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GRAMMAR  
OF THE  
ENGLISH  
LANGUAGE  
POWELL AND CONNOLLY

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# A RATIONAL GRAMMAR

OF THE

## ENGLISH LANGUAGE

BY

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P. C. GRAM.

W. P. I

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P65  
1899  
MAIN

## PREFACE

MANY of the rules and much of the terminology of the first English grammars, as is well known, were based largely on the rules and terminology of Latin grammar, because at the time these grammars were written Latin was the language of scholars. The grammar for the new language was made to correspond to the one with which the authors were most familiar. The resulting distortion of the facts of the English language on which a grammar of the language should be based has long been the bane of this study. In making this book the authors, recognizing the small amount of inflectional element found in English, have shown the relation element that characterizes the language. This grammar presents the study of our language as it exists, free from the trammels of a forced analogy with Latin, yet avoiding the serious error of teaching Anglo-Saxon more than English.

Some of the merits claimed for the book are a natural development of the subject treated, a simple and clear statement of hitherto puzzling points in grammar, and an adequate emphasis of the practical side of the study,—the correct forming of the speech of the pupil. The pupil being led to think for himself (a matter as important in the study of grammar as it is in the study of other sciences) finds the subject so shorn of its terrors that it is interesting.

Analysis precedes parsing, the sentence being divided into its great parts according to a simple system of classification based on a single principle, *use*. This broad analysis is carried far enough for the learner to recognize, from sentences studied, all those uses of words on which their classification into parts of

speech depends. After this study of the sentence, parts of speech are taught, when a more refined analysis is given by which it is shown that the meaning of a word rather than its use determines the kind of modifiers which it takes; thus the learner is led to study the parts of speech from two points of view.

The treatment of the verb is an especial feature of this book, in which is recognized the tendency in modern languages, especially pronounced in English, to differentiate the words embraced by this part of speech into those that assert and those that express action. The treatment of the verb made possible by the recognition of this important movement in language simplifies its study very much.

Throughout the book the learner is afforded opportunity to make English for the exemplification of principles which he has been led by analysis to see and understand.

Special chapters treat of idioms and peculiar constructions; the chief uses of punctuation marks are taught by examples which show inductively the grammatical principles on which these uses depend; and the important rules of spelling and word building are taught in a corresponding way.

Every feature of this book has been thoroughly tried in the Washington schools, and has undergone the careful scrutiny of expert philologists. The authors acknowledge with gratitude their indebtedness to Miss Carl L. Garrison, Principal of the Phelps School, Washington, for her invaluable coöperation in the collection of materials for the book, in writing the lessons, and in testing the practical values of the work.

# CONTENTS

	PAGE
INTRODUCTION . . . . .	7

## PART I

### SIMPLE ANALYSIS

CHAPTER

I. The Sentence . . . . .	9
II. Classification of Elements according to Use . . . . .	23
III. Classification of Elements according to Structure . . . . .	47
IV. Compounds . . . . .	68

## PART II

### PARTS OF SPEECH AND COMPLETE ANALYSIS

V. Words . . . . .	81
VI. Nouns . . . . .	84
VII. Adjectives . . . . .	106
VIII. Pronouns . . . . .	118
IX. Verbs . . . . .	141
X. Adverbs . . . . .	185
XI. Relation Words . . . . .	191
XII. Independent Words . . . . .	201
XIII. Complete Analysis of Sentences . . . . .	204

## PART III

## APPLICATIONS OF GRAMMAR

CHAPTER		PAGE
XIV.	Punctuation and Capitalization . . . . .	210
XV.	Arrangement of Words in the Sentence . . . . .	217
XVI.	Agreement and Government . . . . .	226

## PART IV

## SPECIAL CONSTRUCTIONS

XVII.	Infinitives and Participles . . . . .	233
XVIII.	Fine Points of Analysis . . . . .	250
XIX.	Idioms . . . . .	267
XX.	Sentences for Analysis . . . . .	272

## PART V

## ENGLISH DERIVATIVES

XXI.	English Derivatives . . . . .	276
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## APPENDIX

1.	Irregular Verbs . . . . .	289
2.	Complete Conjugation . . . . .	295
3.	History of the English Language . . . . .	301
4.	Additional Study in Word Building . . . . .	306
5.	Advanced Work in Word Building . . . . .	310
INDEX	. . . . .	313

## INTRODUCTION.

IF we were asked to give a distinction between man and the lower animals, we should agree that one important difference is that man possesses true speech or language, whereas the lower animals do not.

This speech or language is the chief means by which one man communicates his thoughts and feelings to another.

The lower animals also are capable of expressing in a limited degree their feelings by means of sounds, as every one must know who has heard the howl of a hungry dog or the song of a bird in summer; but it frequently takes a good deal of action accompanying these sounds to express a desire even imperfectly. Thus when a dog accompanies his howling by scratching at the door, we know, not only his distress, but his desire to get in.

There are a great many languages used by the various peoples of the world, but it is thought by those who have studied the subject carefully that many of the European languages are variations of some single language which was formerly spoken by our common ancestors. Various degrees of relationship are found among the various languages. Our own English, for instance, is much like the German, as you may see by comparing a few sentences.

### ENGLISH.

Who is that?  
The man was here.  
There is a man.  
Here is my hand.

### GERMAN.

Wer ist das?  
Der Mann war hier.  
Da ist ein Mann.  
Hier ist meine Hand.

In fact, English is called a Germanic language. But German is not the only foreign tongue to which our Eng-

lish is related. The French say *L'exercice est simple*: The exercise is simple. *La table est grande*: The table is large. Many words that are similar in English and French were taken from an older language, — Latin. In fact, we have obtained our words chiefly from three sources, — French, Latin, and an old Germanic language called Saxon. This makes our language very rich in variety of expression. For instance, one may say, That child is good, or, A certain individual is virtuous. In these sentences, *child*, *is*, and *good* are from Germanic sources, while *certain* and *virtuous* are from the French, and *individual* is from the Latin.

Grammar inquires how the best writers and speakers use language, and forms from their usage rules to guide others.

As most of the European languages are pretty closely related, you would not be surprised to find, should you study French, Spanish, or Italian, Dutch or German, Latin or Greek, that their grammars, that is, their modes of using words to make statements, are much like the English, and that many rules made from observing one of these languages apply to all, so that there is indeed a general grammar. A certain way of using words found to be peculiar to one language is called an idiom of that language. For instance, it is an English idiom to say, How are you? for a Frenchman would say, How do you carry yourself? (*Comment vous portez vous?*), and a German, How do you find yourself? (*Wie befinden Sie sich?*). While we say, There is a story about that, the French say, It there has (*Il y a*) a story, and the Germans, It gives (*Es gibt*) a story. These peculiar methods of combining words are idioms respectively of the English, French, and German languages.

An English grammar, therefore, should state the main facts which are true in many languages, and also give the special features true only of idiomatic English.



# PART I.—SIMPLE ANALYSIS.



## CHAPTER I.—THE SENTENCE.

### SYNOPSIS.

Ideas must be related in order to express thought.

The relation may be asserted or assumed.

The expression of a thought in completed form is called a sentence.

Of two related terms, one may modify the other.

The term which is modified is called the base.

The term which modifies is called the modifier.

According to their uses, sentences are declarative, interrogative, or imperative. According to their manner of expression, they are pure or exclamatory.

The pure declarative sentence is the typical sentence.

If two or more expressions which, standing alone, would be sentences, are united in one sentence, each is called a clause.

A sentence made up of unlike clauses is a mixed sentence.

### 1. ASSERTION.

One person may express ideas to another by signs. The signs may be made in many ways ; for example, with the hands, as is done by those who are dumb ; or with flags, as is done when two ships meet at sea ; or by lights, as on a railroad. The most common way of expressing ideas is by means of words, either spoken or written.

EXAMPLES. Man, cat, dog, bird, fly, white, black, singing, running. Each of these words is the sign used to represent an idea.

**A word may be the sign of an idea.**

The words *brick singing*, or the words *easy stone*, spoken or written together, seem out of place because the ideas for which they stand bear no logical relation to each other. The words *red brick*, or *black dog*, or *singing bird*, when put together, combine suitably because the ideas for which they stand may bear logical relation to each other; so we say these words are related.

Good mother.

*Good* and *mother* are two simple ideas which can be joined logically. The expression *good mother*, then, represents related ideas; that is, a **thought**.

In the expression *candy is sweet*, the sweetness of the candy is told or asserted; the fact that there is a relation between the word *sweet* and the word *candy* is asserted by the word *is*. In the expression *sweet candy*, the sweetness of the candy is not asserted, but is taken for granted or assumed, and the relation of the word *sweet* to the word *candy* is assumed. In the expression *hair is brown*, the relation of *brown* to *hair* is asserted. In the expression *brown hair*, the relation of *brown* to *hair* is assumed.

#### Exercise.

In the following expressions tell which relations are assumed, and which are asserted:—

- |                             |                              |
|-----------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. Good men.                | 11. Fair little girl.        |
| 2. Men are good.            | 12. The little girl is fair. |
| 3. Brave boys.              | 13. Long pencil.             |
| 4. Boys are brave.          | 14. The boat is sailing.     |
| 5. Falling snow.            | 15. The lesson is hard.      |
| 6. Long days of summer.     | 16. Broken pencil.           |
| 7. Snow is falling.         | 17. Sweet apple.             |
| 8. Days of summer are long. | 18. Sharp knife.             |
| 9. Black cat.               | 19. The pencil is broken.    |
| 10. The cat is black.       | 20. My apple is sweet.       |

Assume the relation of *good* to *children* ; assert it.

Assume the relation of *bright* to *star* ; assert it.

Assume the relation of *happy* to *bird* ; assert it.

Assume the relation of *sour* to *oranges* ; assert it.

## 2. THE COMPLETED FORM.

Tall tree.

These words leave the mind expecting that something more will be said. Do they indicate an assumed or an asserted relation ?

An expression showing a relation assumed leaves the mind in a state of expectation.

The tree is tall.

This assertion leaves the mind in a satisfied condition.

Bright star.

The star is bright.

Which of these expressions leaves the mind satisfied, and is complete in form ? Which leaves the mind expecting more, and is incomplete in form ?

A thought may be expressed in a completed form by an assertion of relation, or in an uncompleted form by an assumption of relation.

### Exercise.

Write five thoughts about *children*, assuming all the relations.

Write five thoughts about *children*, asserting some relation.

Write five thoughts in the form of assertions.

Write the same five thoughts, assuming the relations which were formerly asserted.

Tell which of the following thoughts are expressed in completed form, and which in uncompleted form : —

1. An old rocking-chair.

4. The rocking-chair is old.

2. The cat is sleeping.

5. The apple is red.

3. Red apple.

6. The broken pitcher.

- |                            |                                |
|----------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 7. A stormy day.           | 12. The fire burns cheerfully. |
| 8. My pitcher is broken.   | 13. A bright, starlight night. |
| 9. A cold, driving rain.   | 14. The man was lazy.          |
| 10. The day was stormy.    | 15. A lazy man.                |
| 11. Many beautiful houses. | 16. Four little boys.          |

A *sentence* is a thought expressed in a completed form.

### 3. THE BASE.

In the expression *black dog*, *dog* is modified or described by *black*, so we call *dog* the central or chief idea. In the expression *little black dog*, *dog* is still the central idea, described by *little* and *black*.

Out of any expression in which the relations are assumed, it is usually possible to select the word expressing the central idea.

In a group of words whose relations are assumed, the word expressing the central idea is called the *base*. The words expressing the other ideas serve to describe or modify this base.

EXAMPLE. Little kitten.

*Kitten* is the base of this expression, modified by *little*.

EXAMPLE. My little white kitten.

*Kitten* is the base of this expression, modified by *my*, *little*, and *white*.

The *base* of a group of words is that part which the other word or words of the group modify. Any part of a group of words which modifies the meaning of the base is called a *modifier*.

#### Exercise.

Select the base in each of the following groups of words: —

- |                    |                            |
|--------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. old man         | 5. large ripe strawberries |
| 2. young boys      | 6. my little sister        |
| 3. pretty children | 7. many famous men         |
| 4. a large salmon  | 8. a word to the wise      |

- |                             |                              |
|-----------------------------|------------------------------|
| 9. driving slowly           | 13. our handsome new flag    |
| 10. four young puppies      | 14. the watch on the table   |
| 11. a bright sunny day      | 15. an approaching storm     |
| 12. the famous little actor | 16. walking slowly toward us |

Use each of the following words as the base of a group of words whose relations are assumed:—

- |            |               |
|------------|---------------|
| 1. boys    | 6. swimming   |
| 2. house   | 7. frightened |
| 3. cat     | 8. watch      |
| 4. lamp    | 9. tower      |
| 5. running | 10. climbing  |

#### 4. DRILL ON SENTENCES.

What is a thought? (p. 10.) We have seen that a thought may be expressed in completed form or in uncompleted form. What name is applied to the expression of a thought in completed form?

These expressions are sentences:—

The sky is blue.

New York is a very large city.

Bees love honey.

Was the bird singing?

Water freezes.

Little children, love one another.

How beautiful is the moon!

These expressions are not sentences:—

A glass of water.

The beautiful sea.

Honest men.

The procession having started.

The sun having set.

The winter being long.

The sunny days of spring.

Smoking ruins.

#### Exercise.

Tell which of the following expressions are sentences, and which are not sentences:—

- |                                  |                               |
|----------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. The high hill.                | 5. Running water.             |
| 2. The fire raged fiercely.      | 6. Our bell has not rung yet. |
| 3. Writing busily.               | 7. The baby smiled.           |
| 4. These three boys are singing. | 8. A day of sunshine.         |

9. Rolling a hoop.
10. And moving toward us.
11. An afternoon in the woods.
12. The children had a picnic.
13. In a beautiful sunny meadow.
14. My son, forget not my law.
15. Having resolved to suffer for their faith.
16. The light of the body is the eye.
17. The mother of the blue-eyed boy.
18. Because I have called, and ye refused.
19. Without fear, and without reproach.
20. And what is so rare as a day in June !
21. The sea, the sea, the open sea,  
The blue, the fresh, the ever free.
22. He sings to the wide world, and she to her nest.
23. My heart leaps up when I behold  
A rainbow in the sky.
24. O Linden trees, whose branches high  
Shut out the noontide's sultry sky,  
Throwing a shadow, cool and dim,  
Along the meadow's grassy rim.
25. Ye mariners of England,  
That guard our native seas,  
Whose flag has braved a thousand years  
The battle and the breeze.
26. When icicles hang by the wall,  
And Dick, the shepherd, blows his nail,  
And Tom bears logs into the hall,  
And milk comes frozen home in pail,  
When blood is nipped, and ways be foul,  
Then nightly sings the staring owl.

*The first word of every sentence should begin with a capital letter.*

(An expression which is not a sentence may also begin with a capital letter when standing alone.)

#### Exercise.

Write five sentences about George Washington ; five about your last holiday ; five about snow. Write five expressions that are not sentences.

## 5. USES OF SENTENCES.

## Exercise.

Write five sentences asking questions; five giving commands; five stating facts.

Sentences may be used : —

- a. To ask questions.
- b. To make statements.
- c. To give commands.

The battle raged fiercely.

Who won?

Do not ask.

Which of these sentences asks a question? Which expresses a command? Which states a fact?

According to their uses sentences are called : —

- a. Interrogative sentences.
- b. Declarative sentences.
- c. Imperative sentences.

**An interrogative sentence is one that asks a question.**

- EXAMPLES.
1. Are you coming with me?
  2. When is the train due?
  3. Do you see yonder cloud?
  4. With whom were you speaking?
  5. What shall I render to my God  
For all his gifts to me?

*A question mark, called an interrogation point (?), is usually placed after an interrogative sentence.*

## Exercise.

Write three interrogative sentences about horses; two beginning with *why*; two beginning with *when*; two beginning with *where*;

two beginning with *how*; two beginning with *will*; two beginning with *do*; two beginning with *may*; two beginning with *are*; two beginning with *who*; two beginning with *whom*; two beginning with *to which*; and two beginning with *from which*.

Mention ten words which you have used at the beginning of interrogative sentences. Mention five other words which you might have so used.



**A declarative sentence is one that makes a statement.**

EXAMPLES. The President sent a message to Congress.  
Rome was not built in a day.  
Brevity is the soul of wit.  
The war is ended.  
The sun is the source of heat.  
A city is a collection of many people.

*A period (.) is usually placed after a declarative sentence.*

**Exercise.**

Write three declarative sentences about roses; three about lions; three about icebergs.



**An imperative sentence is one that expresses a command, an entreaty, or a request.**

EXAMPLES. Go to the ant, thou sluggard.  
Boast not thyself of to-morrow.  
Give me liberty, or give me death!  
Let her own works praise her in the gates.  
Study diligently, if you would succeed.

*A period is usually placed after an imperative sentence.*

**Exercise.**

Write three imperative sentences about a penknife; two addressed to a servant; two addressed to a dog; two beginning with *please*; two beginning with *let*.



How bravely they fought!      Alas! must they die!  
 They are heroes.                      They must.

Surrender!

Which of these sentences indicate excitement or strong feeling?

According to the manner of their expression, sentences may be pure or exclamatory.

An exclamatory sentence is one that betrays excitement or strong feeling in the speaker.

EXAMPLES. Help me, Cassius, or I sink!  
 How sour this apple is!  
 Thank God I am an American!  
 Must I do all that!

*An exclamation point (!) is placed after every exclamatory sentence, whether it is declarative, interrogative, or imperative.*

**Exercise.**

Write three exclamatory sentences about the weather; two betraying sorrow; two betraying joy; two betraying anger.

---

Every sentence must be declarative, imperative, or interrogative, and no simple sentence can belong to two of these classes at the same time. For instance, an interrogative sentence cannot be at the same time a declarative sentence.

The rain falls fast.

How dark it grows!

Is the wind blowing?                      Come in.

Doesn't it blow hard!                      Come quickly!

But a sentence which is declarative, interrogative, or imperative, may at the same time be exclamatory.

Thus a sentence may be : —

*a.* Pure declarative.

EXAMPLE. It is warm.

*b.* Exclamatory declarative.

EXAMPLE. How warm it is !

*c.* Pure interrogative.

EXAMPLE. Must I go ?

*d.* Exclamatory interrogative.

EXAMPLE. And must this body die !

*e.* Pure imperative.

EXAMPLE. Do not interrupt the speaker.

*f.* Exclamatory imperative.

EXAMPLE. Down, slave, and beg for mercy !

#### Exercise.

Tell fully what kind of sentence each of the following is : —

1. How provoking you are !
2. The snow falls.
3. Speak more slowly.
4. Oh, where can rest be found ?
5. Come one, come all.
6. Up, comrades, up and face the foe !
7. May I again behold it ?
8. Go and rejoice.
9. Alas, but you must take him again !
10. Sleep, sleep, mine Holy One.
11. I cannot sing the old songs.
12. What a noise you make !
13. Do you ride the bicycle ?
14. Do I ride !
15. Help me to mount.
16. Look out !

Punctuate the following sentences and tell what kind of sentence each is : —

1. Ring out, wild bells, to the wild sky
2. Gather ye rosebuds while ye may
3. Oh, that those lips had language
4. Why sits she thus in solitude
5. Come into the garden, Maud
6. What a rare fellow you are, Adam
7. Know ye the land where the cypress and myrtle  
Are emblems of deeds that are done in their clime
8. He was disturbed by the sound of approaching footsteps

### 6. THE TYPICAL SENTENCE.

From a page in your Reader or History select the declarative, interrogative, and imperative sentences. Of which class do you find the greatest number?

It is warm.

Is it warm?

What kind of sentence is each of these? Do they differ in the words used? in the order of the words? in punctuation?

Children, obey me.

Children obey me.

What kind of sentence is each of these? How do they differ?

It is very warm.

How warm it is!

What kind of sentence is each of these? How do they differ?

The pure declarative sentence differs from the other kinds of sentences chiefly in the arrangement of its words or in its punctuation, and most things that are true of it are true of all sentences. Pure declarative sentences are besides much more commonly employed than any other kind. For these reasons we may regard the pure declarative as the **typical sentence**.

**Exercise.**

Write a pure declarative sentence containing the same related ideas as each of the following: —

1. Pull for the shore, sailors.
2. Does the wind blow?
3. What mean those sounds?
4. How the wind blows!
5. Sing loud and clear!
6. Would ye look for greener graves!
7. Did your brother come alone?

**7. MIXED SENTENCES.**

You are not tired, are you?

Write the two thoughts contained in this sentence in two separate sentences. These thoughts are so closely related that they are expressed in one sentence, though the expression of each thought standing alone would be a sentence itself. What kind of sentence would express the first thought? What kind would express the second?

Are you tired? for you look so.

Describe this sentence.

When two or more expressions which, standing alone, would be sentences, are so closely related that all are required to complete the thought and thus form but one sentence, each of the expressions is called a *clause*.

A clause, like a sentence, may be declarative, interrogative, or imperative.

What are the clauses in each of the sentences described above? What kind of clause is each? Though no sentence, as a whole, can be both declarative and interrogative, yet a sentence may consist of unlike clauses.

Come with me, won't you?

Of what kinds of clauses does this sentence consist?

A sentence composed of unlike clauses is a mixed sentence.

*A mixed sentence should be followed by the punctuation mark suitable to its last part.*

*A punctuation mark should be placed between the clauses of a mixed sentence. This may be a comma (,), a semicolon (;), an interrogation point, or an exclamation point, but not a period.*

#### Exercise.

Tell fully what kind of sentence each of the following is : —

1. Telegraph me on your arrival, will you?
2. That's what you would like to be doing, is it?
3. We are not cowards, are we?
4. Are you sleepy? are you cold? are you hungry? for you look worn out.
5. Be quiet! there is no danger.
6. Blow wind! come wrack! at least we'll die with harness on our back.
7. Beware, my lord, of jealousy ;  
It is the green-eyed monster which doth mock the food it feeds on.
8. Give me three grains of corn, mother,  
Only three grains of corn ;  
It will keep the little life I have  
Till the coming of the morn.
9. Up! up! my friend, and clear your looks ;  
Why all this toil and trouble?
10. Defer not till to-morrow to be wise ;  
To-morrow's sun to thee may never rise.

Punctuate the following : —

1. Why are you so silent
2. He is your brother is he
3. How silent you are
4. Pull down that flag
5. The band is playing "Yankee Doodle" is it not
6. The wind blew a gale
7. Do hush your mother is ill
8. Will you be there at the appointed hour

9. Go away I am busy
10. Bring your book to me
11. Summer comes with flower and bee  
Where is my brother gone
12. Oh that those lips had language
13. When shall we three meet again
14. Throw physic to the dogs I'll none of it
15. Thou canst not say I did it never shake  
Thy gory locks at me
16. Aye tear her tattered ensign down  
Long has it waved on high
17. You hear that boy laughing you think he's all fun  
But the angels laugh too at the good he has done  
The children laugh loud as they troop to his call  
The poor man that knows him laughs loudest of all

Write and punctuate five mixed sentences each containing an imperative and a declarative clause; five, each containing a declarative and an interrogative clause; two, each containing an imperative and an interrogative clause.

It is not necessary that clauses which are joined shall be of different kinds.

*If two declarative or two imperative clauses are united in one sentence, without a connecting word, a semicolon is usually placed between them.*

EXAMPLES. I knew him ; he knew not me.  
Come kneel at my feet ; look right in my eyes.

*If several short clauses are united in one sentence they are usually separated by commas.*

EXAMPLES. I saw him, he saw me, and you saw us both.  
I came, I saw, I conquered.

## CHAPTER II. — CLASSIFICATION OF ELEMENTS ACCORDING TO USE.

### SYNOPSIS.

A sentence may be divided into the subject and the predicate.

The predicate may consist of two parts: the asserter, or copula, and the complement.

The predicate base may consist of one word, which represents both the base of the complement and the asserter.

A word that represents doing, having, or being, is a verb.

A modifier of a subject is called an adjective modifier.

Complements which describe or identify the subject are adjective.

An objective element receives the action expressed in the verb.

Any other modifier of a verb is adverbial.

The essential elements of a sentence are the substantive (subject) and predicative (predicate) elements, the latter including the asserted adjective element.

The accessory elements are adjective, objective, and adverbial.

### 8. SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

Chalk is white.

The little red apple is very sweet.

One of these assertions is made about *chalk*; the other assertion is made about *the little red apple*.

In every declarative sentence there is a word or group of words about which an assertion is made.

The word, or group of words, representing that about which the assertion is made is the *subject* of the sentence.

EXAMPLES. This rose is red.

My clock is fast.

The clock on the mantle is slow.

## Exercise.

Write ten sentences, and underline the subject of each.

---

Chalk is white.  
 My red purse is lost.  
 The boys are coming to see us to-day.

In the first sentence, *white* is asserted of *chalk*; in the second, *lost* is asserted of *my red purse*; in the third, *coming to see us to-day* is asserted of *the boys*.

In every declarative sentence there is a word or group of words representing that which is asserted of the subject.

---

The chalk is white.  
 I am tired.  
 I have spoken.

In the first of these sentences, *is* asserts *white* of *the chalk*; in the second, *am* asserts *tired* of *I*; in the third, *have* asserts *spoken* of *I*.

In every declarative sentence there is a word or a group of words which asserts.

That which is asserted of the subject, together with that which asserts, is called the *predicate* of the sentence.

## Exercise.

Point out in each of the following sentences the part which is asserted and the part which asserts:—

- |                        |                               |
|------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. The boy is good.    | 3. The boy is my cousin.      |
| 2. The boy is a pupil. | 4. John was very industrious. |



5. The poor boy seems very tired.
6. The water is cool.
7. The cool water is running.
8. The winter will be coming very soon.
9. Charles was studying very industriously.
10. The wagon was struck by an engine.
11. The examples were done in five minutes.

---

Are you indignant?

In this sentence an inquiry is made about *you*; *you* is the subject of the sentence. *Indignant* is the idea whose relation to the subject is inquired about. It corresponds to the asserted part of the predicate of the declarative sentence. *Are* makes the inquiry. It corresponds to the asserter.

Children, be silent.

In this sentence a command is made to *children*; *children* is the subject of the sentence. *Silent* represents the condition which is commanded of *children*. It corresponds to the asserted part of the predicate of a declarative sentence. *Be* makes the command. It corresponds to the asserter.

Every interrogative or imperative sentence is composed of subject and predicate. Just as the predicate of a declarative sentence asserts something of the subject, so the predicate of an interrogative sentence inquires about the subject, and the predicate of an imperative sentence demands or requests something of the subject. In this book we use the word *assert* to mean assert, or inquire, or command, and *asserter* to mean that which asserts, inquires, or commands, and *assertion* to mean also inquiry and command.

If the sentence *Children, be silent*, had been addressed to the children without mentioning them, the command would have been *Be silent*, in which case the subject would be not mentioned, but understood.

In like manner, the declarative sentence *Thank you* means *I thank you*; the subject, *I*, though not expressed, is understood by the hearer.

#### Exercise.

Tell the entire subject and the entire predicate of each sentence given below. Separate each predicate into two parts, — the part asserted and the asserter.

EXAMPLE.	<u>That dog</u>	<sup>asserter.</sup> <u>is</u>	<sup>asserted</sup> <u>very fierce.</u>
	subj.		pred.

1. This watch is pretty.
2. My gold watch is ticking.
3. I was humming in school.
4. I am tired of the lesson.
5. My neighbor was riding.
6. The day is fair.
7. Was yesterday cloudy?
8. I was detained by the teacher.
9. The letter was written yesterday.
10. I have caught a large fish.
11. Be careful.
12. The large black dog is running in the garden.
13. My brother has gone to Boston.
14. Are you going with him?
15. The wagons were overturned at the bridge.
16. The early bird is a wise fellow.
17. Many spring blossoms are frozen.
18. The worm was caught by the early bird.
19. Was the worm wise?
20. The small brown book is lying on the table.
21. Be cautious, little worm.
22. Mary and John were reading.
23. A pair of horses were running away.

## 9. THE SUBJECT BASE.

A fine view of the harbor was obtained.

*View* is the base of the subject; it is modified by the words *a* and *fine*, and by the group of words, *of the harbor*. The base of the subject is that part which is modified by the rest of the entire subject.

The big boy who recited so well received the prize.

The subject base, *boy*, is modified by the words *the* and *big*, and by the group of words, *who recited so well*.

## Exercise.

Tell the base of the subject in each of these sentences, and tell whether the modifiers are words or groups of words: --

1. A large ship was driven ashore.
2. A good conscience will make a happy man.
3. A very high wind shook the windows violently.
4. Tall trees grow in the forest.
5. Are very large hats worn now?
6. Finely powdered sugar is used in making candy.
7. A bright and joyous procession of children danced gayly along the road, when the bells pealed.
8. The man who is not elated by success possesses true fortitude of mind.
9. Large red apples hang upon the branches.
10. Fools who came to scoff remained to pray.
11. The vessel on which we sailed was commanded by Captain Richard Pike.
12. The barking of the dogs roused the people.
13. Poor Jack fell to the ground.
14. True beauty dwells in deep retreats.
15. The stars of midnight shone brightly on the scene.
16. The man who is honest is always respected.
17. A fair little girl was sitting under a tree.
18. The heavily laden train was rolling into the station.

### 10. PARTS OF THE PREDICATE—ASSERTER (COPULA) AND COMPLEMENT.

That red apple is very sweet.

*That red apple* is the entire subject of this sentence; *apple* is the base of the subject; *that* and *red* are modifiers of *apple*, used to tell which apple is very sweet. *Is very sweet* is the entire predicate of this sentence; *is sweet* is the base of the predicate; *very sweet* expresses the entire idea asserted of *that red apple*; *sweet* is the base of the idea; *very* is a modifier of *sweet*; *is* is the asserter.

#### Exercise.

Select the entire subjects of the sentences that follow; select the base of each subject and name each of its modifiers.

Select the base of each idea asserted of the subject, and tell its modifiers.

1. Some autumn leaves are brown.
2. Many autumn leaves are very dark.
3. The bright spring grass is light green.
4. Are the leaves of the fir tree very dark green?
5. The new house is rather inconvenient.
6. Men of Company A, be steady in your aim.
7. The little boys might be more quiet.
8. The new wagon was badly broken.
9. The old oak tree is very unsteady.
10. Is the new dress dark blue?
11. The lost book was entirely new.
12. The broken wagon was soon mended.
13. The new play is very interesting.
14. An entire day was lost in the search.
15. Those among the audience who do not hear well may come up to the front.
16. That sort of person is often in trouble.
17. When will the new programme begin?

Name the entire predicate in each of the foregoing sentences.

It has been shown that a sentence consists of two parts, a subject and a predicate; and also that the predicate may consist of two parts, the asserter and that which is asserted. Since the asserter couples the thing asserted to the subject, it is often called the *copula*, a word which means to couple or unite, and since the asserted part completes the predicate, it is often called the *complement* of the predicate. That which is asserted is also an *attribute* of the subject. It may be called either a *complement* of the predicate or an *attribute* of the subject.

**The asserter, or copula, is that part of a predicate which asserts its complement of the subject.**

EXAMPLE. I am strong.

#### Exercise.

Point out the entire subject, the entire predicate, the asserter, and the entire complement or attribute in each of the following sentences:—

1. The spring weather is approaching.
2. Has the winter gone?
3. Our work for to-day is almost finished.
4. The melancholy days are come.
5. The first day of June was perfect.
6. The long vacation is approaching rapidly.
7. The children are waiting patiently.
8. Mary, be ready very early.
9. In every man's heart is a holy city.
10. A hot day was fading into a warm night.

#### 11. MODIFIED ASSERTERS AND COMPLEMENTS.

It has been seen that a subject may consist of a base and modifiers.

EXAMPLE. The small clock which ticks so fast is a good time-keeper.

*The small clock which ticks so fast* is the entire subject, of which *clock* is the base.

It has also been seen that the complement of a predicate, or that part which is asserted, may contain modifiers.

EXAMPLE. Our caller was a tall gentleman having side whiskers and wearing a military coat.

The base of this complement is *gentleman*, modified by *a*, *tall*, *having side whiskers*, and *wearing a military coat*.

An asserter (copula) also may consist of more than one word.

EXAMPLES. I may be at home to-morrow.

The train should have been started an hour ago.

The lamp had been lighted for some time.

It is not easy to say which part of such an asserter is the base and which words are modifiers, so the entire asserter is usually considered as one united whole.

EXAMPLE. I shall be happy when my work is finished.

*Shall be happy when my work is finished* is the entire predicate; its base is *shall be happy*, of which *shall be* is the asserter and *happy* the complement. The predicate base *shall be happy* is modified by the expression *when my work is finished*.

But there are instances when an asserter contains a word which is very plainly a modifier.

EXAMPLE. I shall soon be a sergeant.

*Shall soon be a sergeant* is the entire predicate, of which *shall soon be* is the asserter and *a sergeant* the complement. *Shall be sergeant* is the base of the predicate, *shall be* being the asserter, modified by *soon*; and *sergeant* being the base of the complement, modified by *a*.

#### Exercise.

Point out the predicate bases of the following sentences and separate each into asserter and complement, telling which asserters consist of more than one word: —

1. John was worried by the affair.
2. The messenger may be coming now.

3. Will the news be announced in the papers?
4. I have been annoyed by the false reports.
5. We shall be happy to make her acquaintance.
6. Mary, be prepared to go at a moment's notice.
7. I shall have been walking for two hours.
8. Washington is a beautiful city.
9. Are many persons employed in the New England factories?
10. How long have the children been gone?
11. The children have been gone three weeks.

## 12. KINDS OF COMPLEMENTS.

The boy was John.

The lady is my teacher.

The building is Grace Church.

In the first sentence, *was* asserts *John* of *the boy*: the predicate tells who the boy was. In the second, *is* asserts *my teacher* of *the lady*: the predicate tells who the lady is. In the third sentence, *is* asserts *Grace Church* of *the building*: the predicate tells what the building is.

The predicate may tell who or what the subject is; that is, it may assert the identity of the subject.

### Exercise.

Assert of each group of words given below an idea which tells who or what it is, or identifies it; as, My cousin is Henry Clark.

- |  |                                |
|--|--------------------------------|
| 1. The old man                                 | 6. These books                 |
| 2. The house on the hill                       | 7. Those gentlemen             |
| 3. My brother                                  | 8. The young child             |
| 4. Our neighbor                                | 9. My father                   |
| 5. These boys                                  | 10. The boy in the third grade |
| 11. The President of the United States         |                                |
| 12. The hero of the War with Spain             |                                |
| 13. The largest city in the world              |                                |
| 14. The line between Vermont and New Hampshire |                                |
| 15. The pupil on my left                       |                                |

Some girls are tall.  
The little boy is ill.

*Are* asserts *tall* of *some girls*. *Is* asserts *ill* of *the little boy*.

The predicate may assert a quality or condition of the subject.

#### Exercise.

Make sentences asserting qualities or conditions of the subjects given below :—

- |                        |                   |
|------------------------|-------------------|
| 1. The woods           | 6. John           |
| 2. Many children       | 7. The poor man   |
| 3. Yonder house        | 8. Flowers        |
| 4. The school children | 9. Young children |
| 5. Our horse           | 10. The apples    |

—◆—

The girls were weeping.  
The little boys are playing.

*Weeping* is asserted of *the girls* by the asserter *were*.  
What is asserted about *the little boys*?

The predicate may assert an action performed by the subject.

EXAMPLES. The faithful boys are learning.  
My friends may be coming.  
The poor creatures must be fighting.

#### Exercise.

Assert acts performed by the following :—

- |                      |                               |
|----------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. The young robin   | 6. The minister of our church |
| 2. My little kitten  | 7. Victoria, Queen of England |
| 3. The boys          | 8. John and Hortense          |
| 4. Charitable people | 9. My dog Carlo               |
| 5. George Washington | 10. Your brother              |

Assert acts that *have been* performed by the subjects in the exercise above. EXAMPLE. The young robin *has sung*.



The boy is loved.

The bad boys were punished.

*Is* asserts *loved* of *the boy*; that is, the predicate asserts that the subject receives the action. *Punished* is asserted of *the bad boys* by the asserter *were*.

**The predicate may assert an action received by the subject.**

#### Exercise.

Assert actions received by the following subjects: —

- |                               |                            |
|-------------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. The robin's nest           | 5. The city                |
| 2. The good ship Royal George | 6. The tower of the church |
| 3. The letter                 | 7. Many books              |
| 4. Lisbon                     | 8. The peach blossoms      |

#### Exercise.

Tell in each of the following sentences whether the complement indicates identity, description, action performed by the subject, or action received by the subject: —

1. The city of Lisbon was once destroyed by an earthquake.
2. The man who proposed the plan was Alexander Hamilton.
3. The clouds in the east were heavy and dark.
4. A procession of ragged bootblacks was moving down the street.
5. I am well and happy.
6. Are you well and happy?
7. Large numbers of birds were killed by the storm.
8. The man elected to the position is a citizen of the United States.
9. I am reading the life of Benjamin Franklin.
10. Many books were read by the pupils.
11. The boy has read the book.
12. To-morrow will be fine, I think.
13. Was he driving a pair of spirited horses?
14. Winter has gone.
15. The birds have built their nest in the tree.
16. Soldiers, be brave and patriotic.
17. The apples are sound.
18. Grapes are ripening in the sun.

## 13. THE VERB.

The dog is barking fiercely.

*Is barking* is the predicate base of this sentence. It consists of two parts: *barking*, which represents the action asserted of the subject; and *is*, which asserts.

The dog barks fiercely.

*Barks* is the predicate base of this sentence. The two parts of which every predicate base must consist are contained in the word *barks*. It represents the action asserted of the subject, and also asserts it.

## Exercise.

In the same way tell about the predicate base in each of the following sentences:—

- |                           |                      |
|---------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. The cow is eating hay. | 5. The cow eats hay. |
| 2. You are running.       | 6. You run.          |
| 3. He is walking slowly.  | 7. He walks slowly.  |
| 4. The men are working.   | 8. The men work.     |

Select the predicate base in each of the following sentences, and tell whether the action asserted and its assertion are contained in two parts or are united in one word:—

1. The thrush sings with a soft voice.
2. I hear the thrush singing softly.
3. The soft-voiced thrush is singing to me.

The clerk is writing well.

The clerk was writing.

The clerk writes well.

The clerk wrote.

In each of the above sentences an action is asserted of the subject. Name the action which is asserted. Tell in each case what office is performed by each of the words constituting the predicate base.

The wind blows fiercely.

I hear a loud noise.

The lark is singing sweetly.

In each of the above sentences an action is asserted of the subject.

Those words that represent action are called *verbs*. Select the verbs in the sentences above.



The boy is running swiftly.

*Running* is a complement base, and, as it represents action, it may be called a verbal complement.

The boy runs swiftly.

*Runs* is a predicate base, and as it both represents the action which is asserted of the subject — that is, takes the place of the verbal complement, — and asserts — that is, takes the place of the asserter, — it may be called a predicate verb.

A verb by its use may be a complement asserted of the subject; or by the way it is used it may combine within itself the complement and the asserter. A verb which is asserted of the subject is a **verbal complement**. A verb which is a combined complement and asserter is a **predicate verb**.

#### Exercise.

Change each of the following sentences, making the predicate base consist of a predicate verb:—

- |                                |                              |
|--------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. I am going quickly.         | 6. They are acting like men. |
| 2. They were eating candy.     | 7. He is falling.            |
| 3. The girl is writing poorly. | 8. You are skating too far.  |
| 4. The clerks are writing.     | 9. The boys are skating.     |
| 5. The clerk was writing.      | 10. The men are chopping.    |

In each of these ten sentences an action is asserted of the subject. What word expresses the action? In the sentences *The clerk writes*, *The clerk wrote*, tell what name is given to *writes* and *wrote*, and what each of these words does. Tell the time, present or past, that is represented by each predicate verb that you wrote in the last exercise, and tell how many things each predicate verb does. (It stands for the action asserted of the subject, asserts it, and represents the time of the action.)

#### Exercise.

Point out the subject and the predicate of each of the following sentences. Tell in each case whether the predicate base consists of a predicate verb or of an asserter and complement.

1. Dogs are barking.
2. The earth is wrapped in snow.
3. What is contained in air ?
4. Fresh air contains plenty of oxygen.
5. The letter was written by a lawyer.
6. I found one man among a thousand.
7. Make it well, girls.
8. The leaves of memory seem to make  
A mournful rustling in the dark.
9. The night shall be filled with music.
10. The light of other days is faded.
11. I am your friend.
12. Are you my friend?
13. We have been friends together  
In sunshine and in shade.
14. I see them on their winding way.
15. The man was thrown from his horse.
16. Write well, sir.
17. Does he write well?
18. The letter is written.

*To have* originally meant *to hold*, which implied action ; and words asserting possession are also called verbs. And

many words which tell what some one or something *does*, though they indicate little or no exertion, are really of the same nature as action words, and are hence called verbs.

EXAMPLES. I have a cold.

The crowd stood patiently.

I sat by the fire.

The book lies on the table.

Even such words as *is*, *are*, *was*, which express merely being or existence, are usually classed as verbs.

EXAMPLE. "I think, therefore I am."

Words that represent doing, having, or being are called *verbs*.

#### Exercise.

Select the verbs in the following sentences. Tell whether each is a verbal complement or a predicate verb, and tell why each is a verb.

1. I own no house.
2. Foxes have holes in the ground.
3. I remained silent.
4. The snow lies on the ground.
5. The birds of the air have nests.
6. Drowsiness shall clothe a man with rags.
7. These short bushes have many beautiful flowers.
8. Have they leaves also?
9. A large gray cat lay on the hearth.
10. Have you sung also?
11. The river Rhine doth wash your city of Cologne.
12. I shall light a candle of understanding in thine heart.

#### 14. SUBJECT MODIFIERS.

The good boy who studies will be happy.

*Boy* is the base of the entire subject, *The good boy who studies*. *The*, *good*, *who studies*, and *happy* are all modifiers of the subject base, describing *boy*.

The modifier of an ordinary subject base is an *adjective modifier*.

Adjective modifiers generally tell what kind, which, how many, or whose.

What kind : Beautiful flowers grow by the brook.  
Sweet oranges grow in Florida.  
Charming music was heard.

Which : Those roses are red.  
The ship that sailed a month ago was lost.  
The book of poems lay on the table.

How many : Two little birds sat on a stone.  
Twelve objects make a dozen.  
Many persons witnessed the tragedy.  
Stars without number illumine the sky.

Whose : My jacket is thick.  
The wife of the President held a reception.  
John's book is lost.

#### Exercise.

Point out the adjective modifiers in the following sentences, and tell in each case whether the modifier is a word or a group of words, and whether its relation to the subject base is assumed or asserted :—

1. The man on the horse is a miller.
2. My friend, Mr. Brown, is handsome.
3. Those apples in the basket are pippins.
4. The trees on our street are horse-chestnuts.
5. His cousin, who left town yesterday, was bright and attractive.
6. Large bunches of grapes were ripe.
7. Many large dogs are gentle.
8. Are these children twins?
9. Two men who passed the house were strangers.
10. The book which I lost was illustrated.
11. The house on the hill is old and forsaken.
12. Many men in America are inventors.
13. Sudden changes are disagreeable.

## 15. PREDICATE MODIFIERS.

A verb may be modified, whether it is used as predicate verb or as verbal complement.

- EXAMPLES. I am running rapidly.  
The man struck the nail.  
The clouds hurried across the sky.  
The fence was buried by snowdrifts.

---

I wrote a long letter.

What group of words indicates the object which received the action asserted of the subject?

All the children loved their teacher.

What group of words indicates who received the feeling asserted of the subject?

That which limits the action which the verb expresses, by *receiving* it, is the objective modifier of the verb, called generally the *object* of the verb.

- 
- I write *slowly*.  
I write *sometimes*.  
I am writing *on thin paper*.  
I write *because I like to*.

These modifiers of the verb do not limit the action by receiving it, but modify it by giving the manner, time, place, or reason of its performance.

That which modifies the verb, without receiving any action, is called an *adverbial modifier*.

## Exercise.

Tell whether the underlined modifiers in the following sentences are objective or adverbial: —

1. A cloud floated across the sky.  
I
2. It dropped rain upon the earth.  
I 2
3. The earth welcomed the warm rain gladly.  
I 2
4. The flowers soon raised their heads when they felt the water falling.  
I 2
5. They smiled, for they were refreshed.  
I

Supply adverbial modifiers to the verbs in the following sentences, and supply objects wherever possible: —

- |                           |                  |
|---------------------------|------------------|
| 1. The boy whistled —     | 4. They ran —    |
| 2. He called —            | 5. He rejoiced — |
| 3. His companions heard — | 6. They joined — |



The fire *destroyed* the house.  
I *have* many books.

These predicate bases represent the subject as acting or having, and are therefore called **active**. What are their objective modifiers?

But not all active predicate bases need take objective modifiers.

EXAMPLE. The baby cried.

An adverbial modifier may tell anything about the manner, or time, or place, or cause of the doing, having, or being expressed by the verb.

How:           The man spoke earnestly.  
                  The boy studied with industry.  
                  The boy studied as if he were in earnest.



- Where :    The President lives here.  
               The President lives in Washington.  
               The President lives where Congress meets.
- When :     The capital was moved then.  
               The capital was moved in the year 1800.  
               The capital was moved when the time had expired.
- Why :      I go since duty calls me.  
               I therefore followed.  
               I followed for a good reason.

Since an objective modifier receives an action it generally represents a person or a thing.

EXAMPLE. I wrote the letter.

*The letter*, which receives the action, is a thing.

EXAMPLE. Cain killed Abel.

*Abel*, who receives the action, is a person.

But any expression may be used as an object.

EXAMPLES. He dislikes to go out in rainy weather.

They do not know whether he will come or not.

## 16. ESSENTIAL AND ACCESSORY ELEMENTS.

A sentence must contain a subject and a predicate; even the imperative sentences, such as *Be still*, which seem to have no subjects, really give the command to some one whose name is understood to be the subject. These are the necessary parts, or elements, of the sentence. They are called **essential elements**; the subject is called the substantive element, and the predicate is called the predicative element.

But it is only the base of each of these elements which is really essential. The adjective modifiers contained within

the subject, and the adverbial and objective modifiers contained within the predicate, are not essential to the existence of the sentence; they are therefore merely helping or accessory elements.

—◆—

The day is *dark and dreary*.

This day is *Sunday*.

The complement of a predicate, if it indicates the identity of, or a description of, the subject, is really an adjective element; yet it is also a necessary part of the predicate. It is therefore not an accessory element, as is the adjective modifier which is contained within the subject, and whose relation to the subject is assumed.

#### Exercise.

Point out the essential elements in each of the following sentences; give the base of each; and show which elements are accessory: —

1. Will the day be bright?
2. Some days must be dark and dreary.
3. I'm a pilgrim, I'm a stranger.
4. I may be ready by noon.
5. I was busy all the morning.
6. I wrote a composition on George Washington.
7. Mrs. Burnett has written many stories.
8. Mary was writing when I called.
9. John has been skating since luncheon.
10. We may skate to-morrow if the weather is fine.
11. The children might have skated yesterday.
12. We may drive to-morrow if the roads are good.
13. Sand is blown about the desert by the wind.
14. The army was forced to surrender.
15. The child must be forced to give attention.
16. Come, children, to me.
17. General Grant received orders from the government at Washington.
18. Our men were ordered to fire.

19. The bridge was carried away during the freshet.
20. Spring includes three months.
21. This nation owns Alaska.
22. The army camped by the river.
23. Where did we rest?
24. We sailed across the sea.
25. Beethoven was a great musician.
26. The news was carried rapidly.
27. The boy hurt his feet.
28. The Fourth of July is celebrated all over the country.
29. He lifted the child in his strong arms.
30. Lotty was lifted by Adam's strong arms.

### 17. ADVERBIAL COMPLEMENTS.

There remains one variety of predicate about which some discussion is necessary.

An asserter (copula) may be used to assert the relation of a complement which represents the position or the time of the subject.

- EXAMPLES. 1. The good children are here.  
 2. These birds are early.  
 3. The sick child is at home.

These complements, indicating time and place, must be regarded as modifiers, since they are not verbs. The question is, what do they modify? They can be used to modify a subject, bearing then an assumed relation.

- EXAMPLES. 1. The good children are here.  
 The children here are good.  
 2. Wise birds are early.  
Early birds are wise.  
 3. The sick child is at home.  
 The child at home is sick.

They are not, as complements, really descriptive of the subject like ordinary adjective complements, but are restrictive. Compare the examples given with such sentences as —

1. The good children live here.
2. Wise birds rise early.
3. The sick child stays at home.

In all these cases the elements of time or place are clearly adverbial, modifying the predicate verbs *live*, *rise*, *stays*. But the asserters *are* and *is* are not ordinarily considered predicate verbs to be modified by adverbial elements. The truth is, however, that these asserting words used as copulas were formerly predicate verbs, meaning *lives*, *breathes*, etc., but have almost wholly lost their old meanings, because of their use to assert relation. Many old grammarians consider that *early*, *here*, *at home*, used as complements, are adverbial modifiers of the copula. It is, however, better to treat them as adjective modifiers of the subject.

By one view, in the sentence *I am here*, *am* is a predicate verb, being modified by the adverbial modifier *here*. By the other view, *here* is an asserted adjective element, being asserted of the subject by theasserter *am*.

Such a modifier as *here* or *in the corner* is often placed after the subject base as an adjective modifier.

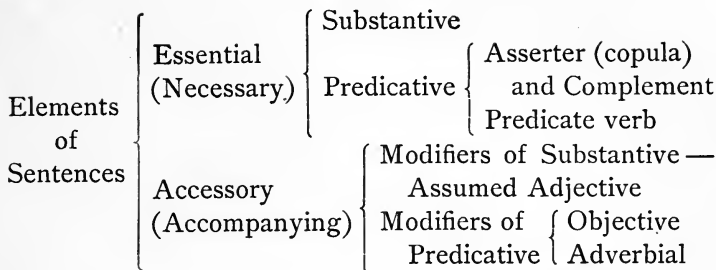
#### Exercise.

Give two possible views of the predicates in the following sentences :

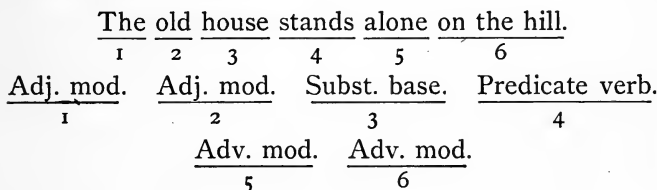
- |                                 |                                |
|---------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. The book was there.          | 5. They were here in December. |
| 2. It is now in the house.      | 6. Were you at home?           |
| 3. Spring is here.              | 7. He was not in his room.     |
| 4. The travelers are in Europe. | 8. God is in the tempest.      |

An adverbial element may modify a verbal complement, or a predicate verb, or anasserter.

18. REVIEW.



Example in analysis : —



WHAT AN ELEMENT IN A SENTENCE SHOULD BE CALLED DEPENDS ENTIRELY ON ITS USE IN THE SENTENCE. An element usually used as a subject may be used as an adjective modifier; an adjective modifier may become a substantive element. The uses of other elements can be changed, also. The question to be decided in analyzing is always, For what is this word, or this group of words, used? The answer to this question decides what it shall be called.

