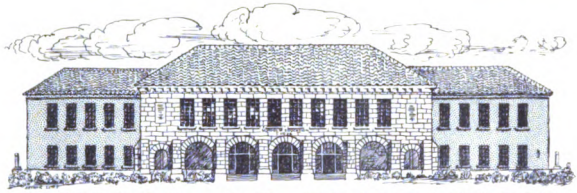

Our Language

SMITH AND McMURRY

GRAMMAR

BY

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PREFACE

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C. ALPHONSO SMITH.

Chapel Hill, N. C.,
September, 1903.

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HISTORICAL INTRODUCTION

THE PEOPLE

Our First Home.—In one of his most interesting books Nathaniel Hawthorne speaks of England as Our Old Home. Of course, in a sense, England is our old home; but it is not our oldest home. The Americans are to-day the largest part of the English-speaking people, and the English-speaking people have had three homes, of which England was the second. If you will open your geography at the map of Germany and place a one-cent piece over the city of Hamburg, it will lie upon the ancient territory of both the Angles and the Saxons. These were our ancestors and their home was our first home. They were a small part of the great Germanic or Teutonic race. They were large, fearless, blue-eyed people who loved their home, but loved a sea fight better. The little district of Angeln, north of Hamburg, actually preserves to-day the old name of the Angles or English. It would seem that no other place in the world would have quite the same interest for an Englishman or an American as this district of Angeln, which still keeps the name of our old homestead.

Our Second Home.—The year 449 A. D. is in English history what the year 1607 is in American history. Each date marks the close of a century of invasions for booty and the beginning of a permanent settlement. By 449 the

English had found their first home too small for them. They gladly accepted an invitation from the British Celts and began to move over into what is now called England. The Celts wanted the English to help them drive out some troublesome neighbors from the north; but the English liked the new country so well that, with the exception of the American branch, most of them have remained in England to this day.

Our Third Home.—In 1492—but every student of this book knows what took place in that year. It was not, however, till many years later that the English began to form permanent settlements along the American coast. The close of the sixteenth century found the English language confined to England, though Sir Walter Raleigh had made heroic attempts to settle an English colony on the coast of North Carolina. At last, in 1607, an English colony was planted at Jamestown, Virginia, and another in 1620 at Plymouth, Massachusetts. Soon the Atlantic seaboard began to be dotted by towns and cities. Then came the great movement westward. The English language was now heard from the Atlantic to the Pacific. The descendants of the sturdy old Angles and Saxons had occupied their third and largest home.

The Americans, says the English historian Green, have become "the main branch" of the English-speaking people. "In the days that are at hand the main current of that people's history must run along the channel, not of the Thames or the Mersey, but of the Hudson and the Mississippi." Mark Twain says that the English language is "the King's English" no longer; that it has gone into

the hands of a company, and that a majority of the stock is on our side of the Atlantic.

THE LANGUAGE

Three Periods in the History of the English Language.— As the people of English stock have had three homes, so there have been three distinct periods in the growth of the English language. But these three periods have nothing to do with the sojourn in the three homes. The English wrote no books in their first home, and not much is known of the language that they spoke. The history of the English language begins for us after the settlement in England. Between the settlement in England and the settlement in America the language had so changed that only a close student of it would see that it is to-day the same language. These changes divide the language into three periods:

1. The Period of Old English or Anglo-Saxon (449-1150).
2. The Period of Middle English (1150-1500).
3. The Period of Modern English (1500-).

The Period of Old English (449-1150).—It was during this period that Christianity was brought to England by the missionaries of Pope Gregory the First (597), for the English would not accept Christianity from the Celts. About sixty years later Cædmon,* the first English poet whose name has come down to us, began to sing the story of the creation. The foundations of English prose were laid by King Alfred, "England's darling," who ruled from

*Pronounced kăd'mŏn.

871 to 901. In the year 1066 the Normans under William the Conqueror defeated the Old English warriors in the great battle of Senlac, or Hastings, and settled permanently on English soil. It looked for a while as if the English language would be blotted out by the Norman French. It was not blotted out, but it underwent the severest strain that it has ever had to undergo. By 1150, about a hundred years after the Norman Conquest, the language had become so changed by new words and the loss of endings that scholars take that year as the dividing line between Old English and Middle English.

A Specimen of Old English.—The following verses from the Bible, *Matthew* 13: 3-4, will give you some idea of the quaint but strong and straightforward language that was spoken in Old English times.

And hē spræc tō hym fela on bigspellum, cwethende: Sōth-
And he spake to them many (things) in parables, saying: Tru-

lice, ūt-eōde sē sǽdere hys sǽd to sāwenne: and thā-thā hē
ly, out went the seeder his seed to sow: and when-then he

sēow, sume bīe fēollon with weg, and fuglas cōmon and ǽton thā.
sowed, some they fell along (the) way, and fowls came and ate them.

The Period of Middle English (1150-1500).—During the early years of this period the dialects spoken in different parts of England were so unlike that a man from the north could hardly understand a man from the south. And yet England is just the size of Alabama! Very soon, however, the dialect spoken in London became the standard, and the poets and prose writers modeled their language

after it. Two writers of this period are known to-day wherever the English language is studied: Geoffrey Chaucer (1340-1400), the poet of *The Canterbury Tales*, and John Wiclif (1324-1384), the translator of the Bible.

A Specimen of Middle English.—Here is how the Old English passage already quoted appears in Wiclif's translation:

And he spac to hem many thingis in parablis, and seide, Lo! he that sowith, yede out to sowe his seed. And while he sowith, summe seedis felden bisidis the weie, and bridis of the eir camen and eeten hem.

The Period of Modern English (1500-).—The Modern English period extends from the year 1500 to the present time. Thousands of new words have entered our language, and endings have been still further dropped; but in all essentials the grammar remains about the same. Every one who reads the Bible or hears it read must have noticed that we no longer say *thou lovest* or *he loveth*, but *you love* and *he loves*. The greatest changes have been in spelling and pronunciation. You would find little difficulty in reading most of the books written in the sixteenth century; but if the authors of these books could read them aloud to you, it would take you a long time to understand any but the simplest sentences. It was early in the Modern English period that the two greatest books ever written in the English language appeared. These are the King James Translation of the Bible (1611) and the first collected edition of Shakespeare's works (1623). As the Bible and Shakespeare will often be quoted, the student should remember when these two books were first published.

Specimen of Modern English in 1611.—The passage that we have twice quoted appears in 1611 as follows:

And hee spake many things vnto them in parables, saying, Behold a sower went foorth to sow.

And when he sowed, some seedes fell by the wayes side, and the foules came, and deuoured them vp.

Notice that *he* could be spelled in two ways. Spelling did not begin to crystallize into fixed forms until a hundred years later.

The Function of Grammar.—Such, then, is a brief sketch of our own people and our own language. We are now to study that language as it is written and spoken by the leaders of thought and action in the beginning of the twentieth century. Such a study will train us to think accurately and to speak worthily. It will lead us to watch more closely and to value more justly our own speech and the speech of others. It will show us law and order where before were chaos and caprice. It will make us independent of constant question and advice about how to speak and how to write correctly. It will give us a knowledge of all the words that are required in talking intelligently about our own language or any other language. It will enable us to move unashamed and to talk unabashed in the best circles of refined society. It will give us a sense of honest proprietorship in our mother tongue and permit us to hand it on undefiled to those that shall come after us.

PART I

THE SENTENCE

GRAMMAR

PARAGRAPHS AND SENTENCES

1. Read aloud the following passage:*

And now as she rested, the beauty of the scene came to her. Over her the wind moved the leaves. A jay screamed far off, as if answering the cries of the boy. A kingfisher crossed and recrossed the stream with a dipping sweep of his wings. The river sang with its lips to the pebbles. The vast clouds went by majestically far above the tree tops, and the snap and buzzing and ringing whir of July insects made a ceaseless, slumberous undertone of song solvent of all else. The tired girl forgot her work. She began to dream.

HAMLIN GARLAND: *Main Travelled Roads*

We see at once that this is a descriptive passage made up of eight groups of words. Each group, while expressing a distinct thought, helps to develop the topic of the whole passage. Each group has a unity of its own, but is a part of a larger unity. The passage is a *paragraph*. Each group is a *sentence*.

*EXPLANATION.—Julia Peterson, wearied with labor in the cornfield, is sitting with her bare feet in a stream and her head leaning against the trunk of a tree. Her brother Otto has gone, "whooping with uncontrollable delight," to bathe in a neighboring pond.

2. A Sentence is a group of words expressing a complete thought.

3. A Paragraph is a group of sentences developing a single topic.

QUESTIONS.—1. In the paragraph quoted on page 15, what objects are described as being seen?

2. What objects are described as being heard?

3. Which sentence begins with something seen and ends with something heard?

4. What five words in the first sentence constitute the topic of the paragraph?

4. Indention.

Indent the first word of every paragraph; that is, begin it about half an inch to the right of the left margin. In writing out a conversation, start a new paragraph whenever one person stops talking and another begins; as,

"Captain, I vow your manners are worthy of a Frenchman," said my Lord "and yet I am given to understand you are a Scotchman."

A shadow crossed the captain's face.

"I was, sir," he said.

"You were!" exclaimed Comyn, astonished; "and pray, what are you now, sir?";

"Henceforth, my Lord," John Paul replied with vast ceremony, "I am an Amer-

ican, the compatriot of the beautiful Miss Manners!"

"One thing I'll warrant, captain," said his Lordship, "that you are a wit."

WINSTON CHURCHILL: *Richard Carvel*

EXERCISES

I

Write a paragraph of not more than twelve sentences, beginning,—

Yesterday on my way from school I lost my knife.

Describe the knife so accurately that the finder will have no difficulty in identifying it.

II

Write a paragraph of not more than ten sentences telling of an incident that shows the generosity of one of your friends. Do not use the word "generous" or "generosity."

5. Quotation.

Read carefully these sentences:

1. "I am not afraid," said the soldier.
2. The soldier said that he was not afraid.
3. "What did you say?" he asked me.
4. He asked me what I said.

In sentences 1 and 3 the direct language of the speaker is quoted; in sentences 2 and 4 the language of the speaker is reported indirectly. Sentences 1 and 3 are examples of *direct discourse;* 2 and 4, of *indirect discourse.*

EXERCISES

I

Construct ten sentences in direct discourse and turn them into indirect discourse.

II

James Parker, aged 14, fell from a tree in the yard and was picked up unconscious. His brother John, aged 16, ran at once for a doctor. The doctor took John into his buggy and drove to Mr. Parker's.

Write out the conversation between John and the doctor as they drove along. Head your composition A CONVERSATION, but do not enclose the title in quotation marks. Do not use "said" and "asked" too often; vary them with "began," "inquired," "demanded," "replied," "explained."

6. Sentences and Sentence Members.

Some sentences seem at first glance to express more than one complete thought. Read again the sixth sentence of the paragraph already quoted on page 15. Does it not assert (1) that "The vast clouds went by majestically far above the tree tops," and (2) that "the snap and buzzing and ringing whir of July insects made a ceaseless, slumberous undertone of song"? Does not each assertion make complete sense? Why not say, then, that a sentence is a group of words expressing *one* or *more* complete thoughts? Because such a definition would include a whole paragraph; it would include a whole book. Besides, the

little word "and," standing between "the tree tops" and "the snap," shows that Mr. Garland considered the two assertions not as two sentences but as two united members of one sentence. Otherwise, he would have put a period or semicolon after "tree tops" and omitted the connective "and." Bear in mind, then, that just as a single paragraph may contain a great many sentences, so a single sentence may have a great many members; but these members must be joined by some connective. The most common connectives are "and," "but," and "or."

There are, for example, in the following stanza, three sentences, the last containing two members:

(*a*) They sang of love, and not of fame;
(*b*) Forgot was Britain's glory;
(*c*) Each heart recalled a different name,
But all sang Annie Laurie.

BAYARD TAYLOR: *The Song of the Camp*

EXERCISE

Point out the sentences and sentence members in these selections:

1. Mind is the great lever of all things; human thought is the process by which human ends are ultimately answered.

WEBSTER: *Bunker Hill Address*, 1825

2. Sentimentally I am disposed to harmony, but organically I am incapable of a tune.

LAMB: *A Chapter on Ears*

3. There was a shout, an imprecation, a scuffle, and the trampling of many feet. Then the crowd parted right and left, and two sharp quick reports followed each other in rapid succession. Then they closed again about his opponent, and the master was standing alone.

BRET HARTE: *M'liss*

4. Far from the madding crowd's ignoble strife
Their sober wishes never learned to stray;
Along the cool sequestered vale of life
They kept the noiseless tenor of their way.

GRAY: *Elegy in a Country Churchyard*

7. Four Kinds of Sentences.

We have already seen that sentences differ in length. Some contain only two words; as, *Jesus wept.* Others, by the use of "and," "but," "or," may reach almost any length. In the writings of Milton and DeQuincey there are sentences containing more than two hundred and fifty words, but young writers would do well to let such sentences severely alone. Let us note, however, another difference in sentences—a difference not in length but in the way the thought is expressed.

Compare the following sentences:

1. He reads distinctly.
2. Does he read distinctly?
3. Read distinctly.
4. How distinctly he reads!

It is evident that the speaker expresses his thought differently in each of these sentences. His point of

view changes. In the first sentence he expresses his thought as an assertion, or statement; in the second, as a question; in the third, as a command or entreaty; in the fourth, as an exclamation.

8. A sentence in the form of a statement is an Assertive Sentence.

9. A sentence in the form of a question is an Interrogative Sentence.

10. A sentence in the form of a command or entreaty is an Imperative Sentence.

11. A sentence in the form of an exclamation is an Exclamatory Sentence.

NOTE.—Assertive, imperative, and interrogative sentences are exclamatory when they express strong emotion; as, It is an outrage! Get out of my sight! Is it possible!

EXERCISES

I

Point out the different kinds of sentences in the following selection:

Fritz's keen eyes espied two [trees] of such a singular appearance that he stopped to examine them, and then cried, "Papa, look at those trees with large bulbs growing on the trunks!"

I drew nearer and found to my great satisfaction a group of calabash trees loaded with fruit.

"What can those excrescences be?" he asked.

"We will soon discover the secret," I replied. "Gather one of them, and let us examine the interior."

Immediately he placed in my hands a common gourd with a shell which seemed to me unusually soft.

"This gourd, Fritz," I said, "has in general a hard dry shell, of which cups, plates, and bottles can be made. The flexible stem of the plant on which it grows winds itself about the trunks and boughs of large and strong trees, from which the gourd is suspended. Can you think for what reason?"

"Yes," replied Fritz; "without this support, the weight of the gourd would break the branches of the plant on which it grows."

"You have judged rightly," I replied; "and it will prove to you how wisely God has arranged all things."

J. D. WYSS: *Swiss Family Robinson*

II

1. Show by examples the difference between imperative sentences containing a command and those containing an entreaty.

2. To which class do the sentences in the Lord's Prayer belong?

PUNCTUATION

12. Punctuation is of service both in the paragraph and in the sentence. It separates sentences in the paragraph, and single words or groups of words in the sentence. Punctuation does for the eye what vocal stress does for the ear. It is best learned by examples, not by elaborate rules.

13. The **Period** is used after every assertive sentence not closely connected with what follows; as,

The new South is enamored of her new work. Her soul is stirred with the breath of a new life. The light of a grander day is falling fair on her face. She is thrilling with the consciousness of a growing power and prosperity.

HENRY W. GRADY: *The New South*

Every sentence following a period should begin with a capital letter.

14. The **Colon** is used after "thus," "as follows," and expressions of similar import. It denotes expectation; as,

1. The Declaration of Independence begins as follows: "When in the course of human events," etc.

2. The marks of punctuation are these: the period, the colon, etc.

15. The **Semicolon** is used (*a*) between sentences closely connected in a paragraph, and (*b*) before "and" or "but" in sentence members already subdivided by commas; as,

(*a*) 1. Reunited—one country again and one country forever! Proclaim it from the press and pulpit; teach it in the schools; write it across the skies. The world sees and feels it.

WILLIAM MCKINLEY: *Our Country*

2. Think of the importance of friendship in the education of men. It will make a man honest; it will make him a hero; it will make him a saint. It is the state of the just dealing with the just, the magnanimous with the magnanimous, the sincere with the sincere, man with man.

THOREAU: *A Week on the Concord and Merrimac Rivers*

3. The majority of people have not learned this secret; they read for information or for refreshment; they do not read for enrichment.

MABIE: *Books and Culture*

(*b*) 1. Liberty always carries with it a certain license, the overflow of its powerful current; and liberty is the prime characteristic of an age of expansion.

MABIE: *Short Studies in Literature*

2. Cattle, jewels, and plate were sold as long as they lasted, to meet the piled-up taxes; but in time there was nothing left to sell, and the plantation began to go.

THOMAS NELSON PAGE: *Red Rock*

16. The **Comma** belongs distinctively to the sentence. It is used to separate words or groups of words which are closely related. It indicates a slight pause in the reading; as,

1. Lord Chatham thought that ships could be got ready, but Lord Anson thought otherwise.

2. Sidney Lanier, who was born in Macon, Georgia, February 3, 1842, died in Lynn, Polk county, North Carolina, September 7, 1881.

3. Sheridan, Sherman,* and Grant were Federal generals.

4. Gordon, the hero of the African campaign, was an earnest Christian.

5. Unless public opinion supports the law, it will be of no avail.

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*Pupils should be drilled in this use of the comma. It was once customary to omit the comma before "and," "or," "nor" in sentences of this sort; but to-day the most careful writers do not omit it. Of course, if the series contains but two members—"Sheridan and Sherman were Federal generals"—no comma is used.

6. Mr. President, there is but one thing to be done.

7. Oh, the bells, bells, bells!

8. "I see him," said Rebecca.

9. That is not, however, what I mean.

10. This has been a hot, dry, dusty day.

NOTE.—The worst mistake that the pupil can make in punctuation is to confound the comma with the period; but even college students are not guiltless of such blunders as—

It was a gloomy place, trees and rocks overshadowed it, the rocks were chiefly granite.

Note carefully these sentences, each of which is correctly punctuated:

1. Man proposes. God disposes.
2. Man proposes, but God disposes.
3. We at last made a touchdown. This decided the game.
4. We at last made a touchdown, and this decided the game.
5. Wait till I call for you. Then come at once.
6. Wait till I call for you, and then come at once.

Express now in your own words the principle illustrated.

17. The **Dash** is used chiefly to denote a break in the sense; as,

1. The night was stormy and—but first let me tell where we were.

2. Pessimists declare—and not altogether without reason—that the art of conversation is among the lost arts.

18. The Interrogation Point is used after every complete question; as,

1. Who said so?

2. "Where was it found?" asked the judge.

NOTE.—When several questions follow one another in a series, it is best to begin only the first with a capital; as,

When did you see him? where? in what company?

19. The Exclamation Point is used (*a*) after every exclamatory sentence, and may be used instead of the comma (*b*) after *oh, ah, alas,* etc.; as,

(*a*) How beautiful the sky looks!

(*b*) Alas! our young affections run to waste,
Or water but the desert.

NOTE.—When several exclamations follow one another in a series, it is best to begin only the first with a capital; as,

How beautiful is the night! how still! how serene!

20. Quotation Marks are used (*a*) at the beginning *and at the close** of a direct quotation, and may be used instead of italics (*b*) in writing the names of books, magazines, and newspapers; as,

(*a*) 1. "I would rather be right than president," said Clay.

2. "I would rather be right," said Clay, "than president."

(*b*) 1. I looked through several copies of "The New York Times" and of "Harper's Monthly" to find a criticism of "The Jungle Books."

21. The only safe **Rule for Punctuation** is to cultivate the habit of observing closely what you read.

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*These words are italicized because there is a tendency on the part of pupils, as persistent as it is confusing, to omit the quotation marks at the close of a quotation.

EXERCISES

I

As an exercise in punctuation, write from dictation these two letters:

TRIBUNE OFFICE, NEW YORK,
May 2, 1869.

HON. M. B. CASTLE,
Sandwich, Ill.

DEAR SIR:—

I am overworked and growing old. I shall be sixty next February 3d. On the whole, it seems I must decline to lecture henceforth, except in this immediate vicinity, if I do at all. I cannot promise to visit Illinois on that errand—certainly not now.

Yours,
HORACE GREELEY.

SANDWICH, ILL.,
May 12, 1869.

HON. HORACE GREELEY,
New York Tribune.

DEAR SIR:—

Your acceptance to lecture before our association next winter came to hand this morning. Your penmanship not being the plainest, it took some time to translate it; but we succeeded, and would say, your time, February 3d, and terms, $60, are entirely satisfactory. As you suggest, we may be able to get you other engagements in the immediate vicinity; if so, we shall advise you.

Yours respectfully,
M. B. CASTLE.

II

Write also from dictation this extract:

"I see him," said Rebecca. "He leads a body of men close under the outer barrier of the barbican. They pull down the piles and palisades; they hew down the barriers with axes. They have made a breach in the barriers! they rush in! they are thrust back! Front de Boeuf heads the defenders; I see his gigantic form above the press. They throng again to the breach, and the pass is disputed, hand to hand, and man to man. Front de Boeuf and the Black Knight fight hand to hand on the breach, amid the roar of their followers, who watch the progress of the strife. Heaven strike with the cause of the oppressed and of the captive!" She then uttered a loud shriek, and exclaimed, "He is down! he is down!"

"Who is down?" cried Ivanhoe.

"The Black Knight," answered Rebecca faintly; then instantly again shouted with joyful eagerness, "But no! but no! he is on foot again, and fights as if there were twenty men's strength in his single arm."

WALTER SCOTT: *Ivanhoe*

FORM AND FUNCTION

22. Changes of Form in Words.

The sentence, we have learned, is a part of the paragraph. We are now to study words as parts of the sentence. The most noticeable thing about words is their frequent change of form. Can you find in any dictionary all the words occurring in any paragraph that has been quoted? Try the first sentence of the paragraph quoted on page 15. Dictionaries, as a rule, either omit "rested," "came," and "her," or refer to "rest," "come," and "she." Why? Because "rested" is only a form of "rest," "came" of "come," and "her" of "she."

Evidently, then, the dictionary does not tell all that we must know about words. It does not explain the different meanings and uses of the various forms of a word. Some words—"and," "or," "to," "thus," etc.—have no other forms; but most of the words in our language may change their form to denote a change of function.

EXERCISE

In the following selection, tell what words would be found in the dictionary under different forms:

It was with some difficulty that he [Rip] found the way to his own house, which he approached with silent awe, ex-

pecting every moment to hear the shrill voice of Dame Van Winkle. He found the house gone to decay—the roof fallen in, the windows shattered, and the doors off the hinges. A half-starved dog that looked like Wolf was skulking about it. Rip called him by name; but the cur snarled, showed his teeth, and passed on. This was an unkind cut indeed—"My very dog," sighed poor Rip, "has forgotten me!"

WASHINGTON IRVING: *Rip Van Winkle*

23. Changes of Function in Words.

Does "I" differ in meaning from "my" and "me"? Does "see" differ in meaning from "saw," "seen," "sees," and "seeing"? Not in the dictionary sense of meaning; otherwise, the dictionary would give separate definitions for each of these words. The same may be said of "boy," "boy's," "boys," and "boys'"; of "rich," "richer," and "richest"; of "this" and "these," "that" and "those"; and of many other words. These words differ fundamentally; but it is a difference of function, and this difference is shown by a change of form. The *grammatical function* of a word, then, means its particular duty, or office, or relationship in the sentence. Outside of the sentence, a word can have no grammatical function: it is dead to grammar, but alive to the dictionary.

24. Form and Function.

Form and function should be studied together, for we cannot use the grammatical form of a word

correctly until we know its grammatical function. A mistake in one is not always a mistake in the other. Uncle Remus, for example, begins one of his charming stories thus:

Hit turn out one time dat Brer Rabbit make so free wid de man's collard-patch dat de man he tuck'n sot a trap fer ole Brer Rabbit.

There is an error of form in the first word of this extract, because "Hit" is not one of the forms of "It." There is an error of function in the second word, because "turn," though a proper form, is not used in its proper function. It should be "turned."

QUESTION.—In the sentence from Uncle Remus, is form or function violated in "make"? in "tuck"? in "sot"?

25. Inflection deals with the changes of form that words undergo in the sentence.

26. Syntax deals with the functions of words in the sentence.

27. Grammar is the study of the forms and functions of words in the sentence.

EXERCISES

I

Write sentences illustrating the difference in function between "he" and "him," "men" and "men's," "begun" and "began," "don't" and "doesn't," "who" and "whom," "as well as I" and "as well as me," "James and I" and "James and me."

II

Find the violations of form and function in these lines by Mr. Kipling:

There was a small boy of Quebec,
Who was buried in snow to his neck;
When they asked, "Is you friz?"
He replied, "Yes, I is;
But we don't call this cold in Quebec."

28. The Parts of Speech.

Not only do the different forms of the same word have different functions, but whole classes of words differ in function from other classes. In the sentence, "The boys worked vigorously," you might substitute many words for "worked," as, "studied," "spoke," "skated," "swam," "snored," etc. These words differ widely in meaning. The dictionary would not put them into the same class, but in grammar they belong to the same family because their function is the same; that is, each one of them joins "The boys" and "vigorously" into a sentence by telling what it was that the boys *did* vigorously. An equal number of grammatical equivalents could be found for "boys" and for "vigorously." Whenever, then, one word may be substituted for another in a sentence, the two words, however different in meaning, must have the same function; that is, they must be the same *part of speech*.

29. The Parts of Speech are the divisions into which words fall when grouped according to their function in the sentence.

EXERCISES

I

In the paragraph from *Main Travelled Roads*, page 15, find eleven words that belong in function with "studied." In the selection from *Ivanhoe*, page 28, find two words that belong in function with "vigorously."

II

For each of the following italicized words substitute another word differing in meaning but performing the same function:

1. The boys *shouldered* their guns.
2. Robert is *taller* than Margaret.
3. The book was lying *on* the table.
4. When was this *schoolhouse* built?
5. He walked *slowly* and *sadly* away.
6. I shall see him Tuesday *or* Wednesday.
7. *She* met *me* early this morning.
8. *Alas,* poor Yorick!

30. A Noun is the name of anything; as,

book, multitude, wisdom, Victoria.

31. A Pronoun is a word used instead of a noun; as,

I, who?, who, he, him, each.

32. An Adjective is a word used to modify a noun and sometimes a pronoun; as,

good, white, all, few, ten.

NOTE.—The indefinite article *a* or *an* and the definite article *the* are adjectives in function.

33. A Verb is a word or group of words used to express action, being, or state of being; as,

1. Cain *slew* his brother.
2. He *walks* rapidly.
3. They *are* in the house.
4. He *slept* here.
5. This *might have been avoided.*
6. The soldier *may have been wounded* in battle.
7. From daylight until darkness the enemy *had been held* at bay.

NOTE.—Such expressions as "might have been avoided," "may have been wounded," "had been held," "is coming," "shall be," "would be," etc., are called *Verb Phrases.*

34. An Adverb is a word used to modify (*a*) **an adjective,** (*b*) **a verb, or** (*c*) **another adverb;** as,

(*a*) 1. She is *very* pretty.
2. The weather is *too* hot for comfort.

(*b*) 1. They were walking *slowly.*
2. I went *immediately* to the rescue.

(*c*) 1. You read *too* rapidly.
2. They visit each other *very* rarely.

35. A Preposition is a word used to show the relation between the (*a*) **noun or** (*b*) **pronoun that follows it and some other word in the sentence;** as,

(*a*) 1. He is a man *of* honor.
2. They were walking *toward* the trestle.

(*b*) 1. It was handed *to* him.
2. My brother was *with* me.

36. A Conjunction is a word used to connect (*a*) words, or (*b*) groups of words; as,

(*a*) 1. Richardson *and* Fielding were the first English novelists.

2. James *or* John will accompany you.

(*b*) 1. The people discussed the question, *but* they did not arrive at a conclusion.

2. I will stay, *if* you will wait for me.

37. An Interjection is an exclamatory word expressing sudden emotion; as,

hurrah! alas! oh! ah! pshaw!

NOTE.—The interjection is not really an organic part of the sentence. It is, as the name implies, "thrown in."

EXERCISES

I

The following sentence contains all the parts of speech; find them:

Alas! they had once been loyal friends, but the slanders of an enemy had estranged them.

II

Write two other sentences containing all the parts of speech.

THE PARTS OF THE SENTENCE

38. Subject and Predicate.

Examine these sentences:

1. Fish | swim.
2. Who | did this?
3. He | is not sick.
4. History | repeats itself.
5. They | are coming now.
6. I | shall be at home all day.
7. We | returned by the 4 p. m. express.
8. To remain here longer | would be perilous.
9. The dove | found no rest for the sole of her foot.
10. The body of the soldier | was found under a scarred tree.
11. His having been wounded | was the cause of his despondency.
12. The accident | might have been avoided by a little precaution.

39. The perpendicular line divides each of these sentences into a naming part and an asserting part. All that precedes the line is **Logical Subject**; all on the right of the line is **Logical Predicate.** The underscored words on the left indicate the **Grammatical Subject**; those on the right indicate the **Grammatical Predicate.**

It is evident from the twelve sentences in § 38—

1. That if a sentence contains only two words, these must be the subject and the predicate;*

2. That the grammatical subject and predicate are the most important parts of the logical subject and predicate;

3. That the logical subject and predicate are nothing more than the grammatical subject and predicate *plus* their modifiers;

4. That the grammatical subject is always a noun or some word or group of words having the function of a noun;

5. That the grammatical predicate is always a verb or verb phrase.

40. The Subject of a sentence names that of which something is thought.

41. The Predicate of a sentence tells what is thought of the subject.

---

*Such a sentence as "Come here" is no exception. It is really "[You] come here," and contains three words. Observe also that when a sentence contains only two words, the logical subject and predicate are the same as the grammatical subject and predicate.

42. The subject with its modifiers is called the Logical Subject, or Complete Subject.

43. The predicate with its modifiers is called the Logical Predicate, or Complete Predicate.

44. To analyze a sentence is to tell its logical subject and logical predicate, and its grammatical subject and grammatical predicate, with their modifiers.

NOTE.—The words subject and predicate, used alone, always mean grammatical subject and grammatical predicate.

