GRAMMAR AND PRACTICE

Fraser and Wells

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TORONTO

GRAMMAR AND PRACTICE

BY

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PREFACE

The cynic has remarked that there are but two sorts of person who can profit by the study of formal grammar: a very young person whose speech-habits are unformed, and an older person who has formed bad habits he wishes to correct. For the former, the cynic adds, grammar, being a science, comes too early; what he needs is a good example, practice, and incidental correction, since use gains by use rather than by rule. For the latter, grammar comes too late, since he is either past helping or he must be reformed bit by bit; he also needs a good example, practice, and incidental correction. Grammar, the cynic concludes, is a useless study.

This little book audaciously pretends to be useful to both these persons. But there is another person whose habits of thought no less than of speech are in process of forming; he is enrolled in the upper class of an elementary school, in the lower class of a high school, or in the junior high school, and in beginning his indispensable training in formal composition finds himself baffled by mere problems of correct grammar, and therefore, much hindered in expression. His need is great. Under the illusory title of "English" he is in many cases being taught a mixture of grammar, rhetoric, and literature, with somewhat indefinite ideas on each and no definite ideas at all as to the right relations of one branch to another. Properly enough, composition is being emphasized in his training, but often without any sound instruction in the grammatical functions of words, phrases and clauses in a sentence; structural grammar particularly is being neglected. This book is meant for this person especially; it is, so to speak, aimed at his head.

For this person's sake the authors have tried to distinguish their work by three things: (1) its colloquial manner, (2) its informal method, and (3) its examples.

We have written colloquially within the limits set by good taste, in the hope of saying things in words a high-school boy will recognize at least, and perhaps accept as like his own. We have arranged the book as informally as we could without destroying its systematic organization, relegating to the appendices most of the paradigms, outlines, and schemes of analysis, those bugbears of the "young idea." We have phrased the definitions and drawn the distinctions as simply, but as strictly, as possible. Minor distinctions we have put into frequent notes and remarks.

Perhaps we have taken the greatest pains with the examples, which are, briefly, of two kinds, the literary and the colloquial. Those who object to using literary examples on the ground that they stimulate a disgust rather than a taste for literature, need only to omit them in teaching. They may at least serve to catch the wandering attention of a browsing boy, and stimulate interest while they emphasize grammatical points, for they are fresh and not hackneyed. The colloquial examples, meant to fill everyday needs, are cast in the terms of everyday speech. The best teachers will go further and supplement if not supplant these examples with those of their own choosing, preferably with those taken from the very words and experiences of the pupils before them.

The authors hope that their plan of exemplifying in complete sentences will be conscientiously followed. Psychologically nothing can be better to form or to correct speech-habits than the practice of *definite predication*, for by way of predication every sentence states a judgment, and by means of it the pupil may learn to attach correct speech-uses to definite ideas. Secondarily, nothing in grammatical study can be of more direct and constant support to the study of

composition. Even the study of literature may profit by this practice, since the one fundamental difficulty in understanding books is in grasping the central meaning of each successive sentence, and the habit of seeing sentences as essentially subject and predicate directs the mind to the essential and so trains it to distinguish the important from the unimportant.

The authors wish to thank Miss Marian Segner of the Pasadena High School, Miss Mary Hill of San Diego High School and Professor E. P. Cubberly of Stanford University for valuable criticism and suggestions.

S. I. F.
C. W. W.

Pasadena, Cal.
April, 1921.

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DEDICATION

Dear Tom:

This book is dedicated to you and to Dick and Harry, and to Betty and Polly and Jane as well. Why? Because quite recently each of you has been overheard to say that you "see no sense to the study of grammar."

Really? Do you mean that seriously? Perhaps you have heard English called "the grammarless tongue" by those who should know better. But even you must know that saying to be nonsense except as applied to the prattle of babies or those sign-languages, so called, which are also tongueless tongues. Every language has a grammar, and its grammar should be known by those who use it. Do you realize that your protest amounts to this: "I see no sense in understanding the correct use of my mother-tongue"? Hardly! You probably meant something more like this: "I see no sense to learning endless rules and fine distinctions about which not one man in ten cares a copper." If pushed to the wall you would probably add, "Oh, of course I don't want to talk like an unlettered backwoodsman, but I don't want to talk like a schoolmaster either." And that would be a very sensible remark. Some teachers in schools (and in colleges no less) appear to set value upon long and strange words and upon long and intricate sentences, seeming to have forgotten, if indeed they ever have known, that language is speech, the common tongue of common men. You have no patience with the "musty schoolroom product"; and you are right. But let one tactfully suggest that you are in little danger of the latter fault. Of the former?—Well, confess that you

sometimes catch yourself in blunders you regret and would like to correct.

No, it isn't your use of slang you regret, and it isn't that you use nothing but slang, or almost nothing. Of that you are quite unashamed. You know, as everyone knows but the old fogies, that slang is often amusing,

"a little time, while it is new,"

that it is sometimes apt and is always convenient; besides, it shocks the proper person, and that alone is enough to commend it to you. But then, slang isn't necessarily "bad grammar"; a boy may use mountains of slang yet make no error in grammar. True, he is not likely to speak grammatically and slangily too, but he possibly may. What you regret is that every now and then you let slip things you know to be wrong the moment they are out, and that you are confused into saying other things that seem to you "all right" but that somehow bring a light smile to the lips of the well educated, a smile that makes you vaguely uncomfortable, though of course you brazen it out. You know well enough, inside of you, that the men and women you respect most don't talk that way. Only the other day when you were looking for a job (as you put it in good, homely English) you remember how you detected Mr. Robinson, your hoped-for employer, looking curiously at you as he listened; you'd have given something to know just what the mistake was you must have made. And Mr. Robinson's, "I'll keep you in mind," was rather unsatisfactory. You felt as you walked out the door that you had spoiled your chances by slipshod speech, and you wished with all your heart that you had kept a closer watch over your tongue or had learned a better habit of talking when you were in school. It came over you then that a man can carry a hod, plow a furrow, shingle a roof, drive a car and yet murder the King's English, but that he cannot do

so and hope to get forward in the world, run a large business or an office, practice law or medicine or engineering, because people will put him down for an ignoramus. You wondered if there weren't a book some where that would help to set you right.

Well, not the best book in the world can surely correct a bad habit; even reading the Bible doesn't always keep people from sinning, apparently. And were this a much better book than we could make, it wouldn't keep your tongue in the strait and narrow way. But if you are prone to stray out of that way—and who isn't—this book can help you to get back into it.

There are just two things necessary to mastering anything: the first is to understand it, and the second is to practice it. Yes, we often learn to understand by practicing and .we generally acquire good habits before we understand the reasons for them. It would be possible for you to use your mother-tongue correctly without studying grammar if you were placed where you could always hear it correctly spoken. Even so you would learn it as the parrot learns, by imitation and without knowing why. However, you are not placed where you can always hear the mother-tongue correctly spoken. At home? Well, of course they don't say "I seen" and "I done." But you know yourself the sort of speech you are used to hearing on the street and upon the ball field, and you know that there too you have learned by imitation speech-habits you would like to un-learn. Now to un-learn (if you will permit the word) you must understand why, and understanding why in the case of language, as in that of any machine or instrument, means knowing the parts themselves and how they fit and work together.

Consider! If someone were to give you a six-cylinder touring car on condition that you learn to know all its parts so exactly that you could take the car apart and put it

together again correctly, and know just the right name and use and place of every part so thoroughly that you would know what was wrong when the car was out of order; would you refuse because of the work it might require? If you stop to think, it is quite as worth your while to understand your language, the car that carries your thoughts, as it is to understand a touring car. Just as you cannot run and keep in order an automobile without knowing its parts and their relations to the whole machine, so with your language: you must begin by learning its parts as they fit and work together in the whole sentence, if you are to understand and use the language rightly.

And what a language it is! Has that ever occurred to you? Is there anywhere in the world, has there ever been, so good a vehicle alike for pleasure and for use, for poetry and for business? It has been kept going now for more than five centuries pretty much as it is, with alterations, certainly, new devices added and older, clumsier ones taken out; there are always new patents pending. It has withstood an appalling amount of abuse, too, at the hands of bunglers and cheapjacks, and is in need of continual repairs. Yet the running-gear is in as good order as the best. It has cost something, all this; the total bill if you alone had to defray it would ruin you. Others have paid the costs, and now hand the car along to you. Here it is then, *and it is yours* to keep and to run. This book is, so to speak, a manual for keeping it in order, so that when you pass it on to other Toms, Dicks, and Harrys, Bettys, Pollys and Janes, they may find it none the worse for your having used it.

With sincere regards,
Your Friends,
The Authors.

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INTRODUCTION

Language and Grammar

Grammar is one of the several sciences of languages. **Philology,** the science of the history and construction of language, includes, among others: **phonetics,** a science of articulate sounds; **etymology,** a science of the derivation of words; and **grammar,** a science of the use of words.

> ***Grammar** is that science of language which defines its parts and states the laws governing their uses in the sentence.*

When thinking men realized that they must understand their language if they were to use it intelligently, they began to study it just as the scientist studied plants and minerals and animals; and just as the botanist learned that all the many thousand plants of the plant world might be divided and classified into different groups and families, so the grammarian found that words might be divided into eight different groups, called parts-of-speech, and that the thousands and thousands of new words yet to be born into the language would all fit into these groups. Grammar is the working out of this discovery.

The Sentence

You must of course define the parts-of-speech before you can understand the laws of their uses. To begin with, why

are there eight parts-of-speech, and not seven or nine? Because there are eight several uses to which words can be put in a sentence. But what is a sentence?

> *A group of words so related that they express one complete thought is called a* ***sentence.***

Now not every sentence contains all the eight parts-of-speech. The sentence, *John won*, states one complete thought with but two parts-of-speech, expressed in two words; the sentence, *Oh, how happy we were when we heard of his victory!* states one complete thought with eight parts-of-speech, expressed in eleven words. To express a complete thought you *must* use at least two parts-of-speech; you *may* use all eight parts. To express a complete thought you *must* use at least two words; you *may* use ten, twenty, a hundred or more if you can make them work together.

The two essential parts of a sentence are: (1) the **subject** (what you talk about), and (2) the **predicate** (what you say of the subject).

The Predicate

There are two kinds of predicate:

The **simple predicate** consists of the verb and nothing else:

The letters *have-come.*
The packages *have-been-mailed.*

The **compound predicate** is of three varieties:

1. the verb with its object;

The postman *has-brought* (verb) the *letters* (object).

2. the verb with its complement;

My grandfather *is-getting* (verb) *old* (adjective-complement); yet he *seems* (verb) *young* (adjective-complement).

The Mayor's name *is* (verb) *Smith* (noun-complement); he *will-become* (verb) *President* (noun-complement).

3. the verb with its object and complement;

The people *will-elect* (verb) *Mr. Smith* (object) *President* (noun-complement).

Modifiers and Connectives

All the other parts of the sentence are modifiers of the subject, or of the predicate or some part of it, or of another modifier, or of the sentence as a whole; or they are connectives:

Yes indeed, (modifiers of the whole sentence) *the plain* (modifiers of the subject) people elected *and* (connective) reëlected Mr. Wilson *to* (connective) the presidency; *the* (modifier of the subject) politicians *merely* (modifier of the verb) nominated him.

To know, then, what part of speech a word is: (1) see what is its function or use in the sentence—subject, predicate, modifier, connective; (2) see whether the word or that form of the word may be used in that function. In these ways you may know whether it has been correctly, or, as we say, grammatically used.

Let us take the following sentence apart, learn of how many different parts-of-speech it is composed, and from their use, classify them:

Oh! I wish I could-have-gone with Fred and Richard when they rode from Pasadena to Boston in their touring car.

Oh expresses deep feeling and is related to all the rest of the sentence; therefore it is an **interjection.**

I takes the place of a person's name; therefore it is a **pronoun.**

Wish expresses action; therefore it is a **verb.**

I is another **pronoun.**

Could-have-gone, taken in sum, expresses action, and therefore forms the **verb.**

With, placed before the names Fred and Richard relates them to *could-have-gone;* therefore it is a **pre-position.**

Fred and *Richard* name the boys who rode; therefore they are **nouns.**

And joins the names *Fred* and *Richard;* therefore it is a **con-junction.**

When is added to the verb *could-have-gone* to modify its meaning by showing time; therefore it is an **adverb.**

They takes the place of the nouns *Fred* and *Richard;* therefore it is a **pronoun.**

Rode expresses action; therefore it is a **verb.**

From placed before the noun *Pasadena* relates it to *rode;* therefore it is a **pre-position.**

Pasadena is the name of a place; therefore it is a **noun.**

To placed before the noun *Boston* relates it to *rode;* therefore it is a **pre-position.**

Boston is the name of a place; therefore it is a **noun.**

In placed before the noun *car* relates it to *rode;* therefore it is a **pre-position.**

Their takes the place of the names *Fred* and *Richard;* therefore it is a **pronoun.**

Touring describes the noun *car;* therefore it is an **adjective.**

Car is the name of something; therefore it is a **noun.**

In this sentence we find:

1. Five nouns—*Fred, Richard, Boston, Pasadena, car;*
2. Four pronouns—*I, I, they, their;*
3. One adjective—*touring;*
4. Three verbs—*wish, could-have-gone, rode;*
5. One adverb—*when;*
6. Four prepositions—*with, from, to, in;*

7. One conjunction—*and;*
8. One interjection—*oh!*

Now let us classify and define each one of these eight parts-of-speech:

1. *A* ***noun*** *is a word used to name a person, place, or thing.*
2. *A* ***pronoun*** *is a word which takes the place of a noun.*
3. *An* ***adjective*** *is a word used to limit or describe a noun, or pronoun.*
4. *A* ***verb*** *is a word which asserts action, state, or being.*
5. *An* ***adverb*** *is a word added to a verb, an adjective, or another adverb, to modify its meaning.*
6. *A* ***preposition*** *is a word placed before a noun, pronoun, or other substantive, to show relation between it and some other word in the sentence.*
7. *An* ***interjection*** *is a word of exclamation which modifies the sentence as a whole or stands by itself.*
8. *A* ***conjunction*** *is a connecting word used to join different parts of the sentence.*

Note, however, that many a word may be used as one part-of-speech in one sentence, and as another part-of-speech in another sentence or part of the same sentence. A word may be a verb at one time, and a noun at another; an adjective now, and bye and bye, an adverb; even occasionally an adjective and presently a pronoun. All depends on its *use* in the sentence.

To *arms!* (noun) The enemy is upon us. *Arm!* (verb) The enemy is upon us.

Good (adjective) *wear* (noun) can only be had if you *wear* (verb) the best *goods* (noun).

Oh, (interjection) I can't see *why* (adverb) we have to study grammar!

Your "*oh*" (noun) is a word of protest; your "*why*" (noun) is a word of question.

You have done *well* (adverb) *enough* (adverb); why not let *well-enough* (compound noun) alone?

Enough (noun) has been done; *enough* (adjective) harm at least.

Some (adjective) people use words as if they were ninepins to be knocked about, but, thank Heaven, there still are *some* (pronoun) who know better.

Expletives

Besides their ordinary uses certain words are employed as expletives, or filling-out words; that is, they are not essential to the sentence, but they lend idiomatic or emphatic force. The sentence:

There's many a slip 'twixt the cup and the lip,

could as well be written without the first word, *there:*

'Twixt the cup and the lip is many a slip.

Words generally used as adverbs or as pronouns may be used as *there* was used in the first sentence. In this use they are called expletives. In the following sentences the italicized words are not essential:

There is a tide in the affairs of men
Which taken at the flood leads on to fortune.

It fortifies my soul to know
That though I perish truth is so.

Practice

Recast the following sentences, leaving out the expletive, or non-essential, words:

1. It is good to be here.
2. It pays to advertise.
3. There is no use crying over spilled milk.
4. It isn't fair to pay men higher wages than we pay to women.

5. There is no telling how the next election may turn out.
6. It doesn't matter whether you come early or late.
7. The fear of the Lord, that is wisdom.
8. To be honest, to be kind, to earn a little and to spend a little less, to make, upon the whole, a family happier for his presence, to keep a few friends, and these without capitulation, above all, on the same grim condition, to keep friends with himself—here is a task for all that a man has of fortitude and delicacy.
9. The vacation was-passed very happily, what with sports during the days, dances and supper-parties during the evenings.

Expletives, then, are mere dummy words, grammatical oddities, and not properly parts-of-speech at all. With them set aside there need be no difficulty in defining the eight parts: we have only to note what use is made of the words composing a given sentence, and we can then determine what are the rules governing that use.

Practice

I. Take the following sentences apart and from their uses classify the different parts of speech:

1. Oh, look! There goes Galbraith Rogers flying over the Maryland Hotel. He is throwing something down to the people in front of the hotel. Let's run and see what it is. Oh! he is coming nearer. See! he is dropping roses. Hurry! or he'll land before we get there.
2. Pasadena beat San Diego 10 to 7 at football Saturday. Coach Seay said that both sides played a first-class game.
3. The High School float won the first prize in the Tournament of Roses this year. It illustrated "Midsummer Night's Dream."
4. Oh! it was the most beautiful thing I ever saw. Mr. Ely said that he used five thousand carnations and two thousand roses in the design.

II. Make sentences using the following words, then classify the words according to the way in which you have used them:

1. Man — the—boat—race—and—boy—lost—over—hat—two—ten—mile—won—but—board.

2. When—make—Fred—and—fast—that—Harold—trip—told—about—us—did—you.

3. Threes and up—twos—in—the—flapped—drowsed—their—up—crows—pool—knees—to—by—cattle—knees—over.

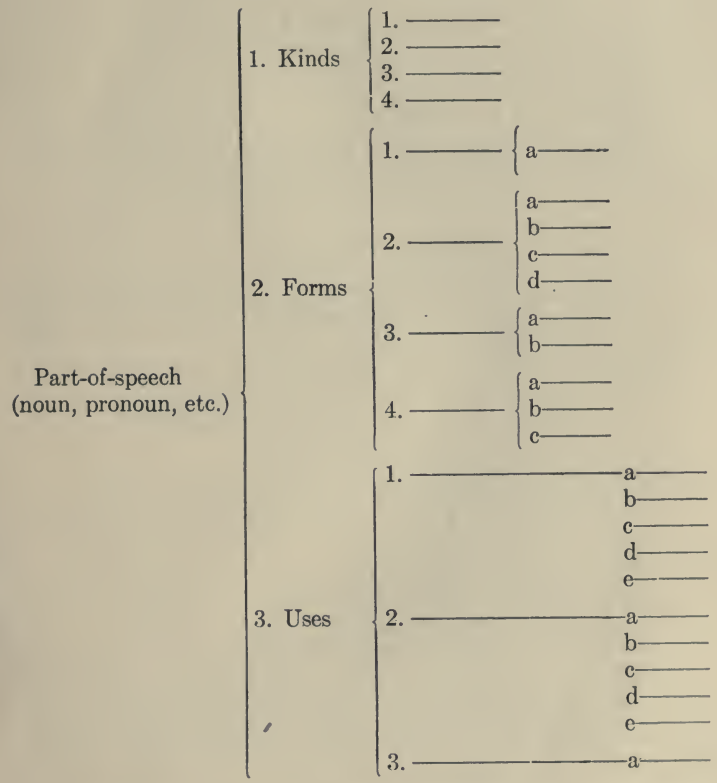
4. Thumping—street—heard—a—in—I—and—the—knew—I—it—stumping—was—old—wooden—was—wore—he—leg—our—neighbor—the—of—corporal—the—on.

5. Clang—with—drawbridge—charger—a—dropped—arch—the—surly—through—sprang—dark—and.

III. Make sentences using as two different parts of speech each of the following words:

Part—deep—mind—board—desert—peal—object—number—pound—command—plain—wound—press—ring—race—fast—man.

OUTLINE SUMMARY



Into your note book copy this outline and, as you learn the different facts belonging to the outline, fill it out.

Make a similar outline for each part-of-speech.

CHAPTER I

Nouns

The first thing you need to know about a noun is what *kind* of noun it is, for there is more than one kind; the next thing will be to learn its many forms and uses.

Kinds of Nouns

If you look at the italicized words in the stanza following you will see that while they are all names of things, they differ in the **kinds** of things they name.

Now *Rann*, the *Kite*, brings *home* the *night*
That *Mang*, the *Bat*, sets free—
The *herd* is shut in *byre* and *hut*,
For loosed till *dawn* are we.
This is the *hour* of *pride* and *power*,
Talon and *tusk* and *claw*.
Oh, hear the *call!*—Good *hunting* all
That keep the Jungle *Law!*

Four of these words, *Rann*, *Kite*, *Mang*, *Bat*, are individual names, and are distinguished from the others by beginning with capital letters; they belong to the class that is called **proper nouns.**

A name-word distinguishing an object from the rest of its class is called a ***proper noun.***

The word *herd*, in the third line, differs from the others in that it is the name of a number of objects that taken together are thought of as one.

A name-word denoting a number of objects that together are taken as one, is called a ***collective noun.***

The words *pride* and *power*, in the fifth line, differ from all the others in that they do not name objects at all; they name qualities. The word *hunting*, in the seventh line, names an action.

A name-word denoting a quality, action or condition, is called an ***abstract noun.***

The other words, *home*, *night*, *byre*, *hut*, *dawn*, *hour*, *talon*, *claw*, *tusk*, *call*, *law*, are names common to the class to which they belong and are called common nouns.

A name-word common to a class of objects is called a ***common noun.***

Practice

I. Which nouns in the following sentences are proper, which common, which collective, which abstract?

1. The Board of Education called a meeting of the citizens of Chicago to discuss the wisdom of extending the playgrounds.
2. The class voted to accept the invitation of the Chamber of Commerce to visit the exhibit, and authorized the Secretary to write a letter expressing the thanks of the class.
3. The boys called a meeting of the Athletic Club, to decide as to ways and means for raising money for the new boat house.
4. We met a drove of sheep and a herd of cattle as we were coming through the canyon; they were being driven into Los Angeles to be sold.
5. The aviator said that he chased a flock of birds far up in the air, and that the birds spread their wings in surprise and fright when they saw the strange, new bird flying after them.

II. Write five sentences each containing at least one proper, two common, one collective, one abstract noun.

III. In the following selections classify each of the nouns by its kind:

1. An excellent thing to remember, too, in this connection, is that England is a flower garden. In ordinary times, after an Englishman is provided with a roof and four meals a day, the next thing he must have is a garden, even if it is but a flowerpot. They are continually talking about loveliness over there: it is a lovely day; it is lovely on the river now; it is a lovely spot. And so there are primroses in their speech. And then they have inherited over there, or borrowed or stolen, a beautiful literary language, worn soft in colour, like their black-streaked grey-stone buildings, by time; and, as Whistler's Greeks did their drinking vessels, they use it because, perforce, they have no other. The humblest Londoner will innocently shame you by talking perpetually like a story-book.

2. Washington, May 31.—American flyers today completed their journey from New York to England by air.

The great feat, accomplished by the NC-4, which arrived at Plymouth this morning, marked the climax of the navy's systematic experiment to determine the obstacles of trans-Atlantic flying.

3. The other day I went to my garden to get a mess of peas. I had seen the day before that they were just ready to pick. How I had lined the ground, planted, hoed, bushed them! The bushes were very fine,—seven feet high, and of good wood. How I had delighted in the growing, the blowing, the podding! What a touching thought it was that they had all podded for me! When I went to pick them I found the pods all split open, and the peas gone. The dear little birds, who are so fond of the strawberries, had eaten them all. Perhaps there were left as many as I had planted; I did not count them. I made a rapid estimate of the cost of the seed, the interest of the ground, the price of labor, the value of the bushes, the anxiety of weeks of watchfulness. I looked about me on the face of Nature. The wind blew from the south so soft and treacherous! All nature seemed fair. But who was to give me back my peas? The fowls of the air have peas; but what has man!

Gender

The distinction of gender governs all nouns. The name-word, *Father, Mother, John, Mary, rooster, hen,* etc., generally

denotes the sex. But some words, *parent, friend, chicken,* etc., may denote either sex, and other words, *wood, stone, water,* etc., name objects without sex.

Nouns which denote males are **masculine** *in gender.*
Nouns which denote females are **feminine** *in gender.*
Nouns which denote either male or female are **common** *in gender.*
Nouns which denote objects without sex are **neuter** *in gender.*

Note:—Inanimate objects when personified are said to be masculine in gender if they possess strength or power; if they possess grace, beauty, delicacy, they are said to be feminine.