**Exercise.**

Analyze the following : —

1. The oil in the lamp mounts high into the wick.
2. The perfectly cold night was quiet.
3. He was a stalwart knight.
4. His clothes were patched and torn.
5. Why do you sing?

6. He rode with short stirrups.
7. His enemies shall lick the dust.
8. John Lee wore an old drab coat.
9. The woods tossed their branches against a stormy sky.
10. The little boy told the story well.
11. He said, "Stay, my men."
12. Ben Hur answered, "I am the son of Judah."
13. The boy's father punished him.
14. James brought it to me.
15. Many children were playing on the lawn.
16. They have written the exercises rapidly.
17. The books lay on the grass all night.
18. A hymn was played on the organ.
19. The church was cold.
20. In India along the Ganges River the white poppy is raised.
21. After long heavy rains some rivers become so high that they overflow their banks.
22. The lioness when hungry will watch noiselessly for her prey.
23. Arthur did not pass a sleepless night.
24. I black my shoes every morning.
25. Where is my mother?
26. Did the kettle boil?
27. Where can rest be found?
28. What does little birdie say?
29. In what way can I serve you?
30. How peaceful was the day!
31. Children, listen to my cry!
32. Why do we mourn departed friends!
33. Under what circumstances will you consent to my request?

### Synthetic Exercise.

Write sentences according to the following analysis:—

1. Adj. mod.    Subst. base.    Pred. base.    Adv. mod.  
                   1                   2                   3                   4
2. Adj. mod.    Adj. mod.    Subst. base.    Pred. base.    Adv. mod.  
                   1                   2                   3                   4                   5
3. Subst. base.    Pred. base.    Obj. mod.    Adv. mod.  
                   1                   2                   3                   4

## CHAPTER III. — CLASSIFICATION OF ELEMENTS ACCORDING TO STRUCTURE.

### SYNOPSIS.

The words in a sentence representing the ideas which are related may be called the *idea words* of the sentence.

The words in a sentence expressing the relations between the idea words may be called *relation words*.

An element whose relation to its principal is known without the use of a relation word is a word element; its base is a single word.

A word asserting the relation of a subordinate element to its principal is an *asserter*; one only showing the relation (if the subordinate element is not a clause) is a *preposition*.

An element consisting of an idea part and a relation part (*asserter* or *preposition*) is a *phrase*.

A sentence in which one clause forms an element in another clause is a *complex sentence*.

The relation of a clause element to the principal which it modifies is generally shown by a relation word called a *subordinate connective*.

A subordinate connective sometimes performs also the office of an idea element in the subordinate clause.

### Section I. — Word and Phrase Elements.

#### 19. IDEA WORDS AND RELATION WORDS.

Five regiments of cavalry were ordered to the front.

*Five* is related to *regiments*, showing how many regiments. *Cavalry* is related to *regiments*, showing what kind of regiments. *Ordered* is related to *regiments*, showing what was done to regiments. *The front* is related to *ordered*. What does it show?

The ideas represented in a sentence are related to one another. Name all the words in the sentence just analyzed which stand for these related ideas.

*Were* asserts the relation of *ordered* to *regiments*. What word shows the relation of *cavalry* to *regiments*? What word shows the relation of *the front* to *ordered*?

Though any word may be said to represent an idea, yet those words in a sentence which express the chief ideas — those which are related — may be called the **idea words** of the sentence. Name the idea words in the sentence at the beginning of this lesson.

The words showing the relations of the idea words to one another may be called **relation words**. Name the relation words in the sentence at the beginning of this lesson. Is the asserter (copula) mainly an idea word or a relation word?

#### Exercise.

Select the idea words and the relation words in the following sentences:—

1. Good sons are generally good husbands.
2. Several birds with bright plumage are flying over the green meadow.
3. Peace of mind is valuable.
4. Each stroke of the bell fell solemnly on his ear.
5. One deed of kindness is worth ten words of affection.

### 20. PRINCIPAL AND SUBORDINATE.

What is the base of an element? (p. 12.)

These very small boys are naughty.

What is the entire subject? What is the base of the subject? By what is *boys* modified?

*These* and *very small* are said to be subordinate to *boys*,



and *boys* is called the principal to which these modifiers are subordinate. *Naughty* also is said to be subordinate to *boys*, since its use is to describe *boys*, and *boys* is called the principal of *naughty*.

What is the base of the element *very small*? What word modifies *small*? *Small* is the principal to which the modifier *very* is subordinate.

A modifier is said to be *subordinate* to the base which it modifies.  
The base of an element is the *principal* of its modifiers.

### Exercise.

Tell what the principals are which the underlined subordinate elements modify.

1. A bunch of flowers lay on the table.
2. The teacher, smiling slightly, corrected my mistake.
3. These very mischievous kittens tore up the flower bed.

## 21. PHRASES.

He leaned on crutches.

What is the idea word of the element *on crutches*? To what principal is *crutches* related? What is the relation word which shows the relation of *crutches* to *leaned*?

The bucket *of water* is heavy.

What shows the relation of the idea word in the subordinate element to its principal?

The bucket *is full*.

What is the idea word in the predicate *is full*? What is the principal which *full* describes? What is the relation word which expresses the relation of *full* to *bucket*?

**Exercise.**

Select the idea words and the relation words of the underlined elements in the following sentences. Tell, in each case, which of the related words is principal and which is subordinate.

1. The storm blew from the north.
2. The storm from the north did much damage.
3. Upon the hill the old house stands.
4. The expression of her face was beautiful.
5. The trial of strength to which I was put tired me beyond endurance.

Some elements consist of two parts, one to represent an idea, and the other to show its relation. Such an element is called a *phrase*.

EXAMPLE. I ran to the prostrate man.

*The prostrate man* is the idea part; *to* is the relation part.

EXAMPLE. The man stands on the platform.

In the phrase *on the platform*, *on* is the relation part, and *the platform* is the idea part; *the* modifies the idea word *platform*.

**Exercise.**

Select the phrases out of each of the following sentences and tell what are their idea parts and what are their relation parts:—

1. The trial of the last prisoner is over.
2. Send to my father an account of the matter.
3. The girl on the platform speaks with great distinctness.
4. In the heat of the moment I wrote a very sharp letter.

**22. PREPOSITIONAL AND ASSERTIVE PHRASES.**

We were tired of play.

*Of* shows the relation of *play* to its principal, *tired*.

The boy is happy.

The man was a butcher.

*Is* asserts the relation of *happy* to its principal, *boy*.

*Was* asserts the relation of the idea part, *a butcher*, to its principal, *man*.

The predicate consisting of an asserter and an attribute is a phrase, but here the asserter, which is the relation word, *asserts* the relation, instead of only *showing* it.

A phrase of this particular kind is both predicative and adjective, since its base both asserts and describes or restricts. As its relation part is an asserter, it is called an assertive phrase.

Words of wisdom were spoken.

The train arrived on time.

*Of* shows the relation of *wisdom* to its principal, *words*.

*On* shows the relation of *time* to its principal, *arrived*.

A phrase thus introduced by a word which indicates, without asserting, the relation of the idea part to its principal, is called a prepositional phrase; its relation word is called a preposition.

A phrase element is an element which consists of one part to represent an idea and another part to show its relation.

The relation word which asserts the relation of the idea part of a phrase to its principal is called an *asserter*.

The relation word which only indicates the relation of the idea part of a phrase to its principal is called a *preposition*.

EXAMPLE. The stars of the flag are white.

I 2

1. *Of the flag* is an adjective phrase; its idea part is *the flag*, whose relation to *stars* is indicated by *of*.

2. *Are white* is an assertive phrase; its idea part is *white*, whose relation to its principal, *stars*, is asserted by the asserter *are*.

EXAMPLE. The large house on the hill is a hospital.

I 2 .

1. *On the hill* is an adjective phrase; its idea part is *the hill*, whose relation to its principal, *house*, is shown by the preposition *on*.

2. *Is a hospital* is an assertive phrase; its idea part is *a hospital*, whose relation to *house* is asserted by *is*.

EXAMPLE. We go to school to study.

1                      2

1. *To school* is an adverbial phrase; its idea part is *school*, whose relation to its principal, *go*, is shown by the relation word *to*.

2. *To study* is an adverbial phrase; its idea part is *study*, whose relation to its principal, *go*, is shown by the relation word *to*.

### Exercise.

Select the phrases in the following sentences, and tell of each whether it is prepositional or assertive, and what kind of an element it is: —

1. A smile on her lip means joy to me.
2. The river was rapid at that place.
3. I am sure you are right.
4. The stars in the sky were reflected in the water.
5. By day we labor, and at night we are tired.

### 23. RELATION SHOWN BY POSITION AND FORM.

*The man killed the boy* means something very different from *The boy killed the man*. This difference in meaning depends entirely on the relative positions of the two words, *man* and *boy*. For the same reason, *All deaf cats are blue-eyed* does not mean *All blue-eyed cats are deaf*.

*I also loved him* means something very different from *I loved him also*.

*The man again told him to go* means something different from *The man told him to go again*.

*The dying father blessed his child* means something different from *The father blessed his dying child*.

*I only had five cents* should mean something different from *I had only five cents*.

One way of showing the relations of words is by position.

John's hat.

The bird's home.

That man's horse.

Mary's doll.

He, his; it, its.

She, her, hers.

Another way of indicating relation is by an alteration in the usual form of a word. This change of form is called **inflection**.

The general received our request *courteously*.

The general received *courteously* our request.

The general *courteously* received our request.

*Courteously* the general received our request.

In every case, what is the principal of the word *courteously*? Neither a change of position or of form, nor a relation word, is needed to show the relation of this word to its principal. The sense, or logic, of the sentence demands that we shall understand the relation between *courteously* and *received*.

An element whose base is a single word is called a *word element*.

The relation of a word element may be shown by position, by inflection, or by both position and inflection, or it may be known merely by the logic of the sentence.

EXAMPLE. The silly young man spent his father's money freely.

The relations between the words of this sentence are shown by their positions; in the words *his* and *father's*, they are also shown by form, or inflection. Each of the elements in the sentence is a word element.

The entire element, *The silly young man*, is a word element, since its *base* is a single word, *man*. Also, *spent his father's money freely* is a word element, its base being the single word *spent*. *His father's money* is also a word element, the base being the one word *money*.

**A word element is one whose base is a single word.**

## 24. REVIEW.

$\frac{3}{\text{A}} \frac{4}{\text{very lofty}} \frac{5}{\text{pine tree}} \frac{6}{\text{marked}} \frac{7}{\text{the spot well}}.$   
 1 2

1. *A very lofty pine tree* is a substantive word element, of which *tree* is the base.

2. *Marked the spot well* is a predicative word element, of which *marked* is the base.

3. *A* is an adjective word element limiting the meaning of the word *tree*.

4. *Very lofty* is an adjective word element giving additional meaning to the word *tree*; its base is *lofty*.

5. *Pine* is an adjective word element giving additional meaning to the word *tree*.

6. *The spot* is an objective word element limiting the meaning of *marked*; its base is *spot*.

7. *Well* is an adverbial word element giving additional meaning to *marked*.

## Exercise.

Analyze the following according to the foregoing model:—

1.  $\frac{3}{\text{A}} \frac{4}{\text{fine}} \frac{5}{\text{young}} \frac{6}{\text{kitten}} \frac{7}{\text{played}} \frac{6}{\text{there}} \frac{7}{\text{friskily}}.$   
 1 2

2.  $\frac{3}{\text{My}} \frac{4}{\text{neighbor, Mr. Smith,}} \frac{5}{\text{shod}} \frac{6}{\text{my horse}} \frac{7}{\text{very well}} \frac{7}{\text{yesterday.}}$   
 1 2

3.  $\frac{3}{\text{Her father's}} \frac{4}{\text{old horse}} \frac{5}{\text{lost}} \frac{6}{\text{his shoe}} \frac{6}{\text{yesterday morning.}}$   
 1 2

4.  $\frac{3}{\text{These}} \frac{4}{\text{brave boys}} \frac{5}{\text{rescued}} \frac{6}{\text{their companions}} \frac{6}{\text{very nobly.}}$   
 1 2

Analyze the word elements in the following sentences : —

1. Four famous men traveled together.
2. My cousin Mary reads remarkably well.
3. Yonder cloud means rain.
4. Her brother's wooden horse rocked slowly.
5. A fine-looking company marched past.
6. Truly generous people do much good.
7. Seven red-cheeked little boys skated together.
8. The old lady had handsome gray hair.
9. Beautiful white chrysanthemums grow here.
10. A brisk fire blazed cheerfully.
11. Come close, sir.
12. A handsomely illustrated geography lay on the table.
13. What does yonder cloud mean ?

Supply word modifiers (each consisting of a single word), to the following bases : —

- |                  |                 |
|------------------|-----------------|
| 1. Apples ripen. | 4. Cousin went. |
| 2. Horse ran.    | 5. Boys ran.    |
| 3. Band played.  |                 |

Supply word modifiers (one of them consisting of more than one word), to each of the following bases : —

- |                     |                      |
|---------------------|----------------------|
| 1. Flower grew.     | 4. Children studied. |
| 2. Children played. | 5. Man spoke.        |
| 3. Boy behaved.     |                      |

## 25. WORD MODIFIERS IN PHRASES.

The presence of a modifier in any element does not alter the class of the element ; a phrase is still a phrase though it contains a modifier.

EXAMPLE. We go to the new school to study arithmetic.

I

2

1. *To the new school* is an adverbial phrase, *the* and *new* being modifiers of the idea word *school*, the base of the idea part.

2. *To study arithmetic* also is an adverbial phrase, *arithmetic* modifying the idea word *study*.

A prepositional phrase often contains modifiers which belong to the idea part only.

EXAMPLE. The mass of fleecy clouds.

*Fleecy* modifies only the idea word *clouds*, in the phrase *of fleecy clouds*.

EXAMPLE. I desire to see you soon.

*You* and *soon* modify only the idea word *see*, in the phrase *to see you soon*.

An assertive phrase also often contains modifiers which belong to the complement only.

EXAMPLE. I am a rapid writer.

*A* and *rapid* modify only the idea word *writer*, in the phrase *am a rapid writer*.

EXAMPLE. She is very rich.

*Very* modifies only the idea word *rich*, in the phrase *is very rich*.

The assertive phrase, however, may contain words apparently modifying the asserter mainly.

EXAMPLE. I am now poor.

In truth the entire phrase *am poor* is modified by *now*, but *now* seems to throw its modifying force on *am* chiefly.

## 26. REVIEW.

### Exercise.

Analyze the underlined phrases in the following sentences:—

1. The clock in the corner was an heirloom.  
I 2
2. The plant in the window is a geranium.  
I 2
3. The seas were high.  
I
4. The physician studied to obtain a diploma.  
I
5. The grapes on the plate are very sour.  
I 2



6. An invitation to the wedding arrived on Friday.

I

7. The desire to stay was strong.

I

2

8. I worked hard to finish my task.

I

Insert phrase modifiers in the following sentences :

1. The lesson (adjective prepositional phrase element, beginning with *on*) tired me.
2. Our work (assertive phrase element, beginning with *was*).
3. The ship (adjective prepositional phrase element, beginning with *in*) ran ashore.
4. It ran (adverbial prepositional phrase element, beginning with *on*).

## 27. PHRASES CONTAINING PHRASE MODIFIERS.

The modifiers of the idea words in phrase elements, so far considered, have been word modifiers.

EXAMPLE. The windows in our new house are broken.

*Our* and *new* are word modifiers of the idea word *house*, in the phrase *in our new house*.

EXAMPLE. The windows in that perfectly new house are broken.

*That* and *perfectly new* are word modifiers of the idea word *house*.

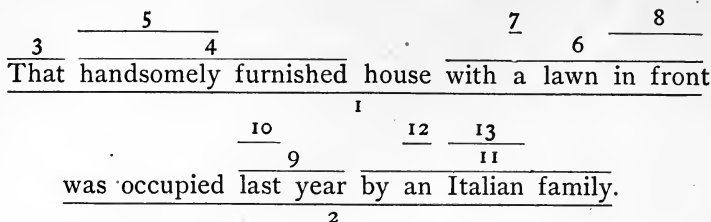


The windows in the house on the hill are broken.

*On the hill* is a phrase modifying its principal, *house*; but *house* is itself the main idea word of the entire phrase *in the house on the hill*.

We were playmates of the boy.

Similarly, in the phrase *were playmates of the boy*, the main idea word, *playmates*, is modified by the phrase *of the boy*.



1. A word element containing word modifiers and a phrase modifier.

2. A phrase element containing a word and a phrase modifier.

3. A word element.

4. A word element containing a word modifier.

5. A word element.

6. A phrase element containing a word and a phrase modifier.

7. A word element.

8. A phrase element.

9. A word element containing a word modifier.

10. A word element.

11. A phrase element containing word modifiers.

12. A word element.

13. A word element.

#### Exercise.

According to the foregoing model, analyze the following sentences : —

1. 3 4 5 6 7  
A swiftly flowing stream very rapidly cut away the hill.  
I 2
2. 3 4 5  
The bank to the left of the house fell first.  
I 2
3. 3 4  
We watched with dismay the approach of the waters.  
I 2

## Section II. — Clauses.

## 28. CLAUSES.

[I am rash. I admit it.] may be equivalent to [I admit that I am rash.]

[He is ill. It worries me.] may be equivalent to [That he is ill worries me.]

[The man is here. He is my brother.] may be equivalent to [The man who is here is my brother.]

[You wish it. I will go.] may be equivalent to [I will go because you wish it.]

[I see you. You see me.] may be equivalent to —

- a. I see you and you see me.
- b. I see you because you see me.
- c. I see you; therefore you see me.
- d. I see you who see me.
- e. You, whom I see, see me.

What is a clause? (p. 20.) The sentence *I see you and you see me* can readily be divided into two clauses, either of which makes a complete sentence when separated from the other. The sentence *I see you who see me* cannot be so divided, for *who see me* is not a sentence. It must be changed by the substitution of *you* for *who* to make it a correct sentence. But it has the two essential elements of a sentence, the subject and predicate. Hence we call it a clause.

**A subject and predicate combined form a clause.**

**A sentence consisting of only one clause is a simple sentence.**

Frequently, however, a sentence contains more than one clause.

In some cases the clauses are joined by simply adding one to the other.

EXAMPLE. I went to the fire, and John followed me.

These clauses are of equal importance, and are hence called **coördinate**.

#### Exercise.

Unite the following sentences so that each pair may be coördinate clauses in a new sentence:—

1. The rain falls. The wind blows.
2. Many voices were heard. He heeded them not.
3. You will go. I shall go too.

A sentence consisting of two or more coördinate clauses is a *compound sentence*.



The man is very handsome. He spoke to me.  
The man who spoke to me is very handsome.

The clause *who spoke to me* is not of equal importance with the other clause, but is a subordinate element within the other clause. It is therefore called a **subordinate clause**, while the clause which contains it is called the **principal clause**.

The clock has run down. I bought it.  
The clock which I bought has run down.

*Which I bought* is an adjective element modifying the subject base.

I went down town. The sun was down.  
I went down town when the sun was down.

*When the sun was down* is an adverbial element modifying the predicate base.

I know it. He is elected.

I know that he is elected.

*That he is elected* is an objective element within the principal clause.

#### Exercise.

Select principal and subordinate clauses from the following sentences :—

1. I know that my Redeemer liveth.
2. That the old man suffered was evident to all.
3. He who would search for pearls must dive below.
4. We hurried home because the rain was falling.

A sentence composed of a principal clause containing one or more subordinate clauses is a *complex* sentence.

#### Exercise.

Combine the following sentences so as to form complex sentences :—

1. The young lady sings well. She is my cousin.
2. Lord Tennyson died in 1892. He was the Poet Laureate of England.
3. The bell has rung. I believe it.

## 29. USES OF SUBORDINATE CLAUSES.

The man who applied for a place failed in his examination.

That we desire it is well known.

The lady fainted when she heard the shots.

I saw where the man fell.

*Who applied for a place* is an adjective element modifying *man*. *That we desire it* is a substantive element. *When she heard the shots* is an adverbial element. *Where the man fell* is an objective element.

A clause can perform the office of a substantive element, an adjective element, an adverbial element, or an objective element, but not of a predicative element.

**Exercise.**

Point out the subordinate clauses in the following sentences, and tell whether they are substantive, adjective, adverbial, or objective: —

1. The apples which grew in the young orchard are the sweetest.
2. Make hay while the sun shines.
3. That the days are growing shorter is plainly observable.
4. A stone was placed where Warren fell.
5. She speaks as she feels.
6. The place where the date grows is far distant.
7. The man to whom the speaker referred lived long ago.
8. Angels listen when she speaks.
9. Fools rush in where angels fear to tread.
10. He that wrestles with us strengthens our nerves and sharpens our skill.
11. I believe that all will yet be well.
12. The time when men were persecuted for their religious beliefs has long since passed away.
13. What you want is suspected.
14. The mountains over which Hannibal crossed are the Alps.
15. We expect that the train will be late.
16. Why the man rode so dangerous a horse was not explained.

**Exercise.**

1. Form a complex sentence with a subordinate clause used as substantive element.
2. Form a complex sentence with a subordinate clause used as adjective element.
3. Form a complex sentence with a subordinate clause used as adverbial element.
4. Form a complex sentence with a subordinate clause used as an objective element.
5. Form complex sentences with subordinate clauses introduced by *that*; by *what*; by *why*; by *where*; by *when*.

**30. BASES OF CLAUSES.**

In the subordinate clause, as in the principal clause, the base must consist of two parts.

A hint which I gave him sufficed.

The principal clause is *A hint which I gave him sufficed*, in which the subject base is *hint*, and the predicate base is *sufficed*. The base of the clause is *hint sufficed*.

The subordinate clause is *which I gave him*, in which the subject base is *I*, and the predicate base is *gave*. The base of the clause is *I gave*.

The base of a clause consists of a subject base joined to a predicate base.

#### Exercise.

Select the principal clause, the subordinate clause, and the base of each clause in the following:—

1. The injury from which I suffered destroyed my sight.
2. I hope that you will be in time for the train.
3. The fire burned until no fuel remained.
4. While I was musing the fire burned.
5. "It's a dark night," sang the cricket.

Unite the following in all possible ways to form complex sentences, and analyze the sentences thus formed:—

1. We traveled through Maine. The leaves were turning red.
2. The man preached in London. He was Charles Spurgeon.
3. Columbus reached the mainland. It was in 1498.
4. Lord Byron was a poet. He wrote "Childe Harold's Pilgrimage."

- 
- Refined* women do not use slang. (Adj. word element.)  
 Women *of refinement* do not use slang. (Adj. phrase element.)  
 Women *who are refined* do not use slang. (Adj. clause element.)  
 He came *then*. (Adv. word element.)  
 He came *at the moment*. (Adv. phrase element.)  
 He came *when it was seven o'clock*. (Adv. clause element.)

**Exercise.**

Enlarge the underscored word elements to phrase and clause elements performing the same office : —

1. Beautiful homes nestled in the valley.
2. Boston is situated there.
3. A celebrated pianist played before the Queen.
4. The days are fine now.
5. The U.S. Treasury building is located here.
6. An honest man is the noblest work of God.

**31. SUBORDINATE CONNECTIVES.**

I know that I have met you before.

What is the principal clause? What is the subordinate clause? What word in the principal clause is the principal of the subordinate clause? What word joins the subordinate clause to its principal?

An adjective clause, an adverbial clause, or an objective clause generally contains a relation word which joins it to its principal in the main clause. This relation word is called a subordinate connective.

**EXAMPLES.** The man who entered saw you.

Five witnesses whom I examined declared it.

I know how you do it.

The point toward which I ran was distant.

I know what I want.



I know I have met you before.

This sentence means the same as the first one in the lesson.

A subordinate connective may sometimes be omitted.



## Exercise.

In each of the following sentences point out or supply (if possible) the subordinate connective which shows the relation of the subordinate clause to its principal.

1. Health is a blessing which money cannot buy.
2. He visited the South when the roses were in bloom.
3. I do not know how I shall go.
4. It was the time when lilies bloom.
5. We saw the house in Cambridge where Washington had his headquarters during the Revolution.
6. The man from whom I ordered the photographs was an agent.
7. The five boys who spoke to me belong to Company E.
8. The dogs eat of the crumbs which fall from the rich man's table.
9. When she had passed it seemed like the ceasing of exquisite music.
10. The house you want is rented.
11. "Come to me," said he.
12. I know you saw me.

—◆—

*What* he said is the question.

*That* you did it is certain.

*Why* I spoke was unknown.

*Who* he could be puzzled me.

Since a substantive clause does not modify any part of the principal clause, the relation word with which it begins does not join it to any principal, but merely introduces it.

A complex sentence consists of a principal clause containing one or more subordinate clauses.

The relation word which introduces a subordinate clause or which joins it to its principal in the principal clause is called a *subordinate connective*.

### 32. OFFICES OF SUBORDINATE CONNECTIVES.

The subordinate connective resembles the preposition in that they both show the relation of a subordinate element to its principal.

The gentleman *who* entered just now owns the house.

I know *what* you like.

I see *how* you do it.

I will go *when* the rain ceases.

*Who* joins the adjective clause to its principal, *gentleman*, and is also the subject of the subordinate clause.

*What* joins the objective clause to its principal, *know*, and is also an objective word modifier of *like* in the subordinate clause.

*How* joins the objective clause element to its principal, *see*, and is also an adverbial modifier of the predicate verb, *do*, in the subordinate clause.

*When* joins the adverbial clause to its principal, *go*, and is also an adverbial word modifier of the predicate verb, *ceases*, in the subordinate clause.

The subordinate connective differs from other relation words in that it is almost always an idea element in the subordinate clause and thus does double duty.



That the man will fight is certain.

*That* is a subordinate connective introducing a substantive clause, but it does not join the clause to any part of the principal clause. It merely introduces the subordinate clause.

The subordinate connective introducing a substantive or objective clause element often performs no office in the subordinate clause, but serves as a relation word only. *For* and *because*, also, are pure connectives; and other subordinate connectives, usually adverbial, sometimes perform so little of the adverbial office as to seem purely connective.

**Exercise.**

Point out subordinate connectives and tell what other office, if any, each performs : —

1. I remember what I told you.
2. A story which I wrote was published in "Wide Awake."
3. Columbus thought that India lay west of Europe.
4. John understood why I asked him to go on the errand.
5. The blind poet to whom he referred in the lecture was Milton.
6. This watch which I lend you belonged to my aunt.
7. We may leave school when we have finished our work.
8. The steamer on which we crossed the ocean has since been wrecked.
9. We study because we wish to learn.
10. We who had time visited the town where Hans Andersen lived.

**33. CLAUSE MODIFIERS IN SUBORDINATE CLAUSES.**

The hat which I wore when we met was expensive.

*Which I wore when we met* is a subordinate clause containing the subordinate adverbial clause *when we met*.

**Exercise.**

Point out the subordinate clause in each of the following sentences. Point out any clause modifiers contained in each subordinate clause.

1. The song which you sang was well received by the audience.
2. The sword which Burgoyne offered to Gates, when the British surrendered at Saratoga, was immediately returned to him.
3. When the clouds which now overcast the sky are dispersed we will go out.
4. Since I must remain, I will attend to the work at home.
5. I see a hand which beckons me away.
6. The bay on which we row when it is smooth is rough to-day.
7. I walked where the grass which covered the lawn was greenest.
8. The reason why I do not go while the convention is in session, is evident.

## CHAPTER IV. — COMPOUNDS.

### SYNOPSIS.

Two word, phrase, or clause elements of equal rank are coördinate.

Coördinate elements united to perform the same office form a compound element.

A word uniting the coördinate parts of a compound element, or the coördinate clauses of a compound sentence, is a coördinate connective.

### 34. COMPOUND SENTENCES.

What is a complex sentence? What is the rank of each clause in a complex sentence? If a sentence consists of two or more clauses, none of which is chief, and none of which is a part of another, — that is, if the clauses are of equal or coördinate rank, — the whole sentence is compound.

EXAMPLES. Man proposes, but God disposes.

The Assyrian came down like a wolf on the fold,

And his cohorts were gleaming in purple and gold.

EXAMPLE. The way was long, the wind was cold.

The minstrel was infirm and old.

Parts 1, 2, and 3 are coördinate clauses; therefore the entire sentence is compound, consisting of three coördinate clauses.

A *compound* sentence is one consisting of two or more clauses that are coördinate.

But any of these main clauses in a compound sentence may contain subordinate clauses.

EXAMPLE. This proposed law was strongly opposed, and it was not passed till another election had been held.

In this compound sentence the second of the main clauses contains the subordinate clause *till another election had been held*. The sentence is therefore said to be both compound and complex.

What is a mixed sentence? (pp. 20, 21). Every mixed sentence is compound.

#### Exercise.

Select the clauses in the following. Tell in each case the structure of the sentence, whether it is complex, compound, or both.

1. Did you come in a carriage, or were you on horseback?
2. I loved my country, and I hated him.
3. A strong east wind is blowing, and the sky is overcast.
4. Ask, and it shall be given you; seek, and ye shall find; knock, and it shall be opened unto you.
5. Many are called, but few are chosen.
6. The king gave the command, nevertheless it was not right.
7. They set sail when the waves were rough.
8. The curfew tolls the knell of parting day,  
The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea,  
The plowman homeward plods his weary way,  
And leaves the world to darkness and to me.
9. The winds which blew were bitter; the storms that raged were fierce; but the brave old tree stood fast where fate had placed it.
10. Flow gently, sweet Afton, among thy green braes;  
Flow gently, I'll sing thee a song in thy praise.
11. We hoped for rain; but the clouds passed over, and the earth remained parched and dry.
12. I know what you want, but while I live you shall want in vain.

Unite the following short sentences to make compound sentences:—

1. The rose is fair. The lily is fairer.
2. The winds blew. The birds sang. The leaves rustled on the trees. The streams hurried rapidly on their way to the sea. All nature seemed to rejoice.

3. She was glad. I was sad.
4. The day was dark. The snow fell. The poor traveler got lost on the mountains.
5. He was bold. She was gentle. Both were good and true.
6. The United States has more population than France. France has a larger army than the United States.

### 35. PUNCTUATION OF COMPOUND SENTENCES.

#### Exercise.

Write a compound sentence about school, containing two clauses united by *but*; a compound sentence about horses, containing three clauses separated by commas, and with the second and third united by *and*; a compound sentence about North America and South America, containing two clauses separated by a semicolon; a compound sentence about Washington, New York, and Chicago, separating the clauses by semicolons, and joining the second and third by *but*.

The clauses of compound sentences should always be joined by relation words, such as *and*, *but*, *or*, or separated by punctuation marks, or both.



The night is cold, and the poor will suffer.  
The night is cold; the poor will suffer.

*Two clauses forming a compound sentence are united by a connective or separated by a punctuation mark, or both.*



I visited you on Sunday, you returned my call on Monday, and we met again on Tuesday.

*In a series of clauses the comma is generally used to separate them, and the last two are often joined by a connective.*

The dog that had acted as if bewitched all day, howled terribly; the wind, moaning like a creature in pain, busily heaped the dead leaves against the unsteady barrier formed by the rotting logs; and my heart sank as I listened to these ominous notes with which Nature seemed to warn me of approaching calamity.

*If the clauses themselves contain commas, they are separated by semicolons.*

#### Exercise.

Observe the punctuation in the last lesson, and punctuate the following sentences:—

1. The character of Washington was noble and his appearance was commanding
2. The fire burned steadily but it seemed to give no heat
3. Consider the lilies of the field how they grow they toil not neither do they spin
4. The harvest truly is plenteous but the laborers are few
5. The moon looks on many brooks  
The brook can see no moon but this
6. I was born an American I live an American I shall die an American
7. We have met the enemy and they are ours
8. They took the spear but left the shield
9. They have sown the wind and they shall reap the whirlwind
10. Full many a gem of purest ray serene  
The dark unfathomed caves of ocean bear  
Full many a flower is born to blush unseen  
And waste its sweetness on the desert air
11. Slowly and gently we laid him down  
From the field of his fame fresh and gory  
We carved not a line and we raised not a stone  
But we left him alone with his glory
12. Tigers are often very deceptive and I am a cautious person but going within arm's length I quietly put a bullet through the beast's eye as a matter of safety
13. Take my hand and I will lead you to the light

## 36. COMPOUND ELEMENTS.

*You like to go to school and I like to go to school* is better stated, *You and I like to go to school*.

If two or more sentences having predicate bases alike are to be joined, it is often possible to use the predicate base but once, making a sentence having a compound subject.

In a corresponding way two or more predicates may be united, so as to form a compound predicate.

EXAMPLE. *The child hates work but the child loves play* is better expressed, *The child hates work but loves play*.

In fact, wherever coördinate elements are joined to perform the same office in a sentence, they form a compound element.

The good and beautiful woman spoke to me.

He writes rapidly and well.

*Good and beautiful* is a compound adjective word element.

*Rapidly and well* is a compound adverbial word element.

I went over the bridge and into the woods.

My father spoke slowly, but without hesitation.

*Over the bridge and into the woods* is a compound adverbial phrase element.

*Slowly, but without hesitation*, is a compound adverbial word and phrase element.

The children ran to and from the house all day long.

Over fields and woods the thick dust settled.

*To and from the house* is an adverbial phrase element whose relation part is compound.

*Over fields and woods* is an adverbial phrase element whose idea part is compound.



The teacher, who loved us all, and whom we all loved, parted from us with tears.

*Who loved us all and whom we all loved* is a compound adjective clause element.

A compound element consists of two or more coördinate, connected elements, placed alike and used alike in the sentence.

#### Exercise.

Select from the following the compound elements, and tell how they are joined:—

1. Mary and I took a walk.
2. The old man and his little dog are here.
3. The presiding officer or the clerk of the court asked the question.
4. I sing very little, but play on the piano a good deal.
5. I went to Sunday school and church.
6. We went up and down the street.
7. The boy, excited, and on tiptoe with expectation, followed me up the stairs and into my room.
8. Large, ripe, and luscious peaches hung from the branches.
9. John, Mary, and James were looking at the picture book.
10. Men of thought, of wisdom, and of experience do not act hastily.
11. The boy solved the problem neatly, rapidly, and correctly.
12. The soldiers retreated in confusion, were pursued by the enemy, and escaped into the river.
13. Large numbers of cod, herring, and mackerel are caught yearly.
14. The song which you sang, and which I disliked, was well received by the audience.
15. The man of whom I write, and to whom I have often spoken, was a famous general.

Write a sentence containing a compound subject; one containing a compound predicate; one containing a compound adjective word element; one containing a compound adjective phrase element; one containing a compound adverbial word element; one containing a compound adverbial phrase element.

Write a sentence containing an adjective phrase element whose relation part is compound.

Write a sentence containing an adverbial phrase element whose relation part is compound.

Write a sentence containing an adjective phrase element whose idea part is compound.

Write a sentence containing an adverbial phrase element whose idea part is compound.

Write a sentence containing a compound adjective clause; one containing a compound substantive clause; one containing a compound adverbial clause; one containing a compound objective clause.

### 37. MODIFIERS OF COMPOUNDS.

The big boy and the little girl on the platform belong to our school.

*Big* modifies *boy*, and *little* modifies *girl*; but *on the platform* modifies both *boy* and *girl*.

All the parts of a compound element may be modified by the same element, or they may have different modifiers.

#### Exercise.

Select the compound elements in the following sentences and give the separate modifiers of each part, and the joint modifiers of all the parts: —

1. The old general and the young lieutenant of the grand army rode up the street together.
2. Some children think quickly and speak slowly, while others think and speak with rapidity.
3. Men and women of courage and fortitude emigrated to the far West.
4. Children of refinement and children without home training met in the great school.
5. Men of thought and men of action, clear the way.
6. I am but a gatherer and disposer of other men's stuff.
7. Sardines from the Mediterranean, grapes from France, and dates from Egypt formed part of the feast.
8. Men, women, and children from the neighboring street hastened to the scene.
9. That the Americans had conquered was news, and unwelcome news, to the foe.

10. The troops which were quartered in the town, and the officers who galloped through it, were unmolested.
11. I know that the testimony was sufficient to condemn him, and that the judge's charge was clear; but the jury will acquit him.
12. Children who study and make sufficient progress will be promoted at the end of the year.

### 38. UNION OF COMPOUNDS.

The parts of compound elements, whatever the class, are either joined by relation words, or separated by marks of punctuation, or both.

*A compound element consisting of two parts should have either a connective or a comma between the parts. If the parts are very long, both comma and connective may be used.*

*The parts of a compound element consisting of more than two members should usually be separated by commas, and a connective should usually be inserted between the last two members.*

#### Exercise.

Observe the exercises in the chapter and punctuate the following :

1. His strength was gone again and he said very little more that day
2. Verily verily I say unto you
3. With eyes to her sewing work dropped down  
And with hair in a tangled shower  
And with roses kissed by the sun so brown  
Young Janey sat in her bower
4. Are you ready to return or shall we delay another hour
5. Be ye therefore wise as serpents and harmless as doves
6. The spirit indeed is willing but the flesh is weak
7. The words of his mouth were smoother than butter but war was  
in his heart
8. The stormy March has come at last  
With winds and clouds and changing skies
9. He then proceeded to draw on a pair of old shabby and very dirty  
white kid gloves

Mary and John skated to school.

Her still and lifeless lips gave no answer to my cry.

*Mary* and *John* are equal elements in the first sentence, having the same relation to the element *skated to school*. In the same way, *still* and *lifeless* are equal elements, having the same relation to the word *lips*.

The relation words introduced to join the clauses of a compound sentence, or the parts of a compound element, are not the same words as those used to show the relation of an idea word to its principal, or of a subordinate clause to its principal, yet they are true relation words. The preposition and the subordinate connective show inequality of relation; that is, each shows the relation of a subordinate element to its principal. The coördinate connective shows equality of relation, or indicates that the coördinate elements which it connects bear the same relation to the rest of the sentence.

**A coördinate connective** shows that the coördinate words or coördinate elements which it joins, bear the same relation to some other word or element in the sentence.

A coördinate connective joining the coördinate clauses of a compound sentence shows that these clauses bear the same relation to the rest of the paragraph.

Select the coördinate connectives in the following sentences and tell what they join and what office the compound fulfills: —

1. Loudon, the great landscape gardener, studied hard and soon acquired a good education.
2. The wages of sin is death; but the gift of God is eternal life.
3. His career is interesting as well as instructive.
4. Charles and Mary Lamb were the joint authors of "Tales from Shakespeare."
5. Janet, hire the gray pony and chaise to-morrow morning at ten o'clock, and pack up Master Trotwood's clothes to-night.
6. When she began to look about her, and to speak to me, he nodded his head and smiled several times.

7. We parted; sweetly gleamed the stars and sweet the zephyrs braided blue.
8. God bless him, he shall sit upon my knees, and I will tell him tales of foreign parts and make him merry.
9. The day was fair, but the night came quickly, and brought with it a furious storm.
10. The author of "David Copperfield" and of many other novels was Charles Dickens.
11. There was a black barge, or some other kind of superannuated boat, not far off, high and dry on the ground.
12. On the walls there were some common colored pictures framed and glazed.

### 39. REVIEW.

Analyze the following sentences : —

1. The city of Mexico is situated in the midst of a circular plain.
2. London lies on both sides of the river Thames.
3. This room was chilly because it seldom had a fire.
4. They journeyed to the land where the sun shone and the birds sang and the climate was perpetual spring.
5. Awake, my soul! stretch every nerve  
And press with vigor on ;  
A heavenly race demands thy zeal,  
And an immortal crown.
6. The tree is known by its fruit.
7. The tree of liberty grows only when it is watered by the blood of tyrants.
8. Booth was the actor of whom we were speaking when the curtain rose.
9. The Scotchmen love their moors passionately.
10. There was a deep natural valley in the place where the canal was cut.
11. With infinite toil they slowly cut down the forests which cover the hillsides and fill the river valleys.
12. From the old squire's dwelling, gloomy and grand,  
Stretching away on either hand,  
Lie fields of broad and fertile land.

13. He who goes to his own home, when the day's work is over, should take with him a contented heart.
14. In person Edgar Allan Poe was slight, and hardly of the medium height; his motions were quick and nervous; his air was abstracted; and his countenance was generally serious and pale.
15. King Bruce of Scotland flung himself down  
In a lonely mood to think;  
'Tis true he was monarch, and wore a crown,  
But his heart was beginning to sink.
16. Thus they arrived at the court in great silence, and King Arthur read the letter before all his knights and weeping ladies.
17. Between the time of Chaucer and that of Sidney and Spenser we find little in the poetic literature of our language to detain our attention.
18. It was small tyranny for a respectable wind to go wreaking its vengeance on such poor creatures as the fallen leaves.
19. A baby was sleeping;  
Its mother was weeping,  
For her husband was far on the wild raging sea;  
And the tempest was swelling  
Round the fisherman's dwelling;  
And she cried, "Dermot darling, O come back to me."
20. The tall pink foxglove bowed his head:  
The violets courtesied and went to bed;  
And good little Lucy tied up her hair,  
And said, on her knees, her favorite prayer.
21. The breeze comes whispering in our ear,  
That dandelions are blossoming near,  
That maize has sprouted, that streams are flowing,  
That the river is bluer than the sky,  
That the robin is plastering his house hard by.
22. And the earth was without form and void; and darkness was upon the face of the deep.
23. Toil on, poor heart, unceasingly;  
And thou shalt find thy dreams to be  
A truth and noonday light to thee.
24. The seasons are caused by the earth's revolution about the sun, combined with the constant inclination of the earth's axis to the plane of its orbit.

25. We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.
26. In every deed of mischief he had a heart to resolve, a head to contrive, and a hand to execute.
27. He sings to the wide world, and she to her nest;  
In the nice ear of nature, which song is the best?
28. My eyes are dim with childish tears,  
Thy heart is idly stirred,  
For the same sound is in my ears  
Which in those days I heard.
29. Remember now thy Creator in the days of thy youth, while the evil days come not, nor the years draw nigh when thou shalt say, I have no pleasure in them.
30. Beautiful feet are they that go  
Swiftly to lighten another's woe.
31. Preceded by the beadle, and attended by an irregular procession of stern-browed men and unkindly visaged women, Hester Prynne set forth towards the place appointed for her punishment.
32. "God save all here," my comrade cries,  
And rattles on the raised latch pin:  
"God save you kindly," quick replies  
A clear, sweet voice, and asks us in.
33. The faun is a marble image of a young man, leaning his right arm on the trunk or stump of a tree; one hand hangs carelessly by his side; in the other he holds the fragment of a pipe, or some such sylvan instrument for music.
34. I sat and watched her many a day,  
When her eyes grew dim and her locks were gray;  
And I almost worshiped her when she smiled  
And turned from her Bible to bless her child.
35. The sepulcher of Mausolus, King of Caria, from the beauty and magnificence of its structure, passed for one of the wonders of the world.
36. The mighty shafts and pilasters of the Gothic edifice rose like the stems of giant trees in a primeval forest from a dusky undergrowth, spreading out and uniting their strong branches far above in the upper gloom.

37. "Father, save those at sea to-night," prays the child from her cradle.
38. A depth of thirty feet of soil has covered up the Rome of ancient days, so that it lies like the dead corpse of a giant, decaying for centuries, with no survivor mighty enough to bury it, until the dust of all those years has gathered slowly over its recumbent form and made a casual sepulcher.
39. That there is yet much to learn about electricity is evident to all persons who think.
40. This is the forest primeval ; but where are the hearts that beneath it  
Leaped like the roe, when he hears, in the woodland, the voice of  
the huntsman ?
41. Out of the bosom of the air,  
Out of the cloud folds of her garments shaken,  
Over the woodlands brown and bare,  
Over the harvest fields forsaken,  
Silent and soft and slow,  
Descends the snow.



## PART II.—PARTS OF SPEECH AND COMPLETE ANALYSIS.



### CHAPTER V.—WORDS.

#### SYNOPSIS.

*Elements* are classified according to their *uses* in sentences.

*Words* are classified according to their *nature*.

The classes of words thus made are called parts of speech.

#### 40. PARTS OF SPEECH.

The word *man* by nature is substantive, as in *The man is old*; that is, it is naturally fitted for use as a substantive element or base; yet in the sentences *A man servant was hired* and *The servant is a man* the word *man* is used adjectively; in *I've killed a man* its use is objective; and in *We expect better treatment from a man* it is the idea part of an adverbial element.

In such a sentence as *We'll man the lifeboat*, *man* takes the place of *provide with men*, the base of which is *provide*. In this case the meaning or nature of *man* is changed, so that it may be called a different word, being predicative both in use and in meaning. But the word *man* as used in adjective, objective, and adverbial elements has the same meaning as when it is used substantively.

As already stated, the name of an element is determined by its use,—that is, by its relation to other words; so it often happens that an element whose main word has one nature performs another kind of work altogether, and

hence is named contrary to the meaning or nature of its main word.

**Exercise.**

Explain the nature and the uses of the underlined words in each of the following :—

1. Land turtles are found in various parts of the country.  
Alexander Hamilton was born in a foreign land.
2. The house dog lay before the fire.  
The old house still stands.
3. That bridge is dangerous.  
The bridge builder has two assistants.  
He will bridge the river next spring.
4. This child is pretty.  
This is pretty.
5. The engine house is near our school.  
We see the engine as it passes by.  
The engine is useful.
6. Silver is a metal.  
I coated it with silver.  
An offering of silver is welcome.
7. Come now.  
Now is the accepted time.

We classify elements according to their *relations* in the sentence; but we classify words according to their natures. These classes of words are called parts of speech.

What is the nature of the word *sheep*; *short*; *flows*; *quickly*?

A part of speech is a class of words which by nature are distinguished from other words.

The rain falls heavily. It patters on the roof.

What name is used substantively in the first sentence? What word in the second sentence represents *rain*? How is it used?

**Exercise.**

Tell what the substantive base is in each of the six following sentences, and whether it is a name or a word used instead of a name.

1. The bell rings. It calls to school.
2. My brother is here. He will remain long.
3. The teacher wishes to see you. She is in her office.

There are two classes of words which are really substantive by nature; namely, names of things, called *nouns*, and a few words often used instead of these names, called *pronouns*.

The *book* is lost. *It* cannot be found.

My *hat* is torn. *It* caught on a hook.

The *river* has risen. *It* rose last night.

Here *it* stands for one of these nouns as well as for another.

*Washington* crossed the Delaware. *He* endured much.

*Stanley* discovered Livingstone. *He* acted bravely.

The *fireman* fought the flames. *He* was badly burned.

Here *he* stands for each of several people equally well.

The number of nouns in the language cannot be counted; for everything which can be seen or heard or touched or tasted or thought of may of course have a name; but as the same pronouns may be used for dozens, or even thousands, of nouns, there are only a few pronouns.

**Nouns and pronouns are words which are substantive by nature.**

## CHAPTER VI. — NOUNS.

### SYNOPSIS.

A noun is a name.

By nature it is a substantive element or base, but it may be used in other ways.

Its modifiers are adjective elements.

Nouns are classified as proper or common.

Nouns applied to objects of one sex only are called gender nouns.

Inflections due to the number of objects represented are number inflections ; inflections due to use are case inflections.

### 41. DEFINITION OF NOUNS.

A noun is a name.

Give some examples of nouns.

#### Exercise.

Put each of the following nouns into a sentence ; tell why it is a noun and how it is used in the sentence.

- |            |                |               |
|------------|----------------|---------------|
| 1. man     | 6. picture     | 11. flavor    |
| 2. table   | 7. virtue      | 12. committee |
| 3. horse   | 8. sunrise     | 13. office    |
| 4. country | 9. skating     | 14. ocean     |
| 5. study   | 10. dishonesty | 15. height    |

### 42. CLASSES OF NOUNS.

There are thousands of nouns, yet it must not be supposed that each object has a name of its own.

EXAMPLES. A boy sat on the chair by the window, and watched with longing eyes the crowd on the pavement below.

Each of these nouns might be applied equally well to any boy, chair, window, eyes, crowd, or pavement, and is not, therefore, the name particularly applying to the object here mentioned.

Only a few of the many namable objects have particular names, the rest being known by class names only. These class names are called common nouns.

But some objects, chiefly persons or places, have particular names which apply to them as individuals, not as members of a class.

EXAMPLES. John met Grace at the Capitol on Wednesday, and took her to Trinity Church to hear Bishop Potter lecture on St. Paul's shipwreck off the coast of Crete.

Each underlined word above is a name applied to this particular person, place, or day of the week, and not to all of a class.

Such words are particular names or proper nouns.

The particular name of an individual object is a *proper* noun.

The class name applied to each of a number of objects is a *common* noun.

*A proper noun should always begin with a capital letter.*

But for this rule of capitalization, there would be no need of classifying nouns.

#### Exercise.

Which of the following are common, and which proper nouns ?

- |                 |               |                |
|-----------------|---------------|----------------|
| 1. boy          | 8. bureau     | 15. Pansy      |
| 2. Charles      | 9. star       | 16. Idaho      |
| 3. Philadelphia | 10. Venus     | 17. Europe     |
| 4. river        | 11. fruit     | 18. bird       |
| 5. Tiber        | 12. Christmas | 19. Washington |
| 6. city         | 13. Robin     | 20. Atlantic   |
| 7. June         | 14. Louise    | 21. Pyrenees   |

Write from dictation sentences like the following, putting capital letters in the proper places:—

1. Christopher Columbus, the discoverer of America, was a native of Genoa, Italy.
2. The Romans under Julius Cæsar conquered the Britons about fifty years before Christ.

The use of a noun often determines whether it should be called proper or common.

EXAMPLES. Mr. Wind and Madam Rain disputed one day.  
Day donned her fairest robes to greet her lover, Sun,  
while sulky Night stole silently away.

*Day, night, sun, wind, and rain*, usually regarded each as a member of a class, are here regarded as names of persons.

If a noun, usually common, is thus regarded as the name of an individual, the thing named is said to be **personified**. A noun so used is often begun with a capital letter.

#### Exercise.

Point out the nouns in the following sentences, and tell whether each is proper or common: —

1. Pussy sits beside the fire,  
How can she be fair?  
In walks little Doggie,  
“Pussy, are you there?”
2. The old gray puss and the young dog lay asleep before the fire.
3. O eloquent, just, and mighty Death! whom none could advise, thou hast persuaded.
4. So spake the grisly Terror.
5. The child showed his fright by turning very white.
6. Before mine eyes in opposition sits  
Grim Death, my son and foe.
7. Where eldest Night  
And Chaos, ancestor of Nature, hold  
Eternal anarchy amidst the noise  
Of endless wars.
8. Accuse not nature: she has done her part,  
Do thou but thine.
9. Hope elevates, and joy brightens his crest.

## 43. GENDER.

Man. Woman.

A noun may indicate the sex of the person or animal which it represents. Such nouns are called gender nouns.

The genders of nouns, like the sexes which they indicate, are two; namely, masculine gender, applied to males; and feminine gender, applied to females.

Many grammarians mention also common gender, applied to objects of either sex, as *teacher*, *people*, *crowd*, etc.; and neuter gender, applied to objects without sex. But as such nouns do not indicate sex, it is enough to say of them that they are not gender nouns.

