which the vowel is lost and the guttural retained.

me, acc. (A. S. *mech*, *mcc*, *meh*, *me*) has lost the final guttural. Compare the German *mich*.

mine (A. S. *mī-n*). In O. E. we meet with such phrases as "maugre *myne*" (*Rob. Brunne*), *i. e.* "in spite of *me*." In modern English the suffix is rejected when the noun upon which the genitive depends is expressed, and retained when the noun is omitted.

Ye powers of truth, that bid *my* soul aspire,
Far from *my* bosom drive the low desire.—*Goldsmith*.
Creation's heir, the world, the world is *mine*.—*Id.*

In old writers *mine* is commonly used before words beginning with a vowel or *h*: "mine enemy," "myn word," "myn helthe;" and occasionally before those beginning with a consonant:

Lady, *thine* sorrow can I not portray.—*Chaucer*.

me, dat. (A. S. *me*, Ger. *mir*). "*me*-thinks," *i. e.* it appears to *me*.
It thinketh *me* I sing as wel as thou.—*Chaucer*.

Woe is *me*, *i. e.* to me (*vae mihi*). Give *me* the daggers.—*Shakspeare*.

228. *we* (A. S. *we*, German *wir*, O. E. *wo*) has probably lost a final *r* or *a*,
us, acc. (A. S. *us*, O. E. *ous*): the initial *w* is absorbed.

our (A. S. *ur-e*, O. E. *ur-é*, *ur*, *our-é*) has probably lost the suffix *-en*. Hence in old and provincial English we meet with *our-n*. "Nonnulli *hern*, *ourn*, *yourn*, *hisn* dicunt pro *hers*, *ours*, &c., sed barbaricè, nec quisquam, credo, sic scribere solent." (*Wallis*, *Gr. Ang.* c. 7.) "And some *our-en* wenten to the grave." (*Wiclif*.) The *r* represents the *s* in "us." In modern English, when the noun upon which *our* depends is omitted, the old genitive suffix *-e* is replaced by the modern form *-s*.

Our spoil is won, *our* task is done.—*Shelley*.

'Tis *we*, 'tis *our-s* are changed.—*Id.*

The Norse form *our-s* * was unknown in the Old Anglian language, and even in O. E. we find *our*:

Our is the dishonoure.—*Kyng Alisand*.

us, dat. (A. S. *us*). "*us*-thoughte" (*Chaucer*), *i. e.* it appeared to *us*. "Than needeth *us* (dat.) no weapon *us* (ac.) to save." (*Id.*)

This pronoun in A. S. had a dual number: N. *wit*, G. *uncer*, D. and Ac. *unc*. Traces of this survive in the O. E. *unker*, "of us two," and *wike*, "to us two;" but not later than Henry III.

The fuller form *ic* (I) is supposed by some to be identical with the numeral "one" (Sans. *eka*). The speaker is occasionally described as "number one."

* *Morris*, *Allit. Poems*, pref. p. xxviii.

229. Inflection of the Second Personal Pronoun :

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i> thou.		<i>Nom.</i> ye.
<i>Acc.</i> thee.		<i>Acc.</i> you.
<i>Gen.</i> thi-ne, thy.		<i>Gen.</i> you-r, you-r-s.
<i>Dat.</i> thee.		<i>Dat.</i> you.

230. *thou* (A. S. and O. E. *thu*), *dat.* and *acc.* *thee* (A. S. *the*). In most of the Indo-European languages the second personal pronoun seems to be identical with the numeral *two*.

Thou in Shakspeare's time was frequently expressive of familiarity or contempt. "If thou *thouest* him some thrice, it shall not be amiss" (*Twelfth Night*). "All that Lord Cobham did was at *thy* iustigation, *thou* viper! for I *thou* thee, *thou* traitor" (*Coke*). It was commonly employed in addressing inferiors. (See *Jul. Cæs.* A. 1, S. 1, and Craik's note.) In modern English it is limited to poetry, poetical prose, and addresses to the Supreme Being. *You* was first used as a sing. in the 13th century.

In such phrases as "this son of *thine*," "a book of *mine*," &c., we seem to have both the genitive suffix and the preposition, as in the Latin *ad urb-em* we have both the preposition and the accusative suffix. This form of expression is used generally when the noun is accompanied by a demonstrative pronoun, or by the indefinite article—although in O. E. we meet with "this thy son," &c. It indicates possession. See Syntax (§ 485).

thi-ne (A. S. and O. E. *thi-n*). See remarks on *mi-ne*, § 227. Its true genitival character is seen in the old English phrase "maugre *thin*" (*Havlok the Dane*), i. e. "in spite of *thee*."

ye (A. S. *ge*). *y* frequently takes the place of an earlier *g*.

The O. E. writers treated *ye* as a nom. and *you* as an accus. "I know *you* not, whence *ye* are." (*Eng. Bib.*) The later writers confused them, and in modern English *ye* is found only in poetry; *you* is the ordinary form in prose.

you, *acc.* and *dat.* (A. S. *ew*, O. E. *yow*, *ow*, *ou*). This word is now used as a nominative, accusative, and dative.

you-r (A. S. *ew-er*, O. E. *yow-er*, *ou-r*). *e* is lost, and, unlike *mine* and *thine*, the suffix *r* is retained when the noun is expressed. When the noun is omitted, in modern English a second genitive suffix *s* is added. In O. E. this *s* is frequently wanting. Thus Chaucer:—

Fro that blisfull hour
That I you swore to ben all freely *your*.
I am and will be *your* in will and herte.—*Id.*

Demonstratives.

231. *Demonstrative* pronouns are used to point out the position of the object to which they refer:

Can *this* cockpit hold
The vasty fields of France?—*Shakspeare.*
Beneath *those* rugged elms, *that* yew-tree's shade.—*Gray.*

They are local adjectives; but, by omitting the object defined, they may be used as nouns: "What are *these* which are arrayed in white robes?" (*Eng. Bib.*)

The following are Demonstrative pronouns: *this, that, he, she, it, they, the, such, so, yon, yonder.*

232. The root of the demonstrative appears in the Indo-European languages with the initial letters *t, d, th, sh, h*, followed by any of the vowels.

233. The following forms of the demonstrative are commonly, but incorrectly, termed Personal pronouns:—

<i>Singular.</i>				<i>Plural.</i>		
	Masc.	Fem.	Neuter.		M.	F. N.
<i>Nom.</i>	he	she	it	<i>Nom.</i>	they	
<i>Acc.</i>	—	—	it	<i>Acc.</i>	—	
<i>Gen.</i>	hi-s	her her-s	it-s	<i>Gen.</i>	thei-r	thei-r-s
<i>Dat.</i>	hi-m	he-r	it	<i>Dat.</i>	the-m	

234. *she.* In A. S. there were two forms of the feminine demonstrative, *he-o* and *se-o*. Both are found in O. E.: "*hec cryede*" = "she cried" (*Rob. Glouc.*); and even *he* (= *she*) occurs in Robert of Brunne: "Thoghe *he* to him consente." In modern provincial English it takes the form *hoo* (I.anc.). On the other hand, we find in *Rob. of Glouc.* and *Langtoft*, *sheo, scho, sho*, and *se*. Of these two forms one naturally yielded to the other; *seo* and *sho* survive in the modern *she*. Compare the Latin *hic* and *sic*.

it (A. S. *hit*). The form *hit* is common in O. E.; *t* is usually considered a neuter suffix, but there is reason to believe that it is part of the original root.

hi-s masc. (A. S. *hi-s*, O. E. *hy-s, hi-se*). Thus Robert of Brunne, "*maugre his, i e.*" = "in spite of *him*." Like the Lat. *cujus, his* in O. E. received the inflectional endings of an adjective: "And *his-é* disciples camen and took *his* body." (*Wiclif.*) *Hisen* in provincial English is formed on the analogy of *mine* and *thine*. *His* in O. E. is occasionally used for *her*:

That ilk yere the *queene* died in Lyndseie;
At Westmyenster, I wene, *his* body did they leie.—*Rob. Glouc.*

he-r gen. (A. S. *hi-re*, O. E. *hi-ré*, *he-ré*, and *hi-r*).

it-s (A. S. and O. E. *hi-s*). The neuter *his* is common in Old English as late as the 17th century: "I will examine all the kinds of love, *his* nature, beginning, difference, objects; how *it* is honest or dishonest, a virtue or a vice; *his* powers and effects; how far *it* extends."—*Burton* (1621).

The word exhibits three stages of development: (1), when it served for both masculine and neuter; (2), a period of uncertainty, when we find *his*, *her*, *it*, and very rarely, *its*. "*It* carryeth a sting in the top of *her* neck" (*Topsell*). "*It* knighthood and *it* friends" (*Ben Jonson*); and (3), when *it* received the ordinary gen. suffix *-s*. It does not occur in the authorized version of the Bible, its place being supplied by *his*, *her*, or *thereof*. In Shakspeare, Bacon, and Milton, it occurs only in a few isolated passages. Dryden, on the other hand, was so familiar with the word, that he charges Ben Jonson with grammatical inaccuracy for employing *his*. Milton and Dryden seem, then, to mark the period of its general adoption in English literature.*

hi-m, *he-r*, dat. (A. S. *hi-m*, *hi-re*). "*Him* thoughté that his herte wold breke" (*Chaucer*): *i.e.* it appeared to him. *Him* and *her* are now commonly used as accusatives. *Hy-ne* accus. masc. (A. S. *hi-ne*, O. E. *hy-ne*). This form is seen occasionally in O. E. but it is generally displaced by *him*. The change occurred in the semi-Englian period. It is somewhat doubtful whether the accusative *him* is the old dative, or an abbreviation of *hine*:

The disciples that were his

Anon hy *hine* forsoke.—*Will. de Shoreham*.

The old accusative feminine *hi* is replaced by *her*.

Throughout the plural of this pronoun the initial asperate of the A. S. and O. E. appears as *th* in modern English:—

they (A. S. *hi*, O. E. *hi*, *ho*, *heo*, *hei*, and *thei*). The old accusative *hi* is lost; its place is supplied by *them*.

thei-r (A. S. *hi-ra*, *heo-ra*, O. E. *hire*, *heore*, *here*, *hir*, *hor*, *her*, *hires*, *heren*, *ther*). See remarks on *your* (§ 230). The form *heren* or *hern*, found in old English, was unknown in A.S.:—

That was *heren* (theirs), now *hyt* is *thyne*.—*Rob. Glouc.*

the-m, dat. (A. S. *hi-m*, *he-om*, O. E. *he-m*, *ho-m*, *he-n*, *tha-m*). "*Hem* thought" (*Rob. Brunne*), *i.e.* it appeared to them. This dative is now used also as the accusative.

Mandeville and *Chaucer* use *they*, but not *them* or *their*.

* See Dr. Craik, *Engl. of Shaks.* p. 97; Mr. Watts, *Trans. Phil. Soc.* 1852; and Mr. Morris, *Allit. Poems*, pref. p. xxviii.

235. In addition to the above, the following forms of the demonstrative are in general use :

- (1) *this* (sing.), *these* (plur.), used to point out objects near the speaker. (Lat. *hœ-*)

This pencil take, she said, whose colours clear

Richly paint the vernal year ;

Thine too *these* golden keys, immortal boy !—*Gray*

- (2) *that* (sing.), *those* (plur.), used to indicate objects distant from the speaker. (Lat. *illo-*)

And first review *that* long-extended plain,

And you wide groves already passed with pain.—*Collins*.

Long hast thou lingered midst *those* islands fair,

Which lie like jewels on the Indian deep.—*Lamb*.

When two objects are named, *this* represents the latter ; *that*, the former.

This can unlock the gates of Joy ;

Of Horror *that* and thrilling Fears.—*Gray*

They are also used as *logical* pronouns, *i. e.* they represent something of which we have been speaking without indicating its locality.

I charge thee, fling away ambition :

By *that* sin fell the angels.—*Shakspeare*.

236. In O. E. the following forms of *this* occur :—Sing. N. *this* ; Ac. *thes-ne*, *this*, *thas* ; D. *thisse*, *thusse* ; Plur. N. *this*, *thesé*, *thusé* ; Ac. and D. *thenne*.*

Thi-s, *tho-se*, *tho-ce* are reduplicated forms of *the*. Compare the Germ. *die-se-r*, the Greek *tou-to*, the French *ce-ci*, *ce-la*, and Latin *hi-c(e)*.

That (A. S. *thæt*, O. E. *thet*, *thit*) is the simple demonstrative. The final *t* is generally considered to be the neuter suffix ; but see § 234.

237. *The*, which is commonly called the *Definite Article*, is in reality the demonstrative pronoun. In modern English it has no distinctions of gender, number, or case.

In all the Indo-European languages in which the *Definite Article* is found, it is a form of the *Demonstrative*. In A. S. and O. E. it was declined like an adjective.

* Coleridge, Gloss. Index.

*Inflection of the in O. E.**Singular.*

	Masc.	Fem.	Neuter.
N.	the	theo or tho	thet or that
Ac.	then, thane	thun	thet or that
G.	this	thare or there	this.
D.	thon, than, then	thare or there	thou, than, then

Plural.

the, theo or tho.*

238. *Such*, meaning "like this," is sometimes a noun, "Mere strength of understanding would perhaps have made him *such* in any age" (*De Quincey*); and sometimes an adjective:

Such harmony is in immortal souls.—*Shakspeare*.

Such (A. S. *swi-lic*, O. E. *swi-lic*, *s-like*, *s-lyk*, *swi-ch*, *su-c*) is a compound of the demonstrative *so*, *this*, and *lic*, like. Compare the Latin *ta-li-*, and the Germ. *so-lich* = *so-lich*.

Thi-ik (A. S. *thy-lic*, O. E. *thi-ik*, *thu-ik*, *the-ik*, *thi-ke*), still found in provincial English, is a compound of the demonstrative *the* and *lic*, and so corresponds in meaning with *such*. In A. S. there was a form *this-lic*, and in O. E. we meet with the re-duplicated pronoun *this-thulke* (*Rob. Glouc.*).

239. *So* (A. S. *swa*, O. E. *sua*, *sa*), usually found as an adverb, is sometimes a demonstrative pronoun:

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

To. The word *to* in "to-day," "to-night," "to-morrow," O. E. "to-year," "to-morn," is another form of the Demonstrative.

240. *Same* (A. S. *sam*, connected with root *sam*, one) is frequently a Demonstrative. It is used both as an adjective and a noun, and is usually preceded by *the*, *this*, *that*, or *which*:

Mounts from her funeral pyre on wings of flame,
And shines and soars, another and *the same*.—*Darwin*.

* Coleridge, Gloss. Index.

Republican spirit can only be combated* by a spirit of *the same* nature.—*Burke*.

Ilk and *ilka* (A. S. *ylc*) are found in O. E. and L. Sc. with the meaning "same."

241. Another demonstrative pronoun is *yon*, *yond* (A. S. *geond*, O. E. *yund*), or *yonder*, meaning "that in the distance:"

Nor *yon* volcano's flaming fountains.—*Shelley*.

Yond Cassius hath a lean and hungry look.—*Shakspeare*.

Near *yonder* copse, where once the garden smiled.—*Goldsmith*.

They are also used as adverbs :

Him that *yon* soars on golden wing.—*Milton*.

Yond's that same knave.—*Shakspeare*.

I and the lad will go *yonder*.—*Eng. Bib.*

The adverb has two distinct meanings : (1) *To that place*, with verbs of motion, (2) *at that place*, with verbs of rest (Lat. *illo* and *illic*).

242. The following adverbs are formed from the demonstrative pronoun *he* or *the* :—

1. Simple.

he-re (A. S. *he-r*), dat., "at this place."

hi-ther (A. S. *hi-der*, O. E. *hi-der*, *he-ther*), "to this place." *He-re* with verbs of motion is a compression of *he-ther*, just as *on* is contracted from *other*, *where* from *whether*, &c.

hen-ce (A. S. *hen-an*, *heon-a*, O. E. *hen-en*, *henn-é*, *he-then*,* *henn-es*, *hen-s*), "from this place." In A. S. *-an* or *-on* is an adverbial suffix denoting *motion from*, as *north-an*, "from the north." Compare Norse *-than*, and Greek *-then*; *en-then*, Lat. *in-de*.

how (A. S. *hu*, O. E. *hoo*, *ho*, *howe*), ablative, "in this manner."

In O. E. this word is frequently demonstrative, meaning *so* :
More for eye than for love (mony mon serveth *howe*).—*Rob. Gl.*

the-re (A. S. *the-r*), dat., "at that place."

thi-ther (A. S. *thi-der*, O. E. *the-dir*, *thi-der*, *thu-der*), "to that place."

The-re with verbs of motion is a contraction of *the-der*.

then-ce (A. S. *than-on*, *than-one*, O. E. *than-ene*, *thenn-e*, *the-then*, *thenn-es*, *then-s*), "from that place." See remarks on "*hence*."

* "The Norse forms, *hethen*, *whethen*, and *thethen*, seem to have been known to the West Midland dialect as well as the Saxon forms, *hence*, *whence*, *thence*, &c."—Morris (Allit. Poems, p. xxxv.).

so)A. S. and O. E. *swa*), an ablative, "in this manner." Lat. *si-c. thus* (A. S. *thus*, O. E. *this*), "in this manner."

And while I stode *this* dark and pale.—*Chaucer*.

then (A. S. *thann-é*, O. E. *thann-é*, *thonn-é*, *thenn-é*, *tho*, *than*).
Dative, "at that time."

Full litle thought they *than*
That the mighty Pan
Was kindly come to live with them below.—*Milton*.

thy (A. S. *thy*, O. E. *thi*), ablat. is found only in the O. E. compound *for-ty*, "for that reason," therefore. Another form, *the*, is common in modern English before comparatives, "the more," "the less" &c.

2. Compound.

there-from	there-at	here-after
there-fro, O. E.	there-to	here-by
there-fore	there-after	here-unto
there-form, O. E.	there-about(s)	here-under
there-thro, O. E.	here-about(s)	here-in-after, O. E.
there-till, O. E.	here-from	here-in-before, O. E.
there-in	here-tofore	hither-ward
there-on	here-in	thither-ward
there-of	here-on	hence-forth
there-by	here-of	thence-forth
there-with	here-at	hence-forward
there-upon	here-upon	thence-forward

These compounds consist principally of the old case of the pronoun with the governing preposition suffixed.

INTERROGATIVES AND RELATIVES

243. The *Interrogative* pronoun is used in asking questions :

Who thundering comes on blackest steed,
With slackened bit and hoof of speed ?—*Byron*.

The *Relative* refers to some person or thing previously mentioned, or to be mentioned :

How blest is *he*, *who* crowns in shades like these
A youth of labour with an age of ease !—*Goldsmith*.

Who steals my purse, (he) steals trash.—*Shakspeare*.

244. The person or thing represented by the Relative is called the *Antecedent*, because it usually *precedes* the Relative.

The Relative is often used to connect sentences; it is then equivalent in meaning to a conjunction and a noun.

245. The Interrogative pronouns are *who, what, whether, which, who-ever, what-ever, which-ever*. The Relative pronouns are *who, what, which, who-ever, what-ever, which-ever, who-so, who-so-ever, what-so-ever, which-so-ever, that, as, and but* (negative).

246. In most languages the same root is employed for the interrogative and the relative. It appears in the Indo-European family with the following initial letters: *p, k, qu, t, d, wh, hw, h*.

247. *Who* (A. S. *hwa*, O. E. *hwo, hoo, ho*), nom., sing. and plur., masc. and fem., interrog. and rel. In the Anglian and early English writers this form of the pronoun is used only as an interrogative.* The relative is *that, that*. Even Ben Jonson does not recognise it as a relative; "*one relative, which*" (Eng. Gram.). In the authorized version of the Bible, the relative is occasionally *who*, but commonly *that*. In Old English writers it is sometimes incorrectly used as a neuter: "*sins who*" (Jer. Taylor); "*vainglories who*" (Sir T. Browne). It is never employed as an adjective.

Who-se (A. S. *hwæ-s*, O. E. *wa-s, who-s*), gen., sing. and plur., masc. fem. and (sometimes) neuter, interr. and rel. In Anglian and early English writers it is employed only as an interrogative, and is of all genders. In modern English its use as a neuter is properly limited to poetry:

With many a *shell* in *whose* hollow-wreathed chamber
We Peris of ocean by moonlight have slept.—*Moore*.

And even in poetry the inanimate objects are frequently personified.

Who-m (A. S. *hwá-m*, O. E. *hwa-m, wha-m, wa-m*), dat. and acc., sing. and plur., masc. and fem., interr. and rel. In A. S. this form is only interrogative and dative, of all genders. In O. E. it is very rarely relative, and then usually accompanied by the preposition *to*. It is generally masculine or feminine, but occasionally neuter: "*Good dysportes and honest gamys in whom a man joyeth without any repentance after*" (*Book of St. Albans*). In modern English it is also used as an accusative.

* Trans. Phil. Soc. 1860, p. 64. For a modification of this view see Hall, Off. and D. of Kyngis (note to l. 115), and Furnival, Phil. Soc. Trans. 1865.

The old accusative (A. S. *hwo-ne*, O. E. *hwa-n*, *who-n*, *wa-n*) is found in early English writers. *Whom* is never employed as an adjective.

248. *What* (A. S. *hwæt*, O. E. *wat*), interr. and relative. In A. S. it is only interrogative and singular, and is never employed as an adjective. In modern English it is (1) *Interrogative*: if used without a noun, it is singular and neuter; if the noun is expressed, it is of any gender and either number. (2) *Relative*: it is singular and neuter, and equivalent in meaning to *that which*: "*What* he bids be done is finished with the bidding" (*Shakspeare*), i. e. *that which* he bids, &c.

What—what is sometimes used elliptically to connect sentences: "But now in our memorie, *what* by decay of the haven, and *what* by overthrow of Religious Houses and losse of Calice, it is brought in manner to miserable nakednesse and decay."—*Lambert*.

It is frequently used elliptically to express indignation or surprise:

What / did Cæsar swoon?—Shakspeare.

Who is also an *indefinite* pronoun (see § 260).

249. *Whe-ther* (A. S. *hwæ-ther*, O. E. *whe-dyr*, *wer*), interrogative direct and indirect. It is the pronoun *who*, with the old comparative suffix *-ther*, and means "which of the two." Compare the Latin *u-tero* and the Greek *po-tero*. "Whether of them twain did the will of his father?" *Eng. Bib.* "In Moronio Pia or Moronio Felix—I know not *whether*—a fat prebend fell void."—*Burton*.

250. *Whi-ch* (A. S. *hwi-lic*, O. E. *hwi-lik*, *whi-lik*, *whu-lik*, *hwu-cche*, *wu-ch*); interrog. and rel. of any gender and either number. It is a compound of *hwa* and *lic*, "like what:" compare Latin *qua-li* and German *we-lch-er*. As an interrogative it differs slightly in meaning from *who*. "Who spoke?" asks the question generally and indefinitely. "Which spoke?" inquires for a particular individual among a definite number. As a relative, in modern English, it is limited to inanimate and irrational beings. It has no inflectional cases, and is used both as an adjective and a noun. *Which* is not used as a relative by *Wiclif* (1380), but frequently by *Tyndale* (1534); *which that* is a relative in *Chaucer*.

251. *Who-ever*, *what-ever*, *which-ever*, interrog. and relat. In the interrogative the suffix *-ever* marks emphatic surprise; "Who-ever can it be?" In the relative it emphatically includes *all*, no matter who.

Who-so, *who-so-ever*, *what-so-ever*, *which-so-ever*. These forms are all relative. In *who-so-ever*, *who* is declined; *whose-so-ever*, *whom-so-ever*. In O. E. the latter elements of the compound are frequently separated by intervening words: "of *what* kind *so ever* it may be." Compare

the Latin "*qui me cunque vidit.*" Wiclif does not use *whosoever*, but it frequently occurs in Tyndale.

252. *That* (A. S. *that*, O. E. *thet*, *thit*, *thut*). This word, originally a demonstrative, is the relative in A. S. and O. E. It is employed for all genders and both numbers. It is often used in O. E. (like *what*) as an equivalent for *that which*. "*That God loveth, thou shalt love*" (*Rob. Brunne*). The relative and demonstrative forms are frequently interchanged, and were probably identical in origin.

253. *As* (A. S. *al-swa*, O. E. *al-swa*, *al-s*). This word is a contraction of *al-so*; it is, however, occasionally found as a relative, generally when the antecedent is *same* or *such* :

Art thou afeard

To be *the same* in thine own act and valour

As thou art in desire?—*Shaks.*

Tears *such as* angels weep, burst forth.—*Milton.*

i. e. tears *like those which* angels weep.

But is frequently equivalent in meaning to a relative and a negative. Compare the Latin *quin* = *qui non*.

There is no vice so simple, *but* assumes

Some mark of virtue on its outward parts.—*Shakspeare.*

i. e. *which* does not assume, &c.

254. The *Adverbs* formed from the Interrogative and Relative pronoun are the following :

(1) *Simple.*

where (A. S. *hwæ-r*, O. E. *wha-re*), dat. fem. "*at what place.*"

whither (A. S. *hwæ-der*, O. E. *whi-der*, *who-der*, *wo-der*, *wo-ther*, *we-ther*), "*to what place.*" *Where*, with verbs of motion, is a compression of *whc-ther*. Cf. *there* = *the-der* (§ 242).

whence (A. S. *hwan-on*, O. E. *whon-cne*, *whan-cne*, *we-then*, *whann-es*, *whenn-es*), gen. "*from what place.*" See remarks on *hence* (§ 242).

when (A. S. *hwænn-e*, O. E. *hwann-é*, *hwenn-é*, *whann-é*, *whenn-é*, *hwan*, *whan*, *wan*, *wone*), dat. "*at what time.*"

why (A. S. *hwi*, O. E. *hwi*, *whi*, *wi*, *wy*, *wu*), ablat. "*for what reason.*" *

how (A. S. *hwu*, *hu*, O. E. *hou*, *wu*), ablat. "*in what manner.*"

whether (A. S. *hwæ-ther*, O. E. *we-dyr*, *wer*), "*which of the two.*"

* Ye habbeth iherd, as ich ow tolde,

For-why God the world maken wolde.—*Castle of Love*, 568.

(2) *Compound.*

where-ever	how-ever	whence-so-ever
when-ever	where-so-ever	how-so-ever
why-ever	when-so-ever	whither-so-ever

The following have the governing preposition suffixed :

where-at	where-in	where-unto
where-by	where-of	where-upon
where-fore	where-on	where-with
where-about(s)	where-to	where-with-al

Possessives.

255. *Possessive* pronouns are the genitive cases of the personal, demonstrative, interrogative, and relative pronouns, *I thou, he, who*, employed as adjectives.

'Twas *mine*, 'tis *his*.—*Shakspeare*.

They are—*my, mine, our, ours, thy, thine, your, yours his, her, its, their, theirs, whose*.

Reflective Pronouns.

256. A pronoun which represents the subject of the verb in any case but the nominative, is called *Reflective*, from the Latin *reflect-*, “bend back,” because the agent is supposed to *bend* the action *back* upon himself.

There is no such pronoun in A. S. or modern English. To express the fact that the agent is acting upon himself, the Personals and the Demonstratives, *him, her, it, them*, were employed in O. E., and are sometimes so used by modern writers :

I thought *me* richer than the Persian king.—*Ben Jonson*.

They were commanded to make *them* ready.—*J. Fox*.

Right as a serpent hideth *him* under flowers.—*Chaucer*.

He sat *him* down at a pillar's base.—*Byron*.

A more emphatic mode of expressing the reflective idea is to subjoin the word *self* to these pronouns. “Thou hast

undone *thy-self*" (*Shakspere*); "Bid him arm *him-self*" (*id.*); "You wronged *your-self* to write in such a cause" (*id.*).

257. *Self* (A. S. *self*, *sylf*, O. E. *sylf*, *sulf*, *selve*, *sull*, *seln*, *sell*). This word in A. S. is an adjective, like the Latin *ipso*- and the Greek *auto*-, and agrees in gender, number, and case, with the pronoun it emphasises: *me sylf-ne*, acc. (myself); *me sylf-um*, dat. (myself); *us sylf-e*, acc. and dat. (ourselves). These emphatic forms were sometimes viewed as compounds, and employed without altering the pronoun, to strengthen the nominative: *Ic me-sylf*, "I myself;" *thu the-sylf*, "thou thyself;" but we also find *ic sylf*, *thu sylf*, *we sylfe*, &c. In early English *me-sylf* and *the-sylf*, ("Bread that *thou est the-sulf*" *Rob. Gl.*), were often written *mi-sylf* or *my-sylf*, and *thi-sylf* or *thy-sylf*, and these apparent genitives originated the false plurals *our-selves* for O. E. *us-selven*, or *us-self*, "We sle nat *us-self*" (*Rob. Br.*), and *your-selves* for O. E. *yow-selven*, or *yow-self*. "Ye begyle *yow-self*, and nat me" (*id.*). In O. E. we find even *his-self* and *their-selves*: "Every of us, each for *hisself*, laboured how to recover him" (*Sidncy*). "That they would willingly and of *theirselves* endeavour to keep a perpetual chastity." In *herself*, *her* is the dative; and *it-self* is no contraction from *its-self*. In O. E. the plural suffix *-e* was either lost (*us-self*), or changed to *-en* (*us-selv-en*).

In later times *self* is sometimes a noun: "Swear by thy gracious *self*" (*Shakspere*); and sometimes an adjective: "Being over full of *self* affairs, my mind did lose it" (*id.*). "In the *sulf* yere" (*Rob. Glouc.*).

To express the adjectival Reflective (Lat. *suo*-), we use the word *own* (A. S. *agen*, O. E. *owé*, *awen*) with the genitive of the pronoun. "Virtue is *its own* reward" (*Home*).

Reciprocal Pronouns.

258. Reciprocity of feeling or action is expressed by the combination *each other*, *one another*.

Did we but love *each other* as this poor soul loved his ass, it would be something.—*Sterne*.

Little children, love *one another*.—*Eng. Bib.*

In these phrases *each* and *one* are nominatives—subjects of the verb; *other* and *another* are accusatives—objects of the verb: "love each other" = "each love the other."

Each other refers to two, *one another* to any number above two.

In such expressions as “*after each other*,” “*to one another*,” &c., the place of the preposition has been disturbed. In O. E. we find “*one to another*,” and “*each after other*.”

A thousand sighes hotter than the glede
Out of his breast *each after other* went.—*Chaucer*.

Indefinite Pronouns.

259. An Indefinite Pronoun represents a noun without specifying any individual. Thus *any* means *one* of a certain number, but *which* among the number is not stated.

The following are Indefinite pronouns: *who*, *any*, *whit*, *aught*, *naught*, *other*, *one*, *some*.

260. *Who*, in addition to its use as an Interrogative or Relative, is sometimes Indefinite. “*As who seith*” (*Chaucer*), *i. e.* “*as one may say*.”

Than preyede the riche man Abraham
That he wolde send Lazare or sum other *wham*.—*Rob. Brunne*.
Hit oghte be told to every *wham*.—*Id.*

Similarly we find *some-who* (*Gower*) = “*some one*,” *some-what*, O. E. *nigh-what*, and *any-what*.

The adverbs from the Indefinite *who* are *some-where*, *some-how*, *no-where*, *no-how*, *any-where*, *any-how*, *else-where*, O. F. *no-whither*, *some-when*.

261. *An-y* (A. S. *æn-ig*, O. E. *an-ie*, *en-y*, *en-i*, *on-y*, *on-i*). This is the numeral *one*, and a diminutive suffix *-ig* or *-y*. Compare the Latin *ullo-*, diminutive of *uno-*. It is employed both as an adjective and a noun. With singular nouns it often implies *quantity*; with plural nouns it always refers to *number*. It has three distinct meanings: (1) with words of negation or limitation it *excludes all* (Lat. *ullus*): “It is not alleged that, to gratify any anger or revenge of my own, I have had a share in wronging or oppressing *any* description of men, or *any one man* of *any* description” (*Burke*). (2) It means *any whatever*, *any you please* (Lat. *quivis*). “Mere strength of understanding would, perhaps, have made him such in *any* age” (*De Quincey*). (3) It means *any indefinitely* (*quis*). “Who is here so base that would be a bond-man? If *any*, speak” (*Shakspeare*)

262. *Aught* (A. S. *a-wiht*, *ah*t, O. E. *oght*, L. Sc. *ocht*). The A. S. *wiht* (Ger. *wicht*) is the English *whit* and *wight*, "thing" or "person," and *a-wiht* seems to mean "any thing."

Woe, woe for England! not a *whit* for me.—*Shakspeare*.

Perhaps a *whit* in such phrases should be written *awhit*, although *whit* is also found without *a*.

Our youth and wildness shall no *whit* appear.—*Id.*

N-aught (A. S. *n-ah*t, O. E. *nawighte*, *nat*, *noght*) is the negative *ne* and *aught*, "not anything."

The adverb *not* (A. S. *nate*, O. E. *nat*, *nought*) is a compound of *ne* and *wiht*. Compare Germ. *n-i:ht* = *ne-wicht*.

263. *O-ther* (A. S. *a-ther*, O. E. *o-der*). This is probably the numeral *one* and the suffix *-ther*. See the Germ. *an-der* and *o-der*. It is used both as a noun and an adjective. The noun has a genitive singular, *other's* (O. E. *other-es*), and a plural *others* (O. E. *other-es*, *other-ē*). In O. E. this plural suffix is often lost.

Other there be whose lives do linger still in pain.—*Surrey*.

With *the* it was used in A. S. and O. E. for the ordinal numeral "second," and a contracted form is not uncommon in our earlier writers.

The *tane** couth to the *tother* complain.—*Dunbar*.

When *an* precedes, the two are united: *another*.

264. *One* (A. S. *man*, O. E. *mon*). See § 201.

Some (A. S. and O. E. *sum*, *som*) is sometimes a noun and sometimes an adjective: "Some fell by the wayside." "Some natural tears they dropt" (*Milton*). In the singular, when employed as a noun, it usually implies quantity: "Some of his skill he taught to me" (*Scott*); in the plural, number: "Some wish to be rich, for whom it were better a great deal to be poor" (*Ascham*); but in O. E. the singular not unfrequently represents a single person: "Some asks mair than he deserves" (*Dunbar*). "Some all his days drives o'er in vain."—*Id.*

Other-some. This compound occurs not unfrequently in O. E.:

How happy some o'er other-some can be!—*Shakspeare*.

Distributive Pronouns.

265. A Distributive pronoun represents a noun, and at the same time specifies *more than one* individual of the class.

* *The tane* = thet ane, and *the tother* = thet other.

Thus *each* means *every* individual of a certain class viewed *separately*.

Each circling wheel a wreath of flowers entwines.—*Darwin*.

The Distributive pronouns are *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*.

266. *Each* (A.S. *æ-ic*, O. E. *i-ik*, *i-ika*, *y-che*, *e-ch*) is a compound of *æ*, probably meaning "one," and *lic*, "like." The *ik* has become *ch*. Compare *whi-ik* and *whi-ch*, *swi-ik* and *su-ch*, *mikel* and *much*. It is used either as an adjective or a noun :

Each had his place appointed, *each* his course.—*Milton*.

Each ivied arch and pillar lone
Pleads haughtily for glories gone.—*Byron*.

Every (O. E. *ever-ilk*, *ever-ich*, *ever-ech*, *ever-ic*), a compound of *ever* and *ilk*. While *each* refers to individuals considered *separately* (*quisque*), its compound *every* refers to individuals considered *collectively* (*omnis*), "each and all:" "A storm of universal fire blasted *every* field, consumed *every* house, destroyed *every* temple" (*Burke*).

In modern English it is used only as an adjective, and on that ground has been excluded by some writers from the class of pronouns ; but in O. E. it is frequently employed as a noun :

And *everich* had a chaplet on her head.—*Chaucer*.

267. *Either* (A. S. *æghwæ-ther*, *æg-ther*, *æg-ther*, *æ-ther*, *a-ther*, O. E. *ai-ther*, *ei-the*, *eith*, *o-ther*). The A. S. *æg-hwa*, "whoever," "everyone," is compounded of *æg* (Germ. *ewig*), "ever," and *hwa*, "who," and the suffix *-ther* means "of two." Hence *either*, a compression of *æg-hwæ-ther*, means "whichever of the two you please." It is sometimes a noun, and sometimes an adjective.

But never *either* found another
To free the hollow heart from paining.—*Coleridge*.

Sometimes it has the meaning of "both."

On *either* side
Is level fen, a prospect wild and wide,
With dike on *either* hand.—*Crabbe*.

Wiclif uses the compound *ever-either* = both.

