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A

Brief English Grammar

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PREFACE

It seems the invariable tendency of any complicated system of linguistic forms, when made a subject of study, to cut itself off from the living processes which gave rise to it, and become in the student's mind mere matter, an arbitrary thing-in-itself, dead and meaningless. The danger of this tendency has been abundantly recognized in recent text-books of English grammar and composition, which have attempted by various methods to recall the meaning to the form, to re-connect the word on the page with the thought which created it and the situation which shaped and modified it.

Among these attempts the present treatise must be enrolled. It can claim no great originality of conception, since its fundamental postulates of the social function and the organic structure of language have been long familiar to advanced students of philosophy and linguistics. The practical application of these fundamental postulates to the concrete problems of language-teaching is, however, not yet complete. Continued experimentation to this end, in the fields both of grammar and of composition, must be fruitful not only for more vital teaching, but for a sounder pedagogic theory of these subjects.

The desire to treat language-form throughout as directly conditioned by language-function, will explain the order of subjects adopted. Since the sentence, whether simple or elaborate, represents the typical act of thought-communication from speaker to hearer, the business of grammar is to define successively every member of the sentence, every

word and every inflection, on the basis of its individual contribution to this act of communication. Thus the sentence is both the beginning and the end of grammatical study; and sentence-analysis, in the largest sense of the term, is its entire subject-matter.

Since this book is designed for the pupil rather than for the teacher, all suggestions as to the teaching of English grammar have been conveyed rather by implication than by specific recommendation. The text itself is, however, designed to indicate a general method of presentation, variable in detail at the will of the individual teacher. Each chapter, it will be evident, presents not the material for any fixed number of class recitations, but rather a single subject, divisible according to the available time, the capacity of the students, and other practical considerations. These conditions will necessarily determine the particular assignment for any given recitation; but they should not be allowed to destroy the essential unity of a subject. The summary and definitions following each lesson may well be used by the teacher to test the students' knowledge of that subject as a whole. Passages printed in brevier are supplementary and subordinate in importance, and hence may be used or omitted at discretion. The questions and exercises are suggestive merely, inviting both modification and supplement by the teacher.

NOTE.—For more direct suggestions see *The Foundations of English Grammar Teaching*, in *The Elementary School Teacher*, Vol. 3, p. 480; also, *The Revival of English Grammar*, in *New York Teachers' Monographs*, Vol. IV, p. 107; and *The Sentence Diagram*, in *The Educational Review*, Vol. XIII, p. 250.

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A BRIEF ENGLISH GRAMMAR

INTRODUCTION

1. The Nature of Language.—Even savages, when they live together, must have some means of knowing one another's thoughts. If one sees danger approaching, he must be able to warn the others, or they may all perish. If one needs food, he must find some means of conveying this fact to those who have it, or die of starvation. Ideas so simple as these can easily be communicated from one person to another by sign or gesture. A man points to his mouth to show that he is hungry; and this gesture comes to mean hunger whenever it is made. Every one understands it. The people who use it have learned how to know one another's thoughts so far as hunger is concerned. They have to this degree what we call a "sign language," that is, a way of expressing their own thoughts and of understanding other people's thoughts through action rather than through speech.

But among civilized peoples the use of signs or gestures for purposes of communication, has been almost abandoned, except as an occasional aid to speech. In its place has grown up that system of sounds which we call SPOKEN LANGUAGE. As the need for expressing more and more complex ideas has arisen, gradually the few and simple sounds which once may have served to convey the comparatively few and simple thoughts of a primitive people have been varied

and multiplied until a somewhat complex system of spoken language has developed.

Such a system, when represented to the eye by certain fixed characters, becomes WRITTEN LANGUAGE. In this form the sounds which convey thought may be transmitted over great distances, farther than any man's voice could reach, and preserved long after his voice has ceased to be heard. Written language is not essentially different from spoken language: it is spoken language translated into a more universal and more permanent form.

2. The Study of Language.—A modern, living language, such as English, with its spoken and written forms, although it has grown from the simple efforts of simple people to convey their thoughts to one another, is an extremely complicated system, not to be thoroughly understood without serious study. Fortunately, the English-speaking student already knows something about this system in a practical way, having learned in childhood to understand the speech of his family and friends and to employ the forms which will be understood by them. In studying English grammar, however, he is to deal more systematically with the forms of the language, to consider their structure and meanings, their relations to their fellow-men and to the development of the language as a whole.

3. The Study of Grammar.—The GRAMMAR of any language is, then, a systematic statement of the forms which the people who speak that language use to convey their thoughts to one another, with some explanation of the history of these forms and of their relations one to another.

It is sometimes said that grammar is a collection of rules for correct speaking and writing; but this is not strictly true. The rules of grammar are like the laws of any physical science, such as chemistry, physics, astronomy, or physical

geography. These sciences are not a collection of rules telling the winds and tides, for instance, what they must do, or prescribing how a certain acid and a certain base shall unite. They only report and explain what happens. And so grammar does not say to us directly, "You must speak thus and so," but only, "English people at the present time do speak thus and so, for the following reasons." Knowing this fact, we shall undoubtedly choose to speak so too, in order to be easily and precisely understood by others, or to avoid the appearance of eccentricity or ignorance; but grammar goes no further than to report and explain the usages of the language, leaving us to choose for ourselves whether we shall follow them or not.

The present usages of our language can not in every case be fully understood without some reference to their past history. Our language has changed so since men began to write it that we can not understand the words used by King Alfred without translating them into our own modern English, as we do the Greek of Homer. And Chaucer, who wrote five hundred years after Alfred and only five hundred years ago, can not be read without a glossary; while even Shakespeare used some words that we do not understand without reference to a dictionary, and certain forms of speech which we call now "ungrammatical." When we call them so we doubtless forget that language is continually changing and growing with the change and growth of the people or nation using it, so that what was "grammatical" for Shakespeare may not be so for us. But these very changes often help us to understand better a present usage, through comparing it with the corresponding usage of some earlier time, and noting how the one gradually gave way to the other.

The grammatical forms of any language can be intelligently studied only by taking into account their meaning, or the ideas they convey when used in speech or writing. Without constant reference to the ideas behind the words, we can know only the outer shape of a language, not its

inner structure and real nature. We shall, therefore, begin our study, not with separate words, isolated fragments of speech, but with combinations of words, those complete structures of language called sentences, by means of which complete ideas are conveyed by one person to another. We shall try first to understand the sentence as a whole; then we shall examine its various elements.

4. Summary.—Language is a system of sounds, and of written characters representing these sounds, by means of which thought is conveyed from one person to another. It has grown from a few simple signs and sounds to a complex system of speech and writing as men's thoughts and their relations to one another have become more complicated. Grammar is the classification and explanation of the forms of speech and writing by which in any language people communicate their thoughts to one another. It explains these forms as they exist to-day, sometimes by reference to their history and always by reference to the ideas they serve to convey.

DEFINITIONS

Language is a system of sounds, and of written characters representing these sounds, by means of which thought or feeling is conveyed from one person to another.

Grammar is the classification and explanation of the forms of speech and writing.

QUESTIONS

When did Robinson Crusoe on his desert island first need to use language? By what means did he and Friday first convey ideas to each other? Why do civilized people use a sound-language rather than a sign-language? When do we use signs in modern life? Give instances in which gestures help to make clearer the meaning of

spoken words. How do we learn to use our own language? What is it behind the words we use that makes them mean anything to the people we talk with? Why could you not understand a sentence spoken, say, in the Indian language? Why does the Indian understand it? After you have learned to understand and use the speech of your family or village, what more can you learn about the English language? Mention any forms of speech which you have heard in your own family, or in your own town, that are unfamiliar to people elsewhere. Mention any forms of speech used outside of your family or town that you could not understand when you first heard them. What is grammar? Why must the study of grammar take into account the meaning of the forms of language? Why must it sometimes refer to previous changes in these forms?

PART I—THE SENTENCE

CHAPTER I

HOW THE SENTENCE GROWS

5. What a Sentence Is.—A SENTENCE is usually defined as a group of related words conveying a complete statement or idea. Thus *The French army* is not yet a sentence, inasmuch as it stops short of telling what the French army did or suffered; but it becomes a sentence if completed by the words *lost eight thousand men in Tuesday's battle* or *won a great victory yesterday.* Nor can the words *was elected, day after to-morrow, in Nantucket harbor, on account of the president's serious illness,* be regarded as sentences. Joined to other words they may convey the information that some one was elected, that something is to take place the day after to-morrow, or has happened in Nantucket harbor, or has been done on account of the president's serious illness; but they can not of themselves convey this information. In order to gain a complete idea from any one of these fragments of sentences, we must supplement it by other words, thus: "Lucia was elected president of her class in her senior year," "I sail for Italy the day after to-morrow," "The naval maneuvers took place in Nantucket harbor," "On account of the president's serious illness, the board of trustees did not meet yesterday."

6. The One-Word Sentence.—It is, however, possible to convey a complete idea without a large number of words. Some very simple ideas, we have noted, can be expressed

without any words at all.[1] And a single-word exclamation often succeeds in communicating to the hearer a complete, although not a detailed, idea of what has happened. For instance, the exclamations "Fire!" and "Help!" convey to the passer-by the whole idea that there is a fire or that some one near at hand needs assistance at once. In similar fashion, the exclamation "Nonsense!" tells us at once that the speaker regards some statement just made as absurd. He may add in an instant, "I don't believe it," or "The idea is simply preposterous!" but we do not really need this added sentence to tell us what his attitude is toward the proposition in question. The exclamation has already told the story. It has indicated to us, though in the most general way, the same state of things which the longer sentence communicates in greater detail. Some single-word cries and ejaculations are, then, adequate to convey complete, though relatively simple ideas.

7. The Divisions of the Sentence.—We can not, however, convey our thoughts entirely by exclamations, any more than we can talk by means of gestures alone. Some of our thoughts or feelings are so simple that they can be transmitted in either of these ways; but most of them have become too detailed and too complicated for that. When one cries "Oh!" this exclamation usually indicates a sharp feeling of surprise, pain, or joy; but the hearer can not tell what has happened to cause this feeling without further statement. One may say "Oh!" when a small boy jumps out at him from a dark corner, or on seeing a child narrowly escape being run over in the street, or upon hearing a loud clap of thunder, and seeing lightning strike somewhere very near. But when he wishes to tell anyone what has happened in any of these cases, he must make a sentence, such as, "Rob

[1] Introduction, p. 11.

jumped out at me from behind the door," or "That child ran directly under the horse's feet," or "The lightning must have struck some tree on Mr. Holliday's place."

The thought which any one of these sentences expresses is not so simple as the feeling of surprise or of terror which the exclamation "Oh!" conveys. The sentence, "Rob jumped out at me from behind the door," shows that the person speaking does not merely wish to show that he is startled or surprised, but to tell also what has made him feel so. The sentences, "That child ran directly under the horse's feet," and "The lightning must have struck some tree on Mr. Holliday's place," represent, in like manner, the speaker's thought about what has happened, a thought that includes some person or thing acting and what is done by this person or thing. *That child,* and *the lightning,* stand in these sentences for the person or thing acting, while *ran directly under the horse's feet,* and *must have struck some tree on Mr. Holliday's place,* show what this person or thing has done.

8. The Subject and the Predicate.—These two parts or elements divide the sentence into two main sections. The section that stands for the person or thing acting is called THE SUBJECT of the sentence; the section which stands for what this person or thing does is called THE PREDICATE of the sentence. Thus in the sentences quoted, *you, that child,* and *the lightning* are subjects. *Startled me, ran directly under the horse's feet,* and *must have struck some tree on Mr. Holliday's place* are predicates.

These two principal elements in the sentence are sometimes expressed each in a single word, as in the sentences, "John works," "Flowers fade," "Dogs bark"; but more frequently the subject and the predicate each consists of several words, as in the sentences previously quoted. In long and complicated sentences many subordinate elements appear, but with or without

these subordinate elements, the primary division into subject and predicate appears in every complete sentence.

The statement that the subject of the sentence points out the actor, while the predicate stands for the action, will serve for the great majority of sentences; but in some cases we shall find that the action represented by the predicate seems to be performed *upon* rather than *by* the person or thing represented by the subject. Thus in the sentence, "The British army was repulsed by the Continentals with great loss," the action of repulsing is suffered by the British army as subject.[1] We must, then, state the distinction between subject and predicate in more general terms to include all possible varieties of sentences, thus: THE SUBJECT represents the person (or thing) of whom (or of which) the sentence as a whole tells us something. THE PREDICATE represents what the sentence as a whole tells us about this person or thing.

In all the sentences we have examined so far, the subject stands first and the predicate second. This is the usual order, but is sometimes changed so that the predicate precedes the subject, as in the sentences, "Free fly the birds," "Freer still roam I," "All, all are gone, the old familiar faces!" Here the subjects are *the birds, I,* and *All the old familiar faces,* the predicates, *fly, roam,* and *are gone.* Not position in the sentence, then, but meaning and use determine which part of the sentence constitutes the subject and which part the predicate.

9. Various Types of the Sentence: Declarative Sentences. —So far we have considered only those sentences which, representing the speaker's thought about an event or occurrence, say that something is true. Such sentences, because they declare something, are called DECLARATIVE SENTENCES.

[1] For sentences of this type, see Appendix III.

10. Interrogative Sentences.—Another kind of sentence also represents the speaker's thought about a certain occurrence or state of things, but a thought which is not yet perfectly clear or distinct in all its parts. For this reason the speaker is not yet able to say that something is true, but only to ask if it is true. Such a sentence is called an INTERROGATIVE or QUESTION SENTENCE. "Who comes so fast in the silence of the night?" "Where did Emerson spend his boyhood?" "Why did Burke advocate conciliation with America?" "Did our team win?" "Will you vote for John?" are interrogative sentences.

11. Imperative Sentences.—The IMPERATIVE or COMMAND SENTENCE differs from the declarative and the interrogative sentence in that it refers not to a state of things which actually exists, but rather to one which the speaker wishes brought about. The agent who is to bring about this desired state of things is always the person to whom the sentence is spoken. The subject is not always given in words, but it is always understood to be the person addressed. Thus the cry, "Stand from under!" when some part of a building is seen to give way, calls upon any person below to move away quickly. "Fall back," or "Clear a space," when heard after a street accident, demands of the bystanders the action indicated by the words. In cases of more trivial commands, such as "Stop drumming on the table," or "Give me your word that you will never do it again," a certain action is still required of the person addressed.

12. Exclamatory Sentences.—Such sentences as "How far that little candle throws his beams!"[1] "How sweet the moonlight sleeps upon this bank!"[1] "What an extraordinary career our new minister to China has had!" "How wonderful wireless telegraphy seems!" are called exclamatory

[1] From *The Merchant of Venice.*

sentences. Like the single-word exclamation, the exclamatory sentence suggests some spontaneous feeling on the speaker's part. It is, however, a real sentence, with subject and predicate, and seems sometimes to mean almost the same as a declarative sentence like "That little candle throws its beams very far," or "Wireless telegraphy seems very wonderful."

The difference in meaning between the interrogative sentence and the exclamatory sentence is usually indicated by certain differences in the words used or in their order in the sentence. "How hard it rains!" is manifestly not the same sentence as "How hard does it rain?" nor is "How well his words are chosen!" identical with "How well are his words chosen?" But a sentence such as "How wonderful a creature is man!" might be either a question or an exclamation, so far as may be determined either from the words used or from their order. When spoken, differences of tone and inflection easily distinguish the two sentences, but when written, the meaning intended must be indicated to the eye by means of the final mark of punctuation.[1]

13. Summary.—The form of words by which a complete thought or feeling is conveyed from one person to another is called a sentence. Every sentence consists of two parts, a subject and a predicate. The subject stands for the person or thing that acts, the predicate for the action. Or the subject stands for the person or thing spoken of by the sentence as a whole; the predicate for what is told us about this person or thing.

Sentences which assert that something is true are called declarative sentences; sentences which ask if something is true are called interrogative sentences; sentences which demand a certain action from another person are called imperative sentences; sentences which express the speaker's

[1] See Appendix V.

spontaneous feeling with reference to a given event or state of things are called exclamatory sentences.

DEFINITIONS

A sentence is the form of words by which a complete thought is conveyed from one person to another.

The subject names that about which the sentence tells us something.

The predicate is the part of the sentence which tells us something about the subject.

Declarative sentences assert that something is true.

Interrogative sentences ask whether something is true.

Imperative sentences demand some action from another person.

Exclamatory sentences express spontaneous feeling on the part of the speaker.

QUESTIONS

What do we use sentences for? What could we use instead? Why not use signs altogether to carry our thoughts? Have you any thoughts that have grown too complicated to be expressed by signs? What are some of them? Can a thought be expressed in one word? What word do you generally use to express your feeling when you hear some piece of good news? If you wish to express this feeling more definitely or to tell some one the cause of it, what will you probably say? Into how many main parts is the sentence divided? What is each called in grammar? Must the subject stand at the beginning of the sentence? Does its position or its meaning make it the subject? What are question sentences called? What are declaring sentences called? What is the difference in meaning between declarative and interrogative sentences? How is the command sentence different from the assertion, and the ques-

tion sentence? What state of things does the command sentence stand for? How does one know what the subject of a command sentence is, if it is not expressed? What is the other name for command sentences? What is an exclamatory sentence?

EXERCISES

A. Rule a page into two parallel columns and write in one column all the subjects, in the other all the predicates of these sentences:

1. I have lost my way.
2. The mast has fallen overboard!
3. Fred jumped clear over the ditch!
4. The rascals have stolen my watch!
5. Alas! Ophelia has died.
6. My father has given me a new camera.
7. Our team has won the championship.
8. The snow has blocked the train.
9. Nan has forgotten her purse!
10. Oh, my rose-bush has budded!
11. The dog has broken loose!
12. The roof is falling in.
13. Into the valley of death rode the six hundred.[1]
14. Low lies his head.
15. The cows are in the corn!
16. Mr. Gray has lost all his money.
17. Flashed all their sabers bare.[1]
18. How well you ride!
19. I don't ride half so well as you do.
20. How far the apple buds have come out!
21. How many crocuses we have this year!
22. How many have we?

[1] Tennyson: *The Charge of the Light Brigade.*

23. What a chance you've missed!
24. Where are you going?
25. That piece of work is done.
26. How oddly he is attired!
27. The clock has stopped.
28. Slowly sinks the sun.
29. Faintly in the west gleamed its last rays.
30. Who spilled this milk?
31. What has happened?
32. When did you come?
33. Where are you going to stay?
34. How soon will you pay me?
35. Spare your country's flag.[1]
36. Little Boy Blue, come blow your horn.
37. How does your garden grow?
38. Little Bo-Peep has lost her sheep.
39. Let them alone.
40. Is your mother well?
41. Will you sign this petition?
42. Has the breakfast bell rung?
43. What bounded the courtyard?
44. How shall they build it up again?

B. Among the foregoing sentences which are declarative? which interrogative? which imperative? which exclamatory?

C. Explain the punctuation[2] in the following sentences and classify them as in exercise *B*:[3]

1. How like a fawning publican he looks!
2. Is my master yet returned?
3. Give welcome to my friend.
4. Good sir, will you show me to this house?
5. How dost thou like the Lord Bassanio's wife?

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[1] Whittier: *Barbara Freitchie.*
[2] See Appendix V.
[3] Taken from *The Merchant of Venice.*

6. Why dost thou whet thy knife so earnestly?
7. Call the messenger.
8. What a wit-snapper are you!
9. Go to thy fellows.
10. Bid them cover the table.
11. Commend me to your honorable wife.
12. Take thou thy pound of flesh.
13. Take this same letter in speed to Padua.
14. Shall they see us?
15. Is Antonio here?
16. Came you from old Bellario?
17. How much unlike thou art to Portia!
18. Take leave of thy old master.
19. Where is my lady?
20. My mistress will before the break of day be here at Belmont.
21. Who comes with her?
22. That light we see is burning in my hall.

PART II—THE MEMBERS OF THE SENTENCE AND THE PARTS OF SPEECH

CHAPTER II

HOW THE SUBJECT GROWS

14. The Divisions of the Subject.—Our previous study of the sentence must have suggested that it does not stop growing when once it has divided into its two main branches, any more than a tree or a plant does. As the main limbs of the tree keep dividing into smaller branches, then into twigs and leaves, so does the sentence. The subject and the predicate divide and subdivide into clauses, phrases, and finally into words. We shall trace this division first in the subject.

If, on going to your desk, you should say to your neighbor, "A book is gone from my desk," he would probably ask you, "What kind of book was it?" And you would perhaps answer somewhat after this fashion: "My new copy of *Ivanhoe*, the one I showed you yesterday, bound in red." If you had said all this in the first place, your sentence would have been, "My new copy of *Ivanhoe*, bound in red, which I showed you yesterday, is gone from my desk." In the second sentence the subject has grown more definite, so that the hearer understands clearly, as he could hardly do from the word *book* alone, just what has been lost.

The subject, then, like the sentence as a whole, has two parts, and these parts have different offices. One part of the subject tells simply the class to which the person or thing represented by the subject belongs. Another part of the

subject tells more particularly what person or thing it is. For instance in the sentence, "My pencil is lost" the word *pencil* informs the person addressed to what class of things the lost object belongs. *Pencil* is its name. This distinguishes it from all other objects in the world that are not pencils. But there are a great many pencils in the world, and if the speaker wishes us to think of one particular pencil, he uses other words which will serve to distinguish the different kinds of pencils from one another, his pencil from the pencils that belong to other people, black pencils from those of other colors, new pencils from old, pencils with rubber erasers on the end from pencils without them.

15. The Noun and the Adjective.—That part of the subject which simply names, is called the NOUN branch or division of the subject; while that part which describes, or in any other way further defines the subject, is called the ADJECTIVE branch or division. For instance, if one says, "The new pencil that I thought I had lost was in my desk all the time," the word *pencil* names the subject in a general way, by mentioning the class of things to which it belongs, but one does not know which particular pencil is meant without the words *the new* and *that I thought I had lost.* In the sentence, "This last decision of the Supreme Court settles the question forever," the word *decision* indicates the general nature of the subject, but we should not know whose decision it is, or which particular decision among many, except for the words *this last* and *of the Supreme Court.* The NOUN, then, usually indicates a class of things, one particular member of which is indicated by the ADJECTIVE.

16. Common and Proper Nouns.—Those nouns which merely indicate the class to which the subject belongs, are called COMMON NOUNS, since like *pen, leaf, town,*

they apply indiscriminately to every member of an entire class of things. When, however, the class and the individual member of the class are both indicated by a single word, or single element of language, that element though still called a noun, rather than an adjective, has the duties of both noun and adjective to perform. When you say "Kipling has gone to South Africa," the word "Kipling" means both to you and to the person you address, not man simply, nor author simply—as would a common noun taken by itself—but one particular man, one particular author. Perhaps to you he is "The man who wrote the *Jungle Books*"; to your hearer, "The author of *The Seven Seas*"; but in either case, the word "Kipling" stands not only for the class "man," or "author," but also for an individual member of that class —the one who wrote the *Jungle Books* or *The Seven Seas.*

Such words, representing in themselves, without aid from any adjective element, a particular member of a certain class are called PROPER NOUNS. This particular member of a class, it should be noted, may be either a single individual or a particular group of individuals, as in the sentences, "The Argonauts set out to find the Golden Fleece," and "The Great Lakes are subject to violent storms," in which "the Argonauts" and "the Great Lakes" are proper nouns representing each a particular group of persons or things. A PROPER NOUN is then defined as a noun distinguishing the person or thing (or group of persons or things) from all other persons or things; while a COMMON NOUN is the name shared by all members of a class of persons or things.

A proper noun may be, instead of a single word, two or three or even a larger number of words, which are always used together as the name of some particular member of a certain class. If, for example, instead of "Kipling has gone to South Africa," one

should say "Rudyard Kipling has gone to South Africa," the subject as a whole would still be a proper noun. So in the sentences, "The Empress of China has abdicated the throne," "The United States of America is rapidly becoming a world-power," "*The Vicar of Wakefield* can not be appreciated by people with no sense of humor," each subject, though consisting of several words, is still a single element, or, as we say, "a unit" of language, since in common usage these words together stand for the name of a particular person, institution, nation, or book. Each of these subjects is, then, a proper noun.

Some names, originally proper, are occasionally used as common. Thus we say, "a Millet," "a Botticelli," "a Reynolds," indicating classes of pictures; "a Shirvan," "a Bokhara," "a Wilton," meaning certain classes of rugs or carpets; "a Stradivarius," suggesting a class of violins. Similarly such phrases as "the Venice of the North," "the Cicero of the Senate," "the Tennyson of American literature," imply a class of cities like Venice, of orators like Cicero, and of poets like Tennyson. In such cases the noun is written with a capital, as if it were a proper noun. When, however, a proper noun has been used for so long as a common noun that its original meaning is disregarded, it is written without a capital; thus, guinea, louis, napoleon, as pieces of money; china, calico, cashmere, as fabrics, and davenport as an article of household furniture.

17. Collective, Concrete, and Abstract Nouns.—Nouns which convey the idea of a group of people or things acting as one, for instance, the words *army, fleet, nation, family, party, class, audience, committee, jury, squadron, United States,* are called COLLECTIVE NOUNS. As the examples indicate, collective nouns, though usually common, may be proper.

Many nouns represent material things, which can be touched and handled, as *house, key, necklace.* These may be called CONCRETE NOUNS. Other nouns, however, represent qualities, actions, conditions, or ideas which are intangible, such as *whiteness, length, intelligence, chance, cour-*

tesy, splendor, departure, personality, definition, opportunity. These qualities or ideas are said to be separated by the mind from the concrete objects to which they belong (as whiteness from the house, length from the wall, splendor from the sunset), so that the nouns representing them are called *abstract,* from a Latin word meaning to draw away or separate.[1]

18. Personal Pronouns.—When one says, "You must contrive to send somebody," the word *you* both suggests a general class, the class of persons rather than things or animals, and exactly specifies one particular member of that class, that member whom the speaker addresses. In like manner, in the declaration, "I told my sister Philips so the other day," *I* points unmistakably to a single person, the one speaking. In the sentence, "It is really too distressing," *it* signifies a single object or occurrence previously named or pointed out. In "He keeps a man-servant, does he?" the word *he* with equal certainty signifies one particular individual who has been earlier named or indicated, not the speaker nor the person spoken to. In the sentences, "They were excessively sorry to go," "We must not make him desperate," the subjects seem to resemble proper nouns, in that they represent each in a single word or unit of language, both the class and the individual. *They* means several people, previously named or pointed out, *we* a similar group of people, of whom the speaker is one. In each of these cases a single word has, like the proper noun, indicated not only a class but an individual.

The word which thus represents in itself the entire subject, may serve either for a proper noun or for a common noun with its particularizing adjectives. And it does so serve whenever in intimate conversation the

[1] For further illustrations of abstract nouns, see §23, fine print.

speaker wishes to avoid the formality of the proper noun subject, or whenever the subject would otherwise be repeated several times in the same sentence or series of sentences. Thus Mrs. Bennet need not say, in speaking of herself, "Mrs. Bennet knew Mrs. Bennet would persuade you at last," nor Mr. Darcy, when he addresses Miss Bingley, "Will Miss Bingley give Mr. Darcy leave to defer Miss Bingley's raptures till Mr. Darcy writes again?" "I knew I should persuade you at last"[1] and "Will you give me leave to defer your raptures till I write again?"[1] are quite as intelligible to the hearer, and infinitely less cumbersome. And further, if Lydia has said, "Look here, I have bought this bonnet," she can go on with the remark, "I do not think it is very pretty,"[1] without raising any question in the hearer's mind as to what article she is speaking of.

In the first cases, note that the words *I* and *you* were used as equivalent to the proper nouns Mrs. Bennet, Miss Bingley, and Mr. Darcy, but in the last instance *it* serves in place of the common-noun-and-adjective subject *this bonnet.*

These familiar words *I, you, he, she, it, we,* and *they,* since they take the place either of a proper noun or of a common noun with the adjectives which particularize it, have received the name PRONOUN, which means for or instead of a noun. They are further known as PERSONAL PRONOUNS, all but *it* and sometimes *they* referring directly to some person or persons.

The name is perhaps not quite an exact one, for, as we have seen, the pronoun takes the place not of the noun branch of the subject alone, but of the entire subject, with its noun and its adjective branch. The only "pro-nouns," in the strict sense of the word, are those which stand for single-word sub-

[1] Jane Austen: *Pride and Prejudice.*

jects. Thus in the sentences, "Virtue is a force; it moves the world," and "Men admire genius; they worship power," *it* and *they* stand for the nouns *virtue* and *men*. However the name will serve to remind us of the substitute office of these words.

19. Demonstrative Pronouns.—In the sentences, "This is not what I expected of you," "That is clearly impossible," "These are all mine," "Those are yours," the words *this, that, these,* and *those* take the place of the noun-and-adjective subject, "This conduct," "That plan," "These books," or whatever noun may be understood. These words are called DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS. They take the place of a subject which consists of a common noun accompanied by an adjective, and serve simply to point out the thing which the subject represents.[1] *This* and *these* commonly refer to persons or things actually near the speaker or closely associated with him in some way; *that* and *those* to persons or things more remote, either in space or in thought.