## Exercise.

Select the gender nouns from the following, and tell of each whether it is masculine or feminine.

boy	goose	queen
stone	gander	king
chair	shepherd	he-goat
girl	shepherdess	she-goat
heiress	abbot	widow
hero	emperor	maid
heroine	abbess	manservant
duck	empress	servant
drake	pupil	cat

A noun which indicates the sex of the object referred to is a *gender noun*.

(For treatment of masculine and feminine forms, see pages 283-284.)

## 44. NUMBER.

Our *dog* sat at the window and looked at the *dogs* in the street.

A change in the form of the word from *dog* to *dogs*

indicates a change in its meaning from one to more than one.

*Book*, the ordinary form of the word, means one book; by changing this form to *books*, more than one is indicated. *Books* means more than one book.

Many common nouns are altered in form to express more than one object of the same kind. The ordinary form of most nouns is applied to one object.

A change in the form of a word to show whether it means one object, or more than one, is a *number inflection*.

A large proportion of English nouns are changed in form to show number.

EXAMPLES.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
	book	books
	lamb	lambs
	church	churches

There are, however, many nouns whose ordinary form is used to represent both the singular and the plural ideas.

EXAMPLES.	deer	heathen	brace	shot	yoke
	trout	sail	cannon	head	dozen

Many of these, however, are sometimes changed to plural forms.

EXAMPLE. My bag was full of shot.  
Seven shots were heard.

Some nouns are used (at least in their usual meanings) only in the plural form.

EXAMPLES.	dregs	tweezers	victuals	antipodes
	hysterics	ashes	entrails	oats
	shears	tidings	annals	premises
	goods	trousers	nuptials	spectacles
	wages	tongs	archives	forceps
	scissors	thanks	amends	clothes



The following nouns are spelled like plural forms, but each means only one thing :—

economics	physics
politics	summons
molasses	billiards
news	optics
mathematics	gallows
mumps	measles

A noun which by its form indicates one object, is *singular* in form.

A noun which by its form indicates more than one object, is *plural* in form.

—◆—

There were many *mackerel* in the harbor.

*Mackerel*, although not changed from the ordinary form, means in this connection more than one; the whole expression *many mackerel* represents a plural idea.

It is often important to know whether the idea represented by a substantive element is singular or plural, because different forms of the asserter and of the predicate verb may be required in the two cases.

EXAMPLES. The man is going.

The men are going.

Usually that form of the asserter or predicate verb is used which suits the *idea* conveyed by the subject.

EXAMPLE. — A man and a boy were seated near us.

Here *man* and *boy* are singular forms, but the idea contained in the whole subject is plural.

*Twenty eggs is* a large setting.

*Twenty eggs were* broken.

In the first case, though the form of the noun is plural, the idea is of one group.

*My spectacles are broken.*

In this sentence the number form of the noun controls the form of the asserter, although the idea is apparently singular; but really the idea was originally plural (two lenses).

**Exercise.**

Point out the nouns in the following sentences; tell which have number forms, and which form is here used; and tell, if you can, whether one or more than one is meant by the nouns which have no number inflection.

1. The hunter saw ten deer in the valley.
2. I will give thee the heathen for thine inheritance.
3. The cannon thundered from the hill.
4. My scissors are lost.
5. The tongs fell with a clash to the floor.
6. The bay was crowded with sails.
7. The children were ill with measles.
8. The hunter sent his friend a brace of pheasants.
9. A fine yoke of oxen toiled slowly up the hill.

---

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
group	groups
flock	flocks
crowd	crowds
shoal	shoals

The singular form of some nouns is applied to a number of objects regarded as a single collection, and the plural form is applied to a number of such collections.

Supply plurals to the following nouns: —

SINGULAR.			
congregation	people	council	regiment
multitude	parliament	nation	fleet

**A collective noun is a noun whose singular form denotes a collection of objects.**

45. RULES FOR THE SPELLING OF PLURAL FORMS.

We learn about number in nouns partly because the changes in form to indicate number make it necessary to have rules for spelling.

*The plural of most nouns is formed by adding s or es to the singular.*

EXAMPLES.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
book	books	picture	pictures
table	tables	fox	foxes
writer	writers	stitch	stitches

*The plural of some nouns whose singular ends in f or fe is formed by changing the termination to ve, and adding s.*

EXAMPLES.

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

*Other such nouns form their plurals regularly.*

EXAMPLES.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
	grief	griefs
	reef	reefs
	skiff	skiffs

*The plural of letters, figures, and signs is formed by adding an apostrophe and the letter s to the singular.*

EXAMPLES. B's, m's, l's, 4's, + 's.

*Nouns ending in y preceded by a vowel add s to form the plural; nouns ending in y preceded by a consonant change y to i and add es to form the plural.*

EXAMPLES.	attorney	attorneys	cherry	cherries
	monkey	monkeys	berry	berries
	pulley	pulleys	lily	lilies
	kidney	kidneys	daisy	daisies
	journey	journeys	city	cities
	donkey	donkeys	glory	glories
	valley	valleys	country	countries
	joy	joys	sixty	sixties

#### 46. SPELLING OF IRREGULAR PLURAL FORMS.

Owing to the number of sources from which our words are derived, there are many irregularities in the formation of plurals. Even among nouns which seem to follow the rules, changes of spelling and exceptions are frequent; many nouns appear to be governed by no rule.

EXAMPLES.	man	men	foot	feet
-----------	-----	-----	------	------

The plurals of three nouns end in *en*, an old Saxon form:—

ox	oxen
brother	brethren
child	children

Some nouns of Latin origin retain their old Latin plural forms.

EXAMPLES.	terminus	termini	axis	axes
	datum	data	stratum	strata
	radius	radii	amanuensis	amanuenses

A few nouns derived from the Greek also retain their Greek plural forms.

EXAMPLES.	analysis	analyses	phenomenon	phenomena
	automaton	automata		

It is advisable to know how to spell the plurals of the following nouns :—

potato	potatoes	genius	{ geniuses genii
buffalo	buffaloes	vertex	{ vertexes vertices
motto	mottoes	index	{ indexes indices
hero	heroes	parenthesis	parentheses
echo	echoes	memorandum	memoranda
mosquito	mosquitoes	formula	{ formulas formulæ
negro	negroes	appendix	{ appendixes appendices
tomato	tomatoes	larva	larvæ
torpedo	torpedoes	vertebra	vertebræ
volcano	volcanoes	focus	foci
alto	altos	goose	geese
solo	solos	mouse	mice
cuckoo	cuckoos	staff	staves
cameo	cameos		
halo	halos		
piano	pianos		
portfolio	portfolios		
ratio	ratios		

#### 47. REVIEW.

##### Exercise.

Give the singular forms of the following nouns :—

bevies	feet	beeves	oases
I's	men	journeys	cases
sheep	wolves	dairies	ladies
brothers	oxen	t's	X's
attorneys	pictures	calves	books

Give the plural forms of the following nouns :—

rose	wife	cannon	school
monkey	goose	salmon	navy
cherry	woman	y	chief
lily	moose	audience	calf
half	pair	9	pulley

Give five nouns that form their plurals by adding *s* or *es*; five nouns that form their plurals by changing *f* or *fe* to *ves*; five nouns that form their plurals by changing *y* to *ies*; five nouns that form their plurals by adding *s* to final *y*; three nouns whose plurals end in *en*; five nouns that form their plurals by changes within the words; five collective nouns and their plurals.

#### 48. PLURALS OF TITLES AND COMPOUNDS.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Mr. Jones	Messrs. Jones
Dr. Brown	Drs. Brown
Miss Fox	Misses Fox

The plural of a noun preceded by a title is usually formed by pluralizing the title only.

---

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Mrs. Brown	Mrs. Browns

A noun preceded by the title Mrs. is itself pluralized, the title remaining unchanged.

The plural of most compound terms is formed by pluralizing the form of the chief word.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
EXAMPLES.	court-martial	courts-martial
	father-in-law	fathers-in-law
	son-in-law	sons-in-law
	school-teacher	school-teachers
	rosebush	rosebushes

#### 49. CASE.

The young *cat* played with the old *cat's* ears.

The form of the word *cat* is changed to indicate its adjective relation to *ears*.

The nouns of our language allow little inflection to indicate the relation of one word to another.

NOTE.—French nouns have no inflection to show relation. A Frenchman does not say *My wife's sister*, but says instead, *The sister of my wife*. Instead of *My brother's wife's sister*, he says *The sister of the wife of my brother*.

[The horse of the butcher is lame.] means [The butcher's horse is lame.]

[Shoes for children are cheap.] means [Children's shoes are cheap.]

[The rays of the sun are hot.] means [The sun's rays are hot.]

[Books by Stevenson are popular.] means [Stevenson's books are popular.]

A noun which in its ordinary form would be placed after its principal as the idea word of an adjective phrase, frequently changes its form when used as an adjective word modifier placed before its principal.

**A change in the form of a noun to indicate the relation of the noun to other words is a case inflection.**

A noun whose form has been changed to show its adjective use is in the possessive case.

**The possessive case is that form of a noun which shows its adjective relation to the principal before which it is placed.**

*The possessive form of a singular noun is formed by the addition of an apostrophe and s to the ordinary form.*

NOTE.—A few writers, however, add only the apostrophe if the ordinary form ends in *s*.

*The possessive form of a plural noun is formed by the addition of an apostrophe and s to the ordinary plural form, unless this ordinary form itself ends in s, in which case the apostrophe only is added.*

EXAMPLES.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>Ordinary form.</i>	child	children	boy	boys
<i>Possessive form.</i>	child's	children's	boy's	boys'

The tabulated arrangement of the number and case forms of the noun is called the *declension* of the noun.

The ordinary form when used as subject base, or as idea word in an assertive phrase, is usually said to be the nominative case; when used as object, or as idea word in a prepositional phrase, it is said to be the objective case. But the forms of English nouns are not altered for these uses, so that the possessive case of nouns is all that need be learned.

NOTE. — In this respect English differs from Latin and also from German.

	LATIN.	ENGLISH.	USE.
<i>Nominative.</i>	frater	brother	Subject base
<i>Genitive.</i>	fratris	of a brother	Possessive adjective use
<i>Dative.</i>	fratri	to or for a brother	Indirect object
<i>Accusative.</i>	fratrem	brother	Objective modifier
<i>Vocative.</i>	frater	O brother	Independent
<i>Ablative.</i>	fratre	with or from a brother	Object of preposition

### Exercise on Possessive Forms.

Write from dictation sentences like the following: —

1. And children's children ever find Thy words of promise sure.
2. John's hat and Mary's coat were stolen last night through the maid's carelessness in leaving the door unlatched.
3. The bird's distress was evident by her cries, whereas the cat's enjoyment was less plainly to be seen.
4. A Roman's life, a Roman's arms, take thou in charge this day.
5. The children's hospital has many suffering little ones.
6. The day's doings were worthy of note.
7. The ship's distress was evident to the anxious watcher's gaze.
8. Men's hats and boys' caps were stolen.
9. The lady's cape looked much like all ladies' capes to me.
10. John's dog spoiled Charles's flower bed.



## Exercise on Declension.

Write the declension of the following nouns : —

- |          |          |               |            |
|----------|----------|---------------|------------|
| 1. table | 5. man   | 9. Washington | 13. valley |
| 2. sheep | 6. woman | 10. ocean     | 14. box    |
| 3. lady  | 7. baby  | 11. child     | 15. knife  |
| 4. John  | 8. horse | 12. ox        | 16. tree   |

The possessive of compound terms is usually formed by adding the proper termination at the end of the term.

## EXAMPLES.

	ORDINARY.	POSSESSIVE.
	Mason and Dixon	Mason and Dixon's
<i>Sing.</i>	court-martial	court-martial's
<i>Plur.</i>	courts-martial	courts-martial's

## 50. REVIEW.

Tell the forms of nouns in the following expressions ; whether ordinary singular or plural, or possessive singular or plural : —

- Sisters and brothers have I none,  
But this man's father is my father's son.
- Lucy, who was visiting her mother's relatives, was delighted with everything on the farm, and particularly with the horses and poultry.
- John's mother warned him to be careful of his little sister's toys, but he forgot, and soon the Noah's ark had lost many animals.
- Hail to the Lord's Anointed,  
Great David's greater Son !
- Hark ! hark ! my soul ! Angelic songs are swelling  
O'er earth's green fields and ocean's wave-beat shore.
- The cat's fur stood up, and the dog's barking showed us the cause of her fear.
- Angels, sing on ! your faithful watches keeping :  
Sing us sweet fragments of the songs above ;  
Till morning's joy shall end the night of weeping,  
And life's long shadows break in cloudless love.
- The people's government, made for the people.

9. Our fathers' God, to Thee,  
Author of liberty,  
To Thee we sing.
10. For shortness' sake I will call it the idea of Freedom.
11. But life is sweet, though all that makes it sweet  
Lessen like sounds of friends' departed feet.
12. On eagles' wings immortal scandals fly.
13. Our ancestors' ways are not ours.
14. His great ancestor's deeds are ever in his mouth.

### 51. USES OF NOUNS.

Nouns are used as follows :—

#### I. Substantive use.

As subject base, often called subject nominative, or subject of the verb.

EXAMPLES. The country is beautiful now.  
Congress meets in Washington.

#### II. Adjective uses.

a. As idea word in an adjective phrase.

EXAMPLE. The flock of sheep were sheared.

b. As attribute after an asserter.

EXAMPLES. We were conquerors.  
He seemed a hero then.

c. In explanation of a previously mentioned noun whose meaning is the same, in which case it is called an *appositive*.

EXAMPLE. Longfellow the poet lived at Cambridge.

d. In the possessive case, as modifier of another noun, instead of a prepositional phrase.

EXAMPLE. The children's lunch is ready.

*e.* Placed before another noun to indicate the kind.

EXAMPLES. The Georgia pine.  
An iron gate.

### III. Objective use.

As an object after a verb.

EXAMPLE. Watts invented the steam engine.

### IV. Adverbial uses.

*a.* As an adverbial word modifier.

EXAMPLES. I went last week.  
She came home.

*b.* As an idea word in an adverbial phrase.

EXAMPLES. We slept on cots last night.  
He rests under the sod.

*c.* As an indirect object of a verb, in which case *to*, *for*, or sometimes *of*, could be inserted.

EXAMPLES. Mary gave her brother the book. (to her brother.)  
I made Clara a shawl. (for Clara.)  
Why do you ask John such a question? (of John.)

*d.* As a measure of time, or of distance, or of amount; in which cases, also, some preposition could usually be inserted.

EXAMPLES. I slept three hours. (for or during three hours.)  
We walked seven miles. (for seven miles.)  
The harbor is two miles long. (by two miles. *Long* is an attribute modified by *by two miles*.)  
The ship sailed seven leagues an hour (over seven leagues in each hour.)

## V. Independent uses.

*a.* A noun merely mentioned, used as an exclamation, is independent, since it is not really an element in the sentence.

EXAMPLES. Grace! 'Tis a charming sound.  
The boy! Oh, where was he?

*b.* A noun used in directly addressing some one often forms no part of a sentence, and is therefore called independent.

EXAMPLES. John, I want you.  
Friends, our cause is lost.

Most grammarians call any noun used in direct address independent, even though it is really the subject of an imperative sentence.

EXAMPLE. John, come here.

In such cases the word *you* is supplied as subject of the verb.

A noun used as the idea word in an assertive phrase is called the complement of the predicate, or an attribute of the subject.

EXAMPLE. The building is a hotel.

A noun used as the idea word in a prepositional phrase is called the *object* of the preposition.

A noun following another noun or pronoun to explain or identify it, is called an *appositive*.

*An appositive, together with its modifiers, is usually inclosed by commas.*

EXAMPLE. Stanley, the great explorer, returned to England.

*Independent nouns are followed either by commas or by exclamation points.*

EXAMPLES. Children! I command obedience.  
John, is it cold without?

*The subject of an imperative sentence is usually separated from the predicate by a comma.*

- EXAMPLES. Children, obey me.  
 Obey me, children.  
 Come, children, to me.

## 52. REVIEW.

Tell the uses of the nouns in the following — whether substantive, adjective, objective, adverbial, or independent. (Remember that a word, to be a noun, must be capable of being used as a subject base, without change of meaning.)

1. Grapes ripen in the autumn.
2. A fountain of water sprang up in the desert.
3. Mont Blanc is the monarch of the Alps.
4. The martial airs of England encircle the earth.
5. The angel choir sang joyously on that natal day.
6. She looked a goddess, and she walked a queen.
7. Bancroft, the great historian, lived to be very old.
8. The officers' quarters were at the barracks.
9. Milton wrote "Paradise Lost."
10. We will not fan the flames.
11. The boy studied his lesson intelligently.
12. I promised Charles a ripe pear.
13. We rode horseback fourteen miles.
14. Romans, countrymen, and lovers! hear me for my cause.
15. O judgment! thou art fled to brutish beasts.
16. You voice my sentiments exactly.
17. A horse! a horse! my kingdom for a horse!
18. O coward conscience, how dost thou afflict me!
19. The Indians of Nova Scotia make beautiful baskets.
20. Brevity is the soul of wit.
21. An ice house is needed here.
22. The man's coat was ragged.
23. The rich man gave his children many advantages.
24. We rode many miles in the rain.
25. The President's message was read by the clerk.
26. Columbus, the discoverer of America, was a courageous man.

27. Those evening bells ! those evening bells !  
How many a tale their music tells !
28. Give me three grains of corn, mother.
29. We drove over the mountain in a buggy.
30. The sick child lay many hours unconscious.
31. The young fisherman caught mackerel and cod.
32. Florence Nightingale was a brave woman.
33. We should have started the week before.
34. She seemed a creature fresh from the hand of God.
35. She will be with you Monday.
36. The deed was done yesterday.

#### Exercise.

1. Give three nouns used substantively as subject bases.
2. Give three nouns used adjectively as objects of prepositions.
3. Give three nouns used adjectively as attributes.
4. Give three nouns used adjectively as appositives.
5. Give three nouns used adjectively as possessives.
6. Give three nouns used adjectively to indicate kind.
7. Give three nouns used adverbially as objects of prepositions.
8. Give three nouns used adverbially as indirect objects of verbs.
9. Give three nouns used as adverbial word modifiers.
10. Give three nouns used adverbially as measures of amount, distance, or time.
11. Give three nouns used objectively as objects of verbs.
12. Give three nouns used independently in exclamation.
13. Give three nouns used independently in direct address.

#### 53. REVIEW.

So far, the only adjective modifiers that have been mentioned are modifiers of a subject base. But the modifier of a noun is *always* called an adjective modifier, or element, no matter how the noun is used.

**Any modifier of a noun is called an *adjective element*.**

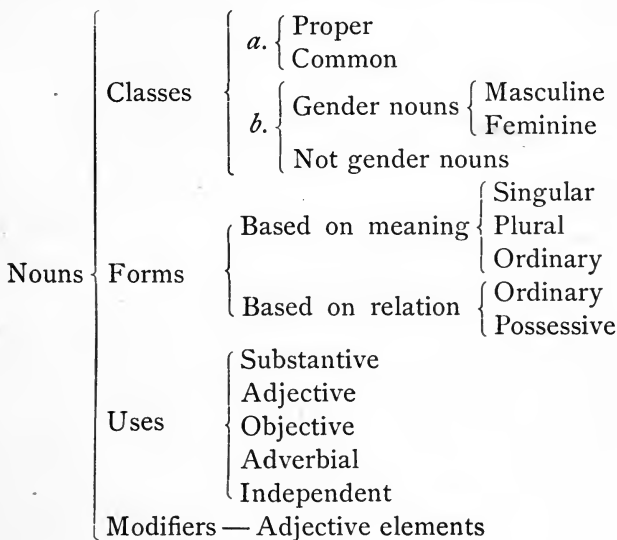
**EXAMPLE.** This piece of seasoned wood will do.

*Seasoned* is a modifier of *wood*, which is the object of a preposition in an adjective phrase. The office which the phrase performs is adjective,

but *wood*, being substantive by nature, is a noun. Hence its modifier *seasoned* is an adjective element.

The giving a full account of a word, including its class, its form, and its use, is called *parsing*.

In parsing a noun, follow the subjoined outline:—



**Exercise.**

Analyze the following sentences, and parse the nouns which they contain:—

1. Three friends, the guests of summer time,  
Pitched their white tent where sea winds blew.
2. One, with head scarce silvered, bore  
A ready credence in his looks.
3. Each day's tide water washed them clean away.
4. From world to world his couriers fly,  
Thought-winged and shod with fire.
5. There I saw, in my dream, that on the morrow he got up to go forward.

6. But Christian had a shield in his hand.
7. He said that a terrible conscience is an unmanly thing.
8. The general moves to-day with his army.
9. I had sunshine all the rest of the way, and also through the Valley of the Shadow of Death.
10. There the enemy's infantry was posted.
11. The little town, which a moment before had seemed to sleep so peacefully on that Sabbath morn, was now wreathed in battle smoke and swarming with troops hurrying to their positions.
12. Our left wing consisted of Wharton's brigade.
13. The Norman barons had many traits which pleased the native Irish.
14. In violent storms steamers cannot make any headway, and it becomes necessary to steam slowly.
15. I brought him to my nurse's cabin.
16. This order was carried out to the letter.
17. "You, madam!" said he, "you have money."
18. You know, dear girls, the rest.
19. The negro was a new element in this country.
20. Mr. Parnell proposed that the British Parliament should retain in its own hands some power.
21. The Sunday law forbids the opening of some shops on Sunday.
22. The scene around me was so beautiful that I scarcely noticed their absence.
23. When Mr. Gladstone became Prime Minister, the Khedive was a puppet in the hands of the British.
24. Congress meets soon.
25. The multitude were eagerly pursuing pleasure.

(For agreement and government of nouns, see Chapter XVI, page 226.)

#### 54. CAUTIONS.

I. Do not omit the apostrophe in writing the possessive case of a noun.

Write from dictation sentences like the following:—

1. Charles's hat and James's coat were stolen from the front hall.
2. I found a bird's nest under the maple tree.
3. The kitten's basket was placed near the stove.



4. Our country's flag floats to the breeze.
5. At the end of the three days' journey we were tired.
6. The man's leg was broken.
7. The men's boots were taken away by the porter.
8. "The Children's Hour" is one of the most beautiful of Longfellow's poems.

II. Do not use the possessive sign with plural nouns which are not possessive in meaning.

Write from dictation sentences like the following:—

1. That row of houses belongs to Mr. Smith.
2. Pens and envelopes lay ready for use.
3. Boots and shoes sold here.

## CHAPTER VII. — ADJECTIVES.

### SYNOPSIS.

An adjective by nature modifies a noun or pronoun.

The modifier of an adjective is an adverbial element.

Adjectives are classified as common or proper. There are also three special classes: relative or conjunctive, interrogative, and pronominal.

Many adjectives are inflected to denote different degrees of the quality they represent. This inflection is based on meaning, and is called comparison.

### 55. DEFINITION OF ADJECTIVES.

The *wise* man will not act hastily.

He who waits is a *wise* man.

In the first sentence, *wise* is an adjective element, because it modifies the substantive base, *man*. In the second, *wise* modifies the attribute *man*, which is a noun used adjectively. But though used adjectively here, the word *man* is still a noun, so we still call its modifier, *wise*, an adjective element.

We'll *man* the boat quickly.

Here *man* is not a noun, for it is used as a predicate verb, and could not be used as a substantive base without changing its meaning; hence its modifiers are adverbial and objective, instead of adjective.

Nouns and pronouns, which are substantive in nature, are modified by adjective elements. A word which modifies a noun or pronoun is, then, an adjective element,

and those words whose natural use is to serve as adjective word elements are called adjectives.

**An adjective is a word whose nature fits it to modify a noun or a pronoun.**

Be careful to distinguish correctly between the terms adjective on the one hand and adjective element or adjective modifier on the other. An adjective is always a word; it is an adjective because of its nature or meaning. An adjective modifier or element is such because of its use; it may be one word or it may consist of several words. An adjective is usually an adjective modifier, but an adjective modifier may or may not be an adjective.

#### Exercise.

In the following select (1) the adjectives and (2) the adjective modifiers: —

1. These old trees of yours need much attention.
2. John's kite is large and heavy.
3. I found three little kittens with blue eyes.
4. The money which you found was mine.
5. The new church which they are building is of brick.
6. A bird, tiny but fearless, alighted near me.
7. Big, black, dangerous-looking clouds gathered.

The ordinary position for an adjective is before the noun which it modifies.

EXAMPLES. The four infirm old men walked slowly.

Often, however, an adjective following an asserter modifies the subject, and is called an attribute of the subject, an attribute adjective, or a predicate adjective.

EXAMPLES. I am old.

He was ill.

## 56. CLASSES OF ADJECTIVES.

As there are two classes of nouns, common and proper, which are distinguished from each other because of the fact that proper nouns are always begun with capital letters, so the same distinction is made in classifying adjectives.

Adjectives that are derived from proper nouns are called *proper adjectives*.

*A proper adjective should begin with a capital letter.*

EXAMPLES. An American citizen.

A European tour.



Congress passed a law. This same law caused the trouble.  
Congress passed a law, *which* same law caused the trouble.

*Which* is an adjective modifying *law*, but it is also a subordinate connective, showing the relation of the subordinate clause to its principal.

There is a class of adjectives which, besides being used as adjectives, are employed as subordinate connectives to show relation. Adjectives so used are called relative or conjunctive adjectives.

EXAMPLES. I do not know which sister I met.

Bring me whatever thread you can find.

A *relative adjective* is an adjective used also as a subordinate connective.

*Which* and *what*, with their compound forms, as *whichever*, *whatever*, etc., are the only relative adjectives in our language.

Any form of an adjective may be used instead of the noun which it would modify if the whole expression were given.

EXAMPLES. The bravest are the tenderest.  
The loving are the daring.  
Many are called but few are chosen.  
Those are John's.

Those adjectives which are frequently used instead of nouns are sometimes called *pronominal adjectives*.

EXAMPLE. This house is my property.

#### Exercise.

Select the pronominal adjectives in the following expressions, and in each case write a sentence using the same word as a pronoun.

1. These pears are not ripe.
2. This door is open.
3. I desire that pen.
4. Are those grapes sour ?
5. Mr. Brown is not so good a teacher as Mr. White ; the former gentleman was learned, but the latter gentleman knows how to impart.
6. Each pupil has a desk.
7. Either cane will do.
8. Neither child is well yet.
9. Some people believe in ghosts.
10. Many people love him.
11. All men have their faults.
12. Such persons deserve their fate.
13. Both disputants were in the wrong.
14. Few soldiers survived the battle.
15. The first arrival shall have the best seat.
16. Little good was accomplished.
17. Give me enough money to live on.
18. Much property descended to the heir.
19. Every man loves something.
20. Several guests have arrived.

*Which* horse won the race?

*What* price do you ask?

These adjectives not only modify the nouns which they precede, but are also used to indicate that the sentence is interrogative. An adjective so used is called an interrogative adjective.

An *interrogative adjective* is an adjective which indicates that the sentence or clause which it introduces is interrogative.

### 57. INFLECTION.

A quality may exist in many degrees, which are indicated by such words as *much*, *very*, and *extremely*. When two objects are compared, the word *more* is sometimes used to show which object possesses the quality in the higher degree. When three or more objects are compared, the highest degree is sometimes indicated by the word *most*.

Many adjectives are altered in form to express these three degrees.

A *small* box is on the floor.

A *smaller* box is on the table.

The *smallest* box is in the drawer.

This inflection of the adjective is called its comparison, and we speak of the positive, comparative, and superlative degrees.

EXAMPLE.	POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
	fine	finer	finest

*Adjectives of one syllable, or of two syllables with the accent on the first, are usually compared by adding er and est to the positive form.*

Some adjectives are compared irregularly.

EXAMPLES.

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
late	later or latter	latest or last
* (nigh)	nigher	nighest or next
fore	former	foremost or first
old	older or elder	oldest or eldest
(forth)	further	{ furthest or furthermost
(aft)	after	{ aftmost or aftermost
far	farther	{ farthest or farthermost
hind	hinder	{ hindmost or hindermost
(in)	inner	{ inmost or innermost
under		undermost
(out)	outer	outmost or outermost
	utter	utmost or uttermost
(up)	upper	{ upmost or uppermost
top		topmost

The three forms of other adjectives are simply a set of words from various sources, resembling one another very little, but yet expressing the three degrees of the quality by different forms.

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
good	better	best
ill	worse	worst
bad	worse	worst
little	less or lesser	least
much	more	most
many	more	most

\* Words inclosed in curves are not adjectives.

Most polysyllabic adjectives are not compared, but express the different degrees of quality by the help of the words *more* and *most*.

EXAMPLE. Beautiful, more beautiful, most beautiful.

Most adjectives representing qualities capable of comparison indicate two degrees below the positive by the aid of the words *less* and *least*.

EXAMPLE. It is less cold in spring than in winter, but least cold in summer.

Some qualities are incapable of comparison. For example, it is incorrect to say *deader*, but the expression *more nearly dead* is correct.

When two objects are compared, use the comparative form, or the word *more*; to express the higher degree (or the word *less* to express the lower degree).

EXAMPLES. He is the taller of the two.  
 He is the more intelligent of the two.  
 Of the two, he is the less fortunate.

When more than two objects are compared, use the superlative form, or the word *most*, to express the highest degree (or the word *least* to express the lowest degree).

EXAMPLES. John is the tallest of the six.  
 John is the most intelligent of all.  
 John is the least fortunate of the three brothers.

The comparison of an adjective is its inflection to indicate different degrees of the quality which it represents.

The three degrees of comparison are the positive, the comparative, and the superlative.



An adjective in the positive degree indicates merely some quality of an object; in the comparative degree it indicates that the object has more of that quality than some other object; in the superlative degree it indicates that the object has more of that quality than two or more other objects.

### Exercise.

Fill the blanks in the following sentences:—

1. John is old, Charles is —, but Henry is the — of the three
2. My cat is — than yours.
3. I have four sons, of whom John is the —.
4. John is the — of the two boys.

In English only two adjectives have number inflections. They are *this* and *that*.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
this	these
that	those

Adjectives indicating quality or kind are rarely used in the place of nouns. When so used they may have the possessive case inflection.

EXAMPLE. Fear not the wicked's malice.

### 58. REVIEW.

A very bright day came at last.

*Very* modifies the adjective *bright*; it tells the *degree* of the brightness.

The modifier of an adjective, however, is often similar in form and meaning to the adverbial modifier of a verb, and is, in fact, called adverbial.

Any modifier of an adjective is called an *adverbial element*.

In parsing an adjective, observe the following outline : —

Adjectives	Classes	{	<i>a</i>	Proper
			Common	
	{	<i>b</i>	Relative	
		Pronominal		
	Forms	{	Interrogative	
			Positive	
Comparative				
Uses	{	<i>a</i>	Superlative	
			Ordinary	
		Predicate complement		
		<i>b</i>	Conjunctive	
			Pronominal	
Modifiers — Adverbial elements	{	Interrogative		

### Exercise.

Parse the adjectives in the following sentences : —

1. John is taller than James, but James is the better boy.
2. Vital spark of heavenly flame !  
Quit, O quit this mortal frame !
3. How doth the little busy bee  
Improve each shining hour,  
And gather honey all the day  
From every opening flower !
4. Her voice was ever soft,  
Gentle and low — an excellent thing in woman.
5. White partridges ran whistling and clucking out of the way.
6. The man was of admirable proportions, not tall, but powerful. He had a strong face, almost negro in color, yet the low, broad forehead, aquiline nose, slanting eyes, and hair profuse, straight, harsh, of metallic luster, and falling to the shoulder in many plaits, were signs of origin impossible to disguise.
7. The traveler's limbs were numb ; for the ride had been long and wearisome.

8. He saw instead a foreground which was just as lovely — the level sunlight lying like transparent gold among the gently curving stems of the feathered grass and the tall red sorrel, and the white umbels of the hemlock lining the bushy hedgerows.
9. By fairy hands their knell is rung ;  
By forms unseen their dirge is sung.
10. Hope tells a flattering tale,  
Delusive, vain, and hollow.
11. The strangely assorted company consisted of an English clergyman, an American journalist, a French dancing master, and a German student.
12. The first and second miles were walked rapidly ; but the third and fourth seemed long and wearisome.
13. The ship made only fifteen miles an hour.
14. The murmuring pines and the hemlocks stand like Druids of eld,  
with voices sad and prophetic.
15. The demands of the tyrant grew ever bolder and more unbearable.
16. Of all sad words of tongue or pen,  
The saddest are these, it might have been.
17. Far, vague, and dim,  
The mountains swim ;  
While on Vesuvius' misty brim,  
With outstretched hands,  
The gray smoke stands  
O'erlooking the volcanic lands.
18. Stalwart and stately in form was the man of seventy winters ;  
Hearty and hale was he, an oak that is covered with snowflakes.
19. A sweeter woman ne'er drew breath,  
Than my son's wife Elizabeth.
20. And now abideth faith, hope, charity, these three ; but the greatest  
of these is charity.
21. A grander, more inspiring sight is seldom witnessed.
22. The doctor pronounced his patient ill yesterday, but worse to-day.
23. The smith, a mighty man is he,  
With large and sinewy hands ;  
And the muscles of his brawny arms  
Are strong as iron bands.
24. There is no sterner moralist than pleasure.
25. I knew not which way I should turn.

## 59. CAUTIONS.

I. Do not use a plural adjective to modify a singular noun, or a singular adjective to modify a plural noun.

Select the proper terms in the following sentences : —

1. This kind of nuts is very oily.  
These
2. This class of people is always ill-bred.  
These
3. Those sort of books is expensive.  
That
4. You have been reading <sup>this</sup> two hours.  
these

II. Do not use *this here*, for *this* ; or *that there*, for *that*.

Write correctly : —

1. That man is lost.  
That there
2. This here example is difficult.  
This
3. That knife is mine.  
That there
4. He came to <sup>this here</sup> house a year ago.  
this

III. Do not use double comparatives or superlatives.

EXAMPLE. *More kinder* is incorrect.

Fill the blanks in each of the following sentences in two different ways : —

1. He seems (comparative of *wise*) than ever.
2. She is the (superlative of *unhappy*) woman I know.
3. Mary has the (superlative of *lovely*) complexion I ever saw.
4. The air is (comparative of *balmy*) to-day than it was yesterday.

Where good authors are found using double comparatives and superlatives, they are supposed to desire great emphasis. The liberty thus taken is an example of what is called license. Such expressions were formerly much more common than now.

EXAMPLE. "This is the most unkindest cut of all."

IV. Use the comparative degree (or *more* or *less*) when two terms are compared, and the superlative (or *most* or *least*) when more than two are compared.

Write correctly: —

1. Which do you like <sup>better,</sup>  
<sub>best,</sub> pears or peaches?
2. John is the <sup>cleverest</sup>  
<sub>cleverer</sub> of the two boys.
3. Choose the <sup>less</sup>  
<sub>least</sub> of two evils.
4. The <sup>wisest</sup>  
<sub>wiser</sub> of the three men was in favor of a compromise.
5. Lucy is the <sup>larger</sup>  
<sub>largest</sub> of these two girls.
6. Which is the <sup>most</sup>  
<sub>more</sub> beautiful city, New York or Washington?

V. Do not use *a* before a vowel sound or *an* before a consonant sound.

Write correctly: —

1. <sup>A</sup>  
<sub>An</sub> owl screeched in the woods.
2. My aunt gave me <sup>a</sup>  
<sub>an</sub> orange.
3. <sup>A</sup>  
<sub>An</sub> hundred men marched by the window.
4. <sup>A</sup>  
<sub>An</sub> orphan boy was taken to the asylum.
5. <sup>An</sup>  
<sub>A</sub> honest man is the noblest work of God.

## CHAPTER VIII. — PRONOUNS.

### SYNOPSIS.

A pronoun is a word which stands for a noun.

The noun for which a pronoun stands is called its antecedent.

The four classes of pronouns are adjective, relative or conjunctive, interrogative, and personal.

The speaker is called the first person; the person spoken to is called the second person; the person or thing spoken of is called the third person.

Pronouns are inflected to show number, gender, and case.

The cases of pronouns are nominative, possessive, and objective.

A pronoun used as a complement or as an appositive must be of the form that it would have if it were in the place of its principal.

### 60. ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

What is a pronoun? (p. 83.)

There are many words which if used with nouns are adjectives, but which are frequently used without the nouns. In the latter case they really represent the nouns, and are therefore pronouns. These words are called adjective pronouns when used as pronouns, and pronominal adjectives when used as adjectives.

EXAMPLE. *One* man is tall. Pronominal adjective.

*One* is short. Adjective pronoun.

*These* children are good.

*These* are not.

This use of a word to represent the noun which it modifies is a good example of the economical tendency of

our language. The omission of the noun which has either been previously mentioned or is perfectly understood is a saving of time.

An adjective pronoun is a word which may be used to modify the noun which it represents.

A few adjective pronouns are declined as follows:—

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	ORDINARY.	POSSESSIVE.
this	these	one	one's
that	those	another	another's
		other	other's
		latter	latter's
		former	former's

#### Exercise.

Point out the adjective pronouns in the following sentences:—

- All those in favor of the motion, please say aye.
- Few, few shall part where many meet.
- Neither is correct; in fact, both are wrong.
- Each of us must try to understand.
- Both of those men were present at the trial.
- Who are these in bright array?
- You may expect to see such as I am in the assemblies of men.
- You may repeat this as I have told you.
- John and James went abroad; the former stayed a year, while the latter returned almost immediately.
- Some must work while others weep.
- This is mine; that is yours.
- A barrel of apples came by express to us, but most of them were spoiled.
- I have enough to last a month.
- Some of these trees are dead and must be cut down.
- Both of them were wrong, but neither was willing to acknowledge it.
- The former subject has been discussed; the latter has not.
- I do not know which to choose.
- No one answered me.

## 61. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

The man who entered the room is the speaker.

In this sentence *who* shows the relation of an adjective clause to its principal. *Who* also stands for the noun *man*.

As the noun for which a pronoun stands usually precedes the pronoun, it is called the **antecedent** of the pronoun. In the above sentence, *man* is the antecedent of the pronoun *who*, and is the principal of the clause which *who* introduces.

Five pronouns, *who*, *which*, *what*, *that*, and *as*, are used to represent nouns, and to serve also as subordinate connectives. Hence these pronouns are called relative or conjunctive pronouns.

What I do, you know.

*What* means *the thing which* (or *the things which*). *What* is another example of economy by the use of a word complex in meaning. It contains within itself the ideas of both the antecedent and its relation.

Relative pronouns are not altered to show number or sex. *Who* varies to show relation, and *which* and *that* take *whose* for a possessive form, but *what* and *as* are never used as possessives, and do not vary in form.

I do not know *who* is here.

I do not know *who* he is.

I do not know *whose* hat this is.

I do not know *whom* we met.

I do not know to *whom* I wrote.

How is each of these relative pronouns used? What form is used as substantive element in the subordinate



clause? How else is the same form used? What is the possessive form? What form is used as objective modifier of the predicate verb in the subordinate clause? How else is the same form used?

Pronouns have three case forms. The form which is used as substantive element or base, called the *nominative* form, is also employed when the pronoun is used independently, or as complement in an assertive phrase. The form which is used as objective modifier of a verb, called the *objective* form, is also used as base of the idea part of a prepositional phrase; that is, as object of a preposition.

<i>Nominative.</i>	who	which	that
<i>Possessive.</i>	whose	whose	whose
<i>Objective.</i>	whom	which	that

Relative pronouns are always used as pronouns in the clauses which as connectives they introduce.

EXAMPLE. The friend whom I loved, I lost.

*Whom* is used as objective modifier of the predicate base in the clause *whom I loved*, and it also introduces the clause.

**A relative pronoun is a pronoun which serves as a subordinate connective.**

#### Exercise.

Point out the relative pronouns in the following sentences, and tell what office each serves in its own clause.

1. We always like those who admire us; we do not always like those whom we admire.
2. I have returned the umbrella which I borrowed.
3. Take what is given you and be thankful.
4. He that hath ears to hear, let him hear.
5. The child who studies will learn.
6. The pilgrims ate such food as they could get.
7. They drove on in spite of the storm that raged.
8. Hail to the chief who in triumph advances.

9. Will the boy whose name has just been called please stand ?
10. This is the book of which I spoke.
11. The elm tree under which Washington took command of the army still stands.
12. In the nest which was high in the apple tree, we found four young robins.
13. Our remedies oft in ourselves do lie  
Which we ascribe to heaven.
14. There is a Reaper whose name is Death.
15. No tears dim the sweet look that nature wears.
16. The soul that slumbers is dead.
17. He had that delicacy of expression which has always been thought to indicate a sensitive spirit.
18. The book, through which I glanced rapidly, seemed well adapted for the purpose.
19. I remember what you said to me.

The relative pronouns have compound forms, as follows : —

whoso		
whoever	whichever	whatever
whosoever	whicheversoever	whatsoever

These compound forms have no expressed antecedent. Four of them are declined like the simple forms from which they are derived.

<i>Nominative.</i>	whoever	whichever	whosoever	whicheversoever
<i>Possessive.</i>	whosever	whosever	whosoesoever	whosoesoever
<i>Objective.</i>	whomever	whichever	whomsoever	whicheversoever

I employ *whomever* I can get. (any person whom)

*Whomever* is the object of *employ* in the principal clause, and of *can get* in the subordinate clause. It therefore has the objective form.

I will employ *whoever* will come. (any person who)

*Whoever* represents the entire idea *any person who*.

It is the object of *will employ* in the principal clause, but because it is the subject of *will come* in the subordinate clause its form is nominative. In such a case the compound pronoun always takes the form suited to its use in the subordinate clause.

These pronouns in the following sentences have the same uses as the simple relative pronouns:—

1. Whoever will, let him partake of the water of life freely.
2. All things whatsoever ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so to them.
3. Whatsoever is worth doing, is worth doing well.
4. Whosoever keepeth the law is a wise son.
5. I will take whichever you please.
6. Whatever is, is right.

## 62. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

*Who*, *which*, and *what* are sometimes employed to introduce questions. They represent nouns usually known, but found only in the answers to the questions which they introduce. When serving this purpose, they are called interrogative pronouns.

EXAMPLES. Who is that? The commanding officer of the regiment.  
What did the band play? "The Star-Spangled Banner."  
Which will you have? The silk flag.

*Who* has the case forms *whose* and *whom*; but the interrogative pronouns *which* and *what* have no case forms, and are not used in the possessive.

The interrogative pronoun has many of the uses that a noun has. Look at the list of the uses of nouns (pages

98-100), and give sentences illustrating all the possible uses of interrogative pronouns.

*Who* asks for a person, *what* asks for a thing, *which* asks for either a person or a thing, and usually offers a choice.

- EXAMPLES. Who comes here? (what person)  
What does he want? (what thing)  
Which of us shall meet him? (a choice offered)

An interrogative pronoun is a pronoun which indicates that the sentence or clause in which it occurs is interrogative.

#### Exercise.

Tell the uses of the interrogative pronouns in the following expressions: —

1. What shall I bring you from Europe?
2. Who killed Cock Robin?
3. What are the wild waves saying?
4. With whom were you walking?
5. Whose apple is the red one?
6. With whom were you speaking?
7. Who wrote "Lead, Kindly Light?"
8. Which of these apples is the best for cooking?
9. In whose care did you say the child was left?
10. What is the name of this flower?
11. The virtues of whom did he praise?
12. What! Do you think I am cruel?

### 63. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

There are very few pure pronouns, for most pronouns perform some other office in the sentence besides filling the places of nouns.

The ordinary pure pronouns are *I*, *you*, *he*, with their inflections or additional forms, as *she*, *it*, *they*, and their compound forms, *myself*, *yourself*, *himself*, *herself*, *itself*, and *themselves*.

*I* talk to *you* about *her*.

*I* represents the speaker. *You* represents the person spoken to. *Her* represents the person spoken of.

*We* told *you* of *him*.

*Our* friend found *it* in *your* garden.

In the first sentence, which of the pronouns represents the speaker? Which represents the person spoken to? Which represents the person spoken of? In the second sentence, which of the pronouns represents the speaker? Which represents the person spoken to? Which represents the thing spoken of?

A pronoun representing the speaker is said to be in the *first person*; the pronoun representing the person spoken to is in the *second person*; the pronoun representing the person or thing spoken of is in the *third person*.

Person is a distinction between the speaker, the person spoken to, and the person or thing spoken of.

The form of a pure pronoun shows in which person the pronoun is. These pronouns are therefore called personal pronouns.

My dog lost his collar. He lost it yesterday.

*My* is a pronoun representing the name of the first person, which name, though not mentioned, is its antecedent. *His* and *he* represent the noun *dog*, which noun is called their antecedent. Likewise, *collar* is the antecedent of *it*.

The antecedent for which the pronouns of the first and second person stand are very seldom mentioned, but the antecedents of the pronouns of the third person are generally mentioned before the pronouns.

A personal pronoun is a pure pronoun which by its form indicates its person.

Personal pronouns are used much as nouns are, except that it is usually incorrect to use a simple pronoun as an appositive.

EXAMPLES. It is wrong to say, as many do, "My sister she went," or, "My brother he came," or, "The doctor he wrote a prescription."

But the compounds are frequently so used to strengthen or emphasize a statement, and the simple pronoun may be repeated for the same purpose.

EXAMPLES. I myself assisted. He said it himself.  
I hate him, him who has injured me.  
John himself said it.

Simple personal pronouns showing the individuals for which the plural stands are sometimes so used.

EXAMPLE. We, he and I, went with the crowd.

The pronouns so used are sometimes called partitive appositives. What is an appositive?

The personal pronouns change their forms much more than do nouns; the changes are, in some cases, so great that no one would recognize any relation between two forms of the same pronoun, and some words grouped as forms of the same pronoun are entirely different words. *I* and *we*, *me* and *us*, for instance, without a letter in common, are called forms of the same pronoun, since they all stand for the first person.

FIRST PERSON :	I, my, mine, me, we, our, ours, us.
SECOND PERSON :	you, your, yours.
THIRD PERSON :	{ he, his, him. she, her, hers. it, its. they, their, theirs, them.

Changes in the forms of pronouns are made — as in the case of nouns — to show either changes of meaning or different relations in the sentence. The changes based on meaning include number inflection and gender inflection.

The two numbers, like those of nouns, are singular and plural. One pronoun has three gender forms: masculine, indicating males; feminine, indicating females; and neuter, indicating usually objects without sex (or thought of without regard to sex): — *he, she, it*. These variations to show gender occur only in the singular of the third person.

*I* spoke. Speak not of *my* faults. Speak to *me*.

Inflections to show relation give to several pronouns the three case forms,—the nominative, the possessive, and the objective.

For convenience, the inflection of the pronouns is given in tabular form, called the Declension of the Pronoun.

## FIRST PERSON.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>Nominative.</i>	I	we
<i>Possessive.</i>	my or mine	our or ours
<i>Objective.</i>	me	us

## SECOND PERSON.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>Nominative.</i>	you	you
<i>Possessive.</i>	your or yours	your or yours
<i>Objective.</i>	you	you

## THIRD PERSON.

	SINGULAR.			PLURAL.
	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.	
<i>Nominative.</i>	he	she	it	they
<i>Possessive.</i>	his	her or hers	its	their or theirs
<i>Objective.</i>	him	her	it	them

The declension of the pronoun is more troublesome than that of nouns, because the noun has only one form for all uses save the possessive, whereas some of the pronouns have differing nominative and objective forms as well as possessive forms. Which pronouns are they?

The possessive form is usually required when the pronoun is used as an adjective word modifier.

The objective form is required when the pronoun is used as the direct or indirect object of an active verb, or as the object of a preposition (idea part of a phrase).

EXAMPLE.  $\frac{I}{1}$  whipped  $\frac{my}{2}$  dog and hurt  $\frac{him}{3}$  badly.

1. Nominative form, substantive use.
2. Possessive form, adjective use.
3. Objective form, objective use.

It is *I*.

My son was *he* whom you saw.

The speaker, *he* whom I praised, got the medal.

I called the servant — *him* whom I suspected — to my room.

*I* identifies the subject, and hence has the substantive or nominative form. *He* identifies the subject, and hence also has the subjective or nominative form. *Him* identifies the object, and hence has the objective form.

A pronoun used as an attribute or as an appositive must be of the form which it would have were it in the place of its principal.

#### Exercise.

Select the personal pronouns in the following and tell the case form and the number form of each, giving reasons: —

1. I wrote a long letter to my friend yesterday.



2. She answered it at once and relieved my anxiety.
3. I have immortal longings in me.
4. Her voice is ever soft.
5. Blow, winds, and crack your cheeks.
6. I would give you some of my violets, but they are withering.
7. The doctor himself said there was no chance for her recovery.
8. You yourself must attend to your own business if you wish it transacted to suit you.
9. We have tried to please you.
10. Think of us as traveling slowly onward.
11. Give us a taste of your quality.
12. I thank you for your kindness to your child ; he also appreciates it, I assure you.
13. Let the wicked forsake his way.
14. They shall beat their swords into plowshares.
15. Woe unto them that call evil good.
16. Give me neither poverty nor riches.
17. Her children shall rise up and call her blessed.
18. We hanged our harps upon the willows.
19. Their path lay through the woods.
20. The dog persisted in going with them, though they repeatedly drove him back.
21. You must wake and call me early.
22. She herself told the story ; therefore it must be true.
23. The little bird fell out of its nest and was taken by the cat.
24. Stand ! The ground's your own, my Braves.
25. You who have tears to shed, prepare to shed them now.
26. Put your trust in God, my boys, and keep your powder dry.
27. First say to yourself what you would be ; and then do what you have to do.
28. I believe in him thoroughly, for though I have known him a long time, I have never found him in the wrong.

In the Bible, sometimes in poetry and in scornful exclamations, and among the Quakers or Friends, *thou*, *thy* or *thine*, and *thee*, in the singular, and *ye*, *your*, and *you* in the plural, are used in the second person. They are called the "solemn forms."

## OLD STYLE SECOND PERSON.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>Nominative.</i>	thou	ye
<i>Possessive.</i>	thy or thine	your
<i>Objective.</i>	thee	you

EXAMPLES. Be thou faithful unto death.  
 Be ye angry and sin not.  
 Blessed shall be thy basket and thy store.  
 The Philistines be upon thee, Samson.  
 If ye oppress not the stranger, the fatherless, and the  
 widow, . . . then will I cause you to dwell in this  
 place.  
 And I have loved thee, Ocean.



“John, whose horse is that?” “It is mine” (my horse, John’s horse).

*Mine* represents both *horse* and *John*.

Some very curious forms of personal pronouns are *mine*, *ours*, *yours*, *hers*, *theirs*, and in solemn style *thine*. These pronouns stand for two antecedents, the name of the thing owned, and the name of the person who owns it. *His* is used in like manner, but is the same in form as the ordinary possessive.

This horse is yours.

*Yours* represents the entire attribute *your horse*. It is possessive in form, but is used as an attribute in place of *horse*.

Such pronouns always represent two ideas. They are possessive in form to agree with the subordinate idea represented, but their use is that of the principal. They

resemble in use the adjective pronouns, since they represent the nouns which as possessives they would modify.