EXERCISE

Divide and underscore as in § 38 these sentences:

1. The world knows nothing of its greatest men.
SIR HENRY TAYLOR: *Philip Van Artevelde*

2. The bravest are the tenderest,
The loving are the daring.
BAYARD TAYLOR: *The Song of the Camp*

3. And the star-spangled banner in triumph shall wave
O'er the land of the free and the home of the brave.
FRANCIS SCOTT KEY: *The Star-Spangled Banner*

4. Nothing great was ever achieved without enthusiasm.
RALPH WALDO EMERSON: *Circles*

5. I loved thee long and dearly,
Florence Vane;
My life's bright dream and early
Hath come again;
I renew in my fond vision
My heart's dear pain,
My hope, and thy derision,
Florence Vane.
PHILIP PENDLETON COOKE: *Florence Vane*

6. Great truths are portions of the soul of man;
Great souls are portions of eternity.

JAMES RUSSELL LOWELL: *Sonnet VI*

45. Compound Subject and Compound Predicate.

Observe how the subjects in these three sentences differ from those in § 38:

1. Henry III, Edward III, and George III ruled longer than any other English kings.

2. Women and children are invited to attend.

3. Neither tree nor shrub could be seen.

Observe how the predicates in the following sentences differ from the predicates in § 38:

4. He inserted the key, opened the door, entered, and found the body lying on the floor.

5. She skated across the pond, seized the scarf, and bore it triumphantly back.

6. He left the house, but took nothing with him.

46. Two or more subject members having the same predicate form a Compound Subject.

47. Two or more predicate members having the same subject form a Compound Predicate.

48. A subject having but one member is called a Simple Subject.

49. A predicate having but one member is called a Simple Predicate.

NOTE.—The most common connectives are *and* (*both . . and*), *but, or* (*either . . or*), *nor* (*neither . . nor*).

EXERCISES

I

Which subjects and predicates are simple, and which compound, in these sentences?

1. The curfew tolls the knell of parting day;
The lowing herd wind slowly o'er the lea;
The ploughman homeward plods his weary way,
And leaves the world to darkness and to me.

THOMAS GRAY: *An Elegy*

2. Poe and Chopin were born the same year and died the same year.

3. He rose at dawn and, fired with hope,
Shot o'er the seething harbor-bar,
And reach'd the ship and caught the rope,
And whistled to the morning star.

TENNYSON: *The Sailor Boy*

4. Home they brought her warrior dead:
She nor swoon'd, nor utter'd cry.

TENNYSON: *The Princess*

5. And neither the angels in heaven above,
Nor the demons down under the sea,
Can ever dissever my soul from the soul
Of the beautiful Annabel Lee.

POE: *Annabel Lee*

6. Either his uncle, or his uncle's son, may redeem him.

Leviticus 25: 49

7. Gladstone, Tennyson, Darwin, Lincoln, Holmes, Poe, and Chopin were all born in the year 1809.

8. The Hungarian carried back the plunder of the cities of Lombardy to the depth of the Pannonian forests. The

Saracen ruled in Sicily, desolated the fertile plains of Campania, and spread terror even to the walls of Rome.

MACAULAY: *History of England*

9. The name of the child, the air of the mother, the tone of her voice,—all awakened a train of recollections in his mind.*

IRVING: *Rip Van Winkle*

II

Write five sentences with compound subjects and simple predicates; five with compound predicates and simple subjects; and five with compound subjects and compound predicates.

50. Relative Positions of Subject and Predicate.

The subject regularly precedes the predicate. This, at least, is the **Normal Order**; but for the sake of variety and emphasis this order is frequently reversed. When the predicate precedes the subject, we have the **Inverted Order.** Inversion is due chiefly to four causes:

a. When a modifier of the predicate begins the sentence, the predicate is often drawn to the front and the subject made to follow; as,

1. So fades a summer cloud away;
   So sinks the gale when storms are o'er;
   So gently shuts the eye of day;
   So dies a wave along the shore.

MRS. BARBAULD: *Death of the Virtuous*

*Notice how frequently compound subjects and compound predicates contain three members each. There is a decided trend in English toward this "tripartite construction."

2. Hardly had I mounted my horse before the rain began.

3. Into the valley of death
Rode the six hundred.

TENNYSON: *Charge of the Light Brigade*

4. Here lies a truly honest man.

RICHARD CRASHAW: *Epitaph upon Mr. Ashton*

NOTE.—1. When the predicate is a verb phrase—"had mounted," "did say," "shall go," "could have succeeded," etc.—the laws of inversion are satisfied if the subject follows not the entire predicate, but only the first word of it.

NOTE.—2. The following words, if initial, require inversion: "hardly," "little," "neither," "never," "nor," "not only," "nowhere," "scarcely," and "seldom."

b. Inversion is always found in interrogative sentences when neither the subject nor its modifier is the interrogative word*; as,

1. Are you sick?
2. What did† he say?
3. Where shall we go?
4. Could he have succeeded?
5. Do† you insist on it?
6. Might this accident have been avoided?
7. Did† you meet him?
8. Where have you been?
9. In what way have I offended you?

*In "Who did it?" the subject is the interrogative word; in "Which one comes first?" the subject "one" has the interrogative "Which" as its modifier. In both sentences, therefore, the order of words is normal.

†One of the peculiarities of English as now spoken and written is the use of "do" and "did" in interrogative sentences and in negative

c. Inversion is employed after "There" and "It" used as mere expletives.

An expletive is a "filler-out." "There" and "It" as used in this construction *fill out* the space left vacant by the postponed subject; they look forward to the subject, and have been called "prospective *it*" and "prospective *there*."

In the following sentences the subjects are italicized:

1. There is no royal *road* to learning.
2. There are very few *partridges* this season.
3. It is wrong *to do that.*
4. It is certain *that the earth moves round the sun.*

d. Inversion was once regularly employed in conditional sentences with omitted "If," and in imperative sentences both affirmative and negative. In the English of to-day, however, "If" is rarely omitted except before "Were," "Had," and "Should"; imperative sentences take the inverted order only when negative. Compare these sentences:

1. Were I in your place, I should act differently.
2. Had you come a moment sooner, you would have seen him.

---

sentences. We cannot now say "What said he?" or "He loves not his neighbor," but must say "What *did* he say?" and "He *does* not love his neighbor." The change is due to the emphatic nature of interrogative and negative sentences; but every one must feel the superior ease and beauty of these sentences:

1. Lovest thou me more than these?
John 21 : 15
2. Lay not that flattering unction to your soul.
Hamlet III, 4

Latter-day English would require "Do" in each case.

3. Should you decide to do that, wire me.
4. Don't speak so rapidly.

NOTE.—The last sentence is equivalent to "Don't [you] speak so rapidly"; but "Keep to your own side," is equivalent to "[You] keep to your own side." Compare "You let that boy alone," "You stay right here:" these are imperative affirmative sentences, and the order is normal.

EXERCISES

I

Explain the relative positions of subject and predicate in these sentences:

1. There lives more faith in honest doubt,
   Believe me, than in half the creeds.

   TENNYSON: *In Memoriam*

2. There is a pleasure in the pathless woods;
   There is a rapture on the lonely shore;
   There is society, where none intrudes,
   By the deep sea, and music in its roar.

   BYRON: *Childe Harold*

3. There* were his young barbarians all at play;
   There* was their Dacian mother: he, their sire,
   Butcher'd to make a Roman holiday!

   Ibid

4. The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,
   And all that beauty, all that wealth e'er gave,
   Awaits† alike th' inevitable hour.
   The paths of glory lead but to the grave.

   THOMAS GRAY: *An Elegy*

*This is not expletive "There."

†This line is generally written and quoted incorrectly. Gray wrote "awaits," not "await." The subject is "hour." The first two lines constitute the direct object.

5. The sun's rim dips; the stars rush out:
At one stride comes the dark;
With far-heard whisper o'er the sea,
Off shot the spectre-bark.

COLERIDGE: *Ancient Mariner*

6. "Silence, sir!" roared his father. "When your opinion's wanted, you give it. When you're spoke to, you speak. When your opinion's not wanted, and you're not spoke to, don't you give an opinion, and don't you speak."

DICKENS: *Barnaby Rudge* (John Willet to his son Joe)

7. Or were I in the wildest waste,
Of earth and air, of earth and air,
The desert were a paradise,
If thou wert there, if thou wert there.

BURNS: *O Wert Thou in the Cauld Blast*

8. It* sounds like stories from the land of spirits
If any man obtains that which he merits.

COLERIDGE: *A Complaint*

9. Howe'er it be, it* seems to me,
'Tis only noble to be good.

TENNYSON: *Lady Clara Vere de Vere*

10. O fear not in a world like this,
And thou shalt know erelong,
Know how sublime a thing it* is
To suffer and be strong.

LONGFELLOW: *The Light of Stars*

11. Oh! what a blessin' *'tw'u'd ha' been,
Ef Santy had been born a twin!

IRWIN RUSSELL: *Christmas Night in the Quarters*

12. Now is the winter of our discontent
Made glorious summer by this sun of York.

SHAKESPEARE: *Richard III*

*Notice that the real subject is an entire line.

13. Had we never loved sae kindly,
Had we never loved sae blindly,
Never met, or never parted,
We had ne'er been broken-hearted.

BURNS: *Ae Fond Kiss*

II

(1) Construct five sentences with expletive "It," and five with expletive "There"; point out the real subject in each sentence. (2) Construct two sentences in illustration of each of the other three cases of inversion; point out the subject and predicate of each sentence.

51. The Direct Object and the Indirect Object.

We have learned that verbs express action, being, or state of being. These three kinds of verbs may be grouped into two classes.

The first class will contain all verbs denoting an action that *passes over* to a **Direct Object**; as,

1. I remember *him.*
2. Brutus stabbed *Cæsar.*
3. They are calling *you.*

The second class will include all other verbs; that is, verbs expressing being, or state of being, and verbs expressing a self-centered action which by its very nature *cannot pass over* to an object; as,

4. They live well.
5. He is not here.
6. We have not slept during the night.
7. Henry walked into the house and lay down on the lounge.

Such verbs as *get, give, make, promise, send, teach, tell,* etc., express action that not only passes over to a direct object but that may pass on to a receiver, or **Indirect Object**; as,

8. He gave *her* a book.
9. Tell *me* a story.
10. Forgive *us* our debts.
11. They made *them* a doll house.

The indirect object usually expresses a "to" or "for" relation. "He gave me a book" means "He gave a book *to* me." "Pluck me a rose" means "Pluck a rose *for* me."

The indirect object, however, after "ask" expresses a "from" or "of" relation; as,

He asked *me* a question.

52. The Direct Object of a verb names the person or thing acted upon directly.

53. The Indirect Object of a verb names the person or thing acted upon indirectly.

54. A Transitive Verb is one that is followed by a direct object.

55. An Intransitive Verb is one that is not followed by a direct object.

"Transitive" means "having the power to pass over." Bacon says that "Cold is active and *transitive* into bodies adjacent, as well as heat."

NOTE.—In such a sentence as "He eats slowly," "eats" is frequently called a transitive verb used intransitively.

There is no such thing as a transitive verb used intransitively, or an intransitive verb used transitively. Use, or function, is what alone makes a verb transitive or intransitive. When a verb in the active voice does not take a direct object in a particular sentence, it is an intransitive verb in that sentence, whatever it may be elsewhere.

EXERCISES

I

Find the direct and indirect objects in these selections:

1. I wiped away the weeds and foam,
   I fetched my sea-born treasures home;
   But the poor, unsightly, noisome things
   Had left their beauty on the shore,
   With the sun and the sand and the wild uproar.

   EMERSON: *Each and All*

2. Build thee more stately mansions, O my soul,
   As the swift seasons roll!
   Leave thy low-vaulted past!

   HOLMES: *The Chambered Nautilus*

3. And don't confound the language of the nation
   With long-tailed words in *osity* and *ation*.

   J. H. FRERE: *The Monks and the Giants*

4. God gives us love. Something to love
   He lends us.

   TENNYSON: *To J. S.*

5. Tell me not in mournful numbers
   Life is but an empty dream!

   LONGFELLOW: *Psalm of Life*

6. Diamond me no diamonds! prize me no prizes!

   TENNYSON: *Elaine*

II

Make a sentence with each of the following verb phrases; let each sentence contain a compound subject, a direct object, and an indirect object*:

had already told,	will bequeath,
might easily have brought,	will now cook,
did not refuse,	have just written.

56. The Active Voice and the Passive Voice.

Active Voice.	Passive Voice.
Charlotte Corday stabbed Marat.	Marat was stabbed by Charlotte Corday.
She had forgotten me.	I had been forgotten by her.
I believe what you say.	What you say is believed by me.
I wiped away the weeds and foam.	The weeds and foam were wiped away by me.
Where did you find this book?	Where was this book found by you?
He and I shot and killed a bird and a rabbit.	A bird and a rabbit were shot and killed by him and me.

A study of these sentences shows—

1. That the active voice represents the subject as *acting,* while the passive voice represents the subject as *acted upon;*

*Remember that an indirect object cannot have a preposition before it. In "He handed me a book" and "He handed a book to me," "me" and "to me" do fulfill the same *function;* but "me" is an indirect object, while "to me" is a prepositional phrase.

2. That the object in the active voice becomes the subject in the passive voice;

3. That intransitive verbs, since they have no objects, cannot be used in the passive voice;

4. That all transitive verbs, since they have objects, may be used in the passive voice;

5. That the predicate in the passive voice cannot be a single word, but must be a verb phrase;

6. That the subject in the active voice has the preposition "by" before it in the passive voice.

NOTE.—Two prepositions, "to" and "with," may sometimes usurp the function of "by"; as,

1. That is known *to* everybody.
2. Miss A. was married *to* Mr. B.
3. These hills will soon be carpeted *with* grass.

57. Voice is the difference in the form and function of verbs which indicates whether the subject acts or is acted upon.

58. The Active Voice represents the subject as acting.

59. The Passive Voice represents the subject as acted upon.

EXERCISES

I

In the following sentences change each active voice into the passive voice, and each passive voice into the active voice:

1. They were tanned by the sun.
2. Shallow waters make most noise.

3. Temptation is prevented by constant occupation.

4. Death keeps no calendar.

5. We knew both husband and wife.

6. The debilitated frame of Mr. Bertram was exhausted by rage and indignation.

7. He and his son sold or gave away all of their property.

II

Change the italicized predicates in the following selection into the passive voice:

The night had closed in rain, and rolling clouds *blotted out* the lights of the villages in the valley. Forty miles away, untouched by cloud or storm, the white shoulder of Donga Pa—the Mountain of the Council of the Gods—*upheld* the Evening Star. The monkeys sang sorrowfully to each other as they hunted for dry roosts in the fern-wreathed trees, and the last puff of the day-wind *brought* from the unseen villages the scent of damp wood-smoke.

KIPLING: *Namgay Doola*

60. The Subject Complement.

Several intransitive verbs and passive verb phrases are followed by nouns, pronouns, or adjectives that really belong to the subject; as,

He { was / became / was made } president.

They { were / became / were made } rich.

Here "president" and "rich" *complete* the predi-

cates; but, unlike direct or indirect objects, they tell us something about the subjects. The predicates *couple* the subjects, "He" and "They," to the subject complements, "president" and "rich."

61. The Subject Complement* completes the predicate and refers to the subject.

Complement means that which *completes.*

62. A Copula, or Copulative Verb†, joins the subject to the subject complement.

Copula means that which *couples.*

EXERCISES

I

Point out the subject complements in these sentences:

1. Old England is our home, and Englishmen are we;
   Our tongue is known in every clime, our flag in every sea.
   MARY HOWITT: *Old England is Our Home*

2. I am not a Virginian, but an American.
   PATRICK HENRY: *Speech*, 1774

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*The subject complement is sometimes called the predicate noun, the predicate adjective, the predicate nominative, and the attribute complement.

†English is especially rich in copulative verbs meaning *to become.* We say that a man *falls* sick, *takes* sick, *gets* sick, *goes* crazy, *grows* rich, and *turns* red; that dogs *run* mad, and that cows and streams *run* dry. Other copulative verbs have more in common with *be* than with *become.* We say that a thing *feels* rough (*is* rough to the feel), *tastes* sweet, *smells* bad, *looks* pretty, etc.

3. Beauty is truth, truth beauty,—that is all
Ye know on earth, and all ye need to know.

KEATS: *Ode on a Grecian Urn*

4. The best laid schemes o' mice and men
Gang aft a'gley.*

BURNS: *To a Mouse*

5. Perhaps it may turn out a sang [song]
Perhaps turn out a sermon.

BURNS: *Epistle to a Young Friend*

6. Few, few shall part where many meet!
The snow shall be their winding sheet,
And every turf beneath their feet
Shall be a soldier's sepulchre.

CAMPBELL: *Hohenlinden*

7. For my part, getting up seems not so easy
By half as *lying*.

THOMAS HOOD: *Morning Meditations*

8. A man that's fond precociously of *stirring*
Must be a spoon.

Ibid.

9. Culture is never quantity, it is always quality of knowledge; it is never an extension of ourselves by additions from without, it is always enlargement of ourselves by development from within.

MABIE: *Books and Culture*

10. Be of good cheer; it is I, be not afraid.

Matthew 14: 27

11. You are not he.

Love's Labour's Lost, V. 2

*"Go often wrong."

12. A friend may well be reckoned the masterpiece of nature.

EMERSON: *Friendship*

13. Byron's European fame is the best earnest of his immortality, for a foreign nation is a kind of contemporaneous posterity.

BINNEY WALLACE: *Stanley*

14. Breathes there the man with soul so dead,
Who never to himself hath said,—
This is my own, my native land!

SCOTT: *The Lay of the Last Minstrel*

II

Construct with each of these predicates a sentence containing a subject complement:

felt	seems	was elected
turned	have always been	is going
shone	is growing	appeared
looked	will be chosen	will be nominated
tastes	has become	was considered

63. The Object Complement.

In "The rocking of the boat made him sick," the verb "made" is followed by two closely connected words, "him" and "sick." There are more than a hundred verbs in English that take this double construction. As most of these verbs are related in meaning to "make" (Latin *facere*), they are called *factitive* verbs. What, now, is the object of "made" in the sentence cited? Not "sick," for an adjective cannot be

the object of a verb; not "him," for the rocking did not make him. And yet there is an object somewhere. The truth is that the real or complete predicate is not "made," but "made sick," and "him" is the object of this phrasal predicate.

In such sentences, therefore, as, "They elected him president," "They called her Mary," "We consider the dog mad," the words immediately following "him," "her," and "dog" *complete** the predicates, but belong in sense to the objects.

64. The Object Complement† completes the verb and refers to the object.

65. A Factitive Verb is one that is followed by an object complement.

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*So close is the relation of the verb and the complementary adjective that (1) the two are often fused into one by the addition of *en* to the adjective; as, *to make straight—to straighten, to make black—to blacken, to make light—to lighten, to make long—to lengthen, to make short—to shorten,* etc. The fusion is rarer with nouns; as, *to make* one a *knight—to knight* one, *to make* one a *slave—to enslave* one, *to make* the heart *steel* against one—*to steel* the heart, etc. The closeness of relation between the verb and the complementary adjective is shown also by the fact that (2) the adjective is sometimes attracted out of its normal position and made to stand immediately after the verb; as, "He *made good* the loss," "They *made fast* the door," "*Lift high* the royal banner," etc.

†This has been called the factitive object, the complementary object, the objective complement, the appositive object, the secondary object, the factitive predicate, the objective predicate, the predicate objective, and the "name produced." "Object" is clearly not an apt term, as adjectives cannot properly be called objects.

EXERCISES

I

Find the object complements in the following selections:

1. Backward, turn backward, O Time in your flight!
   Make me a child again, just for to-night!

ELIZABETH AKERS ALLEN: *Rock Me to Sleep*

2. Woe unto them that call evil good, and good evil.

Isaiah 5: 20

3. I knew them flatterers of the festal hour.

BYRON: *Childe Harold*

4. You have confessed yourself a spy.

SCOTT: *Rob Roy*

5. Can we boast ourselves republican, when a stranger and a barbarian is thus thrust upon our necks?

BULWER: *Rienzi*

6. You must keep the lattice-blinds close shut, or the sun would drive you mad.

DICKENS: *Pictures from Italy*

7. Count that day lost whose low descending sun
   Views from thy hand no noble action done.

(Author unknown.)

8. He will hold thee, when his passion shall have spent its novel force,
   Something better than his dog, a little dearer than his horse.

TENNYSON: *Locksley Hall*

9. And Adam called his wife's name Eve.

Genesis 3: 30

10. That tribunal pronounced Charles a tyrant.

MACAULAY: *History of England*

11. I did wish him dead.

SHAKESPEARE: *Richard II, V, 6*

12. Even silent night proclaims my soul immortal.

YOUNG: *Night Thoughts*

II

Construct sentences in which each of these predicates shall be used with a direct object and an object complement:

fancies	nicknamed	shall count
pronounces	has made	could believe
thought	cannot consider	could declare

66. The Relation of Object Complements to Subject Complements.

When a factitive verb is put into the passive voice, it approaches in meaning the verb *become*. "He was made lame" is nearly equivalent to "He became lame."

OBJECT COMPLEMENT (Active Voice)	SUBJECT COMPLEMENT (Passive Voice)
They elected him *secretary.*	He was elected *secretary.**
He considers me a *friend.*	I am considered a *friend.*
The parents called their son *Henry.*	Their son was called *Henry.*

These sentences teach the following important *principle of syntax:*

67. An object complement in the active voice becomes a subject complement in the passive voice.

*The "by" phrase—"by them," "by him," etc.,—is omitted, as it does not affect the construction.

EXERCISE

Change your sentences in Exercise II, page 57, into the passive voice; make each former object complement a subject complement.

68. Apposition.

Study the italicized words in these sentences:

1. And I, *John,* saw the holy city, *new Jerusalem.*
2. They murdered their prisoners—*a barbarous act.*
3. Philip, *king of Macedon,* was the father of Alexander the Great.
4. The report *that you were wounded* was generally believed.
5. His countenance, *radiant and winning,* was also thoughtful and resolute.
6. Keats's favorite position—*one foot raised on his other knee*—remained imprinted on her memory.

The words in italics are *appositives,* or *appositive* groups. An examination of these sentences shows—

1. That the appositive in each sentence explains a preceding word or group of words, which may be called the *antecedent;*

2. That the appositive may be omitted without affecting the grammatical structure of the sentence;

3. That the relation of the appositive to its antecedent is a looser relation than any other that we have yet studied;

4. That this relation is not asserted, but is indicated by mere position, the appositive and its antecedent being *set over against* each other.

69. An Appositive is a word or group of words placed next to another word or group of words for the purpose of explanation, the two denoting the same person or thing.

70. The Appositive is said to be *in apposition with* **its Antecedent.**

EXERCISES

I

Find the appositives and antecedents in these sentences:

1. Reason's whole pleasure, all the joys of sense,
   Lie in three words,—health, peace, and competence.

POPE: *Essay on Man*

2. Free trade, one of the greatest blessings which a government can confer on a people, is in almost every country unpopular.

MACAULAY: *On Mitford's History of Greece*

3. My country, 'tis of thee,
   Sweet land of liberty,
   Of thee I sing.

SAMUEL FRANCIS SMITH: *National Hymn*

4. Humility, that low, sweet root
   From which all heavenly virtues shoot.

THOMAS MOORE: *The Loves of the Angels*

5. Methinks I see it now, that one solitary, adventurous vessel, the Mayflower of a forlorn hope, freighted with the prospects of a future state, and bound across an unknown sea.

EDWARD EVERETT: *The Mayflower*

6. All hail, Columbus, discoverer, dreamer, hero, and apostle!

CHAUNCEY M. DEPEW: *Columbus*

7. Let us have faith that right makes might.

LINCOLN: *Address in New York*, 1859

8. They not only tore the lead from the roof of the magnificent cathedral to make bullets, an act for which they might fairly plead the necessities of war, but wantonly defaced the ornaments of the building.

MACAULAY: *History of England*

II

Construct sentences in which each of the following groups of words shall stand in apposition with an antecedent:

1. "the father of his country."
2. "Mother, home, and heaven."
3. "the well known merchant."
4. "the greatest inventor of modern times."
5. "the author of *The Marshes of Glynn.*"
6. "the foulest crime in the annals of history."
7. "one of the best things in the world to have."
8. "the land of the free and the home of the brave."
9. "that President McKinley had been assassinated."
10. "desperately wounded but unwilling to leave his post."

71. The Phrase.

Whenever we speak, our words have a tendency to run together into larger or smaller groups. If the sentences are very short, these "breath groups" are the sentences themselves; but usually the groupings take place within the sentence. When there are several groups, each with a subject and predicate, we call them *clauses*. When the groups have no subject and

predicate we call them *phrases*. Phrases fulfill the functions of parts of speech; as,

This poor fellow	now lying in his coffin	might have
(noun)	(adjective)	(verb)

been saved	by proper care.
	(adverb)

72. A group of words not containing a subject and predicate but having the function of a part of speech is called a Phrase.

73. A group of words containing a subject and predicate but forming only a part of a sentence is called a Clause.

74. Phrases as Parts of Speech.

The most common *form* of phrase is the prepositional phrase, or phrase introduced by a preposition; as, "in the house," "beside the sea," "out of doors."

In *function,* phrases are chiefly (*a*) nouns, (*b*) verbs, (*c*) adjectives, and (*d*) adverbs. To tell what part of speech a phrase is, find its function in the sentence. A phrase is a noun, verb, adjective, or adverb, for the same reason that a word is a noun, verb, adjective, or adverb. Of course every logical subject (§ 42) containing more than one word is a noun phrase, just as every logical predicate (§ 43) containing more than one word is a verb phrase.

EXAMPLES

(*a*) Noun Phrases.

1. *The President of France* was assassinated.

2. *The book on the table** is a dictionary.

3. *His being there* caused the trouble.

(*b*) Verb Phrases.

1. Spring *is coming.*

2. They *ought to have gone.*

3. The money *had not been collected* by him.

(*c*) Adjective Phrases.

1. He is a man *of experience.*

2. The flowers *in the garden* are dying.

3. *Shrewd but honest* he won the respect *of all his associates.*

4. *Holding tightly to the flag* the little fellow ran to the front.

(*d*) Adverbial Phrases.

1. *In a moment* the gale had turned *into a hurricane.*

2. He spoke *with great moderation.*

3. That event occurred *many years ago.*

4. *Without a moment's delay* the officer hurried *to the scene,* but *in vain.*

EXERCISES

I

Tell what parts of speech the italicized phrases are in this selection:

"Did you ever think *what a strange letter* S is? It is a serpent *in disguise.* Listen—you *can hear* it hiss. It gives

*This phrase is really compound. "The book" is a noun phrase; "on the table" is an adjective phrase modifying "book;" and "The book on the table" is a still larger phrase serving as subject to "is." Many phrases are compound and may be subdivided.

possession and multiplies indefinitely *by its touch.* It changes a tree *into trees* and a house into houses. Sometimes it is *very spiteful* and *will turn* a pet into a pest, a pear into a spear, a word into sword and laughter into slaughter, and it *will make* hot shot at any time. The farmer has to watch it closely. It will make scorn of his corn and reduce every peck *to a speck.* Sometimes he finds it useful. If he needs more room *for his stock,* it will change a table into a stable for him, and if he is short *of hay,* he can set out a row *of tacks.* It will turn them into stacks. He must be careful, however, not to let his nails lie around loose. The serpent's breath will turn them into snails. If he wishes to use an engine *about his farm work,* he need not buy any coal or have water to run it. Let the serpent glide *before his horses.* The team will turn to steam. If you ever get hurt, call the serpent *to your aid.* Instantly your pain will be in Spain. Be sure to take it with you *the next time* you climb a mountain if you desire to witness a marvel. It will make the peak speak. But don't let it come around while you *are reading* now. It will make this tale stale."

II

Make sentences containing the following phrases; tell what part of speech each phrase is:

rose and fell	twenty miles	head over heels
in school	man and beast	o'er land and sea
into school	in a minute	little but loud
in a kind manner	to and fro	nothing but praise

the greatest man of modern times

men, women, and children

75. Words Instead of Phrases.

In many cases (*a*) an adjective phrase may be replaced by an adjective, and (*b*) an adverbial phrase by an adverb; as,

(*a*) a man of courage—a courageous man
out of breath—breathless
a task of great difficulty—a difficult task
with eyes of fire—with fiery eyes

(*b*) on purpose—purposely
without any feeling—unfeelingly
in a rough manner—roughly
every hour—hourly

EXERCISE

Convert these phrases into single words and tell what part of speech each word is:

without mercy	not to be moved	in this manner
without refinement	in jest	in a cruel manner
of wood	not long ago	for this purpose

76. The Simple Sentence.

Examine these sentences:

1. Trees | grow.

2. Trees and flowers | grow and decay.

3. The trees in the yard and the flowers in the garden | grow very rapidly but decay at last.

Each of these is a *simple sentence* because it may be divided into two parts, a subject on the left and a

predicate on the right. We may also divide into two parts—

"Trees grow | and / but | they also decay;"

but, unlike the simple sentence, each part will mean something and will contain its own subject and predicate. In other words, each part will be a clause.

The simple sentence is the unit of grammar. It is the simplest expression of thought. By modifying or multiplying the simple sentence, all other sentences are made.

77. A Simple Sentence contains one subject and one predicate, either or both of which may be compound.

NOTE.—The simple sentence because of its very simplicity has been used with great effect by poets and prose-writers. Macaulay was very fond of using clusters of short simple sentences. What could be clearer or stronger than this?—

France united at that time almost every species of ascendency. Her military glory was at its height. She had vanquished mighty coalitions. She had dictated treaties. She had subjugated great cities and provinces. She had forced the Castilian pride to yield her the precedence. She had summoned Italian princes to prostrate themselves at her footstool. Her authority was supreme in all matters of good breeding from a duel to a minuet.

History of England

EXERCISES

I

Can you find any sentences that are not simple in the Exercise on pages 62 and 63?

II

Write eight simple sentences on THE CHARACTER OF WASHINGTON. Use as a model the eight simple sentences cited from Macaulay in the Note under § 77. Begin thus:

The character of Washington unites almost every species of greatness.

III

Contrast the two following sentences and tell which you prefer:

1. Slowly lowering his hands, he [Pilate] dipped them in the shining bowl, rinsing them over and over again in the clear, cold element, which sparkled in its polished receptacle like an opal against the fire.

MARIE CORELLI: *Barabbas*

2. Pilate "took water and washed his hands."

The Bible

78. The Compound Sentence.

Compare these sentences:

1. The sun rose *and* the fog disappeared.
2. He called at my house, *but* I did not see him.
3. He will go to her *or* she will go to him.

Each of these sentences consists of two simple sentences joined by a conjunction; but simple sentences thus joined cease to be called sentences and are known as independent or coördinate clauses. Each clause would make complete sense standing alone. The conjunctions do not modify either clause; they merely connect. The three sentences are compound.

79. An Independent Clause is one that makes complete sense standing alone.

80. A Compound Sentence is one composed of two or more independent clauses joined by one or more conjunctions.*

NOTE 1.—The conjunctions used in compound sentences are generally the same as those employed in compound subjects and compound predicates; viz., *and* (*both . . . and*), *but, or* (*either . . or*), *nor* (*neither . . . nor*).