20. Indefinite Pronouns.—In such sentences as "One could hear a pin drop," "Nobody believes the rumor," "Something must be done," the words *one, nobody,* and *something* are INDEFINITE PRONOUNS. Indefinite pronouns differ from personal and demonstrative pronouns in that they represent, not a definite person or thing, but an indefinite number of persons or things, or even no specific person or thing. The principal indefinite pronouns are *anybody, anyone, anything, everybody, everyone, everything, nobody, no one, nothing, somebody, some one, something, any one else, anybody else, every one else, everybody else, somebody else, someone else, one, none, aught, naught, somewhat.*

21. Interrogative Pronouns.—The pronouns *who, which,* and *what,* are used in asking questions,[2] thus: "But who

[1] For demonstrative adjectives, see §24. [2] See §10.

comes here?" "Which is he that killed the deer?" "What is the sport, monsieur, that the ladies have lost?" In each of these sentences[1] the subject is an INTERROGATIVE PRONOUN, used in place of the common noun and its modifying adjective,[2] as "What person?" "Which man?" "What sport?"[3]

The sentences quoted are direct questions, that is, questions using precisely the words of the speaker. Interrogative pronouns are, however, used also in indirect questions, that is, questions quoted from the original speaker and introduced by such statements as "She inquired," "They asked." Thus we have interrogative pronouns in such indirect questions as "She inquired who had called during her absence," "They asked what we meant."[4]

22. The Office of the Adjective.—In our previous study it has become evident that the adjective branch of the subject may be either a single word or a group of related words. In the proverb, "Red sunsets mean fair weather," the single word *red* is the adjective branch of the subject, while in the sentence,[5] "A sturdy lad from New Hampshire or Vermont, who in turn tries all the professions, who teams it, farms it, peddles, keeps a school, preaches, edits a newspaper, goes to Congress, buys a township, and so forth, in successive years, and always, like a cat, falls on his feet, is worth a hundred of these city dolls," the adjective branch is, besides *a* and *sturdy*, the entire group of words between *lad* and *is*. But whether one word or more, the adjective branch of the subject has always the same office, that of

[1] From *As You Like It.* [2] See §27. [3] For relative pronouns, see §58.

[4] It should be noted that, while we have discussed nouns and pronouns in this chapter with reference only to their most conspicuous office, that of naming the subject of the sentence, they occupy other positions and name other elements in the sentence. This office of noun and pronoun serves to introduce them to us as parts of speech, but further uses are treated in §§33 34, 42, 46, 47, 51.

[5] Emerson: *Self-Reliance.*

making the subject as a whole convey the idea, not merely of a class, but also of a certain individual, or group of individuals, in that class. The common noun only names the large class of things to which the subject belongs, leaving to the adjective the task of identifying the individual in the class. The adjective thus always tells us something more about the subject than we could learn from the noun branch alone; it changes in some way the general notion we have derived from the common noun taken by itself. For this reason the adjective is said to *modify* the meaning of the noun.

23. The Kinds of Adjectives: Qualifying Adjectives.—In order to distinguish the person or thing named by the subject from all others of the class, the adjective branch often describes the subject, that is, tells what sort of person or thing it is that the noun simply names. "A large spider-shaped lake, rimmed with a second growth of pines, lies in front of our camp," one may write, thus discriminating this particular lake from many others which are small or round, or oblong, or surrounded immediately by mountains, or by sand bluffs, or by primitive forests. When you say, "A ragged, dirty-faced, bright-eyed, impudent, little newsboy begged a penny of me this morning," your hearer knows exactly what kind of newsboy it was, as he could not know if you had said only, "A newsboy begged a penny of me this morning." The adjectives *ragged*, *dirty-faced*, *bright-eyed*, *impudent*, and *little* tell us some qualities or characteristics of the boy's appearance and manner, and hence are called QUALIFYING ADJECTIVES.

Adjectives which indicate the material of which an object is made, such as *wooden*, *granite*, *silk*, *golden*, are sometimes called adjectives of material, but fall properly under the head of qualifying or descriptive adjectives.

Many words which are commonly used as nouns may also be used as qualifying adjectives. Thus we may say, *a college friend, an Ohio man, a desk telephone, a railroad train, a business transaction, household goods, fire insurance, bargain counter.* But such combinations, when employed frequently tend to pass over into compound nouns, as *desk-telephone, fire-insurance, bargain-counter.*

Qualifying adjectives, it is evident, make more definite the meaning of any common noun, whether that noun be concrete, as in the examples used above, or abstract, as in the sentence, "The low, clear sweetness of her voice delighted us at once," and "A wild tossing of the elm-boughs against my window told me that the storm had come."

When the noun branch of the subject is an abstract noun, representing or suggesting an action,[1] its qualifying adjective may make it more definite by telling who or what performed the action. For instance, in the sentence, "The dripping of the rain from the eaves has a melancholy sound," the adjective branch *of the rain* tells what made or caused the dripping. In the sentence, "The noise of the children disturbed me," the group of words *of the children* tells who made or caused the noise. In the sentence. "The beauty of an autumn sunset passes all description," the words *of an autumn sunset* tell what it is that has produced upon the observer the effect termed "beauty." These subjects might be written each as a sentence, to bring out more clearly the action implied in the abstract noun, thus: "The rain drips from the eaves," "The children made a noise," "The autumn sunset was beautiful." From these sentences it is evident that the groups of words which serve as qualifying adjectives namely *of the rain, of the children,* and *of an autumn sunset* actually stand for the subjects of the verbs implied in the abstract nouns *dripping, noise,* and *beauty.* Hence they are called SUBJECTIVE ADJECTIVES.

Abstract nouns, such as those just cited, may also be defined or particularized by an adjective which tells toward what person or thing the action suggested by the noun is directed. The sentence, "The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom," refers,

[1] §17.

obviously, not to the fear which the Lord experiences, but to that which some one feels toward the Lord. Also in the sentence, "The bestowal of a gift brings pleasure to the giver," *of a gift* tells not who bestows but what he bestows. These adjectives, then, are called OBJECTIVE ADJECTIVES, since, like the direct object of a verb, they stand for the person or thing toward whom an action is directed.

24. Demonstrative Adjectives.—Instead of describing or characterizing the subject, the adjective may simply point it out or locate it, thus distinguishing it from all others belonging to the same class. *This hat, that hotel, the pencil I lost yesterday, the third door on the right-hand side, the man of whom I bought my writing-desk,* all these point out some one definite hat, hotel, pencil, door, or man. The adjective elements here do not tell the qualities or characteristics of the hat, the hotel, the pencil, the door, or the man, but simply point to them, as one would do with the finger. For this reason they are called DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES, from the Latin word *demonstrare,* meaning to point out.

25. Articles.—Among demonstrative adjectives are classed the ARTICLES, which consist of the two words *the* and *a* (or *an,* as it becomes before words beginning with a vowel). *The* serves simply to point out a certain person or thing. "The king" indicates a certain ruler, either that of the speaker's own country or one concerning whom he has just been speaking. "The courthouse" is that situated in the town in which the speaker lives, unless he has recently been speaking of some other town. Always the article "the" points out some specific person or thing in the class named by the noun. *A* or *an* is derived from the Old English word for "one," and signifies simply one, any one, of the class of persons or things named by the noun.

26. Numeral and Ordinal Adjectives.—In the group of demonstrative adjectives we shall find also those which

indicate a certain number of the persons or things named by the noun. Such sentences as, "Two cases of scarlet fever have been reported to the Board of Health," "Seven cows are missing from the herd this morning," "Thirty-five pupils in this school have been present every day in the current year," furnish examples of these adjectives. As the article *a* or *an* separates out from the class to which the entire subject belongs one, any one, of its members, the words *two, seven, thirty-five* separate out a specific number of that class. These NUMERAL ADJECTIVES, as they are called, belong to the demonstrative class, together with the ORDINAL ADJECTIVES, such as *first, fourteenth, twenty-first,* which distinguish one person or thing in a series by noting its position in the series. Ordinal adjectives may be found in the following sentences: "The first day of the week is called Sunday," "The fiftieth anniversary of my grandparents' wedding day will be celebrated by our family," "The fifteenth amendment to the constitution of the United States was carried against tremendous opposition."

27. Interrogative Adjectives.—Some adjectives, instead of stating definitely which member of a class the subject as a whole stands for, ask which member it is. These are called INTERROGATIVE ADJECTIVES. In the sentences, "Which Mr. Smith is president of the bank?" and "What plan has been agreed upon?" *which* and *what* are INTERROGATIVE ADJECTIVES.[1]

28. Possessive Adjectives.—Nouns and pronouns serve the purpose of adjectives in the sentence when used to discriminate the subject from all other members of the same class by telling us to whom or to what the subject belongs. "My chair is more comfortable than yours," "John's watch was a birthday present to him," "The President's house has

[1] For interrogative pronouns, see §21.

always been called 'the White House,'" are sentences whose subjects are thus discriminated. Such adjectives as *my*, *John's*, and *the President's* in these sentences, are called POSSESSIVES, or POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVES, because they tell us to whom or to what the chair, the watch, and the house in question belong, thus indicating what particular chair, what particular watch, and what particular house the subjects represent.

29. Appositives.—In the following sentences, "Goldsmith, the author of *The Deserted Village*, belonged to the famous group of Dr. Johnson's friends," "Paul, a servant of our Lord Jesus Christ, greets you," and "We, your petitioners, do humbly pray that relief may be granted us," the groups of words, *the author of The Deserted Village*, *a servant of our Lord Jesus Christ*, and *your petitioners* are commonly called APPOSITIVES, or NOUNS IN APPOSITION with the subjects, *Goldsmith*, *Paul*, and *we*. The word "appositive" means, by derivation, placed close to,[1] and these groups of words are indeed placed close to the subject in their respective sentences. But, more than this, each refers to the same person as does the subject, and explains more exactly than does the simple subject who is meant. It thus serves to define or to explain the subject. Goldsmith, that is, the Goldsmith who was the author of *The Deserted Village*, is the subject of the first sentence; Paul, that is, the Paul who is a servant of our Lord Jesus Christ, is the subject of the second; we, that is, the persons who are your petitioners, is the subject of the third. AN APPOSITIVE, then, is a noun indicating the same person or thing as does the noun it modifies, and defining further the meaning of this noun. Nouns or pronouns, then, may have the force of adjectives when used in apposition with other nouns or pronouns.

[1] Latin *positum*, placed, and *ad*, to, or near to.

30. Proper Adjectives.—Some adjectives are called PROPER ADJECTIVES because they have been derived from proper nouns,[1] as *Italian* from *Italy, Mohammedan* from *Mohammed* and *Spenserian* from *Spenser*. Their office in the sentence does not differ from that of common adjectives, such as we have previously discussed.

31. Summary.—As the subject grows it divides into the noun branch and the adjective branch. The noun simply names the subject; the adjective describes or further defines the subject.

The subject may be either a proper or a common noun. A proper noun is the name of a particular individual or of a particular group of individuals within a class. A common noun is the name of a class of persons or things. Common nouns representing material things which can be directly perceived by the senses, are called concrete nouns; those which represent qualities, actions, states, or other ideas, are called abstract nouns. Collective nouns convey the idea of a group of people or things acting as one.

A pronoun is a shorter and less formal equivalent for a proper noun or for a common noun with its modifying adjective. A personal pronoun represents the person or persons speaking, the person or persons spoken to, or the person or thing (or the persons or things) spoken of. A demonstrative pronoun takes the place of a common noun with its modifying demonstrative adjective, an interrogative pronoun that of a common noun and its modifying interrogative adjective. An indefinite pronoun represents an indefinite number of persons or things.

Qualifying adjectives distinguish a person or thing from all other members of its class by describing it, telling what sort of person or thing it is. Qualifying adjectives may

[1] See §16.

modify either concrete or abstract nouns. If abstract, they sometimes represent the agent of an action implied in the abstract noun, and are called subjective adjectives; or the object of the action, and are called objective adjectives. Demonstrative adjectives distinguish a person or thing by pointing it out, or locating its exact position in the class. The articles, and the numeral and ordinal adjectives, are demonstrative adjectives. Interrogative adjectives ask which member of its class the noun represents. Possessive adjectives distinguish the noun by stating to whom or to what the person or thing represented by it belongs. Appositives are nouns which serve as adjectives because, although indicating the same person or thing as do the nouns they modify, they further define or explain the meaning of these nouns. Proper adjectives are adjectives derived from proper nouns.

DEFINITIONS

A noun is a word which names either a class or an individual member of a class.

A proper noun is the name of a particular individual in a class.

A common noun is the name of a class of things.

A concrete noun is a common noun that represents some material thing.

An abstract noun is a common noun that represents a quality, an action, a state, or some other intangible idea.

A collective noun represents a group of people or things acting as one.

A pronoun is a word which is used in place of a noun.

A personal pronoun is a pronoun which represents (1) the person or persons speaking, (2) the person or persons spoken to, (3) the person or persons, the thing or things spoken of.

A demonstrative pronoun is a pronoun which simply points out the person or thing spoken of.

An indefinite pronoun is a pronoun which represents an indefinite number of persons or things.

An interrogative pronoun is a pronoun which is used in asking a question.

An adjective is a word which modifies the meaning of a noun.

A qualifying adjective is an adjective which describes.

A demonstrative adjective is an adjective which points out.

An interrogative adjective is an adjective which asks a question.

A possessive adjective is an adjective which indicates possession.

An appositive is a noun used to modify the meaning of another noun denoting the same person or thing.

A proper adjective is an adjective derived from a proper noun.

QUESTIONS

What are the two main divisions of the subject? What office has each in the sentence? How can you tell a proper noun from a common noun in a written sentence? How can the class of common nouns be subdivided? What is an abstract noun? A collective noun? What is a pronoun? How far is the name appropriate? Name as many pronouns as you can remember. Why do we need such words? Which one of the pronouns is written with a capital letter? What is a personal pronoun? A demonstrative pronoun? An indefinite pronoun? An interrogative pronoun? Why is each so named? Name three ways in which the adjective may particularize the meaning of the noun, giving an original

illustration of each way. What are the articles? What does each do in the sentence? What are possessives? What are appositives? What is the difference between them?

EXERCISES

A. Write three sentences about three noted persons, countries, cities, rivers, institutions, books, etc., which have been mentioned in any of your lessons lately, and let another pupil pick out each proper noun. Did you give any clue in the way you wrote these proper nouns?[1] Is there any other way in which he could distinguish them from the common nouns?

B. Write seven sentences in which the subject is a pronoun.

C. Write original sentences to illustrate each of the different kinds of adjectives mentioned in this chapter.

D. In each of the following sentences, name the noun branch and the adjective branch and note the various kinds of nouns, pronouns, and adjectives:

1. The endless, silent, slow-moving procession of black-robed monks impressed us deeply.
2. The approbation of others always pleases us.
3. My new red silk parasol has faded in the sun.
4. The constant dropping of water will wear away a stone.
5. The charge of the light brigade aroused the admiration of the world.
6. The paper in the third pigeon-hole to the left in my writing desk must be taken to the office at once.
7. The Christian religion is spreading rapidly throughout the world.
8. The faint, elusive scent of witch-hazel blossoms can never be forgotten.

[1] See Appendix IV, 1b.

9. The Spanish language may be easily acquired by one who has learned French.

10. The British colonies are loyal to the crown.

11. The fate of all wild animals befell Kroof.

12. The first volunteer from our state will attend the reunion.

13. The Armenian massacre excited the indignation of all civilized people.

14. How beautifully Julia has drawn that map!

15. She has worked hard.

16. The British Museum contains many precious manuscripts.

17. During the winter it is closed after six o'clock at night.

18. Those fine old trees that have stood opposite our house for thirty years have been cut down.

19. The breeding of a long line of courtly ancestors shows itself in his manners.

20. *The Taming of the Shrew* is seldom seen upon the stage.

21. Our family has never had a blot on its record.

22. We demand an investigation.

23. Young Lochinvar is come out of the west.[1]

24. The King of England visited Ireland a few weeks ago.

25. Joseph Addison died in 1719.

26. The British Empire will be plunged into war.

27. *Silas Marner* is one of my favorite books.

28. The Spenserian stanza contains nine lines.

29. This has already gone too far.

30. That makes no difference.

31. Who will ever know?

[1] Scott: *Marmion.*

32. A genuine antique Persian rug costs a great deal of money.

33. The handsome house on the corner belongs to Judge Grant's father.

34. The last general encampment of the Grand Army of the Republic took place in Washington.

E. Classify the nouns, the pronouns, and the adjectives in the following passages:[1]

1. Her smoothness,
Her very silence and her patience,
Speak to the people and they pity her.
And thou wilt show more bright and seem more virtuous
When she is gone. Then open not thy lips:
Firm and irrevocable is my doom
Which I have pass'd upon her; she is banished.

2. Let's away,
And get our jewels and our wealth together
Devise the fittest time and safest way
To hide us from pursuit that will be made
After my flight. Now go we in content
To liberty and not to banishment.

3. Under an oak, whose boughs were mossed with age
And high top bald with dry antiquity,
A wretched, ragged man, o'ergrown with hair,
Lay sleeping on his back; about his neck
A green and gilded snake had wreathed itself,
Who with her head nimble in threats approach'd
The opening of his mouth: but suddenly
Seeing Orlando, it unlink'd itself,

[1] From *As You Like It.*

And with indented glides did slip away
Into a bush.

4. Why, she defies me,
Like Turk to Christian: woman's gentle brain
Could not drop forth such giant rude invention,
Such Ethiope words, blacker in their effect
Than in their countenance. Will you hear the letter?

5. Who might be your mother,
That you insult, exult, and all at once,
Over the wretched?

6. What fool is this?

7. The wretched animal heav'd forth such groans
That their discharge did stretch his leathern coat
Almost to bursting, and the big round tears
Cours'd one another down his innocent nose
In piteous chase: and thus the hairy fool,
Much marked of the melancholy Jaques,
Stood on th' extremest edge of the swift brook
Augmenting it with tears.

CHAPTER III

HOW THE PREDICATE GROWS

32. The Divisions of the Predicate.—So far we have thought of the predicate as a unit, an undivided element in the sentence. We have seen merely that it represents the way in which some person or thing acts; or that it tells us something about the person or thing represented by the subject. But as soon as we scrutinize the predicate more closely we begin to see that it, like the subject, falls into two fairly distinct parts, the one representing an act in its most general form, the other certain modifying influences upon the act or certain particular conditions under which it takes place. Among these particular circumstances of the act must be reckoned the person or thing acted upon, the person or thing to or for whom the action is performed, the time, place and manner of the action.

33. The Verb and the Object.—In the sentences, "Benedict Arnold betrayed his country," "Gilbert White wrote *The Natural History of Selborne*," "A band of conspirators killed Julius Cæsar," the words representing the action in its most general aspect, namely, *betrayed*, *wrote*, and *killed*, are readily distinguished from the objects of the action, namely, *his country*, *The Natural History of Selborne*, and *Julius Cæsar*. Those words which convey an idea of the act itself are called VERBS; those which indicate the object toward which the action is directed are known as the DIRECT OBJECTS of these verbs.

The DIRECT OBJECT, like the subject, of any verb may consist of a noun branch and an adjective branch. Thus

in the sentence, "The old woman found a little crooked sixpence," the direct object separates into the noun *sixpence* and the adjectives *a*, *little*, and *crooked*.

Verbs meaning to appoint, call, choose, elect, make, name, often have two objects associated with them, as in the sentences, "The President appointed Mr. Curtis minister to Spain," "We shall name her Mary," "The Century Club elected Tom Tracy president," "They made William of Orange King of Holland." In the first sentence the two objects are *Mr. Curtis* and *minister to Spain;* in the second, *her* and *Mary;* in the third, *Tom Tracy* and *President;* in the fourth, *William of Orange* and *King of Holland.* It will be noted that one of these objects always indicates the person who has been appointed, called, chosen, elected or named, while the other indicates the office, position, or name which has been given this person. The latter object is sometimes distinguished from the former by the name COMPLEMENTARY OBJECT.

34. The Indirect Object.—With certain verbs the direct object is associated with an INDIRECT OBJECT, as it is called. These verbs are chiefly such as represent the actions of giving, bequeathing, bringing, telling, showing, refusing, forgiving, sending, lending, and the like. Such verbs imply not only a thing which is given, sent, told, etc., but a person to whom it is given or sent or told. Thus in the sentences, "The Common Council gave the boys' fire brigade a vote of thanks," "I thrice presented him a kingly crown,"[1] "Moreover, he hath left you all his walks,"[1] besides the direct objects, *a vote of thanks, a kingly crown,* and *all his walks,* we have the words, *the boys' fire brigade, him,* and *you,* indicating the persons to or for whom the actions in question are performed. These words are called the

[1] From *Julius Cæsar.*

INDIRECT OBJECTS of the verbs *gave, presented,* and *hath left.*

35. The Adverb.—Under the general term ADVERB, meaning next to, adjoining, or belonging to, the verb, may be considered various ways of defining more closely the meaning of a verb.[1] Adverbs may specify, among other things, the manner, the time, place, and degree of an action, or may indirectly define that action by defining more exactly the meaning of another adverb.

36. Adverbs of Manner.—In the sentence, "Sohrab and Rustum fought fiercely," the predicate is made up of two parts; one which indicates the action of the subject in the largest, most general way, namely, the verb *fought;* and another, the word *fiercely,* which makes this action more definite, showing more particularly just how Sohrab and Rustum fought. The latter may be called the adverb branch of the predicate, or, more specifically, an ADVERB OF MANNER.

For simplicity we may, perhaps, say that the verb in the predicate represents the action of the subject, while the adverb of manner represents the manner in which that action is performed.[2]

37. Adverbs of Time and Place.—But the action of the subject may be made more definite not only by noting the manner of the action, but also by remarking the time or the place of the action. For instance, "Comes Cæsar to the capitol to-morrow?" "Brought you Cæsar home?" "He fell down in the market-place," "I have been up this hour, awake all night," "Cry it about the streets," "I dreamt to-night that I did feast with Cæsar," "When it is lighted,

[1] For the adverb as defining the meaning of an adjective or of another adverb, see §39.

[2] A more detailed treatment of adverb elements may be found under the heads of The Phrase and The Clause, chapters IV, V.

come and call me here," are sentences[1] in each of which the action indicated by the verb is made specific by ADVERBS OF TIME OR OF PLACE. *To-morrow, this hour, all night, to-night, when it is lighted,* answer the questions, *When?* or *How long? To the capitol, home, in the market-place, about the streets, here,* fix definitely the place of the actions in question. In such sentences[1] as "They shouted thrice," "He put it by once," "He offered it the third time," the words *thrice, once,* and *the third time* are also ADVERBS OF TIME, indicating the frequency of the action.

38. Adverbs of Affirmation, Uncertainty, and Negation.— When one hears the sentences, "I shall certainly accept the invitation," "Perhaps I shall accept the invitation," "I shall not accept the invitation," one becomes aware that the meaning of the verb *shall accept* is modified in each case by the accompanying words, so that in the first sentence it is intensified, in the second much weakened, and in the third directly contradicted. The negative adverbs, *not, never, by no means, not at all, in no case,* are employed for this last purpose, while such adverbs as *perhaps, possibly, probably, perchance,* serve to render doubtful the action of the verb with which they are associated, and such adverbs as *certainly, doubtless, undoubtedly, unquestionably, undeniably, assuredly,* serve to enforce or emphasize it.

39. Adverbs of Degree.—The meaning of the verb is sometimes limited or particularized by an ADVERB OF DEGREE, as in the sentences, "I do fear it much," "Little did we think it was our last visit to the old home," and "The general was slightly wounded in the last engagement." An adverb of degree may also define the meaning of another adverb which itself defines the meaning of the verb. Thus in the sentence, "The widow carries on her husband's business very

[1] Taken from *Julius Cæsar.*

successfully," the adverb *successfully* defines her manner of carrying on the business as successful, while the adverb *very* specifies the degree of her success. Similarly in the sentence, "You ride extremely well," the adverb *well* notes your manner of riding as good, while the adverb *extremely* specifies the degree of excellence attributed by the speaker to your manner of riding.

A qualifying or descriptive adjective is often in like manner defined as to its meaning by an adverb which fixes the degree of its quality. When one speaks of "a very quick run," "a slightly imperious tone," "a delightfully cool spot," "an incredibly careless blunder," the qualities of quickness, imperiousness, coolness, carelessness, are evidently affirmed of the objects in some rather unusual or peculiar degree. The run is not only quick, but quick to a degree above the ordinary; the accent is imperious, but to a degree rather below that suggested by the adjective alone; the spot is not only cool, but cool to such a degree that it is delightful; the blunder is careless to a degree that is unbelievable. The adverbs *very, slightly, delightfully, incredibly,* etc., are thus classed with ADVERBS OF DEGREE.

40. The Interrogative Adverbs.—In interrogative sentences[1] the adverb is often interrogative. The manner, the cause, the time or the place of the action may be questioned by the speaker, as in the following sentences:[2] "Whither are you going?" "Where do you dwell?" "Why dost thou stay?" "Wherefore rise you now?" "Why are you breathless and why stare you so?" "How died my master?" *When, where, why, whence, whither, wherefore,* and *how* are among the common INTERROGATIVE ADVERBS.

41. The Kinds of Verbs: Transitive and Intransitive

[1] §10.
[2] From *Julius Cæsar.*

Verbs.—Although the verb in the predicate stands in general for an action of some sort, there are so many different types and varieties of action that we must recognize different classes of verbs as well. In the following sentences[1] there are verbs of at least two different kinds: "Hail, Cæsar! read this schedule," "I'll fetch him presently," "Censure me in your wisdom," "We'll burn the house of Brutus," "Great Cæsar fell," "O how you weep!" "I dwell by the Capitol," "Bring me word, boy, if thy lord look well." The first four of these sentences contain verbs which represent an action as passing over from the person or thing acting, to some person or thing receiving the action. Thus the action represented by the verbs *read, fetch, censure,* and *will burn* does not end with these verbs, but passes over to the persons or things indicated by the words *this schedule, him, me,* and *the house of Brutus.* These verbs are called TRANSITIVE, from a Latin word meaning "to pass over" or "across." The last four of the sentences quoted contain verbs which represent an action which seems not to pass beyond these verbs to any definite person or thing. *Fell, weep, dwell,* and *look* in these sentences suggest actions complete in themselves, and are called INTRANSITIVE VERBS.

It is evident that the same verb may be transitive in one sentence and intransitive in another. Thus in the sentence "The wind blew fiercely," the verb *blew* is an intransitive verb, while in the sentence "The wind blew my umbrella inside out," it is a transitive verb. In like manner the intransitive verbs *sang, wrote, can see, talk,* in the sentences, "The women sang like linnets in the pauses of the wind,"[2] "Sir Walter Scott wrote rapidly and continuously," "I can see very well without glasses," "We talk incessantly whenever

[1] From *Julius Cæsar.*

[2] Tennyson: *The Princess.*

we are together," become transitive in such sentences as "She sang Scotch ballads," "Sir Walter Scott wrote the Waverley Novels," "I can see a small cloud on the horizon," and "We talk nonsense for hours at a time."

On the other hand, some verbs are always intransitive, as the verbs *be, become, seem, go;* and some almost always transitive, as *bring, accept, conquer, kill, worship.*[1]

42. Reflexive Verbs.—In some sentences we find transitive verbs completed by a direct object which is identical with the subject of the sentence. Thus when the statement is made, "You wronged yourself to write in such a case,"[2] the person toward whom the action is directed is the person named by the subject. The action of the subject returns upon the subject. The verb thus completed is called a REFLEXIVE VERB; that is, one whose action is reflected or turned back upon the subject performing it. In each of the following sentences the verb is reflexive: "Tom's mother blamed herself for his wrong-doing," "We congratulated ourselves that it was no worse," "The insurgents had cut themselves off from all hope of mercy," "For Brutus only overcame himself."

43. The Copula.—The *copula*[3] including all forms of the verb *to be,*—e.g., *am, is, are, was, were, will be, shall be, have been, had been,*—suggests action less apparently than do the verbs we have previously considered. It seems sometimes to indicate the subject's mere existence, as in the sentences,

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[1] Any English verb may be used intransitively in sentences where the object of the verb is vague and general or is a matter of little consequence. Examples are, "Kill, burn, destroy!" "He does nothing but fetch and carry," "Does he wish to buy or to sell?"

[2] From *Julius Cæsar.*

[3] The name copula suggests by its derivation the idea of this form of the verb being only a coupler or a connecting word in the sentence. This, however, is a misleading idea, due, doubtless, to the obscuring in the copula of the idea of action characteristic of the verb as such.

"Great men *were;* small men *are,*" and "Whatever *is,* is right."[1] Sometimes it asserts the presence of the subject in a certain place, as in the sentences,[2] "Here is the will," "He and Lepidus are at Cæsar's house." Even the ideas of existence and of presence in a certain place doubtless involve some element of action; but this element is less apparent than in such sentences as "Poor soul! his eyes are red as fire with weeping,"[2] "They that have done this deed are honorable,"[2] "Brutus is an honorable man,"[2] "They were villains, murderers,"[2] "This Cæsar was a tyrant,"[2] "These are gracious drops;"[2] here the copula indicates that the subject possesses certain qualities or belongs to certain classes.[3] The copula when it is thus used is sometimes called a verb of incomplete predication, since it does not, as in the sentence, "Great men *were;* small men *are,*" convey the entire idea of the predicate, but requires a noun or an adjective to complete its meaning.[3] The sentence, "Whatever *is,* is right,"[4] shows the copula used first as a verb of complete predication, and second as a verb of incomplete predication. The verbs *appear, become, feel, look, seem,* are also used as verbs of incomplete predication in such sentences as "She appeared tranquil," "We became anxious," "I feel comfortable," "You look cool," "Everybody seemed happy."

44. Active and Passive Verbs.—It has been noted[5] that the subject of a sentence may represent either the agent or the recipient of the action. Thus the sentence, "Wellington defeated Napoleon," indicates an action performed by the subject, while the sentence "Napoleon was defeated by Wellington," indicates an action received or suffered by

[1] Pope: *Essay on Man.*
[2] From *Julius Cæsar.*
[3] See §§47 and 48.
[4] See Appendix II.
[5] §8.

the subject. The verb *defeated* is said to be an ACTIVE (or acting) VERB, while *was defeated* is a PASSIVE (enduring or receiving) VERB.

Intransitive verbs are not passive, though any transitive verb may, in certain sentences, become passive. When a transitive verb changes from the active to the passive use in a sentence, its direct object usually becomes the subject and its subject becomes part of an adverb element in the predicate, as in the sentence, "Napoleon was defeated by Wellington."[1] If, however, the sentence contained originally an indirect as well as a direct object, as in the sentence, "I gave him due warning," this indirect object may become the subject of the passive verb, while the direct object is retained, thus: "He was given due warning." In such a sentence the noun *warning* is known as a *retained object*.[2]

45. Impersonal Verbs.—When we say "It is snowing," "It has grown very cold," "It looks like rain," the verbs *is snowing, has grown,* and *looks* represent in these sentences the action, not of a definite person or thing, but of the weather, the outside world, some vague, undefined impersonal agent. For this reason verbs thus used are commonly called IMPERSONAL VERBS. They are distinguished from other verbs, not by any differences in form, but by their reference to a state of things brought about by this undefined spirit of the outdoor world to which we attribute the natural phenomena of heat and cold, rain and snow, etc. The subject of these verbs is always the pronoun *it*.