NOTE.— In some writers the forms *mine* and *thine* will be found used just as *my* and *thy* are.

EXAMPLE. Lend me thine ear.

### Exercise.

Tell the form and use of each pronoun in the following expressions:—

1. What's mine is yours, and what is yours is mine.
2. The slate is hers, but the pencil is his.
3. She is mine, she is mine,  
So I swear to the rose ;  
For ever and ever mine.
4. Thine is the kingdom, and the power, and the glory.
5. Theirs not to make reply,  
Theirs not to reason why,  
Theirs but to do and die.
6. O love! What hours were thine and mine  
In lands of palm and southern pine.
7. The money is his to do with what he pleases.

## 64. COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

The compound personal pronouns are never used as possessives, and do not vary in form except to express number.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
myself	ourselves
yourself	yourselves
himself	themselves
herself	
itself	

The solemn form of the second person singular is *thyself*, plural *yourselves*.

The compound personal pronouns may be used in several of the ways in which the nouns for which they stand would be used.

EXAMPLES. I myself have seen it rise.  
 It was indeed himself.  
 I asked myself the question.  
 I hurt myself.

These pronouns have also two special uses. They emphasize the person indicated, or they indicate that the action is reflected on the actor. These are called the emphatic and reflexive uses of the pronouns. In which of the sentences above is the pronoun reflexive? In which is it emphatic?

NOTE.—These pronouns are parsed without regard to this added shade of meaning.

The idea which the compound pronouns cannot express, for want of a possessive form, is often expressed by the adjective *own*.

EXAMPLE. I like my own way best.

## 65. REVIEW.

In general, pronouns have fewer modifiers than do nouns.

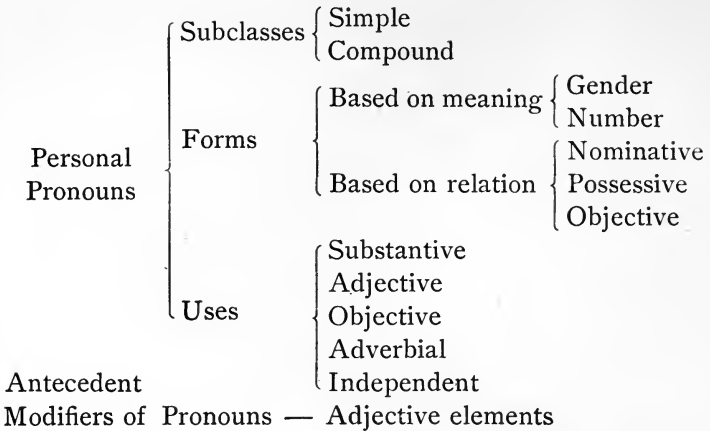
Every modifier of a pronoun, however the pronoun is used, is an adjective element.

The derivation of our language from many sources makes it very rich in words whose meaning is almost the same, and also causes it to be capable of expressing the same thought or idea in a great variety of ways. In Chapter III., page 63, it was seen that an element of one class

is easily converted into an element of either of the other classes, with slight alteration in meaning. No words aid more than pronouns in doing this.

In parsing a pronoun, observe the following outline :—

Adjective Pronouns	Forms	Based on meaning — Number	
		Based on use	{ Ordinary Possessive
Adjective Pronouns	Uses	Substantive	
		Objective	
Adjective Pronouns	Uses	Adverbial	
		Independent	
Relative Pronouns	Subclasses	Simple	
		Compound	
	Forms	Based on relation	{ Nominative Possessive Objective
Relative Pronouns	Uses	As connectives	
		In clauses	
Interrogative Pronouns	Subclasses	Simple	
		Compound	
	Forms	Based on relation	{ Nominative Possessive Objective
Interrogative Pronouns	Uses	Substantive	
		Adjective	
Interrogative Pronouns	Uses	Objective	
		Adverbial	
Interrogative Pronouns	Uses	Independent	

**Exercise.**

Analyze the following sentences and parse the pronouns which they contain : —

1. My little doves have left a nest  
Upon an Indian tree  
Whose leaves fantastic take their rest  
Or motion from the sea.
2. He saw not the roses so sweet and so red  
That looked through his window.
3. O river ! Why lie with your beautiful face  
To the hill? Can you move him away from his place?  
You may moan, you may clasp him with soft arms forever —  
He will still be a flinty hill — you be a river.
4. And these two saw in her grassy bower,  
As they sailed the way the river run,  
A little modest slim-necked flower  
Nodding and nodding up to the sun,  
And they made about her a little song  
And sung it as they sailed along.
5. He has given us a law for the lamp of our path :  
If we stray from it we err against knowledge.

6. A voice was heard to sing one of those wild and monotonous strains so common in Scotland and to which the natives of that country chant their ballads.
7. That is all that is necessary to be said.
8. "What do you want, gudewife? Who are you?" said Bailie Middleburg.
9. Are you then the person who requested to meet me here at this secluded bower?
10. "What is it you feel?" he said impatiently.
11. To whom think you is your life of such consequence that they should seek to bereave you of it?
12. One whose name I do not remember spoke of Chaucer.
13. My soul with patience waits  
For Thee, the living Lord;  
My hopes are on Thy promise built,  
Thy never failing word.
14. This is the day of prayer;  
Let earth to heaven draw near,  
Lift up the heart to see Thee there,  
Come down to meet us here.
15. Both Jefferson and Hamilton failed to strike the happy mean which Washington attained; the former because of too great faith in the wisdom of the people, the latter, by an overcautious nature.
16. How tender is Thy hand,  
O Thou most gracious Lord!
17. O Thou from whom all goodness flows,  
I lift my soul to Thee.

(For government and agreement of pronouns, see Chapter XVI., pages 227-229.)

## 66. CAUTIONS.

I. Do not insert an apostrophe in pronouns denoting possession.

Write from dictation sentences like the following:—

- |                        |                                     |
|------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1. The book is hers.   | 4. I asked him to lend me his book. |
| 2. This horse is ours. | 5. Whose coat is that?              |
| 3. Its cover is torn.  |                                     |

II. Do not use the objective form of a pronoun as subject base.

Write correctly : —

1. She and I went for a walk.  
Her and me
2. He and Lucy ran for a doctor.  
Him
3. She writes more legibly than I (than I do).  
me
4. Him and she played together.  
He and her
5. She walks faster than we.  
us.
6. There were at the rehearsal only her and me.  
she and I.
7. We girls are getting up a fair.  
Us
8. He is a singer who I know will interest you.  
whom
9. Whom shall I say asked for you ?  
Who

III. Do not use the nominative of a pronoun as object of a verb or preposition.

Write correctly : —

1. Who did you mention ?  
Whom
2. Whom shall I ask to go on the errand ?  
Who
3. I wish he would ask you and me.  
I.
4. Who did you travel with ?  
Whom
5. The money is to be divided between you and I.  
me.
6. Whom should I see at the station but she ?  
Who her ?



7. She is the girl <sup>whom</sup><sub>who</sub> I most admire.
8. I hope she will let you and <sup>me</sup><sub>I</sub> go on the errand.
9. I think she wished <sup>he</sup><sub>him</sub> and <sup>me</sup><sub>I</sub> to go away.
10. <sup>Whom</sup><sub>Who</sub> shall I telegraph to ?
11. Let <sup>thou</sup><sub>thee</sub> and <sup>I</sup><sub>me</sub> the bottle try.

IV. Remember that an asserter, since it asserts identity between its subject and its complement, requires for its complement the same case form of the pronoun as would be used for its subject.

Write correctly : —

1. It was <sup>me.</sup><sub>I.</sub>
2. It was not <sup>her.</sup><sub>she.</sub>
3. It was <sup>he</sup><sub>him</sub> who spoke.
4. It was <sup>him.</sup><sub>he.</sub>
5. Was it <sup>me</sup><sub>I</sub> or <sup>she?</sup><sub>her?</sub>
6. It was not <sup>we.</sup><sub>us.</sub>
7. Is it <sup>me?</sup><sub>I?</sub>
8. It was not <sup>we</sup><sub>us</sub> who did it ; it was <sup>them.</sup><sub>they.</sub>

V. A pronoun must agree with the idea represented by its antecedent in gender, person, and number. (Nouns modified by *each* and *every* are singular antecedents.

When either masculine or feminine gender may be understood the pronoun should be masculine.)

Fill the following blanks correctly : —

1. Every one should attend to — own business.
2. Everybody will please bring — paper to the desk.
3. Every person should improve — mind.
4. A pupil who studies — lessons hard is apt to learn.
5. Every boy will please stand by — own desk.
6. None of the girls should go out to play without — hats on.
7. The flock of birds abandoned by — leader settled slowly down.
8. If any man present objects — will please say so now.
9. Have a place for everything and keep everything in — place.

#### VI. Do not use simple personal pronouns as appositives.

Write the following correctly : —

1. John he went yesterday, but Mary she stayed at home.  
John Mary she
2. Jenny and her aunt came on a visit.  
Jenny and her aunt they
3. The book it lay on the table.  
The book
4. The king he commanded obedience.  
The king
5. The frog would a wooing go.  
The frog he

#### VII. Do not use *myself* where a simple personal pronoun is needed.

Fill the following blanks correctly with pronouns of the first person : —

1. John and — went fishing last week.
2. He and — are of the same age.
3. The secret is between him and —.
4. They sent an invitation to Charles and —.
5. The storm overtook mother and — before we reached home.

VIII. Do not use the relative pronoun *that* to introduce a clause unless you make it an element in the subordinate clause which it introduces.

Write correctly: —

1. { The man wrote a book that you couldn't learn anything from it. }  
 { The man wrote a book that you couldn't learn anything from. }  
 { The man wrote a book from which you couldn't learn anything. }
2. The children <sup>that they</sup> have finished their play may come in.  
                   that
3. { I have a horse that no one can tell whether he is going to run }  
       or not.  
 { I have a horse about which no one can tell whether he is }  
       going to run or not.  
 { I have a horse that no one can tell about — whether he is }  
       going to run or not.

IX. Do not use *hissself*, *theirsself*, *theirselves*, *yourn*, *hern*, *his'n* or *her'n*.

Write correctly the following, inserting compound personal pronouns or possessives with complex meanings.

1. James — is here.
2. The book is —.
3. Even grammarians — make mistakes.
4. — is used up, but — is lasting well.
5. They who — use profane language need not blame others.

X. Do not use the pronoun *them* for the adjective *those*.

Write correctly the following sentences, giving your reason for the form selected: —

1. Them boys threw stones.  
    Those
2. I told them to stop.  
           those
3. They meant to get those peaches.  
                   them

XI. A pronoun which represents a collective noun should be neuter singular if the collection is considered as a unit, but plural if the collection is considered in its parts.

EXAMPLES. The congregation expressed its feeling by a cheer.  
The congregation kept their seats.

A compound is represented by the pronoun which indicates the number meant.

EXAMPLES. The child and his nurse lost their way.  
Washington, or the father of his country, loved his soldiers.

It is sometimes difficult to represent properly a compound by a pronoun.

EXAMPLES. Did the boy or his sisters have their way?  
Did the girls or their brother have his way?  
This is grammatically correct, but the meaning is obscure.

EXAMPLES. You, not I, will get your discharge.  
Not you, but I, will get my discharge.  
Both of these expressions are ambiguous in meaning.

Insert the proper pronoun in the following blanks, and give your reason; or rewrite, avoiding the use of one pronoun to represent two different antecedents, and tell why:—

1. The woods against a stormy sky  
— giant branches tossed.
2. The regiment lost — colonel.
3. The regiment lost many of — horses.
4. The colonel and his men lost — courage.
5. Either the colonel or his men lost — courage.
6. Either the men or the colonel lost — courage.
7. Not the colonel but his men lost — courage.
8. The colonel, not his men, lost — courage.

## CHAPTER IX. — VERBS.

### SYNOPSIS.

A verb is a word expressing action.

The verb forms used as complements represent the action either as progressing or as completed, and are called participles.

The simplest form of the verb, when not used as predicate verb, is called the infinitive.

Tense inflection is variation in form to indicate time.

There are a few inflections of the verb determined by its subject.

Verbs are classified as regular or irregular, transitive or intransitive.

The chief asserters are the forms of *to be*.

The infinitive and participial forms of an asserter, when used to indicate relation, form copulative infinitive phrases and participial phrases.

A group of verb forms is sometimes employed as predicate base; the word representing the action that is asserted is called the principal verb, and the other verb forms are called auxiliaries.

Auxiliaries are variously used: some as asserters and also to show time and others to show also some condition of the verb's meaning with reference to the subject.

### 67. THE ASSERTER (COPULA).

We have seen that a predicate element makes an assertion and that this power of asserting is necessary to a predicate (pp. 24, 25).

#### Exercise.

Underline the predicate bases in each of the following sentences: —

1. It is raining.
2. He is sleeping.
3. The wind was blowing.
4. "Was it not great? Was it not well done?"

5. "Yes, it was just. His loss was not a common one."
6. The rain is falling very fast.
7. That we were caught was the pity.

A large proportion of predicate bases consist of groups of words.

I <i>am</i> an author.	I <i>am</i> discovered.
I <i>am</i> tired.	Samson <i>was</i> a giant.
I <i>am</i> here.	Samson's enemies <i>were</i> powerful.
I <i>am</i> writing.	Samson <i>was</i> overcome.

In each of these sentences an asserter (*am*, *was*, or *were*) asserts the relation of some following word (idea) to the subject.

The sentences given above are all constructed on the same plan, that is, with an asserter followed by that which is asserted. This kind of predicate base is, in fact, very characteristic of the English language. If you ask a Frenchman or a German what he is doing, he answers, *I speak*. But an Englishman or an American usually answers the same question by saying, *I am speaking*.

A Frenchman or a German does not ask, *What are you doing?* but *What do you?*

The peculiarity of the idiomatic English predicate is that it is very likely to consist of an asserter (copula) and complement. This asserter is that part of the predicate which asserts the relation of the complement to the subject of the sentence.

### 68. COMPLEMENTS.

Let us study some predicate bases.

I am reading a book.

The predicate base of this sentence consists of an

asserter, *am*, and a word representing an action, *reading*. The complement in this predicate expresses an action which the subject is performing. This predicate base is called *active* because it shows that the subject acts.

Any predicate base which represents the subject as acting, doing, or having is called *active*.

This book is read by me.

The predicate base of this sentence, *is read*, consists of an asserter, *is*, and a word representing an action, *read*. The complement in this predicate expresses an action received by the subject.

Any predicate base which represents the subject as receiving an action is called *passive*.

In both active and passive predicate bases, the complement is a verb.

Dickens is an author.

The predicate base of this sentence consists of an asserter, *is*, and an attribute or complement, *author*. The complement in this predicate is a noun which describes the subject.

The book is instructive.

The predicate base of this sentence consists of an asserter, *is*, and an attribute of the subject, *instructive*. The complement in this predicate is an adjective which describes the subject.

The predicate bases, *is author*, *is instructive*, do not express action, and contain no verb besides the copula; hence they are neither active nor passive. The predicate bases *am reading*, *is read*, express action, and each contains, besides the asserter, a verb to represent this action.

Every active or passive predicate base contains a verb to represent the action that is asserted.

**Exercise.**

In the following sentences tell which predicate bases are active, which are passive, and which are neither : —

1. An avalanche is falling.
2. We are flying from it.
3. The chalet will be destroyed by it.
4. The spectacle is awful.
5. Our lamp is full.
6. It was filled this morning.
7. It is burning well.
8. Many soldiers are gathering at the park.
9. They are handsome men.
10. The mayor was pleased by their salute.

Change the following active predicate bases to passive predicate bases : —

1. I was driving a horse.
2. The stone is crushing the flower.
3. She was singing a song.

Change the following passive predicate bases to active predicate bases : —

1. A man was killed by the engine.
2. The gas is lighted by the janitor.
3. Our organ was played by our teacher.

**69. FORMS OF VERBAL COMPLEMENTS.**

These children are singing.

They were singing yesterday.

They will be singing to-morrow.

In the first of these sentences, the action is asserted as being performed now ; in the second, as being performed



in the past; and in the third, as to be performed in the future. But in all these cases the action is *being performed* (or *to be performed*) at the time asserted.

**Exercise.**

When is the action being performed in each of the following sentences?

1. The wind was blowing.
2. Our children were running.
3. Birds are caroling.
4. The sun is shining.
5. The bell will soon be ringing.
6. The pupils will be playing at recess.
7. I am expecting to see them.

They have sung.

They had sung yesterday.

They will have sung to-morrow.

In the first of these sentences the perfected or completed action (sung) is asserted in present time (have); in the second, it is asserted in the past (had); and in the third, in the future (will have). But in all these cases the *completed* action is asserted.

**Exercise.**

When are the actions asserted in the following sentences?

1. I shall have finished my task soon.
2. I have finished mine already.
3. Julia had finished hers before dinner.
4. The lady has sung well; let us applaud her.
5. When he shall have recited, applaud him.
6. We had rested before the opera.
7. You will have heard of me at this time next year.
8. I have received an answer to my note.

I am reading the book.  
 I have read the book.  
 The book is read by me.

The verbs used as complements in these sentences express the same action and are employed in corresponding positions, but are of two forms. One form is used to express an action which is in progress, and the other form is used to express an action completed.



You are writing a letter.  
 You have written a letter.  
 The letter is written by you.  
 The wind is fanning the leaves.  
 The wind has fanned the leaves.  
 The leaves are fanned by the wind.

In the above sentences which are the progressive forms? Which are the completed forms? Does the passive predicate use the progressive or the completed form of the verb?

The words *am, is, are, was, and were* assert the completed form as being *received* by the subject; the words *have, has, and had* assert the completed form as being *done* by the subject.

#### 70. PREDICATE VERB.

The assertion, *Dickens was an author*, cannot be made without the asserter *was*. The assertion, *His books are instructive*, cannot be made without the employment of the asserter *are*. But the assertion, *I am reading it*, can be made without the asserter *am*, by use of the simple form of the verb: *I read it*.

*I am going* is similar in meaning to *I go*.

*I am writing* is similar in meaning to *I write*.

*They are skating* is similar in meaning to *They skate*.

*My head is aching* is similar in meaning to *My head aches*.

Each of the verbs, *go*, *write*, etc., performs two offices: it represents action, and it asserts the relation of the action to the subject of the sentence. What is this form of the verb called?

The asserter asserts the relation which a complement bears to the subject; the predicate verb asserts the relation which its own meaning bears to the subject.

#### Exercise.

Analyze the predicates in the following sentences, and change the asserters and complement bases to predicate verbs: —

1. The basket fell into the well.
2. The water is gurgling in the pipe.
3. From the mountains a soft wind is blowing.
4. An iceberg was moving toward our doomed vessel.
5. The vessel moves slowly into the harbor.
6. My pen writes the words reluctantly.

The words asserting possession are verbs (p. 36). In *I have done my best*, the word *have* is an asserter; in *I have a good voice*, *have* is a predicate verb.

#### Exercise.

In the following sentences, tell how *have*, *has*, and *had* are used: —

1. I have engaged a maid who has many good qualities.
2. We had no time, but we had money.
3. You should have come early, for we had refreshments.
4. You have no room?
5. I had engaged one.
6. Herbert has laughed several times to-night.

A predicate base may be considered as always consisting of two parts; an idea part related to, or modifying, the subject, and a relation part asserting the relation of the idea part to the subject. The idea part of the predicate base is attributive, while the relation part is assertive.

The rain *is falling*.

John *is resting*.

The assertive part of each of these active predicate bases is the asserter; the attribute part is a verb.

The roof *was mended*.

The assertive part of this passive predicate base is the asserter; the attribute part is a verb.

I *am a teacher*.

It *is I*.

The day *is cold*.

The boy *is weary*.

The assertive part of each of these predicate bases, which are neither active nor passive, is the asserter; the attribute part is a noun, pronoun, or adjective.

The rain *falls*.

The predicate verb is a verb that contains within itself both the attribute idea and the assertive power. That is, the one verb is both attribute and asserter — complement and copula. Thus it is seen that a verb may be attribute only, or it may, by the way it is used, combine the attribute and assertive functions.

## Exercise.

Analyze the predicates in the following sentences. Change the predicate verbs to asserters and complements.

1. Those men are carpenters.
2. They have builded well.
3. The children sing well to-day.
4. They sang well when I heard them.
5. They are well drilled.
6. The songs, too, are good.
7. I enjoy this music.

## 71. SIMPLEST FORM.

The simplest form of the verb represents the verb's meaning without the addition of any inflection.

EXAMPLES. Love, strike, go, rest, possess, live

This is the ordinary form of the verb.

When this form of the verb is not related or limited to any particular subject or time, it is called the infinitive.

EXAMPLES. Die, love, sing, go.

This form of the verb is frequently the idea part of a phrase whose relation word is *to*; the phrase thus formed is called the **infinitive phrase**, or often merely the infinitive.

EXAMPLES. To die, to love, to sing, to go.

The infinitive phrase is used much as other phrases are used, except that it never performs the assertive office.

EXAMPLES. To see her is to love her.

To be a well-favored man is the gift of fortune.

My desire is to study art.

I like to study.

I went to town to buy a book.

His desire to study was very great.

Tell what kind of element each of these phrases is.

The infinitive is the simplest form of the verb, usually united with the preposition *to* to represent an action unrelated to any subject or time.

#### Exercise.

Select the infinitives from the following sentences : —

1. I hope to go to Europe.
2. John failed to find the ball.
3. They have left unstained what there they found,  
Freedom to worship God.
4. To speak truly, I desire it not.
5. Something the heart must have to cherish.
6. The way to resumption is to resume.

This infinitive form is used in naming the verb.

EXAMPLE. The verb to intend is used oftener in his works than the verb to do.

The simplest form is often used as a predicate verb, as in *I go, they run, we love*, etc. ; but a verb thus related to a subject is not called an infinitive.

#### Exercise.

Select the verbs in the following sentences, and decide in each case whether the form should be called predicate verb or infinitive : —

1. I go to-morrow.
2. I wish to go to-day.
3. She bade me go.
4. We study French.
5. To learn a foreign language requires study.
6. You saw me study.
7. The children play to amuse themselves.
8. The boys try to do their duty.
9. The rivers flow to the sea.
10. Watch the river flow.
11. Watch the river's flow.
12. The man hopes to go abroad.
13. Dare you go?

## 72. PARTICIPLES.

The two forms of the verb which are used as attributes in active and passive-predicate bases have already been noticed.

—◆—

A gently *murmuring* stream ran by the grove.  
The vase, *filled* with flowers, stood on the table.

How are these verb forms used?

The *daring* are ever successful.  
The *condemned* hung his head in shame.

How are these verb forms used?

She came up stairs *running*.  
He came *limping*.

How are these verb forms used?

Such forms are frequently employed as adjectives, as nouns, or as adverbial elements. The verb forms thus partaking of or participating in the characteristics of two parts of speech, are called participles.

The progressive or incomplete form of the participle is called the progressive or present participle. This participle ends in *ing*.

EXAMPLES. I am reading.                      He was studying.  
We were moving.                      They were traveling.  
You are speaking too rapidly.

The completed form of the participle is called the complete or perfect participle. This participle generally ends in *ed*, *t*, or *n*.

EXAMPLES. Burnt, written, done, gone, lain, been, laughed.

A participle is a form of the verb partaking of the characteristics of the verb and of some other part of speech.

The progressive or present participle represents the action as progressing.

The complete or perfect participle represents the action as completed.

### Exercise.

Point out the participles in the following sentences, and tell which are progressive and which are perfect :—

1. The dogs are running.
2. The dog barking so is hurt.
3. The letter was published in the papers.
4. John has written a letter.
5. A correctly written note does you credit.
6. The note was written by the boy.
7. The master was obeyed by his pupil.
8. The melancholy days are come.
9. Thinking deeply tired me.
10. The boys have studied their lessons.
11. The chimney was blown down.
12. I dislike going out.
13. The pitcher was broken.
14. The children have broken the pitcher.
15. The signature was forged.
16. Thou art gone to the grave.

### 73. FORMS BASED ON TIME EXPRESSED.

I *love* you. (now)

I *bless* you for this kind act.

I *write* letters in the morning. (customarily)

We *take* much exercise. (usually)

The simple form is used as predicate verb to assert something in the present time, or as a present custom. It is called the **present tense**.



- I *loved* you. (once)  
 I *broke* the rule, I fear.  
 I *walked* every morning. (last summer)  
 I *went* home. (last night)

The past form is used as predicate verb to assert something in past time, or as a past custom. It is called the **past tense**.

*Come* unto me.  
*Learn* of the ant.

The imperative sentence always contains the present tense, but the command or request may be meant either for present or for future time. This use of the present tense in the imperative sentence is frequently called the **imperative mood** of the verb, the usual use of the verb forms being the **indicative mood**.

NOTE. — For subjunctive mood, see p. 174.

#### Exercise.

Point out the verbs in the following sentences; tell what tense is used and what time is expressed: —

1. I study early in the morning.
2. We heard the band play "Yankee Doodle."
3. I recited history at ten o'clock on Monday.
4. Bring me a glass of water, please.
5. I walked to school.
6. I practice two hours daily.
7. Hope on, hope ever.
8. Go to the ant, thou sluggard.
9. I wish to improve.
10. Robert belongs to a military company.

The inflection of a verb to indicate time is *tense* inflection.

The use of one form of the verb rather than another to indicate the condition of the verb's meaning with reference to the subject is called *mood*.

## 74. FORMS DETERMINED BY THE SUBJECT.

I go.	I write.
We go.	We write.
You go.	You write.
They go.	They write.
He goes.	She writes.

The only change of form which most verbs usually make because of the subject, occurs in the present predicate verb. The ordinary form is used for the first and second person in the singular, and for all three persons in the plural. But for the third person singular, the form used generally ends in *s* or *es*.

The solemn style of pronoun, *thou*, as a subject, is followed by a form of the verb in the present tense ending in *st* or *est*. For the third person singular, in the solemn style, the present verb form generally ends in *th* or *eth*.

EXAMPLES.	I go.	I write.
	Thou goest.	Thou writest.
	He goeth.	She writeth.

In the solemn style there is often an inflection also in the past for the second person singular.

EXAMPLE. Thou saidst.

## Exercise.

Account for the form of each verb in these sentences: —

1. He knows that I know his fault.
2. It rains, and my mother fears to go out.
3. Thou knowest that I love thee.
4. He that goeth forth in sorrow oft returneth rejoicing.
5. Thou didst not what was right.

Give all the present predicate verb forms of *to cry*, *to sigh*, *to flow*, *to do*.

75. REVIEW.

Verb forms	Predicate verb forms	Present	Ordinary (also infinitive and imperative)
			Third person singular
	Participial forms	Past	Ordinary
			Solemn
		Progressive	
		Complete	

EXAMPLE.

(Inf.) To love	Predicate verb	Present	Ordinary — love
			Third person singular — loves
	Participles	Past	loved
			lovedst
		Progressive — loving	
		Complete — loved	

A tabulated view of the inflections of a verb — that is, of its changes of form because of tense, or subject, or mood — is its *inflectional conjugation*.

EXAMPLE.

INFINITIVE — to love

PRESENT.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

<i>First person.</i>	I love	We love
<i>Second person.</i>	You love (thou lovest)	You (ye) love
<i>Third person.</i>	He, she, it loves (loveth)	They love

PAST.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

<i>First person.</i>	I loved	We loved
<i>Second person.</i>	You loved (thou lovedst)	You (ye) loved
<i>Third person.</i>	He, she, it loved	They loved

PRESENT PARTICIPLE

COMPLETE PARTICIPLE

loving

loved

IMPERATIVE — love

**Exercise on Form.**

Name the form of each verb in the following sentences and explain the reason for its use.

1. A wandering minstrel, worn by long travel, sang beneath our window.
2. We thanked him, and, flinging flowers to him, retired to rest.
3. The sun rises arrayed in splendor.
4. To tell her virtues taxes all my powers.
5. They tell themselves to all who know her.

**76. MEANING OF VERB FORMS.**

The infinitive phrase and the progressive participial form are the purest in meaning, being used often merely to name the meaning of the verb.

EXAMPLES. To read is pleasant.

Reading is a pleasant occupation.

The perfect participial form expresses the meaning of the verb and the idea of completion.

EXAMPLES. The day is gone.

A crumpled paper.

The present tense of the verb, or the present predicate verb, combines the meaning of the verb and the assertive function with the idea of present time.

EXAMPLES. I go often.

He goes often.

We live here.

He lives here.

The past tense, or the past predicate verb, combines the meaning of the verb and the assertive function with the idea of past time.

EXAMPLES. I ran.

He ran.

We lived here.

He lived here.

NOTE. — This means, He did live — in the past.

## Exercise.

Analyze the meanings of the verbs in the following sentences: —

1. We hoped to succeed.
2. Rowing is good exercise.
3. The ship was loaded with curios.
4. The torn page was spoiled entirely by the rain.
5. I enjoy the summer.
6. To think requires brains.
7. A burnt child dreads the fire.
8. The ship sank in mid-ocean.
9. My exercise is finished.
10. A loaded wagon passed the door.
11. The man failed in his attempt to fly.

## 77. CLASSES BASED ON FORM.

I *laugh* every time I *speak* of it.

I *laughed* when I *spoke* of it.

I have *laughed* whenever I have *spoken* of it.

The past predicate verb form — past tense — and perfect participle of *laugh* are formed by adding *ed* to the present form. The past tense and perfect participle of *speak* are formed by altering the spelling of the word.

According to the manner in which the past tense and perfect participle of a verb are formed, it is called a regular verb, or an irregular verb.

A verb whose past tense and perfect participle are formed by adding *d* or *ed* to the present, is called a *regular* verb.

EXAMPLE.	PRESENT.	PAST.	PERF. PART.
	live	lived	lived

A verb whose past tense or perfect participle is formed in any other way than by adding *d* or *ed* — as by changes within the verb — is called an *irregular* verb.

EXAMPLES.	PRESENT.	PAST	PERF. PART.
	run	ran	run
	sow	sowed	sown
	cost	cost	cost
	deal	dealt	dealt

NOTE. — The *ed* or *d* used in the past tense is the remains of some verb, with a meaning like that of *did*, which was once used to show the completion of the act; *I lean did*. The tendency is to make all verbs regular. Many are both regular and irregular; or regular in one part and irregular in another.

EXAMPLES.	PRESENT.	PAST.	PERF. PART.
	hang	hung or hanged	hung or hanged
	sow	sowed	sowed or sown

### Exercise.

Tell which of the verbs in the following sentences are regular, and which are irregular: —

1. The tree which grew by the wall waxed tall and stately.
2. The woodman went out and cut it down.
3. Put the hewn logs in their places and the sawed wood below.
4. The merry children, pleased by the music, sang and danced.

## 78. CLASSES BASED ON NATURE.

I ran.

I followed you.

Some verbs are capable of modification by an objective element, whereas others are not.

I ran.

I was followed by you.

Those verbs which can be modified by objects can also be used to make passive predicate bases.

This gives rise to two classes of verbs — transitive and intransitive.

A transitive verb is limited by an object, or used as a verbal complement in forming a passive predicate base.

EXAMPLE. I love my mother.

My mother is loved by me.

An intransitive verb is not limited by an object and cannot be used to form a passive predicate base.

EXAMPLE. I go to school.

Many verbs are sometimes transitive and sometimes intransitive.

EXAMPLE. I write well. (*write* is intransitive)

I write letters. (*write* is transitive)

#### Exercise.

Point out the verbs in the following sentences and tell whether they are regular or irregular, transitive or intransitive: —

1. Mary found a dime.
2. The young chickens thrive.
3. The little children laughed merrily.
4. The ship foundered off the Nova Scotia coast.
5. Mary, John, and Henry wrote each a composition.
6. My question was answered by a telegram.
7. The child of whom I spoke resembles his mother.
8. I rely on you to help me.
9. John A. Logan joined the army as a volunteer.
10. The pupils wrote well and rapidly.
11. The travelers arrived at noon.
12. Our sleeping rooms are ventilated.
13. The President left town yesterday.
14. I see them on the winding way.
15. I heard Patti sing "Home, Sweet Home."
16. Patti sings divinely.
17. We heard Whittier's "Snow-bound."
18. The class read well.
19. I see before me a picture representing a winter scene.
20. The Santa Claus Club gave money to the poor.

## 79. SUMMARY OF CLASSES.

Classes of verbs	{	Based on form	{ Regular
			{ Irregular
	{	Based on nature	{ Transitive
			{ Intransitive

## Exercise.

Write five sentences each containing a regular transitive verb.  
 Write five sentences each containing an irregular transitive verb.  
 Write five sentences each containing a regular intransitive verb.  
 Write five sentences each containing an irregular intransitive verb.

## 80. USES OF VERBS.

## I. Predicative use.

The proper uses of the verb, so far considered, are as predicate verb, or as verbal attribute, or as asserter.

EXAMPLES. I go.  
 I am running.  
 He seems lazy.

There are, however, various other uses to which a verb may be put while still retaining its verbal nature.

## II. Adjective use.

*a.* The two participles of the verb are used as adjective word elements.

EXAMPLES. The panting horse soon dropped.  
 A burnt child dreads the fire.

*b.* The present participle is used as the base of an attributive word element.

EXAMPLES. True industry is doing the useful and leaving the useless undone.



*c.* Either participle is used as the object of a preposition — the idea part of a phrase.

EXAMPLES. The credit of discovering it is mine.

The honor of the undersigned is pledged.

*d.* The infinitive is used as an adjective phrase.

EXAMPLE. A noble race to run is now before us.

*e.* The infinitive is used as an attributive phrase.

EXAMPLE. My hope is to go.

### III. Substantive use.

*a.* The present participle is used as a substantive word element.

EXAMPLES. Laughing is contagious.

Running is healthful.

The perfect participle, having passed through an adjective use, is also used substantively.

EXAMPLE. The undersigned begs the favor of an interview.

*b.* The infinitive is used as a substantive phrase.

EXAMPLE. To err is human; to forgive, divine.

### IV. Objective use.

*a.* The present participle is used as an objective word modifier.

EXAMPLE. I dislike rowing.

The complete participle has also passed through the adjective to the objective use.

EXAMPLE. She pitied the condemned.

*b.* The infinitive is used as an objective phrase.

EXAMPLE. I like to sing.

## V. Adverbial use.

*a.* The present participle is used as an adverbial word modifier.

EXAMPLES. He came limping.  
Warren fell fighting.

*b.* Either participle is used as object of a preposition.

EXAMPLES. He praises me for discovering it.  
Your aid is asked by the undersigned.

*c.* The infinitive is used as an adverbial phrase.

EXAMPLES. I went to listen.  
He came to pray.

NOTE. — The infinitive phrase was formerly used after the preposition *for*.

EXAMPLE. What came ye out for to see ?

**Exercise.**

Point out the verbs in the following, and tell their uses : —

1. A charge to keep I have,  
A God to glorify,  
A never-dying soul to save  
And fit it for the sky.
2. The wind is blowing a gale.
3. The oppressed of all nations were welcomed here.
4. The glowing coals lay upon the hearth.
5. Rest is not quitting the busy career ;  
Rest is the fitting of self to its sphere :  
'Tis the brook's motion, clear without strife,  
Fleeing to ocean after its life.
6. I enjoy walking and running.
7. The mourned, the loved, the lost — too many, yet how few !
8. Columbus tried to find a new route to India.
9. He was the loved of all.
10. The child stood trembling in the presence of the man.
11. We hope to have the pleasure of your society.

12. The man, forced by circumstances, gave up his hope of becoming an artist.
13. Alice spoke to me, stuttering dreadfully.
14. I tried to get a patent for my invention.
15. We wished to read "Paradise Lost."
16. The clergyman prayed for the widowed and the fatherless.
17. The boys enjoyed swimming.
18. My desire is to be present on the occasion.
19. He had a chance to go, but did not take advantage of it.
20. A furnished house was advertised for rent.
21. A sparkling brook ran through the meadow.
22. To remain at home was not my purpose.
23. The bereaved spoke tenderly of their dead.
24. Striving for knowledge is better than working for fame.

### 81. THE CHIEF ASSERTER.

Having studied the forms, classes, and uses of verbs, we can better understand the chief assenter. This word has been called the copula because it couples the chief elements of a sentence. It has been called the assenter because it asserts the relation of the chief elements of a sentence. It was formerly a word asserting existence, or being, and even now is sometimes used with its original meaning. When so used, it is a true predicate verb indicating existence, and asserting itself of the subject.

EXAMPLE. The thing is [exists], even though you do not see it.

The assenter, then, was formerly an idea word in the sentence, but has lost much of its original meaning and has come to be used as a relation word, usually asserting the relation of its complement to the subject.

The forms of *to be*, like the forms of the pronoun *I*, being derived from various sources, do not resemble one another except in a similar use.

The conjugation of *to be*, therefore, is not a tabulated

view of its *changes* of form, but is rather a view of several different words which are used as asserters.

INFINITIVE — to be			
PRESENT.		PAST.	
SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
I am	We are	I was	We were
You are (thou art)	You (ye) are	You were (thou wast)	You (ye) were
He, she, it is	They are	He, she, it was	They were
PRESENT PARTICIPLE.		COMPLETE PARTICIPLE.	
being		been	
IMPERATIVE — be			

*Am* makes an assertion; it also indicates present time; and it shows that its subject is in the first person.

*Is* also represents a similarly complex idea.

What do *are*, *was*, and *were* indicate?

There are other asserters besides *be*, but these retain, when so used, much of their original verbal meaning.

EXAMPLES. She seems happy.

She appears contented.

You look cheerful.

Such verbs really serve as copulas, and are hence often called **copulative verbs**.

A copula is a verb whose chief office is to assert the relation of a complement to the subject.

## 82. INFINITIVE AND PARTICIPLES OF THE ASSERTER.

*To be* is better than annihilation.

What is *to be*, will be.

That ought not *to be*. (*Ought* is an assenter.)

I did not ask *to be*.

The poor little plant did not struggle to bloom, but only *to be*.

How is the infinitive used in each of these sentences?

His desire *to be good* is laudable.

*To be good* requires effort.

He was *to be there*.

I desire *to be good*.

I work *to be successful*.

How is each of these infinitive phrases used? Point out the complement which follows each infinitive. *To be* does not show the relation of its complement to a principal, but merely introduces the complement. This use of the infinitive of an asserter is idiomatic. The entire expression is a copulative infinitive phrase.

*Being ill* is unpleasant.

I liked *being ill*, for they petted me.

How is each of these participial expressions used? Point out the complement which follows each participle. *Being* does not show the relation of its complement to a principal, but merely introduces the complement. This also is an idiomatic use of the asserter, and the entire expression, participle and complement, is called a participial phrase.

A copulative infinitive phrase consists of the infinitive of an asserter followed by a complement.

A participial phrase consists of the present participle of an asserter followed by a complement.

*Been*, the complete participle of *to be*, is never used except after some form of *have*.

EXAMPLES. Such things have been.

I have been here before.

Had the boy been ill many days?

They having been good friends, parted in sorrow.

It may not be again, but no one can rob me of its having been.

To have been absent then was annoying.

**Exercise.**

Analyze and give the use of each infinitive or participial phrase in the following sentences:—

1. The church being empty seemed to be cheerless.
2. To be sure of my ground I questioned him.
3. Being opposed to the scheme, I purpose to be severe.
4. Being agreeable is not always easy.
5. To seem honest is not enough.
6. Feeling tired, I lay down.
7. The maid, looking ill enough, asked leave to retire.
8. My purpose was to appear trustworthy.

Write three sentences, each with a copulative infinitive phrase used substantively; adjectively; as objective element.

Write three sentences, each with a participial phrase used as an attribute; as an adverbial element.

**83. INFLECTIONAL CONJUGATION AND PARALLEL FORMS.**

The forms of *to be* being understood, it is possible to give the inflectional conjugation of a verb with the parallel forms of the same verb used as a verbal complement.

**TO LOVE.****AS PREDICATE VERB, — ACTIVE.****PRESENT.**

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
I love	We love
You love (thou lovest)	You (ye) love
He, she, it loves (loveth)	They love

**PAST.**

I loved	We loved
You loved (thou lovedst)	You (ye) loved
He, she, it loved	They loved

## AS VERBAL COMPLEMENT.

## PRESENT.

**Active — Progressive.**

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
I am loving	We are loving
You are (thou art) loving	You (ye) are loving
He, she, it is loving	They are loving

**Passive.**

I am loved	We are loved
You are (thou art) loved	You (ye) are loved
He, she, it is loved	They are loved

## PAST.

**Active — Progressive.**

I was loving	We were loving
You were (thou wast) loving	You (ye) were loving
He, she, it was loving	They were loving

**Passive.**

I was loved	We were loved
You were (thou wast) loved	You (ye) were loved
He, she, it was loved	They were loved

These active and passive forms are sometimes called the active and passive voices of the verb.

Voice is that use of the verb forms which causes the sentence to indicate whether the subject performs or receives the action expressed by the predicate.

**84. MEANING OF AUXILIARIES.**

Some changes in the meaning or relations of a verb are indicated by changing the *form* of the verb.

I hope.	I work.
He hopes.	I worked.
I hoped.	I shall work.

In which of these cases is the time of the action shown by the tense form of the verb? In which is it shown by the aid of another word?

Some changes in the meaning of a verb are indicated, not by altering the form of the verb, but by the aid of another, helping word, sometimes called an auxiliary.

He *has* loved.      He *will* love.      He *may* love.

*Has* asserts *loved* of *he*, and also indicates its relation to present time. What is the use and meaning of *will*? *May* asserts *love* of *he*, and indicates possibility and future time.

*He will love* was originally *He wills* (or *wishes*) *to love*. *Will* has lost its original meaning, *wish* or *determine*, and has become an asserter containing the adverbial modification of *time*. *He will love* means *He loves in the future*. Such combinations really amount, when analyzed, to phrases. *Will* contains the assertive relation part, *love* contains the basal idea part, and *will* again contains an adverbial time element. But these parts are all so welded together in the mind that it is very hard to separate them.

The verbal attributes in these groups are properly called the principal verbs, and the helping verbs are called the auxiliaries.

#### 85. INFLECTED AUXILIARIES.

I have a good record.  
I have spoken to the man.

In which of these sentences is *have* an auxiliary? In which is it a predicate verb?



The servants do good work.  
They do try to please.

What is the difference between these two uses of *do*?

The verbs *to have* and *to do* are in some cases asserters, and in some cases predicate verbs.

I <i>have</i> gone.	I <i>do</i> go.
He <i>has</i> gone.	He <i>does</i> go.
He <i>has</i> money.	He <i>does</i> fine work.

These two verbs, *to have* and *to do*, which are predicate verbs as well as auxiliaries, are inflected to agree with the subject in both cases.

I *will* go.  
He *will* go.  
He *wills* that you should go.

If *will* is used in the sense of *to wish*, it also is a predicate verb. When thus used it is inflected regularly, — like *love*, p. 155, — thus differing from the auxiliary, as seen above.

### 86. THE VERB TO HAVE.

The ordinary present forms of the verb *to have* are *have* and *has*.

PRESENT.	
I have	We have
You have (thou hast)	You (ye) have
He, she, it has (hath)	They have

*Having* is the present participle, and *had* is the past predicate verb and perfect participle (in the past, also, there is the solemn style “thou *hadst*”).

EXAMPLES. I had a pair of pistols in my belt.

The poor man, having had no supper, now ate hungrily.

Since it is possible to possess only a completed action, the verb *to have* used as an asserter combines with the perfect participle of the principal verb. It therefore always asserts completion of the act at the time referred to.

I have written what I wished. (completed before now)

I had written what I wished. (completed before then)

The President has sent a message to Congress. (now finished)

Before the message came Congress had adjourned. (then finished)

These groups are called the **present perfect** and **past perfect** tenses, because the one asserts perfected or completed action in present time, while the other asserts perfected or completed action in past time.

#### Exercise.

Explain the uses of the asserters in the following verb groups :—

1. I have walked to school every day this year.
2. The moon has reached the full.
3. John had spoken to me of the case before the man appeared.
4. Our boys have fled.
5. The child has lost his way.
6. They have decided to remain at home.
7. The city had prepared for a great number of visitors.
8. The rose has blossomed in the night.
9. I have had playmates ; I have had companions.
10. Clouds have gathered rapidly.
11. You had just gone when I arrived.
12. He has spent all his life in letting down empty buckets into empty wells.
13. She looked as if she had walked straight out of the ark.
14. You have waked me too soon ; I must slumber again.
15. Had you seen the man before I met you?
16. There have been many visitors here to-day.
17. Will you come to me when you have done the work?

## 87. TO DO.

The ordinary present forms of the verb *to do* are *do* and *does*.

## PRESENT.

I do	We do
You do (thou dost)	You (ye) do
He, she, it does (doth)	They do

*Doing* is the present participle, *did* is the past predicate verb (with "thou *didst*" in solemn style), and *done* is the perfect participle.

EXAMPLES. We did our best, and found comfort in so doing, hence we rested satisfied with work well done.

Since the verb *to do* really takes the infinitive as its object when used as an asserter, it combines with the simple form of the principal verb. Although frequently used merely as an asserter, it often emphasizes the meaning of the principal verb when placed next to it, combining the functions of adverbial modifier and asserter.

EXAMPLES. I do go. (implying that the going has been doubted)  
It is not true that I failed in my examination; I tell you I did pass it with credit.

It thus introduces an imperative sentence.

EXAMPLE. Do write.

It often, however, introduces an interrogative sentence without any emphatic value, serving merely as asserter.

EXAMPLE. Do you ride often?

Combined with *not* it is used without emphatic value in all three kinds of sentences.

EXAMPLES. I do not wish it.  
Don't you wish it?  
Do not ask me.

## Exercise.

Give the uses of the verb *to do* in the following sentences: —

1. Do you see yonder cloud that's almost in the shape of a camel ?
2. Our fears do make us traitors.
3. These things are beyond all use,  
And I do not fear them.
4. If we do meet again, why, we shall smile.
5. Why, man, he doth bestride the narrow world like a Colossus.
6. I do remember an apothecary's  
And hereabouts he dwells.
7. Did the boy understand your message ?
8. Eyes did once inhabit those holes.
9. John does improve in his writing.
10. We did not approve of the action of the committee.
11. Does your father write for the *Boston Advertiser* ?

## 88. PURE AUXILIARIES.

Some verbs have lost their predicate verb uses entirely and are now used only as asserters or auxiliaries. They are *can*, *may*, *shall*, and *must*. *Will*, also, is rarely used as a predicate verb. All five of these asserters (with their associated or so-called "past" forms, *could*, *might*, *should*, and *would*) combine with the simple forms of verbs in making sentences.

They indicate: —

- a. Future time, as the present forms of *shall* and *will*.

EXAMPLES. I shall come to-morrow.

You will catch your train if you hurry.

b. Some condition of the verb's meaning in regard to the subject, as the "past" forms of *shall* and *will* (*should* and *would*); *can* and *may*, with their associated forms *could* and *might*; and *must*.

EXAMPLES. I can go, but I may not go, for I should study and I must practice.

*Can*, besides asserting, affects the relation of *go* to its subject by expressing ability. *May* affects the relation of *go* by expressing possibility or permission. *Should* affects the relation of *study* by expressing duty, and *must* affects the relation of *practice* by expressing necessity.

*Shall* and *will* are similarly used in such sentences as *You shall do what I wish ; I will not obey you.*

NOTE.—The shades of meaning added by the auxiliaries of this second class give rise to the term *potential mood*, applied to the verb groups containing them. The ordinary inflectional forms and the predicate bases formed by the other asserters (*to be*, *to have*, *to do*, and *shall* and *will* meaning simple future) are called the *indicative mood*.

*Shall* and *will* are very apt to be misused, especially by foreigners, as in the case of the Frenchman who cried, “I will drown. No one shall help me.”

I will take lunch, for I shall be hungry.  
You shall go with me, and you will never forget the trip.  
He shall go home early, for he will be tired.

*I will* means I have determined ; *I shall* indicates simple futurity ; *You will* indicates simple futurity ; *You shall* means you are compelled ; *He will* indicates futurity ; *He shall* means he is compelled.

Simple futurity is indicated by *shall* in the first person, and by *will* in the second and third persons. Determination is indicated by *will* in the first person. Compulsion is indicated by *shall* in the second and third persons.

*Shall* and *will*, indicating simple futurity, form verb groups called the **future** and **future perfect** tenses.

EXAMPLE. I shall read it Tuesday. (future)

He will have finished it then. (future perfect : that is, completed in the future)

## 89. THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

If he *breathes*, I am not able to perceive it.

If the dead man *speak*, I shall yet not give up his property.

In expressing a doubt about a future event with *if* or *whether*, the *s* is often not added to the predicate verb in the third person. It is never added if the event doubted is impossible.

If he but *speak* to us, we shall rejoice.

This form is used after *if* when *but* follows and futurity is denoted. Unless both futurity and contingency are implied the *s* is usually retained.

This omission of *s* in the verb used in a conditional clause leaves the form often called the **subjunctive mood** or subjunctive form of the verb.

A similar form, from which *should* is omitted, occurs after *lest* and *that* annexed to a command.

EXAMPLE. Disturb him not, lest he (should) slay thee.

In the subjunctive mood *to be* changes much more than other verbs, becoming throughout,

PRESENT — be.      PAST — were.



If I be there, I will write to you.

The present tense indicates a doubtful future.

If I were there, I would vote for you.

The past tense indicates an impossible present.

It is more customary to say, *If I am there to-morrow*, than *If I be there to-morrow*. The use of the past tense

of the subjunctive is more common, but this mood is often improperly used. We should say, *If I was there yesterday*. If the past tense is used to indicate present time, that tense should be subjunctive. *If I was now the director* is therefore incorrect.

EXAMPLES. If I am here now I do not mean to stay.  
If I were there now I should be happy.

## 90. REVIEW.

### Exercise.

Give reasons for the verb forms in the following sentences: —

1. Though he fall, he shall not be utterly cast down.
2. If he promise, he will surely perform.
3. Whether he go or stay, my plan will not be changed.
4. If I were you, I would leave town at once.
5. If he but perform as he promises, the result will be good.
6. If he performs as he has promised, I do not see the result.
7. If he be alone, give him the letters.
8. If he speaks as he thinks, he may safely be trusted.
9. If a man smite his servant and he die, he shall surely be put to death.
10. Though he slay me, yet will I trust him.
11. If he acquire riches, they will corrupt his mind.

Insert the proper verb form in each of the following sentences: —

1. If the wind —, it makes no noise.
2. If the wind — too hard, we shall capsize.
3. Fan her lest she —.
4. I should be sorry if he — to fail.
5. Though a man — against thee seventy times seven, yet forgive him.
6. Whether he — or not, wait for him.
7. If he — there, I missed him.
8. I will come if it —.
9. If he — there I shall see him.

NOTE. — For "complete conjugation" of verbs, see page 295.

## 91. THE NATURE OF PARTICIPLES.

The nature of every part of speech determines its classification, and this nature also determines the kind of modifier it takes. Hence a noun always has only adjective modifiers. So also the modifiers of a verb are always objective and adverbial. Adjectives also allow adverbial modifiers; but it should be borne in mind that the adverbial modifier of an adjective generally indicates degree. This fact sometimes helps in deciding whether a given word is a verb or an adjective.