Neither (A. S. *náther*, O. E. *nother*) is *either* with the negative prefix *næ*. It is sometimes a noun, and sometimes an adjective.

268. *Table of simple Pronominal Adverbs.*

<i>Pronouns.</i>	<i>Place where.</i>	<i>Motion to.</i>	<i>Motion from.</i>	<i>Time when.</i>	<i>Manner.</i>	<i>Cause.</i>
whe-	whe-re	whi-ther or where	when-ce	when	how	wh-y
the-	the-re	thi-ther or there	then-ce	then	thus	the for-thy O. E.
he-	he-re	hi-ther or here	hen-ce	—	so how O. E.	—

For the Compound Adverbs see sections 251, 256.

 VERBS.

269. *Verb* is the grammatical term for an *action*, i.e. *doing* something; as *run, stand, write, see, think*.

270. An *action* does not necessarily imply *motion*. It may, or may not, be accompanied by *movement*. *Run, strike, walk*, imply change of position, i.e. *motion*; *stand, sit, hear, live*, imply no change of position. All of these are *actions*: i.e. they show that the agent is *doing* something.

271. The source of an action, i.e. the person or thing from which the action proceeds, is called the *subject* of the verb:

An Indian maid rushed from a thicket behind him.—Steele.

*The merry lark has poured
His early song against yon breezy sky.—Keats.*

272. The actions of animate beings are figuratively ascribed to inanimate objects:

The *smoke goes* dancing from the cottage trees.—*L. Hunt.*

The last few *leaves came* fluttering from the trees.—*Id.*

The wild *cataract leaps* in glory.—*Tennyson.*

Hence abstract nouns, simple or compound, are employed as the subjects of verbs :

Experience and *sensation* in vain *persuade* ; *hope*, more powerful than either, *dresses out* the distant prospect in fancied beauty.—*Goldsmith.*

To fly was impossible.—*Prescott.*

[To astonish as well as to sway by his energies] became the great end of his life.—*Channing.*

273. The person or thing towards which the action is directed is called the *object* of the verb :

I shot *the albatross*.—*Coleridge.*

I'll smoothly steer *my little boat*.—*Keats.*

And his hand forbore [to smite the ore].—*Mackay.*

I thought [ten thousand swords must have leapt from their scabbards to avenge even a look that threatened her with insult].—*Burke.*

274. When the action is directed towards some specified object, the verb is termed *transitive* ; when the action affects the *agent* only, the verb has no object and is called *intransitive* or *neuter*, or, more correctly, *reflective* :

The sea-bird *rises*, as the billows *rise*.—*Landor.*

He *watched* and *wept*, he *prayed* and *felt* for all.—*Goldsmith.*

275. Intransitive verbs are frequently employed as transitive :

Where *heaves* the turf in many a mouldering heap.—*Gray.*

I cannot *heave my heart* into my mouth.—*Shakspeare.*

Nay, you must not *freeze*.—*Id.*

Chill penury repressed their noble rage

And *froze the genial current* of the soul.—*Gray.*

276. When the source of the action is not known, the verb, if active, is said to be *impersonal*. There are no such verbs in English.* In *me-seems* and *me-thinks*, *i. e.* "it appears to me," the subject is expressed in the words that follow or precede the verb :

Methinks [the lady doth protest too much].—*Shakspeare*.

[There is no place in paradise

So good in for to dwell or be

As in that garden], thoughté me.—*Chaucer*.

In such phrases as "it rains," "it snows," the source of the action was unknown ; but, as the subject in English is usually expressed, the unknown noun was represented by the neuter pronoun *it*. Verbs so used are frequently called *unipersonal*, because they are always of the third person singular.

277. When the object of a transitive verb is the same person or thing as the subject, the verb is called *reflective* :

Thou hast undone *thyself*.—*Shakspeare*.

He threw *himself*, tired and breathless, on a little hillock.—*Steele*.

Languages which possess a reflective pronoun (§ 256) usually have a separate form for the reflective verb. It consists of the active verb with the reflective pronoun suffixed. As there is no such pronoun in English, there is no special form for verbs of this nature. The expedients employed to express the action of the agent upon itself are described in § 256.

278. It is sometimes inconvenient, or impossible, to specify the agent or source of the action. For example, a bird is found killed. It is evident that the action (*kill*) has been performed ; but the agent is unknown. In such cases it was usual to ascribe the action to the object itself, and to say, "*the bird* has killed itself." Compare the French *s'appeller*, "to be called."

Languages which possess a reflective form of the verb employ it for this purpose : but, in English, where no such form exists, we express our ignorance of the real agent by employing the verb *be* and the perfect participle: "the bird *is killed*;" *i. e.* "the bird is an object deprived of life."

* Verba Impersonalia proprie non habemus ; sed quæ Latini Impersonaliter efferunt, nos efferimus personaliter, præfixa voce nominativa *it*.—*Wallis*, c. xii.

279. When the subject of the verb is the actual agent, the verb is called *active*: “*I shot the albatross.*”

When the object of the verb is for convenience assumed to be the agent, the verb is called *passive*: “the albatross was shot.”

An active verb is said to be of the active *voice*; a passive verb, of the passive *voice*.

280. As passive verbs have grown out of reflectives, and reflectives have no special form in English, there can be no special form for the passive. They are expressed by a combination of the verb *be* and the perfect participle.

The perfect participle formed by inflection is *passive*, if the verb from which it is formed is *transitive*; but we sometimes find participles so formed from *intransitive* verbs, as *come*, *arrived*, &c. In such cases the combination with *be* produces, not a passive, but a reflective verb: “he is come,” “they are arrived.” Some writers would alter these into “he *has* come,” “they *have* arrived.” This alteration is both inaccurate and unnecessary.

281. As the subject of the passive was once the object of an active verb, passives can be formed only from transitives.

Mood.

282. *Mood* (from the Latin *modus*, mode or manner) is a grammatical term, signifying the *manner* of expressing an action, *i. e.* the way in which we speak of it.

283. In simply stating a fact or asking a question, we employ the *Indicative* mood, so called from a Latin word meaning to “declare” or “assert.”

Then *came* wand'ring by
A shadow like an angel, with bright hair
Dabbled in blood, and he *shrieked* out aloud—
Clarence *is come*, false, fleeting, perjured Clarence
That *stabbed* me in the field by Tewkesbury.
Shakspeare.

Who *bade* the sun
Clothe you with rainbows? Who with living flowers
Of loveliest hue *spread* garlands at your feet?

Coleridge.

284. When we command or advise an action to be performed, we use the *Imperative* mood, or manner of speaking :

Rear up his body; wring him by the nose.—Shakspeare.

Thou *shalt love* thy neighbour as thyself.—*English Bible.*

285. When we speak of an action as dependent upon another action, we employ the *Subjunctive* mood, or *subjoined* manner of expressing the proposition. Thus, “*It was so*” is Indicative—the statement of a fact :

If it *were so*, it is a grievous fault (*Shakspeare*),

is Subjunctive—the statement of a *possible* fact: it implies that the speaker disbelieves the statement, or is uncertain whether it is true or false.

286. When an action is mentioned without reference to the *agent* or to the *time*, we use the *Infinitive* mood :

To die—to sleep—perchance to dream.—Shakspeare.

The *Infinitive* mood is properly a verbal noun, and as such can form either the subject or the object of a verb. “*To play* delights the child ;” “the child likes *to play*.”

It differs, however, from an ordinary noun in the following particulars :

- (a) It is capable of showing whether the action is *complete*, *incomplete*, *intended*, &c. (§ 296.)
- (b) If the verb from which it is derived is active and transitive, it takes an object marking the direction of the action: “I love *to hear* the honest watch-dog’s bark.”—*Byron*.
- (c) It is used in the singular number only, as being an abstract noun.

In some languages this verbal noun is declined, and even in English we occasionally find it governed by a preposition :

And sculptures that can keep them *from to die*.—*B. Jonson*.

287. In A. S., and in most inflected languages, the Infinitive is formed by a suffix. Thus, A. S. *gang* (go); Infin. *gang-an* (Germ. *geh-en*). In semi-Saxon and O. E. *-an* became *-en*, *gang-en*; in later English *n* was lost, *gang-e*, as in old Fris. *help-a* (to help), and Old Norse *far-a* (to fare or go); and in modern English the suffix disappeared.

To is not found in A. S. before the Nom. and Acc. of the Infinitive, and even in modern English it is not inserted after the following verbs: *may, can, shall, will, dare, let, bid, make, must, see, hear, feel, do, need, and have*. The cause of its later appearance may be thus explained. In A. S. the Infinitive was declined as follows :

N. and Ac. *writ-an*, to write.

Dat. *to writ-ann-e*, for writing.

This Dative is usually called the *Gerund*, and the term Infinitive is limited to the Nom. and Accus. When, in later times, the inflectional endings were lost, the origin of the separate forms *write* and *to write* was forgotten, and the preposition was inaccurately applied to *all* cases of the Infinitive. This confusion is first observed in semi-Anglian writers, when the occasional omission of the Dative suffix *-e* effaced the distinction of case. The Dat. *to writ-ann-e*, by the omission of the case-ending, appears as *to writ-an*, and the Nom. and Accus. *writ-an*, in consequence of this accidental resemblance, improperly received the preposition *to*.

In O. E. we sometimes find *at* instead of *to* before the Infinitive; "That es *at say*," *i. e.* "that is *to say*." This is a Norse form, and is due to the Scandinavian conquerors of England.

The Nom. and Acc. *writ-an* afterwards assumed the forms *writ-en*, *writ-in*, and finally, *writ-ing*;* and this form of the Infinitive is also known to modern grammarians as the *Gerund*. Hence the identity of meaning in *writing* and *to write*.

Declension of the Infinitive Indefinite.

N. and Ac. (*to*) write, writing.

Dat. *to write*.

* The existence of a class of abstract nouns in *-ing* (A. S. *ung*) doubtless facilitated the change from *-in* to *-ing*. A similar change may be seen in the formation of the Imp. Part. See § 322. The term *gerund*, an unmeaning word borrowed from the classical grammarians, might be advantageously excluded from the grammar of the English language.

Tense

288. *Tense*, from the Latin *tempus*, "time," means the *time* when an action is performed.

As every action must take place at one of the three divisions of time, the Present, the Past, or the Future, there are naturally three Tenses—the *Present Tense*, the *Past Tense*, and the *Future Tense*.

289. It is possible to speak of an action at any time as *unfinished*. Thus, "*I am writing now*" (Present); "*I was writing at one o'clock yesterday*" (Past); "*I shall be writing at one o'clock to-morrow*" (Future).

An unfinished action is said to be *Imperfect*, from a Latin word meaning "unfinished."

290. It is possible to speak of an action at any time as *finished*: "*I have written my letter now*" (Present); "*I had written my letter at one o'clock yesterday*" (Past); "*I shall have written my letter at one o'clock to-morrow*" (Future).

A finished action is said to be *Perfect*, from a Latin word meaning "finished."

291. An action may be mentioned in an *indefinite* manner as simply Present, Past, or Future, without specifying any conditions: "*I write*" (Present); "*I wrote*" (Past); "*I shall write*" (Future).

292. We may intimate at any time our *intention* to perform a certain action: "*I am going to write*" (Present); "*I was going to write*" (Past); "*I shall be going to write*" (Future).

293. The Indefinites (with the exceptions mentioned in §§ 297, 298) strictly refer to a *point* of time and to a *single* act; the Imperfects are in their nature *continuous*. The Imperfects are relatively *present*; the Perfects are relatively *past*; the Intentionals are relatively *future*.

294. The Perfect and the Intentional have each in the active voice a second form, to show that the action has *lasted* for a certain time, or been *continuous* up to the time specified in the tense. Thus, "*I have been writing for the last three hours*" (Present Perfect Continuous); "*I have been going to write to him for the last month*" (Present Inten

tional Continuous); "*I had been writing*" (Past Perfect Continuous); "*I had been going to write*" (Past Intentional Continuous); "*I shall have been writing*" (Future Perfect Continuous); "*I shall have been going to write*" (Future Intentional Continuous).

295. To these some writers would add the forms "*I do write*," "*I did write*," "*I shall write*." These, however, seem to be merely expedients for emphasizing the Indefinite tenses.

296. An action, then, may be mentioned in six different ways in each of the three divisions of time :

<i>Past.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Future.</i>
1. Indefinite.	Indefinite.	Indefinite.
2. Imperfect.	Imperfect.	Imperfect.
3. Perfect.	Perfect.	Perfect.
4. Intentional.	Intentional.	Intentional.

Continuous Forms.

5. Perfect.	Perfect.	Perfect.
6. Intentional.	Intentional.	Intentional.

Examples.

	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Future.</i>
1. Ind.	<i>I wrote.</i>	<i>I write.</i>	<i>I shall write.</i>
2. Imp.	<i>I was writing.</i>	<i>I am writing.</i>	<i>I shall be writing.</i>
3. Perf.	<i>I had written.</i>	<i>I have written.</i>	<i>I shall have written.</i>
4. Int.	<i>I was going to write.</i>	<i>I am going to write.</i>	<i>I shall be going to write.</i>

Continuous Forms.

5. Perf.	<i>I had been writing.</i>	<i>I have been writing.</i>	<i>I shall have been writing.</i>
6. Int.	<i>I had been going to write.</i>	<i>I have been going to write.</i>	<i>I shall have been going to write.</i>

Although, correctly speaking, there are but *three* tenses, each of the above subdivisions is commonly, but inaccurately, termed a tense.

297. It should be remarked, that in modern English the *Present Indefinite* has *nine* distinct significations :

- (1) It expresses a *single* act at the present time.

This, from its nature, is rarely found except in dramatic writing. It is illustrated in the following passage from *Ivanhoe*, where Rebecca reports to the sick knight what she is witnessing :—*

“He blenches not, he blenches not! I see him now: he leads a body of men close under the outer barrier of the barbican. They pull down the piles and palisade; they hew down the barrier with axes. His high black plume floats abroad over the throng, like a raven over the field of the slain. They have made a breach in the barriers—they rush in—they are thrust back. Front de Bœuf heads the defenders, I see his gigantic form above the press. They throng again to the breach, and the pass is disputed hand to hand, and man to man. God of Jacob! it is the meeting of two fierce tides—the conflict of two oceans moved by adverse winds.”

- (2) It is employed by writers of animated narrative to describe *past* events, and is then called the *Historic Present*.

Soon is the court convened; the jewelled crown
Shines on a menial's head: amid the throng
The monarch stands, and anxious for the event
His heart beats high.—*Southey*.

- 3) It is used as a *Future Indefinite* :

Duncan comes here to-night.—*Shakspeare*.

This is a remnant of the old language. In Anglo-Saxon, and in all the languages of the Teutonic stock, there is no separate form for the Future. The Present Indefinite is used with a future signification.

- (4) It is employed as a *Future Perfect* :

For till thou *speak*, thou shalt not pass from hence
(*Shakspeare*); *i.e.* till thou shalt have spoken.

* Prof. Key. Lat. Gram. § 449, and note.

- (5) It expresses a
- universal truth*
- :

The sports of children *satisfy* the child.—*Goldsmith*.

Love *is* strong as death ; jealousy *is* cruel as the grave.—
Eng. Bib.

- (6) A
- repeated act*
- :

And in this state she *gallops* night by night
Through lovers' brains, and then they dream of love.—
Shakspeare.

- (7) An
- habitual state*
- :

Let the gods so speed me, as I *love*
The name of honour more than I *fear* death.—*Id.*

- (8) A
- permanent condition*
- :

The mountains *look* on Marathon,
And Marathon *looks* on the sea.—*Byron.*

- (9) It expresses the possession of some faculty :

My wife *sings, plays, and dances* well.—*Shakspeare.*

298. The Past Indefinite also has *five* distinct significations :

- (1) It expresses a
- single act*
- in past time :

I *found* her in her chamber, reading Plato's "Phædo" in
Greek.—*Ascham.*

- (2) A
- repeated act*
- :

And a good south wind sprung up behind ;
The albatross did follow,
And every day, for food or play,
Came to the mariner's hollo.—*Coleridge.*

- (3)
- Habitual state*
- :

During his exile he *delivered* himself so entirely to his pleasures, that he became incapable of application.—*Burnet.*

- (4)
- Permanent condition*
- :

A garden

Girded it round with a belt of luxuriant blossoms.—
Longfellow.

- (5) Possession of some faculty :

He *wrote* better than any of those whom he employed.—
Mahon.

299. The tenses given in § 296 represent the *Indicative* mood of an active verb.

The Imperative mood contains two tenses only, the Present and the Future.

<i>Present.</i>		<i>Future.</i>
Sin. 2d pers. <i>Write.</i>		Sin. 2d pers. <i>Thou shalt write.</i>
Plu. 2d „ <i>Write.</i>		„ 3d „ <i>He shall write.</i>
		Plu. 2d pers. <i>Ye or you shall write.</i>
		„ 3d „ <i>They shall write.</i>

300. From the nature of this mood there can be no *past* tense, nor can the action be mentioned as *finished* or perfect.

As the speaker does not command himself, there is no first person.

In the Present tense there can be no third person, because the order is given only to the *person addressed*. In the Future tense the time allows the order to be communicated to others.

The Present Imperative is, correctly speaking, an *immediate Future*. It is sometimes *indefinite*, marking a single act :

Strike, as thou didst at Cæsar.—Shakspeare.

And sometimes it indicates a continuous or permanent state :

Fret, till your proud heart break.—Shakspeare.

Honour thy father and thy mother.—Eng. Bib.

The Future exhibits the same variations of meaning :

Single act : *Thou shalt make two cherubims of gold.—Id.*

Continuous : *Thou shalt not afflict any widow or fatherless child.—Id.*

301. The tenses of the Subjunctive mood are generally expressed either by the same forms as those used in the Indicative, or by means of certain irregular verbs.

302. In the mother tongue a difference of form distinguished the Subjunctive from the Indicative. Traces of this distinction are still visible in the modern language. As in A. S., the personal suffixes are rejected : *I hear, thou hear-est, he hear-s* (Indicative) ; *I hear, thou hear, he hear* (Subjunctive).

The final *e* in “*I wer-e*” is a true Subjunctive suffix.

Be in A. S. is not the Subjunctive of *am*.

303. The modifications of the Infinitive (active) are :

1. Indefinite. [to] *write.*
2. Imperfect. [to] *be writing.*

3. Perfect. [to] *have written.*
 4. Intentional. [to] *be going to write.*

Continuous Forms.

5. Perfect. [to] *have been writing.*
 6. Intentional. [to] *have been going to write.*

The Infinitive being a *noun* (§ 286) is incapable of expressing the *time* when the action takes place, and is therefore destitute of *tense*. The above modifications of this verbal noun are commonly, but incorrectly, termed the Tenses of the Infinitive. Each may be employed in connexion with the Present, Past, or Future, according to the time of the principal verb.

304. The tenses of the English verb are formed (1) by inflection ; (2) by the combination of an auxiliary verb (*be, have, shall, will, go*) with a participle, or with the Infin. Indef.

The Past Indefinite (active) is the only tense formed by inflection. In the active voice the Imperfect and Intentional tenses are formed by the verb *be* ; the Perfect tenses by the verb *have* ; and the Future tenses by *shall* or *will*.

The English verb is destitute of a Perfect Participle *Active*. Hence the regular formation of the Perfect tenses was impossible. To remedy this defect, we employ the verb *have*, and the Passive Participle qualifying the object of the verb ; e.g. *I have written a letter = I have a letter written* (Habeo epistolam scriptam) ; *I have ascertained this = I have this ascertained* (Id compertum habeo).

305. Verbs in modern languages are classed according to the formation of their inflected tenses, and each class is called a *conjugation*. As there are two modes of forming the only inflected tense in English, there are two conjugations of English verbs. The Past Indefinite (active) is formed,

- (1) by modifying the root-vowel, *write, wrote* ;
 (2) by the addition of *t, d, or -ed, reap-t, swell-'d, end-ed*.

Verbs of the first class are said to be of the *strong* conjugation ; of the second class, of the *weak* conjugation.

306. The modification of the root-vowel is probably due to a reduplication which is now lost. The initial consonant was repeated with a connecting vowel, as in Latin *can-* "sing," *ce-cin-* "sang," and the two syllables were afterwards contracted: *fac-*, do; *fē-fic-* or *fēc-*, di-d. A solitary example of this process exists in modern English in the verb *do*, *di-d*. (Compare Latin *da-* "give," *de-d-* "gave.") *Q. Hight. / hāhat. / hāte*

307. Occasionally two forms of the modified vowel co-exist, as *sang* and *sung*. In A. S. the first and third persons singular had *a*, the rest *u*. In modern English this distinction is not observed.

308. In the weak conjugation the suffix of the Past Indefinite in A. S. is *-ode*, *-de*, or *-te*. In O. E. it is *-ode*, *-ude*, *-ede*, *-id*, *-de*, *-te*: *asc-ode*, ask-ed; *clep-ude*, called; *lok-ede*, looked; *ask-id*, asked; *ley-de*, laid; *bogh-te*, bought. This suffix is said to be identical with *did*, the Past Indefinite of *do*.*

309. The formation of this tense, in modern English, is guided by the same principles that regulate the formation of the plural of nouns. (§ 104.)

- (1) When the verb ends in a sharp mute, *t* is added: *clip*, *clip-t*; *reap*, *reap-t*: *look*, *look-t*; *laugh*, *laugh-t*. This is usually written *-ed*.
- (2) When the verb ends in a flat mute, a liquid or a vowel, *d* is added: *rub*, *rubb-d*; *fill*, *fill-d*; *flow*, *flow-d*. This is usually written *-ed*.
- (3) In verbs ending in *t* or *d*, the original vowel is retained: *part*, *part-ed*; *mend*, *mend-ed*.

A few verbs ending in a liquid exhibit the peculiarity of two forms for this tense: one regular and obsolete, by adding *d*; the other irregular and current, by adding *t*.

dwell, dwel-t, O. E. dwelled.	spell, spel-t, O. E. spell-ed.
learn, learn-t, O. E. learn-ed.	spill, spil-t, O. E. spill-ed.
smell, smel-t, O. E. smell-ed.	spoil, spoil-t, O. E. spoil-ed.

310. The following variations occur:

- (a) Some verbs in *t* have no suffix: as *cut*, *put*, *beat*, *slit*, &c.
These verbs were originally of the strong conjugation.
- (b) Some verbs in *d* have no suffix, and change the *d* into *t*: *lend*, *lent*; *send*, *sent*, &c.

* Max Müll. Lectures, pp. 219, 220.

D of P.P. = Jan. 'tis. Gr. Tos (1886.001) Lat. 'tis. Badenbump.

- (c) In some verbs the root-vowel is modified, and *t* or *d* added: *will, woul-d*; *shall, shoul-d*; *sleep, slep-t*; *tell, told, &c.*
- (d) In some the root-vowel and the final consonant are modified, and the suffix *t* is added: *seek, sough-t*; *beseech, besough-t*; *teach, taugh-t*; *catch, caught-t*; *bring, brough-t*; *buy, bough-t*; *work, wrough-t*; *owe, ough-t*; *may, migh-t.*

These verbs originally ended in a guttural, which is represented by the *gh*.

311. The irregular forms *could, made, had,* are explained in §§ 368, 371, 360.

Number.

312. In many languages certain suffixes are added to verbs, to distinguish the singular from the plural. In the modern English verb there is generally no distinction of number.

In A. S. the plural suffix of the Present Indefinite (Indicative) was *-ath*. This appears in O. E. as *-eth, -uth, -yth, -ieth, -th*, and by substituting a sibilant for the asperate, *-s*: *stond-eth, clep-uth, need-yth, lov-ieth, do-th*. The plural in *s* is said to be found in Shakspeare:

Where oxlips and the nodding violet *grow-s*.

Those springs

On chalice flowers that *lies*.

313. This form yielded gradually to that employed in A. S. in the Past Indefinite (Indicative), and in the Subjunctive, viz., *-on*, O. E. *-en, -é*; *tell-en, saw-é*. The reason for selecting this suffix for the general plural was, probably, the identity of form in *-ath* and the third singular person ending. It was commonly in use down to the sixteenth century, when all indication of a plural form disappeared. Ben Jonson, with some reason, regretted the change. "In former times," he writes, "till aboute the reign of Henry the Eighth, they were wont to be formed by adding *-en*, but now, whatsoever the cause, it hath quite growne out of use. Albeit (to tell you my opinion) I am persuaded that the lacke hereof well considered will be found a great blemish to our tongue." (*Eng. Gram.* c. 16.)

The final *e* in *ar-e* and *wer-e* (Ind.) is the only remnant of this suffix in the modern language. See § 359.

In Trevisa (1385) all the plurals of the Present Indefinite terminate in *-eth*; Chaucer and Mandeville, his contemporaries, almost invariably employ *-en*. This suffix first disappeared in the Past Indefinite. We

find it occasionally in that tense in Chaucer: "Lette us shewe our fantasies in such wordes as we *lerved-en* of our dames tonge."*

Person.

314. *Person-endings* are found only in the singular number of the Present and Past Indefinite.

They were probably early forms of the pronouns *I*, *thou*, and *this*.

315. The suffix of the first person singular was once *-om*. The only example in English is seen in *am* (A. S. *e-om*, Lat. *s-um*).

The suffix of the second person singular is *-est*, *-st*, or *-t* (A. S. *-ast*, *-st*, *-t*); *bring-est*, *can-st*, *wil-t*. In *ar-t*, *was-t*, *shal-t*, *wil-t*, the *s* is lost. In the Present Imperative the suffix disappears: *bring*.

In A. S. and O. E. we find a suffix for the second person singular and plural of the Present Imperative: singular, *-e* (A. S. *-a*, or *-e*); plural *-eth*, *-th*, *-s* (A. S. *-ath*, *-th*).

Go, *thank-é* now my lady here.—Chaucer.

Honour-eth hir and *lov-eth* hir.—*Id.*

Go-th now and *do-th* my lordes hest.—*Id.*

Spare-s hem nought, and *behead-eth* these.—

Rom. Rich. C. de Lion.

The suffix *-eth*, though treated by some as a personal ending, is more probably the old plural termination.

316. The suffix of the third person singular in A. S. was *-ath* or *-th*; in O. E. *-eth* or *-th*: *bring-eth*, *do-th*. In modern English *eth* becomes *es*, and the vowel is lost except when the verb ends in a sibilant.

317. As these suffixes are identical in form with those of the ordinary plural and genitive of nouns, the same principles regulate their application (§§ 104, 140).

* "The Ormulum is the earliest printed English work which has come down to us that exhibits the uniform employment of *en* as the inflexion of the plural number, pres. tense, indic. mood."—Morris (Story of Genesis, pref. p. xiv.).

- (1) When the verb ends in a *sharp* mute, the suffix is *-s*: *stop-s*, *beat-s*, *seek-s*, *puff-s*.
- (2) When the verb ends in a *flat* mute, a *liquid*, or a *vowel*, the suffix is *-z* (written *-s*): *bid-s*, *fall-s*, *show-s*.
- (3) When the verb ends in a *sibilant*, the vowel is retained: *toss-es*, *freez-es*, *search-es*, *crush-es*, *judg-es*.

The third person-ending is found only in the *Present Indefinite*. It is omitted in the following verbs, *can*, *may*, *shall*, *will*.

318. A simple *y* at the end of a word becomes *ie*: *try*, *trie-s*. With the verbs *goe-s*, *doe-s*, compare the nouns *cargoe-s*, *echoe-s*, &c. ; and observe the modified vowel in *doe-s*.

319. In early English there existed a strong tendency to suffix the pronoun to the verb, not only in interrogative phrases when the subject is placed after the verb, but in affirmations: *willi*, I will; *woldi*, I would; *cani*, I can; *shaltow*, thou shalt; *woltu*, thou wilt; *thinkstow*, thou thinkest, &c.*

Participles.

320. A Participle is a verbal adjective, differing from an ordinary adjective in the following particulars:

- (a) It attributes *action* to a noun without any indication of *time*. The student should therefore be careful not to speak of a *present*, a *past*, or a *future* Participle.
- (b) If derived from a transitive verb, it takes an object expressing the quarter to which the action is directed:

The very clock in the hall had a dismal sound, gasping and *catching its breath* at times, and *striking the hour* with a violent determined blow, *reminding one* of Jael *driving the nail* into the head of Sisera.—*Longfellow*.

- (c) It expresses the same modifications of the action as the *Infinitive* (§ 303).

Active.

- | | |
|-----------------|------------------------|
| 1. Indefinite. | <i>writing.</i> |
| 2. Imperfect. | _____ |
| 3. Perfect. | <i>having written.</i> |
| 4. Intentional. | <i>going to write.</i> |

* Marsh, Lectures, p. 386.

Continuous.

5. Perfect. *having been writing.*
 6. Intentional. *having been going to write.*

Passive.

1. Indefinite. *written.*
 2. Imperfect. *being written.*
 3. Perfect. *having been written.*
 4. Intentional. *going to be written.*

The Passive voice has no continuous forms, and the Indefinite and Imperfect Participles in that voice are frequently employed as Perfects. The Imp. Part. in O. E. is often expressed by the old preposition *an* or *a*, and the Infinitive in *-ing*; *a-building* = *being built*; "xlvi yeares was this temple *abuildinge*" (*Tyndale*).

321. There are two participles formed by inflection, the Indefinite Active, commonly called the Imperfect, and the Indefinite Passive, commonly called the Perfect.

322. The Imperfect Participle in modern English is formed by the suffix *-ing*: *sing-ing*, *read-ing*.

In A. S. the suffix was *-ende*, in O. E. *-ende*, *-ande*, *-inde*, *-and*, *-an*, *-in*, *inge*:

Giv-*and* and tak-*and* woundes wide.—*Barbour*.

Mony a wep-*inde* eye.—*Rob. Glouc.*

Compare the Latin *-ent* and the Greek *-ent*. The *d* was dropped, and the nasal liquid *ng* substituted for *n*: O. E. *com-in*, M. E. *com-ing*. The form in *-in* is still retained in L. Scotch, and in the northern provincial dialects:

The rising sun o'er Galston muirs
 With glorious light was *glintin*;
 The hares were *hirplin* down the furs,
 The lavrocks they were *chantin*.—*Burns*.

This participle must not be confounded with the Infinitive in *-ing* (*-an*), or with nouns formed by the suffix *-ing* (*-ung*).

The change from *-and* to *-ing* is first observed in the thirteenth century. The old form was retained by the Scotch writers down to the sixteenth century, but Chaucer and the Southern commonly employ *-ing*.

323. The Perfect Participle is formed:

(1.) By the suffix *-en*, with or without a modification of the root-vowel: *beat*, *beat-en*; *speak*, *spoken*.

The following irregularities are found :

- (a) *-en* is lost: *drink, drunk; sing, sung; cut, cut.*
 (b) *e* is lost: *forlor-n, show-n, grow-n, do-ne, &c.*
 (c) In O. E. *n* is lost: *také = taken.*

324. All verbs that form the Perfect Participle in this manner belong to the *strong* class and to the *Teutonic* stock, a fact noted by Ben Jonson (Eng. Gram. cxviii). "It entertaineth none but naturall and home-born words."

325. (II.) By the suffix *-ed, -d, -t*, with or without a modification of the root-vowel: *spill, spil-t; feel, fel-t; free, free-d; sell, sol-d; mend, mend-ed.*

326. As these suffixes are identical in form with those of the Past Indefinite, the same principles regulate the formation of the Perfect Participle. (See § 309.)

This identity of form is accidental. In Anglo-Saxon the suffix of the Past Indefinite was *-ode, -de*; the suffix of the Perfect Participle was *-od, -ed, -d*. In modern English each has been reduced to *-ed, -d, -t*.

327. Some verbs have two forms of this participle; one with *-en*, the other with *-t* or *-d*: *clow-en* or *clef-t, grav-en* or *grav-ed, swoll-en* or *swell-d, &c.*

328. All verbs of the *weak* class, and verbs of *foreign* origin (with the exception of *prov-en*), form the perfect participle by *-t, -d, or -ed*, "being indeed the most usual forming of a verbe, and thereby also the common inne to lodge every strange and forraine guest" (*Ben Jonson*).

329. In A. S. and in other Teutonic languages, this Participle had a prefix *ge-*, or (rarely), *a-*; *ge-feall-en, fallen; a-sung-en, sung.* In O. E. this appears as *y-* or *i-* and *a-*; *y-clad, i-sung, a-feared.* Hence such forms as *a-go* (O. E. *a-gonne*), *a-do* (O. E. *a-done*):

All his darknesse is *ago*.—*Chaucer.*

Ago was every sorrow.—*Id.*

And done all that they han *ado*.—*Id.*

Such a phrase as *a-weary* is peculiar :

I gin to be *a-weary* of the sun.—*Shakspeare.*

The adjective *weary* seems to have taken the place of the participle *wearied*; or, the prefix *a-* (*ge-*) may have been added as in the German *gesund*.

Gerund.

330. Two forms of the Infinitive are known under the name of *Gerunds*:

1. Where the old Infinitive suffix *-an* becomes *-ing*; *writ-ing* (A. S. *writ-an*, O. E. *writ-en*, *writ-in*).
2. Where the old Infinitive suffix *-an*, and the Dative case-ending *-e* are lost; *to write* (A. S. *to writ-ann-e*, O. E. *to writ-en*, *to writ-ē*).

331. The form in *-ing* should be carefully distinguished from the Imperfect Participle, which is an *adjective*, and from the verbal noun in *-ing* (A. S. *-ung*). The peculiarities that distinguish the Infinitive from ordinary nouns have been mentioned in § 236. The Gerund in *-ing* is frequently found with the old preposition *on*, *an*, or *a*, prefixed; *a-writing*.

The form *to write* should be carefully distinguished from the ordinary Infinitive (*to*) *write*. It is a *dative* case, governed by the preposition *to*, and means "for writing." "He came *to write*" = "he came *for writing*" (dat). "He learns (*to write*)" = "he learns *writing*" (accus.). Hence this form is often employed after intransitive and passive verbs to express the *purpose*.

CONJUGATION OF AN ACTIVE VERB.

Indicative Mood.

332. I. PRESENT.

Present Indefinite.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I write.	1. We write.
2. Thou writest.	2. Ye or you write.
3. He writes.	3. They writa.

Present Imperfect.

- | <i>Singular.</i> | <i>Plural.</i> |
|----------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. I am writing. | 1. We are writing. |
| 2. Thou art writing. | 2. Ye or you are writing. |
| 3. He is writing. | 3. They are writing. |

Present Perfect.

- | | |
|-----------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. I have written. | 1. We have written. |
| 2. Thou hast written. | 2. Ye or you have written. |
| 3. He has written. | 4. They have written. |

Present Intentional.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. I am going to write. | 1. We are going to write. |
| 2. Thou art going to write. | 2. You are going to write. |
| 3. He is going to write. | 3. They are going to write. |

CONTINUOUS.

Present Perfect.

- | | |
|----------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. I have been writing. | 1. We have been writing. |
| 2. Thou hast been writing. | 2. You have been writing. |
| 3. He has been writing. | 3. They have been writing. |

Present Intentional.

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. I have been going to write. | 1. We have been going to write. |
| 2. Thou hast been going to write. | 2. You have been going to write. |
| 3. He has been going to write. | 3. They have been going to write. |

333. II. PAST.

Past Indefinite.

- | | |
|------------------|---------------------|
| 1. I wrote. | 1. We wrote. |
| 2. Thou wrotest. | 2. Ye or you wrote. |
| 3. He wrote. | 3. They wrote. |

Past Imperfect.

- | | |
|-----------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. I was writing. | 1. We were writing. |
| 2. Thou wast writing. | 2. Ye or you were writing. |
| 3. He was writing. | 3. They were writing. |

*Past Perfect.**Singular.*

1. I had written.
2. Thou hadst written.
3. He had written.

Plural.

1. We had written.
2. Ye or you had written.
3. They had written.

Past Intentional.

- | | |
|------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. I was going to write. | 1. We were going to write. |
| 2. Thou wast going to write. | 2. You were going to write. |
| 3. He was going to write. | 3. They were going to write. |

CONTINUOUS.

Past Perfect.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. I had been writing. | 1. We had been writing. |
| 2. Thou hadst been writing. | 2. You had been writing. |
| 3. He had been writing. | 3. They had been writing. |

Past Intentional.

- | | |
|------------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. I had been going to write. | 1. We had been going to write. |
| 2. Thou hadst been going to write. | 2. You had been going to write. |
| 3. He had been going to write. | 3. They had been going to write. |

334. III. FUTURE.

Future Indefinite.