46. The Complements of Intransitive Verbs: The Cognate Object.—Some verbs, usually intransitive, such as *sleep, live, die, run, fight,* sometimes seem to become tran-

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[1] For further discussion of active and passive verbs, see §121, and Appendix III.

[2] See Kellner's *Historical Outlines of English Syntax*, pp. 225, 226.

sitive and take a direct object. This occurs when their meaning is completed by a noun which names the result of the action they stand for, as in the sentences, "She had lived a quiet life in the country," "Let me die the death of the righteous," "Let us run with patience the race that is set before us," "I have fought the good fight." These nouns are sometimes called COGNATE OBJECTS (the word "cognate" meaning *closely related to*), since they are in meaning closely allied to the verbs with which they are associated to form the predicate.

47. The Noun Complement.—When some one asserts, "This Cæsar was a tyrant," the word *tyrant*, while naming a certain class of men and thus performing the office of a noun, yet completes the meaning of the intransitive verb *is*.[1] Such a word is therefore called either a NOUN COMPLEMENT, or a PREDICATE NOUN. So in the sentence, "They were villains," the word *villain* though a noun, completes the meaning of the verb *is*, and hence may be called a noun complement. In like manner, the meaning of the intransitive verb, *has become*, in the sentences, "Jim has become a famous athlete," "Old Tom Featherstone has become a town charge," "Such a course has now become an urgent necessity," is defined by the noun complements, *a famous athlete*, *a town charge*, and *an urgent necessity*.

Verbs meaning to appoint, call, choose, elect, make, nominate, etc., when passive,[2] are completed by the noun complement or complementary object alone, as in the sentences, "Joseph Choate was appointed ambassador to England," "Fraley was elected alderman in the fifth ward."

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[1] See §43.

[2] For the completing of these verbs, when active, see §33.

48. The Adjective Complement.—In the sentences, "They all looked excited," "The house smelled musty," "The music sounds sweet," "Grape-fruit tastes slightly bitter," the verbs *looked, smelled, sounds, tastes,* are all incomplete without the words which follow them. One asks at once, "How did they look?" "How did the house smell?" "How does the music sound?" "How does grape-fruit taste?" In each of these cases the meaning of the verb has been completed by an adjective, which is called an ADJECTIVE COMPLEMENT, or a PREDICATE ADJECTIVE.

49. Summary.—The verb in the predicate represents the action of the subject, or what is asserted about the subject. The direct object represents the thing toward which or the person toward whom the action of the verb is directed. With the direct object is sometimes associated an indirect object, which names the person to or for whom the action of the verb is performed. The adverb modifies the meaning of verbs by suggesting ideas of manner, of time, of place, of distance, etc. It modifies adjectives and other adverbs by suggesting ideas of degree. If the adverb asks a question as to the time, place, or manner of an action it is known as an interrogative adverb.

Transitive verbs represent an action which is directed toward or performed upon a particular person or thing. Intransitive verbs represent an action not directed toward or performed upon a particular person or thing. Some verbs are always transitive, some almost always intransitive, while some are either transitive or intransitive, according to the sentence in which they occur. A transitive verb becomes reflexive when it is completed by a direct object identical in meaning with its subject. A verb usually intransitive is sometimes completed by what is called a cognate object; that is, a noun closely allied with it in meaning. An in-

transitive verb may be completed in meaning by a noun or an adjective complement. The noun complement is a noun which, with or without adjective modifiers, completes the meaning of an intransitive verb. The adjective complement is an adjective which completes the meaning of an intransitive verb.

Among intransitive verbs is the verb *be* called the copula, representing existence or state of being rather than action. Active verbs represent an action performed by the person or thing named by the subject. Passive verbs represent such an action performed upon or suffered by the person or thing named by the subject. Impersonal verbs represent the action, not of a definite person or thing, but of some vague, undefined, impersonal agent, such as the weather, the outside world, things in general.

DEFINITIONS

A verb is a word that affirms action or existence.

A transitive verb represents an action directed toward a person or thing.

An intransitive verb represents an action complete in itself.

An active verb represents an action as performed by the person or thing named by the subject.

A passive verb represents an action performed upon or suffered by the person or thing named by the subject.

A reflexive verb is a transitive verb which is completed by a direct object identical with its subject in meaning.

The copula is the verb *be*, which represents existence or state of being rather than action.

An impersonal verb represents the action of an undefined or impersonal agent.

The direct object of a verb represents the person or thing directly receiving the action of the verb.

The indirect object represents the person (rarely the thing) to or for whom the action is performed.

A cognate object is an object closely allied in meaning to the verb, and used with a verb that is otherwise intransitive.

A noun complement or predicate nominative is a noun which completes the meaning of an intransitive verb.

An adjective complement or predicate adjective is an adjective which completes the meaning of an intransitive verb.

QUESTIONS

What are the chief divisions of the predicate? What can an adverb tell us about the action of the verb whose meaning it modifies? Name several kinds of adverbs. What is an indirect object? Distinguish between the direct and the indirect objects of a verb. Name some verbs which are followed by an indirect object. Define interrogative adverbs. Name them. What verbs take two direct objects? What is the difference between these objects?

What different kinds of verbs are there? What is the copula? Illustrate its various uses in the sentence. What is the essential difference between transitive and intransitive verbs? Is a transitive verb always transitive? An intransitive verb always intransitive? Defend both answers by citing original examples. What is a reflexive verb? Why is it so called? What is a cognate object? Why is it so called? Is a verb which takes a cognate object transitive or intransitive? How many kinds of complements has the intransitive verb? What are they? What is a noun complement? What is an adjective complement? Is the copula a transitive or an intransitive verb?

What is the difference between active and passive verbs? What changes may take place in a sentence when an active verb becomes passive? Why are impersonal verbs so named?

EXERCISES

A. Classify each verb in the following sentences as transitive or intransitive, reflexive, active or passive, impersonal. Note any verb usually intransitive which is here used transitively. Whenever possible, make a sentence using intransitively each verb which is transitive in these sentences, and transitively each verb which is here intransitive. Change each sentence containing a passive verb into one containing the same verb in its active form. In what way have you changed the meaning of the sentence? In what ways its form? Name the kind of complement found in the predicate of each sentence which has a complement:

1. It rains and the wind is never weary.[1]
2. The child has grown thin since I saw her.
3. That sideboard is a genuine Chippendale.
4. The enemy charged, broke, and fled, and we pursued them to the edge of their camp.
5. Into the valley of death
   Rode the six hundred.[2]
6. Does it taste good?
7. He looked distressed when I spoke of Tom's failure.
8. My brother is a very good amateur photographer.
9. The proposition certainly sounds attractive.
10. It looks rainy to-night.
11. My bicycle is extremely high-geared.
12. John reads German very easily.
13. One of my old classmates has become a successful play-writer.
14. The plan proved quite impracticable.
15. It will turn cold before morning.
16. Ellen was elected president of her club.

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[1] Longfellow: *The Rainy Day.*
[2] Tennyson: *The Charge of the Light Brigade.*

17. He was called the King of the Cannibal Islands.

18. I ran a race with John and he beat me.

19. It gathered for a storm as Janet stood at the window watching for her father's return.

20. It is a beauteous evening, calm and free.[1]

21. He is despised and rejected of men.[2]

22. You had been warned often enough.

23. War was immediately declared.

24. I was sleeping the sleep of the just.

25. The women and children were spared by the victorious troops, but every man was slaughtered.

26. It blew, and then it rained, and then it hailed, and finally it settled down to a steady snowstorm.

27. A runaway horse caused a good deal of excitement last night as it began to grow dark. He started on West Main Street, having managed somehow to untie himself from the post to which his owner had hitched him in front of Barker's butcher shop. He ran a lively race toward the river, and was finally caught near the silk mills, having cut himself seriously on a barbed wire fence. In his course he ran down a policeman, started another runaway, and broke the wagon to bits.

28. He is a notably bad writer.

29. It has become slightly warmer since morning.

30. An absolutely disinterested decision seems almost impossible.

31. Thou hast taught me thy arts of destruction; for this I thank thee, and now take heed to thy steps; the red man is thy foe. When thou goest forth by day, my bullet shall whistle past thee; when thou liest down by night, my knife is at thy throat. The noonday sun shall not discover thy

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[1] Wordsworth: *Sonnet.*

[2] Bible.

enemy, and the darkness of midnight shall not protect thy rest. Thou shalt plant in terror, and I will reap in blood; thou shalt sow the earth with corn, and I will strew it with ashes; thou shalt go forth with the sickle, and I will follow after with the scalping knife; thou shalt build, and I will burn—till the white man or the Indian perish from the land. Go thy way for this time in safety—but, remember, stranger, there is eternal war between thee and me.

B. Draw one line under the subject of each sentence below,[1] two under the verb of the predicate, three under the object, and four under each adverb, indirect object or complement in the predicate, or show these divisions of each sentence in any other way you choose:

1. I had seen the captain.
2. We sail to-morrow.
3. You will give up this wretched practice at once.
4. That we shall soon know.
5. Down went Pew with a cry.
6. Almost at the same time a pistol-shot came from the hedge side.
7. Finally he took the wrong turn.
8. The blind man again issued his commands.
9. Give me the key.
10. This sudden noise startled us shockingly.
11. My heart was beating finely when we two set forth.
12. With that he gave me a twitch.
13. I'll get you one glass.
14. Then all of a sudden a shrill voice broke forth out of the darkness.
15. He looked somewhat paler.
16. Rapidly I described to him my adventures.
17. A tall tree was the principal mark.

[1] From Stevenson's *Treasure Island.*

18. He was a seaman.
19. This is good sea-cloth.
20. Six they were and six are we.
21. He passed me a double-barrelled pistol.
22. He was brave.
23. The floor was sand.
24. What brings you here?
25. Ben Gunn was on deck alone.
26. Two were sent out for firewood.
27. I was put sentry at the door.
28. These poor lads have chosen me captain.
29. Gray told me nothing and I asked him nothing.
30. We will offer you a choice.

C. Classify the verbs, the objects, the complements and the adverbs in the following sentences:[1]

1. Tell me your counsels; I will not disclose 'em.
2. Here will I stand till Cæsar pass along.
3. Bring him with triumph home unto his house
4. Give him a statue with his ancestors.
5. On the Lupercal
   I thrice presented him a kingly crown.
6. Come, Antony, and young Octavius, come.
7. Revenge yourselves alone on Cassius.
8. Answer every man directly.
9. Speak your griefs softly.
10. Who is here so vile that will not love his country?
11. I tell you that which you yourselves do know;
    Show you sweet Cæsar's wounds.

[1] From *Julius Cæsar.*

CHAPTER IV

THE PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE

50. The Office of the Phrase.—In discussing the adjective branch of the subject and the adverb branch of the predicate,[1] we have noted that they consist often of groups of words, as in the sentences, "I saw your cousin in the park at three o'clock," "The bite of a rattlesnake is usually fatal," "The meeting of the trustees has been postponed until to-morrow." Here the groups of words *in the park, at three o'clock, until to-morrow,* serve as adverbs in the predicate of each sentence, while the groups of words *of a rattlesnake* and *of the trustees* serve as adjectives in the subject. Such groups of words are called PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES. If a prepositional phrase defines or modifies the meaning of a noun, it does service as an adjective and hence is called an ADJECTIVE PHRASE. If it completes the meaning of a verb by specifying the manner, the time, the place, or any other accompanying circumstance of the action, it performs the work of an adverb and therefore is called an ADVERBIAL or ADVERB PHRASE.

Since the adjective phrase may fill any place that the adjective occupies, it is often an adjective complement,[2] as in the sentences, "I am all out of breath," "Mary was on her dignity at once," and "In my opinion the scheme is without a flaw." The phrases are here equivalent to the predicate adjectives *breathless, dignified,* and *flawless.*

An adjective phrase may serve as a possessive adjective,[3] *e.g.* in the sentence, "The house of John Kingsbury is nearly finished"; or as a qualifying adjective,[4] *e.g.* in the sentences, "Jones is a man of wealth," "A girl with yellow hair and brown eyes sat next to

[1] Chapters 2 and 3. [2] §48. [3] §28. [4] §23.

me," and "It is a case without precedent." An adjective phrase is sometimes a limiting or demonstrative adjective, as in the sentences, "My house in Garden Street is for sale," "A steerage passenger from Bremen brought the plague," "American history since 1865 has been little concerned with war."

An adjective phrase may also serve in place of a subjective adjective, as in the sentence, "The first appearance of the distinguished member from Ohio was not at all noteworthy." Or it may be an objective adjective, as in the sentence, "The love of money is the root of evil." The phrase *of money* will at once be recognized as equivalent to an objective adjective. The phrase *of evil* might be considered a possessive adjective, but a more precise interpretation would understand the sentence as meaning "The love of money is that which causes or brings forth evil." Thus each of the two phrases is equivalent to an objective adjective.

51. The Elements of the Phrase.—When we attempt to analyze into their elements these adjective and adverbial phrases we see that each contains a noun or a pronoun, the noun often being modified by an adjective. Thus the phrase *in the park* contains the common noun *park* limited by the article *the;* the phrase *of the distinguished member from Ohio* contains the common noun *member* limited by the article *the* and further modified by the adjective *distinguished* and the adjective phrase *from Ohio.*

But besides the noun with its adjective modifiers, when the latter are present, each phrase contains a small word, such as *in, of, at, by, with.* This word has an important office in the phrase.

52. The Preposition.—It will be observed in each case that the word which introduces the phrase serves to define somewhat closely the exact method by which the phrase modifies the meaning of the noun or verb to which it is related. For instance, the word *in,* as it occurs in the sentence, "I shall work in the library until two o'clock,"

suggests at once that the meaning of the verb *shall work* is modified by mentioning the place of the action; the word *until* indicates, on the other hand, that the phrase which it introduces defines the meaning of the verb by specifying the duration of the action it represents. In the sentence, "We are going abroad on account of my father's health," the words *on account of* show that the meaning of the verb *are going* is modified by a statement of the cause of the action. The word *of* at the beginning of a phrase indicates usually that the phrase is equivalent to a possessive adjective, sometimes that it is equivalent to a subjective or an objective adjective.

The small words which indicate the way in which adjective phrases and adverb phrases define the meaning of the nouns or verbs which they modify are called PREPOSITIONS, the name being derived from a Latin verb which means "to place before," and having reference to the position of these words at the beginning of the phrase, before the noun and its adjective modifiers.

There are only about fifty important prepositions in the English language. The most common prepositions are the following: *about, above, according to, across, after, against, along, among, around, at, because of, before, behind, below, beside, between, beyond, by, down, during, except, for, from, in, into, in front of, instead of, of, off, on, on account of, out of, over, past, round, since, through, till, to, toward, under, until, up, upon, with, without, within.*

It will be evident, from a reading of this list, that a preposition, like all the other parts of speech we know, may consist of more than one word. *On this side of,* is, in effect, a preposition, though it may be further analyzed into the adverbial phrase *on this side,* consisting of the preposition *on,* the noun *side* with its adjective modifier

this, and the phrase *of the river*—or whatever may be the noun constituent of the second phrase. In like manner each of the groups of words *on account of, because of* (equivalent to *by reason of*), *instead of* (*in the place of*), may be further reduced to its elements or regarded as a somewhat complex preposition.

53. Summary.—A prepositional phrase is a group of words which performs either in subject or in predicate the office of an adjective or an adverb, and consists of a preposition and a noun or a pronoun, often modified by an adjective. A preposition introduces a phrase and indicates in what manner the phrase defines or particularizes the noun or the verb which it modifies.

DEFINITIONS

A preposition is a word used to introduce a phrase and to show its relation to the noun or verb which it modifies.

A prepositional phrase is a group of words consisting of a preposition and a noun or pronoun with or without modifiers, and having the office of an adjective or of an adverb.

QUESTIONS

What does a phrase do in the sentence? Give original illustrations of as many uses of the phrase as you know. What does a phrase consist of? What is a preposition? What does it do in the sentence?

EXERCISES

A. State the office of each phrase in each of the following sentences:

1. I chuckled to myself at the joke.

2. Before night the friend of my school days had set out on his journey.

3. My villa by the sea has been rented for the whole summer.

4. The thought of our past years in me doth breed perpetual benediction.[1]

5. The bell in the church steeple was taken down for repairs.

6. They pitched their tent on the bank above the river.

7. We came to Bellefont for the sake of the good schools.

8. After dinner, before the open fire in the library, we recalled the details of our adventure in the Black Forest.

9. I shall go to the city by the first train in the morning.

10. Without real intention of unkindness, she had imparted to the child an extreme fear of the dark.

11. In such a night
Stood Dido with a willow in her hand
Upon the wild sea banks.[2]

12. Bring them, I pray thee, with imagin'd speed,
Unto the tranect, to the common ferry
Which trades to Venice.[2]

13. It is enthroned in the hearts of kings.[2]

B. Show the office of each of the prepositions in the following passages:

1. You could see, at once, that there was the stir of a large family within it. A huge load of oakwood was passing through the gateway, towards the outbuildings in the rear; the fat cook—or probably it might be the housekeeper—stood at the side-door, bargaining for some turkeys and poultry which a countryman had brought for sale. Now and then a maid-servant, neatly dressed, and now the shining sable face of a slave, might be seen bustling across the windows in the lower part of the house. At an open window of

[1] Wordsworth: *Intimations of Immortality.*
[2] *The Merchant of Venice.*

a room in the second story, hanging over some pots of beautiful and delicate flowers—exotics, but which had never known a more genial sunshine than that of the New England autumn—was the figure of a young lady, an exotic, like the flowers, and beautiful and delicate as they.[1]

2. For she stood at the head of a deep green valley, carved from out the mountains in a perfect oval, with a fence of sheer rock standing around it, eighty feet or a hundred high; from whose brink black wooded hills swept up to the sky-line. By her side a little river glided out from under ground with a soft dark babble, unawares of daylight; then growing brighter, lapsed away, and fell into the valley. There, as it ran down the meadow, alders stood on either marge, and grass was blading out upon it, and yellow tufts of rushes gathered, looking at the hurry. But farther down, on either bank, were covered houses, built of stone, square and roughly cornered, set as if the brook were meant to be the street between them.[2]

3. The old-fashioned low wainscoting went round the rooms and up the staircase with carved balusters and shadowy angles, landing half-way up at a broad window, with a swallow's nest below the sill, and the blossom of an old pear-tree showing across it in late April, against the blue, below which the perfumed juice of fallen fruit in autumn was so fresh. At the next turning came the closet, which held on its deep shelves the best china. Little angel faces, and reedy flutings, stood out round the fireplace of the children's rooms. And on the top of the house above the large attic, where the white mice ran in the twilight—an infinite, unexplored wonderland of childish treasures, glass beads, empty scent-bottles, still sweet, thrum of colored

[1] Hawthorne: *The House of the Seven Gables.*
[2] Blackmore: *Lorna Doone.*

silks, among its lumber—a flat space of roof, railed round, gave a view of the neighboring steeples; for the house, as I said, stood near a great city, which sent up heavenwards, over the twisting weathervanes, not seldom, its beds of rolling clouds and smoke, touched with storm or sunshine.[1]

[1] Pater: *The Child in the House.*

CHAPTER V

THE CLAUSE

54. The Clause and the Sentence.—In the sentences, "The new literature which was springing up around her found constant welcome in her Court," and "When she retreated her defeat had all the grace of victory,"[1] we have two groups of words each of which has a subject and a predicate, but neither of which makes a complete statement. *Which was springing up around her* is not in itself a sentence, nor is *when she retreated.* Each has, to be sure, its subject and its predicate, but each only helps to make the statement which the whole sentence represents. Such a group of words is called a CLAUSE. It constitutes part of a sentence, as do the single words and the prepositional phrases which we have considered, but differs from them in having a subject and a predicate of its own.

Clauses may sometimes make complete statements, as in Cæsar's "I came, I saw, I conquered," but they are still parts of the sentence in which they occur and help to define its meaning. Clauses are either SUBORDINATE or COÖRDINATE.

55. Subordinate Clauses.—A clause which has in the sentence the office of an adverb, an adjective, or a noun, is called a SUBORDINATE or a DEPENDENT clause. It is so named because it is inferior in importance to some other member of the sentence. In the first two sentences quoted above, the clauses *which was springing up around her* and *when she retreated* are subordinate clauses, each inferior in

[1] Green: *Short History of the English People.*

importance to the principal statement, *The new literature found constant welcome in her Court,* or *Her defeat had all the grace of victory.*

56. The Kinds of Subordinate Clauses: Adverb Clauses. —An ADVERB CLAUSE, like any adverb, may show the time at which the action represented by the principal verb of the sentence took place, as in the sentences, "When the tale has reached the height of mystery and emotion, a change ensues," "As she spun, she sung what seemed to be a charm,"[1] and "Milton became blind before he had reached the age of forty-five years." The clauses, *when the tale has reached the height of mystery and emotion, as she spun,* and *before he had reached the age of forty-five years,* all serve to show when the action of the verb in the main sentence took place.

An adverb clause may also show the place at which the action represented by the verb of the main sentence occurs, as in the sentence, "We shall go camping where we went last summer." Or it may show the cause or purpose of the action represented by the verb of the main sentence, as in "Since you urge me, I will stay," "Will is going to college because his father wishes it," and "I am going in order that I may be able to earn my own living by teaching."

The result of the action represented by the verb of the main sentence may also be indicated by an adverb clause. Thus one may say, "The judge was out of town when we called, so that we could not deliver your message," or "There was a strong feeling in the convention that the reform candidate should be endorsed; therefore the following resolution was adopted."

An adverb clause may tell upon what conditions the action of the verb of the main sentence will take place, as

[1] Scott: *Guy Mannering.*

in the sentences, "If they fall, the one will lift up his fellow,"[1] "Except ye become as little children, ye shall not enter into the kingdom of heaven,"[1] and "Grievances can not be redressed unless they are known." It may also name the condition in spite of which the action takes place. This is the case in the sentences, "Although I have no confidence in the man, I believe that in this case he is telling the truth," "Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him,"[1] "Notwithstanding that I have been deeply wronged in this matter, I accept your apologies."

57. Adjective Clauses.—An ADJECTIVE CLAUSE serves, like an adjective, to make particular the somewhat general meaning of a noun. In the sentence, "The cab-driver who brought me here charged an exorbitant fare," the clause *who brought me here* discriminates this particular cab-driver from all others of his class. So in the sentences, "The stone which the builders refused is become the head stone of the corner,"[1] and "This is the house that Jack built," the clauses define or limit the meaning of the common nouns *stone* and *house*.

58. Noun Clauses.—A subordinate clause may serve not only as an adverb or an adjective, but as a noun. It acts the part of a noun in such sentences as "What he proposes is quite impracticable," "Any one can see that John has improved," and "I understand perfectly what this stanza means." The clause *what he proposes* is the subject of the first sentence; *that John has improved* is the direct object of the verb *can see* in the second sentence; *what this stanza means* is the object of the verb *understand* in the third sentence. In each case a noun could be substituted for the clause without essentially changing the meaning of the sentence, thus: "His proposition is quite impracticable,"

[1] Bible.

"Any one can see the improvement in John," and "I understand perfectly the meaning of this stanza."

59. Subordinate Conjunctions in Adverb Clauses.—In adverb clauses, the introductory word shows how the clause serves to define the meaning of the verb in the main sentence.

Thus the words *when, while, before, after, as soon as, until, since,* when used to introduce a clause, show when the action of the verb in the main sentence took place, and are called CONJUNCTIONS OF TIME. The word *where,* when used to introduce a clause, shows the place at which the action of the verb in the main sentence occurred, and is called a CONJUNCTION OF PLACE. The words *since, for, because, in order that, so that,* show the reasons why the action represented by the verb of the main sentence takes place, and are called CONJUNCTIONS OF CAUSE or OF PURPOSE. The words *therefore* and *so that* (in such a sentence as "The horse cast a shoe, so that we had to go to the blacksmith's at once") state the result of the action represented by the verb in the main sentence, and are called CONJUNCTIONS OF RESULT. The words *if, unless,* and *except* show the condition upon which the action of the verb in the main sentence takes place, and are called CONJUNCTIONS OF CONDITION. The words *though, although, notwithstanding,* and others indicate the condition in spite of which the action takes place, and are called CONJUNCTIONS OF CONCESSION.

60. Relative Pronouns in Adjective Clauses.—In adjective clauses the introductory words, *who, which, that,* perform a double service. Considered with reference to the sentence as a whole, they indicate that the clauses they introduce serve in the sentence as adjectives; that is, that they particularize the meaning of some noun. Considered with reference to

the clauses themselves, they act as subjects, the word *who* always standing for the name of a person, the word *which* for the name of a thing, and the word *that* for either a person or a thing. In the illustrative sentences quoted above,[1] *who* serves as subject (*brought me here* being the predicate), *which* is the direct object of the verb *rejected*, and *that* of the verb *built*. These three words, *who, which*, and *that*, while serving as subordinate conjunctions to introduce adjective clauses, also stand for nouns, and hence are called CONJUNCTIVE OR RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

61. Subordinate Conjunctions in Noun Clauses.—The introductory word *what*, it should be noted, is in noun clauses equivalent to *that* (*thing*) *which;* hence the noun clause introduced by it may be resolved into a noun with an adjective clause modifying it. Thus, "What he proposes is quite impracticable" becomes "The plan which he proposes is quite impracticable." "He never approved what he had not been the first to suggest," is only a briefer and more general way of saying "He never approved a course (or a procedure, or an idea) which he had not been the first to suggest."

62. Simple and Complex Sentences.—Any sentence which contains a subordinate clause is called a COMPLEX SENTENCE, being thus distinguished from SIMPLE SENTENCES whose members are only words or phrases. Thus, "The animal was a broken-down plow-horse," is a simple sentence, while "The animal [that] he bestrode was a broken-down plow-horse that had outlived almost everything but his viciousness,"[2] is a complex sentence.

63. Coördinate Clauses.—COÖRDINATE CLAUSES are clauses of principal and equal importance in the sentence, no

[1] §57.

[2] Irving: *The Legend of Sleepy Hollow.*

one clause being dependent upon another. Like the subordinate clause, the coördinate clause consists of subject and predicate, but it differs from the subordinate clause in being associated to form the sentence with some other clause or clauses of equal and primary importance. The following sentence consists of five coördinate clauses: "He entertained royally; he horsed himself well; he gave dances; he was a power in the land; and he behaved as such."[1]

64. Compound Sentences are sentences which contain two or more coördinate clauses. These clauses may be, when separated from one another, simple sentences, as, "Napoleon commanded and the world obeyed," or one may be a simple and one a complex sentence, as, "If he had been trapped, he was to be excused; no one could have suspected the hoax"; or both may be complex sentences, as, "When the rains came, the whole country was revived, and tourists who had been sitting disconsolately in the hotels decided to stay a week longer after all."

65. Coördinate Words and Phrases.—In many sentences which are not themselves compound we shall note a compound member. The subject may be compound, as in the sentence, "At the same moment the doctor, Gray, and Ben Gunn joined us." Now if the sentence meant that the doctor joined us, and Gray and Ben Gunn, each independently of the other two, the sentence would be a compound sentence, with some of the words left out for the sake of brevity. But it is evident from the context that the three men joined the other group together, so that the subject only is compound, not the whole sentence. It would be possible to substitute for the names such a single subject as *the three men*.

The case is much the same when a child says, "I want a

[1] Kipling: *Cupid's Arrows.*

piece of bread and butter," meaning not at all that he wants a piece of bread and then wants a piece of butter, but that he wants a piece of bread and of butter together. The noun in the adjective phrase, *of bread and butter*, is thus a double or compound noun. A verb also may be double, as when one says, "Come and see me." In saying this, one can not mean, "Come to my house and when you are there see me," but rather, "Call upon me" or "Make me a visit." The verb is here compound, but not the sentence.

Phrases may also be compound. Thus in the sentences,[1] "It was decided that we must desert them on the island, to the huge glee of Ben Gunn and with the strong approval of Gray," and "Dreadful stories they were; about hanging, and walking the plank, and storms at sea," the phrases *to the huge glee of Ben Gunn* and *with the strong approval of Gray* both modify the verb *was decided*. The phrases *about hanging*, [about] *walking the plank*, and [about] *storms at sea*, modify the noun *stories*. These are, then, compound phrases.

66. Single Coördinate Conjunctions. — The compound sentences, "I glanced over my shoulder and my heart jumped against my ribs,"[1] and "The wind was blowing gently and the billows heaved unbroken," consist each of two coördinate clauses. Between these two clauses in each sentence stands the word *and*, called a CONJUNCTION or connecting word. It not only connects the two clauses, but also shows a certain relation between them. This relation is one of agreement or coöperation. The two clauses do not mean the same thing, but one added to the other makes up the meaning of the sentence as a whole. The conjunction *and* always suggests this addition of one

[1] Stevenson: *Treasure Island*.

circumstance to another, until the entire idea of the sentence is gained. Thus the sentence, "I turned to run, struck violently against one person, recoiled, and ran full into the arms of a second,"[1] consists of four different clauses, the conjunction *and* being understood by the reader as connecting each with the one following it, though expressed only between the last two. The conjunction here conveys plainly the idea that all these several actions contribute to the action represented by the sentence as a whole, namely, the failure of my attempt to escape.

The conjunction *but* indicates precisely the opposite relation, that of opposition or antagonism between the ideas represented by the two clauses. In the sentence, "I would like to go abroad with my family, but I am not willing to drop out of my class," the conjunction expresses the wavering of the speaker's mind between the two sides of the state of things which is before him. On the one hand is the desire to go abroad with his family, on the other his disinclination to accept the consequences of so doing. The conjunction *but*, then, seems to indicate a feeling of doubt or of struggle in the mind of the speaker between the two situations represented in the completed sentence as a whole.