The swiftly flowing stream.  
The very trying ordeal.

*Flowing* is a verb, used adjectively, and is modified by the adverbial element *swiftly*, which tells *how*. *Trying* is sometimes a verb, but is here an adjective, modified by the adverbial modifier *very*, which indicates degree.

I am *hurt* by this ring.            This ring hurts me.  
I am *hurt* beyond recovery.    I am a hurt person.

In the first case, *am* is followed by a verbal attribute *hurt*, the verbal nature being seen when the sentence is inverted. In the second case, the attribute is an adjective, the idea of the action being lost, as is seen by inserting an attribute noun.

**The same attribute may be verbal or adjective according to the extent to which the idea of action is retained in it.**

It is safe to say that when the noun representing the actor is or may be added without changing the meaning of the attribute, the verb group is passive, arising from a transitive verb; otherwise the predicate base is neither



active nor passive but consists of asserter and adjective attribute.

### Exercise.

Select the participial forms in the following and tell which are still participles and which are adjectives.

1. A brightly shining star was seen above the manger.
2. The very smiling maiden was dressed in robes of green.
3. A charming prospect lay before us.
4. His music is charming our fears to rest.
5. An alluring song was sung by the sirens.
6. The voices alluring us to approach sounded fainter as we receded.
7. I was placed between two boys.
8. The hotel is placed convenient to the station.
9. The iced drinks are cooling.
10. The street was well paved.

## 92. SPELLING OF VERB FORMS.

The present tense, past tense, present participle, and perfect participle of a verb are called the *principal parts* of the verb.

### EXAMPLES.

PRESENT.	PRES. PART.	PAST.	PERF. PART.
love	loving	loved	loved
speak	speaking	spoke	spoken



PRESENT.	PRESENT PARTICIPLE.	PAST.
set	setting	set
refer	referring	referred

*Monosyllabic verbs, and polysyllabic verbs with the accent on the last syllable, which end in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant when ing or ed is added.*

NOTE. — For list of irregular verbs, see page 289.

## 93. REVIEW.

In parsing a verb, or verb group, follow the subjoined outline:—

Uses	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Predicative</li> <li>Substantive</li> <li>Adjective</li> <li>Objective</li> <li>Adverbial</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Asserter only</li> <li>Composed of asserter and verbal attribute</li> <li>Predicate verb</li> </ul>
Forms	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Real inflections</li> <li>Auxiliary variations</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Based on use               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Present infinitive (active)</li> <li>Present participle</li> <li>Complete participle</li> </ul> </li> <li>Based on time               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Present</li> <li>Past</li> </ul> </li> <li>Based on subject               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Ordinary</li> <li>Third person singular</li> <li>Solemn forms</li> </ul> </li> <li>Voice               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Active</li> <li>Passive</li> </ul> </li> <li>Mood               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Indicative</li> <li>Potential</li> <li>Subjunctive</li> </ul> </li> <li>Tense               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Present perfect</li> <li>Past perfect</li> <li>Future</li> <li>Future perfect</li> </ul> </li> <li>Style               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Ordinary</li> <li>Progressive</li> <li>Emphatic</li> </ul> </li> </ul>
Classes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Based on form</li> <li>Based on nature</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Regular</li> <li>Irregular</li> <li>Transitive</li> <li>Intransitive</li> </ul>
Modifiers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Objective elements</li> <li>Adverbial elements</li> </ul>	

## Exercise.

Parse the verbs and verb groups in the following sentences : —

1. Men are but children of a larger growth.
2. Drawing near her death, she sent most pious thoughts as harbingers to heaven.
3. To execute laws is a royal office ; to execute orders is not to be a king.
4. He is the richest author that ever grazed the commons of literature.
5. I am fond of the company of ladies.
6. Hanging was the worst use a man could be put to.
7. All the judges had taken their seats,  
Before Sir Roger came.
8. Gratitude is a fruit of great cultivation ; you do not find it among gross people.
9. Hail to the chief who in triumph advances.
10. Prayer is the soul's sincere desire,  
Uttered or unexpressed.
11. The moving moon went up the sky,  
And nowhere did abide.
12. Rose Aylmar. when those wakeful eyes  
May weep, but never see,  
A night of memories and sighs  
I consecrate to thee.
13. I write as others wrote.
14. The siren waits thee, singing songs for song.
15. Few, few shall part where many meet !  
The snow shall be their winding sheet.
16. Coming events cast their shadows before.
17. To bear is to conquer our fate.
18. The north wind doth blow,  
And we shall have snow,  
And what will the robin do then, poor thing !
19. The gentleman cannot have forgotten his own sentiment.
20. Sir, I would rather be right than be President.
21. The star-spangled banner, oh long may it wave.
22. Then conquer we must, for our cause it is just.
23. There was a little man, and he had a little soul ;  
And he said, Little Soul, let us try, try, try.

24. When true hearts lie withered  
And fond ones are flown,  
Oh, who would inhabit  
This bleak world alone?
25. Earth has no sorrow that heaven cannot heal.
26. The stockings were hung by the chimney with care,  
In hopes that St. Nicholas soon would be there.
27. And, Oh ! if there be an Elysium on earth,  
It is this, it is this.
28. He who would thrive must rise at five.
29. A power has risen up in the government.
30. America has furnished to the world the character of Washington.
31. And if our American institutions had done nothing else, that  
alone would have entitled them to the respect of mankind.
32. Although no sculptural marble should rise to their memory nor  
engraved stone bear records of their deeds, yet will their resem-  
blance be as lasting as the land they honored.
33. Thou art gone to the grave ; but we will not deplore thee ;  
Though sorrows and darkness encompass thy tomb.
34. And thus the heart will break, yet brokenly live on.
35. He rushed into the field, and foremost fighting fell.
36. You may break, you may shatter  
The vase if you will ;  
But the scent of the roses  
Will hang round it still.
37. Perhaps the early grave  
Which men weep over may be meant to save.
38. Into each life some rain must fall ;  
Some days must be dark and dreary.
39. Not a drum was heard, not a funeral note,  
As his corse to the ramparts we hurried.
40. But to the hero, when his sword  
Has won the battle for the free,  
Thy voice sounds like a prophetic word ;  
And in its hollow tones are heard  
The thanks of millions yet to be.
41. As though a rose should shut and be a bud again.
42. The days of peace and slumbrous calm are fled.
43. Can such things be !

44. She may still exist in undiminished vigor, when some traveler from New Zealand shall, in the midst of a vast solitude, take his stand on a broken arch of London Bridge to sketch the ruins of St. Paul's.
45. If a single man plant himself indomitably on his instincts and there abide, the huge world will come round to him.
46. Though love repine, and reason chafe,  
There comes a voice without reply,—  
'Tis man's perdition to be safe  
When for the truth he ought to die.
47. The Egremonts had never said anything that was remembered, or done anything that could be recalled.
48. Come o'er the moonlit sea;  
The waves are brightly glowing.
49. Thy leaf has perished in the green,  
And while we breathe beneath the sun,  
The world, which credits what is done,  
Is cold to all that might have been.

(For agreement and government of verbs, see Chapter XVI, pages 229–232.)

#### 94. CAUTIONS.

I. Do not use the complete participle for the past tense.

Write the correct form in the following sentences;—

1. I <sup>saw</sup>  
seen her yesterday.
2. He <sup>done</sup>  
did the example beautifully.
3. John <sup>drew</sup>  
drawn a beautiful sketch.
4. The sick child <sup>lay</sup>  
lain on the sofa.  
laid
5. The boy <sup>taken</sup>  
took the book to the library.

## II. Do not use an asserter with the past tense.

Write correctly : —

1. She has <sup>worn</sup> a green hat all winter.  
wore
2. John had <sup>wrote</sup> a letter.  
written
3. The horse has been <sup>drove</sup> too fast.  
driven
4. My mother has <sup>given</sup> me ten dollars.  
gave
5. The nurse has <sup>taken</sup> the child out into the air.  
took
6. Have you <sup>seen</sup> the eclipse?  
saw
7. Mary has <sup>did</sup> her work faithfully.  
done

## III. General truths should be expressed in the present tense.

Fill the blanks correctly : —

1. Scientists have proved that the earth — round.
2. We proved that the air — weight.
3. So this is your cousin ; what did you say his name — ?
4. She told me that seven and eight — fifteen.
5. It was discovered that the cause of the tides — the moon.

IV. Be careful to use properly the inflections determined by the subject. The verb agrees with its subject in person, and usually has the number form demanded by the *sense* of its subject (see page 89).

Fill the blanks correctly : —

1. They — here this morning.
2. Circumstances — cases.
3. When I — in Rome I visited the Vatican Gallery.
4. — the parcels come from the shop?
5. The number of students — yearly.

6. The hopes of youth — shattered.
7. There — ten cents of your change.
8. "The House of the Seven Gables" — written by Hawthorne.
9. Not one of his features — moving.
10. The children — hard.
11. You and I — written one exercise.
12. Man after man — to his long home.
13. "Well," — I, "you are wrong."
14. Ten — too many to go at once.
15. There — many millions of dollars in the treasury.
16. Spring — come, and with it — come thousands of birds.

V. But the pronoun *you*, even when meaning one, demands the plural form of the verb.

Fill the blanks correctly: —

1. I was coming; you — coming, too.
2. You — ill yesterday. How — you to-day?

VI. Two or more nouns or pronouns used substantively and connected by *or* or *nor* require a verb which shall agree with the last noun.

Insert the correct form of the verb in the following sentences: —

1. Either John or Mary — wrong.
2. Neither you nor he — correct.
3. Did he say that you or I — to have the carriage this morning?

VII. *a. To lie* means to repose; its past tense is *lay*, and its perfect participle is *lain*. *To lay* means to place, drop, or put down; its past tense and its perfect participle are *laid*.

Insert the proper form in each blank space of the following: —

1. I — down to rest, and slept as soon as I — my head on the pillow.
2. I have often — my hand on the child to see if he were not dead, because he has — so quiet.
3. The hen sometimes — an egg which — in the nest for some time before we found it.

b. The verb *to sit* means to rest in a sitting posture; its past tense and perfect participle are *sat*. The verb *to set* means to place; its past tense and perfect participle are *set*.

Insert the proper word in each blank space in the following sentences: —

1. I — in my chair, and as I dozed some one — a vase of flowers on the table by my side.
2. Though I — down daily to write, I sometimes fail to — pen to paper.
3. I have — a guard over my tongue.
4. I have — in silence.

NOTE. — The sun, however, *sets* in the west.



## CHAPTER X. — ADVERBS.

### SYNOPSIS.

The real base of a sentence is the subject base.

The verb and the adjective, which are alike in belonging to the noun or pronoun, may be called primary modifiers; and their modifiers may be called secondary modifiers.

An adverb is a word fitted by meaning to modify a verb, an adjective, or an adverb.

Two special classes of adverbs are conjunctive and interrogative adverbs.

Some adverbs are compared.

### 95. PRIMARY AND SECONDARY MODIFIERS.

I should have gone yesterday.

In analysis *yesterday* is an adverbial element modifying the predicate base, *should have gone*.

An element modifying a verb or predicate base (without receiving action) is adverbial.

The very large dog bit me.

*Very* is an adverbial element modifying the adjective *large*. A modifier of an adjective also is an adverbial modifier.

In the sentence, *An exceedingly heavy gale was then blowing fiercely*, *exceedingly* is adverbial because it modifies the adjective *heavy*; *then* and *fiercely* are adverbial because they modify the verb *blowing*.

We have seen, then, that adverbial modifiers modify verbs and adjectives. It seems at first sight difficult to find any common qualities for words performing such apparently different duties as the modifiers of adjectives and of verbs, but a closer inspection of what a sentence really is, will show why the same term should be applied to the modifiers of these different parts of speech.

The sentence, *The big dog is running*, is a statement about a dog. *Dog* is really the basis of that sentence. *The* and *big* indicate which dog, *is* asserts about the dog, and *running* is the action of the dog.

The sentence, *Few old men are living*, is a statement about *men*; *few*, *old*, *are*, and *living*, all refer to *men*. The substantive base is, therefore, the real basis of the sentence; and adjective elements, asserter, and verbal complement or predicate verb may all be regarded as *primary* modifiers referring to this true base of the sentence.

Adverbial elements are *secondary* modifiers, that is, modifiers of these *primary* modifiers; and an adverbial element may be used to modify an adjective, an asserter, a predicate verb, a verbal complement, or an entire predicate base.

EXAMPLES. A very tall tree is now growing finely near the gate.

A word fitted by nature to modify a verb or an adjective is called an *adverb*.

EXAMPLES. Her very violent temper displayed itself violently.

Her *very* violent temper displayed itself *very* violently.

Since many adverbs are derived from adjectives and modified by the same elements or words which modify those adjectives, the modifiers of adverbs are adverbial, and words modifying adverbs are themselves called adverbs.

An adverb is a word fitted by nature to modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

Be careful to distinguish between adverb and adverbial element or modifier: An adverb is a word, so called because of its nature or meaning; but an adverbial element or modifier may consist of one or more words, and is so called from its use in the sentence. An adverb is generally an adverbial modifier, but many adverbial modifiers are not adverbs, even when containing only one word.

EXAMPLE. A man very proud of his appearance dreads ridicule.

*Proud* is modified by the adverb *very*, and by the adverbial phrase *of his appearance*.

EXAMPLE. He drove swifter than the wind.

*Swifter* is modified by the adverbial clause *than the wind (goes)*.

EXAMPLE. He drove quite swiftly toward the house.

*Swiftly* is an adverb modifying *drove*; *toward the house* is an adverbial phrase modifying *drove*; *quite* is an adverb modifying *swiftly*.

EXAMPLE. I came home quickly.

*Home* is a noun used as an adverbial element; *quickly* is an adverb used as an adverbial element.

EXAMPLE. Quickly is not too strong a word.

*Quickly* is an adverb used as a substantive element.

### Exercise.

Select the adverbs and the adverbial elements from the following sentences:—

1. My eyes make pictures when they are shut.
2. Strongly it bears us along in swelling and limitless billows.
3. Go where glory waits thee!  
But while fame elates thee,  
Oh, still remember me!
4. Quoth the Raven, "Nevermore."
5. Then I shall see you again.

## 96. CLASSES AND FORMS OF ADVERBS.

Two classes of adverbs must be distinguished because they do double duty.

An adverb which not only serves as an adverbial element but is used to introduce an interrogative sentence, is an interrogative adverb.

EXAMPLES. Why do you come?  
When did it happen?  
How are you?

A word serving as a subordinate connective and performing the office of an adverbial element in the clause which it introduces, is a relative adverb or a conjunctive adverb.

EXAMPLES. Plymouth was founded when the Pilgrims landed.  
 The place where Washington lived is visited by many people.

An interrogative adverb is an adverb which indicates that the sentence or clause in which it occurs is interrogative.

A conjunctive adverb is an adverb which serves as a subordinate connective.

Some adverbs, like adjectives, vary in form to express the three degrees of comparison.

EXAMPLES.	POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
	soon	sooner	soonest
	well	better	best
	early	earlier	earliest

Most adverbs do not vary in form, but, like adjectives again, express the variations of meaning by the help of the words *more* and *most* (and *less* and *least*).

EXAMPLE. Indulgently, more indulgently, most indulgently.

## 97. REVIEW.

In parsing an adverb, follow the subjoined outline:—

Adverbs	Classes	{ Ordinary	{
		Interrogative	
		Conjunctive	
	Forms	(If compared)	{ Positive
		Comparative	Superlative
Uses	{ To modify	{	{ To introduce questions
	(If double)		
	Modifiers — Adverbial elements		

Parse the adverbs in the following sentences:—

1. The very sick child smiled pleasantly, but answered feebly.
2. He staid not for brake, and he stopped not for stone,  
He swam the Eske River where ford there was none,  
But ere he alighted at Netherby Gate,  
The bride had consented, the gallant came late.
3. There are maidens in Scotland more lovely by far.
4. An indignant cry burst involuntarily from the people.
5. Why do you move so slowly ?
6. It was dark when Ben Hur turned into a narrow lane.
7. I heard the mother speaking very earnestly to the boy before he  
went away.
8. The house where the witches were tried still stands in Salem.
9. The scene was more beautiful far than we had anticipated.

## 98. CAUTIONS.

I. Do not use two negatives to make one denial.

Make two correct sentences, either of which would express the meaning intended in these sentences:—

1. I <sup>cannot</sup> go <sup>no</sup> further.  
can any

2. I do know anything about it.  
do not know nothing
3. I can ever do anything with her.  
cannot never do nothing

Introduce *never* or *no*, or both *never* and *no*, in these sentences, to produce a negative meaning:—

1. He will read more.
2. John took honors at school.

II. The quality of an object is described by an adjective; the manner of an action, by an adverb.

Write correctly:—

1. She walks rapid.  
rapidly.
2. The stream seemed rapid  
rapidly at that point.
3. He was told to walk slowly.  
slow.
4. She appears charming.  
charmingly.
5. I whipped him good.  
well.
6. We were forced to reprove the boy constantly.  
constant.
7. In spring the woods look beautifully.  
beautiful.

III. Do not place an adverb between the parts of an infinitive.

Insert the suggested adverb in the proper place, so that it will modify the infinitive:—

1. (kindly) Will you ask him to notify me of the arrival of the box?
2. (well) I begged her to consider the subject.
3. (quickly) I demanded of him to settle the bill.
4. (heartily) I wished to cooperate.

## CHAPTER XI. — RELATION WORDS.

### SYNOPSIS.

Two elements may be coördinate, or one element may be subordinate to the other.

The relation words which show the subordination of one word to another are the asserter, the infinitive and participle of an asserter, and the preposition.

The relation word which shows the subordinate relation of a clause is a subordinate connective; it may perform the office of an idea word also, or it may be a pure connective or conjunction.

A coördinate conjunction is a word connecting coördinate words, phrases, or clauses which perform the same office.

### 99. KINDS OF RELATION WORDS.

The parts of speech so far considered are nouns and pronouns, representing things; adjectives, representing qualities or limitations of things; verbs, representing action, doing, or being of things; and adverbs, representing modifications of adjectives, adverbs, and verbs. These represent the ideas out of which sentences and discourse are built. These are what in analysis we have known as the idea words in sentences.

When we think, we put ideas together; related ideas thus put together form a thought.

Relation, as we have seen, is known by logic; or shown by position, as in *the good boy*; by forms, as in *brother's book*; or by words, as in *the house by the sea, John and Charles, The boy is good.*

There are two kinds of relation between elements :—

1. Coördinate.

John and Charles study.

John, but not Charles, studies.

2. Subordinate.

I shall see him when he comes.

He will come if he can.

He lives in a house.

A copula *asserts* the subordinate relation of a word to its principal. A preposition only *shows* the subordinate relation of a word to its principal. Give examples.

The infinitive and the participle of an asserter also show relation. Give examples.

All connectives join, but many connectives perform two offices. A connective which shows the subordinate relation of a subordinate clause to its principal, and which also serves as a pronoun in the subordinate clause, is a relative pronoun. Give an example.

A connective which shows the subordinate relation of a subordinate clause to its principal, and which also serves as an adjective in the subordinate clause, is a relative adjective. Give an example.

A connective which shows the subordinate relation of a subordinate clause to its principal, and which also serves as an adverb in the subordinate clause, is a conjunctive adverb. Give an example.

A connective which shows the subordinate relation of a subordinate clause to its principal without performing any office within the clause, is a subordinate conjunction—its sole office is to join, and that which it joins is subordinate.

EXAMPLE. I wish that you would come.

Give another example.



A connective which joins two coördinate elements, but does not itself form an element within either of the parts which it joins, is a coördinate conjunction — its sole office is to join, and those things which it joins are coördinate.

EXAMPLE. You and I will go.

Give another example.

A conjunction is a pure connective.

Conjunctions are coördinate or subordinate.

A coördinate conjunction is a word which joins words, phrases, or clauses, and indicates equal rank.

A word which joins a clause to the word it modifies, but performs no office in the clause, and which indicates unequal rank, is a subordinate conjunction.

A preposition is a word which joins an idea word to the word which the idea modifies, and shows unequal rank.

A copula or a copulative verb is a word which asserts the relation of a subordinate idea word to its principal.

## 100. COORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS.

There are very few coördinate conjunctions. The chief of these are: *and* — showing harmony between the parts :

John and Charles play ball.

*but* — showing contrast, parts not in harmony :

John studies, but Charles plays.

*or* — offering a choice :

John is tired or lazy.

*or* — showing identity :

Boz, or Charles Dickens, wrote "Christmas Stories."

*nor* — denying a choice :

John is not tired nor is he lazy.

There are some words, adverbial or adjective by nature, and performing still a slightly adverbial office, which were used at first with the conjunction for the sake of emphasis, but have now taken upon themselves the conjunctive office almost to the exclusion of their original use. These are hence also called coördinate conjunctions, in spite of the trace of original meaning left. The following will exemplify them:—

*and* group — He goes [and] so I go.

He plays well [and] also sings with expression.

I draw with skill [and] likewise paint.

He danced well; I too danced a little.

Washington was a soldier; besides, he was a great statesman.

*but* group — I do not know him, [but] yet I like him.

The enemy retreated, it is true, [but] still we failed to pursue them.

I doubt my power to do it; [but] however, I will make the attempt.

*or* group — The master must rule; [or] else would he be himself a slave.

I am sure that he came, [or] otherwise I should have been notified.

*Not only* the rich, *but also* the poor flocked in with their offerings.

He loved *both* rich *and* poor.

John is *either* tired *or* lazy.

John is *neither* tired *nor* lazy.

A number of coördinate connective expressions consist of two words or groups of words, one of which prepares the mind for the connective effect of the second.

NOTE.—These conjunctive groups may be divided into parts. We may call *only* an adjective, *not* an adverb, *but* the conjunction, and *also* an adjective. Many grammarians call them *correlatives*.

Thou *too* sail on, oh, ship of state.  
*And* must this body die?

Coördinate conjunctions often introduce sentences. Then they may be said to connect the sentence with some preceding thought.

#### Exercise.

Point out the coördinate conjunctions in each of the following sentences, and tell what they connect:—

1. Not only the court, but the common people also praised Columbus.
2. The storm is coming, therefore the insect world is hushed and still.
3. Neither the father nor his son can be found.
4. First the mother, then the child, and finally the servant descended.
5. My reasons are urgent: first, I wish to go; secondly, you wish me to go; and thirdly, my friends there wish to see me.
6. I dislike him; moreover, he dislikes me.
7. I was hurt as well as you.
8. So, the day being fairly ended, we retire to rest.
9. Oh, I was tired; so I soon turned in.
10. However, the day came at last, and not too soon.
11. This came to an end, as I happened to know.
12. He often shirked his duties or put them off on some one else.
13. She was not only pretty, but very graceful too.
14. It was pleasant to be called a gentleman sportsman, also to have a chance of drawing a favorite horse.
15. I also loved her.
16. The house, likewise the barn, was painted brown.
17. All my books, besides my other belongings, are there.
18. I am hurt, yet not so seriously as to alarm me.
19. He said so himself; otherwise, I should have doubted it.
20. We loved him, yet we feared him.
21. Either you or I must go.
22. We loved him not; neither did we fear him.

**101. SUBORDINATE RELATION WORDS.**

Subordinate relation words are of two classes: subordinate connectives, introducing subordinate clauses; and asserters (copulas) and prepositions, introducing subordinate phrases.

Relative pronouns, relative adjectives, conjunctive adverbs, and asserters have been treated under the parts of speech to which they belong.

**I. Subordinate conjunctions.**

There are very few subordinate conjunctions. It is difficult to define a subordinate conjunction, because its use in the substantive clause differs from its use in adjective and adverbial clauses. The subordinate conjunction usually shows the relation of a modifying clause to its principal. But the substantive clause has no principal, since the conjunction serves only to introduce it.

**A subordinate conjunction introduces a subordinate clause.**

Oh, that he might come !

In a few cases, a subordinate conjunction seems to be used like a coördinate conjunction, to introduce a sentence. But really, in the case above, we should supply something like *I wish*, in studying the structure of the sentence.

**Exercise.**

Select the subordinate relation words in the following sentences, and tell the class and office of each.

1. I speak as I feel.
2. When daylight comes we must be off.
3. I will go if you will accompany me.
4. Where the flowers bloom sweetest, there the bees love to gather.
5. As red as a rose is she.

6. I am not so well as I was.
7. Cheap as it may be, I cannot buy it.
8. However I may feel, I shall not betray it.

## II. Prepositions.

A preposition shows the relation of an idea word to its principal.

If a preposition has for its object a clause, it is hard to distinguish it from a subordinate conjunction.

EXAMPLE. Fred Douglass was born before the Civil War.  
*Before* is a preposition. Its object is *Civil War*.

EXAMPLE. Fred Douglass was born before the Civil War put an end to slavery.  
*Before* is a subordinate conjunction, joining the clause which follows it to *was born*.

EXAMPLE. We agree in that we both distrust this measure.  
*In* is a preposition. Its object is the whole following clause.

Is your mother *in* the house? (prep.)

Yes, she is *in*. (adv.)

A word may be used in some places as a preposition and in others as an adverb.

He looked at me.

*Looked at* is similar in meaning to *observed*, and the sentence can be altered to *I was looked at by him*. Here *at* seems to be more adverbial than prepositional, *me* being the object of the modified verb *looked at*.

The preposition as it appears in the infinitive has in some cases lost its original use as a relation word and become merely an introducing word; but in most cases its usual office is retained.

EXAMPLES. We went to Europe to see the exposition. (relation word)

To see is to believe. (introducing word)

## Exercise.

Select the subordinate relation words in the following sentences, and tell the class and office of each.

1. I sat near her.
2. From day to day we watched her.
3. You walk like him.
4. The boy stood on the burning deck,  
Whence all but him had fled.
5. We will look well into the subject and put off decision until  
to-morrow.
6. During the holidays we will trim the house with evergreens.
7. I know what I like, and I like what suits me.
8. Under what flag did you serve?

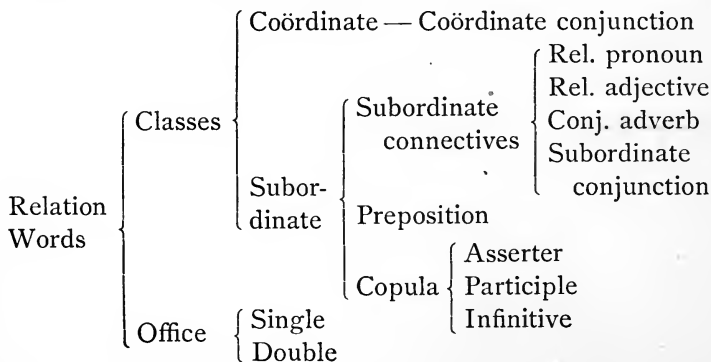
There are some cases in which two prepositions combine to show one relation.

EXAMPLE. *Out of*, written as two words, which are as closely united in meaning as *in* and *to* are in *into*.

Study the uses of copulative participles and infinitives as relation words, on pages 164, 165.

## 102. REVIEW.

In parsing a relation word, follow the subjoined outline.



## Exercise.

Parse the relation words in the following sentences :—

1. Daisies pied and violets blue,  
And lady smocks all silver white,  
And cuckoo buds of yellow hue  
Do paint the meadows with delight.
2. They are as sick that surfeit with too much as they that starve  
with nothing.
3. Fools rush in where angels fear to tread.
4. The ship came so rapidly, and apparently so rashly, that the lands-  
men of the party were alarmed.
5. When the shepherds came fully to their senses they stared at one  
another stupidly.
6. It may be doubted if the people of the West ever overcome  
the impression made upon them by the first view of a camel  
equipped and loaded for the desert.
7. I take long walks because I enjoy the exercise.
8. The horse and sleigh were injured; but the driver escaped  
unhurt.
9. You or your brother may carry the message.
10. Will you wait, please, until I have answered the note ?
11. Hail to the chief, who in triumph advances.
12. It is a poor sport that is not worth the candle.
13. Men of courage and of conviction settled New England.
14. This term of forty days is mentioned by Aristotle in his Natural  
History, as also by some modern physiologists.
15. It is asserted that the dogs keep running when they drink at the  
Nile, for fear of becoming a prey to the voracity of the crocodiles.
16. No man ever wetted clay and then left it, as if there would be  
bricks by chance and fortune.
17. The materials of action are variable, but the use we make of them  
should be constant.
18. And if I laugh at any mortal thing,  
'Tis that I may not weep.
19. Watchman, tell us of the night,  
What its signs of promise are.
20. I watched her at her spinning,  
And that was my beginning  
Of wooing and of winning.

## 103. CAUTIONS.

I. *Conjunctions.* Do not use *like* for *as*, *but* for *than*, *that* for *why*, *without* for *unless*, or *but what* for *but* or *but that*.

Write correctly : —

1. The English do not ride <sup>as</sup> like we do.
2. The man acts <sup>like</sup> as if he <sup>was</sup> were crazy.
3. He studies for no higher object <sup>than</sup> but a reward.
4. The reason <sup>that</sup> why I remained was because I could not make arrangements to leave.
5. I shall not read <sup>unless</sup> without you give me your attention.
6. There is no one here <sup>but</sup> but what agrees with me.
7. I don't know <sup>but what</sup> but that you are right.

II. *Prepositions.* Avoid using the preposition *for* before an infinitive.

Supply the prepositions in the following sentences : —

1. I went down town — shop.
2. The desire — see you brought me here.
3. They went — receive him, but failed.

NOTE. — This use of *for* was once considered good English.

EXAMPLE. "But what came ye out for to see?"



## CHAPTER XII. — INDEPENDENT WORDS.

### SYNOPSIS.

Interjections, and nouns and pronouns used in direct address, and words or word groups which have no grammatical relations except to their own modifiers, are independent.

#### 104. INDEPENDENT WORDS.

John, the train has come.

This sentence is complete without the independent word, *John*. *Train* and *has come* are mutually dependent, and form the base of the sentence; and the word *the* is dependent as a subordinate upon its principal, *train*; but *John* bears no grammatical relation to the statement addressed to him. *John* is, therefore, called independent.

Nouns used in direct address, unless they are subjects in the construction of the sentence, are independent. That is, they bear no grammatical relation, subordinate or coördinate, to any other part of the sentence.

In the sentence *John, go home*, *John* is subject of the verb *go*. Some grammarians, however, make *John* independent; the word *you* must then be supplied as the subject of *go*.

Pronouns are rarely used in direct address.

EXAMPLE. *You, sir, I want you*, is inelegant.

Nouns and pronouns used as exclamations are independent.

EXAMPLES. My daughter ! Oh, my daughter !  
He ! I tell you he died a year ago.

Any noun that has no grammatical relation except to its own modifiers, is independent.

EXAMPLE. The boy, oh ! where was he?

*Boy* here is modified by its adjective modifier *the*, but is related in no other way as an element in the sentence.

Whole phrases may be independent if used in exclamation or otherwise, without any grammatical relation to the rest of the sentence.

*An independent phrase is separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma or an exclamation point.*

EXAMPLES. Upon my word ! I am sorry for you.

Upon my word ! can this be true?

Here *word* is the object of the preposition *upon*, but the entire phrase is severed from the remainder of the sentence. In the first example it is possible to say that *upon* shows the relation of *word* to *am sorry*, the phrase being adverbial in meaning, as *I am really sorry*, but no such explanation can be given in the second instance.

There is a small class of words expressive of feeling, and used only in exclamation, which are always independent. They are called, from their occasional use, interjections, or words thrown in.

EXAMPLES. Alas ! I am unworthy of such kindness.

But oh ! what sounds are these?

These words often have a faint adverbial significance.

EXAMPLE. Alas ! he is here. (He is unfortunately here.)

Indeed, no expression can be entirely free from some connection in our thought with other expressions on the same subject, but it is only when the connection or dependence is clearly expressed, generally by *form*, *position*,

*punctuation*, or *relation words*, that we call it *grammatical relation*.

An interjection is a word expressive of emotion, and in construction independent.

---

I need thee, O my brother.  
And oh, what bliss was there!

The interjection *O* consisting of the one letter is always a capital. When spelled *o-h*, the capital is not necessary. *O* is generally used in direct address; *oh* is usually employed in all other cases.

#### Exercise.

Select the independent elements in the following; give, if possible, their logical relations to the other expressions with which they occur:—

1. Hark! the herald angels sing.
2. Oh! it is excellent to have a giant's strength.
3. I hold the world but as the world, Gratiano.
4. A second Daniel, a Daniel, Jew!  
Now, infidel, I have thee on the hip.
5. Blow, blow, thou winter wind!
6. Hark, my soul! it is the Lord.
7. Zounds! I never was so betrapped with words.
8. By my faith! I will not stir.
9. O sleep, O gentle sleep!  
Nature's soft nurse, how have I frightened thee?
10. Alas! by some degree of woe,  
We every bliss must gain.
11. "You are so good, my mother," he said in a grateful way.
12. Hark, they whisper! angels say,  
Sister spirit, come away.
13. O grave! where is thy victory!  
O death! where is thy sting!
14. Come, Mary, let us be going.

## CHAPTER XIII. — COMPLETE ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

### SYNOPSIS.

An element is classified according to its use; words are modified according to their meaning or nature.

An adjective element modifies a noun or pronoun.

An adverbial element modifies an entire predicate base, a verb, an adjective, or an adverb.

### 105. COMPLETE ANALYSIS.

So far the sentences considered have contained: —

*a.* Subject base of any class, simple or compound, modified by adjective elements, these modifiers being word, phrase, or clause elements.

*b.* Predicate base, simple or compound, modified by objective and adverbial elements.

EXAMPLE. A large flock of sheep (which grazed in the pasture where the grass was tall) now entered the field with the speed of frightened creatures because the train passed.

1   2   3   4   5
5   6   7   8   9
9   10

Analysis.

<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>
adj. word el.	adj. word el.	subject base.	adj. phrase el.
<u>5</u>		<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>
adj. clause (with clause modifier).		adv. word el.	pred. base.
<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>		
obj. word el.	adv. phrase el. (with a word and a phrase modifier).		
<u>10</u>			
adv. clause.			

Exercise.

Analyze the following sentences :—

1. The wanderer stood upon the steps, beneath the rich stone carvings which set forth the Crucifixion over the door of the church, and his quick eye scanned everything within sight.
2. I followed him onto the veranda, where the long cane chairs of the country were placed, and stretched myself out in that indolent, lazy peace which is only to be enjoyed in tropical countries.
3. The darkness of night had closed upon this disastrous day, and a doleful night was it to the shipwrecked Pavonians, whose ears were incessantly assailed with the raging of the elements, and the howling of the hobgoblins that infested this perfidious strait.

Write sentences in the order prescribed below :

1.  $\frac{1}{\text{adj. word el.}}$   $\frac{2}{\text{subj. base (compound)}}$   
 $\frac{3}{\text{adj. phrase (with phrase modifier)}}$   $\frac{4}{\text{adj. clause.}}$   $\frac{5}{\text{pred. base.}}$   
 $\frac{6}{\text{adv. word el.}}$   $\frac{7}{\text{adv. phrase (with clause mod.)}}$   
 $\frac{8}{\text{adv. clause (with clause mod.)}}$
2.  $\frac{1}{\text{adj. word el.}}$   $\frac{2}{\text{adj. word el. (two words)}}$   $\frac{3}{\text{subj. base.}}$   
 $\frac{4}{\text{adj. clause.}}$   $\frac{5}{\text{compound pred. base.}}$   
 $\frac{6}{\text{obj. word el. (containing several words)}}$   $\frac{7}{\text{adv. word el.}}$
3.  $\frac{1}{\text{substan. phrase.}}$   $\frac{2}{\text{assertive phrase.}}$
4.  $\frac{1}{\text{substan. clause (with clause mod.)}}$   $\frac{2}{\text{asserter and adj. phrase.}}$
5.  $\frac{1}{\text{subj. base (unmodified)}}$   $\frac{2}{\text{pred. verb.}}$   $\frac{3}{\text{obj. clause.}}$
6.  $\frac{1}{\text{adj. word el.}}$   $\frac{2}{\text{compound subj. base.}}$   $\frac{3}{\text{pred. verb.}}$   
 $\frac{4}{\text{compound adv. phrase.}}$

7.  $\frac{1}{\text{adj. word el.}}$   $\frac{2}{\text{subj. base.}}$   $\frac{3}{\text{adj. clause (with clause mod.)}}$   
 $\frac{4}{\text{asserter and compound attribute.}}$
8.  $\frac{1}{\text{compound clause subj. base.}}$   $\frac{2}{\text{pred. phrase.}}$
9.  $\frac{1}{\text{compound subj. base.}}$   $\frac{2}{\text{1st part of compound pred. base.}}$   
 $\frac{3}{\text{adv. el.}}$   $\frac{4}{\text{2d part of compound pred. base.}}$   
 $\frac{5}{\text{adv. word el. (with phrase mod.)}}$   
 $\frac{6}{\text{adverbial clause (with clause mod.)}}$

Nouns or pronouns, however used, are modified by adjective elements; and adjectives, adverbs, and verbs, however used, are modified by adverbial elements so long as they retain their true nature. This makes it possible to analyze the parts of a sentence much more thoroughly, and to make sentences much more varied in structure than any yet given.

#### Model for Full Analysis.

“When breezes are soft and skies are fair,  
 I steal an hour from study and care,  
 And hie me away to the woodland scene,  
 Where wanders the stream with waters of green.”

Sentence — complex declarative.

Principal clause — entire sentence.

Subordinate clauses.

*a. When breezes are soft and skies are fair.*

*b. Where wanders the stream with waters of green.*

Principal clause.

Entire subject — *I* — base unmodified.

Entire predicate — All the rest of the sentence.

Predicate base — *steal* and *hie* — compound, active, transitive.

Modifiers of *steal*.

- a. Objective word element *an hour*, of which *hour*, the base, is modified by the adjective word element *an*.
- b. Adverbial phrase, *from study and care*, the relation part being *from*, and the compound idea part, *study and care*, the bases *study* and *care* being connected by the coördinate conjunction *and*.

Modifiers of *hie*.

- a. Objective word element *me*.
- b. Adverbial word element *away*.
- c. Adverbial phrase element, *to the woodland scene, Where wanders the stream with waters of green*, of which the relation part is *to*, and the idea part all the rest; the base of this idea part being *scene*, modified by the two adjective word elements *the* and *woodland*, and by the adjective clause element *Where wanders the stream with waters of green*.

Modifier of *steal* and *hie*.

The compound adverbial clause element *When breezes are soft and skies are fair*.

Subordinate clauses.

- a. *When breezes are soft and skies are fair*.

First clause — *breezes are soft*.

Entire subject — *breezes* — base unmodified.

Entire predicate — *are soft when*.

Base — *Are soft*, (neither active nor passive); asserter, *are*; attribute, *soft*.

Second clause — *Skies are fair*.

Entire subject — *skies* — base unmodified.

Entire predicate — *are fair when*.

Base — *are fair*, (neither active nor passive); asserter, *are*; attribute, *fair*.

Subordinate connective, *when*, is used also as adverbial word element in both clauses of the compound predicate.

b. *Where wanders the stream with waters of green.*

Entire subject — *The stream with waters of green*.

Subject base — *stream*, modified by the adjective word element *the*, and the adjective phrase element *with waters of green*, of which *with* is the relation part, and *waters of green* the idea part, *waters* being the base, modified by the adjective phrase *of green*, in which *of* is the relation part, and *green* the idea part.

Entire predicate — *wanders where*.

Predicate base — *wanders*, active, modified by the simple adverbial word element *where*.

The subordinate connective is *where*, used as adverbial word element in its own clause.

Every element must be named according to its office, and every word is modified according to its nature.

#### Exercise.

Analyze the following sentences: —

1. The very first movements of the great Peter, on taking the reins of government, displayed his magnanimity, though they occasioned not a little marvel and uneasiness among the people of the Manhattoes.
2. Him did Peter the Headstrong cause to be brought into his presence, and eying him for a moment from head to foot, with a countenance that would have appalled anything else than a sounder of brass, said, "Prithee, and who art thou?"



3. It was some time, if I recollect right, in the early part of the autumn of 1808 that a stranger applied for lodgings at the Independent Columbian Hotel in Mulberry Street, of which I am landlord.
4. The only piece of finery which he bore about him was a bright pair of square silver shoe buckles ; and all his baggage was contained in a pair of saddlebags which he carried under his arm.
5. Thy leaf has perished in the green,  
And while we breathe beneath the sun,  
The world which credits what is done,  
Is cold to all that might have been.
6. There was a state without king or nobles ; there was a church without a bishop ; there was a people governed by grave magistrates which it had selected, and by equal laws which it had framed.
7. Nail to the mast her holy flag,  
Set every threadbare sail,  
And give her to the God of storms,  
The lightning and the gale !
8. It has been observed that the height of a man from the crown of the head to the sole of the foot is equal to the distance between the tips of the middle fingers of the two hands when extended in a straight line.
9. The thorns which I have reaped are of the tree I planted ; they have torn me, and I bleed.
10. The hunter still pitched his bower of skins and bark beside the rills which ran through the cool and shady glens, while here and there might be seen, on some sunny knoll, a group of Indian wigwams whose smoke arose above the neighboring trees and floated in the transparent atmosphere.
11. The gentlemen, in fact, who figured in the circles of the gay world in those ancient times, corresponded in most particulars with the beauteous damsels whose smiles they were ambitious to deserve.

Repeat the analysis of the sentences at the end of Chapter IV, parsing particularly all the modifiers of modifiers. Analyze sentences free from difficult idioms, in any available good piece of literature.

## PART III.—APPLICATIONS OF GRAMMAR.



### CHAPTER XIV.—PUNCTUATION AND CAPITALI- ZATION.

#### 106. USE OF PUNCTUATION MARKS.

Punctuation is fully treated in books upon composition and rhetoric; but, since punctuation marks may aid in making grammatical relations clear, some of the rules for their use may properly be treated in a grammar.

What punctuation mark indicates the close of a pure declarative sentence? Give an example of this use of the period.

What other class of sentence is followed by a period?

What mark indicates the close of a pure interrogative sentence? of any exclamatory sentence? Give examples.

How are compound sentences punctuated? (pp. 70, 71.)  
How are mixed compound sentences punctuated? (p. 21.)  
Give examples.

How are compound elements punctuated? (p. 75.)  
Give examples.

In the examples which you have given, what marks have been used to indicate the close of the sentence? Which marks have been used to indicate the state of mind of the author? Which have been used to separate the parts of a compound?

What, then, are three of the uses to which punctuation marks may be put?

Good manners, not fine clothing, make the man.

In this sentence, the commas before and after *not fine clothing* show that the expression which they inclose is interposed between the subject and the predicate.

So another use of punctuation marks is to separate unrelated parts within the sentence, which might otherwise be joined in the mind. This use of the comma is somewhat similar to the use of the marks which end sentences.

#### 107. PUNCTUATION TO SEPARATE THE PARTS OF A COMPOUND.

Commas are usually placed between the parts of a compound, unless all the parts are connected by conjunctions.

- EXAMPLES.
1. Oliver Twist was a pale, thin child.
  2. Who never felt the impatient throb,  
The longing of a heart that pants  
And reaches after distant good ?
  3. I came, I saw, I conquered.
  4. I came and I saw and I conquered.

If the parts of a compound sentence contain within themselves commas, semicolons are used instead of commas to separate the greater parts.

- EXAMPLE. In some, ambition is the chief concern ;  
For this they languish and for this they burn ;  
For this they smile, for this alone they sigh ;  
For this they love, for this would freely die.

If the parts of a compound sentence express a contrast, *but* is frequently omitted, a semicolon being used in its stead.

- EXAMPLES.**
1. Cleon hath a million acres ;  
Ne'er a one have I.
  2. When I was little, thought I was big ;  
Now I'm a giant, don't care a fig.
  3. Fire is the test of gold ; adversity is the test of  
strong men.



Mary likes candy ; I, cake.

The verb is frequently omitted, when well understood, in which case a comma indicates the omission.

### **108. PUNCTUATION TO SEPARATE UNRELATED PARTS.**

A pure declarative sentence is followed by a period.

**EXAMPLE.** All orators are dumb when beauty pleadeth.

A pure interrogative sentence is followed by an interrogation point.

**EXAMPLE.** Have you found your life distasteful?

A pure imperative sentence is followed by a period.

**EXAMPLE.** Go to the ant, thou sluggard.

A parenthesis, if very marked, is separated from that within which it is placed, by parentheses ( ) or dashes (—). If the parenthesis is not very marked, commas are used instead.

- EXAMPLES.**
1. The melancholy days are come, the saddest of the  
year,  
Of wailing winds and naked woods and meadows  
brown and sear.
  2. One writer, for instance, excels at a plan.

An independent noun, or any independent expression which is not an exclamation, is separated from the rest of the sentence with which it occurs, by commas.

EXAMPLES. John, your mother wants you.  
I am, sir, his brother.  
Child of mortality, whence comest thou?

An explanatory noun, being parenthetical in use, is often marked off by commas.

EXAMPLES. John, the gardener, cut the grass.  
The blind poet, Milton, wrote "Paradise Lost."

Inversions are frequently indicated by the use of the comma.

EXAMPLE. In the midst of life, we are in death.

—◆—

The tune *which you play* is pretty.  
I like it *when it is well played*.

A clause introduced by a relative pronoun or by a conjunctive adverb is not marked off by commas if its adjective or adverbial use is plain (restricting or limiting the meaning of its principal).

That piano, *which my father purchased for me when I first learned to play*, stands by the door.  
I sat and played by the firelight, *when in came the children from their walk*.

These subordinate clauses are merely subordinate in form; they are really statements equal in importance to the principal clauses, and thus not true adjective and adverbial clauses, but logically coördinate with their principals. Therefore they are separated from their principal clauses by commas.

Children, be quiet.  
Whatever is, is right.

There are two exceptional uses of the comma. The subject of an imperative sentence is separated from its predicate by a comma; and the comma also separates subject and predicate when the subject clause ends with a verb, or when the subject is very long.

### 109. PUNCTUATION TO EXPRESS EMOTION.

The exclamation point is the chief mark used for the purpose of indicating emotion.

An exclamatory sentence — whether declarative, interrogative, or imperative — is followed by an exclamation point.

EXAMPLE. What rage for fame attends both great and small !

An interjection, or interjectional expression, if used alone, or if very emphatic, is followed by an exclamation point.

EXAMPLES. 1. Hail, Columbia ! happy land !  
Hail, ye heroes ! heaven-born band !  
2. An angel ! or if not,  
An earthly paragon !

An interjectional expression which is part of an exclamatory sentence is usually followed by a comma, because the exclamation point follows the entire sentence.

EXAMPLES. O Lady, he is dead and gone !  
Hush, my dear, lie still and slumber !

### 110. REVIEW.

#### Exercise.

Punctuate the following : —

1. His looks betoken ease plenty and prosperity
2. In a similar manner and with the example of my worthy ancestor full before my eyes have I proceeded in writing this most authentic history

3. But ours alone can ne'er prevail  
To reach the distant coast  
The breath of heaven must swell the sail  
Or all the toil is lost
4. Each in his narrow cell forever laid  
The rude forefathers of the hamlet sleep
5. Ah youth forever dear forever kind
6. Teach me to feel another's woe  
To hide the fault I see  
That mercy I to others show  
That mercy show to me
7. The tall the wise the reverend head  
Must lie as low as ours
8. But children you should never let  
Such angry passions rise  
Your little hands were never made  
To tear each other's eyes
9. Odds life must one swear to the truth of a song
10. We the people of the United States do ordain and establish this  
Constitution
11. Alas how light a cause may move  
Dissension between hearts that love
12. When tillage begins other arts follow
13. Justice sir is the great interest of man on earth
14. Venerable men you have come down to us from a former genera-  
tion
15. Sink or swim live or die survive or perish I give my hand and heart  
to this vote
16. And lo Ben Adhem's name led all the rest
17. But soft methinks I scent the morning air
18. What do you read my lord
19. I will buy with you sell with you walk with you and so following  
but I will not eat with you drink with you nor pray with you
20. A needy hollow-eyed sharp-looking wretch
21. O Romeo Romeo wherefore art thou Romeo
22. For he who fights and runs away  
May live to fight another day  
But he who is in battle slain  
Can never rise and fight again

23. A man's heart deviseth his way the Lord directeth his steps  
 24. How would you be if he which is the top of judgment should but judge you as you are

The use of punctuation marks to separate unrelated parts is the use most apparent to those who read, for it aids much in enabling the reader properly to apprehend what he reads. This fact has led many writers to use unnecessary punctuation marks as signs by means of which those who read aloud may know where to pause, so that it is possible, by carefully observing these signs, to read properly without understanding the contents of what is read. Some school readers even formulate such rules as "Stop at a comma long enough to count one;" "Drop the voice at a period;" and the like.

It should be borne in mind that the proper office of punctuation is to make plain the relations between the parts of the composition.

### 111. CAPITALS.

Capitals are employed usually to indicate the importance of the words of which they are the initial letters.

The first word of a sentence should begin with a capital.

Proper nouns and proper adjectives should begin with capitals.

The words *I* and *O* should be capitals.

The first word of each line of poetry should begin with a capital.

The name of the Deity, or any pronoun referring to the Deity, should begin with a capital.

EXAMPLE. The Almighty breathed His spirit into man.

Personified nouns are generally begun with capitals.

Give examples of each of these uses of capitals.



## CHAPTER XV. — ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS IN A SENTENCE.

### 112. INTRODUCTION.

The horse ran rapidly. The horse rapidly ran through the meadow. Rapidly the horse ran through the meadow. The horse ran through the meadow rapidly.

No matter how far *rapidly* is placed from *ran* it cannot, in the nature of things, modify any other word.

Under the spreading chestnut tree,  
The village smithy stands.

The usual arrangement of these elements would be, *The village smithy stands under the spreading chestnut tree.* By directing the thought first to the spreading tree, a more pleasing picture is formed.

The variations from the usual arrangement which occur in sentences are for the purpose either of adding to beauty of form, as in poetry, or of emphasizing some part of the thought.

EXAMPLE. Old thou mayst be, feeble thou mayst be; but rich it is well known thou art.

Here, in order to compare emphatically the adjectives *old*, *feeble*, and *rich*, they are removed from their usual positions as attributes after their asserters.

To learn when and how to make changes in the ordinary arrangement of elements one should study the writings of good authors. A proper use of such knowledge is, in part;

what is called style in composition. The careless and unnecessary use of inversions for the sake of peculiarity is an affectation which should be avoided.

### 113. SUBJECT AND ADJECTIVE ELEMENTS.

The subject base of a declarative sentence is usually placed before the predicate base, though not necessarily next to it.

EXAMPLES. I went.

The group of timid creatures, frightened and cowed, crept away.

If the predicate base in an interrogative sentence is one word, the subject is often placed after it. If the predicate base is a group of words, the subject comes after the first word of the predicate base.

EXAMPLES. Were you there ?

Will you stay there ?

The subject of an imperative sentence is often omitted, in which case *you* is understood to be the subject; but, if given, the subject is placed either before or after the predicate.

EXAMPLES. Children, come in.

Come in, children.

*A*, *an*, and *the* usually precede the principal, or the principal and all other modifiers.

EXAMPLE. The fine weather lasts longer this year than usual.