- | | |
|---------------------|---------------------|
| 1. I shall write. | 1. We shall write. |
| 2. Thou wilt write. | 2. You will write. |
| 3. He will write. | 3. They will write. |

Future Imperfect.

- | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. I shall be writing. | 1. We shall be writing. |
| 2. Thou wilt be writing. | 2. You will be writing. |
| 3. He will be writing. | 3. They will be writing. |

Future Perfect.

- | | |
|----------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. I shall have written. | 1. We shall have written. |
| 2. Thou wilt have written. | 2. You will have written. |
| 3. He will have written. | 3. They will have written. |

*Future Intentional.**Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. I shall be going to write. | 1. We shall be going to write. |
| 2. Thou wilt be going to write. | 2. You will be going to write. |
| 3. He will be going to write. | 3. They will be going to write. |

CONTINUOUS.

Future Perfect.

- | | |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. I shall have been writing. | 1. We shall have been writing. |
| 2. Thou wilt have been writing. | 2. You will have been writing. |
| 3. He will have been writing. | 3. They will have been writing. |

Future Intentional.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. I shall have been going to write. | 1. We shall have been going to write. |
| 2. Thou wilt have been going to write. | 2. You will have been going to write. |
| 3. He will have been going to write. | 3. They will have been going to write. |

335. *Imperative Mood.**Present.*

- | | |
|-----------|-----------|
| 2. Write. | 2. Write. |
|-----------|-----------|

Future.

- | | |
|----------------------|----------------------|
| 2. Thou shalt write. | 2. You shall write |
| 3. He shall write. | 3. They shall write. |

336. *Subjunctive Mood.*

I. PRESENT.

Present Indefinite.

- | | |
|----------------|----------------|
| 1. I write. | 1. We write. |
| 2. Thou write. | 2. You write. |
| 3. He write. | 3. They write. |

*Present Imperfect.**Singular.*

1. I be writing.
2. Thou be writing.
3. He be writing.

Plural.

1. We be writing.
2. You be writing.
3. They be writing.

Present Perfect.

1. I have written.
2. Thou have written.
3. He have written.

1. We have written
2. You have written.
3. They have written.

Present Intentional.

Wanting.

CONTINUOUS.

Present Perfect.

1. I have been writing.
2. Thou have been writing.
3. He have been writing.

1. We have been writing.
2. You have been writing.
3. They have been writing.

Present Intentional.

Wanting.

337. II. PAST.

Past Indefinite.

1. I wrote.
2. Thou wrote.
3. He wrote.

1. We wrote.
2. You wrote.
3. They wrote.

Past Imperfect.

1. I were writing.
2. Thou were writing.
3. He were writing.

1. We were writing.
2. You were writing
3. They were writing.

Past Perfect.

- | <i>Singular.</i> | <i>Plural.</i> |
|----------------------|----------------------|
| 1. I had written. | 1. We had written. |
| 2. Thou had written. | 2. You had written. |
| 3. He had written. | 3. They had written. |

Past Intentional.

- | | |
|------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. I were going to write. | 1. We were going to write. |
| 2. Thou were going to write. | 2. You were going to write. |
| 3. He were going to write. | 3. They were going to write. |

CONTINUOUS.

Past Perfect.

- | | |
|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. I had been writing. | 1. We had been writing. |
| 2. Thou had been writing. | 2. You had been writing. |
| 3. He had been writing. | 3. They had been writing. |

Past Intentional.

Wanting.

338. III. FUTURE.

Future Indefinite.

- | | |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. I should write. | 1. We should write. |
| 2. Thou should write. | 2. You should write. |
| 3. He should write. | 3. They should write. |

Future Imperfect.

- | | |
|----------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. I should be writing | 1. We should be writing. |
| 2. Thou should be writing. | 2. You should be writing. |
| 3. He should be writing. | 3. They should be writing. |

Future Perfect.

- | | |
|------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. I should have written. | 1. We should have written. |
| 2. Thou should have written. | 2. You should have written. |
| 3. He should have written. | 3. They should have written. |

Future Intentional.

Wanting.

CONTINUOUS.

*Future Perfect.**Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. I should have been writing. | 1. We should have been writing. |
| 2. Thou should have been writing. | 2. You should have been writing. |
| 3. He should have been writing. | 3. They should have been writing. |

Future Intentional.

Wanting.

339. *Infinitive Mood.*

- | | |
|-----------------|-------------------------|
| 1. Indefinite. | [to] write. |
| 2. Imperfect. | [to] be writing. |
| 3. Perfect. | [to] have written. |
| 4. Intentional. | [to] be going to write. |

CONTINUOUS.

- | | |
|-----------------|--------------------------------|
| 5. Perfect. | [to] have been writing. |
| 6. Intentional. | [to] have been going to write. |

340. *Participles.*

- | | |
|-----------------|-----------------|
| 1. Indefinite. | writing. |
| 2. Imperfect. | _____ |
| 3. Perfect. | having written. |
| 4. Intentional. | going to write. |

CONTINUOUS.

- | | |
|-----------------|-----------------------------|
| 5. Perfect. | having been writing. |
| 6. Intentional. | having been going to write. |

Gerund.

- (1)
- Writing.*
- (2)
- To write.*

341. Some of the above forms are either obsolete, or rarely used in the current language. The form for the **second**

person singular is confined to poetry, poetical prose, or to invocations to the Supreme Being. In ordinary prose the second person plural is used for the singular.

Many of the forms in the indicative mood are now commonly employed instead of those in the subjunctive.

CONJUGATION OF A PASSIVE VERB.

342. *Indicative Mood.*

I. PRESENT.

- | | |
|-----------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. Indefinite. | <i>I am called.</i> |
| 2. Imperfect. | <i>I am being called.</i> |
| 3. Perfect. | <i>I have been called.</i> |
| 4. Intentional. | <i>I am going to be called.</i> |

II. PAST.

- | | |
|-----------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. Indefinite. | <i>I was called.</i> |
| 2. Imperfect. | <i>I was being called.</i> |
| 3. Perfect. | <i>I had been called.</i> |
| 4. Intentional. | <i>I was going to be called.</i> |

III. FUTURE.

- | | |
|-----------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. Indefinite. | <i>I shall be called.</i> |
| 2. Imperfect. | ———— |
| 3. Perfect. | <i>I shall have been called.</i> |
| 4. Intentional. | ———— |

343. *Imperative Mood.*

I. PRESENT.

- | <i>Singular.</i> | <i>Plural.</i> |
|------------------|----------------|
| 2. Be called. | 2. Be called. |

II. FUTURE.

- | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 2. Thou shalt be called. | 2. You shall be called. |
| 3. He shall be called. | 3. They shall be called. |

344. *Subjunctive Mood.*

I. PRESENT.

- | | |
|-----------------|----------------------------|
| 1. Indefinite. | <i>I be called.</i> |
| 2. Imperfect. | _____ |
| 3. Perfect. | <i>I have been called.</i> |
| 4. Intentional. | _____ |

II. PAST.

- | | |
|-----------------|----------------------------|
| 1. Indefinite. | <i>I were called.</i> |
| 2. Imperfect. | <i>I were being called</i> |
| 3. Perfect. | <i>I had been called.</i> |
| 4. Intentional. | _____ |

III. FUTURE.

- | | |
|-----------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. Indefinite. | <i>I should be called.</i> |
| 2. Imperfect. | _____ |
| 3. Perfect. | <i>I should have been called.</i> |
| 4. Intentional. | _____ |

345. *Infinitive Mood.*

- | | |
|-----------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. Indefinite. | <i>[to] be called.</i> |
| 2. Imperfect. | _____ |
| 3. Perfect. | <i>[to] have been called.</i> |
| 4. Intentional. | _____ |

346. *Participles.*

- | | |
|-----------------|---|
| 1. Indefinite. | <i>called.</i> |
| 2. Imperfect. | <i>being called.</i> |
| 3. Perfect. | <i>having been called.</i> |
| 4. Intentional. | <i>going to be called, or
being about to be called.</i> |

347. On examining the foregoing tenses, it will be observed that the passive voice is defective in the Imperfect

and Intentional, and is destitute of the Continuous forms of the Perfect and Intentional.

348. The verbs *be, have, shall, will, do, and go*, which are employed to form the tenses of an ordinary verb, are, when so employed, termed *auxiliaries*. Their inflection is frequently irregular. The various forms in old and modern English are exhibited in the list of irregular verbs.

349. The following is a list of those verbs in modern English which belong either wholly, or in part, to the strong conjugation. The forms in italics are obsolete, or rarely used.

I. Verbs which modify the root-vowel, and form the Perfect Participle in *-en*.

II. Verbs which modify the root-vowel, and drop *e* from the Participial suffix.

III. Verbs which modify the root-vowel, and drop the Participial suffix.

IV. Verbs which do not modify the root-vowel, and which drop the suffix.

V. Verbs which modify the root-vowel, and form the Past Indefinite and the Perfect Participle by suffixing *-t* or *-d*.

VI. Verbs ending in *d*, which simply change *d* into *t*.

VII. Verbs with *weak* Past Indefinite, and *strong* Participle.

VIII. Verbs which have passed from the strong to the weak conjugation.

350.

I.

<i>Pres. In.</i>	<i>Past In.</i>	<i>O. E.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>	<i>O. E.</i>
arise	arose	<i>aros, aras</i>	arisen	<i>aris, arist.</i>
beget	begot	<i>begat</i>	begotten, begot	<i>bygete.</i>
bid	bade, bad	<i>bod, bed</i>	bidden, bid	<i>i-bede, bode, beden.</i>
bite	bit	<i>bot, bat, bet</i>	bitten, bit	<i>biten.</i>
break	broke	<i>brake, brak, brek</i>	broken,	{ <i>braken, i-broken,</i> <i>i-broke, broke.</i>
chide	chid	<i>chode</i>	chidden, chid	
choose	chose	<i>ches, chis</i>	chosen	<i>i-chosen, i-chose.</i>
drink	{ drank, } { drunk }	<i>dronk</i>	drunk	{ <i>i-dronk, dronken,</i> <i>drunken.</i>

<i>Pres. In.</i>	<i>Past In.</i>	<i>O. E.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>	<i>O. E.</i>
drive	drove	{ <i>drave, drof,</i> <i>dref</i> }	driven	<i>i-drive, drown.</i>
eat	ate	<i>ete, at</i>	eaten	<i>y-ete, eat, eten.</i>
fall	fell	<i>ful, fill</i>	fallen	<i>i-fallen, a-falle.</i>
forbid	forbade		forbidden	<i>forboden, forbid.</i>
forget	forgot	<i>forgat</i>	forgotten, forgot	<i>forgeten.</i>
forgive	forgave		forgiven	
forsake	forsook		forsaken	<i>forsake.</i>
freeze	froze	<i>fres</i>	frozen	{ <i>y-frore, frore,</i> <i>from, frese.</i>
get	got	<i>gat, gette</i>	gotten, got	<i>getten, i-gotte.</i>
give	gave	<i>gaf, gef, gif</i>	given	{ <i>i-geven, i-gine,</i> <i>i-give, gene, i-geve.</i>
hide	hid	<i>hudde</i>	hidden, hid	{ <i>y-hud, hud,</i> <i>hedde, y-hed.</i>
hold	held	{ <i>hald, huld,</i> <i>hild, hult</i> }	holden, held	<i>halden, i-holde.</i>
ride	rode	<i>rid, rod</i>	ridden	<i>rid, riden.</i>
rise	rose	<i>ras, ros, ris</i>	risen	<i>risse, y-rise.</i>
shake	shook	<i>shok</i>	shaken	<i>shaked.</i>
shrink	{ shrank shrunk }		shrunk	
shrive	{ shrove, shrived }	<i>shrof</i>	shriven	<i>i-shrive.</i>
sink	{ sank, sunk }		sunk	<i>sunkcn, sonken.</i>
smite	smote	<i>smot, smit</i>	smitten, smit	<i>i-smite, smoten.</i>
speak	spoke	{ <i>spake, spak,</i> <i>spek</i> }	spoken, spoke	<i>i-speke.</i>
steal	stole	{ <i>stale, stal,</i> <i>stel</i> }	stolen	<i>stole, i-stole.</i>
stride	strode	<i>strid</i>	stridden	<i>stride.</i>
strike	struck	<i>strake, strook</i>	stricken, struck	{ <i>strucken,</i> <i>strooken.</i>
strive	strove	<i>strof, strave</i>	striven	<i>i-strive.</i>
take	took	<i>toke, tak, tok</i>	taken	<i>token, i-take, tane.</i>
thrive	throve	<i>thrave, threve</i>	thriven	<i>y-threve.</i>
tread	trod	<i>trad</i>	trodden, trod	<i>i-trede.</i>
weave	wove	<i>wave</i>	woven, wove	
write	wrote	<i>writ, wrot</i>	written, writ	<i>i-write, a-writte..</i>

351.

II.

bear	}	<i>bore</i>	<i>bare, bar, ber</i>	<i>borne</i>	<i>i-bore, i-borne.</i>
(carry)					
bear (give birth)	}	<i>bore</i>	<i>bare</i>	<i>born</i>	<i>i-bore, a-bore.</i>
blow					
(bloom)	}	<i>blew</i>		<i>blown</i>	
blow (of wind)					
	}	<i>blew</i>	<i>blaw</i>	<i>blown</i>	<i>otowe, i-blawe.</i>

<i>Pres. In.</i>	<i>Past In.</i>	<i>O. E.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>	<i>O. E.</i>
draw	drew	<i>droghe, drow</i>	drawn	{ <i>i-drawe, drawn,</i> <i>a-drowe.</i>
fly	flew	<i>fley, fleah</i>	flown	{ <i>a-floghen,</i> <i>y-flowe.</i>
grow	grew		grown	<i>growen.</i>
know	knew		known	{ <i>y-knowen,</i> <i>y-knowe.</i>
lie	lay		lain	{ <i>y-leye, lien,</i> <i>layne.</i>
see	saw	<i>segh, seigh</i>	seen	<i>y-sene, y-sey.</i>
slay	slew	<i>slogh, slow</i>	slain	{ <i>slawen, y-slawe,</i> <i>slawe.</i>
swear	swore	<i>sware, swer</i>	sworn	{ <i>i-sworen, sworen,</i> <i>i-swore.</i>
tear	tore	<i>tare</i>	torn	
throw	threw	<i>thryght.</i>	thrown	<i>i-throwe.</i>
wear	wore	<i>ware</i>	worn	

352.

III.

awake	{ awoke (awaked)	{ <i>awok, awahte</i>	awoke (awaked)	
begin	{ began, began	{ <i>bigonne</i>	begun	{ <i>begonnen,</i> <i>bigunnen.</i>
behold	beheld	{ <i>be hulde, be-</i> <i>halt</i>	beheld	<i>beholden.</i>
betide		<i>betid</i>		<i>betid.</i>
bide	bided	{ <i>bode, bood,</i> <i>bade, bede</i>		<i>bud, biden.</i>
bind	bound	<i>bonde</i>	bound	{ <i>bounden,</i> <i>bunden,</i> <i>i-bounde.</i>
bleed	bled		bled	
breed	bred		bred	<i>i-bred, a-bred.</i>
cling	clung	<i>clang</i>	clung	
come	came	<i>cam, com, kem</i>	come	{ <i>comen, y-comen,</i> <i>y-come.</i>
dig	dug	<i>digged</i>	dug	<i>digged.</i>
feed	fed	<i>fydde</i>	fed	<i>y-fed.</i>
fight	fought	<i>faght, fagh</i>	fought	{ <i>foughten,</i> <i>i-faght.</i>
find	found	<i>fand, fond</i>	found	{ <i>fonden, funden,</i> <i>funde, fun.</i>
fling	flung	<i>flang, flong</i>	flung	
grind	ground	<i>grand</i>	ground	{ <i>i-grounde,</i> <i>i-grynde.</i>
lead	led	<i>ledde, ladde</i>	led	<i>y-ladde, ladde.</i>
meet	met		met	<i>i-mete.</i>
read	read	<i>redde</i>	read	<i>i-rade, rad.</i>
ring	rang, rung	<i>rong</i>	rung	
run	ran	<i>orn, arnde</i>	run	<i>runnen.</i>
shine	shone		shone	
shoot	shot	<i>shet, schytte</i>	shot	<i>shotten, i-shote.</i>

<i>Pres. In.</i>	<i>Past In.</i>	<i>O. E.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>	<i>O. E.</i>
sing	sang, sung	<i>song</i>	sung	<i>sungen, songen.</i>
sit	sat	<i>sate, set</i>	sat	<i>sitten, i-sete.</i>
slide	slid	<i>slode, slod</i>	slid	<i>slidden, i-slide</i>
sling	slung	<i>slang, slong</i>	slung	<i>slongen.</i>
slink	slunk	<i>slank</i>	slunk	<i>slunken.</i>
spin	spun	<i>span</i>	spun	<i>i-sponne.</i>
spring	{ sprang, sprung }	<i>sprong</i>	sprung	{ <i>i-sprung, spronke.</i>
spit	spat		spit	<i>spitten.</i>
stand	stood	<i>stont, stent, stod</i>	stood	<i>a-stod. i-stonde</i>
stave	stove		stove	
stick	stuck	<i>stock</i>	stuck	<i>i-stekke.</i>
sting	stung	<i>stang, stong</i>	stung	{ <i>y-stunge, stungen. y-stonge.</i>
stink	stank, stunk		stunk	
string	strung	<i>strang</i>	strung	
swim	swam,		swum	
swing	swung	<i>swang</i>	swung	
wake	woke	<i>wight, wok</i>	woke	<i>waken.</i>
win	won	<i>wan</i>	won	{ <i>wonnen, i-wonne.</i>
wind	wound	<i>wand</i>	wound	
wring	wrung	<i>wrang</i>	wrung	<i>i-wrong, wrong</i>

353.

IV.

beat	beat	<i>bat, bet</i>	beaten	<i>bete, bet, beat.</i>
bet	bet, betted		bet, betted	
bid (offer)	bid		bid	
burst	burst	<i>barst, brast</i>	burst	<i>bursten, borsen.</i>
cast	cast		cast	<i>casten.</i>
cost	cost		cost	
cut	cut	<i>kitte, kittede</i>	cut	<i>y-kitte, kit.</i>
durst	durst	<i>dorste</i>	durst	
hit	hit	<i>hot, hat</i>	hit	<i>hitten.</i>
hurt	hurt		hurt	<i>y-hurt.</i>
let	let		let	<i>y-late, i-let.</i>
put	put	<i>pat</i>	put	
rid	rid		rid	
set	set		set	<i>y-set.</i>
shed	shed	<i>shade</i>	shed	<i>y-schad, schad.</i>
shred	shred		shred	
shut	shut	<i>shet, shytte</i>	shut	<i>y-shote, shet.</i>
slit	slit	<i>slat</i>	slit	{ <i>slat, slotten, slitten.</i>
split	split	<i>splitted</i>	split	
spread	spread	<i>sprad, spredde</i>	spread	<i>y-sprad, sprad.</i>
thrust	thrust	<i>thruste</i>	thrust	
wed	{ wed, wedded }		wed, wedded	

354.

V.

<i>Pres. In.</i>	<i>Past In.</i>	<i>O. E.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>	<i>O. E.</i>
bereave	bereft		{ bereft, be- }	
beseach	besought	<i>besouche</i>	besought	<i>beseched.</i>
bring	brought	<i>brouh</i>	brought	{ <i>i-broghte,</i> <i>i-brouh.</i>
buy	bought	<i>boghte</i>	bought	{ <i>i-boghte,</i> <i>boughten.</i>
catch	caught	<i>caghte, kyght</i>	caught	<i>kotte, kytied.</i>
cleave (split)	{ cleft	<i>claf, clef, clove</i>	cleft	<i>cloven.</i>
cleave (cling)	{ cleaved	<i>clave</i>	cleaved	
creep	crept	<i>crope, crep</i>	crept	<i>cropen.</i>
deal	dealt	<i>delde, dalt</i>	dealt,	<i>dcaled, i-dalt.</i>
dream	{ dreamt, } dreamed }		{ dreamt, } dreamed }	
feel	felt	<i>felide</i>	felt	<i>felde.</i>
flee	fled	<i>flodede, fleede</i>	fled	<i>fleen, a-fled, flow</i>
hear	heard	<i>hurd</i>	heard	<i>i-hurd, hardon.</i>
keep	kept	<i>kepede, kep</i>	kept	
kneel	{ knelt, } kneeled }		knelt, kneeled	
leap	lept, leaped	<i>lap, lope, lep</i>	lept, leaped	<i>lopen.</i>
leave	left	<i>lafte, levede</i>	left	<i>i-levede, lafte.</i>
lose	lost	<i>las, les.</i>	lost	{ <i>loren, lorn,</i> <i>i-lore, i-lost.</i>
mean	meant		meant	<i>y-ment.</i>
reave	reft	<i>raf, rof</i>	reft, reaved	<i>rafte.</i>
say	said	<i>seyde</i>	said	<i>saided, y-sed.</i>
seek	sought	<i>soghte</i>	sought	<i>i-soght.</i>
sell	sold	<i>salde</i>	sold	<i>i-solde, i-sald.</i>
shoe	shod		shod	<i>y-schud.</i>
sleep	slept	<i>slep</i>	slept	
sweep	swept		swept	<i>i-swept.</i>
teach	taught	<i>taghte, taht</i>	taught	
tell	told	<i>talde</i>	told	<i>i-told, i-tol, teld</i>
think	thought	<i>thouh</i>	thought	{ <i>y-thoght,</i> <i>thoughten.</i>
weep	wept	<i>wep, wop</i>	wept	<i>wopen, wepen.</i>
work	{ wrought, } worked }	<i>wraht</i>	{ wrought, } worked }	{ <i>y-wroght,</i> <i>y-wort.</i>

355.

VI.

bend	bent	<i>bended</i>	bent	<i>bended.</i>
blend	blent	<i>blended</i>	blent	<i>blended.</i>
build	built	<i>builded</i>	built	<i>builded.</i>
gild	gilt	<i>gilded</i>	gilt	<i>gilded.</i>

<i>Pres. In.</i>	<i>Past In.</i>	<i>O. E.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>	<i>O. E.</i>
gird	girt	<i>girded</i>	girt	<i>girded.</i>
lend	lent	<i>lende</i>	lent	<i>i-land.</i>
rend	rent	<i>rended</i>	rent	<i>rended.</i>
send	sent		sent	<i>y-sond, i-sent.</i>
spend	spent	<i>spende</i>	spent	<i>y-spēnd.</i>
wend	went	<i>wended</i>		<i>went, wended.</i>

356.

VII.

lade	laded		laden	
mow	mowed	<i>mew</i>	mown	
rive	rived	<i>roofe</i>	riven	<i>roven.</i>
saw	sawed		sawn	<i>i-sowed.</i>
sew	sewed		sewn	<i>i-shewd, shewd.</i>
show	showed	<i>shew</i>	shown	<i>i-sowe.</i>
sow	sowed	<i>sewe</i>	sown	<i>strawed.</i>
<i>straw</i>	<i>strawed</i>		<i>strawn</i>	<i>strewed.</i>
strew	strewed		strewn	<i>strowed.</i>
<i>strow</i>	<i>strowed</i>		strown	<i>waxed, i-wox.</i>
<i>wax</i>	<i>waxed</i>	<i>wox, wex</i>	<i>waxen</i>	

357.

VIII.

abide	abode	<i>abided</i>		{ <i>abided, abode,</i> <i>abid.</i>
ache	ached	<i>ok</i>	ached	<i>oke.</i>
blind	blinded	<i>blent</i>	blinded	{ <i>y-blent,</i> <i>a-blind.</i>
carve	carved	<i>carf</i>	carved	{ <i>carren, corren,</i> <i>carre.</i>
climb	climbed	<i>clomb, clam</i>	climbed	{ <i>clomben, clumben,</i> <i>clamben, clom.</i>
clothe	clothed	<i>clad</i>	clothed	{ <i>y-elad, clad,</i> <i>clad, y-clad.</i>
crow	{ <i>crowed,</i> <i>crew</i> }		crowed	<i>crown.</i>
delve	delved	<i>dalf, dolf</i>	delved	<i>dolven, dolve.</i>
dread	dreaded	<i>drad</i>	dreaded	<i>a-drad, drad.</i>
drown	drowned	<i>dreint</i>	drowned	{ <i>a-drent,</i> <i>a-dreinct.</i>
fare	fared	<i>fore</i>	fared	<i>i-fare.</i>
fill	filled	<i>fulle</i>	filled	<i>y-fuld.</i>
fold	folded	<i>fald</i>	folded	<i>folden.</i>
fret	fretted	<i>frat</i>	fretted	<i>i-frette, fretten.</i>
fetch	fetchēd	<i>fet, fate</i>	fetchēd	<i>faught, i-fet, fet.</i>
gnaw	gnawed	<i>gnew</i>	gnawed	<i>gnawn, gnowe.</i>
grave	graved	<i>grove</i>	graved, graven	
hang	{ <i>hanged,</i> <i>hung</i> }	{ <i>hong, heng</i>	hanged, hung	{ <i>y-honge, a-hang,</i> <i>an-honged.</i>
heat	heated	<i>het, hat</i>	heated	<i>i-het.</i>

Pres. In.	Past In.	O. E.	Perf. Part.	O. E.
heave, (throw)	} heaved	<i>hove, heft</i>	heaved	<i>hoven, hove.</i>
heave (raise)		<i>hase, hofe hef</i>	heaved	<i>hofen.</i>
help	helped	<i>halp, holp</i>	helped	<i>holpen, holp.</i>
hew	hewed	<i>hue</i>	hewed	<i>hewn.</i>
knit	knitted	<i>knat, knet</i>	knitted	<i>knit, knet.</i>
laugh	laughed	<i>loff, lough, low</i>	laughed	<i>i-lowe, laffe.</i>
light	lighted, lit		lighted, lit	<i>i-liht.</i>
melt	melted	<i>molt malt</i>	melted	<i>molten.</i>
pitch	pitched	<i>pight</i>	pitched	<i>y-pight.</i>
reach	reached	<i>raught</i>	reached	<i>i-raught.</i>
seethe	seethed	<i>sod</i>	seethed	<i>sodden, i-sod.</i>
shape	shaped	<i>shope, shop</i>	shaped	<i>shapen.</i>
shear	sheared	<i>share, shore</i>	sheared	<i>shorn.</i>
speed	speeded	<i>spel</i>	speeded	<i>i-sped.</i>
squeeze	squeezed	<i>squoze</i>	squeezed	<i>squozen.</i>
stretch	stretched	<i>straught</i>	stretched	<i>streighte.</i>
sweat	sweated	<i>swat, swot</i>	swated	<i>swaten, y-swat.</i>
swell	swelled	<i>swal, swol</i>	swelled, swollen	
yield	yielded	<i>yalde, yolde</i>	yielded	<i>yolden, i-yolde.</i>

To these may be added *dove* (dived), *flet* (floated), *glyt* or *glode* (glided), *quoke* (quaked), *yall* (yelled), *shruck* (shrieked).

IRREGULAR AND DEFECTIVE VERBS.

358. Words are called *irregular* which are inflected irregularly from one root. Words which are either destitute of certain forms, or which supply the deficiencies from another root, are called *defective*.

In the following list the only tenses given are the Present and Past Indefinite. The other tenses, where they exist, are formed regularly. The forms in Italics and brackets are Anglo-Saxon; the others in Italics are Old English.

359.

BE.

Indicative.

PRESENT INDEFINITE.

Singular.

1. (*eom*), am.

2. (*eart*), art.

3. (*is*), is, es.

Plural.

(*syndon, synd*), *sinden, sunden.*

(O. N. *erum*), O. E. *eren, aren, arn,*
are, ere, er, ar.

The plural *are* is Scandinavian, and was first introduced by the Danes into the northern dialects of England.*

In A. S. there is another form for this tense (*be*), which was frequently used with a future signification, and is common in old English.†

Singular.

1. (*beo*), *be*.
2. (*byst*), *bist*, *best*, *beest*.
3. (*byth*), *bith*, *beth*, *bes*, *be*.

Plural.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. (<i>beoth</i>), <i>beoth</i> , <i>bueth</i> , <i>both</i> , <i>buth</i> . | (<i>beoth</i>), <i>beoth</i> , <i>bueth</i> , <i>both</i> , <i>buth</i> . |
| 2. (<i>beth</i>), <i>beod</i> , <i>bid</i> , <i>beon</i> , <i>buen</i> , <i>beyn</i> , | <i>beth</i> , <i>beod</i> , <i>bid</i> , <i>beon</i> , <i>buen</i> , <i>beyn</i> , |
| 3. <i>ben</i> , <i>be</i> . | <i>ben</i> , <i>be</i> . |

PAST INDEFINITE.

1. (*wæs*), *wes*, *was*.
2. (*wære*), *wast*.
3. (*wæs*), *wes*, *was*.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. (<i>wæron</i>), <i>weron</i> , <i>weoren</i> , <i>weren</i> , | (<i>wæron</i>), <i>weron</i> , <i>weoren</i> , <i>weren</i> , |
| 2. <i>worn</i> , <i>wern</i> , <i>weré</i> , <i>wore</i> , <i>were</i> , | <i>worn</i> , <i>wern</i> , <i>weré</i> , <i>wore</i> , <i>were</i> , |
| 3. <i>wer</i> , <i>war</i> . | <i>wer</i> , <i>war</i> . |

Imperative.

2. (*beo*), *beo*, *be*.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. (<i>beoth</i>), <i>beoth</i> , <i>byeth</i> , <i>buth</i> , <i>beth</i> , <i>bes</i> , | (<i>beoth</i>), <i>beoth</i> , <i>byeth</i> , <i>buth</i> , <i>beth</i> , <i>bes</i> , |
| 2. <i>bys</i> , <i>be</i> . | <i>bys</i> , <i>be</i> . |

Subjunctive.

PRESENT INDEFINITE.

- (*beo*), *beo*, *bo*, *be*.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. (<i>beon</i>), <i>ben</i> , <i>bo</i> , <i>be</i> . | (<i>beon</i>), <i>ben</i> , <i>bo</i> , <i>be</i> . |
|--|---|

PAST INDEFINITE.

- (*wære*), *weré*, *were*.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. (<i>wæron</i>), <i>weron</i> , <i>weren</i> , <i>weré</i> , <i>were</i> . | (<i>wæron</i>), <i>weron</i> , <i>weren</i> , <i>weré</i> , <i>were</i> . |
|--|---|

Infinitive.

(*beon*), *buen*, *ben*, *being*, *beo*, *bue*, *be*.

GERUND (*to beonne*), *to been*, *to be*.

Participles.

IMPERFECT (*beonde*), *beand*, *being*.

PERFECT, *i-beo*, *i-bo*, *i-be*, *been*, *ben*, *bin*, *be*.

Negative forms: *nam* (*am not*), *nart* (*art not*), *nis* (*is not*), *nes*, *nas* (*was not*), *nere* (*were not*), *nar* (*are not*).

360.

HAVE.

Indicative.—PRESENT INDEFINITE.*Singular.*

1. (*habbe*), *habbe*, *have*, *haf*.
2. (*hæfst*), *habest*, *havest*, *hast*.
3. (*hæfth*), *haveth*, *hath*, *has*.

Plural.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. (<i>habbath</i>), <i>habbeth</i> , <i>haveth</i> , <i>hath</i> , | (<i>habbath</i>), <i>habbeth</i> , <i>haveth</i> , <i>hath</i> , |
| 2. <i>haven</i> , <i>han</i> , <i>havé</i> , <i>have</i> . | <i>haven</i> , <i>han</i> , <i>havé</i> , <i>have</i> . |

* See Trans. Phil. Soc. 1860, p. 63, and Marsh, Orig. and Hist. Eng. Lang. p. 179, note.

† It is common in provincial Eng.; and even Pope says, "This is the state in which Shakespeare's writings *be* at present."

PAST INDEFINITE.

Singular.

1. (*hæfde*), *haddé*, *haved*, had.
2. (*hæfdest*), *haddest*, hadst.
3. (*hæfde*), *haddé*, *hevede*, had.

Plural.

(*hæfdon*), *haveden*, *hadden*, *haddé*,
hedden, *heddé*, had.

Imperative.

2. (*hafa*), *hab*, have, a. | (*habbath*), *haveth*, have.

Subjunctive.

PRESENT INDEFINITE.

(*habbe*), *habbé*, have. | (*habbon*), *havon*, have.

PAST INDEFINITE.

(*hæfde*), *haddé*, had. | (*hæfdon*), *hadden*, had.

Infinitive.

(*habban*), *habben*, *habbé*, *habbe*, *haven*, having, *han*, *havé*, have.
haf, *ha*.

GERUND (*to habbenne*), *to halben*, *to have*.

Participles.

IMPERFECT (*hæbbende*), *havande*, having.

PERFECT (*hæfed*), *i-had*, had.

Negative forms: *nabbé*, *navé*, *nave*, *naf* (have not), *nast* (hast not),
neth, *nath* (hath not), *nabbeth* (have not, plural); *nafdh*, *nevede*, *nadde*,
nedden, *nedde* (had not), *naddest* (hadst not).

361.

SHALL

Indicative.

PRESENT INDEFINITE.

Singular.

1. (*sceal*), *scal*, *schal*, *schol*, *schul*, *shal*, shall, *sal*, *sall*.
2. (*scealt*), *schalt*, *schal*. shalt.
3. (*sceol*), *schal*, *shal*, shall, *sal*, *schul*, *schol*, *shan*.

Plural.

(*sceolon, sculon*), *sculen, schulen, scholen, shoren, schuln, schulle schul, schal, shall, schulleth, sholleth.*

PAST INDEFINITE.

Singular.

1. (*sceolde*), *scholdé, schuldé, schold, schuld, should, sould, sula.*
2. (*sceoldest*), *scholdest, schuldest, shuldest, shouldst, shust, shost.*
3. (*sceolde*), *scholdé, schuldé, sholde, shulde, schold, schuld, should, shulde, solde.*

Plural.

(*sceoldon*), *scholden, schulden, solden, scholdé, schuldé, scolde, schold, schuld, should.*

362. *Shall* is rarely used as a simple auxiliary in A.S. * Its earlier meaning was "to owe," the origin of which is thus explained by Grimm: "*skal*, *debeo*, implies a form *skila*; *skila* must have meant, 'I kill or wound;' *skal*, 'I have killed or wounded, and I am therefore liable to pay the were-geld.'" (*Gesch. der Deut. Spr.* B. II. § 902.) Compare the German *schuld*, which means both "guilt" and "debt." Its early meaning is seen occasionally in O.E.: "For by the faith I *shal* to God" (*Chauc.*); *i. e.* "I owe to God." "Al that to Rome *sholde* servise" (*Rob. Glouc.*); *i. e.* owed service. From this idea of what is *due*, what you *ought* to do, sprung the meaning of *necessity*, what you *must* do.

Whether he wulde or he ne wulde,
He toke him up and furthe he *shulde*. (*Rob. Br.*)

i. e. out he *must* or *was compelled* to go. Hence originated the idea of what is fated or inevitable in the future:

But forsothe I can nat telle
Whethyr he *shulde* to Hevene or Helle.—*Rob. Br.*

i. e. whether it was his fate to go, &c. Wiclif seems to employ it uniformly as a future auxiliary.†

Traces of the primitive meaning of *shall* are still seen in the Past Indefinite. *Should*, when used as an independent verb, means *ought*. "You *should* be careful" = "You *ought* to be careful."

* "Perhaps the most important novelty in Layamon's construction of the verb is the regular employment of *shall* and *will* as technical auxiliaries."—Marsh, Or. and H. p. 164.

† For a detailed account of this remarkable verb, see Sir E. Head's Treatise on "Shall and Will," and Dr. Guest, Proc. Phil. Soc. vol. ii.

363.

WILL.

Indicative.

PRESENT INDEFINITE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. (<i>wille</i>), <i>wille</i> , <i>will</i> , <i>wil</i> , <i>wol</i> , <i>wul</i> . | (<i>willath</i>), <i>wolleth</i> , <i>wulleth</i> , <i>wolthe</i> ,
<i>willen</i> , <i>wollen</i> , <i>wiln</i> , <i>woln</i> , <i>willé</i> ,
<i>wollé</i> , <i>will</i> , <i>wol</i> , <i>wul</i> . |
| 2. (<i>wilt</i>), <i>wilt</i> , <i>wolt</i> , <i>wole</i> . | |
| 3. (<i>wile</i>), <i>wile</i> , <i>wil</i> , <i>will</i> , <i>wol</i> , <i>wul</i> . | |

PAST INDEFINITE.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. (<i>wolde</i>), <i>woldé</i> , <i>wold</i> , <i>would</i> . | (<i>woldon</i>), <i>wolden</i> , <i>wulden</i> , <i>woulden</i> ,
<i>woldé</i> , <i>wold</i> , <i>wuld</i> , <i>would</i> , <i>wild</i> . |
| 2. (<i>woldest</i>), <i>woldest</i> , <i>wuldest</i> ,
<i>wouldst</i> , <i>wust</i> . | |
| 3. (<i>wolde</i>), <i>woldé</i> , <i>wuldé</i> , <i>wold</i> ,
<i>wuld</i> , <i>would</i> , <i>wild</i> , <i>willedé</i> . | |

*Infinitive.**(willan)*, *willen*, *willing*, *will*.*Participle.*IMPERFECT (*willende*), *willand*, *willing*.