Another conjunction, *or*, indicates the speaker's recognition of two conflicting situations, one of which can exist only if the other does not. When one says, for instance, "The man is an impostor or I am no judge of character," the word *or* implies that of the two situations thus indicated only one can exist. "If the man is an impostor, I am a judge of character, but if he is not, then I am no judge of character." When one says similarly, "You can pay for the tickets now or let me send you a bill for them," the statement is of two possible situations, one of which, but one only, can become actual.

[1] Stevenson: *Treasure Island.*

67. Double or Correlative Coördinate Conjunctions.—Coördinate conjunctions sometimes are emphasized by the use of supplementary words. Thus *and* is intensified by *both* when used in conjunction with it, *or* by *either, nor* by *neither, but* by *not only,* as in the sentences, "He was both brother and father to me," "Either you must leave the room or I shall," "Neither Jane nor Ida can come today," "Not only what a man does, but (also) what he is, measures his value to society." These intensified and paired conjunctions are called CORRELATIVE CONJUNCTIONS.

68. Summary.—A clause is a group of words constituting part of a sentence, but having a subject and predicate of its own. A subordinate clause is a clause inferior in importance to some other member of the sentence or dependent upon some other member of the sentence. It serves in the sentence as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb. An adverb clause may show the time, place, manner, cause (or purpose) or condition of the action of a verb. An adjective clause may describe, limit, or otherwise define the meaning of a noun. A noun clause may serve as subject, object, or noun complement of a verb.

Subordinate conjunctions introduce subordinate clauses, defining their relation to the sentence. Adverb clauses are introduced by conjunctions of time, place, cause (or purpose), result, condition, or concession. Adjective clauses are introduced by conjunctions which serve a double purpose, indicating the relation of the clause to the sentence as a whole and acting as subject, object, or noun complement of the verb in the clause itself. These conjunctions are called conjunctive or relative pronouns.

A simple sentence is one which contains one principal statement, without dependent clauses. A complex sentence

is a sentence with one principal statement and one or more dependent clauses.

Coördinate clauses are clauses of principal and equal rank in the sentence. A compound sentence is a sentence which contains two or more coördinate clauses. Coördinate words and phrases are words and phrases of equal importance and identical office in the sentence. Such coördinate words and phrases may constitute a compound subject or a compound predicate or a compound element of any sort in either subject or predicate. Coördinate conjunctions serve not only to connect coördinate clauses, phrases or words, but to show the relation between them. Some coordinate conjunctions are intensified by the use of supplementary words called correlative conjunctions.

DEFINITIONS

A clause is a member of a sentence having a subject and predicate of its own.

A subordinate clause is a clause which has in the sentence the office of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

A noun clause is a clause that has the office of a noun.

An adjective clause is a clause that has the office of an adjective.

An adverb clause is a clause that has the office of an adverb.

A simple sentence is one that contains one principal statement, without subordinate clauses.

A complex sentence is a sentence with one principal statement and one or more subordinate clauses.

Coördinate clauses are clauses of principal and equal rank in the sentence.

A compound sentence is a sentence which contains two or more coördinate clauses.

Coördinate words and phrases are words and phrases of equal importance and identical office in the sentence.

A conjunction is a word used to connect clauses, phrases, or words.

A subordinate conjunction is a conjunction used to introduce a subordinate clause.

A relative pronoun is a pronoun used like a subordinate conjunction to introduce an adjective clause.

Coördinate conjunctions are conjunctions used to connect coördinate clauses, phrases, or words.

Correlative conjunctions are paired conjunctions used to connect coördinate clauses, phrases, or words.

QUESTIONS

What is a clause? A subordinate clause? What is the word that introduces the clause called? What purpose does it serve in the sentence as a whole? How many kinds of subordinate clauses are there? What does each kind do in the sentence? What are conjunctive or relative pronouns? What two uses have they? Name at least five ways in which an adverb clause can define the meaning of the verb in the main sentence. What is a simple sentence? A complex sentence? A compound sentence? What are coördinate clauses?

Distinguish carefully between coördinate and subordinate clauses; between complex and compound sentences. Name some coördinate conjunctions. What does each show about the clauses it connects? What are correlative conjunctions? Name some of them. If a conjunction is omitted between clauses, what supplies its place in the written sentence? How can one know when the whole sentence is compound or only one part of it?

EXERCISES

A. Find in one of your compositions or in some book you are reading a sentence containing an adverb clause, one containing an adjective clause, and one containing a noun clause.

B. Find a complex sentence containing a noun clause, one containing an adjective clause, and one containing an adverb clause. Find several sentences illustrating the various uses of adverb clauses.

C. Name the kind of clause found in each of the following sentences and explain its office in the sentence, tell whether each sentence is simple, complex, or compound:

1. That Benedict Arnold was a traitor is a fact in American history.
2. I shall never forget the kindness that you have showed me.
3. What I do thou knowest not now.[1]
4. If you have lost your knife, I will buy you another.
5. Although he had been desperately wounded, the brave captain still rode at the head of his company.
6. Unless reinforcements arrive soon, the garrison must surrender.
7. There was no longer any hope of relief; therefore capitulation was determined upon.
8. A conference of the generals was held in order that the terms of surrender might be fixed.
9. We fought because we believed in the justice of our cause.
10. While men slept an enemy came and sowed tares.[1]
11. The man who never makes mistakes never makes anything.
12. Yea, though I walk through the valley of the shadow of death, I will fear no evil.[1]

[1] Bible.

13. Our old gardener, Jacob Smith, came to see us yesterday.

14. That thou shalt see the difference of our spirits,
I pardon thee thy life before thou ask it.[1]

15. He is well paid that is well satisfied.[1]

16. I pray you, know me when we meet again.[1]

17. When the moon shone we did not see the candle.[1]

18. That light we see is burning in my hall.[1]

19. When duty whispers low "Thou must,"
The youth replies "I can."[2]

D. In the following sentences pick out the coördinate elements. State what each conjunction indicates as to the relation between the elements it connects.

1. I make my own dresses, but my mother trims my hats.

2. Time cuts down all,
Both great and small.[3]

3. I ran fast, but could not catch Ray and Tom.

4. Will you lend me pen and ink?

5. You can either mow the lot now or wait until next week.

6. Render unto Cæsar the things that are Cæsar's, but unto God the things that are God's.[4]

7. Ye can not serve God and mammon.[4]

8. Neither a borrower nor a lender be.[5]

9. Thy rod and thy staff comfort me.[4]

10. Richard was not only surprised but indignant.

11. Without any knowledge of English, with no influential friends and with only ten dollars in his pocket, this young German landed in New York.

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[1] *The Merchant of Venice.*
[2] Emerson: *Voluntaries.*
[3] *New England Primer.*
[4] Bible.
[5] *Hamlet.*

12. Mansfield rests there, and the second William Pitt and Fox and Grattan and Canning and Wilberforce.[1]

13. The parts and signs of goodness are many. If a man be gracious and courteous to strangers, it shows that he is a citizen of the world, and that his heart is no island cut off from other lands, but a continent that joins to them. If he easily pardons and remits offenses, it shows that his mind is planted above injuries. If he be thankful for small benefits, it shows that he weighs men's minds, and not their trash. But, above all, if he have St. Paul's perfection, that he would wish to be anathema from Christ for the salvation of his brethren, it shows much of a divine nature, and a kind of conformity with Christ himself.[2]

14. A wise son maketh a glad father; but a foolish son is the heaviness of his mother.[3]

15. Not failure but low aim is crime.[4]

E. In the following passage[5] note the kinds of sentences, distinguish between coördinate and subordinate clauses, note the compound members of the clauses, and explain the use of each coördinate and subordinate conjunction.

The whole schooner had been overhauled; six berths had been made astern, out of what had been the after-part of the main hold; and this set of cabins was only joined to the galley and forecastle by a sparred passage on the port side. It had been originally meant that the captain, Mr. Arrow, Hunter, Joyce, the doctor, and the squire were to occupy these six berths. Now Redruth and I were to get two of them, and Mr. Arrow and the captain were to sleep on deck in the companion, which had been enlarged on each

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[1] Macaulay: *Chatham* (second speech).
[2] Bacon: *Of Goodness.*
[3] Bible.
[4] Lowell: *For an Autograph.*
[5] Stevenson: *Treasure Island.*

side till you might almost have called it a round-house. Very low it was still, of course; but there was room to swing two hammocks, and even the mate seemed pleased with the arrangement. Even he, perhaps, had been doubtful as to the crew, but that is only guess; for, as you shall hear, we had not long the benefit of his opinion.

We were all hard at work, changing the powder and the berths, when the last man or two, and Long John along with them, came off in a shore-boat.

CHAPTER VI

THE EIGHT PARTS OF SPEECH

69. Definitions.—The PARTS OF SPEECH, as ordinarily distinguished, number eight. They are the NOUN, the VERB, the ADJECTIVE, the ADVERB, the PRONOUN, the PREPOSITION, the CONJUNCTION, and the INTERJECTION. The first of the parts of speech which we have considered is the INTERJECTION, or single-word exclamation, which expresses the speaker's feeling about a given state of things, rather than a definite idea or thought about it. It represents a state of things somewhat vaguely felt, not analyzed into its constituent elements or aspects.

When this analysis does take place, the SUBJECT and the PREDICATE appear as elements in the sentence, the SUBJECT as representing the person or thing about whom or which the sentence tells us something, the PREDICATE representing what the sentence tells us about the person or thing named by the subject. The subject and the predicate are not parts of speech, but when analyzed into their elements they disclose all the parts of speech except the interjection. A NOUN is a word which names either a class or an individual member of a class. A VERB is a word which affirms action or existence. An ADJECTIVE is a word which modifies the meaning of a noun. An ADVERB is a word which modifies the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. A PRONOUN is a word which, for brevity or to avoid repetition, may be used in the place of a noun. A PREPOSITION is a word introducing a prepositional phrase, and indicating how this phrase defines the

meaning of the word it modifies. A CONJUNCTION is a connecting word showing the relation of clauses, phrases, and words either to one another or to the entire sentence.

70. Sentence Analysis.—Sentence analysis is the process of naming the subject and predicate and the divisions of each until the office of every word in the sentence has been explained. For example the sentence, "Care killed a cat," may be analyzed by naming *care* as the subject, *killed a cat* as the predicate, *killed* as the verb in the predicate, *cat* as its direct object, and *a* as an article modifying *cat.*

DEFINITIONS.

The Parts of Speech are the kinds of words used in sentences, such as noun, pronoun, verb, etc.

Sentence Analysis is the process of separating a sentence into its elements.

QUESTIONS

Define each of the parts of speech. What is sentence analysis?

EXERCISES

Analyze each of the following sentences. State whether each is simple, complex, or compound.

1. The Blessed Damosel leaned out
   From the gold bar of Heaven.[1]
2. Her hair that lay along her back
   Was yellow like ripe corn.[1]
3. Every man that striveth for the mastery is temperate in all things.[2]
4. Her presence imparted an indescribable grace and faint witchery to the whole edifice.[3]

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[1] Rossetti: *The Blessed Damosel.*
[2] Bible.
[3] Hawthorne: *The House of the Seven Gables.*

5. The generation which reared that memorial of him has disappeared.[1]

6. A book may be amusing with numerous errors, or it may be very dull without a single absurdity.[2]

7. When the hounds of spring are on winter's traces,
The mother of months, in meadow or plain,
Fills the shadows and windy places
With lisp of leaves and ripple of rain.[3]

8. A soft answer turneth away wrath; but grievous words stir up anger.[4]

9. Mr. Andrew D. White, our new minister to Germany, will sail to-day on the *Friedrich der Grosse.*

10. This night, before the cock crow, thou shalt deny me thrice.[4]

11. Rough are the steps . . . . .
Men climb to power by; slippery those with gold
Down which they stumble to eternal mock.[5]

12. Where is it now, the glory and the dream?[6]

13. The stag at eve had drunk his fill
Where danced the moon on Monan's rill.[7]

14. He prayeth best who loveth best
All things, both great and small.[8]

15. Hast thou named all the birds without a gun?
Loved the wild rose and left it on its stalk?[9]

16. To each they offer gifts after his will,
Bread, kingdoms, stars, and sky, that holds them all.[10]

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[1] Macaulay: *Chatham* (second essay).
[2] Goldsmith: *The Vicar of Wakefield* (advertisement).
[3] Swinburne: *Atalanta in Calydon.*
[4] Bible.
[5] Lowell: *The Washers of the Shroud.*
[6] Wordsworth: *Intimations of Immortality.*
[7] Scott: *The Lady of the Lake.*
[8] Coleridge: *The Ancient Mariner.*
[9] Emerson: *Forbearance.* [10] Emerson: *Days.*

17. I, in my pleachèd garden, watched their pomp,
Forgot my morning wishes, hastily
Took a few herbs and apples, and the Day
Turned and departed, silent.[1]

18. Work while it is called to-day, for the night cometh, wherein no man can work.[2]

19. No one is so accursed by fate,
No one so utterly desolate,
But some heart, though unknown,
Responds unto his own.[3]

20. To him who in the love of Nature holds
Communion with her visible forms, she speaks
A various language.[4]

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[1] Emerson: *Days.*
[2] Bible.
[3] Longfellow: *Endymion.*
[4] Bryant: *Thanatopsis.*

PART III

THE MODIFICATIONS OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH

CHAPTER VII

THE DECLENSION OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

71. Inflection.—We have found that the meaning of nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs may be made more definite by the use of modifying words, phrases, or clauses. But this is not the only way in which the meaning of these words may be modified. A change in the form of the word itself, without the use of any modifying words, may indicate certain changes in meaning. Thus when the form of the word *shepherd* changes to *shepherdess,* we know that the meaning has also changed, the one form indicating a male and the other a female herder of sheep. In like manner we may use the form *talked* of the verb *talk* to show that the action thus represented took place in past, not in present, time; and we may speak of a certain oriental rug as the *handsomest* one in the collection, the form of the adjective indicating a degree of beauty quite different from that attributed to the rug if it were pronounced by the speaker to be simply *handsome.*

These and similar changes in the form of the principal parts of speech we are now to study. We shall find fewer of these changes in modern English than existed in the Anglo-Saxon, the Greek, or the Latin language, from each of which, in some degree, our modern speech has been derived. In the Greek language, for example, the word

naus, meaning ship, had no less than ten different forms corresponding to slight differences in the meaning or office of the word in the sentence. The Old English or Anglo-Saxon word *scip*, with the same meaning, had six forms. In modern English the word *ship* has but four forms: *ship, ships, ship's, ships'*. Furthermore, in our modern speech some inflections tend to disappear. For instance, one form of the verb, called the subjunctive mood, which shows that the action represented by the verb did not actually take place, but was only thought of by the speaker as possible, has almost gone out of our common speech, although protests are frequently made by precise writers against permitting it to be lost from the language.

We must, then, study the different forms of the principal parts of speech in English as having arisen from corresponding differences in meaning, and as tending to pass out of the language when the differences in meaning for which they stand cease to be recognized. These forms, moreover, are not arbitrary and without significance, but may be traced, like the modifying words, phrases, or clauses which we have previously studied, back to the idea of the sentence as a whole.

The process by which any part of speech is modified in form to indicate different meanings or functions in the sentence is called INFLECTION—the word meaning by derivation simply "bending," and thus any change in form. The inflection of verbs is called CONJUGATION, that of nouns and pronouns DECLENSION, that of adjectives and adverbs COMPARISON. We shall discuss each variety of inflection in turn, beginning with declension.

72. Number: The Singular and the Plural Number in Nouns.—When one hears or reads the words, "The old oaken bucket that hangs in the well," the adjective modi-

fiers of the common noun *bucket* have discriminated in his mind a particular bucket from all others of its class. If, however, we should consider merely the noun *bucket*, apart from its adjective modifiers, could it tell anything more about the subject of the sentence than that it belongs to the class of things called "buckets"? Only this: we know when we hear or see the word *bucket* in any sentence that it refers to one member of the class only—not to two, or ten, or a thousand. Moreover, even if the noun *musicians* were separated from the rest of the sentence, "Many great musicians lived to be old men," we should know that it represented not one member of the class of musicians, but two or more members. The word *men* in the same sentence assures us, also, that it stands for more than one member of the class it names.

When a noun stands for only one member of a class, it is said to be of the SINGULAR NUMBER; when the same noun stands for more than one member of its class, to be of the PLURAL NUMBER. Thus the word *bucket* in the first sentence quoted is a noun of the singular number; the words *musicians* and *men* in the second sentence are nouns of the plural number.

73. The Regular Form of the Plural.—In most cases a noun, when it refers to only one member of its class, has no *s* at the end of it, but adds an *s* when it refers to more than one member of the class. Thus we have the nouns *tree, table, friend, temper,* in the singular number, and *trees, tables, friends, tempers,* in the plural number.

74. Irregular Forms of the Plural: Nouns Ending in an s Sound.—When the singular form of any noun already ends in an *s*, or a similar sound, as *ss, ch, sh, x, z,* the addition of *s* for the plural would produce a word in some cases difficult to pronounce (as *marchs, dishs, axs*), in other

cases impossible to distinguish by the sound from the singular form (as *gass, grasss, topazs*). Such nouns, therefore, form their plurals by adding to the singular not *s* merely, but *es,* thus making another syllable. So, instead of the plural forms in *s* written above, we have *gases, grasses, matches, dishes, axes, topazes.*

75. Nouns Ending in f or fe.—Nouns of Anglo-Saxon origin whose singular form ends in *f* or *fe,* form their plurals by changing *f* to *v* and adding *s* or *es* (the *e* not pronounced). A list of nouns thus forming their plurals follows:

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

All other nouns whose singular ends in an *f* sound form their plurals in the regular fashion by adding *s,* with the exception of the nouns *staff* and *wharf,* which form their plurals either regularly by adding *s,* or irregularly in *ves.* Thus the plural of *wharf* may be either *wharfs* or *wharves;* the plural of *staff* either *staffs* or *staves,* usually with a different meaning. One would say, "The generals rode up attended by their staffs"; but "The old men stood, leaning heavily on their staves."

76. Nouns Ending in y, Preceded by a Consonant.—Nouns whose singular form ends in the letter *y* preceded by a consonant, change the *y* to *ie* when *s* is added to form the plural. Thus the plural forms of the words, *city, fairy, destiny,* are *cities, fairies, destinies.* Words like *soliloquy* and *obloquy* form their plurals in this way (*soliloquies, obloquies*), *qu* being equivalent to a consonant. All nouns whose singular form ends in *y* preceded by a vowel, as *joy, play, valley,* make their plurals regularly by adding *s.*

77. Nouns Ending in o.—Nouns whose final letter in the singular is *o*, usually add *s* to form the plural. Some of the commonest nouns ending in *o*, however, add *es* for the plural. Note the following lists of plurals of both classes:

(*a*) By adding *s*.

banjos	*grottos*	*provisos*
cameos	*halos*	*sopranos*
cantos	*mementos*	*solos*
chromos	*mosquitos*	*trios*
contraltos	*octavos*	*tyros*
dominos	*pianos*	*virtuosos*
dynamos	*porticos*	

(*b*) By adding *es*.

buffaloes	*heroes*	*potatoes*
cargoes	*innuendoes*	*tomatoes*
desperadoes	*negroes*	*volcanoes*

78. Letters, Figures, and Signs.—When letters, figures, or signs are used as nouns, they become plural by the addition of *s* to the singular form, but this *s* is usually separated from the letter, figure, or sign by an apostrophe, as *p*'*s* and *q*'*s*, 5's and 7's, +'*s* and —'*s*.

79. Some Nouns of Anglo-Saxon Origin.—In the Old English or Anglo-Saxon language, one way of indicating the plural number was by adding the syllable *en* to the singular form of the noun; another way, (applying especially to nouns consisting of one syllable), was by changing the vowel found in the singular form. Both these methods of making the plural are still used in modern English for a few nouns whose plurals were thus formed in the older language. For instance:

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
brother	*brethren*[1]	*louse*	*lice*
child	*children*	*mouse*	*mice*
ox	*oxen*	*man*	*men*

[1] Used in a religious sense, *brothers* being the ordinary plural.

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
foot	*feet*	*tooth*	*teeth*
goose	*geese*	*woman*	*women*

80. Foreign Nouns with Foreign Plurals.—The following nouns derived from foreign languages, still form their plurals according to the fashion of the languages whence they were derived.

Singular	Plural
alumna	*alumnæ*
nebula	*nebulæ*
alumnus	*alumni*
focus	*foci*
radius	*radii*
bacterium	*bacteria*
stratum	*strata*
datum	*data*
matrix	*matrices*
phenomenon	*phenomena*
analysis	*analyses*
antithesis	*antitheses*
axis	*axes*
basis	*bases*
crisis	*crises*
ellipsis	*ellipses*
oasis	*oases*
hypothesis	*hypotheses*
parenthesis	*parentheses*
thesis	*theses*

81. Foreign Nouns with Both Foreign and English Plurals.—Nouns of foreign origin which have been for some time used as English words often have two plurals, one foreign, the other English, for example:

Singular	Foreign Form	English Form
apex	*apices*	*apexes*
appendix	*appendices*	*appendixes*
automaton	*automata*	*automatons*

Singular	Foreign Form	English Form
beau	*beaux*	*beaus*
bureau	*bureaux* (becoming rare)	*bureaus*
cherub	*cherubim*	*cherubs*
curriculum	*curricula*	*curriculums*
dilettante	*dilettanti*	*dilettantes*
formula	*formulæ*	*formulas*
genus	*genera*	*genuses* (rare)
index	*indices*	*indexes*
libretto	*libretti*	*librettos*
madam	*mesdames*	*madams*
mademoiselle	*mesdemoiselles*	*mademoiselles*
monsieur	*messieurs*	*messrs.*
portmanteau	*portmanteaux*	*portmanteaus*
seraph	*seraphim*	*seraphs*
tableau	*tableaux*	*tableaus*
virtuoso	*virtuosi*	*virtuosos*

82. Nouns with Two Plurals of Different Meanings.— Sometimes nouns have two plurals with different meanings. The following are examples·

brother	*brothers* (by birth)
	brethren (by association, as in a religious organization)
cloth	*cloths* (of different kinds)
	clothes (garments)
die	*dies* (for stamping)
	dice (for playing)
fish	*fishes* (separate individuals)
	fish (taken collectively)
genius	*geniuses* (persons of extraordinary talent)
	genii (spirits)
horse	*horses* (several animals)
	horse (cavalry)
index	*indexes* (in books)
	indices (in algebra)
penny	*pennies* (separate coins)
	pence (taken collectively, used chiefly in speaking of English money)

shot	*shots* (discharges of a gun)
	shot (leaden balls, ammunition)
summons	*summons* (in non-legal sense)
	summonses (in legal sense)

The noun *pea* might be added to this list. Its plural form is now commonly *peas*, but the plural *pease* was formerly used, as in *pease-porridge*, especially with reference to dried peas and to emphasize the collective sense of the word.

83. Nouns with the Same Form for Singular and Plural Numbers.—Some plurals in the foregoing list, it must have been noticed, are spelled and pronounced precisely like their singular forms. Thus *fish* and *shot* in themselves give no hint whether they represent one fish or shot or more than one. Several other nouns have this same peculiarity; for example, names of certain animals, as:

cod	*elk*	*salmon*	*trout*
deer	*grouse*	*sheep*	
duck	*moose*	*swine*	

To this list must be added the names of certain fixed groups of things used for measure as:[1]

brace	*head*	*pair*	*score*
dozen	*hundredweight*	*sail*	*yoke*

But modern usage shows also the regular plural in *s* for some of these words.

Other nouns which have the same form for both singular and plural are the following:

alms	*cannon*	*heathen*	*series*
apparatus	*Chinese*	*means*	*species*

84. Nouns with No Plural Form.—Some abstract nouns have no plural form, since the class of things they represent consists of but one member. Thus, *wisdom*, *patience*, *forti-*

[1] In such phrases as: "Ten brace of partridges," "Four dozen handkerchiefs," "A hundred head of sheep," "Three hundredweight of pig-iron," "Six pair of scissors," "A fleet of five sail," "Three score years and ten."

tude, luck, righteousness, purity, temperance, are seldom or never made plural, though *beauty, excellence, distance, perfection,* have a plural as well as a singular form. Names of materials, such as *steel, iron, gold, silver, mercury, celluloid, aluminum, tortoise shell,* are not commonly pluralized, unless to indicate different kinds of the same material, as *woods, meats, woolens.* Names of diseases, as *bronchitis, cholera, smallpox,* are not usually found in the plural.

Some nouns which are plural in form are really singular in meaning and have no plural. Among these are:

amends	*ethics*	*physics*
athletics[1]	*hydraulics*	*politics*[1]
bellows	*mathematics*	*statics*
civics	*metaphysics*	*tidings*
dynamics	*news*	
economics	*optics*	

The noun *United States* once used almost invariably as a plural form, is now more often regarded as singular.

85. Nouns with No Singular Form.—Several nouns, on the other hand, have no singular form. These are chiefly, as might be expected, nouns which represent two or more objects always associated or acting together; such, for example, as:

forceps	*gallows*	*pincers*	*spectacles*
arms (in the military sense)	*aborigines*	*premises* (referring to real estate)	*suds*
	alms		*thanks*
ashes	*annals*		*tongs*
billiards	*antipodes*	*proceeds*	*trappings*
breeches	*lees*	*riches*[2]	*trousers*
cattle	*matins*	*scales*	*tweezers*
dregs	*nuptials*	*scissors*	*vespers*
eaves[2]	*oats*	*shears*	*vitals*
entrails	*overalls*	*snuffers*	

[1] Often used as a plural.

[2] By derivation a singular noun, but now used wholly in a plural sense.

86. The Position of the Sign of the Plural.—A compound noun affixes the sign of the plural sometimes to the end of the compound, sometimes to the most significant word wherever that may chance to stand. When the compound has become so familiar that its separate words have ceased to seem separate, the compound is regarded as a single word and *s* is added to it to form the plural. Thus the plurals of *forget-me-not, good-for-nothing, ne'er-do-weel, cupful, handful, spoonful,* are *forget-me-nots, good-for-nothings, ne'er-do-weels, cupfuls, handfuls, spoonfuls.* When the compound consists of a noun with modifying words or phrases, the noun is usually given the plural sign; as, *pocket-handkerchiefs, hangers-on, by-standers, serving-men, men-of-war, aides-de-camp, commanders-in-chief, knights-errant, fathers-in-law, bills-of-fare.*

Compounds like these last, however, in which the adjective follows the noun, often become so familiar that they are regarded as indivisible, and the sign of the plural is affixed to the last word; thus, *aide-de-camps, court-martials, father-in-laws, knight-errants.*

Some compounds, consisting of two nouns, make both plural, as *men-servants, women-servants, knights-templars.* Compound nouns which are made up of a surname and a title usually give the plural sign to the title; thus, *the Misses Jordan, the Messrs. Blake,* though the plural forms *the Miss Jordans* and *the Mr. Blakes* are occasionally met.

87. Number in Personal Pronouns. — Pronouns, like nouns, have a singular and a plural number. The singular and plural forms of the personal pronouns are readily distinguished, since they are in many cases entirely different words. Thus the personal pronoun which represents the speaker[1] is *I* in the singular, *we* in the plural. That

[1] See §18.

which represents the person spoken to[1] was formerly *thou* in the singular, *you* or *ye* or in the plural. The forms *thou* and *ye* are still found in poetic and devotional language, but have been displaced in common conversation by the form *you*, which serves for both singular and plural. The pronoun which represents the person or thing spoken of is in the singular *he*, *she*, or *it*, in the plural *they*.

When the personal pronouns are intensified by compounding them with the noun *self*, both pronoun and noun change their form in the plural, thus:

SINGULAR	PLURAL
myself	*ourselves*
thyself or *yourself*	*yourselves*
himself, *herself*, *itself*	*themselves*

88. Number in Interrogative, Relative, and Demonstrative Pronouns.—The interrogative pronouns *who*, *which* and *what*, and the relative pronouns *who*, *which*, *what*, and *that*, have the same form for both the singular and the plural numbers. The demonstrative pronouns *this* and *that* become in the plural *these* and *those*.

89. Gender in Nouns: Masculine and Feminine Gender.—By hearing or looking at a noun even without reference to the sentence in which it occurs, we are sometimes able to decide not only whether it stands for one or more than one of the class it names, but also whether, if it stands for a person, this person is of the male or of the female sex. For instance, the noun *shepherdess* tells us at once that the tender of sheep spoken of in the sentence is a woman, while if the noun were *shepherd* we should know that a man was meant.

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[1] See §18.

In the same way we know that the nouns in the left-hand column of the list below refer to men while those in the right-hand column refer to women.

songster[1]	*songstress*[1]	*master*	*mistress*
prince	*princess*	*abbot*	*abbess*
god	*goddess*	*emperor*	*empress*
actor	*actress*	*signor*	*signora*[3]
governor	*governess*	*czar*	*czarina*
sultan	*sultana*	*executor*	*executrix*[4]
hero	*heroine*[2]	*testator*	*testatrix*[4]
duke	*duchess*	*administrator*	*administratrix*[4]

Such changes as these, which indicate whether the person named is of the male or of the female sex, are called changes in GENDER. A noun which stands for a person or an animal of the male sex is said to be of the MASCULINE GENDER; a noun which stands for a person or an animal of the female sex, of the FEMININE GENDER.

Masculine and feminine gender are often shown by words prefixed or appended to nouns, as in the following:

MASCULINE	FEMININE	MASCULINE	FEMININE
man-servant	*maid-servant*	*salesman*	*saleswoman*
cock-sparrow	*hen-sparrow*	*bull-elephant*	*cow-elephant*
peacock	*peahen*	*guinea-cock*	*guinea-hen*
he-goat	*she-goat*	*tom-cat*	*tabby-cat*

Masculine and feminine gender may also be distinguished by the use of entirely different words to indicate the male and the female members of a certain class, thus:

[1] The word *songster* in Old English meant a woman singer (the syllable *ster*, as now in *spinster*, indicating a female member of the class) but came finally to stand for the class of singers as a whole, then for a man-singer, so that the feminine termination *ess* had to be added to distinguish the woman singer.

[2] From the French. *Ine* is found as the final syllable of many French nouns applying only to women.

[3] Of Italian origin. Many Italian and Spanish nouns applying only to women end in *a*.

[4] Derived from the Latin language. Several Latin nouns applying only to women end in *ix*.

