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ENGLISH GRAMMAR

ENGLISH · GRAMMAR

*ADAPTED TO THE USE OF THOSE PREPARING
FOR LOCAL AND OTHER EXAMINATIONS*

BY

J. ARNOLD TURNER

ASSISTANT MASTER AT HAILEYBURY COLLEGE

AND

A. R. S. HALLIDIE

FORMERLY JUNIOR STUDENT OF CHRIST CHURCH, OXFORD

WITH A PREFACE BY
The Hon. and Rev. E. LYTTELTON, M.A.

HEAD MASTER OF HAILEYBURY COLLEGE

SECOND EDITION

PREFACE

IT will, perhaps, be in the recollection of some who use this book, that Professor Seeley, in his brilliant volume of *Lectures and Essays*, presses the claim of the English language as an important ingredient in the education of English children. The chief reason he adduces is one which must commend itself to any one who has ever sincerely tried to train boys or girls in any subject: namely, that to begin with English is to begin with what is known, from which the child may be led on to what is unknown. Children have, as a rule, a knowledge of English which, compared with their knowledge of any other subject, may be described as extensive: and it is a sad waste of opportunities to begin any serious, formal training of the intellect, without first grappling with the principles of a language which by ten years of age a child has learnt to speak with ease.

These and similar ideas took shape in a resolution passed at the Head Masters' Conference in 1892, to the effect that the study of English grammar and literature

is deserving of encouragement in schools. Some of those
present thought that the disputable second half of this
resolution was carried through by being yoked to the first
half, which no one was prepared to vote against. Be that
as it may, the passing of the resolution explains the
genesis of this *English Grammar*.

Without having had either the time or the experience
to give to an exhaustive study of this book, I can safely
say that it is constructed on sound principles; the gram-
matical terminology is handled with due reserve, and
every possible attempt is made to induce the learner to
use his reasoning powers.

<div align="right">E. LYTTELTON.</div>

HAILEYBURY,
    July 1894.

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INTRODUCTORY

1   **Grammar** is the science that treats of language and the art of using language correctly.

Language is the expression of thoughts or feelings by means of words. When we speak of any language in particular—of the English language, for instance—we mean the whole collection of words used by the people who speak the language.

Dialects are local variations in a language; for instance, in the Lowlands of Scotland, in Lancashire, in Norfolk, and in Somerset people speak dialects which differ considerably from one another and from ordinary English.

Words are sounds that are articulate and significant; for instance *bat* is a word; but *baf* is not a word, for though articulate it is not significant; a yawn is not a word, for though it may be significant it is not articulate.

English Grammar, then, deals with the English language, the words that compose it, and the rules that govern it.

2   The sounds of which words are composed are represented to the eye by signs called **letters**; the aggregate of letters used in any language for this purpose is called an **Alphabet,** from *alpha, beta,* the Greek names for A and B. **Orthography** (from the Greek *orthos,* 'right,' *grapho,* 'I write') deals with the correct way of representing words by letters.

A

3 Grammar has two branches, Accidence and Syntax; the former is concerned with words, the latter with sentences.

Accidence (from the Latin *accidere*, ' to befall ') treats of the changes of form that *happen to* words according to variations in their meaning or use; for instance, *man, men, men's*; *he, him, his*; *loves, loving, loved*. These changes are called **Inflexions** (from the Latin *inflexio*, ' a bending '), being, as it were, bendings or adaptations of the form of the word to express changes in its meaning or use.

Syntax (from the Greek *syntaxis*, ' arrangement ') treats of the arrangement of words in sentences, and the arrangement of sentences among themselves.

> Etymology (from the Greek *etymon*, ' true meaning '; *logos*, ' science ') is sometimes considered a third branch of grammar; it deals with the derivation and formation of words.

A **Sentence** (from the Latin *sententia*, ' sense ') is a collection of words so arranged as to express a statement, a question, a command, or a wish.

RELATIONS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

4 Most of the languages of Europe are **related** to one another; by which is meant that their structure is, or has been, similar, and that many of the words that compose them have sprung from a common source. English, for instance, is closely related to Dutch, distantly related to Welsh, and not related at all to Hebrew or Hungarian.

The relationship between European languages arose thus :—In Central Asia (or, according to more recent authorities, in N.E. Europe) there once lived a numerous people, the Aryans, speaking (more or less) the same language and possessing the same institutions. As they grew in numbers and power they sent off from time to time great hordes that conquered and colonised the

neighbouring countries. Some of these went southwards into India and Persia; the rest swept westwards in successive waves across the face of Europe, each horde in turn pressing upon the one that had preceded it. Now, as each of these hordes left the parent body at a different time, and consequently at a different stage in its development, and as each horde would thenceforth live in different surroundings, it is not surprising that their languages, at the time when we first know anything of them, had come to differ very widely indeed, and have generally continued to diverge ever since. Yet they are all undoubtedly related; they have sprung from a common source, and the words that express certain elementary notions (as *break, bear, thirst, two, three, ten, thou, tooth, brother, father*) may still be traced running through them all.

There are in Europe **six families** of languages descended from the Aryan tongue:

1. **Celtic,** spoken in the Scottish Highlands, Ireland, Isle of Man, Wales, and Brittany; and, until lately, in Cornwall.
2. **Latin,** from which are descended the languages spoken in Italy, France, Spain, Portugal, Southern Switzerland, and Roumania.
3. **Greek,** Ancient and Modern.
   [The Latin and Greek families are not separate offshoots from the Aryan, but are more closely related.]
4. **Lettic,** or *Lithuanian,* spoken in Eastern and North-Eastern Prussia.
5. **Slavonic,** spoken in Russia, Poland, Bohemia, Bulgaria, and Servia.
   [These two are also closely related.]
6. **Teutonic,** spoken in Iceland, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Germany, Holland, Belgium, and England.

These **Teutonic** languages fall into **three groups**:

> (i) **Scandinavian**, spoken in Iceland, Norway, Sweden, and Denmark.
>
> (ii) **High German**, originally spoken in the Highlands, or southern part, of Germany, and now the recognised German speech.
>
> (iii) **Low German**, originally the languages of the various tribes living in the Lowlands, or northern part of Germany; now represented by Dutch, Frisian, Plat-Deutsch, Flemish, and English.

SOURCES OF ENGLISH

5   When we first hear of the British Islands in history, they were inhabited by a Celtic race. In 55 B.C., the Romans, who had subdued the Celts in Northern Italy and Gaul, invaded Britain, but their object was rather to terrify than to conquer, and it was not until a century later, in 43 A.D., that they made any permanent settlement in the country. For the next 400 years Britain was a Roman province, administered by Roman governors, and protected by Roman legions; but in 410 the incursions of various Teutonic tribes into Gaul, and the general break-up of the Roman Empire, led to the withdrawal of the Roman garrison from Britain. Their occupation has left its trace upon our language only in certain names of places; thus, *Chester*, Man-*chester*, Lan-*caster*, Wor-*cester*, were formed from the Latin *castra*, a camp; *Strat*-ford, *Streat*-ham, *Streat*-ley, from *strata*, a street; *Col*-chester, Lin-*coln*, from *colonia*, a colony; *Foss*-bury, from *fossa*, a moat; and some others.

The British Celts, left without the protection of the Roman legions, soon fell an easy prey to the more warlike Teutons. The invaders of Britain belonged to three Teutonic tribes, Angles, Saxons, and Jutes, and spoke a Low-German dialect; their invasion began in 449, and

went on for about 100 years; it was a war not merely of conquest, but in many parts of extermination, and by 577 the invaders were masters of the country from Edinburgh to Exeter, and had driven the remnants of theCelts before them into Cumberland, Wales, and Cornwall. From this time the country may be called England, and its language English.

But this English, known as Anglo-Saxon, was very unlike the English of to-day. In the first place, it was an unmixed language; that is, all its words were Teutonic, while Modern English, as will be seen, has derived its vocabulary from several sources. In the second place, it was an inflexional language, whereas Modern English is an analytical language; that is, ideas which in Anglo-Saxon were expressed by means of inflexions are now expressed by prepositions and auxiliary verbs.

But although the Celts were almost exterminated throughout the eastern half of England, a few, no doubt, were spared as slaves or wives for the conquerors; and through these some Celtic words found their way into the language. These words are very few in number, and relate to the commonest household objects; instances are *darn, mattock, mug, pick.*

In 597 the conversion of the English to Christianity began, and in the following centuries many words were introduced by the priests into the language from Latin, or from Greek through Latin. These are chiefly ecclesiastical terms, such as *alms, candle, church, font, priest,* and are known as the Latin of the Second Period—that of the First Period consisting of the Latin place-names previously mentioned.

In 870 the Danes first formed a settlement in England, and eight years later they were masters of all the country north of a line drawn from London to Liverpool. In this country they settled in large numbers, and, although they

were afterwards for some time subject to the English kings, yet their power revived, and from 1017 to 1041 a Danish dynasty held the throne.

The language of the Danes, as has been already pointed out, belonged to the Scandinavian group of the Teutonic family. The effect of their settlement upon the Northern speech was twofold: (1) its inflexions began to decay, as always happens when a language is adopted by a people to whom it is foreign; (2) its vocabulary was increased by many Scandinavian words, of which, however, few remain in Modern English, owing to the fact that it was a Southern and not a Northern dialect that became the recognised literary form of the language; still some remain, as *are, bask, ill, till.*

The Norman Conquest in 1066 introduced a new element into English. The Northmen, who were the same people as the Danes, had played the same part in France as in England; they had settled at the mouth of the Seine, and had forced the French king to cede them the province which became known as Normandy. But they had adopted the French language, which was a corruption of Latin spoken by a Celtic people. This language they brought with them into England, and it became the speech of the barons and their retainers, of education, literature, and law; while English remained the speech of the great body of the people. At first the conquerors and the conquered held apart, and the English language remained intact; but the loss of Normandy in 1206, and the struggles of the barons against the king, as well as the lapse of time, brought the two races closer together—with the usual effect upon the language:—

(1) Its vocabulary was increased by the addition of a large number of French words; these were, of course, of Latin origin, and are known as the Latin of the Third Period.

(2) Its inflexions began to decay; the period of decay was from about 1250 to 1500, and the language of this period is known as Middle English, as distinguished from Old English or Anglo-Saxon on the one hand, and Modern English on the other.

Modern English, then, begins with the sixteenth century; and at the same time began the revival of classical learning in England. This revival led to the introduction of a large number of words from Latin, known as the Latin of the Fourth Period, and the process has been going on ever since. But the words that belong to this period, coming directly from the Latin, merely received an English termination, and have altered but little in spelling; while those of the Third Period, which came to us indirectly through French, have been greatly corrupted on the way. This will be clear from the following instances :—

LATIN.	FOURTH PERIOD.	THIRD PERIOD.
fragilis	fragile	frail
legalis	legal	loyal
paenitentia	penitence	penance
potio	potion	poison
praedicare	predicate	preach
prosequi	prosecute	pursue
providere	provide	purvey
pungens	pungent	poignant
quietus	quiet	coy
redemptio	redemption	ransom
respicere	respect	respite
rotundus	rotund	round
securus	secure	sure
sententia	sentence	sense
vocalis	vocal	vowel.

Many Greek words have also been introduced into Modern English, especially as scientific terms; and the

expansion of the British Empire and of English trade has added to the language a considerable number of words from various sources.

Thus the **main sources of English** are two :—

1. **Saxon**, which has given us the whole foundation and structure of our language, and about one-third of its vocabulary.

2. **Latin**, which (setting aside place-names and ecclesiastical words introduced with Christianity) has come to us either—

    (A) through Norman French, or

    (B) directly from Latin literature.

A few words were also introduced into Old and Middle English from—

3. *Celtic*, chiefly through Saxon, but in some instances through the Celtic element in French.

4. *Scandinavian*, chiefly through the Danes, but in some instances through the Norse element in Norman French.

The sources from which words have been introduced into Modern English are too numerous to mention.

THE ALPHABET

6   English spelling is etymological, not phonetic ; that is, it depends upon the derivation of a word, not upon its sound.

The English Alphabet consists of twenty-six letters, each of which has two forms, the capital and the small.

Rules as to the use of Capitals.—Capitals are to be used at the beginning of the following words :

1. The first word in any writing ; the first word after a full stop ; the first word in a line of poetry ; the first word in a quotation.

2. Titles and proper names; adjectives formed from proper names; common nouns personified; names of days and months.

3. The words *I* and *Oh*; and words considered as very important.

The twenty-six letters are divided into **Vowels** (Lat. *vocalis*, 'sounding'), letters that sound by themselves, and **Consonants** (Latin *con*, 'with,' *sonans*, 'sounding'), letters that only sound fully when pronounced with a vowel.

VOWELS

7 The **vowel letters** are *A, E, I, O, U*, and the consonantal vowels *W, Y*.

These last are consonants when they stand at the beginning of a word or syllable, as in *wet, yet, unwitting, unyielding*; vowels when they stand at the end, as in *few, try*.

The **vowel sounds** in English are twelve in number, seen in the following words: *fat, fate, fast, fall*; *met, mete*; *fit*; *dot, dote*; *pun, pull, prude.* These sounds are spelt in many different ways.

DIPHTHONGS

8 A **Diphthong** (Greek *di-phthongos*, 'having two sounds') is composed of two consecutive vowel sounds pronounced together so as to form one syllable. There are four of these sounds in English:

a (in *fast*)+**e** (in *mete*) =the sound of **i** in *fine*.
i (in *fit*) +**u** (in *prude*)=the sound of **eu** in *Europe*.
a (in *fall*)+**i** (in *fit*) =the sound of **oi** in *foil*.
a (in *fast*)+**u** (in *prude*)=the sound of **ou** in *foul*.

These sounds are spelt in many different ways.

A **digraph** (Greek *di-*, 'twice,' *grapho*, 'I write') is the name given to a combination of two vowel letters used to represent one simple vowel sound, as in *great, aunt, fraud, heifer, receipt, boat, chough, fruit.*

CONSONANTS

9   The **consonant letters** are classified as Mutes and Spirants.

The **Mutes** (or 'dumb' letters) are those which involve a complete stoppage of the breath. The **Spirants** (or 'breathing' letters) are those that involve a check, but not a complete stoppage, of the breath.

Consonants are also classified according to the organs by which they are pronounced, being named Labials ('lip-letters'), Labio-dentals ('lip and tooth letters'), Dentals ('tooth letters'), Palatals ('palate letters'), Gutturals ('throat letters').

These names are derived from the Latin words *lăbĭum, dens, pălātum,* and *guttur.*

10   CLASSIFICATION OF CONSONANT LETTERS.

	Lip.	Lip and Tooth.	Tooth.	Palate.	Throat.
Mutes	P, B		T, D	J	K, G
Spirants	M, W	F, V	N, S, Z	Y, L, R	

Add to these the aspirant *H* and the superfluous letters *C, Q, X.*

[*C* hard = K, *C* soft = S ; *Q* = K ; *X* = KS or GS.]

L, M, N, R are called **Liquids** because they are easily pronounced after certain other consonants.

> *M, N* are also called **Nasals** because in pronouncing them the breath passes through the nose.
>
> *S, Z* are called **Sibilants,** that is, 'hissing' sounds.

The **consonant sounds** consist of the seventeen represented in the above table, the aspirate, and the following six:

> *CH* in *chin* (the sound is almost *tsh*, while *J* is *dsh*).
>
> *NG* a nasal guttural.
>
> *SH, ZH.* The latter is the sound of the *s* in *treasure*, or the *z* in *azure*
>
> *TH, DH.* The former is the sound of *th* in *thin*, the latter in *this.*

11

TABLE OF CONSONANT SOUNDS.

Note.—Many of the consonant sounds are in pairs, one hard and the other soft, as *p/b*.

		Lip.	Lip-Tooth.	Tooth.	Palate.	Throat.
Mutes . . .		*p/b*		*t/d*	*ch/j*	*k/g*
Spirants	Sibilants .			*s/z*	*sh/zh*	
	Liquids .	*m*	˙	*n*	*l, r*	*ng*
	Others .	*w*	*f/v*	*th/dh*		

Many of these twenty-four sounds are spelt in more ways than one, and many of the consonant letters represent more than one sound.

The ideal alphabet would represent each sound by a separate letter; but the English alphabet has to represent

at least forty sounds by means of twenty-six letters, of which three (*C, Q, X*) are duplicates.

Apart from this deficiency and redundancy, its faults are:

> (1) That it often spells one sound in many different ways: compare *fast, aunt, clerk*; *fate, faith, fay, freight, great, grey, gaol, gauge*; *touch, hutch*.
>
> (2) That it often uses one letter, or one combination of letters, as in *great, treat, bread*, to represent many different sounds: for instance *c* in *cat, cot, cut, cent, city, Cymon*; *ch* in *machine, mechanics, much*; *g* in *gem, get, gin, begin*, and the different vowel sounds given above, § 7.

12   SYLLABLES

A **Syllable** (Greek *syllăbē*, 'a holding together') is as much of a word as can be pronounced by a single effort of the voice. If the whole word can be pronounced by one effort, it is called a monosyllable, as in *trust*; if it requires two efforts, a dissyllable, as in *trustful*; if three, a trisyllable, as in *trustworthy*; if four or more, a polysyllable, as in *trustworthiness*.

Words are divided into syllables according to the following rules:

> 1. The derivation or composition of a word must always be considered, and suffixes, prefixes, and inflexions should form separate syllables: thus, *trans-port, ab-ol-ish, di-phthong, out-run, hill-ock, drunk-ard, child-ish, grand-est, fill-ing*; but *hum-ming*, because the verb is *hum*, not *humm*.
>
> 2. Generally a syllable should begin, if possible, with a consonant, as *con-ser-va-tive*. Occasionally, however, a word is otherwise divided, as *lib-er-al*.

3. Two consecutive consonants are divided: *sec-tion, mar-quis.* Exception :—mutes when followed by *r,* sometimes when followed by *l;* as in *re-tract, a-gree-a-ble.* But *ob-lo-quy* (under rule 1).

4. Two vowels forming different syllables are divided, as *a-er-i-al.*

PARTS OF SPEECH

13 Words are divided into **eight classes,** according to the part they play in a sentence; these classes are called **Parts of Speech.** They are—

1. **Substantive Nouns,** or **Substantives.**
2. **Adjective Nouns,** or **Adjectives,** including a special kind called **Articles.**
3. **Pronouns.**   6. **Prepositions.**
4. **Verbs.**   7. **Conjunctions.**
5. **Adverbs.**   8. **Interjections.**

In the sentence

> *Alas! A small but determined party of their enemies quickly dislodged them.*

the words *party, enemies* are substantives; *small, determined* are adjectives: *a* is an article; *their, them* are pronouns; *dislodged* is a verb; *quickly* an adverb; *of* a preposition; *but* a conjunction; *alas* an interjection.

14 Note.—In English the same word is often used in more than one of these capacities: thus *common* is substantive in *a village common,* adjective in *a common rumour,* and was formerly used also as a verb (Sir T. More writes *we commoned of our sorrows*) and as an adverb (Shakespeare has *I am more than common tall*). Again, the word *outside* is substantive in *the outside of the house,* adjective in *an outside passenger,* adverb in *it is raining outside,* a preposition in *a man stood outside the window.*

Thus the only way of telling what part of speech a word is in any particular sentence is to find out what it *does* in that sentence.

NOUNS

15   The word Noun is derived from the Latin *nomen,* 'a name'; and **Nouns are Names** of persons or things. For instance, *Jack, ship, man, bravery* are Nouns or Names.

But if *man* is a name, so is *black man*; only in the latter we have added the name *black* to the name *man,* to describe more exactly the sort of man we mean. Both these words, then, are nouns, but the word *black* is called an Adjective Noun or **Adjective** (from the Latin *adjectus,* 'added') because it is a name that can be added to a substantive name, while the word *man* is called a Substantive Noun, or **Substantive** (from the Latin *substantia,* 'substance'), because it forms a sort of groundwork or substance to which adjective names can be added.

NOTE.—An adjective is **not** the name of a quality or attribute; *bravery, blackness* are names of qualities or attributes, and they are substantives; the adjectives *brave, black* are names given to the persons or things that possess the qualities of bravery or blackness.

SUBSTANTIVES

16   Substantives are of two kinds, Proper and Common.

A **Proper Substantive** (or Proper Name) is a name given to a person or thing as an individual and not as a member of a class; they are called 'proper' from the Latin *proprius,* 'one's own,' and are always spelt with an initial capital. *Jack, Neptune, England, Shakespeare* are proper substantives.

NOTE.—A proper name may be used as a common name when we wish to imply that the subject to whom it is metaphorically applied possesses the same qualities as the original bearer of the name; thus we speak of *a Hercules, a Paul Pry, a miniature England, the Micawbers of politics,* etc.

17   A **Common Substantive** (or Common Name) is a name
that is applied to an individual as one of a class; they are
called 'common' from the Latin *communis,* 'shared'.

The following kinds of Common Substantives are to
be noticed :

General Names.   Abstract Names.   Collective Names.

18   **General Names** (from the Latin *genus,* 'a kind') mark
out the individual as belonging to a certain kind or class
of objects which resemble each other in certain respects;
the same general name can be applied to each of these
objects.   Thus *boy, house* are general names.   Boys differ
among themselves in many ways, but they are all male
human beings within certain limits of age; and so we give
the general name *boy* to each member of the class.   Again,
houses in Park Lane differ considerably from houses in
Ratcliff Highway, but they all agree in being human
dwellings of a certain solidity and within certain limits of
size ; and so we call each of them by the general name
house.

19   **Abstract Names** are the names of qualities (such as
roundness) considered *apart from* the material things in
which they exist; hence they are called 'abstract,' from
the Latin *abstractus,* 'separated'.   When we look at a
number of oranges, and observe that they agree more or
less in shape, we form a conception of this shape by itself
and name it *roundness.*   But *roundness* is the name of a
mental, not a material, thing; we cannot handle *round-
ness,* although we can handle *round things,* such as
oranges.

The opposite to 'abstract' is 'concrete' (from the
Latin *concretus,* 'condensed'), so called because the
material thing may be regarded as the condensation or

embodiment of the various abstract qualities it possesses.

NOTE.—Many substantives, properly or originally abstract, are used concretely as general names; for instance, related people are properly called by the concrete name *relatives*, and the position in which they stand towards one another is properly called by the abstract name *relation* (as when we speak of the relation of father and son, or of husband and wife); but *relation* has come to be used concretely, to mean a related person, and so a new abstract term, *relationship*, has had to be coined.

20   **Collective Names** are those given to a collection of persons or things, such as a football *team, a jury, an army, a library* of books.

NOTE 1.—**Distinction between General Names and Collective Names.** A general name is applied to each member of a class, as *soldier, juryman*; but a Collective Name is applied to the collection as a whole, and not to any member of it; for instance, we cannot say, *Lord Wolseley is an army,* or *Mr. Jones is a jury.*

NOTE 2.—A Collective Name is a Common Substantive because it is applied to any individual collection out of the whole number of similar collections; for instance, the name *army* is applied to the British Army, the French Army, and any similar collection of armed men; the name *team* is applied to any one of the numerous football teams, and so on.

NOTE 3.—Many substantives, properly abstract, are also used as collective; thus we say *the peerage* for the whole body of peers, *the youth* for the whole body of young people, *the democracy* for the people who partake in this form of government.

INFLEXIONS OF SUBSTANTIVES

21   Substantives are inflected (that is, changed in form) to mark variations of **Number** and **Case**.

The inflexion of **Number** is a change of form that marks the difference between one and more than one; thus,

dog, dogs; ox, oxen; goose, geese.

The first is called the **Singular** Number (from the Latin *singuli,* 'one at a time'), the second is called the **Plural** Number (from the Latin *plures,* 'more').

CASE

22 The inflexion of **Case** is a change of form which marks the relation that a substantive has towards some other word in the sentence.

It is so called from the Latin *casus*, ' a falling,' because the ancient grammarians took the Nominative as the normal form, and considered the other cases as *sloping* or *falling away* from it.

For the same reason they gave the name *Declension* (from the Latin *declinatio*, ' a slope ') to the whole set of changes in any substantive.