Negative forms: *nill*, *nul* (*will not*), *nilt*, *nult* (*wilt not*), *nolleth*, *nulleth*, *nolle* (*will not*, *plural*); *noide*, *nould* (*would not*), *noidest* (*wouldst not*).

The actions of the will are *velle* and *nolle*, to will and *nill*.—*Burton*.

Man *wills* something, because it is pleasing to nature; and he *nills* something because it is painful to nature.—*Wesley*.

364.

WILNE (DESIRE).

Indicative.

PRESENT INDEFINITE.

- | | | | |
|-------------------|---------------------|--------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. <i>wilne</i> . | 2. <i>wilnest</i> . | 3. <i>wilnet</i> . | <i>wilneth</i> , <i>wilné</i> . |
|-------------------|---------------------|--------------------|---------------------------------|

PAST INDEFINITE.

- | | | |
|-------------------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|
| 1. <i>wilncde</i> , <i>wilned</i> . | 2—3. <i>wilncde</i> . | <i>wilncde</i> . |
|-------------------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|

Infinitive.

(wilnian), wilné, wiln.

Participle.

PERFECT (wilnod), wilned, y-wilned.

365.

MAY.

Indicative.

PRESENT INDEFINITE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|----------------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. (mæg), may, mowe, muhe. | (magon), mahen, may. |
| 2. (miht), mayest, mayst, may. | |
| 3. (mæg), may, mowe, muhe, muge. | |

PAST INDEFINITE.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. (mihte), mighté, might, miht, mought. | (mihton), meah-ton, meah-té, mighten, moughten, mighté, moughté, might, mought. |
| 2. (mihtest), mihtest, mightest, mightst, moughtest. | |
| 3. (mihté), mighté, might, miht, mought. | |

366.

MUST.

Indicative.

PRESENT INDEFINITE.

- | | |
|--------------------------------|---|
| 1. (mot), mot, moot, mow. | (moton), moten, mooten, moté, mooté, mot, moot, mowen, mowé, mow. |
| 2. (most), most, must. | |
| 3. (mot), mot, moot, mow, mut. | |

PAST INDEFINITE.

- | | |
|------------------------------------|---|
| 1. (moste), mosté, most, must. | (moston), mosten, musten, mosté, musté, most, must. |
| 2. (mostest), mostest, most, must. | |
| 3. (moste), mosté, most, must. | |

The Present Indefinite of this verb appears to have been used indifferently for *may*, *might*, and *must*.

367.

MUN.

Mun is often found in old and provincial English with the meaning *must*. It originally signified "to consider." "In old English *mun*

often indicates mere futurity, like the Icelandic 'mun;' and the peculiar sense now given to it—that of obligation—appears to have been its latest derivative meaning. The phrase 'we *mun* go,' may have taken successively the meanings 'we think of going,' 'we shall go,' 'we must go.'*"

A. S. *gemunan*, O. N. *mun*, O. E. *mon*, *moun*, *mone*, *mun*. Past. Ind. *munt*.

368. CAN ("know," "be able").

Indicative.

PRESENT INDEFINITE.

Singular.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. (<i>can</i>), <i>can</i> , <i>con</i> . | |
| 2. (<i>cunne</i> , <i>canst</i>), <i>cunne</i> , <i>canst</i> ,
<i>cost</i> . | |
| 3. (<i>can</i>), <i>can</i> , <i>con</i> . | |

Plural.

(*cannon*), *connen*, *conné*, *conne*,
can.

PAST INDEFINITE.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. (<i>cuthe</i>), <i>couthé</i> , <i>couth</i> , <i>coud</i> ,
<i>could</i> . | |
| 2. (<i>cuthest</i>), <i>couthest</i> , <i>coudest</i> ,
<i>couldst</i> . | |
| 3. (<i>cuthe</i>), <i>couthé</i> , <i>coudé</i> , <i>couth</i> ,
<i>coud</i> , <i>could</i> . | |

(*cuthon*), *couthen*, *couden*, *couthé*,
coudé, *couth*, *coud*, *could*.

Imperative.

cutheth.

Infinitive.

(*cunnan*), *conné*, *con*, *can*.

Participle.

IMPERFECT. *cunning* (now used as an adjective).

PERFECT. (*cuth*), *couth*, *coud*, *cud*, *y-kud*, *couthen*, *couthé*, *coudé*.

In *could* the *l* has been inserted by late writers from a false idea that the word resembled *would* and *should* in its formation. In these latter *l* is radical.

* Dr. Guest, Trans. Phil. Soc. 1854, p. 155.

369.

DO.

Indicative.

PRESENT INDEFINITE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

- | | | |
|---|--|------------------------------------|
| 1. (<i>do</i>), <i>do</i> . | | (doth), doth, doon, don, done, do. |
| 2. (<i>dest</i>), <i>dest</i> , dost, <i>dust</i> . | | |
| 3. (<i>deth</i>), <i>deth</i> , doth, does. | | |

PAST INDEFINITE.

- | | | |
|---|--|--|
| 1. (<i>dyde</i>), <i>didé</i> , <i>dudé</i> , <i>did</i> . | | (dydon), <i>diden</i> , <i>duden</i> , <i>didé</i> , <i>dudé</i> ,
did, <i>dude</i> . |
| 2. (<i>dydest</i>), <i>didest</i> , <i>dudest</i> , <i>didst</i> . | | |
| 3. (<i>dyde</i>), <i>didé</i> , <i>dudé</i> , <i>dedé</i> , <i>dude</i> ,
<i>dede</i> , <i>did</i> . | | |

Imperative.

- | | | |
|-------------------------------|--|-------------------|
| 2. (<i>do</i>), <i>do</i> . | | (doth), doth, do. |
|-------------------------------|--|-------------------|

*Infinitive.**(don)*, *don*, *doon*, *doen*, doing, *done*, *do*.*Participles.*IMPERFECT. *doand*, doing.PERFECT. (*gedon*), *i-don*, *i-doon*, *i-doen*,
i-do, *a-do*, *don*, *done*, *do*.

The student should be careful to distinguish this verb from another of similar form, but different origin (A. S. *dugan*), meaning "thrive," "avail." In the phrase "How *do* you *do*?" the first *do* is the verb given above employed as an auxiliary; the second is the verb *dugan*, "fare," "prosper." The same verb is seen in such expressions as "that will *do*;" "it *did* very well."

370.

GO.

Indicative.

PRESENT INDEFINITE.

- | | | |
|--|--|------------------------------|
| 1. (<i>ga</i>), <i>ga</i> , <i>go</i> . | | (gath), goth, goon, gon, go. |
| 2. (<i>gæst</i>), <i>gest</i> , <i>gost</i> , <i>goest</i> . | | |
| 3. (<i>gæth</i>), <i>geth</i> , <i>goeth</i> , <i>goth</i> , <i>goes</i> ,
<i>gas</i> . | | |

PAST INDEFINITE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. (<i>eode</i>), <i>eode</i> , <i>yeode</i> , <i>yode</i> , <i>yedé</i> ,
<i>yedé</i> , <i>gede</i> . | (<i>eodon</i>), <i>yeden</i> , <i>geden</i> , <i>yedé</i> , <i>yede</i> ,
<i>gede</i> . |
| 2. (<i>eodest</i>), <i>yedest</i> , <i>gedest</i> . | |
| 3. (<i>eode</i>), <i>eode</i> , <i>yeode</i> , <i>yode</i> , <i>yedé</i> ,
<i>yede</i> , <i>gode</i> , <i>gede</i> . | |

Another form.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. (<i>gengde</i> , <i>gende</i> , <i>wende</i>), <i>wendé</i> ,
<i>wondé</i> , <i>wenté</i> , <i>went</i> . | (<i>gengdon</i> , <i>wendon</i>), <i>wennen</i> <i>wendé</i> ,
<i>wenten</i> , <i>wenté</i> , <i>went</i> . |
| 2. (<i>gendest</i> , <i>wendest</i>), <i>wentest</i> . | |
| 3. (<i>gende</i> , <i>wende</i>), <i>wendé</i> , <i>wende</i> ,
<i>wenté</i> , <i>went</i> . | |

Imperative.

2. (*ga*), *go* ; (*gath*), *goth*, *go* ; *wendeth*.

Infinitive.

- (a) (*gan*), *gon*, *gone*, *going*, *go*.
(b) (*wendan*), *wenden*, *wending*, *wendé*, *wend*.

Participles.

IMPERFECT. *going*, *wending*.

PERFECT. (a) (*gegangen*, *gegan*, *gan*), *i-gan*, *a-gan*, *a-gone*, *a-go*, *i-gan*,
gan, *gone*, *go* : ("He is *go*."—Chaucer.)

(b) (*wended*), *y-went*, *went* : ("We be *went*."—R. Br.)

371.

MAKE.

Indicative.

PRESENT INDEFINITE.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. (<i>macige</i>), <i>make</i> . | (<i>maciath</i>), <i>maketh</i> , <i>maken</i> , <i>maké</i> , |
| 2. (<i>macast</i>), <i>makest</i> , <i>maiste</i> . | <i>make</i> . |
| 3. (<i>macath</i>), <i>makath</i> , <i>maketh</i> ,
<i>makith</i> , <i>makes</i> , <i>mas</i> . | |

PAST INDEFINITE.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. (<i>macoæ</i>), <i>makede</i> , <i>made</i> . | (<i>macodon</i>), <i>makeden</i> , <i>maked</i> , |
| 2. (<i>macodest</i>), <i>madest</i> . | <i>made</i> . |
| 3. (<i>macode</i>), <i>maked</i> , <i>made</i> . | |

Imperative.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
2. (<i>maca</i>), make.		(<i>maciath</i>), maketh, make.

Infinitive.

(*macian*), *maken*, making, *maké*, make, *mak*.

GERUND. (*to macigenne*), *to maken*, to make.

Participles.

IMPERFECT. (*macigende*), *makand*, making.

PERFECT. (*gemacod*), *i-maked*, *i-made*, *maked*, made, *mad*.

372.

WITE (know).

Indicative.

PRESENT INDEFINITE.

1. (<i>wat</i>), <i>wat</i> , <i>wot</i> , <i>wite</i> , <i>wete</i> .		(<i>witon</i> , <i>wite</i>), <i>witen</i> , <i>wité</i> , <i>woté</i> ,
2. (<i>wast</i>), <i>wost</i> , <i>wist</i> , <i>wust</i> , <i>wotest</i> , <i>wotst</i> .		<i>wite</i> , <i>wote</i> , <i>wete</i> , <i>witeth</i> .
3. (<i>wat</i>), <i>wat</i> , <i>wot</i> , <i>witeth</i> , <i>woteth</i> .		

Imperative.

2. (<i>wite</i>), <i>wite</i> , <i>wete</i> , <i>wit</i> .		2. (<i>witath</i>), <i>witeth</i> .
--	--	---------------------------------------

Infinitive.

(*witan*), *witen*, *wité*, *weten*, *weté*, *wite*, *wit*.

GERUND. (*to witanne*), *to witen*, to wit.

Participles.

IMPERFECT. (*witande*), *wytande*, *wetyng*, (un)-witting.

PERFECT. (*witen*), *witten*, *wetyn*, *i-wiste*, *i-wust*, *wisté*, *wist*.

Negative forms, *not* (wot not), *nost* (wost not), *nuteth* (woteth not), *niste* (wiste not), *nuste* (wuste not).

The old verb, *wisse* (A. S. *wisian*), "show," "teach," is often confused with the verb *wite*. Present Indefinite, *wisse*; Imperative, *wisse*, *wis*; Infinitive, *wissen*, *wisse*; Perfect Participle, *y-wisse*. "One word which repeatedly occurs in Shakspeare, containing the prefix *ge*, has been generally misunderstood by his editors. What they all, I believe,

without exception, print *I wis*, or *I wiss*, as if it were a verb with its nominative, is undoubtedly one word, and that an adverb, signifying 'certainly, probably.' It ought to be written *ywis*, or *ywiss*, corresponding, as it does, exactly to the modern German *gewiss*." * Compare the A. S. *gewislice*, certe.

373.

OWE, OUGHT.

Indicative.

PRESENT INDEFINITE.

Singular.

1. (*age*), *owe*, *oh*.
2. (*age*), *owest*, *owst*.
3. (*ah*), *oweth*, *owth*, *owes*.

Plural.(agon), *ogen*, *ohen*, *owen*, *owé*, *owe*.

PAST INDEFINITE.

1. (*ahte*), *aghté*, *oghté*, *aute*,
oughté, *ought*, *ow*.
2. (*ahtest*), *aghtest*, *oghtest*,
oughtest.
3. (*ahte*), *aghté*, *oghté*, *oughté*,
ought.

(ahton), *aghten*, *oughten*, *oughté*,
ogt, *ought*.

The earlier meaning of *owe* is "own," "possess." "Grimm considers *aih* is the preterite of *eigan*, 'to labour' or 'make.' The word, therefore, which originally meant, 'I have made or acquired by my own labour,' assumed, like *κεκτημαι*, the present sense of 'I possess,' or 'have as my own.'" † This meaning of *owe* is common in O. E. :

I am not worthy of the wealth I *owe*.—*Shakspeare*.

If you hold as your own what belongs to another, you *owe* it in the modern sense of the word.

Ought is the regular Past Indefinite of *owe* :

You *ought* him a thousand pounds.—*Shakspeare*.

What you *ought* to do, is what *is due* from you—what you *should* do. With this variation of meaning the tense has become established in the language as a separate verb, while another form (*owed*) is employed as the Past Indefinite of *owe*.

Though appearing as an independent verb, *ought* has no inflectional variations.

* Craik, Eng. of Shaks. p. 225.

† Sir E. Head, Shall and Will, p. 103.

374. WORTH (be, become).

Indicative.

PRESENT INDEFINITE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

- | | | |
|--|--|---|
| 1. (<i>weorthe</i>), <i>worthe</i> . | | (<i>weorthath</i>), <i>wortheth</i> . |
| 2. (<i>wyrst</i>), <i>worst</i> . | | |
| 3. (<i>wyrth</i>), <i>worth</i> . <i>worthes</i> . | | |

Imperative.(weorth), *worth*.*Infinitive.*(weorthan), *worthen*, *worthé*, *worth*.*Participle.*PERFECT. (*ge-worden*), *i-worthe*, *worth*.

This verb, like the German *werden*, signified "to become." In O. E. it frequently means "shall be," and is sometimes used as an auxiliary of futurity :

London he is now icleped and *worth* evermo.—*Rob. Gl.*

i. e. "and shall be evermore."

Soon, within a litel while,

Worth i-parceived our guile.—*Seven Wise Masters*.

i. e. "will be perceived." The Present Indefinite Subjunctive is still occasionally used in modern poetry :

Woe *worth* the chase, woe *worth* the day,

That costs thy life, my gallant grey !—*Scott*.

i. e. "woe be to the chase." The word *wert*, which is often considered to be the second person singular of *were*, is said to be a remnant of *worthen*, used as a passive auxiliary.*

375.

QUOTH.

Found only in the first and second persons. Present Indefinite—*quethe*, *quoth*, *quod*. Past Indefinite—*quath*, *quod*. Perfect Participle—*i-quethen*, *i-cwede*.

Quote and *bequeath*, derivatives from this verb, are regular.

* Marsh. Lect. p. 317.

376. THINK (seem).

This must not be confounded with the regular verb *think*. In A. S. there are two verbs: *thencan*, think, and *thincan*, seem. The latter is found only in the third person. The pronoun usually found before it is in the Dative case, and the subject is the sentence that follows the verb. (§ 276.)

PRESENT INDEFINITE. (*thincth*), *thunchth*, *thunch*, *thinketh*, *thinks*.

PAST INDEFINITE. (*thukhte*), *thoghtē*, *thoght*, *thought*.

PERFECT PARTICIPLE. (*gethuht*), *gethuht*.

“It *thinketh* me” (*Chaucer*); “it *thoghte* them” (*Gower*); “mury and fair it *thoght* ynow” (*Rob. Glouc.*); *i. e.* it seemed merry and fair enough.

377. LIST (please).

This verb is also used only in the third person, with a construction similar to that of *think* (seem). Present Indefinite—*list*, *lest*, *listeth*. Past Indefinite—*lust*, *listed*. Rarely, it occurs as a personal verb: *he listeth*, *ye listen*.

378. The present tendency of the English language is to convert strong verbs into weak. Hence many forms are found in old and provincial English which have disappeared from the current language of literature. Sometimes the strong and weak forms coexist, marking a period of transition. No new verb, or verb of classical origin, ever takes the strong form.

DERIVATION OF VERBS.

A. TEUTONIC.

379. 1. *By Internal Changes.*

Change of Vowel. (Nouns) gold, gild; blood, bleed; food, feed.

(Adjective) full, fill.

(Verbs) rise, raise; fall, fell; sit, set; roll, reel.

Change of Consonant. (Nouns) house, house; wreath, wreath; thief, thief.

(Verbs) wink, wince; pink, pinch; dog, dodge.

Change of Vowel and Consonant. (Nouns) bath, bathe; grass, graze; breath, breathe.

(Verbs) blink, blench; drag, dredge; wake, watch.

380.

2. *By a Suffix.*

-*uck, -ck, -k*; pl-uck, sti-ck, lur-k, tal-k, har-k, wal-k.
 -*ag, -ug, -augh, -y*; dr-ag, shr-ug, l-augh, fl-y, worr-y.
 -*ow, -aw, -ew*; hall-ow, swall-ow, bell-ow, dr-aw, str-ew.
 -*p, -b, -v*; cree-p, hel-p, sta-b, wa-ve, stri-ve, ro-ve.
 -*er*; stag-g-er, glimm-er, sputt-er, whisp-er, wand-er.
 -*el, -l*; stragg-le, spark-le, ming-le, draw-l, crawl, knee-l.
 -*en, -on*; gladd-en, light-en, op-en, list-en, reck-on, beck-on.
 -*n, -ng, -m*; bur-n, war-n, wri-ug, swi-ng, see-m, dee-m.
 -*ot, -t, -d*; bl-ot, tr-ot, sif-t, hur-t, gir-d, gil-d.
 -*atch, -otch, -utch*; scr-atch, sn-atch, bl-otch, ci-utch.
 -*sh, -ush, -ass*; wi-sh, br-ush, bl-ush, cr-ush, har-ass.
 -*nk, -nch*; dri-nk, bli-nk, sli-nk, dre-nch, ble-nch, wre-nch.
 -*nt, -nd*; gli-nt, sti-nt, pa-nt, sta-nd, re-nd, bi-nd.

The above are, or were, diminutives.*

-*se*; clean-se, rin-se, tea-se, ri-se.

-*ze*; free-ze, whee-ze, snee-ze.

-*er*; added to adjectives; hind-er, low-er, ling-er.

381.

3. *By a Prefix.*

a- (A. S. *a-*); a shortened form of the old preposition *ant*; † *a-rise*, *a-wake*, *a-rouse*. This preposition is seen again in *e-lope*, "run off."

a- (A. S. *a-*); *a-bide*, *a-bear*, *a-light*, *a-bet*.

at- (A. S. *æt-*); an old English prefix meaning "away," "against;" *at-fly*, *at-go*, *at-stand*, *at-hold*, *at-fall*.

be- (A. S. *be-*); *be-come*, *be-gin*, *be-take*. This prefix has been identified by Professor Key with the Gothic *ge-* and the Latin *con-*

* Professor Key, Tr. Phil. Soc. 1856.

† Professor Key on *ana*, Tr. Phil. Soc. 1854.

(*Alphabet*, pp. 181-2). It often adds intensity to the meaning of the simple verb.

en-, em- } (A. S. *in-*); en-dear, en-thral, en-grave, em-body, em-bower.
in-, im- } in-graft, in-fold, in-lay, im-bed.

for- (A. S. *for-*), for-bid, for-give, for-sake, for-swear, for-do.

fore- (A. S. *fore-*); fore-tell, fore-bode, fore-see, fore-warn.

mis- (A. S. *mis-*); mis-lay, mis-lead, mis-take, mis-spend.

of- (A. S. *of-*); an O. E. prefix; of-seek (seek out), of-send (send for), of-take (overtake).

out- (A. S. *ut-*); out-do, out-sail, out-strip, out-speed.

over- (A. S. *over-*); over-come, over-look, over-take, over-throw.

to- (A. S. *to-*); an O. E. prefix adding the meaning of *dis* to the simple verb; to-break, to-hew, to-rend, to-tear; Germ. *zer-*.

Her hondes she set on her hair,
 And her faire tresses all *to-tare*.—*Rom. of Merlin*.

um-, umbi- (A. S. *ymb-*, "around"); an O. E. prefix: umbi-stand (surround), um-go (go-round), um-clip (embrace).

un- (A. S. *un-*); another form of *ant* or *unt* = un-do, un-lock, un-fold.

under- (A. S. *under-*); a comparative form of the above prefixed to verbs; under-go, under-take, under-stand.

up- (A. S. *up-*); up-set, up-rear, up-braid, up-hold.

ver- (Germ. *ver-*); another form of *for-*: ver-clef (cloven), ver-lore (lost).

with- (A. S. *with-*); signifies "opposition," "back," "against," with-draw, with-hold, with-stand.

B. CLASSICAL

382.

1. *By a Suffix.*

LATIN.

-ate; complic-ate, eradic-ate, anticip-ate.

-eer; domin-eer, volunt-eer, car-eer.

-esce; coal-esce, efferv-esce.

-fy; terri-fy, quali-fy, magni-fy

-ish; per-ish, flour-ish, cher-ish.

-t; reflec-t, predic-t, conduc-t.

GREEK.

-ize; critic-ize, harmon-ize, theor-ize.

383.

2. *By a Prefix.**

LATIN.

<i>abs-</i>	} abs-tain.	<i>contro-</i>	contro-vert.	<i>par-</i>	par-boil.
<i>ab-</i>	} ab-jure.	<i>de-</i>	de-part.	<i>per-</i>	per-form.
<i>a-</i>	} a-vert.	<i>dis-</i>	dis-join.	<i>pro-</i>	pro-mote.
<i>ad-</i>	} ad-mire.	<i>dif-</i>	dif-fuse.	<i>por-</i>	por-tend.
<i>ac-</i>	} ac-cuse.	<i>di-</i>	di-vide.	<i>pur-</i>	pur-vey.
<i>af-</i>	} af-firm.	<i>ex-</i>	ex-tort.	<i>pol-</i>	pol-lute.
<i>ag-</i>	} ag-grieve.	<i>ef-</i>	ef-face.	<i>post-</i>	post-pone.
<i>al-</i>	} al-lude.	<i>e-</i>	e-duce.	<i>pre-</i>	pre-vent.
<i>an-</i>	} an-nul.	<i>in-</i>	in-cite.	<i>red-</i>	red-eem.
<i>ap-</i>	} ap-prove.	<i>en-</i>	en-dure.	<i>re-</i>	re-duce.
<i>ar-</i>	} ar-rive.	<i>im-</i>	im-prove.	<i>retro-</i>	retro-grade.
<i>as-</i>	} as-sume.	<i>em-</i>	em-ploy.	<i>se-</i>	se-cede.
<i>at-</i>	} at-tend.	<i>il-</i>	il-lude.	<i>sub-</i>	sub-tract.
<i>a-</i>	} a-scribe.	<i>ir-</i>	ir-radiate.	<i>suc-</i>	suc-ceed.
<i>am-</i>	am-putate.	<i>in=not</i>	in-jure.	<i>suf-</i>	suf-fer.
<i>ante-</i>	} ante-date.	<i>inter-</i>	inter-rupt.	<i>sug-</i>	sug-gest.
<i>anti-</i>	} anti-cipate.	<i>enter-</i>	enter-tain.	<i>sup-</i>	sup-pose.
<i>circum-</i>	circum-vent.	<i>intro-</i>	intro-duce.	<i>sus-</i>	sus-pend.
<i>con-</i>	} con-tend.	<i>manu-</i>	manu-mit.	<i>su-</i>	su-spect.
<i>col-</i>	} col-lect.	<i>main-</i>	main-tain.	<i>super-</i>	super-vise.
<i>com-</i>	} com-mend.	<i>ob-</i>	ob-tain.	<i>sur-</i>	sur-mount.
<i>cor-</i>	} cor-rupt.	<i>oc-</i>	oc-cur.	<i>trans-</i>	trans-late.
<i>co-</i>	} co-erce.	<i>of-</i>	of-fend.	<i>tra-</i>	tra-duce.
<i>contra-</i>	} contra-dict.	<i>op-</i>	op-pose.	<i>tres-</i>	tres-pass.
<i>counter-</i>	} counter-act.	<i>outr=ultra</i>	outr-age.		

GREEK.

en-; en-throne, en-sphere.

384. Many nouns in English are converted into verbs without altering the form of the word: *plant, stone, butter, nail, hammer, pin, thread, chain, fetter, &c.*

Adjectives frequently become verbs without alteration: *idle, better, dry, wet, smooth, double, &c.*

Adverbs occasionally become verbs: *further, forward, &c.*

385. Verbs are sometimes formed from other verbs by dropping a part of the root: *ram, c-ram; rumple, c-rumple, rumble, g-rumble; melt, s-melt; tumble, s-tumble; mash, s-mash; welter, s-welter, &c.* Verbs are occasionally formed by a species of reduplication: *shilly-shally, fiddle-faddle, dingle-dangle, tittle-tattle, &c.*

* These prefixes are explained § 163. Verbs formed directly from nouns and adjectives are omitted.

COMPOUND VERBS.

386. (1) *Noun + noun* ; ham-string, hand-cuff.
 (2) *Noun + verb* ; back-bite, brow-beat, way-lay.
 (3) *Adjective + noun* ; black-ball, holy-stone, black-lead. 2
 (4) *Adjective + verb* ; white-wash, ful-fil, rough-hew.
 (5) *Adverb + verb* ; gain-say, fore-tell, cross-question.
 (6) *Verb + adverb* ; do-on (don), do-off (doff), do-out (dout, O. E. and *Provinc.*), do-up (dup, *Pr.*).

ADVERBS.

387. Adverbs are indeclinable words, employed to modify the meaning of adjectives, participles, verbs, prepositions, nouns, pronouns, other adverbs, and compound phrases.

- (a) Adjective. "This has rendered them *universally proud*" (*Burke*).
 (b) Participle. "A *greatly honoured* friend and teacher" (*Trench*).
 (c) Verb. "The dogs *howled fearfully* during the night" (*Waterton*).
 (d) Preposition. "*Far from* the madding crowd's ignoble strife" (*Gray*).
 (e) Noun. "I shall dismiss all attempts to please, while I study *only instruction*" (*Goldsmith*).
 (f) Pronoun. "*Yours most affectionately*, Oliver Goldsmith" (*Id.*)
 (g) Adverb. "Why was the philosopher *more easily* satisfied than the mechanic?" (*Macaulay*).
 (h) Compound phrase. "The barn-owl *sometimes* [carries off rats]" (*Waterton*).

388. Adverbs are, strictly speaking, abbreviated or elliptical expressions; e. g. *sometimes* = "at some time;" *here* = "at this (place);" *to-day* = "on this day" (*hodie*); &c.

Occasionally the governing preposition is retained, as *for-sooth*, *indeed*, *per-chance*, &c.

Hence any phrase or combination of words indicating the time, manner, or locality of an action is virtually an adverb.

It was written *a thousand years before our Christian era.*—*De Quincey.*

In the evening, when we went away, the old water-hen came back to the nest.—*Waterton.*

The legions stood to their arms *in well-ordered ranks and awful silence.*—*Gibbon.*

In a cowslip bell I lie.—*Shakspeare.*

It is usual, however, to limit the term *adverb* to derived and compound words.

389. Adverbs are frequently classed in accordance with their meaning.

- (1) *Time* ; once, always, daily, before, to-morrow.
- (2) *Place* ; here, aloft, below, inside, around.
- (3) *Degree* ; much, very, greatly, almost, nearly.
- (4) *Manner* ; well, thus, truly, softly, so.
- (5) *Cause* ; therefore, wherefore, hence, why.

390. Adverbs are formed from nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, participles, numerals, and prepositions : *bodily, here, sweetly, astray, wooingly, once, before.*

391. Most of the English adverbs are formed from adjectives or participles by the suffix *-ly*, a shortened form of *like* : *sure-ly, loving-ly, &c.* ; several by prefixing *a-* to nouns : *a-board, a-head, a-shore, &c.* ; and a few by suffixing *-ward* or *wards, -wise* or *ways* : *home-ward, back-wards, other-wise, al-ways, &c.*

392. Adverbs derived from adjectives ending in *-ly* do not add a second *-ly* ; the simple adjective is used as an adverb : *hour-ly, night-ly.* In *holi-ly*, from *holy*, the *l* is part of the root.

When the adjective ends in *-ble*, a contraction takes place : *noble, nobly; sensible, sensibly.* In the old Scotch poet Dunbar, we find the form *nobil-ly.* If the adjective end in *-y*, the *y* is written *i* when the suffix *-ly* is added : *weary, weari-ly.*

393. Adverbs formed from the Relative pronoun serve at the same time to connect propositions, and may be called *Conjunctive Adverbs*.

Wherever they marched, their route was marked with blood.—*Robertson*.

Shall I be frightened, *when* a madman stares?—*Shakspeare*.

The world was all before them, *where* to choose

Their place of rest, and Providence their guide.—*Milton*.

394. Those derived from the Interrogative are frequently employed to ask a question, and may be termed *Interrogative Adverbs*.

Mother, oh! *where* is that radiant shore?—*Hemans*.

When shall we three meet again?—*Shakspeare*.

Why dimly gleams the visionary sword?—*Pope*.

How could I name Love's very name,

Nor wake my harp to notes of flame?—*Scott*.

395. Some adverbs admit of degrees of comparison: *soon*, *soon-er*, *soon-est*; others, from their nature, are incapable of being compared: *now*, *then*, *there*, *to-morrow*.

The rules already given for expressing the comparison of adjectives apply equally to adverbs. In A. S. the adverbial suffixes are *-or*, *-ost*; those for adjectives, *er*, *-est*. In modern English this distinction is lost.

Adverbs formed by the suffix *-ly*, usually express the comparative and superlative by *more* and *most*; but in the older writers they occasionally receive a suffix: "*earthlier* happy" (*Shakspeare*).

Destroyers *rightlier* called the plague of men.—*Milton*.

DERIVATION OF ADVERBS.

A. TEUTONIC.

396.

1. *By a Suffix.*

☛ (A. S. *-e*); an O. E. suffix; *soft-ē*, *bright-ē*, *swift-ē*. "*e* is the usual termination by which adverbs are formed from adjectives; as,

wide, widely." * It seems to be the suffix of the dative, that case being employed to express the *manner*. See § 149. When the suffix is lost, these adverbs assume the appearance of adjectives: "the moon shines *bright*;" "the stream runs *fast*."

- es } unawar-es, sometim-es, besid-es.
 -se } el-se, O. E. el-es, ell-es, el-s (Lat. *al-io-, al-iter*).
 -ce } on-ce, hen-ce, then-ce, sin-ce (O. E. on-es, henn-es, thenn-es).
 -s } need-s, outward-s, O. E. eftsoon-s.

These forms were probably identical in origin (A. S. -es), and seem to have been old genitives.

-ling; this suffix is found only in the word *darkling*:

Oh, wilt thou *darkling* leave me?—*Shakspeare*.

So out went the candle, and we were left *darkling*.—*Id.*

The derivation is uncertain. It may be merely a participle of the verb *darkle*, employed as in the phrase, "they went their way *rejoicing*." For another explanation, see Dr. Latham's *Eng. Lang.* (p. 506).

-ly (A. S. -lice, O. E. -liche). In the A. S. -lic-e, the final e is the dative suffix: *clæn-lic*, "pure;" *clæn-lic-e*, "purely," "in a pure manner." In later English the case-ending is lost, and the adverb and the adjective assume the same form.

-om; a suffix of this form is seen in the two words *whil-om* and *seld-om*. They are said to be old datives; and, in the case of *whilom*, the A. S. *hwil-um* renders this explanation probable. But the old forms of *seldom* (A. S. *seld-an, seld-on*; O. E. *seld-en*; and Dan. *sjeld-en*) seem to indicate an adverbial termination of another kind. Compare the Germ. *selt-sam*.

-ther (A. S. -ther); hi-ther, thi-ther, whi-ther, &c. See § 254.

-ward } (A. S. *weard*); home-ward, heaven-ward, in-ward.

-wards } (A. S. *weardes*); home-wards, heaven-wards, in-wards.

For a possible explanation of this double form, see remarks on -es.

-wise } (A. S. -wis. This suffix is the A. S. and O. E. *wise*, "manner,"
 "fashion," = "in this wise." *Other-wise* means "in another
 -ways } way." The form -ways is not connected with the word *way*,
 a road.

397.

2. By a Prefix.

a- (A. S. *a-*); an old preposition *an* or *on*, found prefixed to nouns and adjectives: *a-shore, a-board, a-loft*. Compare the equivalent forms

* Rask, *Ang. Sax. Gram.* § 335.

"on shore," "on board," O. E. "on lyft" (in air). Adjectives: a-new, a-fresh, a-broad, a-far.

al- (A. S. *al-*); al-most, al-ways, al-one, al-so.

be- (A. S. and O. E. *bi-*); the preposition *by*; be-fore (O. E. *bi-fore*), be-sides (O. E. *bi-sides*).

to- (A. S. *to-*); the demonstrative "this": to-day, to-morrow, to-night (§ 239).

398.

B. CLASSICAL.

a-; a-part, a-pace, a-cross.

per-; per-chance, per-force, per-adventure. *Per-haps* is a hybrid.

399.

COMPOUND ADVERBS.

(1) *Noun + noun*; side-ways, length-wise, guest-wise
(*Shakspeare*).

(2) *Noun + adjective*; head-foremost, breast-high, knee-deep.

(3) *Adjective + noun*; mean-while, al-ways, mean-time.

(4) *Pronoun + noun*; to-night, some-times, other-wise.

(5) *Pronoun + preposition*; here-tofore, here-after, there-upon.

(6) *Preposition + noun*; in-deed, out-side, above-board.

The adverbs derived from numerals have been specified and explained in §§ 216, 217; those derived from pronouns, in §§ 242, 254, 260.

400. Some adverbs are merely elliptical expressions, or truncated propositions, as *may-be*, *may-hap*. Compare the Latin *forsitan*.

401. Adverbs are occasionally formed by reduplication, as, *pit-pat*, *zig-zag*, &c., and sometimes by a species of alliteration: *topsy-turvy*, *pell-mell*, *helter-skelter*, *higgledy-piggledy*, &c.

Most of the prepositions are also used as adverbs.

PREPOSITIONS.

402. Prepositions, being the modern equivalents of case-endings, are employed with nouns to mark the relation in which these nouns stand to other words of the sentence. Thus in "the song *of* the bird," the word *of*, showing that the song proceeds *from* the bird, is identical in meaning with the suffix *s* in "the bird's song" (§§ 129, 130, 131).

In modern English, prepositions are used more frequently than in the ancient inflected languages, because the case-endings have, with few exceptions, disappeared.

403. Hence prepositions are found before nouns of every kind.

(1) *Simple noun.*

The Christmas bells *from hill to hill*

Auswer each other *in the mist*.—*Tennyson.*

(2) *Numeral.* And *unto one* her note is gay.—*Id.*

(3) *Pronoun.* I sing *to him* that rests below.—*Id.*

(4) *Infin. in ing.* And we *with singing* cheered the way.—*Id.*

(5) *Infin. with to.* Could save the son of Thetis *from to die.*

Spenser.

(6) *Infin. sentence.* *In* [honouring God, and doing His work], put forth all thy strength.—*Jer. Taylor.*

(7) *Sentence.* They made ready the present *against* [Joseph came home at noon].—*English Bible.*

404. Prepositions usually stand *before* the nouns they govern, and hence their name.

She is *far from the land* where her young hero sleeps,

And lovers are *round her* sighing ;

But coldly she turns *from their gaze* and weeps,

For her heart *in his grave* is lying.—*Moore.*

Occasionally they are found suffixed to them: *here-with, there-by, where-in, there-fore, where-fore.*

There be two things *where-of* you must have special caution.