In nearly all cases it is in better usage to make no distinction in such titles of men and women as **doctor, poet, author, chairman.** When the sex is not known and there is no need to denote it, the custom in using pronouns is to give the preference to the masculine:

Every one should do the best he can.
If anyone in the room cannot see the board he will please take a front seat.

If the distinction of male and female is to be kept, however, the pronoun should indicate it clearly:

If any boy or girl in the class did not understand the problem I shall be glad to explain it to him or her at the close of the recitation.

In English there are three ways of denoting gender:
By changing the endings or suffixes:

god, goddess; priest, priestess; shepherd, shepherdess; hero, heroine,

By changing the word:

man, woman; boy, girl; gander, goose.

By combining words:

billy-goat, nanny-goat; peacock, peahen; man-servant, maid-servant.

Practice

I. Give the class and gender of each noun in the following sentences:

The great, old mountain seems to act as a protector over the lovely valley. Men and women and young children are at work in the vineyards among the grape vines which cover acres and acres of the valley. The noon-day sun pours heat down upon them and makes them long for the rest which evening brings.

II. Fill in the blanks:

1. If I am to judge by the verses she read me, I certainly consider her a true ——.

2. I know that she is a skillful —— since she cured my child of pneumonia.

III. Write the feminine nouns corresponding to the following words:

Bachelor, monk, buck, Emperor, Sultan, Duke, Baron, Earl, Czar, tiger, stag, hart, wizard, drake, host, landlord, Marquis, Abbot.

Number

Suppose you had bought a ranch and were to make a list of the things you need for furnishing it. These are some you might choose: an automobile, a horse, a saddle, a bridle, a lasso, a pony, a plow, a spade, a rake, a cow, a sheep, a turkey, a goose, an ox; and a man-servant and his wife to do the work. But suppose you were to find you needed more than one of each. You would then have to make changes in spelling the names in your list.

The form of the noun which shows whether one or more than one object is meant, is called ***number.***

A noun which denotes one object is in the ***singular number.***

A noun which denotes more than one object is in the ***plural number.***

There are many ways in which nouns change their forms to become plural:

1. Most singular nouns form their plurals by adding "s":

Singular	Plural
aviator	aviators
bicycle	bicycles
dirigible	dirigibles
dreadnaught	dreadnaughts
aëroplane	aëroplanes
biplane	biplanes
automobile	automobiles
horse	horses
boat	boats
motor	motors

2. Singular nouns ending in a letter or sound which will not unite with "s" add "es" to form the plural:

Singular	Plural
match	matches
box	boxes
lunch	lunches
latch	latches
watch	watches
class	classes

3 (*a*). Singular nouns ending in "y," preceded by a vowel regularly form the plural by adding "s"; (*b*) those ending in "y" preceded by a consonant change the "y" to "i" and add "es":

(*a*) Singular	Plural	(*b*) Singular	Plural
turkey	turkeys	navy	navies
play	plays	army	armies
key	keys	pony	ponies
donkey	donkeys	pansy	pansies

4. Singular nouns ending in "f" or "fe" generally form their plurals by changing the "f" or "fe" to "v," and adding "es":

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
leaf	leaves	calf	calves	knife	knives
elf	elves	beef	beeves	shelf	shelves
life	lives	thief	thieves	loaf	loaves
staff	staves	wife	wives	wolf	wolves
wharf	wharves	self	selves	sheaf	sheaves
		half	halves		

5. Singular nouns ending in "o" form their plurals by adding (*a*) "s" or (*b*) "es":

(*a*) Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
chromo	chromos	proviso	provisos
lasso	lassos	portfolio	portfolios
solo	solos	quarto	quartos
dynamo	dynamos	contralto	contraltos
piano	pianos		

(*b*) Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
buffalo	buffaloes	mosquito	mosquitoes
cargo	cargoes	hero	heroes
tomato	tomatoes	potato	potatoes

Singular	Plural
calico	calicoes
motto	mottoes
negro	negroes

6. A few nouns following the Old English custom still form their plurals by adding "en" to the singular:

Singular	Plural
ox	oxen
child	children
brother	brethren

7. Some nouns form their plurals by changing one or more vowels in the middle of the singular form:

Singular	Plural
tooth	teeth
man	men
goose	geese

8. Some nouns have the same form in the plural as in the singular:

Singular and Plural

trout, deer, cannon, grouse, heathen.

9. Some nouns have plural forms when they are singular in number:

alms, news, politics, mathematics, physics, etc.

10. Some nouns taken from foreign languages retain the plural forms of their languages:

Singular	Plural	
axis	axes	(Greek)
analysis	analyses	(Greek)
oasis	oases	(Greek)
thesis	theses	(Greek)
ellipsis	ellipses	(Greek)
radius	radii	(Latin)
datum	data	(Latin)
beau	beaux	(French)

11. Some nouns may be used in the plural only:

measles mumps scales scissors shears stocks
tongs trousers tweezers bellows spectacles

12. Letters, figures, signs, etc., form their plurals by adding an apostrophe and "s" ('s) to the singular: as—

A's, 6's, etc.

13. Compound nouns form their plurals in three different ways:

(*a*) by changing the final syllable:

Singular	Plural
spoonful	spoonfuls
dooryard	dooryards
wagonload	wagonloads

(*b*) by changing the most important word in the compound:

Singular	Plural
son-in-law	sons-in-law
man-of-war	men-of-war
attorney-at-law	attorneys-at-law
daughter-in-law	daughters-in-law

(*c*) by changing both words of the compound:

Singular	Plural
man-servant	men-servants
woman-servant	women-servants

14. Proper nouns generally form their plurals by adding "s" to the singular:

Singular	Plural
John	Johns
New York	New Yorks

When a title precedes the proper name either the title or the proper name may be pluralized:

The Misses Smith; or
The Miss Smiths.

15. Some nouns have two plurals differing in meaning:

Singular	Plural
brother (meaning a member of a family)	brothers
brother (meaning a member of a society)	brethren

Practice

I. Make a list to be sent from the War Department ordering not fewer than thirty articles for supplies to equip and provision a company of soldiers. Denote the nouns you use in the singular and those you use in the plural, and give rules for forming the plurals.

II. Make a list of not fewer than thirty articles to be sent from the Navy Department as supplies to equip and provision two destroyers. Give rules for plural forms of nouns used in the list.

III. Make a list of not fewer than twenty articles for fitting out a large cattle ranch. Give rules for forming plurals of nouns used.

IV. Make a list of not fewer than twenty nouns denoting articles needed for a camping trip. Give rules for forming plurals of nouns used.

V. Make a list of forty articles needed in furnishing a house. Give rules for plurals of nouns sued.

VI. Use in sentences and give the rules governing the singular and the plural forms:

news	radii	stratum	scissors
mathematics	sheep	man-of-war	parenthesis
data	flock	mother-in-law	cherub
trout	tableaux	volcano	phenomenon

VII. Give a recipe for making cake and give rules for forming plurals of all nouns used.

VIII. Tell how to make a kite and give rules for plurals of nouns used.

IX. Tell how to make a wireless telegraph and give rules for plurals of nouns used.

X. Tell the difference between an aëroplane and a dirigible and give rules for plurals of nouns used.

XI. Make out a shopping list for your spring clothes, to cost not more than one hundred dollars nor less than seventy-five. Give rules for plurals of nouns used.

XII. Write the plural of:

portfolio	chimney	cannon	poet-laureate
money	disc	Hindoo	alumna
mosquito	baby	German	hypothesis
bamboo	knight-errant	Englishman	oasis

XIII. Choose the correct form, and give the reason:

1. She put two *cupfuls* (cupsfull) of sugar in the cake.
2. He played two games of *dice* (dies) with the man.
3. Tidings *was* (were) brought to us of the near approach of the party.
4. Athletics *are* (is) very popular in this school.
5. Politics *is* (are) his principal subject of conversation.

XIV. Give the number and gender of all nouns in the following:

Rustily creak the crickets: Jack Frost came down last night,
He slid to the earth on a starbeam, keen and sparkling and bright;
He sought in the grass for the crickets with delicate icy spear,
So sharp and fine and fatal, and he stabbed them far and near.
Only a few stout fellows, thawed by the morning sun,
Chirrup a mournful echo of by-gone frolic and fun.
But yesterday such a rippling chorus ran all over the land,
Over the hills and the valleys, down to the gray sea-sand.
Millions of merry harlequins, skipping and dancing in glee,
Cricket and locust and grasshopper, happy as happy could be.
Scooping rich caves in ripe apples, and feeding on honey and spice,
Drunk with the mellow sunshine, nor dreaming of spears of ice!
Was it not enough that the crickets your weapon of power should pierce?
Pray what have you done to the flowers? Jack Frost, you are cruel and fierce.
With never a sign or a whisper, you kissed them, and, lo! they exhale
Their beautiful lives; they are drooping, their sweet color ebbs, they are pale,

They fade and they die! See the pansies, yet striving so hard to unfold
Their garments of velvety splendor, all Tyrian purple and gold.
But how weary they look, and how withered, like handsome court dames, who all night
Have danced at the ball till sunrise struck chill to their hearts with its light.
Where hides the wood-aster? She vanished as snow-wreaths dissolve in the sun
The moment you touched her. Look yonder, where sober and gray as a nun
The maple-tree stands that at sunset was blushing as red as the sky;
At its foot, glowing scarlet as fire, its robes of magnificence lie,
Despoiler! stripping the world as you strip the shivering tree
Of color and sound and perfume, scaring the bird and the bee,
Turning beauty to ashes—O to join the swift swallows and fly
Far away out of sight of your mischief! I give you no welcome, not I!

XV. Bring in:

1. Five sentences containing masculine nouns whose gender is expressed by combined words, as *billy-goat;*
2. Five sentences containing feminine nouns denoting gender by change in suffixes, as *priestess;*
3. Five sentences containing the masculine gender of *goose*, *peafowl*, *bride*, *mistress*, *ewe;*
4. A paragraph of not less than fifty words containing fifteen nouns that name inanimate objects personified, with the proper gender indicated.

Case

Besides their distinctions in gender and number nouns have another distinction called case. Note the different ways in which the noun *girl* is used in the following sentences:

1. The *girl* sang.
2. Mary is the *girl.*

3. I saw the *girl's* flowers.
4. I heard the *girl.*
5. They made the *girl* queen of the May.
6. Little *girl,* you made a very dainty queen.
7. They wanted the queen to be a young *girl.*
8. They gave the *girl* some flowers.
9. The flowers were for the *girl.*
10. Mary, the *girl* who was made queen, was charming.
11. They asked the *girl* to sing.

In the first sentence *girl* names the subject about which the verb makes its assertion.

In the second sentence *girl* completes the meaning of the verb and refers to the subject.

In the third sentence *girl* names the person to whom the flowers belong.

In the fourth sentence *girl* names the object which receives the action asserted by the verb.

In the fifth sentence *girl* helps complete the meaning of the verb and at the same time modifies the direct object queen.

In the sixth sentence *girl* is used independently.

In the seventh sentence *girl* completes the meaning of the infinitive *to be.*

In the eighth sentence *girl* indirectly completes the meaning of the verb by naming the receiver of the flowers.

In the ninth sentence *girl* names the object of the preposition *for.*

In the tenth sentence *girl* explains and is in apposition with the subject of the sentence.

In the eleventh sentence *girl* is the direct object of the verb *asked* and subject of the infinitive *to sing.*

The distinction which shows what part a noun plays in a sentence is called its **case.**

There are three cases: the nominative; the objective; and the possessive.

The Nominative Case

1. The **subject of the verb** is in the nominative case:

John ran.

2. A noun or pronoun **independent by address** is in the nominative case:

John, come here; oh *John!*

3. A noun or pronoun that **completes the verb** and at the same time **is identical with the subject** is in the same case as the subject; it is called a predicate nominative.

Mr. Wilson became *President.*

4. A noun or pronoun used as **the principal part of an absolute phrase** (a phrase used independently) is in the nominative case.

The *dog* following me, I went out into the night.

5. A noun or pronoun **in apposition** with another noun in the nominative is also in the nominative case.

Garfield, *President* of the United States, was a poor boy.

> *A noun or pronoun placed beside another noun or pronoun to identify or emphasize, but not strictly to modify it, is said to be* ***in apposition.***

And I, *John*, (nominatives) saw these things.
We, the *people*, (nominatives) of the United States in order to form a more perfect union, etc.

Note:—Sometimes the appositive words are placed at a distance from one another:

He was not a very close observer of Nature, *Keats* (nominative).

The Objective Case

1. The **object which receives the action** expressed by the verb is in the objective case:

He met the *King*.

2. The **object of a preposition** is in the objective case:

He spoke to the *King*.

3. A noun **in apposition** with another noun in the objective is also in the objective case:

He spoke to George V, *King of England* (objectives).

4. A noun which indirectly helps the direct object to complete the meaning of the verb and at the same time limits the meaning of the direct object is an **objective complement** and in the objective case:

They chose John *captain* of the football team.

5. The **subject of an infinitive** (see page 61) is always in the objective case:

They asked *him* to sing.

The Possessive Case

1. When **ownership** is denoted the noun is put in the possessive case:

Mother sang *Tennyson's* "Sweet and Low."

The possessive is the only case for which nouns change in form. This change is usually made by adding "s" preceded by an apostrophe to the nominative singular or plural:

The *boy's* coat was torn.
The *men's* club is just around the corner.

2. A noun or pronoun may be in the possessive case **by apposition:**

My sister *Elizabeth's* house is two doors from my cousin *Harry's*.

Note: Only the appositive noun has the possessive sign:

My *sister's* house; my sister *Elizabeth's* house.

Sometimes when the singular noun ends in "s," or in a hissing sound, the apostrophe without an "s" denotes possession:

The *princess'* feather marked her passage through the crowd.

So too when the plural ends in an "s":

The *boys'* coats and hats hung in a row.
The *sprinters'* race was set for two o'clock.

Note: Sometimes it sounds better to use the preposition "of" with its object, rather than the more usual possessive form:

The sister of the princess wore the feather; rather than
The princess' sister.

But in such instances be sure that "of" with its object really means possession:

Love *of* country probably means Love *to* country;
But love *of* God may mean either: God's love to us, or *our* love to God.

Compound Possessives

Groups of words used as one noun, add an apostrophe and "s" to the last word:

My *sister-in-law's* house is just across the way from my second-cousin's.

When two or more nouns are used to denote **joint** possession of the same thing, the sign is given to the noun last named; but if the nouns denote **separate** possession, each must have the apostrophe:

Brown and Hart's bookstore is the best in town.
Neither Smith's nor Jones' has so good a stock.

Practice

I. Write plural possessive forms of the following nouns and use in sentences:

lady	Wife of Bath	merchant man
maidservant	hero	hanger-on
valley	wife	chief

Kipling and Stevenson (joint possession)
Wilbur Wright and Curtis (separate possession)
President Taft and President Wilson (joint possession)

II. Write sentences about the following nouns, changing to the possessive form:

1. The dictionaries of Webster and Worcester.
2. The poems written by Kipling and Stevenson.
3. The airships built by Wright and Curtis.
4. The flight made by President Roosevelt in the airship of Hoxey.
5. The stories written by Dickens and Thackeray.

III. Tell the kind of noun, the gender, the number and the case. Give reasons for your answers:

1. Harry, the champion sprinter, won the half-mile race.
2. May I use the automobile this afternoon?
3. Harry's skates are on the back porch.
4. Lincoln, the great American, was as modest as he was great.
5. Uncle Jack gave my brother a Shetland pony.
6. Gentleness and strength should go hand in hand.
7. Mary is my cousin.
8. John, the beloved disciple, lived to be very old.
9. Tom, will you wait for Jack?
10. Neither Harry's nor Robert's mother knew of the race.
11. Louis XIV's reign was a turbulent one.
12. The book belongs to Mary, the finest girl in the school.
13. He obeyed the Attorney-General's orders.
14. John hit Fred, the little lame boy.

IV. Give correct possessive forms:

1. We study in our class Burke and Webster orations.
2. Is that Harry or John boat?
3. It is neither Harry nor John boat.
4. The book was bought at Smith and Snow book-store.
5. Neither the boy nor the girl story was believed.
6. The herd leader led them astray.
7. Men and boys clothing made to order.

V. Place in each blank a singular or a plural noun in the possessive case:

1. I will give you the —— book.
2. Which do you like better —— or —— stories?
3. —— and —— book store is on the corner of Fifth and Cedar Streets.
4. —— and —— book stores are on opposite corners of Broadway.
5. —— or —— book will do.
6. It was neither —— nor —— fault.
7. The —— crew were saved.

VI. Tell the cases of the following nouns:

1. Howard, do you know the man to whom the letter is to be given?
2. Mary's work being finished, she walked into the town to see the stores gay with decorations for New Year's Day.
3. The man asked Mary to give him something to eat for supper.
4. They gave the beggar money and food.
5. They gave the poor old beggar, the skeleton of a man, a dinner and some clothes.
6. Mary, being a fine speaker, made a stirring appeal to the audience.
7. We waited at Jones and Hunt's store an hour for you.
8. Stevenson's and Kipling's philosophy of work has done much to enhance the dignity of labor in this generation.

VII. Bring in:

1. Five sentences containing nouns in the nominative case: two the subjects of sentences, three in apposition with the subjects,

two the principal parts of absolute phrases, two independent by address.

2. Five sentences containing nouns in the objective case, four the direct object of the verb, two the objects of prepositions, two in apposition with other nouns in the objective case, two used indirectly to help the direct object complete the meaning of the verb.

3. Five sentences containing nouns in the possessive case, two showing joint ownership, five showing separate ownership.

VIII. Classify all the nouns in the following extracts and give gender, number, and case.

1. A few nights after they passed Gibraltar his dream returned to him. She who waited by the brushwood-pile was no longer a little girl, but a woman with black hair that grew into a "widow's peak," combed back from her forehead. He knew her for the child in black, the companion of the last six years, and as it had been in the time of meetings on the Lost Continent, he was filled with delight unspeakable.

2. Then who should come to tuck him up for the night but the mother? And she sat down on the bed, and they talked for a long hour, as mother and son should, if there is to be any future for the Empire.

3. Over the edge of the purple down,
Where the single lamp light gleams,
Know ye the road to the Merciful Town
That is hard by the Sea of Dreams.—
Where the poor may lay their wrongs away,
And the sick may forget to weep?
But we—pity us! Ah, pity us!
We wakeful! Ah, pity us!—
We must go back with Policeman Day—
Back from the City of Sleep.

4. One person I have to make good, myself. But my duty to my neighbor is much more nearly expressed by saying that I have to make him *happy*—if I may.

5. As for punishment, failure carries its own. To be nothing, to have done nothing, to be at one with no force in the universe, to have helped no one, to have loved no one, all this is the penalty of nonentity, and it needs no added horrors.

6. That orbed maiden with white fire laden,
Whom mortals call the moon,
Glides glimmering o'er my fleece-like floor,
By the midnight breezes strewn;
And wherever the beat of her unseen feet,
Which only the angels hear,
May have broken the woof of my tent's thin roof,
The stars peep behind her and peer;
And I laugh to see them whirl and flee,
Like a swarm of golden bees,
When I widen the rent of my wind-built tent,
Till the calm rivers, lake, and seas,
Like strips of the sky, fallen through me on high,
Are each paved with the moon and these.

7. It was already hard upon October before I was ready to set forth, and at the high altitudes over which my road lay there was no Indian Summer to be looked for. I was determined, if not to camp out, at least to have the means of camping out in my possession; for there is nothing more harassing to an easy mind than the necessity of reaching shelter by dusk, and the hospitality of a village inn is not always to be reckoned sure by those who trudge on foot. A tent, above all for a solitary, is troublesome to pitch and troublesome to strike again, and even on the march it forms a conspicuous feature in your baggage. A sleeping sack, on the other hand, is always ready—you have only to get into it; it serves a double purpose—a bed by night, a portmanteau by day, and it does not advertise your intention of camping out to every curious passer-by.

8. One of the pleasantest things in the world is "going a journey"—but a few know it now. It isn't every one that can go a journey. No doubt one that owns an automobile cannot go. The spirit of the age has got him fast. Begoggled and with awful squawks, feverish, exultant, ignorant, he is condemned to hoot over the earth. Thus the wealthy know nothing of journeys, for they must own motors. Vain people and envious people and proud people cannot go, because the wealthy do not. Silly people do not know enough to go. The lazy cannot, because of their laziness. The busy hang themselves with business. The halt nor the aged, alas! cannot go. In fine, only such as are whole and wise and pure in heart can go a journey, and they are the blessed.

9. "Lavender, sweet lavender,
Who will buy my sweet blooming lavender?
Buy it once, you'll buy it twice,
And make your clothes sweet and nice!"

She was a wretched-looking creature, with a great basket, and it was so she sang through the street. By this you know where we are, for this is one of the old cries in London town.

For the sake of my clothes, and for the noble pleasure of associating for an instant with the original of a coloured print of old London types, I bought a sprig of lavender. "Thank you, sir," she said.

10. It is this clear-sighted, non-combative humour which Americans love and prize, and the absence of which they reckon a heavy loss. Nor do they always ask, "a loss to whom?" Charles Lamb said it was no misfortune for a man to have a sulky temper. It was his friends who were unfortunate. And so with the man who has no sense of humour. He gets along very well without it. He is not aware that anything is lacking. He is not mourning his lot. What loss there is, his friends and neighbors bear. A man destitute of humour is apt to be a formidable person, not subject to sudden deviations from his chosen path, and incapable of fretting away his elementary forces by pottering over both sides of a question. He is often to be respected, sometimes to be feared and always—if possible—to be avoided. His are the qualities which distance enables us to recognize and value at their worth. He fills his place in the scheme of creation; but it is for us to see that his place is not next to ours at table, where his unresponsiveness narrows the conversational area, and dulls the contagious ardour of speech. He may add to the wisdom of the ages, but he lessens the gaiety of life.

Outline Summary

- **Nouns**
  - **Kinds**
    1. Common
    2. Proper
    3. Abstract
    4. Collective
  - **Forms**
    1. Person — generally in the third person
    2. Gender
       (a) masculine
       (b) feminine
       (c) neuter
       (d) common
    3. Number
       (a) singular
       (b) plural
    4. Case
       (a) nominative
       (b) objective
       (c) possessive
  - **Uses**
    1. In nominative case
       (a) subject of verb
       (b) nominative by address
       (c) in apposition
       (d) predicate nominative
       (e) absolute nominative
    2. In objective case
       (a) direct object of verb
       (b) object of preposition
       (c) in apposition
       (d) indirect object
       (e) the subject of an infinitive
    3. In possessive case
       (a) showing possession
       (b) in apposition

CHAPTER II

Pronouns

What are pronouns? Pronouns, *we* have seen (*ante*, p. 5), take the place of nouns; *they* can do *anything* in a sentence *which* nouns can do. Indeed *it* would be hard, if not impossible, to know *what* to employ or how to express *ourselves* without using *them*. *These*, in a few sentences, are all the kinds of pronouns:

What	. . . is an **interrogative** pronoun.
We, they, them, it, ourselves,	. . . are **personal** pronouns.
Which	. . . is a **relative** pronoun.
Anything	. . . is an **indefinite** pronoun.
These	. . . is a **demonstrative** pronoun.

Try writing the sentences by replacing the pronouns with nouns; you can hardly do it without changing the construction of every sentence. Yet every pronoun has been used as subject, object, or complement, just like a noun.

Personal Pronouns

We speak our own names very seldom, sometimes not once a day; but probably we say *I*, or *we*, more often than any other words, and we say *you* or *they*, *he*, *she*, or *it*, almost as often; that is, we use the personal pronouns. These are:

Singular	Plural
(1) I	(1) We
(2) You (thou)	(2) You
(3) He, she, it	(3) They

The first person denotes the speaker or speakers.

The second person denotes the person or persons spoken to.

The third person denotes the person or persons, thing or things, spoken of.