23 In English there are **four cases** :

> **Nominative** (from the Latin *nominare*, ' to name '), the case of the Subject, answering the question *who ? what ?* Thus, *Caesar conquered the Britons.* Who conquered the Britons ? Caesar. *The sun lights the earth.* What lights the earth ? The sun.—So *Caesar* and *sun* are in the Nominative case.
>
> **Accusative** (from the Latin *accusare*, ' to bring an action against '), the case of the Direct Object, answering the question *whom ? what ?* Thus, *Caesar conquered the Britons.* Conquered whom ? The Britons. *The sun lights the earth.* Lights what ? The earth.—So *Britons* and *earth* are in the Accusative case.
>
> **Genitive** is the Descriptive case, and answers the question *of whom ? of what ?* Thus, *Caesar's army.* The army of whom ? Of Caesar. *The sun's light.* The light of what ? Of the sun. —So *Caesar's* and *sun's* are in the Genitive case.

B

Dative (from the Latin *datum,* 'given') is the case of the Indirect Object, and answers the questions *to* or *for whom? to* or *for what?* Thus, *Give the door a push.* Give a push to what? To the door. *Order me a cab.* Order a cab for whom? For me.—So *door* and *me* are in the Dative case.

24 The following are examples of some of the **Anglo-Saxon Declensions.** When a second form is given, it is that which was in use in the thirteenth century, and the first is that in use previously.

SING.	*Nom.*	wulf	*wolf*	tung-e *tongue*	fot		*foot*
	Acc.	wulf	*wolf*	tung-an (-e)	fot		
	Gen.	wulf-es	*wolf's*	tung-an (-e, -es)	fot-es		
	Dat.	wulf-e	*to or for a wolf*	tung-an (-e, -en)	fet		
PLUR.	*Nom.*	wulf-as (v-es)	*wolves*	tung-an (-en)	fet		
	Acc.	wulf-as (v-es)	*wolves*	tung-an (-en)	fet		
	Gen.	wulf-a (v-e)	*wolves'*	tung-ena (-ene)	fot-a	(-e)	
	Dat.	wulf-um (v-e)	*to or for wolves*	tung-um (-en)	fot-um	(-e)	

25 NOTE.—The genitive form *tunge* explains why we say *Lady-day* (as compared with *Lord's day*): *ladie* once made genitive *ladie*.

The genitive form *tungan* explains why we say *Sun-day, Mon-day* (as compared with *Tues-day, Wednes-day*); *sunne* and *mona* made genitives *sunnan, monan,* while *Tiw* and *Woden* made *Tiwes, Wodnes.*

The genitive plural form *tungena* explains the Saxon name for Parliament, Witenagemot; *gemot* is the 'meeting,' *witena* ' of the wise men.'

26 In addition to these four cases Anglo-Saxon had also an **Instrumental Case,** answering the question *by means of what?* Its form was the same as the dative's, except in some adjectives and pronouns.

Latin has an **Ablative Case** (which answers the question *from what?* and includes also the Instrumental) and a **Locative Case,** answering the question *where?*

27 It has been said (§ 22) that case-inflexions mark the relations in which substantives stand to other words in a

sentence. But they have two defects, which have led to their being supplemented in all languages by Prepositions. These defects are—

(1) That they express relations very vaguely; and
(2) That there are many relations which they do not express at all.

As an instance of the first defect compare 'write *me* fifty lines' with 'write *me* a letter'; the first *me* = *for me*, the second *me* = *to me*. Again, compare 'Caesar's army' with 'a moment's hesitation'; the first genitive is *possessive*, while the second is *descriptive*.

With regard to the second defect, consider the variety of relations expressed by prepositions in the following sentence:

> I started *with* my friend *from* Paris *at* midnight, and went *by* railway *across* the Alps *to* Rome *in* Italy.

Here the different relations are expressed, not by means of case-inflexions, but by the use of various prepositions governing the accusative case.

When English came to be spoken to and by foreigners (the Danes in the North and the Normans in the South) the case-inflexions began to disappear. By the year 1400 the separate forms of the genitive plural and of the dative (singular and plural) had vanished; and for the last three hundred years we have had separate inflexions only for the genitive and (in the case of some pronouns) for the accusative. The other cases are shown by the meaning of the sentence or by the position of the substantive in it.

Nominative Case.

28 The Nominative is the case of the person or thing **spoken of** (Nominative of the Subject) or **spoken to** (Nominative of Address, or Vocative).

A. (1) **Nominative of the Subject.**

A substantive is in the nominative when it is the subject of a sentence; for instance, in the sentences

Caesar conquered the Britons.   The *sun* lights the earth,

Caesar and *sun* are the subjects, and are in the nominative.

In sentences which make a statement the **nominative precedes** the verb, as in the instances just given, and is therefore distinguishable from the dative or accusative by its position.

But sometimes, in poetry or for emphasis, the nominative follows the verb; as in,

> ' To arms !   cried *Mortimer*.
> > Such resting found the *sole*
> > Of unblest feet.

In such cases the sense is the only guide, unless, of course, either subject or object happens to be a pronoun with a distinct form for the accusative; as in

> > For many a joke had he.
> > Him followed his next mate.

(2) **Nominative Absolute.**

29   This is the name given to a phrase in which a substantive is combined with a participle (see § 124) and not with a verb.   It is called 'absolute' (from the Latin *absolutus*, ' set free '), because it is *not the subject* of any verb; and it is known to be in the nominative from the fact that pronouns, similarly constructed, are in the nominative. Instances are—

> > Adam . . . shall live with her enjoying, *I extinct.*
> > *This done*, they summoned the police.
> > *Dinner ended*, we went to the billiard-room.

NOTE 1.—Modern writers generally insert *being*; as, *this being done*; *dinner being ended*.

NOTE 2.—Sometimes the participle is omitted; as,

> *Thou away*, the very birds are mute.
> *Dinner over*, the speeches began.

NOTE 3.—In Anglo-Saxon the dative was used in this construction, in Latin the ablative; so we find in Wycliffe *him speaking these things*, and in Milton *us dispossessed, him destroyed, me overthrown*. But this construction is now obsolete.

B. Nominative of Address.

30   This marks the person or thing spoken to, and is generally known as the **Vocative** (from the Latin *vocare*, 'to call'). It is distinguished from other cases and from other uses of the nominative by the fact that it stands alone in the sentence without any construction, and marked off by commas; as,

> *Sun*, stand thou still upon Gibeon.
> Now, *Lycidas*, the shepherds weep no more.

Accusative Case.

31   The **Accusative** is primarily the case of the **Direct Object**; it has a distinct inflexion in certain pronouns but not in substantives.   It is used—

> A. To mark the direct object of a verb.
> B. As a cognate accusative.
> C. In various adverbial expressions.
> D. After prepositions, and in exclamations.

A. When used to mark the **direct object** of a verb it is, as a rule, distinguished from the nominative of the subject by the fact that it **follows the verb**.

But sometimes, in poetry or for emphasis (as in *this the prisoners denied*) it precedes the verb : the sense is then the only guide. In such instances the subject sometimes follows the verb (see instances quoted in § 28); sometimes both subject and object precede the verb; as in,

> Hoards after hoards his rising raptures fill.

B. Some verbs can be constructed with an accusative of cognate or related meaning (**Cognate Accusative**); instances are,

> Hope *told* a flattering *tale*.   He *plays* a good *game*.   He *died* a miserable *death*.   I have *lived* my *life*.   She *sang* a *song*.

In these instances the substantives are classed as accusatives by analogy with the preceding construction (A).

C. **Adverbial phrases** (see § 145) like the following, generally expressing extent, are classed together as accusatives, partly on account of their analogy with cognate accusatives or the accusatives used with prepositions, but chiefly for the sake of convenience. In Anglo Saxon some of them were genitives or datives. Instances are,

> We went *one way*, and came back *the other*.   They went *twenty miles*.   I waited *an hour*.   He does not care *a bit*.   He works *night and day*.   I started *this morning*.   The game's not worth *the candle*.   *Nine fathom* deep.   *Ten years* old.

D. For the accusative with prepositions, see § 141: in exclamations, § 142.

Dative Case.

32   The Dative is the case of the **Indirect Object**, and denotes that the person or thing is interested in what is done, and affected by it without being the direct object of the action.

Its form is now the same as the accusative's, but was formerly distinct: the relation it marks is quite different from that denoted by the accusative. The prepositions *to* or *for* can always be supplied before it without affecting the sense. For instance,

> Give *the horse* (=to the horse) corn.   Give *the house* (=to the house) a thorough cleaning.   Write *me* (=to me) a letter.   Fetch *me* (=for me) a cab.   Buy *the dog* (=for the dog) a collar.   Knock *me* (=for me) on that door.

In position it stands after the verb and before the direct object, as in the above instances. We cannot say *give corn the horse,* or *fetch a cab me.*

> The only exception is when *it* forms the direct object; as, *give it me.*

NOTE.—There are several old expressions in which the dative has survived; such are, 'woe is *me*,' 'woe worth the *day*,' 'methinks,' '*meseems*.' Here *worth* is from the Anglo-Saxon *weorthan,* 'to become,' 'to be'; *methinks=meseems=*'*it seems to me*.' In Anglo-Saxon *thincan* is 'to seem,' *thencan,* 'to think.'

Genitive Case—Its Formation.

33   The Genitive is the only case of substantives that has a distinct inflexion.

It is formed from the Anglo-Saxon termination *-es,* and is written '*s* in the singular (the apostrophe marking the omission of *e*); in the plural it is formed in the same way when the nominative plural does not end in *s*; but when

the nominative does end in *s*, the apostrophe only is added for the genitive; thus,

SING.	*Nom.*	dog	ox		goose
	Gen.	dog's	ox's		goose's
PLUR.	*Nom.*	dogs	oxen		geese
	Gen.	dogs'	oxen's		geese's.

When a substantive ends in a sibilant sound in the singular, its genitive is sometimes formed by the apostrophe alone, especially in foreign or long words; thus,

> For goodness' sake, for righteousness' sake, Mars' hill, Saumarez' Physiology, Moses' law;

but the modern practice is generally to write and pronounce *'s* in full:

> Charles's Wain, Dickens's works, Prince of Wales's feathers, etc.

For a long while, in fact until the time of Addison, the *s* of the genitive was supposed to be a contraction of *his*; hence such expressions as *for Jesus Christ his sake.* The theory is of course absurd: it would make *Mary's lamb* = *Mary his lamb*; *men's labour* = *men his labour*.

34 Genitive of Compound Expressions.—When a name or title consists of more words than one, or when a group of words is considered to form one substantive, the genitive inflexion is added at the end; thus, *the Queen of England's life*; *Henry the Eighth's reign*; *the Duke of Clarence's death*; *a day or two's fishing*; *my father-in-law's hat.*

> But this construction cannot be used in the plural; we cannot say *the Queens of England's lives*, but must use the preposition *of* with the accusative: *the lives of the Queens of England.*

When the compound expression is formed by a substantive in apposition, as *Jackson the butcher*, the genitive is sometimes formed in the same way, as *Jackson the butcher's cart*; but this is clumsy, and often leads to

ambiguity: for instance, in *Tom the piper's son, Tom* may be the name of the piper or of his son.

In forming the genitive of two or more substantives connected by *and* (closely and without the intervention of other words), we add the genitive inflexion only to the last when they are connected *jointly* with the substantive on which the genitive depends; otherwise we add it to each of them. Thus we say *Besant and Rice's novels, Gilbert and Sullivan's operas, Day and Martin's blacking*, because each of Besant and Rice's novels was the *joint* work of them both, and so with the others. But we say *Besant's and Meredith's novels, Gilbert's and Robertson's plays, Gladstone's and Morley's speeches*, because we mean *Besant's novels and Meredith's novels*, etc.

We have a sort of strengthened genitive in such phrases as *a play of Shakespeare's, that boy of Norcott's, this England of ours.* These are often explained to mean 'a play (one) of Shakespeare's (plays)'; but Norcott may have had—indeed in the story he had—only one boy; and we have only one England.

Genitive Case—Its uses.

35 A substantive in the Genitive always depends upon another substantive, expressed or understood.

The substantive upon which it depends is understood in such phrases as 'St. Peter's (church),' 'I bought it at Whiteley's (shop),' 'I dined at the Wilsons' (house),' 'the earth is the Lord's (earth).'

A substantive in the genitive acts as an attribute to the substantive on which it depends, as is shown by the fact that we can replace it by an adjective (if there be one) without altering the sense; thus,

The consul's army	The consular army
Man's life	Human life
Shakespeare's plays	Shakespearian plays
The earth's magnetism	Terrestrial magnetism
The year's revenue	Annual revenue
A moment's hesitation	Momentary hesitation.

36   Three uses of the Genitive may be noticed:

> 1. **Possessive,** denoting that something *belongs to* or
>   *is produced by* the person or thing named by
>   the substantive in the genitive; as, *Caesar's
>   wife*; *the earth's magnetism*; *the day's end*; *the
>   oppressor's wrong*; *the proud man's contumely.*
>
> 2. **Objective,** denoting that the person or thing
>   named by the substantive is the object of the
>   action implied in the substantive upon which it
>   depends; as, *Caesar's murderer* (= the man who
>   murdered Caesar); *a stone's throw* (= the distance
>   one can throw a stone). Compare *in Thy fear
>   and love* (= in the fear and love of Thee).
>
> 3. **Definitive,** in which the substantive in the genitive
>   defines the meaning of the substantive upon
>   which it depends, generally in respect of
>   **extent**; thus, *a hand's breadth*; *a moment's
>   hesitation*; *a day's ride*; *a week's holiday*; *a
>   month's notice*; *a year's time*; *a life's romance.*

NUMBER

37   The Plural Number sometimes has the same form as
the Singular; thus, *sheep, deer, teal, grouse, cod, trout.*
Especially in substantives denoting a number or measure-
ment; thus, 'three *brace* of partridges,' 'twelve *couple* of
hounds,' 'six *dozen*,' 'ten *gross*,' 'nine *stone*,' 'three *score*
years.'

> 'Full *fathom five* thy father lies.'

But usually the two numbers have different forms, the
plural being formed from the singular in one of three
ways.

38 **First Form of the Plural** is that produced by adding -*es* to the singular; but the *es* is shortened, both in writing and pronunciation, to *s*, except in words ending in sibilant or palatal sounds; thus, *cads, cats, classes, ashes, axes, blazes, cages.*

NOTE 1.—In Old English and sometimes even in Spenser's time, the *es* formed a separate syllable after other than sibilant sounds; thus,

> *The silver dropës hongyng on the leevës.*—(CHAUCER.)
> *Departed thence, albe, his woundës wide.*—(SPENSER.)

NOTE 2.—Words ending in -*o* form the plural sometimes in -*es*, sometimes in -*s*. The following add -*es*:

buffalo	embargo	mulatto	tomato
calico	flamingo	negro	tornado
cargo	hero	no	torpedo
echo	mango	potato	volcano.

The following have *es* or *s*:

archipelago	grotto	motto
bravo	innuendo	peccadillo
domino	mosquito	portico.

The following (chiefly words connected with books or music) have *s*:

canto	folio	oratorio	solo	
cento	halo	piano	soprano	
ditto	merino	portfolio	stiletto	
duodecimo	nuncio	quarto	tobacco	
embryo	octavo	rondo	two	tyro.

NOTE 3.—The following words change *f* or *fe* into *ves* in the plural:

beef (in obsolete sense of 'ox,' Johnson, 1775)

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

And (generally) *scarves, staves, wharves.*
Other words in *f* and *fe* add *s*, as usual: *chiefs, fifes.*

NOTE 4.—Substantives ending in *y* were formerly spelt with -*ie*, as *navie, studie,* and this spelling was retained in the plural: *navies, studies.* But in Modern English this is only the case when the *y* is preceded by a con-

sonant; if the *y* is preceded by a vowel the plural is formed as usual; thus, *days, keys.*

Qu is treated as a consonant : *colloquies.*

In proper names the usage varies : sometimes we find *Marys*, more often *Maries.*

Alkali makes plural *alkalies.*

NOTE 5.—When any new substantive is coined or any foreign word naturalised, its plural can only be formed by this method ; for instance, *trams, telephones, pianos.*

39   Second Form of the Plural is that produced by adding *-en* to the Singular.   In Old English this form was common, especially in the thirteenth century, when Anglo-Saxon plurals in *-u* and *-a* were modified into *-e* and then into *-en*.   The only instances now in use are *ox-en, brethr-en, childr-en, ki-ne.*

Hosen occurs in the Bible (Dan. iii. 21); *housen* is still used by peasants in the Midlands; *shoon* and *eyen* have been used in modern poetry, but only as intentional archaisms.

Brethren, children, kine are double plurals ; *brethren* is formed by the addition of *-en* to *brether*, which is still used as the plural in Lancashire and Scotland.

Children : the former plural, *childer*, is still used in Leicestershire and Scotland.

Kine : the plural of *cow* was *cy* (the Scotch still use *kye* as the plural), and *kine = cy-en.*

40   Third Form of the Plural is that produced by vowel-change.   The only instances now in use are

goose	geese	} compare *brother, brether*
foot	feet	
tooth	teeth	
mouse	mice	} compare *cow, kye*
louse	lice	
man	men, and derivatives, such as *woman, Englishman, nobleman, Northman.*	

But *Norman* (a softened form of *Northman*) and *German*, *Mussulman*, *Ottoman* (which are not compounds of *man*), form their plurals in *s* : *Normans, Germans*, etc.

Plural of Compounds.

41   1. In compounds formed of a substantive and an uninflected word, the substantive is inflected; as, *passers-by, bystanders.*

2. In compounds formed of two substantives, the last is inflected; as, *letter-boxes, house-agents, maid-servants, garden-rollers, collar-studs.*

> But in the following both parts are inflected: *men-children, men-servants, Knights-Templars, Lords-Justices, Lords-Appellants, Lords-Commissioners* of the Treasury, *Lords Ordainers.*

3. In compounds formed of a substantive and an adjective the substantive is inflected; as, *heirs-apparent, courts-martial, knights-errant, solicitors-general.*

> So Shakespeare has *Attorneys-general* ; but now we generally write *Attorney-generals,* and always *Major-generals, Lord-lieutenants.*

4. In compounds formed of two substantives joined by a preposition, the first substantive is inflected; thus, *men-of-war, Queens of England, sons-in-law.*

Note.—This is the reverse of the rule as to the formation of the genitive in similar cases ; see § 34.

Foreign Plurals.

42   When foreign words become naturalised in English they take an English plural, as *geniuses, diplomas*; but many which are incompletely naturalised keep their original plurals; thus,

> **French.**—*Beau, beaux; trousseau, trousseaux.*
>
>> [For the plur. of *Mister* (Mr.) we use *Messieurs* (Messrs.), the French plur. of *Monsieur*.
>> For the plur. of *Mrs.* we use *Mesdames* (Mmes.), the French plur. of *Madame.*]
>
> **Italian.**—*Bandit, banditti; virtuoso, virtuosi; signor, signori; dilettante, dilettanti.*
>
> **Latin.**—The following are instances: *formula, formulae; radius, radii; datum, data; genus, genera; index, indices; species, species.*
>
> **Greek** words ending in *-sis* form their plurals in *-ses*; as, *crises, analyses, hypotheses, periphrases. Automaton, phenomenon* form *automata, phenomena.*
>
> **Hebrew.**—*Cherubim, seraphim* are the plurals of *cherub* and *seraph.*

Singulars treated as Plurals.

43   The words *alms, eaves, riches* are treated as plurals (on account of their final *s*) although they are really singular.   *Alms* was in Anglo-Saxon *aelmesse,* from the Low Latin *elimosina,* Greek *eleemosyne.*   It is sometimes used as a singular; thus Addison writes *an alms,* while Dryden writes *for alms are but the vehicles of prayer.*

> *Eaves* is the Anglo-Saxon *efese,* 'an edge.'
> *Riches* is the French *richesse.*

Plurals treated as Singulars.

44   The words *gallows, means, news, small-pox* are usually treated as singulars, although really plurals; thus we say *a high gallows, a means of grace, this news is serious, small-pox is prevalent.*

Small-pox = small-pocks (compare *pock-marked*); *pock* is the same word as *pocket* (*poke* in Shakespeare) and *pouch*.

The words *amends, odds, pains, thanks, tidings, wages*, have also in the past been used as singulars, but are now generally treated as plurals.

Many substantives ending in *-ics*, which are properly plurals of adjectives formed from the Greek, are used as singulars, as *mechanics treats of motion*; some few have a singular form, as *logic, music, rhetoric.*

Plurals without Singulars.

45   These consist of two classes:

A. Things that are made double; as,

> *Breeches, bellows, scissors, shears, pincers, scales, tongs, trousers.*

B. Things that are considered as collections or masses, *e.g.*

> Diseases : *measles, mumps, rheumatics*
> Games : *billiards, rounders*
> Ceremonies : *matins, vespers.*
> Also *embers, dregs, lees, oats.*

46   Some substantives have different meanings in the singular and in the plural; such are

Beef, beeves	List, lists (at a tournament)
Compass, compasses	Pain, pains
Draught, draughts	Spectacle, spectacles (eye-glasses).
Effect, effects	

47   Perhaps we may mention here the numerous substantives like *leavings,*
parings, savings, which in the singular denote an action, and in the plural
denote the results of the action.   In some of them, however, the singular
also has the concrete meaning ; as, *a writing.*

48   Some substantives have two forms of the plural, differing in meaning ;
such are

Brothers (by blood)	Brethren (of a community)
Cherubs (angelic children)	Cherubim (angels)
Cloths (pieces or sorts of cloth)	Clothes (garments)
Dies (for stamping)	Dice (for playing)
Geniuses (men of genius)	Genii (spirits in fairy tales)
Indexes (of a book)	Indices (in Algebra)
Pennies (taken individually)	Pence (taken collectively)
Peas (taken individually)	Pease (taken collectively).

The last word was originally a singular (*pease,* plural *peasen*), derived
from Anglo-Saxon *pisa,* plural *pisan,* Latin *pisum* ; being taken for a
plural the singular *pea* was formed from it ; and *pea* was afterwards pro-
vided with a new plural, *peas.*

Plurals of Proper Names.

49   A Proper Name, being the name of an individual,
cannot usually make a plural; but it can do so (1) when
it is borne by more than one person; as, *the Georges, the
Smiths*; (2) when it is used metaphorically for a common
name; see § 16.

Plurals of Abstract Names.

50   Abstract substantives, being the names of qualities,
could not properly be used in the plural; but some of them
may be so used to denote several instances of the exhibi-
tion of the quality; as,

To the Lord our God belong mercies and forgivenesses.
To forgive us our sins, negligences, and ignorances.

51   In the same way substantives that denote materials and things which
are measured or weighed, but not numbered, do not as a rule form a
plural ; but they can be used in the plural in speaking of several kinds or
pieces ; thus we can speak of *teas, brandies, marbles, irons.*

GENDER

52   Every living thing belongs to one of the **two sexes,** male (from Latin *masculus*, ' a male ') and female (from Latin *femella*, ' a female '), while inanimate things have no sex.   Thus everything belongs either (1) to the male sex, or (2) to the female sex, or (3) to neither.

In the same way substantives, which are the names of things, belong either (1) to the **masculine** gender, or (2) to the **feminine** gender, or (3) to the **neuter** gender (from Latin *neutrum*, ' neither ').

Sex, then, is a distinction between things, *gender* a distinction between words.

In English, **gender always depends upon sex** ; that is a substantive which is the name of a male is masculine, and may be replaced by a masculine pronoun ; a substantive which is the name of a female is feminine, and may be replaced by a feminine pronoun ; and a substantive which is the name of an inanimate thing is neuter, and may be replaced by a neuter pronoun.

NOTE 1.—A baby or an animal whose sex does not matter or is unknown to the speaker is frequently spoken of by a neuter pronoun ; as,

> *The baby is very like its father.*
> *Give the cat its dinner.*

NOTE 2.—By **Personification** we attribute life, and therefore sex, to inanimate objects ; and their names, properly neuter, thereby become of the corresponding gender.   This is most common in poetry.

The Male Sex is usually attributed to Time, Death, Sleep, Sun, Rivers, Mountains, Ocean, Wind, War, and the coarser or stronger emotions.

The Female Sex is usually attributed to Soul, Night, Morning, Moon, Earth, Countries, Towns, Ships, Arts and Sciences, other Abstractions (such as Freedom, Fate, Fortune, Nature, Religion, Virtue, Wisdom, Justice, Peace), and the softer emotions.

In English this is in every case the result of a figure of speech, and the gender of the substantive in question is not thereby permanently affected.

