ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

BY THE

REV. RICHARD MORRIS, M.A., LL.D.,

VICE-PRESIDENT OF THE PHILOLOGICAL SOCIETY,

Author of " Historical Outlines of English Accidence," " Elementary Lessons in Historical English Grammar," &c.

First printed 1874.

Reprinted March, Ju'y, 1875, 1876 ; *September, November,* 1877,
1878, 1879, ; *January, October,* 1880, 1882, 1883, 1884,
1885, 1886, 1888, 1889.

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

CHAPTER I.

CHAPTER II.

CHAPTER III.

CHAPTER IV.

CHAPTER V.

CHAPTER VI.

CHAPTER XIII.

PRIMER

OF

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTION.

Relation of English to other Languages,

§ 1. EVERY language has a history of its own, and it may be made to tell us its own *life*, so to speak, if we set the right way to work about it.

There are *two* ways of getting at this history. The first mode is by *comparing* one language with others that are well known to us. The second is by studying the literature of a language in order of time, or chronologically, beginning with the very oldest written books, and coming down to the latest and newest.

The first or *comparative* method is one that you have no doubt tried yourselves upon a small scale, when you have noticed how closely our word *house* resembles the German *haus*, or English *thou hast* the German *du hast*. You may have asked yourselves, too, whether this *likeness* in words and in grammar proves that one of the languages is borrowed from the

other, as some have innocently supposed, or whether both have come from one parent, and are, so to speak, *brothers* or *sisters*.

But the English are quite as ancient a people as the Germans, and their language is as old as German, if not older, so that it would be decidedly wrong to infer that the one language came from or was borrowed from the other. So we are bound to admit that English and German are *akin*, or related to each other, by having descended from a common parent.

§ 2. Scholars have carried out this comparison with a large number of languages, and have shown us that English is related, not only to German, but more closely to *Dutch, Danish,* &c., and more remotely to *Welsh, Latin, Greek, Russian, Persian, Hindi,* &c.

They have called these kindred tongues the **Indo-European** family of languages.

They have grouped together, too, those languages that most resemble one another.

The chief groups in Europe are—

(1) **Keltic,** containing the Welsh, Irish, Gaelic, Manx, and Armorican languages.[*]

(2) **Romanic** or **Italic,** containing *Latin* and the dialects sprung from Latin, called the *Romance* languages (Italian, French, Spanish, and Portuguese, &c.).

(3) **Hellenic** or **Grecian,** containing Ancient and Modern Greek.

(4) **Slavonic,** containing the Russian, Polish, and Bohemian languages.

[*] Armorican = Brittany.

(5) **Teutonic,** containing (*a*) English, Dutch, Flemish.
                               (*b*) Icelandic, Swedish, Danish,
                                     Norwegian.
                              (*c*) Modern German.

§ 3. They have proved—

(1) That our language belongs to a group called **Teutonic.**

(2) That English is most like *Dutch, Frisian,* and *Flemish.* These, including English, are called **Low-German** languages, because they were spoken originally along the low-lying shores of the German Ocean and Baltic Sea.

(3) That our language closely resembles *Icelandic, Danish, Norwegian,* and *Swedish,* which are called **Scandinavian** languages.

(4) That it is also, as we have seen, in many ways like the modern German language which was at first spoken only in the highlands of Central and Southern Germany, and which is hence called **High-German.**

§ 4. History confirms the story told us by those who have studied languages in the way we have described, for we know that the first Englishmen, the *Angles,* came from the land of the Low Germans on the continent, and settled in Britain during the fifth century, and the country was called after them *England,* or "the land of the Angles." We know, too, that there were other *Low-German* tribes that

came along with them, and spoke the same language. The *Saxons* were the most important of these, and have left their names in their old settlements of *Sussex, Wessex, Essex,* and *Middlesex.*

§ 5. The second mode of arriving at the history of a language by means of its literature is called the *historical* method. We have a very long and complete series of English works, written at different periods, and going as far back as the ninth century (to the time of Alfred). From these written documents of the language we learn—

(1) How English has changed from time to time, and how many important events in the history of the English people are bound up with the changes that have taken place in the English language.

(2) That we have *gradually* lost a large number of grammatical endings or *inflexions*, which we have replaced by using distinct words for them, instead of adopting new endings.

At one time we could translate Lat. "bib-*ere*" by "drinc-*an*," but now by *to* drink.

(3) That though we have lost very many of our old English words, and have replaced them by others of foreign origin, yet all the most common and useful words, as well as *all* our grammar, are thoroughly English, and not borrowed.

(4) That we have greatly added to our stock of words from various sources, of which the following are the most important:

1. Keltic words. We have a few words (*crag, glen, pool, mattock*, &c.) which the old English settlers took from the Keltic inhabitants of Britain, just as our countrymen in America still retain a *few* words borrowed from the native Indian tribes that once peopled that continent.

2. Scandinavian words. The *Danish Invasion* introduced some few *Scandinavian* words, as *busk, dairy, fellow, fro, gait, ill, same, till, are*, &c.

3. Latin words. The bulk of our borrowed words are, however, of Latin origin, and came into the language at different times:

i. The old English invaders adopted the names which the Romans had left behind in Britain for a fortified station (*castra*), a paved road (*strata*), and a rampart (*vallum*), which we still retain in Man-*chester*, Don-*caster*, &c.; *street* and *wall*.

ii. The Roman priests and monks, who brought Christianity to our forefathers in the sixth century, introduced some Latin words belonging to religion, worship, &c., as *bishop, priest, monk, mass, minister*, &c., as well as the names of a few things they brought with them: *butter, cheese, pease, pepper*, &c.

iii. The *Norman Conquest* in 1066 was the means, through French, of introducing fresh Latin words much altered from their original form, as *caitiff, frail, feat* (*cp. captive, fragile, fact*).

iv. Through the *revival of learning*, which took place in the sixteenth century, the Latin language became familiar to educated men, and English writers introduced into the language very many Latin words with very little change of form. Hence we are able to distinguish between the French Latin and the later Latin words : thus *poor, poison*, come through Norman-French, while *pauper, potion*, come straight from the Latin, and are due to English writers.

4. Greek words. We have also borrowed many scientific and philosophical words from the Greek language, as *archæology, botany, physics, ethics, music*, &c.

5. Miscellaneous words. There are miscellaneous words in our vocabulary from numerous other languages. Our word *tea* is Chinese ; *canoe* is American-Indian ; *yacht* is Dutch ; and *cypher* is Arabic, &c.

GRAMMAR AND ITS DIVISIONS.

§ 6. **Language** is made up of words.

Grammar is the statement of the facts and rules we have arrived at concerning the words that make up a language. We may examine words in three ways: (i) as to their *sounds*; (ii) as to their *meaning, form,* and *origin*; (iii) as to the way they are combined with other words to make a statement.

i. If we examine a word as we *hear* it, we find that it consists of one or more *sounds*. These sounds are represented to the eye by written signs called *letters*.

ii. Words may be put into classes, or *classified* according to their distinctive uses. Words sometimes undergo change when combined with other words, or when they have something added to them to form new words.

iii. Words are combined according to certain laws.

Hence *Grammar* deals with the following subjects:

(1) Sounds and Letters: (**Orthography**).

(2) Classification, inflexion, and derivation: (**Etymology**).

(3) The relations of the words of a sentence to one another, and the relations of sentences to one another: (**Syntax**).

ORTHOGRAPHY.

I. Sounds and Letters.

§ 7. All sounds are not produced exactly in the same way. Some sounds are produced by means of the tongue and cavity of the mouth, which modify the breath before it passes into the air, as *a* in *father*, *i* in *machine*, *oo* in *fool*, &c. These simple sounds are called **vowels.**

Vowels were so called because they made distinct *voices* or atterances and formed syllables by themselves. (Fr. *voyelle*, Lat. *vocalis*.) Two vowels sometimes unite to form a *Diphthong*, as *oi* in *boil*, *ai* in *aisle*, &c.

§ 8. Other sounds are produced by the direct means of the *lips*, *teeth*, &c., which are called the organs of speech. These sounds are called **consonants,** as *b*, *d*, &c.

Lip-sounds are called *Labials*; *teeth*-sounds *Dentals*; *throat*-sounds *Gutturals*; *hissing*-sounds *Sibilants*.

Consonants (Lat. *consonare*, to sound along with) were so called because they could not make a distinct syllable without being *sounded along with* a vowel.

Some consonant sounds seem to have a little breath attached to them and may be prolonged. Such sounds are called **spirants** (Lat. *spirare*, to breathe), as *f*, *th*, &c.

The other consonants, in sounding which the breath seems stopped, are called **mutes** or *dumb* sounds.

Of the mutes and spirants some seem to have a **flat** sound, and others a **sharp** sound, as—

b (flat)   p (sharp):   z (flat)   s (sharp)

I. Consonant Sounds.

		MUTES.		SPIRANTS.		
	Flat	Sharp.	Nasal.	Flat.	Sharp.	Trilled
Gutturals	G̈ hard	K	NG	...	H	...
Palatals .	J	Ch (soft)	...	Y	...	...
Palatal Sibilants	}	...	...	Zh (azure)	Sh (sure)	R
Dental Sibilants	}	...	...	Z (prize)	S (mouse)	L
Dentals .	D	T	N	Dh (bathe)	Th (bath)	...
Labials .	B	P	M	V W (witch)	F Wh (which)	...

II. Vowel Sounds.

a in gnat.
a in pair.
a in fame.
a in father.
a in all.
a in want.
e in met.

e in meet.
i in knit.
o in not.
o in note.
oo in fool, rude.
oo in wood, put.
u in nut.

III. Diphthongs.

i in high.	*ou* in how, bound.
ai in aisle.	*ew* in mew.
oi in boil.	

The pupil must not confound the *sound* with the name of the letter; "*be*" is only the *name* of the sign *b*, not the sound it represents.

The Alphabet.

§ 9. An Alphabet is a collection of written signs called **letters**.

The word Alphabet is derived from *Alpha, Beta*, the names of the first two letters of the Greek alphabet. An old name for our collection of letters was **ABC**.

There ought to be as many *letters* in a perfect alphabet as there are *sounds* in the language. We have forty-three sounds, which ought to be represented by forty-three letters. Our alphabet is very imperfect, for it consists of only twenty-six letters. Three of these (*c, q, x*) are not wanted, so that we have really only twenty-three useful letters.

(1) One letter has to stand for more than one sound, as s in seas; ch in ch**urch**, *ma*ch*ine*, ch*emistry*; g in g*irl* and g*in*. (See a, p. 17.)

(2) The same sound is represented by different signs; as o in n*ote*, b*oa*t, *t*oe, *cr*ow, &c

(3) There are many silent letters, as in p*salm*, g*nat*, k*now*, *calf*.

(4) *c, q, x*, are called redundant letters: **c** may be represented by *s* or *k*, **q** by *kw*, and **x** by *ks*.

§ 10. Occasional Change of Sound in English.

When Consonants are combined, if they are unlike, one of them *assimilates*, or becomes like the other. Thus, if the first is a *sharp* sound, the second, if *flat*, will become *sharp* ; as *weeped*, we*pt*.

A *flat* consonant must be followed by a flat consonant, and a *sharp* consonant by a *sharp* one ; as,

   I.—(1) *slabs*, pronounced *slabz*.
       (2) *bathes*   ,,   *bathz*.
       (3) *hugged*   ,,   *hugd*.
          lagged   ,,   *lagd*.

II.—(1) *slap-s*.
      (2) *bath-s* (gives a bath).
      (3) *sleeped*, pronounced *slept*.
         lacked   ,,   *lackt*.

The original sound of *s* was sharp, as in *mouss*.

CHAPTER II.

ETYMOLOGY.

PARTS OF SPEECH.

§ 11. ALL WORDS ARE USED TO TELL US SOMETHING. WE ARRANGE THEM IN DIFFERENT CLASSES ACCORDING TO WHAT THEY TELL US IN A SENTENCE.

1. Words used as *names* are called **Nouns**; as, *John* saw a *snake* in the *garden*.

2. Words used *for Nouns* are called **Pronouns**; as, *I* told John the snake would not hurt *him* or *me*, if *he* left *it* alone, to go *its* own way.

A *Pronoun* differs from a *Noun* in that it *indicates* a thing not by its own name, but, either by a perfectly general term, as *any*, *either*, *one*, &c., or by a term made definite by reference to something else, as *I*, *him*, *who*, &c.

3. Words used *with Nouns* to distinguish or describe the thing named are called **Adjectives**; as, *The* humble-bees are known by their *large* size and *hairy* bodies, often of *a black* colour with *orange* bands.

Adjectives tell us about things, *of what sort, how many*, and *which* they are.

4. Words used for stating what anything *does* or *is done to*, or *in what state it exists*, are called **Verbs**;

as, One day John *saw* a rat *come* out of a hole ; he *found* it *was hurt* ; it *seemed* very old.

5. Words used *with Verbs* to mark or describe in some way what is done, are called **Adverbs** ; as, The lark soars *aloft*, and *always* sings *sweetly*.

Adverbs most commonly tell us the *when*, the *where*, or the *how* of what is done. They are also much used with **Adjectives** and other **Adverbs** to mark their meanings in various ways [see Chap. VII. p. 82] ; as, My father is *quite* well ; he is *very seldom* ill ; he does not like to take *too* much medicine.

6. Words used with *Nouns* (or *Pronouns*) to join them to *verbs*, *adjectives*, and other *nouns*, are called **Prepositions** ; as, *On* Monday last, early *in* the morning, as John was walking *along* the side *of* the river, he saw a snake *of* a large size, which he killed *by* striking it *with* his whip.

Prepositions join words together to show their bearing to one another ; as, side—river ; side *of* the river.

The *noun* or *pronoun* with the *preposition* depends upon the word to which it is joined ; as, in "a man *of wisdom*," "*of wisdom*" depends on "*man*."

The preposition with its noun is mostly of the same value as an *adjective* or an *adverb*. Thus : "a man *of wisdom*" = "a *wise* man" (adj.); "he came *on shore*" = "he came *ashore*" (adv.).

Some *prepositions* cannot well be separated from the words which they come before ; as, *a-loft*, *in vain*, *at last*, *in deed*. We must parse these compounds as *adverbs*. (See 5, above.)

7. Words used to join *sentences* together are called **Conjunctions** ; as, Birds fly *and* fish swim, *but* worms creep along the ground, *for* they have no power to do otherwise *or* else they would.

8. Words used to express a sudden feeling are called **Interjections.** They might be called **Exclamations;** as, *Oh! Alas!*

There are, as we have seen, eight **Parts of Speech :**—

1. Noun.	5. Adverb.
2. Pronoun.	6. Preposition.
3. Adjective.	7. Conjunction.
4. Verb.	8. Interjection.

On Parsing.

§ 12. When we state to what class or *part* of speech a word belongs, we are said to *parse* it.

We must bear in mind that we cannot do this offhand, by merely looking at the word. We must ask ourselves *what duty it is doing in the sentence* to which it belongs, before we can parse it accurately.

The same word may be a *noun* in one part of a sentence, an *adjective* in another, a *verb* in a third, and so on ; as, John exchanged his *silver* watch for a lump of *silver*, with which he meant to *silver* some metal coins. The first " silver " is an *adjective*, the second a *noun*, and the third a *verb*.

Cp. "I cannot *second* you in trying to get the *second* place on the list without thinking a *second* or two about it."

"I learnt all my lessons *but* one, *but* that was very hard ; had I had *but* more time I could have learnt it very well."

The first *but* = *except*, is a *preposition* ; the second joins two sentences, and is therefore a *conjunction* ; the third = *only*, is an *adverb*.

The word *that* may be an *adjective*, a *pronoun*, or a *conjunction*. "John said *that that* word *that* he had just parsed was a pronoun."

As may be an *adverb*, a *conjunction*, or a *pronoun*. "I am *as* wise *as* my elder brother, who has had the same teaching *as* I have had."

It must be recollected that some *pronouns* can be used as adjectives ; as, "*That's* the boy *that* took *that* splendid book of yours off your table."

Many words that are often used as *adverbs* may be used as *conjunctions*. "*Now* all is ready, come *now*, and don't delay a moment." "John was *so* naughty yesterday, he would climb about, *so* he fell down."

[See ENGLISH GRAMMAR EXERCISES, Ex. I.]

On Changes that Words undergo.

§ 13. Some words alter their form to modify their meaning, that is, to express a new kind of relation to other words ; thus *child* becomes (1) *children*, to show that more than one are meant ; (2) *child's*, to show that something is possessed by a child.

"We *sleep*," becomes "we *slept*," to show that the action of *sleeping* is not now going on, but took place in some time gone by or past.

Only the **Noun, Pronoun, Adjective, Verb,** and some few **Adverbs,** undergo such a change of form.

These changes, called *inflexions*, are mostly brought about by putting some additional letter or syllable to the end of a word. These additions are often spoken of as inflexional **endings** or **suffixes** of inflexion.

There are other suffixes not inflexional which are used in word-making, as by the suffix *ness* we may form the noun *goodness*, from the adjective *good*.