Unlike nouns the personal pronouns change their forms from the first to the second and again to the third person; and the singular of the third personal makes changes to denote differences in gender:

First Personal

Singular		Plural
Nominative	I	We
Possessive	My (mine)	Our (ours)
Objective	Me	Us

Second Personal

Singular		Plural
Nominative	You (thou)	You (ye)
Possessive	Your (yours); Thy (thine)	Your (yours)
Objective	You (thee)	You (ye)

Third Personal

Singular:	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	He	She	It
Possessive	His	Her (hers)	Its
Objective	Him	Her	It

Plural (all genders):		
	Nominative	They
	Possessive	Their (theirs)
	Objective	Them

Compound Personal Pronouns

Compound personal pronouns are formed in the nominative and objective cases by adding *self* to the singular and *selves* to the plural of personal pronouns:

Nominative and Objective

Singular	Myself
	Yourself (thyself)
	Himself, herself, itself
Plural	Ourselves
	Yourselves
	Themselves

Note:—Be careful never to use the forms, *hisself, theirself, theirselves.*

Compound personal pronouns are used, with or without the simple personal pronouns, for emphasis:

I, *myself*, will go.
You told me, *yourself.*
He placed me next *himself.*

For showing emphasis in the possessive, singular or plural, *own* is added to the simple pronoun:

Is this *your own* handiwork? It is *my* very *own.*

Relative Pronouns

Notice the italicized pronouns in the following sentences:

Tom Bowling, the boy *who* won the quarter-mile last week also won the debate on Saturday night. The trophies *which* were awarded him have been photographed, and the picture placed with those of the teams and trophies *that* mark the school's successes from year to year.

These are called relative pronouns.

A ***relative pronoun*** *relates a subordinate clause to an antecedent noun or pronoun in another clause.*

In the first sentence the pronoun *who* relates the dependent clause, *who won the quarter-mile last week*, to its antecedent, the noun *boy*, subject of the independent clause.

In the second sentence the pronoun *which* relates the dependent clause, *which were awarded him*, to the antecedent, *trophies.*

In the second sentence the pronoun *that* relates the dependent clause, *that mark the school's successes from year to year*, to the antecedents, *teams and trophies.*

These are the distinctions to be made in the use of these relative pronouns:

Who should always refer to persons;

Which should always refer to animals or things;

That may refer to persons, animals, or things.

Who is the only one of the relative pronouns that can be inflected for number and case.

Singular	Plural
Nom. *Who*	*Who*
Poss. *Whose*	*Whose*
Obj. *Whom*	*Whom*

Note:—*Whose* may be used also as the possessive of *which.*

Compound Relative Pronouns

Whoever comes will be welcome.

This sentence equals—Anyone who comes will be welcome.

Whoever is subject of the verb *comes;* the subject of the verb *will be welcome* is *he* understood. *He* is antecedent to the relative *whoever* though placed after it:

Whoever broke the plate (he) was careless.
Whoever planted that tree (he) did a service to humanity.
Whoever comes in at the door (he) must lock it.

Whatever and *whichever* are also compound relatives:

Whatever happens do not fail to return the book.
Take whichever fits best.
I shall give you whichever you choose.
I shall believe whatever you say.

Note:—*Whatever* means *anything at all;* but *whichever* means *any of a number.*

Who-so-ever, what-so-ever and *which-so-ever* are other forms of the compound relative pronoun:

And whosoever will, let him take the water of life freely.

As when preceded by *such* or *same* is a relative pronoun.

She lives in the *same* town *as* you do.
If I could write *such* papers *as* you do I should like to write compositions.

Same is sometimes followed by the relative pronoun *that* or *which* in place of *as*:

She lives in the *same* town *that* (or which) you live in.

Practice

I. Fill in blanks with relative pronouns and give reason for your choice:

1. Has it been proved that man is the only animal —— thinks?
2. Wilbur Wright —— invented the aeroplane lives in Dayton, Ohio.
3. The sailors and the boats —— are in the harbor leave for the islands tomorrow.
4. He is the same, kind, thoughtful man —— I left so long ago.
5. The song —— I liked best is the same given by that soprano —— sang with the symphony orchestra.
6. She goes to the same school —— you go to.
7. He deserves all —— he gets.
8. I let my horse, —— knows the way perfectly, bring me home.

II. Change the relatives in the following sentences to compound relative pronouns:

1. I shall do what you think best.
2. I shall invite whom you wish.
3. I shall choose which I prefer.

Interrogative Pronouns

Who brought the book?
Which (book) do you mean?
What (book, dog, man) do you want?

When the pronouns *who, which, what,* are used in asking questions they are called interrogative pronouns:

Who refers to persons.
Which refers to animals or things.
What refers to persons, animals, or things.

Demonstrative Pronouns

This is my section, porter, and *that* is my baggage: *these* are my umbrellas and *those* are my valises.

In this sentence, you will notice, *this, that, these,* and *those* are used as pronouns and also to point out or demonstrate the nouns to which they refer.

> *When* ***this*** *and* ***that*** *in the singular and* ***these*** *and* ***those*** *in the plural are used as pronouns, and point out the nouns which they denote, they are called* ***demonstrative pronouns.***

Notice that *this* in the singular and *those* in the plural refer to things near at hand, while *that* in the singular and *those* in the plural point out things at greater distance.

Indefinite Pronouns

You may *all* leave the room.
You are *both* to blame.
Many were invited, but *few* came.
None of these will do.
One of the boys brought this book.

Several of the riders were thrown
I shall send *another* tomorrow.
Some of you bring the chairs.
I have not *any* left.
Either of them will do.
I shall carry one of the baskets, and you may carry the *other*.
I did not say *anything* to *anybody*.

In the sentences above the italicised words are pronouns, because they are substituted for nouns, but they differ from the other pronouns we have studied in that they refer indefinitely to their antecedent nouns. Indeed the antecedent is as often implied as expressed.

> *A pronoun which refers to its antecedent (expressed or implied) so as to give little idea of its identity is called an* ***indefinite pronoun.***

Note:—Be careful that the pronoun shall always agree with its antecedent in person, gender, and number.

Practice

I. Select the nouns and pronouns in the following sentences and tell to what class each belongs; give the person, the number, the gender, the case; give reason for decision:

1. Who gives himself with his alms feeds three,
   Himself, his hungering neighbor, and me.
2. His honor rooted in dishonor stood.
3. Who else would soar above the view of men
   And keep us all in fearful servitude.
4. 'Tis with our judgments as with our watches: none
   Go just alike yet each believes his own.
5. One was fair, strong, arm'd—
   But to be won by force.
6. A red-faced bride who knew herself so vile,
   That evermore she longed to hide herself.
7. What-so-ever things are pure, . . . what-so-ever things
   are lovely, think on these things.

8. Lay not up for yourselves treasures upon earth.
9. He that hath light within his own clear breast
   May sit in the center and enjoy bright day.
10. Alice did not like shaking hands with either of them, first, for fear of hurting the other one's feelings.
11. "I know what you're thinking about," said Tweedledum. They were standing under a tree each with an arm around the other's neck, and Alice knew which was which in a moment, because one of them had "Dum" embroidered on his collar, and the other "Dee."

II. Use the following pronouns in sentences and tell from its use in the sentence to what class each belongs:

one	many	who?	what	who-so-ever	he
each	it	which?	other	that	those
this	who	which	anybody	then	it

III. Write twenty sentences using in all:

Five relative pronouns, referring to persons, three to animals and things, three referring to both animals and persons,
Three demonstrative pronouns,
Five indefinite pronouns,
Two compound personal pronouns showing emphasis,
Two compound relative pronouns,
Two interrogative pronouns.

Explain uses.

IV. Bring in:

Five sentences, each containing two relative pronouns.
Five sentences, each containing one demonstrative pronoun.
Five sentences, each containing one compound personal pronoun showing emphasis.
Five sentences, each containing one interrogative pronoun.
Five sentences, each containing one relative pronoun referring to animals.

Correct Use of Pronouns

1. Note that some indefinite pronouns are singular in meaning, and some plural, and that as antecedents they

must be followed by pronouns in the singular or plural accordingly:

Each, either, neither, everyone, anyone, no-one, everybody, nobody, are followed by the singular;

All, both, some are followed by the plural;

None is followed by either singular or plural:

Is everybody ready for —— dinner?
Are all ready for —— dinner?

Let each take —— turn riding the pony.
Let all ride the pony in —— turn.

Either of the boys will lend you —— knife.
Both of the boys will lend you —— knives.

Neither has taken —— boxing lesson this morning.
Both have taken —— boxing lesson this morning.

Anyone knows —— must tell the truth.
All know —— must tell the truth.
Everyone knows —— must tell the truth.

2. Note the distinctions in meaning among *either, anyone, neither, no-one:*

Use *either* and *neither* when speaking of two persons or things:

Either (one of the two) is affirmative.
Neither (one of the two) is negative.

Use *anyone,* rather than *either,* when speaking affirmatively of more than two.

Use *no-one,* rather than *neither,* when speaking of more than two.

3. The only practical difficulties in the correct use of relative pronouns are in the use of case:

who or *whom:*

—— are you going to invite to the picnic?
—— do you think I gave my subscription to?
I will tell you —— I think should be captain.

—— do you think I am?
—— should be king save him —— makes us free?
—— but Maud should I meet,
Last night when sunset burned
On the blossomed gable-ends
At the end of the village street?

4. The relative pronouns *who, whoever,* are often misused for *whom, whomever,* because though in the objective case the latter are placed at the beginnings of clauses:

I don't know *who you are* (=you are who).
I don't remember *whom* I met (=I met whom).

You are not my enemy, *whoever you are* (=you are whoever).
Give my regards to *whomever you see* (=you see whomever).

Instead of the general relative, *whoever, whomever,* to serve both as object and as subject it is better to use the two pronouns, *him who, her who:*

He is sure to be false to whomever (whoever) trusts him.
Better: He is sure to be false to him who (or her who) trusts him.

Practice

Fill in blanks with correct form:

I. *Either, neither, anyone, no one:*

1. Only five boys learned the lines and —— of them could recite them perfectly.
2. Has —— of the two girls a riding habit?
3. I have worked twelve of the examples, but I do not know —— —— of them is right.
4. Mother invited Harry and Arthur, but —— can come.
5. —— —— of the boys in the class will be glad to do that for you.
6. There are five librarians in the library and —— —— of them will direct you to the reference books you need.
7. —— of the two answers is right; work those two examples again.

II. *Whoever* or *whomever:*

1. —— left that door open will please close it.
2. Helen, please return that book to —— it belongs.
3. I will give to —— wins the race a gold medal.
4. —— told you that spoke without investigating the subject.
5. Please tell —— comes for the dress that I could not finish it before.
6. Stranger, —— you be your face has a pleasing smile.
7. The concert is free to —— will come.

III. *Thou, thee, thyself, ye, thy:*

1. Hail to —— , blithe spirit;
   Bird —— never wert.
2. But —— O Hope, with eyes so fair,
   What was —— delightful measure?
3. I thought —— my partner and my guide,
   As being past away.
4. One came, me thought, of shape divine,
   And said, "—— mansion waits ——, Adam;"
5. Wife, dost —— know that all the world seems queer except —— and me; and sometimes I think even —— art a little queer?
6. . . . and so —— cleave
   His armor off him, these will turn the blade.
7. O brother-star why shine —— here so low?
   —— ward is higher up; but have —— slain
   The damsel's champion?

IV. *He, him, himself:*

1. Howard told me —— that you were coming.
2. I could hardly believe that it was —— standing in the door.
3. I little thought when I went to the telephone that Harry —— would come to the telephone, but it was ——, and I knew his voice, although I had not heard —— speak in a year, and did not know that —— was in town.
4. All were in the boat except Harry and ——.
5. It was either —— or his brother who brought the message.

V. *She, her, herself:*

1. I would not ride in that machine with such a reckless driver if I were ——.

2. You are older than —— and should not allow —— to do such reckless things.
3. I know —— to be hard to reason with, but —— should speak to —— and make —— behave ——.

VI. *They, them, themselves:*

1. Who told you that it was —— who drove —— into town when —— found there was no one else who could drive ——?
2. The girls you speak of could not be —— for —— have left town, and then I have heard —— say —— never go anywhere by ——.

VII. *I, me, we, us, he, who, whom, it, they, yourselves:*

1. It was Mary and —— who brought the flowers.
2. It was John —— you spoke to.
3. What did you and —— do with —— while we were away?
4. Will you go with Harold and ——?
5. He said that you and —— might play tennis.
6. She will give it to either —— or ——.
7. It is —— and not —— who ought to ride home tonight.
8. You are more tired than ——.
9. They were all there except —— and ——.
10. Either Edith or Rob will lend you —— —— —— pencil.
11. —— pencil is mine, —— pencil is yours.
12. The class had —— room awarded to ——.
13. I shall give the apples to —— comes for them.
14. —— did they elect for president?
15. —— books are ——?

VIII. *I, me, myself:*

1. Arriving in Boston my brother and —— took a carriage and drove out to call on our friend.
2. The concert gave pleasure to mother and ——.
3. Both mother and —— enjoy the concert very much.
4. The book you gave to Helen and —— is just the book —— have been hoping someone would give to ——.
5. Between you and ——, he is not to be trusted.
6. I —— will give him the letter.
7. You should know whether you gave the letter to ——.
8. She is stronger than —— and I can do that ——.

9. Who is going to church this morning? Only ——?
10. Was it —— you wished to see?

IX. *We, us, ourselves:*

1. Our cousins and —— are going for an automobile ride.
2. Harry says he will take mother and —— in his new car.
3. They were longer than —— because we came across the field.
4. We —— ought to do our part to make the winter pleasant.
5. He told —— that —— were to be invited to the party.

X. Give person, number, gender, case, of each pronoun, and show its relation to its antecedent:

1. It was my brother who brought the word.
2. He spent some of his time at his uncle's.
3. You should be kind to one another.
4. This song is one of many that she learned from him.
5. Each said that the other was right.
6. I want each of you to bring me in his or her report tomorrow.
7. He read the story that you lent him.
8. Was it you or she who brought the book?
9. It is they who do the best work.
10. The house that we passed belongs to me.
11. The man whom you met is my brother.
12. She asked him and me to come.
13. It is a joy to be in the woods such weather.
14. Of such is the Kingdom of Heaven.
15. What is the matter with Harry?

Outline Summary

- Pronouns
  - Kinds
    1. Personal: *I*, *you*, *thou*, *he*, *she*, *it*, and the compounds *myself*, *thyself*, etc.
    2. Relative: *who*, *that*, *which*, *what*, and the compounds *whoever*, *whosoever*, etc.
    3. Interrogative: *who*, *which*, *what*.
    4. Demonstrative: *this*, *that*, *these*, *those*.
    5. Indefinite: *each*, *either*, *all*, *both*, *many*, *none*, *some*, *neither*, *anyone*, *anybody*, *anything*, *another*, *any*, *one*, *one another*, etc.
  - Forms
    1. Person.
    2. Gender.
    3. Number.
    4. Case.
  - Uses
    1. To take the place of a noun.
    2. To relate a dependent clause to its antecedent, noun or pronoun, in an independent clause.

CHAPTER III

Verbs

Note the italicised words in the following letter:

> Dear Henry,
>
> I *must-tell* you of my visit to my old home in the eastern states. I *dreaded* the return after I *had-been absent* so long. But I *thought* if I *were-going* at all I *ought-to-go* now, for my uncle's health *is-failing*, and soon the time *will-have-come* when I *shall*-not-*have* a single relative *living* in the old place. Besides, I *do-think* some tribute of respect *is-due* one's family seat. However, visiting of itself *may-be-interesting*, and yet the account of it *make* very dull reading. Nevertheless you *shall-hear* all about it, for I *will-tell* you. I *shall-be* as brief as I can. I *suppose* I *might-omit* many details, but how then *could* I *give* you a correct impression. Well then, *listen*, and the tale *shall-be-told*.

Observe how many varieties of action, state, or being these words express; or, in other words, in how many and various ways verbs are used.

If any part-of-speech may be called the most important, that part is the verb, for its business is to tell us, alone or with the aid of other words, what is said of the subject. And as there are many things to be said of any subject, even in a simple letter, so there are many varieties of meaning, time, and manner, and therefore, many forms and parts in any one verb. When you have mastered the verb in all its

parts you will have gone a long way toward mastering correct English. Well then, just what is a verb?

A ***verb*** *is a word used to express action, state or being.*

I *made* a boat (action). I *die* (action).
The boat *was-made* (action). I *am-dead* (being).

I *go-to-sleep* (action). I *awake* (action).
I *am*-asleep (being). I *am-wakened* (action).
I *am*-awake (being).

Now to understand these varieties of action and of being we must first learn several distinctions:

1. The distinction among three kinds of verbs:

Verbs-proper, (or simple verbs) that by themselves or with the aid of other verbs make statements about the subject:

The bird *sings;* the bird *sang;* the bird *is-singing;* the bird *has-sung.*

Auxiliary verbs (or auxiliaries), the helping verbs, so called because without their help the right form of statement cannot be made:

The bird *may* (*might*), *can* (*could*), *must* (*ought-to*), *shall* (*should*), *will* (*would*), sing;
The bird *may-have* (*might-have*), *can-have* (*could-have*), etc., sung.

Verbals, so called because they have the root-form and the idea of verbs. Yet alone they cannot be used as verbs; they must be used as adjectives or as nouns:

The *singing* (adj.) bird filled the room with sound.
The *singing* (noun) of the bird filled the room with sound.
To-sing (noun) seemed to make the bird glad.

2. The distinction between a **transitive** and an **intransitive**

verb, or between an active verb that takes an object and one that does not:

The hunter *killed* (transitive) his game; but his horse *died* (intransitive).

3. The distinction between the **active** and the **passive** voice, or between that form of the verb used when the subject denotes the *doer*, and that used when it denotes the receiver of an action:

You (subject) elect (active voice) your candidate; and your candidate (subject) *is elected* (passive voice) by you.

4. The distinction among **modes** or among the manners in which a verb can make its statement:

The **indicative,** the mode of assertion:

When the postman *comes* I *shall-get* a letter.

The **subjunctive,** the mode of condition, of doubt, or possibility:

If it *rain* or if it *shine*, postman always comes at nine,
Were the postman to come I *should-get* a letter.

The **imperative,** the mode of command:

Postman, *bring* me a letter.

5. The distinction among **tenses;** or those parts of the verb which show the different times, present, past, or future, in which action may take place. There are six tenses: the present, past, and future; the present-perfect, past-perfect, and future-perfect.

6. The distinction among **verb-forms:**

The **simple** verb-form, or that which *simply* indicates action or being:

I *move*, I *moved*, I *shall-move*.

The **progressive** verb-form, or that which indicates *continuing* action or being:

I *am-moving*, I *was-moving*, I *shall-be-moving*.

The **emphatic** verb-form, or that which *strongly* asserts action or being:

I *do-move*, I *did-move*, *Do-move*.

7. Finally, the distinctions:

between the singular and the plural **numbers** (as with nouns and pronouns);

and among the first, the second, and the third **persons** (as with pronouns) of either number.

We are now ready to study the verb in detail.

Verbs Proper

Here are four different types of assertion about the same thing—a boat:

The torpedo sank the boat.
The boat was sunk by a torpedo.
The boat sank.
The boat is a destroyer.

In the first sentence the noun *torpedo* names the subject which performs the act; the verb *sank* asserts the action; the noun *boat* names the object which receives the action.

> *Active verbs which require an object to receive their action and complete their meaning are called* ***transitive.***

In the second sentence the noun *boat* which in the first sentence was the *object* has become the *subject*, but instead of performing the act it receives the action asserted by the verb *was-sunk;* the doer, a torpedo, has become the object of the preposition *by*.

Transitive verbs which assert action of their subjects are in the ***active*** *voice; transitive verbs from which their subjects receive action are in the* ***passive*** *voice.*

In the third sentence the noun *boat* names the subject which performs the act, and the verb *sank* asserts the action; there is no object.

Verbs which do not require an object to receive their action in order to complete their meaning are ***intransitive.***

Some verbs are used either transitively or intransitively:

The destroyer sank (intransitive).
The destroyer sank the submarine (transitive).

An intransitive active verb can never be put in the passive voice. Apparent exceptions such as he *is-come*, he *is-gone*, really mean he *has-come*, he *has-gone;* that is, the regular passive auxiliary *be* is sometimes used with the active voice, instead of *have.*

Other apparent exceptions are intransitive verbs used with prepositions. In the passive use these have the effect of transitive verbs:

Active: He *slept* in the bed.

Passive: The bed was *slept-in.*

But in the latter case the verb is not really *slept* but *slept-in*, meaning *occupied*, and is transitive in effect.

In the fourth sentence the noun *boat* is the subject, but no action is performed and hence no object is required; the verb *is* merely links the subject-nominative, *boat*, to the predicate-nominative, *destroyer.*

Intransitive verbs which do not assert action but merely couple the subject with the predicate-nominative or other complement, are called ***copulative*** *verbs, or* ***copulas.***

I *am* (copula) the man (predicate noun) you are looking for.
Are (copula) you he (predicate-pronoun)?
No, he *is* (copula) absent (predicate-adjective).

The ordinary copula is *be*, but other verbs of nearly equivalent meaning are sometimes used. For instance, a physician might greet his patient thus: "Good morning, Mr. Smith. It *is* I, the doctor. You *seem* brighter this morning. Your temperature, too, *is* lower, and your pulse stronger. Now, if you will just *stay* quiet for a few days and *keep* warm you'll soon *be* well again."

In actual practice the only difficulty in using the copula with the predicate-nominative is with pronouns, because the nominative and objective cases of pronouns differ in form:

Lo, it *is I;* be not afraid.
It *is He* that hath made us, and not *we* ourselves.
Was that Mr. Smith *whom* (objective case) you bowed to? The light was so dim that I could not see *who* (predicate-nominative) it *was* (copula).

Practice

I. Tell how the verbs are used and from their use classify them:

1. The boy rode the donkey.
2. The boy rode.
3. The donkey was ridden by the boy.
4. The donkey is Pete.
5. The man wrote the letter.
6. The letter was written by the man.
7. The man wrote.
8. The letter is an invitation.
9. The lion is a beast of prey.
10. The race was run by the boy.
11. The bird flew.

12. The girl made a dress.
13. The dress was made by Ann.
14. The girl sings sweetly.
15. The girl is Dorothea.
16. The band plays in the park on Sunday afternoons.
17. The tire of Harry's bicycle was punctured before he was half-way home.
18. I called for Mary this afternoon, but she had been invited out to dinner and so could not go for a walk with me.
19. Did you say that Mary had been invited to go to Europe with her Aunt?

II. In the following selections classify the different types of assertion:

1. Speaking of those yellow squash-bugs, I think I disheartened them by covering the plants so deep with soot and wood-ashes that they could not find them; and I am in doubt if I shall ever see the plants again. But I have heard of another defence against the bugs. Put a fine wire-screen over each hill, which will keep out the bugs and admit the rain. I should say that these screens would not cost much more than the melons you would be likely to get from the vines if you bought them; but then think of the moral satisfaction of watching the bugs hovering over the screen, seeing, but unable to reach the tender plants within. That is worth paying for.

2. There is no dignity in the bean. Corn, which in my garden grows alongside the bean, and, so far as I can see, with no affectation of superiority, is, however, the child of song. It waves in all literature. But mix it with beans and its high tone is gone. Succotash is vulgar. It is the bean in it. The bean is a vulgar vegetable, without culture, or any flavor of high society among vegetables.

III. Bring in:

1. Five sentences having verbs in the active voice;
2. Five sentences having verbs in the passive voice;
3. Five sentences having copulative verbs;
4. Five sentences having transitive verbs;
5. Five sentences having verbs that may be either transitive or intransitive.

IV. Make sentences with the following verbs used transitively, and intransitively:

sing	run	jump	fly	speak
study	waved	walked	sew	sow
dream	fought	won	sank	write
live	leap	laugh	know	buy
grow	see	play	ride	leave

V. Use in the active and in the passive voice:

made	sang	loved	won	bought
invited	told	heard	built	dug
washed	dressed	trimmed	mowed	plowed
cooked	pealed	raked	sharpened	chopped
milked	tied	buttoned	printed	blackened
	caught		found	
	sailed		rowed	
	cut		watered	
	learned		studied	
	embroidered		closed	

VI. Use in the passive voice:

dig	ride	write	sing	buy	make	give
hurt	shoot	take	catch	see		draw

Auxiliaries

In the following sentences many verbs are compound; that is, they are made up of the simple verb with some other verb, to help make the assertion. Compound forms are sometimes called verb-phrases:

I often *have-thought* how exciting it *must-have-been* to *live* in the days of Queen Elizabeth when so much *was to be discovered* and almost any marvellous tale *might-be* true: there *might-be* a "northwest passage" to China by the Arctic Ocean; there *might-be* an El Dorado, or Golden Land, in South America, or a Fountain of Youth in Florida. Nowadays it *does-require* so much credulity to believe such things. Yet we *ought-to-take* comfort that two marvellous things *were-achieved* in our own times: the North Pole *was-*

discovered and the flying machine *was-invented* in the same year—each by an American.