But when a noun is also modified by *such* or *many*, the position of *a* or *an* is next after this modifier.

EXAMPLES. Such a mistake is not often made.

Such a fine fellow as that should not lack gold.

Many a bright-faced boy have I seen enter the same course.

And an adjective modified by *so* may precede *a* or *an*.

EXAMPLE. So good a man needs no defense.

A short adjective word modifier is usually placed before the noun it modifies. Explanatory terms and very long adjective word modifiers follow their principals.

EXAMPLES. The good old man arose.

My father, old and venerable, greeted me.

She, lovely in her innocence, confronted him calmly.

Mary, the sister of Lazarus, chose the better part.

They set him free without his ransom *paid*.

It is not easy to recognize *paid* as an adjective element, because it follows its principal.

An attribute usually follows its asserter.

EXAMPLE. He was every inch a man.

This order is frequently changed by inversions for the sake of emphasis or rhythm.

EXAMPLE. A man he was, to all his country dear.

Of two adjective modifiers, one a possessive and the other an adjective, the possessive is placed first to avoid confusion.

EXAMPLE. *The prisoner's young wife* differs in meaning from *the young prisoner's wife*.

Adjective phrases and clauses follow their principals.

EXAMPLES. The ticking of the clock disturbed me.

A reparation which is so grudgingly paid avails nothing.

One should avoid placing adjective modifiers so far away from their principals as to render the meaning doubtful.

**Exercise.**

Place the adjective modifiers properly in the following sentences : —

1. The mother came with her baby, pretty as a picture.
2. The mourners came slowly toward us, followed by their little dog, weeping bitterly.
3. A building with great chimneys, seven stories high, stood near the avenue.
4. Send me a good woman to take care of my baby, about forty years old.
5. The miniature hung by a chain round her neck, which was painted by Benjamin West.

**114. ADVERBIAL AND PREDICATE ELEMENTS.**

Those words which fulfill two offices in a sentence, such as conjunctive adverbs and relative pronouns, must be placed properly for one service at the expense of the other. These words are so placed as to perform their office of relation words, and thus the subordinate clause is frequently inverted. The relative pronoun, however, while filling the position demanded by its conjunctive office (except that it may be preceded by a preposition), assumes the form demanded by its pronominal use.

EXAMPLES. The gentleman whom I have mentioned is not here.  
The candidate of whom I spoke was not elected.

An interrogative word is generally placed first in the sentence or clause in which it also serves as an element, whatever its grammatical relation.

EXAMPLES. Why do you come ?  
What do you wish ?  
Which way will you go ?

The predicate base usually follows the subject of a

declarative sentence, is placed at the beginning of an imperative sentence, and precedes or incloses the subject of an interrogative sentence.

EXAMPLES. I desire it.  
Come with us.  
 Where is it?  
 What will you do?

An adverbial word element usually precedes its adjective or adverbial principal, but is placed either before or after its verbal principal.

EXAMPLES. The very funny story moved us to laughter.  
 A cheerfully blazing fire crackled merrily on the hearth.

If the predicate base is composed of a principal verb and one or more auxiliaries, the adverb often occurs between the principal verb and the asserter.

EXAMPLES. I have often seen him.  
 I will never do it.  
 When the deed shall have been so nobly done.

Adverbial phrases and clauses usually follow their principals.

EXAMPLES. She was beautiful in appearance.  
 He walked forward with dignity.  
 I rode while the fine weather lasted.

But displacements of adverbial elements are frequently used to create emphasis and variety of style.

EXAMPLES. 1. Under the greenwood tree,  
 Who loves to lie with me?  
 2. Where the bee sucks, there suck I.

## 115. OTHER ELEMENTS AND WORDS.

An objective element, whatever its class, usually follows the transitive verb.

- EXAMPLES. I wrote a letter.  
 I desire to see you.  
 I thought that you were here.

An indirect object usually precedes the direct object, both being placed after the verb.

- EXAMPLES. Lend me your ears.  
 Hand Charles a knife.

A transitive verb sometimes has the power of showing the relation between its object and a modifier. Such an adjective modifier follows its principal.

- EXAMPLES. They called him lazy.  
 The people made Caesar emperor.

The natural position for a relation word is between the related or connected words or word groups. If displaced from this position, a subordinate relation word usually remains with the subordinate element.

- EXAMPLES. When the gentle Spring comes, I, Old Winter, hie away.  
In my opinion, nothing said is safest.

A relative pronoun used within its clause as object of a preposition is frequently transposed to perform its conjunctive office, leaving the preposition in the position proper for a prepositional phrase.

- EXAMPLE. What he was thinking of, I cannot tell.

But it is more elegant to place the preposition before its object.

*That* as a relative pronoun, object of a preposition, can be used only when separated from the preposition. If the clause is reconstructed, *which* or *whom* must be used.

EXAMPLE. The people that I live with.  
The people with whom I live.

### 116. INVERSIONS.

Certain words usually demand inversions in the sentences in which they occur.

After *else* used as a conjunction, the second clause is frequently inverted.

EXAMPLE. I failed to see her, else would I have spoken.

*Nor* can be used without *neither* in a sentence, provided the following clause is inverted.

EXAMPLE. I do not know him nor do I wish to.

On the contrary, the omission of *if* inverts the clause.

EXAMPLE. Hadst thou stayed I must have fled.

In some cases, the inversion creates a demand for the addition of a word.

EXAMPLE. Where he is, there am I.

This means *I am there where he is*, the clause *where he is* being explanatory of *there*, and hence an adverbial clause. In its ordinary form the sentence would read, *I am where he is*, the word *there* being superfluous, and needed only in the inverted sentence.

EXAMPLE. Though he slay me, yet will I trust him.

This is an inversion of *I will trust him though he slay me*. *Yet* is introduced because of the inversion.

EXAMPLE. What I seek, I seek it earnestly.

In the natural order this would appear — *I seek what I seek earnestly*; *it* being introduced because of the inversion.

EXAMPLE. For the same reason, *whoso* is introduced in the sentence *Whoso sheddeth man's blood, by man shall his blood be shed*. The sentence can be better analyzed, *His blood, who sheddeth man's blood, shall be shed by man*.

### 117. USE OF EXPLETIVES.

Perhaps the most common case of inversion is that which necessitates the use of one of the introductory **expletives**, *there* or *it*.

EXAMPLES. There is no one here.  
It is strange that he does not come.

The awkwardness of using a very long subject before a short predicate is avoided by the employment of *there* to introduce the sentence; the subject being transposed to follow the verb.

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

*There* may be called an adverb, but has lost its adverbial significance, and has become a mere expletive.

Similarly, *it* placed as subject of a short predicate, and followed by an explanatory phrase or clause, is really an expletive, the explanatory phrase or clause being the real subject; but because of its usual pronominal use *it* can be called the subject, although *there* can not.

EXAMPLES. It is true that I am here.  
It surprised me to find so many of them illtreated.  
Is it not true that you heard me?  
It moved the people to see so sad a disaster.  
It seems strange that one so useful should die.



## 118. REVIEW.

## Exercise.

Explain the reasons for the arrangements of words in the following: —

1. In every deed of mischief he had a heart to resolve, a head to contrive, and a hand to execute.
2. Could we forbear dispute and practice love,  
We should agree as angels do above.
3. Of Law there can be no less acknowledged than that her seat is in the bosom of God.
4. Let pride go afore, shame will follow after.
5. The world's a stage on which all parts are played.
6. We can say nothing but what hath been said.
7. Why doth one man's yawning make another yawn?
8. Who cannot give good counsel? 'Tis cheap, it costs them nothing.
9. Health is the second blessing that we mortals are capable of, —  
a blessing that money cannot buy.
10. The proverb saith that many a small maketh a great.
11. Diogenes struck the father when the son swore.
12. Be wisely worldly, be not worldly wise.
13. The man that once did sell the lion's skin  
While the beast lived, was killed with hunting him.
14. Sound of vernal showers  
On the twinkling grass,  
Rain-awakened flowers,  
All that ever was  
Joyous, and clear, and fresh, thy music doth surpass.
15. In every man's memory, with the hours when life culminated are usually associated certain books which met his views.

## CHAPTER XVI. — AGREEMENT AND GOVERNMENT.

### 119. AGREEMENT OF NOUNS.

The English language, having few inflectional forms, has few cases of agreement or government, but these cases should be carefully studied, since their observance distinguishes an educated from an uneducated person.



An explanatory noun is always of the ordinary form, unless it explains a noun possessive in meaning, in which case the principal often retains the ordinary form, while the explanatory noun assumes the possessive ending.

EXAMPLE. I was at Smith the bookseller's store.

A compound adjective element consisting of a series of possessive nouns each modifying their principal, requires the possessive form of that noun only which stands nearest the principal.

EXAMPLE. Fleming and Tibbin's Dictionary.

If the possessives modify their principal singly, each assumes the possessive form.

EXAMPLE. Webster's and Worcester's dictionaries.

Neither an explanatory noun nor an attributive noun needs to agree with its principal in number.

- EXAMPLES. We are your surety.  
The foe, horse and foot, retired in confusion.  
Stones and earthworks, a solid rampart, were piled  
 before us.  
 The trades union, masters and men, confronted us.  
 The price is fifty cents.

## 120. PRONOUNS.

The person, number, and gender of a pronoun depend on the idea for which it stands; its case depends on the use to which it is put.

- EXAMPLES. The men used their tools well; I saw them.  
 My mother plied her needle; she is industrious.

A pronoun standing for several antecedents of different persons or genders is of the first person in preference to the second or third, and of the second person in preference to the third; and of the masculine gender in preference to the feminine.

- EXAMPLES. You and John may take your time, but Henry and I  
 will take ours.  
 Each boy and girl may take his place.

A pronoun representing a collective noun is neuter singular if the collection is taken as a unit, but is plural if the collected objects are considered separately.

- EXAMPLES. The crowd increased its bulk constantly.  
 The crowd went to their homes.

A pronoun used as the subject of a verb (except infinitives) is nominative in form.

- EXAMPLES. I am here.  
He knows it.  
We were insulted.

A pronoun used as the subject of an infinitive clause (pp. 247-249) is objective in form.

EXAMPLES. They wished me to go.

I asked him to accompany me.

A pronoun used as subject of a participial clause (pp. 247-249) is usually possessive in form.

EXAMPLES. I was glad to know of your coming to town.

My reason for visiting her was her sending me an invitation.

But a pronoun used as subject of an adverbial participial clause, not introduced by a preposition, is nominative in form.

EXAMPLE. He being late, we waited dinner.

A pronoun used as direct or indirect object of a transitive verb is objective in form.

EXAMPLES. They injured me.

The fire burned him.

I gave him a letter.

A pronoun used as the idea word in any prepositional phrase is objective in form.

EXAMPLES. A search for him was commenced.

I read to her an hour.

A pronoun used as an attribute is of such form as it would assume in the place of its principal, unless that principal is possessive.

EXAMPLES. It was I.

I took it to be him.

If the principal is possessive, which occurs only in the participial clause, the pronoun is nominative in form.

EXAMPLE. I was afraid of its being he.

A relative pronoun used in two constructions assumes the case form demanded by its use in the subordinate clause.

EXAMPLES. I asked whoever desired to come.  
Whomever I invited, invited me.

### 121. ADJECTIVES.

Only two adjectives, *this* and *that*, change their forms to indicate number, but these should agree with their principals in number.

EXAMPLES. This kind of berry grows here.  
These kinds of berries grow here.

If a noun is preceded by two adjectives, the repetition of *a*, *an*, or *the* indicates that there are two subjects.

EXAMPLES. A black and a white cat sat in the window.  
 The old and the handsome horse draw the carriage.

### 122. VERBS.

No matter how many rules may be found by grammarians to show how the form of one word is governed by the forms of other related words, the real meaning will still, in our language, be the chief consideration deciding such grammatical agreements.

EXAMPLES. We say, *What news is there*, though *news* is plural in form; and we say, *The enemy were routed*, though *enemy* is singular in form.

But custom is not uniform in such matters. It is correct to say *the scissors are here*, but *the news is good*.

*Who* is followed by the form which agrees with the

antecedent of *who*; that is, the verb form is governed by the meaning of its subject.

EXAMPLES. I, who am your friend, thus advise you.

He, who is your friend, thus advises you.

A similar rule applies to other pronouns; for instance, *what* may require either a singular or a plural verb.

EXAMPLES. We used what is known as subterfuge.

We were pursued by what are called attentions.

If a verb has a compound subject, it should be of the plural form if it refers to the parts of the subject taken jointly; but if it refers to them taken separately, its form is usually governed by the part standing next to it.

EXAMPLES. You and I are going.

You or I am going.

If, however, one of these single parts is emphatically denied, the verb agrees with the other.

EXAMPLES. Not riches, but honor, makes the man.

Riches, not honor, were what he sought.

A collective noun may require either the singular or the plural form of the verb, according to the thought in the mind of the speaker.

EXAMPLES. The whole army are throwing away their blankets.

The army is now in the enemy's country.

In a compound subject such as usually demands a plural verb, the parts succeeding the first may be regarded as afterthoughts or parenthetical expressions, and thus a singular verb be allowable.

EXAMPLES. Henry, and Kate and Mary too, loves candy.

A heavenly race demands thy zeal,

And an immortal crown.

This is often the case if the sentence is introduced by *there* or by an attribute, the verb then coming before the compound.

EXAMPLE. Thine is the kingdom, and the power, and the glory.

Emphasis may be given to one of several persons or things by the employment of the prepositional phrase and of the singular verb.

EXAMPLE. Mary and her husband are coming.  
Mary, with her husband, is coming.

It is the custom to use the singular form of the verb with compound subjects that are composed of phrases or clauses.

EXAMPLES. To know her and to love her is joy to me.  
That the train is late and we are thus delayed is annoying.

*Either, neither, many a, such a, each, and every*, used as adjective modifiers, indicate that the objects represented by the nouns which they modify are considered one at a time; hence the agreeing verb and pronoun must be of the singular form.

EXAMPLES. Each man does his duty.  
Every good pupil is punctual.

The omission of the usual *s* in the third person singular of *need*, as in the sentence, *To disobey need not be to suffer*, is too common to be called a license. It is really like the similar omission in the case of the auxiliaries *will, can, must, may*, etc.

The tense forms of auxiliaries in subordinate clauses and infinitives should bear proper relation to the tense forms of the principal predicates.

- EXAMPLES. I expected to go.  
 If you will come I may join you.  
 I should be gratified if you would play.  
 I shall be pleased if you will play.

### Exercise.

Explain the forms of the verbs used in the following:—

1. And though he promise to his loss,  
He makes his promise good.
2. When a building is about to fall, all the mice desert it.
3. There are vicissitudes in all things.
4. Others abide our question. Thou art free.  
We ask and ask. Thou smilest and art still.
5. Because right is right, to follow right  
Were wisdom.
6. Ill fares the land, to hastening ills a prey,  
Where wealth accumulates, and men decay.
7. You and I were long friends; you are now my enemy, and I am  
yours.
8. God helps them that help themselves.
9. For oft, when on my couch I lie,  
In vacant or in pensive mood,  
They flash upon that inward eye  
Which is the bliss of solitude;  
And then my heart with pleasure fills,  
And dances with the daffodils.
10. Talk to the point, and stop when you have reached it.
11. Day unto day uttereth speech; and night unto night showeth  
knowledge.
12. One would put language on the same level with the various arts  
and inventions with which man has gradually adorned and  
enriched his life.
13. It might, I think, be sufficient to object to this explanation that  
language would then be an accident, and, this being the case,  
that we should somewhere encounter tribes so low as not to pos-  
sess it; even as there is no human art or invention, though it be  
as simple and obvious as the preparing of food by fire, but there  
are those who have fallen below its exercise.



## PART IV.—SPECIAL CONSTRUCTIONS.



### CHAPTER XVII.—INFINITIVES AND PARTICIPLES.

#### 123. THE INFINITIVE PHRASE.

The principal phrases so far considered are prepositional phrases and assertive phrases.

An assertive phrase is a predicate consisting of a relation word (or word group) and an idea part. The relation part asserts the relation of the complement to the subject.

EXAMPLES. I am ill.  
He is a good teacher.  
The fields look green.

What is a prepositional phrase? What is the difference between the relation parts of these two kinds of phrases?

Prepositional phrases are of two kinds:—

*a.* Any preposition serving as relation word in a phrase may be followed by a noun or pronoun used as idea word.

EXAMPLES. Of candy.                      In the room.  
                  To the house.                    From me.

*b.* The preposition *to* serving as relation word in a phrase may be followed by a verb used as idea word.

EXAMPLES. To love. To hate. To see. To inspect.

Mary *went* home.  
Mary *slept* at home.

Here the action or doing is restricted to one person, *Mary*, and to the past time.

The ordinary predicate verb is restricted in meaning by the particular subject given it, and also to the time indicated by its form. The verbs which are thus limited are called, like all limited things, **finite**.

The simple form of the verb found in the prepositional phrase with *to* usually represents simply the action, and is not tied down or limited to any person or time; it is not finite, and hence is called the **infinitive**.

<i>To see</i> is <i>to believe</i> .	I like <i>to study</i> .
<i>Seeing</i> is <i>believing</i> .	I like <i>studying</i> .

This unlimited nature, which is claimed for the infinitive, is clearly true of it only when it is used as the subject base, object, or attribute, and is equally true of the present participle when so used.

The name infinitive, however, is usually given only to the verb as used in the phrase beginning with *to*.

The infinitive is the simple form of the verb, generally used as the idea word of a phrase whose relation word or introductory word is *to*.

EXAMPLE. To do good is wise.

#### 124. SIGN OF THE INFINITIVE.

The preposition *to*, being the only preposition used with the infinitive, has come to be considered as the sign of the infinitive and even as a part of the infinitive, so that, instead of speaking of the "infinitive phrase" *to run*, we sometimes say merely the "infinitive" *to run*.

Generally the infinitive is introduced by *to*, but the *to* is sometimes omitted.

EXAMPLES. I asked him to run.  
 I saw him run.  
 She told him to go.  
 The aunt makes the child obey.

I went to the well to get some water.  
He reads to while away the time.

In the case of an adverbial infinitive it is usually easy to see that the verb is the base of the idea part of the phrase, and that the *to* is a relation word really meaning *in order to*.

But in the substantive, adjective, and objective uses, and sometimes even in the adverbial use, the preposition seems to be of no service to show relation, and to have become *merely* the infinitive sign, so that the phrase cannot be separated, but must be regarded as a whole.

EXAMPLES. To sign such a paper required nerve.  
Our desire to see him was not fulfilled.  
I wanted to see you.

The infinitive (with the sign omitted) may be combined with one of the pure auxiliaries to form a predicate base.

EXAMPLES. I will (to) run.  
They can (to) drive the horses.  
Mary may (to) lead the way.  
I must (to) study in order to learn.

Study copulative infinitive phrases on pp. 164-166.

## 125. NATURE OF THE INFINITIVE.

The infinitive, no matter how used, may be modified according to its verbal nature, by adverbial and objective modifiers.

EXAMPLE. The capacity to do great deeds when the occasion arises, comes only to those who have been watchful to fulfill faithfully the small daily duties of life.

*To do*, though adjective in use, is modified by the object *great deeds*, and by the adverbial clause *when the occasion arises*; and the infinitive *to fulfill*, which is adverbial in use, is modified by the adverb *faithfully*, and by the object *the small daily duties of life*.

To be loving.  
 To be loved.  
 To have loved.  
 To have been loving.  
 To have been loved.

By combining the infinitive of the asserters *to be* and *to have* with the two participles of the verb, true verb groups are formed that are also called infinitives.

*a. To be* with the present participle forms the present progressive infinitive (active).

EXAMPLE. To be learning.

*b. To have been* with the present participle forms the perfect progressive infinitive (active).

EXAMPLE. To have been learning.

*c. To have* with the perfect participle forms the perfect active infinitive.

EXAMPLE. To have gone.

*d. To be* with the perfect participle forms the present passive infinitive.

EXAMPLE. To be written.

*e. To have been* with the perfect participle forms the perfect passive infinitive.

EXAMPLE. To have been written.

		ACTIVE.	PASSIVE.
<i>Present.</i>	{ Ordinary	to love	to be loved
	{ Progressive	to be loving	. . . . .
<i>Perfect.</i>	{ Ordinary	to have loved	to have been loved
	{ Progressive	to have been loving	. . . . .

## 126. REVIEW.

## Exercise.

Point out the infinitives in the following sentences, and tell the voice (active or passive), tense, and office of each : —

1. I hope to leave town to-morrow.
2. When I looked into his office door, the doctor seemed to be writing a prescription.
3. To see her is to love her.
4. To be loved is pleasant to all.
5. See, winter comes to rule the varied year.
6. Teach me to feel another's woe,  
To hide the faults I see.
7. The child appears to have accomplished his task.
8. I seem to have been only like a boy playing on the seashore.
9. I never could believe that Providence had sent a few men into the world ready booted and spurred to ride, and millions ready saddled and bridled to be ridden.
10. The manuscript seems to have been written many years ago.
11. He ought to have been studying when in reality he was dreaming.
12. O God, that men should put an enemy in their mouths to steal away their brains!
13. The cock and hens seemed to know that it was Sunday, and made only crooning, subdued noises.
14. She was of the opinion that church, like other luxuries, was not to be indulged in often by a man who had the weather on his mind.
15. I shall think it my duty as a clergyman and a magistrate to interfere.
16. The boy ought not to have loitered on the way.
17. And then the day came back to him, when he was a little fellow and used to run by his father's side, proud to be taken out to work, and prouder still to hear his father boasting of him to his fellow-workmen.

Use the correct expression in each of the following sentences, remembering that the perfect infinitive represents completion at the time referred to by the principal verb : —

1. It was your duty to have warned  
to warn him.

2. I wished <sup>to have seen</sup> you.  
to see
3. I should have been pleased <sup>to have been</sup> with you.  
to be
4. My mother expected <sup>to have called</sup> upon you yesterday.  
to call
5. I am sorry not <sup>to have seen</sup> her before she went away.  
to see

### 127. UNUSUAL CONSTRUCTIONS.

The infinitive is often used in ways quite difficult to understand. Many of these are what must be considered idiomatic uses, and will be found in Chapter XIX; but several are comprehended by comparing them with similar, but simpler constructions.

Sometimes a conjunctive adverb introduces an infinitive phrase, as clauses are introduced.

EXAMPLE. I know when to go. (when I should go)

*To go when* may be called an objective infinitive phrase, the base *to go* being modified by the adverb *when*; or *when* may be called object of *know*, modified by the adverbial infinitive.

The conjunctive adverb *as* often becomes a preposition before an infinitive phrase.

EXAMPLE. Her hair was so arranged *as to conceal* her brow.

Here *so* is an adverb modifying *was arranged*, and is modified by the prepositional adverbial phrase *as to conceal*, etc, in which *as* is the preposition, and *to conceal* the base of the idea part, modified, according to its verbal nature, by the object *her brow*.

An infinitive used as attribute after an asserter or a copulative verb is sometimes difficult to parse.

EXAMPLE. He seemed to tremble.

This is like *He seemed tremulous*, or *He was tremulous*. *Seemed* is asserter, and *to tremble* is attribute.

I found a friend to serve me.

*Friend* is the object of *found*, and also the subject of *to serve*.

Usually there is no expressed subject for an infinitive, since in its true infinitive nature it is tied to no particular subject. When the subject of an infinitive is expressed, it is usually also the object of another verb or of a preposition.

EXAMPLE. I asked for you to accompany me.

*You* is the object of the preposition *for* and also the subject of the infinitive *to accompany*.

I asked you *to go*.

This means *I asked the going of you*. *To go* is direct, and *you* indirect, object of the predicate verb *asked*.

In many cases, the objective subject of the infinitive is an indirect object of a verb, of which the infinitive itself is direct object. This is different from *I desired you to go*. In that sentence *you to go* is equivalent to *that you should go*; such a clause used as the object of *asked* alters the meaning.

I knew it to be him.

*It* is the object of *knew* and the subject of *to be*. Hence *him* is objective, because its identity with an object is shown by *to be*.

I found an example to analyze.

*An example* is the object of *found*, and also the object of the infinitive *to analyze*, which yet modifies *example* adjectively, the meaning of the sentence being similar to *I found an example which I could analyze*.

## 128. REVIEW.

In parsing an infinitive, follow the subjoined outline : —

Infinitive	{	Meaning	{ True infinitive Limited to subject
		Form	Based on voice { Active Passive
			Based on condition of act { Ordinary Progressive
		Based on time { Present Perfect	
Use	{	Substantive	
		Adjective	
Modifiers	{	Objective	
		Adverbial	
		Predicate in infinitive clause (p. 249)	
			{ According to nature According to use

## Exercise.

Parse the infinitives in the following sentences : —

1. I did not know what to do under the circumstances.
2. She seemed to suffer agony.
3. The affair was so managed as to give each person a good view of the performance.
4. We telegraphed for the stage to await us.
5. We wished the children to study German.
6. I know it to be her.
7. John understood when to jest and when to be serious.
8. The money was so divided as to give to each family the right amount.
9. She wished to give me a present.
10. To have enjoyed such a treat is a pleasant memory.
11. I hoped to reach town to-morrow.



## 129. FORMS OF PARTICIPLES.

It has already been stated that the participles are two in number, present and perfect or complete.

The *raging* flood tore away all obstructions.

The sea built up the shore, *dropping* sand and pebbles upon it.

The present participle ending in *ing*, when not infinitive or substantive in meaning, is usually adjective or adverbial in use. It refers to some noun or pronoun mentioned in the sentence, and represents that noun or pronoun as *acting* or *being*.

The *crushed* flower yields perfume.

My aunt, *impressed* by my arguments, yielded.

The complete participle also refers to some noun or pronoun, and, when used adjectively, represents it as *receiving*.

The participles of the asserters *to be* and *to have* combine with the participles of verbs to make participle groups or participial phrases. These are used just as other phrases are.

*a. Having*, combined with the complete participle, forms the perfect active.

EXAMPLE. The rain, having fallen steadily for days, flooded the roads.

*Fallen* is the idea word, and *having* shows its relation to *rain*.

*b. Being*, combined with the complete participle, forms the present passive.

EXAMPLE. My watch, being broken, goes badly.

*Broken* is the idea part, which is related to *watch* by *being*.

c. *Having been*, combined with the complete participle, forms the perfect passive.

EXAMPLE. The marsh, having been drained, proved fertile.

*Drained* is the idea word, related to *marsh* by *having been*.

	ACTIVE.	PASSIVE.
<i>Present.</i>	loving	being loved
<i>Perfect.</i>	having loved	having been loved

### Exercise.

Point out the participles in the following sentences, and tell the voice, tense, and use of each :—

- The sparkling river rushed merrily along.
- The man, deserted in his time of need, faced the enemy alone.
- He trudged along unknowing what he sought.
- The river being frozen now formed a highway for travel.
- The roads are made of crushed stone.
- The birds, having migrated southward, were missed from their haunts.
- The letter, having been sent to the wrong address, was returned to the writer.
- Through tattered clothes small vices do appear ;  
Robes and furred gowns hide all.
- Truth crushed to earth shall rise again.
- The steamer, being delayed, was not able to bring the mail at the appointed time.
- Diseases desperate grown by desperate appliances are relieved.
- We wish that this column, rising toward heaven among the pointed spires of so many temples dedicated to God, may contribute also to produce in all minds a pious feeling of dependence and gratitude.
- The vessel, having been quarantined, lay at anchor down the bay.
- The money, being gone, could not be so applied.
- The enemy, having surrendered, were forced to give up their guns.
- Changing, fading, falling, flying  
From the homes that gave them birth,  
Autumn leaves in beauty dying  
Seek the mother breast of earth.

## 130. MEANINGS AND USES OF PARTICIPLES.

*Living* is *loving*; *To live* is *to love*.

*Living* near her is *being* happy; *To live* near her is *to be* happy.

I dislike *quarreling*; I dislike *to quarrel*.

If the present participle is used as a subject, an attribute, or an objective element or base, and modified only according to its verbal nature, it is infinitive in meaning, in which case the infinitive may usually be substituted for it.

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His anger found vent in *raging* at his enemies.

The wind took vengeance by *blowing* loud.

The duty of *loving* is neglected.

If used as object of a preposition and modified only according to its verbal nature, the present participle has generally a meaning different from the infinitive, in which case it is impossible to substitute the infinitive for it.

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The *loving* are the *daring*.

Here the adjective modifier *the* makes *loving* mean *people who love*, and so destroys entirely the infinitive meaning.

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The man *plowing* in the field was sunstruck.

The hunter chased the *panting* deer.

These participles modify adjectively the nouns which are their subjects.

The man was sunstruck *standing* in the field.  
*Standing* before my tent, I shot the deer.

These participles refer to the subject bases of the sentences as their subjects, yet modify the predicate bases adverbially.

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He objected to *my doing* the work.

The most remarkable construction is that in which the subject of the present active participle is possessive in form, being used as a possessive adjective modifier of the participle.

*Doing* refers to *my* as its subject, yet *my* is an adjective modifier of *doing*, and *doing* is also modified, according to its verbal nature, by the object *the work*.

---

*To die* for her is *erving* thee.  
*To labor* only, is *to live*.

In some cases an infinitive subject is explained by a participle attribute; but it is more elegant to use like forms in the two cases.

It is difficult to decide when a participle becomes a true noun, and how long it retains so much of its verbal nature as to admit of adverbial modifiers. One can say:—

*Singing the responses is the usual method*, in which case *singing* is a participle; or,  
*The singing of the responses sounded well*, in which case *singing* is a noun; or even,  
*The singing the responses plainly pleases me*, in which case *singing* is modified by both adjective and adverbial modifiers. But this last form is not usual.

My *lodgings* suit me.

The participle sometimes loses entirely its verbal nature, and becomes so true a noun as to adopt the inflection of the noun. It is then no longer a participle, but a noun.

This is never true of the infinitive, not only because its form would render such expressions as *to lodges* impossible, but also because it never loses its verbal nature sufficiently to be modified by an adjective element placed next it, though it seems to be modified by adjectives when they are used as attributes.

EXAMPLE. One can say *To obey is good*; but not *Good to obey*.

Many participial adjectives have become so thoroughly adjective in nature as to have synonyms which are not participial in origin.

EXAMPLES.	surprising — wonderful	lasting — permanent
	loving — affectionate	aspiring — ambitious.
	pleasing — delightful	

It is often impossible to judge of the office of a participle by its form. The test here, as always, is, Why is this word here? What does it do?

It is often possible to make a choice in interpreting the use of a participle, as to whether it is used adjectively or adverbially. The best way to decide is to develop the word element into a clause.

EXAMPLE. I saw the moon rising.

I saw the moon *which was rising*; or, I saw the moon *when it was rising*.

EXAMPLE. A fox, having caught a hen, thus spoke.

A fox *that had caught a hen*; or, A fox, *when he had caught a hen*.

EXAMPLE. John, being tired, went to bed.

John, *who was tired*; or, John, *because he was tired*.

## 131. REVIEW.

In parsing a participle, or participial phrase, follow the subjoined outline :—

Participle	Meaning	{ True infinitive
		{ Limited by subject
	Form	{ Based on voice { Active
		{ Based on time { Present (Progressive)
Use	{ Substantive	
	{ Adjective	
Modifiers	{ Objective	
	{ Adverbial	
		{ Predicate in participial clause (p. 249)
		{ According to nature
		{ According to use

## Exercise.

Parse the participles in the following sentences, and also point out true adjectives and nouns that are participial in form :—

- Rest is not quitting the busy career,  
Rest is the fitting of self to one's sphere.  
'Tis the brook's motion, clear, without strife,  
Fleeting to ocean after its life ;  
'Tis loving and serving the highest and best ;  
'Tis onward unswerving ; and this is true rest.
- Mourn for the living, not the dead  
Whose mortal woes are o'er.
- Scipio's ghost walks unavenged among us.
- Whence this pleasing hope, this fond desire,  
This longing after immortality !
- Pleased at the praise bestowed upon us, we made more mighty efforts.
- Nightly to the listening multitudes he told the tidings of salvation.

7. Painting has improved little since the days of the ancients.
8. The paintings that adorn the Louvre are the finest in France.
9. History is philosophy teaching by examples.
10. The picture, placed the busts between,  
Adds to the thought much strength.
11. Pleased to the last, he crops the flowery food,  
And licks the hand just raised to shed his blood.
12. Nothing, except a battle lost, can be half so melancholy as a battle  
won.
13. At length, the situation having become embarrassing, Jenny Lind  
ran forward to the footlights.
14. Being assured of a welcome, we ventured to intrude upon him.
15. Having once drawn his sword for freedom, and being embarked  
upon a righteous cause, he rested not until his purpose was  
accomplished.
16. The young man, having failed to pass his examination, obtained a  
situation in a store.
17. The peculiarity of Grant's tactics was that, having once been re-  
pulsed, he pressed forward with unabated vigor.
18. 'Tis the sunset of life gives me mystical lore,  
And coming events cast their shadows before.
19. Robert E. Lee, having been reared amid Southern institutions, and  
being devoted to the interest of his own state, felt it his duty to  
resign his commission in the United States army.

### 132. PARTICIPIAL AND INFINITIVE CLAUSES.

What is a clause?

The clauses so far considered have contained *finite* predicates.

EXAMPLES. The boy whom I saw is now gone.  
I wish that she would come.  
That she came soon pleased me.  
Because the carriage stopped I was late.

The predicate of such a clause is assertive, and the clause, were it disjoined from its principal, its subordi-

nate connective being omitted or changed to a word performing one office, would be a complete sentence capable of standing alone without further alteration.

EXAMPLES. I saw him.  
 She would come.  
 She came soon.  
 The carriage stopped.

Such a clause may sometimes be abridged without subtracting any essential part, by causing the predicate to assume rather than assert.

EXAMPLES. I wish her to come.  
Her coming soon pleased me.  
The carriage having stopped, I was late.

In such cases the subordinate connective is not usually retained. The abbreviated clause can no longer stand alone as a sentence if disjoined from its principal, since the relation of predicate to subject is *assumed*, not *asserted*.

EXAMPLES. Her to come.  
 Her coming soon.  
 The carriage having stopped.

None of the above expressions is a sentence.

The troubles, *which were coming apace*, alarmed me.  
 The troubles, *coming apace*, alarmed me.

The clause *which were coming apace*, in losing its connective loses its subject as well, and becomes in its abridged form a word element, *coming apace*.

I wished *that the days would pass swiftly*.  
 I wished *the days to pass swiftly*.

The clause *that the days would pass swiftly* loses its connective but not its subject; the predicate becomes



assumptive but remains a predicate. The element is still composed of subject and predicate combined, but the predicate is enfeebled — has lost its assertive power.

Since such an abbreviated clause retains the base or necessary parts of the clause, it is still a clause; but, since the usual finite assertive predicate is changed to an infinitive or participial predicate, the resultant clause may be called an **infinitive clause**, or a **participial clause**, according to the change which the predicate undergoes. These infinitive and participial clauses perform the same offices as the finite clauses from which they are derived, but seem to be more closely connected with their principals because of the frequent omission of the connective which makes plain the relation of the finite clause.

EXAMPLES. I wished my friend to go.

They being with me, I was encouraged.

This said, he turned and fled.

## CHAPTER XVIII.—FINE POINTS OF ANALYSIS.

### 133. STRUCTURE OF SENTENCES.

It is not always an easy matter to decide whether a sentence is complex or compound. The logical relation of the clauses is often clearer than the grammatical relation, and the grammarian's sense of this logical relation may influence him in his analysis of grammatical elements.

You shall not die; France needs you.

France needs you; therefore you shall not die.

You shall not die, for France needs you.

The first sentence, above, is clearly compound in form. The second is by some called compound, *therefore* belonging to the *and* group of coördinate conjunctions; but others call it complex, since *therefore* shows a relation of the second clause to the statement contained in the first. It cannot, however, be said truthfully that the second clause performs any ordinary office within its principal clause, and hence it cannot be known what part of the principal clause it modifies. The third sentence is undoubtedly complex in form. The thoughts conveyed by the three sentences, however, are identical.



A sentence which appears to be an ordinary complex sentence in its formation may contain a subordinate clause which modifies, not some part of the apparent main clause,

but some part of a real principal which is present in the mind, and to which the whole sentence is logically subordinate.

EXAMPLE. She was angry, for she frowned at me.

*She frowned at me* appears to be adverbial, modifying *was angry*, but it does not really give the reason for her anger, as may be seen by comparison with *She was angry, for I failed to answer her*. There exists in the mind of the speaker a real principal, *I know*, to which *She was angry* and *She frowned at me* are both subordinate. These clauses, then, form a grammatically complex sentence, but are logically both subordinate.

### Exercise.

Analyze the following sentences : —

1. Because the clouds lower, do not think that the rain must fall.
2. I cannot go ; I fear the rain.
3. Come to me, my child — for the mother heart beats high within me.
4. The vote was cast, so I was told.
5. The polls were closed, so I went home.
6. The answer came, for I saw the messenger enter.

## 134. PECULIAR USES OF MODIFIERS.

In some cases an adjective element modifies, not a noun only, but an expression of which a noun is the base.

EXAMPLE. Five old men.

*Five* modifies not the word *men* only, but the group *old men*.

EXAMPLES. All my ways.

Three young men.

My older sister.

*If two or more adjectives in succession modify the same substantive, they should be separated by commas; but if each of them modifies the succeeding group of words, the commas should be omitted.*

EXAMPLES. The good, valiant, unfortunate man.  
The two poor old men.

*Good, valiant, and unfortunate* modify, severally, *man*; but *two* modifies *poor old men*, and *poor* modifies *old men*.

So, also, an adverbial element sometimes modifies, not a word, but a group of words.

EXAMPLE. I learn a long poem often.

*Often* does not modify *learn* alone, but the idea expressed by the entire group of words, *learn a long poem*.

EXAMPLE. It will bring my gray hairs with sorrow to the grave.

*With sorrow* and *to the grave* do not modify the predicate base alone, but the modified predicate, *will bring my gray hairs*.

In some cases an adverbial element modifies an adjective or adverbial phrase as if the phrase were a single word, instead of modifying the idea part of the phrase only.

EXAMPLE. We rode far into the forest.

It is possible to say that *far* modifies *rode*, but it also modifies the entire phrase *into the forest*. This is plainer in *We rode far away*.

EXAMPLE. Father, 'save those at sea to-night.

*To-night* modifies the whole phrase *at sea*; not the word *sea*.

EXAMPLE. I was born not four hours' walk from London.

In this case the phrase *from London* is modified by the noun *walk*, used adverbially, as a measure; and *walk*, in its substantive nature, is modified by the possessive *hours'*, which in its turn is modified by the adjective word element *not four*.

An element may be explanatory of a phrase or clause.

EXAMPLE. From morn till noon he fell; from noon till dewy eve,  
a summer's day.

*A summer's day* explains *from morn till noon, from noon till dewy eve*, which are adverbial phrases, so it is adverbial in use.

EXAMPLE. We hope that reënforcements will come—a forlorn  
hope.

A phrase or clause also may be explanatory of an adjective or adverb; it is then adverbial.

EXAMPLES. Now, while we wait, I will tell you.  
When I shall come, then you will see it.

### 135. PASSIVE CONSTRUCTION.

She smiled on me.  
 I was smiled on by her.

An intransitive verb assumes a passive construction when the object of a preposition is made the subject of the sentence.

This is similar to those cases in which a verb and preposition are united in meaning (p. 259).

He walked a mile.  
 The mile was walked by him.

An intransitive verb, followed by a noun used adverbially to indicate measure, may assume a passive form and take the noun of measure for its subject, the former subject following as agent. The whole sentence is then similar in form to an ordinary passive construction.

There has been much discussion respecting whether or not the active form, *The house is building*, is correct in the sense of the passive form, *The house is being built*. Good usage seems to sanction either expression; but the active form for a passive idea is then idiomatic.

Usually a passive verb takes no object, the object of the corresponding active verb having become the subject; but if the subject of an infinitive clause becomes the subject of the principal clause in a passive construction, its infinitive predicate remains as object.

EXAMPLE. They told him to leave.  
 He was told to leave.

Also, if a verb capable of having both direct and indirect objects becomes passive in form, the indirect object may become subject, and the direct object remain in its proper objective position.

EXAMPLE. They told me that the train was late.  
I was told that the train was late.

*Me*, the indirect object, is now the subject; *that the train was late* is the direct object.

Such verbs as *advise* or *notify*, in the sense of *tell*, take the person told as direct object, and the thing told as an indirect object after *of*, if it is a word element. If it is a phrase or clause it requires no preposition, but seems to be a second direct object.

EXAMPLE. They advised me of his coming.  
They advised me to come.  
They advised me that it was late.

The noun or pronoun representing the person told takes the place of the subject if the verb becomes passive, and the impersonal object remains objective.

EXAMPLE. I was advised of the news.  
I was advised to come.  
I was advised that it was late.

### 136. APPPOSITION.

In they rushed, *men, women, and children*.  
They were all routed — *horse, foot, and dragoons*.

These explanatory terms, combined, amount to the same thing as their principal, and each is an adjective element.

My trouble is this: that my health is broken.

In this sentence, *this* is an attribute, and the clause which follows is in apposition with *this*, and is therefore adjective.

*Thus* is often so followed.

EXAMPLE. It was thus: I loved him, but he loved not me.

They elected him emperor.

*Emperor* is in apposition with *him*.

He was elected emperor.

Here *emperor* is an attribute; *was elected*, though a passive assertive phrase with a verbal complement, serves as an asserter.

### 137. INDEPENDENT ELEMENTS.

Interjectional, purely introductory, and many parenthetic expressions are independent.

EXAMPLES. Well, as I was saying, she came in.

Now Charles was a seaman.

To speak truly, I did not know him.

Whole phrases may be independent, used as interjections, or simply cut off from grammatical connection.

EXAMPLE. Oh, to be happy!

Parenthetic phrases or clauses are often treated as independent when they logically modify some element in the sentence or enforce the entire statement.

EXAMPLES. To tell the truth, I love you not.

Indeed, it is mine.

Generally speaking, it is rainy here.

*To tell the truth* and *indeed* are modifiers or strengtheners of the whole sentence, and are best called independent; but *generally speaking*, though often called independent, is really adverbial, equivalent to *usually*, and modifies *is*.

EXAMPLE. Height on height the mountains rise.

*Height on height* may be considered as modifying either *mountains* or *rise*. The expression is not by form, by position, or by relation word connected with any element of the sentence.

- EXAMPLES. Not to delay you, I set out and arrived safe.  
Staff in hand we climbed the hill.

*Not to delay you* is almost purely independent, as the sentence reads equally well without it; but *Staff in hand* is adverbial or adjective.

### 138. USES OF PHRASES.

*It is of little account.*

An entire phrase may serve as attribute; but this is not an elegant construction.

A phrase may be the object of a preposition.

EXAMPLE. In the expression *from on high*, *from* is a preposition whose object is the phrase *on high*.

An objective phrase is usually an infinitive; but an ordinary prepositional phrase also may be objective.

EXAMPLE. She gave me of the tree.

The original object was probably *some*, modified by *of the tree* used adjectively. The phrase, deprived of its principal, is used pronominally, its preposition serving merely to introduce it.

Phrases are rarely used as relation words. A phrase may, however, be used as a conjunction.

EXAMPLE. In case we come, we will bring it with us.

*In case* is synonymous with *if*.

- a. I will go in this case, that you wish it.
- b. I will go in the case you wish it.
- c. I will go in case you wish it.

*In case* still consists of preposition and object, but we have lost all sense of its real meaning and regard it only in its present connective use.

The expression *come out from under the table* may be explained by calling *out* an adverb, *from under the table* an adverbial phrase, *from* the preposition, and *under the table* its object. In this case, *under* does not perform its usual



duty, since it fails to show a relation to a principal. *From under*, like *out of*, *over against*, and other pairs of words, may be regarded like one preposition in use. From such constructions came the present prepositions *into*, *upon*, *unto*, and the like.

### 139. PRONOUNS AND CLAUSES.

A pronoun may represent an entire statement.

EXAMPLE. The day will be fine; who doubts it?

*It* represents the statement *The day will be fine.*

EXAMPLE. He did not come, which I regret.

*Which* represents the entire statement *He did not come.*

The use of the relative in the second example causes the sentence to be considered either compound or complex, according to the importance given to grammatical usage or logical relation. A relative usually shows a subordinate relation of a clause to its principal; but the principal here is an entire statement, and *which* seems equivalent to *and this*.

In some cases only a part of an objective clause is felt to be the real object of the main verb; but usually the object is the whole clause.

EXAMPLE. I hate what you like.

This means *I hate the thing which you like.*

EXAMPLE. I know what you like.

In this sentence, the whole clause *what you like* is the object of *know*; — I know the whole fact, — and it would mean something different to say *I know the thing which you like*. This is even clearer in the sentence *I know that you like me*.

The same is true, also, of phrases.

EXAMPLE. She knows how to do it.

It is customary to call the whole phrase objective, yet it is chiefly *how* which is the thing known.

An objective clause is often really an adjective modifier of an omitted object.

EXAMPLE. *I know where he lives* may mean *I know the place where he lives*.

A clause introduced by *that* is generally purely objective.

EXAMPLES. I know that he is coming.  
I erred in that I loved him.

The same difference exists in substantive clauses. In the sentence *Whatever is, is right*, *Whatever* is the true subject of the principal clause; and the statement means, *That which is, is right*. In the sentence *That he is ill appears certain*, the whole undivided clause is the subject of the verb *appears*.

#### 140. COMBINATIONS OF WORDS.

Some words in English are easily combined with others to form new words.

EXAMPLES. *Up* with *on* makes *upon*.  
*Joy* with *full* makes *joyful*.

Many of our verbs have, in the past, formed such combinations with auxiliary verbs, or occasionally with adverbs.

EXAMPLES. *Love* and some auxiliary like *did* — loved.  
*Can* and *not* — cannot.

But verbs are slow to unite with prepositions. We have *undertake*, *overthrow*, *withhold*, and a few others; but, as a rule, even where the meanings have become so welded together as to form one idea in the mind, the words still stand apart. Such cases of combined sense, though

divided expressions, occur where the only possible grammatical disposition is to call the words one.

EXAMPLES. That must be thought of.

It shall be seen to.

He was spoken of.

In many of these cases the verb is intransitive, but the object of the preposition which follows is made the subject of a passive construction (see p. 253).



Two words are often so closely united in common use that it is difficult to disentangle their grammatical relations.

EXAMPLE. They love each other.

*Each* is an explanatory adjective modifier of *they*, and *other* is the object of *love*.

*As soon as* may readily be divided into two adverbial elements and one conjunction.

The complex origin of many words which are really combinations of two or more original words, is lost sight of; but in such verbs as *meseems* and *methinks*, this origin is plainly apparent. The meaning is, *to me it seems*, in which the indirect object has been merged with the verb, but is still visible.

#### 141. OMISSIONS.

It is best, if possible, to parse every word according to its present use, supplying nothing. There are, however, abridged sentences which make some insertion of omitted words necessary.

EXAMPLE. No wonder you ask it.

This means *It is no wonder that you ask it*.

EXAMPLE. Man never is, but always to be blest.

Either *man* has a compound predicate, *never is blest, but always is to be blest*, or *is* is followed by a compound complement, *blest, but to be blest*.

EXAMPLE. Not willing I, to be so poor a tool.

This means *I am not willing*.

EXAMPLE. 'Tis distance lends enchantment to the view.

The omission of a relative pronoun makes it necessary to employ the one noun, *distance*, in two constructions.

EXAMPLE. Take the goods the gods provide.

The word *which* must be supplied, or *goods* must be used in two constructions.

EXAMPLE. My adventures this day.

Here the omission of a preposition as *on* or *during* has led to an unusual construction.

In such expressions as *Ah me*, it is customary to insert some preposition to account for the objective form of the pronoun, but the claims of euphony account for it. *Ah I* would sound intolerable. *Poor me*, however, admits of no such explanation unless it arose from analogy.

#### 142. SPECIAL WORDS CONSIDERED.

**A and The.** These words often give trouble because in each case there are two different words spelled alike. The ordinary word *a*, meaning one, is an adjective, often called the *indefinite article*; but there is also a word *a*, meaning *on* or *at*. *The* meaning *this* or *that* is an adjective, often called the *definite article*; but there is a word *the* having an adverbial use, sometimes even a conjunctive adverbial use, for which the language supplies no synonym.

EXAMPLES. A man went a hunting.

The more I struggled, the faster I was held.

The more the merrier.

*I was held the faster the more I struggled.* This means *I was held more fast as (or when) I struggled more.* *The more I struggled* is adverbial, modifying *was held*, and the two words *the* are respectively adverbial and subordinate conjunctive in use.

*The more the merrier* is of like construction, with so much omitted as to form an idiomatic expression, and hence is beyond the scope of ordinary grammatic rule.

**Yes** and **No** are adverbs, the one of affirmation, the other of negation, which have come to be used to represent the sentences which they at first strengthened or denied.

EXAMPLES. Are you going? I am (yes) going, — Yes.  
Is he going? He is not going. He is (no) going, —  
No.

**But.** The proper use of *but* requires the knowledge of some very fine distinctions of meaning. The original meaning of the word was almost the same as *except*.

EXAMPLES. Who but him would so act?  
None knew thee but to love thee.

As a conjunction, however, *but* has departed quite widely from this meaning. In the sentence *But, to proceed, we then entered the church,* *but* is independent, being used only to introduce the sentence and make logical connection with a foregoing part of the discourse.

In connection with the use of the verb *can* in its old sense, as predicate verb, *but* is used in two widely different ways.

*She can but grieve* means *She is able only to grieve.* *Can* is the principal verb, *grieve* is an objective infinitive, and *but* is an adverb. The sentence means *She can do nothing else than grieve.*

*She cannot but grieve* means *She is not able except to grieve.* *Cannot* is the verb, and *but* is a preposition

whose object is the infinitive *grieve*. The sentence means, *She can do nothing else but (except) grieve*.

**As.** The office of *as* may be conjunctive, pronominal, prepositional, or adverbial; but it often partakes, in some degree, of more than one nature. From its use as conjunction has grown the custom of expecting nominative forms after it.

EXAMPLE. He is as wise as I (am wise).

But since it is frequently followed by a noun or pronoun alone, a growing tendency exists toward treating it as a preposition and allowing an object after it.

EXAMPLE. As good as me.

It seems to be, however, copulative in its nature, like the verb *to be*, though implying instead of asserting similarity; hence in the writings of the best authors it is usually followed by the same case form as would precede it.

EXAMPLES. Can such a fellow as I succeed?  
To such a creature as me, she was kind.

Combined with the participle, it makes groups similar in meaning to infinitives.

EXAMPLES. I consider him as having lost his wits; I consider him to have lost his wits.  
I consider him as disgraced; I consider him to be disgraced.

**Than** is in some cases a subordinate conjunction, and in other cases a preposition.

EXAMPLE. You are wiser than I.  
This means *You are wiser than I am wise*.

EXAMPLE. Than whom none is sweeter.

Since *whom* is objective in form, we must consider *than* in this case a preposition.

The French often, the Germans sometimes, but we seldom, employ one form in preference to another because it sounds better, or for the sake of euphony. This use with *than* may be such a case, the grammatical requirements yielding to the desire for euphony. Some grammarians even allow *It is me* instead of *It is I*, for the same reason.