53 In many other languages (partly owing perhaps to some general practice of personification in the remote past) the gender of words does not necessarily correspond with the sex of the things they name.

Thus in Latin and Anglo-Saxon, while the names of males are generally masculine and those of females generally feminine, the names of inanimate objects may belong to any one of the three genders.

In French, again, there is no neuter gender, and all names of inanimate things are either masculine or feminine.

54 There are certain terminations which are, or once were, used to denote that the person named is of the female sex; as in, *laundress, spinster, vixen, heroine.*

NOTE.—These must not be ranked as inflexions; they are instances of word-formation, and the words that end with these terminations are distinct substantives inflected separately throughout. In Latin, *victrix* is not an inflexion of *victor*, but a separate substantive. And in English, *goddess* is no more an inflexion of *god* than *godliness* is; *murderous* and *murderess* stand in the same relation to the word *murder*.

The terminations in question are *-ess*, *-ster*, *-en*, and some others.

-ess. This is the Latin *-issa*, coming to us through Norman-French; in the fourteenth century it began to supplant the Anglo-Saxon *-ster*.

The following instances show the different ways in which it is added to words:

    (i) *Mayor, mayoress; prince, princess; Jew, Jewess.*

    (ii) *Governor, governess; murderer, murderess.*

    (iii) *Emperor, empress; actor, actress; tiger, tigress; negro, negress; votary, votaress.*

    (iv) *Master, mistress, miss; lad, (ladess) lass.*

This is the only termination that is still alive; that is, it alone can be used in new formations; such are *lecturess, stewardess.*

-**ster.** This was the Anglo-Saxon feminine termination answering to the masculine *-er*; thus *tapper* (barman) had feminine *tapster* (barmaid), *hucker* or *hawker* had feminine *huckster*, *seamer* (a sewer) had feminine *sempster*. In and after the fourteenth century they were supplanted by the ending *-ess*, and began to lose their feminine meaning; only one word retains it: *spinster*, the feminine of *spinner*. From several others fresh feminines in *-ess* have been formed, as *songstress*, *sempstress*. The termination has often a depreciatory sense now, as in *huckster, punster, tipster, youngster*.

-**en,** as in *vix-en* (O. E. *Fyxen*), the feminine of *fox*. This is the only instance in Modern English, but Anglo-Saxon had many; for instance, *gyd-en*, a goddess.

-**ine,** as in *margravine, heroine*; in the former it is a Teutonic suffix answering to the A.-S. *-en*; in the latter it is a Greek termination.

-**ina,** in *Czarina*, is apparently the same as *-en* and Teutonic *-ine*.

-**a,** in *sultan-a* is Italian.

-**trix,** in *testatrix, executrix*, etc., is Latin.

55 Sex is also denoted in two other ways :

A. By using different words ; instances are,

Boy	girl	Horse	mare
Brother	sister	Husband	wife
Buck	doe	King	queen
Bull	cow	Nephew	niece
Cock	hen	Son	daughter
Drake	duck	Stag	hind
Father	mother	Uncle	aunt.

Gaffer and *gammer*, used provincially for any old man and woman, are contractions of *grandfather* and *grandmother*.

B. By prefixing one of the above pairs to the common word ; as,

Buck-rabbit	doe-rabbit	Cock-sparrow	hen-sparrow
Bull-calf	cow-calf	He-bear	she-bear.

Sometimes the distinctive words are affixed ; as in,

Peacock	peahen	Turkey-cock	turkey-hen.

ADJECTIVES

56　An Adjective is an additional name joined to a substantive or its equivalent in order to denote some attribute belonging to the object named by the substantive; by adding the adjective we describe the object more clearly.

Thus when we say 'Friday was a *black* man' we describe him more definitely than if we merely said 'Friday was a man.'

The whole class of objects to which a substantive name can be *applied* comprise what is called its **denotation**; because the substantive *denotes* each of them. The aggregate of qualities which a substantive name *implies* is called its **connotation**. By adding an adjective to a substantive we increase its connotation and diminish its denotation; thus 'black man' *implies* more than 'man,' but can be *applied* to fewer people.

Adjectives, however, do not always diminish the denotation of substantives ; when we say 'the gallant 64th regiment made a splendid charge,' the adjective 'gallant' is added by way of further description, not in order to restrict the application of the name '64th regiment'; on the other hand, the adjective '64th' does restrict the application of the name 'regiment' to one particular regiment, numbered 64.

59 NOTES —

All. The Church Service has 'all we like sheep have gone astray'; in Modern English we say, 'we all' or 'all of us.' In the latter 'all' is a substantive (= 'the whole'); in this construction it is generally used only with pronouns, but sometimes with substantives; as in, ''Tis not the whole of life to live, nor *all of death* to die.'

Any. In 'Have you any ink?' *any* is quantitative, but in 'Any pen will do,' *any* is qualitative.

Both. We can say 'Both my friends have left,' or 'My friends have both left,' or 'My friends both left.' We say, 'we both,' not 'both we'; but we can say, 'both which.' So also we can say, 'both of us,' 'both of which,' where *both* is a substantive; in this construction *both* (like *all*) is generally used only with pronouns in writing, but such phrases as 'both of the goal-keepers,' 'both of the ships,' are not unusual in speaking.

Certain. This adjective is also used qualitatively, in the sense of 'sure'; thus we speak of 'a certain cure.'

Divers = 'more than one,' *diverse* = 'different'; both words are derived from the Latin *diversus*.

Enough generally follows its substantive, as 'bread enough and to spare.'

Few. The opposite of 'few' is 'many,' of 'a few' is 'none.'

Little is qualitative in 'little boys,' quantitative in 'little noise.'

Many is used with a substantive in the singular, if *a* comes between; thus, 'many a swarthy face.' In 'a great many faces,' *many* is a substantive.

Much. In such phrases as 'much of their time,' *much* is a substantive.

None was once used (where we now use 'no') as an adjective with a substantive expressed: 'He had made the cross of Christ to be of none effect.'

Several is qualitative in 'they went their several ways.'

Some is sometimes used for 'about,' as in 'some five or six years ago.'

NOTE.—Many of these words are also used as substantive pronouns, and some are also used as adverbs.

60 C. **Demonstrative Adjectives** answer the question *Which?* They are so called (from the Latin *demonstrāre*, 'to point out') because they point out persons or things instead of describing them. They are also called Relational, since they distinguish things not by means of any

quality or quantity of the things themselves, but by means of some relation in which the things stand to the speaker or to some other things; for instance, *first boy, this boy, the boy.*

They are of three kinds:—

  1. Ordinal Numerals, such as *first, second, third.*
    [See on Numerals, § 64 below]
  2. Adjective Pronouns, such as *this, every, our.*
    [See on Pronouns, § 75 below.]
  3. Articles.

ARTICLES

61 There are two Articles, the Indefinite and the Definite.

(i) **The Indefinite Article**, *a, an,* is the Anglo-Saxon *an,* 'one' (the Scotch *ane*). *A* is a shortened form of *an,* and came into use between 1150 and 1300, but *an* continued to be used before a consonant up to 1600.

The rule now is that *an* is used before a word beginning with a vowel sound; as, *an umpire, an hour, an f, an M.F.H.*; while *a* is used before words beginning with a consonant sound (including *y*-sounds and aspirated *h*); as, *a cry, a howl, a yell, a t, a unicorn, a eulogy.*

Some writers retain *an* before *h, u,* and *eu,* if the syllable that begins with one of those letters is not accented; thus, *an harangue, an Eurasian, an unique example.* But this is seldom heard in speech, and less frequently met with in writing than formerly.

When two substantives are joined together, the indefinite article is put before both; as in, *a walrus and a carpenter*; but it is omitted before the second when the two things form one whole or are constantly used together; as in, *a knife and fork, a horse and cart, a carriage and pair.*

Besides its ordinary use with a single indefinite object, the indefinite article is also used when we wish to individualise a substance, a quality, or a state; thus we speak of *a fine Ceylon tea, a strange unselfishness, a deep sleep.*

The indefinite article follows the adjectives *many, such, what*; as, *many a man, such a coward, what a fool.* It also follows adjectives preceded by *how, so, as, too*; for instance, *how great a man, so wise a judge, as good a player, too bad a player.*

The phrases *a few men, a good many men,* etc., stand on the same footing as *a dozen, a hundred,* etc.; the words *few, many,* being substantives when so used.

Note.—We say *a few, a good many*; but *a many, a good few,* are provincial.

The original meaning of *a* (=one) is seen in such phrases as *birds of a feather, two of a sort, one at a time, they are both in a tale.*

A in the sense of *each* (as in *fourpence a pound, forty pounds a year, ninepence a head*) is not the article, but a shortened form of the Old English preposition *an,* 'on.'

62   (ii) **The Definite Article**, *the,* is the same as the Anglo-Saxon demonstrative pronoun, masc. *the (se)*, fem. *theo (seo)*, neut. *thæt.*

It particularises the object alluded to; as in, *Nathan said unto David, 'Thou art* THE *man'* (that is, the man referred to).

So when we say *I met a postman,* we mean any one postman out of many; but when we say *I met the postman,* we mean the particular postman who brings us our letters, or the one we have been speaking of, or to whom (for any reason) we shall be understood to allude.

So *another* is any other out of many; *the other* is the only other out of two.

In *the more the merrier,* the article represents the instrumental case of the demonstrative pronoun, and may be parsed as an adverb; the phrase means '*in what degree* (we are) more in number, *in that degree* (we shall be) merrier.'

If *the* be repeated before several adjectives, we divide the objects named into as many groups as there are adjectives; for instance, *the lazy, the dishonest, and the incapable officials;* but if we do not repeat *the,* we class all the objects in one group, each member of which possesses all the qualities denoted by the adjectives; as in *the lazy, dishonest, and incapable officials.*

NUMERALS

63   Numeral Adjectives are—

> A. **Cardinal**;   as, *one, two, three.*
> B. **Ordinal**;   as, *first, second, third.*
> C. **Multiplicative**;   as, *twofold, triple.*

In addition to these we may notice—

> (*d*) Distributive Phrases; and
> (*e*) Numeral Adverbs.

A. Cardinal Numerals (*one, two, three,* etc.) are so called from the Latin *cardo,* ' a hinge,' because they are the principal kind of numerals, and the other kinds depend (or *hinge*) upon them. They answer the question ' How many ?' and are quantitative adjectives.

> *One*=A.-S. *án.* An initial *w*-sound first developed in the fifteenth century; this had the effect of altering the vowel sound from its natural pronunciation as seen in *alone* to the present pronunciation *wun.*
>
> *Two* was in A.-S. masc. *twegen,* fem. and neut. *twá*; from the latter we get *two,* from the former *twain.*

Ten=A.-S. *tén* or *tín*.   *Teen* in *thirteen* is a suffix formed by adding a plural *e* to *tín* (A.-S. *thréotíne*).   *Thirteen*=three and ten.

Eleven=A.-S. *endlufon*.   *Luf*=*lif* is a suffix having same value as *teen*.   *Eleven*=one and ten.

Twelve=A.-S. *twelf*.   The same suffix *lif* appears ; and *twelve*=two and ten.

Twenty=A.-S. *twentig*='two tens' ; from *twegen* and a suffix *tig*, derived from the same base as *ten*.
   As in Latin, we say, 'twenty-two,' or 'two and twenty,' not 'twenty and two.'

Hundred is from *hund* and *red*, the latter meaning 'reckoning'; *hund* is the same word as the Latin *cent-um*, which is considered a shortened form of *decentum*, meaning 'tenth (ten).'

Dozen is the Old French *dozaine* (Modern French *douzaine*), *douze* being derived from the Latin *duodecim*, 'twelve.'

Score means a 'cut': in reckoning by notches on a stick '*the* score' is the long cut, which was the twentieth.   To 'go off at score,' is properly to make the running at the start, the 'score' being the 'scratch' or line from which the start is made.

The words *dozen, score, hundred, thousand*, are substantives when followed by *of* or used in the plural; as in, *a dozen of them, dozens of instances, a score of sheep, scores of times, a hundred of us, hundreds of pounds, a thousand of bricks, thousands of men*.   Otherwise they are adjectives ; as in, *two dozen bottles, three score years, several hundred men, ten thousand miles*.

64   B. **Ordinal Numerals** (from the Latin *ordo*, 'rank') are those that denote rank, and answer the question 'Which in numerical order?'   They are qualitative adjectives.
   The series is *first, second, third, fourth*, and so on.

First is superlative of *fore*, as *primus* is of *prae*.

Second is the French *second*, from Latin *secundus*, 'following.'   The Anglo-Saxon used 'other' in the sense of 'second,' and the use is still found in such phrases as 'every other step.'   *Other* was replaced by 'second,' just as in Latin *alter* was replaced by *secundus*.

Third=*thrid*, the *r* having been transposed as in *thirteen* and *thirty*; in *thrice* the *r* has kept its original position.   From the form *thrid* we get the 'Ridings' of Yorkshire; *riding*=*thriding*, which means a third part, just as *farthing* (*fourthing*) means a fourth part.

The Ordinals from *fifth* to *nineteenth* are formed by adding *th* to the Cardinals, a final *ve* becoming *f*.

Eighth = *eight-th*, as *eighteen* = *eight-teen*.

Tenth has another form, *tithe*, from which the *n* has disappeared.

65 C. **Multiplicatives** are numeral adjectives that denote multiplication, that is, that an object is repeated so many times or consists of so many similar parts. They answer the question 'How many-fold?' There are two series:—

(i) One is of Saxon origin, and is formed by adding *-fold* to the numerals from *two* upwards: *some sixty-fold, some thirty-fold, our manifold sins and wickedness.*

(ii) The other is of Latin origin; the forms most in use are *single, double, triple (treble), quadruple, quintuple, sextuple*; other forms are rare.

> *Single* is from the Latin distributive *singuli*, 'one at a time'; the Latin multiplicative is *simplex*, whence *simple*.

66 (*d*) Distributives answer the questions 'How many each?' or 'How many at a time?' There are no separate forms in English, as there are in Latin; we have to use phrases, such as *two each, two apiece, two by two, two at a time, by twos.*

(*e*) Numeral Adverbs correspond to each of the three classes of Adjectives, A, B, C. Thus we have (A) *once, twice, thrice*; (B) *first, secondly*, etc. ; (C) *singly, doubly, trebly.*

USES OF ADJECTIVES

67 The following points may be noticed:

I. Adjectives can be used either **attributively** or **predicatively**; in 'the idle boy learns nothing,' *idle* is used attributively; in 'the boy is idle,' *idle* is used predicatively. In the first case, the connection between substantive and adjective is implied; in the second, it is asserted by means of the verb.

2. Adjectives are sometimes used for substantives, and can then receive genitive and plural inflexions; instances are *by twos, others, officials, rheumatics, Liberals, superiors,* and national names such as *Egyptian, American.*

> Of the latter, those that end in sibilants, such as *Spanish, Dutch,* take no inflexion.

3. Sometimes an adjective stands as an attribute of the substantive implied in a possessive pronoun; for instance, *for both our sakes.*

INFLEXION OF ADJECTIVES

68 Only two instances of the inflexion of adjectives remain : **these,** plural of *this* ; **those,** plural of *that.*

Note 1.—*Those* is really a second plural of *this,* but from about 1400 it has been used as the plural of *that.*

Note 2.—In Anglo-Saxon adjectives were inflected not only with cases like substantives, but also in three genders, just as in Latin ; for instance,

goda, gode, gode, 'good,' was thus inflected :

	SINGULAR.			PLURAL.
	M.	F.	N.	M.F.N.
Nom.	god-a	god-e	god-e	god-an
Acc.	god-an	god-an	god-e	god-an
Gen.	god-an	god-an	god-an	god-ena
Dat.	god-an	god-an	god-an	god-um.

Note 3.—And so every adjective agreed, in gender, number, and case, with the substantive to which it belonged.

And although no adjectives now mark by inflexion any difference of gender or case, and only the adjectives *this, that* mark distinctions of number, adjectives must still be considered to agree with their substantives in all these respects, and are to be parsed accordingly.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

69   The **Comparison** of an adjective means the formation from it of derivative adjectives (or equivalent phrases) to express the degree of the quality denoted by the adjective.

There are **three degrees**: Positive, Comparative, Superlative.

The **Positive** is the simple form of the adjective; as, *fair, beautiful.*

The **Comparative** (from Latin *comparare*, 'to place together') is a form or phrase expressing a higher degree in the comparison of *two* objects; as, *fairer, more beautiful.*

The **Superlative** (from Latin *superlatus*, 'carried above') is a form or phrase expressing the highest degree in the comparison of *more than* two objects; as, *fairest, most beautiful.*

NOTE 1.—Thus we cannot say ' the more beautiful of the three ' nor ' the fairest of the two.'

NOTE 2.—The Superlative is sometimes used absolutely to denote a *very high* degree; but in this use we employ the phrase with ' most ' rather than the superlative adjective in *-est*. Thus we say *most strange it is*, not *strangest it is*. But not so in older English: Milton has ' Hail, divinest Melancholy.'

NOTE 3.—The same idea can be expressed either by the comparative or the superlative; thus we may say ' Toby was the wisest of all dogs, or ' Toby was wiser than all other dogs.' In the first instance there is a comparison between all dogs, including Toby—that is, more than two objects; in the second, there is a comparison between Toby on the one hand, and all other dogs on the other hand.

There are **two ways of forming** the Comparative and Superlative:—

70   I. By forming derivative adjectives in *-er* and *-est*; as, *hard, harder, hardest*; *black, blacker, blackest.*

If the Positive ends in a mute *e* it is omitted: *wiser bravest.*

If it ends in a consonant preceded by a short vowel,
    the consonant is doubled : *redder, fittest.*
If it ends in *y*, the *y* becomes *i* : *jollier, prettiest.*
But not if the *y* is preceded by another vowel : *gayer,*
    greyest.

This method only applies (A) to words of one syllable,
(B) to *certain* words of two syllables, especially (1) those
that end in *-ble, -er, -ow, -y*, as *abler, slenderest, shallower,
heaviest*; (2) those that have the accent on the last
syllable, as *remóter, profoúndest.*

But in the case of dissyllables there are numerous
exceptions (as *hándsomer, pleásanter, more infírm, most
seléct*), and the ear is the only guide.

71   The same terminations are seen in the following
irregular comparisons :

[aft, *adv.*]	after	aftermost
bad (ill, evil)	worse	worst
far	farther	farthest
[forth, *adv.*]	further	furthest
fore	former	foremost, first
good	better	best
hind	hinder	{ hindmost hindermost
[in, *adv. and pr.*]	inner	{ innermost inmost
late	{ later latter	{ latest last
little	{ less lesser	least
many much	more (mo)	most
[be-neath]	nether	nethermost
nigh	[nigher]	next
old	{ older elder	{ oldest eldest
[out, *adv.*]	{ outer utter	{ outmost, outermost utmost, uttermost
top	——	topmost
under	——	undermost
[up, *adv.*]	upper	uppermost.

72 NOTES :—

1. *Aftermost* = *afte-most*; the *r* was inserted from a mistaken idea that the word was compounded of *after* and *most*. The termination -*most* is doubly superlative. Anglo-Saxon had two superlative endings, -*ma* (compare Latin *opt-i-mus*, etc.), and -*est*. The combination of these two, -*mest*, was mistaken for the adverb *most*, and so written; so that the termination -*most* really = the Latin *iss-i-mus* reversed. *Aftermest* is already found in the twelfth century; then it disappears for six centuries, so that *aftermost* may be a modern compound. It does not occur in the Bible.

2. *Badder, baddest,* occur occasionally from fourteenth to eighteenth centuries, *e.g.* in Defoe, but not in Shakespeare. *Worse* was originally a positive, whence comparative *worser* (in Shakespeare, Dryden, etc.), superlative *worsest,* contracted to *worst.*

3. The *th* in *farther* is due to its being confused with *further.* *Further* = A.-S. *furthur*; *fore* (before), and comparative suffix *ther* (cf. *o-ther* and Lat. *al-ter*).

4. The Anglo-Saxon *forma,* the superlative of *fore,* was used in the sense of 'first.' *Foremost,* originally *form-est,* is thus a double superlative. The spelling was altered to suit the mistaken association with *fore, most. Former* is a false formation made to correspond with *form-est. First* is a contraction of *fore-est.*

5. *Better* is a comparative formed from the same root as *boot* ('to boot' = 'to the good'); *best* is a contraction of *bet-est.*

6. *Hind* is a modern positive of the older *hinder. Hindmost* is formed like *foremost, hindermost* like *aftermost.*

7. *Latter* is a variety of *later; last* is a contraction of *lat-est.*

8. *Less* is a comparative formed from a root *las,* 'weak,' whence *lazy; lesser* is a double comparative; *least* is a contraction of A.-S. *læsest.*

9. *More* is from A.-S. *mára,* used as a comparative of *micel* = great (Modern English *much*); *mo* is from *má,* the adverbial form of *mára.* The word *most* has nothing to do with the suffix -*most,* except that both contain the superlative termination -*est.*

10. A.-S. *neáh* = Modern English *nigh*; this is regularly compared *nigher, nighest.* But *neáh* had in A.-S. an adverbial comparative form *neár*; this became used as a positive adjective about the sixteenth century, and was regularly compared *nearer, nearest.* The A.-S. superlative of *neáh : néhst* is Modern English *next*; compare *hext* ('when bale is hext, boot is next') from A.-S. *héhst,* the superlative of *heáh* (*high*).

11. *Elder, eldest* are used of persons.

The comparatives *after, former, hinder, inner, latter, nether, elder, utter, outer, upper,* cannot be used with *than, i.e.* cannot be used predicatively.

There are certain Latin comparatives which have been imported ready made : *anterior, junior, major, prior, senior, superior, inferior, minor, exterior, interior, ulterior.* Most of them are used with *to* instead of *than*; the remainder take neither.

73   II. The second way of forming the Comparative and Superlative is by using the adverbs *more* and *most*; as, *more industrious, most industrious.*   All adjectives except those mentioned in class I. are thus compared.

> NOTE.—Most of the previous class can also be compared this way; thus Tennyson has 'makes love himself more dear,' 'more black than ash-buds,' 'things grew more tragic and more strange.'

74   There are certain adjectives the meaning of which does not admit of degree, and which consequently cannot be compared, such as *right, left, square, weekly, golden.*

> But some of these, when used with a weakened meaning, are capable of comparison; for instance, we can say *rounder, squarer, straighter.*

PRONOUNS

75   Pronouns are words that indicate persons or things without being names for them; for instance '*I* am the king,' '*Thou* art the man,' 'The brave *who* fell at Thermopylae.'   The king may be named Frederick or George; he is not named '*I*'; *I* merely denotes the person who happens to be speaking.

A substantive is a name only for certain persons or things, and cannot be applied to any other persons or things.   We cannot apply the name *sailor* to a railway guard, for instance, or the name *bridge* to a river; the persons and things are different, and have different names. But the railway guard as well as the sailor would allude to himself as *I*; even the river may be imagined to speak and say—

> Men may come, and men may go,
> But *I* flow on for ever.

Pronouns, in fact, indicate persons or things by means of the relations in which those persons or things stand to others.

The name *Pronoun* is deceptive; it is derived from Latin *pro,* 'instead of,' and *nomen,* 'noun,' and implies that pronouns only serve the purpose of enabling us to avoid the repetition of nouns. Some pronouns serve this purpose among others; other pronouns, such as *I, thou,* do not serve this purpose at all.

As nouns are both substantive and adjective, so there are both substantive and adjective pronouns. Often the same word serves both purposes.

Pronominal adjectives belong to the class of demonstrative or relational adjectives, § 60.

Pronouns, like well-worn coins, have undergone great changes from constant use; but owing to the important part they play in language, their inflexions have been preserved to a greater extent than those of any other part of speech.

76 Pronouns may be divided into **six classes:**

    1. Personal, Reflexive, and Possessive.
    2. Demonstrative.
    3. Interrogative.
    4. Relative, including Universal Relative.
    5. Distributive.
    6. Indefinite.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS

77 There are **three Persons:**—

    First, the person speaking : *I* or *we.*
    Second, the person spoken to : *Thou* or *ye, you.*
    Third, the person spoken of : *He, she, it, they.*

The **pronouns of the first and second persons** are only substantival; their forms are:

		FIRST PERSON.	SECOND PERSON.
SING.	*Nom.*	I	thou
	Acc.	me	thee
	Gen.	[mine, my]	[thine, thy]
	Dat.	me	thee
PLUR.	*Nom.*	we	ye *or* you
	Acc.	us	you
	Gen.	[our]	[your]
	Dat.	us	you.