A verb used to help another verb assert action is called an ***auxiliary.***

Some auxiliaries denote **voice:**
Be is the regular auxiliary of the passive voice.

Some auxiliaries denote **tense:**
Have is the regular auxiliary of the perfect tenses;
Shall and *will* are the regular auxiliaries of the future tenses.

Some auxiliaries denote **verb-form:**
Be is the regular auxiliary of the progressive verb-form;
Do is the regular auxiliary of the emphatic verb-form.

Some auxiliaries are also **verbs-proper:**
Have, do, be, and *will* are both kinds of verb:

Don't (auxiliary) *be* (auxiliary) always worrying about what you *will* (auxiliary) *have* (verb) or what you *will* (auxiliary) *do* (verb). You may *have* or *do* almost what you *will* (verbs). Think rather of what you want to *be* (verb).

The Potential

Certain auxiliaries are used with the simple verb to assert permission, possibility, power, determination, desire, duty, or necessity. In this use they are called *potential* auxiliaries, and the resulting verb-phrase is called the potential verb-phrase:

May (might) expresses permission, possibility, or wish.
Can (could) expresses power.
Must expresses necessity or coercion.
Ought expresses obligation or propriety.
Should expresses obligation.

Would expresses determination or desire.

The potential verb-phrase may be used in independent or in dependent clauses, and either with the Indicative or with the Subjunctive mode.

Shall and Will

We are sometimes confused about the correct use of *shall* and *will.*

Broadly the distinction is this:

I (we) *shall*	means	I *am* (we *are*) *going-to.*
I (we) *will*	means	I (we) *want-to.*

The reverse is true for the second and third persons:

You (he, she, they) *will* means You (they) *are* (he, she, *is*) *going-to.*

You (he, she, they) *shall* means You (they, he, she) *must.*

More exactly:

For the first person *shall* expresses futurity; *will* expresses determination or volition.

For the second and third persons *will* expresses futurity; *shall* expresses determination or volition.

Should and *would* generally follow the rules for *shall* and *will:*

Like the writer of the hymn, I "*would* not live alway," but I *should* be interested in coming alive again a hundred years hence.

Note:—In indirect quotations introduced by "that" (expressed or understood) use the same auxiliary as in direct:

Harold *says*, "I *shall* play tennis tomorrow" (direct).
Harold *says* (that) he *shall* play tennis tomorrow (indirect).
Harold *said* (that) he *should* play tennis tomorrow (indirect).
Jack says, "Harold will have to mow the lawn" (direct).
Jack *says* (that) Harold *will* have to mow the lawn (indirect).
Jack said (that) Harold *would* have to mow the lawn (indirect).

In asking questions use the auxiliary you expect in reply:

QUESTION: *Shall* you go to the city tomorrow; or *will* you be good enough to wait until I can go with you?
ANSWER: I *will* gladly wait; I *shall* not need to go tomorrow.

Practice

In the following sentences distinguish between the meanings indicated by the alternative auxiliaries:

1. I will (shall) go out in the motor car this afternoon.
2. I will (shall) be obeyed.
3. Shall (will) you go to church with me?
4. You shall (will) reach the top of the mountain if you keep climbing.
5. You would (should) go home in spite of our protest.
6. Shall (will) you accept her offer?
7. She said she would (should) not do it.
8. If you would (should) listen you might hear something to your credit.

MODES

The manner in which an assertion is made has much to do with the response it receives. For instance, suppose a boy were lazy about getting up in the morning; various members of his family might try various ways of rousing him:

His sister might call to him:

"John, it's half-past seven, time for breakfast; you *must* get up."

His brother or mother might say:

"*I'd be* ashamed to be such a sleepy-head, if I *were* you"; without rousing John.

But if his father were to call:

"John, *get up*," John would be likely to spring from the bed.

The manner in which a verb makes its assertion is called its ***Mode.***

1. The sister states two facts:

When the verb asserts a fact it is said to be in the ***Indicative*** *mode.*

2. The brother asserts an impossible condition, or a condition contrary to fact:

When the verb asserts something doubtful, conditional, contrary to fact, or improbable it is said to be in the ***Subjunctive*** *mode.*

3. The father gives a command.

When the verb expresses an entreaty or command it is said to be in the ***Imperative*** *mode.*

The Indicative

The Indicative is the mode in which most facts are communicated and most questions asked; any straightforward declaration or any question expecting a straightforward declaration in reply, will probably be put in the indicative. Its forms are easy to recognize.

The Subjunctive

The Subjunctive has several peculiarities:

1. It always asserts something at best doubtful, and perhaps even improbable or impossible:

I do not know whether you *would like* (subjunctive) peanut taffy or plain molasses candy better.

If I *were given* a million dollars I *should not know* (subjunctive) how to spend it.

2. It is generally added to another statement (subjunctive = subjoining), usually the indicative or the infinitive. When added to the indicative it is usually preceded by some join-

ing word—*if, whether, though,* but sometimes the order of words is inverted, instead:

You must choose between these two studies (simple indicative).
If I *must choose* (subjunctive) I shall choose (indicative) the more practical;
or;
Must I *choose* (inverted order) I shall choose (indicative) the more practical.

3. It sometimes follows a fashion of its own for changing its form to denote number or tense, especially in the verb, *be,* and the future auxiliaries:

PRESENT
- When I *am* here tomorrow (indicative) I shall give you the money.
- If I *be* here tomorrow (subjunctive) I shall give you the money.
- If (whenever) it *is raining* (indicative) you carry an umbrella.
- If it *be-raining* (subjunctive) be sure to take the car.

PAST
- If (whenever) he *was* through with his dinner (indicative) he *was* ready to work.
- If he *were* through with his dinner (subjunctive) he *would-be-ready* to work.
- *Were* he through with his dinner he *would-be-ready* to work.

Note:—See also *Tenses in the Subjunctive* (page 68) for correct use.

Practice

I. Observe the signs of the subjunctive mode in the following sentences:

1. If he be alive then the money belongs to him.
2. If I were as tired as you seem to be I should stop working.
3. If he come not today you may doubt my word.
4. If he go he will first tell you.
5. If he were not going why did he say so?
6. If he were sure that he were going he would first buy his ticket.

7. I should be ashamed to act as he does.
8. Though I speak with the tongues of men and of angels and have not charity, it profiteth me nothing.
9. Though He slay me yet will I trust Him.

II. Choose the correct form in the following sentences:

1. If he (was, were) to come I should give him the message.
2. I wish I (was, were) as clever as he is.
3. Though he (be, is) sometimes harsh he is generally kind.
4. If he (went, were-to-go) on a Friday it (rained, would-rain).
5. If it (rain, rains) on Friday we must not start.

III. Select from the Bible, Shakespeare, or any standard literature:

1. Five sentences having verbs in the present subjunctive.
2. Five sentences having verbs in the past subjunctive.

IV. Tell the differences in meaning between the forms in italics:

1. If he *is* (*were*) honest, he *will* (*would*) succeed.
2. If he *was* (*had-been*) honest, he (would-have-succeeded) *succeeded.*
3. Though he *fail* (*fails*) the first time yet he *will* (*may*) succeed in the end.
4. Though he failed the first time yet *will* (*would*) I have faith in him.
5. Though you told me he *failed* (told me he *had-failed*) yet *will* (*would*) I have faith in him.
6. Though you *told* (*were-to-tell*) me so ten times a day I always *forgot* (*should forget*) it.

The Imperative

In the imperative:

1. The subject is *thou*, *you* or *ye* (generally not expressed):
2. The verb is in the second person and is always in the present tense:

Please bring me the book.
Do walk a little faster.

Go down three blocks till you come to Sansome Street, turn to your left and walk about half a block; ring at the lower door.

Note:—When a command is to be expressed for the first person, singular or plural, the form, *let me* (*us*) is used, rarely such a form as *go we*, *turn we*, etc. For the third person the form is, *let him* (*her*, *them*).

The Verbals

In the following lines observe the difference in uses of the word, *flying:*

Boys *flying* kites haul in their white-winged birds,
But you can't do that when you *are-flying* words.

In the second line the asserting word is *are-flying;* in the first line the asserting word is *haul.* Omit the words "flying kites" from the first line and you have still remaining a complete statement, "boys haul in their white-winged birds"; therefore "flying" cannot be the verb. And yet it certainly has the form of a verb and gives the idea of action; therefore it must be part verb. But instead of being used to *assert* it is used to *modify* a noun; therefore it is also part adjective.

Words which are verbs in form and idea but have the use of some other part of speech are called ***verbals.***

Verbals may be active or passive in voice:

Active: *Asking* (adjective) permission we gained the owner's good-will.

Our *asking* (noun) permission gained the owner's good-will.

Passive: *Being-asked* (adjective) permission the owner admitted us freely.

Being-asked (noun) was all that the owner required.

Active: *To-die, to-sleep* —
No more; and by that sleep *to-say* we end
the heartache. . . .

Passive: *To-be-imprisoned* in the viewless winds,
And *blown* with restless violence round about
The pendent world.

Participles

Observe again that as the noun *boys*, in the first quotation, is modified by the word *flying*, so the noun *birds* is modified by the word *white-winged.*

Words which are verbs in form and idea but adjectives in use are called ***participles*** *or* ***verbal adjectives.***

There are two kinds of participles:

1. The present participle, always ending in "ing"; *flying, running,* etc.

2. The past participle, regularly ending in "d," "ed," "t"; or irregularly in "n," "ne"; *heard, moved, hurt, driven, done.*

When the action described by the participle is represented as **going on** *at the time indicated by the verb of the sentence it is called a* ***present participle.***

Seeing his automobile at the door, I was sure it must be the doctor.

When the action described by the participle is represented as **complete** *at the time indicated by the principal verb, it is called the* ***past participle.***

Having-met him several times at that corner I concluded that he lived in our street.

Infinitives

Words which are verbs in form and idea but nouns in use are called ***infinitives, or verbal nouns.***

There are two kinds of infinitives:

1. The infinitive with "to" (simple infinitive).

Do you know how *to-swim?*

In some cases the preposition is not expressed:

Do you dare (to) *swim* so far?

2. The infinitive in "ing."

Do you understand *swimming?*

Note:—When in doubt about a verbal: (1) omit the word from the sentence or clause; if what is left contains the *asserting* word, the omitted word is probably a verbal; (2) look for its use in the sentence; if it *modifies* some noun you will be safe to treat it as a participle, if it is *used* as a noun you will be safe to treat it as an infinitive.

Swimming (participle) with all my might I reached the man just in time to save him from *drowning* (infinitive).

Practice

I. Denote the participles and infinitives in the following and give the voice and tense:

1. I heard the ripple washing in the reeds
   And the wild water lapping on the crag.
2. But hastily to quench their sparkling ire,
   A flood of milk came rolling on the shore
   That on his curded wave swift Argus wore,
   And the immortal swan that did her life deplore.
3. I found Him in the shining of the stars,
   I marked Him in the flowering of His fields.
4. It is the hush of night, and all between
   My margin and the mountains, dark, yet clear,
   Mellowed and mingling, yet distinctly seen,
   Save darkened Jura, whose capt heights appear
   Precipitously steep:

5. And there was mounting in hot haste: The steed,
   The mustering squadron, and the clattering car,
   Went scouring forward with impetuous speed.
6. I made them lay their hands in mine and swear
   To reverence the king as if he were
   Their conscience, and their conscience as their King,
   To break the heathen and uphold the Christ,
   To ride abroad redressing human wrongs,
   To speak no slander, no, nor listen to it,
   To honor his own word as if his God's,
   To lead sweet lives in purest chastity,
   To love one maiden only, cleave to her,
   And worship her by years of noble deeds,
   Until they won her; for in deed I knew
   Of no more subtle master under heaven
   Than is the maiden passion for a maid,
   To teach high thought and amiable words
   And courtliness, and the desire of fame,
   And love of truth, and all that makes a man.

Use of the Infinitive

The infinitive with "to," as well as the infinitive in "ing," may be used:

1. As subject of the sentence:

To-be-honest is to-be-fearless.
Running is good exercise.

Note:—Used with "it" as expletive the infinitive-subject is placed out of its usual order in the sentence:—(See page 6, above).

It is good *to-be-here.* = *To-be-here* is good.
It is fun *skating* on this ice. = *Skating* on this ice is fun.

2. As object:

I like *to-row.*
I like *rowing.*
Our friends told us *to-take* the first road to the left; they wished us good *hunting.*

3. As object of a preposition:

He was about *to-go.*
He was thinking of *going.*

4. As predicate nominative:

To-see is *to-believe.*
Seeing is *believing.*

Though normally a noun the infinitive with "to" may be an adjective or an adverb:

There is a time *to-weep* and a time *to-laugh* (adjectives).
The child ran *to-meet* her mother (adverb).

Note:—The infinitive in "ing" may be governed by a noun or pronoun in the possessive case:

His buying the house seemed to make it impossible for them to go east, and so *Mary's going* was a great surprise to her friends.

Practice

Select the infinitives and participles in the following sentences, tell how they are used, and give their tenses:

1. Try to speak more slowly.
2. Climbing the last thousand feet up the mountain was a great effort.
3. I mentioned the matter to him before asking your permission.
4. Do you dare climb that mountain?
5. Speaking of mountain-climbing, have you ever tried to climb Mt. Whitney?
6. I insist on your speaking out plainly in open meeting.
7. But you need not speak bluntly.
8. Did you hear him say who were going to attend?
9. I would not hear your enemy say so.
10. I will not have you bothering me with useless questions.
11. I dare say you think my questions annoying.
12. No, I am simply tired of answering you.

Tense

The form of the verb which indicates the time in which the action takes place is called the ***tense*** *of the verb.*

Verbs have six different tenses:

Simple Tenses

1. An action may take place in the present time: **Present tense.**
2. An action may have taken place in past time: **Past tense.**
3. An action may take place in future time: **Future tense.**

Perfect Tenses

4. An action may be perfected or completed at the present time: **Present-perfect tense.**
5. An action may have been perfected or completed at some past time: **Past-perfect tense.**
6. An action may be considered as to be perfected or completed at some future time: **Future-perfect tense**

In the following sentences note the changes made in the form of the verb, to show differences in time:

1. I *hear* a bird singing. **Present tense.**
2. Is it the same I *heard* last night? **Past tense.**
3. I hope I *shall-hear* it again tomorrow. **Future tense.**
4. I *have-heard* him three nights, now. **Present-perfect tense.**
5. I *had-heard* him two weeks ago. **Past-perfect tense.**
6. If he sings tomorrow night I *shall-have-heard* him three times. **Future-perfect tense.**

Observe in the two following sentences two different uses of the **present tense:**

The Colonel *is-riding* this morning.
He *rides* for an hour every day.

In the former sentence the verb *is-riding* asserts action

that is going on at the time of speaking; in the latter the verb *rides* asserts action that is habitual:

When the verb asserts action (1) as *taking place, or* (2) *as habitual or customary at the time of speaking, it is in the* ***present*** *tense.*

Notice a like difference in the uses of the **past tense**:

The Colonel *rode* his old sorrel mare yesterday.
When he was younger he *rode* a livelier horse.

When the verb asserts action, (1) *as having taken place, or* (2) *as habitual or customary, in past time, it is in the* ***past*** *tense.*

And there is a similar difference in the uses of the **future tense**:

The Colonel *will-ride* tomorrow if the weather permits:
He *will-ride* every fine day, year in and year out (or *will-be-riding*).

When the verb asserts action which (1) *is to take place, or* (2) *will be habitual or customary at some future time, it is in the* ***future*** *tense.*

In the next three sentences notice the differences in the **forms** of the **verb**, and notice carefully how in every case the assertion of the **verb** gives an idea of the action as having been **completed,** (or **perfected**) at the time specified:

1. *This* makes three times he *has-ridden* round the park.
2. He *had-ridden* three times round the park *before I came.*
3. He *will-have-ridden* three times round the park, when he *reaches this bench.*

The present tense of the auxiliary ***have*** *with the past participle of the verb, forms the* ***present-perfect*** *tense.*

The past tense, ***had,*** *of the auxiliary* ***have,*** *with the past participle of the verb, forms the* ***past-perfect*** *tense.*

The auxiliary ***shall*** (*or* ***will***) *and the present of the auxiliary* ***have,*** *together with the past participle of the verb, form the* ***future-perfect*** *tense.*

Tenses in the Passive Voice

The tenses of the passive voice are regularly made up of some form of the auxiliary *be* with the past participle of a *transitive* verb. They are similar to those of the active voice:

The suit *is-being-made* this week.	**Present tense.**
The suit *was-being-made* last week.	**Past tense.**
The suit *will-be-done* by Friday.	**Future tense.**
The suit *has-been-done* for two days.	**Present-perfect tense.**
The suit *had-been-done* two days before.	**Past-perfect tense.**
The suit *will-have-been-made* before your return.	**Future-perfect tense.**

Practice

I. Change italicized verbs in these sentences to the past tense.

II. Change italized verbs in these sentences to the perfect tense.

III. Change italicized verbs in these sentences to the passive voice.

1. Oh wind a *blowing* all day long!
2. *Flee* as a bird to your mountain.
3. The bird *flies* fast and free.
4. The men *are-laying* the carpet.
5. The river *overflows* its banks.
6. The book *lies* on the table.
7. Mary *comes* to this school.
8. George, *lay* the book on the table.
9. The bell *rings*.
10. The boy *sets* the trap.
11. They *sit* in the front row.
12. The birds *wake* me early every morning.
13. George *swims* better than Harry.
14. *Will* you *alight* from your horse?
15. The birds *light* on my window every morning.

16. He *lights* the fire for us every morning.
17. My mother *bids* me bind my hair.
18. It *proves* to be true.
19. The sun *sets* at six tonight.
20. They *throw* a line out to that boat.
21. The Japanese merchant *bids-in* that teak-wood case.
22. Mary *dives* like a fish.
23. Please *break* that branch of lilac for me.

Correct Use of Tenses

The only practical difficulties with tenses are in the use of the subjunctive mode and verbals, and in dependent phrases and clauses.

1. In the subjunctive mode the expression of statements contrary to fact is indicated by the tense employed:

Thy kingdom *come* (present tense to express a **wish for the future**).

Would that the night *were* come (past tense to express a **wish unfulfilled in the present**).

If I just *could have had* sense enough to hold my tongue! (past-perfect tense to express a **wish unfulfilled in past time**).

2. Verbals themselves may be present or past in time. But they can merely assert their own action as complete or incomplete at the time asserted by the principal verbs on which they depend:

Turning (present participle) to the right we follow (present) the main road to the river.

Turning to the right we followed (past) the main road to the river.

Having given (past participle) our word we are not free (present) to break it.

Having given our word we were not free (past) to break it.

Your *coming* (present infinitive) was (past) eagerly expected; your *going* will-be (future) equally regretted.

Our *having-covered* (perfect infinitive) the distance in so short a time was what he could not (past) understand.

Your *having-supported* (perfect infinitive) your country's cause will (future) always be a source of pride to your friends.

. . . For my purpose holds (present)
To-sail beyond the sunset and the baths
Of all the western stars until I die.

To-have-failed (past infinitive) is (present) a misfortune; *not-to-have-tried* (past infinitive) *would-be* a disgrace.

3. In general the tense of the verb in a dependent clause should agree with that of the principal statement:

He *knows* he *can do* it if he *likes* (**present**).
He *knew* he *could do* it if he *liked* (**past**).

Of course when the sense positively calls for it the tenses of independent and dependent statement may disagree:

He *knows* he *could-do* it, or *could-have-done* it.

Again, when the verb of the dependent clause states an habitual or customary fact the tense of the dependent verb is present regardless of the principal verb:

Where *did* you say Yosemite *is?*

Practice

I. Which of the forms in italics is right?

1. Where did you say Robert *is* (*was*) today?
2. I meant *to call* (*have called*) on you yesterday.
3. Beowulf *is* (*was*) a hero of Saxon lore who was supposed *to kill* (*to have killed*) the great fire drake.
4. I should not *like* (*have-liked*) to have-done it.
5. I should not have liked *to do* (*to have-done*) it.
6. I don't see how anyone could say that Mary *is* (*was*) prettier than Alice.
7. Should you have been willing *to drive* (*to have driven*) my car for me?
8. I meant *to ask* (*to have asked*) you yesterday.
9. He asked me to tell him how far it *is* (*was*) from New York to Boston.
10. He had not heard that you and she *are* (*were*) sisters.

11. It would have been impossible for you *to prevent* (*to have prevented*) the accident.
12. If you will call him he *will* (*would*) come.
13. Who told you that Mary *is* (*was*) coming?
14. She expected *to call* (*to have called*) on you tomorrow.
15. Who would have thought it possible *to ride* (*to have ridden*) this distance by noon?
16. I am telegraphing to her so that she *may* (*might*) have the house ready.

II. In the following sentences give the mode and tense of the verbs and tell how they agree with their subject:

1. Col. Roosevelt said that a herd of Zebras, running through the streets of a town in Africa, knocked a girl from her bicycle.
2. You may go home when you are through.
3. John, close the windows.
4. If I see the boy, I will tell him.
5. You might bring the boys with you, when you come.
6. You may bring the girls too, if you wish.
7. Please bring me my shawl.
8. This is the forest primeval.
9. Did you say you would come?
10. How can you speak so rudely!
11. You might have been mistaken.
12. You have been too careless about this matter.
13. You may ride my horse.
14. Can you ride that horse?
15. I can skate across the pond.
16. May I skate across the pond?
17. I ought to have written some letters today.
18. Let not your heart be troubled.
19. I mailed your letter.
20. I have mailed your letter.
21. I had sung my song before my sister came.
22. I shall give you my book when I finish it.
23. Had you finished the book, when you gave it to me?
24. You will have gone twenty miles by the time I have started.
25. You have broken your string.
26. Oh, I had broken that before you came.
27. You will have walked five miles by the time you reach their house.

28. I caught the horse.
29. You should have caught the horse.
30. He has caught the horse.
31. The letter has been mailed by the boy.

III. In the following sentences indicate changes in the verbs to show a difference in time; tell the difference in meaning: and give the tense and mode of every verb:

1. He sings tenor.
2. He sang at the concert last night.
3. He will sing tonight.
4. Do you see that light?
5. He saw the star fall.
6. He will see the pictures.
7. I invite you to the party.
8. I am inviting the girls to the party.
9. She invited the girls to the party.
10. We shall invite the girls to the party.
11. They will have invited the girls to the party.
12. I had invited the girls to the party before I received your letter.

Verb-Forms

In the following sentence are three varieties of assertion:

If John *waits* much longer he *will-be-delaying* the whole expedition; I *do-wish* he'd hurry.

These varieties are called verb-forms: (1) the Simple, (2) the Progressive, and (3) the Emphatic. Only the Progressive and the Emphatic need explanation. They differ from the Simple Verb-form in always using some part of "be" or "do" to make the assertion. Even in the simpler tenses these forms are compound; they employ verb-phrases.

Progressive Verb-form

Compare the different forms of the present tense of the verb *write*:

He *writes* books.
He *is-writing* a book.

The first expresses a habit or custom; the second expresses a particular action in progress at the time of speaking.

When some part of the verb "be" is combined with the present participle to show that action is, was, or will-be going on, the form is called the ***progressive verb-form,*** *and its phrase the* ***progressive verb-phrase.***

Emphatic Verb-form

Is he writing a book? I *did-hear* that he was but I *do*-not-*know*.

When some part of the verb "do" is placed before the simple active verb the form is called the ***emphatic verb-form,*** *and its phrase the* ***emphatic verb-phrase.***

Rarely the progressive and the emphatic verb-forms are combined:

Do let us *be-hurrying* or we shall delay the expedition.

The progressive verb-form is also used in the passive voice, in the present and past indicative and the past subjunctive. The emphatic verb-form is found only in the active voice, in the present and past indicative, the present and past subjunctive, and the present imperative.

Note:—The emphatic verb-form has come to be used idiomatically when no special emphasis is meant:

I don't-think-so is less emphatic than, *I-think-not-so;*

I-do-not-doubt is less emphatic than, *I-doubt-not.*

Practice

I. Bring to class:

Five emphatic verb-phrases, each taken from the Bible, Shakespeare, Stevenson, or any standard author.

Let two be in the indicative; two in the imperative; one in the subjunctive.

II. Give mode and tense and voice of the following progressive phrases:

She *is playing* in the garden.
He *was flying* his kite when I came into the house.
They *will be going* home this afternoon.
You *should have been doing* your work at that time.
I *am being taught* to dance.
He *was being dined* when I came into the grounds.
If he *was being shown* the house I am sorry I called him so soon.
If he *were being shown* the house he would have told us.