NOTE 2.—Avoid the use of long compound sentences. If you find that you have written a long series of clauses, each beginning with *and,* change some of them into simple sentences. No better models of the short, clear, well-built compound sentence can be found than those contained in the book of *Proverbs,* a book composed largely of compound sentences.

EXERCISES

I

Point out the simple sentences and the compound sentences in these selections:

1. Woodman, spare that tree!
   Touch not a single bough!
   In youth it sheltered me,
   And I'll protect it now.

G. P. MORRIS: *Woodman, Spare That Tree*

*In most grammars, two or more clauses, independent of one another in structure and separated by the semicolon, with no connective expressed, are considered as one compound sentence. The author believes such a classification to be confusing to the pupil and contrary to the principles both of grammar and of thought. If no connective is expressed, we have a group of simple sentences, not a long compound sentence.

2. There must be classes, but no class shall rule:
The sea is sweet, and rots not like the pool.

JOHN BOYLE O'REILLY: *The Pilgrim Fathers*

3. With lightsome heart I pulled a rose
Full sweet upon its thorny tree,
And my false lover stole my rose,
But ah! he left the thorn to me.

BURNS: *Bonnie Doon*

4. On Fame's eternal camping ground
Their silent tents are spread,
And glory guards with solemn round
The bivouac of the dead.

THEODORE O'HARA: *The Bivouac of the Dead*

5. In seeds of laurel in the earth
The blossom of your fame is blown,
And somewhere, waiting for its birth,
The shaft is in the stone!

HENRY TIMROD: *Ode*

6. There was a sound of revelry by night,
And Belgium's capital had gathered then
Her beauty and her chivalry, and bright
The lamps shone o'er fair women and brave men.

BYRON: *Childe Harold*

7. Either he is talking, or he is pursuing, or he is in a journey, or peradventure he sleepeth.

I Kings 18: 27

8. A wise son maketh a glad father, but a foolish son is the heaviness of his mother. Treasures of wickedness profit nothing, but righteousness delivereth from death. The Lord will not suffer the soul of the righteous to famish, but he casteth away the substance of the wicked.

Proverbs 10: 1-3

9. Fine manners need the support of fine manners in others. A scholar may be a well-bred man, or he may not. The enthusiast is introduced to polished scholars in society, and is chilled and silenced by finding himself not in their element.

EMERSON: *Behavior*

10. Time may restore us in his course
Goethe's sage mind and Byron's force;
But where will Europe's latter hour
Again find Wordsworth's healing power?

MATTHEW ARNOLD: *Memorial Verses*

11. We should live, act, and say nothing to the injury of anyone. It is not only best as a matter of principle, but it is the path to peace and honor.

R. E. LEE: *From a Letter to G. W. Custis Lee*

II

Make compound sentences out of these groups of simple sentences*:

1. I saw him. He did not see me.
2. You must do better. I shall dismiss you.
3. Man proposes. God disposes.
4. The thunder roared. The lightning flashed.
5. The thunder roared. There was very little lightning.
6. The water looked muddy and tasted brackish. We eagerly drank it.
7. Did you find him? Did he speak to you? Did you fail to see each other?
8. I killed two birds. He wounded three. We brought back only one.

*For punctuation, see Note, page 25.

81. The Complex Sentence.

Compare these sentences:

1. We broke camp *when* the sun rose.
2. He asked *why* he was arrested.
3. I did not see the man *who* was with you.

Each of these sentences consists of two clauses; but (unlike *and, but, or* in compound sentences) the words *when, why,* and *who* not only connect clauses, but form a part of the clauses that they introduce. These clauses are (*a*) "when the sun rose," (*b*) "why he was arrested," and (*c*) "who was with you." As these clauses do not make complete sense standing alone, they are called *dependent* or *subordinate clauses.* The three clauses to which the dependent clauses are joined are called *principal clauses.* It will be seen—

1. That the clause introduced by "when" is in function an adverb modifying "broke," being equivalent to the adverbial phrase "at sunrise";

2. That the clause introduced by "why" is a noun, being the direct object of "asked";

3. That the clause introduced by "who" is an adjective modifying "man."

Every dependent clause is either an adverb, a noun, or an adjective. The three sentences are *complex.*

82. A Dependent Clause is one that does not make complete sense standing alone, but that performs the function of an adverb, a noun, or an adjective.

83. A Complex Sentence is a sentence that contains one or more dependent clauses.

84. The Adverbial Clause.

The words and phrases that introduce adverbial clauses may be divided into ten groups. They express:

(1) Time: *when, before, since, after, while,* as, as soon as, as long as.*

(2) Place: *where, wherever.*

(3) Cause: *because, for, as, since, inasmuch as.*

(4) Condition: *if, as if, as though, provided that.*

(5) Concession: *though, although, notwithstanding that, even if, even though.*

(6) Comparison†: *than, as.*

(7) Purpose††: *that, so that.*

(8) Result: *that, so that.*

(9) Degree: *as much as, so far as, but that.*

(10) Manner: *as, just as.*

NOTE.—Frequently in adverbial clauses the entire subject and some form of *to be* (as *is, are, was, were*) are left unexpressed; as,

When [they are] wounded, they are carried from the field. Though [he was] suffering, he made no complaint.

EXERCISES

I

Write two complex sentences in illustration of each

**While* may be coördinate, equivalent to *but;* as,

He works all day, *while* his brother does nothing but loaf.

†The predicate is usually omitted; as,

He is taller *than I* [am tall]. He is as tall *as I* [am tall].

††Purpose: I study *that I may learn.*

Result: He ran so fast *that he fell down.*

class of adverbial clause. In how many of your twenty sentences may the dependent clause either precede or follow the principal clause?

II

Write two sentences illustrating the difference between *so that* of purpose and *so that* of result; two showing the difference between *since* of time and *since* of cause.

85. The Noun Clause.

Every clause used as (1) a subject, (2) an object, (3) a subject complement, (4) an object complement, or (5) an appositive, is a **Noun Clause**:

1. That Germany is a great nation is admitted by all.
   How you got here is the question.
   What he said remains a mystery.

2. Even Frenchmen admit that Germany is a great nation.
   I do not know how you got here.
   Nobody knows what he said.

3. Our hope is that you may succeed.
   The chief question is whether you are prepared for college.

4. Call me what you will.
   Name him what you think best.

5. The news that McKinley had been assassinated spread rapidly.
   The belief that the earth is round is well-nigh universal.

NOTE 1.—The words most often used to introduce noun clauses are *that, how, why, what, when, where,* and *whether.*

NOTE 2.—*That* is frequently omitted after verbs; as,

He said [that] he was sick.

How, why, what, when, where, and *whether* are used chiefly in indirect discourse (§ 5).

EXERCISE

Construct four sentences showing how *why* may introduce (1) a subject clause, (2) an object clause, (3) a subject complement clause, and (4) an appositive clause.

86. The Adjective Clause.

Compare these sentences:

(1) The sharpshooters—*and they* had fallen behind—now came to the front.

(2) The sharpshooters *who* had fallen behind now came to the front.

The pronoun "who" performs the function of "and" because it unites the two clauses; it performs the function of "they" because it is the subject of the dependent clause and *relates back* to "sharpshooters." "Who" is a *relative pronoun.* Other relative pronouns are "which" and "that." "Sharpshooters" is the *antecedent* of "who." When used to denote possession "who" appears as "whose"; when used after a preposition or as the object of a verb, it is changed to "whom."

Every clause introduced by a relative pronoun is an *adjective clause* because it modifies the antecedent. But "when, where," etc., may also introduce adjective clauses; as, "He remembers the *time when* it happened." "When it happened" is here an adjective clause because it modifies the noun "time."

87. A Relative Pronoun is a pronoun that joins an adjective clause to a preceding noun or pronoun.

88. The Antecedent is the noun or pronoun to which the relative pronoun joins an adjective clause.

EXERCISE

Fill the following blanks with relative pronouns and name their antecedents:

1. The trees ——— stand in our campus are chiefly oaks.

2. A student, ——— name was Richardson, won first honor.

3. Here is a man* ——— I delight to honor.

4. I have read the books ——— you recommend.

5. The desk at ——— we write is made of oak.

6. I failed to find the merchant to ——— you gave me a letter of introduction.

7. Is it I ——— am accused?

8. She ——— you love is worthy.

*Notice that any relative pronoun used as the object of a verb may be omitted.

9. He belongs to a class of men with ——— we could well dispense.

10. The young lady, to the care of ——— the bundle was entrusted, was out of town.

REVIEW EXERCISES

I

Tell whether the dependent clauses in the following complex sentences are adverbs, nouns, or adjectives, and why:

1. I remember, I remember
How my childhood fleeted by,—
The mirth of its December
And the warmth of its July.

W. M. PRAED: *I Remember*

2. Life is not so short but that there is always time enough for courtesy.

EMERSON: *Social Aims*

3. Now the heart is so full that a drop overfills it;
We are happy now because God wills it.

LOWELL: *The Vision of Sir Launfal*

4. It is the month of June,
The month of leaves and roses,
When pleasant sights salute the eyes,
And pleasant scents the noses.

N. P. WILLIS: *The Month of June*

5. Blessings be with them, and eternal praise,
Who gave us nobler loves, and nobler cares!—
The poets, who on earth have made us heirs
Of truth and pure delight by heavenly lays.

WORDSWORTH: *Personal Talk*

6. As she fled fast through sun and shade
The happy winds upon her play'd,
Blowing the ringlet from the braid.

TENNYSON: *Sir Launcelot and Queen Guinevere*

7. My own hope is, a sun will pierce
The thickest cloud earth ever stretched;
That after Last returns the First,
Though a wide compass round be fetched;
That what began best can't end worst,
Nor what God blessed once prove accursed.

BROWNING: *Apparent Failure*

8. To me the meanest flower that blows can give
Thoughts that do often lie too deep for tears.

WORDSWORTH: *Intimations of Immortality*

9. Lord God of Hosts, be with us yet,
Lest we forget—lest we forget.

KIPLING: *The Recessional*

10. I held it truth, with him who sings
To one clear harp in divers tones,
That men may rise on stepping-stones
Of their dead selves to higher things.

TENNYSON: *In Memoriam*

11. He had a head which statuaries loved to copy, and a foot the deformity of which the beggars in the streets mimicked.

MACAULAY: *Essay on Lord Byron*

12. I have not allowed myself to look beyond the Union, to see what might lie hidden in the dark recess behind.

WEBSTER: *Reply to Hayne*

13. He that is slow to anger is better than the mighty; and he that ruleth his spirit, than he that taketh a city.

Proverbs 16 : 32.

15. When, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the Powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

THOMAS JEFFERSON: *Declaration of Independence*

II

The following address on "Margins," admirable alike in thought and expression, was delivered by James A. Garfield as a chapel talk before the students of Hiram College.

(1) Read it carefully and repeatedly for its style and truth.

(2) What is the subject of the first paragraph? of the second? of the last?

(3) State in a few words the central thought of the selection.

(4) In the first paragraph find five prepositional phrases used as adverbs.

(5) In the second paragraph find five simple sentences.

(6) In the last paragraph find (*a*) three compound sentences, (*b*) three adverbial clauses, and (*c*) three noun clauses.

I was thinking, young ladies and gentlemen, as I sat here this morning, that life is almost wholly made up of

margins. The bulk itself of almost anything is not what tells; that exists anyway. That is expected. That is not what gives the profit or makes the distinguishing difference. The grocer cares little for the great bulk of the price of his tea. It is the few cents between the cost and the selling price, which he calls the "margin," that particularly interests him. "Is this to be great or small?" is the thing of importance. Millions of dollars change hands in our great marts of trade just on the question of margins. This same thing is all-important in the subject of thought. One mind is not greater than another, perhaps, in the great bulk of its contents; but its margin is greater, that's all. I may know just as much as you do about the general details of a subject, but you can go just a little farther than I can. You have a greater margin than I. You can tell me of some single thought just beyond where I have gone. Your margin has got me. I must succumb to your superiority.

A good way to carry out the same idea, and better illustrate it, is by globes. Did you ever see globes whose only difference was that one had half an inch larger diameter than the other? This larger one, although there is so little difference, will entirely enclose the other, and have a quarter of an inch in every direction to spare besides. Let these globes be minds, with a living principle of some kind at their centres, which throws out its little tentacle-like arms in every direction as radii to explore for knowledge. The one goes a certain distance and stops. It can reach no farther. It has come to a standstill. It has reached its maximum of knowledge in that direction. The other sends its arms out, and can reach just a quarter of an inch farther. So far as the first mind is able to tell, the other has gone infinitely farther than it can reach. It goes

out to its farthest limit and must stop; the other tells him things he did not know before. Many minds you may consider wonderful in their capacity. They may be able to go only a quarter of an inch beyond you. What an incentive this should be for any young man to work, to make this margin as great as, if not greater than, the margin of his fellows.

I recall a good illustration of this when I was at college. A certain young man was leading the class in Latin. I thought I was studying hard. I couldn't see how he got the start of us all so. To us he seemed to have an infinite knowledge. He knew more than we did. Finally, one day, I asked him when he learned his Latin lesson. "At night," he replied. I learned mine at the same time. His window was not far from mine, and I could see him from my own. I had finished my lesson the next night as well as usual, and, feeling sleepy, was about to go to bed. I happened to saunter to my window, and there I saw my classmate still bending diligently over his book. "There's where he gets the margin on me," I thought. "But he shall not have it for once," I resolved. "I will study just a little longer to-night than he does." So I took my books again, and, opening to the lesson, went to work with renewed vigor. I watched for the light to go out in my classmate's room. In fifteen minutes it was all dark. "There is his margin," I thought. It was fifteen minutes more time. It was hunting out fifteen minutes more of rules and root-derivatives. How often, when a lesson is well prepared, just five minutes spent in perfecting it will make one the best in the class. The margin in such a case as that is very small, but it is all-important. The world is made up of little things.

PART II

THE PARTS OF SPEECH

CHANGES OF FORM AND RULES OF SPELLING

89. How Words Change their Form.

There are two ways in which a word may change its form:

(1) It may change an inner vowel; as,

begin began, begun; grow, grew; man, men.

(2) It may add a suffix; as,

run, runn*ing;* love, lov*ing;* boy, boy*s*; hate, hat*ed*; hot, hott*er*, hott*est*.

Most mistakes in spelling are made in the addition of suffixes, for a word often drops or doubles a letter before the suffix is attached. Compare *loving* and *running*. Spelling is, therefore, simply a matter of good form. Correct spelling is not always a sign of scholarship, but bad spelling is always a mark of ignorance.

90. Changes of Form and Rules of Spelling.

In changing the forms of words the following rules should be applied:

RULE I.—**When a word ends in silent *e*, drop that letter before all suffixes beginning with a vowel:**

come, coming	sale, salable
bride, bridal	fame, famous

guide, guiding, guidance	plume, pluming, plumage
secure, securing, security	force, forcing, forcible
move, moving, movable	behave, behaving, behavior

NOTE.—Silent *e* is sometimes, though rarely, dropped before suffixes beginning with a consonant; as, *judge, judgment; abridge, abridgment; acknowledge, acknowledgment.* In such words as *changeable, courageous, noticeable, peaceable,* *e* is retained to keep *g* and *c* from having the sounds heard in *gable* and *cable.*

RULE II.—**When a word ends in *ie,* change *i* to *y* and drop the *e* before adding *ing:***

die, dying	hie, hying
lie, lying	vie, vying.

RULE III.—**When a word of one syllable ends in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, double this consonant before adding a suffix beginning with a vowel:**

wit, witty	clan, clannish
bud, budding, budded	cut, cutting, cutter
jab, jabbing, jabbed	run, running, runner
bag, bagging, baggage	hot, hotter, hottest
sin, sinning, sinner, sinned	mad, madder, maddest

QUESTION. Why is the consonant not doubled in *binding, holding, sailing, badly?*

RULE IV.*—**(1) When a word of more than one syllable has the accent on the last syllable, and this syllable ends in a**

*NOTE TO TEACHER.—Drill the pupils thoroughly on Rule IV, and do not take for granted that all of them understand the difference between an accented and an unaccented syllable.

single consonant preceded by a single vowel, double the consonant before adding a suffix beginning with a vowel. (2) If the accent is not on the last syllable, do not double:

(1) begin, beginning, beginner
occur, occurring, occurred, occurrence
recur, recurring, recurred, recurrence
inter, interring, interred
confer, conferring, conferred
admit, admitting, admitted
forget, forgetting, forgotten, forgettable
rebel, rebelling, rebelled, rebellion

(2) travel, traveling, traveled, traveler
bevel, beveling, beveled, beveler
enter, entering, entered
marvel, marveling, marveled, marvelous
credit, crediting, credited, creditor
quarrel, quarreling, quarreled, quarreler
shiver, shivering, shivered

NOTE.—Good usage varies with regard to the forms of *worship:* you may double or not double. It is best to double in the case of *kidnap,* because there is a secondary accent on the last syllable.

QUESTION.—Why is the consonant not doubled in *interment, equipage, conference, deference, inference?*

RULE V.—**When a word ends in *y* preceded by a consonant, change *y* into *i* before adding *es:***

mercy, mercies	lady, ladies
melody, melodies	ally, allies
pansy, pansies	fly, flies
cherry, cherries	navy, navies

RULE VI.—The question of *ei* and *ie*, each having the sound of long *e*, does not enter into the subject of suffixes. Remember, however, (1) that *c* **is followed by** *ei*, **never by** *ie*; (2) **the other consonants by** *ie*, **rarely by** *ei*.

(1)	perceive	(2)	bier
	ceiling		chief
	conceive, conceit		believe
	deceive, deceit		field
	receive, receipt		grieve, grief, grievance

91. English and American Spelling Contrasted.

Without going into the question of "spelling reform," it is well to remember that the spelling of our language has not reached the stage of final crystallization. Taking Webster's *International Dictionary* as the standard of spelling in this country, we note five differences between English and American spelling. A few examples under each head will illustrate the principle:

(1) English: centre, fibre, metre, theatre.
American: center, fiber, meter, theater.

(2) English: candour, favour, labour, honour.
American: candor, favor, labor, honor.

(3) English: civilise, systematise, patronise, characterise.
American: civilize, systematize, patronize, characterize.

(4) English: connexion, deflexion, inflexion, reflexion.
American: connection, deflection, inflection, reflection.

5) English: travelling, travelled; labelling, labelled.
American: traveling, traveled; labeling, labeled.

NOTE.—Which style, English or American, is destined to become the universal standard? Neither, but more probably a compromise between the two. Will this compromise be more English than American? Two considerations may help us to answer: (1) of the 130 million people who speak the English language, nearly 80 million live in the United States; (2) American spelling, though lawless enough, is not only simpler and more logical than English spelling, but is making itself felt in England more than English spelling is making itself felt here. "Already," says a recent number of the *St. James Gazette** (London), "newspapers in London are habitually using the ugliest forms of American spelling, and these silly eccentricities do not make the slightest difference in their circulation."

EXERCISE

What principles of spelling are suggested by these forms?

muddy	bracing	unraveling
berries	committed	enameled
fleecy	outrageous	siege
relieve	caned	rebellious
lovable	canned	bilious

*Quoted by Brander Matthews in *Parts of Speech* (1901), page 296.

NOUNS

92. Kinds of Nouns.

Notice carefully the italicized words in the following sentence:

Every *soldier* in the *army* of *Napoleon* stood in *awe* of his great *commander*.

The word "Napoleon" as used in this sentence is applicable or *proper* to but one person; the words "soldier" and "commander" are applicable or *common* to many thousands of persons; "army" stands for a body of men regarded as a *collective* whole; while "awe" denotes merely an *abstract* quality or condition of mind.

93. A Proper Noun is a name assigned as a distinguishing mark to some particular object.

94. A Common Noun is a name that may be applied to all objects in the same class.

95. A Collective Noun is a name that may be applied to any number of objects regarded as a whole.

96. An Abstract Noun is the name of an attribute or quality.

97. Proper Nouns.

Proper nouns and usually words derived from them begin with capital letters:

France, French; Tennyson, Tennysonian; Philistia, Philistine, Philistinism.

But if the relation between the proper noun and its derivative is not clearly felt, the derivatives do not begin with capitals:

Calcutta, calico; Philip, a philippic, to philippize; Rome, romance, romantic.

As many of our common nouns have thus come from proper nouns, many of our proper nouns came from common nouns:

baker	shepherd	clerk	mason
Baker	Shepherd	Clark	Mason

"Webster" was originally a *woman who weaves,* "Brewster" a *woman who brews,* and "Baxter" a *woman who bakes.*

98. Common Nouns.

Common nouns outnumber all the other kinds of nouns. In such sentences as, "He is a second Shakespeare" or "He has the ability of a Newton," "Shakespeare" and "Newton" are considered by most grammarians as common nouns. It is best, however, to consider them still as proper nouns. They stand for the individuals, William Shakespeare and Sir Isaac Newton, more than they do for the

general ideas, "great poet" and "great mathematician."

Examples of common nouns are:

boy, man, horse, table, year, rock, book, leaf, dog.

Every proper noun belongs to a class designated by a common noun. Thus, Susan is a *girl,* New York is a *city,* Virginia is a *state,* Gyp is a *dog,* and Washington was a *man.*

EXERCISES

I

(1) Write ten proper nouns designating persons that you know or places that you have visited.

(2) Write ten common nouns designating objects in the schoolroom.

II

What common nouns have come from these proper nouns?

(Captain) Boycott	(Dr.) Guillotin	(Earl of) Sandwich
Epicurus	Bayonne	Simon (Magus)
Duns (Scotus)	Babel	Atlas

III

What common nouns designate the class to which each of these proper nouns belongs?

Thursday	Shakespeare	the Mississippi
December	Mary	New Orleans
The Times	John	America
St. Nicholas	Georgia	France

99. Collective Nouns.

Collective nouns designate groups of common nouns. There may be twenty sheep in a field, but they constitute one *flock*. So an *army* is made up of soldiers, a *crew* of sailors, a *navy* of ships, a *senate* of senators, the *public* of individuals. Shall we use *is* and *it*, or *are* and *they* in referring to collective nouns? Either one. We may say "The public *is* cordially invited to attend" or "The public *are* cordially invited to attend." In the former, we think of the public as a whole; in the latter, we think more of the units or individuals composing the whole. The latter is, therefore, a trifle more courteous and considerate.

NOTE.—Good writers often change from *is* and *it* to *are* and *they* but not from *are* and *they* to *is* and *it*. The collective is first thought of as a whole, but, as attention is more and more fixed upon it, it breaks up into its individual units:

1. Each House shall keep a journal of *its* proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may, in *their* judgment, require secrecy.

Constitution of U. S.

2. For my people *is* foolish, *they* have not known me.

Jeremiah 4:22

3. Our club, however, *has* frequently caught him tripping, at which times *they* never spare him.

ADDISON: *Spectator* No. 105.

4. For four years this Ministry *has* literally waded in blood; *their* hands are literally dripping and reeking with blood.

RANDOLPH CHURCHILL: *On the Egyptian Crisis*, 1884

100. Abstract Nouns.

(*a*) The names of things known to us through any of our five senses are often called concrete nouns. Op-

posed to these are abstract nouns, or names of qualities, actions, attributes, moods, and conditions. These qualities we may admire or detest; but we cannot see, touch, smell, hear, or taste them. They may be thought of as apart from or *abstracted from* the objects or concrete nouns that possess them. Thus, feathers are *soft*, silk is *soft*, snow is *soft*. We can, therefore, think of *softness* apart from feathers, silk, snow, or any other object having the same quality.

(*b*) Abstract nouns are frequently used as common nouns:

1. *Beauty* is perishable. (Abstract.)
2. What a *beauty* [beautiful thing] this rose is! (Common.)
3. I admire the *nobility* of his character. (Abstract.)
4. The *nobility* [persons having the titles of nobles] had become depraved. (Common.)
5. Christ spoke as one having *authority*. (Abstract.)
6. Your *authority* [person or book cited as authoritative] is in error. (Common.)

(*c*) Abstract nouns are formed chiefly by the addition of suffixes to (1) verbs, (2) nouns, and (3) adjectives:

(1) laugh*ter*, serv*ice*, enjoy*ment*, refus*al*, instruct*ion*, comprehen*sion*.

(2) witch*craft*, priest*hood*, friends*hip*, minstrel*sy*, bond*age*, slaver*y*, serf*dom*.

(3) free*dom*, good*ness*, tru*th*, cruel*ty*, stupid*ity*, likeli*hood*.

EXERCISES

I

What collective nouns stand for groups of the following objects?

Congressmen	cattle	mounted soldiers
worshipers	pupils	jurymen
foot soldiers	birds	football players

II

Construct two sentences showing the difference in function between (1) *is* and *it*, and (2) *are* and *they*, as used with collective nouns.

III

Explain the italicized words in these sentences (see § 99, Note):

1. Parliament *was* too slow. *They* took fourscore years to deliberate on the repeal.

BURKE: *Bristol Speech*

2. BARDOLPH. The army *is* discharged and gone.
FALSTAFF. Let *them* go.

II Henry IV: 4, 3

3. DICK. My lord there's an army gathered together in Smithfield.
CADE. Come, then, let's go fight with *them*.

II Henry VI: 4, 6

4. QUEEN MARGARET. Our army *is* ready; come, we'll after *them*.

III Henry VI: 1, 1

IV

Write (1) five abstract nouns that are formed from adjectives, (2) five that are formed from nouns, (3) five that are formed from verbs.

I—GENDER

101. Sex and Gender.

In German a spoon is referred to by "he," and a fork by "she." Even in Old English, the English of King Alfred, knife and fork were each referred to by "he." In Modern English, however, we have simplified the problem of gender by making it dependent on sex. Sex is a *natural distinction,* gender a *grammatical distinction.* There are two sexes, male and female; and two corresponding genders, masculine and feminine. Things, or objects without sex, are of the neuter gender; that is, they are neither masculine nor feminine; as, *book, tree, storm, grass.* They are referred to by "it." Most nouns denoting animals or persons may be either masculine or feminine; as, *parent* (*father* or *mother*), *child* (*boy* or *girl*), *cousin* (male or female), *fox* (male or female). These nouns are referred to by "he" or "she," and sometimes by "it."

102. Gender is a grammatical distinction corresponding in English to the sex of the object named.

103. Male beings are of the Masculine Gender.

104. Female beings are of the Feminine Gender.

105. Things without sex are of the Neuter Gender.

106. Personification.

There are two exceptions to the strict correspondence of gender with sex:

1. When an object without sex has male qualities, the noun may be considered masculine and referred to by "he"; as, *sun, death, war.* When the object has female qualities, the noun may be considered feminine and referred to by "she"; as, *the moon, justice, mercy.* This figure of speech is known as **Personification.** Objects may be personified and still referred to by "it." Abstract nouns are personified chiefly in poetry, where it is customary to begin them with capitals.

2. The lower animals, and infants, are commonly regarded as neuter and referred to by "it."

107. Three Ways of Denoting Gender.

There are three ways in which gender is indicated in English:

(1) By the use of a different word; as,
boy, girl.

(2) By a prefix; as,
manservant, maidservant.

(3) By a suffix; as,
giant, giantess.

(1) **By the Use of a Different Word.**—The most important nouns belonging under this head are,—

MASCULINE	FEMININE	MASCULINE	FEMININE
bachelor	maid	gentleman	lady
boar	sow	lord	
boy	girl	hart	roe
brother	sister	horse	mare
buck	doe	stallion	
bull	cow	husband	wife
ox		king	queen
bullock	heifer	man	woman
steer		nephew	niece
cock	hen	papa	mama
rooster			mamma
drake	duck	ram	ewe
father	mother	son	daughter
gander	goose	uncle	aunt
monk	nun	wizard	witch

(2) **By a Prefix.**—The words belonging to this class are compounds. The two parts are usually separated by a hyphen.

MASCULINE	FEMININE
buck-rabbit	doe-rabbit
he-goat	she-goat
manservant	maidservant
billy goat	nanny goat

(3) **By a Suffix.**—Notice that in many of these words the suffix is added to the masculine form in a more or less irregular way:

Masculine	Feminine	Masculine	Feminine
count	countess	hero	heroine
actor	actress	czar	czarina
abbot	abbess	executor	executrix
duke	duchess	lad	lass
Mr.	Mrs.	Kaiser	Kaiserin

Note.—Of feminine endings, *ess* is the only living suffix in English, and it is less used than formerly. The words *author, doctor, poet,* and even *actor* may be used of both sexes.

EXERCISES

I

Tell the gender of these words and refer to each by the appropriate pronoun:

heiress	maid	table
emperor	fish	person
pupil	servant	president

II

Name and illustrate the three ways of indicating gender.

III

Point out the examples of personification in the following selections, and explain the italicized pronouns:

1. Yet Hope had never lost *her* youth;
   She did but look through dimmer eyes;
   Or Love but played with gracious lies,
   Because *he* felt so fixed in truth.

Tennyson: *In Memoriam*

2. The river was swollen with the long rains. From Vadencourt all the way to Origny *it* ran with ever-quickening speed, taking fresh heart at each mile, and racing as though *it* already smelt the sea.

STEVENSON: *An Inland Voyage*

3. And the poor little bell, glittering like a jewel in the sunshine, tinkled faintly and mournfully at every jar and jerk of the cord as though *it* knew that *its* end had come.

GRAS: *The Reds of the Midi*

4. Fair Science frowned not on his humble birth,
And Melancholy marked him for *her* own.

GRAY: *Elegy in a Country Churchyard*

II—NUMBER

108. The Two Kinds of Number.

Compare carefully the following sentences:

1. This boy knows his lesson.
2. These boys know their lessons.
3. That dog killed a sheep.
4. Those dogs killed ten sheep.

The repeated words in these sentences differ only in number. The words in sentences 1 and 3 are in the singular number; those in 2 and 4 are in the plural number. Notice that "killed" and "sheep" in sentence 4, though plural in function, do not indicate their number by any change of form.*

*And yet grammarians continue to define number as "a difference *in the form* of a word to distinguish objects as one or more than one."

109. Number is that function of a word by which, with or without change of form, it stands for one or more than one.

110. A word denoting one is Singular, or in the Singular Number.

111. A word enoting more than one is Plural, or in the Plural Number.

112. Plural Suffixes.

Nouns form their plurals by the addition of *s* or *es* to the singular. Exceptions are found in a few words that retain their Old English plurals, and in a large number of foreign words that have been adopted from other languages.

113. Practical Tests of Number.

When in doubt about the number of a given word, do not try to recall a rule of grammar; the ear is a better test than the memory. If you can use *that, this, is,* or *has* with the word, it is singular; if it sounds better to use *those, these, are,* or *have,* the word is plural. Such tests show us, for example, that *news* is singular, *tidings* plural, and *means* singular or plural.