The Anglo-Saxon forms were:

	SING.	PLUR.	SING.	PLUR.
Nom.	Ic (Ich)	wé	thú	gé
Acc.	mec (mé)	úsic (ús)	thec (thé)	eówic, eów
Gen.	mín	úser (úre)	thín	eówer
Dat.	mé	ús	thé	eów.

78 NOTES :—

The form *Ich* is said to exist still in the south-west of England. In Old English it sometimes coalesced with the following verb; as, *Icham*, *Ichabbe* (I have). So Shakespeare in *King Lear* makes Edgar, when pretending to be a rustic, say *che* for *I*, *chill* for *I will*, *chud* for *I would*.

We is not exactly the plural of *I* (which cannot, strictly speaking, have a plural) : it means *I and you*, or *I and he* (*she, it, they*). It is used of a single person in the case of Royalty :

> Thinking that *we* are a queen.—*Shakes.*
> As *we* ourself have been.—*Tennyson.*

Thou, as may be seen above, was in Anglo-Saxon exclusively singular, and *you* exclusively plural. The use of *you* as a singular was due to Norman-French influence; the Old French *vos* (Modern French *vous*), was universal as the *polite* form of address, whether singular or plural. Thus it is that, down to the time of Shakespeare, *thou* was the pronoun employed towards *equals* and *inferiors*; *you* was used in addressing *superiors*. The polite singular form became general; and *thou* is in Modern English used only in poetry or in prayer.

You is always in parsing to be considered as plural.

Ye nowadays stands on the same footing as *thou*. In the Bible *ye* is always nominative, *you* accusative, but this is not invariably the case in other writers; Shakespeare has

> I do beseech ye if you bear me hard.
> That you should here repent ye.

The genitive of the personal pronouns when used in a possessive sense was in Anglo-Saxon declined like an adjective; in fact it was replaced by an adjective of which the masculine nominative had the same form. And as this possessive sense is almost the only sense in which these forms are now used, most Grammars consider them as adjectives rather than as cases of the personal pronouns.

They are occasionally found, however, as Objective Genitives (§ 36), in such phrases as 'in Thy faith and fear' (= in faith and fear towards Thee), 'my betrayal' (= the betrayal of me), 'our imprisonment,' etc.

79 The Personal **Pronoun of the Third Person** has in the singular different forms for the three genders: because, while the sex of the person speaking or spoken to is evident, that of the person or thing spoken of is not evident, and so requires to be marked by a grammatical inflexion for gender.

The forms of the pronoun of the third person are

	SINGULAR.			PLURAL.
	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.	
Nom.	he	she	it	they
Acc.	him	her	it	them
Gen.	his	her	its	their
Dat.	him	her	it	them.

In Anglo-Saxon the declension was

	SINGULAR.			PLURAL.
	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.	
Nom.	hé	héo	hit	hí
Acc.	hine	hí	hit	hí
Gen.	his	hire	his	hira
Dat.	him	hire	him	him (hem).

80 It will be noticed that *she, they, their, them,* are not from the same stem as the other forms : they have been adopted from the demonstrative *se, seo, thæt.*

The final *t* in *it, that, what,* is the same neuter termination as is seen in *id, illud, quod.*

The abbreviation *'em* is not formed from *them,* but is a relic of the older *hem* : so *a* in 'quotha,' 'and so a goes to heaven,' 'Parson a coomes and a goes' is for *he.*

REFLEXIVE FORMS

81 A **Reflexive Pronoun** (from the Latin *reflectere,* 'to bend back') is a personal pronoun which is used to refer back to another word which is either in grammar or in meaning the subject of the sentence. From its very meaning a reflexive pronoun cannot have a nominative case; but, as will be seen, the forms in *-self* may be used emphatically, not reflexively, and may then stand in the nominative.

A. The ordinary personal pronouns may be used reflexively ; thus,

> I met a fool who laid *him* down and basked *him* in the sun.
> He who hath bent *him* o'er the dead.
> Get *thee* behind me, Satan.

This is nowadays confined to poetical and archaic diction.

B. Generally they are combined with the word *self* to express the reflexive idea : *I cut myself, He praises himself.*

The word *self* means *same.* So Shakespeare, *Merchant of Venice,* I. i. 148 :

> To shoot another arrow that self way
> Which you did shoot the first.

So *selfsame.*

Self, in Anglo-Saxon and Early English, was used both as an adjective and a substantive: the latter use was the later. And, corresponding to these two uses, we have in Modern English the forms *himself, herself, itself, themselves*, on the one hand, and *myself, thyself, yourself, ourselves, yourselves*, on the other hand.

Theoretically, there would be nothing ungrammatical in saying *hisself, theirselves*, but custom has decided against them. In the same way we may say *one's self* or *oneself* (both modern expressions).

The word *self* is of course often a substantive in Modern English: Tennyson has *her sweet self, her falser self, their dead selves, your great self*, etc.

Ourself is used of the 'plural of dignity':

> We ourself will follow in the main.—*Shakes.*
> What touches us ourself shall be last served.—*Id.*

82 The forms in *-self*, when **used emphatically,** not reflexively, may be either adjectival or substantival. They are adjectival in such phrases as *I myself, he himself*, and substantival in such as *himself will choose* (Shakespeare), *ourself will swiftness to your nerves impart* (Pope). In these cases the question arises, What should be the person of the verb? Milton writes, *Myself am hell*, Shakespeare *Myself have often seen.* But Shakespeare also has *Myself hath often overheard them say, Myself bewails good Gloucester's case, Thyself should govern Rome and me.*

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS

83　　The **Possessive Pronouns** are adjectives, originally the genitives of the personal pronouns, but declined throughout like other adjectives. So in Latin *meus, mea, meum, tuus, tua, tuum,* are formed from *mei* and *tui,* genitives of *ego* and *tu.*

The forms now in use are *mine, my; thine, thy; his, her, its; our; your; their;* and the double genitives *hers, ours, yours, theirs.*

These latter are only used without a following substantive; as, *that hat is hers, this one is yours.*

This is also the case, as a rule, with *mine* and *thine,* but in poetry and elevated language these are sometimes found in their original use with a substantive. This is chiefly the case (*a*) when the substantive begins with a vowel sound, *thine honour, thine ear,* but also (*b*) when it begins with an *h, thine heritage, mine host,* and (*c*) when the possessive follows the substantive: *lady mine.*

My, thy are shortened forms of *mine, thine,* as *a* is of *an.*

The neuter *hit* (*it*) formed a regular genitive *his,* which is the only form in the Bible except in one passage (Levit. xxv. 5), *of its own accord,* where the original version had 'of it own accord.' This uninflected genitive *it* is found from the fourteenth to the seventeenth centuries. It occurs several times in Shakespeare, e.g. *the innocent milk in it most innocent mouth,* W. T. III. ii. 102; *it had it head bit off,* K. L. I. iv. 236.

For *of his, of mine,* etc., see § 34; and for such expressions as *Ulysses his bow,* see § 33.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

84   The **Demonstrative Pronouns** are *this, that, so, such, yonder.*

This and *that* have plurals *these* and *those*; the rest are indeclinable.

Anglo-Saxon had two demonstratives, *thes, theós, this,* 'this,' and *se, séo, thœt,* 'that,' which were thus declined:

	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
SING.						
Nom.	thes	théos	this	se	séo	thæt
Acc.	thisne	thás	this	thone	thá	thæt
Gen.	thisses	thisse(re)	thisses	thæs	thaére	thæs
Dat.	thissum	thissere	thissum	thám	thaére	thám
Instr.	thýs	thissere	thýs	thý	thaére	thý
PLURAL						
Nom.		thás			thá	
Acc.		thás			thá	
Gen.		thissera			thára	
Dat.		thissum			thám	

85   **This** and **that** were therefore originally neuters; *those* was originally plural of *this*, like *these*; its present use as plural of *that* dates from the fourteenth century.

This and *that* can be used both as substantives and adjectives; for instance, *this is good, these are they, those men are hungry, who is that?* Usually *this* refers to what is nearer the speaker, *that* to what is further away; *this* refers to the latter of two things previously mentioned, *that* to the former.

86   **So** may be used as a pronoun, substantive, or adjective, and is equivalent to *that* or *such*; for instance, *an hour or so, he is not clever, but his parents think him so.* Shakespeare has *so as thou art* for *such as thou art.*

87   **Such** (Anglo-Saxon *swilc*) is a compound of *so* and *like. Each* and *which* (Anglo-Saxon *oélc* and *hwilc*) are compounded with the same suffix.

Such may be used both as substantive and adjective. It is substantive in *such as are desolate and oppressed, If you are a gentleman, behave as such, Such were his words;* it is adjective in such legal phrases as *to pay such rental or sum of £50* . . .

88 **Yon** (*yonder*) in Modern English is only used adjectivally; but in provincial dialects it is sometimes used as a substantive, *Yon is a good man.*

The adverbs *here, there,* sometimes replace the demonstrative pronouns when combined with prepositions; thus, *herein, therewith,* for *in this, with that.*

Demonstratives are so named from the Latin *demonstrare,* ' to point out.' The pointing out may be *actual* when the things referred to are tangible and present, *this* referring to what is near the speaker, *that* to what is farther off; or the pointing out may be metaphorical, as when we say ' this new play at the Lyceum,' ' that memorable day.' *So* and *such* are rarely used in the former sense, *yon* never in the latter.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

89 **Interrogative Pronouns** are those used in questions; they are so called from the Latin *interrogare,* ' to ask questions.'

They are *who, what, which,* and (formerly) *whether,* and the emphatic forms *whoever, whatever, whichever. Which* and *whether* are not declined; *who, what* is thus declined in singular and plural:

| | MODERN ENGLISH. | | ANGLO-SAXON. | |
	MASC. FEM.	NEUT.	MASC. FEM.	NEUT.
Nom.	who	what	hwá	hwæt
Acc.	whom	what	hwone	hwæt
Gen.	whose		hwæs	hwæs
Dat.	whom	what	hwam	hwam
[Instr.]		[why]	hwý	hwý.

Whom is properly a dative, like *him*; but since the thirteenth century it has also been used as accusative.

Who can only be used as a substantive, and of persons; *what* can be used as substantive or adjective; as a substantive it is always neuter; as an adjective it may also be masculine or feminine.

What in the dramatists is often used as an exclamation:

> What, wife, I say !—SHAKESPEARE, *Merry Wives of Windsor*,
> IV. ii. 125.

Which (Anglo-Saxon *hwilc*) is a compound of *who, like.* Compare *such.* It can be used as substantive or adjective, and of persons or things; it refers to one or more out of a restricted number. Thus we say, 'Which did you meet?' referring to a certain family or body of persons, 'Whom did you meet?' without any such reference.

Whether was used in older English for ' which of the two,' as in the Bible, ' Whether is greater, the gold or the temple ? ' It is now obsolete.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS

90   The **Relative Pronouns** are *who, which, that, what, as*; some grammarians also include *but.* The following are instances:

> He *who* hath bent him o'er the dead.
>   This dim spot
> *Which* men call earth.
> The sound of a voice *that* is still.
> The days *that* are no more.
> And *what* is writ is writ.
> Such notes *as* drew iron tears down Pluto's cheek.
> Who *but* must laugh, if such a man there be ?

91   Relative Pronouns are so called because they refer (Latin *referre*, supine *relatum*) to some other pronoun or substantive; they introduce a dependent clause,[1] and refer to a substantive or pronoun in the sentence upon which the clause depends.   This substantive or pronoun is called the **antecedent,** from Latin *antecedere,* ' to go before.'

[1] See Syntax, § 157

The name 'relative' is objectionable, because other pronouns also refer to an antecedent substantive or pronoun. Thus in *Grace is out; he has made* 104, the pronoun *he* refers to Grace, but is not relative.

Relatives ought, in fact, to be called 'subjunctive' or 'subordinating' pronouns; for their peculiarity is that they make the clause which they introduce grammatically subordinate to, or dependent upon, the sentence in which their antecedent stands; while if we substitute a demonstrative or personal pronoun for the relative, the two sentences are co-ordinate, that is, stand side by side independently. In

> For I, who hold sage Homer's rule the best,
> Welcome the coming, speed the going guest,

the clause *who . . . best* is introduced by a relative, and is subordinate to, or dependent upon, the sentence *I welcome*, etc. But if we substituted a personal pronoun for the relative *who*, and said, ' I hold sage Homer's rule the best; I welcome,' etc., the two sentences would be co-ordinate or independent.

In Anglo-Saxon *the* (indeclinable) was the usual relative; sometimes it was combined with *se* (the demonstrative); and sometimes *se* was used by itself.

92   The present relatives *who, which*, were originally interrogatives; *that* was originally demonstrative. The latter was used as a relative some time before the two former.

Who is declined like the interrogative *who* (see § 89); it is used of persons only, and is never used adjectivally.

Its antecedent may be omitted; as in,

> Whom the gods love die young (=they whom).
> Who does a kindness is not therefore kind (=he who).

93   **Which** is not etymologically the neuter of *who*, but a separate word; see § 89.

It is now only used of things, but was formerly used also of persons, as in *Our Father, which art in heaven, All those friends which I thought buried* (Shakespeare). This is due to the fact that in early Modern English *which* was the only relative. Ben Jonson says, 'there is one relative, which.'

[In sentences like *He mentioned which of them were coming*, the *which* is, of course, interrogative.]

Sometimes its antecedent is a clause; as in,

He says that we have no policy; which is not true.

where the antecedent of *which* is *that we have no policy.*

Or it may be the idea implied in a clause:

The less would then be equal to the greater; which is absurd.

where the antecedent of *which* is *that the less is equal to the greater.*

Sometimes its antecedent is an adjective; as in,

He thought her pretty, which she was not, and never suspected her of being clever, which she undoubtedly was.

Which may be either substantive or adjective: it is adjective (*a*) in such instances as the last; (*b*) when it is joined to a substantive; as in,

He was unable to contradict me; for which reason he held his tongue;

(*c*) where its antecedent is repeated; as,

The fault was hers; which fault . . . (*King John*, I. i. 119);
Shed out his innocent soul through streams of blood;
    Which blood, like sacrificing Abel's, cries

(*Richard II.* I. i. 104);

(*d*) or repeated with a variation; as,

A dozen years; within which space she died.—*Tempest.*
A cloven pine; within which rift.—*Ibid.*

Which, when governed by a preposition, is sometimes replaced by the adverb *where*; as,

> I built my soul a lordly pleasure-house,
>   *Wherein* at ease for age to dwell.

>   The play's the thing
> *Wherein* I'll catch the conscience of the king.

Formerly 'the which' was used; as in,

> The worthy name by the which . . . (*St. James* ii. 7);

and often in Shakespeare, *e.g.*,

> The party 'gainst the which he doth contrive.—
>   *Merchant of Venice*, IV. i. 352.

94   That was originally a demonstrative, but came to be used as a relative some time before *who* or *which*.

It may be used either of persons or things, and is always a substantive. It is indeclinable, and may be used as a singular and a plural, but only in the nominative or accusative case; thus,

> *Nom. Sing.* Sweet bird, that shunst the noise of folly.—
>   *Milton.*
>
> *Acc. Sing.* This is the house that Jack built.
>
> *Nom. Plur.* We that are true lovers run into strange
>   capers.—*As You Like It*, I. iv. 50.
>
> *Acc. Plur.* These are the books that I read.

That cannot be used after a preposition; when it is governed by one, the preposition comes at the end of the sentence; thus, 'The town that I was born in,' 'The man that I bought this hat from.'

This use has been subsequently applied to the other relatives.

In the same way, *that* cannot be used after *than*; for instance, it could not be used in such an instance as this: 'A man, than whom no one stands higher in popular favour.'

95 **The different uses of THAT and WHO or WHICH.**

(1) *That* is generally used to introduce a clause defining its antecedent; as in, *This is the house that Jack built.* If the antecedent is already sufficiently described, we use *who* or *which*, not *that*; for instance, *My brother Dick, who* (not *that*) *died when I was a boy, The Tower of London, which* (not *that*) *is open to visitors*, because I have only one brother Dick, and there is only one Tower of London. On the other hand, I could say *My brother that is in Burmah*, if I have another brother elsewhere.

(2) Sometimes *who, which* stand for *and he, and it*, etc., as in the following instances[1]:

> My name is Thomas Mowbray, Duke of Norfolk;
> Who hither come engaged by my oath
>
> > (*Richard II.* I. iii. 17),

where *who = and I.*

> I leave him to your gracious acceptance, whose trial shall better publish his commendation (*Merchant of Venice*, IV. i. 165),

where *whose = for his.*

In such cases *that* cannot be used.

(3) *Who, which* cannot be omitted except when they can be replaced by *that*.

That can always be omitted when it is the object of the verb, or is governed by a preposition: *This is the house Jack built*; *This is the house I live in.* Formerly also (as

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[1] From Abbott, *Shaks. Gram.*

well as *who, which*) it was omitted when it was the subject of the verb; as in,[1]

> In war was never lion (*that*) raged more fierce.—
> > *Richard II.* II. i. 173.
> You are one of those (*who*) would have him wed again.—
> > *Winter's Tale*, v. i. 23.

(4) Formerly *that* was used as a relative after *that* (demonstrative), as an antecedent; as in, *That that dieth, let it die* (Zech. ix. 9). We now use *which.*

96 **What** is properly the neuter of *who* (§ 89); it is only used with reference to things, but may be either substantive, as in *I did what I could*, or adjective, as in *I gave up what time I could spare.*

It is equivalent to *that which*, and therefore its antecedent, when it would naturally precede, is omitted; when, however, the relative clause comes first, the antecedent is sometimes expressed; as in, *What I promised you, that I have performed.*

The relative *what* is only used in the singular; so while it is right to say *I asked him what books he wanted* (where *what* is interrogative), it is incorrect to say *I gave him what books he wanted* (where *what* is relative).

97 **As** is used as a relative pronoun after *such* and *same*:

> Savoury meat such as I love.
> Bees like the same odours as we do.

In provincial and vulgar English, it is used as an ordinary relative pronoun after other antecedents:

> It isn't them as has money as breaks into houses and steals.—*Tennyson.*

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[1] From Abbott, *Shaks. Gram.*

And so in Shakespeare:

> Those as sleep and think not of their sins.
> That kind of fruit as maids call medlars.

98 **But** is considered by some writers a relative pronoun, when it stands as the equivalent for *who . . . not* after negative sentences; as in, *There's not a man I meet but doth salute me.* This use is due to the omission of the pronoun which would follow *but*, and stand as subject or object of the sentence. The pronoun was probably omitted because the person or thing denoted by it has always just been emphatically referred to. Sometimes the pronoun is expressed; as in,

> There's not a villain dwelling in all Denmark
> *But he's* an arrant knave.

The omitted pronoun is generally the subject of the relative clause; as in,

> There's not the smallest orb which thou beholdest
> But in his motion like an angel sings.

(*But = which . . . not.*)

Sometimes it is the object; as in,

> What is in Silvia's face, but I may spy more fresh in
> Julia's.

(*But = which . . . not.*)

Sometimes it is governed by a preposition, which is also omitted; as in,

> Never morning wore to evening, but some heart did break.

(Where *but = in which . . . not.*)

This use of *but* is parallel to the use of *quin* in Latin; *quin* being equivalent to *qui . . . non.*

99   **Universal Relatives** (also called **General** or **Indefinite** Relatives) are formed by adding *-so, -ever,* or *-soever,* to *who, which,* or *what.*

Only *whosoever* is declined; its forms are the same for singular and plural, and are

> *Gen.* Whosesoever.   *Dat.* and *Acc.* Whomsoever.

The Universal Relatives are used, like *what,* without an antecedent expressed; as in,

> For forms of government let fools contest;
> Whate'er is best administered is best.

Only the forms in *-ever* are common now; the others are archaic.

RELATIVE AND ANTECEDENT

100   The **Relative** agrees with its antecedent in **gender, number,** and **person.**

Thus we say 'a man who,' not 'a man which'; 'a thing which,' not 'a thing who.' Thus, too, we say, 'I who *am* the king,' 'You who *are* rich,' because *who* is in each case of the same person and number as its antecedent.

The **case of the relative** depends upon its function in the clause it introduces; thus we say, 'Great Anna, *whom* three realms obey,' or 'Great Anna, *who* rules three realms.'

The antecedent is sometimes expressed after the relative *what*; as in,

> What I have promised, that will I perform.

Sometimes the **antecedent** is **omitted;** as in,

> Whom the gods love, die young.
> Who steals my purse, steals trash.

This is the rule with *what* and the Universal Relatives.

Sometimes the **relative** is **omitted**; in modern prose only when it is the object of the verb; as in,

> This is the book I am reading,
> There is the man I mentioned;

or when governed by a preposition; as in,

> This is a book I am very fond of.
> There is the man I spoke of.

But in older English and in poetry the relative is also omitted sometimes, when it would have formed the subject of the relative clause; as in,

> Show me the man hath suffered more than I.—*Tennyson.*

DISTRIBUTIVE PRONOUNS

101   The words *each, every, either, neither* are sometimes classed as **Distributive Pronouns**: that is, they denote persons or things which form a pair or a number, but are considered separately.

These words are always singular, and may be used either as substantives or as adjectives.

Either is the only one that forms a genitive.

102   Each is adjective in such phrases as *each sex, each man, each one of them*; it is substantive in instances like the following:

> Wandering each his several way.—*Milton.*
> Like school broke up, each hurries towards his home.—*Shakes.*

Formerly it was occasionally used as a plural, in the sense of 'both':

> And each, though enemies to either's reign,
> Do in consent shake hands to torture me.—*Shakes.*

The reciprocal phrase 'each other' is properly used of *two*; when three or more are spoken of 'one another' should be used. 'They praise each other' stands for 'each praises the other.' So we find in Shakespeare 'that which each to other hath so strongly sworn.' In Modern English we use a plural verb with the phrase, and if *other* would be governed by a preposition (as in the last example) we put the preposition before *each*: 'that which they have sworn to each other.'

Every is a compound, *ever-each*, the *ever* having the same generalising force as in *whoever*, etc. It means 'all of a collection, taken one at a time.'

It is now only used as an adjective : 'every human being,' 'every one.' But it was formerly used also as a substantive, where we should now use 'every one '; thus in *As You Like It*:

> Every of this happy number
> That have endured shrewd days and nights with us
> Shall share the good of our returnèd fortune.

Either and **Neither** are used both as adjectives and substantives : *neither* is *ne-either*, 'not either.'

Either has two meanings—(1) 'one *or* the other of two.'; (2) 'one *and* the other of two,' 'each.' *Neither* is only the negative of the first meaning.

Instances are—

(1) Adjective :

> Spirits, when they please,
> Can either sex assume, or both.—*Milton.*
> Where neither party is nor true nor kind.—*Shakes.*

(1) Substantive :

> Lepidus flatters both,
> Of both is flattered : but he neither loves
> Nor either cares for him.—*Shakes.*

(2) Adjective :

> On either side of the river was there the tree of life.—
> > *Rev.* xxii. 2.

(2) Substantive :

> The king of Israel and Jehoshaphat sat either of them on his throne.—2 *Chron.* xviii. 9.

The distinction between *both, each,* and *either* must be carefully observed. Take this instance : 'The town lies on *both* sides of the river ; there is a steamboat pier on *each* bank ; and the tickets are available at *either* pier.' We see that *both* = 'two, taken together,' *each* = 'two (or more) taken separately,' *either* = 'one *or* the other of two, indifferently.'

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

103   **Indefinite Pronouns** are used vaguely, without reference to definite persons or things. They can only be considered pronouns when used as substantives, and even then many of them are hardly distinguishable from ordinary adjectives used substantivally. The following may be mentioned:

104   **All**, as in 'that's all.' At Barton Bridge on the Avon is an inn with the sign, "'The Four Alls': the King, 'I govern all'; the Bishop, 'I pray for all'; the Soldier, 'I fight for all'; the Farmer, 'I pay for all.'"

Any. In Early English the Southern form was *eny*, the Midland *any*, the Northern, *ony*. We have kept the Midland form and the Southern pronunciation. Instances:

> Unknown to any but those two alone.—*Keats.*
> The Lord is not willing that any should perish.—2 *Peter* iii. 9.