1. The addition of a letter or syllable to the end of a word often causes a change in the word itself; as, *sleep-ed* becomes (1) *sleep-d*, (2) *slĕp-t*; cp. *gold* and *gild-en*, (now *gilt*) *nātion* and *nătional*, *goose* and *gŏsling*.

2. The ending has sometimes disappeared altogether, and the internal change does duty for an inflexion. Thus, the word *mĕn* (for *mannis*) has really lost the ending that brought about the change; cp. *lead, led* (once *ledde*); *feed, fed* (once *fedde*).

3. The loss of a letter in the middle of a word causes change; cp. *ē'er* for *ĕver*. It is this change that explains *made* from *maked;* *stile* from *stigel*, &c.

§ 14. English has lost very many endings, but it is not any the worse off on that account. It supplies their place by what we may call *relational* words (or words that carry us to some other word in the same sentence). Thus: instead of saying " a *bat's* wing," we can say " a wing *of a bat*." Here *of* does duty for the ending *'s*.

We say " a *lion-ess* " to show that we are naming the *female*. We might say " a *she*-lion," just as we always speak of " a *she*-bear." The word *she* does exactly the same duty, and marks the same notion, as the ending *-ess*.

In fact, these endings, which now mean little by themselves, but modify greatly the words to which they are added, were once independent words; as, *ly* in *god-ly* is only a corruption of the word *like* in *god-like*.

CHAPTER III.

NOUNS.

I. DEFINITION.

§ 15. A Noun is a word used as a name.

The word *Noun* comes from Fr. *nom*, Lat. *nomen*, a name, that by which anything is known.

II. CLASSIFICATION.

§ 16. There are two kinds of nouns:

1. Proper.
2. Common.

A **Proper Noun** is the name of only one person or thing considered individually in the same sense; as, *Henry, London, Jupiter*.

Proper means "belonging to oneself," not possessed by another, peculiar to one thing.

A **Common Noun** is the name of each individual in the same class or sort of things; as, *man, girl, city, tree*.

Common Nouns include what are called **Collective Nouns** and **Abstract Nouns**.

(1) When a noun stands for a number (or *collection*) of persons or things considered as *one* it is called a **Collective Noun**; as, "a jury."

(2) When a noun is the name of a *quality*, *property*, or *action*, it is called an **Abstract Noun**; as, *whiteness, honesty, love, reading.* The word *abstract* means drawn off. Abstract nouns are so called because they are the names of qualities or states considered apart from the objects to which they belong. We see and speak of a *white flower*, but we may *think and speak* of the *whiteness* alone.

The form of the verb with *to* before it is used as an *abstract* noun; as "*to play* cricket is pleasanter than *to learn* grammar."

III. INFLEXIONS.

§ 17. Nouns and Pronouns have inflexions to mark **Gender, Number,** and **Case.**

i. Gender of Nouns.

§ 18. **Gender** is that form of the noun which shows whether we are speaking of male or female beings. The names of males are called **Masculine** nouns. The names of females are called **Feminine** nouns.

The word *gender* (Fr. *genre*, Lat. *genus*) means *kind* or *class*. It belongs only to words: thus the person *man* is of the male sex, but the word *man* is *masculine* or of the *masculine* gender.

Originally in English, and still in many other languages, the term *gender* applies to the *forms* of nouns, pronouns, and adjectives, quite independently of their meanings.

In modern English, *gender* is more a part of derivation than of inflexion.

The names of things without life are called **Neuter** nouns, because they are of *neither* gender.

A noun that is *either* masculine or feminine is said to be of the Common gender ; as *parent* (father or mother), *child* (boy or girl).

When the masculine and feminine have each a distinct ending, then we have what is strictly termed grammatical *gender*, as—

	Masc.		Fem.
	murder-er	and	murder-ess.
	sorcer-er	,,	sorcer-ess.

But such words are *now* very few, and the masculine noun occurs most often without any ending to mark gender, as—

	Masc.		Fem.
	giant	and	giant-ess.
	peer	,,	peer-ess.

We have chiefly to consider then the endings of feminine nouns.

The feminine is formed from the masculine by the suffix -ess.

	Masc.	Fem.
	heir	heir-ess.
	founder	foundr-ess.
	actor	actr-ess.
	cater-er	cater-ess.

This suffix comes to us from the Norman-French -esse (Lat. *-issa*). It is not found in the language before the twelfth century. It is now the only common mode of forming the feminine. Its present use is restricted ; it cannot be put to *every* masculine noun.

In some few borrowed words we have feminine endings of foreign origin, as—

Masc.		Fem.
executor	and	execu-**trix.**
hero	,,	hero-**ine.**
sultan	,,	sultan-**a.**

§ 19. Remains of Older Modes of Marking the Feminine.

1. By the suffix -**ster.**

Spin-*ster*, the name of an unmarried woman, once signified a female spinner.

In O.E. many masculines in -*er* had a corresponding feminine in -*ster*: as,

Masc.	Fem.
O. E. *bæc-ere* = baker,	*bæc-estre* = baxter.
sang-ere = sing-er,	*sang-estre* = song-stress.

In the 14th century the N. Fr. -*ess* took the place of the older -*ster* as a feminine ending. After a time, -*ster* merely marked the agent, as in *songster* and *sempster*; then, to mark the feminine, -*ess* was tacked on to -*ster*, as in *song-str-ess*, and *semp-str-ess.*

2. By the suffix -**en.**

Vix-*en*, the old feminine of *fox* (once pronounced *vox* in some parts of England).

Irregular Forms.

Bridegroom (= the bride's man) is formed from the feminine *bride.* The word *groom* (for *goom*) once meant *man.*

Gander is formed from an old root, *gans*, a goose.

Drake (= duck-king) is formed from the old roots, *nd*, a duck, and *rake*, a king.

Lady is the feminine of *lord*.

Laes (= lad-ess) is the feminine of *lad*.

Woman is a compound of *wife* and *man*.

§ 20. As a substitute for suffixes of gender we can make a compound term by putting a masculine or feminine word to a noun of the common gender; as,

he-goat,	*she*-goat.
man-servant,	*maid*-servant.

We have many distinct words for the masculine and the feminine, the use of which does not belong to grammar.

ii. Number.

§ 21. **Number** is that form of the noun *or* pronoun which marks whether we are speaking of one thing or more than one.

When a noun *or* pronoun signifies one thing, it is said to be of the **Singular** number.

When a noun *or* pronoun denotes more than one of the same kind, it is said to be of the **Plural number.**

§ 22. Formation of the Plural of Nouns.

General Rule.—The plural is formed by adding -s to the singular; as, book-*s*, bag-*s*, boy-*s*.

The letter *s* stands for two distinct sounds : (1) for the sharp sound in book-*s*, and (2) for the flat sound *z* in bag-*s*, boy-*s*. (See § 10, p. 19.)

Our plural s is a shortened form of O.E. *as*. Thus the plural of *smith* was first *smith-as*, then *smith-es*, and finally *smiths*.

Modifications of the General Rule.

1. Singular Nouns ending in s, z, x, sh, soft ch, j (all containing an *s* sound), form the plural by the syllable es (pronounced ez); as, gas-*es*, box-*es*, brush-*es*, church-*es*, judg-*es*.

2. Nouns of English origin ending in f, fe, having l or any long vowel (except *oo*) before f, fe, change *f* into *v* when adding the sign of the plural.

Singular.	Plural.
loaf,	loaves.
wife,	wives.
wolf,	wolves.

The words *life, wife*, were once written without the final *e*, and the plural *es* made a distinct syllable.

3. Words ending in *y* (not preceded by a vowel) form the plural by changing *y* into *i* and adding *es*; as,

Singular.	Plural.
lady,	ladies.
fly,	flies.

In such words as *soliloquy* the *qu* (=*kw*) is treated as a consonant and *y* is changed into *i* before the addition of the plural sign, as *soliloquies*, &c.

§ 23. REMAINS OF OLDER MODES OF FORMING THE PLURAL.

1. By change of vowel.

Singular.	Plural.
man,	men.
foot,	feet.
tooth,	teeth.
mouse,	mice.

2. By the ending -en.

    (*a*) ox-*en*, hos-*en*, shoo-*n* (shoes).

    (*b*) ki-*ne*, childr-*en*, brethr-*en*.

Ki-ne has two marks of the plural, change of vowel and the suffix -*en*.

Childr-e-*n* and brethr-e-*n* are also double plurals.

3. Some nouns have one form for the singular and plural ; as, *sheep, deer, swine*.

§ 24. (1) Some words have two plural forms, one of which is older than the other. They have different meanings.

Older form.		Modern form.
brethren	and	brothers.
pennies	,,	pence.
clothes	,,	cloths.

(2) Some words are used only in the *singular*.

    (*a*) Proper names, (*b*) abstract nouns, (*c*) collective nouns, (*d*) names of metals, materials, &c.: *Milton, temperance, cavalry, gold, leather*, &c.

(3) Others are used only in the *plural*.

    (*a*) Parts of the body, (*b*) articles of dress, (*c*) tools, (*d*) masses of things : *lights, bowels, drawers, tongs, shears, ashes*, &c.

§ 25. Foreign words, if naturalised, form their plural regularly by adding *s* to the singular: *indexes, focuses, funguses*, &c.

All nouns treated as foreign words retain their foreign plurals ; as—

Singular.	Plural.
formula,	formulæ.
datum,	data.
phenomenon,	phenomena.
crisis,	crises.

iii. Case.

§ 26. **Case** is that form of the noun (*or* pronoun) which shows its bearing *or* relation to some other word in the sentence. (See § 14, p. 24.)

The Teacher must first explain the Subject, Predicate, and Object of a Sentence, before attempting to discuss cases. (See § 118, p. 109)

§ 27. When a noun (*or* pronoun) is the subject of a sentence it is said to be in the **Nominative** case; as, *John* sings, *I* like to listen.

It is called the *Nominative* because it *names* the person or thing that does or suffers the action stated by the verb.

To find the Nominative, ask a question by putting *who* or *what* before the verb, and the answer will be the Nominative. Thus, in the example above, if we ask " Who sings?" " Who likes?" The answers will be *John* and *I*, which are the Nominatives.

§ 28. When a noun stands for the person spoken to or addressed, it is said to be in the **Vocative** case. It has the same form as the Nominative, and is sometimes called the *Nominative of Address*; as, *Father*, come and look here! O *Sir*, do not be angry.

§ 29. When a noun stands for the object of an action it is said to be in the **Objective** case; as, John killed a *rat*.

The *Objective* case of nouns is now like the *Nominative*, but it was not always so, and is not now so *in the case of pronouns*. The *Objective* in English includes—

(1) The **direct object** after a transitive verb; as, "He struck *James.*" "He hurt his *foot.*" To find the *direct* object, ask a question with *whom* or *what* before the verb, and the answer will give it; e.g., "Whom did he strike?" "What did he hurt?" *James, foot,* which are the direct objects.

In Latin we should call the direct object the *Accusative* case.

(2) The **indirect object**, which is equivalent to a noun with the preposition **to** or **for** before it; as, "Give *John* his book." "He bears *William* a grudge." "Build *me* a house." *William* = to William, *John* = to John, *me* = for me.

The **indirect object** answers to the *Dative* in Latin and other languages. In O.E. there was a suffix to distinguish this case (in the singular and plural) from the direct object (*or* accusative).

The form of the verb with *to* before it, when it denotes purpose, and is used as an *adverbial phrase*, was originally a dative case of the simple infinitive. (See Chap. vi. § 65, p. 53.) "What went ye out *to see?*" *to see = for seeing.*

(3) A **noun after a preposition**; as, "He put his foot on the *ground.*" "He came from *London*," &c.

It must be recollected that in English the *preposition* along with a following noun is equal to a *case form* in Latin.

§ 30. When a noun by its form denotes the possessor, it is said to be in the **Possessive** case; as, "the *boy's* book," "the *cat's* tail," "the *sun's* rays."

(*a*) The *Possessive* case is the only form of the noun that expresses a relation by means of an *ending* or *suffix*. The difference between the *Nominative* and *Objective* must be thought out, the sense and position being our guides in determining which is used.

C

(*b*) We use the *Possessive* case simply to mark possession. It is chiefly used with reference to *living* things. The preposition *of* is used instead of the inflexion in other instances; as, "The roof of the house;" not, as we could once say, "The *house's* roof."

In old English this case corresponded to the *Genitive* in German, Latin, &c. Nouns of time still keep it; as, "a *week's* supply," "a *day's* journey."

§ 31. FORMATION OF THE POSSESSIVE CASE.

The Possessive case is formed by adding 's to the Nominative.

> Singular man-'s
> Plural   men-'s

Exception.—Nouns forming their plural by s take the apostrophe only.

> Singular boy-'s   sweep-'s
> Plural   boys'   sweeps'

In the spoken language the possessive singular does not differ from the possessive plural, *boy's* and *boys'* being pronounced alike.

(*a*) The apostrophe is really a mere written device for distinguishing the possessive case from the plural number of the noun. It came into use about the 17th century. *Apostrophe* means "turned away," and is so called because it shows that something has been omitted; cp. *e'en = even.* The real omission is the letter *e*; *lord's* and *lords'* were once written and pronounced *lord-ës.*

(*b*) At one time it was supposed that *'s* meant *his*, and we actually find some writers using such expressions as "the king *his* crown."

The apostrophe is sometimes used to mark the loss of the possessive sign in the singular ; as, " *Moses'* law," "for *justice'* sake." The sign ' is no real case form.

§ 32. DECLENSION OF A NOUN.

Nominative and Vocative	Singular.	Plural.		Singular.	Plural.
	man	men		child	children
Possessive	man's	men's		child's	children's
Objective	man	men		child	children

Nominative and Vocative	Sing.	Plural.	Sing.	Plural.	Sing.	Plural.
	boy	boys	fox	foxes	thief	thieves
Possessive	boy's	boys'	fox's	foxes'	thief's	thieves'
Objective	boy	boys	fox	foxes	thief	thieves

CHAPTER IV.

ADJECTIVES.

I. DEFINITION.

§ 33. An **Adjective** is a word used with a noun to distinguish or describe the thing named or spoken of.

Adjective (Lat. *adjectivum*) means "added to."

II. CLASSIFICATION.

§ 34. Some Adjectives express *quality*; as, *large, tall, rich*; others denote *quantity* or *number*; as, *much, little, few, one, both*; others again point out and limit the thing spoken of; as, "*a* book," "*the* man." Hence there are three kinds of Adjectives:

      1. Adjectives of Quantity.
      2.   ,,   ,, Quality.
      3. Demonstrative Adjectives.

Many of the pronouns are used as adjectives; as, *this, that, each, every*, &c.

§ 35. The Adjectives an, a, and the are sometimes called **Articles**.

In that case, an or a is called the *Indefinite Article*, and the the *Definite Article*.

An or **a** is used before a noun to show that *any one* thing is spoken of; as "*an* apple" = any apple.

An drops *n* and becomes **a** before a consonant; as, " *a* book," " *a* history," " *a* yew-tree."

An is another form of the word *one.* Cp. " all of *a* size = all of *one* size."

No, meaning *not one,* is used for " *not a* ;" as, " he is *no* dunce."

The is used before a noun to show that some particular person or thing is spoken of ; as " *the* man," " *the* boy."

Parse the as an adverb in " so much *the* more," " *the* more *the* merrier :" here the = *by that.*

III. INFLEXIONS.

§ 36. The **Adjective** once had inflexions to mark *gender, number,* and *case.* It now only changes its form to mark **comparison**.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

§ 37. The Adjective has three forms to express *Degrees of Comparison*, the **Positive, Comparative,** and **Superlative**.

The **Positive** is the adjective in its simple form ; as, " a *small* boat," " a *tall* man."

The **Comparative** is formed by adding -er to the Positive ; as, " a small-er boat," " a tall-er man." It is used when *two* things or two sets of things are compared, to show that one of them possesses the quality in a greater degree than the other.

The **Superlative** is formed by adding -est to the Positive; as, "the small-est boat," "the tall-est man."

It is used when one thing is compared with several others of the same kind, to show that it possesses the quality in a higher degree than any of them; as, "John is the tall-*est* boy in his class."

- (*a*) When the Positive ends in a silent e, *-r* and *-st* only are added; as, large, large-r, large-st.
- (*b*) When the Positive ends in y (not preceded by a vowel), y is changed into i before the endings; as, happ*y*, happ*i*-er, happ*i*-est.

Words of more than two syllables, and most words of two syllables, are compared by the adverbs *more* and *most*; as, "*more* valiant," "*most* valiant."

The words that are compared by the inflexions (*er* and *est*) are mostly pure English words.

§ 38. Irregular Comparisons.

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
1. late,	latter, later,	last, latest.
nigh,	nigher (near),*	nighest, next.
near,	nearer,	nearest.
old,	elder, older,	eldest, oldest.
2. good,	better,	best.
bad, ill, evil, }	worse,	worst.
little,	less,	least.
much, many, }	more.	most.

(1) Late has two comparatives and superlatives; of these,

* Old.

latter and *last* (the ones most changed) are the oldest, cp. *near, next*; *elder, eldest.*

> Last is a contraction of an old form *lat-st = lat-est.*
>
> Next is a contraction of *nighest* (cp. O.E. *nêh-st*, in which the *h* was a sharp guttural, sounded as *ch* in *loch*).
>
> Near was once *comparative.*
>
> Elder, eldest, have *vowel change*, as well as inflexion.