But in the sentence *He is wiser than to believe it*, *than* seems to be a preposition whose object is the phrase *to believe it*, the whole phrase, *than to believe it*, being adverbial and modifying *wiser*.

**Like and As.** *As* is in some cases prepositional in the same way as *than*. In strict accordance with the best usage, *as* is a conjunction corresponding to the preposition *like*.

EXAMPLE. Do as I do. Be like me.

In some localities *like* is used as a conjunction, as in the sentence *Do like I do*; but such an expression is not elegant English, and it is much better to say *Do as I do*.

The Assyrian came down like a wolf on the fold.

In this sentence either *like* is a conjunction, showing the relation of an adverbial clause (the predicate must be supplied) to a predicate verb, or *came* is a copulative verb, and *like* a preposition introducing a phrase used as an attribute.

I do not know whether he goes or not.

**Whether** — **or** are correlative conjunctions; but *whether* is subordinate, showing the relation of the adverbial clause to its principal; whereas *or* is coördinate, giving a choice between the two parts of the compound subordinate clause.

In this case it is necessary to supply another verb, which *not* modifies. *Goes or does not go.*

**That** varies as much in its use as any word in the language. In the sentence, *Cursed be I, that I obeyed him, that means because.*

*That* used as a relative in some cases takes the place of the phrase *at which*, and is used adverbially.

EXAMPLE. He came at the time that I expected him.

This means *at which I expected him, or when I expected him.*

I will go because you wish it.

**Because** performs no office within the subordinate clause.

I will go lest he be angry.

Here **lest** performs a negative office within the subordinate clause. (I will go that he be not angry.) But *lest* may be almost synonymous with *that*.

EXAMPLE. I fear lest [that] you should fall.

The use of **except**, or its equivalent **unless**, as a subordinate conjunction seems to make it possible to dispense with the usual asserter and with a negative.

EXAMPLE. Punish him unless he beg too hard.

Without *unless*, this would read, *Punish him if he does not beg too hard.*

EXAMPLE. No man can do these works except God (should) be with him.

**Next, like, near**, may be adjectives followed by phrases which begin with *to*, or may be prepositions where used without *to*.

EXAMPLE. I was near to him.

I was near him.



## 143. SPECIAL USES OF WORDS.

When adjectives denoting quality are used like nouns, they may take the adjective modifier *the*.

EXAMPLE. The beautiful is the useful.

They may also take adverbial modifiers.

EXAMPLE. The very beautiful is often the extremely useful.

*Beautiful* is modified by *the*, an adjective modifier, and *very*, an adverbial modifier.

More than a hundred children's children rode on his knee.

*More* is an adjective pronoun. As a pronoun it is subject base; as an adjective, it is modified by the adverbial phrase *than a hundred children's children*.

Participial modifiers are difficult to classify as adjective or adverbial.

EXAMPLE. He stood musing.

Whether *musings* is an attribute, *stood* being the copula, or whether *musings* is adverbial, *stood* being an active verb, or whether *stood* resembles an auxiliary in use, the verb being derived from *to muse*, is a matter of judgment on which it is possible to differ according to the exact meaning which the sentence conveys to the reader.

Not a breath upon the ocean.

*Not* is an adverb, modifying *was* understood, or an adverb modifying *a*, which means *one*.

All ready.

In this expression and the like, *all* is an adverb.

An adverb is frequently the object of a preposition.

EXAMPLES. I came from there. Since then.

She is wiser by far.

Two verbs are very curiously used, apparently on their way to becoming auxiliaries with their usual meanings quite changed.

EXAMPLES. I am to go.  
I have to go.

By this use of *am* (and the other forms of *to be*), followed by an infinitive whose sign remains (*to*), the meaning *appointed* or *intended* is conveyed.

By this use of *have* (similar construction), *must* is implied.



The progressive form of the verb *go* used before the infinitive of another verb indicates futurity.

EXAMPLES. I am going to write to you soon.  
He is going to buy my house.  
They are going to have a picnic here next week.

The progressive forms of the two verbs *come* and *go* may represent either present or future time.

EXAMPLES. I am going to Philadelphia. (am now on my way)  
I am going to a party next Friday.  
The train is now coming toward us at full speed.  
The spring is coming; it will soon be here.

*It* rains.                    *It* hails.  
*It* snows.                    *It* sleets.  
*It* blows great guns to-night.

The pronoun used as subject of these sentences has no antecedent. The verbs end in *s* because the subject is third person singular in form. Verbs which are thus used with a subject indefinite in meaning are sometimes called *impersonal verbs*.

## CHAPTER XIX. — IDIOMS.

### 144. IDIOMS.

It has been said (p. 8) that an idiom is a form of expression peculiar to the language in which it occurs. Since, however, languages are more or less closely related, it follows that several languages may have an idiom in common which belonged to their common parent language. Any form or use of language which cannot be explained by the laws of grammar is called an idiom.

Idiomatic expressions have several sources which are easy to detect in the idioms to which they give rise; but since it is possible to lay bare the entire history of but few, and since many have come into existence through more than one cause, it is not possible to classify and explain all such expressions.

In some cases the economical tendency of the language has shown itself in the dropping out of words, thus leaving an abridgment, often unexplained, because the omitted element is lost sight of.

EXAMPLE. I will go if possible.

*If possible* follows no analogy of our language. We do not usually introduce adjectives by pure subordinate conjunctions, but in this case it is easily seen that both subject and predicate of a former subordinate clause have been omitted: *I will go if it is possible*.

A form of inflection, once common, but now generally obsolete, may create an idiom.

EXAMPLE. Needs must when circumstances drive.

One must, *of necessity*, when circumstances drive. An old possessive form, meaning *of need*, has become the subject where it was formerly an adverbial modifier.

Frequently an idiomatic expression is caused by the union of several ideas formerly expressed by as many separate words, the relation of which has been obliterated by constant use.

EXAMPLE. To stand by.

Had this union of thought occurred before the language was printed, the *words* also would have been united. As it is, the expression is idiomatic.

The word *already* was thus formed long ago. The word *alright* is, perhaps, in process of formation, but is not yet accepted.

A verb may be combined with an adverb, a preposition, or both, the whole expression conveying a meaning far removed from that which an exposition of the grammatical relations of the words would suggest.

EXAMPLES.	To get rid of.	To stand up to.
	To do away with.	To carry on.
	To fix up.	To get on with.
	To hold on.	To lead off.
	To bring up.	To keep up.
	To have to do with.	To head off.
	To give up.	To burn up.
	To take up.	To stand out.

It is difficult to draw the line between these accepted idioms and such vulgarisms as *to keep company with*, *to go with*, *to knuckle under*, *to let on*, and the like. Doubtless many combinations now considered idioms were first used as slang, and, being found to convey a meaning not otherwise so well expressed, were accepted as correct.

EXAMPLE. To hold on (figurative use).

A currently accepted custom, though apparently illogical, may give rise to an idiomatic expression.

EXAMPLE. Good usage sanctions the sentence *I went everywhere else*, but condemns *I went every place else*; yet the former is logically a less correct expression, since *else* means *other*, and is adjective in nature, as is *every* also: *I went every other place*. The use of *everywhere*, then, is idiomatic.

So, also, *wherever else* means *whatever other place*.

Though idioms are troublesome when met with in analyzing, as they fail to follow the rules laid down by grammarians, it is a mistake to consider their use as faults in style, or defects in a language. A language full of idioms is apt to be strong and expressive. A good writer is idiomatic in style.

It is not possible to catalogue all the idioms in a language like ours. What one person regards as an idiom, another, with a deeper knowledge of the history of the language, or with a broader knowledge of the laws of universal grammar, will be able to account for.

A few of the prominent idioms of our language will be mentioned here.

The shortening of an infinitive clause by the omission of the infinitive gives rise to an idiomatic expression involving the apparently transitive use of an intransitive verb.

EXAMPLES. He worked himself [to be] weary.  
He danced his feet [to be] tired.

In the first example above, the infinitive clause is the abridgment of the clause *until he was weary*.

The expression *He worked his fingers to the bone* is still more idiomatic.

Less plainly idiomatic, but somewhat similar, are *I will see thee [to be] a warrior*, and *I make the book [to be] his*.

The idiom *He sat him down* is accepted, though *sat* is intransitive, and *him* should be *himself*; but *I bought me a dress* is not correct, though *me*, like the correct form *myself*, is plainly explainable as indirect object of the transitive verb *bought*.

Such an expression as *It feels heavier than usual* may arise from omissions from *It feels heavier than is usual*, or from *It feels heavier than it usually feels*, or from *It feels heavier than it is usual for it to feel*.

*That book of mine* is explained to mean *That book of my books*; but *That head of mine* or *That tongue of mine* cannot be thus explained, for no one has two heads or two tongues.

There are some very remarkable idiomatic uses of the articles. *A great many*, meaning *a great number of*, is more easily explainable than *full many a gem*; and *the which* is another singular case.

An ordinary intransitive verb is made to seem transitive by the omission of a preposition. *I go the errand* means *I go on the errand*. *Trip it lightly* is transitive in appearance, though the indefinite *it* is a very vague object.

*There*, used to introduce a sentence, and followed by the predicate and then the subject, is called an expletive, and its use is idiomatic. In interrogative sentences this expletive occurs in the midst of the sentence.

EXAMPLES. There will come a time.  
What there is, is needed.  
What is there here?

From the old participial form *agone* comes the modern idiomatic use of *ago*. *He went an hour ago* means *He went an agone hour*.

*So* is an adverb whose use is sometimes almost pronom-

inal. It may stand for an expression previously used, or for a statement implied from what precedes.

EXAMPLES. I am not rich, but hope to be so.

I walked slowly, and Alice did so too.

He may be rich, but I do not think so.

In the last example *so* stands for *he is rich*.

He being ill, they sent for a doctor.

The participial clause used as an adverbial element (without a preposition) consists of a substantive united with a participle, usually placed at the beginning of the sentence.

In English, this construction is called the nominative absolute. When a noun is employed the case is immaterial, for nouns do not change their form except for possessive use; but the pronoun *so* used must be nominative.

It is to you that I speak.

This means, *It is you to whom I speak*, or, better, *The one to whom I speak, is you*, or, more simply, *I speak to you*.

It was there that I saw him.

This means *I saw him there*. The use of *that* is idiomatic.

She wept all night long.

*Long* is adverbial, modifying *wept*, and is modified by *all night* used idiomatically.

## CHAPTER XX. — SENTENCES FOR ANALYSIS.

145.

1. Toward evening Columbus returned to his ships, accompanied by many of the islanders in their boats, which they called canoes, and which, though rudely formed out of the trunk of a single tree, they rowed with surprising dexterity.
2. It was small tyranny for a respectable wind to go wreaking its vengeance on such poor creatures as the fallen leaves.
3. Toil on, poor heart, unceasingly ;  
And thou shalt find thy dream to be  
A truth and noonday light to thee.
4. But peaceful was the night,  
Wherein the Prince of Light  
His reign of peace upon the earth began ;  
The winds, with wonder whist,  
Smoothly the waters kissed,  
Whispering new joys to the mild Ocean,  
Who now hath quite forgot to rave,  
While birds of calm sit brooding on the charmed wave.
5. On the first day of the session of Parliament, the book thus disgracefully obtained was laid on the table of Lords by the Earl of Sandwich, whom the Duke of Bedford's interest had made Secretary of State.
6. Civil war raging in England, Bunyan enlisted in the parliamentary army at the age of seventeen.
7. There was a youth, a stripling of twenty-four years of age, of diffident and retiring manners, who ventured to take up the gantlet that the first college in Europe had thrown down.
8. He had received previous information from the family physician regarding the lad, with respect to whose family, fortune, and personal merits the honest doctor had spoken with no small enthusiasm.
9. Poor little silent flowers ! What business had you to show your red cheeks in this dingy place ?



10. "Take my counsel, Altamont," Strong said gravely, "and mind how you deal with that man."
11. But what shall we say of Addison's humor, of his sense of the ludicrous, of his power of awakening that sense in others, and of drawing mirth from incidents which occur every day?
12. "Barere," said he to O'Meara, "had the reputation of being a man of talent, but I did not find him so."
13. Is the love of approbation a stronger motive than the love of wealth?
14. Springing from the humblest ranks in life, and unaided by the adventitious supports of family or wealth, Mr. Lincoln reached his exalted position by the strength of his will, the power of his intellect, and the honesty of his heart.
15. The emigrants who came at different periods to occupy the territory now covered by the American Union, differed from each other in many respects; their aim was not the same, and they governed themselves on different principles.
16. America is the only country in which it has been possible to witness the natural and tranquil growth of society, and where the influence exercised on the future condition of states by their origin is clearly distinguishable.
17. A violent outcry was raised, not against that part of his conduct which really deserved severe condemnation, but against a step in which we can see nothing to censure.
18. When the citizens learned that he had been sent for from Somersetshire, that he had been closeted with the King at Richmond, and that he was to be the first minister, they had been in transports of joy.
19. O Italy, how beautiful thou art!  
Yet I could weep, for thou art lying, alas!  
Low in the dust; and they who come admire thee  
As we admire the beautiful in death.
20. While stands the Coliseum, Rome shall stand;  
When falls the Coliseum, Rome shall fall;  
And when Rome falls — the world.
21. And this strange and ancient city,  
In that reign of his truth and love,  
Shall be what it seems in the twilight,  
The type of that city above.

22. A multitude had assembled there, for as yet military spectacles were novelties, and the camp was full of visitors, men, women, and children, from all parts of the country.
23. Here we were provided with comfortable quarters in a large log house belonging to a fur trader, of which we had hardly taken possession, when the door was thrown open and several fur-clad figures rushed in.
24. What has poor Ireland done, Mother,  
What has poor Ireland done  
That the world looks on and sees her starve,  
Perishing one by one?
25. These writings which I have hitherto published have been little less than visions which impersonate my own apprehensions of the beautiful and the just.
26. And the soul of the maiden, between the stars and the fireflies, Wandered alone, and she cried, "O Gabriel! O my beloved! Art thou so near unto me, and yet I cannot behold thee?"
27. And now depart! and when  
Thy heart is heavy, and thine eyes are dim,  
Lift up thy prayer beseechingly to Him  
Who, from the tribes of men,  
Selected thee to feel his chastening rod;  
Depart! O leper! and forget not God!
28. "What think you," said Washington, "if we should retreat to the back parts of Pennsylvania, would the Pennsylvanians support us?"
29. The soul of music slumbers in the shell,  
Till waked and kindled by the master's spell;  
And feeling hearts — touch them but rightly — pour  
A thousand melodies unheard before!
30. Let us rejoice that neither of them threatens to return to vex either the soil of the West or the soul of our government.
31. The story of the ape and the walnuts is one of the most extraordinary I ever read; but what a wretched limit of intellect does it imply to be cited as an instance of extraordinary sagacity!
32. "How many are you then," said I,  
"If they two are in heaven?"  
Quick was the little maid's reply,  
"O master! we are seven."

33. Freeze, freeze, thou bitter sky,  
Thou dost not bite so nigh  
    As benefits forgot;  
Though thou the waters warp,  
Thy sting is not so sharp  
    As friends remembered not.
34. O how can beauty master the most strong,  
And simple truth subdue avenging wrong!
35. Hail, beauteous stranger of the grove!  
    Thou messenger of spring!  
Now heaven repairs thy rural seat,  
    And woods thy welcome sing.
36. Slacken not sail yet at inlet or island;  
Straight for the beacon steer — straight for the highland;  
Crowd all thy canvas on, cut through the foam;  
Christian! cast anchor now — heaven is thy home.
37. Read not to contradict and confute, nor to believe and take for granted, nor to find talk and discourse; but to weigh and consider.
38. "Dear friend," she said, "Why are you so sad?  
Am I in such great danger?"
39. Heap on more wood! the wind is chill;  
But let it whistle as it will,  
We'll keep our Christmas merry still.
40. Beneath this discipline a formidable people had been formed, fierce hearts in strong bodies, intolerant of restraint, longing for violent deeds, born for constant warfare because steeped in permanent warfare, heroes and robbers, who, as an escape from their solitude, plunged into adventures, and went, that they might conquer a country or win Paradise, to Sicily, to Portugal, to Spain, to Livonia, to Palestine, to England.
41. Whether the author knows it or not, he writes in order to exhibit his ideas of nature and of life; and the characters which he fashions, like the events which he arranges, only serve to bring to light the dim creative conception which raises and combines them.

The pupils should analyze sentences from any good piece of literature used in the school.

## PART V.—ENGLISH DERIVATIVES.



### CHAPTER XXI.—ENGLISH DERIVATIVES.

#### 146.—INFLECTIONS AND COMPOUND WORDS.

Write the declension of the noun *hen*. What are the four forms of that noun? Which is the simplest form? How is the possessive singular formed; the ordinary plural; the possessive plural?

Write the comparison of the adjective *tall*. How is the comparative formed; the superlative?

Write the entire declension of the pronoun *he*.

Write the inflectional conjugation of the verb *talk*.

The inflection of a word is the changing of its forms to indicate differences in its meanings or uses.

The noun, the pronoun, the verb, and some adjectives and adverbs are the only parts of speech in our language that are inflected.

Write a comparison of the adjective *beautiful*, using the adverbs *more* and *most*.

Write in full the present perfect tense of the verb *to speak*. What auxiliary indicates the time of the action?

In some cases two words are combined to make one word, called a compound word, the two parts being united by a hyphen.

EXAMPLES. labor-saving      looking-glass      school-teacher

After long use in this way the hyphen may be omitted, the two original words uniting more closely to make one.

EXAMPLES.	lookout	overmuch	railway
	masterpiece	pushpin	forthcoming

One of the words thus united may be altered in spelling, usually by the dropping of letters.

EXAMPLES.	faith + full = faithful.
	god + like = godly.

These processes of word combining and word blending are constantly going on. Prepositions like *into* and *upon* are simple unions; expressions like *I'd* and *can't* show the tendency to blend. We call *I'd* a contraction, and separate it into a pronoun and a verb; but *cannot* is called a verb; though it has absorbed an adverb.

If our language were not printed, these changes would be more rapid. Most of those which have occurred took place before printed English existed. Most of the inflections of our words are results of word blending.

The *s* added to make the third person singular of most verbs, and the *ed* or *d* added to make the past form (page 158) are the remnants of words formerly added. The plural *s* or *es*, the possessive *'s*, and perhaps the *er* and *est* of adjectives are traces of former word combinations.

Thus, the inflection of a word is frequently the sign of former word combinations which expressed variations of meaning or relation.

oversee

popgun

Each of these words is formed by uniting two English words. Tell in each case which of the original words is the principal and which the modifier.

true	truth	untruthful
untrue	untruth	untruthfully
truly	truthful	truthfulness

Many of the syllables united with *true* are now merely syllables, and not whole words. *Ful* is evidently an abbreviation of *full*; *ly* is a still greater abbreviation of *like*; in *ness* and *un* we have lost the feeling that a word exists at all; *th* is not even a syllable.

The word to which these words, abbreviated words, syllables, or letters are added is called the **root**, or the **primitive word**.

Which addition is placed before the primitive word in the list above? It is called a prefix.

*fix* = place  
*pre* = before

Which of these syllables is the root? Which is the prefix?

Which of the additions are placed after the root in the foregoing list? Such an added syllable or combination of letters is called a suffix. Analyze the word *suffix*.

The words formed by adding prefixes or suffixes to roots are called **derivative** words.

A primitive word may have but one syllable added to it, as *man* + *ly*; or it may have two, or even more such syllables added at one time, as *un man ly*, *un man li ness*. Frequently the primitive word may have a number of derivatives formed by the addition of different prefixes and suffixes.

EXAMPLE. Primitive word, *part* — divide.

Derivatives: 1. *part**er*, one who parts, or divides.  
2. *part**ing*, dividing, separating.

3. *partly*, in part, not wholly.
4. *partition*, the act of separating, or that which separates.
5. *partitive*, denoting a part.
6. *depart*, separate from.
7. *departure*, act of departing.
8. *department*, a division.
9. *departmental*, relating to a department.

True — faithful, genuine, honest.

Untrue — not faithful, not genuine, not honest.

A prefix is a letter or letters placed at the beginning of a word and united with it to vary its meaning.

Teach — instruct.

Teacher — one who instructs.

A suffix is a letter or letters placed at the end of a word and united with it to vary its meaning.

*Safe* means secure, but by adding the prefix *un* to it, there is formed the word *unsafe*, which means not secure. *Noon* means the middle of the day, but by the addition of the prefix *fore*, we form a word which means before the middle of the day. (*Forenoon*.) *Obey* means submit to, comply with, but when the prefix *dis* is added to it, we have the word *disobey*, which means not submit to, not comply with.

The sense of a word is usually changed by the use of a prefix.



A word may be formed by a combination of an English word with a word or syllable from some foreign language.

EXAMPLE. *Rebuild* — from *re*, the Latin prefix meaning *again*, and *build*, an English word.

Words derived from other English words, by a combination with words or syllables either English or from foreign sources, are called *English derivatives*.

According to their formation, then, words are divided into two general classes, primitive and derivative.

The primitive words of a language are the simplest forms of the words in that language, but they may themselves be derived from some other language.

EXAMPLE. The word *elect* is a primitive word in English, but is itself derived from the Latin word *electus*. English derivatives are made from this word by the addition of certain syllables, as *elector*, *elective*.

Derivative words are those formed from primitive words:—

1. By uniting two primitives.

EXAMPLES. postman  
breakfast  
popgun

2. By adding significant syllables.

EXAMPLE. The primitive word *write* may have the syllable *re* prefixed, making it mean to write again; or it may have *er* suffixed, making it mean one who writes.

### 147. PREFIXES.

The principal prefixes used in forming English derivative words are:—

a — which means *in* or *on*  
al — *all*  
be — *to make*, or *made*  
con, co — *with* or *together*  
de — *down*, *away*, *from*  
dis — *not*

abed  
almighty  
becalm  
coöperate, copartner  
deodorize  
displeasure



en, em — <i>in</i> or <i>on</i>	enlighten
ex — <i>out</i> , or <i>out of</i> , or <i>formerly</i>	ex-president
fore — <i>before</i> (time or place)	forewarned
forth	forthcoming
in, il, im, ir, — <i>not</i>	{ inappropriate
inter — <i>between</i>	{ impossible
mis — <i>wrong</i> , or <i>wrongly</i>	international
non — <i>not</i>	misbehave
post — <i>after</i>	nonessential
pre — <i>before</i>	postscript
re — <i>again</i>	prehistoric
super — <i>above</i> , <i>over</i>	rewrite
un — <i>not</i> , or <i>the reverse of</i>	superabundant
semi — <i>half</i>	unforgiving
	semicircle

### Exercise.

Give the prefix used in each of the following words, and tell how the meaning of the word is affected by its use: —

- |                   |                    |                  |
|-------------------|--------------------|------------------|
| 1. coexist        | 17. prefix         | 33. preëngaged   |
| 2. ashore         | 18. rebuild        | 34. depress      |
| 3. becripple      | 19. afield         | 35. always       |
| 4. conjoin        | 20. bemean         | 36. depart       |
| 5. displease      | 21. descend        | 37. afoot        |
| 6. embody         | 22. disobey        | 38. disguise     |
| 7. express        | 23. ex-governor    | 39. entangle     |
| 8. foreordain     | 24. empower        | 40. foretaste    |
| 9. forthcoming    | 25. foretell       | 41. coördinate   |
| 10. inconvenient  | 26. forthwith      | 42. immature     |
| 11. interstate    | 27. inconsiderable | 43. misbehavior  |
| 12. misunderstood | 28. interlace      | 44. nonresident  |
| 13. nonconductor  | 29. misconstrue    | 45. preëminent   |
| 14. postnuptial   | 30. nonsense       | 46. interocean   |
| 15. bemoan        | 31. renumber       | 47. supernatural |
| 16. dismember     | 32. missent        | 48. impolite     |

Add a proper prefix to each of the following words, and tell in what respect the sense of the word is changed by its use: —

- |              |                  |                |
|--------------|------------------|----------------|
| 1. known     | 11. merit        | 21. conformist |
| 2. historic  | 12. please       | 22. bark       |
| 3. pronounce | 13. communicated | 23. patient    |
| 4. circle    | 14. coming       | 24. existent   |
| 5. tomb      | 15. consistent   | 25. foot       |
| 6. judge     | 16. produce      | 26. circular   |
| 7. secure    | 17. apply        | 27. view       |
| 8. resident  | 18. qualified    | 28. see        |
| 9. tell      | 19. mortal       | 29. wail       |
| 10. abundant | 20. sleep        | 30. believe    |

The gender of a noun is sometimes indicated by prefixing a syllable to it.

EXAMPLES.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.
	he-goat	she-goat
	manservant	maidservant

#### 148. SUFFIXES.

*Wise* is an adjective meaning sage, discreet, but the addition of the suffix *dom* varies its meaning to the quality of being wise, *knowledge*; *wisdom* is a noun.

*Ly* added to the adjective *wise* varies its meaning to *prudently*, in a wise manner; *wisely* is an adverb.

A suffix usually varies the meaning of the word, and frequently changes it to another part of speech.

The noun *bond*, by the addition of the suffix *age*, becomes the noun *bondage*.

The adjective *faithful*, by the addition of the suffix *ness*, becomes the noun *faithfulness*.

The verb *paint*, by the addition of the suffix *er*, becomes the noun *painter*.

The noun *wood*, with the suffix *en* added, becomes the adjective *wooden*.

The verb *laugh*, with the suffix *able* added, becomes the adjective *laughable*.

The adjective *good*, with the suffix *ly* added, becomes the adjective *goodly*.

Nouns may be formed from other nouns, from adjectives, and from verbs.

The noun *goodness* is formed from the adjective *good*. Explain in what way.

How is the noun *lodging* formed from a verb?

How is the noun *boyhood* formed from a noun?

Adjectives may be formed from nouns, from verbs, and sometimes from adjectives.

Explain the formation of the adjective *womanly*; of the adjectives *woven*, *different*, *yellowish*.

Adverbs may be formed from adjectives, and rarely from nouns.

The adjective *brief*, with the suffix *ly* added, becomes the adverb *briefly*; and the noun *part* in like manner becomes *partly*.

Most derivative adverbs are formed from adjectives by the addition of *ly*.

Give some examples of adverbs thus formed.

Verbs may be formed from nouns and from adjectives.

The noun *terror*, with the suffix *ize* added, becomes the verb *terrorize*.

The adjective *black*, with the suffix *en* added, becomes the verb *blacken*.

Many masculine nouns are made feminine by the addition of a suffix, or by a change in the last syllable. Sometimes alterations of spelling also occur within the word.

## EXAMPLES.

MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.
host	hostess	shepherd	shepherdess
baron	baroness	hero	heroine
emperor	empress	administrator	administratrix
abbot	abbess	prior	prioress
actor	actress	benefactor	benefactress
sorcerer	sorceress	heir	heiress

The following noun has a masculine form apparently derived from the feminine.

FEMININE.	MASCULINE.
widow	widower

Note the following rules for the *spelling of derivative words*:—

I. Final *e* (if preceded by a consonant) is usually dropped on adding a suffix beginning with a vowel.

EXAMPLES. come, coming  
tame, tamable  
fame, famous

But words ending with *ge* or *ce* retain the *e* before *able*, *ably*, or *ous*.

EXAMPLES. changeable, peaceably

II. Final *e* is usually retained on adding a suffix beginning with a consonant.

EXAMPLES. rude, rudeness  
fine, finely

But when the final *e* is preceded by *u* or by *dg* it is omitted.

EXAMPLES. true, truly  
judge, judgment  
abridge, abridgment

III. Final *y*, when preceded by a consonant, is generally changed to *i* on the addition of a suffix.

EXAMPLES. beauty, beautiful  
merry, merrily

But if the suffix itself begins with *i*, final *y* is retained to prevent the doubling of the *i*.

EXAMPLES. try, trying  
pity, pitying

In the case of a few words ending in *ie*, the *e* is dropped, and the *i* is changed to *y*, on adding *ing*.

EXAMPLES. die, dying  
lie, lying  
vie, vying

Final *y* is in a few cases changed to *e*.

EXAMPLES. beauty, beauteous  
plenty, plenteous

IV. Final *y*, when preceded by a vowel, is retained before a suffix.

EXAMPLES. joy, joyful  
boy, boyhood

V. Words of one syllable, and words accented on the last syllable, ending with a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant before a suffix beginning with a vowel.

EXAMPLES. beg, beggar  
abhor, abhorrence  
rid, riddance

If the final consonant is not preceded by a single vowel, or if the accent is not on the last syllable, or if in the derivative the accent is carried back, the final consonant is not doubled before a suffix.

EXAMPLES. moan, moaning  
 travel, traveler  
 confer, conference

The suffixes which form nouns may be divided into three classes.

a. Those which mean *one who* or *that which*:—

an, ian	cer	ist	ent
ar	eer	er	ite
ard	ier	ary	ive
le	or	ant	ee

b. Those which mean *state* or *quality of being*:—

age	ship	ure
dom	acy	al
ion	ance, ence	ency
ty, ity	ry	ancy
ment	mony	ism, sm
ness	tude, ude	hood

c. Those which mean *little* or *diminutive*:—

cle	en	kin
cule	let	ling
ie	ock	

#### Exercise.

Add a noun suffix to each of the following words, and give the meaning of the new word:—

- |            |             |             |
|------------|-------------|-------------|
| 1. history | 10. man     | 19. proceed |
| 2. beg     | 11. depend  | 20. bestow  |
| 3. duke    | 12. Mormon  | 21. restful |
| 4. fellow  | 13. act     | 22. hill    |
| 5. mother  | 14. allow   | 23. Israel  |
| 6. engine  | 15. lamb    | 24. useful  |
| 7. scarce  | 16. disturb | 25. Africa  |
| 8. animal  | 17. friend  | 26. slave   |
| 9. pay     | 18. fruit   | 27. relate  |

The suffixes which form adjectives are :—

al	less	ate	ern, erly
an, ian	ive	ous	able, ible, ble
ic, ical	ly	en	ed
ary	y	ish	some
ful	ar	er	ery

Of these, *able* (*ible*, *ble*) means *that may be, worthy of*; *ful* signifies plenitude; and *less* means *free from, without*.

#### Exercise.

Add an adjective suffix to each of the following words :—

- |           |               |             |
|-----------|---------------|-------------|
| 1. person | 7. spirit     | 13. venture |
| 2. red    | 8. respect    | 14. drear   |
| 3. large  | 9. endure     | 15. snap    |
| 4. Europe | 10. granule   | 16. angel   |
| 5. waste  | 11. value     | 17. toil    |
| 6. consul | 12. affection | 18. cloud   |

The suffixes (meaning *to make*) which form verbs are :—

en	fy, ify	ate	ize, ise
----	---------	-----	----------

The suffixes which form adverbs are :—

ly,	ward, wards	wise, ways
-----	-------------	------------

#### Exercise.

Add a verb suffix to each of the following words :—

- |              |           |          |
|--------------|-----------|----------|
| 1. white     | 4. memory | 7. alien |
| 2. character | 5. sign   | 8. moral |
| 3. broad     | 6. origin | 9. glory |

Add an adverb suffix to each of the following words :—

- |          |           |             |
|----------|-----------|-------------|
| 1. brave | 4. home   | 7. true     |
| 2. in    | 5. cross  | 8. side     |
| 3. mere  | 6. length | 9. truthful |

## 149. REVIEW.

## Exercise.

Tell what suffix has been added to each of the following words; what part of speech the primitive word is; and what part of speech has been formed by the addition of the suffix: —

payee	auctioneer	inducement
dependent	wharfage	guardianship
lambkin	kingdom	animalcule
absorbent	witty	wonderful
writer	satirize	quicken
effective	realize	lessen
justly	justify	novelist
corruption	superiority	actor
astonishment	honestly	plantlet
Mormonism	fortunate	globule
wealthy	joyous	fertilize
departure	pleasantly	instructive
girlhood	European	northerly

Form five nouns from nouns; five from adjectives; five from verbs. Form five adjectives from nouns; five from verbs; five from adjectives. Form five verbs from nouns; five from adjectives. Form five adverbs from adjectives; five from nouns.

## Exercise.

Add a proper suffix to each of the following words, and tell what part of speech has been formed by the addition of the suffix: —

art	owner	might
hope	real	loose
create	profess	auction
king	white	station
commission	noise	wing
judge	severe	grateful
own	sign	parent
duck	glory	post
mercy	quick	mine
boy	heart	instruct



# APPENDIX.

## 1. IRREGULAR VERBS.

PREDICATE VERB FORMS.		PARTICIPIAL FORMS.		
PRESENT.		PAST.	PRES. PART.	PERF. PART.
abide	abides	abode	abiding	abode
am	is	was	being	been
arise	arises	arose	arising	arisen
awake	awakes	awoke *	awaking	awoke *
bear ( <i>to bring forth</i> )	bears	bore	bearing	{ born ( <i>passive</i> ) borne ( <i>active</i> )
bear ( <i>carry</i> )	bears	bore	bearing	borne
beat	beats	beat	beating	{ beaten beat
become	becomes	became	becoming	become
befall	befalls	befell	befalling	befallen
beget	begets	begot	begetting	{ begotten begot
begin	begins	began	beginning	begun
behold	beholds	beheld	beholding	beheld
bend	bends	bent *	bending	bent *
bereave	bereaves	bereft *	bereaving	bereft *
beseech	beseeches	besought	beseeching	besought
bet	bets	bet *	betting	bet *
bid	bids	{ bade bid	bidding	{ bidden bid
bind	binds	bound	binding	bound
bite	bites	bit	biting	{ bitten bit
bleed	bleeds	bled	bleeding	bled
blend	blends	blent *	blending	blent *
bless	blesses	blest *	blessing	blest *

\* The regular form also occurs.

PRESENT.		PAST.	PRES. PART.	PERF. PART.
blow	blows	blew	blowing	blown
break	breaks	broke	breaking	broken
breed	breeds	bred	breeding	bred
bring	brings	brought	bringing	brought
build	builds	built	building	built
burn	burns	burnt *	burning	burnt *
burst	bursts	burst	bursting	burst
buy	buys	bought	buying	bought
cast	casts	cast	casting	cast
catch	catches	caught	catching	caught
chide	chides	chid	chiding	{ chidden chid
choose	chooses	chose	choosing	chosen
cleave ( <i>split</i> )	cleaves	{ cleft clove	cleaving	{ cleft * cloven
cling	clings	clung	clinging	clung
clothe	clothes	clad *	clothing	clad *
come	comes	came	coming	come
cost	costs	cost	costing	cost
creep	creeps	crept	creeping	crept
crow	crows	crew *	crowing	crowed
curse	curses	curst *	cursing	curst *
cut	cuts	cut	cutting	cut
dare	dares	durst *	daring	dared
deal	deals	dealt	dealing	dealt
dig	digs	dug	digging	dug
do	does	did	doing	done
draw	draws	drew	drawing	drawn
dream	dreams	dreamt *	dreaming	dreamt *
dress	dresses	drest *	dressing	drest *
drink	drinks	drank	drinking	{ drunk drank
drive	drives	drove	driving	driven
dwell	dwells	dwelt *	dwelling	dwelt *
eat	eats	ate	eating	eaten
fall	falls	fell	falling	fallen
feed	feeds	fed	feeding	fed
feel	feels	felt	feeling	felt

\* The regular form also occurs.

PRESENT.		PAST.	PRES. PART.	PERF. PART.
fight	fight	fought	fighting	fought
find	finds	found	finding	found
flee	flees	fled	fleeing	fled
fling	flings	flung	flinging	flung
fly	flies	flew	flying	flown
forbear	forbears	forbore	forbearing	forborne
forget	forgets	forgot	forgetting	{ forgotten forgot
forsake	forsakes	forsook	forsaking	forsaken
freeze	freezes	froze	freezing	frozen
get	gets	got	getting	{ got gotten
gild	gilds	gilt *	gilding	gilt *
gird	girds	girt *	girding	girt *
give	gives	gave	giving	given
go	goes	went	going	gone
grave	graves	graved	graving	graven *
grind	grinds	ground	grinding	ground
grow	grows	grew	growing	grown
hang	hangs	hung *	hanging	hung *
have	has	had	having	had
hear	hears	heard	hearing	heard
heave	heaves	hove *	heaving	hove *
hew	hews	hewed	hewing	hewn *
hide	hides	hid	hiding	{ hidden hid
hit	hits	hit	hitting	hit
hold	holds	held	holding	held
hurt	hurts	hurt	hurting	hurt
keep	keeps	kept	keeping	kept
kneel	kneels	knelt *	kneeling	knelt *
knit	knits	knit *	knitting	knit *
know	knows	knew	knowing	known
lade	lades	laded	lading	laden *
lay	lays	laid	laying	laid
lead	leads	led	leading	led
lean	leans	leant *	leaning	leant *
leap	leaps	leapt *	leaping	leapt *

\* The regular form also occurs.

PRESENT.		PAST.	PRES. PART.	PERF. PART.
learn	learns	learnt *	learning	learnt *
leave	leaves	left	leaving	left
lend	lends	lent	lending	lent
let	lets	let	letting	let
lie ( <i>recline</i> )	lies	lay	lying	lain
light	lights	lit *	lighting	lit *
lose	loses	lost	losing	lost
make	makes	made	making	made
mean	means	meant	meaning	meant
meet	meets	met	meeting	met
mow	mows	mowed	mowing	mown *
pay	pays	paid	paying	paid
pen ( <i>shut up</i> )	pens	pent *	penning	pent *
put	puts	put	putting	put
quit	quits	quit *	quitting	quit *
rap	raps	rapt *	rapping	rapt *
read	reads	read	reading	read
rend	rends	rent	rending	rent
rid	rids	rid *	ridding	rid *
ride	rides	rode	riding	ridden
ring	rings	{ rang rung	ringing	rung
rise	rises	rose	rising	risen
rive	rives	rived	riving	riven *
run	runs	ran	running	run
saw	saws	sawed	sawing	sawn *
say	says	said	saying	said
see	sees	saw	seeing	seen
seek	seeks	sought	seeking	sought
sell	sells	sold	selling	sold
send	sends	sent	sending	sent
set	sets	set	setting	set
shake	shakes	shook	shaking	shaken
shape	shapes	shaped	shaping	shapen *
shave	shaves	shaved	shaving	shaven *
shear	shears	shore *	shearing	shorn *
shed	sheds	shed	shedding	shed
shine	shines	shone	shining	shone

\* The regular form also occurs.

PRESENT.		PAST.	PRES. PART.	PERF. PART.
shoe	shoes	shod	shoeing	shod
shoot	shoots	shot	shooting	shot
show	shows	showed	showing	shown *
shred	shreds	shred *	shredding	shred *
shrink	shrinks	{ shrank shrank	shrinking	{ shrunk shrunk
shrive	shrives	shrove *	shriving	shriven *
shut	shuts	shut	shutting	shut
sing	sings	{ sang sung	singing	sung
sink	sinks	{ sank sunk	sinking	sunk
sit	sits	sat	sitting	sat
slay	slays	slew	slaying	slain
sleep	sleeps	slept	sleeping	slept
slide	slides	slid	sliding	{ slidden slid
sling	slings	slung	slinging	slung
slink	slinks	slunk	slinking	slunk
slit	slits	slit *	slitting	slit *
smell	smells	smelt *	smelling	smelt *
smite	smites	smote	smiting	smitten
sow	sows	sowed	sowing	sown *
speak	speaks	spoke	speaking	spoken
speed	speeds	sped *	speeding	sped *
spell	spells	spelt *	spelling	spelt *
spend	spends	spent	spending	spent
spill	spills	spilt *	spilling	spilt *
spin	spins	spun	spinning	spun
spit	spits	spit	spitting	spit
split	splits	split	splitting	split
spoil	spoils	spoilt *	spoiling	spoilt *
spread	spreads	spread	spreading	spread
spring	springs	{ sprang sprung	springing	sprung
stand	stands	stood	standing	stood
stave	staves	stove *	staving	stove *
stay	stays	staid *	staying	staid *

\* The regular form also occurs.

PRESENT.		PAST.	PRES. PART.	PERF. PART.
steal	steals	stole	stealing	stolen
stick	sticks	stuck	sticking	stuck
sting	stings	stung	stinging	stung
strew	strews	strewed	strewing	strewn *
stride	strides	strode	striding	stridden
strike	strikes	struck	striking	{ struck stricken
string	strings	strung	stringing	strung
strive	strives	strove	striving	striven
swear	swears	swore	swearing	sworn
sweat	sweats	sweat *	sweating	sweat *
sweep	sweeps	swept	sweeping	swept
swell	swells	swelled	swelling	swollen *
swim	swims	{ swam swum	swimming	swum
swing	swings	swung	swinging	swung
take	takes	took	taking	taken
teach	teaches	taught	teaching	taught
tear	tears	tore	tearing	torn
tell	tells	told	telling	told
think	thinks	thought	thinking	thought
thrive	thrives	throve *	thriving	thriven *
throw	throws	threw	throwing	thrown
thrust	thrusts	thrust	thrusting	thrust
tread	treads	trod	treading	{ trodden trod
wake	wakes	woke *	waking	woke *
wear	wears	wore	wearing	worn
weave	weaves	wove	weaving	woven
wed	weds	wedded	wedding	wed *
weep	weeps	wept	weeping	wept
wet	wets	wet *	wetting	wet *
win	wins	won	winning	won
wind	winds	wound	winding	wound
work	works	wrought *	working	wrought *
wrap	wraps	wrapt *	wrapping	wrapt *
wring	wrings	wrung	wringing	wrung
write	writes	wrote	writing	written

\* The regular form also occurs.

## 2. "COMPLETE CONJUGATION."

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

## PRESENT TENSE.

**Active.**

## SINGULAR.

## PLURAL.

<i>First Person.</i>	I love	We love
<i>Second Person.</i>	You love (thou lovest)	You (ye) love
<i>Third Person.</i>	He loves (loveth)	They love

**Passive.**

<i>First Person.</i>	I am loved	We are loved
<i>Second Person.</i>	You are (thou art) loved	You (ye) are loved
<i>Third Person.</i>	He is loved	They are loved

## PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

**Active.**

<i>First Person.</i>	I have loved	We have loved
<i>Second Person.</i>	You have (thou hast) loved	You (ye) have loved
<i>Third Person.</i>	He has (hath) loved	They have loved

**Passive.**

<i>First Person.</i>	I have been loved	We have been loved
<i>Second Person.</i>	You have (thou hast) been loved	You (ye) have been loved
<i>Third Person.</i>	He has (hath) been loved	They have been loved

## PAST TENSE.

**Active.**

<i>First Person.</i>	I loved	We loved
<i>Second Person.</i>	You loved (thou lovedst)	You (ye) loved
<i>Third Person.</i>	He loved	They loved

**Passive.**

<i>First Person.</i>	I was loved	We were loved
<i>Second Person.</i>	You were (thou wast) loved	You (ye) were loved
<i>Third Person.</i>	He was loved	They were loved

## PAST PERFECT TENSE.

**Active.**

## SINGULAR.

## PLURAL.

<i>First Person.</i>	I had loved	We had loved
<i>Second Person.</i>	You had (thou hadst) loved	You (ye) had loved
<i>Third Person.</i>	He had loved	They had loved

**Passive.**

<i>First Person.</i>	I had been loved	We had been loved
<i>Second Person.</i>	You had (thou hadst) been loved	You (ye) had been loved
<i>Third Person.</i>	He had been loved	They had been loved

## FUTURE TENSE.

**Active.**

<i>First Person.</i>	I shall love	We shall love
<i>Second Person.</i>	You will (thou wilt) love	You (ye) will love
<i>Third Person.</i>	He will love	They will love

**Passive.**

<i>First Person.</i>	I shall be loved	We shall be loved
<i>Second Person.</i>	You will (thou wilt) be loved	You (ye) will be loved
<i>Third Person.</i>	He will be loved	They will be loved

## FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

**Active.**

<i>First Person.</i>	I shall have loved	We shall have loved
<i>Second Person.</i>	You will (thou wilt) have loved	You (ye) will have loved
<i>Third Person.</i>	He will have loved	They will have loved

**Passive.**

<i>First Person.</i>	I shall have been loved	We shall have been loved
<i>Second Person.</i>	You will (thou wilt) have been loved	You (ye) will have been loved
<i>Third Person.</i>	He will have been loved	They will have been loved



## SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

## PRESENT TENSE.

**Active.**

## SINGULAR.

## PLURAL.

<i>First Person.</i>	(If) I love	(If) we love
<i>Second Person.</i>	(If) you (thou) love	(If) you (ye) love
<i>Third Person.</i>	(If) he love	(If) they love

**Passive.**

<i>First Person.</i>	(If) I be loved	(If) we be loved
<i>Second Person.</i>	(If) you (thou) be loved	(If) you (ye) be loved
<i>Third Person.</i>	(If) he be loved	(If) they be loved

## PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

**Active.**

<i>First Person.</i>	(If) I have loved	(If) we have loved
<i>Second Person.</i>	(If) you (thou) have loved	(If) you (ye) have loved
<i>Third Person.</i>	(If) he have loved	(If) they have loved

**Passive.**

<i>First Person.</i>	(If) I have been loved	(If) we have been loved
<i>Second Person.</i>	(If) you (thou) have been loved	(If) you (ye) have been loved
<i>Third Person.</i>	(If) he have been loved	(If) they have been loved

## PAST TENSE.

**Active.**

<i>First Person.</i>	(If) I loved	(If) we loved
<i>Second Person.</i>	(If) you (thou) loved	(If) you (ye) loved
<i>Third Person.</i>	(If) he loved	(If) they loved

**Passive.**

<i>First Person.</i>	(If) I were loved	(If) we were loved
<i>Second Person.</i>	(If) you (thou) were loved	(If) you (ye) were loved
<i>Third Person.</i>	(If) he were loved	(If) they were loved

## PAST PERFECT TENSE.

## Active.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>First Person.</i>	(If) I had loved	(If) we had loved
<i>Second Person.</i>	(If) you (thou) had loved	(If) you (ye) had loved
<i>Third Person.</i>	(If) he had loved	(If) they had loved

## Passive.

<i>First Person.</i>	(If) I had been loved	(If) we had been loved
<i>Second Person.</i>	(If) you (thou) had been loved	(If) you (ye) had been loved
<i>Third Person.</i>	(If) he had been loved	(If) they had been loved

## POTENTIAL MOOD.

## PRESENT TENSE

## Active.

<i>First Person.</i>	I may, can, must, <i>or</i> will love	We may, can, must, <i>or</i> will love
<i>Second Person.</i>	You may, can, must, <i>or</i> shall (thou mayst, canst, must, <i>or</i> shalt) love	You (ye) may, can, must, <i>or</i> shall love
<i>Third Person.</i>	He may, can, must, <i>or</i> shall love	They may, can, must, <i>or</i> shall love

## Passive.

<i>First Person.</i>	I may, can, must, <i>or</i> will be loved	We may, can, must <i>or</i> will be loved
<i>Second Person.</i>	You may, can, must, <i>or</i> shall (thou mayst, canst, must, <i>or</i> shalt) be loved	You (ye) may, can, must, <i>or</i> shall be loved
<i>Third Person.</i>	He may, can, must, <i>or</i> shall be loved	They may, can, must, <i>or</i> shall be loved

## PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

## Active.

<i>First Person.</i>	I may, can, must, <i>or</i> will have loved	We may, can, must, <i>or</i> will have loved
<i>Second Person.</i>	You may, can, must, <i>or</i> shall (thou mayst, canst, must, <i>or</i> shalt) have loved	You (ye) may, can, must, <i>or</i> shall have loved

## SINGULAR.

## PLURAL.

<i>Third Person.</i>	He may, can, must, <i>or</i> shall have loved	They may, can, must, <i>or</i> shall have loved
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**Passive.**

<i>First Person.</i>	I may, can, must, <i>or</i> will have been loved	We may, can, must, <i>or</i> will have been loved
<i>Second Person.</i>	You may, can, must, <i>or</i> shall (thou mayst, canst, must, <i>or</i> shalt) have been loved	You (ye) may, can, must, <i>or</i> shall have been loved
<i>Third Person.</i>	He may, can, must, <i>or</i> shall have been loved	They may, can, must, <i>or</i> shall have been loved

## PAST TENSE.

**Active.**

<i>First Person.</i>	I might, could, would, <i>or</i> should love	We might, could, would, <i>or</i> should love
<i>Second Person.</i>	You might, could, would, <i>or</i> should (thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, <i>or</i> shouldst) love	You (ye) might, could, would, <i>or</i> should love
<i>Third Person.</i>	He might, could, would, <i>or</i> should love	They might, could, would, <i>or</i> should love

**Passive.**

<i>First Person.</i>	I might, could, would, <i>or</i> should be loved	We might, could, would, <i>or</i> should be loved
<i>Second Person.</i>	You might, could, would, <i>or</i> should (thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, <i>or</i> shouldst) be loved	You (ye) might, could, would, <i>or</i> should be loved
<i>Third Person.</i>	He might, could, would, <i>or</i> should be loved	They might, could, would, <i>or</i> should be loved

## PAST PERFECT TENSE.

**Active.**

<i>First Person.</i>	I might, could, would, <i>or</i> should have loved	We might, could, would, <i>or</i> should have loved
----------------------	---	--

## SINGULAR.

## PLURAL.

<i>Second Person.</i>	You might, could, would, <i>or</i> should (thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, <i>or</i> shouldst) have loved	You (ye) might, could, would, <i>or</i> should have loved
<i>Third Person.</i>	He might, could, would, <i>or</i> should have loved	They might, could, would, <i>or</i> should have loved

**Passive.**

<i>First Person.</i>	I might, could, would, <i>or</i> should have been loved	We might, could, would, <i>or</i> should have been loved
<i>Second Person.</i>	You might, could, would, <i>or</i> should (thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, <i>or</i> shouldst) have been loved	You (ye) might, could, would, <i>or</i> should have been loved
<i>Third Person.</i>	He might, could, would, <i>or</i> should have been loved	They might, could, would, <i>or</i> should have been loved

## IMPERATIVE MOOD.

**Active.**

Love

**Passive.**

Be loved

## INFINITIVE.

## PRESENT TENSE.

**Active.**

To love

**Passive.**

To be loved

## PERFECT TENSE.

To have loved

To have been loved

## PARTICIPLES.

## PRESENT TENSE.

**Active.**

Loving

**Passive.**

Being loved

## PERFECT TENSE.

Having loved

Having been loved

### 3. HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

In the seventeenth century the eastern part of the United States was settled by people speaking the English language as it was spoken in England. Their descendants and the descendants of the immigrants from other countries who have mingled with the English-speaking people of America still speak English, but not exactly the English that is spoken in England to-day. The English of American literature is much like that of English literature, but the American pronunciation is not exactly like that of the English. Many words and expressions of spoken English are also different in the two countries. By *fix*, for instance, the American means *arrange*, whereas an Englishman means *make permanent*. The English call the *fireman* of an engine a *stoker*, and the *conductor* of a train a *guard*. These differences have come about imperceptibly, in spite of constant communication between the two countries. What differences of language do you know between different localities in your own country?