Bacon.

405. Prepositions are frequently placed after verbs. These are, in reality, adverbs employed to form compound verbs.

Tie up the knocker; say I'm sick, I'm dead.—Pope.

406. This suffixed preposition, or, more correctly, *adverb*, often makes an intransitive verb transitive :

Full well they *laughed*, with counterfeited glee,
At all his jokes, for many a joke had he.—*Goldsmith.*

LIST OF ENGLISH PREPOSITIONS.

407. All the prepositions contained in this list, with the exception of those marked P. (Provincial), have been taken from old or modern English writers.

1. AN (A. S. *an*), an O. E. word, meaning *on* or *in*. "Children leveth French, and construeth and lerneth *an* Englisch" (*Trevisa*).
a (A. S. *a*). In modern English the inseparable form of *an*. In O. E. it was an independent word: "Women are all day *a* dressing" (*Burton*).
2. AT (A. S. *at*, *æt*).
att-en; "atten ende" (*Rob. Gl.*)? at-then-end = at-the-end.
att-é; "atté last" (*Id.*); probably = at-the.
et (P.); Old Frisian *et*.
a (O. F. *a*). "A Bangore" (*Rob. Gl.*) = "at Bangor."
3. BAFT (A. S. *bæft-an*, O. Fr. *befst-a*).
a-baft (O. Fr. *a-befst-a*)
aft (A. S. *æft*, O. Fr. *eft*). The initial *b* is dropt.
aft-er (A. S. *æft-er*, O. Fr. *aft-er*)
eft-er (O. Fr. and L. Sc. *eft-er*)
ef; O. E.
at-aft-er. "I trust to see you *atafter* Easter" (MS. quoted by Hall).
4. BOUT (A. S. *būt-an*, around).
a-bout-en (A. S. *a-but-an*)
a-bout-é
a-bout
5. BOVE (O. Fr. *bov-a*, A. S. *būf-an*).
a-bov-en
a-bou-en
a-bou-n
a-bo-ne
} A. S. *a-būf-an*

a-bove }
 a-boffe }
 a-buf }
 a-bew (P.) }
 ov-en (A. S. *uf-an*). The initial *b* is dropt.
 an-ov-en (A. S. *on-uf-an*)
 ov-er }
 af-our } (A. S. *of-er*, O. Fr. *ov-er*)
 aw-or }
 o-er }

6 (a). BUT; without, except.

but-en }
 bout-en } A. S. *but-an*
 beout-en }
 but-é (O. Fr. *but-a*)
 bote }
 bute }
 but }
 bot }
 bout }
 bo }
 boh (P.) }
 a-but-an } (A. S. *a-but-an*)
 a-but-en }
 a-bawt (P.) }

(b) OUT.

ut-en } (A. S. *ut-an*). The initial *b* of *butan* is dropt.
 out-en }
 ut-é } A. S. *ut-e*
 out-é }
 ut } A. S. *ut*
 out }
 for-out-in (*Gawaine*) = without.
 forth-out: "Fly *forthout* my heart."—*Chaucer*.
 through-out }
 thorgh-out }
 thorth-out }
 with-out-en }
 with-out-é }
 with-out; sometimes written in O. E. *out-with*.
 from-out; usually written separately:

From out waste places comes a cry.—Tennyson.

7. BY (A. S. *big*, Mod. Fr. *by*).

be (A. S. *be*)
 bi (A. S. *bi*)
 beo, O. E.
 for-by } = before. "Forbi everilk one" (*Rob. Br.*), i. e. "before every
 for-bi } one."

8. DOWN (A. S. *dun*, a slope).
 a-dun
 a-doune } A. S. *a-dun*. Compare the O. French *à mont* and *à val*,
 a-down } for "upwards" and "downwards."
 a-dawe }
9. ERE (A. S. *ær*, *er*) = before. The adverb *er-st* is the superlative.
 are }
 ar } O. Fr. *ar*.
 ore } Would I had met my dearest foe in Heaven,
 or } Or ever I had seen that day.—*Shakspeare*.
10. FOR (A. S. *for*) = instead of, because of, &c.
 fore. Found only in compounds *there-fore*, *where-fore*, &c.
11. FORE (A. S. *fore*) = before, of place or time.
 for-n }
 fer-ne } A. S. *for-an*.
 a-for-en (O. Fr. *a-for-en*)
 a-for-n
 a-fore (O. F. *a-fore*); still seen in *afore-said*.
 at-fore (A. S. *at-for-an*)
 be-for-en (A. S. *be-for-an*)
 be-for-n
 bi-for-n
 be-for-é (A. S. *be-for-e*)
 bi-for-é (O. Fr. *bi-far-a*)
 be-fore
 bi-fore
 bi-vore (compare the German *be-vor*)
 to-for-en (A. S. *to-for-an*)
 to-for-n
 to-fore (O. Fr. *to-far-a*); still seen in *here-tofore*.
12. FORTH (A. S. *forth*):
 Steal *forth* thy father's house.—*Shakspeare*.
13. FROM
 fram (A. S. *fram*)
 fra (A. S. *fra*), Scotch, "Til and *fra*."
 fro; seen in *fro-ward*, "to and *fro*."
14. GAIN (P.), A. S. *gegen*, *gæn*.
 gain-st
 o-gain } (A. S. *on-gæan*, *on-gegen*). Compare the Germ. *ent-gegen*.
 a-gain }
 a-gen } (A. S. *a-gen*)
 a-yen } (O. Fr. *a-ien*)
 o-ge }
 a-ge }
 a-ye }

a-gain-is }
 a-gen-es }
 a-gain-s }
 a-gen-s }
 a-yen-s }
 a-yan-ce }
 a-gains-t }
 a-gen-st }
 a-yen-st }
 oven-against
 over-against

15. AN-ENT = opposite, concerning; connected with *on-gean*, against.*

an-ont
 a-yont (L. Sc.), "*ayont* the ingle."
 an-ent-is
 an-empt-es
 an-en-s
 on-en-ce
 an-en-st
 an-emp-st
 en-ant-y
 en-unt-y

for-enenst

16. HIND (A. S. *hind-an*); "wind hind waves" (*Dunbar*). *Hind* is said to have originally meant "tail."†

a-hint (P.)
 be-hind (A. S. *be-hind-an*)
 bi-hynde
 be-hint (P.)

17. IN (A. S. *in*).

i (O. N. *i*): "A worm *i* the bud" (*Shakspeare*).
 an (A. S. *an*). See 1.

a (A. S. *a*). See 1.

on (A. S. *on*): "Stories said *on* gud manere" (*Barbour*).

with-inn-é (A. S. *with-inn-an*)

with-in; in O. E. often written *in-with*.

18. LONG (P.); A. S. *lang*, along.

ande-long (A. S. *and-lang*, German *ent-lang*)

end-long: "*Endlong* the lusty river" (*Dunbar*).

end-lang
 a-lang
 a-long
 a-lonk
 a-long-st

* Mr. Wedgwood (Dict. Eng. Etym.) thinks that the *nt* is due to Norse influence.

† Id. v. behind.

The word *long* or *along* in the phrase "along of," "long of" ("all this coil is *long of you*."—*Shakspeare*), is of different origin. It is the A. S. *gelang* from *gelingan*, to happen.*

19. MID (A. S. *mid*) = with. O. F. *mith*, O. N. *meth*.
20. MID (O. Fr. *midd-a*)
 mid-st
 a-midd-6 (A. S. *a-midd-an*)
 a-mid
 a-mod
 a-midd-es (A. S. *midd-es, to-midd-es*)
 e-midd-es
 a-mid-s
 a-mid-st
 in-mid (A. S. *on-midd-an*); "inmid the sea" (*Ch.*); *on-mydde* (R. C. de Lion).
21. MONG (O. Fr. *mong*); root *mog, meg, or mig*, in *meng-en*, O. E. = *ming-le*.
 mong-st
 a-mog (O. Fr. *mog*)
 a-mong
 a-mang (A. S. *a-mang*)
 a-mang-is
 a-mong-es
 e-mang-es
 e-mong-es
 a-mong-s
 a-mong-st
 bi-mong (A. S. *ge-mang*)
22. NEATH (A. S. *neoth-an*)
 a-neath (P.)
 be-neath (A. S. *be-neoth*)
 bi-neth (O. Fr. *bi-neth-a*)
 bi-neth-an (A. S. *be-nith-an*)
 bi-nith-er
 under-neath.
23. NIGH (O. Fr. *ni, nei*, A. S. *neak*)
 nigh-er
 nigh-est (A. S. *neh-st*)
 next (A. S. *next*)
 near (A. S. *near*)
 near-er
 near-est
 a-nigh (P.)
 a-nighst (P.)
 a-near (P.)
 a-neast (P.)

* Wedgwood, Dict. En. Revm. v. *along*.

24. OF (A. S. *of*).af. Compare *ab* and *apo*.

o; "Will-o-the-wisp."

out-of. Though written separately, these words form a real compound: "He did it *out of* kindness."25. OFF. A later form of *of*, with another meaning.26. ON (A. S. *on*)an (A. S. *an*)a (O. N. *a*)

o

oven-on = above

anoven-an = above

in-an = upon

up-on

27. ROUND. This is the A. S. *rاند* and *rond*, "border," or "rim."It was not employed as a preposition in A. S.; *ymbc* supplied its place.

a-round

a-roun (P.)

28. SINCE.

(a)

sith	}	(A. S. <i>sith</i>). This word meant "time;" "a hundred-sith" (§ 216). Compare the Germ. <i>seit</i> and <i>zeit</i> .
suth		
seth		

sith-en (A. S. *sith-an*)

seth-é

suth-é

sith-en-ce

sith-en-s

(b) sin (O. N. *sin*); possibly a contraction of *sithen*.

sin-ce

sin-s

29. TILL (A. S. *till*); probably a contraction of "to while" = "to the time." Robert of Gloucester has "to while," = *till*. InL. Sc. *till* means simply *to*; "*till* and fra," = "to and fro."

till.

in-till = into: "*Intil* ane glen" (*Dunbar*).

on-till

up-till = upon. "Leaned her breast *uptil* a thorn" (*Shakspeare*).

un-till; "as far as," and "as long as."

30. TO (A. S. *to*).ta (Mod. Fr. *ta*)te (O. Fr. *te*)

to-ward

to-ward-es

to-ward-s

for-to = until

in-to

un-to

31. (a) TWEEN (A. S. *twegen*, two)
 a-tween
 be-tween (A. S. *be-twin-an*)
 bi-tween
 bi-ten
 be-twe
- (b) TWIXT (O. Fr. *twisk*) = tweg-st.
 a-twix-é (O. Fr. *a-twix-a*)
 a-twixt
 be-twix-en } (A. S. *be-twux*)
 be-twux-en } (A. S. *be-tux*)
 bi-tux-en
 be-twix-é
 be-twix
 bi-twex
 be-twesh
 be-twixt-é
 be-twixt (A. S. *be-twixt*)
32. THROUGH (O. Fr. *thruoh*)
 thugh
 thurh (A. S. *thurh*)
 thurch
 thurgh
 thorgh
 thurch
 thorth
 thurf
 thurs
 thorough; "thoroughfare," "Thorough flood, thorough fire"
 (*Shakspeare*).
 thoru
33. UMB-EN = about, O. E. (O. Fr. *umb-e*, A. S. *ymb-e*).
 embe
34. UNDER (A. S. *under*).
 onder (O. Fr. *onder*)
 an-under (P.)
 an-onder; "Ther nis non betere *anonder* sunne."—(*G. K. Horn.*)
35. WITH (A. S. *with*).
 wit

The following are Compounds of Prepositions and Nouns, or Adjectives.

36. A-BOARD (A. S. and O. Fr. *a bord*) = on a plank, the deck of a vessel.
37. A-CROSS. From the Lat. *cruz* through the French.

38. A-SCANT* = across. "There is a willow grows *ascant* the brook" (*Shakspeare*).
a-scaunt
39. A-STRIDE (O. Fr. *a stride*), connected with the root of *straddle*.
40. A-THWART (A. S. *on thweorh*); from *thwart*, "cross." O. E. *over-twert*, *over-thorte*, P. *athirt*.
41. A-TOUR† = about, around (Halliw.). It seems sometimes to mean "above." "The horse *atour* the green did glide" (*Dunbar*). "*Atour* the flood," "*Atour* al thinge," "*Atour* measure" (*Dunbar*).
42. BE-LOW (A. S. *lah*, low), not used as a Preposition in A. S.
43. BE-SIDE
be-sid-en
be-sid-é (O. Fr. *bi-sid-a*)
be-side
bi-side
be-sid-es
along-side
in-side
out-side
44. BE-YOND (A. S. *be-geond*); demonstrative pron. *yond* (§ 241).
be-yund
bi-yonde
bi-yende

408. The following words are used apparently as prepositions:—

bating	excepting	regarding
concerning	maugre	notwithstanding
despite	opposite	sans, O. E.
during	pending	save
except	respecting	sauf, O. E. }

All these, with the exception of *notwithstanding*, are of classical origin, and all but *sans* and *despite* are participles. Their true character is explained in the Syntax (§§ 493–497).

409. Many of the prepositions in the list given above have a suffix *-st*. The true nature of this suffix has yet to be determined. It may possibly be superlative, intensifying the

* Of doubtful derivation. See Mr. Wedgwood, *Dict. Eng. Etym.*

† "*Atour* = *at over*, *i. e.* across."—Skeat, *Gloss. Index to Lanc. of the Laik.*

meaning of the simple word: *a-mid*, "in the middle of;" *a-mid-st*, "in the *very* middle of."

410. Some of the English prepositions are employed occasionally as adverbs and conjunctions: *e. g.*—

Before their eyes the wizard lay.—*Scott*. (Prep. *ante*.)

A likeness hardly seen *before*.—*Tennyson*. (Adv. *antea*.)

Before the garrison had recovered from their surprise, the governor was master of the outworks.—*Macaulay*. (Conj. *antequam*.)*

The young student should be trained to distinguish these, as a knowledge of the distinction is essential, not only in translating into other languages, but in explaining the structure of English sentences.

CONJUNCTIONS.

411. Conjunctions are words used to connect propositions:

Cheerful he seemed, *and* gentleness he loved.—*Crabbe*.

He chid their wanderings, *but* relieved their pain.—*Goldsmith*.

The word *and*, though commonly employed to connect propositions, sometimes has a different meaning (*with, together with*). It then has a prepositional character, and should not be treated as an ordinary conjunction. Many grammarians, overlooking this double property of the word *and*, assert that conjunctions connect *words* as well as propositions.

412. Conjunctions sometimes couple independent propositions, and are then called *co-ordinate*.

* Though usually termed a conjunction, *before*, in such constructions, is in reality a preposition governing a sentence: "I left *before* [he came]." Hence in O. E. the demonstrative *that* is frequently found preceding the sentence, to direct emphatic attention to it: "I left *before that* [he came]." This remark applies equally to *after, while, and since*. Compare the Latin *antequam, postquam*.

His words were few, *and* special was his care
In simplest terms his purpose to declare.—*Crabbe*.

A wise man's circumstances may vary and fluctuate like the floods about a rock; *but* he persists unmovably the same and his reputation unshaken.—*Barrow*.

Sometimes they subjoin a dependent to a principal sentence, and are then called *sub-ordinate* :

Ere the high lawns appeared
Under the opening eyelids of the morn,
We drove afield.—*Milton*.

If Homer had not led the way, it was not in Virgil to have begun Heroic poetry.—*Dryden*.

413. Dependent propositions are frequently subjoined by relative and interrogative pronouns, and by the adverbs derived from them. These words may then be viewed as true conjunctions, or subjunctive particles. They differ, however, from ordinary conjunctions in the fact that, while connecting propositions, they still retain their nominal or adverbial character. See § 393.

414. Conjunctions are frequently used in pairs, one being placed before each of the connected words or sentences: *as-so*; *both-and*; *either-or*; *neither-nor*; *whether-or*; *or-or*; *though-yet*; &c.

Though Birnam wood be come to Dunsinane,
Yet will I try the last.—*Shakspeare*.

Neither history *nor* biography is able to move a step without infractions of this rule.—*De Quincey*.

“These words are often called adverbs, but, as they too serve to connect sentences, they deserve like the rest the name of conjunctions. They bear, in fact, the same relation to the other conjunctions that the so-called antecedent does to the relative.”—(*Prof. Key, Alphabet*, p. 136.)

415. The demonstrative pronoun *that* is often used in apposition to a sentence forming the subject or object of a

verb, to fix the attention more strongly upon the collective idea contained in the sentence :

Experience tells me *that* [my past enjoyments have brought no real felicity].—*Goldsmith*.

That [a human being cannot be justly held and used as property] is apparent from the very nature of property.—*Channing*.

This pronoun is usually termed a conjunction.*

INTERJECTIONS.

416. Interjections are words expressing sudden or deep feeling, which have no grammatical connexion with the sentences in which they occur.

O blest retirement, friend to life's decline !—*Goldsmith*.

Where, then, *ah* where shall Poverty reside ?—*Id.*

“The Interjection has one important peculiarity, which not only vindicates its claim to be regarded as a constituent of language, but entitles it unequivocally to a high rank among the elements of discourse. It is in itself expressive and significant, though indeed in a low degree, whereas, at least in uninflected languages like the English, other words, detached from their grammatical connexions, are meaningless and become intelligible only as members of a period.” †

417. There are two classes of Interjections :

- (1) Simple sounds elicited by some excitement of the mind :
O, ah, fie, pshaw, pish, ugh.

* For a detailed explanation of the true character of this word, see Prof. Key's article on conjunctions (Alphabet, p. 133).

† Marsh, Lecture XIII.

- (2) Fragments of entire sentences consisting sometimes of two or more words; *Byrlakin! Odsbodikins!* &c.; and sometimes of single words; (a) nouns, *Peace! Silence! Marry!* &c. (b) verbs, *Hark! Hush! Lo!* (c) adjectives, *Strange! Shocking! Dreadful!* (d) adverbs, *Soft! Away!*

DIMINUTIVES.

418. Diminutives are words with the original meaning of the root modified by various suffixes signifying "little;" as, *hill-ock*, "little hill;" *duck-ling*, "little duck;" *shall-ow*, "little shoal;" *glimm-er*, "little gleam;" *black-ish*, "rather black;" *maid-en*, "little maid," &c.

They denote smallness, tenderness or affection, pity and contempt. Many words with a diminutival suffix have lost their diminutive meaning, and in many instances the primitive word has become obsolete.

The various diminutival suffixes have been given under the derivation of the different parts of speech.

AUGMENTATIVES.

419. Augmentatives are words formed by the addition of a suffix which strengthens the meaning of the simple word, as *dull*; *dull-ard*, "a very dull person."

In modern English the primitive word is often obsolete.

420. Augmentatives are of two kinds: (I.) Teutonic; (II.) Classical.

(I.) TEUTONIC: *-heart*, *-art*, *-ard*, *-rd*. This suffix appears to have been introduced by the Franks, Vandals, and other German tribes, into the languages of France, Spain, and

Italy, and hence is often found affixed to words of classical origin. It is used with various significations :

- (a) Endearment : *sweet-heart*.
- (b) Praise : *Leon-ard*, *Rich-ard*.
- (c) Blame : *drunk-ard*, *cow-ard*, *slugg-ard*, *bragg-art*, *dast-ard* (daze), *dot-ard*, *nigg-ard*.
- (d) Male sex : *wiz-ard*, *mall-ard*, *lenn-ard* (male linnet).
- (e) State or condition : *bay-ard* (a bay horse), *li-ard* (a gray horse), *stand-ard*, *cust-ard*, *poll-ard*.
- (f) Intensity : *poin-ard*, *tank-ard*, *gris-ard* (very gray), *hagg-ard*.

The words *steward*, *lizard*, *orchard*, *leopard*, are not augmentatives (*stow-ward*, *lacerto-*, *ort-gard*, *leopardo-*).

421. (IL.) CLASSICAL : *-on*, *-one*, *-oon* (Ital. *-one*) : *galle-on*, *poltr-on*, or *poltr-oon*, *tromb-one*, *ball-oon*, *cart-oon*, *pont-oon*, *drag-oon*, *buff-oon*, *barrac-oon*, *harp-oon*, *bab-oon*, &c.

This suffix, *on*, is thought by some to have originally signified *man*, and to have had no intensive force. Hence the Roman names *Cicer-on-*, *Tuber-on-*, *Nas-on-*, &c.

PATRONYMICS.

422. Patronymics are names formed by adding a suffix or prefix to the name of the father to indicate the son.

As Englishmen bear names derived from various stocks, it may be useful to exhibit such of the forms employed in the Indo-European languages as are not unfrequently found among English surnames.

423. One mode of expressing the patronymic was to employ the genitive case :

- (1) English : *Richard-s*, *Wilkin-s*, *Roger-s*.
- (2) Greek : *Ho Platon-os* (the [son] of Plato).
- (3) Latin : *Tull-ius* (son of Tullus), *Mar-cius* (son of Marcus).

In A. S. the suffix *-ing* was employed for this purpose : *Brown-ing*, *Hard-ing*, *Bald-ing*.

In Greek the suffix *-ida* was also commonly used : *Leon-ida-s* (Leon's son).

424. A second mode was to suffix the word *son*, or its equivalent :

- (1) English : *Dick-son*, *John-son*, *Robin-son*.
- (2) Slavonic : *-vitch*, *-ski* ; *Petro-vitch*, *Petrow-ski*.
- (3) Spanish : *ez* ; *Fernand-ez*.

425. A third mode was to *prefix* a word meaning *son* :

- (1) Norman French : *Fitz-* (filius) ; *Fitz-osborne*, *Fitz-william*, *Fitz-roy*, *Fitz-herbert*.
 - (2) Irish Gaelic : *O-* ; *O'Conner*, *O'Connel*, *O'Niel*.
 - (3) Scotch Gaelic : *Mac-* ; *Mac-Ivor*, *Mac-Intosh*.
 - (4) Welsh : *ap-* ; *ap-Evan* (Bevan), *ap-Howel* (Powel), *ap-Hugh* (Pugh), *ap-Richard* (Pritchard), *ap-Adam* (Badham), &c.
 - (5) Hebrew : *Bar* ; *Bar-tholomew*, *Bar-jonas*. *Ben* : *Ben-jamin*, *Ben-hadad*, *Ben-oni*.
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PART III.

SYNTAX.

426. *Syntax*, derived from two Greek words signifying "arranging together," is that part of grammar which describes the arrangement of words in sentences.

Propositions.

427. The simple statement of a fact is called a *proposition*.

When a fact is *affirmed*, the statement is an *affirmative* proposition :

Thou art a witch.—*Shakspeare*.

When a fact is *denied*, the statement is a *negative* proposition :

My hour is not yet come.—*Id.*

428. In a proposition, that of which we speak is called the *subject* :

Thou art a witch.

What we say of the subject is the *predicate* :

Thou art a witch.

429. Writers on logic divide the proposition into *three* parts : (1) the *subject*—that respecting which the assertion is made ; (2) the *copula*—the verb *be* expressed or implied in the statement ; and (3) the *predicate*—what is stated of the subject.

In *grammatical* analysis this division is both unnecessary and inaccurate.

430. The subject of a proposition must be either a noun, with or without qualifying words, or one of its equivalents, viz. a pronoun, an infinitive phrase, or a sentence :

(a) *Noun* :

God is our fortress.—Shakspeare.

(b) *Noun with qualifying words* :

Strong constitutions, whether politic or natural, do not feel light disorders.—Butler.

The most laborious and successful student is confined in his researches to a very few of God's works.—Channing.

(c) *Pronoun* :

He comes, the herald of a noisy world.—Cowper.

(d) *Infinitive in -ing* :

Trembling came upon me and a feeling which I would not have had.—Coleridge.

(e) *Infinitive with to* :

*To laugh were want of goodness and of grace,
And to be grave exceeds all power of face.—Pope.*

(f) *Infinitive sentence* :

[To punish a man because he has committed a crime, or because he is believed, though unjustly, to have committed a crime], is not persecution.—*Macaulay.*

(g) *Sentence* :

Whatever is, is right.—Pope.

What one man owns cannot belong to another.—Channing.

431. When a sentence consists of a single proposition, it is said to be *simple*.

When it consists of two or more principal clauses, it is *compound*. When it consists of one principal clause and one or more subordinate, it is called *complex*.

When the subject noun is accompanied by qualifying or explanatory words, it is said to be *enlarged* :

The lioness robbed of her whelps causes the wilderness to ring aloud with the proclamation of her wrongs.—*Chalmers.*

The words "robbed of her whelps" indicate the *enlargement* of the subject.

432. The predicate must be a verb, with or without qualifying words or phrases :

The fair breeze *blew*, the white foam *flew*.—*Coleridge*.

Whang, the miller, *was naturally avaricious*.—*Goldsmith*.

These tidings *were daggers to the heart of poor Whang*.—*Id.*

To exclude the great *is to magnify the little*.—*Coleridge*.

He [concluded by thanking those ladies who had presented him with a black silk gown, and had been kind to his wife during her long illness ; by apologising for having neglected his own business, which was to study and preach, in order to attend to that of the parish, which was to support its minister].—*Longfellow*.

433. When the predicate consists of a single verb, it is in its simplest form : “ trees *grow*,” “ day *breaks*.”

When the predicate verb is transitive, it requires additional words to complete the sense : these additional words are called the *extension of the predicate* :

Red Battle stamps *his foot*, and nations feel *the shock*.—*Byron*.

When the predicate verb is accompanied by an adverb, or an adverbial phrase, it is said to be *enlarged* :

The ice was *here*, the ice was *there*,
The ice was *all around*.—*Coleridge*.

I stood [upon a shore, a pleasant shore,
Where a sweet clime was breathed from a land
Of fragrance, quietness, and trees, and flowers].—*Keats*.

434. A *sentence* is one or more propositions expressing a complete thought.

A *simple sentence* states a single fact, as,

I hear thee speak of the better land.—*Hemans*.

When a secondary or dependent sentence is subjoined to a principal sentence, it is called *subordinate* :

We should hold day with the Antipodes,
If we should walk in absence of the sun.—*Shakspeare*.

When two or more independent or subordinate sentences are connected by conjunctions, they are called *co-ordinates* :

I went up to the picture, kissed it, then gently walked out, and closed the door for ever.—*De Quincey*.

As men abound in copiousness of language, so they become more wise or more mad than ordinary.—*Hobbes*.

Ruin appeared impending and inevitable, though no one could tell in what precise form it would come.—*Grote*.

435. The following grammatical terms are frequently employed in explaining the structure of sentences : *Apposition*, *Pleonasm*, *Ellipsis*.

436. *Apposition*. When one noun is used to explain another, it is attracted into the same case as the noun it explains, and is said to be in *apposition* to it :

So work the honey bees,
Creatures that by a rule in nature teach
The art of order to a peopled kingdom.—*Shakspeare*.

The noun *creatures* is in the same case as *bees*.

It is not necessary that the explanatory word or words should be of the same *number* as the noun they explain :

That best *portion* of a good man's life—
His little, nameless, unremembered *acts*
Of kindness and of love.—*Wordsworth*.

437. An infinitive phrase, or a sentence, may be in *apposition* to a noun :

O let us still *the secret joy* partake,
To follow virtue e'en for virtue's sake!—*Pope*.

In the serene expression of her face he read *the divine beatitude*, "*Blessed are the pure in heart.*"—*Longfellow*.

438. A noun with or without qualifying words may be in *apposition* to a sentence :

[By folly ye be not content with your estate], a *fancie* to be plucked out of you.—*Sir J. Cheeke*.

439. When a sentence is in apposition to a noun, the demonstrative *that* is placed before the sentence :

He had not learned *the superficial doctrine* of a later age—*that* [poetry flourishes most in an uncultivated soil], and *that* [imagination shapes its brightest visions from the mists of a superstitious age].—*Channing*.

It seems hardly possible to avoid the *conclusion that* [the Phœnicians must have been the people from whom Homer drew his information respecting the outer circle of the geography of the *Odyssey*].—*Gladstone*.

440. When the predicate consists of an intransitive verb and a noun, these words simply describe the subject, and the noun is therefore in apposition to it :

The long-remembered *beggar* was *his guest*.—*Goldsmith*.

And the *earth* was all *rest*, and the *air* was all *love*.—*Shelley*.

441. *Pleonasm*. Superfluous words are sometimes found. This redundancy of expression is called *Pleonasm* :

The net was never spread for the hawke or buzzard that hurt us, but the harmlesse birds *they* are good meat.—*Ben Jonson*.

I know *thee*, stranger, who thou art.—*Milton*.

The world *it* is empty, the heart will die.—*Coleridge*.

442. This frequently occurs when a writer converts an assertion into a question :

Yon silver beams,
Sleep *they* less sweetly on the cottage-thatch
Than on the dome of kings?—*Shelley*.

The care of our children, is *it* below the state?—*Goldsmith*.

My lord constable, the armour that I saw in your tent to-night, are those suns or stars upon *it*?—*Shakspeare*.

This change of construction sometimes occurs when the sentence is not interrogative :

The man that is once hated, both his good and his evil deeds oppress *him*.—*Ben Jonson*.

The former agents, if *they* did complain,
What could the belly answer?—*Shakspeare.*

The soul that sinneth, *it* shall die.—*English Bible.*

443. *Ellipsis.* Words necessary to complete the grammatical structure of the sentence are often omitted. This omission is termed *Ellipsis* :

I was yesterday to dine at the Duchess of Piccadilly's [house].
Goldsmith.

Whose is this image and superscription? They say unto Him, Caesar's [image and superscription].—*English Bible.*

Hadst thou the same free will and power to stand?
Thou hadst [the same free will and power to stand].—*Milton.*

The Nominative.

444. The young student should not overlook the distinction between the *Subject* and the *Nominative*. In the logical analysis of a sentence, that of which we speak is termed the *subject*, and this may consist of one or more nouns, clauses, or sentences. In grammatical analysis, if a simple noun or pronoun is the subject of a proposition, it is said to be in the *nominative* case. Hence the nominative always marks the subject of the verb; but the subject often includes other explanatory words and phrases.

445. The subject is sometimes repeated in the form of a pronoun :

The count *he* was left to the vulture and hound.—*Scott.*

His breath *it* was lightning, his voice *it* was storm.—*Id.*

The green boughs *they* wither, the thunderbolt falls.—*Id.*

His chance to-night, *it* may be thine to-morrow.—*Dunbar.*

446. When explanatory words or additional facts have been added to the Nominative, this repetition is of frequent occurrence :

And the wave at the foot of the rifted rock
It murmured pleasantly.—*Kirke White.*

Deborah, a prophetess, the wife of Lapidoth, *she* judged Israel at that time.—*Eng. Bible.*

To assert that such a passage argues equal impudence and ignorance in its author at the time of writing and publishing it, *this* is not arrogance.—*Coleridge.*

Hunger, and thirst, and fatigue, the cold of mountain snows, and the scorching sun of the tropics, *these* were the lot of every cavalier who came to seek his fortune in the New World.—*Prescott.*

447. The subject is sometimes repeated for the sake of emphasis or explanation :

Hell at last

Yawning received them whole and on them closed—
Hell their fit habitation, fraught with fire
Unquenchable, the house of woe and pain.—*Milton.*

The *spirit* of Francis Bacon was abroad—a *spirit* admirably compounded of audacity and sobriety.—*Macaulay.*

Thoughts delightful still—*thoughts* of the faces and voices of the dead, perish not, lying sometimes in slumber, sometimes in sleep.—*Wilson.*

448. The only instances in which the subject is omitted in English are :

(a) In the Present Imperative :

Awake, arise, or be for ever fallen !—*Milton.*

Bring thy children up in learning and obedience, yet without austerity.—*Sir P. Sidney.*

(b) In the expression of a wish with *would* :

[I] would he were fatter !—*Shakspeare.*

(c) In the elliptical expressions, "Thank you," "Pray, be careful."
Compare *prihee* = "I pray thee."

(d) In O. E. and in poetry, when the verb is in the second person singular, and the sentence is interrogative. The suffix determines the person :

Wolt weep ? wolt fight ? wolt fast ? wolt tear thyself ?
Wolt drink up esil ? eat a crocodile ?—*Shakspeare.*

Art in prison ? Make right use of it, and mortify thyself.—*Burton.*

449. In the so-called impersonal verbs *methinks*, *meseems*, the subject is the sentence which follows the verb :

Methinks [some of our modern Argonauts should prosecute the rest].—*Burton*.

Methinketh [I fele yet in my nose
The sweté savour of the rose].—*Chaucer*.

But soft ! methinks [I scent the morning air].—*Shakspeare*.

The true construction is, “*I scent the morning air* appears to me” (*mihī videtur*).

450. When a simple subject, or a subjective sentence, is placed after the verb, the neuter pronoun *it*, in apposition to the subject, stands before the verb :

It was an English ladye bright.—*Scott*.

It is the hardest thing in the world [to shake off superstitious prejudices].—*Gilbert White*.

451. When a subjective sentence begins with a conjunction, *it* often represents the fact stated in the sentence :

[When a vertuous man is raised], *it* brings gladnesse to his friends, griefe to his enemies, and glory to his posterity.—*Ben Jonson*.

In O. E. *it* is sometimes omitted :

And so befell [I rested me
Beside a well under a tree].—*Chaucer*.

452. A more emphatic mode of expression is to employ the pronoun *this* or *that* instead of *it* :

This is servitude,
[To serve th' unwise, or him who hath rebelled
Against his worthier].—*Milton*.

This is the danger, [when vice becomes a precedent].—*Ben Jonson*

That's a man's country [where he is well at ease].—*Burton*.

453. When the verb *be* is used simply to imply existence, and not as a copula, the pronominal adverb *there* is substituted for *it* :

There is a world elsewhere.—*Shakspeare*.

There was a wycche (witch) and made a bagge.—*Rob. of Brunne*.

This rule applies to many, perhaps all, intransitive verbs :

And *there* came forth two she-bears out of the wood.—*Eng. Bib.*

From yonder wall

There flashed no fire, and *there* hissed no ball.—*Byron*.

In O. E. *it* is sometimes found in such constructions, instead of *there* :

Hit was onys a riche man.—*Rob. of Br.*

i. e. There was once a rich man.

Hit was onys a munke and had a celle

In a wylderness for to dwelle.—*Id.*

454. When a sentence stands as the subject of a verb, it is usual to direct emphatic attention to it by prefixing the demonstrative pronoun *that* :

That [a historian should not record trifles], *that* [he should confine himself to what is important], is perfectly true.—*Macaulay*.

Better far *that* [he should be studied among the poets], than *that* [he should not be studied at all].—*Gladstone*.

That [we cannot] is pretended ; *that* [we will not] is the true reason.—*Ben Jonson*.

455. When a sentence in the predicate is in apposition to the subject, *that* frequently directs emphatic attention to the sentence :

My advice is *that* [you endeavour to be honestly rich, or contentedly poor].—*I. Walton*.

456. When a subjective sentence is placed after the verb, the demonstrative *that* is usually retained, although *it* stands in apposition to the sentence :

It occasionally happened *that* [his wit obtained the mastery over his

other faculties, and led him into absurdities into which no dull man could possibly have fallen].—*Macaulay*.

Both *it* and *that* are occasionally employed when the subjective sentence stands before the verb: “*That* [we are the breath and similitude of God], *it* is indisputable” (*Sir T. Browne*).

457. The subject usually stands before the predicate :

The sports of children satisfy the child.—*Goldsmith*.

It follows the verb in certain constructions.

(a) When an adverb or an adverbial phrase begins the sentence :

Up rose the victor angels, and to arms
The matin-trumpet sung.—*Milton*.

In such misery and shame ended [that long career of worldly wisdom and worldly prosperity].—*Macaulay*.

(b) When the object of the verb is emphatically placed first :

Teeth hadst thou in thy head when thou wast born.—*Shakspeare*.

(c) When the predicate is placed emphatically first :

Sad is your tale of the beautiful earth.—*Hemans*.

(d) In quoting the words of another :

Is this the region ? this the soil, the clime ?
(Said then *the lost Archangel*) *this the seat*
That we must change for heaven ?—*Milton*.

(e) In interrogative sentences :

Can I not mountain-maiden spy
But she must wear the Douglas eye ?—*Scott*.

(f) After *neither* or *nor* it often stands between the auxiliary and the infinitive :

Ye shall not eat of it, neither shall ye touch it.—*Eng. Bib.*

(g) In conditional clauses, without *if* :

The lamb thy riot dooms to bleed to-day,
Had he thy reason, would he skip and play ?—*Pope*.