III. Bring in:

Five progressive verb-phrases from the Bible, three in the indicative, two in the subjunctive;

Five progressive verb-phrases selected from Kipling or any standard author. Tell mode, tense, voice.

Person and Number

The regular verb must agree with its subject in person and number; sometimes it requires a change in the form of the verb to show this agreement:

I *am;* thou *art;* he *is*, are exceptional variations;
I *give;* thou *givest;* he *gives*, are regular variations.

Similarly the verb sometimes changes its form to denote singular or plural number:

Singular	Plural
The child *laughs*,	The children *laugh*,
The child *is* here,	The children *are here*,
The child *has* gone,	The children *have* gone.

The changes in form of the verb to make the agreement in person and number are found in the present and present-perfect tenses. But the so-called solemn style (see appendix for the conjugation of the verb), and the auxiliaries *shall* and *will*, and the verb, *be*, however used, carry their changes in form through other tenses.

Note:—*You*, though used in the singular, is plural in form and *always* takes a plural verb:

You *were* a crack shot even when you *were* a lad of fifteen.

Sometimes if the subject is plural in form but singular in meaning it takes a singular verb:

The *news* is encouraging.
Physics is the hardest study I have.

Correct Use of Singular and Plural

Each, *every*, *many-a*, *either* and *neither* are singular. When the subject consists of singular nouns or pronouns connected by *or*, *either-or*, *neither-nor*, the verb must be singular. Words joined to the subject by *with*, *together-with*, *in-addition-to*, or *as-well-as*, are parenthetical and do not affect the number of the verb. A verb agrees with the antecedent of the relative pronoun.

Practice

I. Insert the proper form of the verb *be* in the blank spaces:

1. That kind of apples —— scarce.
2. Each of the men —— provided with a gun.
3. Neither Mary nor Harry —— in the right place.
4. Fifteen minutes —— spent every morning feeding the birds.
5. The money as well as the inclination —— lacking.
6. Every one of those dogs —— mine.
7. Two times five —— ten.
8. My aunt with the whole family —— detained by the storm.
9. Three spoonfuls of butter —— enough for that cake.

II. Which is the better form? Give reasons:

1. A boat with two fishermen (*has*, *have*) come into the harbor.
2. The ship with all its crew (*were*, *was*) lost.
3. Kipling is one of the best story writers that (*has*, *have*) written during the last decade.

4. Bring me one of the shawls that (*is*, *are*) lying on my lounge.
5. You are not the only one that (*has*, *have*) been fooled by him.
6. The greater part of the audience (*was*, *were*) charmed by her.
7. He is one of those singers who (*charm*, *charms*) their listeners.

III. Fill in blanks with the correct verb:

1. He is —— down in the hammock watching a squirrel.
2. After he —— down he remembered that he had not —— the camp fire for the evening.
3. Those logs have —— in the water too long. Do not —— them on the fire; they will not burn.
4. I like to —— on the ground and look up at the stars when I am in the mountains.
5. —— those boughs under that tree those old ones have been —— on too long. We —— on them all last month.
6. You are —— them too close to the tree.
7. The bird has —— four eggs in that nest. I shall —— in wait for that old cat and if I —— my eyes on her while she is climbing toward the nest I will teach her a lesson.
8. Mary said you had —— my book on the table and had —— down for a nap.
9. You will catch cold if you —— too near that window.
10. One of those girls —— bring the letter.
11. Some of those girls —— students.
12. The class —— divided in —— —— choice.
13. Mary as well as Charlotte —— taking lessons of her.
14. Politics —— not interesting to me.
15. Those kinds of scissors —— to cut with.
16. That kind of scissors —— hard to cut with.
17. Lives of Greek Heroes —— the best of all the books in that set.
18. —— either of you going to the play tonight?

The Principal Parts

The principal parts of the verb are:

Pres. Inf.	Past Ind.	Pres. Part.	Past Part.
move	moved	moving	moved
see	saw	seeing	seen

Principal parts *are samples of the verb, chosen to show the chief differences in asserting the time and manner of the action.*

One or another of these parts may be employed to make compound forms:

I *am-moving* I *did-move* I *have* (*had, will-have*) *moved.*

The principal parts also show whether a verb is **regular** (weak) or **irregular** (strong).

	Pres. Inf.	Past Ind.	Pres. Part.	Past Part.
Strong:	fall	fell	falling	fallen
Weak:	fell	felled	felling	felled (= cause to fall)
Strong:	lie	lay	lying	lain
Weak:	lay	laid	laying	laid (= cause to lie)
Strong:	rise	rose	rising	risen
Weak:	raise	raised	raising	raised (= cause to rise)
Strong:	sit	sat	sitting	sat
Weak:	set	set	setting	set (= cause to sit)

Weak verbs *regularly form the past tense by adding the ending* **d,** *or* **ed,** *or* **t,** *to the present.*

Strong verbs *regularly form the past tense by changing the vowel without adding an ending.*

Note:—The verb *set* though really weak has a slight irregularity in the past indicative and past participle which have dropped the ending because it is hard to unite the sound with the final letter of the present indicative.

Similar verbs are:

hit	hit	hitting	hit
put	put	putting	put
bet	bet	betting	bet

Strong or Irregular Verbs

The following strong verbs are examples of variations in form:

	Pres. Inf.	Past Ind.	Pres. Part.	Past Part.
(mixed verbs)	be	was	being	been
	go	went	going	gone
(pure verbs)	bid	bade	bidding	bidden
	bring	brought	bringing	brought
	buy	bought	buying	bought
	choose	chose	choosing	chosen
	do	did	doing	done
	drink	drank	drinking	drunk
	fly	flew	flying	flown
	forget	forgot	forgetting	forgotten
	hide	hid	hiding	hidden
	ring	rang	ringing	rung
	seek	sought	seeking	sought
	speak	spoke	speaking	spoken
	take	took	taking	taken
	teach	taught	teaching	taught
	think	thought	thinking	thought
	wear	wore	wearing	worn
	write	wrote	writing	written

Some verbs have both strong and weak conjugations:

work	wrought	working	wrought
	worked	working	worked

Note:—For the conjugation of the verb see Appendix A.

Practice

I. Give the following forms:

1. The active progressive of *go*.
2. The passive indicative of *make*.
3. The passive present progressive of *kill*.
4. The active present progressive of *love*.
5. The active present, singular, subjunctive of *laugh*.
6. The active present progressive of *lie* (to recline).
7. The active past and present-perfect of *sing*.
8. The infinitives and participles of *run*.

II. Use the correct form of the verb:

1. I wish you (past-perfect of *give*) me one.
2. The airship (past of *fly*) over the field through which the river (past of *flow*).
3. They (past of *lay*) the new stone where the old log (past-perfect of *lie*) so long.
4. He (past of *sit*) down on the ground and the children (past of *lie*) in the grass at his feet.
5. They (past of *bring*) some flowers and (past of *make*) a wreath, and while they (past-progressive of *make*) it, he (past of *tell*) them stories.
6. The boat (past-perfect of *go*) half an hour when we (past of *reach*) the wharf.
7. They (past of *fell*) the tree and let it (*lie*, *lay*) where it (past-perfect of *fall*).
8. He (past of *rise*) up in bed, reached for the window shade, and (past of *raise*) it.
9. He (past of *set*) the water-glass on the table near which he (past progressive of *sit*).
10. The water (past of *freeze*) in the bucket; it has been years since water (present-perfect of *freeze*) in this locality.
11. If you go out without a wrap you (future of *freeze*).
12. I (future-perfect of *make*) five dresses when this is finished.
13. (Potential auxiliary showing permission) I *go* down town?
14. If (past subjunctive denoting impossibility) you, I (*would should*) not do that.

Outline Summary

- **Verbs**
  - **Kind**
    - 1. Verbs Proper
      - Transitive, Intransitive.
      - Strong, Weak, Conjugation.
    - 2. Auxiliaries
      - Perfect tense auxiliaries: *have*, *has*, *had*.
      - Future tense auxiliaries: *shall* and *will*, *should* and *would*.
      - Potential auxiliaries: *ought*, *must*, *may*, *can*, *might*, *will*, *shall*, *would*, *could*, *should*.
      - Emphatic auxiliaries: *do*, *did*.
      - Progressive auxiliaries: all the forms of *be*.
      - Passive auxiliaries: *have*, and *be*.
    - 3. Verbals
      - Participles
        - Present.
        - Past.
        - Perfect, active, passive.
      - Infinitives
        - Present, active, passive.
        - Past, active, passive.
  - **Form**
    - Voice
      - Active.
      - Passive.
    - Mode
      - Indicative.
      - Subjunctive.
      - Imperative.
    - Tense
      - Present.
      - Past.
      - Future.
      - Perfect.
      - Past perfect.
      - Future perfect.
    - Person
      - First.
      - Second.
      - Third.
    - Number
      - Singular.
      - Plural
  - **Used**
    - 1. Verbs, to assert the action performed or received by the subject.
    - 2. Participles, to serve as adjectives.
    - 3. Infinitives, to serve as substantives.

CHAPTER IV

Adjectives and Adverbs

Nouns, pronouns, and verbs are enough in themselves to make complete sentences. However, taken by themselves they cannot express much beyond the simplest ideas. To express thoughtfully these parts-of-speech must be *modified.*

The chief modifiers are adjectives and adverbs. Adjectives modify nouns. Adverbs modify verbs; they may also modify adjectives and other adverbs.

Notice how much the writer of the following letter depends on the modifying words to express his thought:

The new French teacher "isn't *half-bad,*" as *English* Harry says. He is *really* a *very good* fellow. I *truly* think he likes his *dry old* subject and, what is *more,* that he likes us, *most* of us, so that he *seldom* gets *angry, even when* he can't make out the queer sounds we are making. *Dull* as I am at languages and *that* sort of thing, he *even* likes me *pretty well.* He likes Tom *better,* though, and *of-course* he likes *the clever* Harry *best.* I hope he will be *more successful* than *the other* men have been; he is *the third* we have tried in *two* years. *What* interesting things have been happening to you?

The, more, most, two, are ***limiting adjectives.***

New, French, half-bad, English, angry, queer, dull, clever, successful are ***descriptive adjectives.***

That, other are ***pronominal adjectives.***

Really, very, truly, seldom, even, pretty, well, better, of-course, best, most are ***simple adverbs.***

When is a ***conjunctive adverb.***

What is an ***interrogative adjective.***

Adjectives

Limiting Adjectives

Articles

Boys like to play.
A boy likes to play.
The healthy boy likes to play.

Observe these three sentences. You will find there is a difference in form, and a difference in meaning, although the assertions made by the predicates are the same. The change is made in the modifications of the subjects.

In the first sentence the predicate asserts a characteristic common to all boys, and the subject *boys* has no modifier.

In the second sentence the meaning is modified by having the subject limited to *one* boy. No special boy is spoken of; the assertion is made of *any one* boy among all boys. This modification is denoted by the article *a* which limits the subject.

In the third sentence the meaning is still further modified by having the subject limited to *one special* boy, and this modification is denoted by the word "*the*" which limits the subject.

> *Since* ***a*** *or its other form* ***an,*** *and* ***the*** *are used to limit the meaning of nouns they are limiting adjectives: they are called* ***articles.***

The article *a* or *an* limits indefinitely.
The article *the* limits definitely.

Numerals

One boy and *three* girls came.

In this sentence *one* and *three* limit the nouns *boy* and *girls* to a definite number.

When numerals are used to limit the meaning of nouns they are called ***limiting adjectives.***

Pronominal Adjectives

That hat is mine; *this* hat is yours, but you may wear *that* one if you like.
Neither hat is very becoming, I wish you had *another* hat.

In these two sentences we have words that we have been studying as pronouns, but they cannot be pronouns here because they do not take the place of nouns. The nouns are here too, and these pronominal words modify them in place of being substituted for them.

Take the sentences on page 37, Chapter II:

This is my section, porter, and *that* is my baggage; *these* are my umbrellas, and *those* are my valises.

The same things might be said in the following way:

This section is mine, porter, and *that* baggage; *these* umbrellas are mine, too, and *those* valises.

When pronouns are used to limit the meaning of nouns and are not used as substitutes for them, they become ***pronominal adjectives.***

Not only demonstrative pronouns but interrogative, relative, and indefinite pronouns may become pronominal adjectives:

Which (pronoun) is my hat?
Which (adjective) hat is mine?

Whatever (pronoun) you undertake, work at it with a will.
Whatever (adjective) task you undertake, work at it with a will.

Some (adjective) men exercise vigorously, and *some* (pronoun) do not.

Practice

Select the limiting adjectives in the following sentences and tell how they limit; note whether they are articles, numerals or pronominals:

A boy's will is the wind's will
And the thoughts of youth are long, long thoughts.

And close behind her stood
Eight daughters of the plough stronger than men.

I said: When first the world began,
Young Nature thro' five cycles ran
And in the sixth she moulded man.

This truth within thy mind rehearse,
That in a boundless universe
Is boundless better, boundless worse.

Descriptive Adjectives

A *tall*, *white* house stands within the garden wall.

In this sentence the words *tall* and *white* describe the noun *house*.

> *Adjectives which modify the meaning of nouns by describing them are called* ***descriptive adjectives.***

Harry wore a *Roman* coin on his watch-fob.

In this sentence the word *Roman* modifies the noun *coin* by describing it; therefore it is a descriptive adjective. *Roman* is an adjective derived from the proper noun *Rome*.

> *When an adjective is derived from a proper noun it is called a* ***proper adjective*** *and should always have a capital for its initial letter.*

It is better to be a *self-controlled* man, than a *devil-may-care* fellow.

When adjectives are made up of two or more words they are called ***compound adjectives.***

The adjective may complete the assertion of the verb at the same time it is describing or limiting the meaning of the subject or the object.

The ground is *white.*
The snow makes the ground *white.*

In the first sentence the adjective *white* completes the assertion of the verb and at the same time describes the subject.

When an adjective completes the assertion of the verb and describes the subject it is called a ***predicate adjective,*** *or* ***attribute complement.***

In the second sentence the adjective *white,* as attribute of the infinitive *to be* helps complete the assertion of the verb *makes* and describes the object *ground* (makes the ground *to-be* white).

When the adjective helps complete the assertion of the verb, and describes the object it is called an ***attribute of the object,*** *or* ***objective complement.***

Practice

I. Select and classify the adjectives in the following sentences:

1. However, the egg only got larger and larger, and more and more human, and when she came within a few yards of it, she saw that it had eyes and a nose and mouth.
2. The sea was wet as wet could be,
   The sands were dry as dry.
3. Somewhat apart from the village, and nearer the Basin of Minas,
   Benedict Bellefontaine, the wealthiest farmer of Grand-Pré,
   Dwelt on his goodly acres.

4. Everything, from the light and the lapis-lazuli flagstones, to the shimmering background into which the last arches run and disappear, everything, down to the smallest objects, is of an unreal, intense, fairy-like blue.

5. Certainly the bird will be blue, since everything here is blue. Heavens, how beautiful it all is!

6. The clouds were pure and white as flocks new shorn,
And fresh from the clear brook; sweetly they slept
On the blue fields of heaven, and then there crept
A little noiseless noise among the leaves,
Born of the very sigh that silence heaves.

7. I was light-hearted,
And many pleasures to my vision started;
So I straightway began to pluck a posy
Of luxuries bright, milky, soft and rosy.

8. Here are sweet peas, on tip-toe for a flight:
With wings of gentle flush o'er delicate white,
And taper fingers catching at all things,
To bind them all about with tiny rings.

9. Linger awhile upon some bending plank
That leans against a streamlet's rushy bank,
And watch intently Nature's gentle doings:
They will be found softer than ring-dove's cooings.

10. And still she slept an azure-lidded sleep,
In blanchèd linen, smooth, and lavender'd,
While he from forth the closet brought a heap
Of candied apple, quince, and plum, and gourd,
With jellies soother than the creamy curd,
And lucent syrops, tinct with cinnamon;
Manna and dates: spiced dainties, every one,
From silken Samarcand to cedar'd Lebanon.

II. Choose from any poem of Tennyson with which you are acquainted:

Ten descriptive adjectives.
Five descriptive adjectives used as attribute complement.
Ten pronominal adjectives.
Ten numerical adjectives.

Comparison of Adjectives

Adjectives and adverbs do not make any change in form for person and case, and with the exception of the adjectives *this* and *that,* they make no change for number. (Long ago they changed in form as the noun changed.) The only change they make in form is for the purpose of showing a **difference in degree** of the quality which the noun possesses. This change is called **Comparison.**

There are three different degrees of comparison: the **positive,** the **comparative,** and the **superlative.**

When the adjective merely names some quality possessed by the noun, and does not denote the degree, the adjective is in the ***positive*** *degree:*

This apple is not *ripe.*

When the adjective denotes a greater degree of the quality of an object than is possessed by some other object with which it is compared, it is in the ***comparative*** *degree:*

This is a *riper* apple than that one.

When an adjective denotes a quality as possessed to the greatest degree by some object among a number in comparison (two or more), the adjective is in the ***superlative*** *degree:*

This is the *ripest* apple in the basket.

Note the different ways in which the degrees of comparison are shown in the following groups of sentences:

1. See what a ripe apricot.
   Yes, but here is a *riper* one.
   Oh, but this is the *ripest* I have found on the tree.

2. What an attractive place for the camp.
   Is it *more* attractive than the spot you found down the cañon?
   This is the *most* attractive spot I have found on the mountain.
3. Stop and rest; you are tired.
   I am *less* tired than you are; you carried that heavy pack.
   I am the *least* tired of us all; I rode the burro all the way.
4. This is a *bad* road.
   Is it *worse* than the road on the other side of the mountains?
   It seems to me it is the *worst* road in the county.

In the first group the **comparative** degree is formed by adding *er* to the positive, and the **superlative** degree is formed by adding *est* to the positive;—*ripe,-riper,-ripest.*

In the second, third and fourth groups the comparative and the superlative degree are formed by the use of different words.

Good,-better,-best;-much,-more,-most,- ascending scale.

Bad, worse,-worst;-little,-less,-least,- descending scale.

Adjectives Irregularly Compared

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
little	less	least
far	farther / further	farthest / furthest
many / much	more	most
near	nearer	nearest / next
ill / bad	worse	worst
good / well	better	best
late	latter / later	last

Some Adjectives Compared In Two Ways

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
lovely	lovelier more lovely	loveliest most lovely
able	abler more able	ablest most able.

Some Adjectives Have No Positive Form

Comparative	Superlative
outer	outmost outermost.
upper	uppermost
utter	uttermost
inner	inmost innermost

Rules for the Use of Comparative and Superlative

Use the comparative degree to indicate a comparison *between two* objects or two sets of objects, or alternative objects.

Use the superlative degree to indicate a comparison *among all* the objects considered.

Comparative. Apples are *finer than* oranges.
Apples are *finer than* any *other* fruit.
Apples are *finer than* oranges, peaches, or apricots.

Superlative. Apples are the *finest* of *all* fruits.

Note:—In using the comparative form be careful to make the latter term *exclude* the former. Thus the sentence, "Apples are finer than *any* fruit," is nonsense, for apples are themselves fruit. Amend the sentence to read, "Apples are finer than *any other* fruit."

In using the superlative form be careful to make the latter

term *include* the former. Thus the sentence, "Apples are the finest of *any other* fruit," is nonsense, for apples are apples and not other fruit.

Care in the Use of Adjectives

When used as pronouns, *this* and *these* refer to things near to hand; *that* and *those* to things farther removed.

Be careful to use *this* and *that* to modify nouns in the singular, and *these* and *those* to modify nouns in the plural, as:

This apple is sweet; that apple is sour.
These apples are sweet; those apples are sour.

This *kind* of apple is sweet; that *kind* of apple is sour.
These *kinds* of apples are sweet; those *kinds* of apples are sour.

Be careful in the use of a *few* and a *little:*
Few denotes *not many;*
Little denotes *not much.*

Give me a *few* friends and a *little* money, and I can be contented.
He has *fewer* friends and *less* money than his brother had.

In using connected nouns which are to be distinguished from one another, be careful to repeat the article before each, as:

I do not know which was the more lovely, the *vase* or the *rose.*

When two or more connected adjectives describe one object use the article before the first adjective only:

He wore a blue and green tie.

But when two or more connected adjectives modify different nouns, use the article before each adjective:

He found an orange and an apple orchard.
He owns a silver and a gold mine.

Use *either* and *neither* when referring to two objects only; *any* and *none* when referring to more than two:

Neither hat can be worn.
You may choose *any one* of those five ties, or *none* of them.

Practice

I. Indicate the correct adjectives for the following:

Do you like —— kind of candy?
Do you like those —— of ——?
Mother will give you four of —— —— of apples.
Bring me six of that —— of roses.
Bring me five of those —— of grapes.

II. Give the degrees of all the adjectives in the following sentences:

1. See what a lovely shell,
   Small and pure as a pearl,
   Lying close to my foot,
   Frail, but a work divine,
   Made so fairily well.
   With delicate spire and whorl,
   How exquisitely minute,
   A miracle of design.
2. *Happy* in this, she is not yet so old
   But she may learn; *happier* then in this.
   She is not bred so dull but she can learn;
   Happiest of all in that her gentle spirit
   Commits itself to yours to be directed.
3. "Deafer," said the blameless king,
   "Gawain, and blinder unto holy things
   Hope not to make thyself by idle vows,
   Being too blind to have desire to see."
4. The little bird sits at his door in the sun
   Atilt like a blossom among the leaves,
   And lets his illumined being o'errun
   With the deluge of summer it receives;

His mate feels the eggs beneath her wings,
And the heart in her dumb breast flutters and sings;
He sings to the wide world, and she to her nest, ——
In the nice ear of Nature which song is the best?

5. O son, thou hast not true humility,
The highest virtue, the mother of them all:

6. Can this be Christmas—sweet as May,
With drowsy sun, and dreamy air,
And new grass pointing out the way
For flowers to follow, every where?

7. While Kings of eternal evil
Yet darken the hills about,
Thy part is with broken sabre
To rise on the last redoubt;
To fear not sensible failure,
Nor covet the game at all,
But fighting, fighting, fighting,
Die driven against the wall.

8. Take temperance to thy breast,
While yet is the hour of choosing,
As arbitress exquisite
Of all that shall thee betide;
For better than fortune's best
Is mastery in the using,
And sweeter than anything sweet
The art to lay it aside!

Outline Summary

- Adjectives
  - Kind
    - 1. Limiting
      - articles
      - numerals
      - pronominals
    - 2. Descriptive
      - common
      - proper
    - 3. Interrogative
  - Form
    - positive
    - comparative
    - superlative
  - Use
    - To modify nouns.

Adverbs

An ***adverb*** *is a word used to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.*

The simple adverb may denote the *time*, the *place*, the *degree*, or the *manner* in which the verb performs its action; or it may denote the *degree* of the quality expressed by the adjective or by another adverb.

Edith is coming home *tomorrow*. Adverb denoting **time.**

Jack, come *here*. Adverb denoting **place.**

Richard rode *slowly* home. Adverb denoting **manner.**

He has *nearly* finished his work. Adverb denoting **degree.**

The walls are *dark* purple. Adverb denoting **degree of adjective.**

The walls are *very* dark purple.—Adverb denoting **degree of adverb.**

Adverbs very closely resemble adjectives. Indeed there are some words that without change of form are either adjective or adverb, and to decide which part-of-speech a given word is, one has to note carefully its use in the sentence.

You look very *well* tonight.

Well is here used to show **condition;** therefore it is an adjective.

You did that work *well.*

Well is here used to show **manner;** therefore it is an adverb.

James ran so *fast* I could not catch him.

Fast is here used to show **manner;** therefore it is an adverb.

What a *fast* horse James has!

Fast is here used to **describe** horse; therefore it is an adjective.

You may go if you will not walk too *far*.

Here *far* is used to denote **distance and place;** therefore it is an adverb.

You may be very homesick when you reach that *far* country.

Here *far* is used to **describe** country; therefore it is an adjective.

Please give me a *little* more sugar in my tea.

Here *little* is used to show **degree;** therefore it is an adverb.

What a *little* girl you are!

Here *little* is used to **describe** girl; therefore it is an adjective.

Come *early* that you may get a good seat.

Here *early* is used to show **time;** therefore it is an adverb.

Mother sent you some of our *early* corn.

Here *early* **describes** corn; therefore it is an adjective.

Sometimes it is rather difficult to decide, even by the use, whether the word used is an adverb or a predicate adjective. This is especially true when the word follows such a verb as taste, smell, look, seem, sound, feel. (See page 51).