MASCULINE	FEMININE	MASCULINE	FEMININE
boy	*girl*	*wizard*	*witch*
father	*mother*	*cock* (or *rooster*)	*hen*
son	*daughter*	*gander*	*goose*
husband	*wife*	*ox* (or *bull*)	*cow*
grandfather	*grandmother*	*stallion*	*mare*
uncle	*aunt*	*colt*	*filly*
lord	*lady*	*ram*	*ewe*
sir	*madam*	*buck*	*doe*
king	*queen*	*stag*	*hind*

Man becomes feminine by prefixing the syllable *wo* (originally *wif*), meaning wife or female.

90. Neuter Gender and Common Gender.—It is plain that certain classes of things, like apples, books, steam engines, treaties, disappointments, have no sex, and hence the nouns which represent them are neither of the masculine nor of the feminine gender. Such nouns are said to be of NEUTER GENDER, the word *neuter* being the Latin for "*neither*." Most nouns in the English language are of the neuter gender.

Some, however, are of COMMON GENDER, that is, they stand for classes of persons or animals whose sex might be distinguished, but, being of no importance to the meaning of the sentence, is not distinguished by the noun as it stands. In the sentence, "A faithful servant is beyond price," the noun *servant* is of common gender; it represents a class, the members of which are either male or female.

91. Gender in Personal Pronouns.—Personal pronouns indicate sex chiefly by the use of different words for the different genders. Thus, the pronoun *he* stands for a person of the male sex, *she* for a person of the female sex, and *it* for a thing of neither sex. *I*, *you*, *we*, and *they* are applied indiscriminately to persons of either sex. Therefore we should say that the personal pronoun *he* is of the masculine

gender, *she* of the feminine gender, *it* of the neuter, *I*, *you*, *we*, and *they* of the common gender. The pronouns *he* and *she*, as we have noted,[1] when used with nouns of common gender, serve to transform them into nouns of the masculine or feminine gender.

92. Gender in Relative and Interrogative Pronouns.—The relative pronoun *who*[2] and the interrogative pronoun *who*[3] are of common gender, the relative pronouns *which*[2] and *what*[2] and the interrogative pronouns *which*[3] and *what*[3] are of the neuter gender, the relative pronoun *that*[2] of either common or neuter gender.

93. Person in Pronouns.—When a pronoun in any sentence stands for a person, that person must be the one who is speaking, or the one who is addressed by the speaker, or some third person, different from either, who is spoken of.[4]

This difference in the meaning of the pronoun is clearly indicated by a corresponding difference in the pronoun itself. When the speaker is meant, the personal pronoun is said to be of the FIRST PERSON and takes one of the forms grouped below under that head. When the person addressed is meant, the personal pronoun, takes one of the forms of the SECOND PERSON. When the person or thing spoken of is meant, the personal pronoun is of the THIRD PERSON.

FIRST PERSON	SECOND PERSON	THIRD PERSON
I, *my* or *mine*, *me*.	*thou*, *thy* or *thine*, *you*, *yours*.	*he*, *his*, *him*, *she*, *hers*, *her*, *it*, *its*, *they*, *their*, *them*.

The relative pronouns *who* and *that* are of the same person as is the noun or pronoun to which they refer. In the sentence, "I who speak to you am he," *who* is of the first person; in the sentence, "O thou that hearest prayer,

[1] §89. [2] §60. [3] §20. [4] §18.

unto thee shall all flesh come,"[1] *that* is of the second person; in the sentence, "Those who remained were able to speak with the lecturer," *who* is of the third person. The relative pronoun *which* and the interrogative and demonstrative pronouns, *this, that, who, which* and *what,* are always of the third person.

94. Person in Nouns.—Nouns are not changed in form to indicate whether they stand for the person speaking, the person spoken to, or the person spoken of; hence they are said to have no inflection for person. They do, however, in meaning refer to one of these three persons, usually the third. Only when in apposition[2] with pronouns of the first or second person can they be of the first or of the second person. Thus in the sentences, "I, the loyal servant of her majesty, challenge you in her name," and "I beseech you, my old friend, to let me serve you in this matter," the nouns *servant* and *friend* are of the first and second persons respectively.

95. Case.—The following passage illustrates another class of changes in the form of pronouns to indicate their office in the sentence: "One night I remember that this candle economy particularly annoyed me. I had been very much tired of my compulsory 'blind man's holiday,' especially as Miss Matty had fallen asleep, and I did not like to stir the fire, and run the risk of awakening her, so I could not even sit on the rug and scorch myself with sewing by firelight, according to my usual custom. I fancied Miss Matty must be dreaming of her early life, for she spoke one or two words, in her uneasy sleep, bearing reference to persons who were dead long before."[3]

In the foregoing passage the three pronouns, *I, my,* and *me* are immediately referred by the reader to the same

[1] Bible. [2] §29. [3] Mrs. Gaskell: *Cranford.*

person, namely, the speaker, the pronouns *she* and *her* to another person, namely, Miss Matty. From the form of these pronouns, even if they were separated entirely from the sentences in which they occur, we should know at once that *she* and *her* stand for the name of one person, rather than of two or more persons,[1] that person being of the female sex[2] and neither the speaker nor the person addressed, but a third person different from either.[3] The words *I*, *my*, and *me*, also, tell us at once, wherever they may occur, that they represent the speaker, who is one person, not two or more persons, though whether of masculine or of feminine gender we can not determine by their form.

The use of the three different forms, *I*, *my*, and *me* (or the two forms *she* and *her*), moreover, is not without meaning. The form of the pronouns *she* and *I* indicates that they are the subjects of the verbs *spoke*, *remembered*, *fancied*, etc., that of the pronouns *her* and *me* shows them, taking also into account their position in the sentence, to be the direct objects of the verbs *awakening* and *annoyed*, that of *her* and *my*, in their respective positions, suggests their office to be that of possessive or subjective adjectives, modifying the nouns *life*, *sleep*, *blind-man's holiday*, *custom*. These different offices of the pronouns (and of nouns), with their corresponding forms are known in grammar as CASES. There are three cases—the NOMINATIVE, the POSSESSIVE, and the OBJECTIVE.

96. The Nominative Case.—A noun or a pronoun is said to be in the NOMINATIVE CASE when it serves in a sentence or a clause as the subject of a verb;[4] or as the noun complement of a verb;[5] when it is in apposition[6] with any noun in the nominative case; and when it is used in the second

[1] §87. [2] §91. [3] §93. [4] §§ 8, 14, 15. [5] §47. [6] §29.

person as a kind of exclamation, having in the sentence merely the function of indicating the person addressed. As illustrations of each of these uses of the nominative case in pronouns, note the following sentences: "She left lonely forever the kings of the sea,"[1] "It is I; be not afraid,"[2] "The Lord of hosts, he is the King of glory,"[2] and "O thou that hearest prayer, unto thee shall all flesh come."[2] *She* in the first sentence is in the nominative case because the subject of a verb, *I* in the second sentence because it is the noun-complement of a verb, *he* in the third sentence because it is in apposition with a noun in the nominative case, and *thou* in the fourth sentence because it is used in the second person as an exclamation indicating the person addressed. In this last use it is called the NOMINATIVE OF ADDRESS.

The pronoun is also in the nominative case in such phrases as that introducing the sentence, "She having now fallen asleep, I stole quietly away." *She* is here called a NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE through an idea that it is independent of the main sentence; but it may be regarded logically as the subject of the equivalent clause, *When (or since) she had fallen asleep.*

97. The Objective Case.—A noun or a pronoun is said to be in the OBJECTIVE CASE when it serves as direct object[3] or as indirect object[4] of a verb, or when it is used with a preposition to form an adjective or an adverbial phrase.[5] Illustrations of the objective case of pronouns used as the direct object of a verb are seen in the pronouns *them* and *her* in the sentences,[6] "We must burn them, I think," and "I wish you could see her." The pronouns *her* and *me* in the sentence,[6] "She wrote to beg I would come and pay her a visit next Tuesday, when she hoped to have something to offer me in the way of

[1] Arnold: *The Forsaken Merman.*
[2] Bible. [3] §33. [4] §34. [5] §51. [6] Mrs. Gaskell: *Cranford.*

amusement," are in the objective case as indirect objects of the verbs *pay* and *offer*. And in the sentences,[1] "No one will care for them when I am gone," and "I could not bear to hear him talking so to me," the pronouns *them* and *me* are in the objective case because used with the prepositions *for* and *to* to form the adverbial phrases *for them* and *to me*. A noun or pronoun thus used with a preposition to form a phrase is called the object of the preposition.

98. The Possessive Case.—A noun or a pronoun is said to be in the POSSESSIVE CASE when it serves as an adjective modifier of a noun, indicating possession. Thus in the sentences, "My hair is gray but not with years,"[2] and "Thy rod and thy staff they comfort me,"[3] the pronouns *my* and *thy* are in the possessive case. The possessive pronoun is usually equivalent to an adjective phrase formed of the objective case of the noun or pronoun and the preposition *of*. Thus *her book* is the book of (or belonging to) her, *my party* the party of (or given by) me. Sometimes we have a DOUBLE POSSESSIVE, as in the expressions, "This is a great country of ours," "Oh, this poor head of mine!" "How is that book of yours getting on?" "That sharp tongue of his will get him into trouble." These double possessives illustrate an irregular but thoroughly idiomatic usage, the origin of which can be understood only by a student of historical grammar.[4]

99. The Declension of the Personal Pronouns.—The personal pronoun has different forms to indicate case in all the different persons, genders, and numbers; hence we shall do well to make a table of these forms. Such a table is called a DECLENSION, and when all the various forms of a pronoun have been named, the pronoun is said to have been

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[1] Mrs. Gaskell: *Cranford.* [2] Byron: *The Prisoner of Chillon.* [3] Bible.
[4] See Kellner's *Historical Outlines of English Syntax*, pp. 113–116.

DECLINED. The following is the declension of the personal pronoun:

FIRST PERSON

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Nom.	*I*	*we*
Poss.	*my, mine*[1]	*our, ours*
Obj.	*me*	*us*

SECOND PERSON

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Nom.	*thou* (modern *you*)	*ye, you*
Poss.	*thy, thine*[2] (*your, yours*)	*your, yours*
Obj.	*thee* (modern *you*)	*you*

THIRD PERSON

	SINGULAR			PLURAL
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	All genders
Nom.	*he*	*she*	*it*	*they*
Poss.	*his*	*her, hers*[2]	*its*	*their, theirs*[2]
Obj.	*him*	*her*	*it*	*them*

100. The Declension of the Interrogative Pronouns.—The interrogative pronoun *who* is, as we have noted,[3] of the third person, of common gender, and of either singular or plural number. Its form, accordingly, changes only to indicate case, as when we say, "Who dropped these gloves?"

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[1] *Mine* is used when the noun is omitted as equivalent to both the possessive and the noun. Thus, "He invited me to his party, though I didn't invite him to *mine*." So with *ours* in the plural: "If you have lost your hatchet you can borrow ours." Here *ours* is equivalent to *our hatchet*, as *mine* was equivalent to *my party*. *Mine* is also used poetically instead of *my* before nouns beginning with a vowel, thus, "What do mine eyes behold?"

[2] *Thine* and *yours*, *hers* and *theirs*, like *mine* and *ours*, are equivalent to the possessive with its omitted noun. *Thine*, like *mine*, is used poetically with nouns beginning with a vowel, thus, "Drink to me only with thine eyes."

[3] §§ 88, 92, 93.

"Whose image and superscription is this?" "Whom did you invite?"

NOM.	POSS.	OBJ.
who	*whose*	*whom*

The interrogative pronouns *which* and *what* remain unchanged in form whatever their function in the sentence. We may say, "Which began it?" "Which do you choose?" "Of what are you speaking?" "What brings you here?"

101. The Declension of the Relative Pronouns.—The relative pronoun *who* is declined like the interrogative *who*. The following sentences, "I know who wrote that," "Do you know whose writing that is?" "I know whom I have believed," show the various cases of this pronoun. The relative pronouns *that, which,* and *what* are not declined.[1]

102. The Declension of Compound Forms.—When the relative pronouns are compounded with *ever* or *soever,* they are declined as they would be if uncompounded. Thus we read, "Whosoever will may come" (equivalent to "Any one who will may come"), "You may have whatever you want," "Sell whatsoever thou hast," "Bid whomever you may meet to the feast."

With the possessive forms of the personal pronoun, *my, our, thy, your,* and the objective forms *him, her, it, them,* is compounded the noun *self* for the singular and *selves* for the plural. These compounds are not further declined. They are oftenest used in apposition with a noun or a personal pronoun for the sake of emphasis; as, "The chief himself was at a loss what to do," "You yourselves would have hesitated." Sometimes they are used to represent a person or thing as reflexively[2]

[1] *Whose* is historically the possessive form of *what*, and is frequently used (though some grammarians protest) as equivalent to *of which*, as in the sentence, "That is a plant whose name I never can remember."

[2] §42.

acted upon, as in the sentences, "I blame myself for my failure to investigate this matter," "They had cut themselves off from help in that quarter." The compound personal pronouns *myself* and *ourselves* are sometimes used instead of *I* and *we*, partly for emphasis and partly, perhaps, to avoid the jerky sound of the one-syllabled pronoun in certain positions, as in the sentences, "None but ourselves would have dreamed of succeeding," and "Neither the President nor myself had been informed of the party's arrival."

103. Case in Nouns: The Nominative Case.—Nouns, like pronouns, are said to be in the NOMINATIVE CASE when they serve in a sentence or in a clause as its subject, as the noun-complement of a verb, in apposition with another noun or pronoun in the nominative case, or independently to indicate the person addressed. In the sentence, "Last night the moon had a golden ring,"[1] the noun *moon* is in the nominative case as subject of the verb *had*. In the sentence, "Luck is a sudden turn of Fortune's wheel to the right," the noun *turn* is in the nominative case because it is the noun-complement of the verb *is*. In the sentence, "Paul, a servant of our Lord Jesus Christ, sends to the church at Ephesus greeting,"[2] the noun *servant* is in the nominative case, because it is in apposition with the nominative noun *Paul*. The nouns *inventor*, *voice*, and *Milton*, in the following lines are in the nominative case because they are used independently in address.

"O mighty-mouth'd inventor of harmonies,

. . . . . .

God-gifted organ voice of England,
Milton, a name to resound for ages."[3]

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[1] Longfellow: *The Wreck of the Hesperus.*
[2] Bible.
[3] Tennyson: *Milton.*

104. The Objective Case.—Nouns are in the OBJECTIVE CASE when they serve as direct or indirect objects of any verb, when in apposition with a noun or pronoun in the objective case, or when, with a preposition, they constitute an adjective or an adverbial phrase. Thus in the sentence, "I gave John the money for his railway ticket," the noun *John* is the indirect object of the verb *gave*, *money* the direct object, and *ticket* a noun which, with the preposition *for*, constitutes an adverbial phrase. In the sentences, "There I slew him, mine enemy," and "We walked in silence to the graveyard, the last resting-place of our common benefactor," the nouns *enemy* and *resting-place* are in the objective case, because in apposition with a noun or pronoun in the objective case. A DOUBLE OBJECTIVE is found in such sentences as "They elected me secretary," "We appointed Henry a committee of one to notify the president of his election." In the first sentence the words *me* and *secretary* are both in the objective case, in the second *Henry* and *committee* are both in the objective case.[1]

105. The Possessive Case.—A noun in the POSSESSIVE CASE is equivalent to the adjective phrase formed of the objective case of the noun and the preposition *of*. It performs the function of an adjective in the sentence and indicates possession. Thus the noun *Fortune's* in the sentence, "Luck is a sudden turn of Fortune's wheel to the right," is in the possessive case, as is also the noun *foeman's* in the sentence, "I fear no foeman's steel."

It will be noted that in nouns only the possessive case shows any change of form, the nominative and the objective forms being identical. In the singular number of the possessive case, this change consists in adding to

[1] §33.

the nominative singular form the letter *s* preceded by an apostrophe. In Old English the addition was *es*, and the apostrophe now used indicates the omission of the *e*. The *e* is still pronounced, however, when *'s* is added to any noun whose nominative singular form ends in *s* or any hissing sound. Thus, though we write the possessive singular of the words *grass, duchess, fox, church, grass's, duchess's fox's, church's,* we pronounce them as if they were spelled *grasses, duchesses, foxes, churches.* Some omit the *s* in writing the possessive of such proper nouns as already end in *s*, adding only the apostrophe, thus, *Howells' novels, Keats' life, Hobbes' philosophy;* others add the entire sign of the possessive, thus, *Howells's, Keats's, Hobbes's.* In a few old phrases, such as *for Jesus' sake, for conscience' sake,* the possessive sign *s* is still omitted both in spelling and in pronunciation.

The possessive plural is formed by adding *'s* to the nominative plural unless that ends in *s*, when only the apostrophe is added, and the word is pronounced precisely like the nominative plural. Thus the possessive plural forms of the nouns *men* and *oxen* are *men's* and *oxen's*, of the nouns, *friends* and *aristocracies, friends', aristocracies'.*

When any noun consists of a group of words, as *The Emperor of Germany, The Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, The Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children,* the sign of the possessive is added to the end of the title; but in such cases it is often less awkward to say *the visit of the Emperor of Germany* than *the Emperor of Germany's visit, the meeting of the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children* than *the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children's meeting.*

In similar fashion, when any possessive noun is compound, that is, made up of two or more nouns, which taken together

indicate a single owner, the sign of the possessive is added to the last of these nouns only. Thus we speak of *Beaumont and Fletcher's plays,* meaning those written jointly by them, of *Gray and Fosse's orange marmalade,* of *Jones, Lodge, and Farrar's contract to build the public library,* while *Plutarch's and Johnson's Lives* are understood to refer to lives written separately by two different men, *England's and Germany's claims* to claims made by the two nations independently of each other, *Newman's and Kingsley's beliefs* to those beliefs held not in common by the two men, but by each of them separately.

A so-called "double possessive" is found in nouns as well as in pronouns; we say, *a scheme of Henry's, a novel of Jane Austen's.*[1]

106. The Declension of the Noun.—The complete declension of the noun is as follows:

SINGULAR		PLURAL	
Nom.	*table*	Nom.	*tables*
Poss.	*table's*	Poss.	*tables'*
Obj.	*table*	Obj.	*tables*

107. Summary.—Changes in the form of the parts of speech to indicate meaning or office in the sentence are called inflection. The inflection of verbs is called conjugation; that of nouns and pronouns, declension; that of adjectives and adverbs, comparison.

Number is a change in the form of a noun or pronoun to indicate whether it stands for one member of its class or for more than one member. If it stands for one member of its class, it is said to be of the singular number; if for more than one, of the plural number. The plural number of most nouns is indicated by the addition of the letter *s* to the singular form; or of *es,* if the singular form already ends in an *s*

[1] See §98 and footnote.

sound. The changes made to indicate the plural number in nouns of foreign origin usually conform to the usage of the language whence each is derived, though the English usage is sometimes followed, and sometimes both the foreign and the English plural forms are used. Compound nouns add the sign of the plural either to the last or to the most significant word of the compound. The pronouns form their plurals very irregularly, often by the substitution of an entirely different word.

Gender is a grammatical distinction based upon sex. A noun or pronoun which stands for a person or an animal of the male sex is said to be of the masculine gender; one which stands for a person or an animal of the female sex, of the feminine gender; one which stands for something which has no sex, of the neuter gender; one which stands for a person or an animal whose sex is not, though it might be, distinguished, of common gender. Feminine gender in nouns is distinguished from masculine by the addition of certain syllables to the masculine form, by the use of words prefixed or appended to the class name, or by the use of entirely different words to indicate the two sexes. Pronouns, if they indicate differences of sex at all, commonly do so by the use of entirely different words.

Person is a grammatical distinction indicating whether a noun or pronoun stands for the person speaking, the person spoken to, or the person or thing spoken of. Both nouns and pronouns actually refer to one or another of these three classes, though only pronouns modify their form to indicate this reference.

Case in nouns and pronouns is a grammatical distinction indicating whether they serve in the sentence as subject, as direct or indirect object of the verb, as possessive adjective modifying some noun, or in other functions subordinate in importance to these. The nominative case is that of a noun

or pronoun which serves in a sentence or a clause as the subject of a verb or as the noun complement of a verb; which is in apposition with any noun or pronoun in the nominative case; or which is used as an exclamation, naming the person addressed, this last being called the nominative of address. The objective case is that of a noun or a pronoun which serves as direct object of a verb, as indirect object, or as the noun element in a prepositional phrase. The possessive case is that of a noun or a pronoun which serves as the adjective modifier of a noun, indicating possession. Most of the pronouns have different forms to indicate the three cases, but nouns change their form only for the possessive case. The possessive form of nouns in the singular number is usually indicated by adding *'s* to the nominative singular form; in the plural number by adding *'s* to the nominative plural, unless that ends in *s*, when only the apostrophe is added. A table of all the different forms of any noun or pronoun showing the changes that take place in it to indicate case, person, gender, and number, is called a declension.

DEFINITIONS[1]

Inflection is any change in the form of a word to indicate a change in its office or meaning.

Conjugation is the inflection of verbs.

Declension is the inflection of nouns and pronouns.

Comparison is the inflection of adjectives and adverbs.

Number is a mode of inflection to indicate whether a noun or pronoun represents one person or thing or more than one.

[1] Number, gender, person, case, tense, mood, voice, and comparison are terms that may be used indifferently to signify either (1) the offices and relations of words in the sentence or (2) the modes of inflection by which these offices and relations are indicated to the eye and ear. Definitions may be framed from either point of view. In this and the following chapters to secure brevity and uniformity the terms will be defined as modes of inflection.

The **singular number** indicates one person or thing, the **plural number** more than one.

Gender is a mode of inflection indicating sex. The **masculine gender** indicates the male sex, the **feminine gender** the female sex, the **common gender** either sex, and the **neuter gender** neither sex.

Person is a mode of inflection to indicate whether a noun or pronoun represents the person speaking, the person spoken to, or the person or thing spoken of.

The **first person** indicates the person speaking, the **second person** the person spoken to, the **third person** the person or thing spoken of.

Case is a mode of inflection to indicate the relation of a noun or pronoun to other words in the sentence.

The **nominative case** indicates the subject of a verb, the noun complement of a verb, a noun or pronoun in apposition with a noun or pronoun in the nominative case, or a nominative of address.

The **objective case** indicates the direct object of a verb, the indirect object of a verb, or the noun element in a prepositional phrase.

The **possessive case** indicates an adjective relation to another noun.

QUESTIONS

What is the most usual means of forming the plural of nouns? When is an extra syllable added in forming the plural of nouns? When is the pronunciation changed further than by the addition of *s*? When is the spelling changed further than by the addition of *s*? Give fully the reasons for all these changes. How do you write the plural form of letters and signs? How, in general, do foreign nouns form their plurals? Give illustrations. What nouns have two plural forms with different mean-

ings? What nouns have the same form in singular and plural? What nouns have no plural form? What have no singular? What abstract nouns do you know that have a plural form? What abstract nouns that have no plural form? Explain why this is so in each case. How may you know that a noun is really singular in number, if it happens to end in *s?* Where do you find the *s* or other sign of the plural number in compound nouns?

What is meant by gender? How may the sex of a person or of an animal be indicated in nouns? In pronouns? Give illustrations of each means. What is meant by neuter gender? By common gender? How may nouns of common gender sometimes be transformed into nouns of masculine or feminine gender? Give several illustrations.

What is person in pronouns? Does it exist in nouns? Is it shown by differences in their form? Name the different persons and genders in the personal pronouns.

What is meant by case? How is it indicated in nouns? In pronouns? What letter is the sign of the possessive case in both nouns and pronouns? What offices of nouns or pronouns in the sentence are indicated by the nominative case? By the possessive? By the objective?

EXERCISES

A. Examine carefully each noun and pronoun in the following sentences, and account for the form of each. State whether its number is singular or plural. If singular, give the plural form; if plural, the singular. Mention other nouns that form their plurals in this way, and explain, if you can, why they do so. If there are two plural forms, mention both, and define their meanings:

1. Heigh ho! daisies and buttercups![1]

[1] Ingelow: *Songs of Seven.*

2. Above it stood the seraphim: each one had six wings; with twain he covered his face, and with twain he covered his feet, and with twain he did fly.[1]

3. My brother-in-law is a man who actually believes in fairies.

4. An eminent chief justice of the United States landed several dozen trout from these waters last week.

5. The desperadoes had quite the look of Italian bandits as they surrounded the coach and confiscated our arms.

6. Here are sweet-peas on tiptoe for a flight.[2]

7. At this crisis, the news spread abroad that the dwarf had been the thief.

8. His footprints were traced in the ashes and through the courtyard, pieces of the cloth marked his path through the corn, and a field-mouse was seen nibbling at a half of the loaf which had been partly hidden under a sheaf of wheat.

9. For rheumatism, take a spoonful every hour.

10. A negro woman brought me a basketful of peaches, three dozen eggs, and a pair of turkeys.

11. Who gives himself with his alms, feeds three.[3]

12. The Misses Smith are notable not alone for the riches of their family, but for their own beauty and numerous excellences of character.

13. The celebrated German virtuoso, who is considered such a genius, played three solos on the piano.

14. Knowledge comes, but wisdom lingers, and I linger
on the shore,
And the individual withers, and the world is more
and more.[4]

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[1] Bible.
[2] Keats: *I Stood Tiptoe.*
[3] Lowell: *Vision of Sir Launfal.*
[4] Tennyson: *Locksley Hall.*

15. New occasions teach new duties. Time makes ancient good uncouth;
    We must upward still and onward, who would keep abreast of Truth;
    Lo, before us gleam her camp-fires! we ourselves must Pilgrims be,
    Launch our Mayflower, and steer boldly through the desperate winter sea,
    Nor attempt the Future's portal with the Past's blood-rusted key.[1]

B. State the gender and person of each noun and pronoun in the following sentences. Show in each case how the gender is indicated, and supply the correlative masculine and feminine terms if any exist:

1. A bad master makes a bad servant.

2. The employees of the White laundry have declared a strike.

3. No man is a hero to his valet.

4. Our hostess asked me to recommend a good waitress to her.

5. The famous African explorer and hunter within six days killed one lioness, three bull elephants, a tiger, and a tigress.

6. Her brother is Smith's butler, and her younger sister is Mrs. Smith's nursery-maid.

7. She was once an actress, but left the stage when she became an heiress.

8. This poor lad has the manners of a prince.

9. Ye are the children of them that killed the prophets.[1]

10. Three hens scratched busily in the dooryard, a rooster started to crow, the mare whinnied in her stall, the cows

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[1] Lowell: *The Present Crisis.*
[2] Bible.

jostled each other clumsily, and the old tabby cat slunk around the corner of the barn.

11. The testator was my patron and benefactor.

12. Any monk may become an abbot or a prior, any nun an abbess or a prioress.

13. The wizard received the giantess kindly.

14. I look more like my aunt than I do like my father or mother.

15. The king summoned his barons to a short conference.

16. The children played they were gods and goddesses, giants, sorcerers, witches, knights, dragons, and distressed damsels.

17. What is sauce for the gander is sauce for the goose.

18. The stag at eve had drunk his fill.[1]

19. In it thou shalt not do any work, thou, nor thy son, nor thy daughter, thy man-servant, nor thy maid-servant, nor thy cattle, nor thy stranger that is within thy gates.[2]

20. As a roaring lion, and a ranging bear; so is a wicked ruler over the poor people.[2]

C. Write sentences containing the possessive forms, both singular and plural (when the plural exists), of the following nouns: "ally, child, ox, Achilles, bellows, gas, wages, United States, athletics, cloth, sheaf, thief, college, monopoly, the Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, the Empress of Great Britain and India."

D. Name the case of each noun and pronoun in the following sentences and explain why it is in that case:

1. Dr. Newman, that winning writer, disperses them lightly over his page.[3]

2. Allow me to lend you my copy of the book which I bought yesterday.

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[1] Scott: *The Lady of the Lake.*
[2] Bible.
[3] Morley: *Macaulay.*

3. You have been very good to me and to my family, and I am very grateful to you.

4. Bright star! Would I were steadfast as thou art.[1]

5. Full well they laughed with counterfeited glee
At all his jokes, for many a joke had he.[2]

6. O thou that pinest in the imprisonment of the Actual, and criest bitterly to the gods for a kingdom wherein to rule and create, know this of a truth: the thing thou seekest is already with thee, here or nowhere couldst thou only see.[3]

7. Ossian! and fair-haired Gaul! ye are young and swift in the race. Observe the foes of Fingal from the woody hill. But approach them not, your fathers are not here to shield you. . . . .

. . . Our steps are on the woody hill. Heaven burns with all its stars. . . . The distant noise of the foe reached our ears. . . . The Gaul spoke in his valor; his hand half-sheathed the sword. "Son of Fingal," he said, "my heart beats high—my hand trembles on my sword. When I look towards the foe, my soul lightens before me. I see their sleeping host—if we should rush on the foe, our renown would grow in song. Our steps would be stately in the eyes of the brave."[4]

8. Sweet Thames, run softly till I end my song.[5]

9. Yet once more, O ye laurels, and once more
Ye myrtle brown, with ivy never sere,
I come to pluck your berries harsh and crude.[6]

10. Avenge, O Lord! thy slaughter'd saints, whose bones
Lie scattered on the Alpine mountains cold.[7]

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[1] Keats: *Sonnet.*
[2] Goldsmith: *The Deserted Village.*
[3] Carlyle: *Sartor Resartus.*
[4] Macpherson: *Ossian.*
[5] Spenser: *Epithalamion.*
[6] Milton: *Lycidas.*
[7] Milton: *Sonnet.*

11. O wise young judge, how I do honor thee![1]
12. Listen, my children, and you shall hear
    Of the midnight ride of Paul Revere.[2]

[1] *Merchant of Venice.*
[2] Longfellow: *Paul Revere's Ride.*

CHAPTER VIII

THE CONJUGATION OF VERBS

108. Agreement of the Subject and the Predicate Verb.—The subject and the predicate verb in any sentence are said to "agree" in NUMBER AND PERSON, that is, to be of the same number and person. The number and the person of the subject are indicated by the form of the verb.