(2) The comparatives and superlatives in Group 2 are all formed from *positives* no longer in use.

> Better comes from a root bat, *bôt, bet* = good (cp. our "to *boot*"), with change of vowel, as in *elder.*
>
> Best = *bet-st = bet-est*, cp. *last.*
>
> Wor-se comes from a root weor = bad. The suffix -se is another form of the comparative ending -er. *Wor-st* is shortened from *worrest.*
>
> Less is formed from a root las, meaning weak, infirm. The suffix -s (= -se) is another form of the comparative -r.
>
> Much once meant *large, great.*
>
> The mo in mo-re and mo-st also meant *great.*

3. Farther and farthest are slightly irregular, a th having crept in through a confusion with further (the comparative of the adverb forth).

> Rather is now an adverb; it was once an adjective. Its positive was rathe, meaning *early.*
>
> Former is a corruption of an old *formĕ*, meaning *first* (superlative of fore). The m is an old superlative ending, still found in for-m-ost.
>
> Most superlatives ending in -most contain two superlative suffixes, -m and -ost (= -est).
>
> First is a superlative of *fore* = front; cp. *fore leg, forehead.*
>
> O-ther contains the numeral one (from which the n has gone), and a comparative ending -ther, cp. *whe-ther.*
>
> Other once meant *second*; cp. every *other* day.

CHAPTER V.

PRONOUNS.

I. DEFINITION.

§ 39. A Pronoun is a word used for a noun.

(See Chap. II. § 2, p. 20.)

A Pronoun can stand for an "equivalent to a noun," whether it be a phrase or sentence : "*It* mattered not to him whether it were night or day." "*It*" here stands for "*whether it were night or day.*"

Many Pronouns are used as adjectives: (1) the Possessive cases ; (2) some Demonstratives ; (3) some Relative and Interrogative Pronouns ; (4) some Indefinite Pronouns.

II. CLASSIFICATION OF PRONOUNS.

§ 40. There are five kinds of Pronouns :

1. Personal Pronouns.
2. Demonstrative Pronouns.
3. Interrogative Pronouns.
4. Relative Pronouns.
5. Indefinite Pronouns.

1. Personal Pronouns.

§ 41. The Personal Pronouns are so called because they name the *person* speaking, spoken to, or spoken of. There are then three **Persons**:

1. The **First**, which denotes the person *speaking*; as *I, we,* &c.

2. The **Second**, which denotes the person *spoken to*; as *thou, ye, you,* &c.

3. The **Third**, which relates to the person or thing *spoken of*; as *he, she, it, that, one.*

Strictly speaking, the pronouns of the third person are not personal pronouns; thus *he* is demonstrative and has *gender*. For convenience' sake, we may call it the pronoun of the third person, *not* a personal pronoun; *one* is an indefinite pronoun.

Declension of Personal Pronouns.

§ 42. **Pronouns** have more inflexions than nouns for number and case.

THE FIRST PERSON.

Singular.		Plural.
Nominative,	I	we
Possessive,	mine, my	our, ours
Objective (direct),	me	us
Objective (indirect),	me	us

c *

THE SECOND PERSON.

Nom. and Vocative,	thou	ye, you.
Possessive,	thine, thy	your, yours.
Objective (direct),	thee	you.
Objective (indirect),	thee	you.

For the explanation of indirect object, see § 29, p. 33.

(1) I was once written *ic* and *ich*.

(2) Mine and thine (O.E. *mîn* and *thîn*) were once the only possessives of the first and second person in use. The loss of the letter *n* brought my and thy into use. The older forms are now only used when no noun follows. In poetry they are sometimes used before words beginning with a vowel or silent *h*. Cp. the double forms *an* and *a*.

(3) The second person singular has gone out of common use.

(4) You, once only *objective*, has taken the place of the old nominative ye.

THE THIRD PERSON.

	Singular.			*Plural.*
	Masc.	Fem.	Neuter.	
Nominative,	he	she	it	they
Possessive,	his	her, hers	its	their, theirs
Objective (direct),	him	her	it	them
Objective (indirect),	him	her	it	them

1. The Pronouns contain endings marking—

(1) Case : s in *hi-s* ; n in *mi-ne, thi-ne* (all genitive) ; m in *hi-m* ; r in *he-r* (both dative) ; r in *ou-r, you-r thei-r* (gen. pl.) ; m in *the-m* (dat. pl.). *Our-s, you-r-s,* &c., are double genitives.

(2) **Gender :** t in *i-t* (O.E. *hi-t*) once marked the neuter, as in *wha-t* and *tha-t*. She was once the feminine of the definite article. In Old English *he-o* (sometimes written *he*), the feminine of the pronoun he, was used where we now employ *she*; hence the form her.

Its is quite a modern form. The O.E. was *hi-s*, which is the only form we find in the authorised version of the Scriptures (A.D. 1611).

They (with its cases) was once the plural of the, and meant *the* and *those*.

§ 43. The Possessive cases of the Pronouns of the three persons are now used as adjectives:

Singular: my, mine ; thy, thine ; his, her, hers, its.

Plural: our, ours ; your, yours ; their, theirs.

(1) Notice the use of *mine, thine, hers, ours, yours, theirs,* without a following noun ; as, It is *mine*, not *yours*.

(2) Notice that my, thy = Latin *meus, tuus*, not *mei, tui*, which must be expressed by *of me, of thee*.

§ 44. Self is added to the pronouns of the three persons (1) to form Reflexive Pronouns ; (2) to express *emphasis*.

Singular: myself, thyself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, oneself.

Plural: ourselves, yourselves, themselves.

(1) The Reflexives are used when a person does something to himself ; as, " I laid *myself* down," " he hurt *himself*." In some old expressions the objective case of the simple pronoun is used ; as, " I laid *me* down and slept," " he sat *him* down."

(2) The compounds of *self* are emphatic in "I saw it *my-self*;" "he *himself* has done it," &c.

Formerly the *dative* was always joined to *self*, which was then an adjective; as *himself*, not the possessive, as in *myself*, which used to be *meself*.

(3) Self is sometimes a noun; as, "your *innocent* self;" "he thinks much of *self*."

2. Demonstrative Pronouns.

§ 45. The Demonstratives are used in speaking definitely of the thing named: as, "*this* is the book I want, but I should like *that* which is on *yonder* table, if it is not the *same*. I have never seen *such* books as *these*."

§ 46. The Demonstrative Pronouns are this, that, (with their plurals, these and those), same, such, yon, self-same.

That was originally the neuter of the.

Such means "so-like:" *l* has been lost.

Yon has now become a mere adjective. The Scotch use *yon* as a pronoun; as, "*yon's* a grand house."

Self-same: self once meant *same*.

When *such* (= *so*) comes before an adjective, followed by the conjunction *that*, it is used as an adverb. He has *such great* confidence *that* he will be sure to succeed = He has confidence *so great* that he will, &c. The use of *such* in this way is of late origin.

3. Interrogative Pronouns.

§ 47. The Interrogative Pronouns are used in asking questions: Who? which? what?

Who is thus declined :

Nom.,	who	
Poss.,	whose	Masc. and Fem.
Obj. (direct),	whom	Sing. and Plural.
„ (indirect),	whom	

Who relates to *persons* ; **which** to *things* ; **what** always refers to things, unless it is used as an adjective, as in *What* book do you want? *What* boy has got my book ?

For the **s** in *whose* and the **m** in *whom*, see p. 42.

Which is made up of *who* and *like*, meaning *who-like*, or *what-like*. It once* related to persons ; as " Our Father, *which* art in Heaven." It is also used for the old word *whether*, which of two.

Wha–t was originally the neuter of *who*. See p. 43.

Who–se is the possessive of *what* as well as of *who* ; cp. *his*, once the possessive of *he* and *it*.

§ 48. **Compound Interrogatives** are formed by adding **–ever**; as, *whoever, whatever, whichever.*

4. Relative Pronouns.

§ 49. The Relative Pronoun is so called because it relates or carries us back to some noun or pronoun going before (and already stated), called the *antecedent*. This is the *house* **that** I have built. Happy is the *man* **that** findeth wisdom, and the *man* **who** getteth understanding.

The Relative Pronouns are **who, what, which, that, as.**

* As late as 1636.

Who refers to *persons*; **which** to *animals* and *lifeless things*; **that** to *person* and *things*.

What is used when the antecedent is omitted. It means *that which* (or *the thing which*). "*What* I have you are welcome to."

Do not call *what* a compound pronoun.

Who can be used for *he who*. "*Who* steals my purse steals trash."

§ 50. **As** is used as a relative after *same* and *such*; as, "This is the *same* as that;" "These apples are very good, you may eat *such* as are ripe."

That was sometimes equivalent to *that which*; as, "We speak *that* we do know."

That never follows the preposition that governs it; as "I know the person *that* you speak *of*."

§ 51. Compound Relatives are formed by adding -ever and -soever to who, what, and which; as, *whoever, whichever, whatever; whosoever, whatsoever, whichsoever*.

Some adverbs (originally cases of pronouns) can be combined with a preposition to do duty for *relatives*, though they are not usually called such:

where-of	=	of which, of what.
where-to	=	to which, to what.
where-by	=	by which, by what.
there-of	=	of that.
&c.		&c.

§ 52. The Relatives, with the exception of **that** and **as**, were once Interrogatives only.

They are strictly so in all *indirect* questions: as, "Tell me *who* has hurt you;" "Ask him *what* is going on."

§ 53. The Relative who is declined like the Interrogative who. See p. 45.

5. Indefinite Pronouns.

§ 54. The Indefinite Pronouns do not point out and particularise like the Demonstratives. To this class belong one, none, any, some, each, every, either, neither, other, another (all of which may be used as adjectives); aught, naught, somebody, something, nothing, anything.

One (in "*one* says," &c.) is the same word as the numeral *one*. The Fr. *on* is the Latin *homo*.

None is made up of ne = *not*, and one.

Any contains the original form of *one*, seen in the article an.

Some once meant *one, a.*

Ea–ch originally meant *any one like* (of two or more things). The *-ch* stands for *-lich* = like; cp. *which, such.*

Ever–y is a corruption of *ever each*, that is, "each and all" (of two or more things).

Ei–ther means *any one of two*. It can be used as a *conjunction.* Neither is the negative of *either.*

For the meaning of –ther, see § 38, p. 39.

O-ther, one of two, see § 38, p. 39.

Aught means *any whit* or *any wight.* (*Wight* = person, thing; cp. " an unlucky *wight.*")

Naught, nought is the negative of *aught = no whit.*

The adverb **not** is a worn-down form of *nought, naught.*

Else in *what else* and *something else* is an in- definite pronoun, being the genitive of an old root *el,* meaning *other.*

When *else* means *otherwise* it is a conjunction; when it means *besides* it is an adverb.

Something (= *somewhat*); *anything* (= at all); *nothing* (= not at all), are used as adverbs.

Certain and *several* are sometimes used as pro- nouns.

CHAPTER VI.

VERBS.

I. DEFINITION.

§ 55. A Verb is a word that states or asserts what a thing *does* or *is done to*, or *in what state* it exists; as, "the fire *burns*," "John *is beaten*," "the child *sleeps*," "the fun *begins*."

II. CLASSIFICATION.

§ 56. Verbs are classified, according to their *meaning*, into **Transitive** and **Intransitive**.

Transitive Verbs state an action that is not confined to the doer; as, "he *locks* the gate."

Intransitive Verbs express an action that does not go beyond the doer; as, "the child *sleeps*," "he *behaves* well."

Transitive means *passing over* (Lat. *trans-it-us*), because in a sentence containing a transitive verb the sense is not complete unless the object to which the action passes over is stated; as "the boy *tore* his coat."

When a verb that is usually transitive takes no *object*, it is used intransitively; as "the fire *burns* brightly."

Some intransitive verbs may be made transitive by means of

a *preposition* ; as, "he *laughs*," "he *laughs-at* me ;" "the river *flows*," "the river *flows over* the land " = "the river *overflows* the land."

All verbs containing the idea of *to cause*, or *to make* an action take place, are called *Causative* verbs, and require an object : "he *fells* the tree "="he *caused* the tree *to fall* ;" "he *flies* his kite "="he *causes* his kite *to fly*."

Some transitive verbs seem to be used reflexively ; as, "he *turned* aside," originally, "he *turned himself* aside."

Transitive verbs used in a passive sense become *Intransitive* ; as, "the vessel *broke* in two "="the vessel *was broken* in two."

§ 57. Verbs used in the third person only are called **Impersonal** Verbs ; as me-*thinks* = it appears to me ; it *seems* good ; it *rains*, &c.

III. INFLEXION.

§ 58. Verbs have **Voice, Mood, Tense, Number,** and **Person.**

1. Voice.

§ 59. **Transitive** Verbs have two *voices* ; the **Active Voice** and the **Passive Voice.**

A verb is in the *Active Voice* when the subject of the verb stands for the doer or agent of the action ; as,

(1) "The boy *struck* the table."

A verb is in the *Passive Voice* when the subject of the verb stands for the real object of the action ; as,

(2) "The table *was struck* by the boy."

The sentences quoted above show that the voice is determined by the subject. If it is *active*, as in (1), the verb is active; if it is *passive, i.e.* suffers the action, as in (2), the verb is passive.

In some languages this is shown by the form of the verb; as, Lat. *amatur*, he is loved.

In English the forms of the verb in -en and -ed are a remnant of the passive voice, and are always used along with the verb *be* to form the passive voice; as, "the cup which *was broken* has *been mended*."

We have other roundabout ways of expressing the Passive; as, "the house *is being built*," or by the old phrase, "the house *is a-building*;" *a-building = on building*.

2. Mood.

§ 60. Mood is that form or modification of the verb which marks the *mode* in which an action is viewed or stated.

§ 61. There are three principal *moods*: (1) Indi- cative (2) Subjunctive (3) Imperative.

When a verb is in any of these moods it requires a subject, and is said to be a *finite* verb, *i.e.* limited by the conditions of *time, person,* &c.

These are the only moods in English that have distinct forms or are inflexional.

§ 62. The Indicative Mood is that form of the verb that *indicates* or makes a direct assertion, or asks some direct question; as, He *talks*. Who *talks*?

§ 63. The Subjunctive Mood expresses *possi- bility, doubt, dependency*; as, "If he but *blench* I know

my course." "For murder, though it *have* no tongue, will speak."

This mood is called *Subjunctive*, because of its use in a *sub-joined* or *dependent* sentence, as, "Love not sleep, lest it *bring* thee to poverty." "If thou *keep* promise, I shall end this strife."

Here we see that *bring* and *keep* in the dependent sentences are distinguished from the Indicative *brings* and *keepest* by their *want* of inflexion. But the subjunctive once had its own endings, as in Latin. The subjunctive form of the verb is now seldom employed. Its place is sometimes supplied by the use of the verb *should* or *would*.

The conjunctions which were formerly followed by the sub-junctive enable us to express doubt, condition, &c., without employing the old inflexional form of the verb. These Con-junctions are *if, whether, provided, though, that, so that, lest, until, till, ere, unless, except*—which, however, are no parts of the subjunctive mood.

The verb *to be* has very distinct forms for the subjunctive. (See p. 73.)

§ 64. The Imperative Mood is that form for the verb that expresses a command or entreaty. "*Call* him back." "*Pardon* my fault."

The Imperative contains the simplest form or root of the verb.

The *plural* imperative once had the suffix th to distinguish it from the singular ; as, *loveth* = love ye.

The Imperative is only used in the second person.

In such expressions as "*let* me sing," "*let* him sing," parse *let* as an independent verb, in the imperative mood. Do not parse *let sing* as one verb.

§ 65. Other forms, *not finite* (see § 61, p. 51), are sometimes called Moods. These are—

1. The form of the verb with *to* before it, called the **Infinitive** ; as, *to* sing.

The **Infinitive** once had no *to* before it, but was expressed by the suffix *-an* ; as, *drinc-an*, to drink.   The Infinitive without *to* comes after the verbs *may, can, shall, will, dare, must*, &c. ; as, "he may *be*," "he will *be*," &c.

The Simple Infinitive is a noun in the nominative or objective (direct) case : "*to see* is *to believe*," "he wants *to see*."

There is another kind of Infinitive called the *Dative infinitive*, because it was originally the *dative* case of the simple infinitive.

It may be used (1) with a *noun*, as an *adjective phrase*, in "a house *to let*" = a house *for letting* ; (2) with an *adjective*, as an *adverbial phrase* in "easy *to find*" = easy *for finding*.   It is sometimes used with a verb to mark purpose, and is an *adverbial phrase* ; as, he came *to see* me = he came for the purpose of seeing me.   (See § 112, p. 106.)

2. The forms of the verb in **-ed, -en, -ing**, are called *Participles*, and they are also used as *adjectives*.

"Then rode Geraint into the castle court,
His charger *trampling* many a prickly star
Of *sprouted* thistle on the *broken* stones.
He look'd and saw that all was ruinous.
Here stood a *shatter'd* archway *plumed* with fern,
And here had *fall'n* a great part of a tower."