Aught is a substantive: it is derived from *a whit*=*e'er a whit*:

> Unfaith in aught is want of faith in all.—*Tennyson.*

Few and **many**:

> Many be called, but few chosen.—*Matt.* xx. 16.
> We are left but a few of many.—*Jer.* xliii. 2.

None is a compound of *ne* or *no*, and *one*.

One, as a pronoun, makes a genitive and a plural; it has several uses:

> (1) To avoid repetition of a substantive; as, 'This knife is dirty: give me a clean one.'
> (2) In the sense of 'person'; as in, 'little ones.'
> (3) As antecedent to a relative: 'One whom all admire.'
> (4) As meaning 'a certain person': 'There's one at the door.'
> (5) As opposed to *other*: 'the one . . . the other'; 'one . . . another.'
> (6) Impersonal: 'One would think.'

Other, as a pronoun, makes a genitive and a plural:

> I think so: others don't.

It is not used in Modern English in the singular without an article, but was so used formerly:

> And leave their riches for other.—*Ps.* xlix. 10, Prayer-Book Vers.

Some ; as in, 'some say he killed himself'; 'some are dead.'

Who may be an indefinite pronoun in 'as who should say "I am Sir Oracle"' (=as if some one should say). But Abbott points out[1] that in Shakespeare (though not in Gower and Early English   is always possible to supply the antecedent 'as (one) who . . .'

VERBS

105   A **Verb** is a word[2] that says something about a person or thing. This person or thing is in the nominative case, and is called the Subject of the Verb. The Verb and the Subject together form a sentence. Thus we can say that a Verb is a word by means of which alone we can form a sentence about a subject. A sentence, as we have seen in § 3, must contain a statement or a question or a command or a wish: but it will be more convenient to postpone the consideration of the latter until we deal with Syntax, and confine ourselves here to sentences which make a statement or assertion.

In such sentences the Verb asserts that the subject does something or is in some condition, or has something done to it.

It may be said that an adjective also can tell us this; we can say, *a man desirous of praise, an empty train, a subject people,* as well as *the man desires praise, the train is empty, the people have been conquered.* The difference is that the adjective implies the connection between the two ideas (*man* and *desirous, train* and *empty, people* and *subject*), while the verb asserts it.

The word 'verb' is derived from the Latin *verbum,* 'a word,' 'saying,' because it is *the* word in the sentence that *says* something.

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[1] *Shaks. Gram.* p. 175.   [2] See below, § 112.

106 Verbs can be used in one of two ways, **transitively** or **intransitively**; many verbs can be used in both of these ways.

A verb is said to be **transitive,** or to be used transitively, when it expresses an action (or a feeling) that passes over, or is directed, to some object; the word *transitive* being derived from the Latin *transire,* 'to go across.' Thus in *he fells trees,* the action denoted by *fells* passes over from the subject *he* to the object *trees.*

The person or thing directly affected by the action denoted by a transitive verb is called its **object,** and is in the accusative case.

A verb is said to be **intransitive,** or to be used intransitively, when it expresses an action or condition that does not pass over to an object, but directly affects only the subject, as in *he laughs, she weeps, they live in London.*

Intransitive verbs are often used with a preposition so as to convey the same meaning as a transitive verb; thus, 'he *laughs at* the foreigner' means the same thing as 'he derides the foreigner,' but grammatically the former is an intransitive verb (having no direct object in the accusative case), while the latter (having such an object) is a transitive verb.

Transitive verbs are used *reflexively* when they express an action (or a feeling) done (or felt) by the subject to (or towards) himself; thus, 'he loves himself,' 'they have hurt themselves.' They are used *reciprocally* when they express an action (or feeling) by two or more subjects towards one another, as in 'they help one another.'

Sometimes the reflexive pronoun is omitted, and a verb, usually transitive, comes to be used intransitively; as, 'the train is moving (itself),' 'the shadows lengthen (themselves),' 'I turn (myself) to other things.'

But, apart from this usage, many verbs properly or originally transitive can be used intransitively; as, 'the horse will not eat,' 'he is writing.'

On the other hand, many verbs, properly or originally intransitive, can also be used transitively; thus we can say, 'he is trying to float a company.' Some intransitive verbs have a causative form corresponding to the intransitive one; thus,

> to fall . . . to fell (to cause to fall)
> to lie . . . to lay (to cause to lie)
> to rise . . . to raise (to cause to rise).

Whether a verb can be used transitively or intransitively, or in both ways, depends solely upon usage, and usage is continually being altered. The sum of the whole matter is that, while certain verbs can only be used in one of these ways, many others can be used in both.

Some verbs, usually intransitive, take what is called a **cognate accusative**; that is, an accusative of cognate (or kindred) meaning; as, *Let him die the death of a traitor, I have lived my life, He sleeps the sleep that knows no waking.* See § 31, B.

And this accusative is often extended so as to include a fresh idea; as in, *He runs a race, He walks a mile, It blew a hurricane.*

Impersonal verbs are those which are used in the third person only with a vague and impersonal subject; as, *It seems to me, It thunders.*

107   Verbs are inflected or combined with auxiliaries to express differences of person, number, tense, mood, and voice.

Person.

A verb has three persons, answering to the three persons in pronouns; that is to say—

the *first* person, that of the speaker;
the *second* person, of the person or thing spoken to;
the *third* person, of the person or thing spoken of.

Number.

108   A verb has two numbers, Singular and Plural, corresponding to the two numbers of substantive nouns and pronouns.

In these two respects, Person and Number, the verb agrees with its subject.

These two modifications of meaning (Person and Number) are expressed solely, if at all, by means of inflexion.

Tense.

109   Tenses are modifications of the form of a verb, either by inflexion or by the use of compound phrases, to denote *time*; the word 'tense' being derived from the Latin *tempus,* 'time.'

But besides denoting the time to which we refer the action or feeling expressed by the verb, they also mark whether the action or feeling is regarded as complete at that time or not.

With regard to **time,** there are three obvious divisions, the Present, the Past, and the Future; and the tenses which refer an action to one of these periods are named accordingly.

With regard to **completeness,** tenses which denote that an action was complete at the time referred to are named Perfects—Present Perfect (generally called Perfect), Past Perfect (or Pluperfect), and Future Perfect.

Thus there are six tenses in English, the Present, Past, and Future Simple, and the Present, Past, and Future Perfect.

And each of these tenses has a *continuous* tense corresponding to it, as shown below.

Thus we get altogether twelve tenses; viz.,

1 *a*	*Present*	I see
1 *b*	*Continuous Present*	. I am seeing
2 *a*	*Present Perfect* (or *Perfect*)	I have seen
2 *b*	*Continuous Perfect*	I have been seeing
3 *a*	*Past*	I saw
3 *b*	*Continuous Past* (or *Imperfect*)	I was seeing
4 *a*	*Past Perfect* (or *Pluperfect*)	I had seen
4 *b*	*Continuous Pluperfect*	I had been seeing
5 *a*	*Future*	I shall see
5 *b*	*Continuous Future*	I shall be seeing
6 *a*	*Future Perfect*	I shall have seen
6 *b*	*Continuous Future Perfect*	I shall have been seeing.

110 All languages do not express all the above varieties of tense by means of different forms. Latin, for instance, has only six tenses, which correspond to the English twelve in the following manner :—

English Tense.	English Form.	Latin Form.	Latin Tense.
Present *Continuous Present*	I see I am seeing }	video	*Present*
Perfect *Continuous Perfect*	I have seen I have been seeing }	vidi	*Perfect*
Past *Continuous Past*	I saw I was seeing	videbam	*Imperfect*
Pluperfect *Continuous Pluperf.*	I had seen I had been seeing }	videram	*Pluperfect·*
Future *Continuous Future*	I shall see I shall be seeing }	videbo	*Future*
Future Perfect *Continuous Future Perfect*	I shall have seen I shall have been seeing }	videro	*Future Perfect*

111 There are no passive forms of the Continuous Perfect or Future Perfect.

It will be noticed that only two of the above tenses are formed without auxiliaries—the Present and the Past; the remainder are formed by means of the auxiliary verbs 'have,' 'be,' 'shall,' 'will,' in combination with the Present or Perfect Participle or the Infinitive of the principal verb.

N.B.—These verbs are *only* auxiliary when used to form a tense.

The Perfect Tenses are formed with 'have.'
The Continuous Tenses with 'be.'
The Future Tenses with 'shall' or 'will.'

Thus the Continuous Future Perfect employs all these auxiliaries: *I shall have been seeing.* Here the word *have* is in the infinitive, *been* and *seeing* are participles (perfect and present), and *shall* is an auxiliary verb.

112   It will have been noticed that we said (§ 105) that a verb is *a word*. Now, 'shall have been seen' is four words, and the Latin equivalent, *visus ero,* is two words: can we call either of these expressions a verb? They are, of course, strictly speaking, *verbal phrases,* in which all the words are verbal of one kind or another. But they have always been known as verbs in both English and Latin grammar, and it would be inconvenient to introduce a change which would reduce the English tenses to two, and abolish the Passive Voice entirely. We shall therefore continue to speak of these compound forms as 'Verbs,' at the same time dealing separately with the infinitive and participles, by means of which such forms are constructed.

113   The following peculiar uses of tenses may be noticed:

Historical Present, by which things really past are vividly described as present; as,

> And now he feels the bottom;
>> Now on dry earth he stands;
> Now round him throng the fathers
>> To press his gory hands.

Present used for Future:

> I am dining with them to-morrow.

Oblique Future and Future Perfect. By the aid of the past tenses of 'shall' and 'will' (viz. 'should' and 'would') we can describe an action as having at some past time been about to happen or to be completed:

> 'I told him I should consult my solicitor' (*i.e.* 'was about to consult.' The consultation was future on that day, now past, when I told him).
> 'I told him I should have left England before then.' At the time when I told him, my having left England was future.

Some Intransitive Verbs form their Perfects in the Active Voice by means of the Auxiliary Verb 'be'; for instance,

> Arthur *is come* again; he cannot die.
> *Gone* he *is* to wage grim war.
> This gentleman *is* happily *arrived.*
> Whither *are* they *vanished?*

This use is only occasionally met with in modern prose.

Voice.

114   There are two **Voices** (derived from Latin *vox,* ' voice ') viz.,

The **Active** Voice (derived from Latin *agere,* ' to do '), used in expressing what the subject of the sentence *does* ; as, ' The cat *has killed* your bird.'

The **Passive** Voice (derived from Latin *pati,* ' to suffer '), used in expressing what *is done to* the subject of the sentence ; as, ' Your bird *has been killed* by the cat.'

From these instances we see that the same idea may be expressed in two ways ; and that when the verb is changed from the Active to the Passive, its former direct object becomes its subject.

It follows from this that (except as stated below) only transitive verbs can be put into the Passive ; for they alone take a direct object in the Active.

The Passive is formed by means of the auxiliary verb ' be,' joined to the perfect passive participle of the verb. See § 124.

Logically, as has been said, **only transitive verbs can be put into the Passive,** and only the direct objects of the Active verb can become its subject in the Passive. This is the rule in many other languages—in Latin, for instance. But in English, there are **two exceptions** to this rule :—

(1) Owing to the confusion in form of the dative and the accusative, the **indirect** (as well as the direct) **object** can generally stand **as the subject** of the passive verb. Thus, *They showed me* (ind. obj.) *the letter* (dir. obj.) may become in the passive *I was shown the letter,* or *The letter was shown me* (*to me*). And *He has refused the sailor leave* becomes *The sailor has been refused leave,* or *Leave has been refused* (*to*) *the sailor.*

(2) Often a **group of words** ending with a preposition (and, therefore, followed by a substantive in the accusative) is treated as if it were a transitive verb governing the substantive, and is turned into the passive with the substantive as its subject:

> They spoke very highly of her: she was spoken very highly of.
>
> I have taken the greatest care of them: they have been taken the greatest care of.

Mood.

115 Moods (from the Latin *modus*, ' manner ') are variations in the conjugation of a verb which are used to show different ways or modes in which we predicate anything of the subject, or in which we regard the connection between the subject and the predicate; the subject being the person or thing we speak about, and the predicate being what we say about that person or thing.

116 The **Indicative** Mood (from the Latin *indicare*, ' to point out ') is the ordinary form of the verb, and is used mainly in making direct statements or asking direct questions; as

> Saying, ' *dost* thou *love* me, cousin ? ' weeping, ' I *have loved* thee long.'

It can also, however, be used of suppositions or commands; as in, *If he comes, I will tell him, You will give him this letter.*

117 The **Imperative** Mood (from the Latin *imperare*, ' to order ') expresses a command or request; as,

> But now *delay* not ; *take* Excalibur,
> And *fling* him far into the middle mere.—*Tennyson.*
>
> *Ask* me no more.—*Id.*

As a direct command can only be addressed to another person, we are prepared to find that in English the Imperative is only used in the second person, singular and plural; for the other persons we employ the auxiliary verb *let* (=*allow, cause*); as, *Let us pray*. *Let* is an imperative in the second person governing the accusative *us*, and *pray* is an infinitive. Cf. *Hamlet,* IV. vi. 11:

If your name be Horatio, as I am let *to know* it is.

From the fact that a direct command is always addressed to another person, it follows that it is never necessary to express the subject of an imperative, the subject being sufficiently distinguished by being addressed.

118 The **Subjunctive** Mood is used when referring to a state of things as thought of. It may or may not be an actual fact, but the use of the Subjunctive denotes that it is only regarded as a conception of the mind.

The name 'Subjunctive' (from the Latin *subjungere,* 'to join on') is doubly misleading, because

> (1) the Subjunctive Mood is used in principal, as well as in subjoined, clauses;
> (2) the verb in a subjoined clause need not be in the Subjunctive Mood.

The name 'conceptive' would be preferable to 'subjunctive,' inasmuch as the mood marks the fact that we are speaking of something as a conception, not as a matter of fact.

The Subjunctive Mood is almost obsolete; in ordinary English we generally employ auxiliaries *may, might, should,* etc. (which are themselves in the subjunctive) to express ideas which were formerly expressed by the subjunctive. Thus for *Be wise, lest sorrow lend me*

words, many would now say, *Be wise, lest sorrow should lend me words.*

119   The main **uses of the Subjunctive** are—

A. In principal sentences,

    1. To express Wish or Request:

        Go we to the king.   Perish India.   God save the Queen.
            Thy kingdom come.

        And he will sit on his right hand, commanding us to
            take possession of his glorious kingdom . . . ; unto
            which *he vouchsafe* to bring us all.'—*Prayer-Book.*

NOTE.—These instances can be distinguished from imperatives by the
fact that the subject is (and must be) expressed, which would not be the
case if we were directly commanding.

It is possible to regard such phrases as 'Go we to the king' as
imperatives in the first person plural, *we* being equivalent to *you + I* or
you + we, and the command being really addressed to *you*; but, as the
subject must be expressed in such cases, it is simpler to regard them as
subjunctives.

    2. In the principal clause in a conditional sentence
where the supposition in the subordinate *if*-clause is not
supposed to be the fact:

        The desert *were* a paradise, if thou wert there.—*Burns.*

120 B. In subordinate clauses ; viz.,

    1. *If*-clauses and other clauses, stating a condition not
in accordance with fact.   [These are the subordinate
clauses depending on the sentences noticed above, A. 2.]

        It would be disgraceful if it *were* true.
        If thou *wert* the lion, the fox would beguile thee.—*Shakes.*

Sometimes the *if* is omitted, and the subject follows
the verb:

        O *wert* thou in the cauld blast, I'd shelter thee.—*Burns.*

2. *If*-clauses and other clauses stating a condition which may be the fact, but which we do not mean to assert to be the fact. [Here the principal sentence has the indicative or imperative.]

> If it *were* so, it was a grievous fault.
> If such there *breathe*, go mark him well.

3. Clauses expressing *purpose* :

> Be wise, lest sorrow *lend* me words.
> That they *were* (living) I wish myself were mudded in that oozy bed where my son lies.

4. Dependent commands and wishes :

> I wish myself *were* mudded.
> We enjoin thee that thou *carry.*

5. Dependent questions :

> I asked if James *were* coming.

VERBAL NOUNS SUBSTANTIVE

The Infinitive.

121 In addition to the three finite moods (the Indicative, Imperative, and Subjunctive), there is a fourth mood, the **Infinitive**. The three former are called ' finite ' (from the Latin *finitus*, ' bounded ') because they are limited in their meaning by inflexions of persons and number. The Infinitive (Latin *infinitus*, ' not bounded ') has no such limitation. It is used of all persons and numbers without variation of form, while the finite moods have, or originally had, different forms for each person and number. It is in reality an abstract verbal substantive, and cannot be used to assert anything directly of a subject. But it has tenses, and can be constructed with a subject in a phrase (as

I knew him to be a liar), and therefore may be called a mood.

The preposition *to* is often called a sign of the Infinitive; but originally the infinitive proper was used without *to*, and it still is after certain auxiliary and other verbs; thus, 'You will *escape*. Do not *go*. Let us *pray*. To help *unarm* our Hector. Bid me to live . . . or bid me *die*.'

The use of 'to' with the infinitive arose thus: The infinitive was in A.-S. an abstract substantive ending in *-an*, and had a dative case in *-anne* formed from it. This dative case was constructed with the preposition 'to' in order to express purpose; as, *god to etanne*, 'good to eat.' The inflexion has been dropped, but the 'to' has remained, and is now used not only with the infinitive of purpose, but with other infinitives. The following are instances of its use with the infinitive of purpose:

> Is there none here *to give* this woman?
> I will go *to look* for him.
> The little wide-mouthed heads upon the spout
>   Had cunning eyes *to see*.
> This wine is not fit *to drink*.
> This House *to Let*.

When used with other infinitives, *to* has no meaning whatever, as in 'I want *to go*,' '*to err* is human'; in such instances *to* must be regarded as a meaningless word which custom has attached to the infinitive. We cannot say what part of speech it is, for we cannot say what it *does* in the sentence: it does nothing.

The infinitive being an abstract substantive, may stand as the subject or object of a verb, or after a preposition:

> *To be*, contents his natural desire.
> *To err* is human, *to forgive* divine.
> She did not wish *to blame* him.
> She cannot choose but *love* (*i.e.* except to love).
> They are all to *blame*.

But though the infinitive is a substantive, its verbal character is shown by the fact that it is qualified by an adverb, not an adjective; that it has tenses; and that it can govern an accusative, and be constructed with a subject.

The Gerund.

122 The **Gerund** is an abstract substantive ending in *-ing*, formed from a verb, and capable, if the verb be transitive, of governing an accusative; it has a present, or simple, form, and a perfect, or compound, form in both the Active and the Passive Voice; thus,

> A sorrow's crown of sorrows is *remembering* happier things.
> One might well be proud of *having written* that line.
> He was rewarded by *being promoted*.
> He was annoyed at *having been forgotten*.

Its origin is doubtful; it is generally supposed to have descended from the abstract substantives (not verbal) which in Anglo-Saxon ended in *-ung*. But some further explanation is necessary, because these substantives in *-ung* could not govern an accusative; moreover, how are we to account for the compound forms, ' having written,' etc. ?

These difficulties are met by supposing that the substantives in *-ung*, in course of time changing their termination to *-ing*, were confused with the present participle (which, having originally ended in *-ende*, afterwards changed its termination to *inde*, and finally to *-inge*, *-ing*), and so acquired its power of governing an accusative; and it has been suggested that this confusion was encouraged by the identity in form of the French gerund in *-ant* (which represents the Latin gerund in *-andum* or *-endum*), and the French present participle in *-ant* (which represents the Latin present participle in *-ans* or *-ens*).

123 The **Gerund**, then, is to be carefully **distinguished from—**

(1) The present participle, which also ends in *-ing* (*-ende* in Anglo-Saxon), but is adjective, not substantive; thus in

> Is there any peace
> In ever climbing up the climbing wave ?

the ·first *climbing* is a gerund or verbal substantive, the second is a participle, or verbal adjective, qualifying *wave*.

(2) The abstract substantive in *-ing* (*-ung* in Anglo-Saxon); this, not being verbal, does not govern an accusative, but is followed by *of*, and preceded by *the*; thus,

> *The* sudden *making of* splendid names.
>
> A song from out the distance in *the ringing of* thine ears.

But of course the same word may be used in both capacities; only when followed by *of* it is an abstract substantive when governing an accusative it is a gerund.

> Older writers and poets confuse the two constructions; thus,
>
> > Be cunning in *the working this.—Shakes.*
> >
> > *The drying up a single tear* has more
> > Of honest fame than shedding seas of gore.—*Byron.*

The Gerund, being a verbal *substantive*, can stand as (*a*) subject of a verb, as '*Playing* cricket is healthier than playing billiards'; (*b*) object of a verb, as 'He did not regret *having left* early'; (*c*) accusative after a preposition, as

> My latest breath was spent *in blessing* her.
>
> Is this a time *for singing* comic songs?

VERBAL NOUNS ADJECTIVE

24   The **verbal adjectives** are called **Participles** (from the Latin *participare*, 'to partake') because they *partake of* the properties of both verb and adjective, being able to govern an object in the accusative while at the same time they can qualify a substantive.

The **Present Participle** is formed by inflexion and ends in *-ing* (in Anglo-Saxon *-ande* or *-ende*); it is always active in sense, and when formed from a transitive verb may govern an accusative.

> In phrases like 'Your breakfast is cooking' we have a gerund, not a participle. 'Cooking'='a-cooking' =*on* or *in cooking*, just as Chaucer says '*on hunting* been they ridden,' while we say '*a-hunting* we will go.'

The **Perfect Participle** when formed from a transitive verb is passive, as *give, given,* but when from an intransitive verb it is active, as *go, gone.*

> But sometimes perfect participles, properly passive, are used actively; thus, *I was mistaken,* instead of meaning *I was misunderstood,* means *I had misunderstood.*

The Perfect Participle ends either in *-en,* as *give, given,* or in *-d* (or *-t*), as *trimmed, clipt.*

The place of a Future Participle is supplied by the use of *about*; as, *those who are about to marry.*

CONJUGATION

125   Conjugation (from the Latin *conjugare,* 'to yoke together') means the bringing together of the various inflexions and compound phrases which in a verb express variations of Person, Number, Tense, Mood, and Voice; it also means the method or principle according to which these inflexions are formed, and the class or set of verbs whose inflexions are formed by a certain method.

There are **two conjugations** in English:

(1) The Old or Strong Conjugation.
(2) The New or Weak Conjugation.

These are distinguished from one another by the way in which the Past Tense is formed.

(1) In the Strong Conjugation it is formed by changing the root vowel; as, *give, gave.*

> The Perfect Participles of Strong Verbs once ended invariably in *-en,* as *given*; but this ending has now been dropped in many cases.

No new verbs can be conjugated in this way.

✗ (2) In the Weak Conjugation, the Past Tense is formed by adding *-d* (or *-t*) to the Present, as *save, saved; dwell, dwelt.*

> Many Weak Verbs have also vowel change in the Past Tense, but must not therefore be confused with strong verbs.
> Their Perfect Participles end in *-d* or *-t.*

All new verbs are conjugated in this way.

Strong Conjugation.

126 In the Strong conjugation, the Past Tense and Perfect Participle are formed by a change in the vowel sound of the root. The Strong verbs, being all *native* English words, are the oldest verbs in the language; all borrowed verbs form their Past Tense and Perfect Participle by addition of a suffix. Strong verbs are therefore those which retain an obsolete formation of the Past Tense. This vowel change in the past tense of Strong verbs was in some cases the result of contraction, the tense having originally been formed by reduplication. Reduplication is an Aryan method of forming a Past Tense, seen, for instance, in the Latin *mo-mordi*; *pe-pigi*; *dedi*; and in the English *did*, the past of *do*. When the reduplication and the root syllable were fused together, vowel change resulted.

[In other and more numerous cases, this change was due to what is called vowel-gradation, a subject beyond the scope of the present work].

127   The following are **instances of Strong Verbs:**

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERFECT PARTICIPLE.
forsake	forsook	forsaken
steal	stole	stolen
give	gave	given
wind	wound	wound
ring	rang	rung
sting	stung	stung
know	knew	known
fly	flew	flown
fall	fell	fallen
slay	slew	slain
rise	rose	risen.

Many strong verbs have weak past tenses or participles in addition to, or instead of, the strong forms; as, *hewed, sowed, swelled, waked.*

When there are two forms of the participle the form in -*en* is generally used only as an adjective. Instances are, *bounden, drunken, shrunken, cloven (cleft), graven, lorn (lost), molten, mown, shaven.*

Weak Conjugation.