NOTE.—A curious thing about collective nouns in the singular is that we may use *are* or *have* with them, but not *these* or *those;* as, "The army *have* abandoned their position." But we cannot say *These army* or *Those army.* This is because *army* is singular in form, but plural in function. *That* and *this* change in accordance with form, *is* and *has* in ac-

cordance with function. Kipling, in *Wee Willie Winkie,* says, "*That* regiment *are* devils."

114. Plurals in "s."

The regular ending for the plural is *s:*

hand, hands; dog, dogs; tree, trees; day, days; chief, chiefs; house, houses; judge, judges; refusal, refusals; complication, complications.

Nouns ending in *o* cannot be reduced to a fixed rule; but when *o* is preceded by a vowel, the regular ending *s* (not *es*) is added:

bamboo, bamboos; cuckoo, cuckoos; Hindoo, Hindoos; cameo, cameos; portfolio, portfolios; embryo, embryos; curio, curios.

Nouns ending in *fe* change *f* to *v* before adding *s:*

wife, wives; knife, knives; life, lives.

115. Plurals in "es."

When *s* does not blend easily with the singular, *es* is added:

church, churches; box, boxes; bench, benches; grass, grasses; bush, bushes.

When a noun ends in *y* preceded by a consonant, the plural takes the form *ies:**

city, cities; duty, duties; fly, flies; mutiny, mutinies; army, armies; colloquy (= -kwy), colloquies.

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*This is because these words once had *ie* in the singular: *citie, dutie,* etc. The plural was then formed by adding *s*: *cities, duties.* We have kept the old plural but changed the old singular.

Most nouns that end in *f* change *f* to *v* before adding *es*:†

sheaf, sheaves; thief, thieves; calf, calves; shelf, shelves; wolf, wolves; beef, beeves.

Most nouns that end in *o* preceded by a consonant add *es*:

hero, heroes; buffalo, buffaloes; motto, mottoes; negro, negroes; potato, potatoes; echo, echoes; volcano, volcanoes; mosquito, mosquitoes.

The three most common exceptions to the last rule are:

piano, pianos; solo, solos; banjo, banjos.

116. Old English Plurals.

(1) In Old English, at least half of the nouns formed their plurals by adding *an*, which in Middle English became *en*. Of these *en* plurals, *oxen* is the only real survivor. *Children*, *brethren*, and *kine* (= *ki-en*) are in form double plurals, the *r* in children, the *e* in brethren, and the *i* in kine being old plural signs.

(2) Of Old English plurals made by the change of an inner vowel instead of by the addition of a suffix, Modern English preserves eight:

foot, feet; man, men; woman, women; tooth, teeth; goose, geese; louse, lice; mouse, mice; dormouse, dormice

†There are many exceptions, but pupils rarely make mistakes in the forms of these plurals.

117. Foreign Plurals.

Some of our foreign plurals come from Hebrew:

cherub,* cherubim; seraph,* seraphim.

Some come from Italian:

bandit,* banditti; dilettante, dilettanti.

Some come from French:

beau,* beaux; bureau,* bureaux.

Most of them, however, come from Latin and Greek:

Singular	*Plural*	*Singular*	*Plural*
	LATIN		
addendum	addenda	alumnus	alumni
animalculum	animalcula	focus	foci
datum	data		focuses
memorandum*	memoranda	fungus	fungi
stratum*	strata	radius	radii
formula*	formulæ	terminus	termini
alumna	alumnæ	axis	axes
	GREEK		
analysis	analyses	oasis	oases
crisis	crises	parenthesis	parentheses
hypothesis	hypotheses	phenomenon	phenomena

118. Plural of Compound Nouns.

(1) If the compound noun is written without a hyphen, the plural is formed regularly:

spoonful, spoonfuls; handful, handfuls; blackbird, blackbirds; castaway, castaways; baseball, baseballs; schoolmate,

*This has also a regular English plural in *s*.

schoolmates; stepdaughter, stepdaughters; stepson, stepsons; stepmother, stepmothers; stepfather, stepfathers.

(2) If the compound is written with a hyphen, *s* is added to the principal noun:

SINGULAR	PLURAL
father-in-law	fathers-in-law
son-in-law	sons-in-law
mother-in-law	mothers-in-law
daughter-in-law	daughters-in-law
hanger-on	hangers-on
passer-by	passers-by
attorney-at-law	attorneys-at-law
coat-of-mail	coats-of-mail
court-martial	courts-martial
major-general	major-generals
commander-in-chief	commanders-in-chief

(3) If the compound contains no noun, *s* is added to the last word:

SINGULAR	PLURAL
forget-me-not	forget-me-nots
three-per-cent	three-per-cents
go-between	go-betweens
what-d'ye-call-'em	what-d'ye-call-'ems

(4) Three nouns take a double plural:

SINGULAR	PLURAL
manservant	menservants
woman servant	women servants
knight templar	knights templars

119. Nouns with the Same Form in Both Numbers.

Some nouns have the same form for both singular and plural:

deer, sheep, fish, salmon, perch, shad, trout, hundredweight, yoke (of oxen), head (of cattle), heathen.

120. Nouns Plural in Form but Singular in Function.

Such words as *news, gallows, molasses, summons,* and *United States* end in *s*, but they are of the singular number. The last, being really a collective noun, may be used as a plural when the individual states are thought of.* Words in *ics,—physics, acoustics, phonetics, mathematics, ethics, athletics, politics, statistics,*—are singular when they mean a science, or study, or body of doctrine; as,

1. Mathematics *is* my hardest study.
2. Phonetics *is* not an exact science.

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*General John W. Foster, former secretary of state, and author of *A Century of American Diplomacy*, was criticised for using the term United States as a singular. He replied in part as follows:

"Of living professors of international law, Woolsey of Yale, Moore of Columbia, Huffcut of Cornell, and James C. Carter of New York use the singular. Andrew Jackson was the first president to adopt the singular verb in his official papers. In the earlier messages of the presidents the plural form is usually found, but since Lincoln all of them, including Grant, Cleveland, Harrison, and McKinley, have invariably used the singular. In the decisions of the supreme court during the first half century the plural form is generally used, but the singular appears occasionally. In later years the court has used the singular. The same remark applies to treaties with foreign nations."

But *athletics* meaning *athletic exercises, politics* meaning *political intrigues,* and *statistics* meaning *tabulated facts* are plural; as,

3. Athletics *take* up too much of your time.
4. Politics of that sort *are* debasing.
5. His statistics *were* incorrect.

121. Nouns Used Only in the Singular.

Abstract nouns cannot be used in the plural. We cannot add *s* or *es* to *truthfulness, wisdom, manhood, indolence, indignation.* Such words as *beauties, authorities, truths, services, forces* are not the plurals of abstract nouns, but of the common nouns *a beauty, an authority, a truth, a service, a force* (§ 100, (b)).

The names of materials and diseases are also used only in the singular. The words *coppers* (*cents*) and *irons* (*fetters*) are not the plurals of the metals, *copper* and *iron; coppers* is the plural of *a copper,* and *irons* has no singular.

122. Nouns Used Only in the Plural.

Some of these words, since they denote things composed of separate parts, have a right to their plural use: *bellows, scissors, tongs, trousers, suspenders, wages, contents;* but, apart from their form, *ashes, dregs, mumps,* and *billiards* have no more right to be plural than have *sand, mud, toothache,* and *chess.* Form, however, has here determined function.

123. Nouns Having Two Plurals.

A few words have two plurals, each with a different meaning:

brother	brothers (sons of the same parents) brethren (members of the same church)
cloth	cloths (pieces or kinds of cloth) clothes (wearing apparel)
die	dies (stamps for coining) dice (small cubes used in games)
genius	geniuses (men of genius) genii (Eastern spirits)
index	indexes (tables of contents) indices (algebraic signs)

124. The Plurals of "Miss" and "Mr."

There are two forms in use, the latter being preferable:

1. the Miss Browns; the Mr. Parkers.
2. the Misses Brown; the Messrs. Parker.

125. Plurals of Letters, Figures, and Words.

Letters, figures, and names of words form their plurals by the addition either of *s* or of *'s*. The best usage favors *'s:*

Use fewer *I's* and *and's* in your composition.
Your *1's* are hard to distinguish from *7's*.

126. Caution.—Do not use *kind* or *sort* as a plural. The plurals are *kinds* and *sorts*. We may say, there-

fore, *this kind* (or *sort*) or *that kind* (or *sort*), but not *these kind* (or *sort*) or *those kind* (or *sort*).

EXERCISES

I

Give the plurals of each of the following words:

folio	banjo	basis
witch	monkey	phenomenon
leaf	tornado	mouthful
conspiracy	memorandum	man-of-war

II

Use *that, those, this, these* correctly in the following sentences:

1. How do you like ———— molasses?
2. He said that ——— United States of ours could never be conquered.
3. I think ——— shad are too dear.
4. When did you hear ——— news?
5. By ——— means you will escape all danger.
6. I never saw ——— kind of dog before.

III

Use *is, are, has, have* correctly in the following sentences:

1. The gallows ——— just been erected.
2. Here ——— your summons.
3. Your data ——— incorrect.
4. The strata in this place ——— plainly visible.
5. The banditti ——— been arrested.

6. What ——— the termini of this railroad?
7. What ——— the crises in this story?
8. The army ——— melted away.
9. How many fish ——— been caught?
10. Physics ——— an interesting study.
11. I'm afraid that athletics ——— interfered with your studies.
12. Statistics ——— not to be blindly credited.
13. The two Misses Jones ——— not arrived.
14. How many *and's* and *so's* ——— been cut out?

III—CASE

127. The Three Cases.

You will understand the uses of the three cases if you understand thoroughly the relation of the words to one another in these two simple sentences:

1. John found Fido in Henry's yard.
2. I saw him on my porch.

"John" and "I" are in the nominative case, because they are the subjects of the sentences; "Fido" and "him" are in the objective case, because they are the direct objects of "found" and "saw"; "yard" and "porch" are also in the objective case, because they are the objects of the prepositions "in" and "on"; "Henry's" and "my" are in the possessive case, because they are possessive modifiers of "yard" and "porch."

It will be seen that pronouns undergo more changes of form to express case relations than do nouns.

128. Case is that function of nouns and pronouns by which, with or without change of form, they express the relations of subject, object, or possessive modifier.

129. The subject of every sentence is in the Nominative Case.

130. The object of every verb and of every preposition is in the Objective Case.

131. A noun or pronoun denoting possession is in the Possessive Case.

132. The Declension or Inflection of a noun or pronoun means the naming of its three cases in both numbers.

133. Declension.

The following nouns may be taken as types of declension; one pronoun is added for the purpose of comparison:

	Singular	Plural
Nominative	dog	dogs
Possessive	dog's	dogs'
Objective	dog	dogs

	Sing.	Pl.	Sing.	Pl.
Nom.	wife	wives	church	churches
Poss.	wife's	wives'	church's	churches'
Obj.	wife	wives	church	churches

	Sing.	Pl.	Sing.	Pl.
Nom.	army	armies	ox	oxen
Poss.	army's	armies'	ox's	oxen's
Obj.	army	armies	ox	oxen

	Sing.	Pl.	Sing.	Pl.
Nom.	he	they	man	men
Poss.	his	their	man's	men's
Obj.	him	them	man	men

	Sing.	Pl.
Nom.	father-in-law	fathers-in-law
Poss.	father-in-law's	fathers-in-law's
Obj.	father-in-law	fathers-in-law

EXERCISE

(1) What two cases are alike in all nouns?

(2) How does *he* differ in this respect from nouns?

(3) With the forms of *he* before you, see if you cannot decline *she*.

(4) Use in sentences all the forms of the words that have just been declined.

134. The Forms of the Nominative Case.

The nominative case shows the noun or pronoun in its normal form. Whenever you look up a noun or a pronoun in the dictionary, you find it given in the nominative case. Many nouns in Old English varied their forms or endings to show to the eye whether they were nominative or objective. When King Alfred wrote "This *gift* is costly," he used the nominative form "giefu"; when he wrote "I have the *gift*," he used the objective form "giefe." But Modern English nouns show no distinction of form in these two cases.

135. The Functions of the Nominative Case.

There are five uses of the nominative: (1) as Subject, (2) as Subject Complement, (3) as an Appositive, (4) as Nominative of Address, and (5) as Nominative Absolute.

(1) **The Nominative Case as Subject.**—The subject of every sentence and clause, whether the verb be active or passive, is in the nominative case:

1. *James* sold his marbles.
2. When were *they* sold?
3. *They* were sold yesterday.
4. Though *James* sold them for cash, *he* did not keep the money.
5. *James* received a good price for them, but *he* now regrets his act.
6. His *father,* his *mother,* and his *aunt* advised him not to sell them; but *he* thought *he* knew more than his *father.* (See § 84, (6), Note.)

Do not forget that there are certain phrases (§ 74, *a*) and clauses (§ 85) that may be used as subjects:

7. *Your not being here* was a mistake.
8. *That Roland is a gentleman* is evident to all.
9. *Where he went* is a mystery.
10. It is thought best *that you stay at home* (§ 50, *c*).

EXERCISE

Use the following words and groups of words as subject nominatives:

1. grass; 2. mountain; 3. June; 4. she; 5. Henry, John, and I; 6. stealing apples from an orchard; 7. why he did not

ask permission; 8. how you got here; 9. he and I; 10. boys and girls.

(2) **The Nominative Case as Subject Complement** (§ 60).—All subject complements are in the nominative case:

1. We are *Americans.*
2. He was reëlected *president.*
3. Who was made *secretary?*
4. It is either *he* or his *brother.*
5. It must be *they.*

(3) **The Nominative Case as Appositive** (§ 69).—The appositive is in the nominative case only when its antecedent is a nominative:

1. Mr. Carnegie, the *founder* of libraries, is a Scotchman.
2. That fellow yonder, *he* with the squint eyes, is not to be trusted.

(4) **The Nominative of Address.**—The name of every person spoken to or addressed is in the nominative case. This is known as the nominative of address:

1. *John,* come here.
2. I can't find it, *sister.*
3. My dear *Father,*

Your welcome letter was received yesterday.

The names of objects that are apostrophized—that is, addressed as persons—belong also to the nominative of address:

4. O *thou sword* of the Lord, how long will it be ere thou be quiet?

(5) **Nominative Absolute.**—Absolute means here *set off*, the nominative absolute being always used in a phrase grammatically independent of the rest of the sentence and therefore *set off* by a comma. The phrase expresses the time, cause, or circumstances of an action. The verb following the nominative usually ends in *ing*, but is often omitted:

1. Our *lessons* having been learned,
   Our *lessons* being learned,
   Our *lessons* learned,
   } we went to bed. (Time.)

2. My last *hunt* not being successful, I decided to try fishing. (Cause.)

3. The lion, his *eyes* gleaming like coals, made ready for another spring. (Circumstances.)

NOTE.—The nominative absolute, though thoroughly English, is almost unknown in conversation. The important thing to remember is that we must say "*He* being present," or "*I* being present"; and not, as in Old English, "*Him* being present," or "*Me* being present."

136. The Syntax of the Nominative Case.

The five principles of syntax governing the use of the nominative case may be summed up as follows:

(1) The subject of every verb is in the nominative case.

(2) Every subject complement is in the nominative case.

(3) Every appositive having a nominative as its antecedent is in the nominative case.

(4) Every noun or pronoun used in address is in the nominative case.

(5) Every noun or pronoun used as the chief word in an absolute phrase is in the nominative case.

EXERCISES

Tell why the following words in italics are in the nominative case:

I

Farewell, my lord *Sun!*
The *creeks* overflow: a thousand *rivulets* run
'Twixt the roots of the sod; the *blades* of the marshgrass stir;
Passeth a hurrying *sound* of wings that westward whir;
Passeth, and *all* is still; and the *currents* cease to run;
And the *sea* and the *marsh* are one!

SIDNEY LANIER: *The Marshes of Glynn*

II

The *dealer* stooped once more, this time to replace the glass upon the shelf, his thin blonde *hair* falling over his eyes as *he* did so. *Markheim* moved a little nearer, with one hand in the pocket of his great coat; *he* drew himself up and filled his lungs; at the same time many different *emotions* were depicted together on his face—*terror, horror,* and *resolve, fascination* and a physical *repulsion;* and through a haggard lift of his upper lip, his *teeth* looked out.

STEVENSON: *Markheim*

137. The Forms of the Possessive Case.

(1) The possessive is the only case having a distinctive form. The apostrophe and *s* are added to form the possessive singular:

girl, girl's; lady, lady's; child, child's; Jones, Jones's; James, James's; Keats, Keats's; Dickens, Dickens's.

In compound expressions, whether written with or

without the hyphen, the apostrophe and *s* are added to the last word:

a son-in-law's duty; the queen of England's throne.

The apostrophe and *s* are also added to form the possessive plural of words whose plural does not end in *s* or *es:*

the oxen's food; the children's hats; the men's coats.

(2) When the plural ends in *s* or *es,* the possessive plural is formed by adding only the apostrophe:

the boys' knives; ladies' clothing.

(3) When two or more persons possess the same thing, the possessive sign is added only to the last. The names of the joint possessors are regarded as one long compound:

James and Henry's boat; my father and mother's property; Mary Watson and Josephine's doll; Henry Holt and Co.'s bookstore.

(4) Sometimes we have a double possessive, "of" and the possessive sign both being used:

that book of John's; that habit of his; a cousin of mine.

In this construction, "of" is equivalent to "namely," as it is in *the continent of Asia, the City of New York,* and other expressions in which "of" joins things that are identical.

138. The Functions of the Possessive Case.

The possessive case, as its name implies, usually denotes possession; but it has many other uses. It

may be said that the possessive sign added to a word is nearly always equivalent to "of" placed before the same word:

the winter's cold = the cold of the winter
Longfellow's poems = the poems of Longfellow
McKinley's assassination = the assassination of McKinley
an hour's delay = the delay of an hour
Nero's crimes = the crimes of Nero
Cleveland and Harrison's campaign = the campaign of Cleveland and Harrison.

In these illustrations, the relationship expressed is not that of possession at all. We can best sum up the functions of the possessive case by calling it the *of* case.

EXERCISES

I

Use each of the following words and phrases in the possessive case:

dog	monkey	Rufus
gentleman	monkeys	daughters-in-law
gentlemen	brother	Czar of Russia
woman	brothers	Emperor of Germany
women	brethren	Secretary of War

II

By "Nero's crimes" we mean the crimes *committed by* Nero. Amplify in like manner these phrases:

1. Byron's works
2. St. Paul's influence

3. Edison's phonograph
4. A mother's love
5. Raphael's most famous picture
6. Michael Angelo's best statue
7. My brother's photograph
8. London's chief attraction
9. Greenland's icy mountains

139. The Forms of the Objective Case.

The objective case of nouns has no distinctive form. It is always like the nominative. It is only the pronouns—*he, him; she, her; I, me;* etc.—that make a distinction in form between these two cases.

140. The Functions of the Objective Case.

There are six uses of the objective case: (1) as Direct Object, (2) as Indirect Object, (3) as Object of a Preposition, (4) as Object Complement, (5) as Adverbial Objective, and (6) as an Appositive.

(1) **The Objective Case as Direct Object.** —The direct object of every verb is in the objective case. Of course the verb must be transitive and in the active voice; no other kind of verb can be followed by an object:

1. I know *him,* but he does not know *me.*
2. Where did you get *them?*
3. If you see *Mary* and *James,* give them this *letter.*
4. I saw neither *Mary* nor *James.*
5. By writing your *composition* now, you will save *time.*
6. I met your *father,* your elder *sister,* and your two *brothers;* and I hope soon to meet your *mother* and your younger *sister.*

Remember that noun phrases (§ 74, *a*) and noun clauses (§ 85), when used as direct objects, are in the objective case:

7. I don't like *his telling you about it.*
8. We told him *not to go.*
9. My niece heard *that you had come.*
10. We all believe *that everybody ought to be educated.*
11. He is unable so say *where she went* or *who she is.*

EXERCISE

Use the following words and groups of words as the direct objects of transitive verbs:

1. New York; 2. George Washington; 3. Lee and Jackson; 4. him; 5. them; 6. father; 7. summer; 8. speaking so rudely; 9. why he did it; 10. that she is innocent.

(2) **The Objective Case as Indirect Object** (§ 53).— All indirect objects are in the objective case. In Latin and in Old English, the case of the indirect object is known as the dative case, or the "giving" case, because the verb "to give" (Latin *dare*) requires this case; but Modern English makes no distinction either in nouns or in pronouns between the forms of the dative and the forms of the objective. It is best, therefore, to consider the old dative case as only a function of the modern objective case. Examples are:

1. Who gave *you* that?
2. I handed *him* the pencil.
3. Josephine told *Robert* an interesting story.
4. He made *me* a promise that he would teach my *son* French.

(3) **The Objective Case as Object of a Preposition.** The noun or pronoun following a preposition is in the objective case. Of course a preposition does not take an object in exactly the same sense in which a transitive verb is said to take an object. No action is thought of as passing over from the preposition to the following word; but as the effect on the form of the pronoun is the same in both cases—"I *saw him*," "I was *with him*"—it is needless to coin a new term:

1. We were speaking of *him* and his *brother*.
2. It was lying under the *table*.
3. By this *means* we kept our heads above the *water*.
4. The dog walked up the *steps*, crept through the *door*, and crouched on the *rug* just behind my *chair*.

EXERCISE

Tell which words in these sentences are in the objective case, and why:

1. He gave me the book lying on the table.
2. Have you read the poems of Whittier?
3. Did Santa Claus bring every boy and girl in the family a present?
4. Under the protection of this mighty potentate, the good people of Little Britain sleep in peace.
5. When you first told me of your adventure, I believed every word of your story; but now I have my doubts about it.

(4) **The Objective Case as Object Complement** (§ 64). Every noun used as an object complement is in the objective case. Pronouns can hardly be used as object complements. You will see why, if you try to substi-

tute pronouns for the nouns used as object complements in these sentences:

1. They made him *king.*
2. The people elected Washington *president.*
3. I consider this word an *object complement.*

(5) The Objective Case as Adverbial Objective.— In "He slept an *hour,*" "He ran a *mile,*" the nouns *hour* and *mile* are used with adverbial functions. They are not the objects of their verbs, for these verbs are intransitive. *Hour* and *mile* do not tell *what* he slept and *what* he ran, but *how long* he slept and *how far* he ran. After verbs of motion—*to go, to come*—the adverbial objective often answers the question "where?" It will be seen at once that pronouns cannot be used in this way. How do we know, then—since we cannot make the test of *he, him,* or *I, me*—that *hour* and *mile* are in the objective case? We only infer it; in Old English and other inflected languages such words had the objective ending:

1. He went *east,* and I returned *home.*
2. Is he going to stay all *night?*
3. This table is a *yard* wide.
4. She is fourteen *years* old.

NOTE.—In the last two sentences, *yard* and *years* are adverbial because they modify the adjectives *wide* and *old.*

(6) The Objective Case as an Appositive (§ 69).— The appositive is in the objective case only when its

antecedent is an objective. Pronouns are comparatively rare in this construction:

1. I once saw Wilhelmina, the *queen* of Holland.
2. Tell Egbert, my older *brother*, about it.
3. She was with her brother and her sister, *Robert* and *Margaret*, when the accident happened.
4. The people of England beheaded Charles I, *him* of Star Chamber fame.

141. The Syntax of the Objective Case.

The six principles of syntax governing the use of the objective case may now be summed up as follows:

(1) The direct object of every verb is in the objective case.

(2) The indirect object of every verb is in the objective case.

(3) The object of every preposition is in the objective case.

(4) Every object complement is in the objective case.

(5) Every noun used as an adverb is in the objective case.

(6) Every appositive having an objective case as its antecedent is in the objective case.*

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*NOTE TO TEACHER.—There is one other use of the objective—as so-called "retained object"—that is here purposely omitted. The author would like, however, to protest against the phrase "retained object." The facts are these: In Old English, "He gave me a book" appeared in the passive as "A book was given me by him" or, in better Old English order, "Me (dative) was given a *book* (subject nominative) by him." The position of dative *me* in front of the verb—that is, in the usual position of the subject—led to its being taken for the subject; it was therefore changed to *I*. The position of *book* immediately after the predicate—that is, in the usual position of the object—led

EXERCISES

I

Write five sentences illustrating the use of the objective case as object complement; five illustrating its use as adverbial objective; and five illustrating its use as an appositive.

II

In the following selection tell what case each noun is in, and why:

With scarcely an exception the chief authors of America have lived out their allotted three-score years and ten; and their long lives have been happy; and at last they have died surrounded by friends and held in high honor by their fellow-countrymen. Franklin and Irving, Bryant and Emerson, Longfellow and Lowell, Holmes and Whittier, all survived to a ripe old age. James Fenimore Cooper, although often harassed by petty squabbles due to his own touchiness of temper, was completely happy at his own fireside; and Nathaniel Hawthorne, although so much of a recluse by nature as to seem to some almost a misanthrope, was quite as fortunate in his home life as Cooper was.

The single exception to this remarkable record of prosperous and honorable longevity is Edgar Allan Poe, who died young and alone and poor and in ill repute. And yet in the eyes of foreigners he is the most gifted of all the authors of America; he is the one to whom the critics of Europe would most readily accord the full title of genius. At the end of

---

to its being taken for the object. In such a sentence, then, as "I was given a book," the author would propose the phrase "nominative by position" for *I*, and "objective by position" for *book*.

this nineteenth century Poe is the sole man of letters born in the United States whose writings are read eagerly in Great Britain and in France, in Germany, in Italy, and in Spain, where Franklin is now but a name and where the fame of James Fenimore Cooper, once as widely spread, is now slowly fading away.

BRANDER MATTHEWS: *Introduction to American Literature*

142. How to Parse Nouns.

We parse a noun when we give a grammatical description of it. Parsing* is merely a means of summarizing and testing what we know about certain words. To parse or describe a noun we must tell—

(1) its class (whether proper, common, collective, or abstract);

(2) its gender (whether masculine, feminine, or neuter);

(3) its number (whether singular or plural);

(4) its case (whether nominative, possessive, or objective).

Let us parse the nouns in the sentence, "John admires his big brother's courage":

John is a proper noun, masculine gender, singular number, nominative case, subject of *admires;*

brother's is a common noun, masculine gender, singular number, possessive case, possessive modifier of *courage;*

courage is an abstract noun, neuter gender, singular number, objective case, object of *admires.*

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*NOTE TO TEACHER.—Parsing is only a means to an end, and that end is a practical familiarity with the principles that govern the

EXERCISE

Parse the nouns in the following selection:

Good people all, of every sort,
  Give ear unto my song;
And if you find it wondrous short,
  It cannot hold you long.

In Islington there was a man
  Of whom the world might say,
That still a godly race he ran—
  Whene'er he went to pray.

A kind and gentle heart he had,
  To comfort friends and foes:
The naked every day he clad—
  When he put on his clothes.

And in that town a dog was found,
  As many dogs there be,
Both mongrel, puppy, whelp, and hound,
  And curs of low degree.

This dog and man at first were friends:
  But when a pique began,
The dog, to gain his private ends,
  Went mad and bit the man.

---

behavior of words in the English sentence. The individual teacher must judge in each case how far such a drill—for parsing is only a drill by way of review—should be carried. As soon as the pupil has learned to detect the simpler relations of words in the sentence, formal parsing should be discontinued. In the model given above, no *memoriter* repetition of rules is required, and the pupil is expected to assign a reason only for the case of the noun.

Around from all the neighboring streets
The wondering neighbors ran,
And swore the dog had lost his wits,
To bite so good a man!

The wound it seemed both sore and sad
To every Christian eye:
And while they swore the dog was mad,
They swore the man would die.

But soon a wonder came to light,
That showed the rogues they lied:—
The man recovered of the bite,
The dog it was that died!

OLIVER GOLDSMITH: *Elegy on the Death of a Mad Dog*

PRONOUNS

143. Kinds of Pronouns.

Study the italicized pronouns in these sentences:

1. *I* told *you* that *he* had gone.

2. *Who* was with him?

3. There was *nobody* with him except his two servants, *who* had never left him.

4. I saw *one* of them, and heard about the *other*.

Of these, *I*, *you*, and *he* are personal pronouns, *I* standing for the speaker, *you* for the person spoken to, and *he* for the person spoken of; *who* in sentence 3 is a relative pronoun, referring back to *servants* and introducing an adjective clause; *Who* in sentence 2 is an interrogative pronoun used to ask a question; *nobody* is an indefinite pronoun, standing for no particular person; *one* and *other* are adjective pronouns, because they may be followed by nouns—as, *one man*, *other engagements*—and thus become adjectives.

144. Personal Pronouns are pronouns that have different forms for the person speaking, the person spoken to, and the person or thing spoken of.

145. A Relative Pronoun is a pronoun that joins an adjective clause to a preceding noun or pronoun.

146. Interrogative Pronouns are used in asking questions.

147. Indefinite Pronouns indicate persons or things vaguely.

148. Adjective Pronouns are pronouns that may be used as adjectives.

I—PERSONAL PRONOUNS

149. Declension.

The pronoun of the first person is *I;* of the second, *you* or *thou;* of the third, *he, she, it.* The compound pronouns—*myself, ourselves; yourself, yourselves; himself, themselves*—are really personal pronouns, but are not used in the possessive case. The pronouns of the three persons are declined thus:

THE PRONOUN OF THE FIRST PERSON

	Sing.	Pl.
Nom.	I	we
Poss.	my, mine	our, ours
Obj.	me	us

PRONOUNS OF THE SECOND PERSON

	Sing.	Pl.	Sing.	Pl.
Nom.	you	you	thou	ye
Poss.	your, yours	your, yours	thy, thine	your, yours
Obj.	you	you	thee	you

THE PRONOUN OF THE THIRD PERSON

	Sing.			Pl.
Nom.	he	she	it	they
Poss.	his	her, hers	its	their, theirs
Obj.	him	her	it	them

150. The Two Forms of the Possessive.

It will be noticed that all of the personal pronouns except *he* and *it* have two forms for the possessive. The forms *my, our, your, thy, her,* and *their* are used when a noun follows; *mine, ours, yours, thine, hers,* and *theirs* are used when the noun is omitted:

1. Here is *my* hat; there is *yours.*
2. This is not *their* property; it is *ours.*

Such phrases as "of yours," "of his," "of theirs," etc., are examples of double possessives (§ 137, (4)).

151. Pronouns of the Second Person.

The forms of *you* are now the only forms regularly employed; *thou, thy, thine, thee* are heard only in prayer, in poetry, and sometimes among the Quakers. The latter use *thee* for *thou.* Thus Whittier, the Quaker poet, writes to Celia Thaxter:

I wish *thee* would write out for the *Atlantic* some of the good things *thee* know of the Shoals.