These forms in *-ed, -en, -ing*, were called participles because they participate of the nature of *adjectives* (in qualifying a noun) and of verbs (in governing an objective case).   The participle in *-ing* once ended in *-end, -and*, or *-inde*.

Be careful to distinguish a noun in *-ing* from a participle in *ing* : this is a fine *building* (noun) ; he is *building* a house (participle).

The form in *-ing* (O.E. *-ung*) is a noun in the following passages : The house is *building* = the house is *a-building* ;

he is fond of *building* (= of the building of) houses; he talked of your *coming* here to-day; he took to *hunting*. (See Syntax, p. 100.)

The form in *-ing* is called the *Present* participle; the forms in *-ed* and *-en* are called *Passive* participles.

3. Tense.

§ 66. The form or modification of the verb used to indicate *time* is called **Tense** (Fr. *temps*, Lat. *tempus*).

Time may be considered as

1. Present.
2. Past.
3. Future.

There are, therefore, three Tenses.

1. Present,   I *speak.*
2. Past,   I *spoke.*
3. Future,   I *shall speak.*
            You *will speak.*
            He *will speak.*

The *state* of the action may be considered as—

(1) Indefinite; as, I *write.*

(2) Progressive; as, I *am writing.*

(3) Completed or perfect; as, I *have written.*

(4) Perfect or progressive.

The words *be, have, shall, will*, which *help* to form *tenses*, are called *auxiliary* verbs.

Each tense has therefore four forms, according to *the state of the action*, as in the following scheme:

TABLE OF TENSES.

Tense.	Indefinite.	Imperfect and Progressive.	Perfect.	Perfect and Progressive.
Present	(1) I praise (2) I am praised	(1) I am praising (2) I am being praised	(1) I have praised (2) I have been praised	(1) I have been praising
Past	(1) I praised (2) I was praised	(1) I was praising (2) I was being praised	(1) I had praised (2) I had been praised	(1) I had been praising
Future	(1) I shall praise (2) I shall be praised	(1) I shall be praising	(1) I shall have praised (2) I shall have been praised	(1) I shall have been praising

(1) Active Voice. (2) Passive Voice.

Notice that only the present and past tenses of the active voice, indicative mood, are inflected tenses.

§ 67. An Emphatic form of the present and past tenses may be made by using do.

> Present,   I *do love.*
> Past,   I *did love.*

But it is *not* emphatic when used in interrogative and negative sentences, but an auxiliary verb.

Do you *hear?* *Did* you *listen?* I *do* not *hear.* I *did* not *listen.* (See note on *Do*, p. 80.)

4. Person and Number.

§ 68. The verb is Singular when it agrees with a subject in the singular number, and Plural when it agrees with a subject in the plural ; as,

> Singular : " he *writes,*"
> Plural : " they *write.*"

There are three persons (as in the pronouns, see § 41, p. 41), the first, the second, and the third.

The plural has no endings to mark person. We know the person by looking to the *subject*; as, "*We speak,*" "*you speak,*" "the *boys speak,*" or "*they speak.*"

The first person singular has no ending ; as, " I talk."

The second person, which is seldom used, has -est (-st); as, " thou talk-est."

` The third person (present) has **–s**, with the old form **–eth**; as, " he talk-s," or " talk-eth."

These endings belong only to the indicative mood.

The subjunctive has no person-endings.

We might do without any endings, because the personal pronoun marks the person.

These endings were once pronouns themselves. Cp. a-*m*, ar-*t*, &c. (See § 77, p. 78.)

5. Conjugation.

§ 69. Verbs may be divided into two kinds, or *conjugations*, according to the form of their past tense.

(1) Those that make their past tense by **–d** or **–t**; as,

> *Present*, I love.   *Past*, I lov-*d*.
> I sleep.   I slep-*t*.

(2) Those that make their past tense by changing the vowel of the present; as,

> *Present*, I write.   *Past*, I wrote.

Verbs of the first class are called **Weak**, and those of the second **Strong** verbs.

Be careful to notice that a **strong** verb adds nothing to the past tense. Thus *got*, the past tense of *get*, is a strong verb; but *tol-d*, the past tense of *tell*, is a weak verb.

The change of vowel in the past tense of strong verbs, as *fall*, *fell*, &c., must not be confounded with the shortening of the vowel, as in *feed* and *fed* (once *fed-de*).

The Passive Participles of all *strong* verbs once ended in **–en**; but this suffix has fallen away in many verbs; as, *drunk* = drunken, &c. Passive participles of *weak* verbs end in **–ed** (-*d*, -*t*); those of strong verbs never had this ending, and when they take it they become weak; as, he was *tol-d* (weak); he has *mown* (strong); he has *mowed* (weak).

§ 70. Classification of Strong Verbs.

Strong verbs are classified according to the changes of their
central vowels.

CLASS I.

Pres.	Past.	Pass. Part.
a, o	**e**	**a, o**
fall	fell	fallen
hold	held	held, holden*
blow	blew	blown
grow	grew	grown
know	knew	known
throw	threw	thrown
crow	crew	crown*
hang	hung	hung [hangen]
beat	beat	beaten

Mow, sow, hew, once belonged to this class. Their strong
participles, *mown, sown, hewn,* are sometimes used.

Hang once made a past tense *heng.*

Go or *gang* has borrowed its past tense *went* from *wend,* to go.

Gone is a strong past participle.

* Forms marked thus* are old.

CLASS II.

Pres.	Past.	Pass. Part.
i	a, u, ou	u, ou
begin	began	begun
cling	clung, clang*	clung
drink	drank	drunk
run	ran	run
swim	swam	swum
spin	spun, span*	spun
sing	sang	sung
shrink	shrank	shrunk
sink	sank	sunk
fling	flung, flang*	flung
sling	slung, slang*	slung
ring	rang	rung
slink	slunk	slunk
spring	sprang	sprung
sting	stung, stang*	stung
swing	swung, swang*	swung
wring	wrung, wrang*	wrung
win	won, wan*	won
bind	bound	bound, bounden*
find	found	found
fight	fought	fought
grind	ground	ground
wind	wound	wound
e	o	o
help	holp*	holpen*
melt	molt*	molten
swell	...	swollen
burst [berste]*	burst [barst]*	burst [bursten]*

Help, melt, swell, have now the weak form for past tense and passive participle.

* Old.

CLASS III.

Pres.	Past.	Pass. Part.
ea	(o) a	a
(1) bear	bore, bare*	born, borne
break	broke, brake*	broken
shear	...	shorn
speak	spoke, spake*	spoken
steal	stole, stale*	stolen
tear	tore, tare*	torn
(2) come	came	come

CLASS IV.

Pres.	Past.	Pass. Part.
i	a	i
(1) bid	bade, bid	bidden, bid
give	gave	given
lie	lay	lain, lien*
sit	sat	sat [siten]*
ea, (ee), e	a, (o)	ea, (ee), o
(2) eat	ate	eaten
get	got, gat*	got, gotten*
tread	trod	trodden, trod
see	saw	seen
weave	wove	woven
...	quoth	...
...	was	...

CLASS V.

Pres.	Past.	Pass. Part.
a	o, oo, e	a (o)
awake	awoke	awoke
forsake	forsook	forsaken
lade	...	laden
grave	...	graven
stand	stood	stood [standen]*
shave	...	shaven
shake	shook	shaken
swear	swore	sworn
take	took	taken
draw	drew	drawn
slay	slew	slain

Lade, grave, and *shave* have weak forms for the past tense and passive participle.

* Old.

CLASS VI.

Pres.	Past.	Pass. Part.
i (long)	o	i (short)
a-bide	abode	abode, abiden*
bite	bit	bitten
drive	drove	driven
chide	chid, chode*	chidden, chid
ride	rode, rid*	ridden, rid*
rise	rose	risen
rive	rove	riven
shine	shone	shone
shrive	shrove	shriven
slide	slid	slidden, slid
smite	smote, smit*	smitten
stride	strode	stridden
thrive	throve	thriven
write	wrote, writ*	written
strike	struck	struck, stricken
strive	strove	striven

Chide, rive, slide, have also weak forms in the past tense and passive participle.

CLASS VII.

Pres.	Past.	Pass. Part.
ee, oo	o	o
freeze	froze	frozen
seethe	sod*	sodden, sod*
cleave	clove	cloven
choose	chose	chosen
lose	...	lorn*
shoot	shot	shot, shotten*
fly	flew	flown

Seethe, cleave, lose, have weak forms in the past tense and passive participle.

* Old.

§ 71. Classification of Weak Verbs.

We may divide the weak verbs roughly into two classes.

1. Those that have *-ed*, *-d*, or *-t* in the past tense and passive participle.

2. Those that have *lost* the *-d* or *-t* in the past tense and passive participle.

Class I.

We often write *-ed*, but we only sound it when the verb ends in *-d* or *-t*, as, *mend-ed, lift-ed.*

In all other cases it is pronounced *-d* or *-t*, as

$$\text{dragged} = \text{dragd.}$$
$$\text{locked} = \text{lockt.}$$

(1) This *-d* was once a separate verb and meant *did. I loved = I love-did.*

(2) *-d* becomes *-t* after a sharp mute (for reason, see p. 17), and sometimes after *l, m, n,* as, *slept, felt, burnt, dreamt.*

(3) Some verbs shorten the long vowel in the past tense and passive participle; as, *hear, heard; flee, fled; sleep, slept.* (See § 13, p. 24.)

(4) A few have not the same vowel in the present as in the past.

> (*a*) tell, tol-d, tol-d.
>   buy, bought, bought.
> (*b*) teach, taught, taught.
>   work, wrought, wrought.

(5) Some have lost an internal letter; as, *made* = maked ; *had* = haved.

Class II.

1. Some verbs of this class shorten their vowel in the past tense and passive participle, and look like strong verbs.

> feed, fed, fed.
> &c.   &c.   &c.

2. Others ending in *ld* or *nd* change the *d* into *t* in the past tense and passive participle.

> buil*d*, buil*t*, buil*t*.
> sen*d*, sen*t*, sen*t*.
> &c.   &c.   &c.

3. A third kind ending in *d* or *t* have the three forms (present, past, and passive participle) alike.

> rid, rid, rid.
> set, set, set.
> &c. &c. &c.

All verbs of Class II. had an inflexion in Old English, *e.g.*

Past Tense.	Pass. Part.
fêd-de	fêd-ed = fed.
sende [=send-de]	send-ed = sent.
set-te	sett-ed = set.

As the verb in both conjugations is inflected only in the present and past indefinite tenses, the forms of the English verb are easily mastered.

§ 72. I. STRONG CONJUGATION.

To Smite.

PRESENT, sm*i*te. PAST, sm*o*te. PASSIVE PARTICIPLE, sm*i*tten.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

INDICATIVE MOOD.	SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.
1. I sm*i*te	1. I sm*i*te
2. Thou sm*i*t-est	2. Thou sm*i*te
3. He sm*i*te-s, sm*i*te-th	3. He sm*i*te

Plural.

1. We sm*i*te	1. We sm*i*te
2. Ye, you sm*i*te	2. Ye, you sm*i*te
3. They sm*i*te	3. They sm*i*te

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

1. I sm*o*te	1. I sm*o*te
2. Thou sm*o*t-est	2. Thou sm*o*te
3. He sm*o*te	3. He sm*o*te

Plural.

1. We sm*o*te	1. We sm*o*te
2. Ye, you sm*o*te	2. Ye, you sm*o*te
3. They sm*o*te	3. They sm*o*te

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular—Smite (thou). *Plural*—Smite (ye, you).

INFINITIVE, *to* smite. PRESENT PARTICIPLE, smit-*ing*.
PASSIVE PARTICIPLE, smitt-*en*.

§ 73. II. WEAK CONJUGATION.

To Lift.

PRES. lift.   PAST, lift-*ed*.   PASS. PARTICIPLE, lift-*ed*

PRESENT TENSE.
Singular.

INDICATIVE MOOD.	SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.
1. I lift	1. I lift
2. Thou lift-est	2. Thou lift
3. He lift-s (-th)	3. He lift

Plural.

1. We lift	1. We lift
2. Ye, you lift	2. Ye, you lift
3. They lift	3. They lift

PAST TENSE.
Singular.

1. I lift-*ed*	1. I lift-*ed*
2. Thou lift-*ed*-st	2. Thou lift-*ed*
3. He lift-*ed*	3. He lift-*ed*

Plural.

1. We lift-*ed*	1. We lift-*ed*.
2. Ye, you lift-*ed*	2. Ye, you lift-*ed*
3. They lift-*ed*	3. They lift-*ed*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular—lift (thou).   *Plural*—lift (ye, you).

INFINITIVE, *to* lift.   PRESENT PARTICIPLE, lift-*ing*.
PASSIVE PARTICIPLE, lift-*ed*.

§ 74. Alphabetical List of Strong Verbs.

The forms in italics are *weak*; those marked thus * are *archaic.*

Pres.	Past.	Pass. Part.
abide	abode	abode
arise	arose	arisen
awake	awoke	awoke
	awaked *	*awaked*
bake	...	baken
	baked	*baked*
bear (bring forth	bore, bare*	born
bear (carry)	bore, bare*	borne
beat	beat	beaten
begin	began	begun
behold	beheld	beheld, beholden
bid	bade, bid	bidden, bid
bind	bound	bound, bounden†
bite	bit	bitten, bit
blow	blew	blown
break	broke, brake*	broken
burst	burst	burst, bursten*
chide	chode,* chid	chidden, chid
choose	chose, chase*	chosen
cleave (split)	clove	cloven
	*clave**	...
	cleft	*cleft*
climb	clomb	...
	climbed	*climbed*
cling	clung	clung
come	came	come
crow	crew	crown
	crowed	*crowed*
do	did	done

† *Bounden* is used as an adjective, as in " our *bounden* duty."

Pres.	Past.	Pass. Part.
draw	drew	drawn
drink	drank	drunk, drunken
drive	drove, drave*	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
fight	fought	fought, foughten*
find	found	found
fling	flung, flang*	flung
fly	flew	flown
forbear	forbore	forborne
forget	forgot	forgotten
	forgat*	forgot*
forsake	forsook	forsaken
freeze	froze	frozen
	...	frorn, frore*
get	got, gat*	got, gotten
give	gave	given
go	*went*	gone
grave	*graved*	graven
en-grave	...	en-graven*
	engraved	*engraved*
grind	ground	ground
grow	grew	grown
hang	hung	hung
	hanged	*hanged*
heave	hove*	...
	heaved	*heaved*
help	...	holpen*
	helped	*helped*
hew	...	hewn
	hewed	*hewed*
hold	held	held, holden*
know	knew	known
lade	...	laden, loaden*
	laded	*laded*
lie	lay	lain, lien*

Pres.	Past.	Pass. Part.
lose	...	lorn, forlorn
	lost	*lost*
melt	...	molten
	melted	*melted*
mow	...	mown
	mowed	*mowed*
ride	rode, rid*	ridden, rid*
ring	rang, rung*	rung
rise	rose	risen
rive	...	riven
	rived	*rived*
run	ran	run
see	saw	seen
seethe	sod	sodden, sod*
	seethed	*seethed*
shake	shook	shaken
shave	*shaved*	shaven, *shaved*
shear	*sheared*, shore*	shorn, *sheared*
shine	shone	shone
	shined	shined*
shoot	shot	shot, shotten*
shrink	shrank	shrunk
	shrunk*	shrunken
sing	sang, sung*	sung
sink	sank	sunk, sunken
sit	sat	sat, sitten*
slay	slew	slain
slide	slid	slid, slidden
sling	slung, slang*	slung
slink	slunk	slunk
smite	smote, smit*	smitten, smit*
sow	...	sown
	sowed	*sowed*
speak	spoke, spake*	spoken
spin	spun, span*	spun
spring	sprung, sprang*	sprung

Pres.	Past.	Pass. Part.
stand	stood	stood
steal	stole, stale*	stolen
sting	stung, stang*	stung
stink	stank	stunk
stride	strode, strid*	stridden
strike	struck	struck
		stricken*
strive	strove	striven
swear	swore	sworn
	sware*	
swell	*swelled*	swollen, *swelled*
swim	swam, swum*	swam
swing	swung	swung
take	took	taken
tear	tore, tare	torn
thrive	throve	thriven
	thrived	*thrived*
throw	threw	thrown
tread	trod	trodden, trod
wake	woke	
	waked	*waked*
weave	wove	woven
win	won, wan*	won
wind	wound	wound
wring	wrung, wrang*	wrung
write	wrote, writ*	written
wear	wore†	worn†

† Originally *Weak.* The past tenses of *dig* and *stick* were formerly *weak,* so were the passive participles of *hide, rot, show, strew, saw.*

§ 75. ALPHABETICAL LIST OF WEAK VERBS APPARENTLY IRREGULAR.

CLASS I.