In a similar way, not only different expressions, but different languages, may be developed from a parent language if communication among different groups of people is broken, and especially if conditions of life are different also. It is therefore possible, by noting the resemblances and differences between two languages in different places or at different periods, to trace their relationship to each other, and also to some parent language, which may perhaps be a *dead language*, or even a *hypothetical language*.

By such means it has been discovered that most of the languages of southern and western Asia and of Europe are related to one another. This great family of languages is called the Indo-European. Its chief branches are: (a) the

Aryan, represented by the Indian or Hindu; (*b*) the Greek; (*c*) the Latin, represented by the modern languages, Italian, French, Spanish, and Portuguese; (*d*) the Celtic, represented by the Welsh, and by the Irish, Scotch, and Manx languages, called Gaelic; and (*e*) the Teutonic, represented by the Dutch, Scandinavian, German, Flemish, and English.

One characteristic of the Teutonic languages is a fixed accent on the root, or, in derived words, on the first part of the word, thus causing vowels occurring in later syllables to be slurred, and so lost, first in pronunciation, and afterward in spelling. Another peculiarity is a very simple verb inflection. A third peculiarity is the method of forming the past tense of the verb, either by a change of the vowel, as in *sing*, *sang*, or by the addition of *d*, *ed*, or *t* to the present tense form.

These peculiarities of its grammar cause the English to be classified as a Teutonic language, although in the English dictionary there are twice as many words of Latin as of Teutonic origin. The Teutonic words, however, are those in most frequent use.

Let us see through what stages the English language developed.

In the first century after the birth of Christ the Romans conquered the Celts, a people but little civilized, who inhabited the island now called Great Britain. For more than three hundred years the conquerors ruled the people of the island, building many important cities, connecting remote parts of the island by well-made roads, and developing industries and commerce along lines of advancing civilization. Britain was at this time a province of Rome. In the year 411 A.D. the Romans withdrew from Britain, leaving the original Celtic inhabitants to rule themselves.

As they were unable to do this successfully because of the incursions of the Picts and Scots, inhabitants of the northern part of the island, they invited to their shores Teutons from the mainland of Europe, a warlike race of people, to help them.

The effect of the first civilization of the island on the language now called English was only indirect, and is but dimly seen.

The chief Teutonic tribes who came were the Saxons, Angles, and Jutes. The people who are descended from these Teutonic tribes are called Anglo-Saxon, or English. Their language in its early stages is called Anglo-Saxon; in its later stages, English.

The Angles settled in the northern and middle parts of England; the Saxons, in the southern part. There were, of course, soon many dialects, as indeed there still are in the spoken English of these same parts of England, as you may observe in Tennyson's *Northern Farmer*, Blackmore's *Lorna Doone*, and Barrie's *Sentimental Tommy*.

The earliest known English literature was written in an Anglian dialect of northern England; but in the time of the famous King Alfred, a little over a thousand years ago, a number of books were written in a Saxon dialect of southern England. For a long period, however, there was no standard English. Every man who wrote English used the dialect with which he was most familiar; but most of the literature of the time was written in Latin, then the language of scholars.

From the days of Chaucer (fourteenth century) up to Shakespeare's time (sixteenth century) there were two literatures side by side, that written in the dialect of the northern Teutons—the lowland Scotch—and that in the dialect of the midland Teutons of middle England.

As in Greece the Attic Greek, spoken in the great city of Athens, became the standard language, and as in France to-day the language of Paris is the standard, so the dialect of middle England, where was the great city of London, became the standard English, in which, from Chaucer's day to ours, almost all great works of the English tongue have been written, though Burns employed also the northern dialect, or lowland Scotch. But this midland dialect had at that time been modified by contact both with its southern and with its northern neighbors, so that the permanent basis of modern English is the result of the combining of several dialects.

The development of the language during this time is characterized by two distinct features: first, a change, the dropping of inflectional forms and a freer use of relation words; secondly, a growth, the addition of new words appropriated from other languages.

The primitive Indo-European language had eight cases for nouns, pronouns, and adjectives, and three numbers, three voices, and many tenses for verbs. A great reduction in the number of inflectional forms occurred before English was evolved, yet in early English nouns had four cases.

Philologists divide the history of the English language into three periods: the Old-English period, of full inflections, up to 1100 A.D.; the Middle-English period, of disappearing inflections, from 1100 to 1500 A.D.; and the Modern-English period, of lost inflections, down to the present time.

The Danes or Northmen, who conquered England early in the eleventh century, produced little impression on the English language; what they added to it is difficult to discover, for they too spoke a Teutonic language. Proper



names ending in *son*, the pronoun forms *they* and *their*, and a few common words such as *husband*, *key*, *flag*, are from the Danish.

The Normans, who conquered England in 1066, introduced French as the spoken language of the court and of polite society, as, indeed, it was in most of the countries of Europe at that time. From the French many words, among them *air*, *age*, and *chapter*, then entered the English vocabulary.

In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, English was much influenced by Parisian rather than Norman French, brought over this time not by courtiers, but by scholars. A great university was started in Paris, to which Englishmen flocked for instruction. These brought home with them not only the love of letters, but also the language of letters, as well as the style of French orators and writers.

Throughout all this time, Latin had been the language of the church (as indicated by such words as *altar*, *candle*, *alms*) and of the learned in all the walks of life. Many authors, even as late as Shakespeare's day, either wrote in Latin or translated into Latin such of their English works as they wished might live. To Dr. Samuel Johnson (1709–1784), who wrote much for the public press, more than to any other one man, is due the importation of Latin terms, for he not only borrowed many himself, but he set the fashion of thus borrowing. Moreover, he wrote a dictionary in which he incorporated many words of Latin origin, thus authorizing the use of these words.

Of late years, the chief words borrowed are taken by scientific men from both Latin and Greek roots for the purpose of scientific nomenclature. When a subject demanding the use of these scientific terms attracts for any reason popular interest, the terms become a part of the

vocabulary of spoken English. *Bacillus*, *bacteria*, *germicide*, have become common in this way.

English has borrowed to some slight extent from many other sources. *Hominy* is American in origin; *bog* is Irish; *crag* and *whisky* are Scotch-Gaelic; *mosquito* is Spanish; *banana*, Portuguese; *jungle* is Indian; *coffee* is Arabic; *tea* is Chinese; *taboo* is from Polynesia; and *boomerang*, from Australia.

Nor is borrowing the only method of increasing the vocabulary. Word compounding and word forming by means of prefixes and suffixes have been explained in the chapter on derivatives.

By all these means, the English vocabulary has been increased tenfold, making the language wonderfully rich and flexible. It is spoken by over a hundred million of the most enlightened people in the world, is the chief language of commerce, and has given birth to at least two great literatures, rich in history, science, religion, philosophy, travel, poetry, and fiction.

#### 4. ADDITIONAL STUDY IN WORD BUILDING.\*

A prefix or a suffix which is used to form English derivatives may also be found in a word of foreign origin, having the same effect upon the foreign primitive word or *stem* as it has when united with an English primitive word. For instance, just as *prehistoric* is composed of *pre* (before) and *historic*, and thus means *before the historic age*, so *precede*, a primitive English word, is made up from *pre* (before) and the Latin stem *ced* (in the verb *cedere*, to go), and thus means *to go before*.

\* Including the prefixes, suffixes, and stems prescribed by the Regents of the University of New York in their course in "Elementary English."

Review Lesson 147, pages 280–282. The prefix *con* or *co* also occurs in the forms *col*, *com*, *cor*; and *e* or *ef* occurs for *ex*; what are their meanings?

Other prefixes are:—

- a, ab, meaning *from*; as in *abject*, which is made up from *ab* and the Latin stem *ject* (throw).
- ad, or its forms ac, ag, al, am, an, ap, ar, as, at, meaning *to*; as in *accede*, made up from *ad* (*ac*) and *ced* (yield).
- circum, around; as in *circumscribe*, made up from *circum* and *scribe* (write or draw).
- in (il, im, ir), in, into; as *inject*, from *in* and *ject* (throw); *impel*; *inscribe*.
- ob (oc, of, op, os), against; as *object*, from *ob* and *ject* (throw).
- per, through; as *perennial*, from *per* and *enn* (year).
- re (red), back; as *repel*, from *re* and *pel* (drive); *reject*.
- sub (suc, suf, sug, sup, sur, sus), under, after; as *submerge*, from *sub* and *merg* (dip, sink); *subject*.

Review Lesson 148, especially pages 282, 283, and pages 286, 287.

Some English words derived from foreign words can be readily analyzed; such a word is *adapt*, made up from *ad* (to) and *apt* (fit, join). But sometimes a foreign word is made of a stem united with unusual prefixes or suffixes. The word *curriculum*, for instance, is made from the Latin stem *curr* (run; *curriculum* meant “race course” before it came to mean “course of study”); but the rest of the word is not found in English derivatives. Some of the words derived from the following foreign stems you will be able to analyze completely, but in some only the meaning of the stem can be traced. Analyze those which contain prefixes or suffixes which you know, and find in the dictionary, if you can, other words containing the same stem.

## Foreign Stems of Common Occurrence in English Words.

- ag, do, drive, act; as *agitate*; *agent*.
- alt, high; as *altar*; *altitude*.
- anim, mind; as *animosity*; *animate*.
- ann (enn), year; as *annual*; *biennial*.
- apt, fit, join; as *adapt*; *aptitude*.
- bas, low; *abase*; *debase*.
- brev, short; as *abbreviate*; *brevity*.
- cad (cas), fall; as *cascade*; *casual*.
- capt (cap), take; as *capture*; *capacious*.
- carn, flesh; as *carnage*; *carnal*.
- ced (cess), go, yield; as *recede*; *cession*.
- cent, hundred; as *centennial*; *percentage*.
- cing (cinct), bind; as *surcingle*; *succinct*.
- clin, lean, bend; as *decline*; *incline*.
- cor (cord), heart; as *accord*; *cordial*.
- cur, care; as *curate*; *curious*.
- curr, run; as *curriculum*; *current*.
- dict, speak, say; as *contradict*; *dictation*.
- dign, worthy; as *dignity*; *condign*.
- duc (duct), lead, bring; as *deduct*; *induce*.
- equ, equal; as *equate*; *equity*.
- fa, speak; as *affable*; *fable*.
- fact, make, form, do; as *faction*; *factory*.
- fer, carry, bear, bring; as *fertile*; *transfer*.
- fid, faith, trust; as *confide*; *confident*.
- fin, end, limit; as *final*; *finish*.
- frang (frag, fract), break; as *fracture*; *fragile*; *frangible*.
- fus, pour, melt; as *confuse*; *fusion*.
- gener, kind, race; as *generation*; *gender*.
- grad (gress), step, go; as *graduate*; *egress*.
- graph, write; as *autograph*; *graphical*.
- grat, pleasing; as *grateful*; *gratitude*.
- hospit, host, guest; as *hospitality*.
- ject, throw; as *eject*; *project*.
- junct, join; as *junction*; *adjunct*.
- jur, swear; as *juror*; *adjure*.
- jur, law; as *jurist*; *injury*.
- lat, carry, bring; as *dilate*; *translate*.
- leg, send, bring; as *allege*; *legacy*.
- lect, gather, choose; as *collect*; *elective*.
- liber, free; as *liberal*; *liberate*.
- lin, flax; as *linen*; *linoleum*.
- liter, letter; as *literal*; *literature*.
- loc, place; as *dislocate*; *locality*.
- log, word; as *logic*; *prologue*.
- loqu (locut), speak; as *loquacious*; *interlocutor*.
- lud (lus), sport, play; as *illusion*; *ludicrous*.
- magn, great; as *magnate*; *magnitude*.
- man, hand; as *manacle*; *manual*.
- mar, sea; as *marine*; *mariner*.

- mater**, mother; as *maternal*; *matrimony*.  
**medi**, between; as *mediate*; *mediocrity*.  
**ment**, mind; as *mental*; *mentality*.  
**merc**, merchandise, trade; as *commercial*; *market*.  
**merg**, dip, sink; as *emerge*; *submerge*.  
**meter**, measure; as *symmetry*; *thermometer*.  
**migr**, wander; as *emigrate*.  
**mir**, wonder, look; as *miracle*; *mirror*.  
**mitt (miss)**, send; as *admission*; *commit*.  
**mon**, advise, remind; as *monitor*; *monument*.  
**mort**, death; as *immortal*.  
**mot**, move; as *motion*; *motor*.  
**mult**, many; as *multiple*; *multitude*.  
**mun**, fortify; as *muniment*; *munition*.  
**nat**, born; as *natal*; *national*.  
**nav**, ship; as *naval*; *navy*.  
**not**, known; as *notice*; *notify*.  
**numer**, number; as *innumerable*; *enumerate*.  
**nunci (nounc)**, tell; as *announce*; *denunciate*.  
**ocul**, eye; as *binocular*; *oculist*.  
**par**, get ready; as *parry*; *prepare*.  
**parl**, speak; as *parley*; *parlor*.  
**part**, divide; as *partition*.  
**past**, feed; as *pasture*; *repast*.  
**pass**, suffer; as *compassion*.  
**pater**, father; as *paternal*; *patri-  
cian*.  
**ped**, foot; as *biped*; *pedal*.  
**pell (puls)**, drive; as *expulsion*; *propel*; *compel*.  
**pend (pens)**, hang, weigh, pay; as *pendant*; *pension*.  
**pet**, ask, seek; as *compete*; *petition*.  
**phil**, love, fond; as *philanthropy*; *philosophy*.  
**plet**, fill; as *complete*; *replete*.  
**plic**, fold, bend; as *complication*.  
**pon**, place; as *component*; *postpone*.  
**port**, carry; as *porter*; *transport*.  
**port**, gate; as *portal*; *porter*.  
**pos**, place; as *impose*; *transpose*.  
**prim**, first; as *primate*; *primer*.  
**sacr**, holy; as *sacrament*; *sacred*.  
**sci**, know; as *omniscience*; *science*.  
**scrib (script)**, write; as *describe*; *inscription*.  
**sent (sens)**, feel, think; as *sensible*; *sentiment*.  
**sequ (secut)**, follow; as *consecutive*; *sequel*.  
**sol**, alone; as *solitary*; *solitude*.  
**spec (spect)**, look; as *prospect*; *spectacle*.  
**spir**, breathe; as *expire*; *inspire*.  
**stru (struct)**, build; as *construe*; *structure*.  
**sum (sumpt)**, take; as *assumption*; *presume*.  
**tact**, touch; as *contact*; *tactile*.  
**un**, one; as *unanimous* (of one mind); *unit*.  
**ut**, use, useful; as *utility*; *utilize*.  
**vid (vis)**, see; as *evident*; *visual*.  
**viv**, live; as *vivacious*; *vivid*.  
**voc**, call; as *vocal*; *vocation*.

## 5. ADVANCED WORK IN WORD BUILDING.\*

Point out the effect of the following prefixes in the words given, and in any others you can find in the dictionary:—

a, an, not, without; as <i>atheist</i> ; <i>anarchy</i> .	dis (di, dif), apart; as <i>differ</i> ; <i>dis-</i> <i>tract</i> .
amb (ambi), around; as <i>ambient</i> ; <i>ambiguity</i> .	du (duo), two; as <i>duel</i> ; <i>duet</i> .
amphi, on both sides, around; as <i>amphibious</i> ; <i>amphitheater</i> .	epi, upon; as <i>epitaph</i> .
ana, back, again, throughout; as <i>analyze</i> ; <i>anatomy</i> .	eu, well; as <i>eulogy</i> .
ant (anti), against; as <i>antarctic</i> ; <i>antipodes</i> .	extra, beyond; as <i>extravagant</i> .
ante, before; as <i>antediluvian</i> .	hemi, half; as <i>hemisphere</i> .
apo, from, off; as <i>apology</i> .	pen, almost; as <i>peninsula</i> .
bene, well; as <i>benefactor</i> ; <i>benevo-</i> <i>lence</i> .	poly, many; as <i>polygamy</i> ; <i>poly-</i> <i>syllable</i> .
bi, two, twice; as <i>biped</i> ; <i>biweekly</i> .	pro, before, for; as <i>project</i> ; <i>pro-</i> <i>pose</i> .
bis, twice; as <i>biscuit</i> .	pseudo, false; as <i>pseudonym</i> .
cata, down, completely; as <i>catastro-</i> <i>phe</i> ; <i>catalogue</i> .	retro, back; as <i>retrocede</i> .
contra (contro, counter), against; as <i>contradict</i> , <i>counterbalance</i> .	se, aside, apart; as <i>secede</i> .
dia, through; as <i>diameter</i> .	sur, over; as <i>surcharge</i> .
	syn (sym, syl, sy), with, together with; as <i>sympathy</i> ; <i>synonym</i> .
	trans (tran, tra), across; as <i>trans-</i> <i>port</i> ; <i>transpire</i> .
	tri, three, thrice; as <i>triangle</i> .

Tell the force of the prefix in each of the following words:—

- |                  |                 |               |
|------------------|-----------------|---------------|
| 1. polytheistic. | 4. postpone.    | 7. intervene. |
| 2. bedeck.       | 5. interpose.   | 8. antedate.  |
| 3. deduct.       | 6. superfluous. | 9. deduce.    |

Besides the suffixes given on pages 286, 287, the following are of common occurrence in composition with foreign stems:—

\* Including the additional prefixes, suffixes, and stems prescribed by the Regents of the University of New York in their course in "Advanced English."

<p>aceous (acious), like, pertaining to (forming adjectives); as loquacious.</p> <p>acity (icity, ocity), state or quality of being (forming nouns); as loquacity.</p>	<p>ant, ent, ory (forming adjectives); as abundant; pertinent; explanatory.</p> <p>ile, ine, of, pertaining to (forming adjectives); as servile; feminine.</p> <p>ple, fold; as quadruple.</p>
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Analyze as completely as you can the words in the following list, and find other words containing the same stems:—

**Foreign Stems used in English Words.**

<p>aper, open; as <i>aperient</i>; <i>aperture</i>.</p> <p>arch, rule, govern; as <i>monarch</i>; <i>anarchy</i>.</p> <p>art, skill; as <i>artist</i>.</p> <p>aud, hear; <i>auditor</i>; <i>inaudible</i>.</p> <p>aur, gold; as <i>auriferous</i>.</p> <p>bat, beat; as <i>batter</i>; <i>combat</i>.</p> <p>bit, bite; as <i>bitter</i>.</p> <p>cant, sing; as <i>cantata</i>; <i>canticle</i>.</p> <p>capit, head; as <i>capital</i>; <i>decapitate</i>.</p> <p>celer, swift; as <i>accelerate</i>; <i>celerity</i>.</p> <p>coron, crown; as <i>corona</i>; <i>coroner</i>.</p> <p>corpus (corpor), body; as <i>incorporate</i>; <i>corporeal</i>; <i>corpuscle</i>.</p> <p>cred, believe; as <i>incredible</i>.</p> <p>cycl, circle, wheel; as <i>cyclone</i>; <i>bicycle</i>.</p> <p>dat (dit), give; as <i>date</i>; <i>edition</i>.</p> <p>dent, tooth; as <i>dental</i>; <i>indent</i>.</p> <p>di, day; as <i>dial</i>; <i>diary</i>.</p> <p>domin, lord; as <i>predominate</i>.</p> <p>dorm, sleep; as <i>dormitory</i>.</p> <p>fac, face, form; as <i>efface</i>; <i>facial</i>.</p> <p>felic, happy; as <i>felicitous</i>; <i>infelicity</i>.</p> <p>fess, acknowledge; as <i>confess</i>; <i>professional</i>.</p>	<p>form, shape; as <i>formation</i>; <i>transformation</i>.</p> <p>fort, strong; as <i>fortitude</i>; <i>fortify</i>.</p> <p>gest, carry, bring; as <i>digestion</i>; <i>gesture</i>.</p> <p>gran, grain; as <i>granary</i>; <i>granular</i>.</p> <p>gross, fat, thick; as <i>engross</i>; <i>gross</i>.</p> <p>hor, hour; as <i>horologe</i>; <i>horoscope</i>.</p> <p>judic, judge; as <i>judicial</i>; <i>judiciary</i>.</p> <p>lingu, tongue; as <i>lingual</i>; <i>linguist</i>.</p> <p>major, greater; as <i>majority</i>.</p> <p>man, stay, dwell; as <i>manor</i>; <i>man-sion</i>.</p> <p>medic, physician; as <i>medicate</i>.</p> <p>mens, measure; as <i>commensurate</i>.</p> <p>pan, bread; as <i>pannier</i>; <i>pantry</i>.</p> <p>par, equal; as <i>disparage</i>; <i>parity</i>.</p> <p>pass, step; as <i>compass</i>.</p> <p>pen, pain, punishment; as <i>penalty</i>.</p> <p>petr, rock; as <i>petrification</i>; <i>petrify</i>.</p> <p>phon, sound; as <i>phonetic</i>; <i>telephone</i>.</p> <p>physi, nature; as <i>physiography</i>.</p> <p>pict, paint; as <i>depict</i>; <i>picture</i>.</p> <p>plac, please; as in <i>placable</i>; <i>placid</i>.</p> <p>plen, full, complete; as <i>plenary</i>; <i>plentiful</i>.</p>
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- plum, feather; as *plumage*; *plumes*.  
 plumb, lead; as *plumber*.  
 pot, drink; as *potation*; *potion*.  
 prehend (prehens), take, grasp; as  
*comprehend*; *prehensile*.  
 punct, prick, point; as *punctuate*;  
*puncture*.  
 quadr, fourth, four; as *quadrant*;  
*quadruped*.  
 quant, how much; as *quantitative*;  
*quantity*.  
 quer (quir), seek, ask; as *inquiry*;  
*query*.  
 quiet, quiet; as *inquietude*.  
 radi, ray; as *radiant*; *radiate*.  
 rap (rapt), seize, grasp; as *rapa-*  
*cious*; *rapture*.  
 rat, think; as *ratio*; *irrational*.  
 rect, ruled, straight, right; as *rect-*  
*ify*; *correct*.  
 reg, govern; as *regent*; *regulate*.  
 ris (rid), to laugh; as *ridicule*;  
*risible*.  
 riv, stream; as *derive*; *river*.  
 rog, ask; as *derogate*; *interroga-*  
*tion*.  
 rupt, break; as *interrupt*; *rupture*.  
 sal, salt; as *saline*.  
 sal, leap; as *salient*; *saltatory*.  
 sanct, holy; as *sanction*; *sanctuary*.  
 sat (satis), enough; as *satisfac-*  
*tory*; *satiated*.  
 scop, watch, view; as *episcopal*;  
*telescope*.  
 sec (sect), cut; as *bisect*; *secant*.  
 sen, old; as *senile*; *senior*.  
 serv, keep; as *conserve*; *preserve*.  
 sist, place, stand; as *assist*; *desist*.  
 son, sound; as *consonant*.  
 sort, lot, kind; as *assort*; *consort*.  
 speci, kind; as *species*; *specific*.  
 stant, standing; as *constant*; *dis-*  
*tant*.  
 stell, star; as *constellation*; *stellar*.  
 string (strain), draw tight, bind;  
 as *restrain*; *stringent*.  
 su, follow; as *pursue*; *suit*.  
 suad (suas), persuade; as *dissuade*;  
*persuasion*.  
 surg (surrect), rise; as *insurgent*;  
*resurrection*.  
 taill, cut; as *entail*; *tailor*.  
 tang, touch; as *tangent*; *tangible*.  
 teg (tect), cover; as *detect*; *integ-*  
*ument*.  
 tempor, time; as *temporary*.  
 tend (tens, tent), reach, stretch; as  
*contend*; *content*; *intense*.  
 test, witness; as *attest*; *testament*.  
 tort, twist, wring; as *distort*; *re-*  
*tort*.  
 tract, draw; as *subtract*; *tractable*.  
 trit, rub; as *attrition*; *triturate*.  
 trud (trus), thrust; as *abstruse*;  
*intrude*.  
 und, wave, flow; as *inundate*;  
*undine*.  
 vad (vas), go; as *evade*; *evasive*.  
 val, be strong; as *valiant*; *valid*.  
 ven (vent), come; as *advent*; *in-*  
*tervene*.  
 vert (vers), turn; as *controvert*;  
*inversion*.  
 vi, way, road; as *deviate*; *viaduct*.  
 vic, change; as *vicarious*; *vicar*.  
 volv (volut), roll; as *evolution*;  
*revolve*.  
 vot, vow; as *devote*; *votive*.



## INDEX.

- A*, position of, 218, 219.  
 uses of, 229, 260.
- Accessory elements, 41, 42.
- Active predicate base, 40, 143.
- Adjective element, or modifier, 38, 102,  
 106, 107, 206.  
 modifier of pronoun, 132.  
 peculiar use of, 251.  
 position of, 219, 222.
- Adjective pronouns, 118, 119.
- Adjectives, 106-117.  
 attribute, 107, 176.  
 cautions regarding, 116, 117.  
 classes of, 108-110, 114.  
 common, 108.  
 comparison of, 110-113, 117.  
 conjunctive, or relative, 108, 192.  
 inflection of, 110, 111.  
 interrogative, 110.  
 irregular comparison of, 111.  
 modifiers of, 113, 176.  
 parsing of, 114.  
 position of, 107.  
 predicate, 107.  
 pronominal, 109, 118.  
 proper, 108.  
 relative, or conjunctive, 108, 192.
- Adjective use, of noun, 98.  
 of verbs, 160.
- Adverbial complements, 43, 44.
- Adverbial modifiers, or elements, 39, 40,  
 42, 44, 113, 186, 187, 206.  
 peculiar use of, 252.  
 position in sentence, 220, 221.
- Adverbial use, of noun, 99.  
 of verbs, 162.
- Adverbs, 185-190.  
 cautions regarding, 190.  
 classes of, 188, 189.  
 comparison of, 188.  
 conjunctive, 188, 192, 220, 238.  
 forms of, 188, 189.
- Adverbs, interrogative, 188.  
 modifiers of, 186.  
 parsing of, 189.  
 relative, 188; see *Conjunctive adverb*.
- Advise*, takes direct and indirect object,  
 254.
- Agreement and government, 226-232.  
 of adjectives, 229.  
 of nouns, 226.  
 of pronouns, 227-229, 231.  
 of verbs, 230-232.
- Ah me*, grammatical construction, 260.
- Already*, formation of, 268.
- Am*, use of, 164, 266.
- An*, position of, 218, 219.
- Analysis, complete, of sentence, 204-209.  
 fine points of, 250-266.  
 model for, 206-208.  
 sentences for, 272-275.  
 simple, 9-80.
- And*, coördinate conjunction, 193.  
 in compound sentences, 70.  
 use of, 194.
- Another*, declension of, 119.
- Antecedent, of pronoun, 120, 257.
- Apostrophe, in possessive case, 95, 104.
- Applications of grammar, 210-232.
- Appositive nouns, 98, 100, 226.
- Appositive, partitive, 126.  
 syntax of peculiar forms, 254, 255.
- Appositive pronouns, form of, 128.
- Are*, old meaning of, 44.
- Arrangement of words in sentences, 217-  
 225.
- Article, 260.
- As*, before infinitive phrase, 238.  
 for *like*, 200.  
 relative pronoun, 120.  
 uses of, 252, 263.
- As soon as*, elements of, 259.
- Assert*, defined, 25.
- Asserted relations, 11.

- Asserter (copula)**, 24, 25, 29, 51, 141, 142, 147, 163, 164, 168-173, 192, 193.  
 chief, 163.  
 introducing subordinate phrases, 196.  
 modified, 29, 30.
- Assertion**, defined, 25.
- Assertive phrase**, 51, 233.
- Assumed relations**, 10.
- Attribute**, 29, 148; see *Complement*.  
 adjective, 107, 176.  
 verbal, 176.
- Attributive nouns, agreement of**, 226.
- Auxiliaries, are asserters**, 168.  
 inflection of, 168-170, 295-300.  
 pure, 172.
- Base**, 12.  
 of clause, 62, 63.  
 predicate, 28, 34; see *Predicate base*.  
 subject, 27.
- Be*, see *To be*.
- Because*, subordinate connective, 66, 264.
- Been*, used after *have*, 165.
- Being*, combined with participle, 241.  
 in participial phrases, 165.
- But*, coördinate conjunction, 193, 194.  
 for *than*, 200.  
 in compound sentences, 70.  
 omission of, 211.  
 proper use of, 261.  
 with subjunctive, 174.
- But what, for but that*, 200.
- Can, could*, auxiliaries, 172, 173.
- Can't*, contraction, 277.
- Capitals, use of**, 216.
- Case inflection, of nouns**, 95, 226.  
 of pronouns, 121, 127, 227, 228.
- Classification, of adjectives**, 108-110.  
 of adverbs, 188, 189.  
 of elements, 23-67, 81.  
 of nouns, 84-86.  
 of pronouns, 118.  
 of verbs, 157-160.  
 of words, 81.
- Clause modifier, in subordinate clauses**, 67.
- Clauses**, 20, 59.  
 base of, 62, 63.  
 coördinate, 60.  
 infinitive, 249.
- Clauses, kinds of**, 20.  
 participial, 249.  
 principal, 60.  
 punctuation of, 213.  
 subordinate, 60, 61, 62, 67, 220.  
 uses of, 253, 257, 258.
- Collective noun**, 90.  
 pronoun representing, 227.  
 verb form after, 230.
- Combinations of words**, 258, 259.
- Commas, in compounds**, 70, 75, 211.  
 indicating omission, 212.  
 in imperative sentences, 101, 214.  
 in independent phrases, 202.  
 in interjectional expressions, 214.  
 in mixed sentences, 21.  
 separating short clauses, 22.  
 separating subject and predicate, 214.  
 various uses of, 212, 213.  
 with appositives, 100.
- Common adjectives**, 108.
- Common gender**, 87.
- Common nouns**, 84, 85.
- Comparative degree, of adjectives**, 110-113, 117.  
 of adverbs, 188.
- Comparatives, double**, 116, 117.
- Comparison, of adjectives**, 110-113, 117.  
 of adverbs, 188.
- Complements**, 29.  
 adverbial, 43, 44.  
 kinds of, 31-33.  
 modified, 29, 30.  
 verbal, 35, 142, 144-146.
- Complete analysis**, 204-209.
- Complete or perfect participle**, 152, 157, 241.
- Complex sentence**, 61, 65, 250, 251.
- Compound elements**, 72, 73.  
 modifiers of, 74.  
 union of, 75.
- Compound personal pronouns**, 131, 132.
- Compound relative pronouns**, 122.
- Compounds**, 68-80.
- Compound sentence**, 60, 68, 250, 251.  
 punctuation of, 70.
- Compound subject, verb form after**, 230.
- Compound terms, plurals of**, 94.
- Compound words, formation of**, 276.
- Conjugation, complete**, 295-300.  
 inflectional, 155, 166, 167.

- Conjunction, coördinate, 191, 193-195.  
     phrase used as, 256.  
     subordinate, 192, 193, 196.  
 Conjunctive adjectives, 108.  
 Conjunctive adverbs, 188, 192.  
     introducing infinitive phrase, 238.  
     position in sentence, 220.  
 Conjunctive pronoun, 120.  
 Connectives, coördinate, 76, 191-195.  
     in compound sentences, 70.  
     in union of compounds, 75.  
     subordinate, 64-67, 192.  
     use of, 76, 192, 196.  
 Constructions, special, 233-275.  
 Coördinate clauses, 60.  
 Coördinate conjunctions, 191, 193-195.  
 Coördinate relation, 192.  
 Copula, see *Asserter*.  
 Copulative infinitive phrases, 165.  
 Copulative verbs, defined, 164, 193.  
 Correlatives, use of, 195.  
  
 Dash, use of, 212.  
 Declarative sentence, 16.  
 Declension, of noun, 96.  
     of pronoun, 119, 121, 122, 127, 128,  
         130, 131.  
 Degrees of comparison, 110-113, 117,  
     188.  
 Derivatives, English, 276-288.  
     formation of, 280.  
     spelling of, 284-288.  
 Direct object, 39, 254.  
*Do*, use of, 169-171.  
  
*Each*, followed by singular number, 231.  
*Each other*, union of, 259.  
*Either*, followed by singular number, 231.  
 Elements, accessory, 41, 42.  
     adjective, 38, 102, 106, 107, 206, 219.  
     adverbial, 39, 42, 44, 113, 186, 187, 206,  
         220, 221.  
     classification according to structure,  
         47-67.  
     classification according to use, 23-46,  
         81.  
     compound, 72-75.  
     essential, 41, 42.  
     independent, 255, 256.  
     See *Modifiers*.  
*Else*, inversion after, 223.  
  
 Emphatic use of pronoun, 132.  
 English derivatives, 276-288.  
 English language, history of, 301.  
 Essential elements, of sentence, 41, 42.  
*Every*, followed by singular number, 231.  
*Except*, use of, 264.  
 Exclamation point, 17, 21, 100, 202, 214.  
 Exclamatory sentence, 17, 214.  
     kinds of, 18.  
 Explanatory nouns, agreement of, 226.  
 Explanatory terms, position of, 219.  
 Expletives, 224, 270.  
  
 Feminine gender, 87, 127.  
 Fine points of analysis, 250-266.  
 Finite verbs, 234.  
*For*, misuse of, 200.  
     subordinate connective, 66.  
*Former*, declension of, 119.  
 Future tense, 173.  
 Future perfect tense, 173.  
  
 Gender, of nouns, 87, 282, 283.  
     of pronouns, 127, 227.  
 Government and agreement, 226-232.  
     of adjectives, 229.  
     of nouns, 226.  
     of pronouns, 227-229, 231.  
     of verbs, 230-232.  
 Grammar, applications of, 210-232.  
     function of, 8.  
  
*Have*, 169, 170, 236.  
*Having*, combined with participle, 241.  
*Having been*, combined with participle,  
     242.  
*He*, 124, 126, 127.  
*Hers*, use of, 130.  
*His*, use of, 130.  
*How*, subordinate connective, 66.  
 Hyphen, use of, 276, 277.  
  
*I*, 124, 216.  
     declension of, 126, 127.  
*I'd*, contraction, 277.  
 Idea words, 48, 191.  
 Ideas, expressed by words, 9.  
     related, 47, 48.  
 Idioms, 8, 267-271.  
*If*, followed by subjunctive, 174.  
     omission of, 223.

- Imperative mood, of verbs, 153.  
 Imperative sentences, 16.  
   comma in, 214.  
   parts of, 25.  
   subject of, 218.  
 Impersonal verbs, 266.  
 Incomplete participle, 151.  
 Independent elements, 255, 256.  
 Independent nouns, 100, 201, 202.  
   punctuation of, 100, 213.  
 Independent words, 201-203.  
 Indicative mood of verb, 153, 173.  
 Indirect object, 99, 128, 254.  
 Infinitive, 149, 150, 234-236.  
   modifiers of, 235.  
   nature of, 235, 236.  
   of asserter, 165.  
   parsing of, 240.  
   simplest form of verb, 149.  
   subject of, 239.  
   *to*, sign of, 234, 235.  
   unusual constructions, 238, 239.  
   use of, 161, 162.  
 Infinitive clause, 249.  
 Infinitive phrase, 149.  
 Inflection, 53, 276.  
   of adjectives, 110, 111.  
   of adverbs, 188.  
   of auxiliaries, 168, 169, 295-300.  
   of nouns, 87-97.  
   of pronouns, 119, 121, 122, 127, 130, 131, 227, 228.  
   of verbs, 151-155.  
 Inflectional conjugation, 155, 166, 167.  
 Interjections, 202, 203.  
   punctuation of, 214.  
 Interrogation point, 15, 21, 212.  
 Interrogative adjectives, 110.  
 Interrogative adverbs, 188.  
 Interrogative pronouns, 123, 124.  
 Interrogative sentence, 15, 25.  
 Interrogative word, position of, 220.  
*Into*, origin of, 257.  
 Intransitive verb, 158, 159.  
   passive construction of, 253.  
 Inversions, punctuation of, 213.  
   use of, 219.  
   with expletives, 224.  
   words demanding, 223.  
 Irregular verbs, 157, 289.  
*Is*, old meaning of, 44.  
*It*, introducing sentence, 224.  
   personal pronoun, 124.  
   with impersonal verbs, 266.  
 Languages, related, 7, 8, 301.  
*Latter*, declension of, 119.  
*Lay*, use of, 183.  
*Least*, use in comparison, 112, 117, 188.  
*Less*, use in comparison, 112, 117, 188.  
*Lest*, use of, 174, 264.  
*Lie*, use of, 183.  
*Like*, for *as*, 200.  
   use of, 263, 264.  
*Many*, position of *a*, *an*, with, 218.  
*Many a*, followed by singular number, 231.  
 Masculine gender, 87, 127.  
*May*, *might*, auxiliaries, 172, 173.  
*Meseems*, origin of, 259.  
*Methinks*, origin of, 259.  
*Mine*, use of, 130.  
 Mixed sentence, 21.  
 Modifiers, 12.  
   adjective, 38, 106, 206, 219, 251.  
   adverbial, 39, 40, 186, 206, 220.  
   clause, in subordinate clause, 67.  
   in phrases, 55-57.  
   objective, 39, 40.  
   of adjective, 113, 176.  
   of compound elements, 74.  
   of nouns, 102.  
   of pronouns, 132.  
   predicate, 39-41.  
   primary and secondary, 185-187.  
   subject, 37, 38.  
 Mood, of verbs, 153.  
   imperative, 153.  
   indicative, 153, 173.  
   potential, 173.  
   subjunctive, 174.  
*More*, in comparison, 110, 112, 117, 188.  
*Most*, in comparison, 110, 112, 117, 188.  
*Must*, auxiliary, 172, 173.  
*Myself*, misuse of, 138.  
*Near*, use of, 264.  
 Negatives, use of two, 190.  
*Neither*, followed by singular number, 231.  
   omission of, 223.

- Neuter gender, 87, 127.  
*Next*, use of, 264.  
*No*, use of, 261.  
 Nominative absolute, 271.  
 Nominative case, of nouns, 96.  
   of pronouns, 121, 127, 128.  
*Nor*, use of, 183.  
   coördinate conjunction, 193.  
   inversion after, 223.  
*Notify*, takes direct and indirect object,  
 254.  
 Nouns, 83-105.  
   agreement of, 226.  
   appositive, 98, 100, 226.  
   as attribute of subject, 100.  
   case inflection of, 95.  
   cautions regarding, 104, 105.  
   classes of, 84-86.  
   collective, 90.  
   common, 85.  
   declension of, 96.  
   gender of, 87.  
   independent, 201, 202, 213.  
   inflection of, 87-97.  
   modifiers of, 102, 176.  
   number of, 88, 89.  
   object of preposition, 100.  
   parsing of, 103.  
   personified, 86.  
   plural, 91-93.  
   possessive, 95, 226.  
   proper, 85.  
   uses of, 98-101.  
 Number inflection, of noun, 88, 89.  
   of pronoun, 127, 227.  
   of verb, 154.  
  
*O*, 216, 203.  
 Object, 39.  
   indirect, 99, 128, 254.  
 Objective case, of nouns, 96.  
   of pronouns, 121, 127, 128.  
 Objective elements, or modifiers, 39, 40.  
   position of, 222, 223.  
 Objective use, of nouns, 99.  
   of verbs, 161.  
*Oh*, use of, 203.  
 Omissions, 259, 260.  
*One*, declension of, 119.  
*Or*, connecting clauses of compound  
 sentences, 70.  
  
*Or*, connecting substantives, 183.  
   coördinate conjunction, 193, 194.  
*Other*, declension of, 119.  
*Ours*, use of, 130.  
*Own*, idea expressed by, 132.  
  
 Parenthesis, use of, 212.  
 Parenthetic expressions, 255.  
 Parsing, 103.  
   of adjectives, 114.  
   of adverbs, 189.  
   of infinitives, 240.  
   of nouns, 103.  
   of participles, 246.  
   of pronouns, 133, 134.  
   of relation words, 198.  
   of verbs, 178, 240, 246.  
 Participial adjectives, nature of, 245.  
 Participial clause, 249.  
 Participial phrase, 165, 241.  
 Participles, 151, 152.  
   combined with *to be*, *to have*, 236.  
   complete, 151, 241.  
   forms of, 241.  
   incomplete, 151.  
   meaning and uses of, 243-247.  
   nature of, 176.  
   of asserters, 165.  
   parsing of, 246.  
   perfect or complete, 151, 157, 241.  
   present or progressive, 151, 241, 253.  
   uses of, 151, 160-162, 243-245.  
 Partitive appositives, 126.  
 Parts of speech, 82, 81-209.  
 Passive construction, of verbs, 253, 254.  
 Passive predicate base, 143.  
 Past perfect tense, 170.  
 Past tense, 153, 157.  
 Perfect participle, 152, 241.  
   formation of, 157.  
 Period, use of, 16, 212.  
 Person, of pronouns, 125, 227.  
   of verbs, 154, 182.  
 Personal pronouns, 124.  
   compound, 131, 132.  
   inflection of, 126, 127, 130.  
 Personified nouns, 86.  
 Phrases, 49, 50.  
   assertive, 51, 233.  
   copulative infinitive, 165.  
   independent, 202.

- Phrases, infinitive, 149, 165.  
 participial, 165, 241.  
 peculiar uses of, 256, 257.  
 phrase modifiers of, 57.  
 prepositional, 50-52, 233.  
 word modifiers in, 55-57.
- Plural of nouns, 89-94.
- Positive degree, of adjectives, 110-113.  
 of adverbs, 188.
- Possessive case, of nouns, 95, 97, 226.  
 of pronouns, 121, 127, 128.
- Potential mood, of verb, 173.
- Predicate, 24-26, 41.  
 function of, 31, 32.  
 parts of, 28, 29.
- Predicate adjective, 107.
- Predicate base, 28, 34.  
 active, 40, 143.  
 parts of, 148.  
 passive, 143.  
 position of, 220, 221.
- Predicate modifiers, 39-41.
- Predicate verb, 35, 147, 148.
- Prefixes, 278-282, 306, 307, 310.
- Preposition, 51, 193.  
 introductory word, 196, 197.  
 position of, 223.  
 same word as adverb, 197.  
 use of, 76, 192, 197.
- Prepositional phrases, 51.  
 kinds of, 233.
- Present participle, 151, 241, 253.
- Present perfect tense, 170.
- Present tense, 152.
- Primitive word, 278, 280.
- Principal, 49.
- Principal clause, 60.
- Progressive participle, 151, 152.
- Pronominal adjectives, 109, 118.
- Pronouns, 83, 118-140.  
 adjective, 118, 119.  
 agreement of, 227-229, 231.  
 antecedent of, 120, 257.  
 appositive, form of, 128.  
 case forms of, 119, 121, 122, 127, 130,  
 227, 228.  
 cautions regarding, 135-140.  
 classes of, 118.  
 conjunctive, 120, 121.  
 gender of, 127, 227.  
 independent, 201.
- Pronouns, interrogative, 123, 124.  
 misuse of, 138, 139.  
 modifiers of, 132.  
 number inflection of, 119, 127, 130,  
 131, 227.  
 parsing, 133, 134.  
 personal, 124-132.  
 person of, 125, 227.  
 pure, 124.  
 relative, 120-122, 192, 220.  
 representing a collective noun, 140,  
 227.  
 solemn forms of, 129.
- Proper adjectives, 108.
- Proper nouns, 85.
- Punctuation, 210-216.  
 apostrophe, 95, 104.  
 comma, see *Comma*.  
 dash, 212.  
 exclamation point, 17, 21, 100, 202, 214.  
 hyphen, 276.  
 interrogation point, 15, 21, 212.  
 of compounds, 211.  
 of compound sentences, 70.  
 of imperative sentences, 214.  
 of independent nouns, 100, 213.  
 of interjections, 202, 214.  
 of inversions, 213.  
 of mixed sentences, 21.  
 of subordinate clauses, 213.  
 of unrelated parts, 212-216.  
 parenthesis, 212.  
 period, 16, 212.  
 semicolon, 21, 22, 71, 211.
- Pure pronouns, 124.
- Pure sentences, 17, 18, 19.
- Reflexive use of pronoun, 132.
- Regular verb, 157.
- Relation, asserted, 10, 11.  
 assumed, 10, 11.  
 shown by position and form, 52, 53.  
 subordinate connective showing, 192.
- Relation words, 48, 191-200.  
 cautions regarding, 200.  
 kinds of, 191-193.  
 parsing of, 198.  
 position of, 222.  
 subordinate, 196, 197.
- Relative adjectives, 108, 192.
- Relative adverbs, 188.

- Relative pronouns, 120, 121, 192.  
 compound forms of, 122.  
 position in sentence, 220, 222.
- Root, 278.
- Semicolon, uses of, 21, 22, 71, 211.
- Sentences, 9-22.  
 analysis of, 23-80, 204-209, 272-275.  
 arrangement of words in, 217-225.  
 complex, 61, 65, 250, 251.  
 compound, 60, 68, 70, 250, 251.  
 declarative, 16.  
 essential elements of, 41.  
 exclamatory, 17, 18.  
 imperative, 16, 25.  
 interrogative, 15, 25.  
 mixed, 20, 21.  
 pure, 17, 19.  
 simple, 59.  
 typical, 19, 20.  
 uses of, 15-19.
- Set*, use of, 184.
- Shall, should*, auxiliaries, 172, 173.
- She*, personal pronoun, 124.
- Simple analysis, 9-80.
- Simple sentence, 59.
- Singular number, of nouns, 89.  
 of pronouns, 127, 227.
- Sit*, use of, 184.
- So*, position of *a* with, 219.  
 use of, 270, 271.
- Solemn forms, of pronouns, 129.  
 verb forms for, 154.
- Special constructions, 233-275.
- Special uses of words, 265, 266.
- Spelling, of derivative words, 284-288.  
 of plural nouns, 91-97.  
 of verb forms, 177, 289.
- Stems, 306-312.
- Subject, 23-26, 41.  
 compound, verb form after, 230.  
 of imperative sentence, 218.  
 of infinitive, 239.
- Subject base, 27, 185.  
 position in sentence, 218.
- Subject modifiers, 37, 38.
- Subjunctive mood of verb, 174.
- Subordinate, 49.
- Subordinate clause, 60.  
 clause modifiers in, 67.  
 inversion of, 220.
- Subordinate clause, punctuation of, 213.  
 use of, 61, 62.
- Subordinate conjunction, 192, 193, 196.
- Subordinate connective, 64-67, 76, 192, 196.
- Subordinate relation words, 192, 196, 197.
- Substantive element, subject called, 41.
- Substantive use, of noun, 98.  
 of verb, 161.
- Such*, position of *a, an*, with, 218.
- Such a*, followed by singular number, 231.
- Suffixes, 278, 279, 282-288, 306, 307, 311.
- Superlative degree, of adjectives, 110-113, 117.  
 of adverbs, 188.
- Superlatives, double, 116, 117.
- Tense inflection, of verbs, 152, 153, 157, 168, 231.
- Than*, for *but*, 200.  
 use of, 262.
- That*, introducing clause, 258.  
 misuse of, 139.  
 number inflection of, 113, 229.  
 object of preposition, 223.  
 relative pronoun, 120, 121.  
 subjunctive mood after, 174.  
 subordinate connective, 66.  
 various uses of, 264.
- The*, position of, 218.  
 uses of, 229, 260.
- Theirs*, use of, 130.
- Them*, for *those*, 139.
- There*, introductory word, 224, 231, 270.
- They*, personal pronoun, 124.
- Thine*, use of, 130.
- This*, number inflection of, 113, 229.
- Those*, for *them*, 139.
- Thou*, declension of, 130.
- Thought, related ideas, 10, 191.
- Titles, plurals of, 94.
- To*, followed by infinitive, 233-235.
- To be*, chief asserter, 141.  
 combined with participle, 236.  
 conjugation of, 163, 164.  
 in copulative infinitive phrases, 165.  
 in subjunctive mood, 174.  
 old meaning of, 44.  
 peculiar use of, 266.
- To come*, special use of, 266.
- To do*, use of, 169-171.

- To go*, special use of, 266.  
*To have*, combined with participles, 236.  
 conjugation of, 169, 170.  
 special use of, 266.  
*To love*, conjugated, 155, 166, 167, 295.  
 Transitive verbs, 158, 159.  
 Typical sentence, 19.
- Unless*, for *without*, 200.  
 use of, 264.  
*Unto*, origin of, 257.  
*Upon*, origin of, 257.
- Verbal complement, 35, 142.  
 forms of, 144, 145.
- Verb forms, based on time, 152, 153.  
 determined by subject, 154.  
 meaning of, 156.  
 spelling of, 184, 289.
- Verbs, 34-37, 141-184.  
 agreement and government, 229, 230.  
 auxiliaries, 167-173.  
 cautions regarding, 181-184.  
 classes of, 157-160.  
 conjugation of, 155, 166, 167, 295-300.  
 finite, 234.  
 future tense of, 173.  
 government of, 229, 230.  
 imperative mood, 153.  
 impersonal, 266.  
 indicative mood, 153, 173.  
 infinitive form, 149, 150, 234.  
 inflectional conjugation of, 155, 166.  
 intransitive, 158, 159.  
 irregular, 157, 289.  
 modifiers of, 39-41, 176.  
 number of, 154.  
 parsing of, 178.  
 passive construction of, 253, 254.  
 person of, 154, 182.  
 potential mood, 173.  
 predicate, 35.  
 principal parts of, 177, 289.  
 regular, 157.  
 subjunctive mood, 174.  
 tense inflection of, 152, 153, 157.  
 transitive, 158, 159.  
 uses of, 160-162.  
 voice of, 167.
- Voice, 167.
- What*, interrogative pronoun, 123, 124.  
 relative adjective, 108.  
 relative pronoun, 120.  
 subordinate connective, 66.  
 verb form following, 230.
- Whatever*, declension of, 122.  
 relative adjective, 108.
- When*, subordinate connective, 66.
- Whether*, use of, 174.  
 . . . or, use of, 263.
- Which*, interrogative pronoun, 123, 124.  
 relative adjective, 108.  
 relative pronoun, 120, 121, 123.
- Whichever*, declension of, 122.  
 relative adjective, 108.
- Who*, interrogative pronoun, 123, 124.  
 relative pronoun, 120, 121.  
 subordinate connective, 66.  
 verb form following, 230.
- Whom*, relative pronoun, 223.
- Whoso*, declension of, 122.
- Why* for *that*, 200.
- Will, would*, auxiliaries, 172, 173.  
 predicate verb, 169.
- Without*, for *unless*, 200.
- Word building, 276-288, 306-312.
- Word element, 53.
- Word groups, peculiar uses of, 251-253.
- Word modifiers, in phrases, 55-57.
- Words, 81-83, 276, 306.  
 arrangement in sentence, 217-225.  
 classification of, 81.  
 combination of, 258, 259, 277.  
 compound, formed, 276.  
 derivative, 276-288.  
 idea, 48.  
 independent, 201-203.  
 omitted, 259, 260.  
 related, 10.  
 relation, 48, 191-200.  
 sign of idea, 9.  
 special, 260-264.  
 special uses of, 265, 266.  
 spelling of derivative, 284-288.
- Yes*, use of, 261.
- You*, 124, 126, 127.  
 plural verb with, 183.  
 subject in imperative sentence, 100.
- Yours*, use of, 130.









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