Could a man live by it, it were not an unpleasant employment to be a poet.—*Goldsmith*.

(h) In commands, when the subject is expressed :

Go, and do *thou* likewise.—*Eng. Bib.*

458. In poetry the subject occasionally follows the verb without these qualifications, for the purpose of rendering the verb emphatic :

Vanished the Saxon's struggling spear ;
Vanished the mountain-sword.—*Scott.*

The drawbridge falls—they hurry out—
Clatters each plank and swinging chain.—*Id.*

The Object.

459. The student should distinguish between the *object* and the *accusative* or *objective case*. The *object* of a verb may be one or more simple nouns, clauses, or sentences. When a simple noun is the object of a verb, it is said to be in the Accusative or Objective case. In modern English the case-ending is generally lost, but it is convenient to assume that the denuded noun is still an accusative.

460. The object of a transitive verb may be a noun, or any of its equivalents, with or without qualifying words.

(a) Noun :

In the course of the evening Oliver undertook a *hornpipe*.—*Washington Irving.*

Superstition neither knoweth the *right kind*, nor observeth the *due measure*, of actions belonging to the service of God.—*Hooker.*

(b) Pronoun :

Where the enamoured sunny light
Brightens *her* that was so bright.—*Wordsworth.*

Herostratus lives that burnt the temple of Diana ; he is almost lost that built *it*.—*Sir T. Browne.*

(c) Infinitive in *-ing* :

Now leave *complaining*, and begin your tea.—*Pope.*

He loved *planting* and *building*, and brought in a politer way of living.—*Evelyn.*

(d) Infinitive with *to* :

Learn *to labour* and *to wait*.—*Longfellow*.

So I saw in my dream that just as Christian came up with the Cross his burden loosed from off his shoulders, and fell from off his back, and began *to tumble*.—*Bunyan*.

(e) Infinitive phrase :

Ladies, you deserve
[To have a temple built you].—*Shakspeare*.

A prince that would command the affections and purses of this nation must not study [to stretch his prerogative], or be uneasy under the restraints of law.—*Burnet*.

(f) Sentence :

As we made our way through the crowd, I perceived [we brought good humour with us].—*Goldsmith*.

They knew [this lord had money to distribute among them]; they believed [he intended to keep the best part of it to himself].—*Burnet*.

461. When a sentence stands as the object of a verb, the demonstrative pronoun *that*, in apposition to the sentence, usually precedes it :

The good woman saw at once *that* [her son was a genius and a poet].—*Washington Irving*.

For my part I have ever believed, and do now know, *that* [there are witches].—*Sir T. Browne*.

I have heard a grave divine say *that* [God has two dwellings, one in heaven, the other in a meek and thankful heart].—*I. Walton*.

Teach him *that* [states of native strength possess,
Though very poor, may still be very blest].—*Goldsmith*.

462. Sometimes the pronoun *it* is found in apposition to the objective sentence :

Thou dost ; and think'st *it* much [to tread the ooze
Of the salt deep ;
To run upon the sharp wind of the north ;
To do me business in the veins o' the earth
When it is baked with frost].—*Shakspeare*.

463. Occasionally the objective sentence precedes the verb, and *it* remains in its usual position :

[To call ourselves a microcosm or little world] I thought *it* only a pleasant trope of rhetorick.—*Sir T. Browne*.

[Whatsoever of our age is past,] Death holds *it*; [what is to come,] deceitful Hope hath *it*.—*Sir W. Raleigh*.

464. When an infinitive clause is the object of a verb, and the subject of that clause is expressed, it is in the accusative case :

His lordship soon perceived [*me to be very unfit for his service*].—*Goldsmith*.

In this construction *to* is often omitted :

For I in spirit saw [*thee move*
Thro' circles of the bounding sky].—*Tennyson*.

465. An intransitive verb is sometimes found with an accusative of the same nature as the verb :

Let me *die* the *death* of the righteous.—*English Bible*.

I have *fought* a good *fight*.—*Id.*

Dreaming dreams no mortals ever dared *to dream* before.—*Poe*.

This is usually called the *Cognate Accusative*.

466. Certain transitive verbs, signifying making, appointing, creating, &c., occasionally take two accusatives; one representing the *person*, the other the *office*. The latter is often called a *factitive* accusative :

Nature had made *Mr. Churchill* a *poet*; but destiny had made *him* a *schoolmaster*.—*Longfellow*.

Credulity in respect of certain authors, and *making them dictators* instead of consuls, is a principal cause that the sciences are no farther advanced.—*Bacon*.

The verb *teach* has also two objects: one, of the *thing* taught; the other, of the *person* :

Teach me, O Lord, *the way of thy statutes*.—*English Bible*.

Teach me [to watch over all my ways].—*Jeremy Taylor*.

He was gathered under the wings of one of those good old motherly dames, found in every village, who cluck together the whole callow brood of the neighbourhood, to *teach them their letters* and keep them out of harm's way.—*W. Irving*.

467. The verbs *promise, teach, give*, and some others, take a dative of the person and an accusative of the thing. "I promised him every indulgence." In the passive construction the dative becomes the subject of the verb, and the accusative remains unaltered: "He was promised *every indulgence*."

We were perfectly instructed in the art of giving away thousands, before *we were taught* the necessary *qualification* of getting a farthing.—*Goldsmith*.

We were taught [to consider all the wants of mankind as our own].—*Id.*

Sometimes the accusative or direct object becomes the subject of the passive verb, and the dative or indirect object remains unchanged: "Every indulgence was promised *him*."

468. Duration of time and extent of space are expressed by the accusative:

All night the dreadless angel unpursued
Through heaven's wide champaign held his way.—*Milton*.

Near this place was a stone pyramid *one hundred feet* in breadth and *two hundred feet* high.—*Grote*.

469. The accusative is (rarely) employed with an adjective, and without a preposition, to indicate the particular part affected by the adjective:

He layde him, bare *the visage*, on the bier.—*Chaucer*.

The usual construction requires a preposition.

470. Prepositions in Anglo-Saxon are found with the

accusative, genitive, and dative cases ; but in modern English all prepositions *are said* to govern the accusative or objective only.

This is simply a convenient means of disguising our ignorance. The case-endings being lost, it is difficult for modern grammarians to state precisely the case each preposition governed.

471. The object is usually placed after the verb :

Learning, by its own force alone, will never remove *a prejudice* or establish *a truth*.—*Landor*.

And each separate dying ember
Wrought *its ghost* upon the floor.—*Edgar Poe*.

472. The object precedes the verb :

(a) When emphasis is required :

Honey from out the gnarlèd hive I'll bring,
And *apples* wan with sweetness gather thee.—*Keats*.

A midnight vigil holds the swarthy bat.—*Poe*.

[That part of the blame which rests upon myself] I am exerting my best faculties to remove.—*Coleridge*.

[The ties which bind man to man] he broke asunder ; [the proper happiness of a man, which consists in the victory of moral energy and social affection over the selfish passions], he cast away for the lonely joy of the despot.—*Channing*.

(b) When the object is a Relative or Interrogative pronoun :

Ashtoreth, *whom* the Phœnicians called
Astarté, queen of heaven, with crescent horns.—*Milton*.

Whom hast thou, then, or *what*, to accuse
But Heaven's free love dealt equally to all ?—*Id.*

473. In poetry, and occasionally in prose, part of the object sometimes stands emphatically first, while the qualifying phrases remain after the verb :

*Our harps we left by Babel's stream,
The tyrant's jest, the Gentile's scorn.—Scott.*

[To be obliged to wear a long wig, when I liked a short one, or a black coat when I dressed in brown], I thought such a restraint upon my liberty that I absolutely rejected the proposal.—*Goldsmith.*

Genitive or Possessive.

474. The genitive case denotes the source from which some object proceeds: "The hum *of the bee*," *i. e.* "the hum which *proceeds from* the bee." These genitives are said to be *dependent* upon the nouns with which they are thus connected, and are usually called *Dependent Genitives*.

475. We are apt to consider the person *from* whom anything is obtained to be the *owner* of that thing. Hence the genitive often marks possession:

Now Jove suspends his golden scales in air,
Weighs the *men's wits* against the *lady's hair*.—*Pope.*

476. The genitive case is expressed sometimes by the suffix *-es* or *'s*, and sometimes by substituting the preposition *of* for the case-ending:

The hero's harp, the lover's lute.—*Byron.*

It is the harp of Allan-bane.—*Scott.*

The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power.—*Gray.*

The former mode of expression is usually limited to animate and personified objects; the latter may be employed with either animate or inanimate objects; but frequent violations of this rule occur in the figurative language of poetry.

477. Adjectives employed as nouns, though representing persons (*few, many,* several, &c.*), never take the inflectional ending in modern

* *Many*, though now treated as an adjective, was originally an old French noun *mesnie*, "a household." See Dean Trench, *Eng. Past and Pres.* pp. 156—8.

English; but in O. E. we occasionally find them with the genitive suffix:

In *many's* books the false heart's history
Is writ.—*Shakspeare*.

Was made another statute, that non erle no baroun
Tille holy kirke salle give tenement, rent, no lond
Fro tho that now lyve into *the ædis hond*.—*Rob. of Br.*

i. e. in manum mortuorum.

478. If the possessive is the antecedent to a relative sentence, the form in *of* is always employed. Thus we say, "the man's hat;" but, "the hat *of the man who was drowned*." *See Battle of Agincourt. A. R. page 719. ... King's battailin who has becomen his their feet who stands &c*

This was the face of a man whose life was spent rather in a career of thought and literary effort than in a career of active and laborious strife.—*Masson*.

479. When two or more genitives are in apposition, or connected by the conjunction *and*, the case-ending is suffixed only to the last, the whole being viewed as a compound phrase.

My royal mistress, Artemesia's, fate
And all her son, young Artaban's, high hopes
Hang on this lucky crisis.—*Rowe*.

Henry the Sixth, the king of England's, wife.—*Drayton*.

King Henry the Eight married with the Lady Katherine, his brother Prince Arthur's wife.—*Foxe*.

480. The entire number or quantity from which a part is taken is in the genitive case. It is commonly called a *Partitive Genitive*. In modern prose it requires the form with *of*.

One of *its provisions* deserves special notice.—*Creasy*.

In the greenest of *our valleys*.—*Poe*.

481. In old English *of* is sometimes omitted before partitive genitives:

A botel hay.—*Chaucer*. A galoun wyn.—*Id.*

Compare the German, *ein Glas Wein*, “a glass of wine.”

In genitives denoting possession, the suffix is often omitted :

A mason ax ; a smyth wife ; a hors mane ; a hart horn.—*Nom. xv. cent.*

To worschyp Hevene King.—*Rob. Br.*

482. The genitive, expressed by *of*, is frequently employed like an adjective to indicate some *quality* in the noun upon which it is dependent, and is then called a *genitive of quality* ; e.g. “a man *of courage*” = a *courageous* man.

Both were men *of splendid wit* and *polished taste*.—*Macaulay*.

A frame *of adamant*, a soul *of fire*.—*Johnson*.

It is also employed to express the material of which anything is made—a garland *of flowers*, a ring *of gold*.

483. The genitive is frequently found with an ellipsis of the noun upon which it is dependent :

The first day he repaired to *Paul's* (i. e. St. Paul's church), and had the hymn of “*Te Deum*” sung.—*Bacon*.

I was the other day at *Will's*.—*Prior*.

484. This form of the genitive is often employed with adjectives to indicate the part defined by the adjective :

This awful beast full *terrible* was *of cheer*,
Piercing of look, and *stout of countenance*,
 Richt *strong of corps*, *of fashion fair*, but feir,*
Lusty of shape, *licht of deliverance*,
Red of his colour as is the ruby glance.—*Dunbar*.

485. *A bust of Cicero*—*a bust of Cicero's*—The former means “a representation of Cicero ;” the latter, “a bust

* But feir, without equal.

belonging to Cicero." This is sometimes explained as an elliptical expression, "a bust of Cicero's busts," *i.e.* one of the busts belonging to Cicero. It usually implies *possession*, when the unexpressed noun upon which it is dependent is a *partitive genitive* (§ 480). Hence we can say "your father," but not "a father of yours." On the other hand we can say "your son" and "a son of yours," if there are more sons than one. But in such phrases as "that son of yours," "that book of mine," when there is but one son or one book, it seems to be simply a pleonastic expression.

486. A genitive singular is occasionally used in colloquial English to describe the class to which an individual belongs: "a brute of a dog," "a monster of a man."

Compare "monstrum mulieris" (*Plaut.*), and *δεσπόρου στόγος* (*Æsch.*).

487. The substitution of the pronoun *his* for the suffix *-s* is of frequent occurrence in writers from the sixteenth to the eighteenth century.

"Have we not *God hys wrath* for *Goddess wrath*, and a thousand of the same stamp, wherein the corrupte orthography in the moste, hath been the sole or principal cause of corrupt prosody in over-many?"—(*Gab. Harvey*, 1580.) See § 143.

"This *s* sum haldes to be a segment of *his*, and therefoer now almost al wryte *his* for it, as if it wer a corruption. But it is not a segment of *his*."—*Hume, Orthog.*

They overlooked not Pyrrhus *his* toe which could not be burnt.—*Sir T. Browne.*

They might perhaps have been persuaded to laugh in Phalaris *his* bull.—*Id.*

Copernicus, Atlas *his* successor, is of opinion the earth is a planet.—*Burton.*

There being not a sword drawn in King Henry *his* quarrel.—*Bacon.*

By young Telemachus *his* blooming years.—*Pope.*

Dative.

488. The dative is usually found in connexion with verbs denoting "giving," "pleasing," "thanking," "owing," "showing," "telling," and "resembling:"

And I will tell *thee* stories of the sky,
And breathe *thee* whispers of its minstrelsy.—*Keats*.

Thou wouldst give *me*
Water with berries in't.
. And then I loved *thee*,
And showed *thee* all the qualities o' the isle.—*Shakspeare*.

Him thanken alle.—*Chaucer*.

489. The pronouns found with the verbs *list*, *seem*, *think* (appear), and sometimes *ought* and *like*, are datives:

When in Salamanca's cave
Him listed his magic wand to wave,
The bells would ring in Notre Dame.—*Scott*.

Servants in old Rome had liberty to say and do what *them* list.—*Burton*.

Methinks you are sadder.—*Shakspeare*.

Him thought he sat in gold all cled.—*Rom. Merlin*.

Me seemeth, then, it is no policy
That he should come about your royal person.—*Shakspeare*.

And, as his nece, obeyed as *her* ought.—*Chaucer*.

We did not as *us* ought.—*Id.*

Much better would it like *him*, doubtless, to be the messenger of gladness and contentment.—*Bacon*.

His countenance likes *me* not.—*Shakspeare*.

490. In such phrases as "woe is *me*," the pronoun is the dative:

Me is woe now for your sake —*R. of Merlin*.

An thou might live, well were *me*.—*Id.*

Woe ys *him*.—*Chaucer*.

And well was *him* * that thereto chosen was.—*Id.*

* In later times this construction was misunderstood:

For well is *he* that may the money get.—*S. Hawes*.

Sometimes the verb is omitted :

Woe *him* that is alone.—*Chaucer*.

O woe *the day* !—*Shakspeare*.

And sometimes both verb and subject are omitted :

Me, poor man ! my library
Was dukedom large enough.—*Shakspeare*.

Me miserable ! which way shall I fly
Infinite wrath and infinite despair ?—*Milton*.

491. The adjective *like* governs a noun in the dative :

Sunbeam of summer, O what is like *thee* ?—*Hemans*.

This adjective is sometimes used improperly for *as* :

Victory must end in possession, *like* toil in sleep.—*Gladstone*.

492. The dative of the personal pronouns is sometimes used to show that an action is performed for the person represented by the pronoun :

Convey *me* Salisbury into his tent.—*Shakspeare*.

He plucked *me* ope his doublet.—*Id.*

Villain, I say, knock *me* at this gate, and rap *me* well.—*Id.*

And by the bark a canker creeps *me* up.—*Marlow*.

This use of the dative grammarians are pleased to call the *Dativus Ethicus*.

493. A noun or pronoun and a participle are frequently found in the dative case to mark the time when an action is performed :

This said, they both betook them several ways.—*Milton*.

And, *him* destroyed
For whom all this was made, all this will soon
Follow.—*Id.*

With that she fell distract,
And, *her attendants absent*, swallowed fire.—*Shakspeare*.

These words have no grammatical connexion with the rest of the sentence; *i. e.* are not governed by any word or words in the sentence to which they are attached, and are therefore called *Datives Absolute*, or *Detached Datives*.

In Latin the ablative is employed in these *detached* or *absolute* phrases; in Greek, the genitive; and in Anglo-Saxon, the dative.

This A. S. dative was the origin of the *absolute* construction in English. Most grammarians, since the case-endings are lost, prefer to call these words *nominatives*. But the loss of a suffix cannot convert one case into another. The *meaning* conveyed by these absolute words cannot be expressed by a true *nominative*.

494. Sometimes an entire participial sentence is thus placed absolutely :

For Nature then,

[The coarser pleasures of my boyish days,
And their glad animal movements, all gone by,
To me was all in all.—*Wordsworth*.

And on he moves to meet his latter end,
[Angels around befriending Virtue's friend].—*Goldsmith*

Others [their blue eyes with tears o'erflowing]
Stand, like Ruth, amid the golden corn.—*Longfellow*.

In O. E. the word *being* or *considered* often introduces these absolute sentences :

Being these two notions of the word were different, it came to pass that, for distinction's sake, at first, they called the Church the Catholic Church.—*Pearson*.

Nathelesse, *considered* his distresse,
And that Love is in cause of such folie,
Thus to him spake she of his jealousy.—*Chaucer*.

Considered this, that ye these moneths twain
Have tarried.—*Id.*

In modern English the true construction of *considered* has been overlooked, and the active Participle supplies its place :

Considering my former circumstances, when the Portuguese captain took me up, I immediately ordered five guns to be fired.—*Defoe*.

495. In A. S. these absolute words are always in the dative case, but in later English, having lost their case-endings, they are often incorrectly regarded as nominatives. Hence we frequently find *he* and *they* in such phrases, instead of *him* and *them* :

Thy spirit
Is all afraid to govern thee near him;
But, *he* away, 'tis nobler.—*Shakspeare*.
And, *thou* away, the very birds are mute.—*Id.*

496. *Notwithstanding*, *pending*, *during*, are participles in a dative absolute sentence :

Notwithstanding these drawbacks, Charles' army, within six weeks after his victory, mustered six thousand men.—*Stanhope*.

i.e. these drawbacks not withstanding or preventing it.

Their gratitude made them, *notwithstanding* his prohibition, proclaim the wonders he had done for them.—*Hooker*.

Hence we sometimes find this word placed last in the absolute sentence :

Nestor, his age notwithstanding, appeared in the field.

A person, *pending suit* with the diocesan, shall be defended in the possession.—*Ayliffe*.

i.e. the suit pending or hanging over him.

During this anxious night, Charles slept only two hours.—*Stanhope*.

The verb *dure* means *last* :

Thou canst not *dure* with sorrow thus attain.—*Sackville*.

A bond perpetually *during*.—*Chaucer*.

Hence "during this anxious night" = "This anxious night *during*" or lasting :

And *during* thus this knightes woe.—*Chaucer*.

497. The so-called prepositions *save* and *except*, borrowed from the Norman-French, are remnants of the Latin ablative absolute—" *Ea excepta, nihil amicitia praestabilius* ;" " *except this* nothing surpasses friendship" (*Cicero*). The old English writers appear to have regarded

it as an imperative. In imitating the French idiom, they render it *out take* :

For all was golde men might see,
Out take the feathers and the tree.—*Chaucer*.

Save (O. E. *sauvé, sauf*) was also an ablative absolute ·

None *save thee and thine*, I've sworn
Shall be left upon that morn.—*Byron*.

Save thee is "salvo te" = *sauvé toi* = *sauf thee* :

All armed, *sauf* here heddes.—*Chaucer*.

As the case-endings are lost, these absolute words are often regarded as nominatives :

There was no stranger with us in the house *save we two*.—*Eng. Bib.*

When all slept sound *save she* who bore them both.—*Rogers*.

Vocative.

498. In addressing a person we frequently name the person addressed. The noun is then said to be in the Vocative Case :

Uriel, no wonder if thy perfect sight,
Amid the sun's bright circlet where thou sitt'st,
See far and wide.—*Milton*.

499. Adjectives and qualifying phrases often accompany the person or thing addressed :

Rise, *crowned with light, imperial Salem*, rise !—*Pope*.

ADJECTIVES.

500. Adjectives are attracted into the same gender, number, and case as the nouns they qualify. But since in modern English these words have lost all suffixes but those of comparison, they appear unchanged in form : "a *good* boy," "a

good girl," "a *good book*," "*good boys*," "*good girls*," "*good books*."

501. An adjective is sometimes used as an abstract noun :

This age still retains enough of *beautiful*, and *splendid*, and *bold*, to captivate an ardent, but untutored, imagination.—*Coleridge*.

So much of death her thoughts
Had entertained as dyed her cheeks with *pale*.—*Milton*.

Dark with excessive *bright* thy skirts appear.—*Id.*

Those antique Cæsars sleeping long in *dark*.—*Spenser*.

Fair becomes *foul*; the Graces are turned into Harpies.—*Burton*.

Call you me fair? That fair again unsay,
Demetrius loves your *fair*.—*Shakspeare*.

502. In old English, and occasionally in modern English poetry, an adjective is employed as a concrete noun :

Thou rewest on every *sinful* in distress.—*Chaucer*.

Such place eternal Justice had prepared
For those *rebellious*.—*Milton*.

A band
Of *stern* in heart and *strong* in hand.—*Longfellow*.

503. An adjective is sometimes used, especially in poetry, instead of an adverb :

Trip it *deft* and merrily.—*Scott*.

The green trees whispered *low* and *mild*.—*Longfellow*.

Soft, no haste.—*Shakspeare*.

From out the trees the sabbath-bell
Rings *cheerful* far and wide.—*Dana*.

Lucian hath *excellent* well deciphered such men's proceedings in his picture of *Opulentia*.—*Burton*.

The origin of this usage is explained in § 396.

504. As adjectives have no suffixes to mark gender, number, or case, it is important to observe their position in a sentence.

They usually stand before the nouns they qualify :

There *eternal* summer dwells,
 And *west* winds with *musky* wing
 About the *cedar'd* alleys fling
 Nard and cassia's *balmy* smells.—*Milton*.

Such passages as the following are not to be imitated :

They have, in spite of two hundred years of *persecutions unparalleled*, adhered to the religion of their fathers.—*Cobbett*.

I will trace it downward through all its stages, until I show you its natural result in the present *misery indescribable* of the labouring classes in England and Ireland.—*Id.*

Participles, however, are occasionally found after the noun :
 “ the objects *specified*,” “ the persons *named*,” &c.

505. In poetry the adjective frequently follows the noun :

And the Spring arose on the garden *fair*.—*Shelley*.

With a slow and noiseless footstep
 Comes that messenger *divine*.—*Longfellow*.

Once upon a midnight *dreary*.—*Poe*.

In certain titles of French origin, this position is usual : Princess Royal, Heir Apparent, Prince Regent, Poet Laureate, &c.

506. When two or more adjectives connected by the conjunction *and* qualify a noun, it is not unusual in poetry and old English prose for one to precede the noun, the others to follow it :

Titles are marks of *honest* men *and wise*.—*Young*.

They the *holy* ones *and weakly*
 Who the cross of suffering bore.—*Longfellow*.

A *dark* prince *and infinitely suspicious*.—*Bacon*.

507. When several adjectives qualify one noun, they are often placed after it :

His mind, *ardent*, *susceptible* naturally *disposed* to admiration of all

that is great and beautiful, was fascinated by the genius and accomplishments of Bacon.—*Macaulay*.

A stillness *deep*,
Insensible, unheeding, folds you round.—*Dana*.

508. When qualifying words or phrases are dependent upon an adjective, the latter always follows the noun it qualifies :

He had to calm the rage of a young hero *incensed* by multiplied wrongs and humiliations.—*Macaulay*.

Out flew
Millions of flaming swords, *drawn* from the thighs
Of mighty cherubim.—*Milton*.

A fit of the toothache, *proceeding* from the irritation of a nerve as *big* as a cambric thread, is enough to drive an understanding *capable* of instructing the world, to the verge of insanity.—*Everett*.

Hence such adjectives as *averse, afraid, conformable, coeval, coequal*, &c. are never found before the nouns they qualify.

509. When qualifying words are *prefixed* to an adjective, it is usually placed after the noun :

A sovereign whose temper, *never very gentle*, had been rendered morbidly irritable by age.—*Macaulay*.

There is no stronger sign of a mind *truly poetical* than a disposition to make individuals out of generalities.—*Id.*

A land *more bright*
Never did mortal eye behold.—*Moore*.

510. An adjective forming part of a predicate is often placed emphatically first :

Silent they lie with the deserts round.—*Hemans*.
Richer by far is the heart's adoration,
Dearer to God are the prayers of the poor.—*Heber*.

Proud and *vain-glorious, swelled* with lofty anticipations of his destiny, no danger could appal, and no toil could tire *him*.—*Prescott*.

Comparison of Adjectives.

511. *Comparative.* The comparative implies that one of *two* objects, or sets of objects, possesses a certain quality in a greater degree than the other :

An acre in Middlesex is better than a principality in Utopia.—*Macaulay.*

It is better to write one word upon the rock, than a thousand on the water or the sand.—*Gladstone.*

Better fifty years in Europe than a cycle in Cathay.—*Tennyson.*

Hence we must be careful not to employ the comparative when *more than two* objects are compared.

512. *Other, rather, else, otherwise,* and all forms of speech implying comparison, require *than* to introduce the latter term of the comparison :

Ye watch, like God, the rolling hours
With larger *other* eyes *than* ours
To make allowance for us all.—*Tennyson.*

His own tastes would have led him *rather* to political *than* to commercial pursuits.—*Macaulay.*

Style is nothing *else than* that sort of expression which our thoughts most readily assume.—*Blair.*

513. The word *than* in comparative sentences is a later form of the adverb *then*. Hence, "This is better than that" means, "First this is better ; then that is better." Hence we sometimes find the superlative with *than* :

For *par amour* I loved her *first then* thou.—*Chaucer.*

Shakspeare and other writers of the Elizabethan age always wrote *then* in such sentences, but modern editors introduce the more recent form.

514. As *than*, though an adverb in origin, is now usually considered a conjunction, the noun that follows it is the subject of the second proposition, and should therefore be a

nominative. Hence such expressions as the following are inaccurate :

No mightier then thyself or *me*.—*Shakspeare*.
She suffers hourly more than *me*.—*Swift*.

515. "The Rhine is *more beautiful* than the Thames ;"
"the Rhine is *purser* than the Thames."

The latter mode of expression is usually employed with words of one syllable, and with disyllabic words ending in *-y* or *-ly*.

516. In old English writers a double comparative is not unfrequently found :

He shall find
Th' unkindest beast *more kinder* than mankind.—*Shakspeare*.
Our *worser* thoughts Heaven mend !—*Id.*

In the exaggerated style of some of our older writers we find a comparative adverb qualifying even a superlative :

An host of furies
Could not have baited me more torturingly,
More rudely, or *more most unnaturally*.
Beaumont and Fletcher's "Laws of Candy."

517. The object with which the comparison is made is often omitted in the comparative sentence :

Vainly we offer each ample oblation,
Vainly with gifts would His favour secure ;
Richer by far is the heart's adoration,
Dearer to God are the prayers of the poor.—*Heber*.

i. e. richer than *the ample oblation*, and dearer than *the gifts*.

518. *Superlative*. The superlative implies that one of *more than two* objects, or sets of objects, possesses a certain quality in a greater degree than all the rest :

The *most eminent* of our recent geologists and mineralogists have acknowledged with respect, and even with expressions of wonder, the performances of Aristotle as the *first* clearer and breaker-up of the ground in natural history.—*Coleridge*.

Hence the superlative should not be employed, as in the following passage, when *two* objects only are specified :

The question is not whether a good Indian or bad Englishman be *most* happy, but which state is *most* desirable, supposing virtue and reason to be the same in both.—*Johnson*.

519. In old English we frequently meet with a double superlative :

This was the *most unkindest* cut of all.—*Shakspeare*.

It is not improbable that such expressions were often intentionally employed for the purpose of increasing the natural emphasis of the superlative :

And this [*i. e.* a double superlative] is a certaine kind of English Atticisme, or eloquent phrase of speech, imitating the manner of the *most ancientest and finest* Grecians, who for more emphasis and vehemencies sake used to speake thus.—*Ben Jonson*.

520. The superlative is often used when no comparison is intended, to express pre-eminence in some quality :

Most seemeth to have his proper place in those that are spoken in a certaine kind of excellence, but yet *without comparison* ; Hector was a *most valiant* man—that is, *inter fortissimos*.”—*Ben Jonson*.

Yet in these ears till hearing dies,
One set slow bell will seem to toll
The passing of the *sweetest* soul
That ever looked with human eyes.—*Tennyson*.

Numerals.

521. When numeral adjectives qualify a noun, the suffix of plurality may be omitted as unnecessary :

Of *five and twenty yere* his age I cast.—*Chaucer*.

I'll give a *thousand pound* to look on him.—*Shakspeare*.

A *thousand horse*, and none to ride.—*Byron*.

Or in pure equity, the case not clear,

The Chancery takes your rents for *twenty year*.—*Pope*.

Has Lico learning, humour, thought profound?
Neither. Why write, then? He wants *twenty pound*.—*Young*.

522. "The first two," "the two first." In speaking of two sets of objects, "the two first" means the *first* of *each* series. In speaking of one set of objects, "the first two" denotes the *first and second* of the series. Hence such errors as the following should be avoided :

We are now arrived at the conclusion of the *three first* chapters.—*Richardson*.

PRONOUNS.

523. Pronouns should be of the same gender, number, and person as the nouns they represent.

Sometimes, however, *it* represents a masculine or feminine noun, when the sex is unknown. This is especially the case when speaking of children or animals :

The real friend of the child is not the person who gives *it* what *it* cries for, but the person who, considering *its* health, resists *its* importunities.—*Opie*.

In the phrase "Who is *it*?" the neuter pronoun is used for the same reason.

524. *Personal*. When two sentences are connected by a conjunction, and the verb is the same in both, it is often omitted in the second sentence. From this ellipsis, errors in the case of the personal pronoun frequently arise :

Is she as tall as *me* [as *I* am].—*Shakspeare*.

She suffers hourly more than *me* [than *I* suffer].—*Swift*.

The nations not so blessed as *thee* [as *thou* art].—*Thomson*.

Let you and *I* endeavour to improve the enclosure of the Carr [let *me*].—*Southey*.

It is not for such as *us* [as *we* are] to sit with the rulers of the land.—*Scott*.

525. The nouns governed by the prepositions *between* and *but*, are not in the nominative case. Hence such errors as the following should be avoided :

All debts are cleared between you and *I*.—*Shakspeare*.

Which none but Heaven and you and *I* shall hear.—*Id.*

Which none may hear but *she* and *thou*.—*Coleridge*.

The construction of the last two sentences may, perhaps, be defended, by considering *but* as a conjunction.

526. The nominative *ye* is often used inaccurately for the accusative *you*. See § 230.

O flowers, which I bred up with tender hand
From the first opening bud, and gave *ye* names,
Who now shall rear *ye*?—*Milton*.

The older English writers carefully observed the distinction :

Wel I se to Brigges wol *ye* go,
God and Seint Austyn spedé *you* and gyde !—*Chaucer*.
I know *you* not whence *ye* are.—*English Bible*.

In Shakspeare's time it began to be disregarded :

I do beseech *ye*, if *you* bear me hard.—*Shakspeare*.

Compare the use of *thee* as a nominative by the Society of Friends.

527. A pronoun is sometimes converted into a noun, and is then indeclinable :

And hang more praise upon deceased *I*,
Than niggard Truth would willingly impart.—*Shakspeare*.
It makes dear self on well-bred tongues prevail,
And *I* the little hero of each tale.—*Young*.

528. *Demonstrative*. The cases of the demonstrative pronoun *he*, *she*, *it*, are frequently misapplied in the same manner, and for the same reasons, as those of the personal pronouns :

No one but *he* [him] should be about the king.—*Shakspeare*.

No one should sway but *he* [him].—*Id.*

Let *hc* [him] that looks after them look on his hand.—*Scott*.

He suffers as *them* [they] that have no hope.—*Maturin*.

If there is one character more base than another, it is *him* [he] who, &c.—*Sidney Smith*.

There were a thousand in the French army who could have done as well as *him* [he].—*Napier*.

529. The personal and demonstrative pronouns, when unemphatic, are mere enclitics, and bear no accent :

Give-me thy hand (unemphatic).—*Shakspeare*.

Infirm of purpose, give *mé* the daggers (emphatic).—*Id.*

He that filches from-*me* my good name,
Robs-*me* of that which naught enriches *him*,
And makes *mé* poor indeed.—*Id.*

530. The singular *this* is sometimes used with a plural noun and adjective when they mark a period of time :

In darknesse and horrible and strong prisoun
This seven year hath seten Palamon.—*Chaucer*.

This seven years did not Talbot see his son.—*Shakspeare*.

I have ventured,
Like little wanton boys that swim on bladders,
This many summers on a sea of glory.—*Id.*

531. It is not unusual, especially in old English, to find a demonstrative emphatically employed to introduce relative and dependent clauses :

Wot ye not where there stont a litel toun,
Which that icleped is Bop-up-and-down?—*Chaucer*.

Envye, *which that* is sorwe of other mennes prosperité.—*Id.*

While that the armed hand doth fight abroad,
Th' advised head defends itself at home.—*Shakspeare*.

When that the poor have cried, Cæsar hath wept.—*Id.*

Their zeal is warmer *than that* it will be allayed by temptation.—*Jeremy Taylor*.

So that I myght discern
What that it is and *why that* it was made.—*S. Hawes*.

If there be nothing else in the disgrace *but that* it makes us to walk warily.—*Id.*

Things are preached, not *in that* they are taught, but *in that* they are published.—*Hooker.*

So that I know no great difference between these great philosophers.—*Bacon.*

Why do I enter into these great matters, *in sort that* pretending to know much, I should forget what is seasonable?—*Id.*

In respect that the French king's designs were wholly bent upon Italy.—*Id.*

Save that they sayden a few wordes more.—*Chaucer.*

Who that doth to the outhur good or harm, haste the nought to quytten him.—*Id.*

Though that Salamon say, he fond never good woman, it folwith nought therfore that alle women ben wikké.—*Id.*

Sith (since) *that* I have told you.—*Id.*

After that dame Prudens hadde spoke in this maner, Melibé answered.—*Id.*

Before that, how that, if that, &c. In all such cases the neuter pronoun *that* stands in apposition to the subjoined sentence.

532. In old English, *the*, a shortened form of the demonstrative, is frequently found before the relative. Compare the French *le-quel*.

Without *the which* this story
Were most impertinent.—*Shakspeare.*

The which I keep to this day in my storehouse of insects by the name of a young grasshopper.—*Mouffet.*

The whom God chese.—*Chaucer.*

The arms *the which that* Cupid bare (1559).

This usage is recognised by Ben Jonson, who writes: "Pronouns have not the articles *a* and *the* going before, *which* the relative, *self* and *same* only excepted."

533. The ablative of the demonstrative is frequently used with a comparative: *

* Mr. Craik (*English of Shakspeare*) supposes *the* to be a mere error in transcribing the MS. contraction of an imaginary word *ye*, and refers to

The lower he sank in fortune, the higher he thought himself bound to rise in spirit.—Stanhope.

In his corruptible there dwelt an incorruptible, all *the* more impressive and indubitable for the strange lodging it had taken.—*Carlyle.*

The more that a man con, the more worth he is.—Rob. Glouc.

534. *Relative and Interrogative.* The relative is attracted into the same gender and number as the antecedent, or object which it represents :

This petulance ruined *Essex*, *who* had to deal with a spirit naturally as proud as his own.—*Macaulay.*

Who is masculine and singular, because *Essex* is masculine and singular.

535. A relative pronoun connects the relative clause with the antecedent, and thus partakes of the nature of a conjunction. It represents a conjunction and a noun. For this reason it is usually placed *first* in the relative sentence.