Pres.	Past.	Pass. Part.
bereave	bereft	bereft
	bereaved*	bereaved*
beseech	besought	besought
bring	brought	brought
burn	burnt	burnt
buy	bought	bought
catch	caught	caught
cleave (split)	cleft, clave*	cleft
creep	crept	crept
deal	dealt	dealt
dream	dreamt	dreamt
	dreamed	dreamed
dwell	dwelt	dwelt
feel	felt	felt
flee	fled	fled
have	had	had
hide	hid	hid, hidden
keep	kept	kept
kneel	knelt	knelt
lay	laid	laid
lean	leant	leant
	leaned	leaned
learn	learnt	learnt
	learned	learned
leap	leapt	leapt
leave	left	left
lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
mean	meant	meant
pay	paid	paid

* See English Bible, *Ruth* i. 14.

Pres.	Past.	Pass. Part.
pen	pent	pent
	penned	penned
rap (to transport)	rapt	rapt
rot	rotted	rotten
		rotted
say	said	said
seek	sought	sought
sell	sold	sold
shoe	shod	shod
sleep	slept	slept
spell	spelt	spelt
spill	spilt	spilt
stay	staid	staid, stayed*
sweep	swept	swept
teach	taught	taught
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
weep	wept	wept
work	wrought†	wrought
	worked	worked

CLASS II.

Pres.	Past.	Pass. Part.
bend	bent	bent
		bended
bleed	bled	bled
breed	bred	bred
build	built	built
cast	cast	cast
clothe	clad	clad
	clothed	clothed
cost	cost	cost
cut	cut	cut

* Stayed is used in the English Bible

† *Rotten* and wrought are now used as adjectives, and not as passive participles ; cp. *wrought* iron, *rotten* wood.

Pres.	Past.	Pass. Part.
feed	fed	fed
gild	gilt	gilt
	gilded	gilded
gird	girt	girt
[wend]	went	*see p.* 58
hit	hit	hit
hurt	hurt	hurt
knit	knit	knit
lead	led	led
let	let	let
light	lit	lit
	lighted	lighted
meet	met	met
put	put	put
read	read*	read*
rend	rent	rent
rid	rid	rid
send	sent	sent
set	set	set
shed	shed	shed
shred	shred	shred
shut	shut	shut
slit	slit	slit
speed	sped	sped
spend	spent	spent
spit	spit, spat	spit†
split	split	split
spread	spread	spread
sweat	sweat	sweat
thrust	thrust	thrust
wet	wet	wet
	wetted	wetted
whet	whet	whet
	whetted	whetted

* Pronounced *red*. † *Spitted* occurs in 17th century writers.

§ 76. ANOMALOUS VERBS.

To Be.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I a-m	1. We are
2. Thou ar-t	2. Ye, you are
3. He is	3. They are

Past Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I was	1. We were
2. Thou was-t	2. Ye, you were
3. He was	3. They were

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I be	1. We be
2. Thou be	2. Ye, you be
3. He be	3. They be

Past Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I were	1. We were
2. Thou were,* wer-t	2. Ye, you were
3. He were	3. They were

* Old.

D *

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular—be (thou).   *Plural*—be (ye, you).

INFINITIVE, *to* be.   PRESENT PARTICIPLE, be-*ing*.

PASSIVE PARTICIPLE, bee-*n*.

Can.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I can	1. We can
2. Thou can-st	2. Ye, you can
3. He can	3. They can

Past Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I cou-l-*d*	1. We cou-l-*d*
2. Thou cou-l-*d*-st	2. Ye, you cou-l-*d*
3. He cou-l-*d*	3. They cou-l-*d*

Shall.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I shall	1. We shall
2. Thou shal-t	2. Ye, you shall
3. He shall	3. They shall

Past.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I shoul-*d*	1. We shoul-*d*
2. Thou shoul-*d*-st	2. Ye, you shoul-*d*
3. He shoul-*d*	3. They shoul-*d*

Will.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I will	1. We will
2. Thou wil-t	2. Ye, you will
3. He will	3. They will

Past.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I woul-*d*	1. We woul-*d*
2. Thou woul-*d*-st	2. Ye, you woul-*d*
3. He woul-*d*	3. They woul-*d*

May.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I may	1. We may
2. Thou may-est may-st	2. Ye, you may
3. He may	3. They may

Past Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I migh-*t*	1. We migh-*t*
2. Thou migh-*t*-est, migh-*t*-st	2. Ye, you migh-*t*
3. He migh-*t*	3. They migh-*t*

Owe.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I owe	1. We owe
2. Thou owe-st	2. Ye, you owe
3. He owe-s	3. They owe

Past Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I ough-*t*	1. We ough-*t*
2. Thou ough-*t*-est	2. Ye, you ough-*t*
3. He ough-*t*	3. They ough-*t*

Dare.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I dare	1. We dare
2. Thou dar-est, dar-st	2. Ye, you dare
3. He dare, dare-s	3. They dare

Past Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I durs-*t*	1. We durs-*t*
2. Thou durs-*t*	2. Ye, you durs-*t*
3. He durs-*t*	3. They durs-*t*

Have.

Present Tense.

Singular.		Plural.
1. I have		1. We have
2. Thou ha-st		2. Ye, you have
3. He ha-s, ha-th		3. They have

Past Tense.

Singular.		Plural.
1. I ha-*d*		1. We ha-*d*
2. Thou ha-*d*-st		2. Ye, you ha-*d*
3. He ha-*d*		3. They ha-*d*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular—have (thou).   *Plural*—have (ye, you).

INFINITIVE, *to* have.   PRESENT PARTICIPLE, hav-*ing*.
PASSIVE PARTICIPLE, ha-*d*.

Do.

Present Tense.

Singular.		Plural.
1. I do		1. We do
2. Thou do-st, do-est		2. Ye, you do
3. He doe-s, do-th, do-eth		3. They do

Past Tense.

Singular.		Plural.
1. I did		1. We did
2. Thou did-st		2. Ye, you did
didd-est		
3. He did		3. They did

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular—do (thou).   *Plural*—do (ye, you).

INFINITIVE, *to* do.   PRESENT PARTICIPLE, do-*ing*.
PASSIVE PARTICIPLE, do-*ne*.

§ 77. Remarks on Anomalous Verbs.

1. Be.

1. Am, art, is, are, are formed from an old root as to be.
The m in am is identical with the pronoun me; cp. Sanskrit
(1) *as-mi*, (2) *a-si*, (3) *as-ti*, &c.

2. Was is the past tense of the old strong verb *wes-an*, to be.
The r in *were* represents an older s.

3. Bee-n shows that the old verb *be* was a strong verb.

4. We sometimes find, as late as the 17th century, the verb
be conjugated fully in the *Present* Indicative.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I be	1. We be-n, bi-n, be
2. Thou bee-st, be'st	2. Ye be-n, bi-n, be
3. He be [be-th, be-eth]	3. They be-n, bi-n, be

5. When the verb is = *exists*, *lives*, it is not to be parsed as
an auxiliary verb (see § 66, p. 54).

2. Can.

This verb once signified "to know," "to be able," cp. to
con, cunning, uncouth.

Could. This form is *weak*. The *l* has crept in from false
analogy to *should* and *would*.

3. Shall.

1. "I shall" once meant "I owe," "I am bound to," "I
ought," "I must." It still has this sense in the second and
third persons. It is seen more plainly in such expressions as,
"you *should* be kind to one another."

2. **Shall** is only an auxiliary of the future in the first person, and in interrogative sentences in the second person; as, "*shall* you *go.*" It is an independent verb in the second and third persons.

3. **Should** is a weak past form. When it means *ought* it must be parsed as an independent verb. It sometimes has a present sense. In such expressions as "*should* you see him" (= if you see him) = "if you *shall* see him," *should* must be parsed as subjunctive past, used with the force of a present tense.

4. Will.

Will once meant "to *desire,*" "*wish.*"

It is used as a sign of the future in the second and third persons. It is an independent verb in the first person, and expresses determination or purpose.

Won't = *wol not* contains the Middle English form of *will.*

Would is a weak past tense, like *should.*

When **will** means to *desire, exercise the will,* it is conjugated regularly. *Wilt* in this sense is often found for *willest.*

5. May.

May once meant "*to be able*" (cp. "Do what I *may,* I cannot please him.") It expresses also *permission.*

It must be parsed as an independent and not as an auxiliary verb.

In such expressions as "*may* they be happy," "teach me that I *may* be able to learn," *may* is in the subjunctive mood.

Might is a weak past tense. It preserves the *g* of *may,* O.E. *mæg.*

6. Must.

Must is the past tense of an old verb, *mot* "to be able," "be obliged." It expresses *necessity,* and is now used with a present and future sense.

7. Ought.

Ought is the past tense of the verb **owe**. It has now a present as well a past meaning when used to express *duty, obligation*.

Owe originally meant "to *have*," "to *own*," hence "*to have as a duty*."

When *owe* means "*to have to pay*," "*to be in debt*," it is conjugated regularly: as, (1) owe, (2) owest, (3) owes; past tense, owed.

8. Durst.

Durst is the old past tense of *dare*. When **dare** means *to challenge*, it is conjugated regularly, and has **dared** for its past tense and passive participle.

9. Wit.

The old verb *to wit*, "to know," makes its present tense *wot*; its past tense is *wist*. These forms are used in the English Bible. *To wit* is the old dative infinitive, now used as an *adverb*.

10. Have.

Hast = *hav'st* = *havest*.
Hath = *hav'th* = *haveth*.
Has = *hav's* = *haves*.
Had = *hav'd* = *haved*.

11. Do.

Did is not a weak form, like *had*, but a strong verb, being originally the reduplicated perfect tense of *do* (cp. Lat. *dedi*). Notice also the passive participle *done*.

It is used as (1) a tense auxiliary in negative and interrogative sentences; as, "*I do not believe it;*" "*Do you believe it?*" (2) To express emphasis : "*I do believe* that he *did do* it."

12. GO.

Go has lost its true past tense. We supply its loss by the verb *went*, the old past tense of *wend*, "to turn."

Gone shows that go was originally a strong verb; cp. *done*.

13. **Let**, in "let me go," is the imperative mood of the verb **let**, *to allow, permit*.

14. The subjunctive mood of anomalous verbs, with the exception of the verb "*to be*," has no suffixes to mark person.

Auxiliary Verbs.

§ 78. The auxiliary verbs used for forming *tenses* are *be, have, shall, will, do.* The verb *to be* is used for forming the passive voice. To conjugate the verb in all its parts, see tables, p. 55 and pp. 64, 65, 73–77.

CHAPTER VII.

ADVERBS.

I. DEFINITION.

§ 79. Words used *with Verbs* to mark or describe in some way what is done, are called **Adverbs**; as, The lark soars *aloft*, and *always* sings *sweetly*.

Adverbs most commonly tell us the *when*, the *where*, or the *how* of what is done. They are also much used with **Adjectives** and other **Adverbs** to mark their meanings in various ways; as, My father is *quite* well; he is *very seldom* ill; he does not like to take *too* much medicine.

Briefly, we may say that an Adverb is a word that modifies the meaning of a *verb, adjective,* or other *adverb*. (See Chap. II. § 5, p. 21.)

II. CLASSIFICATION.

Adverbs may be divided into the following classes:

1. **Adverbs of time.** *When?   Then, now, often, soon,* &c.

2. **Adverbs of place.** *Where?   Here, there, whither,* &c.

3. **Adverbs of manner.** *How?* (1) *Well, ill, badly, so, thus.* **Degree, quality;** (2) *little, much, quite, very.* **Affirmation, negation;** (3) *yes, indeed, no, not.*

Yes and *no,* originally adverbs, have become mere *exclamations* or *interjections.*

4. Adverbs of cause and effect.   Why?
therefore, thence, wherefore, whence, &c.

III. INFLEXIONS.

Most Adverbs are compared by—*more* and *most*.

See Adjectives, § 38, p. 38.

§ 80. Irregular Comparison of Adverbs.

well	better	best
ill	worse	worst
much	more	most
forth	further	furthest
far	farther	farthest
late	later	last
[rathe]	rather	[rathest]

§ 81. Adverbs are formed from other parts of
speech.

1. Nouns and Adjectives :

need-s (of necessity); *noway-s, alway-s, unaware-s,
on-ce, whil-s-t.*   This *s* is an old genitive suffix.
Whil-om and *seld-om* contain an old dative
ending.

2. Pronouns :

whe-re, whe-n, whence ; why, the-re, the-n, &c.,
he-re, &c.

3. Nouns or Adjectives compounded with a pre-
position :

an-on (*at once*), *a-bed, a-broad, of kin, of late, of old,
to-day, be-times, by turns ;* cp. *at last, for once,
meanwhile* (= in the mean while).

CHAPTER VIII.

PREPOSITIONS.

I. DEFINITION.

§ 82. Prepositions join words to mark certain relations. (See p. 21.)

By means of prepositions we are able to express the relation of things to other things, or the relation of things to their actions or attributes. The most common relations expressed by prepositions are *place, time, manner, cause.*

A preposition joins a *noun* (or *pronoun*)—

(1) to another *noun* (or *pronoun*); There is a book *on* the table.

(2) to an *adjective*; He is fond *of* his book.

(3) to a *verb*; John goes *to* school in time.

(4) to an *adverb*; *I* have tricked him sufficiently *for* my purpose.

(5) to an *interjection*; Alas, *for* me !

II. CLASSIFICATION.

§ 83. Prepositions are either *simple* or *compound.*

1. Simple :

at, by, for, in, of, off, out, to, up, with, on.

Off is merely a variant of the word of ; cp. *to* and *too.*

2. Compound :

(1) *af-ter, ov-er, un-der, through, b-ut, a-b-out, a-b-ove, un-to, in-to, be-hind, with-in, out of, fro-m, for-th, out-side, in-side.*

(2) *a-mong, a-gain, a-head, be-side, be-yond, a-thwart, be-twixt, a-round, a-long.*

(3) From verbs (participles) : *owing to, notwithstanding, except, save.*

(4) We have many adverbial phrases ; as, *instead of, close to, because of, on account of, in spite of* (= in despite of).

(5) *Round = around ; down = a-down* (= *of down*, i.e. *off* or *from* the hill).

Nigh, near, nearer, next, since, are sometimes used as prepositions.

Past, the passive participle of the verb *pass,* is a preposition in " I went *past* the church."

Over and *above* contain the root *ov* = up ; *but* is made up of *be* = by and *ut* = out.

The *a* in *a-mong, a-head,* &c. = *on ; be* in *be-side,* &c. = *by.*

CHAPTER IX.

CONJUNCTIONS.

I. DEFINITION.

§ 84. Conjunctions join sentences. (See § 7, p. 21.)

Sometimes they join two *independent* words together ; as, "*three* and *three* make *six*."

II. CLASSIFICATION.

§ 85. Conjunctions are of two kinds :

1. Co-ordinate Conjunctions, which join two independent sentences : *and, either, or, neither, nor, but, also, moreover, besides* (see § 126, p. 113).

2. Subordinate Conjunctions, which join a principal sentence to another that depends upon it for its full meaning : *for, because, since, as, if, unless, lest, that, whether, till, ere, hence, while, than, so,* &c. (See § 130, p. 116).

Some conjunctions are used in pairs, and are called *correlatives*: *both—and; what—and; as well—as; either—or,* &c.

We use many compound expressions as conjunctions :
like wise, in order that, to the end that, so that, how be it, although, albeit, nevertheless, however, notwithstanding, whereas, provided that.

See Analysis of Sentences, p. 109.

CHAPTER X.

INTERJECTIONS.

§ 86. Interjections, being mere exclamations, do not stand in grammatical relation to any other word in the sentence.   Oh ! Alas !*

Many interjections are phrases cut short; as, *good-bye ! = God be with you; marry ! = the Virgin Mary; wassail = was* (be) *hale* (healthy) ; cp. *hail ! all hail ! welcome ! adieu !*

Many *adverbs, prepositions,* and even *verbs,* are used as interjections : *how ! well ! out ! look ! behold !*

---

* The *dative* is preserved in some old expressions after *interjections* ; as, Ah *me !* Well is *him !* Alas the *day !*

CHAPTER XI.

WORD-MAKING.

§ 87. A word that cannot be reduced to a simpler form is called a **root**; as, *man, good, drink.*

§ 88. Particles added to the end of the root are called **suffixes**; as, man-*ly*, good-*ness*, drink-*ing*.

Suffixes are said to form **derivatives**; as, man-*ly*, is called a derivative from *man.*

§ 89. Particles placed before the root are called **prefixes**; as, *un*-man-ly, *mis*-deed, &c.

Prefixes are used to form **compounds**; as, *for-bid, gain-say*, &c.

Prefixes were once independent words. Many of them are still so used: cp. *mis*-take = take *a-miss; fore*-know, know *before; under*-stand, &c.

§ 90. **Compounds** are also formed by putting two words together; as, *black-bird, ink-stand.**

§ 91. Besides English suffixes we have very many others that we have borrowed from *French, Latin,* and *Greek.*

§ 92. These suffixes mark different notions and relations. Some denote the doer or agent; others form abstract nouns; a few express diminution or augmentation.

---

* The hyphen here marks the composition of words, but it is generally disused in compounds of long standing. In some cases it is retained for clearness, as, *re-open, co-operate,* &c.

English Suffixes.

§ 93. I. NOUNS.