109. Person and Number.—When we hear or see the verb *eats*, we know, without reference to the rest of the sentence, that it stands for an action performed by a single individual, who is neither the speaker nor the person addressed. The verb *is*, we have learned by observation, has for its subject a noun or pronoun standing for one person who is neither speaker nor hearer, while the verb *am* calls up at once in our minds the pronoun representing the first person of the singular number. *Art* is associated with the old form of the pronoun indicating the person addressed; *are* suggests immediately a subject which may be one person, the one addressed, or two or more individuals, the speakers, the persons spoken to, or the persons spoken of.

The form *are* is thus evidently used with all subjects of the plural number, whether of the first, the second, or the third person, and also with subjects of the ordinary second person singular number. The changes made in the form of the verb *be* to indicate the number and person of the

subject are, so far as we have noted them here, set forth in the following table:

SINGULAR		PLURAL	
1st person	*I am*	1st person	*We are*
2nd person	*You are* *Thou art*)	2nd person	*You are*
3rd person	*He is*, *She is*, *It is*	3rd person	*They are*

The verb *obey* shows even fewer changes, the first person singular being in form identical with the second person singular, and the first, second, and third persons plural.

SINGULAR		PLURAL	
1st person	*I obey*	1st person	*We obey*
2nd person	*You obey* (*Thou obeyest*)	2nd person	*You obey*
3rd person	*He obeys*, *She obeys*, *It obeys*	3rd person	*They obey*

In this verb only the third person singular differs at all in form from the other persons and numbers, its variation consisting in the addition of the letter *s*. This is the sole variation also in most other verbs, such as *sing, laugh, walk, find, say, declare.* It should be noted that the final *s* of the third person singular, when added to a verb already ending in *s* or a hissing sound, becomes *es*, as in the forms *finishes, discusses, lurches.*

110. Tense: The Simple Tenses.—Verbs also vary in form to indicate the different times at which the action they stand for takes place. If it is going on at the time the sentence is spoken, the verb is said to be in the PRESENT TENSE (or time) and takes a certain form. If the action took place in time preceding that in which the sentence is spoken, the verb is in the PAST TENSE, with a corresponding form. If the action is represented as about to take place in time suc-

ceeding that in which the sentence is spoken, the verb is in the FUTURE TENSE and takes a form differing from that of either the present or the past tense. Thus we say, "I obey" (now), "I obeyed" (in the past), "I shall obey" or "I will obey" (in the future).

The verbs *shall* and *will* are used to form the future tense of any verb. When one wishes to say simply that the action is to take place in the future, *shall* is used in the first person, both singular and plural, *will* in the second and third, thus:

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
1st person	*I shall go*	*We shall go*
2nd person	*You will go* (*Thou wilt go*)	*You will go*
3rd person	*He*, *She*, *It* } *will go*	*They will go*

When however, one means that he intends or is determined that the action indicated by the verb shall take place, *will* is used in the first person, both numbers, *shall* in the second and third, as follows:

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
1st person	*I will go*	*We will go*
2nd person	*You shall go* (*Thou shalt go*)	*You shall go*
3rd person	*He*, *She*, *It* } *shall go*	*They shall go*

111. The Perfect Tenses.—Some finer differences in time are also reflected in the form of the verb. When one says, "I obey," he means that he does so at the moment of speaking, or perhaps habitually. If he says, "I obeyed," he means that this action was performed at some time previous to the moment of speaking. If, however, he should say, "I have obeyed," it would be evident to any one hearing the state-

ment that the action indicated is one which has been completed but recently, in that section of time roughly marked out as present. The time in which this action has taken place, then, is previous to the moment of speaking, yet extending up into it, a time on the border between the present and the past. The tense which represents this time is called the PRESENT PERFECT TENSE, the word "perfect" indicating that the action is finished—not like present actions, still going on.

The PAST PERFECT TENSE bears the same relation to the past tense as does the present perfect tense to the present. Appearing in such a statement as "I had obeyed," it indicates an action completed in that section of time which we know as past, that is, previous in time to the moment of speaking. Since, at a certain moment in past time, this action was completed, it must have been going on at a time previous to that moment—at a time, let us say, remotely past. The past perfect tense is often used in connection with the past tense in such a way as to show clearly the priority of the action it represents to that denoted by the past tense, as, for instance, in the sentence, "When he had banked up the fires and locked the house, he went to bed."

The FUTURE PERFECT TENSE also represents action as completed, but in this case the action is regarded as completed not in the present or in the past, but in future time. If one says, "I shall have obeyed," he represents the action not only as going on in future time, but as completed in future time. The tense which represents such an action is, accordingly, known as the future perfect tense.

A statement follows of those forms of the verb *be* and *obey* which indicate differences in time.

THE VERB BE

PRESENT TENSE

SINGULAR	PLURAL
I am	*We are*
You are (Thou art)	*You are*
He is	*They are*

PAST TENSE

I was	*We were*
You were (Thou wast or wert)	*You were*
He was	*They were*

FUTURE TENSE

I shall be	*We shall be*
You will be (Thou wilt be)	*You will be*
He will be	*They will be*

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE

I have been	*We have been*
You have been (Thou hadst been)	*You have been*
He has been	*They have been*

PAST PERFECT TENSE

I had been	*We had been*
You had been (Thou hast been)	*You had been*
He had been	*They had been*

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE

I shall have been	*We shall have been*
You will have been (Thou wilt have been)	*You will have been*
He will have been	*They will have been*

THE VERB OBEY

PRESENT TENSE

I obey	*We obey*
You obey (Thou obeyest)	*You obey*
He obeys	*They obey*

PAST TENSE

SINGULAR	PLURAL
I obeyed	*We obeyed*
You obeyed (Thou obeyedst)	*You obeyed*
He obeyed	*They obeyed*

FUTURE TENSE

I shall obey	*We shall obey*
You will obey (Thou wilt obey)	*You will obey*
He will obey	*They will obey*

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE

I have obeyed	*We have obeyed*
You have obeyed (Thou hast obeyed)	*You have obeyed*
He has obeyed	*They have obeyed*

PAST PERFECT TENSE

I had obeyed	*We had obeyed*
You had obeyed (Thou hadst obeyed)	*You had obeyed*
He had obeyed	*They had obeyed*

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE

I shall have obeyed	*We shall have obeyed*
You will have obeyed (Thou wilt have obeyed)	*You will have obeyed*
He will have obeyed	*They will have obeyed*

On examining the various tense forms of these two verbs, we find that the perfect tenses of both are formed in the same way, namely, by aid of the verb *have*, the present tense of *have* being used to form the present perfect, the past tense to form the past perfect, the future tense to form the future perfect. The verb *have* takes the following forms in the six tenses:

PRESENT TENSE

SINGULAR	PLURAL
I have	*We have*
You have (Thou hast)	*You have*
He has	*They have*

PAST TENSE

SINGULAR	PLURAL
I had	*We had*
You had (*Thou hadst*)	*You had*
He had	*They had*

FUTURE TENSE

I shall have	*We shall have*
You will have (*Thou wilt have*)	*You will have*
He will have	*They will have*

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE

I have had	*We have had*
You have had (*Thou hast had*)	*You have had*
He has had	*They have had*

PAST PERFECT TENSE

I had had	*We had had*
You had had (*Thou hadst had*)	*You had had*
He had had	*They had had*

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE

I shall have had	*We shall have had*
You will have had (*Thou wilt have had*)	*You will have had*
He will have had	*They will have had*

112. The Participles.—The present perfect, the past perfect, and the future perfect tenses of all three of these verbs use a form which we have not heretofore commented upon. For the verb *be* this form is *been*, for the verb *obey* the form *obeyed*, for the verb *have* the form *had*. Each of these forms is called the PAST PARTICIPLE of its verb. The past participle of any verb may be defined as that form of the verb which, in connection with the simple tenses of *have*, constitutes the perfect tenses. Past participles differ greatly in respect to their ending. Many of them end in *d* or *ed*, as *had, heard, said, told, obeyed, feared, changed, declared;* many in *n* or *en*, as *known, drawn, thrown, given, fallen, chosen.* Others vary these final letters: *d* or *ed* be-

comes *t*, as in *kept, lost, thought, built; n* or *en* becomes *ne*, as in *done, gone.* Sometimes the ending *en* has been dropped entirely, as in the past participles, *struck, sung, run, found, fought.* In spite of these differences, however, a past participle may always be identified by reference to the perfect tenses of its verb.

Some verbs, it should be noted, may use the verb *be* instead of *have* in the perfect tenses. "I am gone into a far distant land," "Young Lochinvar is come out of the west," are sentences exemplifying this usage, somewhat old-fashioned in flavor now, but still accepted.

The PRESENT PARTICIPLE is formed by the addition of the syllable *ing* to the simplest form of the verb, that which we use when we merely name the verb, as *be, obey, have. Being, obeying, having,* are the present participles of these verbs. The present participle is used throughout in the PROGRESSIVE FORM of the verb, that form which indicates that the action represented continues through a certain time, as when one says "He is calling," "We were wishing," "They had been walking." The progressive form is made up of the present participle and that tense of the verb *be* which indicates the time during which the action continues. Thus, "He is calling" means that the action of calling is continued during the present time; "I was calling," that it went on continuously at some past time; "You will be calling," that it is to continue during some future time. In like manner, "We have been calling," means that the action was continuous up to the present time, but is now completed; "You had been calling," that it was continuous up to a certain point in past time, but then was finished; "They will have been calling," that it will be continuous until a certain moment in future time, when it will be completed.

The PERFECT PARTICIPLE of any verb is made up of its

past participle with the present participle of the verb *have;* thus, *having gone, having wept, having grumbled.*

113. The Infinitives.—In the future tense of all English verbs we find, combined with *shall* or *will,* the simplest form of the verb, that form which we have already noted as an element in the present participle. This, when used with the preposition *to,* is called the INFINITIVE of the verb (*infinitive* meaning "not limited"), since it is a form representing the verb as not limited to any particular person or number. This infinitive represents the action as not yet completed, hence as going on in present time, and is accordingly called the PRESENT INFINITIVE. The infinitive representing the action as completed is known as the PERFECT INFINITIVE, and consists of the present infinitive of the verb *have,* with the past participle of the verb in question. Thus the present infinitives of the verbs *be, obey have,* are *to be, to obey, to have;* the perfect infinitives, *to have been, to have obeyed, to have had.*

114. Mood: The Indicative Mood. — In studying the different kinds of sentences,[1] we found that declarative, exclamatory, and interrogative sentences were alike in communicating the idea of a state of things which was actually present, while imperative sentences differed from them in conveying a sense of a state of things not actually present, but desired or demanded by the speaker. This essential difference between an actually present state of things and one not present, but demanded or desired, is indicated by a difference in the verb form, called MOOD or MODE. By far the greater number of sentences represent an actually existing state of things, hence the mood commonly found in verbs is that called the INDICATIVE MOOD, which merely indicates or points out a state of things which actually exists. So when

[1] Chapter I.

one says, "It snows," "I refused even to consider the position," "My friends had gone abroad only the week before," the verbs *snows, refused, had gone,* all help to convey the idea of a state of things which had real existence at the time which the tense of the verb suggests.

Even the exclamatory and the interrogative sentences respectively inquire about and express some feeling concerning a state of things conceived as actually existing. Thus the verbs in the following sentences, no less than in the declarative sentences cited above, are in the indicative mood: "How good you are to help me!" "How glad I shall be when we are at home again!" "Who left the gate open?" "Why did you not shut it?" "When did you last see your uncle?"

115. The Imperative Mood.—A state of things which does not actually exist, but is strongly desired or demanded by the speaker, is expressed in the imperative sentence, or the sentence of command. And the verb in such a sentence is said to be in the IMPERATIVE MOOD. "Promise me that you will come," shows the verb *promise* in the imperative mood. The subject of a verb in the imperative mood is always the pronoun *thou* or *you,* though it is not often expressed. Thus a verb in the imperative mood occurs only in the second person, singular and plural. Furthermore, it represents a state of things which must be brought about at once; that is, in present time. Hence it is found only in the present tense.

116. The Subjunctive Mood.—The conjugation of a verb in the imperative mood is thus very simple,[1] and we have become familiar, in the conjugations previously given, with the various forms of the indicative mood. To form the complete conjugation of the verb we must, however, add to these moods a third mood called the SUBJUNCTIVE. Verbs

[1] It is written in full in the complete conjugation of the verb *call,* §130.

which represent a state of things not as actually existing, nor yet as imperatively demanded by the speaker, but merely as capable of existing, are said to be in the SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD. Under this head come verbs which represent a state of things as merely supposed, as possible under certain circumstances, or as wished for without the strong demand of the imperative mood. Where the state of things is represented as a mere supposition which may or may not be true the conjunctions *if, though, unless, except,* are used with the present tense, as in the sentences, "If his claim be a just one, it shall be paid," "Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him."[1] When the state of things is represented as theoretically conceivable, though actually contrary to fact, the past tense of the subjunctive is used, often with the conjunction *if* as in the sentences, "If I were you, I should ask for an investigation," "Were I able, I should certainly come to you." The past indicative is, however, frequently used in this case, e.g.: "I wish I was going," "If it was possible to go, I should not be here."

117. Other Uses of the Subjunctive.—The present subjunctive is used in making such wishes as, "God be with you," "Long live the King!" "Sweet be thy sleep." In subordinate clauses indicating a state of uncertainty, apprehension, deliberation, desire, the present subjunctive is sometimes employed: "I fear lest some evil befall you," "Heaven grant that we be the better for it this day month,"[2] "He moved that the question be laid on the table," "Whether the tale be true or not, I can not say."[3]

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[1] Bible.

[2] Goldsmith: *The Vicar of Wakefield.*

[3] The subjunctive forms of the verb *call* appear in the complete conjugation of the verb at the end of this chapter. Only the present and past tenses of the subjunctive are distinguished in form from the indicative; hence no other tenses are given.

118. The Auxiliary Verbs as Substitutes for the Subjunctive.—The subjunctive forms of the verb are not, as we have previously noted,[1] frequently employed in modern English. Instead of them we often use, to express a state of things which is possible or desired rather than actually present, certain so-called auxiliary or helping verbs in combination with the principal verbs of the sentence or clause. Thus, instead of saying, "If the claim be established," we say, "If the claim should be established"; instead of "I fear lest some evil befall you," "I fear lest some evil may befall you." Such AUXILIARY VERBS as *could, should, would, may, might,* are thus used in combination with the principal verb of the sentence or clause in the place of the subjunctive forms.

Could, should, and *would* are the past tenses of *can, shall,* and *will.* The entire conjugation of the verb *can* is represented by the two forms *can* and *could,* the only variation being the addition of *st* in the second person both of the present and of the past tenses.

May and *might* are the present and past tenses of the verb *may.* These forms, with *mayst* and *mightst* for the second person, represent the entire conjugation.

The auxiliary verbs *shall, will, may, can,* with *must* and *ought,* are called DEFECTIVE VERBS, since they lack many forms. The following forms only are found:

PRESENT	PAST
can (*canst*)	*could* (*couldst*)
may (*mayst*)	*might* (*mightst*)
must	
ought (*oughtest or oughtst*)	
shall (*shalt*)	*should* (*shouldest or shouldst*)
will (*wilt*)	*would* (*wouldest or wouldst*)

119. The Infinitive Mood: The Present and the Perfect Infinitive.—The INFINITIVE is called a mood of the verb,

[1] §70.

though it is not a mood in which the principal verb of a sentence or clause can appear. As we have seen,[1] the infinitive form of the verb represents the action of the verb as unlimited or unmodified in respect to person and number. The form of the infinitive, however, shows whether the action it represents is regarded as complete or as incomplete. Thus, in the sentence, "I expect to enter upon my duties next Monday morning," the infinitive represents an incomplete action, while in the sentence, "I expect to have entered upon my duties before next Wednesday," the infinitive denotes the action as completed. The first form is called the PRESENT INFINITIVE, the second the PERFECT INFINITIVE.

120. The Infinitive in *-ing*.—Besides these two forms of the infinitive, we have one called the INFINITIVE IN -ING. This appears in both the present and the perfect forms, e.g.: *calling, having called; writing, having written.* The infinitive with *to* (sometimes called the SIMPLE INFINITIVE), and the infinitive in *-ing* (sometimes called the PARTICIPIAL[2] INFINITIVE, or the GERUND), have similar, often identical, uses in the sentence. Each is equivalent in meaning to an entire clause,[3] and hence serves, as a clause does, in place of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb. In the sentences already quoted, "I expect to enter upon my duties next Monday morning," and "I expect to have entered upon my duties before next Wednesday," the thing expected, the direct object of the verb, is in each case the infinitive with its modifying words, equivalent to the clauses, *that I shall enter upon my duties*, etc., and *that I shall have entered upon my duties*, etc. The following sentences show a similar use of the infinitive: "Mary intended to be away

[1] §113. [2] §112.
[3] Compare prepositional phrases, Chapter IV.

all summer," "She loves traveling," "I hope to call upon you before you go," "I regretted having disturbed them," "I wish you to meet my uncle," "I like my friends to like each other."

The infinitive in *-ing* often merges imperceptibly into an abstract noun, as *calling, writing, dropping,* in the sentences, "Regular writing is demanded of all students," "Constant dropping will wear away a stone," "Make your calling and election sure."[1]

121. The Infinitive Phrase.—In the sentences, "I wish you to meet my uncle," and "I like my friends to like each other," the infinitive has a subject, just as it would have if it were the principal verb of the clause to which it is in meaning equivalent—*that you should meet my uncle,* or *that my friends should like each other.* Each of these same infinitives has also, as well as a subject, a direct object, *my uncle* and *each other.* The direct objects of the infinitives are, of course, in the objective case, but, curiously enough, the subjects of the infinitives are also in this case, as will be evident from the sentences, "The general ordered them to begin the attack at once," "We believed him to be innocent." The subject of the action represented by an infinitive in *-ing* is in the possessive case, as in the sentence, "I doubted his being what he represented himself to be." The infinitive, with its subject or object or other modifying words, is usually called an INFINITIVE PHRASE, though in meaning it is rather equivalent to a clause. It is used as the subject of a verb in the following sentences: "To see the right is not necessarily to do it," "To have earned the approbation of his chief was reward enough," "Playing by ear on every conceivable instrument was one of her accomplishments," "His having fought for his country gave him

[1] Bible.

indisputable claim to support from the government in his old age."

The infinitive phrase appears in the following sentences as the complement of a verb, and as an appositive: "To see is to believe," "It was my childish ambition to own a hand organ," "These simple duties, to dust the rooms and keep them filled with fresh flowers, she had performed for years of her life." It serves as equivalent to the noun element in a prepositional phrase, when one says, "He was incensed at this questioning of his motives," "I got tired of waiting for you," "He was on the point of signing the bill when Congress adjourned."

Occasionally, as has been said, the infinitive acts in the sentence for an adjective or an adverb.[1] In the sentences, "I have a great deal to do," "Here is a house to let," the infinitives are equivalent in meaning to the adjective clauses, *which I must do*, and *which may be hired*. In the sentences, "I wish you would come to see me,"[2] "You are wise to refuse your consent," the infinitive phrases *to see me* and *to refuse your consent* serve as adverbial elements, defining the purpose of your coming, and the respect in which you are wise.

The infinitive is usually called a verbal noun, because while it is clearly a form of the verb, capable of taking a subject and a direct object as the verb does, it often has the office of a noun in the sentence. We shall be nearer the truth, however, if we regard the infinitive phrase as a whole, however simple or however complex it may be, as a condensed clause, containing both noun and verb elements and capable of performing all the functions of a clause in the sentence, namely, those of the noun, the adjective, and the adverb.

[1] §113. [2] Colloquially, "Come and see me."

122. The Infinitive with the Auxiliary Verbs.—When used with certain verbs, notably the auxiliary verbs[1] *can, let, must,* the infinitive with *to* omits the preposition. We say, "I can do this," "Let me do it," "I must do it," where, substituting verbs similar in meaning, we should say, "I am able to do this," "Allow (or permit) me to do it," "I am obliged to do it," or "I ought to do it."

Let is used with the infinitive as a substitute for the first and third persons in the imperative mood: "Let us hasten," "Let them bring corn."

Must is commonly used only in the present tense and has no other form than this.

The auxiliary verb *ought* is always completed by an infinitive phrase. Formerly a past tense it is now used only as a present tense and changes form only in the second person singular (subject *thou*) to *oughtest* or *oughtst.*

123. The Participle and the Infinitive.—The PARTICIPLES of the verb are usually classed with the infinitives, since, like the latter, they have the force of condensed clauses. There are three forms of the participle, namely, the PRESENT, the PAST, and the PERFECT, *being, been, having been; calling, called, having called.* These participles, with their modifiers, are frequently used as equivalent to adverb clauses, as in the sentences, "Seeing no one, I ran," "Having lost the train, he had no resource but to wait for the next," and "Charmed by the boy's frank face, he laid aside all reserve." They are, however, also frequently used in the place of adjective clauses, thus: "The old man, knocked senseless by a blow on the head, showed no signs of life," "The festal scene, inviting his approach, declared that all was well," "He stood before her, defeated and disgraced." Many words now classed as adjectives were once participles.

[1] §118.

A burned finger, the defeated candidate, a broken promise, are instances in point.

It is not easy to distinguish the participle from the infinitive. Both are equivalent to clauses, and are used as such in the sentence. The infinitive seems, however, to serve oftenest as a noun clause, only occasionally as an adjective clause or an adverb clause, while the participle acts only as an adjective element or as an adverb element in the sentence.

124. Voice.—In discussing active and passive verbs,[1] we noted a distinction between verbs which represent an action performed by the subject of a sentence, and those which stand for an action received or suffered by the subject. This distinction is called VOICE, and a verb is said to be in the ACTIVE or in the PASSIVE VOICE, according as it represents an action performed or an action suffered by its subject.

The passive form of any verb is indicated by the combination of the verb with the past and perfect participles of the verb *be. I am persuaded, you were overpowered, he had been defeated, we were detained, they are disgraced,* are all passive forms. The conjugation of the passive voice appears in the complete conjugation of the verb *call* at the end of this chapter.

125. Regular and Irregular or Weak and Strong Verbs.—The past tenses of verbs are formed in two different ways, these differences giving rise to two main classes of verbs, sometimes distinguished as WEAK and STRONG verbs, sometimes as REGULAR and IRREGULAR verbs, sometimes as CONSONANT and VOWEL VERBS.[2]

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[1] §44.

[2] The technical meanings of these terms should not be confused with the ordinary meanings. A weak verb may be just as forcible as a strong verb, an irregular verb just as good English as a regular verb.

126. Regular or Weak Verbs.—Generally speaking, the past tense and the past participle of a weak verb are formed by adding *ed* to the present. Examples of such verbs are:

PRESENT	PAST (AND P. P.)	PRESENT	PAST (AND P. P.)
obey	*obeyed*	*call*	*called*
learn	*learned*	*defend*	*defended*
expect	*expected*	*work*	*worked*

When *ed* is added to a verb ending in *y* immediately preceded by a consonant, the *y* is changed to *i*, thus:

cry	*cried*
spy	*spied*
imply	*implied*

But note also that verbs in which the final *y* is preceded by a vowel remain unchanged in the past tense, as:

convey	*conveyed*
destroy	*destroyed*
play	*played*

When the verb already ends in *e*, only *d* is added,[1] as:

bake	*baked*
introduce	*introduced*
spare	*spared*

This is true also when the present form ends in *ay*, in which case *y* becomes *i*, as:

say	*said*
stay	*staid*[2]
pay	*paid*
lay	*laid*

The *d* is sometimes substituted for the final vowel or consonant of the present, as:

flee	*fled*
shoe	*shod*
tell	*told*
sell	*sold*

[1] In *hear, heard,* the *d* is added to a present form not ending in *e*.

[2] Also written *stayed*.

Some few verbs form their past tense by changing a consonant which is not final into *d*, as:

PRESENT	PAST
have	*had*
make	*made*
clothe	*clad*

Some change a long vowel to a short one, as:

bleed	*bled*	*read*	*read*
feed	*fed*	*hide*	*hid*
lead	*led*		

Some ending in *d*, use the same form for both present and past tenses:

shed	*shed*
spread	*spread*
rid	*rid*

Some verbs whose present infinitive ends in *p*, *s*, *ve*, *l*, *n*, *r*, add *t* rather than *d* for the past tense, for ease in pronouncing, thus:

cleave	*cleft*	*leave*	*left*
creep	*crept*	*lose*	*lost*
deal	*dealt*	*mean*	*meant*
feel	*felt*	*sleep*	*slept*
keep	*kept*	*sweep*	*swept*
kneel	*knelt*	*weep*	*wept*

The letter *t* is also added, though with some further change in the verb, to the present form in the case of some verbs, as:

bring	*brought*	*seek*	*sought*
buy	*bought*	*teach*	*taught*
catch	*caught*	*think*	*thought*

Some verbs whose present form already ends in *d*, change this *d* in the past tense to *t;* thus,

build	*built*	*send*	*sent*
bend	*bent*	*spend*	*spent*
lend	*lent*		

Many verbs whose present form ends in *t*, use this same form for the past tense; as for instance:

PRESENT	PAST	PRESENT	PAST
burst	*burst*	*lift*	*lift*
cast	*cast*	*knit*	*knit*
cost	*cost*	*put*	*put*
cut	*cut*	*set*	*set*
hit	*hit*	*shut*	*shut*
let	*let*	*thrust*	*thrust*

A few verbs, whose present form ends in *t* preceded by a long vowel, distinguish the past tense from the present simply by shortening the vowel. Examples of such verbs are:

light	*lit*
meet	*met*
shoot	*shot*

127. Irregular or Strong Verbs.—Another class of verbs form their past tense as did the old English verbs known as strong verbs; that is, by changing the root vowel of the present infinitive. The past participle of such verbs often end in *n* or *en*. Typical verbs of this class, are:

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
break	*broke*	*broken*
choose	*chose*	*chosen*
drive	*drove*	*driven*
eat	*ate*	*eaten*
fall	*fell*	*fallen*
give	*gave*	*given*
rise	*rose*	*risen*
shake	*shook*	*shaken*
speak	*spoke*	*spoken*
take	*took*	*taken*
write	*wrote*	*written*
weave	*wove*	*woven*

Sometimes the *e* of the past participle is omitted, and we have forms like:

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
blow	*blew*	*blown*
draw	*drew*	*drawn*
fly	*flew*	*flown*
know	*knew*	*known*
slay	*slew*	*slain*
tear	*tore*	*torn*
wear	*wore*	*worn*

Sometimes the *en* of the past participle, once used, has been dropped, as in the verbs:

begin	*began*	*begun*
bind	*bound*	*bound*
fight	*fought*	*fought*
dig	*dug*	*dug*
find	*found*	*found*
run	*ran*	*run*
sing	*sang*	*sung*
sink	*sank*	*sunk*
spring	*sprang* (or *sprung*)	*sprung*

The tense forms of English verbs are in general very irregular. The student will learn them by observing their use in the conversation of educated people and in the writing of good authors; but the reasons for each variation in form can be determined only by studying the history of each verb with reference to the laws of phonetics.[1]

128. The Principal Parts of the Verb.—The present infinitive, the past tense, and the past participle are called the PRINCIPAL PARTS of the verb, since in some combination they appear in all tenses. The present infinitive is found in the present, present perfect, future, and future perfect tenses;

[1] For table of irregular verbs see Appendix.

the past tense in the past and past perfect tenses; the past participle in all the perfect tenses. When these principal parts have been named, therefore, all the various tense forms of the verb can be given.

129. Sequence of Tenses in Indirect Discourse.—The ordinary use of the various tenses to indicate time, does not hold in indirect discourse, i.e. when the words or thoughts of a person other than the speaker are quoted indirectly; that is, when they are introduced by such a sentence as, "He said that," "She declared that," "They believe that." If quoted directly, as "'Don't go,' she said"; or "He writes: 'I shall sail next Saturday on the Lucania'"; or if the verb of the introductory sentence is in the present tense, the tenses follow the usage already indicated. But an indirect quotation introduced by a sentence whose verb is in the past, present perfect, or past perfect tense, changes its present tenses into past, its present perfect tenses into past perfect, and in its future tenses turns the present forms *shall* and *will* into the past forms *would* and *should;* thus: "They feared that no one had escaped," "The captain denied that he had given any such orders," "The cashier reported that the money was missing from the safe," "He said that you would not agree to the proposition."

In indirect discourse, the present subjunctive becomes past, as in the sentences: "I doubted whether he were wholly trustworthy," "They agreed that if the claim were established the money should be paid."