Practice

In the following sentences choose the correct modifiers:

1. That apple tastes (*bad badly*).
2. The rat smells the cheese (*cautious cautiously*).
3. Mother looks (*bad badly ill*).
4. The coat fits (*bad badly*).
5. He feels (*warmly warm*) on the subject of labor unions.
6. He saw his duty (*plain plainly*).
7. The girl looked (*shy shyly*) at the strangers.
8. The girl looks (*shy shyly*).

Comparison of Adverbs

Simple adverbs also resemble adjectives in that they vary their forms to show different degrees of comparison.

The comparative degree of the adverb, like that of the adjective, is formed by adding *er*, or by prefixing *more* or *less* to the positive form.

Positive	fast	long	far	hard	short
Comparative	faster	longer	farther	harder	shorter
Superlative	fastest	longest	farthest	hardest	shortest
Positive	swiftly		sweetly	warmly	
Comparative	more swiftly		more sweetly	more warmly	
Superlative	most swiftly		most sweetly	most warmly	

Some adverbs have irregular forms of comparison:

Positive	ill	well	much	little
Comparative	worse	better	more	less
Superlative	worst	best	most	least

Practice

I. Fill in blanks with a proper adverb:

1. He sings ——.
2. The fire burns ——.
3. The men work ——.
4. Her dress was —— torn.
5. My father rises ——.
6. Speak —— if you wish me to understand.

II. Determine what parts of speech the italicized adverbs modify and tell whether each adverb denotes time, place, manner, or degree:

1. She drives by our house *very* often.
2. *Very* beautiful pictures are in that magazine.
3. *Always* speak *kindly* but *firmly* to wilful children.
4. He should speak *more gently*.
5. You have gone *there* a *great* many times.
6. Step *very quietly* and don't remain *more* than ten minutes.

III. Distinguish between the adverbs and adjectives in the following sentences and tell what they denote:

1. He looks *well*, and sleeps *well*, and works *well*, but he complains of not feeling *well*.

2. Speak a *little lower;* the little child is *quietly* sleeping, and a *little quiet* rest may be all she needs to make her *well.*

3. We took the *fast* train. I never rode so *fast* before; it was *too fast* to be safe. We reached home for luncheon, but we had to *fast* for breakfast.

4. What a *smoothly running* car this is! Your engine must run smoothly or it is an *unusually smooth* road.

5. It is a *calm, peaceful* night; the moon beams *peacefully* and *calmly* down upon the earth and all is *quiet* and *serene.*

Interrogative Adverbs

Why, how, when, where, etc., when used in asking questions are called **interrogative adverbs:**

Why did you go home?
How did you enjoy the concert?
Where are you going for your vacation this summer?
When do you start on your camping trip?

Modal Adverbs

Perhaps, however, possibly, surely, probably, are adverbs which sometimes seem to modify the whole sentence rather than the verb or some adjective in the sentence. In this use they are called **modal adverbs:**

Perhaps, I shall go East this summer.
The boys could not come, *however,* so we put off the picnic until next Saturday.
Possibly, you can tell me where I can find the janitor.
Surely, you will not send that child to school without his breakfast.
The boys will, *probably,* wait to hear which school won the ball game.

Correct Use of Negatives

Modern English does not permit the use of the double negative:

Incorrect: He could not find it nowhere.
Correct: He could not find it anywhere.

The adverbs *only, hardly, scarcely,* are themselves negative in idea; they must not be used with another negative thus making a double negative:

INCORRECT: I am not allowed to go to parties only on Fridays.
CORRECT: I am allowed to go to parties only on Fridays.

INCORRECT: It was so dark I couldn't hardly see the road.
CORRECT: It was so dark I could hardly see the road.

INCORRECT: There was such a crowd when President Wilson spoke, there wasn't scarcely standing room.
CORRECT: There was such a crowd when President Wilson spoke, there was scarcely standing room.

RESPONSIVES

The responsives *Yes* and *No* are sometimes classed as adverbs, but strictly speaking they are not parts-of-speech at all. They are words used as substitutes for whole sentences, limiting the statements to affirmation or denial:

Did you see the automobile race? Yes = I did see it.
No = I did not see it.

CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS

Some adverbs join the principal clauses of a compound sentence. Care must be taken to use them properly: either a comma and a coördinating conjunction or a semi-colon must also be used to connect the clauses:

The men were in a hurry to go, *and so* they did not wait for you to return.
The men were in a hurry to go; *so* they did not wait for you to return.

Some of the conjunctive adverbs are: *so, thus, also, hence, consequently, moreover, still, nevertheless, therefore, however.*

Subordinating Conjunctive Adverbs

When adverbs join subordinate clauses to the words in the sentence which they modify, they are subordinating conjunctions; *as, when, where, while, since, though, although, as-if, if, than, before, until, till, unless, for, wherever, whenever, whereas,* etc:

I shall go down town *when* school is out.
You should see our library *while* you are here.
They will arrive at six o'clock *if* the train is on time.

Some Special Distinctions

Some and **Somewhat.**

Some is a pronominal adjective: I have *some* money.
Somewhat is an adverb: I am *somewhat* low in funds.

Good and **Well.**

Good is an adjective: He does *good* work.

Well is either an adverb or an adjective: He works *well* (adverb). He is not *well* (adjective) enough to work.

Only and **Alone.**

Alone is an adjective: "Sinn Fein," the name of the Irish party, means "Ourselves *alone*" (adjective).

Only is either an adverb or an adjective: The car stops at this crossing *only* (adjective). No, it *only* (adverb) slows; it doesn't stop.

Practice

I. Select the adjectives and adverbs and tell how they are used:

Ah, there you are, my little Master! . . . How well you look and how pretty, this evening! I went before you to announce your arrival. All is going well. We shall have the Blue Bird tonight, I am sure. I have just sent the Rabbit to beat the troop in order to convoke the principal animals of the country. You can hear them already among the foliage. Listen! They're only a little shy and dare not come near.

II. Select the adverbs and tell what they denote:

1. Come, dear children, let us away;
   Down and away below!
   Now my brothers call from the bay,
   Now the great winds shoreward blow,
   Now the salt tides seaward flow;
   Now the wild white horses play,
   Champ and chafe and toss in the spray.
   Children dear, let us away!
   This way, this way!
2. Why did you melt your waxen man,
   Sister Helen?
   Today is the third since you began.
   The time was long, yet the time ran,
   Little brother.
3. Under the wide and starry sky,
   Dig the grave and let me lie.
   Glad did I live and gladly die,
   And I laid me down with a will.

   This be the verse you grave for me,
   Here he lies where he longed to be;
   Home is the sailor, home from sea,
   And the hunter home from the hill.

4. Let the blow fall soon or late,
   Let what will be o'er me;
   Give the face of earth around,
   And the road before me.
   Wealth I ask not, hope nor love,
   Nor a friend to know me;
   All I seek the heaven above
   And the road below me.

III. In the following sentences choose the correct form—adjective or adverb—and give the reason for your choice:

1. Handle the test tube (*careful, carefully*).
2. He looks very (*bad, badly*).
3. School — Drive (*slow, slowly*).
4. He acted very (*different, differently*) from what I expected.

5. (*Sure, surely*) I will go.
6. Walk (*quick, quickly*) and you will be in time.

IV. Choose between the comparatives and superlatives in the following sentences:

1. Which is the (larger, largest) San Francisco, or New Orleans?
2. The (older, oldest) of the two sisters is married.
3. Which do you like (better, best) grapes or peaches?
4. Which do you find (easier, easiest), English or Latin?
5. John seems to have (the best judgment of any, better judgment than any) boy in school.

V. Fill in blanks with either *some* or *somewhat* and give reason for the choice:

1. My mother is —— better this morning; she has taken —— breakfast.
2. There is —— doubt about his coming back to school this term, though he is —— surer of coming than he was.

VI. Fill in blanks with either *good* or *well* and give resaon for choice:

Is your sick friend getting ——?
His health isn't very —— but for one who has been so ill he is progressing very ——.

VII. In the following sentences distinguish the different uses of *alone* and of *only*, whether adjective or adverb:

1. Only North-Loop cars stop at this crossing.
2. They stop only to let off passengers.
3. He doesn't play base-ball; he only plays foot-ball.
4. He only won two games of the set.
5. He wasn't really playing; he only played at playing.
6. Only members (members alone) have the right to vote.
7. The weather wasn't disagreeable; it was only very warm.
8. He alone steps from the van of the freemen,
   He alone sinks to the rear and the slaves.

VIII. Bring into class seven sentences, each successively containing one of the several adjectives and adverbs following:

each	latest	pretty
every	last	prettily

Outline Summary

- Adverbs
  - Kind
    1. Simple
    2. Conjunctive — *hence, whence, where, when, because, if.*
    3. Interrogative
  - Form
    1. Positive
    2. Comparative
    3. Superlative
  - Use
    1. To modify — verbs, adjectives, adverbs
    2. To join clauses.

CHAPTER V

Prepositions

Note the italicized words in the following passage.

By afternoon we had come *to* the desert and could see the unbroken level *ahead-of* us. *Into* it we went *without* realizing what fate had *in* store *for* us. *From* that moment our journey became a chapter *of* accidents. *At*-once our motor began to "skip," and *within* an hour it had "gone dead" *on* our hands. Luckily another car drew up *along-side-of* ours, and the motorist kindly towed us the rest *of* the way *through* the sandy waste, *by-means-of* a rope he had brought *with* him.

> *A* ***preposition*** *is a word used with a noun or pronoun, always in the objective case, to make a phrase which limits some other word.*

While the preposition regularly consists of one word, certain groups of related words, such as *in-place of*, *instead-of*, *along-with*, etc., are idiomatically used as prepositions.

A preposition is regularly followed by a noun or pronoun. Sometimes, however, a preposition may idiomatically be followed:

By an adjective:

She was lovely in a dress *of blue.*

By an adverb:

Come *at once.*

By another preposition:

It fell *from above.*

By a phrase:

I have had replies *from about thirty of my invitations.*
Did you hear *about that man's falling from the roof?*

However, in all these cases the words following the prepositions either imply nouns or have the force of nouns.

A dress of-blue = A dress of blue cloth.
At-once = At this instant.
From-above = From above our heads.
"About thirty, etc.," and "That man's falling" are noun-phrases (see Chapter VIII).

Use of Prepositions

A preposition may be used to relate its object:
To a noun:

He wore a *ring* of-gold.

To a pronoun:

He of-the-lion-heart led the onset.

To an adjective:

Radiant with light, the house welcomed us.

To an adverb:

Exactly to the minute the train started.

Practice

Select the prepositions in the following and explain their objects:

1. I would sometimes lie down, and let five or six of them dance on my hand; and at last the boys and girls would venture to come and play at hide-and-seek in my hair. I had now made a good progress in understanding and speaking their language.

2. The Emperor had a mind, one day, to entertain me with several of the country shows. I was diverted with none so much as that of the rope-dancers, performed upon a slender white thread extending about two feet and twelve inches from the ground, upon which I shall desire liberty with the reader's patience to enlarge a little.

3. The hawthorn bush, with seats beneath the shade,
   For talking age or whispering lovers made!
4. Thanks, my Lord, for your venison, for finer or fatter
   Never ranged in a forest, or smoked in a platter;
   So I cut it, and sent it to Reynolds undrest,
   To paint it or eat it, just as he liked best.
   Of the neck and the breast I had next to dispose;
   'Twas a neck and a breast might rival Monroe's;
   But in parting with these I was puzzled again,
   With the how, and the who, and the where, and the when.
5. Piping down the valleys wild,
   Piping songs of pleasant glee,
   On a cloud I saw a child,
   And he, laughing, said to me:
   "Pipe a song about a lamb,"
   So I piped with merry cheer.
   "Piper, pipe that song again,"
   So I piped: he wept to hear.
6. The year's at the spring
   And day's at the morn;
   Morning's at seven;
   The hillside's dew-pearled;
   The lark's on the wing;
   The snail's on the thorn;
   God's in his Heaven—
   All's right with the world!

Correct Use of Prepositions

Among, between:

Use *among* when you wish to refer to more than two persons or things, or groups of persons or things.

Use *between* when you wish to refer to two only:

Though there may be differences *between* our two schools we three can settle them *among* us.

By, with:

Use *by* when you wish to denote the doer of an action:

The bird was shot *by* my brother.

Use *with* generally when you wish to denote the instrument with which the action was performed:

He shot it *with* a rifle.

Beside, Besides:
Use *beside* when you mean *by the side of.*
Use *besides* when you mean *in addition to;*

May I sit beside you?
Is any one besides your brother coming?

In, into:
Use *in* when you wish to denote presence inside of, or within.

Use *into* when you wish to denote passing from without to the inside of:

You can walk about *in* a room, but you will first have to go *into* the room.

In, on:
In is more definite than *on.*
On denotes location only.

Some words require special prepositions:
Agree *with* a person, or an opinion.
Agree *to* a statement, arrangement, proposal, plan, etc.
Comply *with* a request, desire, etc.
Confide *in* a friend (trust *in* a friend).
Confide a secret *to.*
Correspond *to* or *with* a thing.
Correspond (exchange letters) *with* a person.
Make remarks derogatory *to.*
Differ *from* a person or thing (be different).
Differ *with* a person, an opinion (disagree *with*).
Be disappointed *in* what we have.
Be disappointed *of* what we cannot get.

Part *from* or *with.*
Have a taste *of* or *for* food.
Have a taste *for* sports.
Be reconciled *to* or *with.*
Show sympathy *with* or *for* a person.

Practice

I. Choose the correct prepositions for the following sentences:

1. She confided in (to) me when she was in trouble.
2. Robert often differs from (with) me when we talk politics.
3. Mother is in (at) New Orleans, stopping at (in) the St. Charles Hotel.
4. I was disappointed in (of) my visit owing to Mother's illness.

II. Fill each blank with its proper preposition:

1. My brother is living —— Boston.
2. —— whom did you receive that beautiful cabinet?
3. —— whom are you stopping?
4. —— whose house will you stop?
5. —— whom can I depend for help?
6. —— whom were you told that I would not sing?
7. They divided the apple —— the three children.
8. They put the flag —— the roof of the house.
9. The man ran —— the house.
10. We clamber out —— the roof of the veranda.
11. The men are putting the coal —— the cellar.
12. He died —— smallpox.
13. Did you say the man was killed ——his hired man?
14. That is the car —— which the race was won.
15. He let his bucket fall —— the well.
16. There is need —— great patience.
17. He is different —— his brother in that he is inclined to rush —— speculations.
18. This is different —— what you led me to expect.
19. The other house was palatial compared —— this.
20. He was overcome —— laughter.
21. You must conform —— the rules of the Club.

22. Fondness —— drink led to his ruin.
23. The president could not agree —— his cabinet, and he was not always ready to agree —— their proposals.
24. The two companies were merged —— one.
25. She often drove —— town —— her husband.
26. His will is apt to make trouble —— the two families.
27. Hildredth, divide the money —— the three children.

III. Show which prepositions are not needed in the following sentences:

1. No one could help from liking Jack, he is so jolly.
2. Can you push the boat off of that rock?
3. At about what time will the game begin?
4. After having walked a mile, I came in sight of the house.
5. Our house is near to the road.
6. We went on to the boat and the captain took us up on to the upper deck.
7. Hang the flag out of the window.
8. My little brother fell off of his pony.
9. Let us build a wall of fifty feet in length.
10. Mary will take those books off from the table, if you wish her to do so.
11. As I stood pondering upon which road to take, my father drove along.
12. From thence we rode to Santa Barbara.

IV. Select prepositions and denote the relation between the object and the word modified:

1. Flower in the crannied wall,
   I pluck you out of the crannies,
   I hold you here, root and all, in my hand.
   Little flower—but if I could understand
   What you are, root and all, and all in all,
   I should know what God and man is.
2. The moon was afloat
   Like a golden boat
   On the sea-blue depths of the sky,
   When the miller of Dee
   With his children three
   On his fat, red horse rode by.

3. In Xanadu did Kubla Khan
A stately pleasure-dome decree
Where Alph, the sacred river, ran
Through caverns measureless to man
Down to a sunless sea.

4. The People of the Eastern Ice, they are melting like the snow,
They beg for coffee and sugar; they go where the white men go,
The People of the Western Ice, they learn to steal and fight;
They sell their furs to the trading-post; they sell their souls to the white.
The People of the Southern Ice, they trade with the whaler's crew;
Their women have many ribbons, but their tents are torn and few.
But the People of the Eldes Ice, beyond the white man's ken—
Their spears are made of the narwhal-horn, and they are the last of the *Men*.

5. Man goes to man! Cry the challenge through the Jungle!
He that was our Brother goes away.
Hear, now, and judge, O ye People of the Jungle,—
Answer, who shall turn him—who shall stay?

Man goes to man! He is weeping in the Jungle!
He that was our Brother sorrows sore!
Man goes to man! (Oh, we loved him in the Jungle!)
To the Man-Trail where we may not follow more.

6. Our ship was about 120 tons burthen; carried six guns and fourteen men, besides the master, his boy, and myself. We had on board no large cargo of goods, except of such toys as were fit for our trade with the negroes,—such as beads, bits of glass, shells, and odd trifles, especially little looking-glasses, knives, scissors, hatchets and the like.

The wave that came upon me again, buried me at once twenty or thirty feet deep in its own body, and I could feel myself carried with a mighty force and swiftness towards the shore a very great way; but I held my breath, and assisted myself to swim still forward with all my might.

I was now landed, and safe on shore, and began to look up and thank God that my life was saved in a case wherein there was some minutes before scarce any room to hope.

7. A late lark twitters from the quiet skies;
And from the west,
Where the sun, his day's work ended,
Lingers as in content,
There falls on the old, gray city
An influence luminous and serene,
A shining peace.

The smoke ascends
In a rosy-and-golden haze. The spires
Shine, and are changed. In the valley
Shadows rise. The lark sings on. The sun
Closing his benediction,
Sinks, and the darkening air,
Thrills with a sense of the triumphing night—
Night, with her train of stars
And her great gift of sleep.

So be my passing!
My task accomplished and the long day done,
My wages taken, and in my heart
Some late lark singing,
Let me be gathered to the quiet west,
The Sundown splendid and serene,
Death.

Outline Summary

- **Prepositions**
  - **Kind**
    1. Simple: *to, for, on*, etc.
    2. Compound: *in-place-of, beside-of, over-and-above*, etc.
  - **Form** — Make no change in form.
  - **Use** — To connect nouns and pronouns to other words, so as to show the relation between the connected words.

CHAPTER VI

Interjections

The interjections, or exclamatory words and phrases, have been italicized in the following sentences:

What, the man is not really your brother! No, *indeed!* He is only my step-brother. *Look!* You can see there is no family resemblance.

> *An* ***interjection*** *is a word of exclamation, used either independently or to modify the sentence as a whole.*

In the first sentence the interjection, *what*, changes the sentence from an ordinary declaration to an exclamatory question, but it modifies no one part. The imperative interjection, *look*, stands by itself.

Interjections make no change in form or use.

The most common are:

O! Oh! Ah! Alas! Lo! Amen! Hurrah!

Other parts-of-speech become interjections when used in an exclamatory sense:

Never! Indeed! What!

The imperative may be an interjection:

Look! Stand! Hurry! Stop!

Groups of words having an exclamatory sense may form phrase interjections:

Great-Heavens! By-Jove! One-moment! Thank-Heavens!

CHAPTER VII

Conjunctions

Observe the relations among the parts of sentences, in the three following groups:

Father *and* son look *and* speak alike.
John *as-well-as* Henry resembles his father.
Neither John *nor* Henry resembles his father.

To laugh *and* to grow fat is about all some men live for.
Either from weakness *or* from cowardice he would not fight.
Whether in the body *or* out of the body, I know not.

When I am twenty-one years old *and* (when I am made) a voter I shall decide which party to join.
As-far-as we could judge the man's story was true.
Because you have been frank with me I am going to tell you the whole truth.
If you are exacting or irritable you will lose friends.
Though I do not altogether like the man *yet* I voted for him.
I am going to Los Angeles *but* I shall not visit San Francisco.

> ***Conjunctions*** *are words used to join words, phrases, and clauses, and to show their mutual relations.*

Note:—As word-connectives conjunctions differ from prepositions: (1) prepositions *relate* nouns, pronouns, or equivalents, to words of nearly every sort; conjunctions can only *join* words of the *same* sort; (2) prepositions with their nouns, pronouns, or equivalents make grammatical phrases (see page 129); conjunctives never.
In the sentence:—John is different *from* (preposition) James; he is manlier *than* (conjunction) James, the words *from-James* form a grammatical phrase, the words *than-*

James do not, for *than* belongs as much to the word *John* as to the word *James*. It really joins the two sentences:—John-is-manlier *than* James-is-manly.

Kinds

Conjunctions are of two general kinds:

1. Coördinating conjunctions are those which join words, phrases, and clauses of equal rank. The chief coördinating conjunctions are:

and, accordingly, also, again, besides, consequently, furthermore, likewise, moreover, so;

but, however, nevertheless, nor, still, yet.

The latter group are sometimes called *dis*junctives.

2. Subordinating conjunctions are those which join clauses of unequal rank.

The chief subordinating conjunctions may be grouped into six classes, according to their uses:

Cause	Purpose Result	Condition	Concession	Comparison	Time
as	to	if	albeit	as	after
because	that	unless (= if not)	although nevertheless	than	as
consequently		whenever	notwithstanding		before
for	lest (= that not).		though	whereas	since
hence		wherever	while	while	until
since		whether	yet		unto
therefore					when
whereas					whence
					whenever
					while

Note:—Some subordinating conjunctions have more than one kind of use:

As (time) I was passing a haberdasher's shop I saw displayed in the front window an irresistible necktie, and *as* (cause) I happened

to have enough money in my pocket I resolved to buy it. *While* (concession) I was not in pressing need of a new necktie still I make it my rule to buy such things *while* (time) they can be had.

Note:—Some conjunctions are either coördinating or subordinating:

Rain began to drizzle; *so* (and therefore) we raised our umbrellas (coördinating).
It doesn't matter when you come *so* (if only) you come soon (subordinating).

I was walking aimlessly along the street *when* (and then) a familiar voice saluted me (coördinating).
Be sure you bring your knitting with you *when* (at the time) you come (subordinating).

He is a shrewd politician; *yet* (but) he is not a great political leader (coördinating).
Though He slay me *yet* (still) will I trust Him (subordinating).

Correlative Conjunctions

Correlative conjunctions are related in pairs which together join words, phrases, and clauses. The principal ones are:

either—or	neither—nor
as-well—as	not so—as
as—as	not—but also
as—so	not only not—not even
both—and	
now—now	
though—yet	
whether—or	

Either George *or* Jack will gladly do the errand for you.
Neither Henry *nor* James is *so* good a player *as* Tom used to be.

Phrase Conjunctions

When groups of related words have the use of conjunctions they are called phrase-conjunctions.

as-far-as
as-good-as
as-long-as
as-soon-as
as-well-as
as-if
in-case-that
inasmuch-as
in-order-that
in-spite-of
on-the-contrary
on-the-one-hand
on-the-other-hand
so-as
so-that
to-begin-with
that-not

Adverbs and Conjunctions.

Many adverbs and adverbial expressions are used as conjunctions:

As far as the east is from the west *so far* hath He removed our transgressions from us (adverbial uses).

As far as pluck is concerned he has plenty (conjunction).

He took the instructions to be a hoax and acted *accordingly*.

He was offended at the man's rudeness; *accordingly* (conjunction) he would not recognize him.

However (adverb) you look at it, you must admit the fact.

He is going to make a muddle of his career; *however* (conjunction) he is of age and must manage his own affairs.

Practice

I. Select conjunctions, tell their kind, what they connect, and the meaning they express:

1. Mary or David will take the message for you.
2. I do not know whether the boy asked for Jack or for Gill.
3. They will either ride over in their machine, or they will come by train.

4. The baby will not sing to anyone but her mother.
5. She would not sing any song but that.
6. I intend to go, but I intend to return.
7. I cannot go until he comes.
8. Tom will take us for a ride after he has finished that game of tennis.
9. Harry, you may as well finish that story since you are so interested in it.
10. As I was coming through the orchard I heard a thrush singing.
11. I hope that as long as I live I may not pass such another night.
12. As soon as you have finished your letter, will you go for a walk with me?
13. Did you feed the chickens before you left home?
14. I did not finish the story because it is too long.
15. I will give you a rose if you will wait until I can pick it.
16. Mother says I may not go unless you will go with me.
17. She lives either in that house or in the next one.
18. The purse was neither in the drawer nor on the table.
19. It is easy both to judge and to condemn.
20. Not only the mother but also the baby is very ill.
21. He has courage as well as patience.
22. I can manage the car as well as you can.
23. He is taller than James.