1. The Agent :
   -er (-ar, -or); bak-*er*, do-*er*, begg-*ar*, li-*ar*,
   sail-*or*, cloth-i-*er*, law-y-*er*.
   -en ; (fem.) vix-*en*.
   -ster ; (fem.) spin-*ster*. It merely marks the
   agent in song-*ster*, malt-*ster*.

2. **Abstract Nouns**, marking *state, action, condition, being*, &c. :
   -dom ; wis-*dom*, king-*dom*.
   -hood, -head ; god-*head*, man-*hood*.
   -ing ; learn-*ing*, writ-*ing*.
   -ness ; good-*ness*, dark-*ness*.
   -red ; hat-*red*, kind-*red*.
   -ship ; friend-*ship*, lord-*ship*.
   -th, -t ; heal-*th*, steal-*th*, bread-*th*, dep-*th*,
   wid-*th*, heigh-*t*, drif-*t*, sigh-*t*.

3. **Diminutives** :
   -en ; chick-*en*.
   -ing ; farth-*ing*, tith-*ing*, shill-*ing*, whit-*ing*,
   wild-*ing*.*
   -ling ; duck-*ling*, gos-*ling*.
   -kin ; lamb-*kin*, nap-*kin*.
   -ock ; hill-*ock*, bull-*ock*.

§ 94. II. ADJECTIVES.

-ed (*like, having*): wretch-*ed*, boot-*ed*, letter-*ed*.
-en (*made of*) : gold-*en*, wood-*en*.

* Old.

-ful (*full of*) : truth-*ful*, fear-*ful*.

-ish (*somewhat like*) : girl-*ish*, whit-*ish*.

-ly (*like*) : god-*ly*, good-*ly*, love-*ly*.

-like : god-*like*, war-*like*.

-less (*without*) : shame-*less*, house-*less*.

-y (*pertaining to, abounding in*) : hill-*y*, storm-*y*.

-some (*full of*) : game-*some*, win-*some*.

-ward (*turning to*) : fro-*ward*, south-*ward*.

-teen, -ty (*ten*) ; nine-*teen*, twen-*ty*.

-th (*order*) : six-*th*, seven-*th*.

-fold (*folded*) : two-*fold*, many-*fold*.

-ern (*direction to*) : east-*ern*, north-*ern*.

§ 95. III. ADVERBS.

-ly (*like*) : god-*ly*, bad-*ly*, on-*ly*.

-ling, -long (= -wise, -ways) ; flat-*ling*,* head-*long*, side-*long*.

-meal (*division*) : limb-*meal*,* piece-*meal*.

-ward, -wards (turning to) : hither-*ward*, up-*wards*.

-wise (*manner, mode*) : other-*wise*, no-*wise*, like-*wise*.

-way, -ways : al-*ways*, straight-*way*.

-s, -ce, -st : need-*s*, twi-*ce*, beside-*s*, whil-*st*.

-n : whe-*n*, the-*n*, the-*n*-ce, he-*n*-ce.

-om : seld-*om*, whil-*om*.

-re : whe-*re*, the-*re*, he-*re*.

-ther : whi-*ther*, thi-*ther*, hi-*ther*. (See p. 83.)

* Old.

§ 96. IV. VERBS.

1. *Frequentative:*

  –k : tal-*k*, har-*k*, stal-*k*.

  –le, l : –dibb-*le*, spark-*le*, start-*le*, knee-*l*.

  –er : ling-*er*, flitt-*er*, falt-*er*.

2. *Causative (making):*

  –en, –n : fatt-*en*, short-*en*, length-*en*, lear-*n*.

Some few Causative Verbs are formed from *Intransitive* Verbs by vowel-change :

Intransitive.	Transitive.
fall	fell,
sit	set,
rise,	raise,
&c.	&c.

§ 97. Compounds.

Two words may be joined together to make a new word, as *rail-road*, *steam-boat*, &c.

The accent of the true compound is on the first syllable ; e.g., A crow is a *black bírd* but not a *bláckbird*.

The hyphen is used in writing to mark a compound ; as, *passer-by*, *coast-line*.

I. NOUN COMPOUNDS.

1. Adjective + Noun : *black-bird*, *blue-bell*.

2. Noun or Pronoun + Noun : *noon-tide*, *shoe-maker*, *hearts-ease*, *he-goat*.

3. Noun + verb : *tell-tale*, *scare-crow*, *dare-devil*.

II. ADJECTIVE COMPOUNDS.

1. Noun + Adjective : *sky-blue, blood-red, foot-sore, sea-sick, heart-rending, heart-broken.*

2. Adjective + Noun : *bare-foot.*

3. Adjective + Adjective : *blue-green, red-hot, new-made, fair-haired, six-sided.*

III. VERB COMPOUNDS.

1. Noun + Verb : *back-bite, way-lay.*

2. Adjective + Verb : *white-wash, rough-hew.*

3. Verb + Adverb : *doff* (do- off), *don* (do- on), *dout* (do- out).

§ 98. English Prefixes.

A– (*on, in*) : *a*-bed, *a*-shore, *a*-b-out.

A– (*out of, from*) : *a*-rise, *a*-wake, *a*-go.

A– (*of, off*) : *a*-kin, *a*-new, *a*-down.

After– (*following*) : *after*-noon, *after*-ward.

Al– (*all*) : *al*-one, *l*one, *al*-most, *al*-so.

At– (*to*) : *at*-one, *at*-onement.

Be– (*by*) : (1) It forms transitive and intensitive verbs : *be*-speak, *be*-think, *be*-dew, *be*-smear.

(2) It forms a part of some nouns, adverbs, and prepositions : *be*-half, *be*-quest, *be*-low, *be*-neath, *be*-sides, *b*-ut.

For– (*through, thorough*) : *for*-swear, *for*-get, *for*-bear.

Fore– (*before*) : *fore*-cast, *fore*-tell.

Forth- : *forth*-coming, *for*-ward.

Gain- (*against*) : *gain*-say (cp. *contra*-dict).

In- : *in*-come, *in*-land, *in*-lay, *in*-to.

Mis- (*amiss*) : *mis*-deed, *mis*-lead, *mis*-take.

Of- (= off, from) : *of*-fal, *off*-spring.

On- : *on*-set, *on*-ward.

Out- : *out*-cast, *out*-let, *out*-side, *out*-landish.

Over- (*above, beyond, to*) : *over*-eating, *over*-flow, *over*-hear, *over*-coat.

To- (*to, for*) : *to*-day, *to*-night, *to*-gether, *to*-ward, un-*to*-ward, *to*-morrow.

Un- (*not*) : *un*-true, *un*-truth, *un*-wise.

Un- (*back*) : *un*-do, *un*-bolt, *un*-tie.

Under- : *under*-go, *under*-mine, *under*-hand, *under*-ling, *under*-neath.

Up- : *up*-hold, *up*-shot, *up*-right, *up*-ward, *up*-on.

With- (*against, back*) : *with*-draw, *with*-hold.

§ 99. Latin and French Suffixes.

I. NOUNS.

1. **Agent** :

-ain, -an : librari-*an*, vill-*ain*, artis-*an*.

-ard : drunk-*ard*, dull-*ard*, wiz-*ard*.

-ee : trust-*ee*, devot-*ee*.

-eer, -ier : engin-*eer*, brigad-*ier*.

-our, -er ⎫
-or ⎬ emper-*or*, govern-*or*, preach-*er*,
-tor ⎭ robb-*er*, act-*or*, doct-*or*.
-sor

-trix (fem.) : execu-*trix*, testa-*trix*.

-ess : (fem.) lion-*ess*, song-str-*ess*.

-ive : capt-*ive*, fugit-*ive*.

-iff : cait-*iff*, plaint-*iff*.

-ant, -ent : merch-*ant*, gi-*ant*, stud-*ent*.

-ist : evangel-*ist*, novel-*ist*.

-ite, -it : Israel-*ite*, Jesu-*it*.

2. Abstract Nouns (see p. 89) :

-age : cour-*age*, hom-*age*, marri-*age*.

-ance, -ence : endur-*ance*, obeis-*ance*, obedi-*ence*, purvey-*ance*, ridd-*ance*.

-ancy, -ency : brilli-*ancy*, excell-*ency*.

-ess, -ice, -ise : larg-*ess*, rich-*es*, prow-*ess*, merchand-*ise*, just-*ice*.

-son, -som : beni-*son*, poi-*son*, ran-*som*.

-tion : benedic-*tion*, po-*tion*, redemp-*tion*.

-sion : conver-*sion*, occa-*sion*, proces-*sion*.

-lence : pesti-*lence*, vio-*lence*.

-ment : command-*ment*, enchant-*ment*, nourish-*ment*.

-mony : matri-*mony*, testi-*mony*.

-our : col-*our*, fav-*our*, hon-*our*.

-eur : grand-*eur*, liqu-*eur*.

-ry, -ery : chival-*ry*, jewel-*ry*, poet-*ry*, surg-*ery*, witch-*ery*.

-tude : longi-*tude*, multi-*tude*.

-ty : boun-*ty*, cruel-*ty*, frail-*ty*.

-ure : creat-*ure*, vest-*ure*, forfeit-*ure*.

-y : felon-*y*, victor-*y*, miser-*y*.

3. Diminutives :

-aster : poet-*aster*.

-el, -le : parc-*el*, dams-*el*, cast-*le*.

-icle, -cule : art-*icle*, part-*icle*, animal-*cule*.

-ule : glob-*ule*.

-et, -let : hatch-*et*, lanc-*et*, pock-*et*, brace-*let*, stream-*let*.

-ette : etiqu-*ette*, coqu-*ette*.

II. ADJECTIVES.

-al : loy-*al*, roy-*al*, equ-*al*.

-an, -ain : cert-*ain*, hum-*an*.

-ane : hum-*ane*.

-ant, -ent : ten-*ant*, ramp-*ant*, pati-*ent*.

-ary : contr-*ary*, necess-*ary*, honor-*ary*.

-ate : consider-*ate*, desol-*ate*, priv-*ate*.

-ble, -able : sta-*ble*, fee-*ble*, mov-*able*, favour-*able*, laugh-*able*, eat-*able* (edi-*ble*).

-ese : Chin-*ese*, Malt-*ese*.

-esque : burl-*esque*, pictur-*esque*.

-ile : serv-*ile*, frag-*ile*.

-il, -le : civ-*il*, fra-*il*, gent-*le*.

-ine : div-*ine*, infant-*ine*.

-ian : Austral-*ian*, Christ-*ian*.

-ive : act-*ive*, coerc-*ive*, sport-*ive*, talk-at-*ive*.

-ose : verb-*ose*, joc-*ose*.

-ous : danger-*ous*, glori-*ous*, lepr-*ous*.

-ble : dou-*ble*, tre-*ble*.

-ple : tri-*ple*, sim-*ple*.

III. VERBS.

-ate : alien-*ate*, assassin-*ate*, accentu-*ate*.
-ish : flour-*ish*, nour-*ish*, pun-*ish*.
-fy : magni-*fy*, signi-*fy*, simpli-*fy*.

§ 100. Greek Suffixes.

I. NOUNS.

-ic : log-*ic*, mus-*ic*.
-ism : fatal-*ism*, barbar-*ism*, magnet-*ism*.
-sy :* drop-*sy*, pal-*sy*.
-sis : paraly-*sis*.
-y : monarch-*y*.
-isk (*diminutive*) : aster-*isk*, obel-*isk*.

II. VERBS.

-ise, -ize : civil-*ise*, fertil-*ise*, anathemat-*ise*.

§ 101. Latin and French Prefixes.

A-, ab-, abs- (*away, from*) ; *ab*-normal, *ab*-dicate, *abs*-tract, *abs*-tain, *a*-vert, *a*-d-vance, &c.

Ad- (*to*) :

By assimilation *ad* becomes *ac*-, *af*-, *ag*-, *al*-, *am*-, *an*-, *ap*-, *ar*-, *as*-, *at*-.

ad-join, *ad*-verb, *ac*-cept.

Ante- (*before*) : *ante*-chamber, *ante*-date.
Bene- (*well*) : *bene*-fit.
Bi- (*two*), bis- (*twice*) : *bi*-ennial, *bi*-ped, *bis*-cuit.
Circum-, circu- (*around*) : *circum*-stance, *circu*-it.

---

* Norman-French form of -sis.

Com-, con-, co- (*with*):

By assimilation, *col-, com-, cor-*.

com-mand, *con*-tend, *co*-eternal, *col*-lect, *cor*-rect.

Contra-, Counter- (*against*): *contra*-dict, *counter*-act, *counter*-feit.

De- (*down*): *de*-part, *de*-scend, *de*-form.

Dis-, di- (*asunder, not*): *dis*-cord, *dis*-honour, *dis*-please, *dis*-like, *dif*-fer.

Demi- (*half*): *demi*-god.

Ex-, e- (*out of, from*): *ex*-alt, *e*-lect, *ex*-mayor.

Extra- (*beyond*): *extra*-ordinary, *extra*-work.

In-, en-, em- (*in, into, on*), with verbs: *in*-vert, *im*-pose, *il*-lumine, *en*-rich, *en*-dear, *em*-balm, *em*-bolden.

In- (*not*): *in*-cautious, *il*-legal, *im*-piety, *ir*-regular.

Inter-, intro- } (*within*) { *inter*-course, *intro*-duce.
Enter-   }   { *enter*-tain, *enter*-prise.

Male-, mal- (*ill, badly*): *male*-factor, *mal*-treat.

Mis- (from Lat. *minus*, less): *mis*-chief, *mis*-fortune.

Non- (*not*): *non*-sense, *non*-existent.

Ob- (*in front of, against*): *ob*-ject, *oc*-cupy, *of*-fer, *op*-pose.

Par-, Per- (*through*): *per*-force, *per*-spire, *per*-jure, *par*-don, *pel*-lucid, *pol*-lute.

Post- (*after*): *post*-date, *post*-script.

Pre- (*before*): *pre*-dict, *pre*-face.

Pur- (*forth*): *pur*-chase, *pur*-vey.

Pro- (*forward, forth, for*): *pro*-ject, *pro*-pose, *pro*-noun.

E

Re- (*back, again*): *re*-claim, *re*-join, *re*-act, *re*-new.

Retro- (*backward*): *retro*-spect, *retro*-grade.

Se- (*apart, away*): *se*-clude, *se*-parate, *sed*-ition.

Semi- (*half*): *semi*-circle.

Sub- (*under*): *sub*-ject, *suc*-cour, *suf*-fer, *sug*-gest, *sub*-committee, *sus*-tain.

Super-, sur- (*above, over, beyond*): *super*-structure, *sur*-face, *sur*-pass.

Subter- (*beneath*): *subter*-fuge

Trans- (*across*): *trans*-figure, *trans*-form.

Tra-, tres- (*across*): *tra*-verse, *tres*-pass.

Ultra- (*beyond*): *ultra*-liberal, *ultra*-marine.

Vice-, vis- (*instead of*): *vice*-regent, *vis*-count, *vice*-roi.

§ 102. Greek Prefixes.

Amphi- (*about, on both sides*): *amphi*-theatre, *amphi*-bious.

An-, a- (*not, without*; like English *un-*): *an*-archy, *a*-pathy.

Ana- (*up to, again, back*): *ana*-tomy, *ana*-logy.

Anti-, ant- (*opposite to, against*): *anti*-christ *ant*-arctic.

Apo- (*away from, from*): *apo*-logy, *apo*-strophe.

Arch-, archi- (*chief, head*): *arch*-heretic, *arch* bishop, *archi*-tect.

Auto- (*self*): *auto*-graph, *auto*-biography.

Cata-, cat- (*down*): *cata*-ract, *cat*-hedral.

Dia- (*through*): *dia*-meter, *dia*-logue.

Di- (*in two*): *di*-syllable, *di*-phthong.

Dys- (*ill*) : *dys*-peptic, *dys*-entry.

Ec-, ex- (*out, from*) : *ex*-odus, *ec*-centric.

En- (*in*) : *en*-thusiasm, *em*-phasis, *el*-lipsis.

Eu- (*well*) : *eu*-phony, *ev*-angelist.

Epi- (*upon, or*) : *epi*-tome, *ep*-och.

Hemi- (*half*) : *hemi*-sphere.

Hyper- (*above, over, beyond*) : *hyper*-critical, *hyper*-bolical.

Hypo- (*under*) : *hypo*-crite, *hypo*-thesis.

Meta- (*after, across, change*) : *meta*-morphosis, *met*-aphor, *met*-onymy.

Mono- (*single, alone*) : *mono*-graph, *mon*-archy.

Pan- (*all*) : *pan*-theist.

Para- (*beside*) : *para*-phrase, *para*-ble, *par*-ody.

Peri- (*around*) : *peri*-meter, *peri*-phrases.

Pro- (*before*) : *pro*-gramme, *pro*-logue.

Syn- (*with*) : *syn*-thesis, *syn*-tax, *sym*-pathy, *syl*-lable.

CHAPTER XII.

SYNTAX.

§ 103. **Syntax** teaches us how words are put together in a sentence. It treats of the right use of the parts of speech and their inflexions.