But when the relative is a dependent or partitive genitive, the word upon which it is dependent often stands first :

And certainly that must needs have been very glorious, the decays *of which* are so admirable.—*South.*

We have taken about three hundred of them, many *of which* are poor silly creatures.—*Cromwell.*

536. As the representative of a noun, a relative may be :

(a) The subject of a verb :

I see the golden helmet *that* shines far off like flame.—*Macaulay.*

(b) The object of a verb :

Shall he alone, *whom* rational we call,
Be pleased with nothing, if not blessed with all?—*Pope.*

the German *je mehr*. Has Mr. Craik overlooked the Anglo-Saxon forms *thi betera*, *thi ma*, *the mara* (Ælfred), and the Early English *te bettre* (Orm.) ?

(c) Dependent upon a noun :

And many more, *whose* names on earth are dark.—*Shelley*.

(d) Governed by a preposition :

And Rome may bear the pride of him,
Of *whom* herself is proud.—*Macaulay*.

537. Custom limits the use of *who*, *whom*, and *whose* to rational beings ; *which* (relative) to irrational beings and inanimate objects. *That* may represent nouns of any kind :

O thou,
Who chariotest to the dark wintry bed
The wingèd seeds, where they lie cold and low.—*Shelley*.

[Adam came into the world a philosopher], *which* sufficiently appeared by his writing the nature of things upon their names.—*South*.

Milton had that universality *which* marks the highest order of genius.—*Channing*.

There is a sort of instinct of rectitude, *which* warns a pure mind against hypocrisy.—*Coleridge*.

He knows not his own strength, *that* hath not met adversity.—*Ben Jonson*.

The accusing spirit, *that* flew to Heaven's chancery with the oath, blushed as he gave it in.—*Sterne*.

The talent *that* is allowed to show itself is that *which* can repay admiration by furnishing entertainment.—*Wilson*.

538. The relative *that* is never governed by a preposition, and is often used alone where a preposition would be otherwise required :

On the day *that* thou eatest thereof thou shalt surely die.—*Enig. Bible*.

539. When inanimate objects are personified, or represented as living beings, *who*, *whom*, and *whose* may be employed :

And the naiad-like lily of the vale,
Whom youth makes so fair and passion so pale.—*Shelley*.

Hence such errors as the following should be avoided :

'Twas Love's mistake, *who* fancied what *it* feared.—*Crabbe*.

540. The use of *whose* is strictly limited to rational beings ; but it is not unfrequently employed in speaking of irrational beings and inanimate objects, especially in poetry :

The poor banished insects, *whose* intent,
Although they did ill, was innocent.—*Shelley*.

All loathliest weeds began to grow,
Whose leaves were splashed with many a speck.—*Id.*

He spoke of love, such love as spirits feel,
In worlds *whose* course is equable and pure.—*Wordsworth*.

That undiscovered country from *whose* bourne
No traveller returns.—*Shakspeare*.

541. When the antecedent is *he*, *they*, or *those*, it is often omitted :

Who steals my purse, steals trash.—*Shakspeare*.

Who stuck and spangled you with flatteries,
Washes it off.—*Id.*

Who will may pant for glory.—*Cowper*.

Nor does it follow that *who* fights must fall.—*Crabbe*.

542. When the antecedent *that* is omitted, the interrogative form *what* is used for the relative *which* :

It desires, *what* it has not, the beautiful.—*Shelley*.

The world which credits *what* is done,
Is cold to all that might have been.—*Tennyson*.

On the other hand *which* is sometimes omitted in O. E. and *that* retained :

I cannot persuade myself to honour *that* the world adores.—*Sir T. Browne*.

We speak *that* we do know, and testify *that* we have seen.—*English Bible*.

If thou have founde honey, ete of it *that* sufficeth.—*Chaucer*.

It is possible, however, that in this construction *that* is a true relative :

Trust not another will do thee to
It that thyself would never do.—*Dunbar*.

543. The antecedent is very seldom omitted when governed by a preposition :

How wearisome
 Eternity so spent in worship paid
 To whom we hate.—*Milton*.

i. e. to *him* whom.

544. The relative is frequently omitted :

Men must reap the things they sow.—*Shelley*.

It is not that offends.—*Shakspeare*.

There is a willow grows ascant the brook.—*Id.*

Was ever father so bemoaned a son ?—*Id.*

He is a good huntsman can catch some, not all.—*Burton*.

545. When the relative is omitted, the antecedent is (rarely) attracted into the case of the relative :

Him I accuse,
 The city ports by this hath entered.—*Shakspeare*.

Better than *him* I am before.—*Id.*

Better leave undone, than by our deeds acquire
 Too high a fame, when *him* we serve's away.—*Id.*

546. The antecedent is sometimes implied in a possessive pronoun :

Can I believe *his* love will lasting prove,
Who has no reverence for the God I love ?—*Crabbe*.

And do you now strew flowers in *his* way,
That comes in triumph over Pompey's blood ?—*Shakspeare*.

Neither can *his* mind be thought to be in tune, *whose* words doe jarre ; nor *his* reason in frame, *whose* sentence is preposterous ; nor *his* elocation cleare and perfect, *whose* utterance breaks itself into fragments and uncertainties.—*Ben Jonson*.

547. The word *but* is often used for a relative and a negative :

No scene of life *but* has contributed
Much to remember.—*Rogers*.

There breathes not clansman of thy line
But would have given his life for thine.—*Scott*.

548. The word *as* is employed as a relative when the antecedent is *such, same, so much*, and in O. E. *that* :

Our soldiers are men of strong heads for action, and perform *such* feats *as* they are not able to express.—*Addison*.

I wish all men in the world did heartily believe *so much* of this *as* is true.—*Jeremy Taylor*.

Art thou afeard
To be the *same* in thine own act and valour
As thou art in desire?—*Shakspeare*.

Your highness is not entertained with *that* ceremonious affection *as* you were wont.—*Id.*

The savage people in many places of America, except the government of small families, have no government at all, and live at this day in *that* brutish manner *as* I said before.—*Hobbes*.

549. In old English *which* and *that* are frequently found after *such* :

Avoid *such* games *which* require much time or long attendance.—*Jeremy Taylor*.

When God made instances of man's obedience, he either commanded *such* things to be done *which* man did naturally desire, or *such* things *which* did contradict his natural desires, or *such which* were indifferent.—*Id.*

Than love I most these floures white and rede
Such that men callen daisies in our toun.—*Chaucer*.

I shall loven *such that* I will.—*Id.*

But with *such* words *that* are but rooted in
Your tongue.—*Shakspeare*.

No, not with *such* friends
That thought them sure of you.—*Id.*

550. In old English the forms of the demonstrative are sometimes found instead of the relative :

He pricketh through a forest fair,
Therein is many a wildé beast.—*Chaucer*.

Unto the listes *there* her temple was.—*Id.*

But *there* I love, there I hold.—*Gower*.

551. When the antecedent is a noun of *multitude*, the relative is *who* :

A human law is only the expression of the desire of a multitude *who* have power to punish.—*Brown*.

The poor, *who* had nothing to offer but their lives, seemed ready to devote them to his service.—*Scott*.

When the antecedent is a *collective* noun, the relative is *which* :

One sect there was *which*, from unfortunate temporary causes, it was thought necessary to keep under close restraint.—*Macaulay*.

552. The relative usually stands immediately after the antecedent :

There is a *reaper whose* name is Death.—*Longfellow*.

But when the sense of the passage clearly indicates the antecedent, other words of qualification are sometimes interposed :

There is a *poor blind Samson* in this land,
 Shorn of his strength and bound in bonds of steel,
Who may in some grim revel raise his hand,
 And shake the pillars of the commonweal.—*Id.*

553. *Possessive*. Possessive pronouns are the genitive cases of the personal and demonstrative pronouns employed as adjectives (§ 255).

Of the double forms, *my, mine; thy, thine; our, ours, your, yours; her, hers; their, theirs*, the shorter is used

when the noun is expressed, and before the word *own*; the longer, when the noun is omitted:

The hollow oak *our* palace is,
Our heritage the sea.—*Cunningham*.

Presently *my* soul grew stronger.—*Poe*.

While ever to her young Eulalie upturns *her* violet eye.—*Id.*

Yet there was one true heart; that heart was *thine*.—*Dana*.

A land of slaves shall ne'er be *mine*.—*Byron*.

Glad hope is *theirs* by fancy fed.—*Gray*.

'Twas *mine*, 'tis *his*.—*Shakspeare*.

554. In old English, and in modern poetry, *mine* and *thine* are frequently found even when a noun is expressed, especially before vowels and asperates:

Thy cheek is sudden pale, *thine* eye is dim.—*Dana*.

Save the son of *thine* handmaid.—*English Bible*.

Min word.—*Orm*. *Mine* wordes.—*Id.*

My spyryt hath gladid in God *myn* helthe.—*Wycliffe*.

Who but *thine* self?—*Chaucer*.

Lady, *thine* sorrow can I not portray.—*Id.*

Mine noble knyghtes.—*Rob. Gloucester*.

555. *Either* and *neither* refer strictly to *one of two* objects:

But never *either* found another
 To free the hollow heart from paining.—*Coleridge*.

Both may excite our wonder, but *neither* is entitled to our respect.—*Bacon*.

Experience makes us sensible of both, though our narrow understandings can comprehend *neither*.—*Locke*.

Hence such sentences as the following are inaccurate:

Injustice springs only from *three* causes. . . . *Neither* of these causes for injustice can be found in a being wise, powerful, benevolent.

556. *The other* means the second of *two*; *another*, one of any number *above two*:

Two women shall be grinding together; one shall be taken, and *the other* left.—*English Bible*.

One generation passeth away, and *another* generation cometh; but the earth abideth for ever.—*Id.*

Such expressions as the following are inaccurate:

And the house of Baal was full from one end to *another*.—*Id.*

557. *Each* and *every* refer to *one* of many. *Each* is used with reference to the *individual* viewed singly and separately; *every* with reference to the whole viewed collectively:

Each had *his* place appointed, *each* *his* course.—*Milton*.

Each one thought in *his* heart that he would go and do likewise.—*Longfellow*.

Each in *his* narrow cell for ever laid,
The rude forefathers of the hamlet sleep.—*Gray*.

England expects *every* man to do *his* duty.—*Nelson*.

Mix with *each* thought, in *every* action share,
Darken *each* dream, and blend with *every* prayer.—*Crabbe*.

Such sentences as the following are incorrect:

Now either spoke, as hope or fear impressed
Each *their* alternate triumph in the breast.—*Crabbe*.

And they were judged *every* man according to *their* works.—*English Bible*.

Each other, *one another*. Of these reciprocal phrases, the former is used when we are speaking of *two* persons; the latter, when we speak of *more than two*:

Righteousness and Peace have kissed *each other*.—*English Bible*.

If God so loved us, we ought also to love *one another*.—*Id.*

The following sentences are faulty:

The children of Time seem to imitate their father; for, as he devours his children, so they endeavour to devour *each other*.—*Bacon*.

Did we (mankind) but love *each other*, as this poor soul loved his ass, it would be something.—*Sterne*.

558. *Some* may be used with or without a noun :

Some natural tears they dropped, but wiped them soon.—*Milton*.

The work *some* praise,
And *some* the architect.—*Id.*

The plural *men*, or *people*, is often omitted ; but in modern English the singular *man*, *person*, *one*, must always be expressed. In old English it is occasionally wanting (§ 264) :

Som in *his* bed, *som* in the deepé see,
Som in the largé field.—*Chaucer*.

Some speeds, for *he* in Court has means.—*Dunbar*.

Some on *his* substance does abide.—*Id.*

ARTICLES.

559. *Indefinite*. The indefinite article *an*, *a*, is a weakened form of the numeral *one* (§ 218) :

A thousand liveried angels lacquey her.—*Milton*.

This mode of expression is less emphatic than “*one* thousand.”

560. *An* or *a* is used in speaking indefinitely of *one* individual of an entire class :

He left the name at which the world grew pale,
To point *a* moral, or adorn *a* tale.—*Johnson*.

561. *An* loses the final *n* when the next word begins with a consonant, an asperate, or the sound of *y* or *w*.

Occasionally it is retained before asperated words, and in O. E. before words beginning with a consonant :

And after these came armed with spear and shield
An host.—*Dryden*.

As if *an* hundred anvils rang.—*Scott*.

An historical account.—*Hallam*.

562. When several objects are separately specified, the indefinite article should be placed before each :

Leave not *a* foot of verse, *a* foot of stone,
A page, *a* grave, that they can call their own.—*Pope*.

The time may come in which we may be compelled to look for *a* loftier spirit, *a* firmer energy, and *a* more enthusiastic attachment to the frame and form of our constitution, than ever yet has been demanded by our government from the people governed.—*Sheridan*.

To a strong spirit, difficulty is *a* stimulus and *a* triumph.—*Foster*.

563. When the indefinite article is expressed only before the first of two or more nouns, these nouns are to be viewed collectively. Thus “*a* priest and king” implies that both offices are vested in one individual; “*a* priest and *a* king” implies that each office is held by a separate person.

The infant man born at Woolthorpe grows up, not to be *a* hairy Savage and Chewer of Acorns, but *an* Isaac Newton and discoverer of Solar Systems.—*Carlyle*.

564. When the indefinite article is used with a noun qualified by several adjectives, it is usually expressed once before the first adjective :

There is about the whole book *a* vehement, contentious, replying manner.—*Macaulay*.

But sometimes it is emphatically repeated before each adjective :

A sadder and *a* wiser man.—*Coleridge*.

565. When a noun is contrasted with itself under different circumstances, it is often omitted in one of the propositions. In such cases the article should be retained before each adjective :

There is a difference between *a* liberal and *a* prodigal hand.—*Ben Jonson*.

No figures will render *a* cold or *an* empty composition interesting.—*Blair*.

566. In O. E. and in imitations of the antique style, when one of two adjectives is placed before, and the other after, the noun they qualify, the indefinite article often stands before each adjective :

A very good piece of work, I assure you, and a merry.—Shakspeare.

He told him that he saw *a vast multitude, and a promiscuous.—Burton.*

My uncle, the sub-prior, died—some say of austerities, others of ale—that matters not; he was *a learned man, and a cunning.—Bulwer.*

Though I have my jest, as *a rich man and a corpulent, a lad who has his way to make good should be silent.—Id.*

567. The indefinite article is sometimes used with the name of a well-known person to indicate one of similar character :

Frenchmen, I'll be a Salisbury to you.—Shakspeare.

He may be *a Newton or a Herschell* in affairs of astronomy, but of the knowledge of affairs of the world he is quite ignorant.—*Burke.*

His family pride was beyond that of *a Talbot or a Howard.—Macaulay.*

568. It is often used with nouns to form distributives :

And passing rich with forty pounds a year.—Goldsmith.

569. In O. E. the indefinite article is frequently found before numerals, marking a period of time, or extent of space :

And it came to pass about *an eight days* after these sayings.—*English Bible.*

There is a vale between the mountains that dureth nere *a four mile.—Mandeville.*

And after *a seven or eight dayes* it arose north-est, and so endured *a thirteen* nightes.—*Warkworth.*

About a four hundred year after him ther com
A king that was Lud ycleped.—*Rob. of Glouc.*

570. *A* being a modification of *one*, should properly be used only with singular nouns. There appear to be exceptions in such phrases as "*a thousand men,*" "*a few horses,*" "*a great many years.*" Cobbett (Eng. Gram.) suggests that in all such expressions there is an ellipsis

of the word *of*: "a thousand *of* horses." In that case the nouns would be disguised partitive genitives, as in the following :

A legion *of* foul fiends.—*Shakspeare*.

A wilderness *of* monkeys.—*Id.*

571. When the noun is qualified by an adjective, the indefinite article usually stands before the adjective :

A wild weird clime.—*Poe*.

But when the adjective is *many*,* *what*, or *such*, or when it is preceded by the words *too*, *so*, *how*, *as*, the article stands between it and the noun :

For *many a* year withouten blame
We have been, and *many a* day ;
For *many an* April and *many a* May,
We han passed, not ashamed.—*Chaucer*.

What *a* piece of work is man.—*Shakspeare*.

I'd rather be a dog and bay the moon
Than *such a* Roman.—*Id.*

You hold *too* heinous *a* respect of grief.—*Id.*

'Tis a very hard calumny upon our soil to affirm that *so* excellent *a* fruit will not grow there.—*Temple*.

Ye see *how* large *a* letter I have written unto you.—*English Bible*.

We were introduced to *as* queer *an* exhibition as the eye has often looked on.—*Thackeray*.

If, however, *many* is qualified by *great*, the article resumes its usual position :

* Dean Trench (Eng. Past. and Pres. p. 147) suggests that *a*, when used with *many*, is not the article, but a remnant of the preposition *of*, and that the singular noun (*many a day*) has been changed from the plural in consequence of the preposition assuming the form of the article. His derivation of *many* is mentioned above (p. 172, note); but it is very doubtful. *Many* is of A.S. origin (*manig*, *mænig*, *monig*). There were in fact two words of the same form, (1) *menie*, or *meny*, from the O. Fr. *mesnie*, a household, or train; (2) *many*, from A.S. *manig*. These two words seem to have been confused.

He is liable to a great many inconveniences every moment of his life.—*Tillotson*.

572. In early English writers this arrangement of the words is not always observed :

A such will brought this lond to gronde.—Rob. of Glouc.

Mony blessing

He hadde, for he delivered men of *an so foul thyng.—Id.*

We also find the following variations :

Hearken *which a reason* I shall forth bring.—*Chaucer*.

A so grete beast.—*Every a stewarde.—Id.*

Before him went minstrels *many one.—Id.*

And eke great diamonds *many one.—Id.*

573. *Definite.* The Definite Article *the*, originally a demonstrative pronoun, is used to point out a particular object, or class of objects :

The man that hath no music in himself

Is fit for treasons, stratagems, and spoils.—*Shakspeare*.

Every man is to give sentence concerning the state of his own soul by *the* precepts and rules of our Lawgiver.—*Jeremy Taylor*.

Sometimes it is used emphatically, to mark the pre-eminence of one individual over others of the same class : “He is *the* poet of the age.”

574. The definite article is used before the names of rivers, mountains, and seas : *the* Thames, *the* Danube, *the* Alps, *the* Apennines, *the* Baltic, *the* Adriatic.

In poetry it is sometimes omitted :

The springs

Of Ganges or Hydaspes, Indian streams.—*Milton*.

575. It is employed with national names when the people are described collectively : *the* French, *the* Dutch, *the* English ; and is often found with singular nouns to indicate a genus or class : *the* eagle, *the* sparrow, *the* Briton, *the* rose.

576. When two or more objects are separately specified, the definite article should be used before each :

The flower-like woods most lovely in decay,
The many clouds, *the* seas, *the* rocks, *the* sands,
 Lie in the silent moonshine.—*Coleridge*.

The numbers, *the* intelligence, *the* wealth of the citizens, *the* democratical form of their government, and their vicinity to *the* court and to *the* parliament, made them one of the most formidable bodies in the kingdom.—*Macaulay*.

577. When several nouns describe the functions of one individual, the article is placed only before the first :

He sends a letter to Mr. Larkins, *the* bribe-agent and broker on this occasion.—*Burke*.

The mathematician and astronomer, Bolingbroke, is hanged and quartered as a wizard.—*Bulwer*.

578. When several adjectives qualify a noun, the definite article is usually employed only before the first :

The wisest, brightest, meanest of mankind.—*Pope*.

But when the adjectives are intended to be unusually emphatic, the article is repeated before each :

A name at the sound of which all India turns pale—*the* most wicked, *the* most atrocious, *the* boldest and most dextrous villain that that country ever produced.—*Burke*.

579. When an adjective is placed after the noun, *the* accompanies the adjective :

Alonzo *the* brave and the fair Imogene.—*Lewis*.

580. The definite article and a plural adjective together form a noun signifying a class of individuals :

Where *the* good and *the* bad, and *the* worst and *the* best,
 Have gone to their eternal rest.—*Poe*.

The proud, to gain it, toils on toils endure ;
The modest shun it but to make it sure.—*Young*.

581. The definite article and a singular adjective together form an abstract noun :

Not so in deserts where *the grand*,
The wild, the terrible, conspire
 With their own breath to fan his fire.—*Poe*.

All the motions of Goldsmith's nature moved in the direction of *the true, the natural, the sweet, the gentle*.—*De Quincey*.

582. The definite article and a noun are used to denote a calling or profession : *the bar, the church, the law, the army, the navy, &c.*

Love rules *the camp, the court, the grove*.—*Scott*.

When so combined, the two words often form a proper noun : *the Park, the Hall, the City, the Funds, &c.*

583. It is sometimes used with proper names to form a descriptive phrase, or to indicate a noted character :

He had more of *the Mazarin* than of *the Richelieu*.—
Chesterfield.

The taxidermist—*the Selkirk* of the sunny island—was not there.—
Longfellow.

Is this *the Talbot* so much feared abroad,
 That with his name the mothers still their babes ?—*Shakspeare*.

Shakspeare was *the Homer*, or father, of our dramatists ; Jonson was *the Virgil*, the pattern of elaborate writing.—*Dryden*.

The Niobe of nations, there she stands,
 Childless and crownless in her voiceless woe !—*Byron*.

584. *The* is often used with the force of a possessive pronoun :

Her corpse was the object of unmanly and dastardly vengeance ; *the* head was severed from *the* body, and set upon a pole.—*W. Irving*.

The heart was affected in his case.—*De Quincey*.

585. When *all* or *both* qualifies a noun, *the* is placed between the adjective and the noun :

All the contrivances which we are acquainted with are directed to beneficent purposes.—*Paley*.

He had disoblged *both the* parties whom he wished to reconcile.—*Macaulay*.

In this construction, *all* and *both* are probably nouns, with an ellipsis of the preposition *of*.

VERBS.

586. The verb is attracted into the same number and person as the subject :

Singular.

1. *I am* that merry wanderer of the night.—*Shakspeare*.
2. And *thou art* long and lank and brown.—*Coleridge*.
3. And *he is* gathered to the kings of thought.—*Shelley*.

Plural.

1. *We are* free to dive, or soar, or run.—*Id.*
2. Then *ye are* only five.—*Wordsworth*.
3. Lo, these *are they*.—*Heber*.

587. When there are more subjects than one, whether connected by conjunctions or not, the verb must be plural, although each subject is singular :

Horror and doubt *distract*
His troubled thoughts.—*Milton*.

Talking and eloquence *are* not the same ; to speak and to speak well *are* two things.—*Ben Jonson*.

Art, empire, earth itself, to change *are* doomed.—*Beattie*.

The cultivation of the soil, the breeding of sheep and cattle, and the hunting of wild animals, *were* dependent on the season.—*Sir G. C. Lewis*.

The impetuous chivalry of France, the serried phalanx of Switzerland, *were* alike found wanting when brought face to face with the Spanish infantry.—*Macaulay*.

588. When two subjects are connected by *and*, one affirmative, the other negative, the verb agrees with the *affirmative* :

Our own heart, and not other men's opinions,
Forms our true honour.—*Coleridge*.

589. If two singular subjects are connected by "as well as," the verb is singular, as there are, in reality, two propositions :

Veracity, as well as justice, *is* to be our rule.—*Butler*.

There *is* a peculiar force, as well as peculiar beauty, in this figure.—*Kames*.

590. When two or more singular subjects connected by *and* are preceded by *each*, *every*, or *no*, the verb is singular :

Every limb and feature *appears* with its appropriate grace.—*Steele*.

No part of their substance, and *no* one of their properties, *is* the same.—*Butler*.

591. Certain nouns, though singular in form, have a plural or a collective meaning (§ 82).

When a collective noun is the subject, the verb is singular :

The *party*, which defended his title, *was* on general grounds disposed to curtail his prerogative.—*Butler*.

The imperial *diet*, after several prorogations, *was* opened at Worms.—*Robertson*.

A *priesthood* such as Baal's *was* of old ;

A *people* such as never *was* till now.—*Cowper*.

When a noun of multitude is the subject, the verb is plural :

The *nobility* of Rome *are* his.—*Shakspeare*.

That fame *is* wealth fantastic poets cry ;

That wealth *is* fame, another *clan* reply.—*Young*.

The great *herd*, the *multitude*, that in all other things *are* divided,

in this alone *conspire* and *agree*—to love money; *they* wish for it, *they* embrace it, *they* adore it.—*Ben Jonson*.

592. If two or more nouns, or sentences, collectively represent one idea, the verb is often singular :

Bitter constraint and sad occasion dear
Compels me to disturb your season due.—*Milton*.

All torment, trouble, wonder, and amazement
Inhabits here.—*Shakspeare*.

Reproach and everlasting shame
Sits mocking on our plumes.—*Id.*

The mind and spirit *remains*
Invincible.—*Milton*.

To subsist in bones, and be but pyramidally extant, *is* a fallacy in duration.—*Sir T. Browne*.

To counterfeit and to dissemble *is* to put on the semblance of some real excellency.—*Tillotson*.

Her heart, her mind, her love, *is* his alone.—*Cowley*.

593. When several subjects follow the verb, it usually agrees with that which stands nearest :

Therein *consists* the force, and use, and nature, of language.—*Berkeley*.

Ah ! then and there *was* hurrying to and fro,
And gathering tears and tremblings of distress,
And cheeks all pale, which but an hour ago
Blushed at the praise of their own loveliness.—*Byron*.

But sometimes the verb is singular, when the adjoining subject is plural, as if the writer were uncertain, when writing, what the precise subject should be :

There *is* tears for his love, joy for his fortune, honour for his valour, and death for his ambition.—*Shakspeare*.

594. In such sentences as “It is I, your friend, who *bid* you go,” and “It is I, your master, who *bids* you go,” the verb, as usual, agrees with its proper subject. The first, “It

is [I, your friend], who bid you go," is an answer to the question, "Who bids me go?" The second, "It is [I, your master, who bids you go]," is an answer to the question, "Who is it?" In the first, "your friend" is in apposition to *I*; in the second, "your master, who bids you go," is in apposition to *I*.

595. The verb *be* sometimes appears to agree with the rest of the predicate rather than with the subject :

All my strength and all my art
Is [to touch the gentle heart].—*Scott*.

To read and write *was* once an honorary distinction.—*Hazlitt*.

His pavilion *were* dark waters and thick clouds of the sky.—*English Bible*.

To love and to admire *has* been the joy of his existence; love and admiration *are* the pleasures he will demand of the world.—*Coleridge*.

Public fame, and the sentence of prudent and public persons, *is* the measure of good and evil in things indifferent.—*Jeremy Taylor*.

To snare the mole, or with ill-fashioned hook
To draw th' incautious minnow from the brook,
Are life's prime pleasures to his simple view.—*Cowper*.

In such sentences the verb usually agrees with the subject :

The fat lands of Bœotia *were* a road onwards for all who came from Thessaly.—*Gladstone*.

The people *are* a many-headed beast.—*Pope*.

596. If a singular subject have qualifying words connected with it, the verb must still be singular :

He himself, together with his principal officers, was taken prisoner.—*Robertson*.

Hence such sentences as the following are questionable :

Pain, mixed with pity, in our bosoms rise,
And sorrow takes new sadness from surprise.—*Crabbe*.

Grief that *young Octavius, with Mark Antony,*
Have made themselves so strong.—*Shakspeare.*

597. When the pronoun *it*, in apposition to the true subject, stands before the verb, the latter agrees with *it* in number and person : It is I ; it is thou ; it is he ; it is we, &c.

Be not afraid: *it is I.*—*English Bible.*

'Tis we, 'tis ours, are changed, not they.—*Shelley.*

But in old English the verb often agreed with its proper subject :

Awake, my knight ! Lo, *it am I*
That to you speake.—*Chaucer.*

I am thy mortal foe, and *it am I*
That loveth so hot Emilie the bright.—*Id.*

It are such folke that loved idlenesse.—*Id.*

It ben the sherrefes men.—*Id.*

Persevantes and heraudes

It weren.—*Id.*

Hit were tway knightes.—*Rob. Brunne.*

Such was also the construction in A. S. :

Ic sylf *hit eom*, "It am I myself."

598. When two or more singular subjects are connected by *neither, nor, either, or*, the verb is singular :

No greatness or goodness *is* worth much unless tried in this fire.—*Channing.*

No voice *nor* sound but their own echoes *was* heard in reply.—*W. Irving.*

When no false lustre, wealth, or power *appears.*—*Pope.*

Nor eye nor listening ear an object *fnds.*—*Young.*

Hence such constructions as the following should be avoided :

I, whom *nor* avarice *nor* pleasure *move.*—*Walsh.*

Either my brother, or his son, *is* king ;

And *neither* of them *thirst* for Edmund's blood.—*Marlowe.*

599. If the connected subjects are of different numbers and persons, the verb usually agrees with the nearest: Neither you nor *I am* right; neither he nor *they are* satisfied; either you or *he is* mistaken.

I and all mine *is* at thy will.—*Guy of Warwick*.

Not we, but God, *is* educating us.—*Kingsley*.

600. When several nouns connected by a conjunction describe one individual, the verb is singular:

Here, I tell you, *is* the violator and the murderer.—*Wilson*

For a laggard in love and a dastard in war

Was to wed the fair Ellen of young Lochinvar.—*Scott*.

601. When the truth of one proposition is made conditional upon the truth of another, the sentence is said to be *hypothetical*:

If [thou read this], O Cæsar, [thou mayest live].—*Shakspeare*.

The clause which contains the condition is called the *conditional* clause: If [thou read this].

The clause which contains the consequence of the supposition is called the *consequent* clause: [thou mayest live].

602. If the speaker believe that the action expressed in the conditional clause either has occurred or is occurring, the verb should be in the indicative:

If satire *charms*, strike faults, but spare the man.—*Young*.

If thou *beest* Prospero,

Give us particulars of thy preservation.—*Shakspeare*.

i. e. if satire charms, *as we know it does*;—if thou beest Prospero, *as we see thou art*.

If it *was* the tendency and duty of their age to deliver to us the history that they found, it is the tendency and duty of ours to inquire upon what foundation that history rests.—*Kemble*.

If the method of restoring the meaning of a lost language by etymological guesses from words of similar sound in a known language

is uncertain and deceptive, the method of guessing the signification of a word from the context is equally unsatisfactory.—*Sir G. C. Lewis.*

If in such sentences is equivalent to *since*.

603. If the fact contained in the conditional clause be an uncertainty in the speaker's mind, the verb should be in the subjunctive :

If it were so, it was a grievous fault.—*Shakspeare.*

Yet if one heart throb higher at its sway,
The wizard note hath not been touched in vain.—*Scott.*

i. e. if it were so, *which I doubt* ;—if one heart throb higher, *as I hope it may.*

604. The present tendency of the English language is to reject the distinction of the subjunctive mood. Hence in the best modern English works we frequently find the indicative instead of the subjunctive in conditional clauses of uncertainty :

If a bird of prey passes over, with a warning voice he bids his family beware.—*Gilbert White.*

If he is troublesome to them, they may root him out, slay, or enslave him ; if he thrives and accumulates wealth, they may despoil him.—*Kemble.*

605. Sometimes the conditional clause is not expressed :

Southey. Lay your finger on those places in particular which most displease you.

Porson. It would benumb it [*i. e.* if I were to do so].—*Landor.*

Her high spirit would not brook such language [*i. e.* if it were addressed to her].—*Id.*

This is a vice in them that were a virtue in us [*i. e.* if we had it].—*Sir T. Browne.*

606. The consequent clause sometimes appears in the interrogative form :

If Champollion could read hieroglyphic texts with so much facility

and certainty, how comes it that his method has not been found sufficient by his successors?—*Sir G. C. Lewis.*

607. The conjunction is sometimes omitted, and the conditional verb placed before its subject :

Had this latter part of the charge been true, no merits on the side of the question which I took could possibly excuse me.—*Burke.*

O had his powerful destiny ordained
Me some inferior angel, I had stood
Then happy.—*Milton.*

608. *To* is not inserted before the infinitive after the following verbs :

1. *may* :

His corse *may boast* its urn and narrow cave.—*Byron.*

2. *can* :

Far as the breeze *can bear* the billow's foam.—*Id.*

3. *shall* :

He *shall live* a man forbid.—*Shakspeare.*

4. *will* :

What *will* a child *learn* sooner than a song?—*Pope*

5. *dare* :

I *dare do* all that may become a man.—*Shakspeare.*

6. *let* :

Let darkness *keep* her raven gloss.—*Tennyson.*

7. *bid* :

Nor *bid* a warrior *smile*, nor teach a maid to weep.—*Scott.*

8. *make* :

The hope thereof *makes* Clifford *mourn* in steel.—*Shakspeare.*

9. *must* :

Men *must work* and women *must weep*.—*Kingsley.*

10. *see* :

I *saw* him *run* after a gilded butterfly.—*Shakspeare*.

11. *hear* :

I *hear* thee *speak* of the better land.—*Hemans*.

12. *feel* :

I *felt* the blackness *come* and *go*.—*Byron*.

13. *do* :

Knowing that nature never *did* betray
The heart that loved her.—*Wordsworth*.

14. *need* :

Her kindness and her worth to spy,
You *need* but gaze on Ellen's eye.—*Scott*.

15. *have* :

I should be delighted to *have* you *write* a preface.
Longfellow.

16. *gin* = begin, in poetry and O. E. :

Amid the copse *gan* *peep*
A narrow inlet still and deep.—*Scott*.

17. *durst* :

Thou hast dared
To tell me what I *durst* not *tell* myself.—*Dryden*.

609. In Old English *to* is frequently omitted after verbs which now require it, e. g. *intend*, *endure*, *forbid*, *vouchsafe*, *constrain*, *ought*, &c. :

How long within this wood *intend* you *stay*?—*Shakspeare*.

Your betters have *endured* me *say* my mind.—*Id.*

You *ought* not *walk*.—*Id.*

Ye *ought* *have* some compassion.—*Chaucer*.

She *seemed* *be* full despitous.—*Id.*

On the other hand it is found occasionally after words which usually reject it :

I *durst*, my lord, *to* *wager* she is honest.—*Shakspeare*.

Still losing, when I *saw* myself *to win*.—*Shakspeare*.

It was the quaintest sadness
To *see* the conqueror upon the hearse
To *weep* a funeral elegy of tears.—*Ford*.

The nightingale breathes such sweet, loud music out of her little instrumental throat, that it might *make* mankind *to think* miracles are not ceased.—*I. Walton*.

It *makes* us *to walk* warily.—*Jeremy Taylor*.

610. An ellipsis of the infinitive after the verbs *may*, *can*, *shall*, *will*, *must*, *do*, is usual in replies to questions and in secondary clauses :

By the way, Mr. Churchill, do you know Honeywell ?
No, I *do* not.—*Longfellow*.

I could not sleep last night ; I never *can* when it rains.—*Id.*

611. The verb *be* is frequently omitted in poetry, and occasionally in prose :

Pretty in amber to observe the forms
Of hairs, or straws, or dirt, or grubs, or worms.—*Pope*.

Sweet the hum
Of bees, the voice of girls, the song of birds,
The lisp of children, and their earliest words.—*Byron*.

Nothing so good, but it may be abused.—*Burton*.

612. In many exclamatory sentences there is an ellipsis of the main verb :

To think that he should have been so unfortunate !

i.e. How sad it is to think, &c.

O, woe the day !—*Shakspeare*.

613. *Shall*, *will*. In independent sentences *shall* with the first person, and *will* with the second and third, imply simple futurity, *i.e.* state that an action is about to be performed :

will with the first person, and *shall* with the second and third, express the will or pleasure of the speaker :

I *shall* have a comedy for you, in a season or two at farthest, that I believe *will* be worth your acceptance.—*Goldsmith*.

I therefore request you *will* send my play back by my servant.—*Id.*

I *will* take a country lodging somewhere near that place.—*Id.*

Macbeth. Your children *shall* be kings.

Banquo. You *shall* be king.—*Shakspeare*.

614. In asking questions the foregoing rules are reversed :

A very pretty bird (said the lady); and how *shall* I train it?—*Longfellow*.

O whither *shall* we fly from this reproach.—*Shakspeare*.

Will you, fair sister,

Go with the princes, or stay here with us?—*Id.*

O, when *will* death

This mouldering old partition-wall throw down?—*Young*.

For who *shall* answer for another hour?—*Id.*

Shall pagan pages glow celestial flame,

And Christian languish?—*Id.*

615. In secondary sentences *shall* is employed to express simple futurity, as well as compulsion, with the second and third persons :

The candidate who *shall* distinguish himself the most in English, shall receive an exhibition of thirty pounds per annum.—*Reg. Lond. Univ.*

Licin. It is a mind
That *shall* remain a poison where it is,
Nor poison any further.

Coriol. *Shall* remain !
Hear ye this Triton of the minnows? Mark you
His absolute *shall*?—*Shakspeare*.