Thee survives in the colloquial *thank'ee* (*thank thee*) and in the poetical *prithee* (*pray thee*). All the forms of *thou,* both singular and plural, are consistently employed in the Bible; *ye* is there always nominative plural, and *you* always objective plural:

1. *Thou* and *thy* sons and *thy* father's house with *thee* shall bear the iniquity of the sanctuary.

Numbers 18: 1

2. And Reuben answered them, saying, Spake I not unto *you,* saying, Do not sin against the child; and *ye* would not hear?

Genesis 42: 22

3. At that day *ye* shall know that I am in my Father, and *ye* in me, and I in *you*.

John 14 : 20

4. For if *ye* love them which love *you*, what reward have *ye*?

Matthew 5 : 46

152. The Pronoun of the Third Person.

The pronoun of the third person is the only English pronoun that has a separate form for each of the three genders, *he* for the masculine, *she* for the feminine, and *it* for the neuter. But this distinction is made only in the singular, *they* being masculine, feminine, or neuter.

153. Uses of "It."

The pronoun *it* has three peculiar uses:

(1) As an expletive (§ 50, *c*). In this case the real subject follows the verb:

It is sad to think of that.
It was not true that he had confessed.

(2) As the subject of a few intransitive verbs which relate chiefly to the weather. These verbs cannot have a person for their subject, and are therefore called impersonal verbs:

It rains one minute and it sleets the next.
It is snowing fast.

You will find it a trifle hard to answer the questions, What rains? What snows? This proves that *it* does not always represent a noun, or even a clearly defined idea.

(3) As a vague indefinable object after a few verbs that usually take no object at all:

We footed it over the ice.
You can't come it over me in that style.

154. The Meaning of Person in Grammar.

How can *it* be a pronoun of the third person when it does not stand for the name of a person at all, but only for the name of a thing? Person in grammar means a real person only when we speak of the first person or of the second person; but when we speak of a pronoun of the third person, we mean a pronoun that stands for the name of a person, or an animal, or a thing, spoken of:

1. *He* is sick, but *she* is well.
2. This poor cow has lost *her* calf.
3. Those trees are tall, but *they* are not shady.
4. This house is pretty, but *it* is not comfortable.

155. The Person of Nouns.

Nouns are said to be in the first, second, or third person for the same reason that pronouns are. If a noun represents the name of the speaker—that is, if it is in apposition with *I* or *we*—it is in the first person:

1. I, *Alexandre Manette,* write this paper in my cell.
2. We, *Tom* and *Jack,* saw these things.

If the noun names the person spoken to, it is in the second person. Every nominative of address (§ 135, (4)), therefore, is in the second person:

3. Help me carry this, *Henry.*

If the noun names a person, animal, or thing spoken of, it is in the third person. In other words, whenever you would refer to a noun by *he, she, it,* or *they,* that noun is in the third person. It is evident, therefore, that nouns are used in the third person far oftener than in the first or second:

4. *James* knows this *boy.*
5. The *lion* injured the *giraffe.*
6. *Tables* are heavier than *chairs.*

EXERCISE

Name the person and number of the nouns and personal pronouns in the following sentences:

1. I knew that they were following me.
2. "Do you want me to go?" asked Godfrey, looking straight into Nancy's face as he spoke.
3. "Well, then, Master Marner," said Dolly, "I'll ask Mr. Macey to speak to the parson about it."
4. We, the undersigned subscribers, promise to pay the amounts opposite our names.
5. Therefore all things whatsoever ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so to them.

156. Personal Pronouns in the Nominative and Objective Cases.

Every writer and speaker needs to be especially careful in his use of the nominative and objective cases of pronouns. Nouns have the same form for these two cases; but all of the personal pronouns, except *you* and *it,* have one form for the nominative and

an entirely different form for the objective. A confusion, therefore, of the cases of pronouns will show itself at once.

We found that five principles (§135) govern the use of the nominative case of nouns. The same principles, of course, hold good for pronouns. Review these principles, and remember (1) that *I, we, he, she, they* are nominative forms, and (2) that *me, us, him, her, them* are objective forms.

Courtesy demands that in every series of nouns or pronouns the forms of the first personal pronoun should come last:

1. Henry, Thomas, and I were there.
2. He spent the night with my two brothers and me.
3. You and I can attend to it.

EXERCISES

I

Tell what case each of the following personal pronouns is in, and why:

1. He spoke to me about it.
2. They may use my book.
3. Did you see him or her?
4. Neither he nor she helped me.
5. Give us a few of them.
6. It is impolite to do that.
7. You and I were mistaken.
8. Will you walk home with Susan and me?
9. Have you heard what father and I did?
10. She not being in, we left our cards.

11. I thought it was they.
12. She is taller than he. (See § 84, (6), Note.)
13. He is not so heavy as I.
14. Just between you and me, I don't believe what he says.
15. All the pupils have gone but me.
16. He sits between Robert and me.
17. There's nobody here but me.
18. We boys like games.
19. They were not thinking of us girls.
20. That is not she.
21. It is I.*

II

Use *I* or *me* in each of the following blanks; give a reason for your choice:

1. It is ——
2. —— not liking the prospect, the invitation was declined.
3. My mother and —— have had a long walk.
4. —— wish you had been with mother and ——.

*Some of the best English scholars advocate "It is me" to the exclusion of "It is I"; others admit "It is me" only as a colloquialism. Some of those who approve "It is me" condemn "It is her," "It is him," etc., and contend that the similarity of sound between *me, he, she, we* justifies the use of *me* as a nominative by analogy; others advocate the uniform use of the objective forms of all of the personal pronouns: "It is me," "It is us," "It is her," "It is them," etc.

In view of the diversity of expert opinion and the consistency with which educated people have for four hundred years said "It is I," the grammarian has no right to exalt "It is me" at the expense of "It is I." "It is me," or rather "It's me," is permissible only as a colloquialism. The extension of the idiom to other pronouns is without doubt a clearly marked tendency in our language both in this country and in England; but, so far, the tendency has lacked the official sanction of good usage.

5. That's a secret between sister and ——.
6. He told John and —— not to wait; but John and —— did not hear him.
7. Let's you* and —— try it.
8. They thought it was ——.
9. It wasn't —— that did it.
10. He blamed both of us, you for talking and —— for listening.

III

Use *we* or *us* in each of the following blanks; give a reason for your choice:

1. It was not —— who were doing the whispering.
2. He asked where —— had been.
3. Will you go with ——?
4. He called ——, but —— refused to come.
5. The poor fellow died, —— having done all —— could do to save him.

IV

Use *he* or *him* in each of the following blanks; give a reason for your choice:

1. Who was with you and ——?
2. Nobody saw it but ——.
3. Wasn't —— tardy that morning?
4. —— being out of the way, I could do better.
5. It is —— who caused the delay.
6. She and —— tried to lift it.
7. She is not so studious as ——.
8. Did the rich man adopt her as well as ——?

*Notice that *you* and — are in apposition with the *us* of *Let's*.

V

Use *she* or *her* in each of the following blanks; give a reason for your choice:

1. He and —— are brother and sister.
2. I like him better than ——.
3. Susan is just as smart as ——.
4. Was it —— that told you?
5. —— helping me, the lesson was quickly learned.
6. I told both of them, —— and her sister, not to play with that knife.

VI

Use *they* or *them* in each of the following blanks; give a reason for your choice:

1. Here —— are.
2. I don't believe it was —— who did it.
3. I met Robert and —— together.
4. You can't do better than ——.
5. Were you with Henry and —— when the accident happened?
6. We are not better than ——.

II—RELATIVE PRONOUNS (§ 87)

157. The Function of Relative Pronouns.

The relative pronouns are *who, which, what,* and *that.* The antecedent of *what* is never expressed. We may say "I liked what I saw," but not "I liked the men what I saw." The other relative pronouns introduce adjective clauses and point back to preceding nouns or pronouns called antecedents (§ 88).

158. Differences in Use.

(1) The relative *who* is used of persons:

Here is the man who told me.

People who are rude may expect to be treated rudely.

(2) The relative *which* is used of animals or things:

Dogs which bark at night should be gagged.

These boats, which are very leaky, are not the ones which I ordered.

(3) The relative *that* is used of persons, animals, or things:

The soldier that (or who) was hurt has recovered from the wounds that (or which) he received.

There is the horse that threw me.

(4) Every relative pronoun except *that* may be preceded by a preposition:

Ronald is the boy of whom I was speaking.

Ronald is the boy that I was speaking of.

159. Declension.

Who is the only relative pronoun that varies its form. It is declined thus:

	Sing.	Pl.
Nom.	who	who
Poss.	whose	whose
Obj.	whom	whom.

160. Relative Pronouns as Subjects.

Before we can use *who* correctly, we must be able to distinguish the subject and the object in relative

clauses. In the following clauses, each relative pronoun is the subject of its verb, and therefore in the nominative case:

1. The pupils who study hard will be promoted.
2. That large picture, which was painted by Raphael, is called the Sistine Madonna.
3. I like the binding that is on this book.
4. The man who I thought was sick is well again.

Notice that *who* in the last sentence is not the object of *thought,* but the subject of *was.* This will become clearer if we put "I thought" in brackets, or place *as* before it, or remove it further from *who:*

5. The man who [I thought] was sick, etc.
6. The man who, as I thought, was sick, etc.
7. The man who was sick, I thought, etc.

161. Relative Pronouns as Objects.

(1) Relative pronouns, like other pronouns, may be the objects of verbs; but they differ from all other objects in that they never follow the verbs that govern them. They precede not only the verbs, but the subjects of the verbs as well:

Look at this pencil *which* I hold in my hand.
Where is the fish *that* I caught?
George Washington, *whom* we all love, is buried at Mt. Vernon.

(2) They may also be the objects of prepositions:

I found the book of which I spoke to you.
It is on the chair under which the cat is sleeping.

Fanny is the girl to whom I was talking.
Fanny is the girl that I was talking to.

NOTE.—In the last sentence it is best to consider *that* as the object of *talking to* instead of *to*. (See § 288, Note.)

162. Restrictive and Non-Restrictive Clauses.

Compare the two clauses in italics:

1. My mother, *whom we expected last night,* came this morning.

2. The train *that she had taken* was delayed.

The clause *that she had taken* distinguishes this particular train from the many other trains; it restricts the meaning to one and only one train. The other relative clause does not restrict its antecedent, for there is only one mother possible; it merely tells something about my mother. The clause introduced by *that* is restrictive; the other relative clause is non-restrictive. You will find that when a relative clause is restrictive, the antecedent is almost always preceded by *the;* this is rarely the case when the clause is non-restrictive. The distinction between restrictive and non-restrictive clauses is important for three reasons:

(1) The best writers use *who* and *which,* not *that,* in non-restrictive clauses:

Joel Chandler Harris, who wrote Uncle Remus, lives in Atlanta.

New York, which is our largest city, was settled by the Dutch.

(2) In restrictive clauses, *who, which,* or *that* may be used:

The man who (*or* that) respects himself will be respected.
The horse which (*or* that) I prefer is the little sorrel.
Here is the pencil which (*or* that) I dropped.

(3) In restrictive clauses, the relative pronouns that are in the objective case and not preceded by a preposition may always be omitted:

We found the girl [that, whom] we were looking for.
He wrote on no subject [that, which] he did not enrich.
The friends [that, whom] he took refuge with betrayed him.
I am riding the same horse [that] I rode yesterday.

163. "As" and "But" as Relative Pronouns.

(1) After *same* and *such* the word *as* may be classed as a relative pronoun:

The same stories were told me as (= that) were told you.
I loathe such talk as we have just heard.

Illiterate persons still say "The man as mounts that horse is a fool"; but *as* should never be used as a relative unless preceded by *same* or *such.*

(2) When *but* has the function of a relative it is equivalent to *that* (or *who*) . . . *not:*

There are few sailors but know how to swim (= *that* do *not* know how to swim).

Though relative in function, *but,* as used in the

preceding sentence, is in form and derivation a preposition. The meaning is, "There are few sailors *except those* that know," etc.

164. "Than Whom."

Compare carefully the following sentences:

1. Mary is taller than I (am).
2. She weighs more than he (weighs).
3. They study more than we (study).

As here used *than* is a conjunction connecting clauses (§84, (6)); *I, he,* and *we* are in the nominative case because each is the subject of a verb understood. Suppose that for some reason we should cease to use or even to understand a verb after these pronouns. What would be the result? *Than* would become practically a preposition, and the following pronouns would be in the objective case. This is what has happened in the case of *than* with a relative. No verb can be understood after the relative. For example, in the sentence, "He spoke of Washington, than whom no purer patriot ever lived," what verb can you imagine as predicate to the relative? There is none. *Than* has become a preposition and *whom* is its object. No reputable writer was ever guilty of *than who.*

165. Cautions.—(*a*) Do not use a relative pronoun without a definite antecedent. Such a sentence as "He complimented me, which I returned," is incorrect, because *which* has no clearly defined antecedent; the

sentence should read "He paid me a compliment, which I returned."

(*b*) Do not use *and* or *but* before a relative unless the same relative has just been used. Thus, "The congressman recently elected from this district, and whom we all like, will speak here tomorrow," is incorrect; it should be "The congressman who was recently elected from this district and whom" etc.

EXERCISES

I

Tell what case each of the following relative pronouns is in, and why:

1. Do you know the man that passed us?

2. The dog that you shot has died.

3. American literature, which Englishmen rarely read sixty years ago, now counts its English readers by the thousands.

4. Yonder is the bird that I aimed at.

5. My father, who has just left his room, has been ill a week.

6. In the lexicon of youth, which fate reserves for a bright manhood, there's no such word as *fail*.

7. Ralph Waldo Emerson, who was once a preacher but whom the world knows best as a great essayist, was a friend of Thomas Carlyle's.

8. The most celebrated writer of the Old English period was King Alfred, than whom no Englishman has deserved better of his country.

II

In which of the following clauses may the relative be omitted? why?—

1. He is a man whom I like to talk with.
2. My best friend, whom you don't know, has just visited me.
3. There are the books that I want to read.
4. This is the house that Jack built.
5. Trials and vexations, which come to us all, should be resolutely met.

III

Use *who* or *whom* in each of these blanks; give a reason for your choice:

1. She is a girl —— I know well.
2. Longfellow is an author —— I frequently quote from.
3. Kipling is one of the writers —— are now most read.
4. Margaret and Robert, of —— we were just speaking, wrote me a joint letter.
5. There are a few men —— to name is to praise.
6. Many of the Creoles —— Cable writes about are among the best families in Louisiana.
7. Those among —— he has lived think most highly of him.
8. Those —— he has lived among think most highly of him.
9. The historian Prescott, —— wrote *The Conquest of Mexico* and —— the critics praise unstintedly for his brilliant style, was made blind by a crumb of bread thrown in jest.

III—INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

166. Interrogative and Relative Pronouns.

The interrogative pronouns are *who, what,* and *which.* In form, therefore, they are like the corresponding relative pronouns; but they are much older than the relative pronouns, the relatives being derived from them, not they from the relatives. They differ from the relative pronouns in having no antecedent. Some one has called them "relative pronouns in search of an antecedent." They differ also in that they ask questions, and relative pronouns do not.

167. Differences in Use.

(1) The interrogative *who* is used only of persons:

Who was with you?
Whose umbrella is that?
Whom did you see?

(2) The interrogative *what* is used only of things:

What is it?
What did you say?

(3) The interrogative *which*, unlike its relative of the same name, is used of persons and things. It presupposes a group and asks about a specific member of the group. It is selective:

Which is the older brother?
Which is the right road?
Which is the more interesting of these two books?

168. Declension.

Who is the only interrogative that varies its form. It is declined thus:

	Sing.	Pl.
Nom.	who	who
Poss.	whose	whose
Obj.	whom	whom

169. Indirect Questions.

It is often said that every sentence containing an interrogative pronoun should be punctuated with an interrogation point; but this is not true. Compare these sentences:

1. Who went home with her?
2. I know who went home with her.
3. I don't remember who went home with her.
4. Perry asked me who went home with her.
5. I told him who went home with her.

The last four sentences contain the same interrogative pronoun that was used in the first; but these sentences are indirect, not direct, questions. They belong to the subject of indirect discourse (§ 5). Indirect questions never take a question mark.

170. Caution.—Do not confound the interrogative pronouns *what* and *which* with the same words used as adjectives:

1. What help did you get?
2. Which history do you want?

In these sentences, *what* and *which* are pure adjectives modifying *help* and *history*.

EXERCISES

I

Tell what case each of the following interrogative pronouns is in, and why:

1. Who is going with you?
2. Whom did you consult?
3. Which do you like best?
4. I'll tell you which I like best.
5. With what did you defend yourself?
6. What were you talking about?
7. What is the largest animal that you ever saw?
8. Whose buggy did you ride in?
9. I know who* told you.

II

Use *who* or *whom* in each of the following blanks; give a reason for your choice:

1. ——— will you select?
2. ——— forbade you to go?
3. I told you ——— it was.
4. ——— did you get the news from?
5. ——— was Abraham Lincoln?
6. I know ——— was with you.
7. ——— did you go with?
8. ——— do you desk with?
9. ——— did you give your slate to?
10. Under ——— did this soldier serve?
11. ——— are these people?

*The object of *know* is not *who*, but *who told you*.

IV—INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

171. The Forms of the Indefinite Pronouns.

(1) Many of the indefinite pronouns are compound, but no hyphen is used. The most important are *one, any one, every one, some one, no one, none, one another, each other, anybody, anybody else, everybody, everybody else, nobody, nobody else, somebody, somebody else.* Only a few have plurals:

You may have the large apples; I'll take the small *ones.*
These people are rated as mere *nobodies* in their own community.

(2) The tendency now is to add the possessive sign to *else*, not to the pronoun that precedes it:

This must be somebody *else's* hat.
There's nobody *else's* hat here.

172. The Indefinite "One."

The indefinite *one* is a pronoun to be avoided if possible. It may usually be replaced by *we, you, a man,* or *anybody;* the possessives will then be *our, your, his.*

One is sometimes referred to by *he, his, him;* these are the forms invariably used by the best writers to refer to *any one, every one, anybody, everybody,* etc.:

1. When one is sure of *his* ground, let *him* go ahead
2. Every one loves *his* mother.
3. If everybody would do what *his* conscience told *him* to do, *he* would have little to regret.

NOTE 1.—"He or she" and "his or her" are intolerably clumsy. The forms of *he* stand for mankind in general and include women as well as men. In the following sentence Mrs. Oliphant has herself in mind but rightly uses *his:*

A writer is thus prevented from determining which of *his* productions are to be given in a permanent form.

NOTE 2.—*One another* and *each other* are used interchangeably. The distinction given in most of the grammars is not supported by the practice of the best writers. These words are not used in the nominative case:

1. **This is my commandment, that ye love *one another.***
2. **Bear ye *one another's* burdens.**
3. **And for *each other's* burdens flows**
   The sympathizing tear.

There was a time, perhaps, when *one* in the first sentence was in the nominative case, and *another* in the objective case; but both words now belong together and are felt to be in the objective case.

173. Caution.—Remember that with the exception of *none*, which is singular or plural, all of the indefinites are singular both in form and function. They must be referred to, therefore, by singular pronouns, and must have their predicates also in the singular. Instead of *are, were,* and *have,* we must use *is, was,* and *has:*

1. Not one in a hundred *was* dissatisfied.
2. Which one of you *is* willing to go?
3. I am sure that every one *has* done his best and should receive his reward.
4. Nobody but the speakers and reporters *was* allowed on the platform.

EXERCISE

1. Decline all of the indefinite pronouns through the singular.

2. Illustrate the three ways of avoiding the use of indefinite *one*.

3. Use *every one* as the subject of a sentence, refer to it by *his*, and use *was* as the predicate.

4. What do you think of the following sentence?

I want everybody to bring his or her dictionary to class.

V—ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS

174. Relation to Adjectives.

By an adjective pronoun is meant any pronoun that may be used as an adjective. In "I want each student to read this book," *each* and *this* are adjectives because they are joined to the nouns *student* and *book*. In "This is an excellent book, and each of you should read it," *This* and *each* are pronouns in the nominative case. The most important of the adjective pronouns are *each, any, other, some, either, neither, what, which, this, that, the former, the latter, several, few, many, all.*

175. Differences in Use.

The words *this* and *that*, plural *these* and *those*, are often called demonstrative pronouns because they point out: *this* denotes something near at hand; *that* something further from the speaker.

Either, neither, and *each* are always singular:

1. Either sentence *is* correct, but neither *is* suitable.
2. Neither of us *was* able to help him.
3. The judge thinks that each of them *is* partly to blame.

Either and *neither* are used only of two; but *each* may mean one of two or one of more than two. Thus Kingsley writes of three fishermen:

Each thought on the woman who loved him the best.

EXERCISES

I

Show by sentences that each of the adjective pronouns may be used as an adjective.

II

Illustrate by sentences the grammatical number of *either, neither,* and *each.*

176. How to Parse Pronouns.

To parse a pronoun, name (1) its class (whether personal, relative, interrogative, indefinite, or adjective), (2) its number, and (3) its case. Assign a reason for the case, and remember that every relative pronoun is of the same number as its antecedent.

The pronouns in the sentence, "Who told you of the trouble that I was in?" would be parsed as follows:

Who is an interrogative pronoun, singular or plural, nominative case, subject of *told;*

you is a personal pronoun, singular or plural, objective case, indirect object of *told;*

that is a relative pronoun, singular number, objective case, object of *was in* (See § 288, Note);

I is a personal pronoun, singular number, nominative case, subject of *was*.

The speaker probably intends *Who* to be singular; but he may mean not *What person* but *What persons*. We cannot tell. So, too, if the speaker is addressing one person, *you* is singular; but he may be addressing a multitude. The context will usually decide these questions.

EXERCISE

Parse the pronouns in the following selection:

The bystanders began now to look at each other, nod, wink significantly, and tap their fingers against their foreheads. There was a whisper, also, about securing the gun, and keeping the old fellow from doing mischief, at the very suggestion of which the self-important man in the cocked hat retired with some precipitation. At this critical moment a fresh, comely woman passed through the throng to get a peep at the gray-bearded man. She had a chubby child in her arms, which, frightened at his looks, began to cry. "Hush, Rip," cried she, "hush, you little fool; the old man won't hurt you."

The name of the child, the air of the mother, the tone of her voice, all awakened a train of recollections in his mind. "What is your name, my good woman?" asked he.

"Judith Gardenier."

"And your father's name?"

"Ah, poor man, Rip Van Winkle was his name, but it's twenty years since he went away from home with his gun,

and never has been heard of since,—his dog came home without him; but whether he shot himself or was carried away by the Indians, nobody can tell. I was then but a little girl."

Rip had but one question more to ask; and he put it with a faltering voice:—

"Where's your mother?"

"Oh, she too died but a short time since; she broke a blood-vessel in a fit of passion at a New England peddler."

There was a drop of comfort, at least, in this intelligence. The honest man could contain himself no longer. He caught his daughter and her child in his arms. "I am your father!" cried he—"Young Rip Van Winkle once—old Rip Van Winkle now! Does nobody know poor Rip Van Winkle?"

WASHINGTON IRVING: *Rip Van Winkle*

ADJECTIVES

177. Kinds of Adjectives.

Adjectives modify nouns and pronouns. Descriptive or qualitative adjectives express an attribute or quality:

good, sour, hard, long, righteous, hot, clear, loud.

Quantitative adjectives express amount or number:

little, few, many, all, much, ten.

Demonstrative adjectives merely point out or distinguish:

this, that, every, the former, the other.

The two classes last mentioned include the pronominal adjectives, or adjectives used sometimes as pronouns.

178. Functions of Adjectives that Follow their Nouns.

When an adjective does not precede its noun or pronoun, it is commonly used in one of the three following ways:

(*a*) As Subject Complement (§ 61):

1. He is *tall* and *handsome.*
2. The speaker was too *dogmatic* to suit me.
3. This child has always been considered *delicate.*
4. He at once became *angry* and *insolent.*

(*b*) As Object Complement (§ 64):

1. The journey made him *sick.*
2. I consider him *honest* and *capable.*
3. Your idleness renders your education *useless.*

(*c*) As an Appositive (§ 69):

1. They pushed the boat from the shore, *eager* and *impatient* to see whether it would sink or sail.

2. Her complexion, *clear* but *pale,* was heightened by the brilliancy of her eyes.

3. The prisoner, *calm* and *stolid,* awaited the verdict without a tremor.

NOTE.—Appositive adjectives may precede their nouns:

Calm and stolid, the prisoner awaited the verdict without a tremor.

179. Adjectives as Nouns, and Nouns as Adjectives.

(*a*) When an adjective is preceded by *the,* the noun is frequently omitted. The adjective is then said to be used as a noun:

1. To the *pure* all things are pure.
2. The *bravest* are the *tenderest,*—
   The *loving* are the *daring.*
3. All the impulses of her nature were toward the *true,* the *beautiful,* and the *good.*

(*b*) Almost any noun may be used as a descriptive adjective:

1. This man is the *head* waiter.
2. The tariff is not merely a *party* question.
3. The name of Palmer is a *household* word in many Southern homes.
4. During my *childhood* days *school* exhibitions were great occasions.

180. Adjectives and Adverbs.

Many copulative verbs (§ 62) may be followed either by adjectives or by adverbs. Shall we say "The sun shines bright"? or "The sun shines brightly"? Either is correct, but there is a slight difference of meaning between the two. When we use "bright" we are thinking more of the sun; when we use "brightly," we are thinking more of the verb "shines." Compare these sentences, and tell what each means:

1. He turned pale as I passed him.
2. He turned quickly as I passed him.
3. She looked sweet in her pink gingham.
4. She looked sweetly into her mother's face.
5. The physician felt the man's pulse carefully.
6. The pulse felt cold.
7. The verdict appeared just.
8. The ship suddenly appeared.

181. "Well" and "Badly" as Adjectives.

It is not right to say "I feel good" or "I feel bad" unless you mean "I feel righteous" or "I feel wicked." The following sentences are correct:

1. Do you feel well?
2. No, I feel badly.
3. John is looking unusually well this summer.
4. Henry looked badly after his attack of fever.

In these sentences "well" is an adjective, as in "I am well"; and "badly," though in form an adverb, is also in function an adjective, meaning "unwell."

182. Phrases and Clauses as Adjectives (§74, (c), §86).

(*a*) Every phrase modifying a noun or pronoun performs the function of an adjective. The most common form of the adjective phrase is the prepositional phrase, or phrase introduced by a preposition:

It was a task that required the patience *of a Job* and the courage *of a Paul.*

Or, we may say "a Job-like patience and a Pauline courage" (§ 75).

(*b*) Every clause introduced by a relative pronoun is an adjective clause modifying the noun or pronoun used as antecedent. *When, where,* and *while,* if preceded by nouns, also introduce adjective clauses (§ 86):

1. Thomas Jefferson was in Europe at the *time when* the Federal Convention of 1787 was called.

2. This is the *place where* we boys used to go in swimming.

3. All the *time while* the recitation was going on, a noise was kept up outside.

183. The Two Articles.

The definite article *the* and the indefinite article *a* or *an* are really demonstrative adjectives. They do not qualify or describe; they merely point out. The difference between the two articles may be seen in such sentences as "I saw *a* blind man yesterday" and "I saw *the* blind man yesterday," or "Mr. A. is *a* leader in every good movement" and "Mr. A. is *the* leader in every good movement."

184. Repetition of the Articles.

The article should be repeated before each word in a series, if each word means a different object. Thus "I saw *a* black and *a* white horse" means that I saw two horses; but "I saw a black and white horse" means that I saw one piebald horse. What is the difference, therefore, in meaning between "the secretary and treasurer" and "the secretary and the treasurer"? Which would require "has been elected," and which "have been elected"?

When two or more well-known objects are spoken of, the definite article is repeated only when the two objects are considered separately in the singular. We say, therefore, "The Old and the New Testament," or "The Old and New Testaments"; "the definite and the indefinite article," or "the definite and indefinite articles"; "the singular and the plural number," or "the singular and plural numbers."

185. "A" and "An."

(*a*) Before words beginning with a vowel sound, *an* is used instead of *a:*

an arch, an eagle, an honest man, an heir.

(*b*) Before words beginning with a consonant sound, *a* takes the place of *an:*

a table, a history, a college, a university, a yellow dog, a useful device.

It is correct to say *an historian,* though not *an history;* because in *historian,* the accent being on the

second syllable, the *h* is so faintly sounded that the word begins more with the vowel sound of *i* than with the consonant sound of *h*.

NOTE.—*The* is used as an adverb only in such correlative phrases as "the sooner, the better," "the more, the merrier." In these phrases the definite article modifies not a noun but an adjective or adverb. The meaning is "by how much sooner, by so much better."

186. Comparison of Adjectives.

With the exception of *this* and *that*, plural *these* and *those*, adjectives have no inflections to express differences of grammatical number; but most adjectives expressing quality are inflected to denote degrees of quality:

rich	old	many	glad	happy
richer	older	more	gladder	happier
richest	oldest	most	gladdest	happiest

(For spelling, see § 90, Rule III.)

It is of course impossible to compare such adjectives as *all, square, this, each, every, three-sided, twenty*, etc.

187. The Positive Degree denotes the simple quality possessed.

188. The Comparative Degree denotes a higher degree of the quality.

189. The Superlative Degree denotes the highest degree of the quality

190. Methods of Comparison.

All adjectives of one syllable and many of two syllables, if they admit of comparison at all, are compared by adding *er* for the comparative and *est* for the superlative:

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
rich	richer	richest
weak	weaker	weakest
sweet	sweeter	sweetest
heavy	heavier	heaviest
noble	nobler	noblest

Most adjectives of two syllables and all adjectives of more than two syllables, if they admit of comparison, are compared by the use of *more* for the comparative and *most* for the superlative:

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
distinct	more distinct	most distinct
vivid	more vivid	most vivid
western	more western	most western
critical	more critical	most critical
scholarly	more scholarly	most scholarly

191. The Descending Scale.—The two methods of comparison—by *er, est,* and *more, most*—constitute the ascending scale. The descending scale employs *less* and *least:*

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
rich	less rich	least rich
distinct	less distinct	least distinct

192. Irregular Comparison.—(1) The following adjectives are irregularly compared:

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
bad, ill, evil	worse	worst
good	better	best
hind	hinder	hindmost
late	later, latter	latest, last
little	less	least
much	more	most
many	more	most
old	older, elder	oldest, eldest

(2) The following words are adverbs in the positive degree, but change to adjectives in the comparative and superlative degrees:

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
in	inner	innermost, inmost
out	outer, utter	outermost, uttermost, utmost
up	upper	uppermost

193. The Comparative Degree.

The comparative degree is used when two persons or things are compared:

1. This girl is taller than her sister.
2. This pupil is the more intelligent of the two.
3. Which is the better dictionary, Webster's or Worcester's?
4. Of London and New York, the former is the wealthier.
5. Which is the better road to take here?
6. St. Peter's Cathedral is greater than all other cathedrals.