The chief combinations of the Parts of Speech are:

1. A verb and its subject; as, "*Time flies.*"
2. An adjective and its noun; as, "*A good man.*"
3. A verb and its object; as, "John *hurt* the *dog.*"
4. An adverb and the verb, adjective, or adverb to which it is joined. (See examples on p. 21.)

The *first*, which shows the relation of the *Predicate* to its *subject*, is called **Predicative** combination. (See § 118, p. 109.)

The *second* is called **Attributive** combination. (See p. 111, for the different modes of expressing an *attribute.*)

The *third* is called **Objective** combination. (See pp. 50, 112.)

The *fourth* is called **Adverbial** combination. (See pp. 82, 112, 116.)

§ 104. 1. Verb and Subject.   (See p. 112.)

1. A finite verb is in the same number and person as its subject; as,

I think	*We think*
Thou think-est	*You think*
He think-s	*They think*

The verb must agree with its subject in number and person.

I thinks would be wrong, because *I* is the first person and *thinks* of the third.

The subject of a finite verb is said to be in the Nominative case.

2. The verb *to be* takes a Nominative case after it as well as before it; as,

> "*He* is a *king.*"
> "The *king* is a *child.*"

Some verbs are used like the verb *to be* in this respect; as, "He *became* a *bankrupt.*" "He *seems* an *idiot.*" "He is *called* a *poet.*" "He is *made* a *knight.*"

3. When two or more subjects in the singular number are joined together by the conjunction and, the verb must be put in the *plural* number; as, "John and William *are* good boys."

4. Two or more singular subjects joined by or or nor take a verb in the *singular* number; as, "John *or* William, *or* James *is* going with me." "Neither John *nor* William *is* going."

(1) *Or* originally meant *either* (see p. 47). It implies any *one* of two, or an alternative.

(2) When two nouns are of different numbers or persons the verb must agree with the latter. "Either he or I *am* right." "Neither John nor his *brothers have come.*"

5. When the subject is a **collective** and singular noun the verb is sometimes put into the plural; as, "The *jury were* dismissed." "The *multitude were* divided."

When the collective noun refers to a number of things considered separately, then the verb should be in the plural number. If the objects denoted by the collective noun be regarded as a whole, the verb should be singular; as,

(1) The jury (each of them) were dismissed.
(2) The council (as one body) has chosen its president.

§ 105. 2. Adjective and Noun.

1. When the adjective is used after the verb *to be* it is said to be used *predicatively*; as, "The wound is *mortal*." When put close to the noun (before or after it) it is said to be used *attributively*; as, "He received a *mortal* wound."

The adjective is used predicatively after the verbs *become, seem, appear, turn,* &c. (See p. 101.)

2. A noun (*or* pronoun) used as an *attribute* to another noun, signifying the same thing, is said to be in **apposition** with it; as, "William the *Norman* conquered England" = "The *Norman* William conquered England."

(1) The word *Norman* is in **apposition** to *William*, and agrees with it in number and case.
(2) Sometimes the preposition *of* comes before the appositional word; as, The county of Rutland = The county Rutland.

A noun (*or* pronoun) in the Possessive case stands in the relation of an attribute to another noun.

Sometimes the preposition *of* marks the same relation as the sign of the possessive case.   (See p. 34.)

> "Eye *of newt* and toe *of frog,*
> Wool *of bat* and tongue *of dog,*
> *Adder's* fork and *blind-worm's* sting,
> *Lizard's* leg and *howlet's* wing."
>
> *Macbeth* iv. 1.

§ 106. 3. Verb and Object.

1. DIRECT OBJECT.

1. The **direct object** of a transitive verb is put in the Objective case; as, "The lightning *struck* the *tree* and *made it* wither."   (See p. 33.)

2. The verbs *teach, ask, forgive, tell,* &c., take two Objectives, one of a person and the other of a thing; as, "He taught his *pupils history.*"   "They asked *him his name.*"

The verbs *to make, name, call, esteem,* &c., take two Objectives of the same person or thing; as, "They made *him king.*"   "They called *John* a *traitor.*"

3. Intransitive verbs often take an objective case, akin in form or meaning to the verb itself: "He *dreamed* a dream."   "They *went* their *way.*"

The Objective case is sometimes used after intransitive verbs to express (1) *time—how long?* (2) *space— how much?* "The battle lasted the whole *day.*" "He slept three *hours.*"   "I walked two *miles* a day."

The Objective case follows some few impersonal verbs, as it did in Old English ; as, it repents *me* ; *me* lists ; it ails *me* ; it irks *me* ; it recks *me* ; it concerns *us* ; it grieves *me*.

2. Indirect Object.

The **Indirect Object** comes after many transitive and intransitive verbs. It may be known by asking the question *to* or *for whom* or *what?* (See p. 33.) "He built *me* a house." "Give *me* my book."

The Indirect object is used with the impersonal verbs, *become, behove, please, likes, beseem,* &c. ; cp. *methinks* = it seems *to me* ; *methought* = it seemed *to me*. "Good actions become *us*." "It behoved *Christ* to suffer." "If it please *you* ;" or, "if *you* please."

The Indirect object follows the verb *worth* ; as, "Woe worth (= be to) *the day !*" In imitation of this we have, "Woe is *me !*" "Well is *him !*"

The words *like* (and *unlike*), *nigh, near, next,* are followed by the Indirect object. "He is *like* a giant." "He was *near us*."

Many adjectives (as well as verbs) are followed by the preposition *to,* and the governed noun may be treated as the Indirect object ; as, *dear to, cruel to, fair to, similar to, obedient to, equal to.*

The adjective *worth* and *worthy* (also *unworthy*) are sometimes followed by the *Indirect object* ; as, "It is not *worth* one's *while*."

In O.E. these adjectives, like many others, governed the genitive case ; cp. the adjectives, *slow of, swift of, hard of, weary of, worthy of, guilty of, fond of, proud of, ashamed of* ; and the verbs, *think of, smell of, taste of, laugh at* (originally *laugh of*).

The genitive was once used with the adjectives *long, high, broad,* &c. ; in such sentences as "The box was six yards *long*, and six feet *broad*, and ten inches *high*." "The boy is two years *old*."

§ 107. 4. Adverb and Verb, Adjective, or Adverb.

Adverbs, as we have already seen (p. 82), are joined to *verbs, adjectives,* or *adverbs,* to express certain relations of *time, place, manner, cause,* and *effect.*

The adverb is not always a simple word. It is often (1) a phrase, (2) clause *or* sentence ; as,

    (1) " He went *on shore*."

        " He came down *step by step*."

    (2) " *The day having dawned* we set out."

        " *When the day dawned* we set out."

<div align="center">(See § 130, p. 116.)</div>

<div align="center">MISCELLANEOUS RULES.</div>

<div align="center">1. Pronouns.</div>

§ 108. The relative agrees with its antecedent in number and person ; as, " The boy *who* was late was punished." " He *that* is contented is happy." " O thou *that* leadest Israel."

The relative does not always agree in *case* with its antecedent. " He *whom* we worship, by *whose* gift we live, is the Lord."

As the relative introduces a new clause, its case must depend upon its relation to the verb in its own clause. In the example quoted above, *whom* is objective, because governed by the transitive verb *worship.* " Tell me *whom* I am " is wrong ; it ought to be, " Tell me *who* I am." " Do you know *who* you speak to," ought to be, " Do you know *whom*," &c.

§ 109. The Indefinite Pronouns, **each, every, either, neither,** are *singular,* and must be followed by a verb and pronoun in the *singular.* " *Each* person *knows his* own property." " *Every* bird *tries* to protect *its* young." " *Either* of the two *is* to be taken."

2. Verbs.

§ 110. The **Indicative Mood** states a positive fact, and is used in simple assertions and questions. (See p. 43.)

§ 111. The **Subjunctive Mood** is used to express a doubt, supposition, opinion. The inflected subjunctive has nearly gone out of use. It is still found after such conjunctions as *if, unless, though, lest, till*; as, "*If* fortune *serve* me, I'll requite this kindness." "For murder, *though it have* no tongue, will speak." "Let me stand here *till* thou *remember* it." (See p. 51.)

§ 112. Infinitive Mood.

The **Infinitive Mood** is used after the verbs *shall, will, may, can, must, dare, let, do*, without the sign *to* before it; as, "He can *read*." "He will *talk*."

1. The infinitive without *to* occurs after the transitive verbs *bid, make, see, hear, feel*.

2. It is used after *go*; cp. "*go seek*," which is sometimes changed to "*go and seek*."

The gerundial infinitive is the infinitive with the preposition *to* (= *for*) before it, used after *nouns* and *adjectives*; as, "A house *to let*." "Ready *to go*." "Hard *to tell*." Here the *infinitives* are equal to *verbal nouns* with the preposition *for*; as, *to let* = *for letting*, &c.

The gerundial infinitive is also used to mark a purpose; as, "What went ye out *to see*?"

The *gerundial infinitive* is so called because it often corresponds to a *gerund* in Latin.

The simple infinitive must be either the nominative (*i.e.* subject) or object; as, "*To err* is human." "He began *to err*" (object).

§ 113. Participles.

Participles in -*ing* and -*ed* are used as adjectives, and always refer to some noun in the sentence to which they belong. They may be used attributively or predicatively (see p. 53); as, " A *loving* mother." " His father was *loving* and kind to him." "A *drunken* man." " A *bruised* reed."

Participles (*and* Adjectives) with *the* before them are used as nouns; as, "the *living*;" "the *dead*;" "the first *begotten*;" "the Lord's *anointed*."

The participle is sometimes used absolutely with the Nominative case before it; as, " The *dawn appearing*, we rose;" a noun, or pronoun in " *This done*, Mazeppa spread his cloak." " *She dying*, the fortune returned to her family."

The participle is said to be used *absolutely* because it stands in no grammatical relation to any other word in the sentence.

The noun *or* pronoun before the participle is said to be used *absolutely* because it does not stand as the subject or object of any finite verb. This is called the **Nominative absolute.**

§ 114. Verbal Nouns.

Verbal Nouns in -ing. These must not be confounded with the present participles in -ing.

Verbal nouns are used either as nominatives or objectives.

(1) The *mending* of the table will not take long.
(2) The *mending* must be done at once.
(3) The table wants *mending*.
(4) The cost of *mending* the table will not be great.

The verbal noun *mending* in (4) seems to govern the noun table ; but in older English the preposition *of* came between the verbal noun and the following noun, and the phrase would have stood thus : "The cost *of the mending of the table.*" (See example (1), p. 107.)

In such phrases as, "The house is *building*," &c. (= "the house is *a-building*"), the form in *-ing* is a verbal noun.

3. Prepositions.

§ 115. Prepositions are said to govern the objective case (see p. 33).

Notwithstanding, considering, respecting, &c., were once participles used absolutely (see § 29, p. 107). They have now got the force of prepositions.

4. Conjunctions.

§ 116. Conjunctions simply join sentences. They must be carefully distinguished from (1) Adverbs, (2) Prepositions.

Some words, as *save, except, but, ere,* are used both as Conjunctions and Prepositions.

But is used as three parts of speech (see p. 22).

(1) " I cannot *but* believe."

Here *not but* must be taken together as a compound Adverb = *only.*

(2) In "There is no one *but* knows," *but* stands for the older English, *that ne* = that not. It must be parsed as a *Conjunction.*

Cp. " No roof arose, *but* was open to the homeless stranger " = "No roof arose *that* was *not,*" &c.

CHAPTER XIII.

ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

§ 117. A complete thought put into words is called a Sentence.

Sentence (Lat. *sententia*) is the declaration of a judgment. A complete sentence makes complete sense. Every sentence expresses either an assertion or a question, command, wish, &c.

To analyse a sentence is to break it up into its separate parts.

§ 118. Subject and Predicate.

We can break up every sentence into two parts :

(1) The name of that of which an assertion is made.

(2) What is asserted about the thing spoken of, or named.

The name of that of which an assertion or statement is made of is called the **Subject.**

What is said about the subject is called the **Predicate.**

SUBJECT.	PREDICATE.
Corn	grows.
Rain	falls.
Snow	is white.

Every sentence must contain these two parts. Sometimes the subject is omitted ; as, *Go = go* [thou].

SUBJECT.	PREDICATE.
Thou	go.

§ 119. The Subject.

As the **Subject** names something that is spoken of, it must be—

(1) A **Noun.** (See p. 25 for the various *kinds of nouns.*)

(2) Some word or words that may take the place and do the duty of a noun, as a **Pronoun** or a **Sentence.**

Examples :—

SUBJECT.	PREDICATE.
Man	is mortal.
He	is erring.
He	is in error.
Erring	is human.
To err	is human.
That he erred	is certain.

The dead are happy.   *The slipping of a stone* ruined all.

§ 120. The Enlarged subject.

The simple subject is a single noun (or its equivalent) in the *Nominative* case.

Every noun, however, may have an adjective joined to it to qualify it. The *subject* noun with its adjective is called the enlarged subject; as,

(1) *Sharp words*   give offence.

(2) *A virtuous man*   will be rewarded.

SIMPLE SUBJECT.	ENLARGEMENT.	PREDICATE.
(1) *Words*	sharp	give offence.
(2) *Man*	a, virtuous	will be rewarded.

ENLARGED SUBJECT.	PREDICATE.
(1) *Sharp words*	give offence.
(2) *A virtuous man*	will be rewarded.

§ 121. Instead of adjectives we may use words, phrases, or sentences, to qualify or enlarge the subject. These are called **Attributes,** and may be—

(1) A noun or pronoun in the possessive case; as, "*John's* hat is lost." "*His* coat is torn."

(2) An adjective phrase; as, "A man of *wisdom* is respected." "A walk *in the fields* is pleasant." "A desire *to learn* is to be encouraged."

(3) An adjective sentence; as, "John, *who is a carpenter*, made this box."

(4) A shortened adjective clause, called a *noun in apposition*; as, "John *the carpenter*, made this box."

Participles, whether they come before or after the noun, are adjectives; as, "*Rolling* stones gather no moss," or, "stones *rolling continually*, gather no moss."

§ 122. The Predicate.

The **Predicate** is that part of the sentence that makes a statement about the subject. It must therefore contain the chief verb of the sentence. When the predicate is a single word it is a verb; as, "Dogs *bark*."

The verb "to be," when it does not mean *to live*, or *exist*, cannot form a predicate. We must therefore join some word to it to make the predicate; as, "The earth *is round*."

Here we predicate of the earth, *roundness*, not existence; cp. "The lion *is a noble animal*."

Other verbs, like *become*, *seem*, &c., require another word after them to form the predicate. (See pp. 101, 102.)

§ 123. When the Predicate consists of more than a finite verb it may be called the *Enlarged predicate*; as, " The village master *taught his little school.*"

When the simple predicate is a transitive verb an object must of course be added.   (See § 56, p. 50.)

Subject.	Predicate.	Object.
The village master	taught	*his little school.*

(1) The object must be a noun, or some word doing duty for a noun.   It may have *attributes* joined to it.   (See Subject, p. 110.)

Some verbs have two objects, (1) direct, (2) indirect ; as,

Subject.	Predicate.	Object.
They	gave	*him* (indirect) *a book* (direct).

Others have two direct objects :

Subject.	Predicate.	Object.
They	made	*him a king.*

In some sentences we have a secondary verbal object, or compound object :

Subject.	Predicate.	Object.
I	heard	*her sing.*
We	saw	*him run.*
I	heard	*him singing a song.*
We	saw	*her cutting a rose.*

Some writers on grammar call the object the *Completion of the Predicate, or the Complement of the Predicate.*

§ 124. The verb may be qualified by an Adverb, or some word or words (phrase or sentence) doing duty for an adverb.   This addition to the predicate is called the Adverbial qualification of the Predicate, *or* Adverbial adjunct.

Some grammarians prefer the term Extension of the Predicate instead of Adverbial adjunct.

Subject.	Predicate.	Adverbial Adjunct.
He	acted	*wisely.*
He	acted	*in a wise manner.*
He	acted	*as a wise man should act.*

§ 125. The **Adverbial Adjuncts** (*or* **Extensions**) are nothing else than adverbial adjuncts or qualifications of the Predicate, and they may be put into the same classes as Adverbs (see p. 82), according as they mark the *when, where, how,* and *why* of the Predicate.

Examples :

Subject.	Predicate.	Object.	Adverbial Adjuncts.
The village-preacher's modest mansion	rose		near yonder copse (place).
All	met		here (place) on a Sunday-eve (time).
I	knew	him	well (manner).
He	gave	me (indirect) a book (direct)	yesterday (time).
Swallows	appear		spring coming (time).
He	came		to see me (cause).

§ 126. The Compound Sentence.

When a sentence contains only one subject and one finite verb it is called a **Simple** sentence.   Two

simple sentences may be united together by a co-ordinate conjunction (see p. 86) to form a compound sentence; as, "*Birds fly* and *fish swim.*"

Each member of the compound sentence makes complete sense by itself, and neither depends upon the other for its meaning. The second member of a compound sentence is said to be *co-ordinate* with the first.

(1) Compound sentences may be contracted; as, "John returned home and James returned home yesterday"="John and James returned home yesterday."