128   The Past Tense of Weak Verbs is formed by adding -*d* (-*ed* or -*t*) to the Present; as, *save, saved; mix, mixed; mean, meant.*

A single final consonant following a short vowel is doubled; as, *dabbed, padded, fitted, fulfilled, gripped, blotted.*

A final *y* is changed to *i*; as, *married, buried.*

The Weak may be considered as the Regular Conjugation, because it is the *living* one, the conjugation to which borrowed verbs have at all times conformed. Moreover, in Anglo-Saxon, Weak verbs were mostly derivatives; the verbs of the Strong conjugation were, therefore, older than those of the Weak. In Modern English the Weak conjugation contains all those verbs which are not among the oldest in the language.

The Past Tense was in Anglo-Saxon formed by addition of *-de, -te* (earlier *-da, -ta*), and the Perfect Participle by addition of *-ed, -t* to the stem.

The termination *-ed* is only pronounced as a separate syllable after a dental; as, *sorted, landed.*

129   The following **peculiarities in Weak Verbs** must be noticed :

(1) In some Weak verbs, the vowel of the root has in the Present and Infinitive been weakened; the Past Tense and Perfect Participle retain the original vowel:

sell	sold	sold
seek	sought	sought.

(2) Vowel change often takes the form of a shortening; as,

flee	fled	fled
feel	felt	felt.

(3) Sometimes the suffix has been entirely dropped and the Past Tense has the same form as the Present; as,

set	set	set
rid	rid	rid.

(4) Sometimes, in verbs ending in a dental, the suffix is dropped, but the vowel sound is shortened; as,

feed	fed	fed
meet	met	met.

(5) Sometimes the suffix is dropped, but a final *d* is changed to *t*:

send	sent	sent
wend	went (wended)	wended.

(6) The verbs *have, make* are contracted in the past tense; *haved* becomes *had*, and *maked* becomes *made*.

ANOMALOUS OR IRREGULAR VERBS

130 The principal irregular verbs are the auxiliaries. **Auxiliary Verbs** are those which help (Latin *auxilium*, 'help') to form those tenses of other verbs which are not formed by inflexion.

They are *Be, Have, Do, Shall, Will, May.*

Besides their use as auxiliaries all these verbs can be used as ordinary verbs, that is, with their own independent meaning; for instance,

His services are not likely to *be* forgotten (Auxiliary).
To *be*, contents his natural desire (Independent).
That which I *have* done (Auxiliary).
That which I *have*, I freely give (Independent).
Did you do that alone? (Auxiliary.)
Alone I *did* it (Independent).
I *shall* hear you when you pass (Auxiliary).
Thou *shalt* do no murder (Independent).
This mounting wave *will* roll us shoreward soon (Auxiliary).
Not as I *will*, but as Thou *wilt* (Independent).
Eat that you *may* live (Auxiliary, marking Subjunctive).
You *may* (are allowed to) go (Independent).

131 ## Be.

| | INDICATIVE. | | IMPERATIVE. | SUBJUNCTIVE. | |
	Present.	Past.		Present.	Past.
1 *Sing.*	*I* am	was		be	were
2 *Sing.*	*thou* art	wast (wert)	2 *Sing.* Be	be	wert
3 *Sing.*	*he* is	was		be	were
1 *Plur.*	*We*				
2 *Plur.*	*you* } are	were	2 *Plur.* Be	be	were
3 *Plur.*	*they*				

Present Infinitive. (To) be.   *Present Participle.* Being.
Past Participle. Been.

This verb comprises forms from three roots, *be*, *was*, and *as*; from *be* we get Imperative, Present Subjunctive, Infinitive, etc.; from *was* the Past Indicative and Subjunctive (originally tenses of *wesan*, 'to be'); from *as* we get the Present Indicative: *am* = *as-mi*, where *mi* is from the same root as *me*; cf. Greek εἰμί = ἐσμί, Latin (e)sum.

Besides being used as a Tense-auxiliary, *be* is also used as a Voice-auxiliary to form the Passive.

132 ## Have.

| | INDICATIVE. | | IMPERATIVE. | SUBJUNCTIVE. | |
	Present.	Past.		Present.	Past.
	I have	*I* had		I	
	thou hast	*thou* hadst		thou	
	he has	*he* had	2 *Sing.* and *Plur.* } Have	he } have	Same as Indicative
	We	*We*		We	
	you } have	*you* } had		you	
	they	*they*		they	

Present Infinitive. (To) have.   *Present Participle.* Having.
Past Participle. Had.

Hast, hath, has, had are contractions of *havest, haveth, haves, haved.*

Do.

133　　The uncontracted forms of the second and third persons singular Present Indicative, *doest, doeth,* and the infinitive and participles are not used as auxiliaries.

The verb *do* is used as an auxiliary—

(1) To form present and past tenses with the asme meaning as the inflexional tenses. If the auxiliary is emphasised, the assertion or command made by the verb becomes more emphatic; as, ' I *do* object,' ' He *did* look surprised,' ' *Do* go away,' ' *Do* let me alone.' When the auxiliary is not emphasised, this form of tense is archaic or poetical; as, ' They set bread before him, and he did eat,' ' All round the coast the languid air did swoon.'

(2) In interrogative and negative sentences: 'Did you go?' 'I do not know.'

Do is also used to avoid repeating a verb: 'He made more runs than I did.'

134　　　　　　　　　　**Shall.**

INDICATIVE.		SUBJUNCTIVE.
Present.	*Past.*	*Past.*
I shall	should	should
thou shalt	shouldst	should
he shall	should	should
We, *you*, *they* } shall	should	should

The second person singular Subjunctive Past is sometimes in Modern English *shouldst,* like the Indicative.

Shall was originally a past tense; hence the third person singular does not end in *s.* The same is the case with *Can, Dare, May, Must.*

Will.

INDICATIVE { *Present.* *I* will, *thou* wilt, *he* will ; *We, you, they* will.
Past. *I* would, *thou* wouldst, *he* would ; *We, you, they* would.

Subjunctive Past like the Indicative.

The present participle *willing* is used only as an adjective, the infinitive, *to will*, only as an ordinary transitive verb. When the verb is used thus it is conjugated throughout like a weak verb : *he wills, we willed,* etc.

135   With regard to *Shall* and *Will*, it is to be remarked that if we use these verbs to foretell something, they are auxiliaries, and, together with the infinitive of the principal verb, form its future tense.   But if we use them to promise or command rather than to foretell, they are no longer auxiliaries, and do not form a future tense; thus, *Thou shalt do no murder,* and *I will do it, and no one shall stop me,* are not future tenses.

In the former case—that is, in the future tense—we use *shall* for the first person, *will* for the second or third, in principal sentences.   In subordinate sentences we use *shall* with all persons.

' You must endure me, and you *shall* ': here ' shall' is not an auxiliary at all.

' I *will* be drowned, no one *shall* save me ': neither auxiliaries.

' I *shall* be drowned, no one *will* save me ': both auxiliaries.

' I'll sigh celestial breath, whose gentle wind *shall* cool the heat ': subordinate sentence.

' When forty winters *shall* besiege thy brow ': subordinate sentence.

' If peradventure he *shall* ever return ': subordinate sentence.

In reported speech we use the same verb as would have been used in direct speech :

He said he should go.   He said, ' I shall go.'

He said he should have missed his way, but for my directions.   He said, ' I should have missed my way.'

He said he would not pay.   He said, ' I will not pay.'

May.

136 *May* has the same forms in the Indicative and the Subjunctive; viz.,

> *Present.* *I* may, *thou* mayst (mayest), *he* may; *We, you, they* may.
>
> *Past.* *I* might, *thou* mightest, *he* might; *We, you, they* might.

May is only used as an auxiliary when it is in the Subjunctive; it is then used in Modern English to form a compound present and past subjunctive after *that*.

When it is used of possibility or permission, as in 'There may be an accident,' 'You may go,' it is not an auxiliary.

137 ## Conjugation of a Strong Verb. SEE.

ACTIVE VOICE.

		INDICATIVE MOOD.	SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.
PRESENT	*Sing.* 1	I see	I see
	2	thou seest	thou see
	3	he sees	he see
	Plur. 1	We see	We see
	2	you see	you see
	3	they see	they see.
			[After *that*, 'I may see,' *etc.*]
CONTINUOUS PRESENT	*Sing.* 1	I am seeing, *etc.*	I be seeing, *etc.*
			[After *that, though, if, lest*, etc.]
PRESENT PERFECT or PERFECT	*Sing.* 1	I have seen	I have seen
	2	thou hast seen	thou have seen
	3	he has seen, *etc.*	he have seen, *etc.*
CONTINUOUS PRESENT PERFECT, or CONTINUOUS PERFECT	*Sing.* 1	I have been seeing	I have been seeing
	2	thou hast been seeing	thou have been seeing.
	3	he has been seeing, *etc.*	he have been seeing.

		INDICATIVE MOOD.	SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.
PAST . . .	*Sing.* 1 I saw		
	2 thou sawest		
	3 he saw		
	Plur. 1 We saw	[*Same as Indicative.*]
	2 you saw		
	3 they saw		

Compound Form.[1]
I should see
thou wouldst see
he would see
We should see
you would see
they would see.

CONTINUOUS PAST or IMPERFECT	*Sing.* 1 I was seeing	I were seeing
	2 thou wast seeing	thou wert seeing
	3 he was seeing	he were seeing
	Plur. 1 We were seeing	We were seeing
	2 you were seeing	you were seeing
	3 they were seeing	they were seeing.

Compound Form.
I should be seeing, *etc.*[2]

PAST PERFECT or PLUPERFECT	*Sing.* 1 I had seen	
	2 thou hadst seen	
	3 he had seen	[*Same as Indicative.*]
	Plur. 1 We had seen	(Usually after *if, un-less, though.*)
	2 you had seen	
	3 they had seen	

Compound Form.
I should have seen, *etc.*[2]

CONTINUOUS PLUPERFECT	.	*Sing.* 1 I had been seeing, *etc.*	[*Same as Indicative.*]

Compound Form.
I should have been seeing, *etc.*[2]

---

[1] This is the form when no Conjunction precedes; after *if, lest, that,* etc., we use *shouldst* in 2nd Singular, *should* in the other persons. After *that* the tense is also formed by means of the past Subjunctive of *may*; as, *that I might see.*

[2] 'Shouldst,' 'should,' in second and third persons, after *if, lest, that,* etc., 'wouldst' 'would' when no Conjunction precedes.

		INDICATIVE MOOD.	SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.
FUTURE	*Sing.* 1	I shall see	
	2	thou wilt see	
	3	he will see	
	Plur. 1	We shall see	[*None.*]
	2	you will see	
	3	they will see	
CONTINUOUS FUTURE	*Sing.* 1	I shall be seeing, *etc.*	[*None.*]
FUTURE PERFECT	*Sing.* 1	I shall have seen, *etc.*	[*None.*]
CONTINUOUS FUTURE PERFECT.	*Sing.* 1	I shall have been seeing, *etc.*	[*None.*]

IMPERATIVE.

Sing. 2 See thou. *Plur.* 2 See ye *or* you.

INFINITIVE.

PRESENT	(To) see
CONTINUOUS PRESENT	(To) be seeing
PERFECT	(To) have seen
CONTINUOUS PERFECT	(To) have been seeing.

PARTICIPLES.

PRESENT	Seeing
PERFECT	Having seen
CONTINUOUS PERFECT	Having been seeing

PASSIVE VOICE.

		INDICATIVE MOOD.	SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.
PRESENT	*Sing.* 1	I am seen, *etc.*	I be seen, *etc.* [After *that*, 'I may be seen,' *etc.*]
CONTINUOUS PRESENT	*Sing.* 1	I am being seen, *etc.*	[*None.*]
PRESENT (PRESENT PERFECT)	*Sing.* 1	I have been seen, *etc.*	I have been seen thou have been seen, *etc.*
CONTINUOUS PERFECT	*Sing.*	[*None.*]	[*None.*]

		INDICATIVE MOOD.	SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.
PAST . . .	*Sing.* 1	I was seen, *etc.*	I were seen, *etc.*
			Compound Form.
			I should be seen, *etc.*[1]
CONTINUOUS PAST or IMPERFECT	*Sing.* 1	I was being seen, *etc.*	I were being seen, *etc.*
PAST PERFECT or PLUPERFECT	*Sing.* 1	I had been seen, *etc.*	[*Same as Indicative.*]
			Compound Form.
			I should have been seen, *etc.*[1]
CONTINUOUS PLUPERFECT	. .	[*None.*]	[*None.*]
FUTURE . .	*Sing.* 1	I shall be seen	[*None.*]
	2	thou wilt be seen, *etc.*	
CONTINUOUS FUTURE	*Sing.* 1	I shall be being seen, *etc.*	[*None.*]
FUTURE PERFECT .	*Sing.* 1	I shall have been seen, *etc.*	[*None.*]
CONTINUOUS FUTURE PERFECT		[*None.*]	[*None.*]

IMPERATIVE.

Sing. 2 Be thou seen.   *Plur.* 2 Be you (*or* ye) seen.

INFINITIVE.

PRESENT (To) be seen.
PERFECT (To) have been seen.

PARTICIPLES.

PRESENT Being seen.
PERFECT { Seen
          { Having been seen.

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[1] 'Shouldst,' 'should,' in second and third persons, after *if, lest, that,* etc.; wouldst,' would,' when no Conjunction precedes.

ADVERBS

138 An **Adverb** is a word used to modify the meaning of a verb, or an adjective, or another adverb; as, 'They came *quickly*,' 'He was *nearly* dead,' 'I did it *quite* easily.'

It gains its name from its use with verbs, being derived from the Latin *ad*, 'to,' *verbum*, 'verb.' It *adds something to* the meaning of a verb (or adjective or adverb); thus, 'came quickly' means more than 'came,' 'quite easily' means more than 'easily,' etc.

Adverbs sometimes qualify the whole sentence instead of any adjective, verb, or adverb in it; thus, 'Undoubtedly he spoke well' = that he spoke well is beyond doubt.

Adverbs may be classified according to their meaning, thus:

Adverbs of **Manner** and **Degree**: *so, almost, quite, very,* etc.
[To this class belong the adverbs in *-ly* formed from adjectives.]

Adverbs of **Place**: *there, down, secondly,* etc.

,,   **Time**: *presently, then, now, often,* etc.

,,   **Cause**: *therefore, consequently,* etc.

,,   **Negation** and **Affirmation**: *not, certainly, indeed.*

Comparison of Adverbs.

139 Many adverbs can be compared.

The usual method is by using *more* and *most*; as,

POS.	COMPAR.	SUPERL.
quickly	more quickly	most quickly.

Adverbs which in the positive are the same as the corresponding adjectives, are compared like the adjectives in *-er* and *-est*; as, *high, higher, highest.*

Some others are compared in the same way; as, *often oftener, oftenest.*

Irregular Comparisons:

much	more	most	late	later	last
little	less	least	forth	further	furthest
ill	worse	worst	far	farther	farthest
well	better	best	near (nigh)	nearer	next.

CONJUNCTIONS

140 **Conjunctions** (from Latin *conjungere*, 'to join together') serve to connect words or sentences. They are of two kinds, Co-ordinating and Subordinating (see Syntax, § 156).

A. **Co-ordinating Conjunctions** connect sentences which are independent of one another in construction; they are so called from the Latin *co-ordinare*, 'to arrange alongside.'

The simple conjunction is *and*; contrast or exception is implied by *but*, while *or* expresses the idea of an alternative.

B. **Subordinating Conjunctions** connect dependent sentences with the sentence upon which they depend: that is, in which these dependent sentences could be replaced by a substantive, adjective or adverb (see Syntax, § 157). They are so called from the Latin *subordinare*, 'to arrange underneath.'

Some conjunctions (for example *that*) serve merely to connect a subordinate sentence with its principal sentence; but other conjunctions not only do this, but in addition act as adverbs in the subordinate sentence. Thus in *I hope that you will come*, the conjunction *that* merely connects the subordinate sentence *you will come* with the principal sentence *I hope*. But in *They came when I was leaving*, the conjunction *when* not only connects the subordinate sentence *I was leaving*, but also acts as an adverb

in it, qualifying the verb *was leaving*. This becomes evident if we substitute two co-ordinate sentences: *They came (at four o'clock)*; *I was then leaving*.

Subordinating Conjunctions express:

(1) Simple subordination ; as, *that*.
(2) Place ; as, *where, whence*.
(3) Time ; as, *until, while, since*.
(4) Cause and Purpose; as, *because, that (in order that)*.
(5) Comparison ; as, *than*.
(6) Concession ; as, *though*.
(7) Condition ; as, *if, unless*.

Interrogative Adverbs introducing dependent questions must not be confused with conjunctions. In *They came when you left*, the word *when* is a conjunction; we might say *They came at the time at which you left*, using a relative. But in *Tell me when you left*, the word *when* is an interrogative adverb; we might say *Tell me—when did you leave?*

PREPOSITIONS

141 The name **Preposition** is derived from the Latin *praeponere*, ' to place before,' and means a word which can be *placed before* a substantive or its equivalent to form phrases which may take the place of adverbs or adjectives; thus in

> He lives *in comfort* (=comfortably),
> He is a man *of importance* (=important),

in comfort is an adverbial phrase, *of importance* an adjectival phrase.

A preposition is said to *govern* the substantive before which it is placed, and the substantive so governed is in the accusative case.

The chief prepositions are *above, about, after, against, along, among, at, by, for, from, in, of, on, out, over, since, through, to, under, unto, up.*

Many of these are also used as adverbs, some as conjunctions.

INTERJECTIONS

142   An **Interjection** (from the Latin *interjicere*, ' to throw among ') is a word which may be *thrown among* the words of a sentence, without entering into its construction; it may also stand entirely alone, without being included in a sentence at all.   In *Those times, alas! have passed away,* the interjection is included in a sentence, but we could also ejaculate *Alas!* by itself.

The meanings expressed by interjections are very various, and often depend entirely upon the intonation of the voice; for instance, we can express a variety of meanings by the word *ah!* Some interjections, however, have definite meanings; *hurrah*, for instance, expresses joy, *alas* grief, *lo* demonstration, *eh* interrogation, *no* negation, *yes* affirmation.

No and *yes* are generally classed as adverbs, but they are never used to qualify adjectives, verbs, or other adverbs; we say *not bad, he cometh not, not very*, but we never say *no bad, he cometh no,* or *no very*.

Sometimes an interjection governs an accusative, as in *Ah me! Alas poor Yorick!* or is qualified by a phrase, as in *Alas for the hour.*

SYNTAX

143　　**Syntax** (Greek *syntaxis*, 'arrangement') treats of the arrangement of words in sentences, and the arrangement of sentences among themselves.

Phrases and Sentences.

144　　A **sentence** (Latin *sententia*, 'sense') is a collection of words so arranged as to express an assertion, a question, a command, or a wish.

Such collections of words as *the falsehood of extremes, in the morning early, seventy years ago, for ever and ever,* have a meaning, it is true, but they do not of themselves form an assertion, or a question, or a command, or a wish. They are therefore not called sentences, but **phrases** (Greek *phrasis*, 'expression').

On the other hand,

> Into the valley of Death rode the Six Hundred.
> When can their glory fade?
> Charge for the guns!
> Long live the King!

are sentences, for the first makes an assertion, the second asks a question, the third gives a command, the fourth utters a wish.

A sentence contains a finite verb, a phrase does not.[1] Thus *after dinner, after dining, after having had dinner, dinner over,* are all *phrases*, containing no finite verb; but when we say *after he had had dinner* we get a dependent *sentence*, containing the finite verb *had had*.

Sometimes the verb in a sentence is implied; as,

> Villainy somewhere! whose?
> Forward, the Light Brigade—

---

[1] It will be remembered that collections of words like 'has been seen,' though really verbal phrases, have been classed as verbs in accordance with general usage. See § 112.

meaning (*There was*) *villainy somewhere; whose* (*was it*)?
(*Go*) *forward, the Light Brigade*; or again,

> Better fifty years of Europe than a cycle of Cathay;

that is, *Fifty years of Europe are better than* . . .

A **Simple Sentence** is one that contains a single finite
verb (expressed or implied); a **Compound Sentence** is one
that contains two or more finite verbs; see § 156. Thus,
*Death is the end of life, Where are they now? Ask me no
more,* are simple sentences, but *Shall I weep if a Poland
fall? Ask me no more, lest I should bid thee live,* are
compound sentences.

A simple sentence need not be shorter than a compound one, for it may
contain any number of phrases; for instance,

> 'Having made the most elaborate arrangements, and assembled a
> large and well-equipped escort at Peshawur to accompany the
> envoy in his dangerous march through a country always
> unfriendly, and recently roused by the preaching of fanatical
> priests to bitter hostility; having notified the Ameer of its
> intention to despatch this envoy to his capital, and, after waiting
> in vain for an answer from Kabul, having issued orders to the
> envoy himself to set forth upon his journey, the Indian Govern-
> ment was suddenly informed of the Ameer's strong objection to
> the proposed mission, and of his resolve not to allow it even to
> enter his dominions.'

PHRASES.

145 Phrases have been defined as **groups of words which
express a definite meaning, but do not contain a finite
verb.**

They may perform the function of any one of the parts
of speech, as in the following instances:—

Substantival Phrases:

> A mournful *De Profundis.*
> He never knows *when to go.*
> *To make good resolutions* is easier than to keep them.
> *Making good resolutions* is easier than keeping them.

Adjectival:

It is time *for me to go.*
A *peace at any price* policy.
He has no object *for which to live.*
The men *of the leading company* advanced at the double.
Napoleon Bonaparte, *the Emperor of the French*, died at
　　St. Helena in 1821.

Pronominal:

They killed *each other.*
The poor are very good to *one another.*

Verbal: see § 112.

Adverbial:

One by one they crept forward *with the greatest caution.*
To be sure, he arrived *after dinner.*
The men of the leading company advanced *at the double.*
You were right *to refuse his invitation.*
After having dinner, we went to a theatre.
To tell the truth, I had no money.
Considering all things, he was not to be blamed.
Parliament refusing to obey, the King dissolved it.

Conjunctional:

We eat *in order that* we may live.

Prepositional:

He went *instead of* me.
He acted *according to* instructions.

Interjectional:

Good gracious !　For shame !

Note.—Often one phrase forms part of a larger phrase; each must then be named according to the part it plays. Thus in 'He acted according to instructions,' the prepositional phrase *according to* forms part of the adverbial phrase *according to instructions.*

Subject and Predicate.

146 The **Subject** of a sentence is the word that denotes the person (or persons, or thing, or things) about whom we make an assertion or ask a question, or whom we order, or wish to do or be something; thus,

> *Death* is the end of life.
> Where is *she* now?
> Go *thou* and do likewise.
> Perish the *thought*.

NOTE.—The subject of an assertion may be found by putting *who* or *what* before the verb; the word that answers the question thus formed is the Subject; § 23.

So with a question, 'Where is she?' 'Where is who?' 'She' (Subject).

When the sentence itself has *who* or *what* before the verb, this is the Subject; 'Who comes there?' (Subject *who*).

The Subject may be—

> A Substantive; as, *death*.
> A Substantive Prooun; as, *she*.
> A Verbal Substantive; as, to *die*, or *dying*.
> An Adjective used as a substantive; as, the *dead*.
> A quotation; as, '*No surrender*' was their motto.
> Any word, when the *word itself* is spoken of; as, '*deadly* is an adjective.'
> Or (as we shall see presently) a dependent sentence.

Sometimes the **subject** is **not expressed,** but implied; as in,

> Say (*he*) what he will, he will never convince me.
> (*I*) would that it were possible.
>
> Nor do we find him forward to be sounded,
> But with a crafty madness (*he*) keeps aloof.

The subject of an Imperative is rarely expressed, as we mark the person to whom the order applies by addressing him.

On the position of the subject in the sentence see § 28.

In order to form a sentence we must say something about the subject by means of a verb; what we say is called in Logic the **Predicate**.

Thus a sentence in its simplest form consists only of a subject and a verb; the line

<div align="center">I slip, I slide, I gloom, I glance,</div>

contains four sentences, of which the four pronouns are the Subjects, and the four verbs the Predicates.