In the last sentence there are still only two things

compared, (1) St. Peter's Cathedral and (2) all other cathedrals. Care must be taken not to omit "other." To say that St. Peter's Cathedral is "greater than all cathedrals" would mean that it is greater than itself.

194. The Superlative Degree.

The superlative degree is used when more than two persons or things are compared:

1. Of the three brothers, Henry is the tallest.
2. Janice is the oldest of the five sisters.
3. Which is the most interesting of these four books?
4. Of London, New York, and Paris, the last is the most beautiful.
5. St. Peter's is the greatest of all cathedrals.

Care must be taken not to use "other" or "any" with the superlative. Never say "He is the richest of all other men in town" or "He is the richest of any man in town." The correct forms are:

6. He is the richest man in town.
7. He is richer than any other man in town.

195. Cautions. — (*a*) We learned in § 175 that the pronoun *each* is singular. When used as an adjective, its noun must of course be in the singular:

each boy, each leaf, each day, each time.

But even when *each* is followed by two or more nouns, the verb must remain in the singular. The same is true of *every,* which is always an adjective:

1. Each man and boy *has* contributed what *he* could.
2. Every man, woman, and child *is* invited.

3. Every nook and corner *was* searched.

4. Every chapter, every paragraph, and every page that *is* in this book *has* been read with the utmost care.

(*b*) Do not overwork your favorite adjectives. Such expressions as *nice, lovely, awful, horrid, awfully nice, perfectly lovely, perfectly awful, perfectly horrid* lose force with every misuse or needless repetition. Instead of overdoing *nice* and *lovely* as applied to persons, give a chance to *agreeable, amiable, attractive, charming, delightful, engaging, entertaining, good-natured, gracious, kind, kind-hearted, lovable, magnetic, pleasant, pleasing, sweet, sweet-spirited, sweet-tempered, unselfish, winning, winsome.* For substitutes for *awful* and *horrid,* read the following paragraph:*

"Awful should not be used of things which are merely disagreeable or annoying, nor of all that are alarming and terrible, but only of such as bring a solemn awe upon the soul, as in the presence of a superior power; as, the awful hush before the battle. That which is awful arouses an oppressive reverence, that which is august an admiring reverence; we speak of the august presence of a mighty monarch, the awful presence of death. We speak of an exalted station, a grand mountain, an imposing presence, a majestic cathedral, a noble mien, a solemn litany, a stately monarch, an august assembly, the awful scene of the Judgment Day."

The *Century Dictionary* speaks of "an awful sight, a dreadful disaster, a fearful leap, a frightful chasm."

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*From Fernald's *English Synonyms, Antonyms, and Prepositions.*

EXERCISES

I

Show by original sentences how the same adjectives may be used as (1) a subject complement, (2) an object complement, and (3) an appositive.

II

Insert an adjective or an adverb in each of the following blanks; give a reason for your choice:

1. This apple tastes ———.
2. Violets smell ———.
3. The struggle for existence weighs ——— on all alike.
4. Your dress sits ——— on you.
5. A man always feels ——— after doing an unselfish act.
6. The air feels ——— to-day.

III

Explain the use of the articles in—

1. He received a unanimous vote.
2. It was an hysterical laugh.
3. The longer he stays away from school, the harder it will be for him to catch up.

IV

Explain the spelling of—

1. hot, hotter, hottest
2. heavy, heavier, heaviest

V

Tell what adjectives you would use in describing—

1. an ideal face for a woman
2. an ideal character for a man

196. How to Parse Adjectives.

To parse an adjective, name (1) its kind, (2) its degree; (3) tell what noun or pronoun it modifies, and (4) when it follows its noun, whether it is used as a subject complement, an object complement, or an appositive.

The adjectives in "That pine tree is taller than any other tree in the field" would be parsed as follows:

That is a demonstrative adjective, has no degree (being incapable of comparison), modifies *tree;*

pine is a descriptive adjective, has no degree, modifies *tree;*

taller is a descriptive adjective, is in the comparative degree, modifies *tree,* is used as a subject complement;

any and **other** are demonstrative adjectives, have no degree, modify *tree.*

It would be equally correct to consider *pine tree* as one compound noun.

EXERCISES

Note the accuracy and appropriateness of the adjectives in these selections. Parse the adjectives in the first paragraph of the second selection. In the first selection, Dr. Van Dyke is comparing some common trees; in the second, Macaulay is describing the character of William of Orange.

I

The spruce, for instance, is a straight-trunked tree that throws out branches that ride upward like crescents, and bear needles that hang downward like fringes. Its outline, when seen in silhouette against the sky, is pyramidal; its

color is dark green, often blue-green when seen from a distance, and at twilight it is cold-purple. The pine is like it, but its branches are not so crescent-shaped, and the needles push outward in clusters rather than droop downward in fringes. It is of a darker color than the spruce, and at night or under shadow it is bluer. The poplar is a tall tree, and often a straight one, but the branches do not swing outward like the pine. They seek rather to grow straight beside the parent stem, and the twigs and the sharp-pointed foliage surround the branches as a loose sleeve the arm of a woman. It is white-trunked, with a leaf that is bright green on one side and silvery green on the other side. The black oak grows a straight trunk with limbs that shoot out almost at right angles; but the white oak and the pin oak are crooked and twisted, their harsh trunks are often broken with boles, and their limbs may take angle lines or prong out like the horns of a deer. Very different from such an angular growth as the oak is the stately elm, its long limbs branching and falling so gracefully, the weeping willow that throws its branches up and over like the spray from a fountain, the round, ball-shaped horse-chestnut, or the long-armed, white-breasted birch of the mountains.

JOHN C. VAN DYKE: *Nature for Its Own Sake*

II

It was remarked that his spirits were never so high and his manners never so gracious and easy as amidst the tumult and carnage of a battle. Even in his pastimes he liked the excitement of danger. Cards, chess, and billiards gave him no pleasure. The chase was his favorite recreation; and he loved it most when it was most hazardous. His leaps were sometimes such that his boldest companions did not like to

follow him. He seemed to have thought the most hardy field sports of England effeminate, and to have pined in the great park of Windsor for the game which he had been used to drive to bay in the forests of Guelders, wolves, and wild boars, and huge stags with sixteen antlers.

The audacity of his spirit was the more remarkable because his physical organization was unusually delicate. From a child he had been weak and sickly. In the prime of manhood his complaints had been aggravated by a severe attack of smallpox. He was asthmatic and consumptive. His slender frame was shaken by a constant hoarse cough. He could not sleep unless his head was propped by several pillows, and could scarcely draw his breath in any but the purest air. Cruel headaches frequently tortured him. Exertion soon fatigued him. The physicians constantly kept up the hopes of his enemies by fixing some date beyond which, if there were anything certain in medical science, it was impossible that his broken constitution could hold out. Yet, through a life which was one long disease, the force of his mind never failed, on any great occasion, to bear up his suffering and languid body.

MACAULAY: *History of England*

VERBS

I—NUMBER AND PERSON

197. Endings for Person and Number.

Compare carefully the following verb forms:

FORMS USED TO-DAY

SINGULAR

1.	I speak	I love	I do	I have
2.	you speak	you love	you do	you have
3.	he speak*s*	he love*s*	he doe*s*	he ha*s*

PLURAL

1.	we speak	we love	we do	we have
2.	you speak	you love	you do	you have
3.	they speak	they love	they do	they have

FORMS USED IN THE BIBLE

SINGULAR

1.	I speak	I love	I do	I have
2.	thou speak*est*	thou lov*est*	thou do*st*	thou ha*st*
3.	he speak*eth*	he lov*eth*	he do*th*	he ha*th*

PLURAL

1.	we speak	we love	we do	we have
2.	ye speak	ye love	ye do	ye have
3.	they speak	they love	they do	they have

The pupil will notice at once that in the Bible the forms denoting present time had more endings than they have in the language of to-day. These endings denoted the person and number of the verbs; the ending *est* or *st* showed that the verb was in the second person singular to agree with its subject *thou,* and the ending *eth* or *th* showed that the verb was in the third person singular to agree with its subject *he* or *she* or *it.* In the English spoken to-day the verb has no ending for the second person singular, and *s* has taken the place of *eth* and *th* as the ending of the third person singular.

These facts teach the following important *principle of syntax:*

198. The verb agrees with its subject in number and person.

199. Meaning of the Principle.

In the whole range of English grammar there is not a more important principle than the one just stated. It is necessary, therefore, to understand exactly what it means. It does not mean that the verb must have a different ending every time the number or person of the subject changes. An ending is a mere label, and the omission of a label does not affect the nature of the thing labeled. As all verbs, with the exception of the verb *to be,* have lost their endings for person and number, except the ending *s,* the formal agreement of the verb with its subject is merely a question of the

right use of *s*. Mistakes in agreement are rarely made when the subject is a personal pronoun; only the most illiterate say *I does*, or *They calls*. But mistakes are frequently made, especially in conversation, when the subject is a noun. As noun subjects are always in the third person singular or third person plural, the verb either ends in *s* or has no ending at all. It ends in *s* when the noun subject is singular; it has no ending when the noun subject is plural:

1. John has finished his task.
2. The men have not finished theirs.
3. Susan's canary lives in a cage.
4. Most birds live in the woods.
5. This child speaks excellent English.
6. Her playmates speak incorrect English.
7. Laurinda loves to play on the piano.
8. Boys love to hunt and fish.
9. My dog does more barking than biting.
10. My neighbor's dogs do nothing but howl.
11. It takes two halves to make a whole.
12. The children take their lunches to school.

EXERCISE

Write ten sentences illustrating the difference between predicates in *s* and predicates without *s*.

200. Compound Subjects.

A subject is plural not only when it consists of one noun or one personal pronoun in the plural number

but also when it consists of two or more members; that is, when it is compound (§ 46):

1. Tennyson and Browning *grow* in popularity the more they are studied.
2. A dog and a cat *do* not often agree well together.
3. The violet and the hyacinth *bloom* about the same time.
4. These parents and their child *have* nothing to live on.
5. He and I *go* to the hospital nearly every day.

NOTE.—The predicate *go* is in the first person plural, because "He and I" is equivalent to *we;* "you and I" is also equivalent to *we.* "You and John," or "You and she," is equivalent to *you* (plural). The person, however, is not important. The chief thing to remember is that compound subjects, whether composed of nouns or of pronouns or of nouns and pronouns, are plural. Their predicates must not end in *s.*

201. The Collective Noun as Subject.

A collective noun takes sometimes a singular predicate, sometimes a plural predicate (§ 99):

1. The jury *has* just retired.
2. The majority *say* that they cannot reach a decision.
3. The committee *decides* unanimously in favor of the affirmative.
4. The people of the United States *take* great interest in political discussions.

202. The Relative Pronoun as Subject.

Relative pronouns, as we have seen (§ 159), have no distinctive forms for singular and plural; but they agree in number with their antecedents (§ 88). If the antecedent, therefore, is plural, the predicate of

the relative clause must be plural; if the antecedent is singular, the predicate must be singular:*

1. The men that *do* things are the men that *succeed.*

2. The boy and girl that *wish* to desk together are brother and sister.

3. The animals that *live* out of doors are hardier than those living indoors.

4. Here is a man who *compels* respect by his very presence.

5. The church on our right, which *has* stood the wear and tear of seventy years, was built during the presidency of Andrew Jackson.

EXERCISES

I

Insert *do* or *does* in each of the following blanks; give a reason for your choice:

1. These debaters ——— not seem to have made much preparation.

2. Is there a boy in the world who ——— not love his mother?

3. The senate ——— not meet this year.

---

*There is one seeming exception to this rule. Irving, for example, writes that the alleged prejudice of Americans against Englishmen is "one of the errors which *has* been diligently propagated." The singular verb in such a sentence is as old as the English language. The plural would not be wrong, but a brief search reveals the singular in the pages of Dryden, Addison, Macaulay, Dickens, Ruskin, Emerson, and Howells. The protest of the grammarian is futile. Besides, the use of the singular shows that the writers are thinking chiefly of *one.* The word *one* dominates what follows it and thus attaches to itself the relative clause which, in point of mere position, would seem to belong with the following plural. The same idiom is found in French and German.

4. Even the captain and mate, who usually ——— not shrink from any danger, have been convicted of cowardice.

5. The prisoner and his accomplice ——— not admit their guilt.

II

Insert *has* or *have* in each of the following blanks; give a reason for your choice:

1. He says that every one of his constituents ——— signed the application (§173).

2. Not one of our neighbors ——— been here (§173).

3. They have recommended every novel and essay that ——— been read (§195).

4. My uncle and my aunt, who ——— been visiting in Atlanta, returned yesterday.

5. Sufficient data ——— not been given to solve the problem (§ 117).

6. Not a boy in the class ——— prepared this lesson thoroughly.

203. Person and Number of Verbs Denoting Past Time.

The verb forms given in § 197 denote present time. The same verbs may be made to denote past or completed action:

	SINGULAR		
1. I spoke	I loved	I did	I had
2. you spoke	you loved	you did	you had
3. he spoke	he loved	he did	he had
	PLURAL		
1. we spoke	we loved	we did	we had
2. you spoke	you loved	you did	you had
3. they spoke	they loved	they did	they had

A glance at these forms shows that the three persons are alike in both numbers. There is no letter *s* to be added; hence no mistake can be made in the forms of person or number. In the older language, *st* or *est* had to be added in the second person singular. The Bible has—

SINGULAR	PLURAL
I spake	we spake
thou spakest	ye spake
he spake	they spake

204. Some Forms of the Verb "to be."

Compare the following forms; observe that those in the first column denote present time, those in the second column past time:

	SINGULAR	
1.	I am	I was
2.	you are	you were
3.	he is	he was
	PLURAL	
1.	we are	we were
2.	you are	you were
3.	they are	they were

205. Contractions.

The following contractions are permissible; the plural forms will suggest themselves:

I am not	I'm not
you are not	you're not, you aren't
he is not	he's not, he isn't

(There is no such word as "ain't.")

I was not	I wasn't
you were not	you weren't
he was not	he wasn't

(Do not pronounce "wasn't" *wuzn't*.)

EXERCISES

I

(1) How many different forms has the verb *to be* to express present time in the singular number?

(2) How does it compare in this respect with other verbs?

(3) How many different forms has it to express past time in the singular number?

(4) How does it compare in this respect with other verbs?

(5) What are the interrogative forms of the contractions given in § 205?

II

(1) Write five sentences using *are* with a compound subject.

(2) Write five sentences using *were* with the relative pronoun *that* as the subject.

206. Agreement of Predicate with Following Subject.

(*a*) When a simple subject (§ 48) follows its predicate (§ 50), care must be taken to make the predicate plural if the subject is plural. Persons who would not say "More than ten boys *is* here already" will often say "There's more than ten boys here already"; but the two sentences are equally incorrect: *are* should replace *is*.

(*b*) Is it wrong to say with Shakespeare "Where *is* Lysander and sweet Hermia"? It would of course be wrong to say "Lysander and Hermia *is* in the house." But when the two nouns follow the predicate, the predicate may in ordinary conversation agree only with the noun nearest it; because in conversation the speaker is not always supposed to have thought through to the end of his sentence. In written discourse, however, the predicate should be plural:

1. There *were* found in the house only a bunch of keys and one rusty coin.

2. There *have* just passed along the street an old man and, a few steps behind him, a wee little mite of a girl.

3. Into every man's life there *come* at least one great sorrow and one supreme opportunity.

207. "Won't" and "Don't."

Both forms are correct, but contractions should be sparingly used in writing. In Middle English (page 10) one could say either "I wil not" or "I wol not." From "wol not" came "won't," as "shan't" came from "shall not." "Won't" is either singular or plural.

"Don't" is from "do not" and must never be used for "doesn't." The following forms are correct:

Singular	Plural
1. I don't	1. we don't
2. you don't	2. you don't
3. he, she, it doesn't	3. they don't

208. Cautions.—(*a*) Do not confuse the functions of "with," "in addition to," "as well as," with the function of "and":

1. Pharaoh, with all of his followers, *was* drowned in the Red Sea.

2. Hard work, in addition to rigid economy, *is* necessary to achieve success.

3. The captain, as well as the soldiers under him, *was* taken prisoner.

(*b*) Remember that such expressions as "Henry or William," "Either Henry or William," "Neither Henry nor William," require a singular predicate:

1. Henry or William *has* left his slate in my desk.

2. Either the mayor or the sheriff *is* bound to attend the meeting.

3. Neither the one nor the other *was* present.

(*c*) If the subject is singular, do not let the predicate be attracted into the plural by the influence of plural nouns standing between the subject and the predicate:

1. The costliness of her dress and jewels *was* evident at a glance.

2. Each of the candidates *was* allowed to speak in the courthouse.

3. He thought that the display of apples and pears *was* unsurpassed.

(*d*) If the subject is plural, do not let the predicate be attracted into the singular by the influence of singu-

lar nouns standing between the subject and the predicate:

1. Three centuries of the New England climate *have* made him quick-witted.

2. The persecutions of the old college bell, which summoned him every morning from a warm bed to a chilly class room, *interrupt* his slumbers no longer.

3. The bearing and expression of the man, though I had never seen him before, *were* strangely familiar.

EXERCISES

I

Fill out the following incomplete sentences:

1. There are ———
2. Here are ———
3. There go ———
4. There's ———
5. There were ———
6. At almost every crisis in American history there have appeared ———
7. Courage, as well as industry, ———
8. The number of men and women present ———
9. Why don't ———?
10. Why doesn't ———?
11. Where are ———?

II

Write five sentences beginning "He doesn't," five beginning "She doesn't." and five beginning "It doesn't."

II—TENSE

209. Illustrations of Tense.

Compare the time denoted by the verbs in these sentences:

1. I *know* where he *is.* (Present)
2. I *saw* him yesterday. (Past)
3. He *will decide* to-morrow. (Future)
4. She *has finished* the task. (Present Perfect)
5. She *had finished* it before you came. (Past Perfect)
6. If you don't hurry, *he will have died* before you get there. (Future Perfect)

Of these six sentences it will be seen that only the present and the past are denoted by one word; the others are phrasal or compound tenses. The words *finished* and *died,* coming after forms of the verb *to have,* are the past participles of *finish* and *die.* The past participle of a verb may be found by placing in front of the verb some tense of *have.* The past participle of *speak* must be *spoken,* because we say *I have spoken, I had spoken,* etc. The naming of the tenses of a verb is a part of its conjugation.

210. The time denoted by a verb is called its Tense.

211. The Present Tense denotes present time.

212. The Past Tense denotes past time.

213. The Future Tense denotes future time.

214. The Present Perfect Tense denotes that the action of the verb is completed in present time.

215. The Past Perfect or Pluperfect Tense denotes that the action of the verb was completed at some past time.

216. The Future Perfect Tense* denotes that the action of the verb will have been completed at some future time.

217. The Past Participle of a verb is the form used after *have*.

218. To Conjugate a verb means to name all of its forms and combinations.

NOTE.—The present tense is often used for the future:

I *leave* to-morrow at 6 A. M.
I *am going* home in a few days.

219. The Tenses of "Sing" and "Love."

The conjugation of the verbs *sing* and *love* through the six tenses will serve as a model for the tense conjugation of all other verbs:

TO SING

PRESENT

Sing.	*Pl.*
1. I sing	1. we sing
2. you sing	2. you sing
3. he sings	3. they sing

PAST

1. I sang	1. we sang
2. you sang	2. you sang
3. he sang	3. they sang

FUTURE

1. I shall sing	1. we shall sing
2. you will sing	2. you will sing
3. he will sing	3. they will sing

*This tense is becoming obsolete. The future tense is supplanting it.

PRESENT PERFECT

Sing.	*Pl.*
1. I have sung	1. we have sung
2. you have sung	2. you have sung
3. he has sung	3. they have sung

PAST PERFECT

1. I had sung	1. we had sung
2. you had sung	2. you had sung
3. he had sung	3. they had sung

FUTURE PERFECT

1. I shall have sung	1. we shall have sung
2. you will have sung	2. you will have sung
3. he will have sung	3. they will have sung

TO LOVE

PRESENT

Sing.	*Pl.*
1. I love	1. we love
2. you love	2. you love
3. he loves	3. they love

PAST

1. I loved	1. we loved
2. you loved	2. you loved
3. he loved	3. they loved

FUTURE

1. I shall love	1. we shall love
2 you will love	2. you will love
3. he will love	3. they will love

PRESENT PERFECT

1. I have loved	1. we have loved
2. you have loved	2. you have loved
3. he has loved	3. they have loved

PAST PERFECT

1. I had loved	1. we had loved
2. you had loved	2. you had loved
3. he had loved	3. they had loved

FUTURE PERFECT

1. I shall have loved	1. we shall have loved
2. you will have loved	2. you will have loved
3. he will have loved	3. they will have loved

220. Tenses Formed with the Help of "to be."

Many verbs have two series of forms for each of the six tenses, but the difference between the two series is most marked in the present tense. In answer to the question, "What is she doing?" no one would say "She sings," but "She is singing." The simple forms, "She *sings* beautifully," or "She *sings* every day," are used when one wishes to assert a customary action or a general truth; but when the speaker wishes his verb to express not a custom or general truth but only continuous or progressive action, some form of the verb *to be* is used with the principal verb:

1. She dances gracefully.
2. She *is dancing* now.
3. They read too many novels.
4. They *are reading* "The Virginians."
5. The sun rises at 5:30 these mornings.
6. The sun *is* already *rising*.

221. The Use of "do" in Compound Tenses.

(*a*) If one wishes to question the assertions "She sings well" and "She sang poorly," he will have to use the verb *do:*

1. Does she sing well?
2. Did she sing poorly?

This may be called interrogative *do.*

(*b*) If he wishes to deny the assertions, he must also employ *do:*

3. She does not sing well.
4. She did not sing poorly.

This may be called negative *do.*

(*c*) If he wishes neither to question nor to deny, but merely to assert strongly, as when somebody else has denied, *do* must again be used:

5. She does sing well.
6. She did sing poorly.

This may be called emphatic *do.*

EXERCISES

I

What is the past participle of *do? see? hope? try? study?*

II

Conjugate through the six tenses the verbs *see* and *try.*

III

What is the difference in meaning between "He

walks rapidly" and "He is walking rapidly"? "He works hard" and "He is working hard"?

IV

Illustrate by sentences the use (*a*) of interrogative *do*, (*b*) of negative *do*, (*c*) of emphatic *do*.

222 "I shall."

The student should cultivate the habit of saying "I shall" instead of "I will" (§ 267). "I will" means "I am determined to" or "I am willing to"; it never denotes simple futurity, as does "I shall." "I'll" is a proper abbreviation for "I will," but not for "I shall." Perhaps the time may come when "I'll be glad to see you" or "I'll be fifteen to-morrow" will be good English; but for the present we must say "I shall" in both cases.

The following sentences are correct and should be read and reread until the pupil's ear has assimilated the sound of "I shall" as a substitute for the almost universal "I will" and "I'll":

1. I shall be sorry to lose you.
2. I shall be at home all the morning.
3. If I stay longer, I'm afraid that I shall be late for school.
4. I shall be greatly surprised if he consents to let us go.
5. I'm not sure that I shall be there.
6. I fear that I shall fail to get through.
7. I shall be sound asleep before ten o'clock.
8. Well, I shall expect you.
9. What shall I do?

10. I shall be greatly disappointed if it rains.
11. I shall be glad to hear from you at any time.

223. The Principal Parts of a Verb.

A glance at the six tenses of *love* shows that its past tense and past participle have the same form, *loved.* This is true of most of the verbs in the English language. Such verbs are called weak because they have to borrow a letter, *d* or *t*. It is otherwise with *sing.* Its past tense is *sang,* its past participle *sung.* It is called a strong verb because it is able, without borrowing, to form its past tense and past participle by change of its own vowel.

Before a verb like *sing* can be conjugated through its six tenses, we must know (1) its present tense, (2) its past tense, and (3) its past participle. When these principal parts are known, any verb can be at once conjugated through all of its tenses.

224. The Principal Parts of a verb are its present tense, its past tense, and its past participle.

225. A Weak Verb forms its past tense by the addition of *ed, d,* or *t* to the present.

226. A Strong Verb forms its past tense by vowel change without the addition of a suffix.

NOTE.—Weak verbs are frequently called regular verbs, and strong verbs irregular; but one class is no more regular or irregular than the other. All newly-coined verbs join the weak class; as, *telegraph, electrotype, electrocute, wire, phone.* It is, therefore, the growing class.

227. Special Class of Weak Verbs.

There are about sixty verbs that in form do not now belong wholly to either class. Their history, however, in Old English and Middle English shows that they are best classed with the weak conjugation.

In learning the following lists of weak and strong verbs, make a short sentence with each principal part. Use "I" for the subject wherever possible; otherwise, "It":

1. I bring now, I brought yesterday, I have brought.
2. It bursts now, it burst yesterday, it has burst.

It is a mere waste of time to rattle off *begin, began, begun,* if you continue to say "I begun it yesterday."

PRESENT TENSE	PAST TENSE	PAST PARTICIPLE
bend	bent	bent
bereave	bereft	bereft
beseech	besought	besought
bet	bet	bet
bleed	bled	bled
breed	bred	bred
bring	brought	brought
burst	burst	burst
buy	bought	bought
cast	cast	cast
catch	caught	caught
cleave (*to split*)	cleft	cleft
cost	cost	cost
creep	crept	crept
cut	cut	cut

PRESENT TENSE	PAST TENSE	PAST PARTICIPLE
feed	fed	fed
feel	felt	felt
flee	fled	fled
have	had	had
hear	heard	heard
hit	hit	hit
hurt	hurt	hurt
keep	kept	kept
kneel	knelt	knelt
lay*	laid	laid
lead	led	led
leave	left	left
lend	lent	lent
let	let	let
lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
meet	met	met
pay	paid	paid
put	put	put
quit	quit	quit
read	read	read
rend	rent	rent
rid	rid	rid
say	said	said
seek	sought	sought
sell	sold	sold
send	sent	sent

*This verb is always transitive and means *to place* or *to set* something in a certain position.

PRESENT TENSE	PAST TENSE	PAST PARTICIPLE
set*	set	set
shed	shed	shed
shoe	shod	shod
shoot	shot	shot
shut†	shut	shut
sleep	slept	slept
slit	slit	slit
spend	spent	spent
spit	spit	spit
split	split	split
spread	spread	spread
sweep	swept	swept
teach	taught	taught
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
thrust	thrust	thrust
weep	wept	wept
wet	wet	wet

*This verb must not be confounded with *sit*, which is always intransitive, except in the phrase "to sit a horse." It is, of course, proper to say "The sun sets" and to speak of the "setting sun." As to a "setting hen," good usage has long ago justified the expression. The grammarians may just as well proclaim a truce; those who raise hens are not going to talk about "sitting hens."

†The student should beware of the expression "to get shut of," which appears more often as "shet of" or "shed of." It is commonly derived from the verb "shut," but was doubtless influenced by the verb "shed." At any rate, it is a vulgarism for which "to get rid of" may always be substituted.

228. Strong Verbs.

The strong verbs number about eighty. Like the preceding weak verbs, they are nearly all words of one syllable and include the verbs most frequently used in everyday speech:

PRESENT TENSE	PAST TENSE	PAST PARTICIPLE
abide	abode	abode
am	was	been
bear	bore	borne
beat	beat	beaten,* beat
begin	began	begun
bid	bade, bid	bidden, bid
bind	bound	bound
bite	bit	bitten, bit
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
chide	chid	chidden, chid
choose	chose	chosen
cling	clung	clung
come	came	come
dig	dug	dug
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen

*If this verb did not have *beaten* for its past participle, it would go into the weak class; but a study of Old English shows that every verb having a past participle ending in *en* or *n* was originally strong.

PRESENT TENSE	PAST TENSE	PAST PARTICIPLE
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
fling	flung	flung
fly	flew	flown
forget	forgot	forgotten, forgot
forsake	forsook	forsaken
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	got†
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grind	ground	ground
grow	grew	grown
hang	hung, hanged*	hung, hanged*

---

†Take care not to use *have got* to denote mere possession or obligation. *Have* expresses the whole idea without the help of *got*. "I have got" means "I have secured (obtained)." The following sentences are correct:

1. Have you a knife?
2. Have you a pencil in your pocket?
3. My brother has one.
4. I have to leave at 4 P. M.
5. Have you permission to go?
6. I tried to get permission, but I haven't got it yet.

*The weak form, *hanged*, is used only of persons; but *hung* is used of persons or things:

1. I hung my hat up.
2. I had hung my hat up.
3. They hanged (or hung) the criminal.
4. They have hanged (or hung) the criminal.

PRESENT TENSE	PAST TENSE	PAST PARTICIPLE
hide	hid	hidden, hid
hold	held	held
know	knew	known
lie (as in *lie down*)	lay	lain
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang, rung	rung
rise	rose	risen
run	ran	run
see	saw	seen
shine†	shone	shone
shrink	shrank, shrunk	shrunk
sing	sang, sung	sung
sink	sank, sunk	sunk
sit	sat	sat
slay	slew	slain
slide	slid	slidden, slid
slink	slunk	slunk
smite	smote	smitten
speak	spoke	spoken
spin	spun	spun
spring	sprang, sprung	sprung
stand	stood	stood
steal	stole	stolen
stick	stuck	stuck
sting	stung	stung
stink	stunk	stunk

†Used transitively, as *to shine shoes*, this verb is weak: *shine, shined, shined.* We may say "He shined my shoes till they fairly shone."

PRESENT TENSE	PAST TENSE	PAST PARTICIPLE
strike	struck	struck
string	strung	strung
strive	strove	striven
swear	swore	sworn
swim	swam, swum	swum
swing	swung	swung
take	took	taken
tear	tore	torn
thrive*	throve	thriven
throw	threw	thrown
tread	trod	trodden, trod
wake†	woke, waked	waked
wear	wore	worn
weave	wove	woven
win	won	won
wind	wound	wound
wring	wrung	wrung
write	wrote	written

*The weak verbs have nearly drawn this verb out of the strong class. It is now equally proper to say *thrive, thrived, thrived.* In a contest of this sort, the weak verbs always have the advantage because they outnumber the strong verbs. It was thus that they won *cleave,* which was formerly strong, with *cleave, clave, cloven* as its principle parts.

†This verb is either transitive or intransitive:

I *waked* (or *woke*) my roommate.
I *waked* (or *woke*) at daybreak.