130. The Complete Conjugation of the Verb.—The complete conjugation of the verb *call* may be written out as follows:

ACTIVE VOICE

INDICATIVE MOOD

Present Tense

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
1st Per	I call	We call
2d Per.	You call (Thou callest)	You call
3d Per.	He calls	They call

Past Tense

1st Per.	I called	We called
2d Per.	You called (Thou calledst)	You called
3d Per.	He called	They called

Future Tense (indicating mere futurity)

1st Per.	I shall call	We shall call
2d Per.	You will call (Thou wilt call)	You will call
3d Per.	He will call	They will call

Future Tense (indicating intention)

1st Per.	I will call	We will call
2d Per.	You shall call (Thou shalt call)	You shall call
3d Per.	He shall call	They shall call

Present Perfect Tense

1st Per.	I have called	We have called
2d Per.	You have called (Thou hast called)	You have called
3d Per.	He has called	They have called

Past Perfect Tense

1st Per.	I had called	We had called
2d Per.	You had called (Thou hadst called)	You had called
3d Per.	He had called	They had called

Future Perfect Tense

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1st Per. I shall have called	We shall have called
2d Per. You will have called (Thou wilt have called)	You will have called
3d Per. He will have called	They will have called

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

Present Tense

If I call, You call, He call
(Same form for all persons and numbers)

Past Tense

I called
(Same form for all persons and numbers)

IMPERATIVE MOOD

Present Tense

Call (thou or you)
Call (you or ye)

INFINITIVES

Present	*Perfect*
To call	To have called
Calling	Having called

PARTICIPLES

Present	*Past*	*Perfect*
Calling	Called	Having called

PASSIVE VOICE

INDICATIVE MOOD

Present Tense

SINGULAR NUMBER	PLURAL NUMBER
1st Per. I am called	We are called
2d Per. You are called (Thou art called)	You are called
3d Per. He is called	They are called

Past Tense

1st Per. I was called	We were called
2d Per. You were called (Thou wert called)	You were called
3d Per. He was called	They were called

Future Tense

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
1st Per.	I shall be called	We shall be called
2d Per.	You will be called (Thou wilt be called)	You will be called
3d Per.	He will be called	They will be called

Present Perfect Tense

1st Per.	I have been called	We have been called
2d Per.	You have been called (Thou hast been called)	You have been called
3d Per.	He has been called	They have been called

Past Perfect Tense

1st Per.	I had been called	We had been called
2d Per.	You had been called (Thou hadst been called)	You had been called
3d Per.	He had been called	They had been called

Future Perfect Tense

1st Per.	I shall have been called	We shall have been called
2d Per.	You will have been called (Thou wilt have been called)	You will have been called
3d Per.	He will have been called	They will have been called

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

Present Tense

(If)	I be called	(If) We be called
	You be called (Thou beest called)	You be called
	He be called	They be called

Past Tense

(If)	I were called	(If) We were called
	You were called (Thou wert called)	You were called
	He were called	They were called

IMPERATIVE MOOD

Present Tense

(You or thou) be called
(You or ye) be called

INFINITIVES

Present	*Perfect*
To be called	To have been called
Being called	Having been called

PARTICIPLES

Present	*Past*	*Perfect*
Being called	Called	Having been called

A compact form of writing the conjugation of "call" is as follows:[1]

ACTIVE VOICE

INDICATIVE MOOD

Present Tense

I, You, We, They — **call**

He **calls**

Past Tense

I, You, He, We, They — **called**

Future Tense (futurity)

I, We — **shall call**

You, He, They — **will call**

Future Tense (intention)

I, We — **will call**

You, He, They — **shall call**

Present Perfect Tense

I, We, You, They — **have called**

He **has called**

[1] The imperative, infinitive and participial forms, since they admit of little or no condensation, are not given in this paradigm.

Past Perfect Tense

I, You, He, We, They — had called

Future Perfect Tense

I, We — shall have called

You, He, They — will have called

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

Present Tense

(If) I, You, He, We, They — call

Past Tense

(If) I, You, He, We, They — called

PASSIVE VOICE

INDICATIVE MOOD

Present Tense

I am called

You, We, They — are called

He is called

Past Tense

I, He — was called

You, We, They — were called

Future Tense (futurity)

I, We — shall be called

He, You, They — will be called

Future Tense (intention)

I, We — will be called

He, You, They — shall be called

Present Perfect Tense

I, You, We, They — have been called

He has been called

Past Perfect Tense

I, You, He, We, They — had been called

Future Perfect Tense

I, We — **shall have been called**

You, He, We, They — **will have been called**

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

Present Tense

(If) I, You, He, We, They — **be called**

Past Tense

(If) I, You, He, We, They — **were called**

131. Summary.—Person in a verb is that grammatical distinction which indicates whether its subject is the speaker, the person spoken to or the person spoken of.

Number in a verb is that grammatical distinction which indicates whether its subject is singular or plural.

Tense is a grammatical distinction indicating the time at which the action represented by the verb takes place. If the action is going on at the time the sentence is spoken, the verb is in the present tense. If the action took place in time preceding that in which the sentence is spoken, the verb is in the past tense. If the action is about to take place in time succeeding that in which the sentence is spoken, the verb is in the future tense. The present, the past, and the future tenses are called the simple tenses of the verb. If the action represented by the verb is one which has been completed in present time, the verb is in the present perfect tense. If the action has been completed in past time, the verb is in the past perfect tense. If the action is to be completed in future time, the verb is in the future perfect tense. The present perfect, the past perfect, and the

future perfect tenses are called the compound or perfect tenses of the verb.

The past participle of any verb is that form of the verb which constitutes, in connection with the simple tenses of the verb *have*, the perfect tenses. The present participle is formed by adding the syllable *-ing* to the simplest form of the verb. The present participle is used throughout the conjugation of the progressive form of the verb. The perfect participle is made up of the past participle, joined to the present participle of the verb *have*.

The present infinitive is the simplest form of the verb, used with the preposition *to*. The perfect infinitive consists of the present infinitive of the verb *have* with the past participle of the verb in question.

Indirect discourse, introduced by a sentence whose verb is in the present tense, retains the tense of the verb used in direct discourse; but if introduced by a sentence whose verb is in the past, present perfect, or past perfect tenses, it changes its present tenses into past, its present perfect into past perfect, and in the future tenses changes the present forms *shall* and *will* into the past forms *should* and *would*.

Those verbs which form their past tense by adding *d* or *ed* to the present infinitive are called regular or weak verbs. Those verbs which form their past tense by changing the root vowel of the present infinitive, are called strong or irregular verbs; the past participles of such verbs often end in *n* or *en*. The present infinitive, the past tense, and the past participle constitute the principal parts of the verb.

Mood is that modification of the form of the verb which indicates whether it serves to represent a situation actually

existent, or one merely conceived as possible, or one desired or demanded by the speaker. A verb in the indicative mood represents a state of things as actually existent. A verb in the subjunctive mood represents a state of things which may conceivably exist, though it is not asserted as actually existing. A verb in the imperative mood represents a state of things which does not now exist, but whose existence is desired or demanded by the speaker.

The infinitive is not properly a mood of the verb, though it is often called so. In the sentence it is usually equivalent to a clause. The present and the perfect infinitives with the preposition *to*, and the present and the perfect infinitives in *-ing*, have similar uses in the sentence, each being equivalent in meaning and in function to a noun clause, an adjective clause, or an adverb clause.

The participles, present, past and perfect, are, like the infinitives, condensed clauses, but usually adjective clauses or adverb clauses rather than noun clauses.

Voice is that modification of the form of the verb which indicates whether its action is performed by or upon the subject of the sentence. In the former case the verb is said to be in the active, in the latter case in the passive voice. The passive voice of any verb is formed by the combination of its past and perfect participles with the verb *be*.

DEFINITIONS

Person in a verb is a mode of inflection indicating whether its subject is the speaker, the person spoken to or the person spoken of.

Number in a verb is a mode of inflection indicating whether its subject is singular or plural.

Tense is a mode of inflection indicating the time at which the action of the verb takes place.

Mood is a mode of inflection indicating whether the action of the verb actually takes place, or is merely conceived as possible, or is demanded by the speaker.

Voice is a mode of inflection indicating whether the verb represents an action performed by or upon the subject of the sentence.

Regular or **Weak Verbs** are those which form their past tense by adding *d* or *ed* to the present infinitive.

Irregular or **Strong Verbs** are those which form their past tense by changing the root vowel of the present infinitive; the past participles of such verbs often end in *n* or *en*.

The principal parts of a verb are its present infinitive, its past tense and its past participle.

QUESTIONS

Why should not the same form of a given verb be always used? Give illustrations of the incorrect use of the same form for all purposes as you have noticed it in the speech of ignorant people or of young children. What is meant by number in verbs? How is number indicated? What is meant by person in verbs, and what changes in form are due to it? What is tense? How many tenses has a verb? What does each indicate about the action which the verb represents? How is each formed? Can you tell whether a verb is strong or weak when you know its principal parts? How? Name several strong verbs and several weak verbs not mentioned in the text.

In what moods may a verb appear? What is indicated by each mood as to the state of things which the verb helps to communicate? Why should the subjunctive mood be

used less frequently than in earlier times? What substitutes are often used for the subjunctive mood? For what purposes is the present subjunctive used? The past? How many forms of the infinitive are there? How does the infinitive differ from the participle? In form? In use? Trace the probable development of a noun clause into an infinitive, and the infinitive into an abstract noun; that of an adjective clause into a participle, and the participle into an adjective. What are auxiliary verbs? What peculiarity have you noticed about each of them, either in their uses or in their forms?

What is meant by voice in verbs? What is the difference between the active and the passive voice of any verb, in meaning? In form?

EXERCISES

A. Make a list of twenty verbs excluding those mentioned in the text. Write their principal parts, and arrange them in classes, not only separating the weak verbs from the strong, but putting together all the weak verbs that seem to form their principal parts in somewhat the same way, and all the strong verbs that seem to you at all alike. Write out all the forms you know for one verb in each group, noting all changes to indicate tense, person, or number.

B. In the following sentences[1] parse[2] each verb, that is, state what kind of verb it is, name its principal parts, and note the tense, person, and number in which it appears, mentioning also any peculiarities you have noticed in other forms of it.

(1) The next morning I communicated to my wife and children the scheme I had planned.

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[1] Taken from Goldsmith: *The Vicar of Wakefield.*
[2] § 70.

2. Here are our treasures, and we shall yet be happy.

3. As I was meditating one day in a coffee-house, a little man entered the room.

4. You are unacquainted with the town; I will teach you a part of it.

5. When we were returned home, we devised schemes of future conquest.

6. When she had delivered this pretty piece of eloquence, the two ladies looked at each other a few minutes in silence.

7. I will be bold to say my two girls have had a pretty good education.

8. The two ladies had been at our house to see us, and, finding us from home, came after us hither.

9. When Moses has trimmed the two horses a little, they will cut a very tolerable figure.

10. In the evening they began their operations in a very regular manner, and my wife undertook to conduct the siege.

11. After they had been closeted with the fortune-teller for some time, I knew by their looks upon their return, that she had promised them something great.

12. Upon our return to the house we found a very elegant cold supper, which Mr. Thornhill had ordered.

13. One of them, I thought, expressed her sentiments in a very coarse manner.

14. Heaven will never arraign him for what he thinks but for what he does.

15. He sat down to supper among us,—the tale went round; he sang us old songs, and gave the children the history of Patient Grissel.

16. Our cock, which always crew at eleven, now told us it was time to repose.

C. Name the voice, mood, tense, person, and number of each verb found in the following sentences. Explain the use of each infinitive and participle:

1. No man can do these miracles that thou doest except God be with him.[1]

2. Be still, sad heart, and cease repining.[2]

3. Howe'er it be, it seems to me
'Tis only noble to be good.[3]

4. Think of your home, boy; write and send and talk about it. Let it be nearer and nearer to your thought, the farther you have to travel from it, and rush back to it when you are free as that poor black slave is doing now.[4]

5. Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him.[1]

6. The dew was falling fast, the stars began to blink;
I heard a voice; it said: "Drink, pretty creature, drink!"[5]

7. If eyes were made for seeing,
Then beauty is its own excuse for being.[6]

8. Go, happy rose, and interwove
With other flowers, bind my love.[7]

9. Ask, and it shall be given unto you; seek, and ye shall find; knock, and it shall be opened unto you.[1]

10. Lochiel! Lochiel! beware of the day
When the lowlands shall meet thee in battle array.[8]

11. Judge not, that ye be not judged; for with what judgment ye judge, ye shall be judged.[1]

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[1] Bible. [2] Longfellow: *The Rainy Day.*
[3] Tennyson: *Lady Clara Vere de Vere.*
[4] Hale: *The Man Without a Country.*
[5] Wordsworth: *The Pet Lamb.*
[6] Emerson: *Rhodora.*
[7] Herrick: *To the Rose.*
[8] Campbell: *Lochiel's Warning.*

12. Gather up the fragments that remain, that nothing be lost.[1]

13. Shall I, wasting in despair,
Die, because a woman's fair?
Be she fairer than the day,
Or the flowery meads in May,
If she think not well of me,
What care I how fair she be?[2]

14. You might read all the books in the British Museum (if you could live long enough) and remain an utterly "illiterate," uneducated person; but if you read ten pages of a good book with real accuracy, you are forevermore in some measure an educated person.[3]

15. If I were an American, as I am an Englishman, while a foreign troop was landed in my country I never would lay down my arms,—never! never! never![4]

16. Let him that thinketh he standeth take heed lest he fall.[1]

17. My son, if sinners entice thee, consent thou not.[1]

18. If I were the Conservative Party of England, I would not for a hundred thousand pounds an hour allow those Corn-laws to continue![5]

19. Whether this be or be not I'll not swear.[6]

20. The Lord make his face to shine upon thee and be gracious unto thee.[1]

21. Though I walk through the valley of the shadow of death, I will fear no evil.[1]

22. Pipe, merry Annot,
Work, Tibet; work, Annot; work, Margery.

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[1] Bible. [2] Wither: *The Manly Heart.*
[3] Ruskin: *Sesame and Lilies.*
[4] Chatham.
[5] Carlyle: *Past and Present.*
[6] *The Tempest.*

Sew, Tibet; knit, Annot; spin, Margery.
Let us see who will win the victory.[1]

23. Sitting by a river's side,
Where a silent stream did glide,
Muse I did of many things.[2]

24. My instinct would certainly be to fight, whether fighting were of any use or not. But the propriety of fighting in such a case is a very nice question of judgment. So long as there is anything to fight for, no matter how hopeless the odds, a gentleman should go to the front—but no longer. The question must be to decide the precise point at which the position becomes untenable.[3]

25. What I began to do was to envy the doctor, walking in the cool shadow of the woods, with the birds about him, and the pleasant smell of the pines, while I sat grilling with my clothes stuck to the hot resin; and so much blood about me and so many poor dead bodies lying all around that I took a disgust of the place that was almost as strong as fear.[4]

26. The notice which you have been pleased to take of my labors, had it been early, had been kind; but it has been delayed till I am indifferent, and cannot enjoy it; till I am solitary, and cannot impart it; till I am known, and do not want it.[5]

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[1] Udall: *Ralph Roister Doister.*
[2] Greene: *Philomela's Ode.*
[3] Crawford: *Saracinesca.*
[4] Stevenson: *Treasure Island.*
[5] Johnson: *Letter to Chesterfield.*

CHAPTER IX

THE COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

132. The Comparison of Adjectives: The Degrees of Comparison.—An adjective, we have seen, makes more definite the meaning of a noun. The noun *orange*, for instance, brings to mind simply a class of fruit. When one speaks of *a sweet orange, a Jamaica orange,* or *a thin-skinned orange,* however, the meaning of the noun has been somewhat more narrowly defined. The hearer is led to think, not of the large class of oranges in general, but of the somewhat smaller classes of *sweet oranges, Jamaica oranges,* and *thin-skinned oranges,* one member of which has been suggested by the words *a sweet orange, a Jamaica orange, a thin-skinned orange.*

But if one wishes to speak, not of any sweet orange or of any thin-skinned orange, but of one particular sweet or thin-skinned orange, he may do so either by the use of such adjective modifiers as have already been discussed[1] as when one says, "The sweet orange you gave me yesterday," or, by showing some relation between it and other members of its own class, as when one says, "a bigger orange than yours," "the sweetest orange I ever tasted."

The sentence, "I had a bigger orange than yours,"

[1] §15, and, 21-30.

means, if analyzed closely enough, "I had an orange which possessed to a higher degree than did yours the common quality or character which made them members of the same class, the class of big oranges." Similarly the saying, "I had the biggest orange of the lot," means that my orange was not only big to a limited degree, as were all the others in the class, but that it was big to a degree surpassing all the other oranges in its class. It possessed the common quality of bigness to a greater degree than did any other orange in the "lot." There are three degrees in which a characteristic quality may be possessed by any member of a class. We may say, "He is a tall man," meaning that he possesses the quality of tallness in a degree not at all noteworthy, perhaps about the average; this degree is known as the POSITIVE. Or we may say, "He is taller than James," meaning that he possesses the quality of tallness common to James and himself, in a degree greater than that in which it is possessed by James; this degree is called the COMPARATIVE. Or, finally, we may say, as before, "He is the tallest man in the company," meaning that he possesses the quality of tallness common in some degree to all the men in the company, in the highest degree in which that quality is possessed by these men; this degree is called the SUPERLATIVE.

133. The Forms of Comparison: The Regular Form.—We can distinguish the degree of comparison by noting the form of the adjective. If it ends in the syllable *est* (sometimes contracted to *st*, as in *best, last, least, most, worst*), it is in the superlative degree; if in the syllable *er*, in the comparative degree; the simple, uninflected form of the adjective indicates the positive degree.

134. Irregular Forms of Comparison.—Some adjectives, however, are compared irregularly. Certain adjectives even

introduce a different word for the comparative and superlative degrees. Note the following instances of this practice:

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
bad (ill, evil)	*worse*	*worst*
good, well	*better*	*best*
little	*less, lesser*[1]	*least*
many, much	*more*	*most*

Minor irregularities are found in the comparison of the following adjectives:

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
far	*farther, further*	*farthest, furthermost*
hind	*hinder*	*hindmost, hindermost*
late	*later, latter*	*latest, last*
nigh	*nigher*	*nighest, next*[2]
old	*older, elder*	*oldest, eldest*

The addition of the syllable *er* or *est* to the positive form of an adjective sometimes results in a clumsy-sounding word like "beautifuller" or "unfortunatest." This is frequently the case when the addition is made to adjectives of two syllables and is almost invariably true for adjectives of more than two syllables. Such adjectives, then, are usually compared, not by the addition of the terminations *er* and *est*, but by prefixing to them the comparative and superlative forms of the adjective *much*. Thus we say, "the most brilliant man in college," "a most fortunate accident," "an occurrence more deplorable than this." Comparison in a downward scale is often made by the use, in similar fashion, of the comparative and superlative forms of the adjective *little*, thus: "A less auspicious occasion could

[1] A double comparative.

[2] "Next" is sometimes used also as the superlative form of "near."

not have been imagined," "She was the least beautiful of the three sisters."

The use of both methods of comparison for the same adjective, though found repeatedly in the literature of an earlier period (as in Shakespeare, "Come thou more nearer," "This was the most unkindest cut of all"), is not now recognized as legitimate.

In a few cases the superlative form *most* is used in place of the syllable *est*, as in *inmost, outmost, upmost* (also *innermost, outermost, uppermost, furthermost*). Three adjectives forming their superlative thus are notable for being in meaning apparently incapable of comparison. These are the adjectives *end, mid* or *middle, top*, as in the expression, "the end seat," "the middle tier," "the top gallery." Speaking strictly, no seat can be more at the end than the end seat, yet we often use the double superlative *endmost* in this connection; and with the same superfluity we speak of "the middlemost tier" and "the topmost gallery." These three adjectives, it should be noted, have no comparative form. The adjective *northern*, however (also *southern, eastern, western*), has the full comparison, formed either by prefixing *more* and *most* to the positive form, or by prefixing *more* and affixing *most*, thus, *more northern, northern-most.*

Many adjectives have a meaning which does not admit of comparison, such adjectives, for instance, as *absolute, complete, perfect, universal, unique, unqualified.* These are, however, occasionally used in other than the positive degree, though in such case the meaning becomes less exact. Thus, if we say, "I have now a more perfect understanding of the matter," or "His praise was more unqualified than before," or "The succeeding government was a more absolute monarchy," we mean, strictly speaking, "an understanding more nearly perfect," "praise more nearly unqualified," "a government more closely approaching an absolute monarchy." If an understanding were really perfect, none could be more perfect; if the praise were unquali-

fied, it could not be more or less unqualified; if the monarchy were absolute, its absolutism must be without degree.

It should be noted that other words besides *more*, *most*, *less*, *least*, serve to indicate, although sometimes less precisely than these, the degree to which any member of a class participates in the characteristic qualities of that class. Such words are the adverbs *as* (with an adverbial clause), *extremely*, *so*, *too*, *unusually*, *very*, *wholly*, etc., in sentences like "Her eyes were gray as glass,"[1] "They have been extremely kind to me," "The book was so stupid that I couldn't read it,"[2] "In fact, Evart was too clever to succeed in this business,"[3] "She was unusually blunt in her manners," "A very dear friend of mine has just arrived," and "The task was wholly disasteful to her."

135. The Comparison of Adverbs.—Adverbs, like adjectives, may be compared. One may say, "He spoke loud and fast," "He spoke louder and faster than I did," "He spoke loudest and fastest when he was most excited." Evidently the manner in which an action is performed may be more or less pronounced; hence degree may be denoted by adverbs of manner. Adverbs of degree, of place, and of time may also be compared—"He writes better than you," "He stands nearer the throne than he did a year ago," "They landed earlier than they had expected."[4]

136. The Regular Forms of Comparison.—Some monosyllabic adverbs are compared by adding to the positive form the syllables *er* and *est*; e.g. *soon, sooner, soonest;* but most adverbs are compared by prefixing the words *more* and *most* to the positive, as *more slowly, more intensely, most clearly, most intelligently.*

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[1] Gray, that is, to the degree in which glass is also gray. The clause is adverbial, defining the adjective gray. See §39.

[2] That is, "stupid to such a degree that I couldn't read it," the clause being adverbial and modifying the adjective *stupid*. See §39.

[3] The infinitive is equivalent to an adverb clause. "Evart was clever to such a degree that he could not succeed," is plainly the meaning. §119.

[4] Each of the clauses is adverbial, modifying the adverb *better*, *nearer*, or *earlier*. §39.

137. Irregular Forms of Comparison.—A few adverbs are compared irregularly:

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
far	*farther, further*	*farthest, furthest*
ill, badly	*worse*	*worst*
late	*later*	*latest, last*
little	*less*	*least*
much	*more*	*most*
near	*nearer*	*nearest (next)*
(no positive)[1]	*rather*	(no superlative)
well	*better*	*best*

The adverbs *as* (with an adverbial clause), *extremely*, *so*, *too*, *very*, etc., are used with adverbs, as with adjectives, in a loosely comparative fashion. Thus we have the sentences, "She sings as unpretentiously as a bird does," "Sybil carried herself extremely (or very) well," "How can you speak so inconsiderately?" "He does these things far[2] too easily to do them really well."[3]

138. Summary.—Comparison is a modification in the form of adjectives and adverbs by which the word they modify may be more closely defined in its relation to other members of its class. There are three degrees of comparison. An adjective in the positive degree asserts a quality in a degree not notably above or below the average. An adjective in the comparative degree asserts of the noun it modifies a quality in a degree notably greater or less than that of some other member in its class. An adjective in the superlative degree asserts of the noun it modifies a quality in a degree greater or less than that of any other member of its class. The comparative degree of an adjective is indicated by the addition of the syllable *er* to the positive or by prefixing to the positive the word

[1] None, that is, in modern English. The old English positive form *rathe* meaning early, is now obsolete.

[2] "Too easily by far."

[3] The infinitive is equivalent in meaning to an adverbial clause. §119.

more (or *less*); the superlative degree, by the addition of the syllable *est* to the positive or by prefixing to the positive the word *most* (or *least*).

Adverbs are compared like adjectives.

DEFINITIONS

Comparison is a mode of inflection for adjectives and adverbs, indicating the degree of the quality represented by them.

The **positive degree** of comparison indicates an average or ordinary degree of the quality.

The **comparative degree** indicates a degree of the quality notably above (or below) the degree in which this quality is possessed by some other object.

The **superlative degree** indicates a degree of the quality notably above (or below) the degree in which this quality is possessed by all other objects in a specified class.

QUESTIONS

Why is it necessary to compare adjectives? Adverbs? How are they compared? Name and compare the irregular adjectives and adverbs mentioned in this chapter. Can numerical adjectives be compared? Demonstrative adjectives?

EXERCISES

Name the degree in which each adjective and adverb appears in the following passages. Supply the other degrees in which this same adjective or adverb may appear. Account, so far as you can, for any irregularities in form.

1. A corn-field in July is a hot place. The soil is hot and dry; the wind comes across the lazily murmuring leaves laden with a warm, sickening smell drawn from the rapidly-growing, broad-flung banners of the corn. The sun, nearly

vertical, drops a flood of dazzling light and heat upon the field over which the cool shadows run, only to make the heat seem the more intense.[1]

2. The shore is composed of a belt of smooth, rounded white stones, like paving stones, excepting one or two short sand beaches, and is so steep that in many places a single leap will carry you into water over your head; and were it not for its remarkable transparency, that would be the last to be seen of its bottom till it rose on the opposite side. Some think it is bottomless. It is nowhere muddy, and a casual observer would say that there were no weeds at all in it; and of noticeable plants, except in the little meadows recently overflowed, which do not properly belong to it, a closer scrutiny does not detect a flag nor a bulrush, nor even a lily, yellow or white, but only a few small heart-leaves and potamogetons, and perhaps a water-target or two; all which, however, a bather might not perceive; and these plants are clean and bright like the element they grow in. The stones extend a rod or two into the water, and then the bottom is pure sand, except in the deepest parts, where there is usually a little sediment, probably from the decay of the leaves which have been wafted on to it so many successive falls, and a bright green weed is brought up on anchors even in midwinter.[2]

3. She was dead. No sleep so beautiful and calm, so free from trace of pain, so fair to look upon. She seemed a creature fresh from the hand of God and waiting for the breath of life; not one who had lived and suffered death. Her couch was dressed with here and there some winter-berries and green leaves, gathered in a spot she had been used to favor. "When I die, put near me something that

[1] Garland: *Main Travelled Roads.*
[2] Thoreau: *Walden.*

has loved the light, and had the sky above it always." These were her words.

She was dead. Dear, gentle, patient, noble Nell was dead. Her little bird—a poor, slight thing the pressure of a finger would have crushed—was stirring nimbly in its cage; and the strong heart of its child-mistress was mute and motionless forever. Where were the traces of her early cares, her sufferings, and fatigues? All gone. Sorrow was dead, indeed, in her; but peace and perfect happiness were born—imaged in her tranquil beauty and profound repose.[1]

4. Perhaps the plaintive numbers flow
   For old, unhappy, far-off things
   And battles long ago;
   Or is it some more humble lay,
   Familiar matter of to-day?[2]

5. 'Twas on a lofty vase's side,
   Where China's gayest art had dyed
   The azure flowers that blow,
   Demurest of the tabby kind,
   The pensive Selima, reclined,
   Gazed on the lake below.
   Her conscious tail her joy declared;
   The fair round face, the snowy beard,
   The velvet of her paws,
   Her coat that with the tortoise vies
   Her ears of jet and emerald eyes—
   She saw, and purred applause.[3]

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[1] Dickens: *Old Curiosity Shop.*
[2] Wordsworth: *The Reaper.*
[3] Gray: *On a Favorite Cat, Drowned in a Tub of Gold Fishes.*

APPENDIX

I. IRREGULARITIES OF SYNTAX

It may be maintained that the entire subject of grammar consists, strictly speaking, of SENTENCE ANALYSIS. In the sentence itself we find all the parts of speech and all the various modifications of their forms. To separate each of these in turn from the texture of the sentence, so as to identify its form and understand its function, has been the business of the foregoing text.

1. Syntax.—This analysis has involved what is termed SYNTAX, namely, the laws governing the relations of the various elements in the sentence to one another. The structure of the sentence and even the minuter modifications of its parts have been found to depend upon the relations of part to part within the sentence. With different relations to one another, the various parts of speech have taken on different forms, which have been classified under such names as "person," "number," "case," "tense," "mood," "voice," and "comparison." The general laws of syntax have thus been considered; but certain "irregularities" or variations from these laws must also be noted. As language continually grows and changes, numerous variations upon the accustomed ways of using it are certain to arise. At any given time in the history of a language these variations must be taken into account, if widely current in the speech and writing of not illiterate people. Instances of divided usage must also be recognized in many cases, two equivalent forms being employed with equal "correctness."

2. Parsing.—Irregularities of syntax may often be detected by the exercise called PARSING, which consists in stating about any word in the sentence what part of speech it is, to what subdivision of that part of speech it belongs, what its office in the sentence is, and what modifications in its form indicate that office. Thus in the sentence, "Care killed a cat," *Care* should be parsed as a noun, common and abstract,[1] of the neuter gender, singular number and nominative case, serving as the subject of the verb *killed*. *Killed* is a regular or weak verb, transitive, of the active voice, indicative mood, past tense, third person and singular number, serving as predicate in the sentence and taking the direct object *cat*. *A* is an indefinite article modifying the noun *cat*. *Cat* is a noun, common, concrete,[1] of the singular number, common gender and objective case, the direct object of the verb *killed*.

3. Variant Forms of the Sentence.—(*a*) *Yes and No.* The words "Yes" and "No" are used as sentences, generally in answer to questions. If the question, "Are you going abroad this summer?" be answered by "Yes," the particle is equivalent to the complete sentence, "I am going abroad this summer"; if by "No," the meaning is that of the complete sentence, "I am not going abroad this summer."

(*b*) *Other Particles.* Such words and phrases as "Certainly," "Assuredly," "Perhaps," "Possibly," "Probably," "By no means," "Never," "Not at all," "Undoubtedly," "Unquestionably,"[2] are similarly employed in lieu of whole sentences. They may be analyzed as sentences, supplying from the context the words understood, or they may be designated simply as particles representing entire sentences and expressing assent or dissent, emphasis or doubt. These

[1] The distinction between abstract and concrete is frequently disregarded.
[2] §38.

and other similar particles must be broadly distinguished from the one-word ejaculatory sentences treated in a previous chapter.[1] The latter stand for relatively undeveloped sentence-ideas, while the former are virtually shorthand representations of full-grown sentences.

(*c*) *Elliptical Sentences.*—Another irregular form of sentence occurs when a predicate verb or other important member is unexpressed, because perfectly understood from the context. "To-morrow to fresh woods and pastures new"[2] implies, without expressing them, both subject and predicate verb; as does "A rap, between familiarity and respect; that demands and at the same time seems to despair of, entertainment."[3] In the following sentences the members which must be supplied from the context are printed in brackets: "Mine, too,—whose else?—[was] thy costly fruit-garden, with its sun-baked southern wall";[4] "At such a season the Tempest, or his own Winter's Tale—[should be read]"; "[Let there be] More than one—and it degenerates into an audience."[5]

It should be noted that such omissions are justifiable only when the sentences in their context are readily intelligible without the omitted words and rather gain than lose force by the omission. Mere careless or arbitrary dropping out of essential words often destroys the force or even the meaning of the sentences.