147 But both the Subject and the Verb may be qualified in various ways.

The **Subject** may be qualified by—

> An Adjective (including the Article), or a Participle.
> A Substantive (noun or pronoun) in apposition, that is, placed after the subject to describe or define it, and having the same relation to the rest of the sentence; as, 'I, *the king*, say this.'
> A Substantive in the genitive case; as, '*Peter's* pence.'
> An Adjectival phrase; as, 'The babes *in the wood*,' 'A search *for treasure*.'
> And (as we shall see presently) an adjectival clause.

The **Verb** may be qualified by—

> An Adverb.
> A Substantive in the accusative denoting the direct object of the verb (§ 106).
> Cognate and adverbial accusatives (§ 31).
> A Substantive in the dative denoting the indirect object of the verb (§ 32).
> An Adverbial phrase; as, 'He lived *in the wood*,' 'He sought *for treasure*.'
> A phrase containing a nominative absolute (§ 29).
> And (as we shall see presently) an adverbial clause.

148   Some verbs are used in such a sense as to require the addition of one or more words in order that they may express a complete meaning; the word or words so added are called the **Complement**, as completing the meaning of the verb.

For instance, in 'He is miserable,' the verb *is* does not express a meaning of itself, but merely **couples** the subject *he* with an attribute *miserable* (which forms the complement); hence the verb is said to be used **copulatively** or to be a **copulative** verb.   The verbs *seem, become,* etc., are often so used.

In such cases the attribute qualifies the subject, and so must agree with it in case: this is what is meant by saying that Copulative Verbs have the same case after them as before them.

It must not be supposed that there is a definite class or list of Copulative Verbs, but only that certain verbs may be used in this way.   Even these verbs can be used with a complete meaning of their own, as in 'He *was* not, for God took him.'

Again, verbs which express *making, calling, thinking,* etc., often require a complement, as in 'They made him *king.*'

In such cases the complement qualifies the object, and is therefore in the accusative.

But suppose we turn such a phrase into the passive, 'He was made king'; the complement now qualifies the subject, and is therefore in the nominative.

Again, verbs like *must* and *can* are constructed with an infinitive, as 'I can sing'; this infinitive may be regarded either as a complement or as the direct object of the verb.

149 A sentence expresses the bringing together of two ideas in the mind, one represented by the Subject (that is, the grammatical subject and its qualification), the other by the Predicate (that is, the verb and its qualifications).

If we affirm or deny the connection between these two ideas, we get a **declarative sentence** or **assertion**; as, *He came.*

If we ask whether the connection exists we get an **interrogative sentence** or **question**; as, *Did he come?*

If, speaking directly to the subject, we order that the connection should exist, we get an **imperative sentence** or **command**; as *Come (thou).*

If we utter our desire that the connection should exist, we get an **optative sentence,** or **wish**; as, *May he come.*

In a *direct command* we take it, as it were, for granted that the connection will exist; but this is not so in a *wish.* The connection is there only thought of and hoped for, and therefore we use the subjunctive (or conceptive) mood; see §§ 118, 119.

Exclamatory sentences, as *How cold it is!*, are included under assertions.

Similarly in such a sentence as

> *The desert were a paradise, if thou wert there,*

(§ 119, 2), we have a conditional assertion; we do not assert that the desert *is* a paradise, but we assert that it *would be* a paradise 'if thou wert there.'

There is no other kind of Principal or Independent Sentence. The different kinds of dependent sentence will be noticed later.   (See §§ 158, 159, etc.)

Rules of Agreement.

150   There are four Concords or Rules of Agreement, affecting (1) Verbs, (2) Adjectives, (3) Substantives in apposition, and (4) Relative Pronouns.

151   (1) A **Verb agrees** with its **subject** in **number** and **person**; we cannot grammatically say 'I *is* tired,' or 'We *has* rested.'

If the subject consists of two or more substantives coupled (or *conjoined*) by 'and,' the verb of course is plural. We cannot say, 'Mary and Thomas *is* here,' because the singular number cannot include two persons.

NOTE.—The verb is sometimes singular when the two substantives are taken as expressing one idea, for instance in

> Where death and danger dogs the heels of worth.—*Shakes.*

or when the verb comes first, so that it is really uncertain whether there will be a second substantive; as in

> Wherein doth sit the dread and fear of kings.—*Shakes.*

On the other hand, when two substantives, both in the singular, are coupled or *disjoined* by 'either . . . or,' or 'neither . . . nor,' the verb is singular, for the assertion is made of one or the other of them, but not of both; for instance, 'Either Thomas or Henry has done this.'

A collective substantive (§ 20) in the singular is sometimes constructed with a plural verb when we are thinking of the individual members of the collection; as, 'The jury were not agreed.'

When the members of a *conjoined* composite subject differ in *person*, the verb is to be considered as being of the same person as the plural pronoun which might be substituted for the whole subject (see § 154); but when the members differ in person, and are *disjoined*, the verb is to be considered as agreeing in person with the last; but the construction is best avoided unless the form of the verb is such as could apply equally well to either part of the subject; thus we can say, 'Either I or you *have* made a mistake' (where *have* must be parsed as in the second person), but it is very awkward to say, 'Either I or he *has* made a mistake.'

152   (2) An **Adjective agrees** with the **substantive** it qualifies in **gender, number,** and **case.**

This is the rule in languages, such as Latin, where adjectives can express all these variations by inflexion; but in English no adjectives have inflexions of gender or case, and only *this* and *that* have inflexions of number.

When either of these adjectives qualifies a composite subject, consisting of two singular substantives joined by

'and,' it agrees with the nearest; thus, '*This* man and woman,' not 'These man and woman.' If the two parts of the subject differ in number, the adjective is repeated: 'These men and this boy,' not 'These men and boy.'

153 (3) A **substantive in apposition** (§ 147) to another substantive or equivalent **agrees** with it in **case.** This follows from the fact that they both stand in the same relation to the rest of the sentence. Thus—

<p style="text-align:center">I, the king, say this,</p>

where *king* is nominative;

<p style="text-align:center">The last will and testament of me, John Smith,</p>

where *John Smith* is accusative.

154 (4) A **Relative Pronoun agrees** with its **antecedent** in **gender, number,** and **person,** but its case depends upon the part it plays in its own clause (see § 100).

It is true of all substantive pronouns that they agree in gender and number with the substantive they represent; for instance, we could not refer to the Queen as 'he' or 'they.'

As to person, when a pronoun has to represent different *persons* (in the grammatical sense), the second person is considered more worthy than the third, and the first more worthy than either of them; thus we say *you* for *thou + he* or *you + he*, but we say *we* for *I and thou*, or *we and thou*, or *I and you*, or *we and you*, or *I and he*, or *we and he*, or *I and they*, or *we and they*.

Combinations of Simple Sentences.

155 Two or more simple sentences may be connected by co-ordinating conjunctions (§ 140, A), as in the following instances :

<p style="text-align:center">Men must work, and women must weep.
Many are called, but few are chosen.
Abide with us, for it is toward evening.
She must weep or she will die.
They toil not, neither do they spin.</p>

They are then spoken of as **Co-ordinate Simple Sentences.**

Sometimes the connection of sense is not expressed by a conjunction, but is left to be implied, as in

> I cannot for money be vulgarly funny;
> My object's to make you reflect.
>
> Trust her not, she's fooling thee.

They are then spoken of as **Collateral Simple Sentences.**

Compound Sentences.

156 A **Compound Sentence** has been defined as one which contains two or more finite verbs. Let us confine ourselves for the present to those which contain two finite verbs.

Notice in this definition that the two finite verbs must be contained in *a single* sentence. Now, in the examples given in the preceding section, this is not the case; in these combinations each verb has a sentence to itself, and each sentence is independent of the other in construction; either could stand by itself without the other. Consequently, in each of these instances we have not a single compound sentence, but a combination of two simple sentences.

Such sentences are said to be **co-ordinate** (from the Latin *co-ordinatus*, 'ranked together,' 'equal in rank'), because they are ranged side by side, as it were, upon equal terms.

But now look at such sentences as

> He announced that the king was dead.
> England is the land in which I was born.
> He returned before we expected him.

In each of these there are two finite verbs, but in each there is only the framework of a single sentence. In 'He announced the death of the king,' we have a single sentence in which *the death of the king* stands as object of the verb *announced*. When we substitute *that the king was dead*

for *the death of the king* we do not alter the framework of the sentence, we only change the expression which forms the object of the verb; instead of a substantive we use what is called a **Subordinate Clause,** and the result is a compound sentence. Here the two parts are not independent of each other in construction; one part, *that the king was dead,* only forms an element in the structure of the other; it cannot stand by itself, but has to rest upon the other; hence it is said to be dependent upon it or **subordinate** to it (from the Latin *subordinatus,* 'ranked under,' 'inferior in rank').

That part of a compound sentence upon which the subordinate clause depends is sometimes called the Principal sentence; for instance, *He announced*; *England is the land*: *He returned.*

157   Clauses (from the Latin *clausum,* 'that which is enclosed') are so called because they are *included in* the construction of the principal sentences on which they depend. They must contain a finite verb. They play the part of a substantive or an adjective or an adverb in the principal sentence, and can be replaced therein by a substantive, adjective, or adverb if the language happens to contain one that expresses the same idea.

Thus, instead of 'He announced that the king was dead,' we can say, 'He announced the *death* of the king' (Subst.).

Instead of 'England is the land in which I was born,' we can say, 'England is my *native* land' (Adj.).

Instead of 'He returned before we expected him,' we can say, 'He returned *unexpectedly*' (Adv.).

Of course there is not always a substantive, adjective, or adverb that expresses the same meaning as the clause, but if we examine any number of clauses we shall find that they always enter into the construction of the principal sentence in the same way as substantives, adjectives, or adverbs would.

NOTE.—A principal sentence may not make sense by itself (for instance, 'he announced' does not make sense unless we say *what* he announced), but it never enters into the construction of another sentence as a clause does.

There are, then, three sorts of Clauses—Substantival, Adjectival, and Adverbial.

NOTE.—A sentence which is quoted must not be confused with a clause. In 'She said, "I am going"' we have a quotation ; if the quotation became a clause it would run 'She said she was going.'

SUBSTANTIVAL CLAUSES.

158   A **substantival clause** is one which stands in the place of a substantive in the principal sentence; it generally begins with an interrogative word or the conjunction *that*.

A substantival clause may stand as the subject of the principal verb :

> *That they are there* is well known.
> *How they came there* is the question.

Or it may stand as the object of the principal verb :

> The village all declared *how much he knew.*
> Remember *that life is short.*

Or it may stand as one of the objects after a verb that can govern two accusatives, 'They asked him *how much he knew*'; or after a phrase equivalent to a verb, 'I am afraid *that he will come*,' 'I am certain *that he will come*' ; or after a copulative verb, 'The important thing is *that we should start well.*'

A substantival clause may also stand after a preposition :

> I have no knowledge of *how it was done.*
> I have no interest in *how it is made.*

Or in apposition :

> We must face the fact *that insanity is increasing.*

This construction is especially frequent with *it*, the pronoun acting as a temporary subject or object which is afterwards explained by the clause in apposition ; thus,

> *It* is asserted *that he died in poverty*.
> =*That he died in poverty* is asserted.

Again,

> *It* is doubtful *whether the news is true*.
> =*Whether the news is true* is doubtful.

So with the object :

> I thought *it* probable *that they would win*.

Other instances are :

> *It* was then *that I arose*   = *That I arose* occurred then.
> *It* is seldom *that I feel tired*= *That I feel tired* occurs seldom.
> How is it *that you are here*=How does *it* (namely, *that you are here*) occur ?

Compare the adjectival clauses in § 160.

NOTE.—In such sentences as ' He never knows *when to go*,' ' He had not *where to lay his head*,' ' He forgot *how to do it*,' the words introduced by the interrogative cannot form a clause, for they do not contain a finite verb ; they form a substantival phrase.

ADVERBIAL CLAUSES.

159   An **adverbial clause** is one that plays the part of an adverb in the principal sentence ; for instance, we may say ' He arrived *unexpectedly*,' or ' He arrived *when he was not expected* '; ' He was *unreasonably* angry,' or ' He was angry, *although he had no reason*.'

Moreover, an adverbial clause may stand in apposition to an adverb in the principal sentence ; as,

> *There, where a few torn shrubs the place disclose*,
> The village preacher's modest mansion rose

Adverbial clauses answer the questions *How? When? Where? Under what circumstances?*

I. **Manner,** answering the question *How?* Suppose we say,

> He behaves *as he ought* (*to behave*).

The clause *as he ought* tells us *how* he behaves, and instead of it we might use an adverb of manner: 'He behaves *well.*'

II. **Degree,** answering the question *How?* combined with an adjective or adverb, *how good? how badly?* etc.

Thus, using *adverbs* of degree, we may say :

> This pie is *very* good.
> He behaves *very* badly.

Using *adverbial clauses,* we may say :

> This pie is as good *as it could be* (good)
> He behaves as badly *as he can* (behave badly).

Here the clauses tell us *how good* the pie is, *how badly* he behaves, and so are adverbial clauses of degree. Grammatically these clauses stand in apposition to the adverb *as* in the principal sentences, which qualifies the adjective *good* or the adverb *badly.*

Or again we may say :

He is $\left\{\begin{array}{c} \text{as} \\ \text{more} \end{array}\right\}$ trustworthy $\left\{\begin{array}{c} as \\ than \end{array}\right\}$ *his brother is* (trustworthy),

or

He listens $\left\{\begin{array}{c} \text{as} \\ \text{more} \end{array}\right\}$ attentively $\left\{\begin{array}{c} as \\ than \end{array}\right\}$ *you do* (listen attentively).

Here the clauses tell us *how trustworthy* he is, *how attentively* he listens, and so are adverbial clauses of *degree.* They do this by means of a *comparison,* and so are called **Comparative clauses.**

Or again we may say,

> He is so attentive *that nothing escapes him.*
> He listens so attentively *that nothing escapes him.*

Here the clauses tell us *how attentive* he is, *how attentively* he listens; hence they are adverbial clauses of *degree*; but they do this by explaining the result or consequence of his attentiveness, so they are generally called **Consecutive clauses.**

Note.—All these clauses of degree stand grammatically in apposition to adverbs in the principal sentence.

III. **Time,** answering the question *When ?*

In ' Go soon,' *soon* is an adverb of time, and tells us *when* to go.   Similarly in

> Go *when the clock strikes ten,*
> Go *before the clock strikes ten,*

the clauses serve the same purpose, and tell us when to go. Or if we say,

> Wait *until the clock strikes ten,*

the clause tells us *how long* to wait.   These clauses then are adverbial clauses of *time*, generally called **Temporal clauses** (from the Latin *tempus*, ' time ').

IV. **Place,** answering the question *Where ?*

When we say ' Go there,' ' The book is *there*,' the adverb of place, *there*, tells us where to go, or where the book is.   And when we say,

> Go *where glory waits thee,*
> The book is *where I left it,*

the clauses serve the same purpose, and so are adverbial **clauses of Place.**

V. Cause, answering the question *Why ?*

When we say,

> I took the train *because I was tired*,

or,

> *As I was in a hurry*, I took the train,

the clauses tell us why (or, owing to what cause) I took the train, and so are called **Causal clauses.**

VI. Purpose, also answering the question *Why ?*

The question *why ?* may also mean *with what purpose or object ?* For instance, when we ask 'Why does he practise so regularly ?' the answer may be 'He practises so regularly *that* (or, *in order that*) *he may get into the eleven.*' Here the adverbial clause expresses the *end* or *object* of his practising, and is called a **Final clause** (from the Latin *finis*, 'end ').

VII. Condition, answering the question *Under what circumstances ?*

Suppose we say,

> The desert were a paradise *if thou wert there*,

the *if*-clause tells us *when* or *under what circumstances* the desert would be a paradise.

Or again in,

> *Unless I start now*, I shall miss the train,

the *unless*-clause tells us under what circumstances or conditions I shall miss the train.

These adverbial clauses are therefore called **Conditional clauses.**

But now suppose we say,

> It is still raining, *although the barometer is rising*.
> He started, *although he had had no breakfast*.

The adverbial clauses again answer the question *under what circumstances or conditions?* and are therefore plainly conditional, but instead of telling us exactly *under* what circumstances, they tell us *in spite of* what circumstances; and they are therefore generally called by a separate name—**Concessive clauses.**

NOTE.—This name is given to them because they may be regarded as stating something that we *concede*; thus instead of saying 'Although the barometer is rising, it is still raining,' we might say 'I concede (*or* admit) that the barometer is rising; nevertheless, it is still raining.'

In the instances of adverbial clauses given above, the principal sentence has generally been assertive; it may, however, belong to any of the other kinds of sentence. Take the following examples:

> *How noble his action appears*, when we remember his motive (Exclamatory assertion).
>
> *I would not trust him* if he had ever deceived me (Conditional assertion).
>
> *How glad I should be* if we were to win (Exclamatory Conditional assertion).
>
> *Go*, since you want to (go) (Command).
>
> *May he be as successful* as he deserves (Wish).

ADJECTIVAL CLAUSES.

160 **Adjectival clauses** are those which play the part of an adjective in the principal sentence; they are generally introduced by a relative pronoun or by a relative adverb which is equivalent to a relative pronoun governed by a preposition. For instance,

> This is the house that (rel. pron.) Jack built.
> This is the house where (=wherein=in which) I live.

As adjectival clauses play the part of adjectives, their main use is of course to qualify substantives; thus,

> I have found my sheep *which was lost,*

where we might have had an adjective (or participle used adjectivally), '*lost* sheep.' Again,

> A man *who has wealth* has a heavy responsibility,

where instead of 'who has wealth' we might have the adjective *wealthy*, 'a wealthy man.'

Note.—Often the relative is omitted; as, 'This is the man (*that*) I spoke of,' 'I did all (*that*) I could (do)': see § 95 (3).

Sometimes the relative refers to an antecedent implied in a possessive pronoun; as in, 'A blameless life was *his who* has left us.'

The temporary subject *It* (see § 158), instead of having a substantival clause in apposition to it, is often qualified by an adjectival clause. Thus in

> Who was it *that did this?*
> It was Thomas *that did this,*

the clause *that* (rel.) *did this* is adjectival qualifying *it* (=the person): 'The person that did this was Thomas.'

Similarly with

> It is I $\left\{ \begin{matrix} \text{who} \\ \text{that} \end{matrix} \right\}$ am to blame.

But here, owing to the order of the words, some confusion arises and the antecedent of the relative is supposed to be *I*, whereas it is really *it*; consequently the person of the relative is altered, and the person of the verb is altered to agree with it. Strictly we should say,

> It is I $\left\{ \begin{matrix} \text{who} \\ \text{that} \end{matrix} \right\}$ *is* to blame,

for the meaning is

> It (the person) $\left\{ \begin{matrix} \text{who} \\ \text{that} \end{matrix} \right\}$ *is* to blame is I.

Sentences like 'It was of you that I spoke,' cannot be explained in quite the same way: we must suppose this to stand for 'It was you that I spoke of.'

NOTE.—In such a sentence as 'There was no place *in which to hide*,' the words introduced by the relative cannot form a clause, for they do not contain a finite verb; they form an adjectival phrase. In such phrases the relative is often omitted, as 'There was no place *to hide in*.'

RESOLVING THE RELATIVE.

161

Although all adjectival clauses are relative, it is not the fact that all relative clauses are adjectival. Take, for instance, such a sentence as

He mentioned it to his wife, *who told my daughter*.

The clause here qualifies the substantive 'wife' only *in form*; in *sense* it does not define or describe *wife*, but simply continues the narrative, and instead of *who* we could say *and she*,

He mentioned it to his wife, and she told my daughter.

The clause is therefore in form subordinate, but in sense co-ordinate.

Again, suppose we say,

They ought to have put in Shrewsbury, *who always tires the bowling*.

Here *who=for he*, and the clause is co-ordinate in sense.

This separation of the relative pronoun into a conjunction and a demonstrative pronoun is called **resolving the relative.**

But now suppose we say,

> Our best man, *who shot very well yesterday*, has done nothing to-day ;

or

> Our best man, *who shot very well yesterday*, has been chosen for the English team.

In the first of these sentences we should not alter the sense if we said,

> Our best man, *although* he shot very well yesterday, has done nothing to-day,

substituting *although he* for *who*. The relative clause is therefore a **concessive (adverbial) clause** here.

In the second sentence we may substitute *as he* or *since he* for *who*, without altering the sense :

> Our best man, *as he* shot very well yesterday, has been chosen.

The relative clause is therefore a **causal (adverbial) clause** here.

So in

> Breathes there the man, with soul so dead,
> *Who never to himself hath said* . . .

who = *that he,* and introduces a **consecutive (adverbial) clause.**

HOW TO DISTINGUISH THE NATURE OF CLAUSES.

162 Relative clauses form a good instance of the general rule that the nature of a clause (as of a word) is to be decided **not by its form, but by its function ;** not by what it looks like, but by what it does (compare § 14). The conjunction or other word by which a clause is introduced is no guide to the nature of the clause. This point is so

important that although instances have been already noticed, some further examples will be given here.

> This is the house *where I live* (Adjectival).
> He asked me *where I live* (Substantival).
> He lives *where I live* (Adverbial).

> You ask me *when I played cricket* (Substantival).
> There was a time *when I played cricket* (Adjectival).
> I used to make runs *when I played cricket* (Adverbial).

> *As the tree fell,* so it will lie (Adverbial 'manner').
> *As the tree fell,* he ran from under it (Adverbial 'time').
> *As the tree fell,* we had not to cut it down (Adverbial 'cause').
> She is as good *as she is beautiful* (Adverbial 'degree').

> Can you tell me *if he is poor* (Substantival).
> *If he is poor* he is also honest (Adverbial 'concessive').
> *If he is poor* he needs help (Adverbial 'conditional').

> I know the man *that* (relative) *wrote this* (Adjectival).
> I know *that* (conj.) *he wrote this* (Substantival).
> I know *that* (demonstrative) *is so* (Substantival).
> I eat *that* (conj.) *I may live* (Adverbial 'final').
> I eat so little *that* (conj.) *I am always hungry* (Adverbial 'consecutive').

RELATIONS OF CLAUSES TO ONE ANOTHER.

163 Hitherto we have only spoken of compound sentences containing two verbs; we have now to consider those which contain three or more verbs, and which consequently include two or more clauses.

Clauses may be independent of one another, or one clause may be dependent upon another.

Clauses independent of one another.

In the sentence

> Long stood Sir Bedivere
> Revolving many memories, till the ship
> Looked one black speck against the verge of dawn
> And (till) on the mere the wailing died away,

the two adverbial clauses *till . . . and till . . .* are in-
dependent of one another.

Again, in

> When the goodman mends his armour,
>> And trims his helmet's plume,
> When the goodwife's shuttle merrily
>> Goes flashing through the loom,
> With weeping and with laughter
>> Still is the story told,
> How well Horatius kept the bridge
>> In the brave days of old,

the four clauses which are underlined are independent of
one another.

Clauses dependent on other clauses.

One clause may depend upon another; for instance
in the sentence

> I asked him how they got on after I left,

the adverbial clause *after I left* (which is doubly under-
lined) depends upon the substantival clause *how they got
on,* qualifying the verb in it. So in

> I told them that I could not come unless they promised
> that I should leave whenever I pleased,

unless they promised is an adverbial (conditional) clause

depending on the previous clause, *that I could not come*; while *that I should leave* is a substantive clause, forming the object of *promised*, and *whenever I pleased* is an adverbial clause qualifying *leave*.

164 Contracted and Elliptical Sentences.

A sentence is said to be **contracted** when a word or a group of words has to be supplied from an adjoining sentence in order to make it grammatically complete; thus in

<p align="center">We live and learn,</p>

the subject (*we*) of the second sentence has to be supplied from the first sentence, and in

<p align="center">His treachery amazed and disgusted me,</p>

the object has to be supplied in the first sentence, the subject in the second.

So in *we live and learn* the second sentence is contracted, in *his treachery amazed and disgusted me* both sentences are contracted.

When the words to be supplied are not actually *contained* in an adjoining sentence, but are only implied in it, the sentence is said to be **elliptical**; the chief instances are in clauses introduced by *as* or *than* (§ 159, 2). For example:

He behaves as badly as he can (behave badly).
He listens more attentively than you (listen attentively).
He has gained more marks than you have (gained many marks).
He spoke as (he would speak) if he knew them well.

NOTE.—Sometimes the words to be supplied are not even implied in an adjoining sentence; as in,

As (things stand) for me, I will do whatever you please.

ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

165 To analyse a thing is to separate it into the parts of which it is composed; the word is derived from the Greek *analuo,* 'I loosen again.' In analysing a sentence we break it up into the various words and phrases (and, in the case of a compound sentence, clauses) of which it is composed, and state the duty which each of them performs.

Analysis of Simple Sentences.

166 In analysing a simple sentence the first step is to distinguish in one's mind the Logical Subject from the Logical Predicate. The Logical Subject is composed of all the words in the sentence which express or describe the person or thing that the sentence speaks of; the Logical Predicate is composed of all the words that express what the sentence says about the Logical Subject. Thus in

<div align="center">

(1) The Prince lived,

</div>

the Prince is the Logical Subject, *lived* is the Logical Predicate. In

<div align="center">

(2) The eccentric Prince of Abyssinia lived long in seclusion,

</div>

the words down to *Abyssinia* form the Logical Subject, and the remainder of the sentence is the Logical Predicate.

Again, in

> (3) Did the Prince live long ?

or

> (4) Long live the Prince !

the Prince is the Logical Subject, the remainder of the sentence is the Logical Predicate.   Again, in

> (5) Live in peace,

you (understood) is the Logical Subject, the remainder is the Logical Predicate.

The next step is to take the Logical Subject to pieces in one's mind, distinguishing the grammatical subject (that is, the substantive which stands as the subject of the verb) from its various qualifications or adjuncts, and distinguishing these from one another.

In the first four of the previous examples *Prince* is the grammatical subject.

In (1), (3), and (4) it is only qualified by the definite article *the*.

In (2) it is qualified by

> (i) *the*, definite article;
> (ii) *eccentric*, adjective;
> (iii) *of Abyssinia*, adjectival phrase.

In (5) the Subject (*you*, understood) is not qualified.

The next step is to break up the logical predicate in one's mind in the same way, distinguishing the verb, the object or objects (if any), and the adverbial qualifications.

Thus in (1) the verb *lived* has no qualification, and so forms by itself the whole of the Predicate.

In (2), (3), and (4) the verb is qualified by the adverb *long*, and in (2) it is also qualified by the adverbial phrase *in seclusion,*

And in (5) it is qualified by the adverbial phrase *in peace.*

Having distinguished in one's mind the Logical Subject from the Predicate, and their various qualifications from one another, the next step is to write the sentence down the left-hand side of the paper, word by word, each word below the preceding one.

But articles and prepositions need not be taken separately, and pronominal, prepositional, conjunctional, and interjectional phrases may be treated as if they were single words.

In the case of interrogative, negative, or optative sentences, the auxiliary verb must be repeated in brackets to form the whole verb.

Then, opposite to each word or group of words, write down the part it plays in the sentence. The previous examples will then appear as under:

(1) The Prince | Subject.
lived | Verb.

(2) The eccentric | Adj. qualifying *Prince*.
Prince | Subject.
of Abyssinia | Adj. phrase, qualifying *Prince*.
lived | Verb.
long | Adv. qualifying *lived*.
in seclusion | Adv. phrase, qualifying *lived*.

(3) Did | Auxiliary verb, with *live*.
the Prince | Subject.
(did) live | Verb.
long | Adverb, qualifying *did live*.

(4) Long | Adverb, qualifying *live*.
live | Verb.
the Prince | Subject.

(5) (You) | Subject, understood.
live | Verb.
in peace | Adv. phrase, qualifying *live*.

In the case of questions introduced by an interrogative word, the part played in the sentence by the interrogative word will best be seen by substituting the corresponding demonstrative in one's mind; thus,

Where does the train stop=the train does stop $\begin{cases} \text{where ?} \\ \text{there,} \end{cases}$

and we see that *where* qualifies the verb *does stop*, just as *there* would qualify it.

Again,

Who is that tall man=that tall man is $\begin{cases} \text{who ?} \\ \text{he,} \end{cases}$

and we see that *who*, like *he*, forms the complement.

Where	Interrog. adverb, qualifying *does stop*.
does	Auxiliary verb, with *stop*.
(the) train	Subject.
(does) stop	Verb.

Who	Complement.
is	Verb.
that	Demonstr. adj., qualifying *man*.
tall	Adjective, ,,
man	Subject.

Exclamations are analysed like ordinary assertive sentences:

How	Adverb, qualifying *noble* ⎱ Complement.
noble	⎰
was	Verb.
his	Possessive pronoun, qualifying *conduct*.
conduct	Subject.

The following examples contain constructions that should be noticed:

Being a man of weak will, he was unable to assert himself.

Here the phrase *being a man of weak will* states *why*

he was unable, etc., and therefore, although in form it qualifies *he*, in reality it qualifies the whole sentence, and is therefore an adverbial phrase. Again, *to assert himself* tells us *in what way* he was unable, and is therefore an adverbial phrase, qualifying *unable*.

<div align="center">
It was like a sweet dream
To sit in the roses and hear the bird's song.
</div>

It	Subject.
was	Verb.
like	
(to) a sweet dream	Adj. qual. *dream* } Adv. phrase qual. *like* } Complement.
to sit	
in the roses	Adv. phrase, qualifying *sit* ⎫ Substantival
and	Conj. joining *sit*, *hear* ⎬ phrases in
(to) hear	apposition
(the) bird's	Adjec. genitive qual. *song* ⎭ to *it*.
song	Object of *hear*

<div align="center">
He ordered the cottage to be burned to the ground.
</div>

He	Subject.
ordered	Verb.
(the) cottage	Subject of *to be burned* ⎫ Substantival
to be burned	Oblique Predicate of *cottage* ⎬ phrase,
to the ground	Adv. phrase qualifying *to be burned* ⎭ object of *ordered*.

Here the phrase *the cottage to be burned* might be replaced by a clause *that the cottage should be burned*, in which *cottage* would be subject, and *should be burned* predicate. *To be burned* is therefore called an Oblique Predicate, *i.e.* a predicate in oblique (indirect) speech. *The cottage* cannot be considered the object, direct or indirect, of *ordered*. Nor can *to be burned* be considered an infinitive of purpose. On the other hand, in

<div align="center">
He offered the cottage to be used as a hospital,
</div>

cottage is the direct object of *offered*, and *to be used* is an

infinitive of purpose, forming an adjectival phrase qualifying *cottage.*

It will have been already noticed that a phrase is often composed of two or three shorter phrases; and it then becomes necessary in a full analysis to state the relations of the shorter phrases to one another before stating the relation of the whole phrase which they compose to the sentence.   Take the following instance:

Yesterday	Adv. qualifying *was stopped.*
(the) 12.30	Adj. phrase qualifying *train.*
train	Subject.
from Waterloo	Adj. phrase „
to Bournemouth	Adj. phrase „
was stopped	Verb.
suddenly	Adv. qual. *was stopped.*
in the cutting	
(on the) London	Adj. qual. *side* Adj. Adv.
side	phrase phrase
	qual. qual.
of Winchester	Adj. phrase qual. *side* *cutting* *was stopped.*
(in consequence of) the line	
having been blocked	Oblique Pred. of *line* Adv.
	phrase
(by a) large	Adj. qualifying *fall* Adv. qual.
fall	phrase
	qual. *was stopped.*
of chalk	Adj. phrase „ *blocked*

In this instance, the phrase *in consequence of the line having been blocked* could be replaced by the clause *because the line had been blocked*; cf. the previous example.

Analysis of Combinations of Simple Sentences.

167   The simple sentences are to be analysed one after another in the usual way.   The only points which require separate notice are the following:

Contracted Simple Sentences.

In analysing these the omitted words must be supplied in each of the sentences; thus,

> His treachery amazed and disgusted me.
>
> =His treachery amazed (me) and (his treachery) disgusted me.

Neither, nor:

Where these conjunctions are used, it is best to write *not . . . and not* in place of them; thus,

<div align="center">I neither like nor dislike him.</div>

I	Subject.
(neither) not	Adverb qual. *like*
like	Verb.
(him)	Object understood.
(nor) { and / not	Conjunction joining sentences. / Adverb qual. *dislike*.
(I)	Subject understood.
dislike	Verb.
him	Object.

Co-ordinate Relative Sentences.

In these instances (see § 161) where the relative sentence merely continues the narrative, the relative should be replaced by *and* with the corresponding demonstrative. Thus in analysing the instance given in § 161, we should write:

Who= { and / she	Conjunction joining sentences. / Subject of *told*.

So in

> Then she gained
> Her bower; *whence* re-issuing, robed and crown'd,
> To meet her lord, she took the tax away,

whence=*and thence.*

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Analysis of Compound Sentences.

168   It must be remembered that a compound sentence forms one whole, and that each of its various clauses, however many there may be, is equivalent to a single word in it. Consequently, in analysing a compound sentence, we must proceed at first exactly as if it were a simple sentence, except that the clauses must be written down and treated as if each were a single word.

After the whole sentence has been analysed in this way, each of the clauses must be analysed separately. It must not be forgotten that a clause often forms part of a phrase in the same way as the substantive, adjective, or adverb for which it stands, might do.

Note.—In the analysis of compound sentences it will probably be found unnecessary to make the pupil analyse separately the constituent parts of a phrase, or to treat an adjective apart from the substantive it qualifies.

COMPOUND SENTENCE WITH ONE CLAUSE.

169   First write out the sentence, *underlining the clause.*
Then write down and analyse the whole sentence, treating the clause as one word, and numbering it (1) for reference.
Then analyse the clause as if it were a separate sentence.

Clauses may be (§ 157) substantival, adverbial, or adjectival; we will first consider instances containing **Substantival Clauses.**

It comforts me in this one thought to dwell,
That I subdued me to my father's will.

It	Subject.
comforts	Verb.
me	Direct object of *comforts*.
in this one thought to dwell	} Subst. phrase in apposition to *it*.
that I subdued me to my father s will	Substantival clause (1) in apposition to *thought*.
(1) that	Conjunction.
I	Subject.
subdued	Verb.
me	Direct object.
to my father's will	Adv. phrase, qual. *subdued*.

What this may be I know not.

What this may be	{ Subst. clause (1), direct object of *know*.
I	Subject.
know	Verb.
not	Adverb, qual. *know*.
(1) What	Complement, interrog. pronoun.
this	Subject.
may be	Verb.

It cannot be but that I shall be saved.

It	Subject.
can	Auxiliary verb, with *be*.
not	Adverb, qual. *can*.
(cannot) be	Verb.
but that I shall be saved	Subst. clause (1) in apposition to *it*.

Here, in analysing the clause, it is easiest to treat *but that* as a compound conjunction (cf. *when that*) equivalent to *that . . . not*.

But it would perhaps be more correct to take *but* as a

preposition, making the sentence mean, 'It (the event) cannot be (anything) except that I shall be saved.'

Adverbial Clauses.

Where'er I came, I brought calamity.

Where'er I came	Adv. clause (1), qual. *brought*.
I	Subject.
brought	Verb.
calamity	Direct object.
(1) Where'er	{ Conjunction, + adverb qual. *came* (§ 140).
I	Subject.
came	Verb.

I dipt into the future far as human eye could see.

Here the adverbial clause qualifies the adverb *far*.

His voice was thin, as voices from the grave (are thin).

Here the adverbial clause qualifies the adjective *thin*.

God fulfils Himself in many ways,
Lest one good custom should corrupt the world.

Here the adverbial clause qualifies the whole of the principal sentence (§ 138).

Adjectival Clauses.

What is it that will last?

What	Complement, interrog. pronoun.
is	Verb.
it	Subject.
that will last	Adjective clause (1) qual. *it*.
(1) that	Subject, rel. pronoun.
will last	Verb.

That <u>which I have done</u>
May He within Himself make pure.

That	Object.
which I have done	Adj. clause (1), qual. *that.*
may	Auxiliary verb, with *make.*
He	Subject.
within Himself	Adverbial phrase, qual. *make.*
(may) make	Verb.
pure	Complement, qual. *that.*
(1) which	Object, direct.
I	Subject.
have done	Verb.

I am going a long way with these <u>thou seëst</u>.

I	Subject.
am going	Verb.
a long way	Adv. phrase, qual. *am going.*
with these	
(whom) thou seëst	{ Adj. clause (1) qual. *these* } Adv. phrase, qual. *am going.*
(1) (whom)	Object.
thou	Subject.
seëst	Verb.

It is time <u>that old hysterical mock-disease should die</u>.

Here the clause is adjectival, qualifying *time*; compare the adjectival phrase in 'it is time *for dinner,*' or the adjective in 'it is *dinner* time.'

Judge thou me by <u>what I am</u>.

Here 'what I am'='that which I am.'

Adverbial clauses are frequently introduced by relatives; see § 161.

COMPOUND SENTENCE WITH MORE THAN ONE CLAUSE.

Clauses independent of one another.

170   We will first take some instances in which the clauses depend directly upon the principal sentence, and are independent of one another. In copying out the sentence for analysis, they should be underlined and numbered separately.

> I doubt not <u>through the ages one increasing purpose runs,</u>
> And <u>the thoughts of men are widened with the process of</u>
>   <u>the suns.</u>

I	Subject.
doubt	Verb.
not	Adverb, qual. *doubt.*
(that) through the ages one increasing purpose runs	Subst. clause (1) direct object of *doubt.*
and	Conjunction, joining (1) and (2).
(that) the thoughts of men are widened with the process of the suns	Subst. clause (2), direct object of *doubt.*

(1) (that)	Conjunction.
through the ages	Adv. phrase, qual. *runs.*
one increasing purpose	Subject and qualifications.
runs	Verb.

(2) (that)	Conjunction.
the thoughts of men	Subject and qualifications.
are widened	Verb.
with the process of the suns	Adv. phrase, qual. *are widened.*

I had been content to perish, falling on the foeman's ground,
<u>When the ranks are rolled in vapour</u> and <u>the winds are laid with
  sound.</u>

Here we have two adverbial clauses independent of each
other, ' when the ranks . . .,' and '(when) the winds.'

     Thou art staring at the wall,
<u>Where the dying night lamp flickers</u> and <u>the shadows rise
  and fall.</u>

Here we have two adjectival clauses independent of each
other, both introduced by *where* (= *on which*) and both
qualifying *wall*.

In each of the foregoing instances the two clauses per-
form exactly the same function ; in the following instances
this is not the case.

   Tell me <u>what the time is,</u> <u>if you please.</u>

Here the substantival clause *what the time is* forms the
direct object of *tell*, while the clause *if you please* qualifies
it adverbially. So in

   The man <u>who sold it me,</u> said <u>it was genuine,</u>

who sold it me is an adjectival clause qualifying *man*,
while (*that*) *it was genuine* is a substantival clause forming
the direct object of *said*. Again in

 <u>Although he was armed,</u> he gave up all the money <u>he had,</u>

we have an adverbial clause, *although he was armed*,
and an adjectival clause (*which*) *he had*.

Clauses dependent upon other Clauses.

171 A clause may contain another clause, which again may contain another. In analysing such examples the whole of the clause depending on the principal sentence must be underlined first (including any clauses it may contain); then any clause depending on the first clause must be underlined a second time; then any clause depending on the second clause must be underlined a third time, and so on; see § 163. Clauses in the same degree of dependence upon the principal sentence will thus have the same number of lines under them. Thus,

You take my house <u>when you do take the prop</u>
<u>That doth sustain my house.</u>

You	Subject.
take	Verb.
my house	Direct object.
when you do take the prop that doth sustain my house	Adv. clause (1), qual. *take*.

(1) when	Conj. + adv., qual. *do take*.
you	Subject.
do take	Verb.
the prop	Direct object of *do take*.
that doth sustain my house	Adj. clause (2), qual. *prop*.

(2) that	Subject.
doth sustain	Verb.
my house	Direct object.

Make me feel the wild pulsation that I felt before the strife,
When I heard my days before me, and the tumult of my life.

(You)	Subject.
make	Verb.
me	Object.
feel	Infin., gov. *pulsation.*
the wild pulsation	Object of *feel*
that I felt before the strife, when I heard my days before me, and the tumult of my life	Adjective clause (1), qual. *pulsation.*

Comple-ment.

(1) that	Direct object of *felt.*
I	Subject.
felt	Verb.
before the strife	Adv. phrase, qual. *felt.*
when I heard my days before me	Adverbial clause (2), qual. *felt.*
and	Conjunction, joining (2) and (3).
(when I heard) the tumult of my life	Adverbial clause (3), qual. *felt.*

(2) when	Conj. + adv., qual. *heard.*
I	Subject.
heard	Verb.
my days	Direct object and qualification.
before me	Adv. phrase, qual. *heard.*

(3) (when)	{Conj. + adv., qual. *heard* understood.
(I)	Subject, understood.
(heard)	Verb understood.
the tumult of my life	Direct object with qualifications.

I am that Rosamund, <u>whom men call fair,</u>
<u>If what I was I be.</u>

I	Subject.
am	Verb.
that Rosamund	Complement.
whom men call fair	Adj. clause (1), qual. *Rosamund.*
if what I was I be	Adv. clause (2), qual. *am.*

(1) whom	Direct object of *call.*
men	Subject.
call	Verb.
fair	Complement.

(2) if	Conjunction.
what I was	{ Adj. clause (3), used substantively, forming complement.
I	Subject.
be	Verb.

(3) what	Complement.
I	Subject.
was	Verb.

172 A few examples containing typical difficulties are subjoined :—

For what are men better <u>than sheep or goats</u>
<u>That nourish a blind life within the brain,</u>
<u>If, knowing God, they lift not hands of prayer</u>
<u>Both for themselves and those that call them friend ?</u>

Here there are two adverbial clauses directly dependent upon the principal sentence: (1) *than sheep or goats (are*

good) *that nourish . . . brain*; (2) *if . . . they lift not
. . . friend*. The first qualifies the adjective *better*, the
second qualifies the whole sentence. Then the clause (3)
that nourish . . . is an adjective clause qualifying *sheep*
and *goats*, and (4) *that call . . .* is an adjective clause
qualifying *those*.

What, in line 1, is an adverb = *in what* or *how*.

> From them rose
> A cry that shivered to the tingling stars,
> And, as it were one voice, an agony
> Of lamentation, like a wind, that shrills
> All night in a waste land, where no one comes.

Here the chief difficulty lies in the elliptical clause *as it
were one voice*. When the ellipse it supplied, the sentence
runs: *a cry, an agony of lamentation . . . rose as* (*it would
rise if*) *it were one voice*. The clause *where no one comes*
is, of course, adjectival, and qualifies *land*.

> Losing her carol I stood pensively,
> As one that from a casement leans his head,
> When midnight bells cease ringing suddenly,
> And the old year is dead.

Here the clause, if fully expressed, would run *as one
would stand*, etc.; it qualifies the adverb *pensively*, and
it contains the adjectival clause *that . . . leans*, etc. (qua-
lifying *one*), which again contains the two adverbial
clauses, *when midnight bells . . .*, *and* (*when*) *the old
year . . .*

> For I trust if an enemy's fleet came yonder round by the
> hill,
> And the rushing battle-bolt sang from the three-decker out
> of the foam,
> That the smooth-faced, snub-nosed rogue would leap from
> his counter and till,
> And strike, if he could, were it but with his cheating
> yardwand, home.

Here the direct object of *trust* consists of two substantival clauses, (1) *that the . . . rogue would leap . . . and* (2) *(that the rogue would) strike . . . home.* These are both qualified by the adverbial clauses (3) *if an enemy's fleet . . .,* and (4) *if the rushing battle-bolt . . .,* and the second one is also qualified by the adverbial clause (5) *if he could* and by the elliptical adverbial clause (6) *were it but with his cheating yardwand,* which = *if it were only (possible to strike) with . . .,* etc.

> I never saw,
> Nor shall see, here or elsewhere, till I die,
> Not tho' I live three lives of mortal men,
> So great a miracle as yonder hilt.

Here we have a contraction of two sentences:

(1) I never saw, here or elsewhere, so great a miracle as yonder hilt (is a great miracle).

(2) I never shall see, here or elsewhere, so great a miracle as yonder hilt (is a great miracle), till I die, even if I live three lives of mortal men.

The second sentence is qualified by three adverbial clauses—

      (i) *as yonder hilt,* qualifying *so.*

      (ii) *till I die*

      (iii) *not tho' I live . . .* } qualifying *shall see.*

APPENDIX I

HINTS ON PARSING

THE distinction between Analysis and Parsing may be stated thus :—

We analyse sentences, we parse words.

Analysis considers syntax only; parsing considers the accidence of a word (§ 2) as well as its syntax.

In analysis we may take groups of words together; in parsing we consider each word separately, except in the case of verbal phrases (§ 112),

and even in these each word may be parsed separately.

In parsing a word, we must state, first, what part of speech it is; and then, according to the part of speech, we must give the following particulars :—

Substantive.—1. Whether Proper or Common.
  2. If common, whether Concrete or Abstract.
  3. Gender.
  4. Number.
  5. Case.
  6. Reason for case.

Adjective.—1. Qualitative, Quantitative, or Demonstrative.
  2. Degree.
  3. Gender.
  4. Number.
  5. Case.
  6. Substantive it agrees with.
  7. Whether used attributively or predicatively.

Pronoun.—1. Class.

        2. Whether Substantive or Adjective.

        3. Gender.

        4. Number.

        5. Case.

        6. Reason for case or (if adjective) substantive it agrees with.

        7. Person (if Personal or Relative).

        8. Antecedent (if Relative).

Verb finite.—1. Whether Intransitive or Transitive.

        2. If the latter, substantive it governs.

        3. Subject it agrees with.

        4. Person.

        5. Number.

        6. Tense.

        7. Mood.

        8. Voice.

        9. Conjugation.

Participle (if parsed separately) :—

        1. Tense.

        2. Voice.

        3. Verb it is formed from.

        4. Conjugation of verb.

        5. Substantive it agrees with.

        6. Substantive it governs, if any.

Infinitive (if parsed separately) :—

        1. Tense.

        2. Voice.

        3. Case.

        4. Reason for case.

Gerund.—1. Whether Present or Perfect.

        2. Voice.

        3. Verb it is formed from.

        4. Conjugation of Verb.

        5. Substantive it governs, if any.

        6. Case.

        7. Reason for case.

Adverb.—1. Class.
        2. Degree.
        3. Word it qualifies.
Conjunction.—1. Whether Co-ordinating or Subordinating.
        2. What it connects.
        3. If adverbial, what it qualifies.
Preposition.—1. Substantive it governs.

APPENDIX II

PUNCTUATION

The **Stops** used in English, arranged according to importance, are

The comma,	,
The semi-colon,	;
The colon,	:
The full-stop or period,	.

Other signs, not properly stops, employed in writing are

The note of interrogation,	?
The note of exclamation,	!
The parenthesis,	( )
Inverted commas,	" " ' '

The first two of these are really directions as to the tone of voice in which a sentence should be read.

The following are a few general principles of punctuation; but it must be remembered that it is exceedingly difficult to lay down definite rules, since even the best writers are by no means agreed as to the use of stops in writing, and further, there is a fashion in stops as in most other things. At present the colon is so unfashionable as to have almost disappeared from current literature.

PRACTICAL HINTS ON PUNCTUATION

1. Avoid the use of unnecessary stops, especially commas, when the sense is clear without them. Dean Alford says : 'The great enemies to understanding anything printed in our language are the commas.'

2. Use the comma

     i. To separate short co-ordinate sentences: *e.g., He heard it, but he heeded not.*

    ii. To separate clauses from principal sentence: *e.g., He started, though he had had no breakfast.*

   iii. To separate strings of words in the same construction: *e.g., The wisest, brightest, meanest of mankind.*
                Darkly, deeply, beautifully blue.

    iv. To separate noun in opposition from principal noun : *e.g., Richard, the King, made me.*

     v. To separate a nominative of address from the sentence : *e.g., William, did you post that letter ?*

3. Use the colon or semi-colon between sentences which are independent in construction, but too closely connected in meaning to be separated by a full-stop :

        e.g., The poetry shines, in spite of him, through the dull pedantry of his eleven books ; it is discernible in the most tedious and in the most superficial works on the early times of Rome.

4. Use the full stop at the end of sentences and after abbreviations.

5. Use the note of interrogation after direct questions.

6. Use a note of exclamation after interjections, exclamatory sentences and invocations.

7. Use the parenthesis for words which do not enter in the construction of the sentence or clause in which they stand.

8. Use inverted commas to mark off quotations.

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