(2) *And* is often used to join two or more co-ordinate terms belonging to the same word in the sentence; as, That *new* and *expensive* toy is spoilt.

SUBJECT.	PREDICATE.
That new and expensive toy	is spoilt.

§ 127. The Complex Sentence.

We have seen that a sentence may do duty for (1) a **Noun**, (2) an **Adjective**, (3) an **Adverb**. As such sentences depend upon another sentence called the *Principal* one, for their full meaning, they are hence called **Subordinate** sentences. **Subordinate** sentences are of three kinds—**Substantival, Adjectival,** and **Adverbial.** The principal sentence, with the subordinate part or parts, is called a **Complex Sentence.**

In the complex sentence, "They lived unknown, till persecution dragged them into fame," the two sentences are—

> (1) "They lived unknown."
> (2) "Persecution dragg'd them into fame."

Each sentence as it stands makes complete sense : but the *full meaning* of sentence (2) is not felt before it is joined and related to sentence (1) by the *connecting* word or conjunction *till*.

1. Noun-Sentences.

§ 128. A Substantival or noun-sentence does the duty of a *noun*, and may be used as the subject or object of the verb in the principal sentence. It is sometimes introduced by the word *that*; as, (subject) "*That Julius Cæsar invaded Britain* is a well-known fact ;" (object) "He tried to prove *that the earth is not round.*"

Indirect questions are often *objects* ; as, "Tell me *who said so.*" "Ask him *why he did so.*" "Can he explain *how it is done.*"

2. Adjective-Sentences.

§ 129. The Adjectival sentence does the duty of an *adjective*, and qualifies some *noun* in the principal sentence.

It is very often joined to the principal sentence by means of a *relative pronoun* or *relative adverb*.

> (1) At daybreak on a hill they stood *that overlooked the moor.*
>
> (2) And shall the audacious traitor brave
>   The presence *where our banners wave?*

In (1) the adjective-sentence qualifies the noun *hill* in the principal sentence.

In (2) the adjective-sentence qualifies the noun *presence* in the principal sentence. Notice that *where* = in which.

3. Adverb-Sentences.

§ 130. The **Adverbial** sentence does the duty of an adverb, and modifies some *verb, adjective,* or *adverb,* in the principal sentence.

The classification of adverbial sentences is the same as that of adverbs (see p. 82). Adverbial sentences are generally joined to the principal sentence by a *subordinate* conjunction (see p. 86).

Examples :

"On Linden, *when the sun was low,*
All bloodless lay the untrodden snow."

"We went *where the lions were kept.*" "He died *as he had lived.*" "That man is as good *as he is great.*" "He is taller *than his brother.*" "*The higher he climbs* the more heavily he will fall." "The weather was so cold *that I was nearly frozen.*"

A subordinate member of a complex sentence may stand in the place of principal to some other subordinate sentence, that modifies one of its elements. (See (2), p. 118.)

§ 131. EXAMPLES.

(1) "There, at the foot of yonder nodding beech, | His listless length at noontide would he stretch,
That wreathes its old fantastic root so high, | And pore upon the brook that babbles by."

Sentence.	Kind of Sentence.	Subject.	Predicate.	Object.	Adverbial Adjunct. (Extension of the Predicate.)
(1) There, at the foot of yonder nodding beech, his listless length at noontide would he stretch.	Principal Sentence.	he	would stretch	his listless length	there, at the foot of yonder beech (place) at noontide (time).
(2) That wreathes its old fantastic root so high.	Subordinate, Adjective to *beech* in sentence (1).	that	wreathes	its old fantastic root	so high (manner).
(3) And [he would] pore upon the brook.	Principal Sentence, Co-ordinate with (1).	he	would pore upon	the brook.	...
(4) That babbles by.	Subordinative, Adjective to *brook* in (4).	that	babbles	...	by (place).

(2) "If you have seen a cat (which, though it looks so meek, is of the tiger kind), fall on a poor little mouse, you may imagine how the tiger seizes on a deer."

Sentence.	Kind of Sentence.	Subject.	Predicate.	Object.	Adverbial Adjuncts (Extension of the Predicate.)
(1) If you have seen a cat fall on a poor little mouse,	Subordinate, adverbial to *imagine* in (4).	you	have seen	a cat fall on a poor little mouse.	...
(2) which is of the tiger kind,	Subordinate, adjective to *cat* in (1).	which	is of the tiger kind	...	...
(3) though it looks so meek,	Subordinate adverbial to predicate in (2).	it	looks so meek	...	...
(4) you may imagine	Principal sentence.	you	may imagine	how the tiger, &c.	...
(5) how the tiger seizes on a deer.	Subordinate, noun (object) to *imagine* in (4).	the tiger	seizes on	a deer.	...

(3) " As soon as Sir Roger was acquainted with it, finding that his servant's indiscretion proceeded wholly from affection and good-will, he only told him that he had paid him too high a compliment."

Sentence.	Kind of Sentence.	Subject.	Predicate.	Object.	Adverbial Adjunct (Extension of the Predicate.)
(1) As soon as Sir Roger was acquainted with it,	Subordinate, adverbial to (3).	Sir Roger	was acquainted with	it	...
(2) that his servant's indiscretion proceeded wholly from affection and good-will,	Subordinate, noun to *finding* in (3).	his servant's indiscretion.	proceeded	...	wholly (manner) from affection and good-will (cause).
(3) he (finding, &c.) only told him	Principal.	he	told	him that, &c.	finding (cause) (=because he found) only (manner).
(4) That he had paid him	Subordinate, noun to *told* in (3).	he	had paid	him too high a compliment.	...

§ 132. MODEL OF GRAMMATICAL PARSING.

I. **Noun** :—1. *Kind* (Common, Proper) ; 2. *Number* ; 3. *Gender* ; 4. *Case* ; 5. *Syntax*.

II. **Pronoun** :—1. *Kind* (Personal, Demonstrative, &c.) ; 2. *Person* ; 3. *Number* ; 4. *Gender* ; 5. *Case* ; 6. *Syntax*.

III. **Adjective** : 1. *Kind* ; 2. *Degree of Comparison* ; 3. *Function* (attribute of, *or* predicate of).

IV. **Verb** :—1. *Kind* (Transitive, Intransitive) ; 2. *Conjugation* (Strong, Weak) ; 3. *Voice* ; 4. *Mood* ; 5. *Tense* ; 6. *Person* ; 7. *Number* ; 8. *Syntax* (agreeing with) ; 9. *Parts* ; (Present, Past, Passive Participle).

V. **Adverb** :—1. *Kind* ; 2. *Degree of Comparison* ; 3. *Function* (qualifying Verb, Adjective, or Adverb).

VI. **Preposition** :—1. *Kind* ; 2. *Function* (joining a Noun to a Noun, &c.).

VII. **Conjunction** :—1. *Kind* ; 2. *Function* (joining two sentences co-ordinately or subordinately).

EXAMPLE.

My father lived at Blenheim then,
　　Yon little stream hard by ;
They burnt his dwelling to the ground,
　　And he was forced to fly.

My	...	Pronoun, personal, possessive, 1st person, singular number, common gender, attribute of *father*.
father	...	Noun, common, singular number, masculine gender, nominative case, subject of *lived*.

lived	...	Verb, intransitive, weak conjugation, active voice, indicative mood, past tense, 3rd person, singular number, agreeing with its subject *father*. Parts : *live, lived, lived.*
at	...	Preposition, joining *lived* and *Blenheim*.
Blenheim	...	Noun, proper, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, after *at*.
then	...	Adverb of time, qualifying the verb *lived*.
Yon	...	Adjective, demonstrative, used as the attribute of *stream*.
little	...	Adjective of quality, positive degree, attribute of *stream*.
stream	...	Noun, common, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, governed by the compound preposition *hard by*.
hard-by	...	Preposition, joining *lived* and *stream*.
They	...	Pronoun, demonstrative, 3rd person, plural number, common gender, nominative case, subject of *burnt*.
burnt	...	Verb, transitive, weak conjugation, active voice, indicative mood, past tense, 3rd person, plural number, agreeing with its subject *they*. Parts : *burn, burnt, burnt.*
his	...	Pronoun, demonstrative, possessive, 3rd person, singular number, masculine gender, attribute of *dwelling*.
dwelling	...	Noun, common, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, governed by the transitive verb *burnt*.
to	...	Preposition, joining *burnt* and *ground*.
the	...	Adjective, demonstrative, attribute of *ground*.
ground	...	Noun, common, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, after the preposition *to*.

And	...	Conjunction, co-ordinate, joining the two sentences, "They burnt," &c., to "He was forced to fly."
he	...	Pronoun, demonstrative, 3rd person, singular number, masculine gender, nominative case, agreeing with the verb *was forced.*
was forced*	...	Verb, transitive, weak, passive voice, indicative mood, past tense, 3rd person, singular, agreeing with its subject *he.* Parts: *force forced, forced.*
to fly	...	Verb, intransitive, weak, infinitive mood, indirect object, after *was forced.*

§ 133. Examples of Analysis of Sentences not in a Tabular form.

(See § 131, p. 117.)

1. My worthy friend, Sir Roger, when we are talking of the malice of parties, very frequently tells us an accident that happened when he was a school-boy.

A.

My worthy friend, Sir Roger, very frequently tells us an accident.

---

* The verbs *was* and *forced* may be parsed separately as follows:

was .. Verb, intransitive, strong, auxiliary, indicative mood, past tense, 3rd person, singular, agreeing with its subject *he.*

forced .. Verb, transitive, weak, passive participle of the verb force, forming with *was* a passive past tense.

B.

(when) we are talking of the malice of parties

C.

that happened

D.

(when) he was a school-boy.

- A. Principal sentence.
- B. Subordinate, Adverbial (time) to *tells* in A.
- C. Subordinate, Adjectival to *accident* in A.
- D. Subordinate, Adverbial (time) to *happened* in C.

A.

Friend	Subject.
My worthy, Sir Roger,	Attributes of Subject.
tells	Predicate.
us	Object (indirect).
an accident	Object (direct).
very frequently	Adverbial adjunct (time).

B.

When	*Connective*, joining A and B.
we	Subject.
are talking of	Predicate.
malice	Object.
the, of parties	Attributes of Object.

C.

That	Subject.
happened	Predicate.

D.

When	*Connective*, joining C and D.
he	Subject.
was a school-boy	Predicate.

2. I had worn out all the waistcoats I had, and my
business was now to try if I could not make jackets
out of the great watch-coats which I possessed, and
such other materials as I had.

A.

I had worn out all the waistcoats

B.

[that] I had

C.

(and) my business was now to try

D.

(if) I could not make jackets out of the great watch-coats and
such other materials

E.

(which) I possessed

F.

as I had.

- A. Principal ; co-ordinate with C.
- B. Subordinate Adjective to *waistcoats* in A.
- C. Principal ; co-ordinate with A.
- D. Subordinate Noun (object) to *try* in C.
- E. Subordinate Adjective to *waistcoats* in D.
- F. Subordinate Adjective to *materials* in D.

A.

I	Subject.
had worn out	Predicate.
waistcoats	Object.
all the	Attributes of Object.

B.

I	Subject.
had	Predicate.
[that]	Object.

C.

And	*Connective*, joining A and C.
business	Subject.
my	Attribute of Subject.
was now to try	Predicate.

D.

If	*Connective*, joining C and D.
I	Subject.
could not make	Predicate.
jackets	Object.
out of the great watch-coats and (out of) such other materials	Adverbial adjunct, (material) instrument.

E.

I	Subject.
possessed	Predicate.
which	Object.*

F.

I	Subject.
had	Predicate.
as	Object.*

---

* Notice that the relatives *which* and *as* are used as *connectives*.

CONTRACTIONS.

O. E.	=	Old English.
Fr.	=	French.
N. Fr.	=	Norman-French.
Cp.	=	Compare.

WORKS

BY THE SAME AUTHOR.

———

Historical Outlines of English Accidence. Comprising Chapters on the History and Development of the Language, and on Word-Formation. New Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 6s.

Elementary Lessons in Historical English Grammar. Containing Accidence and Word-Formation. New Edition. 18mo. 2s. 6d.

Historical Outlines of English Syntax. By the REV. R. MORRIS, LL.D., and DR. L. KELLNER. Extra fcap. 8vo. [*In the press.*

English Grammar Exercises. By the REV. R. MORRIS, LL.D., and H. C. BOWEN, M.A. 18mo. 1s.

———

Exercises on Morris's Primer of English Grammar. By JOHN WETHERELL, M.A., of the Middle School, Liverpool. 18mo. 1s.

———

MACMILLAN & CO., LONDON.

WORKS ON LANGUAGE.

A Shakespearian Grammar. An attempt to Illustrate some of the Differences between Elizabethan and Modern English. By the Rev. E. A. ABBOTT, D.D , Head Master of the City of London School. New Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 6s.

Longer English Poems. With Notes Philological and Explanatory, and an Introduction on the Teaching of English. Chiefly for Use in Schools. Edited by J. W. HALES, M.A., Professor of English Literature, King's College, London. New Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 4s. 6d.

The Old and Middle English. Being a New Edition, much enlarged, of "The Sources of Standard English." By T. L. KINGTON OLIPHANT, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 9s.

The New English. By the same Author. 2 vols., crown 8vo. 21s.

Words and Places; or, Etymological Illustrations of History, Ethnology, and Geography. By the Rev. ISAAC TAYLOR. Third Edition, thoroughly revised and condensed for School Use. Extra fcap. 8vo. 6s.

Johnson's Lives of the Poets. The Six Chief Lives, with Macaulay's "Life of Johnson." Edited with a Preface and Notes, by MATTHEW ARNOLD. New and Cheaper Edition. Crown 8vo. 4s. 6d.

A Poetry Book. Compiled by M. A. WOODS, Head Mistress of the Clifton High School for Girls. Fcap. 8vo. In 3 vols. Vol. I., 2s. 6d, ; vols. II. and III., 4s. 6d. each.

The Bible Word-Book: a Glossary of Archaic Words and Phrases in the Authorised Version of the Bible and the Book of Common Prayer. By W. ALDIS WRIGHT, M.A., Fellow and Bursar of Trinity College, Cambridge. Second Edition, revised and enlarged. Crown 8vo. 7s. 6d.

A History of English Literature in Four Volumes. Crown 8vo.

Early English Literature. By STOPFORD BROOKE, M.A. [In preparation.

Elizabethan Literature. By GEORGE SAINTS-BURY. 7s. 6d.

Eighteenth Century Literature, 1660–1780. By EDMUND GOSSE. 7s. 6d.

The Modern Period. By PROFESSOR E. DOWDEN. [In preparation.

SCIENCE PRIMERS.

UNDER THE JOINT EDITORSHIP OF

Profs. HUXLEY, ROSCOE, AND BALFOUR STEWART.
18mo. Illustrated. 1s. each.

INTRODUCTORY PRIMER. By Professor HUXLEY, F.R.S.
CHEMISTRY. By Sir HENRY E. ROSCOE, F.R.S. With Questions.
PHYSICS. By BALFOUR STEWART, F.R.S. With Questions.
PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY. By ARCHIBALD GEIKIE, F.R.S. With Questions.
GEOLOGY. By ARCHIBALD GEIKIE, F.R.S.
PHYSIOLOGY. By Professor M. FOSTER, M.D., F.R.S.
ASTRONOMY. By J. N. LOCKYER, F.R.S.
BOTANY. By Sir J. D. HOOKER, K.C.S.I., F.R.S.
LOGIC. By W. STANLEY JEVONS, F.R.S.
POLITICAL ECONOMY. By W. STANLEY JEVONS, F.R.S.

Others to follow.

HISTORY AND LITERATURE PRIMERS.

18mo. 1s. each.

Edited by JOHN RICHARD GREEN.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR. By R. MORRIS, LL.D.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR EXERCISES. By R. MORRIS, LL.D., and H. C. BOWEN, M.A.
EXERCISES ON MORRIS'S PRIMER OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR. By J. WETHERELL, M.A.
ENGLISH COMPOSITION. By Prof. NICHOL.
ENGLISH LITERATURE. By STOPFORD BROOKE, M.A.
SHAKSPERE. By Prof. DOWDEN.
CHILDREN'S TREASURY OF LYRICAL POETRY. By F. T. PALGRAVE. In Two Parts, each 1s.
GREEK LITERATURE. By Prof. JEBB, Litt.D.
HOMER. By the Right Hon. W. E. GLADSTONE.
PHILOLOGY. By J. PEILE, M.A.
GEOGRAPHY. By Sir GEORGE GROVE, D.C.L. Maps.
CLASSICAL GEOGRAPHY. By H. F. TOZER, M.A.
GREEK ANTIQUITIES. By J. P. MAHAFFY, M.A.
ROMAN ANTIQUITIES. By Prof. WILKINS, Litt.D., LL.D.
ROMAN LITERATURE. By A. S. WILKINS, Litt.D., LL.D. *[In the press.*
EUROPE. By E. A. FREEMAN, D.C.L.
GREECE. By C. A. FYFFE, M.A. With Maps.
ROME. By M. CREIGHTON, M.A. With Maps.
FRANCE. By C. M. YONGE. With Maps.

Others to follow.

MACMILLAN AND CO., LONDON.