229. Cautions.—(*a*) Unless the past participle has just been used, do not omit it after *have*. This sentence is correct:

I've seen that man; I'm sure that I have.

Here the past participle *seen* need not be repeated because, having just been used, it may be understood; but in the following sentences the past participles written above the line must be inserted, or the sentence will be ungrammatical:

1. The question is one which has not been ^ and never will be settled.

2. He always has objected ^ and always will object.

3. I never have read ^ and never intend to read that book.

(*b*) Never use a past participle after *done*. Instead of "I've done been there," "He's done gone," etc., say "I've already been there," "He has already gone," etc.

EXERCISES

I

(1) Conjugate through the six tenses the verbs *have, be,* and *do*.

(2) Why is it incorrect to say "I done it," "He come too soon," "I've drank two glasses of ginger ale"?

(3) What verbs have the same form for the three principal parts?

(4) What verbs have two forms for the past tense?

(5) Is there any choice between "It bursted" and "It busted"?

(6) How do the principal parts of *forget* differ from those of *get*?

II

Insert in each of the following blanks some form of *lay* or *lie:*

1. I am going to —— down.
2. —— it down immediately.
3. He —— on his left side.
4. Have you —— it where I told you?
5. How long have you —— in that position?
6. They —— him on the floor.
7. Now I —— me down to sleep.

III

Insert in each of the following blanks some form of *set* or *sit:*

1. —— the kettle down.
2. Won't you —— down?
3. I've —— here more than an hour.
4. We have —— out two new trees.
5. I —— the basket on the ground and then —— down on the steps.
6. She doesn't —— up straight.
7. I shall —— in the porch until you have —— out the cabbage plants.

III—MOOD

230. Illustrations of Mood.

Compare the predicates in these sentences:

1. He *was* here. } (Indicative)
2. *Was* he here? }
3. Oh, that he *were* here. } (Subjunctive)
4. If he *were* here, he would decide for us. }
5. *Come* at once. } (Imperative)
6. *Give* us this day our daily bread. }

The first sentence asserts a fact, or at least a supposed fact; whether the speaker was mistaken or not it does not enter into the province of grammar to say. Grammar always takes a man at his word. *Was* in the second sentence also expresses a fact, an assumed fact; the speaker means to say "Is it a *fact* that *he was here?*" In the third sentence *were* expresses a wish contrary to fact; for "he" is *not* here. In the fourth sentence *were* expresses a condition contrary to fact; for it is evident again, as in the third sentence, that "he" is *not* here. The verbs in the last two sentences express command and entreaty respectively.

231. Mood is the function of a verb that indicates the way in which the action, being, or state of being is thought of.

232. The Indicative is the mood of supposed fact.

233. The Subjunctive is the mood of wish and condition.

234. The Imperative is the mood of command and entreaty.

235. The Indicative Mood.

The six tenses given in § 219 are tenses of the indicative mood. The indicative may almost be called the universal mood. It has encroached steadily upon the subjunctive, so that in ordinary conversation the subjunctive is rarely heard in dependent clauses. The greatest triumph over the subjunctive was achieved when the indicative came to express a condition contrary to fact. Neither in Shakespeare nor in the Bible can you find such sentences as,

If I *was* in your place, I should resign.
If my father *was* alive, all would be different.

The subjunctive *were* had to be used in both conditions. But to-day the indicative *was* is permissible. It is at least as old as Bunyan's *Pilgrim's Progress* (1684). The indicative means, for example, "Suppose now that my father *really was* alive." It is the supposition as a whole that is now felt to be contrary to fact rather than the statement of the verb itself. With this wide extension of its territory, the indicative has annexed what used to be the special province of the subjunctive.

NOTE.—Even in the Bible the indicative, though not in a condition contrary to fact, was beginning to have the same function as the subjunctive:

"Therefore, if thou *bring* thy gift to the altar, and there *remembrest*."

Matthew 5 23.

And Shakespeare, writing about the same time, makes one of his characters say:

"If thou *dost* him anv slight disgrace, or if he *do* not mightily grace himself on thee."

As You Like It, I, 1, 132

236. The Subjunctive Mood.

"The subjunctive mood, as a distinct flexional* form, is passing away. At the beginning of our period it was still in active operation. But now it is more and more neglected in hasty writing, as men find by experience that it is a thing of grace and refinement rather than of necessity. No obscurity results from employing indicative forms through every ramification of the sentence. Modern books no longer exhibit such constructions as:

The men asked whether Simon *were* lodged there.

Acts 10:18

signify to the chief captain that he *bring* him down.

Acts 23:15

The last stronghold of the subjunctive is in certain set phrases, such as, *if I be, if it be, if it were, if he have,* etc. These remarks, however, apply only to prose; for the poet will not relinquish the subjunctive mood: he knows its value too well."†

237. Distinctive Forms of the Subjunctive.

The distinctive forms that have been left to the sub-

*Is Professor Earle an Englishman or an American? See § 91, (4).

†John Earle, *A Simple Grammar of English Now in Use* (1898), page 132.

junctive are best seen in the verb *to be*. Compare the following:

TO BE

PRESENT TENSE

Singular

INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE
1. I am	1. if I be
2. you are	2. if you be
3. he is	3. if he be

Plural

1. we are	1. if we be
2. you are	2. if you be
3. they are	3. if they be

PAST TENSE

Singular

1. I was	1. if I were
2. you were	2. if you were
3. he was	3. if he were

Plural

1. we were	1. if we were
2. you were	2. if you were
3. they were	3. if they were

TO LOVE

PRESENT TENSE

Singular

1. I love	1. if I love
2. you love	2. if you love
3. he loves	3. if he love

Plural

1. we love	1. if we love
2. you love	2. if you love
3. they love	3. if they love

PAST TENSE

Singular

INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE
1. I loved	1. if I loved
2. you loved	2. if you loved
3. he loved	3. if he loved

Plural

1. we loved	1. if we loved
2. you loved	2. if you loved
3. they loved	3. if they loved

238. A study of these tables shows—

(1) That in the present tense of the verb *to be* the subjunctive has all of its forms different from those of the indicative;

(2) That in the past tense it has a distinctive form for two persons (*If I were, If he were*);

(3) That in the present tense of all other verbs it has one distinctive form (*If he love*);

(4) That in the past tense it has no distinctive forms.

It is largely due to its loss of distinctive forms in Middle English times that the subjunctive has ceased to be the vital element in our language that it used to be.

239. The Subjunctive to Express Wish.

The conjunction "if" is no part of the subjunctive, though it is often found with it. In the following examples, except the last, the subjunctive is employed in independent sentences:

1. God bless you!
2. God forgive me!
3. God be with you!*
4. Peace be with you!
5. Woe betide thee!
6. Long live the king!
7. Plague take it!
8. The devil take the hindmost!
9. Oh, that I were back in Dixie!

In the last sentence the indicative might be used; the sense would be the same. But "God blesses you" is a wholly different thing from "God bless you!"

240. The Subjunctive to Express a Possible Condition.

By a possible condition is meant a condition that may or may not be realized. The subjunctive in such a condition denotes a greater degree of uncertainty than the indicative. Our language will be the poorer if we use the indicative in such conditions to the utter exclusion of the more responsive subjunctive:

1. If it *rain* to-morrow [it may or may not], we shall stay at home.

---

*"Good-by" is merely a contraction of this subjunctive wish.

2. If the train *be* late [it may or may not], we shall be in time.

3. If he *come* on time [he may or may not], he will see the race.

4. If it *turn* out to be true [it may or may not], I shall be greatly surprised.

5. If he *be* as rich as he says he is [perhaps he is, perhaps he is not], he has made his money recently.

241. The Subjunctive to Express a Condition Contrary to Fact.

As *were* is the only distinctive form that the subjunctive has to express a condition contrary to fact, this paragraph might be headed *Were vs. Was.* In the expression of an impossible condition there is a fine flavor about *were* that *was* can never have:

1. If it *were* not so rainy, they would call the game.
2. He could do better work, if he *were* not in bad health.
3. I should be glad to accept his offer, if it *were* in my power to do so.
4. She could not look more like you, if she *were* your own sister.

In all these sentences, the indicative is permissible, though it lacks the delicacy and distinction of the subjunctive. There are, however, two conditions contrary to fact in which the indicative should never be used. These are,

5. If I *were* you.
6. *Were* I in your place.

The last is an example of inversion due to the omis-

sion of "If" (§ 50, *d*); *were* would be required in such a construction whatever the following subject might be. But in the preceding condition *was*, though not elegant, would at least be permissible with *he* or *she**.

242. Survival of Subjunctive Forms.

If "the last stronghold of the subjunctive" were only in the set phrases mentioned by Professor Earle in § 236, the mood would be practically obsolete; for not one of those phrases is of frequent occurrence in spoken English. There are, however, a few expressions in which the subjunctive forms are still widely used. Attention has been called to the use of the subjunctive in such expressions as (1) "God bless you," (2) "If I were you," and (3) "Were I in your place." The subjunctive is also used exclusively in (4) "as it were"; the expression means that the word or words to which it refers must not be taken too literally:

1. In his own community he is, *as it were*, a second Goliath of Gath.

2. Our last football game was, *as it were*, a sort of Waterloo for the whole team.

The subjunctive is retained also in (5) the *had* of "had as lief," "had rather," "had better," and "had

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*Prof. Alfred S. West, Fellow of University College, London, in his excellent *Elements of English Grammar* (1893), page 141, says: "We still say 'If I *were* you,' not 'If I *was* you,' and we ought to say, 'If he *were* you,' though 'If he *was* you' is to be heard quite as often. Of these actual or possible uses a book on Grammar must take cognisance."

as soon." These phrases have been used by the best writers for more than four hundred years:

3. I *had rather* hear them scold than fight.

Merry Wives of Windsor II, 1, 239

4. I *had rather* be a doorkeeper in the house of my God, than to dwell in the tents of wickedness.

Psalms 84: 10

5. If you mouth it, as many of our players do, I *had as lief* the town-crier spoke my lines.

Hamlet III, 2, 3

6. I *had rather* live in a purer air than that of controversy.

MATTHEW ARNOLD: *Letter Feb. 19, 1862*

"I had rather live" means "I should *have* (*esteem*) it more agreeable to live."

NOTE.—"In fact," says Professor Harry Thurston Peck in *The Bookman* for February, 1903, "the persistent employment of 'would better' is a perfectly infallible earmark of one who thinks it easier to exploit a few linguistic catchwords than to go to work and make a serious study of his mother tongue." It should be said, however, that at least Walter Savage Landor, Robert Browning, and Dr. Henry Sweet have put themselves on record as preferring "would rather" to "had rather."

243. Subjunctive Phrases.

Though the subjunctive has lost most of its distinctive forms, it must not be thought that twentieth century English is incapable of expressing what used to be expressed by the subjunctive. Even if *is* and *was* are not exact equivalents of subjunctive *be* and *were*, there are phrasal equivalents in which the old sub-

junctive meaning seems to be reproduced with scarcely an appreciable loss. It may be said, therefore, that while the subjunctive has surrendered most of its forms, it has delegated many of its functions. This is especially true of the present tense of the subjunctive. Compare the following sentences:

1. If the train *be* late. (Subjunctive)
   If the train *is* late. (Indicative)
   If the train *should be* late.

2. If it *turn* out to be true. (Subjunctive)
   If it *turns* out to be true. (Indicative)
   If it *should turn* out to be true.

3. Though he *slay* me. (Subjunctive)
   Though he *slays* me. (Indicative)
   Though he *should slay* me.

4. Although it *seem* incredible. (Subjunctive)
   Although it *seems* incredible. (Indicative)
   Although it *may seem* incredible.

The question to be answered is, whether the phrasal predicates, *should be, should turn,* etc., are subjunctive or indicative. Nothing in their form enables us to decide; but as they seem to express a greater degree of uncertainty than the preceding indicative, it is best to call them subjunctive phrases rather than indicative phrases.

The same may be said of *might have been, could have been,* and *would have been.* They express what

did *not* take place and are therefore more subjunctive than indicative.

244. The Imperative Mood.

The imperative has only one tense, the present, and only one person, the second; but it has both numbers:

1. John, *sit* up straight. (Singular)
2. Now, boys, *play* ball. (Plural)

It has no distinctive forms, its singular and plural being always the same. Like the other moods, it requires *do* to help form its negative. Nobody now says "Touch me not" but "Don't touch me." *Do* is also used in affirmative sentences when the command or entreaty is emphatic:

3. *Do help* me in this matter.
4. *Do come* to see me as soon as you can.

When the command is affirmative the subject, if expressed, precedes the predicate (§ 50, *d*, Note):

5. Tom, *you put* that hatchet right where you got it.
6. Henry, *you come* and help your father.

But if the command is negative, the subject follows *don't* (§ 50, *d*):

7. *Don't you* say a word.
8. *Don't you* hurt him.

EXERCISES

I

Give the present subjunctive of *to sing, to have, to do.*

II

(1) Are you able to say whether or not you have ever used the subjunctive in writing or speaking?

(2) Do you habitually say "If I were you," or "If I was you?" Which should you say?

III

(1) Does the present subjunctive refer usually to present or to future time?

(2) Does the past subjunctive refer to past or to present time?

(3) Do the words "past" and "present" apply, then, to the form or to the function of the subjunctive?

(4) Do you think the subjunctive will be used as much in the year 1950 as it is now?

IV

(1) Why is the imperative used only in the second person?

(2) Why has it no past tense?

IV—VOICE

245. The Two Voices (§57-§59).

We have already learned that there are two voices, the active and the passive; that the active voice represents the subject as acting, while the passive represents the subject as acted upon. Knowing the functions of the two voices, let us compare their forms.

246. The Forms of the Two Voices Compared.

The passive voice has the same six tenses that the active voice has, but in the passive all of the tenses are phrasal. In other words, every predicate in the passive is a compound predicate made up of some tense of the verb *to be* joined to a past participle. The passive has also the three moods of the active, but the passive imperative is rarely used. It is not often that anybody says "Be killed" or "Be seen" or even "Be helped."

From the following outline of the active and passive voices in the first person singular, the other forms may easily be supplied:

INDICATIVE MOOD

Active Voice	Passive Voice
Present Tense	
I choose	I am chosen
Past Tense	
I chose	I was chosen
Future Tense	
I shall choose	I shall be chosen
Present Perfect Tense	
I have chosen	I have been chosen
Past Perfect Tense	
I had chosen	I had been chosen
Future Perfect Tense	
I shall have chosen	I shall have been chosen

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

If I choose	If I be chosen

PAST TENSE

If I chose	If I were chosen

IMPERATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

Choose	Be chosen

NOTE.—English makes a greater use of the passive voice than does any other modern language; but the progressive forms are confined to (1) the present indicative, (2) the past indicative, and (3) the past subjunctive:

1. I am being chosen.
2. I was being chosen.
3. If I were being chosen.

EXERCISES

I

In the lists of weak and strong verbs given in § 227 and § 228 find those that have a passive conjugation.

II

Give the complete passive conjugation of *to choose*.

III

Give (*a*) the past indicative passive of *beseech*, (*b*) the present subjunctive active of *catch*, (*c*) the future indicative passive of *teach*, (*d*) the past perfect indicative passive of *tell*, and (*e*) the present indicative passive, progressive form, of *hold*.

V—THE INFINITIVES

247. The Double Nature of the Infinitive.

The verb has hitherto been studied as a predicate, but there are forms of the verb that cannot be used as predicates. What is to be said of the dictionary form of a verb? The dictionary does not define *loved* or *began* or *tries* or *has seen* or *was deceived.* It defines *to love, to begin, to try, to see, to deceive.* And we speak of these verbs as the verb *to love,* the verb *to begin,* etc., though we may omit *to. To love,* for example, cannot be used as a predicate, because it merely names the action; but the strangest thing about such a form is that it is both noun and verb:

To love flowers is an evidence of refined taste.

To love is certainly a noun in this sentence, because it is the subject of the sentence; it is certainly a verb, because it takes the direct object *flowers.* This verbal noun is called the **infinitive.**

248. The Infinitive is a verbal noun which names action, being, or state of being, but does not assert it.

249. Tenses and Voices of the Infinitive.

The infinitive is incapable of number and person, because number and person imply a subject; it is incapable also of mood, because mood means manner of asserting, and the infinitive cannot assert. The infinitive has only voice and tense, the tenses being limited to two. If the verb is intransitive it cannot, of course,

have a passive infinitive. Compare the following forms of the infinitive:

Active Voice	Passive Voice
Present Tense	
to love	to be loved
to sing	to be sung
to be	
to do	to be done
Present Perfect Tense	
to have loved	to have been loved
to have sung	to have been sung
to have been	
to have done	to have been done

250. The Infinitive in "ing."

Instead of *to* with the infinitive we may often substitute a form ending in *ing*. This is called the infinitive in *ing:*

1. { To love / Loving } is better than { to hate. / hating.
2. { To see / Seeing } is { to believe. / believing.
3. His first difficulty was { to get out. / getting out.
4. Both of them like { to be out of doors. / being out of doors.

When (*a*) a possessive or (*b*) an article or (*c*) an adjective precedes the infinitive, the form in *ing* is

required. It is required also (*d*) after most prepositions:

(*a*) His coming so soon surprised us.

(*b*) The capturing of that animal was a bold piece of work.

(*c*) Successful doing means careful planning.

(*d*) 1. We are just about { to start. / starting.

2. We learn to do by doing.

3. I wish to think longer about it before making a definite promise.

4. This horse is better for hauling than for riding.

251. The Functions of the Infinitive.

Though the infinitive in itself is incomplete and dependent, its double nature gives it a great variety of functions. It may be used,—

(1) As Subject, especially with expletive *It* (§ 50, *c*):

To return good for evil is a lesson rarely learned.
His errorless *catching* saved the game.
It is easy *to find* fault.
'Tis only noble *to be good.*

(2) As Subject Complement:

To bear our fate is *to conquer* it.
It was proved *to be a mistake.*
The noblest vengeance is *to forgive.*
It was thought *to have been destroyed.*

(3) As Direct Object:

He prefers *going.*
Learn *to labor* and *to wait.*

(4) As the Object of a Preposition:

She was about *to fall* when I caught her.

After *loading* their guns they calmly awaited the approach of the enemy.

(5) As an Adjective modifying a preceding noun:

His determination *to succeed* carried him through all difficulties.

Ability *to please* is rarer than ability *to instruct.*

In the world *to come* such things may be.

(6) As an Adverb:

That's hard *to do.*

Is it good *to eat?*

When did he go *to see* her?

(7) In the Absolute Construction:

To make a long story short, our plan failed.

His achievements, *to use* Hood's words, were pigmy; but his promises were *hogmy.*

(8) As Object Complement:

They made him *fight.*

We chose him *to be our leader.*

I saw them *start.*

We heard her *sing.*

The officer ordered the prisoner *to be punished.*

NOTE.—In the sentences cited under (8), the noun or pronoun preceding the infinitive is usually said to be the subject of the infinitive; and the subject of the infinitive is further said to be in the objective case. But the infinitive in English cannot properly be said to have a subject. If the student has rightly understood § 63, he will see that the nouns and pronouns preceding the infinitives in (8) are not subjects but

direct objects. They are the direct objects of the principal verbs *plus* the object complements:

1. They made [to] fight whom? Him.
2. We chose to be our leader whom? Him.
3. I saw [to] start whom? Them.
4. We heard [to] sing whom? Her.
5. The officer ordered [to be] punished whom? The prisoner.

252. The Case of the Pronouns following "to be."

(1) When the infinitive *to be* is part of an object complement, the noun or pronoun that follows it and completes its meaning is in the objective case:

He took me *to be him.*
I know the prisoner *to be him.*
Do you believe this girl *to be her?*
Whom do you consider the stranger *to be?*
(You consider the stranger *to be whom?*)

(2) When the infinitive *to be* is part of a subject complement, the noun or pronoun that follows it and completes its meaning is in the nominative case:

I was taken *to be he.*
My sister was believed *to be I.*
It was known *to be she* who did it.
He was chosen *to be* our *secretary.*
If anybody is to blunder, it's certain *to be he*
Who were they considered *to be?*
(They were considered *to be who?*)

(3) The two principles may be grouped by remembering that the infinitive *to be* takes the same case after it as before it:

He took *me* to be *him.*
I was taken to be *he.*

253. Cautions.—(*a*) Do not confound such a sentence as "*Whom* did you take him to be?" with "*Who* did you think that he was?" In the second sentence there is no infinitive, *who* being subject complement after *was:* "You thought that he was *who?*"

(*b*) Do not insert an adverb between *to* and the infinitive. This construction, known as "the cleft infinitive" or "the split infinitive," is sometimes used by good writers; but it has never been sanctioned by the general practice of the best writers. Correct the following sentence:*

Hubert was determined *to* energetically and on all possible occasions *oppose* any attempt to entangle him with such.

EXERCISES

I

(*a*) What is the difference in meaning between "I'm glad *to see* you" and "I'm glad *to have seen* you"?

(*b*) Read the following sentences very carefully and tell which expresses the more accurately what the speaker means to say:

1. If he had had sense enough *to get* out of the way, he would not have been hurt.
2. If he had had sense enough *to have got* out of the way, he would not have been hurt.

II

Write five sentences showing how *to* and the infinitive may be replaced by the infinitive in *-ing*.

*Cited by Andrew Lang in *How to Fail in Literature*, page 25.

III

Write two sentences employing *to be he* and *to be they;* two employing *to be him* and *to be them.* Explain the construction in each.

VI—THE PARTICIPLE

254. The Double Nature of the Participle.

The participle, like the infinitive, lacks the power of asserting and combines the functions of two parts of speech: it is both adjective and verb:

1. A mocking bird, *singing* in the yard, was her chief delight.
2. The robber, *having snatched* the pistol from his victim's hand, fired the fatal shot.
3. She went away *sorrowing.*
4. *Unawed* by opinion, *unseduced* by flattery, *undismayed* by disaster, he confronted life with antique courage, and death with Christian hope.

In each of these sentences the participle is a verb: it expresses action though it does not assert it. It is at the same time an adjective modifying the subjects "mocking bird," "robber," "She," and "he."

255. The Participle is a verbal adjective which does not assert action, being, or state of being but expresses it in such a way as to modify a noun or pronoun.

NOTE.—This definition does not include the past participle after *have,* but even here the participle was once adjectival. In Old English the past participle after *have* sometimes agrees in gender, number, and case with the direct object.

Compare "I have already written my theme" and "I have my theme already written." In the first, *have written* represents a single idea: it is a three-syllabled predicate; but in the the second, *written* has slipped away from *have* and gone over to *theme.*

It may be said, therefore, that even the past participle after *have* is in origin a verbal adjective and is occasionally so used to-day.

256. Tenses and Voices of the Participle.

The participle is used in both voices; it has three tenses in the active and three in the passive:

ACTIVE VOICE	PASSIVE VOICE
PRESENT	
loving	being loved
singing	being sung
becoming	
sleeping	
catching	being caught
PAST	
loved	loved
sung	sung
become	
slept	
caught	caught
PRESENT PERFECT	
having loved	having been loved
having sung	having been sung
having become	
having slept	
having caught	having been caught

Notice (*a*) that in the active voice the present parti-

ciple and the present perfect participle often have the same function, and (*b*) that in the passive voice all three tenses often have the same function:

(*a*) { Mounting / Having mounted } his horse, the bandit rode off.

(*b*) The prisoner, { being caught / caught / having been caught } in the very act, confessed his guilt.

257. The Functions of the Participle.

Apart from its use in verb phrases, the participle has nearly the same functions as the adjective. It may be used,—

(1) As Subject Complement:

He lay *sleeping*
He sat *buried* in thought.

(2) As Object Complement:

They admitted themselves *defeated.*
I saw him *running.*
She left that subject *untouched.*

(3) In the Absolute Construction:

The bell *having rung,* we hastened to our seats.
Cornwallis intrenched himself at Yorktown, his attempt on North Carolina { *proving* / *having proved* } unsuccessful.

(4) As an Appositive (§ 178 (*c*) and Note):

It was a period of history *illuminated* by great names and *producing* memorable works.

Hearing his voice and *knowing* that he did not care to be interrupted, we passed on.

He discussed the question elaborately, *giving* example after example and *commenting* patiently on every difficult point.

The participles under (4) are appositive modifiers of "period," "we," and "He" respectively. It will be seen that the appositive participle may take the place of a relative clause, as in the first sentence; of an adverbial clause, as in the second sentence; and of a regular predicate ("gave," "commented"), as in the third sentence.

258. The Participle as an Element of Style.

The participle is used more frequently in English than in any other language. Its pictorial power in description and its ease and swiftness in narration have made it an indispensable element in the style of every modern English writer. "Gathering round the chosen subject as a focus and radiating from it in all directions, this part of speech produces the effect of a medallion, or a cameo, or a star, which gives a fine illumination to the narrative."* This is true more especially of the appositive participle.

259. The Appositive Participle as a Means of Relative Emphasis.

What is the defect in each of the following sentences?

1. I met my friend on the street and I knew that he too

*Earle's *English Prose*, page 189.

was very fond of fishing and I asked him to go with me to the creek.

2. The hunter cocked his gun and crouched low in the grass and waited for the lion to approach nearer.

3. I made my purchases and bought my ticket and boarded the first train that passed.

Compare with these sentences:

4. Meeting my friend on the street and knowing that he too was very fond of fishing, I asked him to go with me to the creek.

5. Cocking his gun and crouching low in the grass, the hunter waited for the lion to approach nearer.

6. Having made my purchases and bought my ticket, I boarded the first train that passed.

Every reader must feel that the last three sentences are superior to the first three; they are superior chiefly because the emphasis is better distributed. In 1, 2, and 3 each fact is stated in the same way and with the same emphasis; but in 4, 5, and 6 the participle gathers up what is merely preliminary and thus permits the emphasis to fall on the predicates "asked," "waited," and "boarded." Each sentence is like a three-syllabled word, the accent of which ought to be placed on the last syllable; the participle lets us place it there.

260. Cautions. — (*a*) Do not confound the present participle with the infinitive in *-ing*. The one is a verbal adjective, the other a verbal noun. Instead of "What's wrong in *me* going?" "I don't like *him*

coming so often," "He spoke of *us* being there," say,—

1. What's wrong in *my* going?
2. I don't like *his* coming so often.
3. He spoke of *our* being there.

(*b*) Do not leave a present participle suspended in mid-air. It must have a noun or pronoun to modify. Instead of "Not liking the looks of the place, it was decided to go on," "Being very tired, the game was stopped," "Leaving home at 6 A. M., the journey was finished before sunset," say,—

1. Not liking the looks of the place, *we* decided to go on.
2. Being very tired, the *boys* stopped the game.
3. Leaving home at 6 A. M., *they* finished the journey before sunset.

But "considering," "judging," "owing," and "speaking" are used without having a noun or pronoun to modify. In the following sentences, these words, though participles in form, are prepositions in function:

4. Considering all the circumstances, it is best to stay where we are.
5. Judging by his looks, this fellow is an escaped convict.
6. Owing to the rain, it was decided to postpone the game.
7. Speaking generally, it may be said that he excels in description.

EXERCISES

I

Give all the participles of *do, go, burst, have, get, sit, set, lie, lay, boycott.*

II

Illustrate by original sentences four functions of the participle.

III

What is the function of the participle in these lines from Southey's *Cataract of Lodore?* Pronounce each final *g* distinctly:

Retreating and beating and meeting and sheeting,
Delaying and straying and playing and spraying,
Advancing and prancing and glancing and dancing,
Recoiling, turmoiling and toiling and boiling,

* * * * * * * *

And thumping and plumping and bumping and jumping,
And dashing and flashing and splashing and clashing;
And so never ending, but always descending,
Sounds and motions for ever and ever are blending
All at once and all o'er, with a mighty uproar,—
And this way the water comes down at Lodore.

IV

Illustrate § 259 by five original sentences.

VII—AUXILIARIES

261. Verb Phrases.

Our study of the verb has shown us that the English language is peculiarly dependent upon verb phrases. With the exception of the present and past tenses of the active voice, every tense in both voices is composed of a verb phrase, that is, of a principal verb preceded by a helping verb. And even the present and past

tenses of the active voice are phrasal when they denote progressive action:

1. He *is doing* his best.
2. I *was watching* them all the time.

These helping or auxiliary verbs are *be, have, do, may, can, must, ought, shall,* and *will.* Notice that the auxiliaries are all one-syllabled words.

262. An Auxiliary Verb is one that helps the principal verb in forming tense, mood, or voice.

263. Principal Parts of the Auxiliaries.

Most of the auxiliaries are defective, or lacking in one or more of the three principal parts:

PRESENT TENSE	PAST TENSE	PAST PARTICIPLE
am	was	been
have	had	had
do	did	done
may	might	
can	could	
must		
ought		
shall	should	
will	would	

The past tenses *might, could, should,* and *would* are past only in form, not in function. "I might go" is no more past in meaning than "I may go." We can modify each predicate by "now" (present) or "to-morrow" (future), but not by "yesterday" (past). There was a time, however, when *might, could, would,*

and *should* denoted past time as truly as *was, had,* and *did.* Their last letters, *t* and *d,* are the same *t* and *d* found in the past tense of other weak verbs.

A peculiarity of *may, can, must, ought, shall,* and *will* is that they do not add and never have added *s* for their third person singular.

NOTE.—By associating with these auxiliaries, *need* and *dare* have learned to dispense with their final *s* in the third person singular:

1. No preacher need moralize on this story.
2. He dare not say it in my presence.

264. "May" and "Can."

Can implies that the subject is *able* to do something:

1. He can ride bareback.
2. Can you swim?

It is not often that a person has occasion to say "Can I?" A patient might say to the doctor, "Can I [= Shall I be able to] sit up to-morrow?" But the doctor would be certain to think that he meant "May I?"

May should be used instead of *can* in asking or granting permission, but not in refusing it:

3. May I go home?
4. You may go at recess.
5. May I visit Robert?
6. No, you can't go to-day; you may go to-morrow.
7. Ask her if I may sit with you.

265. "Might" and "Could."

These two words follow the rules for *may* and *can.*

After the past tense of a verb of saying or asking, *may* becomes *might* and *can* becomes *could:*

1. Mother said we might go.
2. They asked their teacher if they might go out for a few minutes.
3. She told them that they couldn't go yet but might go later.
4. We were told that we might desk together if we wouldn't talk.

266. "Ought."

Ought with the present infinitive expresses present obligation; with the perfect infinitive it expresses past obligation. Not having a past tense itself, it makes the infinitive express its past time:

1. He ought *to be* here now.
2. He ought *to have been* here yesterday.

"Hadn't ought" is incorrect because *ought* has no past participle, and cannot, therefore, be used with *have;* you might as well say "hadn't must" or "hadn't may."

267. "Shall" and "Will."