4. Equivalents of the Parts of Speech.—(*a*) *The Noun.* Besides pronouns,[6] clauses,[7] infinitives,[8] and infinitive phrases,[8] various other elements may take the place of a

[1] Chapter 1, §§ 6 and 7.
[2] Milton: *Lycidas.*
[3] Lamb: *Poor Relations.*
[4] Lamb: *Blakesmoor in H—shire.*
[5] Lamb: *Detached Thoughts on Books and Reading.*
[6] §§ 18-21.
[7] §58. [8] §§ 113, 119-121.

noun in the sentence. "The just shall live by faith" and "Rescue the perishing" are sentences in which *the just,* and *the perishing,* indicating certain classes of persons, serve, respectively, as subject and object in spite of their classification as adjectives. "Now is the time to strike," shows an adverb acting as subject, while in such sentences as "Mind your p's and q's," "Mum is the word," "Never say die," "The cry was 'To the Church!'" "'Give us bread!' they chanted with one voice," a verb and an adjective, a prepositional phrase, an entire sentence and even letters of the alphabet are used as structurally equivalent to nouns. The general name "substantive" is often used to designate any word or group of words used like a noun.

(*b*) *Other Parts of Speech.* The verb may be omitted,[1] but has no real equivalent. The equivalents of the pronouns are virtually those of the noun. Adjectives and adverbs have as equivalents adjective phrases, adverb phrases and adjective and adverbial clauses.[2] Certain phrases, such as *on board, in place of, with regard to,* etc., may be termed equivalents of prepositions.[3] Certain phrases may also take the place of interjections, as "By my faith!" Other equivalents for the interjections are nouns and pronouns, adjectives and adverbs, as "Jupiter!" "Ye Gods!" "You!" "What!" "Dear me!" "Why!" "Gracious!" "Well!" or even whole sentences, as "I do declare!"

5. Questions of Agreement.— (*a*) *Between Subject and Predicate.* 1. In *Number.* Although the subject and the predicate in a sentence are of the same number, in particular cases there is frequently room for differences of

[1] Appendix, 3c.
[2] §§ 50, 56, 57.
[3] §52.

opinion as to what this number is. Collective nouns, when strictly such, that is, when representing a number of persons or things acting together as one, of course require a singular verb. Thus each of the following sentences, "A host of apologies was forthcoming on each occasion," "A thousand years in thy sight is but as yesterday when it is past,"[1] "The United States has refused to intervene," "The last-named school of thinkers survives only in history," "Ten thousand pounds is a pretty fortune," employs a single predicate verb, since the subject is regarded as singular. When a noun apparently collective is not regarded as one unit, however, the verb is plural, as in the sentences, "The fraternity were all agreed upon the matter," "A number of the relatives were called together." A subject consisting of several elements very closely associated in thought, is also frequently regarded as singular in meaning, as in the sentences, "The tumult and the shouting dies," "Such ardor and enthusiasm dispels every doubt," "There was meat and drink, shelter, fires, and good company." When two singular subjects are presented as alternatives in the sentence, the predicate verb is singular, thus: "Either he or John is wanted," "Nor sob nor moan was heard." Many nouns plural in form but singular in meaning,[2] require a singular verb. Thus we say, "Mathematics is the basis of mechanics," and "The news does not surprise me."

When two or more singular nouns are associated as subject of a verb, if each is modified by an adjective that emphasizes its singularity, such as *each, every, no,* the verb is singular, e.g.: "Each breath, each heart-beat was a visible effort," "No obstacle, no disappointment, no impossibility, conquers his purpose," "Every tower and every battlement has been manned."

[1] Bible. [2] §84.

When two nouns are united in the subject by the conjunctives "as well as," "no less than," "equally with," etc., the number of the first noun determines the number of the verb. "Uncounted disasters, as well as treachery, were close upon him," "The joke, no less than common interests, serves to unite men," "My desire, equally with my fears, commends this course to me."

2. In *Person*. A subject which is made up of elements in different persons presents certain difficulties of agreement. When it consists of two or more elements connected by the conjunction *and*, one of the elements being of the first person, the verb appears in the first person plural, thus: "Remington and I are perfectly agreed upon that question." But when two elements of different persons are connected by such conjunctions as *but* and *or*, the verb may agree with the nearest element in the subject, thus: "Neither his Grace nor I have raised the question," "Not he but you are responsible for this state of things."

(*b*) *Between Pronouns and their Antecedents.*

1. Relative Pronouns.—Since a relative pronoun represents in the clause the noun which the clause as a whole modifies,[1] it is supposed to be of the same person and number as this noun, or, as the technical phrase goes, to agree with its antecedent in person and number. This agreement is not apparent in the form of the relative pronoun, but may be noted in the predicate verb of the clause, which agrees in person and number with the relative pronoun serving as its subject. When the antecedent is of the type represented in the following sentences, it is sometimes regarded as singular, but more often and more logically, as plural. "His nature was one of those which only harden under opposition," "This is only one of the many incidents which

[1] §60.

have confirmed my decision," "He is one of the best fellows that have ever belonged to the club," exhibit each a plural antecedent for the relative pronoun, while a singular antecedent appears in the sentences: "I am to dine with one of the most interesting characters that lives," "It is one of the best books that has appeared for several years." But the second type of sentences is by many authorities held to be ungrammatical.

2. Personal Pronouns.—Personal pronouns of the third person, although as a rule agreeing in number and gender with the nouns to which they refer, find some difficulty in agreeing in gender when the antecedents are indeterminate as to sex. Such antecedents are the words *one, any one, every one, each, person, individual, student,* etc., as in the sentences, "Each has his own preferences," "The student should give his best attention to this point," "Any one can give up cheerfully what he never expects to have," "One must distinguish carefully between what he actually thinks and what he believes he ought to think." These sentences represent the most common solution of the difficulty, namely, the employment of the singular pronoun of the masculine gender as representative of either masculine or feminine gender, or both. Occasionally, however, both the masculine and feminine pronouns are used, as in the sentence, "Let each participant be responsible for his or her own portion of the entertainment." The use of the plural form of the pronoun in such cases is not infrequent, and appears even in literature, though its impropriety is apparent in the following illustrations: "Anybody who cared for their [his] business reputation would have acted very differently." "Every one must make themselves [himself] comfortable as best they [he] can." "No one can help me unless they know [he knows] how to change my father's opinion."

(*c*) *Between Nouns and their Modifying Adjectives.* The only adjectives whose form shows agreement in number with the nouns they modify are the demonstrative adjectives *this* and *that* (plural, *these* and *those*). Thus we say, *these friends, that device, this encounter*; but when the nouns modified by these demonstratives are *sort, kind,* or similar words, with a modifying prepositional phrase containing a plural noun, such as *this kind of people, that sort of pleasures,* the adjective in spoken English frequently takes the plural form. *These kind of people* and *those sort of pleasures* are expressions justifiable only on the ground that the collective sense of the nouns *kind* and *sort* is prominent in the speaker's mind; but it may be fairly questioned whether, if the plural aspect of the subject were dominant, the sentence would not naturally take some such form as "People of this kind are always disagreeable to me," or "Pleasures of that sort bring their own recompense."

6. Questions of Government.—The case of substantives is determined by their relations to certain other elements in the sentence, mainly verbs and prepositions, which are, therefore, said to "govern" them. The general law[1] is that nouns and pronouns used as the subject or as the noun complement of a verb, or independently to indicate the person addressed, are in the nominative case, and that nouns and pronouns used as the direct or the indirect object of any verb or as the substantive element in a prepositional phrase, are in the objective case. But certain exceptions may be noted.

(*a*) *Objective Case for Nominative.* In colloquial language the use of the objective case for the complement of the verb *to be* has been recently recognized, though careful speakers and writers insist upon the nominative. "It's

[1] §§ 95, 103.

me," "I knew it was them," "No matter who has to go, it won't be him," are sentences heard so continually that the usage is no longer dismissed contemptuously by grammarians. The philologists trace it to a confusion between the nominative and objective cases of the personal pronouns which has existed in English speech since the middle of the sixteenth century, and assert that it is precisely analogous to the accepted employment of the originally objective form *you* (in place of the nominative *ye*) for nominative purposes.

It is somewhat difficult to fix a point at which such deviations from the rule become legitimized by wide and persistent usage. All that can be said is that the form "It is me" is tolerated in colloquial speech by good authorities.[1] The forms illustrated by the following sentences, however, are up to the present time regarded, in spite of their relatively wide currency, as unjustified by general acceptance: "She is a person *whom* everybody thinks has no right to be here," "I am not used to associating with such as *him*," "Mary can do everything better than *me*." Here the words italicized should be in the nominative rather than in the objective case, *whom* being used as the subject of the verb *has*, *him* of the verb *is* (understood), and *me* of the verb *can do* (understood).[2]

(*b*) *Nominative for Objective.* The nominative form *who* is colloquially used for the objective in questions such as "Who do you mean?" "Who is that remark aimed at?" "Who can we ask?" "Who should I see at the opera but our German maid?" This construction appears fre-

[1] Toleration of this form is not inconsistent with a belief that it is well for young persons to avoid it, for it is obvious that anything which tends to break down the sense for the nominative case opens the way to forms that are manifestly incorrect.

[2] The use of the objective form *whom* in the phrase *than whom* is a recognized exception to the general rule for the nominative case.

quently in good literary English as late as the eighteenth century, but seems at present less freely used by the educated.

The colloquial phrase, "Between you and I," found in Shakespeare, substitutes the nominative form of the pronoun for the objective. It is today regarded as ungrammatical.

(*c*) *The Subject of an Infinitive.* When an infinitive phrase serves as direct object of a verb, as in the sentences, "He maketh me to lie down in green pastures," "See him run," "I wish my son to choose his profession early," the subject of the infinitive in each instance is in the objective case.

(*d*) *The Objective Case in Exclamations.* In ejaculations, the objective case of the first personal pronoun is invariably used, as "Ah me!" "Oh dear me!"

(*e*) *The Possessive or Objective Case with the Gerund.* The infinitive in *-ing*, or the gerund, is sometimes modified by a possessive noun or pronoun, as in the sentences: "There was no fear of his delegating too much power to his subordinates," "The president was gratified by everybody's professing the utmost enthusiasm over the plan," "The program closed with Bob's dancing a sailor's hornpipe," "The situation was not improved by our being forced to apologize to Miss Mercy." A different construction is sometimes used when the action represented by the gerund seems to be less important in the speaker's mind than the person performing that action. In this case the possessive becomes an objective case and the gerund a participle modifying the objective, thus: "In the event of this change taking place, your future would be assured," "We recalled the vision of John standing on the horse's back." The choice between these two usages depends upon a fine shade of meaning, sometimes barely discernible; but both are accepted.

7. The Position of the Adverb.—The position of adverbs in the sentence serves to indicate their office. Generally speaking, adverbs should stand in close juxtaposition to the words they modify. Especial attention should be paid to the placing of the adverb *only*. In the sentence, "I have only begun the first chapter," *only*, from its position, seems to modify the verb *begun*, whereas the writer probably intended to say, "I have begun only the first chapter."[1]

When an adverb modifies an infinitive, it should, if possible, be placed either directly before or directly after it, not between its parts, as in the sentence, "They found it impossible to entirely pacify the discontented workmen." This usage, called "the split infinitive," is sanctioned by many writers, but has hardly established itself in careful writing and speaking.

8. Independent Elements in the Sentence.—Certain words and phrases seem not to depend upon any others in the sentence or to be depended upon by any others. Thus the interjection,[2] and the nominative of address[3] stand apparently outside the structure of the sentence, as independent elements. The colloquial phrases and particles italicized in the following sentences have also a relatively independent status: "*Now*, I don't wish to meddle, *of course*," "*Well*, I suppose it is necessary," "*Why*, that will do, if you have nothing else," "*To repeat*, the proposed legislation cannot serve the ends sought and should therefore be rejected," "*To summarize*, there is no need of it, no desire for it, no advantage in it," "*To discard all metaphor*, the cause is lost," "*To make a confession*, I came here to-night un-

[1] For a discussion of this question see *Modern Language Notes*, Vol. X, p. 196.

[2] §§ 6 and 69.

[3] §§ 95, 103.

prepared to speak," "*By way of apology*, I am sincerely grieved to have caused you such inconvenience," "No traces, *strange to say*, could be detected by the most careful observation."

9. Common Errors in Construction. — (*a*) *The "And Which" Construction.* Sentences such as the following involve a serious defect of structure: "Mary was a winsome lass of good parts, though with no great love of learning, and who was known as the wittiest in all the countryside." Though the conjunction *and* would lead one to expect a clause coördinate with *who was known as the wittiest*, etc., no such clause appears. If the adjective phrase *of good parts*, etc., were transformed into a clause, the sentence would read correctly, "Mary was a winsome lass who had good parts, though no great love of learning, and who was known," etc. Or, more simply, the defect could be remedied by merely striking out the superfluous conjunction *and*.

A similar error is found in the use of *but* in the sentences: "Here was a predicament, awkward enough in truth, but from which he must at all costs extricate himself;" "The company noted a certain condescension in her manner, unconscious and even somewhat pleasing, but to which her antecedents certainly gave her no claim;" "The troops of the enemy fled, leaving behind them legends of their incredible ferocity and daring, to be repeated for generations about the countryside but which have even yet hardly died out."

(*b*) "*Try and.*"

The expressions "Try and rouse yourself," "We will try and go to-morrow," though frequent in spoken English, are illogical and not justified by the best usage. *Try* is not in meaning coördinate with *rouse* or with *go*,

the infinitives *to rouse* and *to go* being direct objects of the verb *try*.

(*c*) *"But what."*

The sentences, "He never left home but what he expected some calamity to occur in his absence," and "I had no doubt but what you had told him," employ *what* as if it were equivalent to *that, but,* or *but that.* In the first sentence *but* alone is sufficient for all conjunctive purposes; in the second *that* expresses the exact relation of meaning between the clause and the main sentence.

(*d*) *Double Negatives.*

The use of more than one negative to convey a negative idea was common in the older English; witness Chaucer's frequently quoted lines:

> "He nevere yet no vileineye ne sayde,
> In al his lyf unto no maner wight."

In modern English it appears chiefly in the talk of the unlettered, as "He warn't never no sort of a pusher nohow." Where two negatives are conjoined in the speech or writing of the educated at the present time, the idea expressed is affirmative, the two negatives canceling each other, thus: "There is no intelligent schoolboy who does not know better than this."

(*e*) *The superlative with "any."*

In such sentences as "This is the best of any," and "My watch is the handsomest of any in the school," the word *any* is misused for *all.* The comparison implies several members of a class, so that the adjective *any,* meaning any one, is logically as well as grammatically incorrect.

(*f*) *Adverb for Predicate Adjective.* After the verbs *become, seem, look,*[1] etc., a predicate adjective should be used,

[1] § 43.

except in cases where the verb represents a definite action rather than an equivalent for *was* or *is*. Thus one would say, "She looked pretty," and "The rose smelled sweet"; but "They looked at each other malevolently."

When one says "I arrived safe," the adjective is thought of as relating to the subject, or as completing the participle *being*, understood. But when one says "I arrived safely," the adverb is regarded as indicating the manner of the arrival.

(*g*) *"Like" as a conjunction.*

In certain sections of the country, the adverb *like* is frequently used as if it were a conjunction, thus: "I feel like I ought to go," "You say it just like I do." The accepted usage in such cases is the conjunction *that, as,* or *as if:* "I feel that [or, as if] I ought to go," "You say it just as I do."

Like every other fundamental science, grammar involves abstruse problems which can be understood only by prolonged study of original sources and authoritative treatises. The beginner, in the ordinary course of his studies, should not be confronted by these problems, for they will have no effect but to confuse him and waste his time. If, however, his curiosity has been aroused on any point and further knowledge is desired by him or by his teacher, the following books of reference may be recommended, with the caution that hundreds of questions in the field of English grammar are still unsettled and are likely to remain so for many years to come: Emerson's *History of the English Language* (Macmillan), Lounsbury's *History of the English Language* (Holt), Morris's *Historical Outlines of English Accidence*, revised by Kellner and Bradley (Macmillan), Kellner's *Historical Outlines of English Syntax* (Macmillan), Jespersen's *Progress in Language* (Macmillan), Sweet's *Short Historical English Grammar* (Macmillan), Greenough and Kittredge's *Words and their Ways in English Speech* (Macmillan), *The Century Dictionary*, and *The New English Dictionary* (Clarendon Press).

II. THE COPULA

The active sense of the "copula," while it need not be insisted upon for the young student, may be explained, if desired, by an appeal to the psychological processes underlying certain typical instances of its use.

Whenever one asserts of anything that it is hot, or green or sweet, one is virtually interpreting or formulating the effect it has upon one, the way it acts upon one's hands or eyes or palate. The stove with a fire burning in it acts upon one's hands in a way different from that in which it acts when the fire has long been out, so that, recognizing these different ways of acting, one declares in the first case, "The stove is hot," in the second, "The stove is cold." Thus, the green ribbon makes upon one's eyes a different impression from that made by a red ribbon and gives rise to the statements, "This ribbon is green," "That ribbon is red." One orange puckers the mouth and makes us shiver, so we say, "This orange is sour;" another gives us a pleasant sensation, and we say, "This orange is sweet."

The verb which represents the subject's action more directly may become the copula when the action it represents has been so frequently observed by the speaker that he is able to draw a conclusion from it. Thus, the first time John plunged unthinkingly into a new venture one would doubtless say, "John acted hastily in that matter." The second time the same comment might be made. But when the occurrence has been several times repeated, one is pretty certain to say, "John acts hastily, and, finally, "John is hasty."

III. THE PASSIVE VERB

Although the accredited distinction between active and passive verbs may serve all practical purposes, it tends to disappear under searching analysis.

It may fairly be urged that, from the point of view of the sentence as a whole, the subject even of a passive verb stands for the agent of the situation represented by the entire statement. Looking closely at the sentence, "Napoleon was defeated by Wellington," we see in its subject *Napoleon*, which is apparently only acted upon, an agent who, after all, has a part in bringing about the situation for which the sentence as a whole stands. In the sentence, "Wellington defeated Napoleon," the situation is plainly due to a certain action on the part of Wellington, the action, namely, of defeating Napoleon. But in the sentence, "Napoleon was defeated by Wellington," the state of things in which the speaker is interested and which he wishes to tell us about is a different state of things, one in which Napoleon is the central figure, the chief actor. He has suffered defeat. In receiving defeat or permitting it to come upon him, in bending to a superior force, he has really acted, for to receive an action is to act as truly as to resist or refuse to receive it is to act. When one says, "I was forced to pay the full amount of the claim," he says virtually, "I accepted the necessity for doing so." Were the state of things which he wishes to convey brought about by the action of others directed against himself, he would say "They" (or "The Walworth estate," or some other definite person or persons) "forced me to pay the full amount of the claim." This, however, is not, strictly speaking, the same situation as that in which he is the figure of importance, a situation represented by the sentence "I was forced to pay it," that is, "I accepted the necessity" for doing so.

In the last analysis, then, the passive verb, as well as the active, is found to represent an action performed by the person or thing the subject names. But, notwithstanding this similarity between them, there is also a real differ-

ence. The difference lies in the fact that a sentence whose verb is passive represents a situation in which the action of the subject is strongly modified by the action of other persons or things. Thus the sentence, "Napoleon was defeated by Wellington," shows the action of Napoleon in suffering defeat, as the action of yielding to a more powerful action performed by Wellington.

Similarly the sentence, "I was forced to pay the full amount of the claim," represents a situation in which, although I am still the central figure, although it is my situation, my action takes place with direct reference to that of others, is modified and partly determined by that of others.

This action of others may grow more important to the speaker and the hearer than at first it seemed. For example, in the sentence, "The rioters were clubbed by the policemen," although the chief agent in the situation is "the rioters," the action of the "others" (the policemen) may for some reason attract more and more attention. If this growth goes far enough the action of the central figure may finally become subordinate to that of the "others"; in which case the situation is recognizably changed, and must be represented by a new sentence—"The policemen clubbed the rioters"—whose subject is the "others" (the policemen in this case) and whose predicate verb is their action, affected greatly or slightly by the action of the agent ("the rioters") whom the former subject named.

Sentences in which passive verbs occur are, then, representative of situations which are beginning to change. Certain elements which strongly modify the action of the central figure in the situation are gaining greater and greater modifying power. In such sentences as "The disease has been checked," "The ship was abandoned," "The committee's re-

port was adopted,'' the agents are not even mentioned; but their modifying power seems at the highest point which can be reached before the situation is recognizably changed to one which must be represented by such different sentences as "The energetic measures of the Board of Health have checked the disease," "The passengers and crew abandoned the ship," and "The convention adopted the committee's report."

Ultimately, then, the terms "active" and "passive," as applied to verbs, may be understood as indicating, the one an action performed by the person or thing named by the subject and little or not at all modified by the action of other persons or things involved in the situation, the other an action noticeably modified or conditioned by the action of other persons or things concerned.

IV. IRREGULAR VERBS

Only forms accredited by comparatively modern usage appear in the following list. For archaic forms a reliable dictionary should be consulted by the student.

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
abide	abode	abode
alight	alighted, alit	alighted, alit
arise	arose	arisen
awake	awoke, awaked	awaked
be	was	been
bear	bore	borne[1]
beat	beat	beaten
begin	began	begun
behold	beheld	beheld
bend	bent	bent
bereave	bereft, bereaved	bereft, bereaved
beseech	besought	besought

[1] The past participle of *bear*, in the sense of 'bring forth,' is *borne* in the active forms, *born* in the passive.

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
bet	bet	bet
bid (command)	bade	bidden
bid (offer money)	bid	bid
bind	bound	bound
bite	bit	bitten
bleed	bled	bled
blend	blent, blended	blent, blended
bless	blessed, blest	blessed, blest
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
breed	bred	bred
bring	brought	brought
build	built	built
burst	burst	burst
buy	bought	bought
cast	cast	cast
catch	caught	caught
chide	chid	chidden
choose	chose	chosen
cleave (split)[1]	clove, cleft,	cloven, cleft, cleaved
cling	clung	clung
come	came	come
cost	cost	cost
creep	crept	crept
cut	cut	cut
deal	dealt	dealt
dig	dug	dug, digged
dive	dived, dove	dived
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
dream	dreamed, dreamt	dreamed, dreamt
dress	drest, dressed	drest, dressed
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
dwell	dwelt	dwelt
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen

[1] *Cleave* in the sense of *cling* is regular.

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
feed	fed	fed
feel	felt	felt
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
flee	fled	fled
fling	flung	flung
fly	flew	flown
forbear	forbore	forborne
forget	forgot	forgotten
forsake	forsook	forsaken
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	got, gotten
gild	gilded, gilt	gilded, gilt
gird	girded, girt	girded, girt
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grind	ground	ground
grave	graved	graved, graven
grow	grew	grown
hang	hung, hanged (executed by hanging)	hung, hanged (executed by hanging)
have	had	had
hear	heard	heard
heave	hove, heaved	hove, heaved
hew	hewed	hewn
hide	hid	hidden
hit	hit	hit
hold	held	held
hurt	hurt	hurt
keep	kept	kept
kneel	knelt, kneeled	knelt, kneeled
knit	knit, knitted	knit, knitted
know	knew	known
lade	laded	laded, laden
lay	laid	laid
lead	led	led
leave	left	left
lend	lent	lent

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
let	let	let
lie (to recline)	lay	lain
light	lighted, lit	lighted, lit
lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
mean	meant	meant
meet	met	met
mow	mowed	mowed, mown
must	—	—
ought	—	—
pay	paid	paid
plead	pleaded, plead	pleaded, plead
put	put	put
quit	quit, quitted	quit, quitted
read	read	read
rend	rent	rent
rid	rid	rid
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung
rise	rose	risen
rive	rived	riven, rived
run	ran	run
say	said	said
see	saw	seen
seek	sought	sought
seethe (transitive)[1]	seethed, sod	seethed, sodden
sell	sold	sold
send	sent	sent
set	set	set
sew	sewed	sewed, sewn
shake	shook	shaken
shear	sheared	sheared, shorn
shed	shed	shed
shine	shone	shone
shoe	shod	shod
shoot	shot	shot

[1] *Seethe* as an intransitive verb is regular.

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
show	showed	shown
shred	shred, shredded	shred, shredded
shrink	shrank	shrunk
shrive	shrove, shrived	shriven, shrived
shut	shut	shut
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank	sunk
sit	sat	sat
slay	slew	slain
sleep	slept	slept
slide	slid	slidden, slid
sling	slung	slung
slink	slunk, slank	slunk, slank
slit	slit	slit
smell	smelt, smelled	smelt, smelled
smite	smote	smitten
sow	sowed	sowed, sown
speak	spoke	spoken
speed	sped	sped
spell	spelt, spelled	spelt, spelled
spend	spent	spent
spill	spilled, spilt	spilled, spilt
spin	spun	spun
spit	spit	spit
split	split	split
spoil	spoiled, spoilt	spoiled, spoilt
spread	spread	spread
spring	sprang	sprung
stand	stood	stood
stave	stove, staved	stove, staved
stay	stayed, staid	stayed, staid
steal	stole	stolen
stick	stuck	stuck
sting	stung	stung
stink	stunk, stank	stunk
strew	strewed	strewn
stride	strode	stridden
strike	struck	struck, stricken

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
string	strung	strung
strive	strove	striven
swear	swore	sworn
sweat	sweated, sweat	sweated, sweat
sweep	swept	swept
swell	swelled	swelled, swollen
swim	swam	swum
swing	swung	swung
take	took	taken
teach	taught	taught
tear	tore	torn
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
thrive	throve, thrived	thriven, thrived
throw	threw	thrown
thrust	thrust	thrust
tread	trod	trod, trodden
wake	woke, waked	woke, waked
wear	wore	worn
weave	wove	woven
weep	wept	wept
wet	wet	wet
win	won	won
wind	wound	wound
work	worked, wrought	worked, wrought
wring	wrung	wrung
write	wrote	written

V. CAPITALIZATION, PUNCTUATION, THE DIVISION OF WORDS

1. Capitals.—The following should begin with capitals:

(*a*) The first word of every sentence.

(*b*) Proper nouns, as Kipling, India, Thanksgiving Day, New York, The Hague.

(*c*) Proper adjectives, as Russian, Caucasian, Siamese.

(*d*) Names of the Deity, as God, Jehovah, the Holy Ghost.

(*e*) The pronoun I and the interjection O.

(*f*) The first word of a direct quotation, as "Pope said: 'Whatever is, is right.' "

(*g*) Important titles, as the Empress of India, the Sultan of Turkey, the Prince of Wales, the President of the United States.

(*h*) The first and every important word in the title of a book (articles, prepositions, and conjunctions being usually uncapitalized).

2. Punctuation Marks.—(*a*) *The period* (.) marks the end of a declarative and usually of an imperative sentence. It is also used after abbreviations, as N. Y., Ph. D., University of Vt.

(*b*) *The interrogation point* (?) is used:

I. After direct questions; as, "Who wants it?"

II. In parentheses, to indicate doubt; as, "The casualties number 1,200 (?)."[1]

(*c*) *The exclamation point* (!) is used:

I. After interjections; as, Alas! Ah!

II. After exclamatory sentences; as, "How incredible it seems!"

(*d*) *The colon* (:) is used to indicate the largest division of thought within the sentence:

I. After the introduction to a somewhat formal quotation; as, "He continued as follows: 'After what I have already intimated, ladies and gentlemen,' " etc.

II. After the introduction to an enumeration of several particular items, usually separated from one another by semicolons; as, "The task before the

[1] The use of the interrogation point in parentheses for purposes of humor or irony, as in the sentence, "The sophomores have brought all their wisdom(?) to bear on the problem," is, in general, to be avoided.

committee was threefold: to investigate the present order thoroughly, giving full value to all statements of grievances; to suggest such improvements and ameliorations as seem necessary, if the present order is to be maintained; to propose a feasible substitute for the present order in case it be regarded as intolerable."

(*e*) *The semicolon* (;) is used:

I. To separate coördinate clauses in a sentence, as illustrated above (*d*, II).

II. After the introduction to an illustration, an example, or a somewhat informal quotation; as, "Extremes of temperature produce similar sensations; as, for example, a piece of metal which is intensely cold seems to burn the fingers."

(*f*) *The Comma* (,) is used:

I. To separate coördinate elements which are very closely related in the sentence; as, "While Mrs. Churchill lived, there could not have been a hope, a chance, a possibility." "A wild, gray, windy morning broke."

II. To separate subordinate clauses from the main sentence, as illustrated above (I), and from each other; as, "He made hasty adieux, mounted his horse, waved his hand, and was off."

III. To separate appositives from the nouns they modify; as, "The third of May, the first anniversary of the battle, was at hand."

IV. To separate from the rest of the sentence elements that are relatively independent; as, "Strange to say, the party returned in good time." "This fact, it should be noted, has further implications."

V. To separate contrasted members of the sentence; as, "Not what I have, but what I do is my kingdom."

VI. To separate pairs of words or phrases from other pairs; as, "Sink or swim, live or die, survive or perish, I give my hand and my heart to this vote."

VII. To separate informal quotations from such expressions as, "He said," "They cried," "She interrupted;" thus, "'No doubt of it,' she interposed sharply." "'I can't,' he answered." "They cried with one voice, 'Away with him.'"

(*g*) *Quotation marks* (" ") are used to separate a direct quotation from the context. A quotation within a quotation is set off by single quotation marks (' '), as illustrated above (*f*, VII).

(*h*) *The apostrophe* (') is used:

I. As a sign of the possessive.

II. To indicate the omission of a letter or letters, as in the contractions, *can't, she'll.*

(*i*) *Parentheses* ( ) are used to separate from the rest of the sentence or paragraph interpolated ideas often explanatory and always relatively independent of the context; as, "He may be a sinner like the rest of us (nothing more likely), but I'll be bound he's a madman, too."

(*j*) *Brackets* [ ] are used to enclose words inserted into a direct quotation but not a part of the original; as "He [the archbishop] did not fear death."

(*k*) *The hyphen* (-) is used:

I. To separate compound words, as *self-absorbed, bell-like, fellow-citizen.*

II. To divide words at the end of a line, as

for-
tune.
hemi-
sphere.

3. The Division of Words.

I. The division of words at the end of a line should fall at the end of a syllable, as *para-graph, under-take, mak-ing.*

II. Wherever the principle stated under I allows, divide a word after a vowel, as *propo-sition*, not *prop-osition, parti-ciple*, not *part-iciple.*

III. In present participles, carry the *ing* to the next line, as *charg-ing, commenc-ing, divid-ing.*