II. Select all the conjunctions in the following excerpts, tell what they show and classify them as to meaning:

1. Sweet son, for there be many who deem him not;
   Or will not deem him, wholly proven King—
   Albeit in mine own heart I knew him king
   When I was frequent with him in my youth.
2. And there were cries and clashings in the nest,
   That sent him from his senses.
3. Still we say as we go:—
   Strange to think by the way,
   Whatever there is to know,
   That shall we know some day.
4. But no word comes from the dead:
   Whether at all they be,
   Or whether as bond or free,
   Or by what spell they have sped.

5. You may call a jay a bird. Well, so he is, because he has feathers on him; otherwise he is just as human as you are.

Yes, Sir; a jay is everything that a man is. A jay can laugh, a jay can gossip, a jay can feel ashamed, just as well as you do—maybe better. And there is another thing: in good, clean, out-and-out scolding, a blue jay can beat anything alive.

6. Bo-bo was in the utmost consternation, as you may think, not so much for the sake of the tenement, which his father and he could easily build up again with a few dry branches, and the labor of an hour or two, at any time, as for the loss of the pigs.

"O father, the pig, the pig! Do come and taste how nice the burnt pig eats."

The ears of Ho-ti tingled with horror. He cursed his son, and he cursed himself that ever he should beget a son that could eat burnt pig.

7. If you can talk with crowds and keep your virtue,
Or walk with Kings—nor lose the common touch,
If neither foes nor loving friends can hurt you,
If all men count with you, but none too much;
If you can fill the unforgiving minute
With sixty seconds' worth of distance run,
Yours is the Earth and everything that's in it,
And—which is more—you'll be a man, my son!

Correct Use of Conjunctions

Be careful not to omit conjunctions necessary to the sense:

Incorrect: A Pierce Arrow is *as* good if not better than a Packard.

Correct: A Pierce Arrow is *as* good *as* a Packard if not better.

Be careful to place each term of the correlative so that there can be no doubt as to the words and ideas they are intended to connect:

Incorrect: Father gave me not only the Electric but taught me how to run it also.

Correct: Father not only gave me the Electric, but he also taught me how to run it.

Except has sometimes been used as a conjunction, but the best present usage allows *except* as a preposition only; *unless* is the proper substitute:

That which thou sowest cannot be quickened *except* it die.

Without is another word sometimes used as a conjunction when *unless* would more nearly give the meaning:

I will not give it to you *without* you promise to take care of it.
BETTER FORM: I will not give it to you *unless* you promise to take care of it.

Like is never a conjunction, although often incorrectly used instead of *as*, or *as-if:*

CORRECT: I did that example *as* you did it (not, *like* you did it).
CORRECT: It looks *as-if* it would snow (not, *like* it would).

Practice

I. Fill in blanks with the proper word, *like*, *as*, or *as-if:*

1. She likes to study mathematics —— I like to study English.
2. Father says that Tom looks —— Mother did when she was young.
3. She looks —— she were ill.
4. It looks —— it might rain before morning.
5. Don't you wish you could sing —— he can?

II. Write sentences showing careful discrimination in the use of the following connectives, telling in every case what the connective shows:

Yet, still, but, and, while, so, whereas, however, since, because, therefore, hence, for, nevertheless, as far as, not only—but also.

Outline Summary

- **Conjunctions**
  - **Kind**
    - 1. Coördinating
      - (a) Simple: *both, and, or, than,* etc.
      - (b) Correlative
        - *either—or*
        - *neither—nor*
        - *both—and*
        - *as well as*
        - *not—only*
        - *but—also*
    - 2. Subordinating
      - (a) Simple
        - *if, so, yet, after, unless, until, because, when, while, where,* etc.
      - (b) Phrase-conjunctions
        - *as far as*
        - *as good as*
        - *as soon as*
        - *as if*
        - *in order that*
        - *as though*
        - *so that*
  - **Form**
    - Do not change their form
  - **Use**
    - 1. Coördinating
      - Used to connect words, phrases or clauses of equal rank.
    - 2. Subordinating
      - Used to connect subordinate clauses with independent clauses

CHAPTER VIII

The Sentence

As we have seen, a group of words expressing a complete thought is called a sentence. We are now going to study some of the ways in which a sentence may express a complete thought.

The two essential parts of a sentence are the subject and the predicate.

The **subject** names the performer of the action asserted by the intransitive or the transitive verb:

John struck the ball.
The *ball* was struck by John.

The **predicate** is the most vital part of the sentence because it asserts the *thought* or *action* of the sentence.

We might express a complete thought by means of the verb alone, as—"March!" "Go!" etc., the subject being unexpressed although understood.

But the predicate itself very often needs something besides the verb to complete its meaning. Then a *complete*ment or complement becomes one of the essential parts of the sentence.

The sentence is expanded and limited by modifying words and phrases and clauses: and the various parts are linked and related by connectives. These modifying elements are not the essential parts of the sentence; consequently, they do not rank in importance with the subject, or the predicate.

Forms of Sentences

Sentences are classified as to their forms into: (1) simple sentences, (2) complex sentences, (3) compound sentences. All three are to be found in the following brief letter:

Dear John,

(1) The game comes off tomorrow. (2) If you wish to see it you must come tonight. (3) Take the limited, and be sure to bring your sister.

A sentence that contains but one complete statement, command, or question is called a ***simple*** *sentence.*

A sentence that contains one complete statement, command, or question, and one or more dependent statements, commands, or questions, is called a ***complex*** *sentence.*

A sentence that contains two or more complete statements, commands, or questions, is called a ***compound*** *sentence.*

Simple Sentences

A simple sentence may contain:

more than one subject;

Harry and *Jack* are both good fielders.

more than one verb;

Harry and Jack both *field* and *bat* well.

more than one complement;

The boys are gathering *wood* and *brush.*

a **compound subject,** a **compound verb,** a **compound complement,** and **modifying phrases.**

Harry and *Jack* both *cut* and *hauled wood* and *brush* for the campfire, this evening.

Compound Sentences

Sentences may be compound in either or both of two ways:

1. conjunctively;

He is a good fellow, *and* I like him.

2. disjunctively;

He may be a good fellow *but* I do not like him.

3. both;

He is a good fellow *and* he is very popular, *yet* I do not like him.
He is a good fellow *and* I like *but* do not greatly admire him.

Complex Sentences

Complex sentences are of three orders:

1. Those containing one independent and at least one dependent statement:

(a) If you disobey me (b) I shall certainly punish you.

2. Those containing at least two independent and at least one dependent statement, the compound-complex sentence:

(a) I forbid you to go and (a) I shall certainly punish you (b) if you disobey me.

3. Those containing at least one independent and at least two correlative dependent statements; the complex-compound:

(a) When you are old and grey and full of sleep,
(a) And sitting by the fire, (b) take down this book.

Complex-compound sentences may also contain sub-dependent clauses:

(a) We entered this war (b) because violations of right had occurred (c) which touched us to the quick (c) and made the life of our people impossible (d) unless they were corrected (d) and the world secured, once for all, against their recurrence.

Care in Punctuating Sentences

Aeroplanes have at last flown across the ocean, they will soon be carrying passengers.

Here we have two principal clauses joined by a comma, as one sentence.

Corrected,—as, two simple sentences:

Aeroplanes have at last flown across the ocean.
They will soon be carrying passengers.

Or, corrected as compound sentences with a comma and coördinating conjunction connecting the two clauses:

Aeroplanes have at last crossed the ocean, and they will soon be carrying passengers.

Or the comma and conjunction omitted and the semicolon substituted:

Aeroplanes have at last crossed the ocean; they will soon be carrying passengers.

Avoid:

(1) The mistake of writing a subordinate clause as a sentence:

Wrong: I bought a new motor "bike." *Which I have been needing for sometime.*

Right: I bought a new motor "bike" which I have needed for some time.

(2) The mistake of writing a phrase as a sentence:

Wrong: Father said he would buy me a new motor boat. *Perhaps for my birthday in April.*

Right: Father said he would buy me a new motor boat, perhaps for my birthday in April.

Practice

Correct the mistakes in the following sentences, and explain each mistake:

1. You will find the fishing fine in that river it is a shady spot.
2. I didn't know you lived there, when did you move?

3. My teacher liked the song, she had me sing it three times.
4. Are you to sing or to play I don't remember which you chose.
5. One half the apples are here the others are in the cellar.
6. Flying is a dangerous sport. Especially in cloudy weather.
7. I want to express my sympathy I heard of your accident last night.
8. The butterfly is a most beautiful insect, with a magnifying glass examine its wings and you will agree with me.

Kinds of Sentences

Sentences are classified according to the manner in which their assertions are made:—

1. Declarative sentence:

John brought the Packard home last night.

2. Interrogative sentence:

Shall you need the machine this afternoon?

3. Imperative sentence:

Please, Harry, do keep a firm hand on the wheel.

4. Exclamatory sentence:

How smoothly the machine runs!

1. *A sentence which states a fact is called a* ***declarative*** *sentence.*
2. *A sentence which asks a question is called an* ***interrogative*** *sentence.*
3. *A sentence which expresses a command, or an entreaty is called an* ***imperative*** *sentence.*
4. *A sentence which expresses strong feeling in the manner of an exclamation is called an* ***exclamatory*** *sentence.*

Note:—The type of sentence can be indicated by punctuation:

Every sentence should begin with a capital letter.

The declarative sentence and generally the imperative sentence should end with a period.

The interrogative sentence should end with an interrogation point.

The exclamatory sentence should end with an exclamation point. So rarely may the imperative sentence.

Note:—One kind of sentence may include another:

1. A declarative sentence may include a direct quotation expressed as a question, or as a command, or as an exclamation.

Declarative sentence including a question:

The boy ran about the house asking of everyone, "Have you seen my books or my hat?"

Declarative sentence including a command:

The boy ran about the house demanding of everyone, "Help me find my books and my hat."

Declarative sentence including an exclamation:

The boy ran about the house shouting, "We have won the game!"

2. An interrogative sentence may include a declaration, a command, or an exclamation:

Did you hear him say, "I will bring the book tonight"?

Interrogative sentence including a command:

Did you hear the man call, "Lower the flag"?

Interrogative sentence including an exclamation:

Did you hear the child cry, "Fire! Fire!"?

Practice

I. Select and name the different kinds of sentences in the following:

1. The man cried, "Will no one come to help me?"
2. Did you hear Mary say to her Mother, "I am not going to the party tonight"?
3. Tell the men that the boat has been sighted.
4. Ask yourself, "What have I done to help my brother?"
5. Did you hear Mary say to her Mother that she was not going to the party?
6. Ask yourself what you have done to help your brother.
7. "Fire! Fire!", the man shouted in the hall.
8. The man shouted, "Fire! Fire!"
9. Did the man shout "Fire! Fire!"?
10. Did you say that the man shouted, "Fire! Fire!"?
11. That the man shouted, "Fire! Fire!" can not be denied.
12. "Fire! Fire!", shouted the man.
13. "Man, Man!" returned Carton, stamping his foot; "have I sworn by no solemn vow already, to go through with this, that you waste the precious moments now?
14. Take him yourself to the courtyard you know of, place him yourself in the carriage, and drive away.
15. "Signior Petruchio, will you go with us, or shall I send my daughter Kate to you"?
16. Then here's to our boyhood, its gold and its gray!
    The stars of its winter, the dews of its May!
    And when we have done with our life-lasting toys
    Dear Father, take care of thy children, the boys.
17. Look! His cry is answered. A woman rushes up the scaffold—a woman who yesterday was a mother, and now is childless, because Robespierre and Death have grasped her boy.
18. In very much this way Topsy's training proceeded for a year or two. Miss Ophelia worrying herself, from day to day, with her as a kind of chronic plague, to whose infliction she became, in time, as accustomed as persons sometimes do to the neuralgia or sick-headache.
19. Tiger, tiger, burning bright
    In the forest of the night,

What immortal hand or eye
Framed thy fearful symmetry?

In what distant deeps or skies
Burned that fire within thine eyes?
On what wings dared he aspire?
What the hand dared seize the fire?

When the stars threw down their spears
And watered heaven with their tears,
Did he smile his work to see
Did he that made the lamb make thee?

20. Lettuce is like conversation: it must be fresh and crisp, so sparkling that you scarcely notice the bitter in it. Lettuce, like most talkers, is, however, apt to run rapidly to seed. Blessed is that sort which comes to a head, and so remains, like a few people I know; growing more solid and satisfactory and tender at the same time, and whiter at the center, and crisp in their maturity. Lettuce, like conversation, requires a good deal of oil, to avoid friction, and keep the company smooth; a pinch of attic salt; a dash of pepper; a quantity of mustard and vinegar, by all means, but so mixed that you will notice no sharp contrasts; and a trifle of sugar. You can put anything, and the more things the better, into salad, as into conversation; but everything depends upon the skill of mixing. I feel that I am in the best society when I am with lettuce. It is in the select circle of vegetables.

21. So it is our duty to take and maintain the safeguards which will see to it that the mothers of America and the mothers of France and England and Italy and Belgium and all other suffering nations should never be called upon for this sacrifice again. This can be done. It must be done. And it will be done. The things that these men left us, though they did not in their counsels conceive it, is the great instrument which we have just erected in the League of Nations. The League of Nations is the covenant of government that these men shall not have died in vain.

22. There stood Lincoln in the forefront, erect, tall, and majestic in appearance, hurling thunderbolts at the foes of freedom, while the great convention roared its endorsement! I never witnessed such a scene before or since.

23. Now, it is a fact, that there was nothing at all particular about the knocker on the door, except that it was very large. It is also a fact, that Scrooge had seen it, night and morning, during his whole residence in that place; also that Scrooge had as little of what is called fancy about him as any man in the City of London, even including—which is a bold word—the corporation, aldermen, and livery. Let it also be borne in mind, that Scrooge had not bestowed one thought on Marley since his last mention of his seven-years' dead partner that afternoon. And then let any man explain to me, if he can, how it happened that Scrooge, having his key in the lock of the door, saw in the knocker, without its undergoing any intermediate process of change—not a knocker, but Marley's face.

24. And what is so rare as a day in June?
Then if ever come perfect days;
Then Heaven tries the earth if it be in tune,
And over it softly her warm ear lays:
Whether we look, or whether we listen,
We hear life murmur, or see it glisten;
Every clod feels a stir of might,
An instinct within it that reaches and towers,
And, groping blindly above it for light,
Climbs to a soul in grass and flowers;
The flush of life may well be seen
Thrilling back over hills and valleys;
The cowslip startles in meadows green,
The buttercup catches the sun in its chalice,
And there's never a leaf nor a blade too mean
To be some happy creature's palace;

Clauses and Phrases

Clauses and grammatical phrases are word-groups which function in the sentence like parts-of-speech:—subject; object or complement; modifier.

His-losing-his-temper (subject-phrase) because-he-couldn't-have-his-way (modifying clause) is what-I cannot-understand (complement-clause), in-so-sensible-a-fellow (modifying phrase).

Grammatical Phrases

The grammatical phrase regularly consists of a relating word, or expression, and an object, or complement; it never contains a subject (save possibly the "absolute" phrase) or a verb-proper.

Note:—Verb-phrases indicating tense, mode, voice, verb-form, are excluded from consideration as grammatical phrases, since they have already been treated as parts and forms of the verb itself—the verb with auxiliaries; (see Chapter III, pp. 53 ff.). Phrase-connectives such as *in-front-of*, *as-far-as*, etc., have also been treated. (See pages 110, 119.)

Grammatical phrases are of several kinds:

1. Either kind of infinitive may go to form the *infinitive-phrase:*

the infinitive with "to" and an object or other complementary expression:

You *ought to-do-your-duty.*
I want *to-go-home.*

the infinitive in "ing" when it takes an object:

Forgiving-one's-enemies isn't always easy.

2. The preposition with its object forms the *prepositional-phrase:*

He went *down-town.*

3. The participle with an object or complement may form the *participial-phrase:*

the active participle with an object:

Turning-the-corner, the man came upon the boy.

the passive participle with a complement:

Being-made-welcome, the picnic party eagerly fell to.

4. The active or passive participle with a noun or pronoun in the nominative case may form the *absolute-phrase*, so called because it is independent of any other part of the sentence; there is no connecting word:

The-train-being-late, the traveller sauntered up the platform.
The train-arriving, the traveller boarded it.

The absolute phrase may readily be changed into a dependent clause:

The-train-being-late = *Because* the train was late.
The-train-arriving = *When* the train arrived.

The Clauses

The distinctive characteristic of the clause is that it *always* contains a subject and a verb-proper.

It may be dependent or independent:

1. The **independent clause** is a simple sentence.

2. The **dependent clause** differs from the simple sentence in that:

(a) when standing alone it does not express a complete thought;

(b) its sign is its introducing word: subordinating conjunction, relative pronoun, or adverb.

I don't see *how* (adverb) he can bear to stay at home *when* (adverb) all his classmates are in service, *unless* (conjunction) he thinks *that* (conjunction) that is *what* (pronoun) he owes his family.

The subordinate clause may have the force of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

The Noun-Clause

The noun-clause is used to express a direct or indirect statement or question. The noun-clause of statement is generally introduced by the conjunction "that"; the

noun-clause of question by "how," "what," "when," "why," etc.

The noun-clause may be used:

1. as the subject of the verb:

That he would do such a thing proves his guilt (statement).
What you should do in his case will depend on the evidence (question).

2. as the object of the verb:

His doing such a thing proves *that he is guilty* (statement).
The evidence alone can decide *what you should do* (question).

3. In apposition with the subject:

This point is not proved, *that he took the money* (statement).
The question, *what he did with it*, has never been settled (question).

4. in apposition with the object:

His doing such a thing proves my point, *that he is guilty* (statement).
The evidence alone can decide the question, *what you should do* (question).

5. as attribute complement:

The question is, *what can we do about it?* (direct)
The question they asked was, *what they could do about it* (indirect).

The Adjective-Clause

The adjective-clause is introduced by a relative pronoun or relative adverb, expressed or understood.

The adjective-clause may be used:

1. to modify the subject:

The boy *who brings our milk* will post your letter for you.

2. to modify the object:

I gave the boy the letters *which I had written* (object of verb).
He put them in the bag *which he carried* (object of preposition).
He lives in the house *where I was born* (object of preposition).

The Adverbial Clause

An adverbial clause may show time, place, cause, purpose, comparison, manner, degree, condition, or concession:

When you finish your book we shall go for a ride (**time**).

We shall go *wherever you wish* (**place**).

Susan went abroad *because she wished to see the Coronation* (**cause**).

Albert has entered a Business College, *that he may prepare himself to be a bookkeeper* (**purpose**).

You need only go on *as you have begun* (**manner**).

As the twig is bent, the tree's inclined (**comparison**).

Always do your work *as well as you possibly can* (**degree**).

If you change your mind let me know (**condition**).

Although it looks like rain, we will not defer the ride (**concession**).

Practice

I. Classify the clauses in the following selection, tell how they are used and what they denote:

1. When you go down town please order two quarts of ice cream.
2. I think that the dress that you wore last night is the most becoming dress you wear.
3. Did you say that your brother has bought a new boat?
4. We shall go home when ever you wish.
5. If your machine is ready will you take mother home?
6. Although I think it is a risk to drive that horse, I will go with you.
7. If you speak harshly to that dog, he will not like you.
8. While the attendants hastened to obey Cedric's commands, his eye distinguished Gurth the swine-herd, who, with his companion Wamba, had just entered the hall. "Send these loitering knaves up hither," said the Saxon, impatiently. And when the culprits came before the dais—"How comes it, villains! that you have loitered abroad so late as this? Hast thou brought home thy charge, sirrah Gurth, or hast thou left them to robbers and marauders?"

II. Write:

1. Three simple sentences, one with a compound subject, one with a compound predicate, and one with a compound object.

2. Five compound sentences, using in every case a different coordinating conjunction.

3. A compound sentence of two clauses, connecting the two parts with *and*, and tell the idea expressed by the conjunction; a compound sentence of two clauses connected by *but*, and tell the idea expressed by the conjunction.

4. A compound sentence of two parts connected by *or*, and give the idea expressed by the conjunction.

5. A compound sentence of two parts connected by *either-or*, and explain the idea expressed by the correlative.

6. A compound sentence of two parts connected by *neither-nor*, and explain the idea expressed by the correlative.

7. A compound sentence of two parts connected by *not-only* and *but-also*, and explain the idea expressed by the correlatives.

8. A complex imperative sentence containing one independent clause and one restrictive adjective-clause, connected by the conjunction *that*.

9. A complex interrogative sentence containing one or more independent clauses, one of them being an adjective clause connected by the relative *who*.

10. A complex declarative sentence containing two independent clauses connected by *both;* and two subordinate clauses, one an adjective clause, connected by *which*, and one an adverbial clause connected by *when*.

11. A compound-complex sentence containing two independent clauses connected by *either-or;* and two subordinate clauses, one an adjective clause, connected by the phrase-conjunction *as-good-as*, and one adverbial connected by the phrase-conjunction *as-far-as*.

III. Select the simple, the complex, and the compound sentences:

1. And Absalom rode upon a mule, and the mule went under the thick boughs of a great oak, and his head caught hold of the oak, and he was taken up between the heaven and the earth; and the mule that was under him went away. And a certain man saw it, and told Joab, and said, "Behold, I saw Absalom hanged in an

oak." And Joab said unto the man that told him, "And, behold, thou sawest him, and why didst thou not smite him there to the ground? And I would have given thee ten shekels of silver and a girdle." And the man said unto Joab, "Though I should receive a thousand shekels of silver in mine hand, yet would I not put forth mine hand against the King's son."

2. And it came to pass at the end of forty days, that Noah opened the window of the ark which he had made, and he sent forth a raven, which went forth to and fro, until the waters were dried up from off the earth. Also he sent forth a dove from him to see if the waters were abated from off the face of the ground; but the dove found no rest for the sole of her foot, and she returned unto him into the ark, for the waters were on the face of the whole earth; then he put forth his hand, and took her, and pulled her in unto him into the ark.

3. And Moses stretched out his hand over the sea; and the Lord caused the sea to go back by a strong east wind all that night, and made the sea dry land, and the waters were divided. And the children of Israel went into the midst of the sea upon the dry ground, and the waters were a wall unto them on their right hand, and on their left.

4. My dear Sidney Colvin: —

The journey which this little book is to describe was very agreeable and fortunate for me. After an uncouth beginning, I had the best of luck to the end. But we are all travelers in what John Bunyan calls the wilderness of this world,—all, too, travelers with a donkey; and the best that we find in our travels is an honest friend. He is a fortunate voyager who finds many. We travel, indeed, to find them. They are the end and the reward of life. They keep us worthy of ourselves; and when we are alone, we are only nearer to the absent.

Every book is, in an intimate sense, a circular letter to the friends of him who writes it. They alone take his meaning; they find private messages, assurances of love, and expressions of gratitude dropped for them in every corner. The public is but a generous patron who defrays the postage. Yet, though the letter is directed to all, we have an old and kindly custom of addressing it on the outside to one. Of what shall a man be proud, if he is not proud of his friends? And so, my dear Sidney Colvin, it is with pride that I sign myself affectionately yours,

R. L. S.

Analysis

We have studied the kinds, forms and uses of individual words in the sentence, together with such modifications as person, gender, number, case, degree, mode, voice, tense. To state the kind, form, and function of a given word in a given sentence is to *parse* that word. (See appendix for rules.) We have now to study the construction of the sentence by taking it apart and showing how its component parts—phrases and clauses—are related. This process is called *analysis*. (See appendix for scheme.)

In giving the analysis of a sentence it is customary:

1. to tell the kind and form of sentence:
   whether it be declarative, imperative, interrogative, or exclamatory;
   whether simple, compound, or complex;
2. to analyze the clauses of which it is made up:
   to separate the independent from the dependent clauses;
   to analyze first the principal clause, or clauses, into the essential parts;
   subject and predicate;
   modifiers of essential parts;
   to show how the essential parts are related and what they denote;
   to analyze the subordinate clause or clauses in the same way, and to show in what relation they stand to the clauses on which they depend.