616. In old English the distinction between *shall* and *will* was not strictly observed. Shakspeare and his contemporaries frequently infringe the rule :

K. Hen. Commend me to the princes in the camp.

Glos. We *shall*, my liege.—*Hen. V.*

K. Hen. Good old knight,

Collect them all together at my tent.

Erpin. I *shall* do it, my lord.—*Id.*

Dem. I shall come back loaden with fame to honour thee.

Cel. I hope you *shall*.—*Beau. and Flet.* “*Hum. Lieut.*”

617. In modern English *do* is employed as an auxiliary :

(1) For emphasis :

I *do* plainly and ingenuously confess that I am guilty of corruption and *do* renounce all defence.—*Bacon.*

When they *do* agree, their unanimity is wonderful.—*Sheridan.*

(2) In negations :

Morgiana, when she kills the forty thieves with boiling oil, *does* not seem to hurt them in the least.—*Thackeray.*

In negations *not* is usually placed between *do* and the infinitive : “ I *do not* think ; ” but when the conjunctive adverb *neither* or *nor* is used, *do* is placed immediately after it : “ *nor do* I think ; ” the conjunctive particle naturally standing *between* the propositions it connects.

Frequently in O. E. and, rarely, in modern poetry, *do* and the infinitive are not employed in negative propositions :

I *not repent* my courtesies.—*Ford.*

I *not dislike* the course.—*Id.*

I swear it would not ruffle me so much

As you *that not obey* me.—*Tennyson.*

(3) In questions :

Do not the sparrows fly from their bush, and every morning find meal where they laid it not ?—*Jeremy Taylor.*

(4) When an adverb or an adverbial phrase begins the sentence :

Once again

Do I behold those steep and lofty cliffs.—*Wordsworth.*

(5) In reply to a question, with an ellipsis of the infinitive :

Do you confess the bond? I *do*.—*Shakspeare*.

618. These limitations of the use of the auxiliary *do* began to be generally recognised in the seventeenth century; but the writers of that age frequently disregard them :

There is no vice that *doth* so cover a man with shame as to be found false and perfidious.—*Bacon*.

When the sweet wind *did* gently kiss the trees,
And they *did* make no noise.—*Shakspeare*.

We *do* too narrowly define the power of God, restraining it to our own capacities.—*Sir T. Browne*.

Participles.

619. In tenses formed by the auxiliary verb *be* and the perf. participle the participle agrees with the *subject* of the verb :

They were commanded to rise, and *permitted* to speak.—*Gibbon*.

In tenses of transitive verbs formed by the auxiliary *have*, the participle agrees with the *object* of the verb :

Nobody could have *expected music* from that tongue.—*Clarendon*.

He hath *fulfillid hungry men* with goodis, and he hath *lefte riche men* voide.—*Wycliffe*.

You might have *translated Jack and Gill* into Greek iambics, and been a credit to your college.—*Thackeray*.

In intransitive verbs there is possibly an ellipsis of the accusative case of the pronoun that represents the subject of the verb.

620. Imperfect participles derived from transitive verbs may take an object :

He was finally sent off to bed *blowing little bubbles* with his mouth.—*Longfellow*.

Respecting ourselves, we shall be respected by the world.—*Burke*.

He made his final sally forth upon the world, *hoping* all things, *believing* all things, little *anticipating* the chequered ills in store for him.—*W. Irving*.

621. The participle is sometimes omitted :

Hast thou not sworn allegiance unto me?
I have.—*Shakspeare*.

622. Participles are sometimes employed as simple adjectives :

The hawthorn bush, with seats beneath the shade,
For *talking* age and *whispering* lovers made—*Goldsmith*.

His *impaired* health rendered him less capable than formerly of sedentary application.—*W. Irving*.

623. When treated as adjectives, participles admit of degrees of comparison : “more loving,” “most devoted.”

It is not till our *more pressing* wants are sufficiently supplied, that we can attend to the calls of curiosity.—*Goldsmith*.

He industriously examines all things, from the minutest insect to the *most finished* animal.—*Id.*

Gerund.

624. One form of the Infinitive, usually called the Gerund (*speaking*), is commonly confounded with the Imperfect Participle (§ 287). They may be readily distinguished by the fact that the Gerund is a noun, and may therefore be either the subject or the object of a verb ; while the participle, being an adjective, must *refer* to some noun expressed or understood. In the sentence “Fishing is exciting,” the word *fishing* is a noun, the subject of the verb ; *exciting* is an adjective qualifying this verbal noun. In the phrase “Seeing is believing,” both are gerunds, the word *believing* being in apposition to the word *seeing*.

Ready *writing* makes not good *writing*, but good *writing* brings on ready *writing*.—*Ben Jonson*.

625. The other form of the Gerund (*to speak*) has been hitherto confounded with the Indefinite Infinitive (§ 287). On comparing “he liked *to learn*” with “he came *to learn*,” it will be seen that *to learn* in the first example is a verbal

noun, the object of the verb *liked*; in the second example it is a verbal noun in the dative case, expressing the purpose or intention—"he came *for learning*." The first is usually called the Infinitive, the second the Gerund.

626. The Infinitive can be employed only as the subject or object of a verb. The Gerund with *to* is usually found after *intransitive* and *passive* verbs :

And fools who came *to scoff* remained *to pray*.—*Goldsmith*.

No children run *to lisp* their sire's return,
Or climb his knees the envied kiss *to share*.—*Gray*.

627. A common use of the gerund with *to* is to express the *purpose* : *

Bid Amaranthus all his beauty shed,
And daffodillies fill their cups with tears,
To strew the laureate hearse where Lycid lies.—*Milton*.

Read not to contradict and confute, nor to believe and take for granted, nor to find talk and discourse, but to weigh and consider.—*Bacon*.

628. The gerund is frequently found in connexion with adjectives :

A wise good man contented *to be* poor.—*Crabbe*.

Deadly *to hear* and deadly *to tell*.—*Scott*.

He that loses his conscience has nothing left that is worth *keeping*.—*I. Walton*.

629. The gerund with *to* is often used in connexion with nouns :

'Tis *time to sheathe* the sword and *spare* mankind.—*Addison*.

* A knowledge of this fact will greatly assist young students of Greek or Latin. The English gerund implying the purpose is never translated by the *infinitive* in Latin, and rarely in Greek. In Latin the gerund, or the gerundive, is employed, or *ut* with the subjunctive.

A kingdom for a stage, princes to act,
And monarchs to behold the swelling scene.—*Shakspeare.*

The will to do, the soul to dare.—*Scott.*

630. The gerund with *to* being a dative case can never form either the subject or the object of a verb. When the nominative or accusative is required, the form in *-ing* or the indefinite infinitive is always employed :

He resolved they should *have learning*; for *learning*, he used to observe, *was* better than silver or gold.—*Goldsmith.*

631. The gerund in *-ing* is frequently governed by a preposition :

He tasked his slender means to the utmost *in educating* him for a learned and distinguished career.—*W. Irving.*

These travellers' tales awakened an unconquerable passion *for wandering* and *seeking* adventure.—*Id.*

Nature pays no heed to birth or condition *in bestowing* her favours.—*Channing.*

Even the dative with *to* is found in old English with a second preposition, *for* :

So faine they were the helpelesse *for to ease*.—*Chaucer.*

But what went ye out *for to see*?—*English Bible.*

632. The preposition *in*, or its older forms *on* and *an*, was frequently employed with the gerund in *ing* :

The king was slaine, and ye did assent,
In a forest *an hunting* when that he went.—*Lydgate.*

Speech is indeed the rudder that steereth human affairs, the spring that setteth the wheels of action *on going*.—*Barrow.*

And thou, Nymphidia, gentle Fay,
Which, meeting me upon the way,
These secrets didst to me bewray,
Which now I am *in telling*.—*Drayton.*

633. This preposition was afterwards shortened into *a* :

Heraclitus, the philosopher, out of a serious meditation of men's lives, fell *a weeping*, and with continual tears bewailed their misery, madness, and folly. Democritus, on the other side, burst out *a laughing* : their whole life seemed to him so ridiculous.—*Burton*.

My Lord of Cornwall is *a coming over*.—*Marlow*.

Sometimes *a* is omitted :

I hope your new book is *printing*.*—*Johnson*.

634. The gerund represents an action, without reference to the agent or the time of the act ; but if derived from a transitive verb, it may take an object :

Goldsmith had the advantage of a better temper for *bearing them*, though certainly Diogenes had the better climate for *soothing his temper*.—*De Quincey*.

I hoped to see the surest of all reforms—perhaps the only sure reform—the *ceasing to do evil*.—*Burke*.

These distinctions were calculated *to wound* and *irritate* the noble mind, and *to render* the base mind baser.—*W. Irving*.

ADVERBS.

635. Adverbs are of two kinds, *simple* and *compound*.

The simple adverb consists of a single word :

Merrily, merrily shall I live *now*

Under the blossom that hangs on the bough.—*Shakspeare*.

The compound adverb includes any combination of words indicating time, manner, locality, &c. :

In this manner the greatest works upon government, the most excellent books of science, the sacred Scriptures themselves, might be distorted into libels,—*by forsaking the general context, and hanging a meaning upon selected parts*.—*Erskine*.

* This is probably the origin of the forms employed in the imperfect tenses ; ' I am writing,' ' I was writing,' &c. The word *writing* is not the participle, but the gerund.

The words in italics are adverbial phrases, or compound adverbs.

636. An adjective is occasionally employed as an adverb :

And as an aungel *heavenly* sche song.—*Chaucer*.

Alas, said I, he has paid *dear*, very *dear*, for his whistle.—*Franklin*.

In many languages the neuter of the adjective is used adverbially ; but the probable origin of these apparent adjectives in modern English is explained in § 396.

637. Certain adverbs stand invariably before the word or words they qualify. Others may be placed indifferently before or after the modified words, their position in the sentence being determined by the emphasis required. Interrogative and relative adverbs stand naturally first in the clauses they subjoin.

638. Simple assent is usually signified by an adverb with an ellipsis of the qualified words : “ Will you go ? *Certainly* ; ” *i. e.* I will *certainly* go.

639. Although various adverbs may be thus employed, in most languages a special word is selected. In those of the Classical stock, preference is given to an adverb formed from the demonstrative pronoun. Thus, in old French *oyl* and *oc* (*illud* and *hoc*) ; in Italian, Spanish, and frequently in modern French, *si* (*sic*). In modern English we occasionally meet with the demonstrative *so*, and in old English *that* : “ Crown him ? *That* ” (*Shakspeare*).

The Anglo-Saxon *gese*, “ visibly,” “ clearly,” which supplies the word *yes*, appears to have been the perfect participle of the verb *see*, just as the German *gewiss* is formed from the verb *wissen*, “ know.” *

640. Another affirmative word in A. S. is *gea*, “ yea,” which, by prefixing the negative, becomes *nay*. In early English, from the time of Chaucer to that of Tyndale, *yea* and *nay* are used in answering affirmative questions ; *yes* and *no*, in the answers to negative questions. Sir Thomas More (1557), censures Tyndale for neglecting this distinction in his translation of the Bible : “ He which in two so plaine

* Sir E. Head (*Shall and Will*, p. 138) supposes *gese* to be a compound of *gea*, “ yea,” and *si* (*sit*).

Englishe wordes, and so comen, as is *naye* and *no*, can not tell when he should take the tone and when the tother, is not for translating into Englishe a man very meete." After the time of Sir Thomas More the distinction ceased to be observed.*

641. The simple negative is possibly a shortened form of the adverb *not*, with an ellipsis of the qualified words: "Have you seen him? *No*;" *i.e.* I have [not] seen him. The German *nein*, however, renders this doubtful. It may be the adjective *no* used adverbially.

642. It is not unusual in the older English writers to find the negative doubled, or even trebled, for the purpose of adding emphasis to the negation:

*Nor I nill make mention
Nor of robe, nor of treasour.—Chaucer.*

*Tharefore seyth the king Salamon,
Beth nat ydel nevere none.—Rob. of Br.*

Thou never didst them wrong, nor no man wrong.—Shakspeare.

Nor never seek prevention of thy foes.—Id.

This construction is common in Greek and Anglo-Saxon; but in modern English a second negative neutralises the first.

643. In O. E. a second negative is generally employed with the negative verbs *nam*, *nis*, *nill*, &c., unless *but* follows the verb:

There nis no more to say.—Chaucer.

To rede I nill not spare.—Id.

*This world nis but a thurghfare ful of wo,
And we ben pilgrims passing to and fro.—Id.*

644. In compound tenses the negative stands between the auxiliary and the participle or infinitive: "I do *not* write," "I have *not* written." When in O. E. and in modern poetry these compound forms are not employed, the negative follows the verb: "I saw *not*," "he wrote *not*," "they come *not*." Sometimes, however, the adverb is placed before the verb:

Gif thou mayst give him and nat wilt.—Rob. of Br.

* See Marsh, Lect. xxvi. Note A, and Sir E. Head, *Shall and Will*, p. 126.

God him deme, for I *ne can*.—*Rob. of Br.*

They mette togedyr, I *ne wot* how.—*Id.*

PREPOSITIONS.

645. It has been shown (§ 402) that prepositions are employed to mark the relation existing between nouns : as, “the *bee* is nestling *in* the *flower* ;” “ I went *from* London to Paris.” Hence the preposition stands naturally *between* the objects specified, and should therefore never occupy the last place in a sentence.

646. In poetry the natural order of words is often inverted for the sake of emphasis, and hence the second of the two objects is frequently placed first. In such cases the preposition will be found at the beginning of a sentence :

In adamantine chains shall Death be bound.—*Pope.*

647. Since the relative and interrogative pronouns, whatever their case, usually stand first in their respective clauses, the preposition will frequently be found before such clauses :

They came to a land *in* which they could recognise nothing.—*Macaulay.*

In here marks the relation between *which* and *they*.

In sentences of this nature many writers place the preposition last :

Which, traitor, thou wouldst have me answer *to*.—*Shakspeare.*

Why, then, thou knowest what colour jet is *of*.—*Id.*

648. When the relative is omitted, or when *that* is used as a relative, the preposition occupies the last place :

To have no screen between the part he played
And him he played it *for*.—*Shakspeare.*

We feel obliged to the editor, both for making Lord Collingwood known to us, and for the very pleasing, modest way he has taken to do it *in*.—*Jeffrey*.

Lords and Commons of England ! consider what nation it is whereof ye are, and whereof ye are the governors ; a nation not slow and dull, but of a quick, ingenious, and piercing spirit ; acute to invent, subtile and sinewy to discourse, not beneath the reach of any point *that* human capacity can soar *to*.—*Milton*.

649. The preposition *of*, expressing the partitive genitive, is sometimes, inelegantly, thrown to the end of the sentence :

These more sterling qualities of strict moral conduct, regular religious habits, temperate and prudent behaviour, sober and industrious life, he had nothing *of*.—*Brougham*.

650. A sentence being a compound noun, prepositions may govern sentences as well as single words :

Those few good people, who have no other plot in their religion *but* [to serve God and save their souls], do want such assistance of ghostly counsel as may serve their emergent needs.—*Jeremy Taylor*.

These are the fruits *of* [misspending our prime youth at schools and universities, as we do, either in learning mere words or such things chiefly as were better unlearned].—*Milton*.

651. Adverbs frequently qualify prepositions, as, *out from, away from, down from, &c.*, and usually stand before the words they qualify. The two words may be considered as a compound preposition. Sometimes, however, the preposition is placed first :

Take thy beak *from out* my heart, and take thy form *from off* my door.—*Poe*.

As *out* and *off* are prepositions as well as adverbs, *from out* and *from off* may be viewed as compounds :

When that the sunne *out the south* gan west.—*Chaucer*.

652. Pronominal adverbs are sometimes used instead of the pronouns from which they are derived. The preposition implied in the case-ending is then repeated. Hence such

expressions as *from thence*, "from that place." As a general rule the preposition is suffixed to these words :

It then draws near the season
Wherein the spirit held his wont to walk.—*Shakspeare*.

Whereon do you look.—*Id.*

He spoils not a good school, to make *thereof* a bad college, *therein* to teach his scholars logic.—*Fuller*.

653. In poetry the preposition is sometimes placed after the noun it governs :

Thy deep ravines and dells *among*.—*Scott*.

Thee, chauntress, oft the woods *among*
 I woo, to hear thy even-song.—*Milton*.

654. In O. E. the two elements of the compound preposition *toward* are frequently separated by the governed noun :

Then there is the obedience of the hypocrite, *to manward*, somewhat exact and formal, but *to Godward*, rudely careless and negligent.—*S. Purchas*.

The bias of their soule is set *to Godward* and *to heavenward*.—*Id.*

This is the dormitive I take *to bedward*.—*Sir T. Browne*.

CONJUNCTIONS.

655. Conjunctions are employed to connect propositions :

[Lithe squirrels darted here and there],
And [wild birds filled the echoing air
 With songs of liberty].—*Longfellow*.

[While an author is yet living, we estimate his powers by his worst performances], *and* [when he is dead we rate them by his best].—*Johnson*.

A solitary exception is found in certain constructions with the word *and*, which occasionally has the force of the preposition *with*; e. g. "two and two are four," i. e. two *with* two are four. See § 411.

656. Those words which are identical in each proposition are usually omitted in one. Thus,

The dawn on the mountain was misty, *and*
The dawn on the mountain was gray,

is written by Scott,

The dawn on the mountain was misty *and* gray.

Sometimes these words are retained in the first proposition :

Woe *came* with war, and want with woe.—*Scott*.

Sometimes in the second :

The cock's shrill clarion, or the echoing horn,
No more shall rouse them from their lowly bed.—*Gray*.

And sometimes in both :

Up rose the sonne, and *up rose* Emelie.—*Chaucer*.

657. When the verb is expressed in the last of several propositions connected by the conjunction *and*, it becomes plural, though the subject of each proposition is singular :

Cold diffidence and age's frost
In the full tide of song *were* lost.—*Scott*.

658. But when the propositions are connected by the conjunctions *either*, *or*, *neither*, *nor*, the number of the verb remains unaltered :

And not an insect's small shrill horn,
Nor matin bird's new voice, *was* borne
From herb nor thicket.—*Byron*.

Hence such sentences as the following are faulty :

Nor light nor darkness *bring* his pains relief.—*Johnson*.

He comes ; nor want nor cold his course *delay*.—*Id.*

Nor lute, nor lyre, his feeble powers *attend*,
Nor sweeter music of a virtuous friend.—*Id.*

No grove, nor brook, *lend their* music to cheer the stranger, or make the inhabitants forget their poverty.—*Goldsmith.*

659. The conjunction *but* must not be confounded with the adverb, the preposition, or the relative, of the same form :

(a) But = *only* (adverb) :

So the loud whirlwind and the torrent's roar
But bind him to his native mountains more.—*Goldsmith.*

All those arts, varieties, and inventions, which vulgar minds gaze at, the ingenious pursue, and all admire, are *but* the relics of an intellect defaced with sin and time.—*South.*

(b) But = *except, without* (preposition) :

O, who shall say what heroes feel
When all *but* life and honour's lost ?—*Moore.*

Can I not view a highland brand
But [it must match the Douglas hand] ?—*Scott.*

i. e. without its matching, except it match.

Abstinence is litel worth, *but* [it be enforced by patience and by charité].—*Chaucer.*

(c) But = *who + not*, (negative relative) :

There's not the smallest orb which thou behold'st,
But in his motion like an angel sings.—*Shakspeare.*

i. e. *which* does not sing.

No man is so foolish *but* may give another good counsell sometimes ; and no man is so wise *but* may easily erre, if he will take no other's counsell but (prep.) his own.—*Ben Jonson.*

(d) But (conjunction) :

In taking revenge, a man is but (adv.) even with his enemy ; *but* (conj.) in passing it over, he is superior.—*Bacon.*

An inadvertent step may crush the snail
That crawls at evening in the public path ;

But he that hath humanity, forwarned,
Will tread aside, and let the reptile live.—*Cowper*.

A difference of form existed in old English between the conjunction *büt* and the preposition *büt* :

Bot thy werke schal endure in laude and glorie, *but* spot or falt
(i e. *without* spot).—*G. Douglas*.

660. The omission of the conjunction frequently imparts energy and animation to the narrative :

Through many a dark and dreary vale
They passed, and many a region dolorous ;
O'er many a frozen, many a fiery Alp,
Rocks, caves, lakes, fens, bogs, dens, and shades of death,
A universe of death.—*Milton*.

On the other hand, the repetition of the conjunction arrests the attention, and rivets it on the details :

Seasons return, but not to me returns
Day, or the sweet approach of even or morn,
Or sight of vernal bloom, or summer's rose,
Or flocks, or herds, or human face divine.—*Milton*.

INTERJECTIONS.

661. Interjections, being mere involuntary expressions of feeling, have no grammatical connexion with the sentences in which they occur :

O then began the tempest to my soul !—*Shakspeare*.

662. The words to which they are apparently attached are elliptical expressions or parts of sentences :

Ah me, they little know
How dearly I abide that boast so vain !—*Milton*.

Me is here a dative. The full form is "ah, woe is me !" or some such phrase :

Me is woe that I live houres twelve.—*Chaucer*.

K. Hen. Ah, *woe is me* for Gloster, wretched man !

Q. Marg. *Be woe for me*, more wretched than he is !—*Shakspeare.*

663. In expressing a wish, the verb is frequently omitted after an interjection :

O for a muse of fire, that would ascend
The brightest heaven of invention !—*Shakspeare.*

The full expression would be, “O, how I wish !” or some such words :

O, how I wished for spear or sword,
At least to die amidst the horde !—*Byron.*

664. With a similar ellipsis, *that* is frequently found after interjections :

O that the desert were my dwelling-place !—*Byron.*

665. Sometimes the interjection is omitted in such constructions :

Me miserable !—*Milton.*

1. The area of a square is 144 cm². Find the side of the square.

2. The area of a square is 100 cm². Find the side of the square.

3. The area of a square is 64 cm². Find the side of the square.

4. The area of a square is 81 cm². Find the side of the square.

5. The area of a square is 169 cm². Find the side of the square.

6. The area of a square is 225 cm². Find the side of the square.

7. The area of a square is 400 cm². Find the side of the square.

8. The area of a square is 900 cm². Find the side of the square.

9. The area of a square is 121 cm². Find the side of the square.

10. The area of a square is 1600 cm². Find the side of the square.

11. The area of a square is 256 cm². Find the side of the square.

12. The area of a square is 361 cm². Find the side of the square.

13. The area of a square is 484 cm². Find the side of the square.

14. The area of a square is 676 cm². Find the side of the square.

15. The area of a square is 841 cm². Find the side of the square.

16. The area of a square is 1024 cm². Find the side of the square.

17. The area of a square is 1296 cm². Find the side of the square.

18. The area of a square is 1521 cm². Find the side of the square.

19. The area of a square is 1764 cm². Find the side of the square.

20. The area of a square is 2025 cm². Find the side of the square.

21. The area of a square is 2304 cm². Find the side of the square.

22. The area of a square is 2593 cm². Find the side of the square.

23. The area of a square is 289 cm². Find the side of the square.

24. The area of a square is 324 cm². Find the side of the square.

25. The area of a square is 361 cm². Find the side of the square.

26. The area of a square is 400 cm². Find the side of the square.

27. The area of a square is 441 cm². Find the side of the square.

28. The area of a square is 484 cm². Find the side of the square.

29. The area of a square is 529 cm². Find the side of the square.

30. The area of a square is 576 cm². Find the side of the square.

31. The area of a square is 625 cm². Find the side of the square.

32. The area of a square is 676 cm². Find the side of the square.

33. The area of a square is 729 cm². Find the side of the square.

34. The area of a square is 784 cm². Find the side of the square.

35. The area of a square is 841 cm². Find the side of the square.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. NAME the *Families* which comprise the languages of the civilized world, and the *Stocks* of that Family which includes modern English. By what other names is the Family known? (1, 2, 3.)

2. Give the subdivisions of the Keltic, Classical, and Teutonic Stocks. (5, 6, 7.)

3. Who were the Saxons, Friesians, Angles, and Norsemen? (8, 10.)

4. Classify the Keltic and Scandinavian words found in English. (12, 13, 14.)

5. State the periods when Classical words were introduced. What class of words characterized each period? (16, 17, 20—22.)

6. Who were the Normans? To what extent and how long was Norman-French spoken and officially recognised in England? (18, 19.)

7. From what foreign sources has the English language been enriched? (22.)

8. If a long and a short form of a Latin word exist in English, which is usually the older, and why? (24.)

9. Mention any English words which have changed their meaning during the last three centuries. (25.)

10. What classes of words in English are of Saxon origin? (26.)

11. What proportion do the Saxon words bear to the Norman? Is this proportion observed in the writings of our standard authors? (27.)

12. Where is English now spoken? (28.)

13. How may the changes from Anglian to modern English be roughly marked? (29.)

14. What were *Letters* originally? What are they now? (30.)

15. Name the *Organs of Speech*. How are Letters *organically* classed? (31.)

16. What are *Vowels*? What is the *natural* sequence of those in the English Alphabet? (33, 34.)

17. Write down the ordinary vowel sounds in English. By how many expedients are they represented in the written language?

18. What are *y* and *w*? (36.)

19. Name the *true* Diphthongs. Of what vowel sounds are they compounded? What are *false* Diphthongs? Give examples of false Diphthongs and their simple equivalents. (37, 38.)

20. How are *Consonants* divided? Define each class. (40, 41, 43, 48.)

21. Write down the *Liquids* in their natural order. (42.)

22. Arrange the *Mutes* and *Sibilants* in a tabular form. (47, 48.)

23. What is *H*? Which letters in the Alphabet are *superfluous*? (49, 50.)

24. What is meant by the Law of Accommodation? What inflections in English Grammar are regulated by this law? (52.)

25. Show by examples that the addition of a suffix frequently modifies the root-vowel. (53.)

26. Define Orthography and Orthoëpy. (54.)

27. What is essential for a perfect system of Orthography? Why is the orthography of the English language imperfect? (55, 56.)

28. Mention any orthographical expedients for remedying the defects of the English Alphabet. (57.)

29. Point out some of the more striking defects of English orthography. (60.)

30. Define a *Syllable* and a *Word*. What were syllables originally? (61—63.)

31. Distinguish between *Accent* and *Emphasis*. (65.)

32. What are the general rules for Accent in English words? (66—70.)

33. What class of words vary their nature and meaning according to the position of the accent? Give examples. (71.)

34. Give examples of words in which the position of the accent has been changed. (73.)

35. What is meant by *Parts of Speech*? Name them. (74.)

36. What is understood by *Accidence*, *Etymology*, and *Inflection*? (75, 76.)

37. Define a *Noun*. What are *simple* and *compound* nouns? (77, 78.)

38. What are *Proper* nouns, *Common* nouns, *Collective* nouns, and nouns of *Multitude*? (79—82.)
39. Distinguish between *Abstract* and *Concrete* nouns. (83.)
40. What is *Gender*? How does it differ from *Sex*? How many genders are recognised in English? (85.)
41. How is gender usually determined in Latin, French, and Anglo-Saxon? How in modern English? Can you account for the difference? (86.)
42. How may the Masculine be distinguished from the Feminine in English? (87.)
43. Mention any foreign nouns that retain the generic suffixes of the languages whence they were taken. (88.)
44. What was the usual Masculine suffix in A. S.? Is it still found in modern English? (89.)
45. What is there peculiar in the words *drake*, *gander*, *vixen*, *widower*, *lady*, *nicce*, *nephew*? (90, 94, 95.)
46. What was the usual Feminine suffix in A. S.? Is it still found? What is the usual suffix in modern English? Whence was it derived? (92, 93.)
47. What is *Personification*? Why are some abstract qualities personified as females, others as males? (98, 99.)
48. What is the *Dual* number? (101.)
49. What is the origin of the common plural suffix *s*? Can you account for its selection as a suffix of plurality? (102, 103.)
50. State the ordinary rules for forming the plural of English nouns. (104.)
51. Write the plurals of *lady*, *hero*, *valley*, *alkali*, *wolf*, *dwarf*, and *staff*. (105—108.)
52. Mention any obsolete plural forms found occasionally in modern English. (109—113.)
53. *Swine*, *kine*, *brethren*, *chicken*, *welkin*, *women*: some of these are singular, others plural; separate them. (110.)
54. Mention any nouns that have two plural forms with different meanings. (114.)
55. *News*, *pains*, *alms*, *means*, *amends*, *tidings*, *riches*, *politics*: are these singular or plural in origin? (115—117.)
56. Mention any nouns (1) that have no singular; (2) that have two meanings in the singular and one in the plural; (3) that have two meanings in the plural, and one in the singular. (118—122.)
57. Write the plurals of *Ottoman*, *Dutchman*, *Norman*, *Frenchman*, *Brahman*, *Turcoman*, and *German*. (126.)
58. Mention any nouns of foreign origin that retain their original plural suffixes. What change are they now undergoing? (127.)

59. How do you form the plurals of *son-in-law*, *step-son*, *court-martial*, *lord-mayor*? (128.)

60. What is *Case*? What relation did it originally indicate? Explain the derivation of the words *Case* and *Declension*. (129—131.)

61. What are meant by *Inflectional* and *Syntactical* cases? (132.)

62. Name the Cases, and state the primary idea expressed by each. (133—137.)

63. Distinguish between Subject and Nominative, Object and Accusative. (134, 135, 444, 459.)

64. Is there any instance of a Nominative suffix in English? What were the old Accusative and Genitive suffixes? (138, 139.)

65. State the rules for forming the Genitive Singular in modern English. (140.)

66. How do you express the Genitive Plural? (141.)

67. How do you express the Genitive of Nouns in apposition? (142.)

68. What later corrupt form of the Genitive can be traced to the old suffix *-is*? (143.)

69. The Genitive with *of* was unknown to the Anglo-Saxons: whence did we obtain it? (143.)

70. Mention any obsolete suffixes of the Genitive, Dative, and Ablative. (144—151.)

71. What is meant by a *Root*? Explain *Derivation* and *Composition*. In a compound which term limits and defines the other? (152—155.)

72. Give examples of Teutonic and Classical suffixes and prefixes forming nouns. (157—164.)

73. Give examples of noun suffixes, simple and compound, forming Diminutives. (157.)

74. Give examples of Teutonic and Classical derivatives formed by *internal* changes. (156, 160.)

75. Mention any derived nouns which retain the form of the primitive word *unchanged*, and any that have *lost* part of the primitive word. (165—168.)

76. What parts of speech may be combined to form a compound noun? (169.) What is a *Hybrid*? Why so called? (173.)

77. What is there peculiar in *break-fast*, *lands-man*, *ver-dict*, *chit-chat*, *demi-god*? (169—173.)

78. What is an Adjective? What was it in origin? (174, 176.)
79. How do adjectives in modern English differ from those in more highly inflected languages? (177.)
80. What traces of Inflection exist in O. E. adjectives? (178.)
81. Define the terms *Comparative* and *Superlative*. (179, 185.)
82. What are comparatives and superlatives of *diminution*? What adjectives have no comparative and superlative? (183, 187.)
83. How are comparatives and superlatives formed? (180—182, 186, 187.)
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85. Explain the forms *best, worst, most, least, next, first, last*. (190.)
86. Explain the forms *better, worse, more, less, rather*. (190.)
87. Distinguish between *further* and *farther, elder* and *older, latter* and *later*. (190.)
88. Give examples of Teutonic and Classical prefixes and suffixes forming adjectives. (191—197.)
89. What parts of speech may combine to form compound Adjectives (199.)
90. Define Cardinal, Ordinal, and Distributive numerals. (200, 212.)
91. Give the derivation of *eleven* and *twelve*. (203.)
92. Explain the suffixes *-teen, -ty, -th*. (204, 205, 209.)
93. What numerals are not of Saxon origin? (206, 208, 213.)
94. What was the Saxon equivalent for *second*? Why was it set aside? (208.)
95. How are Distributives and Multipliers expressed in English? (212, 213.)
96. Give the derivation of *both*. How does *both* differ from *two*? (214.)
97. Mention any nouns employed as collective numerals. (215.)
98. How are the Cardinal and Ordinal adverbs formed? (216.)
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100. Mention any compounds or derivatives of *one*. (219.)
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101. What are Pronouns? How are they classed? (223.)
102. Which are the true Personal Pronouns? Decline them. (224, 226, 229.)
103. Of the forms *mine, my, thine, thy, &c.*, which is the older? When are they respectively used? Account for the *-ne*. (227, 230.)
104. Can you justify the provincial forms *ourn, yourn, &c.*? (228.)

105. What peculiar force was attached to *thou* in Shakspeare's time? (230.)
106. Decline *he, she, it*, and show that they are from the same root. (233, 234.)
107. When was *its* introduced? What form did it supplant? (234.)
108. State the various usages of *this* and *that*. What is the probable derivation of *this*? (235, 236.)
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110. What is the derivation of *such, which, and each*? (238, 250, 266.)
111. Explain *to in to-day*. (239.)
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131. Distinguish between Transitive and Intransitive verbs. Is the same verb ever Transitive and Intransitive? (274, 275.)
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136. How does the *Infinitive* differ from an ordinary noun? (286.)

137. Explain the forms, "he likes *writing*;" "he likes *to write*;" "he came *to write*." (287.)

138. What is *Tense*? Write down the *Tenses* of the *Active Indicative* of *run*. (288—296.)

139. Give the different usages of the *Present* and *Past Indefinite*. (297, 298.)

140. Write in full the *Tenses* of the *Active Imperative* of *run*. Point out the different meanings expressed by these *Tenses*. (299, 300.)

141. How are the *Tenses* of the *Subjunctive* usually expressed? They once differed from the *Indicative Tenses* in form. Do any traces of this difference still remain? (301, 302.)

142. Give the various modifications of the *Active Infinitive* of *run*. Are these modifications correctly termed *Tenses*? (303.)

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145. What is *Conjugation*? How many are there in English? How are they commonly distinguished? (305.)

146. Account for the modification of the root-vowel in the *Past Indefinite*. (306.)

147. *Sung sang* co-exist in the *Past Indefinite*. Explain this. (307.)

148. What was the suffix of the *Past Indefinite* of weak verbs? What did it originally mean? (308.)

149. State the rules for the regular formation of this *Tense* in modern English. (309.) What variations are found? (310.)

150. What plural suffixes were used in O. E. verbs? When did they disappear? Are there any traces of them in modern English? (312, 313.)

151. What are *Person-endings*? What was their probable origin? (314.)

152. Is there any trace of a *First Person* suffix? (315.)

153. What was the *Second Person* ending? Is there any other form? (315.)

154. What were the old forms of the Third Person suffix *-e*? (316.)
155. State the rules for forming the Third Person singular in modern English. (317.)
156. Explain the O. E. words *cham, shaltow, thenkstow, cani, woltu*. (319.)
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158. Write down the Active and Passive Participles of *teach*. (320.)
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177. Mention any verbal prefixes and suffixes of Teutonic and Classical origin. (379—383.)

178. Mention any classes of words that become verbs without altering their form. (384.)

179. What parts of speech may combine to form *compound verbs*? (386.)

180. What are Adverbs? How are they classed? (387—389.) How are they commonly formed? (390—392.)

181. What are Conjunctive and Interrogative Adverbs? (393, 394.)

182. How are Comparative and Superlative Adverbs formed? (395.)

183. Mention and explain the Adverbial suffixes and prefixes. (396—398.)

184. State the various modes of forming Compound Adverbs. (399.)

185. Explain the use of Prepositions. Why are they more frequently used in modern than in ancient languages? (402.)

186. Where are Prepositions usually placed? (404.) When suffixed to verbs, what change do they often produce in the verb? (405, 406.)

187. What is the derivation of *down, behind, along, among, around, till, between*. (407)

188. Mention any words of Classical origin that are used as Prepositions. What is their true character? (408, 494, 496, 497.)

189. Give the various meanings of *before*. (410.)

190. What is a Conjunction? How do you explain "two and two are four?" (411.)

191. What are *Co-ordinate* and *Subordinate* Conjunctions? (412.)

192. What Conjunctions are used in pairs? (414.)

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197. Explain the various modes of forming Patronymics. (422—424.)

198. Define *Syntax*, *Proposition*, *Subject*, *Predicate*, and *Copula*. (426—429.)
199. What is the difference between a Logical and a Grammatical division of a Proposition? (429.)
200. What must the Subject consist of? (432.)
201. When is the Subject termed *Simple*, *Compound*, *Complex*? When is it said to be *enlarged* or *extended*? (431.)
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222. "A bust of Cicero," "a bust of Cicero's." Explain the difference. (485.)
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230. State the various rules for the position of the Adjective. (504—510.)
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249. Give instances of the omission of the Relative. (544.)

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