(*a*) Read again the sentences in § 222. You will find that in not one of them can you substitute "I am willing to" or "I am determined to" for "I shall." When willingness or determination is to be expressed, "I will" must be used instead of "I shall":

1. I will give you $10 for it. (*Willingness*)
2. I will taste it, in spite of you. (*Determination*)
3. I will share with you. (*Willingness*)

4. I will fight it out on this line if it takes all summer. (*Determination*)
5. If you say so, I will go. (*Willingness*)
6. If it takes me all night, I will finish this book before I stop. (*Determination*)
7. All right, I will furnish half. (*Willingness*)
8. You may interrupt me, but I will be heard. (*Determination*)
9. I will write it, if you will read it. (*Willingness*)
10. I will not budge an inch. (*Determination*)

(*b*) Questions are asked in the first person by "Shall I?" never by "Will I?"

1. Shall I help you?
2. Shall I hail him?

(*c*) Questions are asked in the second person by "Shall you?" when "I shall" would be the proper answer, and by "Will you?" when "I will" would be the proper answer. When the question, in other words, is one of mere futurity, *shall* is used; when the question is one of willingness, *will* is used:

1. Shall you be sorry when I go?
   Certainly, I shall.
2. Shall you be busy to-morrow?
   I shall be at leisure until 12 o'clock.
3. Shall you start Monday or Tuesday?
   I shall start as soon as possible.
4. If he marries her, shall you be greatly surprised?
   No, I shall be surprised if he doesn't marry her.
5. Shall I call for you or shall you call for me?
   I shall call for you.

6. Will you go driving with me if it doesn't rain?
   I will go if I feel well enough.
7. If I call at 5 P. M. will you play for me?
   I will a little later.
8. Will you promise to wait for me?
   I will promise on certain conditions.
9. Will you please hand Robert this book?
   Certainly, I will.
10. Will you stand by and see your own sister imposed on?
    No, I won't.

268. "Should" and "Would."

These two words follow the rules for *shall* and *will*. After the past tense of a verb of saying or thinking, *shall* becomes *should* and *will* becomes *would:*

1. I shall be 12 years old to-morrow.
   He said that he should be 12 years old to-morrow.
2. I shall be greatly surprised if the project fails.
   He told us that he should be greatly surprised if the project failed.
3. My sister will return next June.
   Lewis remarked to me that his sister would return next June.
4. If you wish me to stay, I will stay.
   She assured me that if I wished her to stay she would stay.

EXERCISES

I

Insert *may* or *can* in each of the following blanks; give a reason for your choice:

1. ——— Charles and Henry go fishing with us?

2. Charles ——— go, but Henry ———n't go till he has finished his lessons.

3. Ask her if I ——— sit with you.

4. She says you ———.

II

Insert *might* or *could* in each of the following blanks; give a reason for your choice:

1. Who told you that you ——— hunt on these grounds?

2. Mr. Wharton said that we ——— hunt here whenever we pleased.

3. Julius said that he ——— hold out eighteen pounds.

4. I was sure that I ——— beat him running.

III

Insert *shall* or *will* in each of the following blanks; give a reason for your choice:

1. ——— I go for a doctor?

2. We ——— not be satisfied unless our team wins by a large score.

3. ——— you be our guest during commencement?

4. I ——— do as I please.

5. If you prefer it, I ——— assign the lesson now.

6. If the boat turns over, we ——— all be drowned.

IV

Insert *should* or *would* in each of the following blanks; give a reason for your choice:

1. She said that she ——— be alarmed if we did not return before dark.

2. The preacher said that he ——— break the news to the boy's father.

3. They assured us that they ——— be less afraid after this.

4. He promised that he ——— never desert us.

5. They wired that they ——— expect him the next day.

6. They intimated that they ——— bear their part of the expense.

269. How to Parse Verbs and Verb Phrases.

To parse a verb used as a predicate, name (1) its kind (whether transitive or intransitive, weak or strong), (2) its principal parts, (3) its person and number, (4) its tense, (5) its mood, and (6) its voice.

If the verb is an infinitive or a participle, name (1) its tense, (2) its voice, and (3) its function in the sentence.

Do not separate a verb phrase into its parts; parse the whole phrase as a form of the tense or mood or voice of the principal verb.

The verbs in "I have seen his picture as it was taken at this time," would be parsed as follows:

Have seen is a phrasal form of the verb *to see; to see* is a transitive verb belonging to the strong conjugation; its principal parts are *see, saw, seen;* it is here used in the first person, singular number, to agree with its subject *I;* it is in the present perfect tense, indicative mood, active voice.

Was taken is a phrasal form of the verb *to take; to take* is a transitive verb belonging to the strong conjugation; its principal parts are *take, took, taken;* it is here used in the third person, singular number, to agree with its subject *it;* it is in the past tense, indicative mood, passive voice.

EXERCISES

Study the verbs and verb phrases in the following selections:

I

From November, 1810, George III ceased to reign. All the world knows the story of his malady: all history presents no sadder figure than that of the old man, blind and deprived of reason, wandering through the rooms of his palace, addressing imaginary parliaments, reviewing fancied troops, holding ghostly courts. I have seen his picture as it was taken at this time, hanging in the apartment of his daughter, the Landgravine of Hesse Hombourg—amidst books and Windsor furniture, and a hundred fond reminiscences of her English home. The poor old father is represented in a purple gown, his snowy beard falling over his breast—the star of his famous Order still idly shining on it. He was not only sightless: he became utterly deaf. All light, all reason, all sound of human voices, all the pleasures of this world of God, were taken from him. Some slight lucid moments he had; in one of which, the Queen, desiring to see him, entered the room, and found him singing a hymn, and accompanying himself at the harpsichord. When he had finished, he knelt down and prayed aloud for her, and then for his family, and then for the nation, concluding with a prayer for himself, that it might please God to avert his heavy calamity from him, but if not, to give him resignation to submit. He then burst into tears, and his reason again fled.

What preacher need moralize on this story? what words save the simplest are requisite to tell it? It is too terrible for tears. The thought of such a misery smites me down in submission

before the Ruler of kings and men, the Monarch Supreme over empires and republics, the inscrutable Dispenser of life, death, happiness, victory. "O brothers," I said to those who heard me first in America—"O brothers! speaking the same dear mother tongue—O comrades! enemies no more, let us take a mournful hand together as we stand by this royal corpse, and call a truce to battle! Low he lies to whom the proudest used to kneel once, and who was cast lower than the poorest: dead, whom millions prayed for in vain. Driven off his throne; buffeted by rude hands; with his children in revolt; the darling of his old age killed before him untimely; our Lear hangs over her breathless lips and cries, 'Cordelia, Cordelia, stay a little!'

'Vex not his ghost: O, let him pass! he hates him much
That would upon the rack of this tough world
Stretch him out longer!'

Hush! Strife and Quarrel, over the solemn grave! Sound, trumpets, a mournful march. Fall, dark curtain, upon his pageant, his pride, his grief, his awful tragedy."

THACKERAY: *The Four Georges*

II

The little Dauphin is ill; the little Dauphin is dying. In all the churches of the kingdom the Holy Sacrament remains exposed night and day, and great tapers burn, for the recovery of the royal child. The streets of the old capital are sad and silent, the bells ring no more, the carriages slacken their pace. In the neighborhood of the palace the curious townspeople gaze through the railings upon the beadles with gilded paunches, who converse in the courts and put on important airs.

All the castle is in a flutter. Chamberlains and major-domos run up and down the marble stairways. The galleries

are full of pages and of courtiers in silken apparel, who hurry from one group to another, begging in low tones for news. Upon the wide perrons the maids of honor, in tears, exchange low courtesies and wipe their eyes with daintily embroidered handkerchiefs.

A large assemblage of robed physicians has gathered in the Orangery. They can be seen through the panes waving their long black sleeves and inclining their periwigs with professional gestures. The governor and the equerry of the little Dauphin walk up and down before the door awaiting the decision of the Faculty. Scullions pass by without saluting them. The equerry swears like a pagan; the governor quotes verses from Horace.

And meanwhile, over there, in the direction of the stables, is heard a long and plaintive neighing; it is the little Dauphin's sorrel, forgotten by the hostlers, and calling sadly before his empty manger.

And the King? Where is his Highness the King? The King has locked himself up in a room at the other end of the castle. Majesties do not like to be seen weeping. For the Queen it is different. Sitting by the bedside of the little Dauphin, she bows her fair face, bathed in tears, and sobs very loudly before everybody, like a mere draper's wife.

On the bed embroidered with lace the little Dauphin, whiter than the pillows on which he is extended, lies with closed eyes. They think that he is asleep; but no, the little Dauphin is not asleep. He turns towards his mother, and seeing her tears, he asks:

"Madame la Reine, why do you weep? Do you reallv believe that I am going to die?"

The Queen tries to answer. Sobs prevent her from speaking.

"Do not weep, Madame la Reine. You forget that I am the Dauphin, and that Dauphins cannot die thus."

The Queen sobs more violently, and the little Dauphin begins to feel frightened.

"Holloa!" says he, "I do not want Death to come and take me away, and I know how to prevent him from coming here. Order up immediately forty of the strongest lansquenets to keep guard around our bed! Have a hundred big cannons watch day and night, with lighted fuses, under our windows! And woe to Death if he dares to come near us!"

In order to humor the royal child, the Queen makes a sign. At once the great cannons are heard rolling in the courts, and forty tall lansquenets, with halberds in their fists, draw up around the room. They are all veterans, with grizzly mustaches. The little Dauphin claps his hands on seeing them. He recognizes one, and calls:

"Lorrain! Lorrain!"

The veteran makes a step towards the bed.

"I love you well, my old Lorrain. Let me see your big sword. If Death wants to fetch me, you will kill him, won't you?"

Lorrain answers:

"Yes, Monseigneur."

And two great tears roll down his tanned cheeks.

At that moment the chaplain approaches the little Dauphin, and pointing to the crucifix, talks to him in low tones. The little Dauphin listens with astonished air; then, suddenly interrupting him:

"I understand well what you are saying, Monsieur l'Abbé; but still, couldn't my little friend Beppo die in my place, if I gave him plenty of money?"

The chaplain continues to talk to him in low tones, and the little Dauphin looks more and more astonished.

When the chaplain has finished, the little Dauphin resumes, with a heavy sigh:

"What you have said is all very sad, Monsieur l'Abbé; but one thing consoles me, and that is that up there, in the Paradise of the stars, I shall still be the Dauphin. I know that the good God is my cousin, and cannot fail to treat me according to my rank."

Then he adds, turning towards his mother:

"Bring me my fairest clothes, my doublet of white ermine, and my pumps of velvet! I wish to look brave to the angels, and to enter Paradise in the dress of a Dauphin."

A third time the chaplain bends over the little Dauphin, and talks to him in low tones. In the midst of his discourse the royal child interrupts him angrily.

"Why, then," he cries, "to be Dauphin is nothing at all!"

And refusing to listen to anything more, the little Dauphin turns towards the wall and weeps bitterly.

ALPHONSE DAUDET: *The Death of the Dauphin*

ADVERBS

270. Adverbs as Modifiers.

We have learned (§ 34) that adverbs are used to modify (*a*) verbs, (*b*) adjectives, and (*c*) other adverbs. These uses may be called the three functions of adverbs. Further examples are:

(*a*) 1. Lucy dances *gracefully.*
2. Shakespeare wrote *rapidly.*
3. *Why* did you say that?
4. He *never* tried it again.
5. He *always* and *everywhere* proclaimed that he had *not* committed the theft.

(*b*) 6. Mary Queen of Scots was *indescribably* fascinating.
7. I was *particularly* careful not to hurt his feelings.
8. It was a *singularly* untimely death.
9. Your friend was *unreasonably* angry.
10. Are you *quite* sure of it?

(*c*) 11. Do not walk *so* rapidly.
12. She spoke *half* jestingly.
13. *Pretty* soon I met him again.
14. They talk *very* confidently about it.

271. Kinds of Adverbs.

When classified according to their meaning, adverbs fall chiefly into four divisions. They denote—

(1) Time:

now, then, afterwards, often, sometimes, rarely, seldom, frequently, never, always, when?, once, to-day, to-morrow, etc.

(2) Place:

here, there, in, out, above, below, far, near, where?, yonder, astern, aloft, etc.

(3) Manner:

slowly, surely, thus, foolishly, splendidly, terribly, greedily, wearily, how?, well, badly, awkwardly, satisfactorily, etc.

(4) Degree:

much, little, almost, quite, rather, somewhat, partly, wholly, very, not, exceedingly, barely, etc.

Adverbs of manner outnumber the other classes and are usually formed by the addition of *ly* to adjectives.

272. Adverbs of Time answer the question "When?" or "How often?"

273. Adverbs of Place answer the question "Where?"

274. Adverbs of Manner answer the question "How?" or "In what way?"

275. Adverbs of Degree answer the question "To what degree?" or "To what extent?"

276. Comparison of Adverbs.

(*a*) Adverbs ending in *ly* form the comparative and superlative by the use of *more* and *most* respectively:

slowly, more slowly, most slowly.

(*b*) Adverbs of one syllable form the comparative and superlative by adding *er* and *est* respectively:

fast, faster, fastest; soon, sooner, soonest; loud, louder, loudest.

(*c*) Many adverbs, such as *now, here, thus, wholly,* etc., are incapable of comparison.

277. Irregular Comparison.—A few adverbs are irregular in their comparison:

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
badly	worse	worst
well	better	best
little	less	least
much	more	most

278. Adverbs and Adjectives.

As shown in the preceding paragraph many adverbs have the same form as adjectives, but in function the two are different:

1. This is a *fast* horse. (Adjective)
2. This train travels *fast.* (Adverb)
3. The amount was *less* than I had expected. (Adjective)
4. James studies *less* than formerly. (Adverb)

After certain copulative verbs, such as *turn, look, feel, appear,* either an adverb or an adjective may be used. For the difference in meaning, see § 180. For *well* and *badly* used as adjectives, see § 181.

279. The Double Negative.

Two negatives sometimes make good sense, as "*Nobody* is content to do *nothing*"; but they usually make nothing but bad English:

INCORRECT	CORRECT
I haven't seen nobody.	I haven't seen anybody. I have seen nobody.
He hadn't never been there before.	He had never been there before.
I haven't seen him nor his brother.	I haven't seen him or his brother. I have seen neither him nor his brother.
I hadn't scarcely sat down before he came in.	I had scarcely sat down before he came in.
She didn't have but one.	She had but one.
He couldn't hardly talk.	He could hardly talk.

280. Misplaced Adverbs.

Adverbs should be placed as near as possible to the words that they modify. This rule is most frequently violated in the placing of *only* and *even*. They should be placed immediately before the word, phrase, or clause that they modify:

INCORRECT	CORRECT
I only have two left.	I have only two left.
He was even praised by Washington.	He was praised even by Washington.
He's only on duty at night.	He's on duty only at night.
I only did what you told me to do.	I did only what you told me to do.

NOTE.—For the position of adverbs used with the infinitive, see § 253, (*b*).

281. Caution.—Do not confound adjectives in *ly* with adverbs in *ly*. We cannot say "She treated me friendly" or "She talked lovely" or "He acted silly." We must say,

1. He treated me in a friendly manner.
2. She talked in a lovely manner.
3. He acted in a silly manner.

EXERCISES

I

In which of the four classes are to be found most of the adverbs that may be compared? Name ten adverbs that are incapable of comparison.

II

Construct sentences illustrating the use of *badly, much, worse,* and *least* first as adjectives, then as adverbs.

III

Explain the functions of *only* in these sentences:

1. He only loaned me five dollars.
2. He loaned me only five dollars.
3. He only hinted it to me.
4. He hinted it only to me.
5. I only saw him yesterday.
6. I saw him only yesterday.

IV

Write five adverbial phrases (§ 74, *d*); five adverbial clauses (§ 84).

282. How to Parse Adverbs.

To parse an adverb name (1) its class, (2) its degree, and (3) the word, phrase, or clause that it modifies.

EXERCISE

Parse the adverbs in the following selection:

When Turner's picture of Cologne was exhibited in the year 1826, it was hung between two portraits, by Sir Thomas Lawrence, of Lady Wallscourt, and Lady Robert Manners. The sky of Turner's picture was exceedingly bright, and it had a most injurious effect on the color of the two portraits. Lawrence naturally felt mortified, and complained openly of the position of his pictures. You are aware that artists were at that time permitted to retouch their pictures on the walls of the Academy. On the morning of the opening of the exhibition, at the private view, a friend of Turner's who had seen the Cologne in all its splendor, led a group of expectant critics up to the picture. He started back from it in consternation. The golden sky had changed to a dun color. He ran up to Turner, who was in another part of the room. "Turner, *what* have you been doing to your picture?" "Oh," muttered Turner, in a low voice, "poor Lawrence was so unhappy! It's only lamp black. It'll all wash off after the exhibition!" He had actually passed a wash of lamp black in water color over the whole sky, and utterly spoiled his picture for the time, and so left it through the exhibition, lest it should hurt Lawrence's.

RUSKIN: *Lectures on Architecture*

PREPOSITIONS

283. Prepositions and Adverbs.

The prepositions most frequently used are *about, above, after, against, along, among, around, at, before, behind, below, beneath, beside, by, concerning, during, except, for, from, in, into, of, off, on, through, under, until, upon, within, without.* It will be seen that most of these may be used also as adverbs:

1. He's not strong enough to walk *about* much.
2. Suppose we go *above* for a few minutes.
3. This happened two days *after.*

Remembering that transitive means "having the power to pass over" (§ 55), we may say that many adverbs are nothing more than intransitive prepositions, while the corresponding prepositions are transitive adverbs.

284. Prepositions as Connectives.

Prepositions are usually placed immediately before their objects. They connect their objects with some preceding word or phrase in the sentence. In "He laid his hand upon me," *upon* is a preposition connecting its object *me* with the predicate *laid:* it shows the relation between *me* and *laid.* The object of a

preposition is always a noun or a noun equivalent; it may be (*a*) a word, (*b*) a phrase, or (*c*) a clause:

(*a*) 1. It hangs over the *door.*
2. We spoke to *them.*
3. I shall be ready by *then* (= that time).
4. They started from *here* (= this place).

(*b*) 5. She was about *to fall.*
6. It sold for *more than a quarter.*
7. The question of *how to do it* remains unsettled.
8. The train did not start until *twenty minutes past eight.*

(*c*) 9. It all depends upon *what he intends to do.*
10. I speak only of *what I have seen.*
11. It's a question of *whether we can get permission.*

285. Prepositional Phrases and Phrasal Prepositions. Compare the italicized groups of words in these sentences:

(*a*) 1. They were caught *in the act.*
2. This house has been entered *by a burglar.*

(*b*) 3. *By way of* change, let's play two on a side.
4. She was absent *on account of* sickness.

The italicized groups in (*a*) are prepositional phrases, because they are introduced by prepositions; the italicized groups in (*b*) are phrasal prepositions, because each phrase performs the function of a preposition. Other phrasal prepositions are *apart from, as regards, because of, by means of, in addition to, in place of, in spite of, instead of, with regard to.*

286. A Prepositional Phrase is a phrase introduced by a preposition.

287. A Phrasal Preposition is a preposition consisting of a phrase.

288. The Position of Prepositions.

Grammarians used to say that a preposition is a bad word "to end a sentence with"; but while prepositions usually precede their objects they frequently come last in the clause or sentence. It is proper to say:

1. The man I was talking *to* is my brother?
2. Where did he come *from?*
3. What hotel is he stopping *at?*
4. This is the gun that I shot *with.*
5. The affair was very much talked *about.*

NOTE.—In the sentences just cited the so-called prepositions may be considered as adverbs joined to the verb and forming compound or phrasal predicates. In "The man whom I was talking to," *to* may be called an adverb or a preposition; but in "The man that I was talking to," *to* can hardly be a preposition since *to that* is not English.

289. "Than" and "But" as Prepositions.

The best writers of to-day use *than* as a preposition only in the *than whom* construction (§ 164), and *but* as a preposition only when it means *except:*

1. For a while Clive thought himself in love with his cousin, *than whom* no more beautiful girl could be seen.

2. He found himself in the camp of Richard the Lion-Hearted, *than whom* none knew better how to do honor to a noble foe.

3. There's nobody here but me.

4. All were injured in the railroad wreck but us two.
5. I saw everybody but her.

290. Caution.—Do not use *at* with *where*, or *to* with *different*. These sentences are correct:

1. Where was he?
2. I hardly know where I am.
3. The book is different from what I expected.
4. He is different in every way from his brother.

EXERCISES

I

Name ten prepositions that may be used as adverbs.

II

Why is *who* used instead of *whom* in "The question of ownership depends on *who* paid the money"?

III

Why is it incorrect to say "John is taller than me"? (§ 164).

291. How to Parse Prepositions.

To parse a preposition, name the words or groups of words between which the preposition shows a relation.

EXERCISE

Parse the prepositions in the following selection:

The greatness of Stonewall Jackson was an unconscious greatness. It was the supreme devotion to what he thought was duty. Hence he studied no dramatic effects. When among the mountains, pyramids older than those to which

the first Napoleon pointed, he did not remind his men that the centuries were looking down upon them. When on the plains he drilled no eagles to perch upon his banners, as the third Napoleon is said to have done.

The letter written to his pastor at Lexington the day after the first battle of Manassas gives the keynote to his character. Preceding any accurate account of that event, a crowd had gathered around the post office, awaiting with intensest interest the opening of the mail. The first letter was handed to the Rev. Dr. White. It was from General Jackson. "Now we shall know all," said his reverend friend. But he opened the letter to read:

My Dear Pastor:

In my tent last night, after a fatiguing day's service, I remembered that I had failed to send you my contribution to our colored Sunday school. Inclosed you will find my check for that object.

Yours faithfully,

Thomas J. Jackson.

Not a word about a conflict which electrified a nation! Not an allusion to the splendid part he had taken in it! Not a reference to himself beyond the fact that it had been a fatiguing day's service! And yet that was a day ever memorable in his history—memorable in all history—when he received the name destined to supplant the name his parents gave him,—Stonewall Jackson * * * * * * * * * * * *

In the state where all that is mortal of this great hero sleeps there is a natural bridge of rock whose massive arch, fashioned with grace by the hand of God, springs lightly toward the sky, spanning a chasm into whose awful depths the beholder looks down bewildered and awe-struck. But its gran-

deur is not diminished because tender vines clamber over its gigantic piers or because sweet flowers nestle in its crevices. Nor is the granite strength of Jackson's character weakened because in every throb of his heart there was a pulsation ineffably and exquisitely tender. The hum of bees, the fragrance of clover fields, the tender streaks of dawn, the dewy brightness of early spring, the mellow glories of matured autumn, all in turn charmed and tranquilized him. The eye that flashed amid the smoke of battle grew soft in contemplating the beauty of a flower. The ear that thrilled with the thunder of the cannonade drank in with innocent delight the song of birds and the prattle of children's voices. The voice whose sharp and ringing tones had so often been heard uttering the command, "Give them the bayonet!" culled even from foreign tongues terms of endearment. And the man who filled two hemispheres with his fame was never so happy as when telling the colored children of his Sunday school the story of the Cross.

MOSES D. HOGE: *The Unconscious Greatness of Stonewall Jackson*

CONJUNCTIONS AND INTERJECTIONS

292. Kinds of Conjunctions.

Compare the conjunctions in the following sentences:

1. Robert *and* Josephine were called, *but* they did not come.
2. They would have been rewarded, *if* they had come.

In the first sentence *and* connects two equal or coördinate words; *but* connects two equal or coördinate clauses. *And* and *but* are coördinate conjunctions.

In the second sentence, *if* introduces a dependent clause and joins it to an independent clause. *If* is a subordinate conjunction.

293. A Coördinate Conjunction is one that joins words, phrases, or clauses of equal rank.

294. A Subordinate Conjunction is one that joins a dependent clause to an independent clause.

295. Coördinate Conjunctions.

It was found in § 49, Note, and § 80, Note, that the conjunctions most used in compound subjects, compound predicates, and compound sentences were *and, both...and, but, or, either...or, nor, neither...nor.* To these may be added *as well as* and *not only...but also.* These are all coördinate conjunctions, and may,

therefore, connect (*a*) words, (*b*) phrases, or (*c*) clauses:

(*a*) 1. He was both *expelled* and *degraded.*

2. *She* as well as *Henry* was angry.

(*b*) 3. The stone went *through the window* and *into the car.*

4. He was a man not only *of fine scholarship* but *of equally fine character.*

(*c*) 5. Either *I have been here before,* or *my memory is playing me false.*

6. Not only *did he protest his innocence,* but *his parents had numerous interviews with the judge.*

NOTE.—Remember that "John as well as James," "Either John or James," and "Neither John nor James" all require singular predicates. See § 208, (*a*) and (*b*).

296. Subordinate Conjunctions.

With the exception of relative pronouns (§ 162) all words that join dependent clauses to independent clauses are subordinate conjunctions. For the ten most important classes of subordinate conjunctions, see § 84. Noun clauses are usually introduced by the surbordinate conjunction *that.* (§ 85, Notes 1 and 2).

297. Interjections.

An interjection is merely an exclamatory word or phrase used to denote strong feeling or to arrest attention. Many interjections are purely imitative. Thus *ah* represents the sound of sighing, *ha, ha* the sound of laughing, and *sh* (from which *hush* is derived) the

sound made to impose silence. Others are contractions; as,

adieu (I commend you *to God*); hail (be thou *hale* or *healthy*); good-by (*God be with you*); *zounds* (God's *wounds*).

Such expressions as "Good gracious!" "My stars!" "What a shame!" "All right!" are best classed as phrasal interjections.

The interjection does not modify any particular word or phrase in the sentence. It flavors the whole sentence. It gives the speaker's point of view. Compare,

1. Hurrah! here he is.
2. Alas! here he is.

298. "Oh" and "O."

The distinctions made by grammarians between *oh* and *O* are not borne out by the best usage. "There is no difference between *O* and *oh* except that of present spelling, *oh* being common in ordinary prose, and the capital *O* being rather preferred (probably for its round and more impressive look) in verse, and in the solemn style, as in earnest address or appeal."—*Century Dictionary.*

299. Cautions.—(*a*) Take care not to misplace the parts of *either...or, neither...nor, not only...but also.* They should immediately precede the words, phrases, or clauses that they join. Instead of "I shall either visit New York or Chicago," "I neither spoke

to him nor to his father," "He not only declared that he was rich, but that he was the richest man in the community," say,—

1. I shall visit either New York or Chicago.
2. I spoke neither to him nor to his father.
3. He declared not only that he was rich, but that he was the richest man in the community.

(*b*) Be sparing in your use of interjections. The presence of many *ah's, oh's, alas's,* and *alackaday's* is an admission that your sentences have not force or meaning enough to stand alone. Such words are like the hired mourners spoken of in the Bible. Which of these sentences shows the better taste?

1. Alas! alas! Henry W. Grady died at the time when his services were most needed.
2. Henry W. Grady died at the time when his services were most needed.

EXERCISES

I

Name the nine most important coördinate conjunctions.

II

Show how *and* may join (1) words, (2) phrases, and (3) clauses.

III

Name, giving two conjunctions from each class, the ten classes of subordinate conjunctions introducing adverbial clauses.

IV

Show how *that* may be used as three parts of speech.

V

Illustrate by original sentences the right placing of *either...or, neither...nor, not only...but also.*

300. How to Parse Conjunctions and Interjections.

To parse a conjunction, tell (1) whether it is coördinate or subordinate; (2) if subordinate, name its class; (3) point out the words, phrases, or clauses that it joins.

Interjections are not to be parsed. Tell, however, in each case, what seems to you the exact force of the interjection. Does it express joy, amusement, surprise, indignation, ridicule, contempt, pain, regret, terror, or compassion? Or is it used as a means of appeal, or to enforce quiet, or to attract the attention of some one whom the speaker wishes to address?

EXERCISES

I

Parse the conjunctions in the following selection:

The American people have learned to know, as never before, the quality of the Southern stock, and to value its noble contribution to the American character; its courage in war, its attachment to home and State, its love of rural life, its capacity for great affection and generous emotion, its aptness for command; above all, its constancy, that virtue above all virtues, without which no people can long be either great or

free. After all, the fruit of this vine has a flavor not to be found in other gardens. In the great and magnificent future which is before our country, you are to contribute a large share both of strength and beauty.

The best evidence of our complete reconciliation is that there is no subject that we need to hurry by with our fingers on our lips. The time has come when Americans—North, South, East, and West—may discuss any question of public interest in a friendly and quiet spirit, without recrimination and without heat, each understanding the other, each striving to help the other, as men who are bearing a common burden and looking forward with a common hope. I know that this is the feeling of the people of the North. I think I know that it is the feeling of the people of the South. In our part of the country we have to deal with the great problems of the strife between labor and capital, and of the government of cities where vast masses of men born on foreign soil, of different nationalities and of different races, strangers to American principles, to American ideas, to American history, are gathered together to exercise the unaccustomed functions of self-government in an almost unrestricted liberty. You have to deal with a race problem rendered more difficult still by a still larger difference in the physical and intellectual qualities of the two races whom Providence has brought together.

If there be a single lesson which the people of the country have learned from their wonderful and crowded history, it is that the North and the South are indispensable to each other. They are the blades of mighty shears, worthless apart, but when bound by an indissoluble Union, powerful, irresistible, and terrible as the shears of Fate; like the shears of Atropos, severing every thread and tangled web of evil, cutting out for

humanity its beautiful garments of Liberty and Light from the cloth her dread sisters spin and weave.

SENATOR GEORGE F. HOAR: *The North and the South*

II

What is the force of the interjections in the following sentences?

O God! it is a fearful thing
To see the human soul take wing
In any shape, in any mood.—

BYRON: *Prisoner of Chillon*

Alas, the love of woman! it is known
To be a lovely and a fearful thing.—

BYRON: *Don Juan*

Hark! from the tomb a doleful sound.—

WATTS: *Hymn* 63

Oh, weep for the hour
When to Eveleen's bower
The lord of the valley with false vows came.—

THOMAS MOORE: *Eveleen's Bower*

Alas! it is not till time, with reckless hand, has torn out half the leaves from the Book of Human Life to light the fires of passion with from day to day, that man begins to see that the leaves which remain are few in number.—

LONGFELLOW: *Hyperion*

Ah, why
Should life all labor be?

TENNYSON: *The Lotos-Eaters*

Alack, when once our grace we have forgot,
Nothing goes right.—

Measure for Measure, III, 4

Alackaday, Cousin Biddy, these idle romances have quite turned your head.—

STEELE: *The Tender Husband*

At such an assertion he would have exclaimed *a fiddlestick!* Why and how that word has become an interjection of contempt I must leave those to explain who can.—

SOUTHEY: *The Doctor*

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