Let us look into, or analyze, the Twenty-third Psalm, notice the kinds and forms of sentences it contains: how many simple, compound, complex; how many declarative, interrogative, imperative, exclamatory:

The Lord is my shepherd;
I shall not want,

He maketh me to lie down in green pastures;
He leadeth me beside the still waters.
He restoreth my soul;
He guideth me in the paths of righteousness for His name's sake.
Yea, though I walk through the valley of the shadow of death
I will fear no evil;
For thou art with me;
Thy rod and thy staff, they comfort me.
Thou preparest a table before me
In the presence of mine enemies;
Thou hast anointed my head with oil;
My cup runneth over.
Surely goodness and mercy shall follow me all the days of my life,
And I will dwell in the house of the Lord forever.

The first two lines are made up of the simplest kind of simple sentences—direct statements consisting of the essential subject and predicate, with almost no modifiers.

The third and fourth lines continue the simple declaration expanding the promise by means of the infinitive phrase—*to lie down in green pastures* and the prepositional phrase—*beside the still waters.*

The fifth gives the simple unmodified declaration, *He restoreth my soul.*

The sixth is a simple statement expanded by the two prepositional phrases, *in the paths of righteousness*, and *for his name's sake.*

The first line of the second stanza uses a subordinate subjunctive clause, *though I walk through the valley of the shadow of death.*

The next three lines are simple sentences.

The first four lines of the last stanza consist of simple declarative statements.

The poem concludes with a compound sentence which is a summing up of the whole.

The poem consists of twelve simple declarative sentences, one complex, and one compound sentence.

Look into Our Lord's Prayer for examples of the simple imperative sentence:

Our Father which art in Heaven;
Hallowed be thy name,
Thy Kingdom come,
Thy will be done,
As in Heaven, so on earth.

Give us this day our daily bread.
And forgive us our debts,
As we also have forgiven our debtors.
And bring us not into temptation,
But deliver us from the evil one.

The first stanza of the Forty-Sixth Psalm is an example of the use of the subjunctive mode:

God is our refuge and strength,
A very present help in trouble.
Therefore will we not fear, though the earth do change,
And though the mountains be moved in the heart of the seas;
Though the waters thereof roar and be troubled,
Though the mountains shake with the swelling thereof.
The Lord of hosts is with us.
The God of Jacob is our refuge.

The thirty-seventh verse of the twenty-third chapter of St. Matthew gives an exclamatory sentence of deep feeling:

O Jerusalem, Jerusalem, thou that killest the prophets, and stonest them which are sent unto thee, how often would I have gathered thy children together, even as a hen gathereth her chickens under her wings, and ye would not!

Practice

I. Analyze the sentences in the following selections:

1. With malice toward none, with charity for all, with firmness in the right, as God gives us to see the right, let us strive on to finish the work we are in, to bind up the nation's wounds, to care for him who shall have borne the battle, and for his widow and

his children — to do all which may achieve and cherish a just and lasting peace among ourselves and with all nations.

2. Fourscore and seven years ago our fathers brought forth upon this continent a new nation, conceived in liberty, and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal. Now we are engaged in a great civil war, testing whether that nation, or any nation so conceived and so dedicated, can long endure. We are met on a great battlefield of that war. We have come to dedicate a portion of that field as a final resting-place for those who here gave their lives that that nation might live. It is altogether fitting and proper that we should do this. But in a larger sense we cannot dedicate, we cannot consecrate, we cannot hallow this ground. The brave men, living and dead, who struggled here, have consecrated it far above our power to add or detract. The world will little note, nor long remember, what we say here, but it can never forget what they did here. It is for us, the living, rather to be dedicated here to the unfinished work which they who fought here have thus far so nobly advanced. It is rather for us to be here dedicated to the great task remaining before us, that from these honored dead we take increased devotion to that cause for which they gave the last full measure of devotion; that we here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain; that this nation, under God, shall have a new birth of freedom, and that government of the people, by the people, and for the people shall not perish from the earth.

3. Two of the strongest monkeys caught Mowgli under the arms and swung off with him through the tree-tops, twenty feet at a bound.

4. This is the story of the great war that Rikki-tikki-tavi fought single-handed, through the bath-room of the big bungalow in Segowlee cantonment.

Darzee, the tailor-bird, helped him, and Chuchundra, the musk-rat, who never comes out into the middle of the floor, but always creeps round by the wall, gave him advice; but Rikki-tikki-tavi did the real fighting.

5. I have seen too much of success in life to take off my hat and huzzah to it as it passes in its gilt coach; and would do my little part with my neighbors on foot, that they should not gape with too much wonder, nor applaud too loudly.

I look into my heart, and think that I am as good as my Lord Mayor, and know I am as bad as Tyburn Jack.

6. The drawbridge dropped with a surly clang,
And through the dark arch a charger sprang.

7. Now Zeus, after that he had brought the Trojans and Hector to the ships, left them to their toil and endless labor there.

8. They gave him of the corn-land,
That was of public right,
As much as two strong oxen
Could plough from morn till night.

9. I fear thee, ancient Mariner!
I fear thy skinny hand!
And thou art long, and lank, and brown,
As is the ribbed sea-sand.

10. Then they clinched and rolled over and over, whacking and pounding, snorting and growling, and making no end of dust and rumpus. But above all their noise I could clearly hear Little Johnny, yelling at the top of his voice, and evidently encouraging his mother to go right in and finish the Grizzly at once.

11. Happiness only begins when wishes end; and he who hankers after more, enjoys nothing.

12. Labor is prior to and independent of capital. Capital is only the fruit of labor, and could never have existed if labor had not first existed; labor is the superior of capital, and deserves much the higher consideration.

13. It is only by labor that thought can be made healthy, and only by thought that labor can be happy; and the two cannot be separated with impunity.

14. The motto marked upon our foreheads, written upon our door posts, channelled in the earth, and wafted upon the waves, is and must be, —

"Labor is honorable, and idleness is dishonorable."

15. One secret of Mr. Lincoln's remarkable success in captivating the popular mind is undoubtedly an unconsciousness of self which enables him, though under the necessity of constantly using the capital I, to do it without any suggestion of egotism. There is no single vowel which men's mouths can pronounce with such difference of effect. That which one shall hide away, as it were, behind the substance of his discourse, or, if he bring it to the front, shall use merely to give an agreeable accent of individuality to what he says, another shall make an offensive challenge to the self-satisfaction of all his hearers, and an unwarranted intrusion upon each man's sense of personal importance, irritating every pore of his

vanity, like a dry northeast wind, to a goose-flesh of opposition and hostility. Mr. Lincoln has never studied Quintilian; but he has, in the earnest simplicity and unaffected Americanism of his own character, one art of oratory worth all the rest. He forgets himself so entirely in his object as to give his I the sympathetic and persuasive effect of We with the great body of his countrymen. Homely, dispassionate, showing all the rough-edged process of his thought as it goes along, yet arriving at his conclusions with an honest kind of every-day logic, he is so eminently our representative man, that, when he speaks, it seems as if the people were listening to their own thinking aloud.

The dignity of his thought owes nothing to any ceremonial garb of words, but to the manly movement that comes of settled purpose and an energy of reason that knows not what rhetoric means. There has been nothing of Cleon, still less of Strepsiades striving to underbid him in demagogism, to be found in the public utterances of Mr. Lincoln. He has always addressed the intelligence of men, never their prejudice, their passion, or their ignorance.

16. "That suggests, Mr. Lincoln, an inquiry which has several times been upon my lips during this conversation. I want very much to know how you got this unusual power of 'putting things.' It must have been a matter of education. No man has it by nature alone. What has your education been?"

"Well, as to education, the newspapers are correct. I never went to school more than six months in my life. But, as you say, this must be a product of culture in some form. I have been putting the question you ask me to myself while you have been talking. I say this, that among my earliest recollections, I remember how, when a mere child, I used to get irritated when anybody talked to me in a way I could not understand. I don't think I ever got angry at anything else in my life. But that always disturbed my temper, and has ever since. I can remember going to my little bedroom, after hearing the neighbors talk of an evening with my father, and spending no small part of the night walking up and down, and trying to make out what was the exact meaning of some of their, to me, dark sayings. I could not sleep, though I often tried to, when I got on such a hunt after an idea, until I had caught it; and when I thought I had got it, I was not satisfied until I had repeated it over and over again, until I had put it in language plain enough, as I thought, for any boy I knew to comprehend. This was a kind of passion with me, and it has stuck by me, for I

am never easy now, when I am handling a thought, till I have bounded it north and bounded it south and bounded it east and bounded it west. Perhaps that accounts for the characteristic you observe in my speeches, though I never put the two things together before."

Outline Summary

- **Grammatical Phrases**
  - **Kind and Form**
    1. Infinitive:
       a. the infinitive with "to", and an object or complement;
       b. the infinitive in "ing", and an object.
    2. Prepositional: the preposition and its object.
    3. Participial:
       a. the active participle and an object.
       b. the passive participle and a complement.
    4. Absolute: the active or passive participle with noun, pronoun, or equivalent, in nominative case.
  - **Use**
    1. Infinitive: noun-phrase; can be subject, object, objective complement, or appositive.
    2. Prepositional: adjective or adverbial phrase; can modify accordingly.
    3. Participial: adjective or adverbial phrase; can modify accordingly.
    4. Absolute: adverbial phrase; can modify accordingly.
- **Clauses**
  - **Kind and Form**
    1. Independent: the simple sentence.
    2. Dependent:
       a. noun-clause.
       b. adjective clause.
       c. adverbial clause.
  - **Use**
    1. Noun-clause may be subject, object, or appositive.
    2. Adjective clause may modify nouns, pronouns, or equivalents.
    3. Adverbial clause may modify verbs, adjectives, other adverbs, or equivalents of any.
- **Sentences**
  - **Kind and Use**
    1. Declarative: makes an assertion.
    2. Interrogative: asks a question.
    3. Imperative: makes a command or entreaty.
    4. Exclamatory: expresses deep feeling.
  - **Form**
    1. Simple: but one statement, question, or command.
    2. Compound: two or more independent clauses.
    3. Complex: one or more independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses.

APPENDIX

A. The Conjugation of the Verb

By the conjugation of the verb we mean a complete display of all its parts and forms: (1) the verb-forms; (2) the modes and the verbals; (3) the tenses; and (4) the persons and numbers.

INDICATIVE MODE

Simple Form	Progressive Form	Emphatic Form
	Present	
Singular	Singular	Singular
I go	I am going	I do go
you go (thou goest)	you are (thou art) going	you do go
he goes	he is going	he does go
Plural	Plural	Plural
we go	we are going	we do go
you go	you are going	you do go
they go	they are going	they do go
	Past	
Singular	Singular	Singular
I went	I was going	I did go
you went	you were (thou wert) going	you did go
he went	he was going	he did go
Plural	Plural	Plural
we went	we were going	we did go
you went	you were going	you did go
they went	they were going	they did go

Simple Form	Progressive Form
Simple Future	
Singular	Singular
I shall go	I shall be going
you will go	you will be going
he will go	he will be going
Plural	Plural
we shall go	we shall be going
you will go	you will be going
they will go	they will be going
Future (will or determination)	
Singular	Singular
I will go	I will be going
you shall (thou shalt) go	you shall (thou shalt) be going
he shall go	he shall be going
Plural	Plural
we will go	we will be going
you shall go	you shall be going
they shall go	they shall be going
Perfect	
Singular	Singular
I have gone	I have been going
you have (thou hast) gone	you have (thou hast) been going
he has gone	he has been going
Plural	Plural
we have gone	we have been going
you have gone	you have been going
they have gone	they have been going
Past Perfect	
Singular	Singular
I had gone	I had been going
you had (thou hadst) gone	you had (thou hadst) been going
he had gone	they had been going

Simple Form	Progressive Form
Plural	Plural
we had gone	we had been going
you had gone	you had been going
they had gone	they had been going

Future Perfect

Singular	Singular
I shall have gone	I shall have been going
you will (thou wilt) have gone	you will (thou wilt) have been going
he will have gone	he will have been going
Plural	Plural
we shall have gone	we shall have been going
you will have gone	you will have been going
they will have gone	they will have been going

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE

Simple Form	Progressive Form	Emphatic Form
	Present	
(If) I, you, he go		(If) I, you, he do go
(If) we, you, they go		(If) we, you, they do go
	(If) I, you, he be going	
	(If) we, you, they be going	
	Past	
(If) I, you, he went		(If) I, you, he did go
(If) we, you, they went		(If) we, you, they did go
	(If) I, you, he were going	
	(If) we, you, they were going	

IMPERATIVE MODE

Simple Form	Progressive Form	Emphatic Form
	Present	
go	be going	do go

INFINITIVES

	Present
to go, going	to be going

Perfect

to have gone, having gone to have been going

PARTICIPLES

Present

going

Perfect

having gone having been going

ACTIVE VOICE

INDICATIVE MODE

Simple Form	Progressive Form	Emphatic Form
	Present	
Singular	Singular	Singular
I make	I am making	I do make
you make (thou makest)	you are (thou art) making	you do (thou dost) make
he makes	he is making	he does make
Plural	Plural	Plural
we make	we are making	we do make
you make	you are making	you do make
they make	they are making	they do make
	Past	
Singular	Singular	Singular
I made	I was making	I did make
you made (thou madest)	you were (thou wast) making	you did (thou didst) make
he made	he was making	he did make
Plural	Plural	Plural
we made	we were making	we did make
you made	you were making	you did make
they made	they were making	they did make

Simple Form	Progressive Form
Simple Future	
Singular	Singular
I shall make	I shall be making
you will (thou wilt) make	you will (thou wilt) be making
he will make	he will be making
Plural	Plural
we shall make	we shall be making
you will make	you will be making
they will make	they will be making
Future (will or determination)	
Singular	Singular
I will make	I will be making
you shall (thou shalt) make	you shall (thou shalt) be making
he shall make	he shall be making
Plural	Plural
we will make	we will be making
you shall make	you shall be making
they shall make	they shall be making
Perfect	
Singular	Singular
I have made	I have been making
you have (thou hast) made	you have (thou hast) been making
he has made	he has been making
Plural	Plural
we have made	we have been making
you have made	you have been making
they have made	they have been making

Simple Form	Progressive Form
Past Perfect	
Singular	Singular
I had made	I had been making
you had (thou hadst) made	you had (thou hadst) been making
he had made	he had been making
Plural	Plural
we had made	we had been making
you had made	you had been making
they had made	they had been making
Future Perfect	
Singular	Singular
I shall have made	I shall have been making
you shall (thou shalt) have made	you shall (thou shalt) have been making
he shall have made	he shall have been making
Plural	Plural
we shall have made	we shall have been making
you shall have made	you shall have been making
they shall have made	they shall have been making

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE

Simple Form	Progressive Form	Emphatic Form
Present		
(If) I, you, he make	(If) I, you, he were making	(If) I, you, he do make
(If) we, you, they make	(If) we, you, they be making	(If) we, you, they do make
Past		
(If) I, you, he made	(If) I, you, he were making	(If) I, you, he did make
(If) we, you, they made	(If) we, you, they were making	(If) we, you, they did make

IMPERATIVE MODE

Simple Form	Progressive Form	Emphatic Form
make	be making	do make

INFINITIVES

Present

to make, making — to be making

Perfect

to have made, having made — to have been making

PARTICIPLES

Present

making

Perfect

having made — having been making

PASSIVE VOICE

INDICATIVE MODE

Simple Form	Progressive Form
Present	
Singular	Singular
I am made	I am being made
you are(thou art) made	you are (thou art) being made
he is made	he is being made
Plural	Plural
we are made	we are being made
you are made	you are being made
they are made	they are being made

Simple Form		Progressive Form
	Past	
Singular		Singular
I was made		I was being made
you were (thou wast) made		you were (thou wast) being made
he was made		he was being made
Plural		Plural
we were made		we were being made
you were made		you were being made
they were made		they were being made
	Simple Future	
I shall be made		
	Future (will or determination)	
I will be made		
	Perfect	
I have been made		
	Past Perfect	
I had been made		
	Future Perfect	
I shall have been made		

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE

Simple Form		Progressive Form
	Present	
(If) I be made		
	Past	
(If) I were made		(If) I were being made

IMPERATIVE MODE

Present

be made

INFINITIVES

SIMPLE FORM

Present

to be made, being made

Perfect

to have been made, having been made

PARTICIPLES

Present

being made

Past

made

Perfect

having been made

INDICATIVE MODE

SIMPLE FORM	PROGRESSIVE FORM
Present	
SINGULAR	SINGULAR
I am	I am being
you are (thou art)	you are (thou art) being
he is	he is being
PLURAL	PLURAL
we are	we are being
you are	you are being
they are	they are being
Past	
SINGULAR	SINGULAR
I was	I was being
you were (thou wast)	you were (thou wast) being
he was	he was being

Simple Form	Progressive Form
Plural	Plural
we were	we were being
you were	you were being
they were	they were being

Simple Future

Singular

I shall be
you will (thou wilt) be
he will be

Plural

we shall be
you will be
they will be

Future
(will or determination)

Singular

I will be
you shall (thou shalt) be
he shall be

Plural

we will be
you shall be
they shall be

Perfect

Singular

I have been
you have (thou hast) been
he has been

Plural

we have been
you have been
they have been

SIMPLE FORM

Past Perfect

SINGULAR
I had been
you had (thou hadst) been
he had been

PLURAL
we had been
you had been
they had been

Future Perfect

SINGULAR
I shall have been
you shall (thou shalt) have been
he shall have been

PLURAL
we shall have been
you shall have been
they shall have been

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE

Present

(If) I, you, thou, he be
(If), we you, they be

Past

(If) I, you, he were (thou wert)
(If) we, you, they were

IMPERATIVE MODE

be

INFINITIVES

Present

to be, being

Perfect

to have been, having been

PARTICIPLES

Present

being

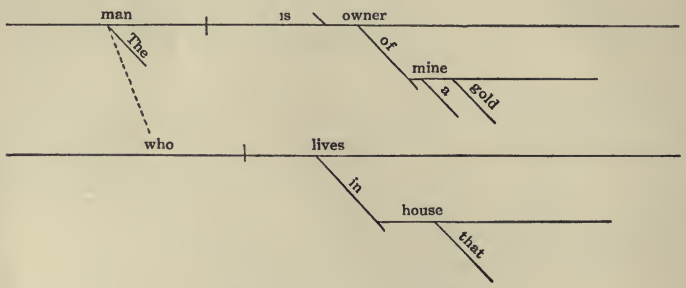
Perfect

having been

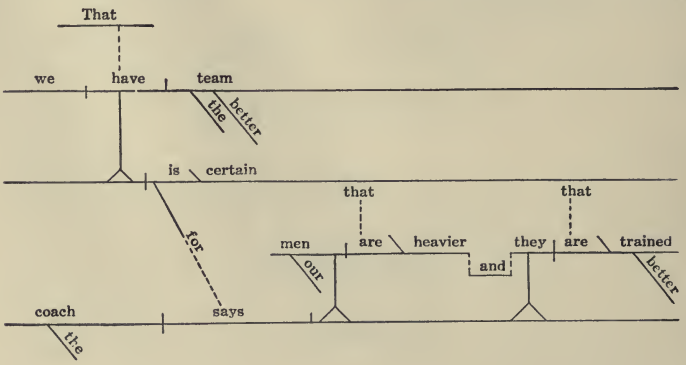
B. Analysis

The analysis of the sentence may be written out, or it may be shown by means of lines. Thus:

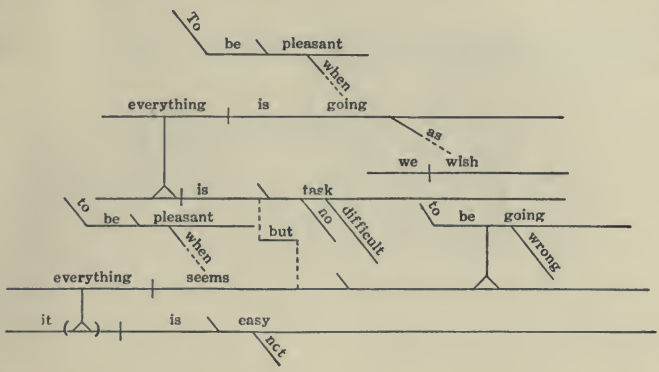
(1) *The man who lives in that house is the owner of a gold mine.*



(2) *That we have the better team is certain for the coach says that our men are the heavier, and that they are the better trained.*



(3) *To be pleasant when everything is going as we wish is no difficult task, but it is not easy to be pleasant when everything seems to be going wrong.*



The principal parts of a sentence: subject, predicate, and complement are placed on a horizontal line.

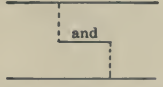
The subject is separated from the predicate by a perpendicular line *cutting* the horizontal line.

The object-complement is separated from the predicate by a perpendicular line *joining* the horizontal line.

The attribute complement is separated from the predicate by a line joining the horizontal line and slanting toward the subject.

The objective complement is separated from the predicate by a line joining the horizontal line and slanting toward the object complement.

The coördinating conjunction is placed on a horizontal line and joined to the parts it connects by perpendicular dotted lines.



The subordinate conjunction is placed upon a slanting dotted

line, or a part dotted and part heavy line when used as a modifier, the heavy part of the line to connect with the word modified by the conjunction.

All modifiers are placed on lines which slant from the words they modify.

NOTE:—This form for diagraming sentences is adopted from Reed and Kellogg's Grammar.

C. The Sentence: Essentials and Modifiers

(1) What the Essential Parts of a Sentence May Be

(a) The subject may be:

- A noun, or a noun with its modifiers.
- A pronoun or a pronoun with its modifiers.
- An infinitive with "to" or an infinitive in "ing," simple or modified.
- An infinitive phrase with "to" or in "ing," simple or modified.
- A noun-clause with its modifiers.

(b) The verb may be:

- A simple verb — Transitive — Active voice or Passive voice
- A simple verb — Intransitive — Active voice or Passive voice
- Verb-phrase — Transitive — Active voice or Passive voice
- Verb-phrase — Intransitive — Active voice or Passive voice

(c) The complement may be

- Object complement may be
  - A noun, or a noun with its modifiers.
  - A pronoun or a pronoun with its modifiers.
  - An infinitive in "ing," simple or modified.
  - An infinitive phrase, simple or modified.
  - A noun-clause with its modifiers.
- Attribute of the subject may be
  - A noun, or a noun with its modifiers.
  - A pronoun, or a pronoun with its modifiers.
  - An adjective, simple or modified.
  - An infinitive in "ing," simple or modified.
  - An infinitive phrase in "ing" or with "to," simple or modified.
  - A noun-clause with its modifiers.
- Attribute of the object may be
  - Like the object.

(2) What May Modify the Essential Parts of the Sentence

(a) The subject may be modified by	An adjective A possessive pronoun used adjectively A participle A single infinitive phrase A prepositional phrase An adjective clause A word, phrase, or clause used in apposition
(b) The verb may be modified by	An adverb A prepositional phrase used adverbially An infinitive phrase used adverbially A clause used adverbially
(c) The complement may be modified by	An adjective A possessive pronoun used adjectively A participle A simple infinitive phrase An adjective clause A word, phrase, or clause used in apposition A prepositional phrase.

D. Parsing

To parse a word means to tell all about its grammatical meaning and use; that is, to:

1. Classify—give part of speech.
2. Give its modifications.
3. Tell how it is used.
4. Tell by what rule it is governed.

When we parse a word we tell:—

Noun

- Kind—common, proper, etc.
- Person
- Gender
- Number
- Case
- Use—(rule)

Pronoun

- Kind
  - Personal
  - Relative
  - Demonstrative
  - Interrogative
  - Indefinite
- Form
  - Person (personal)
  - Gender (personal, relative)
  - Number (personal, indefinite, demonstrative, relative)
  - Case (all kinds)
- Use (Rule)
  - Subject, object, complement
  - Relating function (relative)
  - Agreement with antecedent

Verb

- Kind
  - Transitive
  - Intransitive
- Conjugation
  - Regular
  - Irregular
- Principal parts
- Voice
- Mode
- Tense
- Person
- Number

Verbals

- Kind
  - Infinitive—with "to," or in "ing"
  - Participle—present or past
- Voice
- Tense
- Use

Adjective

- Kind
  - Limiting
    - Article
    - Numeral
    - Pronominal
  - Descriptive
    - Proper
    - Common
- Form
  - Comparison
- Use
  - Degree

Adverb

- Kind
  - Simple
  - Conjunctive
  - Responsive
- Form
  - Comparison
- Use
  - Degree

Preposition
- Kind
  - Simple
  - Compound
- The relation shown
- Words related

Conjunction
- Kind
  - Coördinating
  - Subordinating
- Parts joined
  - Words
  - Phrases
  - Clauses

Interjection
- Name
- Meaning

INDEX